PERCEIVED AND BEHAVIOURAL CONSEQUENCES OF SOCIAL IDENTITY

LEADERSHIP IN PERFORMANCE SETTINGS

MATTHEW JOHN SLATER

A thesis submitted in the partial fulfillment of the requirement of Staffordshire University for the

degree of Doctor of Philosophy

July 2014

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

CONTENTS

ABSTRACT

The social identity approach to leadership asserts it is the shared connection between leader and group that forms the foundation of successful leadership. Specifically, in social identity leadership it is proposed effective leaders create a unified team identity that group members feel a part of, and an emotional connection with. The purpose of this thesis was to examine the effect of values associated with social identities (i.e., contents of identity) on group members' behavioural mobilisation (e.g., time spent practicing) and task performance, and to examine leadership techniques to enhance effective leadership. Five studies are reported in three empirical chapters. Chapter two reported how leaders' media communication focussed on team identities, values, and visions to mobilise TeamGB athletes towards peak performance and motivate public support at the London 2012 Olympic Games. Chapter three adopted a multi-study approach to examine the effect and meditational pathways of shared and contrasting identity values on perceived leadership effectiveness, behavioural mobilisation, and task performance, together with examining the influence of leadership techniques (i.e., power through and power over strategies) on the creation of shared values under typical conditions and following failure. Chapter three results indicated shared values associated with group identity were found to increase perceived effectiveness, behavioural mobilisation, and task performance compared to contrasting values. Further, behavioural mobilisation partially mediated the positive relationship between shared values and improved task performance. In addition, data showed under conditions of contrasting values leaders are better able to create shared values by adopting a power through, as opposed to a power over, approach and these positive effects were broadly maintained following failure. Chapter four recruited all the rugby teams from an intact league to explore how shared values relate to mobilisation of effort, and how leaders emerge as a centre of

influence longitudinally. Chapter four findings demonstrated the importance of multiple shared values, while group (e.g., strong team bond) individual-level (e.g., empowerment) factors linked multiple shared values to high levels of mobilisation. Theoretical explanations of findings are provided in chapter five and related to collective mind, social support, and the social identity approach to leadership (e.g., social identity threat). This thesis makes an original and significant contribution to the field of leadership by evidencing how shared values within a group identity behaviourally mobilise group members to achieve the collective vision, and how power through leadership is most effective in creating shared values.

LIST OF TABLES

LIST OF FIGURES

PREFACE

This thesis includes manuscripts published, in press, and in preparation while data has been presented at national and international conferences. Details of the thesis outputs are as follows:

Articles

Slater, M. J., Evans, A. L., & Barker, J. B. (2013). Using social identities to motivate athletes towards peak performance at the London 2012 Olympic Games: Reflecting for Rio 2016. *Reflective Practice: International and Multidisciplinary Perspectives, 14* (5), 672-679. doi: 10.1080/14623943.2013.835725.

Slater, M. J., Coffee, P., Barker, J. B., & Evans, A. L. (2014). Promoting shared meanings in group memberships: A social identity approach to leadership in sport. *Reflective Practice: International and Multidisciplinary Perspectives, 15* (5), 672-685. Chapter one.

Slater, M. J., Barker, J. B., Coffee, P., & Jones, M. V. (in press). Leading for Gold: Social identity leadership processes at the London 2012 Olympic Games. *Qualitative Research in Sport, Exercise, and Health.* Accepted 15th June, 2014. http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/2159676X.2014.936030. Chapter two.

Slater, M. J., Coffee, P., Barker, J. B., Steffens, N., & Haslam, S. A. (in prep). Leaders' ability to mobilise the group: Contents of identity. *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology.* Chapter three.

Slater, M. J., Barker, J. B., & Coffee, P. (in prep). Identity leadership in action: Converging and multiple contents relate to mobilisation across a competitive season. *British Journal of Social Psychology.* Chapter four.

Invited Talks

Slater, M. J. (2014). Promoting motivation and well-being through social identity leadership. Presentation delivered at the Health and Well-being Conference: Strategies, Research, and Challenges, Staffordshire University in May 2014.

Conferences

Coffee, P., Evans, A. L., Slater, M. J., & Barker, J. B. (2014). Mobilisation and performance of group members: Experimental effects of social identity contents. Presentation to be delivered at the European Association for Social Psychology Conference in July 2014.

Slater, M. J., Coffee, P., Barker, J. B., & Evans, A. L. (2013). Social identity leadership research: Engaging and mobilising sports teams. Symposium chaired and delivered at the Division of Sport and Exercise Psychology Conference in December 2013.

Evans, A. L., Coffee, P., Barker, J. B., & Slater, M. J. (2013). The importance of athletes' meanings of groups. Symposium delivered at the Division of Sport and Exercise Psychology Conference in December 2013.

Slater, M. J., Barker, J. B., & Coffee, P. (2013). Recent developments in social identity leadership research in competitive sport. Presentation delivered at the Inaugural Postgraduate Research Student Conference, Staffordshire University in June 2013.

Slater, M. J., Coffee, P., & Barker, J. B. (2013). Applying the social identity approach to leadership in sport: The role of social identity content. Presentation delivered at the BPS Annual Conference in April 2013.

The knowledge gained from the literature reviewed for this thesis has additionally informed the publication of the following articles:

Slater, M. J. (2014). When representing the group triumphs over experience: A case study of Ryan Giggs the manager. *Sport and Exercise Psychology Review, 10* (3), 95-98.

Fransen, K., Coffee, P., Vanbeselaere, N., Slater, M. J., De Cuyper, B., & Boen, F. (in press). Do athlete leaders affect team members' team outcome confidence? A test of mediation by team identification and collective efficacy. *The Sport Psychologist*. Accepted April, 2014.

Barker, J. B., Evans, A. L., Coffee, P., Slater, M. J., & McCarthy, P. J. (in press). Consulting on tour: A dual-phase personal-disclosure mutual-sharing intervention and group functioning in elite youth cricket. *The Sport Psychologist.* Accepted October, 2013.

Slater, M. J., & Jones, M. V. (2014). Sporting Forum: Will it be England United in Rio 2014? *The Psychologist, 27* (7), 473.

Evans, A. L., Slater, M. J., Turner, M. J., & Barker, J. B. (2013). Using personal-disclosure mutual-sharing to enhance group functioning in a professional soccer academy. *The Sport Psychologist, 27* (3), 233-243.

STRUCTURE OF THE THESIS

The purpose of this section is to outline the structure of this thesis and to provide a rationale for the mixed method approach used in the programme of research. First, as all studies in this thesis are in preparation, under review, or in press each chapter has an extended introduction as would be typically found in an empirical article. As a consequence, some repetition, along with additional detail regarding leadership research and social identity theory, may be present in the introduction of chapters two, three, and four. In other words, chapters two, three, and four represent stand-alone empirical papers, and this is reflected in the level of detail provided, particularly in each chapter's introduction.

Second, this thesis adopted a mixed method research approach to examine and offer an original contribution to the social identity analysis of leadership (see Haslam, Reicher, & Platow, 2011). Leech and Onwuegbuzie (2009, p. 236) defined mixed method approaches as "collecting, analysing, and interpreting quantitative and qualitative data in a single study or a series of studies that investigate the same underlying phenomenon". Indeed, McGannon and Schweinbenz (2011) have contended researchers should move beyond the qualitative-quantitative divide, while mixed method designs are an established approach that Hagger and Chatzisarantis (2011) have argued provide researchers with the opportunity to more comprehensively explain the research topic of interest. Thus, mixed method designs are able to enhance understanding further compared to research adopting solely a qualitative or quantitative approach. This is a view of mixed methods echoed also by leadership theorists (e.g., Chemers, 2003) yet combining qualitative and quantitative designs is seldom evident in leadership literature and thus provides part of the rationale for mixed method approach used in this thesis. Specifically, in the current thesis the mixed method approach sought to enhance understanding of social identity leadership and offer

practical implications through diverse research methods in three empirical chapters. The research design used in each empirical chapter will now be discussed.

Chapter two employed a qualitative design to explore the media communication of TeamGB leaders at the London 2012 Olympic Games. A qualitative approach was used in light of calls within social identity leadership (e.g., Haslam et al., 2011) and leadership literature more broadly (e.g., Avolio, Walumbwa, & Weber, 2009) for researchers to embrace qualitative designs given that qualitative methodologies allow for studies in new contexts and provide opportunities for the discovery of novel and unexpected phenomena (Sparkes & Smith, 2014). In particular, chapter two analysed media data from TeamGB leaders, which would not have been possible using a quantitative approach, and reflects leaders natural environment (e.g., media interviews are an expected and familiar part of TeamGB leaders' role and responsibilities).

Next, chapter three was informed by and extended the findings of chapter two through a quantitative design in three experimental studies: one hypothetical and two laboratory experiments. This experimental approach is typical of social identity leadership literature (e.g., van Knippenberg & van Knippenberg, 2005) and allowed for control of variables and conditions, together with an examination of meditational effects, providing high internal validity. Chapter four adopted a qualitative approach to complement and enhance findings from chapter three. In particular, in chapter three a quantitative approach showed expected differences and relationships between variables and in chapter four a grounded theory methodology was adopted to explore the factors that could explain why and how these variables were positively linked (i.e., contents of identity related positively to mobilisation of effort). In other words, as advocated in literature (e.g., Hagger & Chatzisarantis, 2011) the qualitative approach explored the mechanisms of

change and thus provided a deeper insight the underpinnings of individuals' behaviours, together with generating a theory grounded in data that complemented and extended the relationships found through quantitative assessment (Moran, Matthews, & Kirby, 2011).

In sum, as advocated by Moran et al. (2011) this thesis adopts a mixed method approach to provide further and novel insights into the social identity approach to leadership and to complement quantitative assessments of variables. In particular, the weaknesses of one approach (e.g., qualitative; limited control of extraneous variables) are addressed by the strengths of the other (e.g., quantitative; high levels of control over variables and conditions). Accordingly, the mixed method approach evidenced in this thesis allowed for triangulation through an assessment of whether qualitative and quantitative designs brought about similar or contrasting findings. Thus, the quantitative and qualitative designs in this thesis both complement and extend one another to offer an original contribution to the social identity analysis of leadership.

CHAPTER 1: LITERATURE REVIEW

1.1 Introduction

The global nature of leadership is evident throughout human life including business, politics, and sport. Given that leadership transcends human experience the scientific examination of leadership has received considerable attention. For instance, 752 leadership research articles were published between the years of 2000-2012 across ten top-tier journals (Dinh et al., 2014). Research examining leadership is pertinent because leaders play a crucial role in determining the fulfillment of groups' goals in business, political, and sport contexts (Hogg & van Knippenberg, 2003). Numerous theories and approaches to leadership (see Dinh et al., 2014) have been proposed to understand and explain effective leadership, and to improve leadership effectiveness in practice. The purpose of this chapter is to outline leadership theory and research to provide a context for the emergence of the social identity approach to leadership synthesised by Haslam, Reicher, and Platow (2011). The literature review starts with an overview of how leadership has been defined before detailing early and more recent leadership theory. Then the social identity approach and four principles of social identity leadership are discussed, after which a summary and aims of the thesis are provided.

1.2 Defining Leadership

Leadership theorists have proposed a multitude of leadership definitions (Northouse, 2010). Some contemporary definitions of leadership include:

- "a process whereby an individual influences a group of individuals to achieve a common goal" (Northouse, 2010, p. 3).

- "a process of social influence in which one person is able to enlist the aid and support of others in the accomplishment of a common task" (Chemers, 2000, p. 27).

- "a process of influence that enlists and mobilizes the involvement of others in the attainment of collective goals" (Hogg, 2001, p. 194).

- "a social process in which interacting individuals coordinate their actions to achieve shared goals" (van Vugt, 2006, p. 355).

Collectively, these definitions demonstrate that leadership: (i) is a process; (ii) involves influence; (iii) occurs in groups; and (iv) involves common goals. To elaborate, leadership as a process means that interactions between leaders and group members are inextricable and is therefore unlikely to be a characteristic reserved for designated leaders; leadership involving influence means that leaders can affect group members to act for the greater good of the group or otherwise; leadership occurring in groups places the topic as a social process within which the context is integral; and leadership involving common goals concerns how leaders facilitate group members' efforts and abilities to achieve a mutual purpose. Accordingly, aligned with the definitions of leadership noted above, this thesis defines leadership on these four dimensions.

1.3 Early Leadership Theory

Early leadership studies focussed on the personality characteristics of leaders. The great man approach (e.g., Weber, 1946; 1947) argued leadership was a quality that some individuals possess, making them distinctive and special, whereas others do not. In particular, researchers sought to establish qualities that set leaders apart from other individuals. A small number of characteristics have been found to distinguish leaders from typical group members (e.g., intelligence, self-confidence, and alertness; Stogdill, 1948), however, empirically few personality

traits have been found to predict leadership (Mann, 1959). Further, although some aspects of personality correlate with leadership (e.g., talkativeness; Mullen, Salas, & Driskell, 1989), there is yet to be an agreed culmination of traits required for effective leadership. For example, the number of distinctive traits for successful leadership has been argued to lie between four and fifty-eight (Haslam et al., 2011; Peters & Haslam, 2008). Accordingly, there is great variation in the number and the precise traits that determine great leaders, while forty years ago scholars asserted that across one-hundred and sixty studies, personality is a poor correlate of leadership (Stogdill, 1974). The relationship between personality and leadership was highly variable and poor, with the strongest predictor of leadership behaviours found to be intelligence, accounting for 5% of the variance in leadership (Mann, 1959).

Despite early research attention individualistic approaches that focussed on the personality traits of successful leaders were soon refuted (Stogdill, 1948) primarily because of a lack of focus on the situation within which leadership occurs. As a result, there was a theoretical move to focus on the role of the environment in leadership processes. Such situational perspectives contended any individual could become a leader when the context was correct for them. This second wave of leadership research built on Stogdill's (1948) review by focussing on how leaders' behave within situations and whether these actions were task or relationship-orientated (Vecchio, 1987). The situational perspective argued leaders' effectiveness would hinge upon whether their style of leadership corresponds with the situation, in other words, leaders' behaviour should best meet the demands of the situation. In contrast to the great man approach (e.g., Weber, 1921/1946), the situational perspective emphasised the flexible and dynamic nature of leadership, however, research evidence has been inconsistent, perhaps due to a

lack of theoretical underpinning (Northouse, 2010), questioning the validity of the theory (Vecchio, 1987).

In sum, early theory advanced understanding of leadership but conceptualised individual characteristics and environmental factors separately rather than adopting an interactional framework. As a development, bringing together the focus on distinctive personality qualities and the situational perspective, early leadership theory culminated in Fiedler's (1967) contingency theory. Fiedler's (1967) internationalist perspective asserted that the success of a leader's behavioural style depended upon the favourability of the situation to that style. In other words, leaders' effectiveness would be contingent on how well their leadership style and characteristics fit the context. In accordance with the great man and situational approaches, empirical support for contingency theory has been argued to be mixed and highly variable (Haslam et al., 2011). Fiedler (1993) concluded the contingency theory fails to explain why certain leadership styles are more effective in some situations than others; termed the 'black box problem', while Northouse (2010) argued the contingency theory is difficult to apply in real-world settings mainly because it contends the styles demonstrated by leaders are stable and enduring. In other words, an individual's leadership style is proposed to be the same across contexts, which may be unlikely given that effective leadership typically involves adaptation of styles and behaviours to the context.

Early leadership theory advanced knowledge by indicating the importance of context in leadership and its interaction with leadership styles. In addition to the great man approach, situational perspective, and the contingency theory specific models of leadership within particular settings have been proposed. Two examples of context-specific approaches within the sport psychology literature are Chelladurai's (1993) multi dimensional model of leadership and

Jowett's (2007) coach-athlete relationship approach. The multi-dimensional model proposed

athlete satisfaction and performance is determined by the interaction of required coach behaviour

(i.e., the behaviour that best suits the situation), athletes' preferred coach behaviour (i.e., what

the athletes want the coach to do), and actual coach behaviour. Coach effectiveness relies upon

the congruence between the three model components, with optimal satisfaction and effectiveness

occurring when there is correspondence across all three aspects. The multi-dimensional model

has extended knowledge by considering athlete preferences, yet research findings have been

inconsistent relating to the model's hypotheses (Crust & Azadi, 2009). Building upon

Chelladurai's postulations Jowett (2007) proposed the 3C model to encapsulate the multi-

dimensional nature of coach-athlete relationships. In particular, the model outlines closeness,

commitment, and complementarity as three interpersonal psychological constructs underpinning

the effectiveness of any coach-athlete relationship. Closeness refers to the interpersonal bonds

within the dyadic relationship between coach and athlete. Commitment refers to the coach's and

athlete's intentions to maintained the relationship over time. Complementarity refers to the

cooperative (or otherwise) behavioural transactions between coach and athlete.

Despite improved understanding, there are limitations with context-specific models in

sport. For example, scholars (e.g., Fletcher & Arnold, 2011) have argued that approaches to

leadership in sport (i.e., multi-dimensional model and coach-athlete relationship) have focussed

predominately on the coach as designated leader. Focussing on coach behaviours is less likely to

explain the effectiveness of other leaders (e.g., captains or informal leaders) that may emerge as

influential within teams. Similarly but more broadly, within the sport psychology literature many

organisational psychology concepts have been relatively unexplored in elite settings (Fletcher &

Wagstaff, 2009). One pertinent organisational influence on elite athletic performance is

leadership, and researchers (e.g., Arnold, Fletcher, & Molyneux, 2012; Fletcher & Arnold 2011) have begun to illuminate the multifaceted nature of leadership in elite sport. Despite these advancements further research is warranted to deepen our understanding of leadership, indeed, Fletcher and Arnold (2011, p. 237) conclude future inquiry should investigate "what leaders do in terms of their behaviors and communication in specific contexts and situations".

Following calls by Chelladurai (1990) to assess the influence of athletes' personality on leadership preferences, the attention paid to followers is a significant development. Nevertheless, this individualistic approach, where individuals' characteristics (e.g., mental toughness; Crust & Azadi, 2009) are the focal point and group dynamics (e.g., individuals' social identities in context) are neglected may not fully explain leadership. Such perspectives have been argued to be less able to explain the mechanisms pertaining to why people are positively influenced and mobilised by leaders (van Knippenberg & Hogg, 2003). Leader's influential capacity to mobilise group members is a crucial dimension in the definition of leadership (e.g., Chemers, 2000) as noted in the previous section. Thus, leadership is concerned with the influential interaction between individuals in a group, and in turn, leadership theories that encompass group dynamics provide an opportunity to contribute to the field by explaining the influential and contextual nature of leadership (Haslam et al., 2011). An analysis of individuals' group memberships and social context may provide an original contribution to knowledge of leadership. As Avolio (2007, p. 25) stated:

> … if the accumulated science of leadership had produced a periodic table of relevant elements … one might conclude that leadership studies had focused too narrowly on a limited set of elements, primarily highlighting the leader yet overlooking many other potentially relevant elements of leadership such as the follower and context.

1.4 Recent Leadership Approaches

More recently leadership research has adopted the transactional–transformational paradigm to enhance understanding of leadership processes. Seminal work related to transactional and transformational leadership theory begun in the late 1970's (Burns, 1978) with further work in the mid-1980's (Bass, 1985). Transactional theory stated leadership involves exchange processes between leaders and followers where rewards or punishments are given to followers dependent on performance. In such exchanges, leaders' outline tasks to be completed and then monitor followers' attainment, before recognising their success or failure. The transactional framework is two-sided between the leader and followers but ultimately, as Turner (2005) explains, places leaders in positions of power over the group. Alternatively, and more prevalent in recent leadership literature, is transformational leadership, which is concerned with leaders' ability to inspire and motivate followers to achieve their potential through the proposal of an aspiring vision (Bass, 1985). Thus, transformational leadership is change-orientated and places charisma as a central part of transformational processes. Specifically, transformational leadership comprises four components (Bass & Avolio, 1990): (i) idealised influence (or charisma); (ii) inspirational motivation; (iii) intellectual stimulation; and (iv) individualised consideration. Idealised influence occurs when leaders act fairly to gain the respect and trust of subordinates. Inspirational motivation occurs when leaders rise subordinates' awareness of a vision and thus motivate them to work towards the high expectations expected of them. Intellectual stimulation occurs when leaders challenge group members to look at old problems in a new, creative manner. Individualised consideration occurs when leaders attend to individuals' needs within the group. In comparison to previous conceptualisations of leadership, the transformational approach emphasised the importance of building interpersonal relationships

between leaders and followers and has been one of the most frequently studied approaches to leadership (Day, Fleenor, Atwater, Sturm, & McKee, 2014).

Broadly, research attention has supported the predictive qualities of transformational leadership (e.g., Arthur, Woodman, Ong, Hardy, & Ntoumanis, 2011), with a meta-analytical review (Lowe, Kroeck, & Sivasubramaniam, 1996) suggesting the components of transformational leadership to be positively associated with employee satisfaction and performance. Taking sport as an example, Rowold (2006) demonstrated that transformational behaviours of martial arts coaches led to elevated perceptions of coach effectiveness in comparison to transactional behaviours. Further research has indicated that particular transformational behaviours (e.g., individual consideration) displayed by coaches predicted task and social cohesion, whereas other transformational behaviours (e.g., intellectual stimulation) did not (Callow, Smith, Hardy, Arthur, & Hardy, 2009). Further, performance level moderated these relationships. Of particular relevance, Callow and colleagues reported that coaches' relative influence varied across different contexts, leading the authors to conclude: "…future research needs to examine the effect of contextual influences on both transformational and transactional leadership" (p. 407). In sum, transformational leadership has advanced understanding of effective leadership, particularly by emphasising the relationship between leaders and followers. Nevertheless, it has been argued (e.g., Yukl, 1999) that transformational leadership focuses on the leader-follower relationship primarily at the dyadic level, which does not account for group or organisational processes (e.g., group dynamics or social identities) within which individuals are embedded. Such a shortcoming has been suggested because the analytic focus of transformational leadership reflects the leader as an individual and their inspirational personality qualities (e.g., charisma; Hogg & van Knippenberg, 2003), which overlooks the context within

which leadership takes place (Currie & Lockett, 2007). As a result, the underlying influential processes of transformational leadership have been argued to be ambiguous (Yukl, 1999).

Charisma is outlined as a characteristic key to the inspirational qualities of transformational leaders (Haslam & Reicher, 2012), although Bass (1985) proposed leaders can be charismatic without being transformational. Nevertheless, the underlying premise of transformational leadership reasons that charismatic leadership is more effective than non-charismatic leadership (Bass, 1985). Charisma has been defined as a special personality characteristic that gives individuals exceptional powers and renders such individuals being treated as a leader (Weber, 1947). Anecdotally, successful leaders have been heralded as charismatic, for example, after winning the European Cup with Nottingham Forest Football Club Brian Clough was labeled 'Charismatic Clough' due to his talent of inspiring athletes. A few months before starting at Nottingham Forest, Clough had left as manager of Leeds United after forty-four days in charge, later stating: "Leeds weren't for me and I wasn't for them". Here, the same charismatic leader had become an iconic hero at one club (i.e., Nottingham Forest) and failed at another (i.e., Leeds United). Similarly, one shortcoming of the charismatic aspect (i.e., idealised influence) of transformational leadership is that charisma is conceptualised as a personality trait in a similar manner to early leadership theory (i.e., the great man approach).

Recent evidence has provided a different view of charisma based upon the social identity analysis of leadership (e.g., Platow, van Knippenberg, Haslam, van Knippenberg, & Spears, 2006). Experimentally, Platow et al. (2006) created two conditions: (i) a leader that represented the group (i.e., was prototypical of the group); and (ii) a leader that was non-representative of the group (i.e., non-prototypical) who delivered a request for help. The results demonstrated that the representative leader (i.e., the prototypical leader) was perceived as more charismatic than the

non-representative leader (i.e., non-prototypical leader). Accordingly, data suggested that

charisma was a quality that group members attribute to leaders that represent the group, rather

than charisma reflecting a unique quality that some leaders have but others do not. Further

empirical evidence (e.g., van Dijke & De Cremer, 2010) has been provided in support of the

argument that charisma is bestowed upon leaders by the group when leaders are perceived as

group prototypical. In short, rather than being a characteristic that leaders possess (or not),

evidence has indicated that charisma is something that leaders can construct by representing the

group they seek to lead (van Dijke & De Cremer, 2010). Accordingly, perceptions of charisma

may flow from leaders' place and belonging within the midst of group dynamics, and in this way

the social identity perspective of leadership may help to explain why some leaders are perceived

as charismatic whereas others are not (Hogg & van Knippenberg, 2003). The key, perhaps, for

Brian Clough was that he was leading different clubs (i.e., different sport groups). Indeed, many

scholars have argued that the scientific examination of successful leadership could be expanded

by focussing on leadership within the context of group processes, rather than leaders as

individuals (see Crevani, Lindgren, & Packendorff, 2010; Haslam et al., 2011; Northouse, 2010).

Accordingly, a social identity analysis of leadership (Hogg, 2001) was proposed to extend

knowledge by providing an understanding of group-level psychological processes that underpin

leadership (i.e., leaders' and group members' social identities). In the next section, the social

identity approach will be introduced before discussion turns specifically to the social identity

analysis of leadership.

In sum, leadership theories have focussed on personality traits (i.e., the great man

approach) and situations (i.e., the situational perspective) independently, before turning to the

interaction between leaders' personality and the situation (i.e., the contingency approach), and

then the congruence between leadership styles and team members' preferences (i.e., the multi-dimensional model). Most recently, the transactional-transformational paradigm has generated research interest through its emphasis on the importance of followership and interpersonal relationships between leaders and teams. Collectively, these approaches to leadership have vastly contributed to knowledge of leadership, but could be strengthened by an analysis that can explain the context and group-level dynamics that encompass leadership. A focus on contextual influences and group dynamics reflect key principles of the social identity approach to leadership (Haslam et al., 2011).

1.5 The Social Identity Approach

The social identity approach encompasses social identity theory (Tajfel & Turner, 1979) and self-categorisation theory (Turner, Hogg, Oakes, Reicher, & Wetherell, 1987) to reflect a social-cognitive inter-group theory. The social identity approach emphasises the importance of group processes in understanding individual and group cognition and behaviour (Tajfel & Turner, 1979; Turner et al., 1987). Addressing Mayo's (1949) proposal that the psychology of an individual is a product of their personal and social identities, the social identity approach contends that in social contexts people can define themselves as individuals (i.e., personal identity; 'I' and 'me') *and* as group members (i.e., social identity; 'we' and 'us'). Personal identity explains an individual's perception of themselves to be distinct and different from other people in a particular environment. Alternatively, social identity refers to an "individual's knowledge that he [or she] belongs to certain social groups together with some emotional value and significance to him [or her] of this group membership" (Tajfel, 1972, p. 292). In other words, social identity is the extent to which an individual feels they belong to a group. Accordingly, social identities occur throughout life including academic (Sheridan, 2013) and

athletic identity (Brewer, van Raalte, & Linder, 1993). Brewer et al. (1993) referred to athletic identity as the degree to which an individual identifies with the athlete role, and in a similar manner to social identities, individuals derive a sense of who they are as people from their athletic role. Social identification involves an identification process but is distinct from athletic identity because the connection is with a group(s). As such, individuals derive a sense of who they are from their group memberships and are motivated to enhance their group. As a consequence, social identification forms the basis of cooperation (De Cremer & van Vugt, 1999), for example, in the mobilisation of union members (Cregan, Bartram, & Stanton, 2009).

In short, the groups we belong to define who we are (Tajfel & Tuner, 1979; Turner et al., 1987), and understanding the role of social identities for leadership is important for a number of reasons. First, in any situation an individual can think and behave in-line with their personal or social identity. When individuals feel a meaningful attachment to a group their thought processes and actions attune to their social identity (Adarves-Yorno, Postmes, & Haslam, 2006). A group that an individual feels a part of is termed an in-group (e.g., Staffordshire University, a fan's association with Barcelona Football Club). In contrast, any group that an individual does not associate them self with can be defined as an out-group (e.g., Keele University, Real Madrid Football Club). Indeed, the in-group is also typically defined in reference to an out-group at the same level (Simon & Oakes, 2006). For instance, a supermarket business as the in-group is defined comparatively to other supermarket businesses vying for the same market share. Second, social identities occur at multiple levels as individuals are members of numerous groups from specific associations with sport groups (e.g., Wann, Hunter, Ryan, & Wright, 2001), through business organisations (e.g., De Cremer, van Knippenberg, van Dijke, & Bos, 2006), to broad attachments to nations (e.g., Reicher & Hopkins, 2001). Third, the stronger the identification

with a particular group, the more an individual sees one self in terms of that group membership (van Knippenberg, 2011). This notion has been demonstrated in substantial literature that has explored social identities and sport fan behaviour (e.g., Wann et al., 2001). Researchers have found fans who feel a strong identification with their sport team are more likely to encourage their athletes and bias towards their own team (Wann et al., 2001). From a social identity perspective, these behaviours arise because individuals' lives as a sport fan are central to them and so they have the most to gain (and lose) from their teams' performances. In sum, social identity theory (Tajfel & Turner, 1979) and research evidence (e.g., De Cremer et al., 2006) contends group memberships (i.e., social identities) provide a cognitive and behavioural schema where individuals structure their perception of them self and others based on the internalisation of social categories (Turner et al., 1987). As such, social identification motivates individuals to advance their group's interests.

The internalisation and psychological significance associated with belonging to a group results in an individual categorising themselves as part of the group (Turner et al., 1987). Accordingly, the similarities with in-group members and differences with out-groups are emphasised to provide a foundation for group behaviour (Turner et al., 1987). Categorisation permits effective group functioning because by acting in their own interests, individuals *also* act in their group's interests because their own and the group's aspirations are congruent. In other words, as group members see the fate of the group as their own, they are motivated to ensure one's own in-group is unique compared to out-groups (Haslam, 2004). For instance, a longitudinal study examined group identification and work-related outcomes in two theatre production groups (Haslam, Jetten, & Waghorn, 2009). Path analysis indicated that strong group identification predicted higher levels of citizenship (i.e., engaging in activities beyond the call of

duty), pride (i.e., taking pleasure in the group's achievements), and work satisfaction, together with a reduced likelihood of burnout. Accordingly, group identification motivates individuals to contribute to group success and may protect them from the negative effect of stressors.

In sum, the social identity approach has been investigated in a range of fields including group dynamics, stress, and leadership (see Haslam, 2004 for an overview) and has enhanced our understanding of individuals' cognitions and behaviours in group contexts. Following the introduction of the social identity approach discussion will now focus on the principles of social identity leadership.

1.6 Principles of Social Identity Leadership

Social identity analysis of leadership seeks to understand the processes that enable individuals to influence one another, be perceived as effective, and motivate group members' abilities (Haslam et al., 2011). Despite being in its infancy compared to other leadership theories and considered to be "newly introduced" (Dinh et al., 2014, p. 42), social identity leadership has attracted growing research attention due to its explanation of contextual influences and group dynamics within leadership. For example, 31 social identity leadership research articles were published in top ten-tier journals between the years of 2000 and 2012 (Dinh et al., 2014). Bringing these research endeavours and those preceding 2000 together, Haslam et al. (2011, p. 74) synthesised four principles of social identity leadership based on two decades of leadership research within the social identity tradition: (i) leaders as in-group prototypes; (ii) leaders as in-group champions; (iii) leaders as entrepreneurs of identity; and (iv) leaders as embedders of identity.

1.6.1 Leaders as In-Group Prototypes

Researchers have explored the importance of beliefs and behaviours that emphasise leaders' similarity with their group. In social identity terms, leaders that represent group values are defined as *prototypical* of their group's identity (Hogg, 2001). Initial experimental research found that prototypical leaders were endorsed more by participants, and this support was maintained regardless of whether leaders acted in an in-group favouring, out-group favouring, or fair manner (Platow & van Knippenberg, 2001). Additional research across laboratory and organisational settings (e.g., van Knippenberg & van Knippenberg, 2005) has further indicated that prototypical leaders are perceived to be more effective, group-orientated, and charismatic than less prototypical leaders. Accordingly, leaders' ability to represent the group may motivate support from group members and increase perceptions of leadership effectiveness.

Extending early research investigating leader prototypically, van Dijke and De Cremer (2010) examined the mediating role of social identification in the relationship between leader prototypicality and support for the leader. In a field study with business employees and a laboratory experiment data suggested leader prototypically increased perceptions of charisma and support for the leader among strongly identifying participants. As expected, social identification with the organisation or laboratory group mediated the relationship between leader prototypicality and support for the leader, suggesting that it is only when group members feel a strong connection to their group that leaders' prototypically increases support for their leadership. Bringing the leader prototypical research together, evidence has suggested that being perceived to represent the group (i.e., high prototypicality) strengthens support and endorsement from group members and results in higher perceptions of effectiveness and charisma. This evidence has been further support in a recent review, were van Knippenberg (2011) concluded there is robust empirical evidence for the prototypical principle of the social identity analysis.

Understanding and representing the group as explained by the social identity approach to leadership draws similarities with person-centered counseling popularised by Carl Rogers (1980). Rogers outlined the importance of establishing a strong working alliance between counselor and client brought about through empathy, unconditional positive regard, and congruence (or genuineness). Paralleled with the person-centred approach, being prototypical of the group's identity emphasises the need for leaders to understand their group to develop a connection between leader and group members. Putting the client's needs first in person-centred therapy aligns with social identity leadership research were group members have reported higher levels of self-esteem when leaders are self-sacrificial, as opposed to self-benefiting (De Cremer et al., 2006). The implications of these findings suggest that understanding group members' identities and values are integral skills for leaders to increase members' self-esteem, which is in accordance with Carl Rogers' person-centred counseling.

Anecdotally, some leaders actively work to demonstrate their prototypicality. For example, former English Premier League soccer manager Roberto Mancini wore a club scarf during every match to perhaps symbolise that he represented the team, the club, and its values. In a further example, England soccer team manager Roy Hodgson disclosed his reasons for appointing Steven Gerrard as captain:

> In my opinion he's the man who merits this distinction [captain]. I know him, of course, as a player, I know him as a person. I know how committed he is to the England cause and he was delighted last night when I told him of my decision.

On reflection, Hodgson believed Gerrard epitomised what he wanted England to embody (i.e., to be committed)–Gerrard represents it and thus this may have contributed to Hodgson's

decision to select him as captain. To summarise, social identity leadership appears bound up in group processes, with research evidence suggesting leaders are more likely to be effective if group members' perceive the leader to represent the group's identity (i.e., prototypical of the group).

1.6.2 Leaders as In-Group Champions

The second principle of social identity leadership involves leaders being perceived to behave in ways that advance the interests of the group (Haslam et al., 2011). In short, successful leaders should work to progress the group and act for '*us*'. Supporting evidence of the need for leaders to progress the group has investigated the notion of fairness. In one study examining presidential elections in the United States, data demonstrated greater levels of support for leaders that were perceived to behave more fairly (Kershaw & Alexander, 2003). The construct of fairness becomes increasingly relevant from a social identity perspective in situations where in-groups compete against out-groups (i.e., intergroup settings). In a laboratory experiment Turner (1975) asked participants to distribute money to themselves and a fellow in-group member, or themselves and an out-group member. The findings revealed participants were fairer in their distribution of money between themselves and in-group members, whereas participants typically distributed more money to themselves compared to out-group members, demonstrating the application of fairness in an intergroup setting is governed by shared group memberships (i.e., individuals' social identity). Therefore, the findings from the research examining fairness imply that leaders who are fair to the in-group and unfair to the out-group are supported and endorsed more. Importantly, acting fairly seeks to promote group interests.

Further evidence supports the importance of leaders advancing their group's interests in a contextually specific manner. During the Sydney 2000 Olympic Games, Platow, Nolan, and Anderson (2003) asked Australian citizens to indicate their support for leaders that favoured the in-group over the out-group, or treated both groups equally. The results suggested that in the Olympic context of inclusivity and fairness the leader who favoured the in-group over the out-group was endorsed less than the leader who treated both groups equally. Accordingly, it may not always be the case that acting fairly to the in-group and unfairly to the out-group will be beneficial. Whether acting fairly is in leaders' interests is dependent upon how the in-group is defined. Advancing the group's interests involves enriching group values, and if the values of group identity portray fairness then leaders may be more likely to be supported if they act fairly.

The established in-group bond and internalisation of social identities motivates group members to intrinsically enhance their group membership (Haslam, 2004). Subsequently, the likelihood of close scrutiny or punishments being effective leadership strategies is reduced. Researchers have examined the effect of in and out-group leaders using surveillance, involving the monitoring of participants' behaviour, and punishments, involving negative sanctions (e.g., deducting team points), on leaders' level of influence (Subašić, Reynolds, Turner, Veenstra, & Haslam, 2011). Without surveillance, data from two experiments indicated in-group leaders were perceived as more influential than out-group leaders. When in-group leaders did employ surveillance their ability to influence group members reduced. An implication from these results is that in-group leaders will lose influence under conditions of surveillance or punishment. Such power over strategies, as conceptualised by Turner (2005), perhaps reduce trust between leader and group members, thus in-group leaders may wish to avoid strategies that indicate they are not

acting in the group's interests. Indeed, the notion of social power has received significant research attention.

From a leadership perspective researchers have examined how best leaders can exercise power over their group. Simon and Oakes (2006, p. 113) noted "power resides in directing others' efforts towards one's own projects", which is clearly integral to leadership. Early conceptualisations of power are reflected in French and Raven's (1959) assertion that leaders' power flows from their authority and hierarchical position (i.e., perceived as 'above' subordinates). The traditional and hierarchical view of power (Festinger, 1953) has more recently been conceptualised as a power over approach (Turner, 2005), which aligns with leadership theory at the time (i.e., the great man approach) were distinctive qualities of successful leaders and their control of resources (e.g., rewards and punishments) were deemed to be the basis of effective leadership. Research in the 1980s (e.g., Rahim & Buntzman, 1989) found that rather than promoting leaders' influence, strategies based on rewards and punishments increased group members' dissatisfaction with their leader. This evidence coupled with recent developments in leadership theory (e.g., transformational; Bass, 1985 and social identity leadership; Haslam et al., 2011) renders some organisations' continued adoption of power over strategies, as noted by leadership scholars (Subašić et al., 2011), surprising and contrary to theoretical developments. On the other hand, power through approaches that emphasise the psychological connection between leaders and group members rather than psychological distance assert that shared identification between leaders and group members underpins leaders' influence (Reicher, Haslam, & Hopkins, 2005; Subašić et al., 2011; Turner, 2005). Indeed, the development of shared identification has been found to produce higher perceptions of leader influence (Subašić et al., 2011). In short, the power through approach recruits the agency of the group through social

identification whereby individuals are united by the emotional bond of group membership (Turner, 2005).

From a leadership perspective, power through and over approaches have the same goal; to maximise leaders' influence. Nevertheless, power through and power over approaches are distinct in that the former reflect intrinsic strategies where leaders' influence is based upon group members' internalisation of the collective values. In contrast, the later reflects extrinsic strategies that require surveillance and monitoring of group members' behaviour to secure influence (Subašić et al., 2011). Despite the conceptual distinction between power through and over strategies (Turner, 2005) the effectiveness of these approaches in leadership has not been compared in previous literature. Accordingly, chapter three of the current thesis examined the effect of power through and over approaches on leadership effectiveness and leaders' ability to mobilise the group.

1.6.3 Leaders as Entrepreneurs of Identity

Empirical evidence for the third principle includes research designs with high ecological validity illustrating the proactive nature of leadership in that leaders construct group values to mobilise group action. The value(s) individuals' ascribe to their group memberships are defined as contents of identity (Postmes & Spears, 1998; Reicher, 1984; Turner, 1999). As evidence has indicated that group behaviour is directed by group norms (Adarves-Yorno et al., 2006; Livingstone & Haslam, 2008; Reicher, 1984) leaders may aim for group members to take on values that align with the leader's vision.

In a flagship investigation, the BBC Prison Study (Haslam & Reicher, 2007; Reicher & Haslam, 2006) exposed participants to a two week experimental study in a simulated prison. The

study created two groups of unequal power, with participants randomly assigned to prisoners (low power) or guards (high power) while the authors examined leadership processes. In the first few days of the experiment a social system of antagonism between the guards and prisoners prevailed. On day five a new participant was introduced to the study and they encouraged fellow participants to view themselves regarding a new set of values within a broader identity of 'participants' (including both prisoners and guards), rather than separate identities of a prisoner or a guard. The individual used the context by drawing on the participants' clothes, together with other metaphors and inclusive language (e.g., "we" and "us") emphasising their group focus. The results suggested these actions allowed the leader to re-define identity to encompass all the participants who then came together, felt a greater sense of belonging, and challenged the experimenters. The leader's collective focus and creation of new identity contents that were meaningful to the group, allowed the leader to gain support and mobilise the group while simultaneously progressing towards their own vision (Haslam & Reicher, 2007).

The social identity approach (Tajfel & Turner, 1979) and research (e.g., Haslam & Reicher, 2007; Wann et al., 2001) demonstrates that group memberships can contribute to individuals' sense of self positively or negatively. The effect social groups have on individuals' self-concept depends on the status of the group comparative to out-groups, with perceived status derived from the dimension (i.e., contents of identity) upon which individuals compare themselves to out-groups (Boen, Vanbeselaere, Pandelaere, Schutters, & Rowe, 2008). Taking findings from social identity research (e.g., Boen et al., 2008), in a leadership context it may be crucial for leaders to emphasise the dimensions where the in-group is superior to the out-group to ensure favourable comparison.

Accordingly, leadership is a proactive process where leaders can shape the social context to create and advance shared identities (Reicher et al., 2005). Thus, further than being a reactive onlooker and allowing the group to direct contents of identity and behaviour, leadership is about actively shaping events to immerse the group in the leader's ideas. To draw upon Reicher and Hopkin's (2001) terminology, such leaders are *entrepreneurs* of identity, whereby they structure their own beliefs within the framework of the group's identity. In turn, group members are mobilised to act for the leader because they willingly invest in their valued group membership. Defined, mobilisation refers to the convergence of members to a leader's vision, to the extent that members are motivated and compelled to achieve that vision. A shortcoming of social identity leadership research is that much existing evidence has focussed on group members' perceptions of leaders (Subašić et al., 2011) rather than how leaders enlist the efforts and abilities of the group to *mobilise* them. Two exceptions reflect advancements in this area with Seyranian (in press) assessing mobilisation by asking participants their intentions to engage in collective action, while additional research (i.e., Halevy, Berson, & Galinsky, 2011) investigated leaders' effect on group members' behavioural intentions. Specifically, participants read a scenario referring to a town crisis and were asked to indicate "how many hours per week (between 0 and 15) they would volunteer in the community following the crisis and the mayor's call" (Halevy et al., 2011, p. 899). Although reflecting a hypothetical design, Halevy and colleagues captured intentional mobilisation as an outcome that resonates with the influential nature of leadership (e.g., Northouse, 2010) more so than perceptions of leader endorsement. Further, given that the definition of leadership incorporates the fulfillment of collective goals (Chemers, 2000; Hogg, 2001; Northouse, 2010; van Vugt, 2006), future leadership research that examines group

members' behaviour (e.g., behavioural mobilisation) would build on previous literature (e.g.,

Halevy et al., 2011) and offer an original contribution to knowledge.

Within groups, individuals provide various explanations of what it means to be group

members (Postmes, Haslam, & Swaab, 2005). For instance, after a disappointing London 2012

Olympic Games, British swimmer Fran Halsall stated: "We're British, and British people always

come back stronger and that's what we're [British swimming] going to do." The quote illustrates

how Fran Halsall characterises being British. To her being British means to work hard, to be

resilient, and to demonstrate typical British spirit. In the same way, leaders too, as group

members, have specific reasons (i.e., contents) reflecting why they belong to a group, which is

likely to be reflected in the vision they wish to fulfill. In social identity terms, Fran Halsall is

likely to feel a stronger identification with and be more influenced by a leader who also values

British spirit. Conceivably, multiple contents of identity may exist within a group meaning some

members may converge with the leader, whereas other members may diverge. Scant research

attention has examined contents of identity in leadership literature, accordingly, the effect and

creation of converging and diverging contents of identity are examined in the current thesis.

1.6.4 Leaders as Embedders of Identity

The final principle of social identity leadership proposed leaders' must act to bring the

collective vision to reality. In social identity terms, research studies have indicated that

leadership is about achieving, or at least making progress towards, a collective vision (Reicher &

Haslam, 2006; Reicher et al., 2005). For example, the BBC Prison Study found group members

endorsed and were more willing to act for a leader when practical structures were provided (e.g.,

discussion forums) that aided the fulfillment of the group's identity (Haslam & Reicher, 2007).

The authors (Haslam & Reicher, 2007) noted after creating a new group identity the leader was successful because they provided opportunities for the group to embed what mattered to them in the context of the simulated prison.

Research findings have suggested that planning and delivering activities or structures that reflect the leader's and group's contents of identity are important to allow the positive benefits of social identities (e.g., Boen et al., 2008) to become reality. Specifically, providing opportunities for the group to achieve its target means that group members will be motivated to invest their resources (e.g., effort, finances) in their group membership because their identification positively contributes to their sense of self (Haslam, 2004). Goal setting provides an example of a structure that might be organised by leaders in collaboration with their group to achieve collective ambitions. For instance, evidence from large-scale research in American organisations suggested that leaders acting proactively and setting challenging goals led to increased performance of team members (Crossley, Cooper, & Wernsing, 2013). Further, the authors found the association between challenging goals and performance was significantly moderated by trust in the leader (Crossley et al., 2013). When taken together with social identity leadership, the results have implications for leadership practice because prototypical leaders are trusted more by group members (Giessner & van Knippenberg, 2008; Giessner, van Knippenberg, & Sleebos, 2009). To explain, once establishing shared identification and prototypical status, and therefore reciprocal trust, leaders may be equipped to set challenging targets for group members that will improve performance. Overall, from a social identity perspective, challenging targets may be an example of a structure that provides group members with the guidance to fulfill collective aspirations providing that a shared identity has been established. Indeed, overlooking practical support to

help the group to achieve their vision may lead to unsustainable and ineffective leadership in the long-term (Haslam et al., 2011).

Leaders as embedders of identity highlights the importance of sustaining leadership effectiveness over time. Investigations within the social identity analysis and leadership research more broadly have largely adopted cross-sectional research designs (Dinh et al., 2014). Although with its strengths, data gathered from cross-sectional research typically focuses on retrospective recall, and can therefore include rating errors such as primary or recency effects (Shondrick, Dinh, & Lord, 2010). For example, responses may be skewed by leaders' recent behaviours rather than typical leadership actions. Correspondingly, there have been calls for more longitudinal research (Chemers, 2003; Keller, 2006) to better understand the temporal nature of leadership processes that inextricably vary day-to-day. Results from a recent review (Dinh et al., 2014) have suggested leadership researchers have begun to heed these calls for an increase in longitudinal designs (Keller, 2006). Nevertheless, within the social identity analysis longitudinal leadership research remains sparse (Haslam et al., 2011). Accordingly, the current thesis aimed to examine aspects of social identity leadership over time in chapters two and four.

1.7. Summary and Aims

Within a multitude of leadership theories the social identity approach to leadership has provided enhanced understanding of the social psychological principles that underpin effective leadership (Haslam et al., 2011; Hogg, 2001; van Knippenberg & Hogg, 2003). In particular, the social identity approach contributes to leadership understanding by explaining leadership processes through individuals' social identities. The value of social identity leadership lies in its conceptualisation of social identities as contextual and group-level phenomenon that had, prior to

the social identity analysis, not been accounted for in leadership theory. Research evidence has

indicated that understanding social identities and creating shared identification within a unified

group will be beneficial for leadership because group members are more likely to perceive such

leaders as trustworthy (Giessner & van Knippenberg, 2008), influential (Subašić et al., 2011),

and effective (van Knippenberg & van Knippenberg, 2005) while group members are

intrinsically motivated to enhance their social identities (Tajfel & Turner, 1979). Thus, the social

identity analysis has provided an original contribution to leadership knowledge and provides a

robust and contemporary theoretical foundation for future investigations. In particular, this thesis

contributes to social identity leadership in four ways.

First, notwithstanding the advancements in leadership understanding provided by the

social identity perspective, research within the tradition has not accounted for leaders' and group

members' contents of identity, which may converge or diverge. In other words, within a group

identity leaders may have the same (e.g., the leader and group value results) or different (e.g., the

leader values results but the group values friendships) contents of identity. Accordingly, the

current programme of research extended extant social identity leadership literature by examining

the effect of identity contents on leaders' capability to mobilise group members towards their

vision.

Second, social identity leadership principles suggest that the development of shared

identification is more likely to mobilise group members to invest their resources (i.e., time,

effort, and concentration) to achieve the collective vision. However, social identity research has

typically focussed on group members' self-reported perceptions of leaders (Subašić et al., 2011)

rather than how leaders enlist the efforts and abilities of the group to *mobilise* them. Thus, an

additional area this thesis offers an original contribution is by delineating and examining

mobilisation as a pertinent (Northouse, 2010) yet under-researched indicator of leadership effectiveness. Understanding further how group members behave and whether this is in-line with leaders' requests and/or the collective goals of the group is a valuable contribution to social identity leadership literature, leadership literature more broadly (Dinh et al., 2014), and has implications for leaders in practice. Accordingly, this thesis provided an original contribution to knowledge by examining the effect of social identity leadership on group members' behavioural mobilisation (e.g., time spent practicing), together with perceptions of leadership effectiveness and task performance.

Third, this thesis examined the effect of power through and over approaches (see Turner, 2005) in creating unified content's of identity, and on the behavioural mobilisation of group members. As highlighted in the current chapter, research is yet the compare the effect of power through leadership, based upon novel theoretical developments (Haslam et al., 2011; Simon & Oakes, 2006), with power over leadership (Festinger, 1953), which have been proposed to still be adopted by organisations (Subašić et al., 2011) but are based on traditional leadership theory. Accordingly, this thesis provided an original contribution to knowledge by examining the effect of power through and over leadership strategies on the creation of shared identity contents and group members' behavioural mobilisation under typical and failure conditions.

Fourth, the evidence presented in the current review has predominately utilised quantitative research designs. While previous quantitative inquiry provides a foundation from which to build upon in the current thesis (e.g., in designing experimental procedures in chapter three), the programme of research adds to social identity leadership literature by reporting two qualitative studies, in addition to quantitative studies, following calls from Haslam and colleagues (Haslam et al., 2011) for more qualitative research. Accordingly, the mixed method

approach adopted by this thesis offers an original contribution to social identity leadership literature by evidencing unanticipated phenomena, together with providing complementary and comprehensive understanding of the topic area (Hagger & Chatzisarantis, 2011).

1.7.1 Aims

This thesis aims to build on previous research within the social identity leadership tradition (Haslam et al., 2011) in a number of ways: (i) examining the effects of leaders' and group members' contents of identity on behavioural mobilisation; (ii) examining the effect of social identity leadership on group members' behavioural mobilisation (e.g., time spent practicing), together with perceptions of leadership effectiveness and task performance; (iii) examining the effect of power through and over leadership strategies on the creation of shared identity contents and group members' behavioural mobilisation under typical and failure conditions; and (iv) adopting a mixed method research design to extend the social identity analysis of leadership. Specifically, the aims of this thesis are:

1) To adopt a social identity perspective to analyse leaders' media communication in a real world setting (chapter two: study one).

2) To examine the effect and meditational pathways of identity contents (i.e., converging and diverging) on perceptions of leadership effectiveness, intentional and behavioural mobilisation, and task performance (chapter three: studies two and three).

3) To examine the influence of leadership strategies (i.e., power through and power over) on the creation of converging identity contents and behavioural mobilisation, together with evaluating effects following repeated failure (chapter three: study four).

4) To provide an empirical explanation of how contents of identity link to mobilisation of effort (chapter four: study five).

5) To provide an empirical explanation of how leaders emerge as a centre of influence during a competitive season (chapter four: study four).

CHAPTER 2: LEADING FOR GOLD: SOCIAL IDENTITY LEADERSHIP PROCESSES AT THE LONDON 2012 OLYMPIC GAMES

2.1 Introduction

Chapter one outlined traditional and contemporary approaches to leadership to provide a context for the emergence of social identity leadership. The social identity approach to leadership (Haslam et al., 2011; Hogg, 2001) has focussed on the psychosocial processes underpinning leadership behaviour and effectiveness (e.g., Geissner & van Knippenberg, 2008). The social identity approach to leadership is different to previous theory and therefore contributes to understanding by providing an explanation of the contextual and group-level influences encompassed within leadership (Haslam et al., 2011). To advance the social identity perspective further this chapter examines how leaders create team identities and associated contents of identity in a specific real life setting. In particular, the present chapter reports a qualitative social identity analysis of leaders' media data at the London 2012 Olympic Games.

In many ways the Olympic Games are the pinnacle sporting competition for athletes (Wylleman & Johnson, 2012). Leaders play an integral role in facilitating optimum performance in elite sport and arguably, together with the athletes, face their ultimate test at an Olympic Games to prepare athletes to perform and organisationally. Until recently, many organisational psychology concepts have been relatively unexplored in elite sport (Fletcher & Wagstaff, 2009). One pertinent organisational influence on elite athletic performance is leadership, and researchers (e.g., Arnold, Fletcher, & Molyneux, 2012; Fletcher & Arnold 2011) have begun to illuminate the multifaceted nature of leadership in elite sport. Despite these advancements further research is warranted to deepen our understanding of leadership, indeed, Fletcher and Arnold

(2011, p. 237) conclude future inquiry should investigate "what leaders do in terms of their behaviors and communication in specific contexts and situations". With these opportunities in mind, the current study adopted a social identity lens to explore the media data of leaders at the London 2012 Olympic Games.

Leadership refers to "a process whereby an individual influences a group of individuals to achieve a common goal" (Northouse, 2010, p. 3). Defined in this way, leadership is an influential process that is enacted within social contexts to enlist the abilities and efforts of group members to achieve common goals. A theoretical approach that focuses on the influential processes and contextual factors encompassed within leadership is the social identity analysis (Haslam et al., 2011; Hogg, 2001). Despite limited attention in sport the social identity analysis in organisational settings has led to an enhanced understanding of the social psychological processes that provide the foundation for effective leadership (van Knippenberg & Hogg, 2003). In this way, the social identity analysis of leadership has the potential to contribute to the field of sport leadership because it explains the social psychological mechanisms that underpin how individuals influence and motivate others to achieve group targets. Such mechanisms are individuals' social identities (Haslam et al., 2011).

Individuals have a range of personal and social identities they can draw upon that, in turn, direct cognitions, emotions, and behaviour (Tajfel & Turner, 1979). Personal identity explains an individual's perception of themselves to be distinct and different from other people in a particular environment. Alternatively, social identity refers to an "individual's knowledge that he [or she] belongs to certain social groups together with some emotional value and significance to him [or her] of this group membership" (Tajfel, 1972, p. 292). Social identities occur when individuals identify with groups and the specific group membership(s) becomes an important

part of who they are as people (Haslam, 2004). Social identity is a multidimensional construct comprised of three aspects: (i) the importance of being a group member (cognitive centrality), (ii) the positive emotions associated with one's group membership (in-group affect), and (iii) the strength of connection and belonging with the group (in-group ties; Cameron, 2004). In a leadership context, social identification reflects the degree to which leaders and group members define themselves as a unified entity and are motivated to achieve collective targets. To outline the process of social identification, I draw on the similarities to athletic identity (Brewer, Cornelius, Stephan, & van Raalte, 2010; Brewer et al., 1993). Athletic identity refers to the degree to which an individual identifies with the athlete role, which in turn contributes to individuals' sense of self as a person (Brewer et al., 1993). Similarly, social identities involve an identification process but are distinguishable from athletic identities because social identification occurs with a group(s). Accordingly, just as individuals derive a sense of who they are from their athletic identity, individuals derive a sense of who they are from their group membership(s) (Tajfel & Turner, 1979).

Social identity processes have been evidenced in sport. To illustrate, sport fan behaviour research has suggested that fans who feel a strong identification with their sport team are more likely to encourage (Wann et al., 2001) and exhibit in-group (i.e., the group to which they identify) bias compared to out-groups (i.e., other group(s) in a particular context; Wann & Grieve, 2010). In one of few studies of social identity with sport participants (Bruner, Broadley, & Côté, 2014), social identity has been associated with prosocial and antisocial behaviour towards teammates and opposition in youth sport. Results revealed those children who felt a stronger identification with their sport team reported engaging in more frequent prosocial behaviour (e.g., verbal encouragement) towards teammates. These findings are consistent with

social identity theory in that group identification motivates group-orientated behaviour (e.g., encouraging teammates) because group memberships are internalised as part of the self, and thus, are a means to enhance one's self-worth (Bruner et al., 2014; Slater et al., 2013). From a leadership perspective, a key point to emerge from the burgeoning social identity literature in sport is that internalisation of social identity forms a strong allegiance with the group that, in turn, motivates individuals to advance the group's interests. Accordingly, if leaders are able to create a shared identity then all group members, including the leader, will reflect a unified team or group motivated to achieve collective targets (Haslam et al., 2011).

Evidence indicates individuals' social identities influence leadership effectiveness (Haslam et al., 2011). In particular, leaders who are able to create shared social identification between themselves and group members are more likely to be supported (van Dijke & De Cremer, 2010), perceived as trustworthy (Geissner & van Knippenberg, 2008), influential (Subasic et al., 2011), and effective (van Knippenberg & van Knippenberg, 2005). Thus, the unified group is more likely to work together towards collective targets. The BBC Prison Study (Haslam & Reicher, 2007; Reicher & Haslam, 2006) exposed participants to a two week experimental study in a simulated prison. The study created two groups of unequal power, with participants randomly assigned to prisoners (low power) or guards (high power) while the authors examined leadership processes. In the first few days of the experiment a social system of antagonism between the guards and prisoners prevailed. On day five a new participant was introduced to the study and they encouraged fellow participants to view themselves regarding a new set of values within a broader identity of 'participants' (including both prisoners and guards). The results suggested the leader was able to re-define identity to encompass all the participants who then came together, felt a greater sense of belonging, and challenged the

experimenters (Haslam & Reicher, 2007). In particular, the prisoners and guards behaved more closely aligned to the values associated with being a 'participant' rather than in-line with their identity as a prisoner or guard. Accordingly, from a leadership perspective defining group values may be important given that group behaviour appears to be governed by the defining attributes of the group in social contexts. In the social identity approach (Tajfel & Turner, 1979; Turner, 1999) the defining values of groups are referred to as contents of identity. Despite this conceptualisation, Haslam et al. (2011) note contents of identity remain unexplored in leadership research comparative to broader concepts such as identification.

In addition to calls by Fletcher and Arnold (2011) to explore the communication of elite leaders in specific contexts, the present study moved beyond group members' self-reported perceptions of leader effectiveness as advocated by Subasic et al. (2011). This development is pertinent given that leadership is defined by its social, contextual, and influential nature (Northouse, 2010). Accordingly, an examination of leaders' media communication within the context of the London 2012 Olympic Games would extend knowledge and addresses aim one of this thesis. To achieve this advancement, the current study analysed media data from leaders at the London 2012 Olympic Games through a social identity lens. Emerging sport and exercise psychology literature has utilised media data to better understand athletes' identities in sporting contexts (e.g., Cosh, LeCouteur, Crabb, & Kettler, 2013; McGannon, Hoffmann, Metz, & Schinke, 2012; Schinke, Bonhomme, McGannon, & Cummings, 2012). The rationale for the use of media data is that it builds on a contemporary development in qualitative data collection in the sport psychology literature (e.g., Cosh et al., 2013). Further, Sparkes and Smith (2014) detail that gathering data online via blogs or the media allows repeated access to participants that otherwise would not be possible. In this study media communication provided me with the opportunity to

examine elite leaders who I would not have been able to access in person. In terms of repeated assessment and exploring temporal changes, media data increases the feasibility of longitudinal research as participants' media communication can be monitored for months without the shortcomings or extra burden on participants of arranging regular face-to-face data collection. Finally, media data typically has a long-term public presence on the Internet, which allows other scholars the opportunity to access the data that is analysed and, in turn, to stimulate scholarly debate (Granello & Wheaton, 2004).

Returning to the sport psychology literature that has used media data, through newsprint articles McGannon et al. (2012) advanced understanding of the negative team cancer role by presenting how the role emerged depended upon two discourses that were underpinned by the socio-cultural context of the sport. In a further analysis of newsprint data, Cosh et al. (2013) explored transition processes of retirement (from and back into sport) and found athletes return to competition was characterised by a compelling drive and passion, felt as a natural and mostly necessary decision. Cosh et al's (2013) analysis of media data over time afforded the dynamic nature of identities to be captured and led to new understandings of athlete identity in retirement and when transitioning back into sport. In addition, Schinke and colleagues (2012) examined adaptation processes of professional boxers during the Showtime Super Six Boxing Classic through data collected from twelve documentary television episodes. Thematic analysis indicated the temporal processes of adaptation prior to the Super Six tournament and then following successful and unsuccessful performances. Media data allowed for enhanced understanding of successful temporal adaptation, revealing the key themes of self-focus and a multi-dimensional view (i.e., multiple identities) of the self including spirituality and integrity (Schinke et al., 2012). Bringing this contemporary enquiry that has focused on media data together it becomes

clear that investigating media data can lead to different and advanced understandings of knowledge, and thus, provides the focus of the present analysis.

The media data in the current study most closely aligns with Schinke et al. (2012) by focusing on what leaders said during media presentations rather than how the media constructed leaders, for example, via newsprint articles as analysed by Cosh et al. (2013) and McGannon et al. (2012). Building on Schinke et al's (2012) exploration, the present study will incorporate speeches and team announcements delivered and blogs written by leaders as underused, yet fruitful data sources (Sparkes & Smith, 2014) that will extend sport and exercise psychology and social identity leadership literature. The following research question guided the study; to expand understanding of leadership by exploring leaders' media data (i.e., interviews, speeches and team announcements, and blogs) at the London 2012 Olympic Games from a social identity perspective.

2.2 Method

2.2.1 The Leaders

Six prominent leaders were identified as integral to the London 2012 Olympic Games in various capacities: Lord Sebastian Coe (LC; Chairman of the London Organising Committee of the Olympic and Paralympic Games), Andy Hunt (AH; leader of TeamGB), Charles van Commenee (CvC; performance director of UK athletics), Sir David Brailsford (DB; performance director of British cycling), David Tanner (DT; performance director of British rowing), and Michael Scott (MS; performance director of British swimming). Leaders had a mean age of 55.4 years, ranging from 48 to 65 years, and had been in their position for, on average, 6.75 years. The role of the four performance directors was to lead their sports to optimum performance and

medal attainments. The four leaders were chosen a priori based on athletics, cycling, rowing, and

swimming representing Great Britain's top four recipients of UK Sport funding for London 2012

(approximate total £103 million, UK Sport 2012). Lord Coe and Andy Hunt were chosen a priori

as they were the leaders of the Olympics and TeamGB respectively, encompassing a more broad

role at London 2012. These high-level leaders were selected on the basis of their roles and the

high likelihood that they would be required to complete media interviews (television and radio),

and deliver speeches and team announcements to the British media to provide varied and

substantial data to be analysed.

2.2.2 Data Collection

Data collection focused on leaders' communication in interviews, speeches/team

announcements, and blog posts from television, radio, and online outlets. Given the impractical

nature of continuous monitoring of television channels and the sometimes impromptu nature of

media representations, all data was obtained online. Specifically, data were collected from face-

to-face interviews (often aired on television or radio and then uploaded online), speeches (e.g.,

the opening ceremony), and team announcements posted online, together with blogs written by

the leaders. Originally, temporal changes represented an additional research question to examine

differences in leaders' media communication between pre- and post-London 2012. However,

during analysis it became apparent that there were few differences between these two phases. To

avoid repetition, temporal changes as a guiding research question was removed but data that

spanned the full duration of data collection (i.e., pre- and post-London 2012) are presented in the

results and discussion section. In addition, Sparkes and Smith (2014) note that blog data

collection offers a valuable resource to explore "social processes over time" (p. 113) and provide

repeated access to populations that otherwise would not be possible (e.g., Andy Hunt, TeamGB

leader). In sum, the combination of interviews, speeches/team announcements, and blogs sought to gain new insights into leadership surrounding an Olympic Games.

The British Broadcasting Corporation's (www.bbc.co.uk) and TeamGB's (www.teamgb.com) websites were identified as the official and regulated sources for media coverage of London 2012. I intended to collect all available data through daily monitoring of these two websites, together with checks on social media (i.e., twitter) and television to ensure media coverage of the leaders was not missed. The data collection process was informed by emerging sport and exercise psychology literature (e.g., Cosh et al., 2013; McGannon et al., 2012; Schinke et al., 2012) that has outlined how studying media data can be crucial to further understand identities in various sport contexts. In particular, media data collection in the current study afforded the authors opportunity to capture new themes within specific contexts (i.e., an Olympic Games) that contribute to knowledge gained through insights not detailed in previous literature (for an example see Cosh et al., 2013).

As the study intended to examine leaders' communication in the media over time, data was collected daily from one-hundred days prior to the opening ceremony, throughout the sixteen days of the Games, and for thirty days following the closing ceremony. The data collection period from 17th April – 11th September garnered forty-eight interviews (40 from BBC; 8 from TeamGB), sixteen speeches (e.g., opening ceremony) or team announcements (7 from BBC and 9 from TeamGB), and three blogs (all by AH via TeamGB), resulting in ninety-two pages of transcribed text. To be clear, solely the leaders' communicated words were of interest and not the media's interpretation of what was said. Data were transcribed verbatim, while the medals won were recorded as indicators of performance.

2.2.3 Thematic Analysis

A thematic analysis (see Braun & Clarke 2006) incorporating inductive and deductive elements was adopted to analyse leaders' media data. In thematic analysis Braun and Clarke (2006) propose an inductive approach involves diverse coding of data related to the research question but not prescribed categories or the researchers' theoretical approach, whereas a deductive or theoretical approach is driven by the researchers' theoretical interest (i.e., social identity leadership). Accordingly, in the current study, inductive analysis allowed for the generation of novel data themes not accounted for in previous social identity literature, while deductive analysis was used to detail patterns in the data that related specifically to social identity leadership principles.

Although there is no standard procedure of thematic analysis, analyses were characterised by a number of flexible phases, as outlined by Braun and Clarke (2006). Initially, the inductive stage of the analysis involved the first author immersing themselves in the transcripts and detailing initial analytic reflective statements of the data (e.g., "the leader is using the nation's flag to motivate public support"). These initial observation procedures have been utilised in previous identity-related media studies (McGannon et al., 2012; Schinke et al., 2012) and functioned to facilitate initial inductive coding but also to aid theme and category refinement as analysis progressed. Initial coding involved attaching words or labels to the data relevant to the research questions. In the next theoretical (i.e., deductive) stage, via a recursive process and through a social identity lens, codes were interpreted into lower-order themes. To facilitate the creation of themes a thematic map (Sparkes & Smith, 2014) detailing a handwritten visual representation of emerging themes was used (for an example of a thematic map see Figure 2.1). As advocated by Braun and Clarke (2006), the emerging patterns in the data were constantly
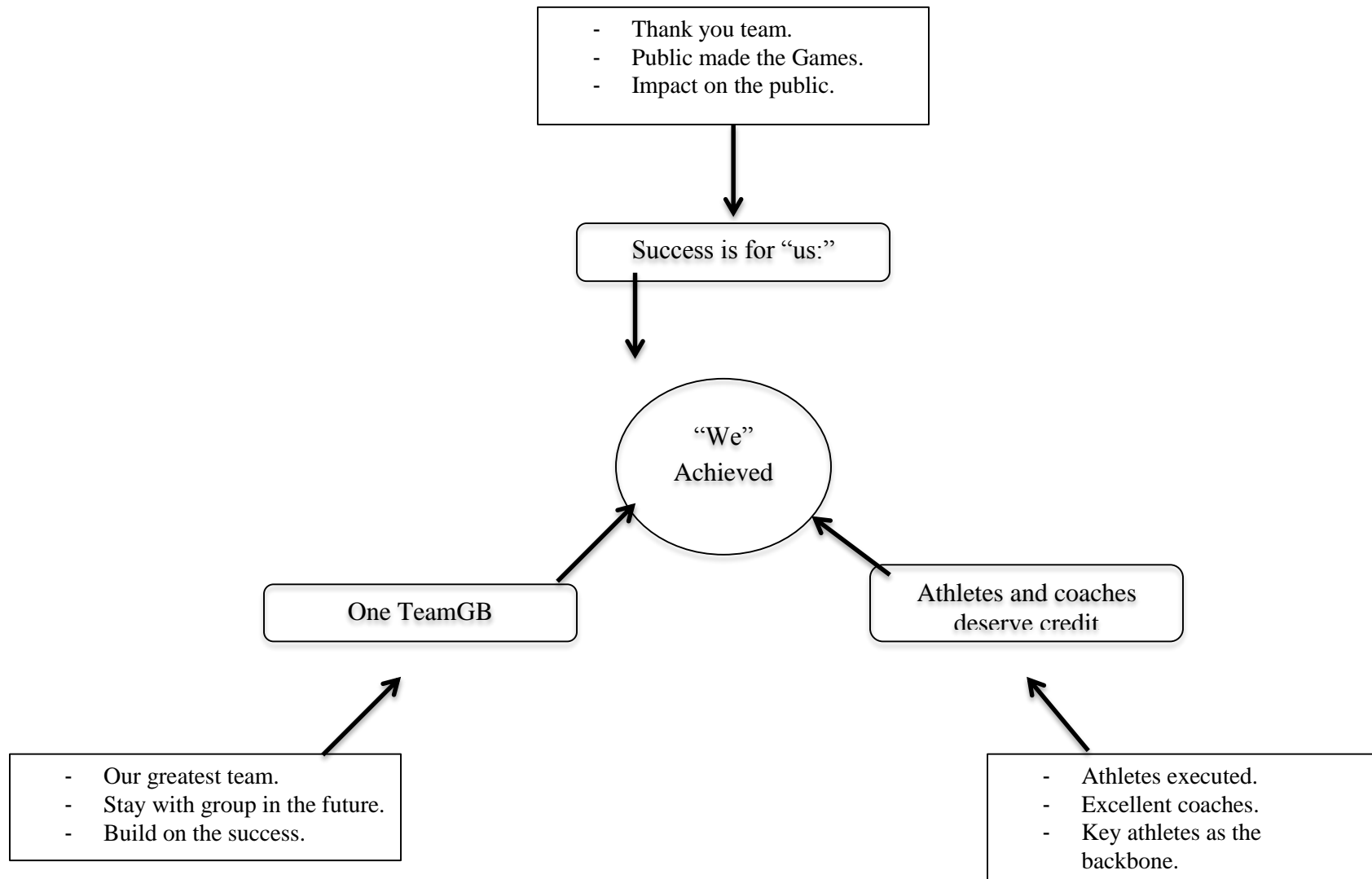
Figure 2.1. Example thematic map from the "We" Achieved higher order theme

compared with one another leading to the amendment of theme titles and collapsing of emerging themes. Constant comparison and the thematic map allowed for grouping of lower order themes into higher order themes.

In the next stage, theme refinement included the amendment of theme names and was assisted by a reflective journal (Etherington, 2004). In-line with Braun and Clarke's (2006) thematic analysis procedures I used the journal to aid the development of each lower and higher order theme and to form the basis of reflective discussions with co-authors. For example, throughout the thematic analysis discussions were held between my supervisor and I to reflect and elaborate upon emerging themes with a view to promote critical reflections. In addition, as used by qualitative researchers (e.g., Way, Jones, & Slater, 2012) to maximise transparency a doctoral student outside the research team and an expert in social identity theory served as a 'critical friend' in this iterative process. In accordance with qualitative sport psychology research (e.g., Way et al., 2012) the role of the critical friend was to ask questions and critique the development of the higher order themes. The process was not necessarily to arrive at complete agreement in relation to theme development, but to ensure that I had made informed and principled decisions (Sparkes & Smith, 2014) regarding theme development and that the higher order themes provided an authentic picture of the data. Moreover, as Keegan, Spray, Harwood, and Lavallee (2014) suggested this analytic process allowed for the critical friend to "follow the workings" (p. 542), which led to some minor changes. For example, following one particular discussion the higher order theme of 'we did it together' changed to 'we achieved', to better reflect that the theme focussed on achievement in performance terms. In sum, the critical friend challenging the thematic process led to stimulating debates and further critical insight that I reflected upon and used moving forward with the presentation of the results and write-up.

Finally, aligned with recent inquiry of leadership (Arnold et al., 2012; Fletcher & Arnold 2011) I intended for analysis to provide evidence-based recommendations for leaders planning for Rio 2016. Finally, as advocated by McGannon et al. (2012), in the theoretical phase of analysis I was informed by and continued to consult social identity literature to compare emerging themes and literature. In turn, the results and discussion are presented together.

2.3 Results and Discussion

Five higher order themes emerged from the analysis: creation of team identities, team values, team vision, performance consequences, and "we" achieved. I draw on social identity literature and discuss the results to illustrate linkages between themes, while providing relevant quotes. Alongside each quote I identify which leader the quote relates to, the media type, and the media source (e.g., DT, interview, BBC).

2.3.1 Theme 1: Creation of Team Identities

A compelling pattern interpreted from the media data was the way in which leaders' aimed to create team identities. Leaders spoke of how the team kit (clothing/uniform such as tracksuits) provided commonalty across TeamGB and helped to bind the team together. The team connection went beyond the athletes to include coaches and support staff, while leaders detailed the influence of the emotive team kit: "While speaking to the athletes yesterday morning, they expressed their pride in the collective identity brought about by the kit and the importance of being seen as members of a singular, one TeamGB" (AH, blog, TeamGB). In addition to providing evidence for the presence of the affective dimension of social identity (in-group affect, Cameron, 2004) in that positive emotions (i.e., pride) were felt as a result of belonging to TeamGB, this result points to the linkages between team kit and identity. Specifically, the

unified team kit played an important antecedent role in the creation of TeamGB's identity. Social identity research may begin to illuminate these findings. TeamGB kit may have been perceived to strengthen team identity by demonstrating commonality between athletes and staff. Evidence has indicated the creation of team identity is more likely when similarities between group members are emphasised (Postmes et al., 2005) and thus, present data suggests the artefact of team kit may display commonality, which in turn, is one way TeamGB's identity was created.

As well as illustrating the commonality between TeamGB athletes and staff across sports, TeamGB's kit emphasised TeamGB's distinctiveness: "We knew at a home Games that our athletes had to stand out from other teams [...] the look and feel is tremendously original" (AH, blog, TeamGB). According to social identity theory (Tajfel & Turner, 1979) athletes are likely to seek memberships to groups that are unique and positively contribute to their self-worth. According to social identity principles (Haslam, 2004), to experience benefits to self-esteem, group members will strive to see their in-group (i.e., TeamGB) as distinct from, and better than, other groups (e.g., TeamUSA). Analysis suggested the "original" team kit that would "stand out from other teams" (AH, blog, TeamGB) may have helped to provide such distinctiveness.

Further, leaders' defined the boundaries within team identities. For example, Sir David Brailsford (team announcement, BBC) challenged the cyclists to pull together under the Union Jack:

> this [team] actually feels more like a family [...] you know a family unit pulls it together because it cares... it's more important, and I think in this Games, being the home nation and the home team, I think it's important [...] we do come together under the Union Jack and make this country proud of the way we perform.

This extract highlights a sense of belonging that aligns with the in-group ties dimension of social identity (Cameron, 2004). To explain, the leader may be attempting to increase his athletes' connection to British cycling and challenge them to come together to make the country proud at London 2012. In addition, the quote suggests the leader is speaking directly to his cycling team to mobilise their efforts (cf. Reicher & Hopkins, 2001) for the Olympic Games. By using the national flag the leader vividly challenges his athletes by saying let's do this for our country, while simultaneously suggesting, as a nation, we are in this together.

Leaders' media data demonstrated a focus on group interests, a crucial notion in social identity leadership (Haslam et al., 2011), when decision making:

> One thing we heard loud and clear from the athletes was this: they wanted kit that enables them to perform at their very best and [...] feel proud in the kit they have worked so hard to earn the right to wear at London 2012 (AH, blog, TeamGB).

The account above illustrates an example of how the leader of TeamGB sought to understand and act in line with the TeamGB's interests. Accordingly, to ensure a performance-focus, decisions about the TeamGB kit were made following "performance first tests" (AH, blog, TeamGB). To explain, social identity literature has indicated that, in comparison to when leaders act in a self-benefiting way, when leaders put the group first group members report increased levels of self-esteem (De Cremer et al., 2006). Thus, by listening to and putting into practice the interests of the group regarding team kit the leader is acting for the group and not themselves as an individual. This practice aligns with additional social identity research that has suggested leaders that represent the group's value(s) are perceived as more trustworthy and effective than those leaders that do not (for a review see van Knippenberg, 2011). The principle of advancing

the interests of the group is well summarised by Andy Hunt (blog, TeamGB): "our commitment to the TeamGB athletes and sports is to be the best prepared British Olympic team ever."

Analysis revealed leaders discussed TeamGB athletes that had been successful in previous Olympic Games or world championships. Examples from athletics included Olympic champion Christine Ohuruogu and world champions Mo Farah and Dai Greene. Other examples included British rowers, where leaders believed "we" traditionally perform well at Olympic Games. In such media displays leaders may be highlighting successful teammates who represent what the leader wants the group to achieve (i.e., Olympic champions). Such media communication could be interpreted to challenge and motivate TeamGB athletes to make British Olympic history, but also to outline that these successful athletes are part of this same team−TeamGB. Current analysis indicated such portrayals of athlete success, from within the same team, aimed to create team identity by highlighting the attractiveness to TeamGB.

2.3.2 Theme 2: Team Values

To varying degrees, leaders' media data indicated a portrayal of team values that were unique to their sport. In social identity terms, team values refer to the content of social identity (Postmes & Spears, 1998; Turner 1999). As described by Slater et al. (2013), when athletes categorise themselves as part of a group (e.g., TeamGB) they will be encouraged to think and behave in-line with the values associated with their group membership. Current analysis indicated each sport had different values despite coming under the identity of TeamGB. For example, Sir David Brailsford stated (team announcement, TeamGB):

I think we'd like people to be proud of us... these guys [riders selected] are fantastic
athletes, they are brilliant role models, they are not multi-million pound athletes that you

can't get close to, they're open, they're transparent, they're very engaging and you know,

I think we should be proud of the crazy attention to detail that this team will go to in

preparation for the Games, for the innovation that we will try and show and when we are

really really under pressure and the guys have got their backs against the wall, they'll

come out with that true British spirit and fight.

The extract above documents the values that define British cycling: attention to detail and preparation, innovation, and British spirit. Analysis indicated team values were multiple, which provides a further perspective from Schinke et al's (2012) findings. Schinke et al. (2012) interpreted that professional boxers displayed multiple identities in their media data, whereas the present analysis reveals that numerous values were associated with one social identity (e.g., as a TeamGB cyclist). In addition, team values outlined by the leaders at London 2012 may have influenced TeamGBs' attitudes and behaviours. From a social identity perspective (Haslam et al., 2011), team values (i.e., contents) provide the cognitive schema to govern British cyclists' behaviour (i.e., TeamGB cyclists will be attentive to detail and prepared, innovative, and display British spirit). As found during the St. Pauls' Riots (Reicher, 1984), TeamGB athletes' may align their thoughts and behaviour with the group's values because group members embrace courses of action based on the norms and values of their group. Evidence has indicated that when individuals identify with groups, their cognitions and behaviour are group-orientated and directed by the definition of the group (Adarves-Yorno et al., 2006; Livingstone & Haslam, 2008; Reicher, 1984). In sum, current data taken together with previous research (e.g., Reicher, 1984) implies leaders may benefit from motivating group members to adopt values that align with the leader's values.

Following the Olympic Games leaders reflected on long-term plans for peak performance at London 2012, that alongside team resources and aptitude, they felt facilitated peak performance. As Sir David Brailsford illustrated following British cycling's success (interview, BBC):

> I think it's all down to good planning really. Certainly in track cycling the Olympics is the pinnacle and [...] four years is a long time to try to sustain the same intensity, the same level of performance so we quite deliberately come down after an Olympic Games and then build back up towards the Olympics and try to peak for the 5 days that really really matter which has been here in London.

Here the heralded nature of the Olympics becomes apparent (Wylleman & Johnson, 2012) as leaders are willing to dedicate four years of organising, training, and competing in a way that provides the best opportunity for peak performance "when it matters". The values communicated after British cycling's success appeared to be consistent to those disclosed prior to the Olympics that highlighted attention to detail and preparation as values that defined British cycling. Aligned with team values, Sir David Brailsford (interview, BBC) outlined British cycling's marginal gains philosophy:

> The whole principle came from the idea that if you broke down everything you could think of that goes into riding a bike, and then improved it by 1%, you will get a significant increase when you put them all together. There's fitness and conditioning, of course, but there are other things that might seem on the periphery [...] they're tiny things but if you clump them together it makes a big difference.

The extract above suggests how the social identity contents (i.e., team values; Postmes & Spears, 1998) were consistent across the two phases of the study within British cycling. Remaining consistent to the team's values emerged as a prominent pattern in the data during the Games and this finding enhances understanding of leadership practice by documenting how leaders' communicated team values over time.

In the lead up to the Games athletics leader Charles van Commenee (TeamGB, interview) detailed "our collective philosophy since Beijing has been one of raising the bar as we work towards London 2012". The leader articulated how their team sought to achieve performance excellence through the team value of accountability; where all athletes and staff are responsible for performing to their best. The leader believed accountability would enhance athlete performance and was a value he embraced too (interview, BBC), "If athletes don't perform and suffer the consequences, I have to lead by example [...] If I hold athletes and coaches accountable every day, how could I possibly work in the next four years if I'm not held accountable?" Similarly, during the Olympics leaders aimed to inspire athletes to achieve their best by drawing on previous successful Olympians. For example, speaking after Mo Farah won the 5,000 metres, Lord Coe discussed Dame Kelly Holmes' double gold-winning triumph in Athens 2004 and suggested Farah could emulate Holmes' feat by additionally winning the 10,000 metres at London 2012. These findings add to our understanding of the contextual nature of leadership (Haslam et al., 2011) by indicating how leaders drew upon the Olympic context to motivate peak performance.

Finally, the value(s) within British rowing reflected the tradition and heritage of the sport and its history of performance excellence, while in contrast the team value(s) within British

swimming were not articulated within the media data. In sum, support for the importance of

defining team values for mobilisation of team behaviour was found and may be beneficial for

leaders in order to direct attitudes and behaviours of athletes and staff.

2.3.3 Theme 3: Team Vision

The vision leaders portrayed focused on performance. The most explicit attempt to

outline the performance vision reflected medal targets and reflects previous evidence of an

overriding culture of high performance in elite sport (Douglas & Carless, 2009). Douglas and

Carless' (2009) narrative approach illustrated the problems associated with a single-minded

performance focus in elite sport, nevertheless, interpretation of the leaders' data suggests an

overriding performance focus. For instance, athletics had been set a target of five to eight

medals, but Charles van Commenee set his target at the upper end of this range–eight medals,

noting: "I think we can [achieve the target of 8 medals], we have about 15 athletes including

relays that are in what I call the medal zone" (interview, BBC). Given previous research in elite

sport (e.g., Arnold et al., 2012) it is unsurprising leaders portrayed a vision centred upon

performance at London 2012. Indeed, Fletcher and Arnold (2011) interpreted vision as a general

dimension from interviews with national performance directors, were underlying themes detailed

the importance of developing a vision that is shared, disseminated clearly, and managed in terms

of expectations. There is evidence for similar processes in the leaders' media data at London

2012. Further, links between theme 2 (team values) and this theme (team vision) enhances

understanding of leadership. Namely, analysis revealed that at London 2012 it was the value(s)

of the team that underpinned the team performance vision. It may be that team value(s) provide

contextually relevant cognitive schemas for group members to progress towards the collective vision.

Leaders behaved in-line with the performance vision of TeamGB in various ways. Team selection provided one example, Sir David Brailsford's selection process was consistent with the performance vision by selecting the fastest riders. In addition, Charles van Commenee selected a team captain that he felt reflected the performance vision he wanted the team to fulfil. Sir David Brailsford selected Sir Chris Hoy (team announcement, TeamGB):

> Sir Chris needs no introduction, he's blazed the trail for us for many many years, embodies everything that you need to as an Olympic athlete, he really is the living epitome of everything, all the Olympic ideals all rolled into one.

From a social identity perspective leaders may have drawn attention to certain athletes because they demonstrate the values and behaviours leaders sought to promote in the in-group (van Knippenberg, 2011). In social identity terms athletes such as Sir Chris Hoy are prototypical of their group's identity (Hogg, 2001). Previous evidence has suggested prototypical individuals are a strong centre of influence as they represent the group and thus fellow group members trust them to advance the group (e.g., Geissner & van Knippenberg, 2008). In this way, analysis indicated leaders are acting as entrepreneurs of identity (Reicher & Hopkins, 2001), by highlighting the group ideal detailed in previous investigations (i.e., Steffens et al., 2013) – not only what the group is now, but what it aspires to become.

The performance vision was additionally drawn on by Lord Coe. Two days before the opening ceremony Lord Coe focused on "athlete-focused" preparations and he challenged athletes to create a positive atmosphere at London 2012 (interview, BBC):

Work all our teams have done has been on behalf of the athletes [...] so it's then over to them... I don't think we've left any stone unturned in giving them the best possible platform to compete but, you know, we want TeamGB to perform at the very highest level and actually if you get athlete-led atmosphere, which is what you will get when the best athletes of the generation compete, that then tends to slip and slide out of the stadium and into the streets, so really the athletes create the atmosphere at a games.

An additional pattern in the data reflected how leaders had a vision to motivate the British public to support TeamGB. The leaders drew on British Royal events and figures that resonate with the British public. To illustrate, leaders used the example of The Duchess of Cambridge wearing a TeamGB scarf when she met the TeamGB hockey squads to demonstrate that she would be supporting TeamGB. In addition, The Diamond Jubilee was celebrated in the lead up to the Olympics:

The support shown by the British public for Her Majesty The Queen was breathtaking and I was truly impressed by the level of patriotism on show. It fills me with pride and excitement to know we are in the process of delivering another large-scale event which promises to unite the UK in such a special way. London wholeheartedly embraced the Jubilee celebrations, and I know it will do the same with the Olympics (AH, blog, TeamGB).

From a social identity perspective (Haslam et al., 2011), leaders drew upon one of the core values of the British public—British Royalty—to perhaps mobilise the British public, that identify with the Royal family, to support TeamGB. Such a rhetorical construction was interpreted to motivate support from members of the British public that perhaps were less

interested in the Olympics but felt an attachment (in-group ties; Cameron, 2004) to the Royal family. Indeed, leaders believed the support of the British public could add a "psychological boost and hopefully push them [athletes] on to glory" (AH, team announcement, TeamGB). As also reported by Arnold et al. (2012), our analysis indicates that contextual awareness, together with an understanding individuals' social identities of whom they seek to influence and motivate, may be pertinent for effective leadership.

2.3.4 Theme 4: Performance Consequences

During the Olympics certain events required leaders' attention. One incident was TeamGB's lower than expected medal count after the first few days. Andy Hunt answered this question in a way that portrayed solidarity, confidence, and challenged TeamGB athletes. In particular, the leader highlighted his expectations for traditional sports that TeamGB typically excel in to lead the way. One traditional sport is rowing and on race day, David Tanner (interview, BBC) noted his athletes were determined to achieve that success: "they [the rowers] were in a great place last evening when I saw them... they're good to go, no holds barred, absolutely determined to win that gold medal." As the Games unfolded TeamGB exceeded expectations:

> We came here wanting to win more medals in more sports than over a century, so [the target was] 48 medals from 12 sports and we aspired to maintain fourth place in the medal table, but of course, we've completely blown that away, absolutely blown that away and that's through just extraordinary performances by the athletes and the incredible support of the British public (AH, interview, BBC).

Corresponding with the TeamGB performance vision outlined prior to the Olympics, each sport was judged on their medal success. In sum, cycling and rowing exceeded medal expectations, athletics met their allocated medal expectations (but fell two medals short of their leader's target), and swimming did not meet the medal target. The leader of British swimming reflected on the Games:

> There's not a mechanism, they [British swimmers] have never stood in front of a crowd like this before. We can do all the training and all of the preparation, but the first time they get to experience it is when they walk out here. Sometimes it's broader than the crowd, it's the public expectation, but our swimmers need to learn how to cope with that (MS, interview, BBC).

In the quote above the leader indicates a contributing factor to his team's performance was outside of their control. Despite this attributional attempt to perhaps maintain group esteem, stating the swimmers "need to learn how to learn to cope" may shift the responsibility onto the athletes, rather than communicating a collective responsibility. From a social identity perspective, it is interesting how the leader refers to British swimmers as "they", which implies distance between leader and athletes. In social identity theory (Tajfel & Turner, 1979) using the term "they" often refers to an out-group and is in contrast to other Olympic leaders in the study who used group-orientated language (i.e., "we") in their communication. Aligned with the social identity approach, using group-orientated language is one way leaders can highlight that they are acting in the group's interests (De Cremer et al., 2006). Following the Olympics, Michael Scott resigned after a performance review. In addition, aligned with the previously discussed team value of accountability van Commenee portrayed, he resigned from his role following the Games, stating the interests of British athletics directed his decision. Further, in keeping with the

performance vision of TeamGB, Andy Hunt directed a performance review to be undertaken by each sport.

2.3.5 Theme 5: "We" Achieved

Leaders bestowed the medal achievements of TeamGB on the team, the volunteers, the organisers, and the British public. In accordance with the team focus, Andy Hunt reflected on an historical event at London 2012 with the public in mind:

> What unfolded over the course of a single day ["Super Saturday" where TeamGB athletics won three gold medals] has been years in the making. It is a day unlike any that has been seen in the modern history of British Olympic sport and it is a day our country will never forget. Most importantly, it is a day for the athletes–the Olympic champions, and the millions of supporters throughout our country who have lifted them on their shoulders and helped make this possible (AH, interview, BBC).

Thus, leaders guided the success of TeamGB and the individual sports to be interpreted as a group success. From a social identity perspective, bestowing success on the group re-affirms and strengthens the bond within the group as leaders are more likely to be perceived as acting for the group, rather than themselves (Haslam & Reicher, 2007). Further, leaders paid special attention to the success of the athletes, for example:

> Oh... unbelievably proud I think for people in my position and the coaches and all the backroom staff we're there to support but ultimately we don't win medals it's the riders who have to ride, they have to perform on the day, they have to be the best that they can on the day and every single rider that's stepped up and performed to the best of their

ability... they've broke world record after world record when it really mattered and I think that's credit to them (DB, interview, BBC).

The athlete-focus evident above had been previously outlined by Lord Coe in the opening ceremony. Coe's vision was for London 2012 to be an athlete-focused Games and at the closing ceremony it was believed that London 2012 had "been a Games for the athletes" (speech, BBC). Additionally Lord Coe aimed to connect with the audience by articulating how individuals from the organising team to the public have contributed to the Olympics. In this way, the public may feel they have played their part in London 2012; "Thank you to the tens of thousands of volunteers... [crowd cheers for 20 seconds], volunteers... volunteers who gave their time, their boundless enthusiasm and their goodwill and who have the right to say; tonight I made London 2012" (LC, speech, BBC).

Moreover, leaders emphasised the need to build on TeamGB's performance in the future. The previous themes of team vision and team values were discussed again in the leaders' media data, but now in the future tense: "We trained for this [London 2012] and I think the way we have managed the last few weeks has been exceptional. But there is work to be done–it doesn't stop today. We can build on this [medal attainment] in Rio" (DT, interview, BBC). The above extract illustrates David Tanner feels a strong emotional affiliation (in-group ties; Cameron, 2004) with British rowing. The leader did not speak in "I" or "me" terms, rather the focus was on "we" and "us". Using inclusive language exhibits a solidarity and closeness within the group that highlights group-focused and contextual leadership, key principles of the social identity approach to leadership (Haslam et al., 2011; Hogg, 2001).

2.4 Conclusions

Findings from study one contribute to leadership knowledge and address the first aim of this thesis through an exploration of leaders' media data at the London 2012 Olympic Games from a social identity perspective. In particular, five higher order themes were interpreted from leaders' media communication: creation of team identities, team values, team vision, performance consequences, and "we" achieved. In short, the findings resonate with the influential and contextual nature of leadership (Northouse, 2010) that is central to the social identity analysis of leadership. The study offers new contextually relevant themes and makes a novel contribution to our understanding of social identity leadership (Haslam et al., 2011; Hogg, 2001) within the context of the London 2012 Olympic Games.

The current study builds on previous examinations of media data in sport (e.g., Cosh et al., 2013; McGannon et al., 2012; Schinke et al., 2012) and sheds new light on the topic of leadership and social identity through its temporal analysis of media data. Specifically, present findings have enhanced our understanding of social identity leadership by indicating leaders aim to create distinctive team values (i.e., contents of social identity; Postmes & Spears, 1998) within multidimensional (Cameron, 2004), and constantly evolving (McGannon et al., 2012) team identities. This finding is important for two reasons. First, thematic analysis revealed interconnections between team values and vision in that team values underpinned TeamGB's and the individuals sport's vision (cf. Fletcher & Arnold, 2011), which was centred upon performance. Douglas and Carless (2009) highlight the problems for retiring athletes when the sole focus of elite sport is performance, and building on this evidence current analysis has shown a performance vision was communicated in the media by leaders at the London 2012 Olympic

Games. Further, the creation of a team identity (i.e., TeamGB) was interpreted as a higher order theme in the current analysis, but references to leaders' or athletes' additional identities remained unsaid.

Second, team values may have been outlined by leaders to inspire the attitudes and behaviours of athletes, although how these messages were perceived by athletes remains unknown. Taking the former result first, beyond team vision leaders emphasised distinctive values (e.g., attention to detail) that made their group (e.g., British cycling) unique and acted as mechanisms through which the group aimed to achieve their vision. Second, precisely how the construction of team values was conducive to achieving the performance vision emerged from the analysis. Drawing on social identity theory (Tajfel & Turner, 1979), leaders communicating team values may have been to provide the cognitive schema to govern TeamGB athletes' behaviour when athletes categorise themselves as part of the group. Thus, team values were outlined to inspire athletes' behaviours (e.g., British cyclists will be attentive to detail) that mobilised the team towards the performance vision.

Leaders outlining team value(s) in the media could be due to the psychological implications for group members. To explain, intergroup comparisons are made on group characteristics, and it is likely these characteristics reflect the group values inherent within the group (Boen et al., 2008). By advancing the group towards the values leaders can increase the likelihood of positive comparisons and, in turn, the motivation, self-worth, and well-being of group members (Amiot, Terry, Wirawin, & Grice, 2010). At London 2012 data suggested that leaders organised events (e.g., performance tests for team kit), provided support (e.g., long-term planning), and communicated team values in the media to increase the likelihood of achieving

the performance vision. In sum, current analysis supports the complex (Fletcher & Arnold, 2011) and demonstrates the continual and proactive nature of leadership encompassing psychosocial and contextual influences. It follows that leadership theories account for all of these, an exciting opportunity for future research.

Turning to future research, the social identity analysis of leadership (Haslam et al., 2011) may warrant further investigation. As found in the present analysis, the social identity approach makes a contribution to sport leadership through its theoretical explanation of the psychosocial mechanisms (e.g., team identities and values) that underpin leaders' influence and mobilisation of group members towards the team's vision. Amongst other findings, current data emphasises the continuous and sometimes unforeseen nature of leadership. For example, despite coming within the TeamGB target of five to eight medals by achieving six medals (including four gold medals), British athletics leader Charles van Commenee resigned following the Olympics. Thus, current data highlights the importance researching leadership over time, for example, investigating leadership for the duration of a season may enhance our understanding of leadership.

In relation to applied practice, current findings have practical significance. For instance, sport psychology consultants working with leaders that are involved with the media may wish to apply current results to ensure leaders are using their media representations in the best way possible. Optimising perceptions of leaders in the media may be particular worthwhile in light of the impression formation literature (Manley et al., 2008). For example, a number of strategies were displayed that sought to create a team identity at London 2012. Given the benefits of developing a shared team identity (see Haslam, 2004), leaders may adopt inclusive language

(e.g., "we" or "us") that exhibits group solidarity and closeness, or highlight athletes that portray the group ideal. Further, communicating to the nation in a manner that connects with the British public (e.g., British Royalty) may help to motivate public support. These implications may be particularly prudent given that current data suggested it may be maladaptive for leaders not to encourage team identities or values in the media. Study one findings can only tentatively associate leaders' media representations to athlete performance, but the impact of how athletes performed at London 2012 is substantial. Following London 2012, UK Sport funding for athletics increased by 6.6%, cycling increased by 17.5%, rowing increased by 19.5%, and swimming decreased by 14.9%. Evidence has indicated leadership has an organisational influence on elite performance (Arnold et al., 2012; Fletcher & Arnold 2011), however, it must be noted that a myriad of factors can influence athletic performance, particularly at an Olympic Games. For example, Balmer, Nevill, and Williams' (2003) evidence indicates home nations typically benefit from home advantage. Nevertheless, the influential and contextual processes of leadership may have played a small part in the success of each sport's athletes. Ahead of Rio 2016, leaders may benefit from understanding the values of their athletes' social identities in order to propose and establish team values that resonate with athletes and are conducive to fulfill the collective vision.

The first aim of this thesis was to adopt a social identity perspective to analyse leaders' media communication in a real life setting. In sum, by addressing this aim study one has shown that leaders' media communication at London 2012 was explained by the contextual and influential nature of social identity leadership (Haslam et al., 2011; Hogg, 2001). In addition, the findings extend the social identity approach to leadership by reporting leaders aimed to create team identities, values and visions to, in turn, mobilise TeamGB athletes to peak performance

and to motivate public support. In a further contribution to knowledge, during and following the Olympics leaders sustained the communication of team values, reflected on TeamGB's performances, and bestowed success on the group (i.e., "we" achieved). To conclude, initial evidence was provided that leaders portrayed team values as a key theme in their media data with a view to mobilise their team towards the team's vision. This link between team values (i.e., contents of identity) and mobilisation will be explored further in studies two to four in chapter three through a quantitative design.

CHAPTER 3: LEADERS ABILITY TO MOBILISE GROUPS: CONTENTS OF

IDENTITY

3.1 Introduction

Study one showed that London 2012 leaders' media communication drew upon the

contextual and influential nature of social identity leadership (Haslam et al., 2011; Hogg, 2001).

In sum, higher order themes of team identities, values, and visions emerged from the analysis in

study one and provided initial evidence that leaders aimed to create team values with a view to

mobilise their team towards the collective vision. Given that study one detailed preliminary

evidence that leaders may create team values (i.e., contents of identity) within a shared identity,

this current chapter sought to better understand the effect of different contents of identity on

team members' mobilisation. Accordingly, chapter three extends chapter two by examining the

effect of converging and diverging contents of identity (between leaders and group members) on

intentional and behavioural mobilisation.

The social identity framework as an approach to understand intergroup and leadership

behaviour is widely established (see Amiot & Aubin, 2013; Haslam, 2004). The social identity

analysis of leadership contends that leadership is a social process bound up in group

memberships (Hogg, 2001; van Knippenberg & Hogg, 2003). Substantial literature has

documented the positive influence of social identification as the foundation of effective

leadership (e.g., Fielding & Hogg, 1997; for a review see Hogg, 2001). Social identification

refers to an "individual's knowledge that he [or she] belongs to certain social groups together

with some emotional value and significance to him [or her] of this group membership" (Tajfel,

1972, p. 292). In other words, social identity reflects the extent to which an individual feels they

belong to a group, while an individual's perception of their group memberships (i.e., their social identities) contribute to their sense of self (Giessner et al., 2009). Leadership research within the social identity tradition has suggested that leaders who are able to create shared identification between themselves and group members are more likely to be supported (van Dijke & De Cremer, 2010), trusted (Geissner et al., 2009), and perceived as effective (van Knippenberg & van Knippenberg, 2005). In short, across varied methodologies including laboratory experiments (e.g., van Knippenberg & van Knippenberg, 2005) and field studies (e.g., Fielding & Hogg, 1997) the social identity analysis has been used to explain leadership processes. Broadly, evidence has suggested leadership effectiveness stems from being perceived as part of and strengthening group members' identification with the in-group (Haslam et al., 2011). In turn, developing a shared sense of social identification within the in-group results in group members seeing the fate of the group as their own, producing intrinsic motivation to ensure one's own in-group is unique compared to out-groups (Haslam, 2004).

In social contexts such as leading groups individuals define themselves in relation to in-group characteristics. Accordingly, when individuals' feel a meaningful attachment to a group, their cognitions and behaviours are likely to reflect the characteristics of the in-group (Adarves-Yorno et al., 2006; Reicher, 1984). Evidence for such team characteristics or values were found in chapter two and in social identity terms are defined as an individual's (a leader's or a group member's) content of identity (Postmes & Spears, 1998; Turner, 1999). For example, in study one analysis of Sir David Brailsford's media data portrayed contents of attention to detail, innovation, and British resiliency. The social identity approach would suggest that cyclists who identify with British cycling would be attentive to detail, innovative, and display British resiliency. Thus, understanding the effects of the relationship between leaders' and group

members' contents of identity on group members' mobilisation of effort would be valuable to advance the social identity approach to leadership and in providing recommendations for leaders in practice.

3.1.1 Contents of Identity

Studies two to four in the current chapter three build on chapter two and offer an original contribution to knowledge by examining the effect of converging (leader and group members have the same) and diverging (leader and group members have different) identity contents on the mobilisation of group members. Across and within social groups the content of leaders' and members' identification will vary (Postmes et al., 2005). For example, an individual may value the results of their group and self-stereotype that "we are winners" (e.g., Doosje, Spears, & Ellemers, 2002). Whereas the team content of identity within British athletics shown in chapter two centred upon accountability. Reicher's (1984) seminal work indicated contents of identity directed crowd behaviour during the St. Pauls' Riots. In particular, crowd members' behaviour reflected, and was limited to, the contents of individuals' shared identification. Further, in two experiments Adarves-Yorno et al. (2006) manipulated participants' content of identity to be creative or conservative. Data showed that when social identification was salient, perceptions of creative or conservative actions were guided by the content of the group. Increasing knowledge of identity contents further, Meeussen, Delvaux, and Phalet (2013) reported evidence for value convergence, reflecting an alignment of group members' content of identity within a singular group. Meeussen et al. (2013) analysis revealed that the establishment of value convergence, whereby group members negotiate and agree on aligned values, longitudinally predicts group formation and performance in the workplace. Taken together, such evidence (e.g., Adarves-

Yorno et al., 2006; Meeussen et al., 2013) implies that group formation, cognitions, and behaviours may be governed by the content of individuals' identities yet the influence of identity content in leadership contexts has received little research attention. Therefore, the purpose of this chapter is to examine the effect of leaders' and group members' identity contents on group members' mobilisation of effort and perceptions of leadership effectiveness.

Related to identity content, researchers have investigated the notion of prototypicality. Prototypicality refers to the extent to which leaders are able to demonstrate their similarity with and represent their group (Hogg, 2001). Leaders displaying qualities, attributes, and behaviours that emphasise their similarity with group members has been found to strengthen leadership endorsements and perceptions of effectiveness from group members (van Knippenberg & van Knippenberg, 2005; van Knippenberg, 2011). For instance, group prototypical leaders are typically perceived as more trustworthy than non-prototypical leaders, with group members allowing leaders they perceive as prototypical more leeway following failure (Geissner et al., 2009). In a similar manner, the value(s) that individuals' associate with their group membership (i.e., identity content; Postmes & Spears, 1998; Turner, 1999) may or may not be aligned with other group members, including the leader. Contents of identity are distinct from prototypicality because individuals offer various explanations of what it means to be members of their distinct groups (Postmes et al., 2005), reflecting the notion that leaders and group members may have their own unique identity content. Accordingly, the interplay of identity contents between leaders and group members has received scant research attention, while ultimately, leaders may aim for group members to take on values that align with the leader's to mobilise (Seyranian, in press) the group towards the leader's vision.

3.1.2 Leadership Outcomes and Mobilisation

An additional area the current chapter adds to extant literature centres upon the assessment of group members' perceptions of leaders. Typically, researchers have assessed self-reported perceptions of leadership effectiveness as a measure of success (e.g., van Knippenberg & van Knippenberg, 2005). Recently, scholars have examined perhaps more robust measures of leadership effectiveness through the assessment of influence (Subašić et al., 2011) and intentional mobilisation (Halevy et al., 2011; Seyranian, in press). This development contributes to the leadership field because measures of influence and intentional mobilisation more reliably resonate with the influential nature of leadership; "a process whereby an individual influences a group of individuals to achieve a common goal" (Northouse, 2010, p.3). Accordingly, measurement of processes such as group members' mobilisation to complete tasks that progress the group to achieve common objectives are an accurate and valuable outcome of assessment in leadership terms. Indeed, theorists (Haslam et al., 2011) have argued that mobilisation is at the centre of leadership and aligns with the social and influential nature of leadership (Northouse, 2010). Research developments have begun to measure intentional mobilisation by assessing participants' intentions to engage in collective action (Seyranian, in press), or how many hours they would be willing to dedicate to a task asked of them by a leader (Halevy et al., 2011). The current chapter presents three studies (studies two to four) that build on chapter two and preliminary investigations (e.g., Halevy et al., 2011) that have measured mobilisation. Specifically, study two adopted an intentional mobilisation measure adapted from Halevy et al. (2011) and Seyranian (in press), before study three and four examined a behavioural assessment of mobilisation (i.e., participants' time spent practicing). In particular, we examine how contents

of identity affect leaders' ability to intentionally and behaviourally mobilise members towards the collective vision in three quantitative studies.

3.1.3 Power Through and Power Over Strategies

In fostering effective leadership strategies rooted in social identity principles, Turner (2005) proposed a re-conceptualisation of leadership power. Previous perspectives of power contend leaders are in a natural hierarchical position of power *over* their followers (Festinger, 1953). Original theory defines power as a capacity to influence others based on a leaders' control of resources that followers value or have a desire for. Encompassing social identity and self-categorisation theories, Turner (2005) considered that categorisation of oneself as a group member becomes the basis for influence and power *through* the group. The psychological categorisation and development of shared social identification becomes the foundation of effective group functioning (Tuner et al., 1987), and gives rise to influence between group members (Turner, 2005). Accordingly, the power through approach brings together what group members want to do and uses that as a vehicle for action, which is in contrast with the notion that leaders best influence followers by having control of resources (i.e., reward/punishment) and their hierarchical position allowing capacity to exhibit power over individuals. As explained by Simon and Oakes (2006), power over involves imposing an external agency on the group, while power through involves recruiting the agency of the group. To build on the first two studies in this chapter, study four examines the effectiveness of power through and power over strategies as leadership techniques to create converging contents of identity (i.e., common values) and under conditions of failure. Repeated failure may mitigate effective group functioning, with groups less likely to respond in a collective manner (Jackson, 2011). Chapter three extends previous work

examining the effect of failure feedback (Rees et al., 2013) by investigating the effectiveness of power through and power over leadership strategies in creating identity convergence following repeated failure. Accordingly, the present research investigated the effects of repeated failure on convergence of identity contents and thus allowed for the examination of leadership power strategies under adverse circumstances that evidence (Jackson, 2011) has demonstrated may hinder group functioning.

3.1.4 The Current Research

Institutional ethical approval was gained for three studies individually. The current paper involves three studies to elucidate extant literature and build on the findings of chapter two. In-line with aim two of the thesis, study two adopts a hypothetical design to examine the effect of identity contents on perceptions of leadership effectiveness and intentional mobilisation. That is, social identity theory and research has evidenced that the creation of social identification underpins effective leadership (e.g., Geissner & van Knippenberg, 2008) yet beyond identification the reasons individuals ascribe to their group membership have not been accounted for in previous research. Therefore, study two examines the effect of group members' identity contents whether these converge (i.e., leader and the group share content) or diverge (i.e., leader and group have different contents) with the leader on perceptions of pertinent leadership outcomes detailed in research (e.g., trust; Geissner & van Knippenberg, 2008) and intentional mobilisation. Based on the social identity approach to leadership (Haslam et al., 2011) we proposed the following hypothesis for study two:

Hypothesis 1: Converging identity contents between the leader and group members will result in increased perceptions of leadership effectiveness and intentional mobilisation compared to diverging identity contents.

Next, study three aims to replicate study two by examining the effect of converging and diverging identity content, yet extend study two by assessing behavioural mobilisation and task performance within a laboratory setting. In addition, study three advances previous leadership research by examining the mediating role of behavioural mobilisation in the relationship between converging contents of identity and task performance. Addressing aim two of the thesis, based on social identity theory the following hypotheses are proposed for study three:

Hypothesis 2: Converging identity contents between the leader and group members will result in increased behavioural mobilisation and, in turn, improved task performance compared to the diverging condition.

Hypothesis 3: Behavioural mobilisation will mediate the positive relationship between converging contents of identity and task performance when controlling for baseline performance.

Study four in this chapter builds on Turner's (2005) approaches to power and addresses aim three of this thesis by examining the influence of power through and over strategies on the creation of converging identity content and behavioural mobilisation, together with evaluating effects following repeated failure. Based on social identity theory the following hypotheses are proposed for study four:

Hypothesis 4: In the short-term power through and power over strategies will be effective in creating converging contents of identity.

Hypothesis 5: Following repeated failure the power through strategy will be more effective in maintaining converging contents of identity compared to the power over strategy.

3.2 Study Two

3.3 Method

3.3.1 Participants and Design

To achieve appropriate power based on the moderate effect sizes reported in previous social identity leadership research (e.g., van Knippenberg & van Knippenberg, 2005) one-hundred and sixty individuals (M_{age} = 20.03, SD = 3.06) completed the study (Clark-Carter, 2010). Participants had experience of sport competition (M_{years} = 9.50, SD_{years} = 4.10) from recreational (49.4%) to national/international (19.4%) level. Twenty-two sports including team and individual sports were represented, while the sample comprised 124 males and 35 females (n = 1 did not respond). Participants classed themselves as white British (n = 156), American (n = 1), Pakistani (n = 1), while two participants did not respond. The study adopted a cross-sectional between-subject design with four hypothetical conditions; two converging content (i.e., leader and group converge on results or friendships), and two diverging content (i.e., leader results, group friendships or leader friendships, group results). In all conditions, participants read a coach-athlete scenario that described the participant as a member of a sports team where they felt a great sense of belonging (i.e., identification). Additionally, a strong connection between the

team and coach was emphasised, before participants were instructed that there would be one training session remaining before a competitive match. The coach had requested that the participant spent 15 hours on a task in preparation for the training session. To differentiate between conditions, the coach's and sport team's content of identity was manipulated to be results or friendships. For example, the scenario in the converging results condition was as follows:

> You are part of a sports team where you feel a great sense of belonging and your team has a strong connection and bond with your coach. Your team and the coach feel that results are of utmost importance. Your team has a game at the weekend and there is only one training session remaining before the game. Because your coach values results, they want to work on the team's tactical strategy in the training session. In preparation for the training session your coach has asked you to work on a task, related to the team's tactical strategy, that will take up to 15 hours to complete.

Across the conditions, the leader/group content was amended as appropriate. For example, the scenario of diverging coach results and team friendships was as follows: Your coach feels that results are of utmost importance; however, what your team value the most are the friendships within the team. The second amendment, if appropriate, ensured the task the coach asked of participants aligned with the coach's value. The amendment to the above scenario for coaches that valued friendships was as follows: Because your coach values friendships, they want to complete a team building activity in the training session. Please refer to Appendix 1 for the scripts used in each condition.

3.3.2 Procedure and Measures

Participants provided informed consent before reading one of the four scenarios and completing the following measures. All measures for this study can be found in Appendix 1.

Demographic questionnaire. Participants noted their age, gender, main sport, years experience, standard of performance, and ethnicity.

Manipulation checks. Participants completed two scales utilised from pre-existing measures; *leader identification* (three-items, e.g., "you identify strongly with the coach"; Haslam, 2004; Postmes, Haslam, & Jans, 2013; Cronbach's alpha = .77), and *group identification* (three-items, e.g., "you feel a strong connection with the team"; Bizumic, Reynolds, Turner, Bromhead, & Subašić, 2009; Cronbach's alpha = .62). A third manipulation check was administered to check the converging and diverging manipulations (Evans, Slater, Turner, & Barker, 2013); *leader results content* (one-item, "results are of most importance for the coach"), *leader friendships content* (one-item, "friendships are of most importance for the coach"), *group results content* (one-item, "results are of most importance for the team"), and *group friendships content* (one-item, "friendships are of most importance for the team").

Perceptions of leader. Participants responded to subscales to assess leader outcomes utilised in social identity leadership research; *commitment* (three-items, e.g., "the coach is very committed to your team"; Geissner & van Knippenberg, 2008; Cronbach's alpha = .67), *leader effectiveness* (five-items, e.g., "the coach is very effective; Geissner & van Knippenberg; Cronbach's alpha = .84), *trust* (three-items, e.g., "you absolutely trust the coach"; Geissner & van Knippenberg; Cronbach's alpha = .74), *prototypicality* (three-items, e.g., "the coach

represents what is characteristic about your team"; van Knippenberg & van Knippenberg, 2005; Cronbach's alpha = .85), and *influence* (five-items, e.g., "you are interested in the type of training the coach wants to do"; Subašić et al., 2011; Cronbach's alpha = .82).

Mobilisation. Two measures of mobilisation included (i) five self-report items (e.g., "you want to make a distinct contribution to the final training session to impress the coach"; Cronbach's alpha = .83), and (ii) based upon previous research (Halevy et al., 2011; Seyranian, in press) participants completed the item "how many hours (out of 15) would you be willing to dedicate to the preparation task set by the coach".

Participants rated the extent to which they agreed with each item on a 7-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (*do not agree at all*) to 7 (*completely agree*) unless otherwise stated. Greater scores indicated greater item agreement. Following the questionnaire, participants were asked to what extent they were able to imagine themselves in the scenario. Participants that responded (*not at all*) were not included in the sample of one-hundred and sixty participants reported and were removed from analyses.

3.4 Results

3.4.1 Manipulation Checks

Leader and group social identification. As expected four independent-samples *t*-tests determined no significant differences within the two converging, and within the two diverging conditions, on identification with the leader (converging; $t_{(78)} = .617$, $p = .539$ and diverging; ($t_{(78)} = .581$, $p = .563$) or the group (converging; $t_{(78)} = .782$, $p = .436$ and diverging; ($t_{(78)} = .572$, $p = .569$).

Converging and diverging social identity content. In the converging conditions, two paired samples *t*-tests indicated no differences between the leader and group's allocated content (converging results; group result content $M = 6.03$, leader result content $M = 6$, $t_{(39)} = .190$, $p = .85$, and converging friendships; group friendship content $M = 5.6$, leader friendship content $M = 5.6$, $t_{(39)} = .000$, $p = 1$). In the two diverging conditions, two paired samples *t*-tests showed no significant differences between leader and group content in the expected direction (leader results/group friendships; leader result content $M = 5.9$; group friendship content $M = 5.85$, $t_{(39)} = .285$, $p = .777$, and leader friendships/group results; leader friendship content $M = 5.78$; group result content $M = 5.63$, $t_{(39)} = .813$, $p = .421$). As a result, two groups remained–converging ($n = 80$) and diverging ($n = 80$).

3.4.2 Analytic Strategy

Two multivariate analysis of variances (MANOVA) with condition (converging/diverging) as the between-subjects factor were computed. Each MANOVA was followed by a discriminant functional analysis to determine the relative contribution of each dependent variable to the equation. Prior to analyses, assumption checks (e.g., normal distribution, multicollinearity and homogeneity of variance-covariance; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007) were completed and indicated the presence of outliers. Shapiro Wilks tests indicated the presence of significant outliers ($p < .05$) in six dependent variables. Cases below or above two z-scores were windsorized ($n = 6$ for commitment, $n = 5$ for trust, $n = 8$ for prototypicality, $n = 7$ for influence, $n = 9$ for mobilisation, and no cases fell above or below two z-scores for mobilisation hours) following relevant guidelines (Smith, 2011; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007).

3.4.3 Dependent Variables

Perceptions of leader. MANOVA indicated when there was a converging rather than a diverging content of identity between leader and group, leaders were perceived as more effective across leader outcomes (Wilks' $\Lambda = .73$, $F_{(5,154)} = 11.45$, $p < .001$, $\eta^2_p = .27$). See Table 3.1 for an overview of the results. Follow-up discriminant functional analyses were performed with condition (converging vs. diverging) as the dependent variable and commitment, leadership effectiveness, influence, trust, and prototypicality as predictor variables. Univariate ANOVA's revealed that the converging and diverging participants differed significantly on all predictor variables. A single discriminant function was calculated and the value of this function was significantly different for the converging and diverging condition (chi-square = 47.02, df = 5, $p < .001$). Correlations between the predictor variables and the discriminant function indicated that influence (.94) and trust (.73) were the best predictors of identity content between the leader and the group, while prototypicality (.60) provided a moderate contribution and commitment (.20) and leadership effectiveness (.02) low contributions (standardized coefficients above .30 suggested to be meaningful; Pedhazur, 1997). Overall, the discriminant function successfully predicted outcome for 72% of cases.

Mobilisation. MANOVA indicated participants were more mobilised in the converging rather than a diverging condition (Wilks' $\Lambda = .78$, $F_{(2, 154)} = 22.07$, $p < .001$, $\eta^2_p = .22$). Follow-up discriminant functional analyses were performed with condition (converging vs. diverging) as the dependent variable and self-reported mobilisation and mobilisation hours as predictor variables. Univariate ANOVA's revealed that the converging and diverging participants differed significantly on both predictor variables. A single discriminant function was calculated and the

value of this function was significantly different for the converging and diverging condition (chi-square = 38.12, df = 2, $p < .001$). Correlations between the predictor variables and the discriminant function indicated that mobilisation hours (.64) and self-reported mobilisation (.58) were strong predictors of identity content between the leader and the group (standardized coefficients above .30 suggested to be meaningful; Pedhazur, 1997). Overall, the discriminant function successfully predicted outcome for 72% of cases.

3.5 Discussion

Study two builds on study one's findings by demonstrating that contents of identity influenced group members' perceptions of leaders' effectiveness and intentional mobilisation towards the leaders' vision. In-line with hypothesis one, when identity contents converged between the group and the leader, group members' perceived the leader as more effective across leader outcomes and indicated they were more mobilised by the leader. In contrast, when identity contents diverged from that of the leader, then group members perceived the leader as less committed, effective, trustworthy, prototypical, and influential, together with being less mobilised on a task asked of them by the leader.

Research evidence (e.g., van Knippenberg & van Knippenberg, 2005) has demonstrated that leaders' ability to create shared social identification within the group they lead is crucial for perceptions of leadership effectiveness. The present data adds to current understanding by indicating that beyond social identification, the content of group members' and leaders' identification effects perceptions of various pertinent parameters of leadership effectiveness and intentional mobilisation. Previous research investigating the formation of groups has suggested value convergence between group members is associated with group formation and performance

over time (Meeussen et al., 2013). Current findings build on Meeussen and colleagues work by suggesting that the alignment of identity contents between leaders and group members is beneficial for leadership practice. Taken together, the current data considered the influence of identity content and assessed mobilisation and thus provides an original contribution to the field.

An additional result indicated by the current study that contributes to knowledge is that no differences were found within both the converging and diverging conditions. Two converging and two diverging conditions were created to examine whether differences would occur dependent upon the specific content of identification in question (i.e., results or friendships). Data suggested that the specific content of identity may be of less importance than the act of converging or diverging itself. This finding provided the rationale for combining the converging and diverging conditions, and from a leadership perspective, suggests the particular content of a group's identity is of less importance than the act of convergence between leader and group members on the content of identity. In short, it does not matter what you agree on, so long as you agree (i.e., share values). Accordingly, from an applied perspective current data indicates leaders should work to create a shared content of identity, but the precise detail of the content (e.g., whether it centres on results or friendships) may be of less relevance.

In sum, study two has provided preliminary evidence that aligned contents of identity between leaders and group members increases leaders' capability to mobilise the group. Notwithstanding the contribution to knowledge there are limitations that could be addressed in future studies. Although realistic and representative of a plausible sporting situation, the study utilised hypothetical scenarios, while the mobilisation measure captured intentional behaviour (Halevy et al., 2011; Seyranian, in press). A more objective measure of mobilisation assessing

participants' behaviour in an experimental setting may be a stronger measure of mobilisation. In addition, no measure of performance was included in the protocol. These two shortcomings are addressed in study three in a laboratory experiment and regard aims two and three of the thesis.

3.6 Study Three

3.7 Introduction

Building on the findings of the hypothetical experiment, study three details a laboratory experiment that explored the effect, and meditational pathways, of converging and diverging identity content between leaders and group members on behavioural mobilisation and task performance. Leadership is an active process (Northouse, 2010) and thus capturing behavioural mobilisation (i.e., group members' behaviour) is a novel contribution to identity leadership research by moving beyond self-report measures. Indeed, social identity inquiry (e.g., Subašić et al., 2011) has advocated assessments of leadership effectiveness that move beyond self-report to overcome the shortcomings of social desirability associated with questionnaires (Fisher, 1993).

Examining the impact of converging and diverging identity contents in a laboratory experiment further explored findings from study one where converging, compared to diverging content of identity produced more positive perceptions of leader outcomes and increased mobilisation. Specifically, study three examined hypotheses two and three, together with building on the hypothetical experiment by investigating the influence of identity contents on a more objective measure of mobilisation and task performance. Finally, to extend previous research by highlighting potential mechanisms of change, the mediating effect of behavioural mobilisation in the relationship between identity contents and task performance was examined.

Table 3.1. Means and standard deviations of the converging and diverging conditions for leader outcomes and mobilisation in studies two, three, and four.

Leadership Variable	Study two		Study three		Study four	
	Converging condition ($M \pm SD$)	Diverging condition ($M \pm SD$)	Converging condition ($M \pm SD$)	Diverging condition ($M \pm SD$)	Power through ($M \pm SD$)	Power over ($M \pm SD$)
Commitment	6.03 ± .73	5.57 ± .95	5.60 ± .90	4.41 ± 1.31	5.31 ± .69	4.49 ± 1.30
Effectiveness	5.43 ± .86	4.73 ± .91	5.14 ± 1.02	4.40 ± 1.21	5.16 ± .67	4.61 ± 1.02
Influence	5.52 ± .80	4.67 ± .91	5.35 ± .95	4.28 ± 1.20	4.92 ± .60	4.21 ± .91
Trust	5.43 ± .92	4.92 ± .86	5.01 ± 1.16	4.33 ± 1.28	5.00 ± .73	4.62 ± 1.03
Prototypicality	5.29 ± .84	4.27 ± 1.24	5.28 ± 1.22	3.01 ± 1.27	4.10 ± .72	2.78 ± 1.12
Mobilisation	5.59 ± .83	4.81 ± 1.01	5.66 ± .98	4.68 ± 1.19	5.25 ± .56	4.62 ± 1.54
Hours	11.13 ± 3.69	7.51 ± 4.37	N/A	N/A	4.90 ± 4.47*	3.65 ± 4.01*
Time (0-10)	N/A	N/A	9.23 ± 2.72	3.94 ± 4.58	6.93 ± 4.53	4.15 ± 4.26

Note. * Data reported following repeated failure.

3.8 Method

3.8.1 Participants and Design

To achieve appropriate power based on the moderate effect sizes reported in previous social identity leadership research (e.g., van Knippenberg & van Knippenberg, 2005) and in study one fifty-eight undergraduate students (14 females, 44 males) from a University in the West Midlands, United Kingdom participated in the study (Clark-Carter, 2010). The age of the sample ranged from 18 to 38 years ($M = 20.43$; $SD = 3.97$), while fifty-five participants classed themselves as White British, one as Black African, one as Asian, and one did not respond. Participants were exposed to one of two conditions: a converging or diverging condition. In the converging condition the leader's and participants' identity content centred upon results, whereas in the diverging condition the leader's identity content centred upon results while the participants' identity content centred upon having fun.

3.8.2 Manipulations

Leader and group social identification. In the laboratory participants were made aware of the connection between the group and the leader due to their association with the same department at the same University. To further emphasise this bond and to self-categorise (Turner et al., 1987) all group members (i.e., the four participants and the leader) wore identification cards displaying the University's badge. Informed by previous research (e.g., Adarves-Yorno et al., 2006), this process aimed to create a shared sense of identification between the group and the leader. The experimenter was the leader.

Group identity content. Prior to attending the laboratory participants completed a three-item pre-screening questionnaire that, once in the laboratory, participants believed to represent the identity content of their group. Nevertheless, participants were randomly allocated to an identity content of 'results' or 'fun'. In an act of self-categorisation (Turner et al., 1987), participants were invited to select and wear a badge that reflected their group's identity content.

Leader identity content. Participants were instructed that the leader valued results and this was reinforced by the leader selecting the 'results' badge. The manipulation of group and leader identity content created a converging (leader results; group results) or diverging condition (leader results; group having fun).

3.8.3 Measures

The measures were replicated from study two except: (i) a change to the identity content manipulation check; and (ii) the addition of behavioural mobilisation and performance measures. Both additional measures are detailed below. As the design and measures used in study one related to a coach-athlete scenario in this experiment participants were advised to consider the leader as their coach when completing the measures. Cronbach's alphas indicated acceptable to excellent reliability for all self-reported dependent variables replicated from study one (commitment .69, leader effectiveness .88, influence .87, trust .82, prototypicality .91, and mobilisation .92). All measures used in this study can be found in Appendix 2.

Leader and group social identity content. Participants responded to two questions ("do you feel part of a group where results is of sole importance or having fun is of sole importance?", and "do you feel the coach believes results are of sole importance or having fun is of sole

importance?") by circling one of two options (i.e., results or fun). Participants also selected one of two badges (results or fun) that represented their group.

Behavioural mobilisation. A ten minute free period assessed participants' choice of activity and the length of time spent practicing. Similar assessments have been used in previous experimental studies, for example, Elliot and Harackiewicz (1996) utilised a five minute free-choice period as a behavioural indicator of intrinsic motivation.

Performance. Task performance was collected by the time taken to complete one lap on a rally driving video game (Colin McRae Rally 04 for PC). The same lap was completed on all trials.

3.8.4 Protocol

Participants gave informed consent before completing the demographic and pre-screening questionnaire. Participants were randomly allocated to groups of four and attended the laboratory in their group. In the laboratory participants sat in an individual cubicle that contained a laptop ready to complete one lap on the video game. First, the controls for the video game were explained before participants completed one familiarisation lap. After the lap, the experimenter recorded the time taken by each participant. Participants were blind to their lap times.

After the first lap, the group and leader social identification salience and the manipulation of group and leader identity content was introduced. To further emphasise group and leader identity content, participants read a short script and selected one of two badges that represented what the group valued the most (i.e., results or fun). This act of self categorisation (Turner et al., 1987), reflecting the bogus pre-screening questionnaire feedback, to a results or fun group

together with the coach selecting the results badge, created a converging or diverging condition. Informed by research (e.g., Berger & Rand, 2008; Goldstein, Cialdini, & Griskevicius, 2008), posters and cue words that signified the group's identity content (i.e., results or fun) were placed in each cubicle, with participants given one minute to absorb the information. Participants then completed the manipulation checks of group and leader social identification and identity content. On inspection of the participants' responses, the manipulations were not effective in six cases. Subsequently, these six participants were removed from analyses. Following the manipulation checks, participants completed a second trial on the video game. On completion, the experimenter recorded the time taken by each participant.

Ten minute free period. After the second lap, participants were told there would be a ten minute free period where they would individually choose what activities they engaged with from a selection of tasks. The activities reflected either a results or fun identity content. The result content activity involved practicing the lap on the racing game, while the fun content activities involved an alternative video game, reading a newspaper or magazine, or completing word-search puzzles. Participants were free to change activities at any time, however, were instructed that if they wished to practice the lap, they would have to select this first, but could then switch tasks. Put another way, participants were not to select another activity and then change to the racing video game. It was participants' mobilisation towards the leader's value (i.e., results) that the free period aimed to capture, and this rule provided the best representation of mobilisation, negating participants from switching to practice the lap because they became bored.

Prior to the free period, the leader reiterated the group and leader identity content and stated; "Because I value results the most, I think you should spend your time practicing the time

trial lap." After the introduction of the free period, but before its initiation, participants

completed self-report measures of mobilisation. Participants were video recorded during the free

period to allow for assessment of their choice of and the time spent on each activity. Following

the ten minute free period participants completed a third trial on the racing video game. Finally,

participants answered the experimental questionnaire of leader outcomes. Please see Figure 3.1

for an overview of the protocol.

3.8.5 Analytic Strategy

Data analysis comprised four steps to examine the research objectives. First, as with

study one, two MANOVA's with condition as the between-subjects factor examined the

differences between the conditions on perceptions of leader outcomes and mobilisation. Second,

each MANOVA was followed by a discriminant functional analysis to determine the relative

contribution of each dependent variable to the equation. Third, to investigate the differences

between the conditions on task performance over time analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) was

computed. Fourth, mediation analyses were undertaken to explore the relationship between

condition, behavioural mobilisation (i.e., time spent practicing), and task performance using

AMOS. Prior to analyses, assumption checks indicated the presence of outliers. Shapiro Wilks

tests indicated the presence of significant outliers ($p < .05$) in seven dependent variables. Cases

below or above two z-scores were windsorized ($n = 1$ for self-reported mobilisation, $n = 3$ for

performance trial one, $n = 1$ for performance trial two, $n = 2$ for performance trial three, and no

cases fell above or below two z-scores for leader effectiveness, prototypicality, or time)

following relevant guidelines (Smith, 2011; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). All other assumptions

were met for MANOVA. Regarding the mediation analysis, a simple mediation model (Hayes,
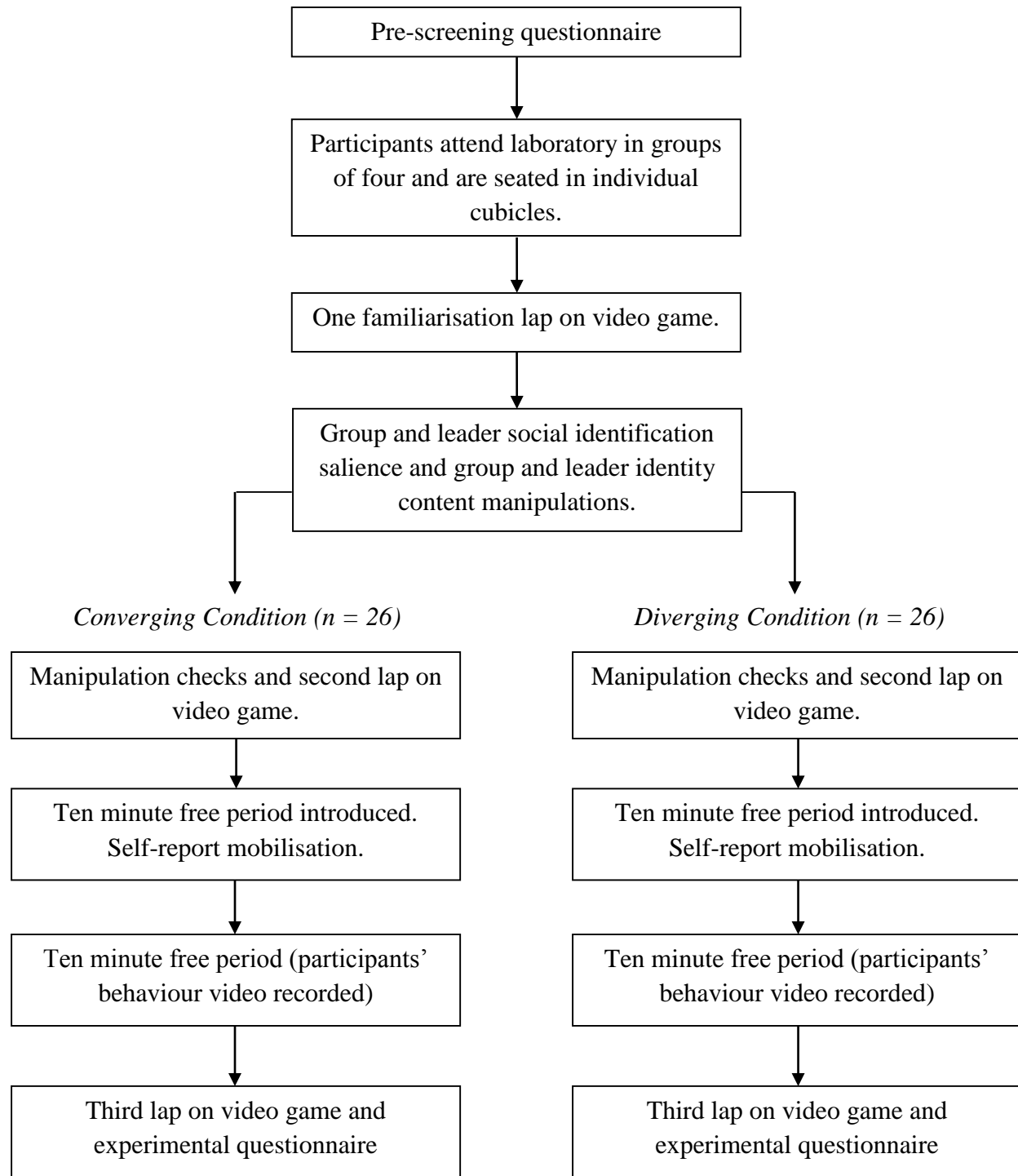
Figure 3.1. Overview of study three experimental protocol.

2009) was computed using AMOS to examine the direct and indirect mediation effects of time

(behavioural mobilisation) on the relationship between condition and performance three, while

controlling for performance two. The indirect meditational effects were assessed using a

bootstrapping procedure as outlined by Hayes (2009). Bootstrapping has been outlined to be a

robust and valid statistical technique for examining mediating variables (Williams &

MacKinnon, 2008) by generating an empirical representation of sampling distribution to evaluate

whether an indirect effect exists (see Strout & Bolger, 2002 for a comprehensive review). Zhao,

Lynch Jr., and Chen (2010) proposed a typology of mediation patterns: (a) complementary

mediation where the direct and indirect effect exist and are in the same direction; (b) competitive

mediation where the direct and indirect effect exist but in the opposite direction; (c) indirect-only

mediation where the indirect exists but the direct effect does not; (d) direct-only nonmediation

where the direct effect exists but the indirect effect does not; and (e) no-effect nonmediation

where neither the direct or indirect effect exist. Complementary and competitive mediation

presented by Zhao et al. (2010) align with Baron and Kenny's (1986) partial mediation, indirect-

only mediation relates to full mediation, while direct-only nonmediation and no-effect

nonmediation reflect non-mediation.

3.9 Results

3.9.1 Manipulation Checks

Two independent samples *t*-tests suggested a non-significant effect of group

identification ($t_{(50)} = .55$, $p = .58$), and a significant effect of leader identification ($t_{(50)} = 5.28$, p

$< .001$) between the converging and diverging conditions. With regards to the group identity

content manipulation, questionnaire responses and self-categorisation (i.e., selection of badge),

reflected participants' allocation to groups (except for the six aforementioned participants that were removed from analyses).

3.9.2 Leadership Outcomes

MANOVA revealed a significant difference between the converging and diverging conditions on the combined leader outcomes (Wilks' $\Lambda = .44$, $F_{(5,45)} = 11.9$, $p < .001$, $\eta^2_p = .56$). The converging condition reported higher perceptions of leader outcomes compared to the diverging condition (see Table 3.1). Following MANOVA, a discriminant function analysis was performed with content (converging vs. diverging) as the dependent variable and commitment, leader effectiveness, influence, trust, and prototypicality as predictor variables. Univariate ANOVA's revealed that the converging and diverging participants differed significantly on all predictor variables. A single discriminant function was calculated and the value of this function was significantly different for the converging and diverging condition (chi-square = 39.43, df = 5, $p < .001$). Correlations between the predictor variables and the discriminant function indicated that prototypicality (.81) was the best predictor of identity content between the leader and the group, while commitment (.47), influence (.45), leader effectiveness (.30), and trust (.25) provided moderate contributions (standardised coefficients above .30 suggested to be meaningful; Pedhazur, 1997). Overall, the discriminant function successfully predicted outcome for 82.7% of cases.

3.9.3 Mobilisation

MANOVA combining the behavioural and self-reported measures of mobilisation revealed a significant difference between the converging and diverging condition (Wilks' $\Lambda =$

.57, $F_{(2,49)} = 18.33$, $p < .001$, $\eta^2_p = .43$). The converging condition spent longer practicing the lap and reported higher levels of mobilisation compared to the diverging condition (see Table 3.1). Follow-up discriminant functional analyses were performed with content (converging vs. diverging) as the dependent variable and self-reported mobilisation and time spend practicing (behavioural mobilisation) as predictor variables. Univariate ANOVA's revealed that the converging and diverging participants differed significantly on both predictor variables. A single discriminant function was calculated and the value of this function was significantly different for the converging and diverging condition (chi-square = 27.38, df = 2, $p < .001$). Correlations between the predictor variables and the discriminant function indicated that time spent practicing (.83) and self-reported mobilisation (.53) were the strong predictors of identity content between the leader and the group. Overall, the discriminant function successfully predicted outcome for 82.7% of cases.

3.9.4 Performance

ANCOVA examined the differences between the converging and diverging conditions in performance trial three, with performance trial two as the covariate. ANCOVA demonstrated a significant difference between the two conditions ($F_{(1, 49)} = 8.45$, $p = .005$, $\eta^2_p = .15$). As displayed in Figure 3.2, the converging condition performed better on trial three compared to the diverging condition, when controlling for performance trial two. Adjusted mean recognition scores suggested that the converging condition (adj. $M_{time} = 01{:}41.99$) completed performance trial three quicker than the diverging condition (adj. $M_{time} = 01{:}48.09$).
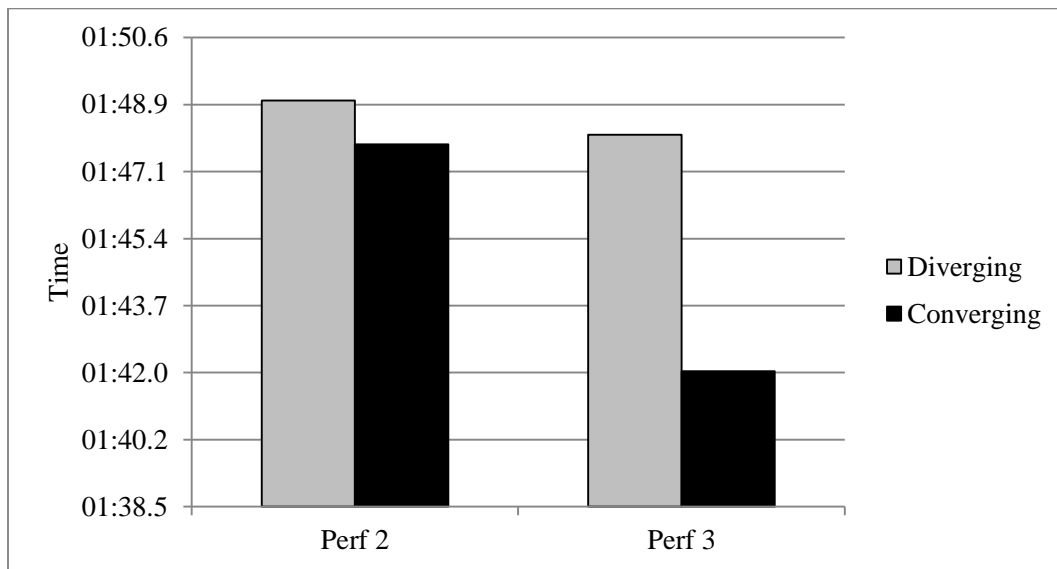
Figure 3.2. Task performance scores (in minutes and seconds) for the converging and diverging conditions in performance trial two and three.

3.9.5 Mediation Analysis

In the model (as shown in Figure 3.3), condition acted as the predictor variable (IV), time was the proposed mediator (MV), and performance trial three the outcome variable (DV), while controlling for performance trial. First, analysis of direct effects indicated a significant direct path (*c'*) from condition (IV) to performance three (DV; $\beta = .36$, $p = .003$). This path was reduced to non-significance when time (MV) was included in the model ($\beta = .19$; $p = .184$). According to Baron and Kenny (1986) these results imply full mediation. Second, bootstrapping re-samples the data five thousand times and calculates the indirect effect for each sample (Felton & Jowett, 2013). The output generated from bootstrapping includes the mean indirect effect point estimate, path coefficients for all relations in the mediation model, and the bias corrected (BC) 95% confidence interval (CI) for the indirect effect. Hayes (2009) detailed that the BC 95% CI is the pertinent parameter to ascertain whether the indirect effect has been observed.
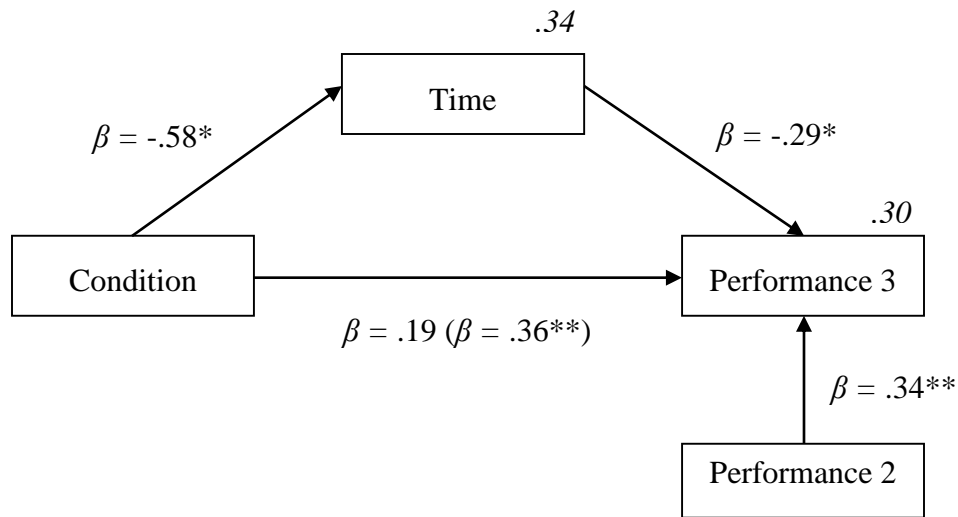
Figure 3.3. Mediation analysis of time (behavioural mobilisation) as mediating variable in the relationship between condition and performance three. *Note.* All coefficients presented are standardised and italicised figures detail the proposition of variance explained, $* = p < .05$, $** = p <.01$.

Specifically, if zero does not lay between the BC 95% CI lower and upper bound the analyst can reject the null hypothesis and conclude a significant indirect effect exists (Hayes, 2009; Strout & Bolger, 2002). The indirect effect results are displayed in Table 3.2 and indicated the BC 95% CI indirect effect was .020 (lower bound) and .410 (upper bound), thereby suggesting a significant ($p < .05$) indirect mediated effect.

Table 3.2. Bootstrap analysis summary of indirect mediation effects of time (behavioural mobilisation) on the relationship between condition and performance trial three.

Path	*a* path (IV > MV)	*b* path (MV > DV)	*c'* path (IV > DV)	Mean indirect effect	BC 95% CI mean indirect effect (lower and upper)
Condition > Time > Perf 3[1]	-.58*	-.29*	.36**	.17	.020, .410*

Note. [1] performance trial two controlled for in the model, $* p < .05$; $** p < .01$.

In sum, the paths were significantly predicted as expected, with the direct effect becoming non-significant when the mediating variable (i.e., time) was included in the model. Analysis of indirect effects via bootstrapping indicated the effect was substantial enough to reduce the direct effect to non-significance and was significant suggesting complementary mediation (Zhou et al., 2010). Initial evidence has been provided for a partially mediated effect.

3.10 Discussion

The results from the laboratory experiment contribute to leadership knowledge and build on study two in this thesis by suggesting that group members are significantly more behaviourally mobilised by leaders who are perceived to have converging, compared to a diverging, values with the group. In accord with hypothesis two, data indicated that when there is a converging content of identity between leaders and group members, the group are behaviourally mobilised to practice a task that progresses the group towards the leader's vision (i.e., improved results). Subsequently, participants in the converging condition performed better on performance trial three, when controlling for performance two, compared to the diverging condition. Finally, partial support was observed for hypothesis three as mediation analyses provided evidence that the time spent practicing during the ten minute free period (i.e., behavioural mobilisation) partially mediated the relationship between condition and performance on trial three, when controlling for performance on trial two (Zhou et al., 2010). Such complementary mediation (Zhou et al., 2010) provides a novel contribution to knowledge by implying that the predictive effect of converging content on task performance was in part explained by increased behavioural mobilisation.

Current data builds on findings of study one and is in accordance with evidence suggesting group members' content of identity directs individuals' behaviour (Adarves-Yorno et al., 2006; Reicher, 1984). Study three provides preliminary evidence that the creation of a shared content of identity between group members and leaders mobilises group members' behaviour in a manner that reflects shared values. In contrast, when a divergence in the content of identity prevailed between leaders and group members, the leader was significantly less able to mobilise participants to behaviourally engage with a task reflecting the leader's values. Taken together the results imply that converging identity content improves task performance (when controlling for previous performance), which is partially explained (i.e., mediated) by increased mobilised behaviour (i.e., time spent practicing). Thus, in practical terms leaders that are able to create a converging identity content may see improvements in task performance, which are somewhat explained by group members' mobilisation of effort.

An intriguing result to emerge from study three was that the diverging condition reported lower levels of leader identification compared to the converging condition. A shortcoming of the design of study three was that identification with the leader was measured once, following the social identity and identity content manipulations. As no baseline measure was taken we cannot be certain if the diverging condition randomly identified less, or if the diverging manipulation produced the lower levels of identification with the leader. From a social identity perspective, leaders that represent groups' values are typically endorsed and supported more (van Knippenberg & van Knippenberg, 2005). Plausibly, in turn, identification with leaders is strengthened when they are perceived to reflect what the group values. Indeed, Haslam et al. (2011) has proposed the plausible reciprocal nature of the social identification process. However, the current research design, with one measurement of leader identification, did not allow for

change to be assessed. Notwithstanding the reciprocal nature of social identification, the current protocol encouraged participants to view the leader as an in-group member through the association with a shared department at the same university. Identification holders displaying the University's badge emphasised and self-categorised (Turner et al., 1987) the leader's and participants' allegiance. Taking this finding forward, study four builds on the current study by including a measure of identification with the leader before and after the diverging content manipulation to examine the effect of diverging identity content on identification with the leader.

From a leadership perspective, the positive influence of establishing converging identity contents between leaders and group members compared to a divergence provides a rationale to explore how leaders can create a convergence of identity in groups. Further, study four advances the thesis by examining research questions that may have implications for leaders. For example, how effective are different techniques when leaders are faced with a situation in which a diverging content between themselves and their group exists (e.g., during organisational change or a newly appointed leader). Determining effective leadership strategies under conditions of diverging identity content appears warranted given that study two and three data indicated the positive outcomes associated with convergence for perceptions of leader outcomes, behavioural mobilisation, and task performance. Therefore, study four builds on studies two and three by investigating the effect of two leadership strategies on the creation of identity content convergence.

3.11 Study Four

3.12 Introduction

Effective leadership involves achieving collective targets with the group (Haslam et al., 2011; Northouse, 2010), and leaders have a significant role to play, particularly in difficult times or periods of organisational change, to facilitate teamwork and achievement (van Knippenberg, 2011). Findings from study two and three within this chapter offer preliminary evidence that when a converging, rather than a diverging, content prevails between group members and the leader within a shared social identity, followers perceive leaders to be more trustworthy, influential, and are more mobilised to behave in-line with the leaders values (i.e., practice to improve results). Study four builds on these findings by examining the effect of two leadership power strategies (Turner, 2005) in diverging conditions. In particular, a power through strategy, informed by social identity evidence (Turner, 2005) is compared to a power over strategy, adopting a more traditional hierarchical approach to power (Festinger, 1953), to examine effects on creating identity content convergence between leaders and group members. In this way, study four provides a novel contribution to knowledge because power through and over approaches have yet to be compared in leadership contexts and are likely to derive recommendations for leadership practice. An additional contribution to extant literature involves investigation of the effectiveness of power through and power over techniques under repeated group failure.

Given the positive benefits of a converging content for perceived leader effectiveness and behavioural mobilisation noted in studies one and two, the purpose of this experiment was to examine the effect of power through and power over strategies in creating a converging content of identity between the leader and group members (hypothesis four), and the maintenance of this effect following repeated group failure (hypothesis five). A secondary aim of the study was to explore the finding from study three that the diverging content condition reported lower levels of leader identification.

3.13 Method

3.13.1 Participants and Design

To achieve appropriate power based on the moderate effect sizes reported in previous social identity leadership research (e.g., van Knippenberg & van Knippenberg, 2005) Fifty-seven undergraduate students (45 male, 12 female) from a University in the West Midlands of the UK were involved in the experiment (Clark-Carter, 2010). The age of the sample ranged from 18 to 26 years ($M = 18.84$; $SD = 1.33$), while fifty-six participants classed themselves as White British and one as Indian. A within-subjects design with two conditions examined the effect of two leadership strategies (power through or power over) in a diverging identity content context (leader results; group having fun).

3.13.2 Manipulations

The same manipulations for group and leader identity content (i.e., pre-screening questionnaire, posters, and cue words), and group and leader identification were used as study three.

3.13.3 Protocol

Procedures were the same as study three, except for the following additions and amendments due to the research objectives. Please see Figure 3.4 for an overview of the protocol.

Additional group and leader identification and identity content measurements. Following the introduction of group and leader identification manipulation, participants

completed the group and leader identification manipulation checks before the manipulation of group (i.e., having fun) and leader (i.e., results) identity content. As in study three, after the reinforcement of group identity content, participants completed all manipulation checks. These manipulation checks were also taken after the power through and power over strategies and at the end of the protocol.

Power through and power over strategies. Following performance trial two participants were exposed to a power through or power over strategy. Adopting principles of identity leadership (Haslam et al., 2011) and recent conceptualisations of power (Turner, 2005), participants in the power through condition were told "we should combine the reasons we are part of this group to make our group about having fun and results". Subsequently, posters and cue words (e.g., success, victory) reflecting the leader's results identity content were added to the having fun materials already present in participants' cubicles. Based on research that has promoted social identities through posters and cue words (e.g., Berger & Rand, 2008; Goldstein et al., 2008), and consistent with study three, the posters and cue words emphasised the appropriate manipulations. In contrast, participants in the power over condition were told "I'm about results and I'm not willing to consider your interests as a group". Subsequently, the having fun posters and cue words were removed. Participants read a script to reinforce the above statements.

Additional performance trials and the failure phase. The experimental questionnaire was proceeded by three further performance trials (four to six). Three additional trials allowed for repeated failure feedback to be disclosed. Specifically, following performance trial three to six, participants were given a false feedback form and were told: "As a group this is how you

```
┌─────────────────────────────────────────────┐
│          Pre-screening questionnaire         │
└─────────────────────────────────────────────┘
                      │
                      ▼
┌─────────────────────────────────────────────┐
│  Participants attend laboratory in groups    │
│  of four and are seated in individual        │
│  cubicles.                                   │
└─────────────────────────────────────────────┘
                      │
                      ▼
┌─────────────────────────────────────────────┐
│      One familiarisation lap on video game.  │
└─────────────────────────────────────────────┘
                      │
                      ▼
┌─────────────────────────────────────────────┐
│  Group and leader social identification      │
│  salience followed by manipulation check.    │
└─────────────────────────────────────────────┘
                      │
                      ▼
┌ ─ ─ ─ ─ ─ ─ ─ ─ ─ ─ ─ ─ ─ ─ ─ ─ ─ ─ ─ ─ ─ ┐
   Group and leader identity content
│  manipulations followed by manipulation     │
   check.
└ ─ ─ ─ ─ ─ ─ ─ ─ ─ ─ ─ ─ ─ ─ ─ ─ ─ ─ ─ ─ ─ ┘
```

Power Through Condition   *Power Over Condition*

Power Through Condition	*Power Over Condition*
Second lap on video game.	Second lap on video game.
Power through manipulation followed by manipulation checks	Power over manipulation followed by manipulation checks
Ten minute free period introduced. Self-report mobilisation.	Ten minute free period introduced. Self-report mobilisation.
Ten minute free period (participants' behaviour video recorded)	Ten minute free period (participants' behaviour video recorded)
Third lap on video game and experimental questionnaire (inc. task motivation and intentional behaviour	Third lap on video game and experimental questionnaire (inc. task motivation and intentional behaviour
Bogus feedback failure given referring to third lap	Bogus feedback failure given referring to third lap
Laps four to six completed, with bogus failure feedback between each lap	Laps four to six completed, with bogus failure feedback between each lap
Group and leader identity content manipulation check, measures of task motivation and intentional behaviour	Group and leader identity content manipulation check, measures of task motivation and intentional behaviour

Figure 3.4. Overview of study four experimental protocol. *Note.* Dashed lines are added from study three

have performed. As you can see, you are group 6 and you have performed very poorly compared to other groups on the previous trial." After performance trial three (but before the first false feedback), and again following the final feedback (after trail six), participants completed the manipulation checks of group and leader identity content, together with measures of task motivation and future intentions which were new to study three (details in the measures section).

3.13.4 Measures

Measures were the same as study three except one amendment and one addition. The identity content manipulation checks for the group and leader reverted back to those used in study one (i.e., on a Likert scale rather than circling one of two options). The Likert scale allowed for parametric statistical tests to examine leader identification from pre- to post-diverging manipulation in addition to the scale acting as a manipulation check. The additional measure involved a three-item scale of task motivation (Subašić et al., 2011), and an assessment of intentional behaviour as part of the experimental questionnaire and at the end of the protocol. The measure of intentional behaviour was adapted to the experimental context from that used in study one. Specifically, participants were asked "How many hours would you be willing to dedicate to practice the driving task over the next week (7 days)?" All measures used in this study can be found in Appendix 3.

3.13.5 Analytic Strategy

Prior to analyses assumption checks were completed. First, three participants were removed from analyses as they did not identify with the group ($M < 2$) throughout the experiment, leaving a remaining sample of 54 participants. Second, Shapiro Wilks tests indicated

the presence of significant outliers ($p < .05$) in two dependent variables. Cases below or above

two z-scores were windsorized ($n = 3$ for commitment and $n = 5$ for influence) following

relevant guidelines (Smith, 2011; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). Data analysis comprised four

stages. First, to ensure no differences in group results identity content existed prior to the power

manipulations an independent samples t-test compared the power through and power over

condition. Next, to examine the effect of the power through and power over strategies on group

results identity content following the power manipulations a second independent samples t-test

was performed. To investigate effects following failure, a paired samples (pre- to post-failure) t-

test was calculated for each condition. Second, to investigate the effects between the two power

conditions on perceptions of leader effectiveness and mobilisation, as in studies one and two, two

separate MANOVA's were computed. Third, to explore the influence of creating a diverging

identity content on participants' identification with the leader a paired samples t-test was

completed on the entire sample. Fourth, to examine the effect of repeated failure on task

motivation two independent samples t-tests compared the power through and power over

condition pre- and post-failure. Next, to examine the effect of repeated failure on intentional

behaviour two independent samples t-tests compared the power through and power over

condition pre- and post-failure.

3.14 Results

3.14.1 Manipulation Checks

As expected, six independent samples t-tests suggested non-significant effects between

the conditions for group ($t_{(48.12)} = .88$, $p = .38$), and leader ($t_{(52)} = 1.30$, $p = .20$) identification,

group ($t_{(52)} = 1.51$, $p = .14$) and leader ($t_{(38.40)} = 1.12$, $p = .27$) results identity content, and group

($t_{(51)}$ = 1.40, p = .17) and leader fun ($t_{(52)}$ = .57, p = .57) identity content. Group identity content

manipulation was qualified with participants' self-categorisation (i.e., selection of badge). In

sum, the manipulations were as expected: both conditions identified with the group and leader,

together with perceptions of leader results and group having fun content reflecting divergence.

3.14.2 Developing Converging Content of Identity and Failure

Prior to receiving the power manipulations, an independent samples t-test indicated no

difference between the power through condition (M = 3.41, SD = 1.87) and the power over

condition (M = 2.70, SD = 1.54) for group results identity content ($t_{(52)}$ = 1.512, p = .14).

Following the power manipulations, the power through condition showed a significantly stronger

endorsement of group results identity content compared to the power over condition, $t_{(52)}$ =

3.954, $p < .001$, d = 1.11 (see Figure 3.5). The increase displayed by the power through condition

in group results identity content was maintained following failure (M = 4.33, SD = 1.27), $t_{(26)}$ =

.000, p = 1, d = 0, whereas group results identity content in the power over condition remained

weak (M = 2.70, SD = 1.84), $t_{(26)}$ = .168, p = .87, d = .04.
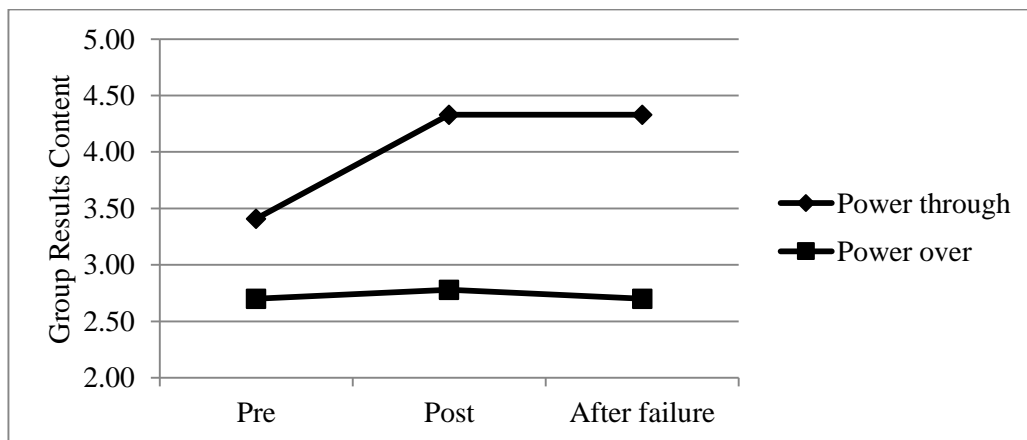
Figure 3.5. Ratings of group results identity content for the power through and power over
conditions pre- and post-power manipulation and following repeated failure.

3.14.3 Leadership Outcomes and Mobilisation

MANOVA revealed a significant difference between the power through and power over conditions on the combined leader outcomes (Wilks' $\Lambda = .64$, $F_{(5,48)} = 5.512$, $p < .001$, $\eta^2_p = .37$). As displayed in Table 3.1, participants in the power through condition reported higher levels across leader outcomes. A second MANOVA suggested a significant difference between the power through and power over condition for mobilisation (Wilks' $\Lambda = .88$, $F_{(2,51)} = 3.40$, $p = .041$, $\eta^2_p = .12$). The power through condition spent longer practicing the task and reported higher levels of mobilisation compared to the power over condition (see Table 3.1).

3.14.4 Effect of Diverging Identity Content on Leader Identification

A paired samples t-test indicated no difference in leader identification pre- ($M = 4.51$, $SD = 1.15$) to post-diverging ($M = 4.39$, $SD = 1.03$) content manipulation ($t_{(53)} = 1.11$, $p = .273$, $d = .11$).

3.14.5 Effect of Failure on Task Motivation and Intentional Behaviour

Prior to failure, the power through condition reported higher levels of task motivation ($M = 5.89$, $SD = .73$) compared to the power over condition ($M = 5.08$, $SD = 1.57$), $t_{(36.88)} = 2.444$, $p = .019$, $d = .70$, that were maintained following failure, $t_{(44.50)} = 2.329$, $p = .024$, $d = .65$. Regarding intentional behaviour, despite mean differences (see Figure 3.6), no significant differences were observed between the power through and power over conditions prior to (power through: $M = 4.62$, $SD = 3.82$; power over: $M = 4.26$, $SD = 4.10$), $t_{(51)} = .327$, $p = .75$, $d = .09$, or following failure (power through: $M = 5.31$, $SD = 4.87$; power over: $M = 3.65$, $SD = 4.01$), $t_{(51)} = 1.078$, $p = .29$, $d = .37$.
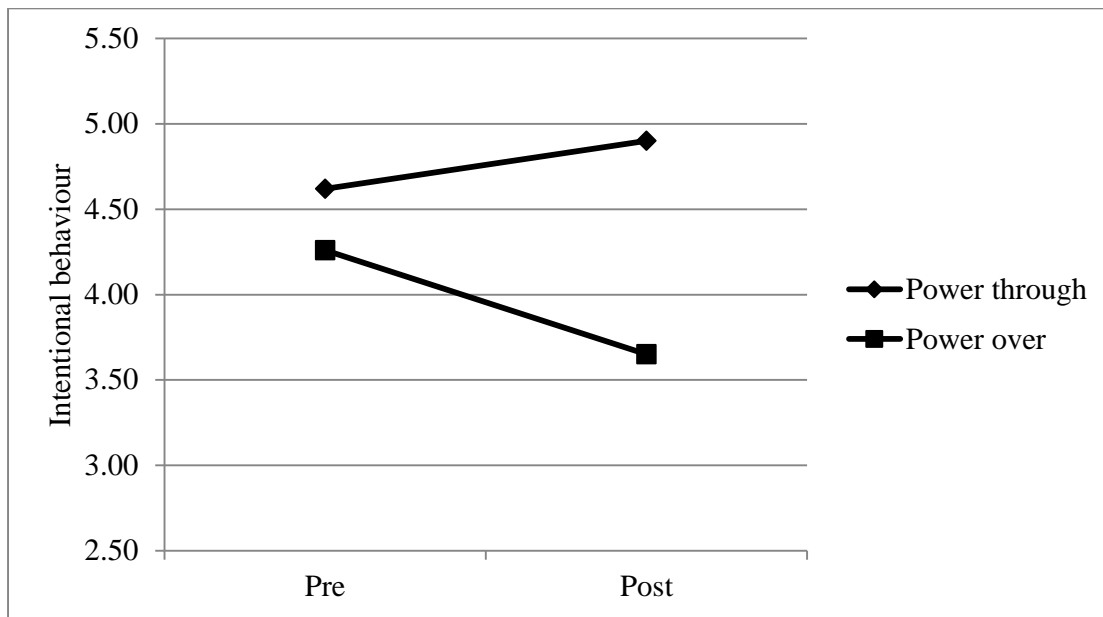
Figure 3.6. Number of hours as a measure of intentional behaviour pre and post-repeated failure in the power through and power over conditions.

3.15 Discussion

Study four provided evidence for the effectiveness of power through and power over strategies in creating a converging content of identity between leaders and group members, and as such, contributes to leadership understanding and builds on studies two and three. In contrast to hypothesis four, data suggested a power through approach to have a positive effect compared to a power over approach in creating convergence. To explain, under conditions of divergence, the power through strategy that worked with the group's identity content (Turner, 2005) appeared more effective in creating a converging content of identity centred upon results. In contrast, the power over strategy (Festinger, 1953) that focused solely on the leader's identity content had little influence on participants. In-line with hypothesis five, the increased short-term importance of results identity content was maintained in the power through condition following failure. Thus, the positive benefits of a power through approach in creating content convergence

were statistically maintained following failure, while the effect of failure on task motivation and intentional behaviour between conditions were less clear with descriptive statistics indicating the power through approach was more beneficial. In addition, corresponding with studies one and two, as the power through strategy was more effective in creating convergence, the power through condition were more behaviourally mobilised and perceived the leader to be more effective compared to the power over approach. Finally, data suggested the creation of a diverging content of identity did not significantly alter participants' identification with the leader.

3.16 General Discussion

Collectively, the current series of studies address the second and third aims of this thesis and advance extant literature by examining the effect of: (i) converging and diverging identity contents between leaders and group members on intentional and behavioural mobilisation, and task performance; and (ii) power through and power over leadership strategies on the creation of identity content convergence and behavioural mobilisation under diverging conditions and following failure. In short, the present studies have provided evidence for the influential role of social identity content in leadership processes. In particular, supporting hypotheses one and two data from a hypothetical and laboratory experiment indicated the establishment of converging identity content between leaders and group members produced significantly stronger endorsements of the leader (e.g., trust, influence), together with increased self-reported and behavioural mobilisation to achieve the leader's vision. In-line with hypothesis three, initial evidence was also found for behavioural mobilisation acting as a complementary mediator (Zhou et al., 2010) in the relationship between converging content and task performance. Further,

contrary to hypothesis four data from study three suggested power through approaches to leadership that align with social identity leadership (Haslam et al., 2011; Turner, 2005) had a positive effect, compared to more traditional power over techniques (Festinger, 1953), in creating a convergence in content between leaders and participants within a unified group. Generally, as expected in hypothesis five, the benefits of the power through approach were maintained following repeated group failure.

The current findings add to the extant literature in two ways. First, data suggests that the creation of converging identity contents between leaders and group members increases behavioural mobilisation of the group, and such mobilisation partially mediates the positive relationship between converging identity content and task performance. Second, under conditions of divergence, a power through strategy (Turner, 2005) appeared more effective in creating value convergence between leaders and group members compared to a power over approach, and is more likely to be maintained despite apparent group setbacks. We draw on the social identity analysis and leadership research to offer explanations of these two contributions to knowledge.

First, social identification provides the foundation of group functioning (Haslam, 2004; Haslam & Reicher, 2007). Accordingly, when individuals identify with a group they perceive themselves as part of the same category as other group members (Turner et al., 1987). Thus, similarities with other group members and differences with other categories or rival groups are emphasised, strengthening the emotional bond between group members. This process of depersonalisation (Turner, 1999) is characterised by a shift in individuals' perceptions of themselves as a person (e.g., "I" or "me"), to the social identity of the group (e.g., "we" or "us").

In turn, the values or content of the group underpins group members' cognitive schema in social contexts. The theoretical proposition of depersonalisation has been supported across methodologies in group settings (e.g., Advares-Yorno et al., 2006; Reicher, 1984). In particular, group members' specific attitudes and behaviours will be limited to those thoughts and actions that define the group (i.e., identity content). Thus, the current data furthers this body of knowledge by providing preliminary evidence that it may be the convergence of identity content (i.e., values) that creates a paralleled cognitive schema between leaders and group members that, in turn, allows leaders to mobilise the group towards their vision.

An approach that elucidates the idea of a single cognitive schema is the collective mind hypothesis (Weick & Roberts, 1993). The collective mind hypothesis proposed that thought processes become group-orientated through social cognition in a manner that produces a single cognitive system (Weick & Roberts, 1993). Collective mind may also point to the premise that content convergence within a shared group identity leads to a single cognitive schema, which is proposed to be adopted by the entire group to facilitate effective functioning towards the collective vision. In other words, the group is unified in its thought processes and behaviours to achieve the common target of the group. To illustrate in the context of the current findings, a synergy may exist between the leader and group members in a manner that all cognitions (e.g., a focus on results) and behaviours (e.g., practicing the lap to improve results) are governed by a common identity content (i.e., results) within the in-group. Building on findings of study one, data from chapter three may imply the collective mind or single, unique cognitive schema may not be accomplished through social identification alone given that group members and leaders may have different values (i.e., content; Postmes et al., 2005). In short, it may be that a

convergence in identity contents between leaders and group members within a shared identity is more likely to create a collective mind that directs group-orientated mobilisation.

Turning to study four's findings, the notion of psychological and team empowerment (Spreitzer, 1995; 2008) may offer a useful framework to explain the data. The power through approach, encompassing group members' and leader's identity content, may have promoted participants' sense of psychological empowerment. Psychological empowerment is defined as one's intrinsic motivation reflecting control over, and an active orientation of, one's work that manifests in four cognitions: meaning, self-determination, competence, and impact (Spreitzer, 1995). Within the empowerment framework meaning refers to the alignment of one's own values and beliefs with that of the working role (Hackman & Oldham, 1980). In a meta-analysis, evidence has outlined leadership as a significant predictor of psychological and team empowerment (Seibert, Wang, & Courtright, 2011). Accordingly, it may be that the power through approach was more effective in creating converging identity content that was additionally maintained following failure and subsequently increased mobilisation because participants felt an alignment due to the leader taking into consideration their values as group members (i.e., 'having fun'). In contrast, the power over condition dismissed group members' values and focused solely on the leader's values (i.e., 'results'), negating alignment and therefore empowerment (Spreitzer, 1995).

In addition, drawing on the social identity analysis of leadership, affording group members' responsibility and allowing individuals' to contribute to the group's progress is imperative for effective leadership (Haslam & Reicher, 2007). The established in-group bond and internalisation of social identities motivates group members to intrinsically enhance their

group (Haslam, 2004). Thus, the finding that the power through condition were more behaviourally mobilised and reported higher levels of task motivation, which were meaningfully (medium to large effect; Cohen, 1988) maintained following failure, may be explained from a social identity leadership perspective (Haslam et al., 2011). Specifically, the likelihood of close scrutiny or punishments being effective leadership strategies is dependent on identity-related principles. Researchers have sought to examine the effect of in and out-group leaders using surveillance, which highlights the hierarchical gap between the leader and group, on leaders' influence in their group (Subašić et al., 2011). Without surveillance, data indicated in-group leaders were perceived as more influential than out-group leaders. When in-group leaders employed surveillance their ability to influence group members reduced (Subašić et al., 2011). In study three, despite content divergence, both conditions reported a moderate level of identification with the leader. Thus, the leader was perceived as an in-group member, however, following the implementation of the power strategies data indicated the power over approach was not effective in creating a converging content. In other words, the group did not buy into the leader's values when the leader did not take group members' identity content into account. Such power over strategies perhaps emphasise the hierarchical gap in a similar manner to how using surveillance creates psychological distance between leaders and followers (Subašić et al., 2011). Perceived distance between leaders and group members is likely to reduce trust (Giessner et al., 2009), and therefore, in-group leaders may wish to avoid power over strategies that indicate they are not acting in the group's interests (Turner, 2005).

Exploring identity content further, study one indicated that the specific content of identity was of less importance compared to the act of convergence between leader and group member. That is, data suggested similar effects for results and friendships content. Moreover, studies three

and four substituted friendships content for having fun and demonstrated the same effects. In other words, similar data patterns were found for results vs. friendships and results vs. having fun, providing evidence that the content of one's identity may be of less importance than conditions of convergence or divergence. In addition, previous evidence (e.g., Meeussen et al., 2013) has suggested value convergence predicts long-term group formation and performance in the workplace. However, in study four our data indicated no difference in leader identification from pre- to post-diverging manipulation. The disparity in findings may be a result of the current experimental context were participants responded to the pre and post measures of identification in a short period of time, while the leader's in-group status was maintained through the manipulations. Extant literature (Meeussen et al., 2013) and social identity theory (Haslam, 2004) would suggest that over time, value divergence may decrease group members' identification with the group, but in the short-term, current data suggests value divergence in a leadership context may not produce the same reduction in identification. Therefore, future researchers may wish to investigate the long-term effects of converging and diverging identity content.

In terms of practical significance, the present data imply that beyond social identification, the alignment of identity content between leaders and group members, within a shared group identity, appears pertinent for leaders to mobilise their followers. Data from study four in particular provides evidence that leaders may wish to consider Turner's (2005) re-conceptualisation of power when planning approaches to mobilise group behaviour. For example, leaders working as reflective practitioners to identify and work with the identity content of group members, while intertwining their own values, appears effective in creating a convergence of identity content that may be sustained following apparent group setbacks. In

turn, converging contents of identity may encourage collective mind (Weick & Roberts, 1993) in a manner that enhances mobilisation to the collective vision.

When interpreting the results of the research it is worth considering the strengths and limitations of the approach. In accordance with similar leadership research (e.g., Giessner et al., 2009; van Knippenberg & van Knippenberg, 2005) we combined scenario-based and experimental designs. The current research used these two paradigms to explore the effect of identity content on mobilisation in leadership. The experimental methodologies adopted provide high internal validity, however, such an approach does not provide external validity. Further research, perhaps through a field study, would be able to examine the external validity were the current research could not. Notwithstanding this proposal, a field study was not included because of the variety of specific contents that could be identified by individuals and the inconsistency of accessing groups that converged and diverged in values with their leader. Future researchers could adopt a qualitative design with individual interviews to gather a more accurate representation and explore individuals' experiences of identity content convergence/divergence and mobilisation. Related to externally valid research designs, an examination of the long-term effects of leaders on group's mobilisation would advance understanding. Leadership sustainability will be governed by the achievement what matters (i.e., content) to the group in the real-world (Haslam et al., 2011). Thus, examination of longitudinal effects of converging and diverging content and leadership strategies on group members' mobilisation towards the leader's vision may be worthwhile.

3.17 Conclusion

Leaders' ability to mobilise their group towards a collective objective is central to leadership (Northouse, 2010). Addressing the second aim of this thesis, the findings reported in chapter three support the proposition that leaders' basis for influence and mobilisation rests on identity content convergence between themselves and their group members, and mobilisation may partially explain the positive relationship between converging identity content and task performance. Addressing the third aim of this thesis, chapter three has additionally demonstrated that gaining an understanding and working with the group's content of identity may help leaders empower (Seibert et al., 2011) group members and create identity content convergence that is more likely to be maintained following group failure. Chapter four will build on the findings of the current chapter by qualitatively exploring the relationship between converging contents of identity and mobilisation in a longitudinal design.

CHAPTER 4: IDENTITY LEADERSHIP IN ACTION: CONVERGING AND MULTIPLE CONTENTS OF IDENTITY AND MOBILISATION ACROSS A COMPETITIVE SEASON

4.1 Introduction

Chapter three showed that leaders' basis for influence and mobilisation rests in the convergence of identity content between themselves and their group members. In addition, chapter three data indicated adopting social identity principles (Haslam et al., 2011) via a power through approach (Turner, 2005) centred upon understanding and working with the group's values created convergence of identity contents that was more likely to be maintained following repeated group failure. For example, leaders who seek to enhance their understanding of, and work with, the group's content of identity will help leaders to create shared values within a group identity, which in turn, positively predicts group members' mobilisation of effort. Given that chapter three showed that content convergence provided the foundation for intentional and behavioural mobilisation in an experimental context, it would extend knowledge to explore how this positive relationship occurs together with examining these leadership processes in a natural context. Accordingly, study five addresses aim four of this thesis and builds on chapter three by investigating how converging contents of identity link to mobilisation of effort across a competitive season in rugby league teams. Further, study five addresses aim five of this thesis by exploring how leaders emerge as influential over time. Finally, study five provides an original contribution to social identity literature (Haslam et al., 2011) and leadership literature (e.g., Dinh et al., 2014) more broadly by examining all the teams ($n = 7$) competing in a single intact division across the full duration of a sport season.

In light of the proactive and behavioural definition of leadership: "a process whereby an individual influences a group of individuals to achieve a common goal" (Northouse, 2010, p. 3), researchers have examined more behavioural outcomes (e.g., intentional mobilisation; Halevy et al., 2011; chapter three of this thesis) to move towards a greater understanding of leadership effectiveness. For instance, in a seminal investigation the BBC prison study (Reicher & Haslam, 2006; Reicher et al., 2005) assigned participants to groups as prisoners ($n = 10$) or guards ($n = 5$) within a simulated prison. In the BBC Prison Study participants completed psychometric measures and researchers conducted behavioural observations over a two week period to examine emerging leadership processes within and between the two groups of unequal power and status (i.e., guards high power and status; prisoners low power and status). Amongst other findings, Haslam and Reicher (2007) concluded the success or failure of leadership depended upon the development of shared identification (e.g., through using inclusive language) and the implementation of identity-related projects (e.g., discussion forums to understand the prisoners' and guards' identities in the prison context). Accordingly, research evidence has indicated that identity-related processes are fundamental for group members' psychological and behavioural outcomes that resonate with leadership effectiveness. The BBC prison study addressed a gap in the leadership literature by capturing outcomes pertinent to leadership within a specific context (i.e., simulated prison) over time rather than using a cross-sectional approach. Nevertheless, the prison context did not reflect participants' natural environment and the study lasted two weeks. As Haslam et al. (2011) noted, leadership is a long-term process, encompassing emergence and sustainability over time as key dimensions. Therefore, the current chapter seeks to address these two shortcomings (i.e., not participants' natural environment and two-week duration) and build on the findings of chapter three by examining converging content and behavioural mobilisation

within the context of seven teams competing in an eight month rugby league season. An additional objective of study five is to examine how leaders emerge as influential throughout the course of a competitive season.

When individual's identify with groups, their membership to the group in question contributes to their sense of self (Haslam, 2004), and according to self-categorisation theory (Turner et al., 1987), governs individuals' cognitions and behaviours in social contexts. Specifically, when individuals' self-categorise (Turner et al., 1987) a process termed depersonalisation results in individuals seeing themselves as part of the collective entity (i.e., 'we' or 'us') rather than in personal terms (i.e., 'I' and 'me'). In turn, individuals are likely to self-stereotype, whereby they adopt the meanings and values of their category (i.e., group) in their cognitions and behaviours (Turner, 1999). This theoretical notion has been supported by empirical evidence (Adarves-Yorno et al., 2006; Livingstone & Haslam, 2008; Reicher, 1984). In other words, when individuals' feel a meaningful attachment to a group (i.e., they "identify") their cognitions and behaviours typically reflect the characteristics of that group. In social identity terms the values individuals ascribe to their group memberships are defined as their contents of identity (Postmes & Spears, 1998; Turner, 1999). For instance, in the context of the London 2012 Olympic Games belonging to British Cycling represented values of preparation, attention to detail, and resiliency (study one of this thesis; Slater et al., 2013). Taken together, this evidence demonstrates that contents of shared identity may mobilise group members to think and behave in-line with their group's specific value(s). Studies two and three in this thesis have further supported this notion in leadership, whereby leaders' basis for behavioural mobilisation rests on the creation of converging contents of identity between themselves and their group. What remains unknown however is why the creation of converging contents have been found to

be positively predict behavioural mobilisation, a gap this chapter sought to address by adopting a qualitative design.

Extant leadership research has been predominantly conducted within a quantitative paradigm (Haslam et al., 2011). Despite a focus on quantitative approaches, an increasing number of recent leadership studies have adopted qualitative methodologies (e.g., Avolio et al., 2009; Fletcher & Arnold, 2011). Indeed, Haslam et al. (2011) proposed future leadership research within the social identity tradition should seek to employ qualitative designs, perhaps, as Sparkes and Smith (2014) argue, because qualitative methodologies provide rich data immersed in the experiences and perceptions of participants (i.e., leaders and followers). One recent qualitative example (Huettermann, Doering, & Boerner, in press) examined followers' perspectives of leadership behaviours that develop team identification. Within a United Nations (UN) peacebuilding context, results indicated that leaders who provided guidance, encouraged involvement of the team, role modeled, and administered teamwork were perceived to strengthen team identification (Huettermann et al., in press). These findings extend previous social identity leadership research by revealing dimensions important for the development of team identification and context specific themes yet to be considered by extant literature. An opportunity for further development following Huettermann and colleagues (in press) research is to include both leaders' and followers' perspectives in future research rather than focussing solely on followers' perspectives. This is an area the current study seeks to build upon by using a qualitative methodology involving all team members (i.e., leaders, captains, and athletes).

In addition, with the exception of the BBC prison study (Reicher & Haslam, 2006; Reicher et al., 2005) scant research has examined when and how leaders emerge within teams.

Sport offers a useful team-based performance domain within which to examine emerging

leadership in individuals that are both formal (e.g., coaches and captains) and informal (e.g.,

athletes) leaders. The inherent team nature of sport combined with calls for longitudinal

leadership research (Haslam et al., 2011) renders a complete competitive sport season a valuable

context within which to explore emerging leadership and links between converging contents of

identity and mobilisation, together with advancing the current thesis and extant leadership

research (Dinh et al., 2014). Indeed, within leadership literature the dearth of longitudinal

research has been acknowledged (Chemers, 2003; Keller, 2006). Accordingly, the purpose of

study five is to expand understanding of how contents of identity link to mobilisation of effort

and add to the limited research examining the emergence of influential leaders. The original

contribution of this chapter to the social identity leadership literature (e.g., Haslam et al., 2011) is

additionally in the research design. Namely, the present chapter examined all the teams ($n = 7$)

competing in a single intact division across the full duration of a sport season (eight months)

through a qualitative design. The following research objectives addressed aims four and five of

the thesis respectively and guided the study: (i) offer a theoretical explanation of how converging

contents of identification between leaders and group members lead to mobilisation; and (ii) offer

a theoretical explanation of how leaders emerge during the course of a competitive sport season.

4.2 Method

4.2.1 Methodology

The study used a grounded theory (GT) methodology. GT is a systematic and inductive

methodology centred upon constant comparison and theory generation (Charmaz, 2006). A GT

approach was deemed appropriate for the current study given that specific theories pertaining to

the research objectives have not been developed within specific contextual conditions (Haslam et al., 2011; Strauss & Corbin, 1998), while scholars (e.g., Groom, Cushion, & Nelson, 2011) have argued that GT is particularly relevant to extrapolate relationships between concepts (e.g., converging content and mobilisation). There are three variants of grounded theory: (i) Charmaz's (2006) approach is underpinned by an interpretivist philosophy; (ii) Glaser's (1992) approach is underpinned by a positivist philosophy; and (iii) Strauss and Corbin's (1988) approach is underpinned by a post-positivist philosophy. For the current study, Strauss and Corbin's (1998) approach that aligned with the researchers' predominantly post-positivist beliefs was adopted (Weed, 2009). To elaborate, the current author advocates the employment of scientific and systematic methods to discover new knowledge and advance understanding of a topic area (i.e., leadership). According to Weed (2009) and in-line with the author's philosophy "Straussian" GT is acknowledged to be ontologically realist (i.e., seeking further understanding of reality) and epistemologically interpretativist; "concepts and theories are constructed by researchers out of the stories constructed by research participants" (Corbin & Strauss, 2008, p. 10), reflecting post-positivism. In addition, the current research adopted a developing paradigm within the social sciences, that of longitudinal qualitative research (Neale & Flowerdew, 2003). Neale and Flowerdew argue that long-term qualitative exploration of phenomena may help to better understand the nature of social change and the temporal impact on individuals' lives, together with extrapolating underlying explanations of social phenomena (e.g., emerging leadership). Accordingly, a qualitative longitudinal design advanced the thesis and was deemed relevant to the research questions that guided the current study.

4.2.2 Participants

Six coaches (M_{age} = 50.33, SD = 7.09 years) and fourteen (including four team captains) athletes (M_{age} = 18.4, SD = .46 years) belonging to seven high-level amateur rugby league teams competing in one division were involved in the study. In other words, coaches and athletes were purposely sampled from all the teams competing in a single, intact rugby league division. Coaches were qualified to level two or three standard (level three is the highest achievable in rugby league) and had been coaching for, on average, 21.17 (SD = 16.92) years. The athletes had a mean of 7.07 (SD = 2.67) year's experience playing rugby league and occupied various playing positions, including second row (n = 5), scrum-half (n = 2), winger (n = 2), full back (n = 2), hooker (n = 1), prop (n = 1), and loose forward (n = 1). The fourteen athletes self-selected to participate in the study. Specifically, prior to data collection the research project was presented to the each team and athletes were invited to participate if interested. In particular, the researcher outlined that the project aimed to include at least the coach, team captain, and one other athlete from each team at three time-points. Due to other commitments this was not always possible.

4.2.3 Design and Procedure

Following institutional ethical approval, the organiser of the league's committee was contacted via email to arrange a meeting to discuss the research and to identify potential participating teams. After the league's agreement the researcher attended and presented what the research would entail at the December monthly league committee meeting. A point of contact was made with each of the seven teams within one division, who was subsequently contacted via phone or email to identify the coach of the relevant team and outline the project. Coaches from the seven teams expressed an interest in the project and a mutually convenient time was arranged

to attend a training session at the start of the season. All participants read an information sheet and gave written consent prior to data collection. Overall, teams were visited at three points across the season: start of the season, mid-season, and end of the season, with data collected in the same order across the three phases to maintain as consistent time-lag between data collection points as possible (see Figure 4.1).

Start of season:	Mid-season:	End of season:
February – March	June	October
7 teams	6 teams	5 teams
0 – 2 matches	7 – 9 matches	18 – 20 matches

Figure 4.1. An overview of data collection phases: Start of season, mid-season, and end of season.

At the start of the season, five focus groups (four with coaches and athletes, one with athletes only) and two coach interviews were conducted. One focus group was completed with athletes only because the coach did not attend training. At mid-season, one of the teams had stopped competing, resulting in three focus groups (all with coaches and athletes) and three coach interviews being conducted. At the end of the season, another team had stopped competing, allowing one focus group (with coach and athletes) and four coach interviews to be conducted. In total, nine focus groups ($M_{minutes} = 29.99$, $SD = 16.26$), and nine coach interviews ($M_{minutes} = 27.12$, $SD = 15.74$) were completed. Prior to data collection the researcher aimed to conduct focus groups with each team at three time-points, however, given contextual constraints (e.g., athletes' time or other commitments) this was not always possible, thus in such instances the coach was interviewed individually. The focus groups and interviews were semi-structured in nature to maintain an element of flexibility to allow exploration of ideas and phenomena that

arose during discussions (Rubin & Rubin, 2005). The guide for the focus groups and interviews were developed based on the preceding studies within the thesis and were directed by the two research objectives (Appendix 4). To provide experience for the researcher and to refine the focus group guide, a pilot focus group was completed with a university sports team. The focus group ran effectively, with feedback suggesting the questions were clear, understandable, and gave opportunity to discuss team dynamics and leadership. Slight amendments and additions (e.g., asking for examples) were made to the probing questions within the guide with the view to elicit further detail and depth, whilst a note to glean responses from both coaches and players' perspectives was made (as highlighted in Appendix 4).

The focus groups and interviews were transcribed verbatim and in-line with the iterative process of GT (Charmaz, 2006; Corbin & Strauss, 2008) data analysis began following start of the season data collection at the first team. All data collection took place before or following training and was face-to-face except one coach interview completed by telephone. In addition to conducting the interviews and focus groups thirteen training sessions were observed. The researcher noted brief observations via a research journal that were typed up following each data collection session. The reflective journal helped to better understand the topics and contextual ideas raised during focus groups and interviews. Finally, team results and league position were collected as indicators of team performance.
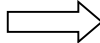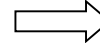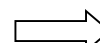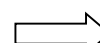
4.2.4 Data Analysis

Focus groups and interviews were transcribed verbatim and the first stage of analysis involved the researcher immersing themselves in participants' data by re-reading transcripts. Within each data collection phase (e.g., start of the season) it was impractical to transcribe and

conduct initial analysis of each focus group or interview before the next. Nevertheless, to maintain the recursive nature of GT data collection and analysis whereby data from one focus group or interview informed the direction of the next (Hutchinson, Johnston, & Breckon, 2013; Strauss & Corbin, 2008), post-data collection discussions with a critical friend (Way et al., 2012) were completed. The critical friend was a doctoral student with expertise in social identity theory and a trainee sport and exercise psychologist. In addition to working with the critical friend during the later stage of analysis, as completed in study 1, the critical friend acted as an unconditional and challenging sounding board so that I could align with GT principles during the intense data collection weeks. For example, I arranged to collect the start of the season data with each of the seven teams within a two-week period. As a result, data collection occurred on subsequent days (e.g., a Monday evening training session with Team A and then Tuesday evening with Team B). In this instance, I planned a reflection and discussion with the critical friend on the Tuesday morning to provide the opportunity for me to reflect, with the use of brief notes and training observations, on the data collected from the previous evening in a manner that could inform subsequent data collection. In these meetings the critical friend would allow me time to debrief, before the main patterns that emerged during the focus group/interview were discussed, and then these patterns were summarised and integrated into the data collection guide for the next focus group/interview.

Nevertheless, the time lag between the three phases of data collection allowed for transcription and analysis of phase one (i.e., start of the season) data to inform the data collection at phase two (i.e., mid-season), and analysis of phase two data to inform the data collection at phase three (i.e., end of the season). For example, the focus group and interview guides were amended at mid-season and end of the season (Appendix 4). Initial stages of data analysis

involved open coding were emerging concepts were attached to words or segments of data and initial categorical ideas were developed that reflected the properties of these segments (Corbin & Strauss, 2008). During analysis memo writing involved the researcher taking on the voice of each rugby team allowing for constant comparison within teams (e.g., across the three data collection phases) and between teams encouraging theoretical links between concepts. In the next stage of analysis, a process of constant comparison (Holt & Tamminen, 2010; Weed, 2009) comparing incidents with one another to highlight the similarities and differences helped to collate and differentiate concepts into emerging categories, a process known as axial coding (Corbin & Strauss, 2008). The development of a paradigm model (see Figure 4.2) as advocated in GT (Sparkes & Smith, 2014; Strauss & Corbin, 1998) and used by GT studies in sport (e.g., Slater, Spray, & Smith, 2012) encouraged reflective thoughts regarding the sequential nature and linkages between contents of identity and mobilisation. The paradigm model additionally helped to ensure theoretical generation was grounded in the data with each coach and athletes' experiences allowed to be located in the model, thus aiding team comparisons regarding leadership. As a final verification procedure, following analysis of the final data collection point, the coach of each team received an overview of the themes that had been discussed in their focus groups and interviews across the season. The coaches were asked to respond to highlight any misinterpretations that may have occurred within the developed themes. No problems were highlighted.

Strong Team Bond				
Converging and Multiple Contents	⇨	**Themes** Team morale Understanding roles Provides focus Social support	⇨	Mobilisation
Shared Long-Term Vision				
Converging and Multiple Contents	⇨	**Themes** Alignment Progression and opportunities Coherent challenges	⇨	Mobilisation
Empathy				
Converging and Multiple Contents	⇨	**Themes** Listening Sense of understanding	⇨	Mobilisation
Empowerment				
Converging and Multiple Contents	⇨	**Themes** Involvement and contribution Learning Increased confidence Mutual respect	⇨	Mobilisation

Figure 4.2. Paradigm model of the emerging categories and themes pertaining to mobilisation of effort.

4.3 Results and Discussion

The results and discussion are presented together and in two sections to reflect the two guiding research objectives. Four categories emerged from the analysis pertaining to how the creation of converging contents of identity influence group mobilisation. Two categories were at a group-level: strong team bond and shared long-term vision, while two categories were at an individual-level: empathy and empowerment. Three categories emerged from the analysis pertaining to how leaders emerged during the course of a competitive season: leading by example, embodying the team ideal, and being team-orientated. First, the themes within the four categories and associated grounded theory regarding converging contents and mobilisation are discussed, before the theory of emerging leaders is presented. The narrative draws on social identity literature, while providing quotes relating to the relevant theme with an indication of the corresponding team (e.g., Team B), time-point (e.g., TP2), and participant (e.g., coach).

4.3.1 Converging Contents and Mobilisation

Category 1: Strong team bond. At the group-level analysis suggested that team morale and atmosphere was crucial for mobilisation, stemming from the alignment of values between team members (e.g., coaches and athletes). In one instance, team morale characterised the team:

Coach: I'd like to think if there was a problem they would each come to each others' aid… I think they would.

Interviewer: Sure, what would you say characterised this particular team?

Captain: Probably the bond we have with each other, there is a good relationship among the team... the players... everybody [...] the best thing is we don't argue amongst each other now and we see it [arguing] with other teams but our team morale means we work for each other (Team E, TP2).

Extant literature has suggested shared identification leads to an increased willingness to help fellow group members (Levine, Prosser, Evans, & Reicher, 2005) and is the basis of cooperation (De Cremer & van Vugt, 1999). Furthering understanding, the present analysis may suggest that converging contents of identity within a team identity are necessary to produce supportive and cohesive behaviours. An additional factor that was believed to mobilise the group involved leaders setting up discussion forums on social media to encourage team communication. Typically, discussions centred upon the team's content of identity. For example, the value of Team G's identity focused upon results:

When we are winning he's [the coach] always on, like we've got our little forum on Facebook and we're all always on it talking to each other, telling each other were we are going wrong and what we need to do and he's [coach] always on it with us telling us and talking to us every day about training or games and that helps (TP1, athlete).

Research evidence (e.g., Haslam & Reicher, 2007; Reicher et al., 2005) has emphasised the importance of leaders, together with the group, achieving in reality what is important to the collective. Despite the coach's organisation of the online forum, in the extract above the athlete noted "when we are winning he's always on [the forum]", suggesting inconsistent behaviour depending on the team's results. During the season threat (e.g., losses) to the team's content of

identity (e.g., Scheepers & Ellemers, 2005) may become apparent and hinder team morale. To explain, when the content of the team's identity (i.e., results) is not being fulfilled, the sustainability of the group is hindered (Haslam et al., 2011). As displayed in Figure 4.3, Team G's group mobilisation declined and Team G had stopped competing in the league by mid-season.

On the other hand, adversity emerged as a theme that teams could learn from when multiple contents had been established. That is, analysis indicated that the display of multiple contents of identity (e.g., enjoyment, performance development, and results) had a positive influence on mobilisation in the rugby teams. For example, the mobilisation of effort was maintained in Teams A and D when they were losing matches as they had other contents of identity to draw upon. At a foundational level, mobilisation related to keeping the team together and maintaining adherence to training. These findings go beyond previous results evidencing the positive benefits of multiple athlete identities (Schinke et al., 2012). To illustrate, at the start of the season Teams B and G had a sole focus on results, clearly seen through references to winning the league. The coach and athletes converged in the sense that they all focussed on the team's results however Team B and G frequently lost matches and stopped competing in the league by the end and midpoint of the season respectively. The behaviour of these two teams could be explained by social identity theory (Tajfel & Turner, 1979). To explain, competition defeats may have posed a threat to Team B and G's results identity content and team members had no other contents of identity to draw upon (Turner, 1999). A similar finding has been demonstrated in a football academy setting were team defeats at the start of the season led to poor team functioning (Evans et al., 2013). To enhance team functioning, Evans et al. (2013) employed a relationship-

orientated personal-disclosure mutual- sharing (PDMS) intervention and data suggested participants broadened their social identity to include a content of friendships (in addition to results). Thus, in addition to research examining threats to social identification (Scheepers & Ellemers, 2005), future inquiry may wish to investigate the effect of: (i) threat to contents of identity; and (ii) psychological interventions (e.g., PDMS) that may help to protect teams from the negative consequences detailed in the current study (i.e., dropping out of the league).

Researcher observations together with data from coaches and athletes highlighted a performance-orientated climate in the current study, corresponding with research in professional sport (Douglas & Carless, 2009), however, differences were observed between teams. For example, Team A lost all of their matches during the season and had not won a match in the two previous years they had been competing. What was overwhelmingly apparent at Team A was that despite their defeats the group enjoyed their rugby as much as other teams because they converged on enjoyment and friendships. Accordingly, enjoyment and friendships characterised the group (Postmes et al., 2005; Reicher, 1984), and represent how the team's success was judged. Therefore, affiliation with the team still advances the social aspect of athletes' sense of self (Haslam, 2004):

> That bond's there and I also think that we have a lot of good laughs. It's like yesterday we got beat 44-6 yesterday and we're the team singing in the changing room after the match, we are the team that's gone out for a beer afterwards so that's the focus, you know, it's not taken that seriously [...] five minutes later you reflect on that and you're back up again and I go back to changing rooms and all the lads are having a sing and a laugh and it's just like right OK, let's enjoy it (Team A, TP3, coach).

Start of season standings are not displayed as the teams had played between 0 and 2 games.

Mid-Point Table

Team	Played	Won	Lost	Points
Team E	9	7	2	14
Team C	8	6	2	12
Team F	8	5	3	10
Team D	8	4	4	8
Team A	10	2*	8	4*
Team B	9	2	6	4

End of Season Table

Team	Played	Won	Lost	Points
Team E	20	17	3	34
Team D	20	15	5	30
Team F	20	12	8	24
Team C	20	10	10	20
Team A	20	4*	16	8*

Figure 4.3: The leagues standings at the mid-point and end of the season.

Note. * Although it is reported Team A accrued two wins at mid-season and four wins by the end of the season and therefore eight points, all four wins were from the two team's that had dropped out of the league and conceded each match (i.e., 2 vs. Team B and 2 vs. Team G).

NB. To be consistent the tables reported reflect the league standings as they stood at the end of the data collection period (i.e., on the final day of data collection at the mid-point and end of the season).

Drawing on social identity theory (Tajfel & Turner, 1979), multiple contents of identity may have maintained Team A's mobilisation when other teams (i.e., Team B and G) stopped competing under similar adverse conditions (i.e., team defeats). Multiple contents of identity (i.e., results, enjoyment, and friendships) may have afforded Team A to be socially creative with their identity (i.e., emphasise enjoyment over results) and thus maintain a positive group membership (Amiot et al., 2010; Boen et al., 2008). In sum, multiple contents of identity may have a protective function in times of adversity (e.g., poor performances) as team members can broaden their content of identity. The present results extend the notion of team resilience: "a dynamic, psychosocial process which protects a group of individuals from the potential negative effect of stressors they collectively encounter" (Morgan, Fletcher, & Sarkar, 2013, p. 552) by providing a social psychological explanation (i.e., multiple contents of identity) as a mechanism that protects teams from negative stressors (e.g., poor form, low numbers at training).

A converging content of identity appeared crucial in enhancing athletes' understanding of their role in the team. Aligned values allowed for specific activities such as training drills or advice (e.g., nutrition) to be seen in the context of the team identity, which may have implications for performance, as illustrated below:

> I think across the team as well, there's kind of like an understanding knowledge of what we're going to do. In the defence we all know what we are going to do, we're all going to have one marker, [...] and people know that they can rely on people around them [...] because we all understand our jobs and our roles, we will have a fantastic defence (Team E, TP2, athlete).

Thus, athletes' understanding of their role within the team helped to mobilise them to produce effortful behaviour and cooperation. Previous researchers (e.g., Huettermann et al., in press) have found evidence for the positive impact of clarifying individuals' roles within overarching team goals for strengthening team identification. Linked to this notion, additional research has demonstrated that value (i.e., content of identity) convergence underlies group performance (Meeussen et al., 2013). Current findings build on previous literature and thesis chapters by evidencing the positive influence of converging contents of identity on mobilisation via team members' understanding of roles in a rugby league context.

A further pattern interpreted from the data outlined how converging contents of identity provided a focus for team members' behaviour. As found in social identity research (e.g., Reicher, 1984) and chapter three, the definition of team's identity directed athletes' actions and helped to bring the team together:

> I would, as captain, say that we all get on with each other, all have a laugh and then we will all knuckle down and get our heads down kind of thing when we know it's the right time to, that's, that's *us* really (Team E, TP1, athlete).

In this way, the content of identity provides a focus: "Now as a player and as a team everyone wants to win so everybody plays together as a team as well, that's why we are at the top of the league" (Team E, TP2, captain). Here, the feeling that all the team converged on the content of results was perceived to help team performances. This finding appears in contrast to the previous theme that noted multiple contents of identity are beneficial for team mobilisation. To elaborate, in social identity theory (Tajfel & Turner, 1979) it is outlined that individuals'

social identities can alter momentarily (e.g., from a "Team A coach" to a "coach of rugby league"). Current data advance the thesis by implying that individuals within teams can have multiple contents of identity (e.g., enjoyment, friendships, and performance), yet a single content of identity (e.g., performance) may be salient at a given time. In other words, one content of identity may have to prevail but teams can have multiple defining qualities. For example, multiple contents prevail but a convergence on results on match-day provides a focus for cognitions and behaviours. In this instance, coaches and athletes' cognitions and behaviours align and are focussed on garnering optimum results (e.g., athletes psychologically preparing for competition). Accordingly, the current study provides evidence for the positive influence of converging content on mobilised effort directed by the salient content of identity (e.g., results or enjoyment). Therefore, leaders could be encouraged to create multiple defining qualities (i.e., contents) but also lead in a way that shapes the context or circumstances to shift group members' focus to the specific content they wish to prevail given the situation (e.g., performance during pre-match team talk).

Another consequence of converging contents of identity detailed by participants was the togetherness displayed by the team: "If we do something wrong with [coach], we'll all get together, we'll figure it out together. People pick you up and encourage you" (Team E, TP1, athlete). Such processes were believed to aid performance:

> If someone's like falling behind we can pick them straight back up and they get in there
> and work their socks off for each other, and play better in the next game by pushing
> themselves, it's good to see (Team A, TP1, captain).

These findings resonate with the social support literature (Rees & Freeman, 2007) and demonstrate emotional and informational support provided by teammates (Rees, 2007). Social support has been found to have a positive effect on cognitions and behaviours, including performance (Freeman & Rees, 2008). One reason for the beneficial influence of support may be the buffering mechanism against the negative effects of stress, together with promoting self-confidence (Freeman & Rees, 2008; Rees & Freeman, 2007). Thus, present data may enhance previous understanding as converging contents may lead to social support, and in turn, mitigate the negative effects of stress and produce a more effective harnessing of resources to be mobilised. Self-categorisation theory (Turner et al., 1987) may help to explain how converging contents lead to increased social support. Namely, because athletes take on the values of the group when they categorise themselves as a "Team B athlete", they are more likely to perceive themselves as interchangeable with their teammates through depersonalisation (Slater et al., 2013; Turner, 1999). Accordingly, as cognitions are team-orientated, athletes are more likely to support one another because the athletes' fate as an individual will depend upon the fate of team to which they belong (e.g., Team B). In other words, team success contribute to athletes' self-concept.

Category 2: Shared long-term vision. In the conceptualisation grounded in the current data (see Figure 4.4) the link between converging and multiple contents and mobilisation is proposed to be further due to the establishment of a shared long-term vision. Namely, there was an increased likelihood of team mobilisation when the vision encompassed the team's contents of identity. In particular, the realistic and shared nature of the vision was emphasised:

The goal is… the level they are playing at and the division we're in, we are looking to

win that league... That's the goal… I'm open-minded and I'm realistic and I know that

these lads can, I discuss with every team at the start of the season, what they are capable

of, what they should be striving for, I never set unrealistic challenges and I think we are

good enough to win that league so that's the goal (Team E, TP1, coach).

The current findings extend previous understanding of leadership. To explain, in a study

of national performance directors in elite sport Fletcher and Arnold (2011) yielded similar results

with team vision reported as a general dimension in their qualitative analysis. In light of the
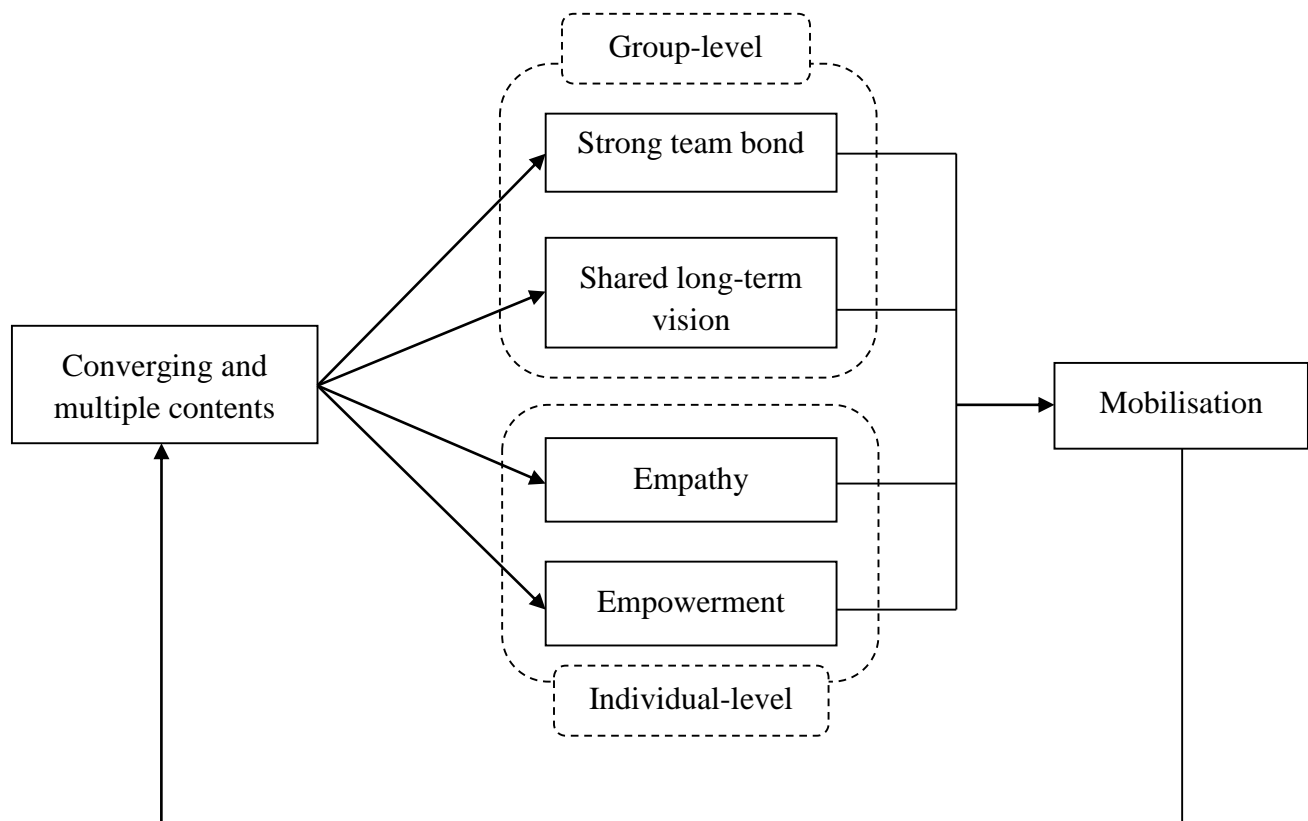
Figure 4.4: Towards a grounded theory of how the creation of converging and multiple contents
of identity influence team mobilisation.

current study, creating a team vision may not be a hallmark of elite sport (Arnold et al., 2012;

Fletcher & Arnold, 2011), with present findings suggesting the positive influence of developing

a shared long-term vision for mobilisation of effort in amateur team sport. From a social identity

perspective, the shared long-term vision may be an important representation of what the team

could become (Steffens et al., 2013). The inspirational aspect of leadership (Northouse, 2010) is

highlighted as the shared vision reflects the converging contents of identity and ensures athletes'

team membership positively contributes to their sense of self (Haslam, 2004). Nevertheless, a

lack of alignment in values (cf. Meeussen et al., 2013) was apparent at times in the current study

and appeared to reduce coaches' ability to mobilise the team:

> I don't think they [the team] judge themselves on success because they probably
>
> wouldn't have stayed down at the club as long as they have if they did judge themselves
>
> on success. I think when you do get some new lads down [to the club] it's difficult for
>
> them to integrate into, straight into that mindset, so if they get beat 52-0 and see actually
>
> we played well and we're happy with it but we still got beat 52-0, I don't think they [new
>
> players] always have the same mentally... so I think you lose a lot of the win-orientated
>
> players who come down to start with because of that (Team A, TP2, coach).

Accordingly, Team A do not judge themselves on results, indeed, a similar message was

noted by the team captain: "it's not about the results and stuff, we'll just come down [and] have a

good time". Moreover, the extract above indicates the pertinence of realising what matters to the

team for mobilisation. For example, when new players joined Team A who were "win-

orientated" a divergence existed with the content of the team's identity (e.g., enjoyment and

friendships). As a consequence, data suggests the results-orientated athletes may be more likely

to leave the team, a strategy known as social mobility (Haslam, 2004). Social mobility is a self-enhancement technique that involves accepting inter and intra-group relations and striving for personal advancement within them. Accordingly, current analysis suggests athletes may have shown social mobility by, for example, moving to a different team that is "win-orientated".

Participants additionally focussed on opportunities for athlete development. One example related to playing for the adult team: "We've had half a dozen [athletes] over the season who've turned out for the first team, who've trained with them on a Thursday as well [...] playing at a higher level and they've brought that back playing with me" (Team D, TP3, coach). Participants discussed progression in a way that indicated opportunities are valued by the coach and the athletes, which in turn, mobilised athletes to seek out such challenges. If in contrast athletes did not share the value of opportunities then mobilisation was less likely and avoidance behaviours were apparent. The influence of the shared team vision was heightened at one club that had plans for new facilities and an athlete development pathway:

> There's a good structure put in place as well so if anybody is like questioning what is going to be happening in the next couple of years, we have the plans outside with er… with the whole clubhouse, it will be great also with the [new] pitches. Everybody knows what is going on and when it's going to happen (Team E, TP1, captain).

> These lads are the future [...] we are looking long-term and again this [team] is where it's going to come from (Team E, TP2, coach).

Previous research has reported the positive influence of leaders displaying a team vision on group members' intentional mobilisation, particularly in times of predicament and adversity

(Halevy et al., 2011). We find evidence for similar processes in the current data and additionally contribute to previous knowledge as a shared vision mobilised athletes because a converging content of identity had been established. To illustrate, across a number of teams the long-term vision progressed the athletes into first team rugby and was perceived to provide coaches and athletes with "something to work towards", initiating and maintaining mobilisation for the season and beyond. In social identity terms, these findings relate to the notion of group prototypicality that has indicated leaders that represent the group's values are perceived as more effective (for a detailed review see van Knippenberg, 2011). More recent inquiry has furthered understanding by documenting that it may be equally pertinent for leaders to portray and embody what the group can become in the future (Steffens et al., 2013). Accordingly, the shared vision may result in athletes' group membership being more likely to make a positive contribution to the self through more favourable group comparisons (Amiot et al., 2010; Boen et al., 2008). In other words, the group is achieving what is important to them at this moment and they are inspired by what the group can become in the future. As alluded to above, different levels of shared team vision were evident, including a vision for the season and the future that, in one example, emanated throughout the club:

> If we can build a foundation from us, say, if we win this [the league] we'll have
> championship [winning] players going into the first team and because we know what it's
> like [to be champions] we'll have the hunger to do it again and then we can inspire teams
> that are younger to try and win... If we can get that winning way all the way through [the
> club], the first team will be fantastic. We say we want a [national division] team
> eventually (Team E, TP3, athlete).

An additional example of the shared long-term vision broadening throughout the club related to a number of participants coaching younger age groups. Athletes, particularly at Team's D and F, were mobilised to coach youth teams at the club and to integrate coaching methods learnt from their own coach. Analysis indicated the identity at Team D and F's club focussed on athlete development to produce a consistent first team fed by age group teams, together with a tradition of athletes progressing to professional teams. A further meaningful pattern in the data reflected setting team challenges for matches that corresponded with the team vision. One performance-orientated example involved "mini challenges" being set by the coach for the team: "keep the other team out for a certain amount of time". The challenges sought to mobilise effort (Reicher & Hopkins, 2001) and is similar to evidence that has reported that the clarification of team goals strengthens followers' team identification in the context of UN peacebuilding operations (Huettermann et al., in press). Taken together, these findings highlight the contextual nature of leadership, whereby leading in a manner that reflects the shared vision and relates to the contents of team's identity may be most effective.

Category 3: Empathy. At an individual-level leaders displaying empathy with athletes aided team mobilisation (e.g., commitment during training). One way leaders showed proactive behaviour to benefit the team was by actively listening to athletes and implementing what was discussed:

The way he listens to you and he actually takes that on, and his coaching as well because he knows what he is talking about and it's getting put into practice as well. He doesn't say and not do it, he'll back it up and do it in training sessions, so if he [coach] says we're going to work on defence we are going to work on it and then that will display [show]

next week in the game and it's just progressing on from there each week (Team E, TP1, athlete).

The theme of listening to the team has also been found to be a key component of effective leadership in UN discussions (Huettermann et al., in press). The present data yielded similar results to Huettermann et al's findings by revealing that mobilisation of effort may be most likely when the leader actively listens to their team and subsequently implements what is discussed. This finding additionally resonates with the 3R's of identity leadership: reflecting, representing, and realising (Haslam et al., 2011). To illustrate, planning discussions and actively listening to the group are hallmarks of the reflecting stage. Indeed, Haslam et al. (2011) proposed listening to and observing the group aids leaders' understanding of the identities within the group. For example, in the current study athletes may affiliate with their specific team (e.g., Team C), their sport (e.g., rugby league athletes), or as a broader category (e.g., sportsmen). Haslam et al. (2011) argued understanding these affiliations and, specifically, which identity athletes are subscribing to at a particular point in time is crucial to explain, and thus influence, athletes' behaviour. As Haslam et al. (2011) noted "it is impossible to lead a group unless one first understands the nature of the group that is to be led" (p. 207). Accordingly, leaders that actively listened and empathised with the team were well placed to implement what was important to the athletes and to give the team ownership:

Almost every single move we've got has been tweaked by what players have said and it's, they've worked considering what we used to play with and I think that's shown how good of a coach is that he's willing to listen to all the players (Team E, TP2, athlete).

Similarly, another coach would listen and encourage their team to make decisions for themselves:

> He'll [coach] go on there [training pitch] and get their attention and then he'll say "what do you think about that, what do you think about this?" He listens to them and lets them make their own minds up and one thing I think he's good at and he doesn't really loose his cool at all when the chips are down a little bit he's still there and trying to come up with the answers to put it right (Team D, TP2, athlete).

The extract reflects composed leadership that promotes responsibility and is solution-focussed. Solution-focussed leadership may be a reflection of the results-orientated climate dominant in sport (Douglas & Carless, 2009), which further emphasises the importance of contextual awareness for effective leadership (Arnold et al., 2012; Haslam et al., 2011). Contextual awareness and empathy may initiate feelings of affective trust, which represents shared emotional bonds with individuals promoted through genuine care, empathy, and rapport (McAllister, 1995). Affective trust has been positively related to team performance, which Schaubroeck, Lam, and Peng (2011) argue may be due to the reciprocal empathy and high affective trust in leaders that increases the likelihood that followers seek resources (e.g., technical advice, emotional support) from leaders. These findings resonate with person-centred counseling were Rogers (1980) proposed the importance of establishing a strong working alliance between counselor and client brought about through empathy, unconditional positive regard, and congruence (or genuineness). Current data perhaps displays the positive benefits of person-centred processes for mobilisation between leaders and athletes in amateur team sport.

An additional theme within the empathy category related to leaders being: "open-minded to everything and listens to our perspective as well, which is great. That's what's made us into the team that we are" (Team E, TP2, captain). Data further suggested empathy displayed by the coaches was, in one instance, ingrained in the club's identity. There are two possible explanations for this finding. First, the leader may identify strongly with the club and thus takes on the club's value (i.e., empathy) in their cognitions and behaviours (Advares-Yorno et al., 2006). Second, the empathy displayed by the leader could be contagious in a similar way to emotional contagion (Hatfield, Cacioppo, & Rapson, 1994). Emotional contagion occurs when the expression of emotion is transferred to nearby individuals (e.g., teammates) particularly within close relations (Hatfield et al., 1994). The notion of emotional contagion has been evidenced in sport (Moll, Jordet, & Pepping, 2010), and it may be that empathetic behaviour demonstrated by coaches is contagious and emanates throughout the team and the club, particularly in those individuals that identify strongly with the coach (Haslam et al., 2011). For instance, Totterdell (2000) suggested individuals' differ in their susceptibility to such affective influences within team sports, with further work suggesting susceptibility extends to emotional contagion and collective tendencies (Ilies, Wagner, & Morgeson, 2007). Taken this evidence into account it may be the affectively susceptible athletes were more influenced by empathy.

On the other hand, a lack of empathy or understanding was believed to hinder team mobilisation:

Sometimes I can be relaxed with them before a game because I don't want them getting hyper and getting too in a frenzy and other weeks… I... that's what I can't put my finger on, sometimes I've revved them up before games and they played shite and other times

I've said nothing and had a quick casual talk with them and they've gone out and played

absolutely out of their skin, so… think a lot of it's down to them as well, how they come

prepared (Team F, TP2, coach).

This extract indicates a lack of understanding of athletes' group-level preferences when

preparing for matches. Consequently, the coach may be working contrary to the values of the

team's identity (Haslam et al., 2011). In addition, having an appreciation of athletes' social

identities away from their rugby team was beneficial in regards to mobilisation. For example,

one coach detailed how he sought to understand the person behind each athlete and accordingly

appreciated that, as detailed in previous research (Schinke et al., 2012), athletes had multiple

identities (e.g., as a university student or a worker/employee) that would need to be considered in

decision making.

Category 4: Empowerment. Converging contents allowed leaders to promote creativity

and involvement from athletes that would advance the team's interests. Additionally, perceiving

coaches to be approachable was believed to encourage athlete contribution, as one coach

outlines:

You're a facilitator for them [the team] [...] I like to try and get them guys to figure things

out for themselves a little bit more than they do, so a lot of the stuff is trying to, trying to

get them [the team] to work it out (Team A, TP1, coach).

In the context of UN peacebuilding operations followers felt motivated by leaders who

encouraged individuals to create an action plan for the group (Huettermann et al., in press).

Huettermann et al. (in press) found this proactive leadership enhanced participation in meetings,

similarly in the current study, leaders involved athletes in a contextually specific manner (e.g., planning plays and tactics). Moreover, encouraging athlete involvement and contribution was helped when leaders were perceived to be part of the team:

> We've discussed it's more of a team effort and me part of the team, but I'm quite willing to share my knowledge and do share my knowledge with the lads and say, give them the option and say "what do you think of this?", that's how I do it, and they might say "nah", and I'll say "fine" [laughter], or they might say, like they have on quite a lot of occasions [...] "yeah that could work for us" (Team E, TP2, coach).

Leaders being perceived as an in-group member is integral to the social identity approach to leadership (Hogg, 2001; van Knippenberg & Hogg, 2003), and perhaps fosters a sense of empowerment in each athlete to feel they have contributed towards the team realising their values and progressing towards the shared vision. Given research has indicated that leadership is a contributing factor in team members' sense of empowerment (Seibert et al., 2011), current analysis additionally suggests empowerment may positively influence mobilisation. Openness allowed empowered team members to portray their ideas:

> Coach: In training as well, when we'll go out tonight I'll set up the drill, but any final detail or change, they'll [the team] be calling that, not me. Erm… because we've done it, we know what we do, we know want we want, we did it at the start of the season, we've discussed it so there's no point in me telling players of this quality and this age "do this, do this, do this", because they know it, they can do it and it's better empowerment if it comes from them. Certainly if it comes from them tonight it will come from them on the pitch on Sunday and it'll work.

Interviewer: OK, good...

Athlete 2: Just to add on to that… when the coach does that and allows us to have input and have our say it gives us more confidence (Team E, TP3).

The extract above illustrates how athletes' feeling a sense of involvement and contribution enhances their confidence. Drawing on Bandura's (1997) self-efficacy theory, current data suggests empowering athletes, through verbal persuasion, to contribute to decision making may increase levels of effort, lead to more challenging goals, and persistence in the face of failure. Accordingly, the creation of converging and multiple contents might enhance confidence and mobilise behaviour. This influence on athletes' psychological approach through leadership was perceived to be indicative of a good relationship: "we'll work together, I'd like us all to come to the right decision together" (Team E, TP2, coach).

Encouraging athletes to think for themselves helped teams continuously learn and fostered mutual respect. Analysis suggested learning and mutual respect could be best developed when the coach and athletes had converging contents of identity, allowing coaches to "work with the players as opposed to at them" because "we both want the same result but I want them to get it… rather than me telling them". Thus, guiding athletes to initiate and implement ideas themselves might mobilise athletes' behaviour and empower the athletes to take responsibility in the future.

4.3.2 Emerging Leaders

The second research objective that guided the study related to how athlete leaders emerged during the course of a competitive season. Reflecting the diverse and social nature of leadership (Northouse, 2010), many factors influenced the emergence of leaders and were summarised into three categories: leading by example, embodying the team ideal, and being team-orientated (see Figure 4.5).

Category 1: Leading by example. One way athlete leaders became visible to teammates and coaches was through leading by example and improving their skills as a leader:

> He's gained that respect by actually being a leader who rolls his sleeves up and does it himself. He's developing that side, he's becoming more of a talker, which is good and that's a bigger part of his game now and because he does roll his sleeves up and does it he's now got the respect and that's why the lads listen up to him (Team A, TP1, coach).

Huettermann et al. (in press) found leading by example demonstrated a commitment to the team's objectives and sense of belonging to the group. Similarly, in the current findings a commitment to the team and sense of belonging may represent the cognitive centrality and in-group ties aspects of social identity (Cameron, 2004). In turn, previous evidence has suggested that team members may role model leader's behaviour by adopting the same attitude and behaviours (Huettermann et al., in press). In this way, athletes may follow the emerging leader's example. In addition to showing a commitment to the team, influential athletes led by example by demonstrating a commitment to their own athlete development: "he never misses training, he's always the first there he's always the first there on game day, he leads by example" (Team

D, TP3, coach). Despite the importance of clear communication to organise defensive lines and attacking plays in rugby league, an emerging pattern in the analysis reflected the notion of "quiet achievers [...] they've both played open age, in fact one of them played first team" (Team D, TP3, coach).

A key message to emanate from the leading by example theme related to the proactive and behavioural nature of leadership. Indeed, previous evidence that has examined leadership in two hierarchical groups (i.e., guards and prisoners) within a simulated prison (Reicher & Haslam, 2006; Reicher et al., 2005) indicated that the emerging leader was able to gain support from their group and the high power group (i.e., the guards) when they led by example. In the prison context, leading by example included having conversations with the guards, together with arranging and facilitating discussion forums for all participants. Returning to the current study, typically athletes that became a centre of influence were additionally competing for the club's adult team. Interestingly, whether the athletes competing for the adult team were influential or not within their team depended on whether representing the adult team reflected the team values and vision. For example, in certain teams where the progression of athletes onto the adult team reflected the shared vision, athletes that did represent the adult team appeared particularly influential. From a social identity perspective, such athletes represent what the team can become (Steffens et al., 2013). In other examples, leading by example was shown on the pitch: "I always try and lead by example, like when we are all trying to re-position I will scream, I'm like "right, you're here and you're here, you're pushing up with me" (Team E, TP1, captain).

Category 2: Embodying the team ideal. Those athletes that reflected the team's values and optimally represented what the team could become (e.g., playing adult rugby league) were

influential (Steffens et al., 2013). In one instance, the athlete who represented the team's content

of passion the most was identified by the captain as someone he would chose to become

professional over himself:

> I respect him because I can see that he's putting his heart and soul into it, you know what
> I mean and I can see that passion. If there was one player from the team I could pick to be
> a professional I'd pick [athlete], over me because he wants it, the desire's there for him.
> I've always said that and it's rare you come across that in a player (Team E, TP3,
> captain).

The importance of representing team values for effective leadership is summarised by Geissner,

van Knippenberg, Ginkel, and Sleebos (2013, p. 664): "the extent to which leaders embody the

central characteristics of the group seems to play an essential role in the prediction of leadership

behavior". Despite the positive effect of representing the team, current analysis indicated that

athletes who emerged as leaders had unique characteristics that were important to the team.

Thus, emerging leaders must be successful in terms of achieving what is important to the team

(e.g., progressing onto the first team), but at the same time remain prototypical of the team. This

dual dimension of group prototypicality has been evidenced by Steffens et al. (2013) who

reported that leaders' success is function of being ahead of the group in performance-terms (i.e.,

achieving high standards), but parallel with the group in terms of prototypicality.

Typically, the emerging leaders were reflected in players' player awards and were

reliable for training and competition. When the influential leaders missed training or matches,

one coach described how that can affect the team's confidence:
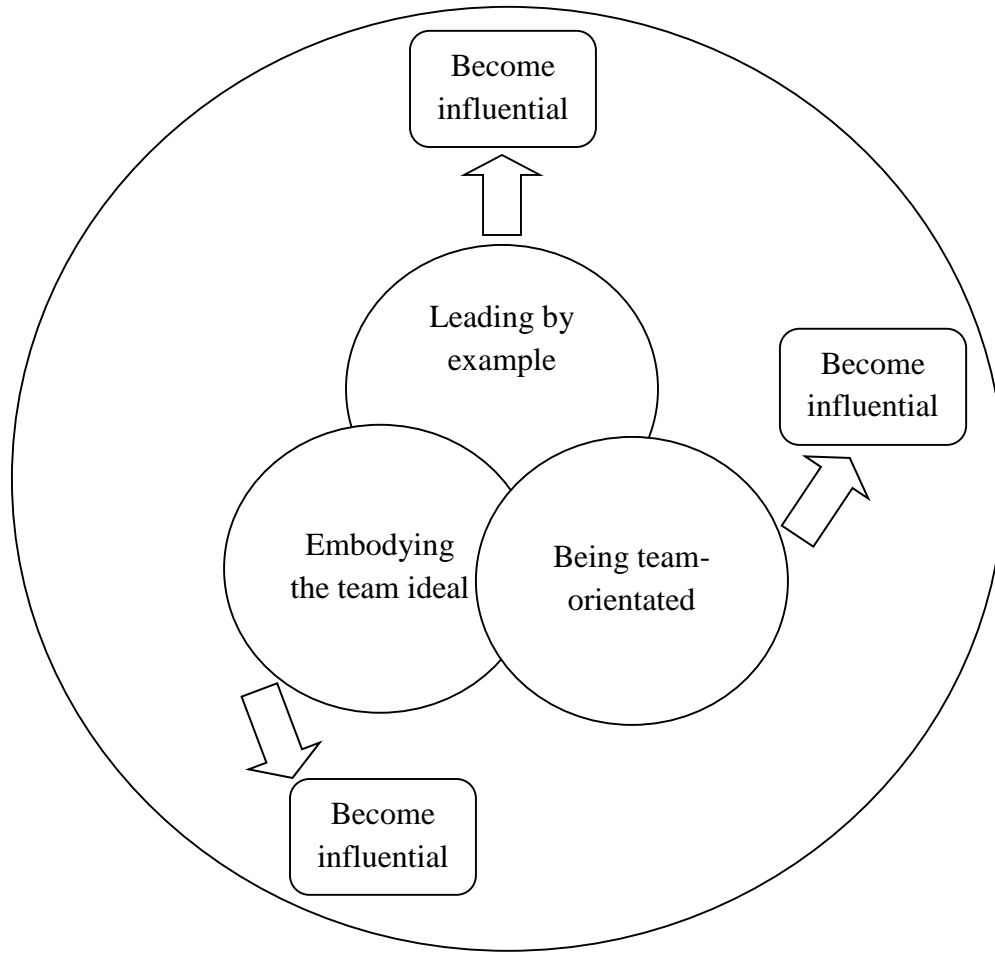
Figure 4.5. Towards a grounded theory of how leaders emerged during the season.

I think just because of his attitude, his kind of physical presence, I think he gives them

[the team] a boost. In fact I think all three of them [leaders] do... when all three of them

play well they're all leaders on the pitch to be honest, er... and they have that confidence.

If any one of them is missing at any stage it, you know, kind of has an impact on the team

(Team A, TP3, coach).

Category 3: Being team-orientated. Participants placed trust in teammates that were

team-orientated. Acting for the team resonates with research that has suggested team-orientated

behaviour is vital for leaders to gain trust (Geissner & van Knippenberg, 2008), and reciprocally

strengthen team identification (Geissner et al., 2013). Within this theme, communication

between teammates was key, but the emerging athlete leaders also sought to understand their

teammates' interests away from rugby and when planning for training and competition:

> I'll have a chat with the lads and say "what do you reckon about that, do you reckon that
>
> will work?" and they'll be like "oh yeah" or "what about this?" Or it might just be one off
>
> the top of my head and I'll just say to [coach] what about this? Before we decide on it,
>
> me and [coach] I'll always ask the lads and say "what do you reckon to that?" And they'll
>
> all speak up won't they and say, and it's been demonstrated in training were we've come
>
> up with something and they've said "oh no I don't like that, I don't think it'll work", so
>
> it's equal balance (Team E, TP2, captain).

Gaining an understanding of teammates and encouraging their involvement allowed

emerging leaders to tailor their messages to the needs of the team. Such emerging leaders who

are able to influence the group through proposing their ideas in the context of the team's identity

are termed entrepreneurs of identity (Haslam et al., 2011; Reicher & Hopkins, 2001). Athletes

that emerged as influential appeared to appreciate and incorporate the views of their teammates,

which Haslam and colleagues (2011) argued promotes a sense of transparency and authenticity.

Leading in a manner that brings together what the team want to do and using that as a vehicle for

action reflects a power through approach (Turner, 2005) that, in light of chapter three's results,

may have transmitted feelings of empowerment (Seibert et al., 2011) in the athletes.

4.4 Conclusions

The findings from study five contribute to the current thesis by detailing how converging and multiple contents of identity link to mobilisation of effort across a competitive season in all the rugby league teams competing in a distinct division. In particular, addressing aim four of this thesis group (i.e., strong team bond and shared long-term vision) and individual-level (i.e., empathy and empowerment) categories were found to link converging and multiple contents and mobilisation (see Figure 4.4). In addition, study five addresses aim five of the thesis and builds on previous chapters by exploring the emergence of leaders that became a centre of influence in teams. In particular, leading by example, embodying the team ideal, and being team-orientated represented the three categories pertaining to how leaders emerged as influential during the course of the season (see Figure 4.5). Moreover, the present study contributes to social identity leadership literature by detailing two developing theoretical conceptualisations, which are springboards for future research, pertaining to: (i) how converging and multiple contents of identity lead to mobilisation of effort; and (ii) how leaders emerge during the course of a competitive season. In short, the findings illustrate the psychosocial, contextual, and proactive nature of leadership (Chemers, 2000; Hogg, 2001; Northouse, 2010), and the GT methodology has allowed for the presentation of two developing theories that identified factors (e.g., empowerment) beyond present social identity leadership research. For instance, current data further social identity leadership evidence by highlighting the benefits of multiple contents of identity for adherence to training and performance (see Figure 4.3 for league standings). In addition, study five offers an original contribution to knowledge by detailing a number of group

and individual-level factors that may begin to explain the linkages between converging contents of identity and mobilisation detailed in previous chapters in this thesis.

The current research had a number of strengths and weaknesses. First, in terms of strengths, the methodology adopted a longitudinal qualitative design (Neale & Flowerdew, 2003) to become immersed in participants' leadership experiences and perceptions over an eight month season, representing a seldom adopted methodological paradigm within leadership research (Haslam et al., 2011). Second, from the researchers' understanding, the current study offers the first attempt to explore the leadership of all the sport teams competing within one division. Notwithstanding these strengths, study limitations should be considered. First, it may be that the teams studied were motivated to display themselves favourably or in a good light, perhaps due to power nature of the coach-athlete relationship (Groom et al., 2011). For example, with the coach present during the focus groups, athletes may have disclosed information in a socially desirable manner. To help to minimise this shortcoming, a combination of one-to-one interviews and focus groups were conducted, together with the use of field notes from training observations. In addition, although the teams were examined across the eight month season, the teams were visited on three occasions (start, mid-, and end of season), thus little is known regarding precisely when and how leaders emerged. For instance, at the mid- and end of the season time-points, questioning during the focus groups and interviews invited participants to reflect upon the first and second half of the season respectively. Nevertheless, the researcher kept case notes of the training sessions attended to observe leadership processes more 'in the moment'. Indeed, future research might wish to adopt an ethnographic approach to more precisely capture the temporal when and how leaders emerged.

The present design drew on amateur rugby league teams competing in one division and therefore offers very specific evidence from one particular division within one sport. Although this does not detract from the creditability of the study future inquiry may begin to broaden our knowledge base by exploring a wider range of sports and groups outside of sport, to further build towards substantive grounded theories (Weed, 2009). Indeed, the developing grounded theories presented here are only the first developmental step and theoretical saturation may not have been met (Corbin & Strauss, 2008; Weed, 2009). An additional avenue for future research may be applied in nature with a focus on developing leadership skills based upon the theory of emerging leaders presented in the current study. Indeed, we are not aware of an evidence-based social identity leadership intervention that has been empirical assessed. For instance, a single-case design (Barker, McCarthy, Jones, & Moran, 2011) may be useful to monitor the effectiveness of leadership interventions on leadership skills (e.g., influence, mobilisation) over time.

The current study has highlighted a number of practical implications. For instance, although the grounded theory suggests positive linkages between converging contents and mobilisation, analysis indicated that having a sole content of identity (e.g., results) was debilitative for team functioning (e.g., team's dropped out of the league). Accordingly, sport psychology consultants working with teams may wish to employ interventions (e.g., PDMS; Barker, Evans, Coffee, Slater, & McCarthy, in press; Evans et al., 2013) with the purpose of broadening athletes' social identity content to include other values (e.g., enjoyment, friendship, and performance) in addition to results. For example, broadening the team's content of identity would allow athletes to draw on other aspects of their content (e.g., friendships) to help protect against the negative effects of identity threat (Scheepers & Ellemers, 2005) when the team is

performing poorly and thus not fulfilling their results content. Regarding developing leadership skills, the grounded theory of the emerging leaders may provide useful insights for athletes, coaches, and support staff wishing to enhance their influence within their team. In particular, current findings would suggest aspiring leaders would benefit from focusing on the controllable thoughts and behaviours of leading by example, embodying the team ideal, and being team-orientated, resonating with and extending the social identity approach to leadership (Haslam et al., 2011).

In sum, the findings from study five build on previous chapters by presenting two developing theoretical conceptualisations pertaining to: (i) how converging and multiple contents of identity lead to mobilisation of effort; and (ii) how leaders emerge during the course of a competitive season. In addition, study five contributes to social identity leadership literature in a number of ways: (i) by highlighting the importance of multiple, in addition to converging (as shown in previous chapters) contents of identity for mobilisation of effort; (ii) by presenting the group (i.e., strong team bond and shared long-term vision) and individual-level (i.e., empathy and empowerment) factors that link converging and multiple contents and mobilisation, which increases our theoretical understanding of the positive influence of converging contents on mobilisation (Figure 4.4); and (iii) by reporting leading by example, embodying the team ideal, and being team-orientated as cognitions and behaviours pertaining to how leaders emerged as influential during the course of the season (see Figure 4.5).

CHAPTER 5: GENERAL DISCUSSION

5.1 Summary of Findings

The aims of this thesis were to: (i) explore leaders' media communication in a real life setting from a social identity perspective; (ii) examine the effects and meditational pathways of converging and diverging contents of identity on perceived leader outcomes, behavioural mobilisation, and task performance; (iii) investigate the effect of leadership strategies (i.e., power through and power over approaches) on the creation of converging contents of identity; and (iv) present theoretical explanations pertaining to how converging contents of identity lead to behavioural mobilisation, and how leaders emerge as influential during the course of a competitive season. The aims of the thesis sought to extend the social identity approach to leadership (Haslam et al., 2011; Hogg, 2001) which contends the development of shared social identification between leaders and followers within a unified group is the foundation of effective leadership.

Chapter two examined the media data of leaders at the London 2012 Olympic Games. Thematic analysis demonstrated how leaders drew upon social identity theory (Tajfel & Turner, 1979) in their media data prior to, during and following London 2012. In particular, five higher order themes were interpreted from leaders' media communication: creation of team identities, team values, team vision, performance consequences, and "we" achieved.

Chapter three examined the effect of converging and diverging contents of identity on perceived leader outcomes (e.g., trust), intentional and behavioural mobilisation of effort, and task performance in a hypothetical and two laboratory experiments. Findings demonstrated that

converging contents of identity between leaders and group members increased perceptions of leadership effectiveness, behavioural mobilisation of the group (i.e., time spent practicing), and this mobilisation partially mediated the positive relationship between converging identity content and improved task performance. In addition, the multi-study approach used in chapter three showed that under conditions of divergence a power through strategy (Turner, 2005) was more effective in creating identity content convergence between leaders and group members compared to a power over approach. Generally, the positive effects of the power through approach were maintained following repeated failure.

Chapter four adopted a qualitative research design to develop theoretical conceptualisations relating to: (i) how converging and multiple contents of identity lead to behavioural mobilisation; and (ii) how leaders emerge as influential during the course of a competitive season. Data was collected from seven rugby league teams competing in a distinct and complete division at three time-points across the season. Findings demonstrated that group (i.e., strong team bond and shared long-term vision) and individual-level (i.e., empathy and empowerment) categories linked converging and multiple contents to behavioural mobilisation. In addition, leading by example, embodying the team ideal, and being team-orientated represented categories pertaining to how leaders emerged during the course of the season.

In summary, through a mixed-method approach this thesis asserts that: (i) leaders' strive to create team identities, values, and visions to optimise elite performance and motivate public support on sports biggest stage (chapter two); (ii) the establishment of converging contents of identity between leaders and group members increases intentional and behavioural mobilisation of effort, and behavioural mobilisation partially mediates the positive relationship between

converging identity contents and task performance (chapter three); (iii) convergence of identity contents are best created, and maintained following failure, by a power through approach (chapter three); and (iv) that group (i.e., strong team bond and shared long-term vision) and individual-level (i.e., empathy and empowerment) factors link converging and multiple contents to behavioural mobilisation, while leading by example, embodying the team ideal, and being team-orientated are behaviours displayed by leaders who emerged as influential during the course of a competitive season (chapter four).

5.2 Theoretical Implications

5.2.1 Leaders Create Identity Contents to Mobilise Individuals

The social identity approach to leadership contends followers want to feel included, supported, and wish to advance their group memberships (Chemers, 2003; Haslam et al., 2011). Thus, leaders' success will hinge on the creation of shared identification that positively contributes to group members' sense of self (e.g., van Knippenberg & van Knippenberg, 2005). Chapter two resonates with social identity leadership in that leaders aimed to create team identities, values, and performance visions to motivate peak performance at the London 2012 Olympic Games. Chapter two extends knowledge by adopting a novel methodology in social identity research (i.e., analysis of media data at an Olympic Games) and by showing that leaders at London 2012 aimed to create team values to mobilise TeamGB athletes towards peak performance. The extent to which leaders portrayed team values in their media communication varied and was context specific (e.g., British athletics centred on accountability). This thesis contributes to understanding because findings from chapter two suggested that leaders acted as entrepreneurs of identity (Reicher & Hopkins, 2001) by creating team values that underpinned

performance excellence at the London 2012 Olympic Games. In social identity terms team

values refer to contents of identity (Postmes & Spears, 1998; Turner, 1999) and at London 2012

leaders portrayed multiple and varied contents of identity that underpinned a team performance

vision (i.e., medal attainment).

Building on previous leadership research in the social identity tradition (e.g., van

Knippenberg, 2011), the communication of identity contents suggests that beyond the

development of team identities (Huettermann et al., in press) leaders also create specific and

multiple contents of identity to direct the cognitions and behaviours of their followers (e.g.,

TeamGB Olympic athletes in chapter two and rugby league athletes in chapter four). Social

identity theory (Tajfel & Turner, 1979; Turner et al., 1987) provides a useful explanation of these

findings, which were further explored in the chapters three and four in the current thesis. To

elaborate, leaders may have outlined specific identity contents in the media to direct the

cognitions and behaviours in final preparations (i.e., prior to) and in the Olympic village (i.e.,

during) the Games when speaking or writing in the media. In particular, these findings extend

Steve Reicher's (1984) analysis of the St. Pauls' Riots in suggesting that how a group

contextually defines themselves (i.e., group identity contents) will govern group members'

behaviour and this is important for leaders to consider. Reicher (1984) explained the link

between values and behaviour in crowd actions at the St. Pauls' Riots, whereas in chapter two,

results showed similar processes in elite leaders' media data at the London 2012 Olympic

Games. In short, leaders outlining various contents of identity may mobilise behaviour towards

the collective performance vision. To explain, when athletes categorise themselves as part of

TeamGB they may have acted in-line with the content(s) of that group (Turner, 1999) because

team values drive athletes' cognitive schemas. The influence of identity contents on group

members' behaviour has been suggested in laboratory (Advares-Yorno et al., 2006) and natural settings (Livingstone & Haslam, 2008), but the current research is the first to show the effect of identity contents in a leadership context and thus provided an original contribution to the social identity analysis of leadership.

In addition to reflecting the performance context at the Olympics (i.e., contextual leadership; Arnold et al., 2012) the team values portrayed by leaders were distinctive. Leaders disclosing contextual team values that are unique to the group may have positive psychological implications, although how these messages were perceived by athletes remains unknown. To explain, when individuals identify with a group their membership becomes an internalised part of the individual's sense of self (Turner, 1999). Subsequently, and akin to a devoted sport fan (Wann, 2006; Wann et al., 2001), group successes and failures are felt personally meaning group members are more likely to be intrinsically motivated to take pride in their work (Haslam et al., 2009), cooperate (De Cremer & van Vugt, 1999), and be committed to advance the group (Haslam et al., 2006). Thus, identities motivate group collaboration, however, an individual's self-esteem and worth will be dependent on the success of the group and intergroup comparisons (Haslam, 2004). In particular, intergroup comparisons are made on group characteristics and it is likely these characteristics reflect the contents inherent within the group (Boen et al., 2008). Accordingly, by portraying distinctive identity contents (e.g., British cycling: attention to detail, innovation, and British resiliency) that help the group to progress towards the collective vision, and enhance the group's uniqueness, it is likely the desirability of the group and positive comparisons with out-groups will increase (Amiot et al., 2010). In short, by proposing and then advancing the group towards team values leaders can increase the likelihood of positive comparisons and, in turn, the self-worth, and well-being (Boen et al., 2008) of group members.

5.2.2 Converging Contents of Identity and Mobilisation

The current thesis further advances social identity leadership in three ways. First, studies three and four examined a behavioural measure of mobilisation. Behavioural measures build on previous research that has typically investigated successful leadership through perceived effectiveness (e.g., influence; Subašić et al., 2011) or intentional mobilisation (Halevy et al., 2011; Seyranian, in press). Second, the thesis contributes to knowledge by showing that the convergence of identity contents between leaders and group members increases group members' behavioural mobilisation of effort. Previous research has examined the effect of social identity with the leader and group (e.g., Platow & van Knippenberg, 2001) on self-reported leadership effectiveness, but had yet to examine the influence of identity contents on more objective measures of leader effectiveness (i.e., behavioural mobilisation). Third, findings extend the social identity approach by demonstrating that behavioural mobilisation partially mediated the positive relationship between converging identity contents and improved task performance (Figure 3.3), therefore offering an explanation of the potential mechanisms that underpin the positive effect of converging identity contents on task performance. Collective mind and social support are discussed below as explanations through which converging contents of identity could enhance behavioural mobilisation.

Collective mind. The collective mind hypothesis proposes that teamwork is optimised when thought processes become group-orientated through social cognition in a manner that produces a single cognitive system (Weick & Roberts, 1993). Drawing on the collective mind hypothesis it may be that in a shared group identity, converging identity contents lead to a single cognitive schema, which the current thesis asserts can facilitate effective functioning (i.e.,

positive perceptions of leaders and mobilisation) towards the collective vision. To illustrate, a synergy may exist between the leader and group members in a manner that all cognitions (e.g., a focus on results) and behaviours (e.g., practicing the lap to improve results in chapter three) are governed by a common identity content (i.e., results) within the in-group. Building on findings of chapter two, data from chapter three imply the collective mind may not be accomplished through social identification alone, plausibly because group members and leaders have different contents of identity (Postmes et al., 2005). In short, it may be that a convergence in contents between leaders and group members within a shared identity is more likely to create a collective mind that directs group-orientated behavioural mobilisation.

Results from chapter three also demonstrated that behavioural mobilisation acted as a complementary mediator (Zhou et al., 2010) in the positive relationship between converging identity contents and task performance (see Figure 3.3). In other words, converging contents of identity positively predicted improvements in task performance, and those improvements were in part explained by increased behavioural mobilisation of effort. Accordingly, to improve group performance this thesis would assert leaders would benefit from developing contents that all group members resonate with and that reflect the context specific task. To elaborate, in the study three performance improvements were noted in the converging but not diverging condition because of significant differences in mobilisation (Zhou et al., 2010). In the experimental context, behavioural mobilisation of effort involved practicing the video game, with data showing that the converging condition ($M = 9.23$ minutes) practiced for longer than the diverging condition ($M = 3.94$ minutes). Therefore, given the nature of the task (i.e., a pre-determined lap on a driving video game) allowed for performance improvements to be made through practice (i.e., practice effect; Donovan & Radosevich, 1999) it was anticipated that the

participants who practiced more would be most likely to see performance gains, and data in chapter three demonstrated this expectation. The crucial element from a leadership perspective is that the participants were only mobilised to practice when a convergence in identity content was established and the content reflected the vision of the group (i.e., to gain better results).

The prevalence of collective mind might be heightened through convergence of identity contents because intergroup competition is more intense than inter-individual competition (Wildschut, Vevea, Pinter, Insko, & Schopler, 2003). Therefore the increased importance associated with belonging to a group may motivate a greater collective response, while previous researchers have evidenced that the achievements of group collaboration are greater than individual sum the group's parts (Forsyth, 2009). Therefore, when leaders and group members share social identification through being connected to a unified group and converge in their content (e.g., both value results), coupled with increased importance (Wildschut et al., 2003), this may motivate cooperative behaviour. In turn, the opportunity of group success in an intergroup context may be enhanced, and in light of this thesis, this may be most likely when convergence in identity contents prevails. Nevertheless, the current thesis can only speculate that convergence in contents of identity facilitate cooperative behaviour as such behaviour was not assessed, but could be examined in future research. In short, chapter three findings showed that task performance (i.e., group success) increased in the converging compared to diverging condition. Despite the positive effect of convergence on behavioural mobilisation the influence on social support was not accounted for as participants completed the experimental procedure in individual cubicles with no interaction, while social support was not measured. However, building on the findings of chapter three, the qualitative research design adopted in chapter four elicited categories that resonated with social support literature.

Social support. Researchers have evidenced that as social identity in groups increases so to do levels of social support (Haslam & Reicher, 2006; Levine et al., 2005). To illustrate, through a combination of psychometric, physiological, and behavioural observations during the BBC prison study (Haslam & Reicher, 2006; Reicher & Haslam, 2006), social identification has been found to be the basis of social support, together with mitigating the negative influence of stressors. In contrast, individuals with low levels of social identification were more likely to succumb to the negative effects of stress (Haslam & Reicher, 2006). Additional evidence (Haslam, O'Brien, Jetten, Vormedal, & Penna, 2005) has reported social identification to be a positive predictor of perceived social support and life satisfaction, and a negative predictor of stress. Chapter four of this thesis contributes to knowledge by detailing that athletes provided social support within the 'strong team bond' category, which was posited to theoretically link converging and multiple contents of identity with behavioural mobilisation of effort (see Figure 4.4). Thus, the current thesis has provided evidence that high levels of social support may be most likely when leaders and groups establish converging and multiple contents of identity (and not just social identity; Haslam & Reicher, 2006; Levine et al., 2005), and that social support is one mechanism through which group members are mobilised. Self-categorisation theory (Turner et al., 1987) provides a framework to explain these findings.

Self-categorisation theory (Turner et al., 1987) proposed group behaviour is associated with a change in individuals' perceived structure of the self. Put simply, an individual may define themselves in terms of their idiosyncratic personal attributes that make them unique from other individuals, whereas when a group member, the self is defined in terms of the characteristics (i.e., contents) that are shared with others that are perceived to be part of the same category (i.e., the in-group). Accordingly, an individual's cognitions and behaviours will be

contingent on how they self-categorise within a social context (Turner, 1999; Turner et al.,

1987). To explain, in chapter four it was shown that athletes' and leaders' behaviours reflected

the contents of their team, and thus it appears they have self-categorised as, for example, a

"Team B athlete", in the same way performance directors of TeamGB in chapter two may have

(i.e., "a TeamGB performance director"). An additional assumption of self-categorisation theory

is that once individuals self-categorise they are more likely to perceive themselves as

interchangeable with their teammates through a process termed depersonalisation (Slater et al.,

2013; Turner, 1999). The process of depersonalisation has been explained elsewhere in the

current thesis (for detail refer to p.119/120, chapter three), but briefly, involves individuals'

shifting their perception of them self from an individual level (i.e., "I") to the group level (i.e.,

"we") and is perhaps a contributing factor in the social support explanation. To illustrate, when

individuals self-categorise as part of a group (e.g., TeamGB) their cognitions are team-orientated

because they perceive themselves as similar to and interchangeable with other group members,

and such cognitions are directed by the content(s) of the group. Thus, when convergence exists,

providing group members self-categorise as part of the in-group, then cognitions are likely to be

team-orientated and focussed on unified contents of identity (e.g., as in chapter three: results or

having fun). Subsequently, as indicated in chapter four and in accordance with social identity

principles (Tajfel & Turner, 1979), group members and leaders are more likely to support one

another because the athletes' fate as an individual will depend upon the fate of group to which

they belong.

As well as seeing the fate of the group personally, the identity content(s) of the group

within which individuals self-categorise may specifically be to develop relationships or support

one another. In the first study of chapter three data indicated that when the content of identity

centred upon friendships participants reported they would commit more hours to a task that would develop relationships within the team, compared to a task that would increase the team's chance of winning. This finding reflected intentional rather than behavioural mobilisation but provided evidence that individuals' commitment to the group centred upon their friendship content of identity.

In short, this thesis has provided evidence that in leadership contexts the creation of converging contents of identity are crucial for the intentional and behavioural mobilisation of group members' effort. To explain this contribution to knowledge a number of plausible theoretical explanations have been offered, nevertheless this thesis did not directly measure collective mind, nor social support, however the notion of social support was inductively interpreted through grounded theory methodology in chapter four. Indeed, the developing grounded theory (Figure 4.4) detailed a number of influences that may begin to explain the link between converging contents of identity and mobilisation within rugby league teams. In particular, group (i.e., strong team bond and shared long-term vision) and individual-level (i.e., empathy and empowerment) categories were found to link converging and multiple contents and mobilisation. In sum, this thesis has provided a number of theoretically plausible explanations of how converging contents lead to behavioural mobilisation of effort, but future researchers should explore the validity of these claims. It is hoped the categories conceptualised within the grounded theory will provide a useful starting point for future researchers.

5.2.3 Types of Identity Content and the Benefits of Multiple Contents

As limited research attention has been paid to contents of identity (for exceptions see Livingstone & Haslam, 2008; Reicher, 1984), little was known prior to the current programme of

research regarding the specific contents of identity (e.g., results or friendships) groups would define themselves with and embrace. Across the current thesis numerous contents of identity were interpreted from data through qualitative analysis (i.e., chapters two and four) and prescribed as part of the experimental procedures (i.e., chapter three). First, the findings from chapters two and four demonstrate the value of mixed method approaches to researching leadership. For example, adopting a qualitative research paradigm allowed for the discovery of unanticipated and novel influences and phenomena (e.g., specific and multiple contents of identity), a contributing characteristic of qualitative enquiry (Sparkes & Smith, 2014). Second, study two indicated that the specific content of identity (e.g., results or friendships) was of less importance compared to the act of convergence (or divergence) between leaders and group members. That is, data suggested similar effects for results and friendships content. Moreover, studies three and four substituted friendships content for having fun and demonstrated the same effects for converging and diverging contents of identity. In other words, similar data patterns were found for results vs. friendships' and results vs. having fun, providing additional evidence that the content of one's identity may be of less importance than conditions of convergence or divergence. It was deemed necessary to replace the identity content of friendships with having fun in studies three and four because the laboratory procedure was completed within individual cubicles and did not allow for interaction between participants. Therefore, the identity content of friendships used in the hypothetical scenarios was not a relevant content of identity within the laboratory experiments. The importance of leaders defining contextually relevant group characteristics has been argued by Haslam and colleagues (2011). Accordingly, substituting friendships for having fun ensured the conditions did not examine the differences between

contextually relevant (e.g., results) and irrelevant (e.g., friendships) characteristics, and focussed on the differences between converging and diverging contents of identity.

In reference to the social identity approach to leadership which posits that leaders need to represent (i.e., be prototypical; van Knippenberg, 2011) and progress the group to achieve what matters to "us" (Haslam et al., 2011). Contextually, how individuals' define their contents of identity will vary (Postmes et al., 2005). For example, in chapter four contents of identity such as enjoyment, friendships, and performance (e.g., Team A) and solely results (e.g., Team B), along with contextually-relevant contents in chapter two including attention to detail, innovation, and British resiliency (e.g., British cycling) and accountability (e.g., British athletics) were evident. In sum, this thesis extends previous leadership research by evidencing the contextually relevant contents of identity that are apparent within elite (e.g., TeamGB) and amateur rugby league teams. An additional contribution to knowledge to be drawn from the contents of identity outlined regards the proposal and influence of multiple contents of identity. More specifically, chapter two documented that leaders whose team exceeded performance expectations portrayed multiple contents of identity in their media data, while chapter four extended these findings by showing the importance of multiple contents of identity to maintain group members' commitment to the team for the duration of a competitive season.

The evidence in chapter two and four that leaders and athletes may ascribe multiple contents of identity to their group memberships extends previous literature that has reported individuals have multiple social identities (Haslam, 2004). For example, Schinke et al's (2012) analysis of professional boxers' media data showed that participants had numerous social identities that were part of their sense of self, which were particularly drawn upon following

competition defeat. Collectively, the results of chapters two and four advance Schinke et al.'s (2012) data by suggesting that individuals' social identities may have multiple defining contents and that multiple contents may be beneficial for group functioning. For example, the results of chapter four showed that the rugby teams with numerous contents of identity were more likely to fulfill their fixtures, adhere and commit to training, and perform better as a team, whereas teams that focussed solely on results were more likely to have difficulty in keeping the team together, with two teams having to withdraw from the league. The positive effect of multiple contents may be explained through research that has explored social identity threat.

Threats to individuals' social identity have negative psychological (Haslam, 2004), and physiological effects (Scheepers & Ellemers, 2005). For example, individuals in groups have been found to display increased blood pressure when their social identity is threatened (Scheepers & Ellemers, 2005). Chapter four of this thesis extends understanding by providing preliminary evidence for the negative effect of identity content threat on group functioning. In particular, during the competitive season a number of the rugby teams experienced threat (e.g., defeats) to their identity content (e.g., results), which appeared to have the greatest influence on teams with a sole content of results. To explain, team defeats rendered the content of the team's identity (i.e., results) unfulfilled, thus hindering group sustainability (Haslam et al., 2011). Drawing on data from chapter four, competition defeats may have posed a threat to Team B and G's results identity content and team members had no other contents of identity to draw upon (Turner, 1999). Multiple contents of identity (e.g., enjoyment, friendships, and performance) may have afforded other teams to be socially creative with their identity (e.g., following defeats Team A could emphasise friendships over performance) and thus maintain a positive group membership (Amiot et al., 2010; Boen et al., 2008). In sum, multiple contents of identity may

have a protective function in times of adversity (e.g., poor performances) as team members can broaden their content of identity to unthreatened aspects. Nevertheless, this thesis did not directly measure whether identity threat was perceived, nor were psychological or physiological responses assessed, but the team's (i.e., Team B and G) with a sole content of results in chapter four withdrew from the league following repeated defeats, whereas a team (i.e., Team A) that had multiple contents of identity continued to compete following repeated defeats. Identity content threat and psycho-physiological responses may warrant future research attention.

5.2.4 Power Through Leadership and the Creation of Identity Convergence

Chapter three provided an original contribution to knowledge by showing that under conditions of divergence a power through approach (Turner, 2005) was more effective, compared to a power over approach (Festinger, 1953), in creating converging identity contents between leaders and group members. Broadly, the positive effects brought about by power through leadership were maintained following repeated group failure. In essence, the purpose of the study four was to examine how a leader could best be an entrepreneur of identity (Reicher & Hopkins, 2001). Aligned with the proactive and influential definition of leadership (Northouse, 2010) the experiment contrasted the effectiveness of leadership strategies (i.e., power through vs. over) when the leader aimed to create new values and proposals for the group's future. Based on previous theorising (Hogg, 2001; Turner, 2005) it was hypothesised that both the power through and over approach would strengthen participants' importance of the leaders' content of identity, but the power through approach only would retain this effect following failure. As expected, the power through approach was effective and was sustained following failure, however, the power

over had no effect of participants' perceived importance of the leader's content of identity. A number of potential explanations are possible and will now be discussed.

The aim of the laboratory procedure was to ensure the power through and over conditions only differed in the power manipulations. Thus, the power over approach did not include rewards or punishments, which are typically inherent within a power over approach (Festinger, 1953). Thus, it is possible that the lack of reward or punishment in the power over condition negated participants from strengthening their importance of the leader's content of identity. Nevertheless, more recent research has shown that the use of strategies such as rewards and punishments or surveillance typically create psychological distance between leaders and group members and therefore reduce in-group leaders' capacity to influence and motivate group members (Subašić et al., 2011). These findings relate to the third study of chapter three because despite the diverging conditions created in the experiment the results indicated the power through and over conditions reported a strong connection with the leader. Thus, based upon Subašić and colleagues (2011) evidence, using rewards or punishments may have created psychological distance and would not have been likely to positively influence the leader's ability to encourage convergence. Further, the chapter three finding that the power through approach was more effective can be explained by drawing upon the social identity approach to leadership (Haslam et al., 2011; Hogg, 2001) and in particular the 3R's of identity leadership proposed by Haslam and colleagues (2011). Identity leadership posits that the processes of reflecting, representing, and realising will encourage individuals to lead in a manner that resonates with social identity principles and, in turn, give rise to positive outcomes found previously (e.g., trust in the leader; Geissner & van Knippenberg, 2008) and in the current thesis (e.g., behavioural mobilisation; study three).

Reflecting. The first stage of identity leadership is reflecting and involves leaders actively listening, having conversations, and observing the group to take an interest in becoming a good group member (Haslam et al., 2011). In particular, leaders may reflect to understand the identity and associated identity contents of the group in addition to demonstrating their commonality with group members. The reflecting stage of identity leadership is captured particularly well in an anecdotal example from Jose Mourinho, then Inter Milan manager, when speaking to the press ahead of his club's champions league final against Bayern Munich noted: "You must create good leadership with the players, which is an accepted leadership, not leadership by power or status [...] I'm one of them" (BBC Sport, 2010). The finding in chapter three of the current thesis that a power through approach increased participants' reported importance of the leader's identity content could be because the power through manipulation involved reflection. Specifically, by proposing a vision for the future that encompassed the leader's and group members' contents (i.e., results and having fun) the leader demonstrated that they had reflected on the identity content of the group (i.e., having fun). In contrast, the power over approach ignored group members' identity content and proposed a vision that only encompassed the leader's identity content (i.e., results).

An explanation of this finding could be that the power through approach draws similarities with person-centered counseling pioneered by Carl Rogers (1980). Rogers outlined the importance of establishing a strong working alliance between counselor and client brought about through empathy, unconditional positive regard, and congruence (or genuineness). Leaders acting to reflect with the group may develop strong mutual connections (i.e., a shared identity and converging identity contents) and aligns with the person-centred approach. For example, when reflecting with the group, leaders are putting the group's needs first (as the counselor

would put the client's needs first in person-centred therapy; Rogers, 1980) and research may help to explain why this process in beneficial for leadership. To illustrate, De Cremer et al. (2006) demonstrated that group members' reported higher levels of self-esteem when the leader was self-sacrificial (i.e., put the group's need first), as opposed to self-benefiting (i.e., putting their own needs first). The implications of these findings, taken together with the conclusions of the current thesis, suggest that understanding the group's identity content(s) through reflection will help to increase group members' perceptions of the leader and the likelihood of identity convergence, together with strengthening group members' self-esteem. Nevertheless, due to a lack of measurement, the positive influence of the power through approach on self-esteem can only be speculated. In short, the power through approach was able to reflect with the group whereas the power over approach was not.

Representing. The second stage of identity leadership is representing. Representing involves leaders making decisions and behaving in-line with the group's identity contents (Haslam et al., 2011). The sequential nature of the 3R's is evident here as leaders' capability to represent the group will depend on whether the leader has first reflected on the group's identity. In short, to represent the group leaders must work for "us", making decisions that are group-orientated and advance the group towards the collective vision. Indeed, within the current thesis, chapter four data suggested that leaders who emerged as influential during a competitive season were team-orientated. In addition, leaders can propose ideas centred upon what the group can become in the future (Steffens et al., 2013). This resonates with the proactive definition of leadership (Northouse, 2010) that aims to transform the group's reality for the better. In other words, to achieve the collective vision. Leadership processes of representing the group's values and providing inspiring ideas for the future that are rooted in the group's identity are highlighted

in the embodying the team ideal category in chapter four and was encompassed within the power through condition in chapter three. In particular, the power through approach represented what the group valued at that stage (i.e., having fun), but additionally proposed how this could be developed in the future by outlining that "we should combine the reasons we are part of this group to make our group about having fun and results". Researchers have demonstrated that prototypical leaders (i.e., leaders that represent the group's identity content) are perceived as more effective (van Knippenberg & van Knippenberg, 2005), trustworthy, (Geissner & van Knippenberg, 2008), and charismatic (van Dijke & De Cremer, 2010). Indeed, results from study four indicated that the power through condition perceived the leader to be more prototypical than the power over condition. Accordingly, the increased prototypically brought about by the power through condition provides an explanation of the data. In contrast, the power over condition was unable to represent the group because the leadership approach did not first reflect on the group values (i.e., having fun). From a social identity perspective, leaders are best placed to lead when one first understands the nature of the group that is to be led (Haslam et al., 2011). In turn, in the power over condition the leader represented what they valued as an individual (i.e., results) but did not represent the group (i.e. having fun) they sought to lead. Emphasising the difference in content between the leader and group members may increase perceived distance between leaders and group members, which researchers have shown to reduce mutual trust (Geissner et al., 2009). In turn, the lack of effect within the power over condition may be because the leader did not represent the group. In sum, the power through approach was able to represent the group whereas the power over approach was not.

Realising. The third stage of identity leadership in realising. Realising involves leaders organising opportunities for the group to behave in-line with the group's identity contents and, in

turn, progress towards the collection vision (Haslam et al., 2011). During the ten minute free period in study four the leader instructed participants to spend their time practicing the video game but ultimately participants could choose what they did from a selection of activities. Thus, the opportunity to progress the group was provided in both conditions during the free period, however, the power through condition were significantly more behaviourally mobilised to practice the lap. This finding extends previous research findings by suggesting that planning and delivering activities or structures that reflect the collective identity content(s) are important to allow the positive benefits of social identities (e.g., Boen et al., 2008) to become reality. To explain, the power through condition increased participants' perceived importance of results, while having fun also remained high. In contrast, in the power over condition participants' perceived importance of results remained low, thus, the task instructed by the leader to be completed during the free period now partly aligned with the power through conditions' contents (i.e., results and having fun), but was in conflict with the power over condition's content (i.e., having fun). In short, by first reflecting and then representing, the leader in the power through condition was able to provide opportunities for the group to achieve its target (i.e., improve results and have fun). Drawing on social identity theory (Tajfel & Turner, 1979), in turn, participants in the power through condition were motivated to invest their resources (e.g., effort, concentration) and may have felt psychologically empowered (Seibert et al., 2011) to develop their group membership because their identification contributes to their sense of self. In contrast, the power over condition was ineffective in focusing solely on what the leader wanted to achieve. In short, the power through approach was able to realise the group's identity contents whereas the power over approach was not.

In sum, the 3R's of identity leadership (Haslam et al., 2011) has provided a useful framework to explain the results from chapter three that a power through, compared to a power over, approach is more effective in creating convergence of identity contents. The subsequent benefits of convergence for perceived effectiveness (e.g., trust, influence) and behavioural mobilisation has been found consistently in the current thesis across qualitative and quantitative methodologies. These two findings extend previous understanding of social identity leadership (Haslam et al., 2011) and a model representing effective leadership in the context of the current thesis is displayed in Figure 5.1.
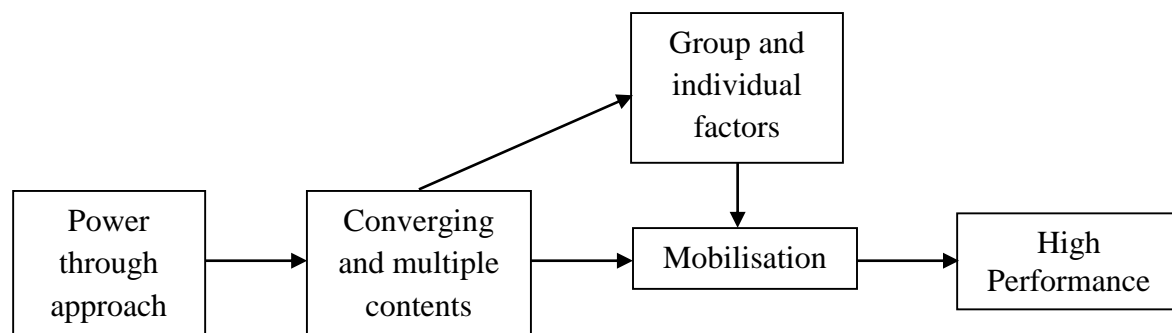
Figure 5.1. Model of effective leadership processes in the context of this thesis.

5.3 Applied Implications

Collectively, this thesis has many implications for leaders. In sum, chapter two outlined how leaders many wish to communicate to the media with a view to motivate athlete peak performance and public support. Next, chapter three demonstrated the positive effect of establishing converging contents of identity for behavioural motivation and task performance, and that such convergence is best developed by a power through approach (Turner, 2005). Further, regarding the development of leadership skills, the grounded theory of the emerging

leaders (see Figure 4.5) may provide useful insights for athletes, coaches, and support staff wishing to enhance their influence within teams. Finally, chapter four presented the benefits of developing multiple in addition to converging contents of identity and, in turn, provided a theoretical explanation of how converging and multiple contents of identity increase mobilisation (see Figure 4.4).

5.3.1 Media Communication to Motivate Peak Performance and Public Support

Practitioners that are consulting with leaders involved with the media may wish to apply results from chapter two to optimise how leaders' represent themselves in their media communication. Enhancing perceptions of leaders in the media may be particularly worthwhile in light of the impression formation literature (Manley et al., 2008). To explain, leaders' portrayal of themselves and the rhetoric they use will lead the public to form an impression of the leader, which may have implications for the publics' willingness to support the leader and their team. For example, chapter two found leaders displayed a number of strategies to create a team identity at London 2012. Given the positive effect of developing a shared team identity on group-level outcomes such as commitment (Haslam et al., 2006), cooperation (De Cremer & van Vugt, 1999), and collective efficacy (Reicher & Haslam, 2006; Wang & Howell, 2012) leaders may adopt inclusive language (e.g., "we" or "us"), which exhibits group solidarity and closeness, and highlight athletes that portray the group ideal (e.g., Sir Chris Hoy within British cycling). Further, communicating to the nation in a manner that connects with the British public may help to motivate public support. To explain, in politics leaders draw upon varied stories and events to connect with the highest percentage of the public as possible to maximise support for their party (Reicher & Hopkins, 2001). In a similar manner, based on findings from chapter two, leaders

striving to increase the likelihood of public support would benefit from drawing upon events and figures that resonate with the large majority of the public (e.g., British Royalty) to motivate public support for their team. These implications may be particularly prudent given that data in chapter two suggested it may be maladaptive for leaders not to encourage team identities or values in the media. The present findings can only tentatively associate leaders' media representations to athlete performance, but teams that performed well (i.e., achieved or exceeded medal expectations) at London 2012 have seen an increase in funding, whereas teams that under performed have seen a reduction in funding (BBC Sport, 2012). The influential and contextual processes of leadership (Chemers, 2000; Northouse, 2010) are likely to have played a part in the success or failure of each sport, and leaders' media communication may be one controllable factor to be considered in this context. In sum, leaders may benefit from portraying team identities, values, and visions within their media communication as one contributing factor to optimise athlete performance and motivate public support, and this is within leaders' control.

5.3.2 Developing Leadership Skills and Behaviours to Enhance Influence and Mobilisation

Chapter three provides implications for leaders aiming to enhance their capability to mobilise their group members. First, creation of converging identity contents is likely to increase group members' positive perceptions of the leader (e.g., trust, influence, effectiveness) and produce higher levels of behavioural mobilisation on a task set by the leader. Second, a power through approach, whereby leaders reflect, represent, and realise (Haslam et al., 2011) the collective ambitions of the group (rather than focus on their own vision), is most effective in developing a convergence of identity contents. It follows that organisations wishing to develop their employees' leadership skills to influence and mobilise their teams may benefit from

educating and working closely with leaders to adopt a power through leadership (Turner, 2005), which is underpinned by social identity theory (Tajfel & Turner, 1979) and findings from the current thesis. Beyond previous proposals of leadership development that emphasise the importance of leaders creating team identity (Haslam et al., 2011), the current thesis asserts the development of converging and multiple contents of identity to be paramount for behavioural mobilisation. The development of converging identity contents is crucial because the group's identity content(s) directed group members' cognitions and behaviours within in the current thesis, and therefore identity contents provide controllable day-to-day processes and a cognitive schema (Weick & Roberts, 1993) for group members' mobilisation of effort. More broadly, adopting a power through approach by reflecting, representing, and realising (Haslam et al., 2011) is valuable for individuals seeking to lead, with the benefits contextualised in the present thesis summarised in Figure 5.1. And, as noted in the first sentence of this thesis, leadership is ubiquitous in human life and thus data from this thesis may have far reaching applications.

As an example of the utility of this thesis I have begun to integrate the findings into my consultancy practice through a single-case research design (Barker et al., 2011). To illustrate, I have developed an eight month leadership programme built around creating shared and multiple contents, and a collective vision within the 3R's framework (Haslam et al., 2011) for the England Senior Cerebral Palsy Football Team. The programme vision is to coach the senior leadership team (including all staff/senior players; $N = 8$) to embed power through leadership in their everyday practice with the England CP team in the lead up to the World Championships in June 2015. To achieve this end, eight monthly workshops are being delivered with the following objectives: (i) to establish a strong working relationship between players and staff within England CP; (ii) to collaboratively develop and establish collective values and an inspiring

vision; and (iii) for players and staff to live and breathe the collective values established and thus move England CP towards their vision. Alongside the development workshops, psychometric measures of leadership variables, as used in the current thesis (e.g., mobilisation of effort, trust in the coach), are being assessed to examine the efficacy of the intervention.

In addition, the grounded theory of how leaders emerged in rugby league teams during a competitive season suggested aspiring leaders would benefit from focussing on leading by example, embodying the team ideal, and being team-orientated in their leadership. The current thesis posits these controllable processes would be important to include in leadership development programmes. Chapter four was completed within an amateur rugby league context and thus caution should be expressed when interpreting these findings beyond amateur rugby league. However, the behaviours reflect controllable processes that team members wishing to gain influence may wish to consider, while a promising future research area provided by chapter four's findings is to examine these findings in other contexts, and to devise and examine the efficacy of a leadership skills programme based upon the three categories posited to increase one's influence within the current grounded theory.

5.3.3 Creating Multiple Contents of Identity

Chapters two and four advocate that converging and multiple contents of identity are most beneficial for group functioning and behavioural mobilisation. In particular, data suggested that having multiple contents of identity helped to guard against a lack of commitment from athletes (e.g., non-attendance at training) when one aspect of identity content (e.g., results) was threatened (e.g., by competition defeats). To apply these findings, consultants may wish to educate leaders or implement team-building interventions (e.g., PDMS) to encourage teams to

develop multiple contents of identity. Chapter four showed creating multiple contents of identity facilitated team functioning, while teams that focussed solely on one identity content withdrew from the league when that content was not being fulfilled. One approach to team-building that has been found to develop and strengthen particular contents of identity is personal-disclosure mutual-sharing (PDMS; Dunn & Holt, 2004; Holt & Dunn, 2006). PDMS is a team-building intervention that asks individuals to publicly disclose previously unknown personal stories and information to fellow group members (Dunn & Holt, 2004). In research with football academy scholars, PDMS has been found to strengthen friendships identity content in team members that at baseline assessment were predominantly focussed on results (Evans et al., 2013). Additionally, Evans et al. (2013) noted an improvement in team performance from pre- to post-PDMS that the authors argue was due to the broadening of identity content (i.e., a focus on results and friendships), which allowed athletes to draw on their friendships aspect of social identity when their results content had been threatened by team defeats. A shortcoming of Evans et al's (2013) study was that only a single PDMS session was conducted and, in-line with PDMS guidelines (Holt & Dunn, 2006), the session focussed on developing relationships (i.e., friendships). Addressing this shortcoming, Barker et al. (in press) employed dual-phase PDMS with sessions focussed on developing friendships and results identity contents within the context of an academy cricket pre-season tour. Results indicated that in accordance with Evans et al. (2013) the relationship-orientated PDMS significantly strengthened athletes' importance of friendships identity content, while the performance-orientated PDMS significantly strengthened athletes' importance of results identity content and collective efficacy (Barker et al., in press). In sum, an evidence-base is beginning to emerge detailing that PDMS is effective in promoting particular identity contents (e.g., a focus on results or friendships). As the current thesis found multiple

contents of identity are important for leaders to behaviourally mobilise group members, leaders utilising varied types of PDMS sessions may be useful to encourage the development of multiple contents of identity to protect the group from identity threat (Scheepers & Ellemers, 2005) and enhance behavioural mobilisation.

In summary, the findings of this thesis suggest that practitioners could help leaders to: (i) optimise their media communication to motivate athletes' peak performance and public support at major championships; (ii) adopt power through leadership principles to create convergence of identity contents, to in turn, mobilise group members and improve performance; and (iii) devise programmes to develop multiple contents of identity within performing teams.

5.4 Strengths and Limitations

A collective strength of the current thesis is the mixed method research approach utilised that is innovative within the social identity analysis of leadership. Moreover, scholars have indicated mixed methods have numerous benefits including a more comprehensive explanation of the topic area (Hagger & Chatzisarantis, 2011), a complementary advantage whereby the strengths of one approach address the weaknesses of the other, and the opportunity for triangulation across research designs (Moran et al., 2011). In the current thesis similar findings have been evidenced across qualitative and quantitative designs. For example, chapter four adopted a qualitative approach to complement and enhance findings from chapter three. In particular, chapter three demonstrated that converging contents of identity positively predicted behavioural mobilisation of effort (i.e., time spent practicing). This finding was first supported and then extended in chapter four through a qualitative approach, and in particular via a GT methodology to explore the factors that could explain why and how converging contents of

identity were positively linked to mobilisation of effort. In other words, as advocated in literature (e.g., Hagger & Chatzisarantis, 2011) the qualitative approach explored the mechanisms of change and thus provided a deeper insight the underpinnings of individuals' behaviours. More specifically, the chapters within this thesis had their own strengths and limitations which will now be discussed.

First, building on chapter two data that displayed evidence for leaders' creation of team values in the media (e.g., British athletics; accountability), chapter three involved three experiments were the creation of converging and diverging identity contents between the leader and group members were integral to the design. As such, participants' identity content was manipulated, either via a script (study two), or a pre-screening questionnaire and posters and cue cards (studies three and four), to be centred upon results, friendships, or having fun. A strength of chapter three was that data revealed the same pattern of results irrespective of the specific identity content (i.e., results, friendships, or having fun). In other words, the act of convergence (or divergence) was more important than the specific content itself, suggesting this finding is a theoretical proposition rather than an idiosyncratic difference between types of content. Although the three experiments reported in chapter three provide high internal validity there is an associated lack of ecological validity. Nevertheless, the limited ecological validity of chapter three was balanced by chapters two and four which collected data in leaders' and teams' natural environments.

Indeed, the qualitative research design of chapters two and four allowed for varied and novel themes that extend social identity leadership (Haslam et al., 2011) to be captured. For example, chapter two found that the contents of accountability (British athletics), innovation,

attention to detail, and British resiliency (British cycling) are apparent in elite sport. In addition, the longitudinal qualitative research design (Neale & Flowerdew, 2003) that involved all the rugby teams competing within an intact league from pre-season to the end of the season is a major strength of the current thesis. To the author's knowledge, chapter four represents the first examination of leadership processes within all the teams competing in one division. Despite the strength and novelty of chapter four's research design, global team performance indicators of league position (at mid-point and end of season), together with number of wins, losses, and draws of each team were assessed. When interpreting such team performance indicators it should be noted that there are a myriad of variables that could have influenced team performance (Windsor, Barker, & McCarthy, 2011). Thus, on reflection, chapter four could have better triangulated performance indicators by gaining the coaches' and athletes' perceptions of their team's performances. The combination of objective and subjective performance outcomes may have produced a broader understanding of leaders' ability to mobilise team members to their collective vision through triangulation. To elaborate, effective leadership centres upon achievement of the collective vision (Northouse, 2010), which may or may not reflect the team's results. For example, in chapter four, Team A did not win a match during the season under investigation, nor had they won a competitive match since the team had been formed. Their lack of success in results terms was reflected in their identity contents, which were enjoyment, friendships, and performance, but it was evident from the analysis that the coach and athlete leaders within the team were effective in mobilising the team members to achieving what matters to the team. In particular, despite repeated failure the team stayed together and were mobilised to fulfill their fixtures when other teams did not. Thus, this thesis asserts effective leadership mobilises teams to think and behave in-line with collective identity contents, which in turn,

advance the team towards achievement of their vision. Dependent on context, this vision may or may not centre upon results.

A noteworthy point that provides an opportunity for future research regards some of the inventories utilised in chapter three. Due to limited research attention (see Livingstone & Haslam, 2008 for an exception), the measures used for identity contents were single-item and replicated or adapted from research in sport settings (Barker et al., in press; Evans et al., 2013). Adapting previous measures that are short or single-item is typical of quantitative social identity leadership research (e.g., Geissner & van Knippenberg, 2008; van Knippenberg & van Knippenberg, 2005) and the social identity tradition more broadly (e.g., Haslam et al., 2009). For example, Postmes et al. (2013) have validated a single-item measure of social identification compared to pre-existing and longer measures of social identification. Accordingly, although single-item measures of identity contents were administered in chapter three these were replicated from previous research (Evans et al., 2013) to suit the experimental context, and are in-line with previous social identity inquiry.

5.5 Future Research Directions

The current thesis provides an original contribution to knowledge by outlining how leaders' media communication can be explained by social identity principles (Haslam et al., 2011; Hogg, 2001), together with extending understanding of the influence of converging, diverging, and multiple identity contents on mobilisation in leadership contexts, and by providing evidence for how leaders can most effectively create converging identity contents via a power through approach (Turner, 2005). The findings from the research programme additionally

contribute to the field by highlighting a number of research developments that could be considered in future inquiry.

First, chapter four builds on chapter three by detailing group (i.e., strong team bond and shared long-term vision) and individual-level (i.e., empathy and empowerment) factors within a developing grounded theory (see Figure 4.4), which may help to explain the positive link between converging and multiple contents of identity and behavioural mobilisation. Accordingly, the relationships conceptualised in the grounded theory provide a useful foundation from which future research could be designed to further understanding of the mechanisms that may contextually link converging and multiple contents to behavioural mobilisation. Similarly, a number of the mechanisms (e.g., empowerment and social support) are drawn upon to theoretically explain the results throughout the thesis, which align with social identity theory and previous research evidence, but have not been directly assessed in the current thesis. Therefore, by measuring the dimensions of social support (Rees, 2007), together with the measures of identity contents and mobilisation used in the current thesis, future researchers may wish to examine whether social support mediates the predictive relationship between converging contents and behavioural mobilisation detailed in chapter three. For example, meditation analyses, as adopted in chapter three, which found behavioural mobilisation to partially mediate the positive relationship between converging identity contents and improved task performance, could be adopted.

Second, as alluded to in the limitations section, the available measurements of social identity leadership and in particular identity contents are limited, perhaps partially explaining the lack of research attention contents of identity have received despite its proposed importance for

group action (Livingstone & Haslam, 2008; Reicher & Hopkins, 2001). Therefore, future research may focus on the development of a social identity leadership inventory. Based on the current thesis, the inventory may include subscales relating to the identity contents of the leader and the group, together with items related to the establishment of convergence or divergence of identity contents. The development of such an inventory may benefit from drawing on the development of measures within leadership that have typically focussed upon the behaviours leaders' exhibit rather than, or in addition to, self-reported outcomes. For example, within transformational leadership scholars have developed the Differentiated Transformational Leadership Inventory (Callow et al., 2009) that invites team members to complete thirty-one items in reference to their leader's behaviour (e.g., "my team leader/captain expresses confidence"). Accordingly, the adoption of leader behaviours that reflect a power through (and over) approach could be included as a sub-scale within the development of a social identity leadership inventory. A plausible power through item example could be: "my leader spends time listening to and understanding why members are part of this group". The development of a social identity leadership inventory would be beneficial for research endeavours and to monitor change when developing leadership skills through applied interventions.

Collectively, the results of the current thesis have demonstrated the positive effect of creating converging identity contents via power through leadership principles (Turner, 2005). Accordingly, data provides a substantive foundation to inform the development of leadership interventions and to examine intervention efficacy within applied research. For instance, future research may wish to devise power through leadership strategies that are based on the 3R's (Haslam et al., 2011) to enhance leaders' skills to create convergence and multiple identity contents to then facilitate behavioural mobilisation. Collectively, data from chapter three and

four would indicate leaders that are able to reflect with the group, lead by example, represent the group ideal, be team-orientated, and work to realise the collective vision will increase the likelihood of creating convergence of identity contents and enhance behavioural mobilisation. Adopting a single-case research design (Barker et al., 2011) would be valuable in the future to intervene with an identity-based leadership programme, while monitoring pre- to post-intervention changes in targeted and outcome variables (e.g., leader and team identity contents, leader identification, behavioural mobilisation). Single-case designs provide an accurate assessment of intervention effectiveness, together with detailing the how and when of behaviour change through regular monitoring of targeted variables and comparisons of pre- to post-intervention phases (Barker et al., 2011). Feasibly, future research could focus on one-to-one interventions with leaders or group-level programmes to interactively educate leaders informed by the findings of the current thesis. Applied research examining leadership development is crucial as this area has received little attention compared to research centred upon leadership theory (Day et al., 2014).

A final avenue for future research is to assess a wider range of variables that are known to be pertinent for psychological development and performance. For example, within performance settings such as sport and business, leaders (e.g., team captains or line managers) can have a substantive impact on their team's psychological approach, and subsequent performance, when they deliver targets to be achieved (Baker, Cote, & Hawes, 2000). Often such situations are stressful for team members. In chapter three, data indicated leaders that adopted a power through, compared to power over approach, were more effective in creating convergence, which led to increased perceptions of leader effectiveness (e.g., trust in the leader) and behavioural mobilisation (i.e., effort to practice). Thus, participants in the power through condition had

stronger perceptions of the leader and put in more effort. Future studies could build on the contribution of this thesis by investigating participants' emotional (e.g., anxiety) responses to such leaders. The Theory of Challenge and Threat States in Athletes (TCTSA; Jones, Meijen, McCarthy, & Sheffield, 2009) provides a useful framework from which to design research studies and enhance understanding related to how leaders effect group members' responses to stressful situations. The TCTSA (Jones et al., 2009) posits that responses to stressful situations are typically facilitative or debilitative, and that a combination of psychological constructs interact to determine whether individuals respond in a challenge (i.e., facilitative) or threat (i.e., debilitative) state. Challenge and threat states reflect psychological (e.g., self-efficacy, control, and achievement goals) and cardiovascular (e.g., cardiac output) responses within individuals approaching pressurised performance situations, with research evidence demonstrating that a challenge response typically leads to superior performance (e.g., Turner et al., 2013). Accordingly, building on the current thesis (e.g., convergence vs. divergence, or power through vs. power over) future research could examine the effect of social identity leaders on individuals' psychological and cardiovascular responses to pressurised situations (e.g., delivering a team talk). Such research would add to knowledge of leadership and provide implications for leaders. With colleagues, this is an area data is currently being collected and analysed by the author

5.6 Conclusion

This thesis provides an original contribution to social identity leadership literature by asserting that, first, leaders' strive to create team identities, values, and visions to optimise elite performance and motivate public support on sports biggest stage. Second, the establishment of converging contents of identity between leaders and group members increases intentional and

behavioural mobilisation of effort, and behavioural mobilisation partially mediates the positive relationship between converging identity contents and task performance. Third, a power through approach, whereby leaders reflect, represent, and realise (Haslam et al., 2011) the collective ambitions of the group (rather than focus on their own vision), is effective in developing a convergence of identity contents that is broadly maintained following failure. Fourth, group (i.e., strong team bond and shared long-term vision) and individual-level (i.e., empathy and empowerment) factors link converging and multiple contents to behavioural mobilisation, while leading by example, embodying the team ideal, and being team-orientated are behaviours displayed by leaders who emerge as influential during the course of a competitive season. From an applied perspective, the adoption of power through leadership (Turner, 2005) to create converging and multiple identity contents in groups, which is broadly maintained following failure, is advocated in leadership practice and future research. Further, in light of the findings from the current thesis it may be that the assessment of leader effectiveness is best captured through behavioural measures such as mobilisation. Indeed, it is evident from the current thesis that the social identity approach to leadership offers a clear framework to understand, extend, and apply findings to enhance leaders' ability to mobilise team members. In summary, this thesis makes an original and significant contribution to understanding how convergence of identity contents behaviourally mobilise team members to achieve the collective vision, and how a power through approach to leadership is most effective in creating convergence of identity contents.

CHAPTER 6: REFERENCES

Adarves-Yorno, I., Postmes, T., & Haslam, S. A. (2006). Social identity and the recognition of creativity in groups. *British Journal of Social Psychology, 45,* 479-497.

Amiot, C. E., & Aubin, R. M. (2013). Why and how are you attached to your social group? Investigating different forms of social identification. *British Journal of Social Psychology, 52,* 563-586. doi:10.1111/bjso.12004.

Amiot, C. E., Terry, D. J., Wirawan, D., & Grice, T. (2010). Changes in social identities over time: The role of coping and adaptation processes. *British Journal of Social Psychology, 49*, 804-826.

Arnold, R., Fletcher, D., & Molyneux, L. (2012). Performance leadership and management in elite sport: Recommendations, advice and suggestions from national performance directors. *European Sport Management Quarterly, 12* (4), 318-336.

Arthur, C. A., Woodman, T., Ong, C. W., Hardy, L., & Ntoumanis, N. (2011). The role of athlete narcissism in moderating the relationship between coaches transformational leader behaviors and athlete motivation. *Journal of Sport and Exercise Psychology, 33,* 3-19.

Avolio, B. J. (2007). Promoting more integrative strategies for leadership theory building. *The American Psychologist, 62,* 25-33.

Avolio, B. J., Walumbwa, F. O., & Weber, T. J. (2009). Leadership: Current theories, research, and future directions. *Annual Review of Psychology, 60,* 421-449.

Baker, J., Cote, J., & Hawes, R. (2000). The relationship between coaching behaviours and sport anxiety in athletes. *Journal of Science and Medicine in Sport, 3* (2), 110-119.

Balmer, N. J., Nevill, A. M., & Williams, A. M., (2003). Modelling home advantage in the summer Olympic Games. *Journal of Sports Sciences*, 21, 469-478.

Bandura, A. (1997). *Self-efficacy: The exercise of control.* New York: W. H. Freeman and Co.

Barker, J. B., Evans, A. L., Coffee, P., Slater, M. J., & McCarthy, P. J. (in press). Consulting on tour: A multiple-phase personal-disclosure mutual-sharing intervention and group functioning in elite youth cricket. *The Sport Psychologist.*

Barker, J. B., McCarthy, P. J., Jones, M. V., & Moran, A. (2011). *Single-case research methods in sport and exercise psychology.* London: Routledge.

Baron, R. M., & Kenny, D. A. (1986). The moderator-mediator variable distinction in social psychological research: Conceptual, strategic, and statistical considerations. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 51,* 1173-1182.

Bass, B. M. (1985). *Leadership and performance beyond expectations.* New York: Free Press.

Bass, B. M., & Avolio, B. J. (1990). The implications of transactional and transformational leadership for individual, team, and organizational development. *Research in Organizational Change and Development, 4,* 231-272.

BBC Sport. (2010). What makes Mourinho tick? Accessed on 21st February, 2014 at http://news.bbc.co.uk/sport1/hi/football/europe/8693118.stm

BBC Sport. (2012). Olympic sport funding: Winners and losers, sport by sport. Accessed on 1st March, 2014 at http://www.bbc.co.uk/sport/0/olympics/20780450

Berger, J. A., & Rand, L. (2008). Shifting signals to help health: Using identity-signaling to reduce risky health behaviors. *Journal of Consumer Research, 35,* 1-38.

Bizumic, B., Reynolds, K. J., Turner, J. C., Bromhead, D., & Subašić, E. (2009). The role of the group in individual functioning: School identification and the psychological well-being of staff and students. *Applied Psychology: An International Review, 58,* 171-192.

Boen, F., Vanbeselaere, N., Pandelaere, M., Schutters, K., & Rowe, P. (2008). When your team is not really your team anymore: Identification with a merged basketball club. *Journal of Applied Sport Psychology, 20* (2), 165-183. doi.org/10.1080/10413200701805711.

Braun, V., & Clarke, V. (2006). Using thematic analysis in psychology. *Qualitative Research in Psychology, 3,* 77-101.

Brewer, B. W., Cornelius, A. E., Stephan, Y., & van Raalte, J. (2010). Self-protective changes in athletic identity following anterior cruciate ligament reconstruction. *Psychology of Sport and Exercise, 11* (1), 1-5.

Brewer, B. W., van Raalte, J., & Linder, D. E. (1993). Athletic identity: Hercules' muscles or Achilles heel? *International Journal of Sport Psychology, 24,* 237-254.

Bruner, M. W., Broadley, I. D., & Côté, J. (2014). Social identity and prosocial and antisocial behavior in youth sport. *Psychology of Sport and Exercise, 15*, 56-64.

Burns, J. M. (1978). *Leadership.* New York: Harper & Row.

Callow, N., Smith, M., Hardy, L., Arthur, C. A., & Hardy, J. (2009). Measurement of transformational leadership and its relationship with team cohesion and performance level. *Journal of Applied Sport Psychology, 21* (4), 395-412.

Cameron, J. E. (2004). A three-factor model of social identity. *Self and Identity, 3,* 239-262.

Charmaz, K. (2006). *Constructing grounded theory*. London: Sage.

Chelladurai, P. (1990). Leadership in sports: A review. *International Journal of Sport Psychology, 21,* 328-354.

Chelladurai, P. (1993). Leadership. In R.N. Singer, M. Murphy, & L.K. Tennant (Eds.). *Handbook of research on sport psychology* (pp. 647-671). New York: Macmillian.

Chemers, M. M. (2000). Leadership research and theory: A functional integration. *Group Dynamics: Theory, Research, and Practice, 4* (1), 27-43. doi: 10.1037//1089-2699.4.1.27.

Chemers, M. M. (2003). Leadership effectiveness: Functional, constructivist, and empirical perspectives. In D. van Knippenberg, & M. A. Hogg (Eds.). *Leadership and power: Identity processes in groups and organizations* (pp. 5-17). London: Sage.

Cicero, L., Pierro, A., & van Knippenberg, D. (2010). Leadership and uncertainty: How role ambiguity affects the relationship between leader group prototypicality and leadership effectiveness. *British Journal of Management, 21,* 411-421. doi: 10.1111/j.1467-8551.2009.00648.x

Clark-Carter, D. (2010). *Quantitative psychological research: The complete student's companion.* Sussex: Psychology Press.

Cohen, J. (1988). *Statistical power analysis for the behavioral sciences* (2nd ed.). Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum.

Corbin, J., & Strauss, A. L. (2008). *Basics of qualitative research* (3rd ed.). London: Sage.

Cosh, S., LeCouteur, A., Crabb, S., & Kettler, L. (2013). Career transitions and identity: A discursive psychological approach to exploring athletic identity in retirement and the transition back into elite sport. *Qualitative Research in Sport, Exercise, and Health, 5* (1), 21-42. doi: 10.1080/2159676X.2012.712987.

Cregan, C., Bartram, T., & Stanton, P. (2009). Union organizing as a mobilizing strategy: The impact of social identity and transformational leadership on the collectivism of union members. *British Journal of Industrial Relations, 47* (4), 701-722. doi: 10.1111/j.1467-8543.2009.00733.x

Crevani, L., Lindgren, M., & Packendorff, J. (2010). Leadership, not leaders: On the study of leadership as practices and interventions. *Scandinavian Journal of Management, 26*, 77-86.

Crossley, C. D., Cooper, C. D., & Wernsing, T. S. (2013). Making things happen through challenging goals: Leader proactivity, trust, and business-unit performance. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 98*, 540-549.

Crust, L., & Azadi, K. (2009). Leadership preferences of mentally tough athletes. *Personality and Individual Differences, 47,* 326-330.

Currie, G., & Lockett, A. (2007). A critique of transformational leadership: Moral, professional and contingent dimensions of leadership within public services organizations. *Human Relations, 60,* 341-370.

Day, D. V., Fleenor, J. W., Atwater, L. E., Sturm, R. E., & McKee, R. A. (2014). Advances in leader and leadership development: A review of 25 years of research and theory. *The Leadership Quarterly, 25,* 63-82.

De Cremer, D., van Knippenberg, D., van Dijke, M., & Bos, A. (2006). Self-sacrificial leadership and follower self-esteem: When collective identification matters. *Group Dynamics: Theory, Research, and Practice, 10,* 233-245.

De Cremer, D., & van Vugt, M. (1999). Social identification effects in social dilemmas: A transformation of motives. *European Journal of Social Psychology, 29* (7), 871-893.

Dinh, J. E., Lord, R. G., Gardner, W. L., Meuser, J. D., Liden, R. C., & Hu, J. (2014). Leadership theory and research in the new millennium: Current theoretical trends and changing perspectives. *The Leadership Quarterly, 25,* 36-62.

Donovan, J. J., & Radosevich, D. J. (1999). A meta-analytic review of the distribution of practice effect: Now you see it, now you don't. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 84* (5), 795-805.

Doosje, B., Spears, R., & Ellemers, N. (2002). Social identity as both cause and effect: The development of group identification in response to anticipated and actual changes in the intergroup status hierarchy. *British Journal of Social Psychology, 41,* 57-76. doi: 10.1348/014466602165054.

Douglas, K., & Carless, K. (2009). Abandoning the performance narrative: Two women's stories of transition from professional sport. *Journal of Applied Sport Psychology, 21* (2), 213-230.

Dunn, J. G. H., & Holt, N. L. (2004). A qualitative investigation of a personal-disclosure mutual-sharing team building activity. *The Sport Psychologist, 18* (4), 363-380.

Elliot, A. J., & Harackiewicz, J. M. (1996). Approach and avoidance achievement goals and

    intrinsic motivation: A meditational analysis. *Journal of Personality and Social*

    Psychology, 70 (3), 461-475.

Etherington, K. (2004). *Becoming a reflexive researcher.* London: Jessica Kingsley Publisher.

Evans, A., Slater, M. J., Turner, M. J., & Barker, J. B. (2013). Using personal−disclosure

    mutual−sharing (PDMS) to enhance group functioning in a professional soccer academy.

    The Sport Psychologist, 27 (3)*,* 233-243.

Felton, L., & Jowett, S. (2013). Attachment and well-being: The mediating effects of

    psychological needs satisfaction within the coach-athlete and parent-athlete relational

    contexts. *Psychology of Sport and Exercise, 14,* 57-65.

Festinger, L. (1953). An analysis of compliant behaviour. In M.Sherif, & M. O.Wilson (Eds.),

    Group relations at the crossroads (pp. 232–256). NY: Harper & Bros.

Field, A. (2013). *Discovering statistics using IBM SPSS statistics* (4th ed.). London: Sage.

Fiedler, F. E. (1967). A theory of leadership effectiveness. New York: McGraw-Hill.

Fiedler, F. E. (1993). The leadership situation and the black box in contingency theories. In M.

    M. Chemers & R. Ayman (Eds.), *Leadership, theory, and research: Perspectives and*

    directions (pp. 1-28). New York: Academic Press.

Fielding, K. S., & Hogg, M. A. (1997). Social identity, self-categorization, and leadership: A

    field study of small interactive groups. *Group Dynamics: Theory, Research, and Practice,*

    1, 39-51.

Fisher, R. J. (1993). Social desirability bias and the validity of indirect questioning. *Journal of Consumer Research, 20* (2), 303-315.

Fletcher, D., & Arnold, R. (2011). A qualitative study of performance leadership and management in elite sport. *Journal of Applied Sport Psychology, 23,* 223-242.

Fletcher, D., & Wagstaff, C. R. D. (2009). Organizational psychology in elite sport: Its emergence, application and future. *Psychology of Sport and Exercise, 10,* 427-434.

Forsyth, D. R. (2009). *Groups dynamics.* (5th ed.). Belmont, CA: Wadsworth Cengage Learning

Freeman, P., & Rees, T. (2008). The effects of perceived and received support on objective performance outcome. *European Journal of Sport Science, 8* (6), 359-368. doi: 10.1080/17461390802261439.

French, J. R. P., & Raven, B. H. (1959). The bases of social power. In D. Cartwright (Ed.), *Studies in social power* (pp. 150-167). Ann Arbor: University of Michigan Press.

Geissner, S. R., & van Knippenberg, D. (2008). "License to fail": Goal definition, leader group prototypicality, and perceptions of leadership effectiveness after leader failure. *Organizational Behaviour and Human Decision Processes, 105,* 14-35.

Giessner, S. R., van Knippenberg, D., & Sleebos, E. (2009). License to fail? How leader group prototypicality moderates the effects of leader performance on perceptions of leadership effectiveness. *The Leadership Quarterly, 20* (3), 434-451.

Geissner, S. R., van Knippenberg, D., van Ginkel, W., & Sleebos, E. (2013). Team-orientated leadership: The interactive effects of leader group prototypicality, accountability, and team identification. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 98* (4), 658-667. doi: 10.1037/a0032445

Glaser, B. (1992). *Basics of grounded theory analysis: Emergence vs. forcing*. Mill Valley: Sociology Press.

Goldstein, N. J., Cialdini, R. B., & Griskevicius, V. (2008). A room with a viewpoint: Using social norms to motivate environmental conservation in hotels. *Journal of Consumer Research, 35,* 472-482.

Granello, D. H., & Wheaton, J. E. (2004). Online data collection: Strategies for research. *Journal for Counseling and Development, 82*(4), 387-395.

Groom, R., Cushion, C., & Nelson, L. (2011). The delivery of video-based performance analysis by England youth soccer coaches: Towards a grounded theory. *Journal of Applied Sport Psychology, 23,* 16-32. doi: 10.1080/10413200.2010.511422.

Hackman, J. R., & Oldham, G. R. (1980). *Work redesign.* Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley.

Hagger, M. S., & Chatzisarantis, N. L. D. (2011). Never the twain shall meet? Quantitative psychological researchers' perspectives on qualitative research. *Qualitative Research in Sport, Exercise and Health, 3* (3), 266-277. doi:org/10.1080/2159676X.2011.607185.

Halevy, N., Berson, Y., & Galinsky, A. D. (2011). The mainstream is not electable: When vision triumphs over representativeness in leader emergence and effectiveness. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin, 37,* 893-904. doi:10.1177/0146167211402836.

Haslam, S. A. (2004). *Psychology in organizations: The social identity approach*. (2nd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.

Haslam, S. A., Jetten, J., & Waghorn, C. (2009). Social identification, stress and citizenship in teams: A five-phase longitudinal study. *Stress and Health, 25,* 21-30.

Haslam, S. A., O'Brien, A., Jetten, J., Vormedal, K., & Penna, S. (2005). Taking the strain: Social identity, social support, and the experience of stress. *British Journal of Social Psychology, 44* (3), 355-370. doi:10.1348/014466605X37468.

Haslam, S. A., & Reicher, S. D. (2006). Stressing the group: Social identity and the unfolding dynamics of responses to stress. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 91* (5), 1037-1052.

Haslam, S. A., & Reicher, S. D. (2007). Identity entrepreneurship and the consequences of identity failure: The dynamics of leadership in the BBC prison study. *Social Psychology Quarterly, 70* (2), 125-147.

Haslam, S. A., & Reicher, S. D. (2012). In search of charisma. *Scientific American Mind, July/August,* 42-49.

Haslam, S. A., Reicher, S. D., & Platow, M. J. (2011). *The new psychology of leadership: Identity, influence and power.* Hove: Psychology Press.

Haslam, S. A., Ryan, M. K., Postmes, T., Spears, R., Jetten, J., & Webley, P. (2006). Sticking to our guns: Social identity as a basis for the maintenance of commitment to faltering organizational projects. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, *27* (5), 607-628. doi: 10.1002/job.370

Hatfield, E., Cacioppo, J., & Rapson, R. L. (1994). *Emotional contagion.* New York: Cambridge University Press.

Hayes, A. F. (2009). Beyond Baron and Kenny: Statistical mediation analysis in the new millennium. *Communication Monographs, 76* (4), 408-420. DOI: 10.1080/03637750903310960.

Hogg, M. A. (2001). A social identity theory of leadership. *Personality and Social Psychology Review, 5,* 184-200.

Hogg, M. A., & van Knippenberg, D. (2003). Social identity and leadership processes in groups. *Advances in Experimental Social Psychology, 35,* 1-52.

Holt, N. L., & Dunn, J. G. H. (2006). Guidelines for delivering personal-disclosure mutual-sharing team building interventions. *The Sport Psychologist*, *20* (3), 348-367.

Holt, N. L., & Tamminen, K. A. (2010). Moving forward with grounded theory in sport and exercise psychology. *Psychology of Sport and Exercise.11,* 419-422.

Huettermann, H., Doering, S., & Boerner, S. (in press). Leadership and team identification: Exploring the followers' perspective. *The Leadership Quarterly.* doi: org/10.1016/j.leaqua.2013.10.010.

Hutchinson, A. J., Johnston, L. H., & Breckon, J. D. (2013). A grounded theory of successful long-term physical activity behaviour change. *Qualitative Research in Sport, Exercise, and Health, 5* (1), 109-126. doi: 10.1080/2159676X.2012.693529.

Ilies, R., Wagner, D. T., & Morgeson, F. P. (2007). Explaining affective linkages in teams: Individual difference in susceptibility to contagion and individualism-collectivism. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 92* (4), 1140-1148.

Jackson, J. W. (2011). Intragroup cooperation as a function of group performance and group identity. *Group Dynamics: Theory, Research, and Practice, 15* (4), 343-356. doi: 10.1037/a0024575.

Jones, M. V., Meijen, C., McCarthy, P., & Sheffield, D. (2009). A theory of challenge and threat states in athletes. *International Review of Sport and Exercise Psychology, 2,* 161-180.

Jowett, S. (2007). Interdependence analysis and the 3+1Cs in the coach-athlete relationship. In S. Jowett & D. Lavalle (Eds.), *Social psychology in sport* (pp. 15–28). Champaign, IL: Human Kinetics.

Keegan, R. J., Spray, C. M., Harwood, C. G., & Lavallee, D. (2014). A qualitative synthesis of research into social motivational influences across the athletic career span. *Qualitative Research in Sport, Exercise, and Health, 6*(4), 537-567. doi:10.1080/2159676X.2013.857710

Keller, R. T. (2006). Transformational leadership, initiating structure, and substitutes for leadership: A longitudinal study of research and development project team performance. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 91* (1), 202-210. doi: 10.1037/0021-9010.91.1.202.

Kershaw, T. S., & Alexander, S. (2003). Procedural fairness, blame attributions, and presidential leadership. *Social Justice Research, 16,* 79-93.

Leech, N. L., & Onwuegbuzie, A. J. (2009). A typology of mixed methods research designs. *Quality and Quantity, 43* (2), 265–275.

Levine, M., Prosser, A., Evans, D., & Reicher, S. (2005). Identity and emergency intervention: How social group membership and inclusiveness of group boundaries shape helping behavior. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin, 31* (4), 443-453.

Livingstone, A., & Haslam, S. A. (2008). The importance of social identity content in a setting of chronic social conflict: Understanding intergroup relations in Northern Ireland. *British Journal of Social Psychology*, *47*, 1-21.

Lowe, K. B., Kroeck, K., & Sivasubramaniam, N. (1996). Effectiveness correlates of transformational and transactional leadership: A meta-analytic review of the MLQ literature. *The Leadership Quarterly, 7,* 385-425.

Manley, A., Greenlees, I., Graydon, J., Thelwell, R., Filby, W. C. D., & Smith, M. (2008). Athletes' perceived use of information sources when forming initial impressions and expectancies of a coach: An explorative study. *The Sport Psychologist, 22* (1), 73-90.

Mann, R. D. (1959). A review of the relationship between personality and performance in small groups. *Psychological Bulletin, 56,* 241-270.

Mayo, E. (1949). *The social problems of an industrial civilization.* London: Routledge & Kegan Paul.

McAllistair, D. J. (1995). Affect and cognition-based trust as foundations for interpersonal cooperation's in organisations. *Academy of Management Journal, 38* (1), 24-39.

McGannon, K. R., Hoffmann, M. D., Metz, J. L., & Schinke, R. J. (2012). A media analysis of a sport celebrity: Understanding an informal "team cancer" role as a socio-cultural construction. *Psychology of Sport and Exercise, 13,* 26-35. doi:10.1016j.psychsport.2011.08.001.

McGannon, K. R., & Schweinbenz, A. N. (2011). Transvering the qualitative-quantitative divide using mixed methods: Some reflections and reconciliations for sport and exercise psychology. *Qualitative Research in Sport, Exercise and Health, 3* (3), 370-384.

Meeussen, L., Delvaux, E., & Phalet, K. (2013). Becoming a group: Value convergence and emergent work group identities. *British Journal of Social Psychology.* Published online ahead of print. doi: 10.1111/bjso.12021.

Moll, T., Jordet, G., & Pepping, G. L. (2010). Emotional contagion in soccer penalty shootouts: Celebration of individual success is associated with ultimate team success. *Journal of Sports Sciences, 28* (9), 983-992.

Moran, A. P., Matthews, J. J., & Kirby, K. (2011). Whatever happened to the third paradigm? Exploring mixed methods research designs in sport and exercise psychology. *Qualitative Research in Sport, Exercise and Health, 3* (3), 362-369.

Morgan, P. B. C., Fletcher, D., & Sarkar, M. (2013). Defining and characterizing team resilience in elite sport. *Psychology of Sport and Exercise, 14,* 549-559.

Mullen, B. A., Salas, E., & Driskell, J. E. (1989). Salience, motivation, and artifact as contributors to the relation between participation rate and leadership. J*ournal of Experimental Social Psychology, 25,* 545-559.

Neale, B., & Flowerdew, J. (2003). Time, texture and childhood: the contours of longitudinal qualitative research. *International Journal of Social Research Methodology, 6* (3), 189-199. doi: 10.1080/1364557032000091798.

Northouse, P. G. (2010). *Leadership* (5th ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Pedhazur, E. J. (1997). *Multiple regression in behavioural research: Explanation and prediction*. London: Thomson Learning.

Peters, K. O., & Haslam, S. A. (2008). *The leadership secrets of leadership secrets: A quantitative and qualitative exploration of the lessons that are drawn from the lives of "great" leaders.* Unpublished manuscript, University of Exeter.

Platow, M. J., Nolan, M. A., & Anderson, D. (2003). *Intergroup identity management in a context of strong norms of fairness: Responding to in-group favouritism during the Sydney 2000 Olympics.* Unpublished manuscript, The Australian National University.

Platow, M. J., & van Knippenberg, D. (2001). A social identity analysis of leadership endorsement: The effects of leader in-group prototypicality and distributive intergroup fairness. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin, 27,* 1508-1519.

Platow, M. J., van Knippenberg, D., Haslam, S. A., van Knippenberg, B., & Spears, R. (2006). A special gift we bestow on you for being representative of us: Considering leader charisma from a self-categorization perspective. *British Journal of Social Psychology, 45,* 303-320.

Postmes, T., Haslam, S. A., & Jans, L. (2013). A single-item measure of social identification: Reliability, validity, and unity. *British Journal of Social Psychology, 52* (4), 597-617. doi: 10.1111/bjso.12006.

Postmes, T., Haslam, S. A., & Swaab, R. I. (2005). Social influence in small groups: An interactive model of social identity formation. *European Review of Social Psychology, 16* (1), 1-42.

Postmes, T., & Spears, R. (1998). Deindividuation and antinormative behaviour: A meta-analysis. *Psychological Bulletin*, *123*, 238-259.

Rahim, M., & Buntzman, G. F. (1989). Supervisory power basis, styles of handling conflict with subordinates, and subordinate compliance and satisfaction. *Journal of Psychology: Interdisciplinary and Applied, 123* (2), 195-210.

Rees, T. (2007). Influence of social support on athletes. In S. Jowett & D. Lavallee (Eds.), *Social psychology in sport* (pp. 223-231). Champaign, IL: Human Kinetics.

Rees, T., & Freeman, P. (2007). The effects of perceived and received support on self-confidence. *Journal of Sports Sciences, 25* (9), 1057-1065.

Rees, T., Salvatore, J., Coffee, P., Haslam, S. A., Sargent, A., & Dobson, T. (2013). Reversing downward performance spirals. *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology, 49,* 400-403.

Reicher, S. D. (1984). The St Pauls' riots: An explanation of the limits of crowd action in terms of a social identity model. *European Journal of Social Psychology*, *14*, 1-21.

Reicher, S. D., & Haslam, S. A. (2006). Rethinking the psychology of tyranny: The BBC prison study. *British Journal of Social Psychology*, *45*, 1-40.

Reicher, S. D., Haslam, S. A., & Hopkins, N. (2005). Social identity and the dynamics of leadership: Leaders and followers as collaborative agents in the transformation of social reality. *The Leadership Quarterly, 16,* 547-568.

Reicher, S. D., & Hopkins, N. (2001). *Self and nation.* London: Sage.

Rogers, C. R. (1980). *A way of being.* Boston, MA: Houghton Mifflin

Rowold, J. (2006). Transformational and transactional leadership in martial arts. *Journal of Applied Sport Psychology, 18,* 312-325.

Rubin, H. J., & Rubin, I. S. (2005). *Qualitative interviewing: The art of hearing data.* Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Schaubroeck, J., Lam, S. S., & Peng, A. C. (2011). Cognitive-based and affect-based trust as mediators of leader behavior influences on team performance. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 96* (4), 863-871.

Scheepers, D., & Ellemers, N. (2005). When the pressure is up: The assessment of social identity threat in low and high status groups. *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology, 41* (2), 192-200. doi: org/10.1016/j.jesp.2004.06.002.

Schinke, R. J., Bonhomme, J., McGannon, K. R., & Cummings, J. (2012). The internal adaptation processes of professional boxers during the Showtime Super Six Boxing Classic: A qualitative thematic analysis. *Psychology of Sport and Exercise, 13*, 830-839.

Seibert, S. E., Wang, G., & Courtright, S. H. (2011). Antecedents and consequences of psychological and team empowerment in organizations: A meta-analytic review. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 95* (5), 981-1003. doi: 10.1037/a0022676.

Seyranian, V. (in press). Social identity framing communication strategies for mobilizing social change. *The Leadership Quarterly.* http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.leaqua.2013.10.013.

Sheridan, V. (2013). A risky mingling: Academic identity in relation to stories of the personal

  and professional self. *Reflective Practice: International and Multidisciplinary*

  Perspectives, 14 (4), 568-579. doi:10.1080/14623943.2013.810617.

Shondrick, S. J., Dinh, J. E., & Lord, R. G. (2010). Developments in implicit leadership theory

  and cognitive science: Applications to improving measurement and understanding

  alternatives to hierarchical leadership. *The Leadership Quarterly, 21*, 956-978.

Simon, B., & Oakes, P. (2006). Beyond dependence: An identity approach to social power and

  domination. *Human Relations, 59,* 105-139. doi: 10.1177/0018726706062760.

Slater, M. J., Evans, A. L., & Barker, J. B. (2013). Using social identities to motivate athletes

  towards peak performance at the London 2012 Olympic Games: Reflecting for Rio 2016.

  Reflective Practice: International and Multidisciplinary Perspectives, 14 (5), 672-679.

Slater, M. J., Spray, C. M., & Smith, B. M. (2012). "You're only as good as your weakest link":

  Implicit theories of golf ability. *Psychology of Sport and Exercise, 13,* 280-290. doi:

  10.1016/j.psychsport.2011.11.010.

Smith, M. (2011). *Research methods in accounting* (2nd ed.). London: Sage

Sparkes, A. C., & Smith, B. (2014). *Qualitative research methods in sport, exercise and health:*

  From process to product. Oxon: Routledge.

Spreitzer, G. M. (1995). Psychological empowerment in the workplace: Construct definition,

  measurement and validation. *Academy of Management Journal, 38,* 1442-1465.

Spreitzer, G. M. (2008). Taking stock: A review of more than twenty years of research on empowerment at work. In J. Barling & C. L. Cooper (Eds.), *Handbook of organizational behaviour* (pp. 54-72). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Steffens, N. K., Haslam, S. A., Ryan, M. K., & Kessler, T. (2013). Leader performance and prototypicality: Their inter-relationship and impact on leaders' identity entrepreneurship. *European Journal of Social Psychology, 43* (7), 606-613. doi: 10.1002/ejsp.1985.

Stogdill, R. M. (1948). Personal factors associated with leadership: A survey of the literature. *Journal of Personality, 25,* 31-71.

Stogdill, R. M. (1974). *Handbook of leadership: A survey of theory and research.* New York: Free Press.

Strauss, A. L., & Corbin, J. (1998). *Basics of qualitative research: Techniques and procedures for developing grounded theory* (2nd ed.). London: Sage.

Strout, P. E., & Bolger, N. (2002). Mediation in experimental and nonexperimetal studies: New procedures and recommendations. *Psychological Methods, 7,* 422-445.

Subašić, E., Reynolds, K. J., Turner, J. C., Veenstra, K. E., & Haslam, S. A. (2011). Leadership, power and the use of surveillance: Implications of shared social identity for leaders' capacity to influence. *The Leadership Quarterly, 22,* 170-181.

Tabachnick, B., & Fidell, L. (2007). *Using multivariate statistics* (5th ed.). London: Pearson.

Tajfel, H. (1972). Social categorisation. English manuscript of "La categorisation sociale". In S. Moscovici (Ed.), *Introduction à la Psychologie Sociale* (Vol. 1, pp. 272-302). Paris: Larosse.

Tajfel, H., & Turner, J. C. (1979). An integrative theory of intergroup conflict. In S. Worchel & W. G. Austin (Eds.), *The psychology of intergroup relations* (pp. 33-47). Monterey, CA: Brooks-Cole.

Totterdell, P. (2000). Catching moods and hitting runs: Mood linkage and subjective performance in professional sports teams. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 83,* 848–859.

Turner, J. C. (1975). Social comparison and social identity: Some prospects for intergroup behaviour. *European Journal of Social Psychology*, *5*, 5-34.

Turner, J. C. (1999). Some current issues in research on social identity and self-categorization theories. In N. Ellemers, R. Spears, and B. Doosje (Eds.), *Social identity: Context, commitment, content*. (pp. 6-34). Oxford, UK: Blackwell Publishers.

Turner, J. C. (2005). Explaining the nature of power: A three-process theory. *European Journal of Social Psychology, 35,* 1-22.

Turner, J. C., Hogg, M. A., Oakes, P. J., Reicher, S., & Wetherell, M. S. (1987). *Rediscovering the social group: A self-categorisation theory*. Oxford: Basil Blackwell.

Turner, M. J., Jones, M. V., Sheffield, D., Slater, M. J., & Barker, J. B. (2013). "Who thrives under pressure?" Predicting the performance of elite academy cricketers using the cardiovascular indicators of challenge and threat states. *Journal of Sport and Exercise Psychology, 35,* 387-397.

UK Sport. (2012). Sport by sport–London 2012. Retrieved on 25th March, 2012 at

    http://www.uksport.gov.uk/sport/summer/

van Dijke, M., & De Cremer, D. (2010). Procedural fairness and endorsement of prototypical

    leaders: Leader benevolence or follower control? *Journal of Experimental Social*

    Psychology, 46, 85-96.

van Knippenberg, D. (2011). Embodying who we are: Leader group prototypicality and

    leadership effectiveness. *The Leadership Quarterly, 22,* 1078-1091.

van Knippenberg, D., & Hogg, M. A. (2003). A social identity model of leadership effectiveness

    in organizations. In R. M Kramer, & B. M. Staw (Eds.), *Research in organizational*

    behavior (pp. 243-295). Amsterdam: Elsevier.

van Knippenberg, B., & van Knippenberg, D. (2005). Leader self-sacrifice and leadership

    effectiveness: The moderating role of leader prototypicality. *Journal of Applied*

    Psychology, 90, 25-37.

van Vugt, M. (2006). Evolutionary origins of leadership and followership. *Personality and*

    Social Psychology Review, 10, 354-371. doi: 10.1207/s15327957pspr1004_5.

Vecchio, R. P. (1987). Situational leadership theory: An examination of a prescriptive theory.

    Journal of Applied Psychology, 72 (3), 444-451.

Wang, X. H., & Howell, J. M. (2012). A multilevel study of transformational leadership,

    identification, and follower outcomes. *Leadership Quarterly, 23* (5), 775-790. doi:

    10.1016/j.leaqua.2012.02.001.

Wann, D. L. (2006). Understanding the positive social psychological benefits of sport team

    identification: The team identification-social psychological health model. *Group*

    Dynamics: Theory, Research and Practice, 10, 272-296.

Wann, D. L., Hunter, J. L., Ryan, J. A., & Wright, L. A. (2001). The relationship between team

    identification and willingness of sport fans to consider illegally assisting their team. *Social*

    Behavior and Personality, 29, 531-536.

Way, A., Jones, M. V., & Slater, M. J. (2012). Exploring training adherence in elite school-age

    athletes. *Qualitative Research in Sport, Exercise, and Health, 4,* 154-171.

Weber, M. (1946). The sociology of charismatic authority. In H. H. Gerth & C. W. Milles

    (Trans. & Eds.), *Max Weber: Essays in sociology* (pp. 245-252). New York: Oxford

    University Press.

Weber, M. (1947). *The theory of social and economic organization* (A. M. Henderson & T.

    Parsons, Trans. & Eds.). New York: Oxford University Press.

Weed, M. (2009). Research quality considerations for grounded theory research in sport and

    exercise psychology. *Psychology of Sport and Exercise, 10,* 502-510.

Weick, K. E., & Roberts, K. H. (1993). Collective mind in organizations: Heedful interrelating

    on flight decks. *Administrative Science Quarterly, 38* (3), 357-381.

Wildschut, T., Vevea, J. L., Pinter, B., Insko, C. A., & Schopler, J. (2003). Beyond the group

    mind: A quantitative review of the interindividual-intergroup discontinuity effect.

    Psychological Bulletin, 129 (5), 698-722. doi: 10.1037/0033-2909.129.5.698

Williams, J., & MacKinnon, D. P. (2008). Resampling and distribution of the product method for testing indirect effects in complex models. *Structural Equation Modeling, 15,* 23-51.

Windsor, P., Barker, J. B., & McCarthy, P. J. (2011). Doing sport psychology: Personal-disclosure mutual-sharing in professional soccer. *The Sport Psychologist, 25* (1), 94-114.

Wylleman, P., & Johnson, U. (2012). Sport psychology and the Olympic Games: An introduction in the special issue. *Psychology of Sport and Exercise, 13,* 658-659.

Yulk, G. (1999). An evaluation of conceptual weaknesses in transformational and charismatic leadership theories. *The Leadership Quarterly, 10* (2), 285-306.

Zhou, X., Jynch Jr., J. G., & Chen, Q. (2010). Reconsidering Baron and Kenny: Myths and truths about mediation analysis. *Journal of Consumer Research, 37,* 197-206. doi: 10.1086/651257.

APPENDICES

APPENDIX 1: CONSENT FORM, SCRIPTS, AND QUESTIONNAIRES USED FOR STUDY TWO

APPENDIX 2: CONSENT, INFORMATION FORM, EXPERIMENTAL MANIPULATIONS, QUESTIONNAIRES, AND DEBRIEF USED FOR STUDY THREE

APPENDIX 3: INFORMATION AND CONSENT FORM, QUESTIONNAIRES, AND DEBRIEF USED FOR STUDY FOUR

APPENDIX 4: INFORMATION FORM AND EXAMPLE FOCUS GROUP GUIDES AT TIME POINT 1, 2, AND 3 USED IN STUDY FIVE

APPENDIX 1: CONSENT FORM, SCRIPTS, AND QUESTIONNAIRES USED FOR

STUDY TWO

CONSENT FORM

Project Title: Examining the coach's role in sports teams.

The purpose of the study has been clearly explained, together with any risks involved in my participation. All my questions about the study have been satisfactorily answered, and I agree that:

- Information I give will only be used for the purposes of this project and publications.

- This study is anonymous and I will not be identifiable in any way.

- I have the right to withdraw from the study at any time without disadvantage or questioning.

- After the project is completed, the data will be destroyed if it is not used for publication.

Date:

Signed:

Print Name:

Please read and follow the guidelines below:

- Please answer **ALL** the questions. If you are unsure about something, please ask the researcher, who will help to clarify your understanding.

- There are no right or wrong answers. I am interested in all responses.

- Only tick **ONE** response for each question and ensure that the scale provided is used (for example, mark 4 or 5, please do not mark both).

- If you wish to change an answer, clearly cross out your original choice, then tick your preferred response.

**WHEN YOU HAVE FINISHED, PLEASE CHECK YOU HAVE
COMPLETED ALL THE QUESTIONS**

First, please take a moment to fill in the information below:

Age (in years): _____

Gender (please circle):   Male   or   Female

Main Sport: _____

Number of years experience playing your main sport: _____

Level of performance (please circle the most appropriate option below):

    Club

    County

    Regional

    National

    International

Nationality: _____

Ethnicity: _____

COACH-ATHLETE SCRIPTS

Converging; leader and group results:

You are part of a sports team where you feel a great sense of belonging and your team has a strong connection and bond with your coach. Your team and the coach feel that results are of utmost importance. Your team has a game at the weekend and there is only one training session remaining before the game. Because your coach values results, they want to work on the team's tactical strategy in the training session. In preparation for the training session your coach has asked you to work on a task, related to the team's strategy, that will take up to 15 hours to complete.

Converging; leader and group friendships:

You are part of a sports team where you feel a great sense of belonging and your team has a strong connection and bond with your coach. Your team and the coach feel that friendships within the team are of utmost importance. Your team has a game at the weekend and there is only one training session remaining before the game. Because your coach values friendships, they want to complete a team building activity in the training session. In preparation for the training session your coach has asked you to work on a task, related to the team building activity, that will take up to 15 hours to complete.

Diverging; leader results and group friendships:

You are part of a sports team where you feel a great sense of belonging and your team has a strong connection and bond with your coach. Your coach feels that results are of utmost importance; however, what your team value the most are the friendships within the team. Your team has a game at the weekend and there is only one training session remaining before the game. Because your coach values results, they want to work on the team's tactical strategy in the training session. In preparation for the training session your coach has asked you to work on a task, related to the team's tactical strategy, that will take up to 15 hours to complete.

Diverging; leader friendships and group results:

You are part of a sports team where you feel a great sense of belonging and your team has a strong connection and bond with your coach. Your coach feels that friendships are of utmost importance; however, what your team value the most is the team's results. Your team has a game at the weekend and there is only one training session remaining before the game. Because your coach values friendships, they want to complete a team building activity in the training session. In preparation for the training session your coach has asked you to work on a task, related to the team building activity, that will take up to 15 hours to complete.

Please answer the following questions in relation to being part of the team in the scenario you have just read.

Please indicate the extent to which you agree with each statement by marking with a ☑ on the scales below.

To what extent do you agree that...	Do not agree at all			⇔			Agree completely
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
the coach is very committed to your team	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
the coach is very effective	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
you are interested in the type of training the coach wants to do	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
you are passionate and enthusiastic about the final training session	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
you absolutely trust the coach	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
you enjoy working with the coach	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
the coach is a good example of the type of people that are members of your team	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
the coach will be successful in future tasks	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
the final training session will be very effective	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
the coach has a lot in common with the members of your team	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
you are strongly motivated to engage in the final training session	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
the coach is doing the right things	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
the coach is a good leader	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
the coach's desired training is effective and useful	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
you will exert very high levels of effort during the final training session	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
the coach aims to gain benefits for the whole team	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
the coach's desired training is important for your team	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

To what extent do you agree that...	Do not agree at all			⇔			Agree completely
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
the coach represents what is characteristic about your team	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
the coach is very successful	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
the coach wants the best for your team	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
you would like to do the coach's desired training in the future	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
the coach has a strong influence on me	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
the coach is trustworthy	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
you want to make a distinct contribution to the final training session to impress the coach	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

In preparation for your final training session, the coach has asked you to work on a task for up to 15 hours. How many hours (up to 15) would you be willing to dedicate to the preparation task set by the coach?

Please state (0─15 hours) _____

To what extent do you agree that...	Do not agree at all			⇔		Agree completely	
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
you have no connection with the coach	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
you identify strongly with the team	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
results are of most importance to the team	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
you feel a strong connection with the team	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
you feel a strong connection with the coach	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
friendships are of most importance to the team	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
you identify strongly with the coach	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
results are of most importance to the coach	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
you have no connection with the team	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
friendships are of most importance to the coach	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Could you please tick the box below that best describes your ability to complete the task that was asked of you:

I was able to vividly imagine myself in the scenario ☐

I was able imagine myself in the scenario somewhat vividly ☐

I was unable to imagine myself in the scenario described ☐

Thank you for your co-operation

APPENDIX 2: CONSENT, INFORMATION FORM, EXPERIMENTAL

MANIPULATIONS, QUESTIONNAIRES, AND DEBRIEF USED FOR STUDY THREE

INFORMATION AND CONSENT FORM

Examining the leader's role in small groups

Purpose of the study

I am a PhD student under the supervision of Dr Pete Coffee and Dr Jamie Barker in the Department of Sport and Exercise at Staffordshire University. I am conducting a research study to assess leaders' impact on individual and group outcomes within small groups.

What is required if I agree take part?

The project will begin in December 2011 and in the first part of the study you will be asked to complete a short questionnaire before being placed in a group with 4 other individuals. The first part of the study is expected to take 10 minutes of your time. In the second part of the study, you will be asked to attend the laboratory (BG1Y) in your group of 5 and complete 3 trials on a collective video game activity. Between trial 2 and 3 you will be invited to choose from a number of activities to complete for a length of time determined by you. Your behaviour in the free practice period will be video recorded. It is anticipated the experiment will last no longer than 30 minutes. After the group activity you will be asked to complete a two-sided questionnaire. The questionnaire you will be required to fill-out is easy to understand and will take approximately 10 minutes to complete. Therefore, if you agree to participate in the study, you are expected to invest approximately 50 minutes of your time.

Are there any risks involved?

A risk assessment has been completed of the laboratory where the study will take place. The research study poses no physical harm and only potential minor psychological distress to participants in completing questionnaires, being video recorded between trials 2 and 3, and completing the video game. If you participate in the study you will be free to withdraw at any point. In addition, you will be fully debriefed, both verbally and in written form, and if you wish to discuss any concerns throughout the duration of the project, supervisors Dr Pete Coffee and Dr Jamie Barker, or an academic outside the research project (Dr Marc Jones) will be available to provide guidance and assistance. Please be assured that your participation or non-participation will have no impact on your academic profile.

Benefits involved

Your participation will contribute to a greater understanding of group processes and leader impact. Therefore, the information you provide will help inform theory and practice aiming to improve group and

leader performance. Although there is no direct benefit of you taking part in this research, you will be helping the department and benefiting the sport science community more broadly by contributing to original research that is expected to have real-world application.

What happens if something goes wrong?

Your participation is completely voluntary and if you feel uncomfortable at any point during the project or feel that you don't want to take part anymore you have the right to withdraw. Should you have any concerns throughout or after the study Dr Pete Coffee, Dr Jamie Barker, and Dr Marc Jones will be available to offer assistance and guidance. In order to guard against any issues, a risk assessment has been completed to maintain your physical and psychological well-being.

Will information be shared or passed on?

The results of the research study may be published, however, your name will not be used and no information will be provided that may make you identifiable. All the information you provide will be held in the strictest confidence and your information will be uniquely coded to ensure that the information you provide cannot be recognised for any individual except for the researcher (Matthew Slater). The coded data will be stored electronically on password protected computers at Staffordshire University and all hard copies of the completed questionnaires will be kept in a locked filing cabinet. All data will be destroyed after 10 years.

Can I ask further questions?

If you have any questions or queries concerning your potential participation, or the research study, please do not hesitate to contact me by phone (01782 294866 or email (m.slater@staffs.ac.uk). Alternatively, you may wish to contact my supervisors, Dr Pete Coffee by phone (01782 294424) or email (p.j.coffee@staffs.ac.uk), Dr Jamie Barker by phone (01782 295810) or email (j.b.barker@staffs.ac.uk) or an academic from outside of the research project, Dr Marc Jones by phone (01782 295985) or email (marc.jones@staffs.ac.uk).

Yours sincerely,

Matthew Slater

I have read the above information and I also confirm that I have read the attached information sheet. The nature, demands, risks, and benefits of the research have been explained to me. I knowingly assume the risks involved and understand that I may withdraw my consent and discontinue participation at any time without penalty or loss of benefit to myself.

I .... consent to taking part in this research.

Participant's Signature: .... Date: ....

Researcher's Signature: .... Date: ....

PRE-SCREENING QUESTIONNAIRE

Please respond openly and honestly to the following statements. Do not spend too long on each statement as we are interested in your immediate responses. Answer each statement in regard to how you feel when you engage in a competitive task.

Please indicate the extent to which you agree with each statement by marking with a ☑ on the scales below.

To what extent do you agree that...	Do not agree at all			⇔			Agree completely
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
winning is more important than competing fairly	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
having fun is more important than learning new skills	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
the way you compete is more important than enjoying yourself	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

MANIPULATION SCRIPTS

Social Identification

"There is a connection between us because we are all part of Staffordshire University. To demonstrate this bond, I would like us all to put these Staffs Uni identification card holders on to signify that we represent Staffs"

Staffordshire University Logo for ID Holder

Group Results Content

"The reason why you have been allocated to this group is because your questionnaire responses indicated that you all value results the most. Therefore, the most important thing to members of this group are the results you achieve. By being part of this group, your main focus is the success, outcome, and end result of each of the following time trial laps you complete as a group. What is of most importance to members of other groups is having fun. For you, winning isn't everything, it's the only thing**"**

Group Having Fun Content

"The reason why you have been allocated to this group is because your questionnaire responses indicated that you all value having fun the most. Therefore, the most important thing to members of this group is having fun. By being part of this group your main focus is enjoying what you do as a group. What is of most importance to members of other groups is achieving success. But, all this group is concerned with is having fun and enjoying every moment."

Leader Results Content

"The most important thing to me, as your coach, are also the results you achieve, your performance on the driving game is of utmost importance to me."

POSTERS AND CUE WORDS

Results (converging) condition

Winning

Success

Performance

Achievement

Outcome

Triumph

Having Fun (diverging) condition

Enjoyment

Excitement

Amusement

Entertainment

Happiness

Delight

MANIPULATION CHECK OF GROUP AND COACH CONTENT

> Please respond openly and honestly to the following 2 statements. Do not spend too long on these statements as we are interested in your immediate response. Answer the statements in regard to how you are feeling **right now**.

1) Do you feel part of a group where Results is of sole importance or having Fun is of sole importance (Please circle one of the options below).

          Results group   Fun group

2) Do you feel the Coach believes Results is of sole importance or having Fun is of sole importance (Please circle one of the options below).

          Results   Fun

MOBILISATION MEASURE

Please respond openly and honestly to the following statements. Do not spend too long on each statement as we are interested in your immediate responses. Answer each statement in regard to how you feel **RIGHT NOW** about the upcoming free practice/training period that the coach has asked you to complete.

Please indicate the extent to which you agree with each statement by marking with a ☑ on the scales below.

To what extent do you agree that...	Do not agree at all			⇔			Agree completely
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
you are strongly motivated to engage in the practice period	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
the practice period will be very effective	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
you will exert very high levels of effort during the practice period	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
you want to make a distinct contribution to the practice period to impress the coach	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
you are passionate and enthusiastic about the practice period	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

EXPERIMENTAL QUESTIONNAIRE

To what extent do you agree that...	Do not agree at all			⇔			Agree completely
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
the coach is very committed to your group	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
the coach is very effective	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
you are interested in the type of training the coach wants to do	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
you absolutely trust the coach	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
you enjoy working with the coach	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
the coach is a good example of the type of people that are members of your group	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
the coach will be successful in future tasks	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
the coach has a lot in common with the members of your group	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
the coach is doing the right things	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
the coach is a good leader	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
the coach's desired training is effective and useful	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
the coach aims to gain benefits for the whole group	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
the coach's desired training is important for your group	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
the coach represents what is characteristic about your group	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
the coach is very successful	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
the coach wants the best for your group	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
you would like to do the coach's desired training in the future	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
the coach has a strong influence on your group	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
the coach is trustworthy	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

To what extent do you agree that...	Do not agree at all			⇔			Agree completely
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
you have no connection with the coach	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
you identify strongly with the group	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
results are of most importance to the group	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
you feel a strong connection with the group	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
you feel a strong connection with the coach	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
having fun is of most importance to the group	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
you identify strongly with the coach	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
results are of most importance to the coach	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
you have no connection with the group	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
having fun is of most importance to the coach	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Thank you for your co-operation

WRITTEN DEBRIEF

First, I would like to thank you for taking your time to complete my study. My research aims to investigate the effect of group meaning upon a leader's effectiveness. We anticipate that a group that shares a vision with a leader will be more likely to practice the video game and deem the leader more effective. Whereas if on the other hand, the group and leader have a different vision, it is expected the group will spend less time practicing the video game and deem the leader less effective. You were videoed during the free period to allow us to determine what activities you selected and the length of time spent on each activity. These conditions have been created during the experiment you have just completed. Even though you have completed the study you can still withdraw if you wish by emailing the lead researcher Matt Slater on m.slater@staffs.ac.uk or the project supervisors, Dr. Pete Coffee (p.j.coffee@staffs.ac.uk) or Dr. Jamie Barker (j.b.barker@staffs.ac.uk). Similarly, should you wish to discuss anything with regards to the research study/process please do not hesitate to contact me.

Many Thanks,

Matt Slater, MSc

B103, Brindley Building,
Department of Sport & Exercise,
Staffordshire University

APPENDIX 3: INFORMATION AND CONSENT FORM, QUESTIONNAIRES*, AND

DEBRIEF USED FOR STUDY FOUR

*Only the questionnaires that were additional to those used in study two chapter three (Appendix 2) are appended here (pre-screening, demographic, mobilisation, and experimental questionnaire were the same).

INFORMATION AND CONSENT FORM

Examining the leader's role in small groups

Purpose of the study

I am a PhD student under the supervision of Dr Jamie Barker in the Department of Psychology, Sport and Exercise at Staffordshire University. I am conducting a research study to assess leaders' impact on individual and group outcomes within small groups.

What is required if I agree take part?

The project will begin in February and in the first part of the study you will be asked to complete a short questionnaire before being placed in a group with 3 other individuals. The first part of the study is expected to take 5 minutes of your time. In the second part of the study, you will be asked to attend BG22 in your group of 4 and complete 6 trials on a collective video game activity. Between trial 2 and 3 you will be invited to choose from a number of activities to complete for a length of time determined by you. Your behaviour in the free practice period will be video recorded. You then complete 4 more trials on the video game. It is anticipated the experiment will last no longer than 45 minutes. After trials 3 and 6 you will be asked to complete a two-sided questionnaire. The questionnaire you will be required to fill-out is easy to understand. Therefore, if you agree to participate in the study, you are expected to invest approximately 50 minutes of your time.

Are there any risks involved?

A risk assessment has been completed of BG22, where the study will take place. The research study poses no physical harm and only potential minor psychological distress to participants in completing questionnaires, being video recorded between trials 2 and 3, and completing the video game. The potential minor psychological distress you may experience during the study refers to feelings of anxiety when being video recorded and when completing the questionnaires. If you participate in the study you will be free to withdraw at any point. In addition, you will be fully debriefed, both verbally and in written form, of the purposes of the study. If you wish to discuss any concerns throughout the duration of the project, supervisors Dr Jamie Barker and Dr Marc Jones will be available to provide guidance and assistance. Please be assured that your participation or non-participation will have no impact on your academic profile.

Benefits involved

Your participation will contribute to a greater understanding of group processes and leader impact. Therefore, the information you provide will help inform theory and practice aiming to improve group and leader performance. Although there is no direct benefit of you taking part in this research, you will be helping the department and benefiting the sport science community more broadly by contributing to original research that is expected to have real-world application.

What happens if something goes wrong?

Your participation is completely voluntary and if you feel uncomfortable at any point during the project or feel that you don't want to take part anymore you have the right to withdraw. Should you have any concerns throughout or after the study Dr Jamie Barker and Dr Marc Jones will be available to offer assistance and guidance. In order to guard against any issues, a risk assessment has been completed to maintain your physical and psychological well-being.

Will information be shared or passed on?

The results of the research study may be published, however, your name will not be used and no information will be provided that may make you identifiable. All the information you provide will be held in the strictest confidence and your information will be uniquely coded to ensure that the information you provide cannot be recognised for any individual except for the researcher (Matthew Slater). The coded data will be stored electronically on password protected computers at Staffordshire University and all hard copies of the completed questionnaires will be kept in a locked filing cabinet. All data will be destroyed after 10 years.

Can I ask further questions?

If you have any questions or queries concerning your potential participation, or the research study, please do not hesitate to contact me by phone (01782 294866 or email (m.slater@staffs.ac.uk). Alternatively, you may wish to contact my supervisors, Dr Jamie Barker by phone (01782 295810) or email (j.b.barker@staffs.ac.uk) and Dr Marc Jones by phone (01782 295985) or email (marc.jones@staffs.ac.uk).

Yours sincerely,

Matthew Slater

Please read the statements below and initial the box.

I have read and understood the information sheet for the study and have had an opportunity to ask questions.

☐

I understand that my participation in the study is entirely voluntary and I am free to refuse to commence the testing or withdraw at any point in the proceedings, including after the project.

☐

I agree to take part in the study.

☐

In signing below I consent to taking part in this research.

Participant's Signature: ....   Date: ....

Researcher's Signature: ....   Date: ....

GROUP AND COACH SOCIAL IDENTIFICATION MANIPULATION CHECKS

Please respond openly and honestly to the following statements. Do not spend too long on these statements as we are interested in your immediate response. Answer the statements in regard to how you are feeling **right now**.

To what extent do you agree that...

	Do not agree at all			⇔			Agree completely
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
you feel a strong connection with the group	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
you identify strongly with the group	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
you have no connection with the group	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
you feel a strong connection with the coach	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
you identify strongly with the coach	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
you have no connection with the coach	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

GROUP AND COACH SOCIAL IDENTIFICATION AND CONTENTS OF IDENTITY MANIPULATION CHECKS

Please respond openly and honestly to the following statements. Do not spend too long on these statements as we are interested in your immediate response. Answer the statements in regard to how you are feeling **right now**.

To what extent do you agree that...	Do not agree at all			⇔			Agree completely
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
you feel a strong connection with the group	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
you identify strongly with the group	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
you have no connection with the group	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
you feel a strong connection with the coach	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
you identify strongly with the coach	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
you have no connection with the coach	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
results are of most importance to the group	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
having fun is of most importance for the group	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
results are of most importance for the coach	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
having fun is of most importance for the coach	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

TASK MOTIVATION AND INTENTIONS QUESTIONNAIRE

Please respond to the following 3 questions...	Not at all 1	2	3	⇔ 4	5	6	Very much 7
How much effort are you putting into the driving task?	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
How much do you enjoy doing the driving task?	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
To what extent do you want to contribute to achieving the best time possible on the driving task?	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Finally...

How many hours would you be willing to dedicate to practice the driving task over the next week (7 days)?

Please state _____ hours

EXAMPLE OF FALSE FAILURE FEEDBACK

Time	Group
Excellent	
Good	G1, G3, G4
Average	G2, G5
Poor	
Very Poor	G6 (your group)

WRITTEN DEBRIEF

First, I would like to thank you for taking your time to complete my study. My research aims to investigate the ways in which leaders can create shared group values. We anticipate that a leader who takes account of the group's values and combine them with their own will be more effective at creating shared values and therefore lead to increased practice on the video game. On the other hand, we anticipate leaders who ignore the groups values and try to impart their own values on the group will not be effective in creating shared values and it is expected the group will spend less time practicing the video game and deem the leader less effective. You were videoed during the free period to allow us to determine what activities you selected and the length of time spent on each activity. In addition, following trials 3 to 6 you were told that your group performance poorly compared to other groups, this was in fact false feedback and DID NOT indicate your individual or group's performance on the video game. These conditions have been created during the experiment you have just completed. Even though you have completed the study you can still withdraw if you wish by emailing the lead researcher Matt Slater on m.slater@staffs.ac.uk or the project supervisors, Dr. Pete Coffee (p.j.coffee@staffs.ac.uk) or Dr. Jamie Barker (j.b.barker@staffs.ac.uk). Similarly, should you wish to discuss anything with regards to the research study/process please do not hesitate to contact me.

Many Thanks,

Matt Slater, MSc

B103, Brindley Building,
Department of Sport & Exercise,
Staffordshire University

APPENDIX 4: INFORMATION FORM AND EXAMPLE FOCUS GROUP GUIDES AT

TIME POINT 1, 2, AND 3 USED IN STUDY FIVE

INFORMATION FORM

Purpose of the study

I am a PhD student under the supervision of Dr Jamie Barker in the Department of Sport and Exercise at Staffordshire University. I am conducting a research study to assess coach and players group behaviour in Rugby League over a competitive season.

What is required if I agree take part?

The project will run from February until October 2012 and will include a one-to-one or group interview (with members of your own team) at three times points (start, middle and end) across the season, together with training observations. The interviews will be recorded and involve questions around the behaviour and performance of the team. Typically, each individual or group interview will last approximately 30 minutes and thus participation in this project requests one and a half hours of your time.

Are there any risks involved?

Please be assured that all the information you give will be retained in the highest confidentiality and will only be used for the purpose of this research. The information you provide will be stored carefully to ensure privacy and should any of your contributions be used in the write up of the research any personal details will be omitted to protect your anonymity. If you participate in the study you will be free to withdraw at any point. In addition, you will be fully debriefed and if you wish to discuss any concerns throughout the duration of the project, supervisors Dr Pete Coffee and Dr Jamie Barker, or an academic outside the research project (Dr Marc Jones) will be available to provide guidance and assistance. All data will be destroyed after 10 years.

Benefits involved

In return for your participation I will provide advice and guidance on the psychological aspects of rugby league to your team at the three training sessions I attend and vouchers at the end of the season. Your participation will contribute to a greater understanding of group processes and leader impact.

Can I ask further questions?

If you have any questions or queries concerning your potential participation, or the research study, please do not hesitate to contact me by phone (01782 294866 or email (m.slater@staffs.ac.uk). Alternatively, you may wish to contact my supervisor Dr Jamie Barker (01782 295810 or email j.b.barker@staffs.ac.uk) or an academic from outside of the research project, Dr Marc Jones (01782 295985 or email marc.jones@staffs.ac.uk).

Yours sincerely

Matthew Slater

TIME POINT 1 FOCUS GROUP GUIDE

Intro: How did you get into RL? *Players*

- Playing career? *Players*
- How long been coaching / *playing* at [team name]?
- What do you enjoy about coaching / *playing* here? How different to other teams?

Vision:

What is your vision for the team? At the moment   *Switch – ask players*

- What do you think the team's vision is? (How know this)?

Strategies:

How do you try and get your team to buy into your vision? How do you sing from the same hymn-sheet? *Ask for players' opinions too*

- How do you motivate your team towards your vision? (Example)? *Ask for players' opinions too*

Do you feel you have power over or through the team? *Ask for players' opinions too*

- How do you influence the team? (Example)? *Ask for players' opinions too*

Who are the leaders within the team and what behaviours do they show? *Ask for players' opinions too*

Identity:

Do you feel a strong connection with your team? Close knit unit?

- Why? How develop? What built upon? Examples?   *Ask for players' opinions too*

Do your team feel a strong connection to you?

- Why? How develop? What built upon? Respect?

Content:

Why do you coach [team name]? Why do you think your players play for you?

Lots of different reasons but why do the players play for [team name]? *Ask for players' opinions too*

- Same or different? How create convergence?

Objectives for the season? *Ask for players' opinions too*

- What would be a success? *Ask for players' opinions too*
- How get team to put effort in towards achieving this target?

- How prepared during pre-season?

Leadership Style:

How would you describe your leadership style? *Ask for players' opinions too*

What effect does this have on the team in training and matches? *Ask for players' opinions too*

Conclusion:

Is there anything else you would like to discuss?

Thank all participants for their time and effort.

TIME POINT 2 FOCUS GROUP GUIDE

<u>Intro:</u> (Focus on the season thus far)

How has the season been going?

Facilitate coach and player responses

- Performance, enjoyment, progress, supportive?

What's been the best moment of the season so far?

Where has the biggest improvement been in the team?

- Why has that happened? How? What's changed and who influenced change?

How have your performances affected you as a team? Affected your coaching?

You talked about winning the league – how has this goal been going and how do you feel now?

You talked about friendships and enjoyment being important for you guys – how has that been going and how do you feel now?

<u>Vision:</u> *How feeling now at this moment in the season*

What's your vision at the moment?

- For rest of season? How achieve this? What would you like to do? Vision beyond season?

<u>Identity:</u>

What is the connection like between the players on the team at this moment?

- Better, worse, maintained
- Bond/unity/connection within the group?
- Any examples from the season?

<u>Content:</u>

Why do you play for/coach [this team] at this moment?

What would you say characterised this team?

How is [this team] different to other teams in this league?

Other teams have dropped out, how have you continued?

- What built upon?

Talked last time about how [coach name] had brought back love of the game, how do you feel about that now given the season thus far?

Leadership:

How is the relationship between the team and you (you and [coach name])?

- Example of something you've done that you really enjoyed this season?
- Have you learnt anything about yourself as a coach this season so far?

How would you describe your leadership style at the moment?

- Different, much change?
- How does this impact the team?

Do you feel you've been influential?

- How, why, strategies/techniques?
- Talked last time about trying to guide the team to be louder, how has that been going and what have you been trying? Effective?

Who has been influential within the team?

- Why is it that they are the most influential?
- How have the leaders within the team done?
- Emerging leaders?

Coach Behaviours:

How does your relationship with the players help your coaching?

A great thing you talked about last time was your own self-awareness, thinking what went well and not so well in your own coaching – how has this been going?

Describe and discuss any strategies/techniques you've used to motivate the team/players?

- Team and individual level.
- Set open minded and realistic target of winning league...
- Positive and bestow confidence (examples?)
- How keep them engaged? Guiding team and players and bestowing responsibility.
- Got to know what you are dealing with in terms of knowing the team and individuals, how is this going?
- You mentioned trying to empower the team, how is this going at this moment, and any examples were you have done this?
- Talked about a key part of your job being about getting players in the right frame of mind before a match – how is this going at the moment? Any good / bad examples?

Getting commitment from the players how has that gone?

- Which individuals may you struggle with? Ones who value different things to the group?

Importance of being approachable, any examples of this so far this season that you can remember?

<u>Conclusion:</u>

Is there anything else you would like to discuss?

Thank all participants for their time and effort.

TIME POINT 3 FOCUS GROUP GUIDE

<u>Intro:</u> (Focus on 2nd half of season – since my last visit)

How has the season been going?

- Performance, enjoyment, progress, supportive?

What's been the best moment of the season so far?

Where has the biggest improvement been in the team?

- Why has that happened? How? What's changed and who influenced change?

How have your performances affected you as a team? Affected your coaching?

You talked about winning the league – how has this goal been going and how do you feel now?

You talked about friendships and enjoyment being important for you guys – how has that been going and how do you feel now?

Taking the season as a whole where has the team progressed?

- What still needs development?

<u>Vision:</u>

What's your vision at the moment?

How is the group going to move forward? How motivate them?

- Use this season's performances perhaps?

What's the vision for next season? Prem next season?

- How achieve this? What would you like to do? Where will you be in pre-season / 12 months?

<u>Identity:</u>

What is the connection like between the players on the team at this moment?

- Better, worse, maintained
- Bond/unity/connection within the group? Strong nucleus of the squad last time . . .
- Composed as a team? "too nice" and intelligent as a squad you said last time...
- Any examples from the season?

<u>Content:</u>

Why do you play for/coach [this team] at this moment?

What would you say characterised this team?

How is [this team] different to other teams in this league?

Other teams have dropped out, how have you continued? (What built upon?)

Talked last time about how [coach name] Pete had brought back love of the game, how do you feel about that now given the second half of the season?

Leadership:

How is the relationship between the team and you (you and coach)?

- Example of something you've done that you really enjoyed this season?
- Have you learnt anything about yourself as a coach this season so far?

How would you describe your leadership style at the moment?

- Different, much change?
- How does this impact the team?

Do you feel you've been influential?

- How, why, strategies/techniques?
- Talked last time about trying to guide the team to be louder, how has that been going and what have you been trying? Effective?

Who has been influential within the team?

- Why is it that they are the most influential?
- How have the leaders within the team done?
- Emerging leaders?

Coach Behaviours:

How does your relationship with the players help your coaching?

A great thing you talked about last time was your own self-awareness, thinking what went well and not so well in your own coaching – how has this been going?

Knowing your team as a group and individuals important . . .

Describe and discuss any strategies/techniques you've used to motivate the team/players?

- Team and individual level.
- Set open minded and realistic target of winning league...
- Positive and bestow confidence (examples?)
- How keep them engaged? Guiding team and players and bestowing responsibility.

- Got to know what you are dealing with in terms of knowing the team and individuals, how is this going?
- You mentioned trying to empower the team, how is this going at this moment, and any examples were you have done this? Listen and include team in decision making (tweaking)
- Talked about a key part of your job being about getting players in the right frame of mind before a match – how is this going at the moment? Any good / bad examples?

Getting commitment from the players how has that gone?

- Which individuals may you struggle with? Ones who value different things to the group?

Importance of being approachable, any examples of this so far this season that you can remember?

Conclusion:

Is there anything else you would like to discuss?

Thank all participants for their time and effort.