From a leader and a follower to shared leadership: An identity-based structural model for shared leadership emergence

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Abstract

In this chapter, we develop an identity-based structural model to understand how identity processes at the individual, dyadic and team level can partially explain shared leadership emergence. We differentiate between the level at which an identity is represented (individual, relational, collective) and levels of analysis (individual, dyadic, collective) to explain how interrelated identities provide a structure for shared leadership. Using this framework, we focus mainly on individual and dyadic processes to explore how team members’ identity composition (i.e. leader and follower) and the processes regarding individual self can affect (and be affected by) dyadic and team level processes and partially explain shared leadership emergence. Throughout this chapter we address the dynamic and process-oriented role of identity as it becomes contextualized, and how cognitive, motivational and learning processes impact the team, the dyad and the individual. This chapter provides a rich perspective for understanding shared leadership in its complexity, and it develops a framework that can help organize theory and research, particularly that which explains the connection between seeing oneself as a leader and as a follower.

Keywords

Shared leadership, Leader identity, Follower identity, Multilevel
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Modern organizations rely on a variety of teams at all levels including: boards, consultancy, knowledge-based, informal, departments/functional, problem-solving, leadership, self-directed, and virtual teams (Carson, Tesluk, & Marrone, 2007; Morgeson, DeRue, & Karam, 2009; Zaccaro, Rittman, & Marks, 2001). Leadership continues to be considered one of the most critical factors predicting team performance (Day, Gronn, & Salas, 2004; Morgeson et al., 2009; Wang, Waldman, & Zhang, 2014; Yammarino, Salas, Serban, Shirreffs, & Shuffler, 2012; Zaccaro et al., 2001). However, such teams operate in a context of growing complexity in which “feedback is all over the place and in all kinds of directions” (Hazy & Uhl-Bien, 2014, p. 711), coming from multi-team processes (Carter & DeChurch, 2014); technology, global competition, and sustainability demands; as well as creative processes within organizations.

To address such complexity and uncertainty, team leadership structures are often dynamic, with a team member needing to lead at some points and follow at others as context and functional demands change. Thus, the theme of this book, which focuses on processes that connect leadership and followership, is central to understanding these dynamic adjustments. In this chapter we develop a framework for understanding these connections by delving deeper into identity processes, which may be grounded in individual, relational, or collective representations. We use this framework to understand dynamic shifts in active identities – from follower to leader to follower again – recognizing that this can be a collective or dyadic as well as an individual identity process. Such dynamics are particularly important to shared or collective leadership, which is often
viewed as a type of team process that has high potential to effectively manage complex and challenging team contexts.

Consistent with this emphasis, over the last decades, there has been a shift toward a collective approach to team leadership (Cullen-Lester & Yammarino, 2016; Yammarino et al., 2012), and a recognition that leadership processes, which form, sustain, and grow the systems (Hazy & Uhl-Bien, 2014) are also adapting and evolving. As a consequence, leadership paradigms are shifting from a focus on characteristics of specific individuals in hierarchical leadership positions to an emphasis on leadership processes which are more dynamic and flexible in work teams (Acton, Foti, Lord, & Gladfelter, 2018; DeRue, 2011; Foti, Hansbrough, Epitropaki, & Coyle, 2017).

To illustrate these issues, consider the demands on Mary, a member of a strategic management team in a retail organization. At time she works alone, as she develops marketing plans, her unique area of expertise, but still being aware of the multiple demands on her organizations. Here she exhibits self-leadership, as she draws on marketing experience and adjust to the current retailing context (Manz & Sims, 1980; Sims & Lorenzi, 1992). However, at other times she works closely with Bill, who leads the purchasing department. In interactions with Bill, she frequently leads, but also often follows his suggestions, particularly when the focus shifts to purchasing opportunities. As other times, both Mary and Bill are both part of a larger team that also addresses growth, financial, sales, as well as personnel issues. Here leadership moves all over the team depending on the task at hand, but both Marry and Bill follow more than lead. In all these instances, Mary has the potential to lead, but also the potential to follow, and identities related to both roles may be relatively salient. But Mary is also aware of how she is perceived by others,
and how she evaluates their leadership activities. We will return to this example many times to illustrate key points in the chapter.

Because, team structures are grounded in social perception processes, as well as the active identities of team-members (Acton et al., 2018), the dynamic aspect of team leadership creates a corollary demand for flexibility in the activation of perceptual schema and active identities, particularly when leadership is shared. Moreover, the underlying dynamics of emergence and acquiescence depend on the interplay between leadership and followership behaviors at a surface level and the activation of leader and follower identities at a deeper level (Acton et al., 2018; DeRue, 2011). For this reason, in this chapter we emphasize the interrelation of leader and follower identities in understanding shared leadership, but we also recognize that this is part of a social, perceptual process.

Epitropaki, Kark, Mainemelis, and Lord (2017) explained that individuals hold both enduring leader and follower self-schemas which, when adjusted to specific momentary contexts, translate into leader and follower identities, respectively. Identities, which are situated self-construals (Ashforth & Schinoff, 2016; Lord & Chui, 2018), are therefore dynamic and provide an underpinning for many context-dependent processes associated with shared leadership. Our focus in this chapter is on the more dynamic and situated, self-identity rather than on the more enduring self-schemas. But we should note that self-schema, which vary across individuals, serve as attractors around which identities emerge in the dynamic, social systems associated with leadership. Thus for both Mary and Bill, their sense of who they are at a particular moment changes, but it is also grounded in their core identities – which include both leader and follower self-schema – as well as their current task and social context.
Epitropaki et al. (2017) emphasize the multilevel nature of identity and the related processes which can reflect two dimensions which must be distinguished: the Level of analysis (individual, dyadic, or collective) (Yammarino, Dionne, Chun, & Dansereau, 2005; Yammarino & Gooty, 2017) involved in statistical analysis or theorizing and the Level of self (individual, relational, or collective) (Brewer & Gardner, 1996) at which a person’s self-construal occurs. The level at which the self is represented often changes within individuals over time, and thus would be nested under the individual level of analysis. As our example described, Mary’s identity may be represented at an individual level as she addresses marketing concerns, or at a dyadic level as she works with her colleague Bill, or at a collective level when engaged with the larger management team. Epitropaki et al. also highlighted the pressing need for further research at the different levels of analysis to improve understanding of the leadership phenomenon. Consequently, to add precision to our coverage, Table 1 uses this 3 x 3 framework to organize our theoretical analysis and to understand connective leadership. Although the current chapter addresses this need by proposing a theoretical framework for understanding the emergence of shared leadership at the team and dyadic level of analysis, we emphasize the activation and contextual adjustment of individual-level identities (as shown by the shaded areas in Table 1). More specifically, this chapter will address the ways in which team members’ identity composition (i.e., leader versus follower) and processes regarding individual selves can affect dyadic- and team-level processes and partially explain shared leadership emergence.

Insert Table 1 about here.
In this chapter we lay out a model of the dynamic aspects of the intrapersonal and interpersonal identity and their relationship to shared leadership. This is important as it helps address not only the heretofore neglected intraindividual-level antecedents of shared leadership but also set up a framework to further understand the mechanisms and boundary conditions under which shared leadership is most effective (Bolden, 2011; Drescher & Garbers, 2016; Paunova, 2015; Wang et al., 2014). We then proceed to addressing the dynamics that underlie shared leadership processes.

This chapter contributes to the literature on emerging team and leadership processes in several ways. First, it suggests a framework that can help organize and analyze theory and research related to identity and identity dynamics that address both levels of representation of the self as well as levels of analysis. Second, it takes a multilevel approach to explore the emergence of shared leadership assessing individual level and dyadic level identity processes that can enhance the likelihood of shared leadership emergence in teams. Third, it addresses how social interaction in teams and dyads affect the development of identity on individuals in order to make them more (or less) complex. Altogether, this chapter contributes to the understanding of identity dynamics that can impact the capacity of individuals like Bill and Mary to concurrently serve as a leader and a follower.

**Shared Leadership and Multilevel Identity Dynamics**

*Shared leadership* – also referred to as distributed leadership – is an emergent phenomenon in which leadership is performed collectively by multiple members of a team, but at different times (Carson et al., 2007; Nicolaides, LaPort, Chen, Tomassetti, Weiss,
Zaccaro & Cortina, 2014; Paunova, 2015). Thus, shared leadership is inherently dynamic and sensitive to context. Morgeson et al. (2009) conceptualize shared leadership as an informal and internal source of team leadership with the potential to fulfill all functions of leadership and thereby achieve effective team performance. Consistent with this perspective, three meta-analyses from 2014 and numerous studies published after them (D’Innocenzo, Mathieu, & Kukenberger, 2014; Drescher & Garbers, 2016; Marion, Christiansen, Klar, Schreiber, & Akif Erdener, 2016; McHugh et al., 2016; Nicolaides et al., 2014; Serban & Roberts, 2016; Wang et al., 2014; White, Currie, & Lockett, 2016) have consistently demonstrated that shared leadership is associated with team effectiveness and other desirable outcomes such as satisfaction.

Although shared leadership is likely to be complemented by other forms of leadership, it has the potential to be the main source of leadership for effective teams. As such, it is critical to understand how to foster shared leadership emergence in teams, and we argue that issue is closely related to the dynamic that activate leader or follower identities. Identity serves this function as it can be applied at individual, dyadic, and group levels (Acton et al., 2018; DeRue, 2011); is contextualized (Ashforth & Schinoff, 2016; Lord & Chui, 2018; Lord, Gatti, & Chui, 2016; Markus & Wurf, 1987); and has important self-regulatory as well as social perception functions (Johnson, Muraven, Donaldson, & Lin, 2017; Kihlstrom & Klein, 1994). Further, scholars have highlighted the importance of exploring the processes occurring at all identity levels to obtain a more complete and accurate understanding of the social processes that allow leadership to emerge in teams, as is the case of shared leadership (Day & Dragoni, 2015; Hall, Lord, & Foster, 2009). In addition, it is well established that shifts from follower to leader self-identities (or vice
versa) may precede changes in social behavior related to leadership (Epitropaki et al., 2017). Consequently, changes in how individuals represent their identity or in the level at which identity dynamics occur are potentially critical to understanding shared leadership.

Therefore, we need a framework such as the one provided in Table 1, to help organize and add precision to the literature addressing shared leadership dynamics. Henceforth, we will simply use cell numbers to tie specific articles or theories to this organizing framework and we will move from individual to relational to collective identity representations (down the rows of Table 1) as we address each level of analysis (columns in Table 1). Note that as one moves down the rows, self-representation are different, often reflecting developmental trends as independent self-representations coalesce into dyadic and then group identities. But they can also reflect momentary changes as illustrated by our example of Mary and Bill’s changing roles.

The work by DeRue and colleagues is exceptional in its emphasis on the multi-level dynamic aspects of identity as they related to leadership emergence in groups and movement across the rows of Table 1. Hence, we begin with their work to illustrate the value of our framework. DeRue and Ashford (2010) highlighted the role of the leader and the follower identity in the leadership claiming and granting process. In their model, this identity work develops over time, differentiates leader and follower roles in a dyad, has cognitive consequences in terms of the use of implicit theories relating to leadership and followership, and organizes social and work roles in a team. By emphasizing the mutual recognition of role relationships, they explain a movement from the first to the second rows in Table 1, that is from individual to dyadic identity representations. Extending this theorizing, DeRue (2011) proposed a theoretical model of how dyadic individual identities
develop into double-interacts that are stable and based on relational identities (cell 2 in Table 1 becomes cell 5). He then examined how these relationships functioned within group structures (cell 6), eventually developing into shared leadership pattern within a team or collective identities (cell 9). Thus, he explains movement from the individual to the dyadic and eventually to the collective rows in Table 1. Further, mirroring these developments, the basis of social exchanges often moves from being self-centered to group-centered (Flynn, 2005) and trust in the dyad, and then in the collective, solidifies the group structure. Take the example of a recently hired CFO joining the executive team in an organization. As her social exchanges with the CEO and COO accumulate, she may start changing her self-representation from an expert in the financial area that has experience that differentiates her form the rest of the team (cell 2), to a representation that includes her relationship with the CEO and in her relationship with the COO (cell 5). With further experience, she may also emphasize her role as part of the executive team (cell 9), with corresponding shifts in motivation and behavior.

Several subsequent empirical works have investigated this process of moving across the rows in Table 1 as the unit for theory and analysis changes from individuals to dyads to teams and differences among these social units are addressed. In a study based on the shared leadership structure, DeRue, Nahrgang & Ashford (2015) investigated the individual and team level mechanisms through which trust and competence predict density and centralization of leadership structure (DeRue et al., 2015). It found that individuals’ perceptions of team warmth made their identification with their team more salient, which in turn resulted in leadership being provided by multiple individuals within the team, implying a team-level structure and process (cell 9). In other words, between individual differences
in perceptions cumulated to affect team-level processes. Taking a similar perspective, Chrobot-Mason, Gerbasi, and Cullen-Lester (2016) studied how identification with the team or organization influence leadership ties between individuals working in teams (cell 8). Their findings indicated that individual’s identification with the organization but not with the team, predicted reciprocation of a leadership relationship. These researchers set a precedent in theorizing how identity level relates to shared leadership, approaching this issue from multiple levels of analysis and illustrating the intricacies of this complex emergent phenomenon. Based on both studies we see how collective level represented identities affected dyadic level and team level processes (Cells 8 and 9 in Table 1 – e.g. individual self is represented at the collective level and that will impact his behaviors towards dyadic partners as well as his behaviors as a member of the team). Though not studied, collective identities likely also changed the basis for individual level cognitions and affect (cell 7 in Table 1 – i.e. salient collective representation of the self, impact the individual’s behaviors when working independently, such as it could with ethical or moral decisions). What these studies addressed was an aggregation process through which individual differences cumulated to create higher level structures but what they missed was the within-person dynamics associated with whether individual, relational, or collective self-representations were more available.

This within-person approach is suggested by Sy and McCoy (2014) in their theoretical proposition of the construct leader-follower switching, which they define as an ‘intra-personal process of dynamically switching between leader and follower role’ (p.124), and differentiated from shared leadership based on its intra-personal nature as compared to the inter-personal nature of the latter. This theoretical proposition focuses principally on
one level (i.e. within-person), although it recognizes importance of the context and dyads. However, to our knowledge, there is still no research that address the dynamics involving inter-related processes at the individual, dyad and team levels of analysis, which we have argued are necessary to develop a thorough understanding of shared leadership emergence.

Identity and Dynamic Systems

**Individual level of analysis.** Identities influence the way individuals perceive their surroundings, their affective responses, and their behaviors. As such, the individual level processes associated with leader and follower identities play a key role in understanding not only *who* will emerge as a leader and as a follower, but also *how* and *when* they will do it (Epitropaki et al., 2017). Identity and the associated process of identity construction that translates self-schemas into contextualized identities are essential part of the sensemaking and enactment that individuals do in order to understand who they are and how they fit in their environment. Indeed, neuroscience research has established that there are specific integrative networks in the brain which are concerned with the self, which are called *default network* (Gusnard, Akbudak, Shulman, & Raichle, 2001; Spreng & Grady, 2010). When activated, default networks allow the individual to access stored information relevant for the task at hand, and thus guide perception and action planning process leading to behavior (Gusnard et al., 2001). As such, events from the past (stored in memory) become paramount for the meaning the individual assign to current events and their vision of the future; however, the accessed, self-relevant memories need to be recombined and integrated in a meaningful way (Addis & Schacter, 2012; Spreng & Grady, 2010). Therefore, the sensemaking occurring through activated identities acts as the link that interprets the past
from the perspective of the present while also providing the building blocks for the future (Addis & Schacter, 2012).

In short, the leader and follower self-identities that individuals construct will constitute sources of relevant information and self-regulatory processes for team events and will, therefore, influence the likelihood individuals engage in leader and follower behaviors while working with their team. Thus, individual-level behavior will differ across the rows of Table 1 (cells 1, 4, or 7 – e.g. behaviors oriented to self-preserve, turn into behaviors that aims at satisfy the dyad needs, which then turn into behaviors that aim to benefit “us all” as part of the collective); and leadership processes that move individuals from one row to another can have profound consequences (Lord & Brown, 2004). In terms of shared leadership, it will be much more difficult to establish a collective or shared form of leadership if individuals’ level of identity tends to be at the individual (cell 1), than at the relational (cell 4) or collective (cell 7) levels. Setting the stage for effective shared leadership may then require behaviors and process that promote collective individual level identities such as leadership behaviors that are pro-social rather than being pro-self (De Cremer, 2002).

In addition to this “row” effect associated with the level at which identity is represented, the specific content of one’s identity (whether a leader or follower identity is activated) will affect the likelihood of engaging in leader or follower behaviors. This effect is independent of the row or column in Table 1, as individual-level leadership identities could be activated for a person whose identity was predominantly individual, relational, or collective. Here past histories and the centrality of leader as compared to follower self-schema would be important. Yet as shown in Figure 1, it is the identity that is active at a
particular moment that will affect individual A’s leader- or follower-related behaviors, and these dynamics change over time. As we will discuss later, and as shown in the bottom panel of Figure 1, it may also be possible to have interrelated leader and follower self-schemas as leaders gain extensive experience with shared leadership situations.

Proposition 1. Active leader and follower individual-level self-schemas will influence the contextualized identity that is constructed, social and self-perceptions, and leader (follower) behavior.

Proposition 2. As one moves from individual to relational to collective identity levels (e.g., from cell 1 to cell 4 to cell 7), activation of leader or follower self-schema will also tend to change.

--- Insert Figure 1 about here----

**Dyadic level of analysis.** Acton et al. (2018) develop an identity-based, dynamic model of leadership emergence which is grounded in the self-identities of group members. They argue that group structures emerge as an individual’s leadership schema is activated and is paired with another group member’s follower self-schema. In combination these processes allow a leadership identity to emerge with respect to this dyad. Thus, there are both within-person and between-person social processes involved in the emergence of a leadership structure, and because this structure is contextualized, it can change over time. As already noted, DeRue (2011) develops a very similar argument.

Following this line of thought, a unique aspect of shared leadership is that members taking leader roles also take follower roles at some stage while working with their teams (DeRue & Ashford, 2010). In other words, both leader and follower self-identities can
emerge for the same individual, but at different times, when teams share leadership. One critical determinant of which schema becomes a stable attractor is the role of others in helping one construct an identity (Ashforth & Schinoff, 2016). The presence of a leader self-schema makes an individual more likely to emerge as a leader (Day, 2000; Hannah, Woolfolk, & Lord, 2009; Lord & Hall, 2005); however, leader emergence only occurs effectively when it is recognized and accepted by others (Day, 2000; Gerstner & Day, 1997; Lord, Brown, & Freiberg, 1999). That is, the activated leader self-schema becomes a contextualized leadership identity.

This process may be momentary, however, when the exchange becomes solidified by situated identities of both leaders and followers, a more stable dyadic structure emerges, which has been labeled a double interact (Acton et al., 2018; DeRue, 2011; Weick, 1979). 

*Double interacts* reflect a reciprocal interrelation of leaders and followers, that can be thought of in terms of behavior, but at a deeper level can also be thought of in terms of the interlocking of leader and follower identities (Acton et al., 2018; DeRue, 2011). Such interlocking occurs because individuals typically elicit a unique identity in others who view them as being important (Andersen & Chen, 2002; Shah, 2003), and this identity transference process applies to leadership as well (Ritter & Lord, 2007). When this transference occurs, identity activation becomes dyadic as both individuals contribute to the process, and we have moved from the individual to the dyadic column of Table 1.

Within the double interact units, the identities of both individuals become salient. Although one might typically think of this as a role making process in which individual role differentiation occurs over time as the early LMX literature suggested (Cell 2), the LMX literature developed into a more dyadic perspective (Cell 5) in which both leader and
follower characteristics were considered within a dyadic relationship that developed over time as both parties focus on dyadic-level functioning (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995). Movement from leader- or follower-based to relationship-based dyadic representations (from cell 2 to 5 in Table 1) changes the nature of interactions so that trust, mutual obligation, accommodation, and mutual learning describe underlying processes (See Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995, Table 2, p.224).

However, in shared leadership situations, dyadic relations must allow each party to be both a leader and follower, albeit at different times. Thus, greater identity and social complexity need to characterize both individuals and dyadic social units (See Lord, Hannah, and Jennings, 2011, for a discussion of complexity). Returning to our example or Mary and Bill, their repertoire of identities needs to include not only individual leader and follower identities, but also double interacts in which Mary leads and Bill follows and double interacts where Bill leads and Mary follows. This allows switching form leader to follower roles to be part of a familiar, stable structure, rather than a disruptive event.

Proposition 3. Movement to a dyadic level of analysis in which both dyadic members contribute to schema-activation and identity construction, requires greater complexity in individual identities and double-interacts for shared leadership to be effective.

Proposition 4. Relevant domains for understanding leadership and followership change as one moves from individual to relational level identities (Cells 2 to 5): Leader and follower self-schema are more critical when individual level identities predominate, but relational history and dyadic dynamics predominate when relational levels are salient.
**Team/collective level of analysis.** Movement to a collective level of theory and analysis as reflected in the third column of Table 1 complicates issues further. Here individual, relational, or collective level of identities could exist within a team structure, but we expect that effective teams will move towards relational and collective level identities (Cells 6 and 9). This would change the nature of social exchanges (Flynn, 2005) so that the focus is on group processes and group-level outcomes. As the social identity literature has clearly indicated, this change also shifts the nature of implicit leadership theories to emphasize group prototypes (Hogg, 2001; van Knippenberg & Hogg, 2018), although general leadership prototypes are still important (Lord, Epitropaki, Foti, & Hansbrough, 2019). Hence, leaders emerge and are sustained by conforming to group prototypes as well as contributing to group-related rather than self-serving outcomes. One relevant type of group norm may be for shared as opposed to hierarchical leadership structures (DeRue et al., 2015).

One important aspect of shared leadership is that, because individuals can fulfill multiple roles, they need more complex identities and double interacts, in which both leadership and followership roles are compatible and are easily constructed. Group structures are also more complex and dynamic. Consequently, both individually and collectively, requisite complexity is needed (Hannah, Lord, & Pearce, 2011), and that complexity can come either from experience or it can be created on the spot through individual and group processes (Lord, Hannah, & Jennings, 2011). Complexity also arises at a behavioral level, in that the behaviors that address needed task or socioemotional functions can vary across members and across time. Hence, each group member needs greater behavioral complexity (Hooijberg, 1996).
In shared leadership systems, dynamic processes can be explained by the functional leadership approach, where leadership needs are addressed by different individuals during the performance cycle (Lord, Day, Zaccaro, Avolio, & Eagly, 2017; Stogdill & Shartle, 1949; Zaccaro et al., 2001). For example, the needs of structuring and defining tasks or problems, provision of information used in problem solving, providing material resources, and managing personnel resources are likely to be addressed by different team members. The advantage of shared leadership is that different individuals may have unique skills or resources related to these functions. From this functional perspective, team leadership is oriented towards the satisfaction of team needs and is aimed at team performance. As such, the leadership role should go to whoever—inside or outside the team—can best undertake the responsibility of satisfying team needs (Lord et al., 2017; Morgeson et al., 2009).

As a consequence of this dynamic functional allocation, teams may experience leadership from more than one source at any one time and, the sources of leadership are dynamic and can change over time (DeRue, 2011). This occurs within complex adaptive systems, and it may involve the emergence of attractors at individual, dyadic, or team levels of analysis that link identities with relevant task or social elements. For example, the emergence of a momentary attractor could be affected by individual level-factors such as the salience of a leader self-schema when individual holds specialized knowledge for a task. Alternatively, dyadic-level factors such as doing a task with a dyadic partner with whom one worked previously and for which stable double interacts already exist, or collective-level factors such as having team norms for shared leadership could also affect the emergence of shared leadership roles. In the following section, we are more specific as
An Identity-Based, Structural Model for Shared Leadership

Interrelated Identities as a Structure for Shared Leadership

We know how shared leadership looks like at the team level of analysis, but then how does it look at the dyad and individual level of analysis? Understanding all three levels could help us understand what an appropriate intervention would be to increase the likelihood of shared leadership emergence. Figure 2 depicts a structure for identities in which individuals can be isolates, part of a single dyad, or members of multiple dyads that occur within a team structure. When people are isolated, the identity that is activated is likely to be dependent on chronic self-schemas, which tend to be active in most situations or in some instances are cued by task contexts or momentary needs (Lord et al., 2016; Markus & Wurf, 1987). In single double-interacts dyads, each individual can elicit an identity in others (Andersen & Chen, 2002; Ritter & Lord, 2007), and over time, a stable double-interact, and perhaps multiple double interacts are likely to provide structure to their relationship. This relational identity serves as an attractor in a dynamic system (Acton et al., 2018). However, in team contexts, there are multiple dyads and many double interacts as well as an enduring team climate and momentary task demands, which further contextualize individual identities.

------------------- Insert Figure 2 about here ---------------------------

Multilevel Nature of Shared leadership: Importance of Individual and Dyadic Levels
As shown in Table 2, the different definitions of shared leadership found in the literature reflect different levels of analysis. For instance, the definition most popularly used refers to an emergent team property of mutual influence and shared responsibility among team members (Pearce & Conger, 2002), which is conceptualized as the basis for processes originated from the team as a whole rather than an individual level of analysis. Operationally, team members perception about leadership behaviors being shared by the team as a whole (individual perceptions are aggregated at the team level of analysis) are influenced by team-level norms as social identity theory maintains. In short, as ideally conceived, shared leadership operates in Cell 9 of Table 1.

-----Insert Table 2 about here-----

However, there are alternative aspects that point to the subcomponents of shared leadership, and thus to the dyadic level and to the individual level of analysis (see Table 2). But the functioning of identities under the collective column is different than under the individual or dyadic level columns of Table 1, and it would be described as individuals within groups or dyads within groups, respectively (Hall & Lord, 1995; Klein, Dansereau, & Hall, 1994). To understand this difference, consider that under normal team processes, tasks and responsibilities are often completed by specific individuals or specific dyads rather than by the group as a whole. When this happens, individual (Cell 3) or relational (Cell 6) level identity representations may be temporarily salient, but they are influenced by the group context. When functioning as an individual or dyad, one is still motivated by group-level goals and behavior is still guided by group level values and culture, although individual or dyadic level factors may also be important.
Ultimately, the phenomenon we are looking at with shared leadership, is indeed that complex. It relies – or ideally does so – on the team as a whole (cell 9), the dyads available in the team (cell 6), as well as each individual of a dyad and of a team as having a potential for leadership and followership (cell 2 and 3). And over time tasks and responsibilities flexibly move among these levels as different subsets of group members are engaged in group-related functional activities. As such, ignoring the sub-components and the complexity of the phenomenon would limit the full understanding of the underlying processes allowing shared leadership to emerge and guide group processes. The following section, we build upon this complexity and explore the role of identity in the emergence of shared leadership in teams from this dynamic, multilevel framework, paying particular attention to individual- and dyadic-level functioning within the context of an overall collective identity associated with shared leadership.

**Identity at the Individual Level of Analysis and Shared Leadership.**

Identities involve different elements that comprise our self-concept, which will include attributes, roles, defining experiences, and even future forms of our self. The identities of a leader and follower are complex in that they are multilayer, context bounded and socially construed (DeRue, Ashford, & Cotton, 2009; Epitropaki et al., 2017). At the individual level of analysis, the leader and the follower identity will be associated with specific self-schema that might be more or less integrated with the overall self-construct of an individual (Epitropaki et al., 2017). Each of these self-schemas will have a typical form, with characteristics that will act as an attractor for activating leader or the follower self-schema. It is how individuals construe these self-schemas within their self-concept, and
how their self-definition as leaders or followers interacts with the context and others that bears on identity construction and shared leadership emergence.

As discussed in Proposition 1, the activation of a leader or follower self-schema is required for the perception and decision-making process leading to a leader or follower behavior. However, there are multiple aspects relative to leader and follower self-schemas that might influence the extent to which they become activated. For instance, Acton et al. (2018) argue that activation of a leader or follower self-schema at a specific time will depend on the situation at that time, the knowledge stored from past experiences in similar situations, and motivational states. That is, the probability of an individual emerging as a leader is dependent on the activation of a leader self-schema being greater than the follower self-schema at a specific time, and vice versa for follower emergence. Applying this logic then to a shared leadership perspective – we are concerned about the conditions that might increase the probabilities for individual to easily shift activation from one self-schema to the other, allowing for a leader-follower role switching (Sy & McCoy, 2014).

Proposition 5: The dynamic shift of activation from a leader to a follower self-schema and vice-versa in a particular situation will depend on both leader and follower self-schemas being easily accessible at that particular situation.

Proposition 6: The probability that an individual is able to fulfill both leadership and followership associated functions in a specific situation or context, will depend on the capacity to dynamically shift between construction of a leader and follower self-schema in that context.
**Content of ILT and IFT and schema activation.** Recent theory and research indicate that the construction of leader or follower identity is context specific (Ashforth & Schinoff, 2016; Lord & Chui, 2018; Lord et al., 2016). Although context can include many variables related to leadership (Lord, Brown, Harvey, & Hall, 2001), the level at which self-representations are defined (Brewer & Gardner, 1996) and the nature of relevant roles (Stets & Burke, 2000) are critical factors, as is expertise, or the amount of experience with relevant roles (Lord & Hall, 2005). In general, assuming collective group identities are salient, roles would be dynamic, changing over time in both their definition and who best fulfills the functional requirements of a role. Adopting a role likely depends on a self-categorization processes, in which the context provides fast and relatively automatic adjustments of social categories like “leader” or “follower”, and individuals self-categorize with respect to these roles. Self-categorization, in turn, is based on one’s momentary assessment of functional roles and their fit with one’s self-perceived characteristics, skills, and recent experience in the social context. For this reason, it is helpful to examine both the definition of leader and follower categories, as well as the processes by which these definitions are adjusted to context.

Social categories often lack clear boundaries and thus are defined in terms of central characteristics or a prototype (Rosch, 1978), which because they are used automatically in self and social categorization, are thought to provide an explanation of implicit leadership and implicit followership theories (ILT and IFT correspondingly, Lord, Foti, & De Vader, 1984; Sy, 2010). One’s perceived fit with these categories would then affect self-categorization, as well as the tendency of others to validate this self-construal (Acton et al., 2018; DeRue & Ashford, 2010). As already noted, with shared leadership this process...
occurs in the context of identification with a group, so that ILTs and group prototypes (van Knippenberg & Hogg, 2018) are likely to both influence self-categorization as a leader or follower.

As we previously noted, the self-categorization of an individual as belonging -or not- to a leader or follower category depends on a relatively automatic matching of personal characteristics to the relevant prototype. Assessment of one’s own attributes as being descriptive of a leader or follower prototype depends on fit with active self-schema (e.g., I am intelligent) which may be central or peripheral to the self (Markus & Wurf, 1987). The critical question is whether activation spreads from one’s active self-schema, as adjusted to context, to a leader or follower prototype. In line with our Proposition 5, individuals’ capacity to easy access both leader and follower self-schema might impact their likelihood of sharing leadership. As such, the similarity of ILTs and IFTs would impact the capacity to access and swiftly switch between activating leader and follower self-schema.

**Centrality of leader and follower self-schema.** When ILTs and IFTs closely match self-schemas, these self-schemas will be clearer and will tend to be more central to the self, and thus, will be activated frequently as part of the working self-concept. When that occurs, one would expect both the self-schema and the relevant prototype to mutually activate each other and to guide thoughts and behaviors. In other words, if one’s ILT and self-schema agree, and this self-schema is central to one’s self, then when tasks or contexts make leadership needs salient, self-categorization as a leader should occur eliciting leadership activities. Similar reasoning would activate follower schemas and role when they are familiar and appropriate to context. On the contrary, if the content of ILTs and IFTs do not match self-schema, these self-schemas will tend to be more ambiguous and more peripheral
in the self-concept. A more peripheral position will reduce activation and accessibility.

Further, peripheral schemas are likely to require more cues to become activated than central self-schema.

What this means in the context of shared leadership is that when a contextualized leadership prototype does not fit one’s central self-schema, leadership identities will be slow to form, will lack clarity, and one will not have high leadership self-efficacy (confidence). Follower identities may be activated more easily and more frequently in such situations. Consequently, others are more likely to initiate leadership, and double interacts would tend to develop with others as leaders and oneself as a follower, even if one is more capable than one’s dyadic partner at fulfilling a leadership need. However, this is not an entirely passive or automatic process. Individuals will also select situations in which they feel comfortable, and they can alter contexts (and choices of others), so that there are more opportunities to construct and enact leadership identities (Serpe & Stryker, 1987; Stets & Burke, 2000). However, in this context environmental cues gain relevance, as they might activate more peripheral schemas.

One important consequence of shared leadership contexts (being in Cell 9) is that all group members are motivated to develop as leaders and help others do the same, so that over time, leadership becomes more central to self-schema. This would be particularly likely if one has a strong identification with a group because she or he would define leadership in terms of a group prototype and see themselves as fitting this prototype (van Knippenberg & Hogg, 2018). They would also be more motivated to move a group towards its goals. DeRue et al. (2015) also found that identification with a group is associated with leadership activities.
Integration of leader and follower self-schema. The extent to which ILTs and IFTs share elements, and thus the extent to which leader and follower category prototypes match each other, is critical in understanding whether one can move back and forth between leader and follower self-schema activation. A high overlap between the leader and follower self-schemas implies that both tend to be activated by the same context, and that activation of one schema will activate the other as well. In contrast, if ILTs and IFTs are substantially different, then leader and follower category prototypes will not be activated by the same context and thus, activation of one self-schema will inhibit activation of the other. For instance, when a leader prototype includes ‘dominance’ whereas the follower prototype includes ‘subordination’, it is likely that when a situational cue triggers ‘subordination’ only follower self-schema will become activated, and the leader self-schema activation will be inhibited. However, if both schemas include characteristics such as ‘caring’, then situations that cue such an attribute will facilitate access to both self-schemas. Thus, we argue that the extent to which ILTs and IFTs and leader and follower category prototypes overlap, will impact the compatibility between the leader and follower self-schema, facilitating easy access to both and thus, the capacity of individuals to shift between leader and followers’ self-schema activation.

Therefore, the capacity of an individual to move back and forth between leader and follower identity activation will be improved when an integration between leader and follower self-schemas exist, as activation of one schema will make salient and spread activation to the other. Furthermore, the likelihood of activation in different situations will increase if one or both the self-schemas are central to the self-concept, whereas more peripheral self-schemas as leader and follower might increase the reliance on more
environmental cues (such as team norm). This theory based on self-categorization processes and ILT/IFTs is summarized in Propositions 7-9.

Proposition 7. The similarity of ILTs and self-schemas will promote clarity and centrality in leader identities and increase the probability that one will self-categorize as a leader and assume leadership roles; whereas similarity of IFTs and self-schemas will promote clarity and centrality in follower identities, increasing the probability of self-categorization as followers and assuming follower roles.

Proposition 8: Similarity in ILTs and IFTs (and leader and follower prototypes) will facilitate integration between leader and follower self-schema, allowing flexible shifting between these schemas.

Proposition 9. Shared leadership and collective identities will promote ILT and self-schema congruence, clarifying leadership roles, and fostering development of leadership identities in a larger proportion of group members than in hierarchical leadership situations.

**Expertise and schema activation.** Lord and Hall (2005) explained how information is processed differently by novice, intermediate and expert leaders. These differences involve the content of knowledge that is used, how it is used, and what triggers access to that knowledge. While these researchers explore expertise from a development perspective associated with leaders’ skills, the overarching stages and characteristics of such stages also inform our thinking with respect to self-schema activation and use in the context of shared leadership. For instance, a novice leader is more dependent on working memory to adapt generic knowledge (such as that associated with ILTs or IFTs) to a specific situation, which narrows attention and limits available cognitive resources. This
focusing of attention likely decreases activation of other schemas and thus access to knowledge and resources associated with them, which likely reduces the behavioral flexibility of novice leaders. In contrast, expert leaders are less tied to the specific situation, and the knowledge they access has developed from a systematic organization of previous experiences around specific principles. Reliance on this type of knowledge frees working-memory processing resources, allowing these more expert leaders to broaden attention and access other self-schemas and as a consequence, increasing their behavioral flexibility.

In a context relevant for shared leadership where easy access to both leader and follower self-schemas are needed, the reduced behavioral flexibility of a novice leader may be tied to difficulties in accessing and contextualizing alternative self-schema. As such, context might impact which self-schema is activated in novice leaders. For example, a novice leader, who likely experiences high working-memory demands, may be locked into the need to demonstrate leadership and conform to ILTs or group prototypes, and therefore would have difficulty ceding leadership to someone with more skills regarding a specific task, whereas an expert leader would more easily grasp a broader perspective increasing the probability of shared leadership. This reasoning helps us understand how the tendency of an individual to engage in shared leadership can change as experience develops.

Proposition 10: Expertise and use of principled knowledge by leaders will reduce working-memory demands and increase the extent to which their leader and follower self-schema are both easily accessible. Thus, the likelihood of being able to shift easily between competing schema should be higher for experts than novices.
In sum, our analysis of how individual level self-schema are activated and translated into situated identities depends on their fit with general prototypes (Lord et al., 1984) or group prototypes (Hogg, 2001; van Knippenberg & Hogg, 2018) that guide self-categorization. Thus, we can see how a shared leadership context can move one from an individual to a collective level of identity representation (cells 1 to 7) and can change their likelihood of exhibiting leadership (or followership) in a shared leadership situation. However, this change also depends on dyadic level processes that are represented in the Dyadic column of Table 1, which are addressed in the next section.

**Identity at the Dyadic Level of Analysis and Shared Leadership.**

Moving to the dyadic level, we need to keep in mind that all the heretofore discussed processes are contingent on the dyadic partner as a cue, and also as a dynamic, semi-independent entity that is part of a double interact. Further, as shown in Table 3, most propositions developed for the individual levels of analysis have close analogs at the dyadic (and team) levels. However, what is unique and critically important at the dyadic level is the role of the level of the situated identity has in the motivation for exchanges within the dyad, and how this can shape the structure that develops over time within the dyad.

----Insert Table 3 about here----

As previously discussed, a critical change in the meaning and expectations of the role occur when moving from individual to relational or collective levels of identity as the former’s need to differentiate will motivate individuals solely on personal interests (Brewer & Gardner, 1996; Flynn, 2005). In contrast, significant ‘others’ are incorporated to the sense of self in relational and collective defined identities, thus in the aim of preserving
self, the needs of others are also included (Aron & Aron, 1986). This fundamental motivational shift is likely to result in greater positive affect for each individual, which reinforces social roles and also creates greater capacity to learn and adapt (Fredrickson, 1998). Structurally, dyads develop into double-interacts, which creates stability (movement from cells 2 to 5) but may inhibit shared leadership unless it is strongly reinforced by team-level norms and unless complexity develops in terms of multiple types of double interacts develops (e.g. Mary leads and Bill follows and Bill leads and Mary follows are both common double interacts) Also, when team identification is also strong, we have dyads within groups level of analysis, which would be characterized by cell 8. What this means then is at a specific moment, we have a double interact with associated identities guiding processes, and over time we have dyadic processes operating to create stability, however, a team-level norm may promote flexibility and development.

Dynamics also reflect the claiming and granting activities of both partners, and when this produces positive responses, relational identities would tend to be strengthened. The motivational changes associated with individuals shift to more relational or collective identities in teams where opportunities for interaction are more available, can increase the goal-related interdependence (Fitzimons et al, 2015). Thus, social identities are the base for social goals and hence will impact not only action but also interpretation of feedback from goal attainment. Therefore, both the experience of social goal pursues and the claiming and granting processes will provide information to individuals that can also affect the dynamic moves of level of identity representation.

In sum, as dyads might represent their identity at the individual, relational and collective level, the nature of exchanges (Flynn, 2005) become a critical dyadic process to
explore as it sets expectations for the interplay between dyadic partner’s identities. Exchange can not only reinforce schema-based tendencies, they also can induce movement from individual to relational and collective level for dyads.

Identity at the Collective Level of Analysis and Shared Leadership.

At the team level, both motivational and cognitive aspects change, with motivation being directed at benefiting the team as a whole (Flynn, 2005) and self-categorization being based on match to a group prototype. Further, at this level, the team context influences dyadic and individual level processes, which continue to operate but under a team norm which ideally promotes shared leadership. For example, claiming and granting of leadership would depend on matching group prototypes rather than on conforming to identities elicited by one’s dyadic partner. Further, groups provide greater complexity (See Figure 2), with any particular individual being part of multiple dyads as well as the overall team. With a strong team identification, these multiple dyadic structures would tend to evolve into a structure that is consistent with group norms and histories. Yet, with shared leadership norms, we would expect roles to change as task and organizational contexts change and individuals with the most relevant resource address the momentary functional leadership demands of a group.

Implications

In this section, we list several implications that follow from our theoretical development. Rather than completely restating the logic we have developed, we simply number the propositions supporting each implication where relevant. However, we will not deal extensively with the team level since we have not gone into developing propositions
other than to recognize that teams form a context for people and dyads to the extent there is a coherent identity and people identify with the team.

**Individual-level Implications**

At the individual level, it becomes critical to recognize that complexity of teams comes from interactions, not just the addition of their parts (i.e. compilational aggregation, Koslowski & Klein, 2000). Furthermore, this complexity reflects processes involving both the rows and columns in Table 1. Shared leadership typically involves movement from individual to collective self-representations, but also research moves from individual to dyads to groups levels of theory and analysis, and as groups constrain the ways dyads operate and constrain the ways individuals operate in that dyadic context. Therefore, in shared leadership structures, researchers recognized that processes are inherently more complex and people need to develop more complex identity dynamics and representations to be effective.

Several of our propositions (1, 2, 3, 5, 6, 10) address the extent to which schema and process complexity are interrelated. Collectively, they imply that the required complexity for shared leadership is dynamically constructed as dyads and teams evolve (Lord, Hannah & Jennings, 2011). Further, this evolution involves changes in both how people represent the self (rows of Table 1) and shifts in the nature of theory regarding dyadic and group level processes (columns of Table 1). Shared leadership involve complex processes that require more complex schemas. This complexity involves not only the capacity to easily access different schemas (i.e. Leader and Follower), but also the ability to
move across levels responding to environmental cues, especially as sometimes people work as individuals, sometimes as dyads and sometimes as a whole team.

In terms of implicit leadership and followership theories (propositions 7, 8 and 9), it becomes critical for leader and follower schemas to share elements and to be central to the self. This reflects individual level differences in readiness for shared leadership. But it is also important for these schemas to fit with group norms which are clear and widely accepted among group members. When the team norm is not clear, structure is likely to come from an individual’s own ILTs and IFTs, and it will reflect the different histories and beliefs of group members, leading to confusion and potential conflict in claiming and granting processes. However, with clear group-level norms that are shared, structure ideally will develop in a coherent way as individuals move from individual level (cell 1) to group level (cell 9) self-representations. In other words, the basis for flexible collaboration and coordination in assuming leadership functions then lies in the way that group norms can shape identity construction in the team context. Norms can also extend to emotions and affect, and groups that emphasize warm social relations may foster greater group identification which then leads to more shared leadership (DeRue et al., 2015).

Team member’s implicit theories are an important part of this identity adjustment process, but learning and adjusting to a group prototype are also needed for an effective shared leadership structure to emerge. As social identity theory (Hogg, 2001; van Knippenberg & Hogg, 2018) explains, identification with the group fosters reliance on group prototypes, but individual level structures are also important (Lord et al., 2019). It is important to recognize that the dynamics involved in shared leadership development also occur at the level of goals that guide specific behavioral and learning processes. Identities
constrain goal emergence (Lord et al., 2011), but actions and interpretation of task progress typically occurs at the level of task goals. Jokassari and Adriasola (2018) emphasize that both personal and social goals guide leadership identity development. We would add to their assessment the expectation that social goals would be more prominent as one moved from cells 1 to 5 to 9 in Table 1. Further, it may be the setting and successful completion of social goals that explains the micro-level dynamics in shared leadership development. Yet goal setting and pursuit are interrelated with identities. There is a top down effect, where represented levels of the self will impact the goals that are set (i.e. set goals will change as a person moves from individual to dyad level or collective levels), but also bottom up effect, where feedback from personal and social goals attainment will impact development of identity. Learning is also likely to occur in conjunction with goals setting and attainment, as specific productions are learned in conjunction with goal progress (Lord & Hall, 2005; Newell, 1990). For example, one may learn to trust the skills and values of specific dyadic partners or team members in a particular functional domain, because doing so has previously resulted in goal attainment. Such learning then builds routines for automatically sharing leadership in similar future situations.

**Dyadic-level Implications**

At the dyadic level, the interactions process becomes critical both at the level of identities and at the levels of goals. At the identity level, one adjusts identities based on transference processes (Andersen & Chen, 2002) as dyadic partners elicit specific identities and become included in one’s identity (Aron & Aron, 1986). At the goal level, significant others influence the goals we set and pursue (Shah, 2003). Consequently, motivational and emotional processes occur at the level of identities and at the level of goals as one responds...
to the situational demands of shared leadership contexts. In terms of motivation, it is the welfare of the dyad that predominates at this level, and social rather than personal strivings should predominate. In terms of emotions, we would expect that positive emotions, which are typically associated with goal achievement, would form a potent basis for dyadic development through the broaden and build processes described by Fredrickson (1998). Not all goals are easily attained, and positive emotions also can be a source of resilience when difficulties are encountered. Thus, positive dyadic (and group) emotional climates could be expected to facilitate continued development of shared leadership capacity.

A relational identity could be expected to support the motivational and emotional processes needed to flexibly respond to momentary functional demands of shared leadership. This is basically what Hooijberg (1996) describes as behavioral complexity. However, it must be supported by complexity in social and identity processes to fully address task demands for individuals (Lord et al., 2011) and teams (Hannah et al., 2011). Complexity in double interacts is one illustration of this increased complexity. In this chapter we have explained how this process occurs as identity representations change over time and as mutuality moves one from individual to dyadic levels of analysis, and then on to team levels of analysis where group identification is common. Social self-regulatory process within teams can also provide the context to foster the flexibility within dyads, as social aspects of goals are defined at dyadic or team level. Successful history of shared goals attainment can foster relational identities as well as identification with the team.

Interventions at a dyadic level might be oriented at strengthening relationships, such that healthy and positive situated identities are developed which elicit commitment and positive affect within dyads. Here a critical approach would be to promote shared goals for
dyadic members, which can lead to effective coordination, social reinforcement, and positive affect as goals are flexibly pursued. Related to this strategy would be the type of incentives that are set for dyads, as they can strengthen or weaken the level at which the identity is constructed or the affective climate of a team (DeRue et al., 2015). Interventions might also involve role playing in which roles are reversed as a way to foster alternative double interacts.

**Conclusions**

To summarize, we laid out an identity-based structural model for shared leadership in which we explain how identities and associated cognitive, motivational, and emotional processes at different identity levels can foster the emergence of shared leadership. A crucial point is that in shared leadership for each person the potential to be a leader and a follower should always be available, but which identity is manifest at a particular moment depends on the nature of active identity representations and the team context. We explored how individual identity processes provide the basis for dyadic processes to develop that can enhance or inhibit shared leadership emergence. We also explained how team identity processes become more than the addition of the parts (i.e. team member and dyads) through interactions that develop over time. Further, we showed how the focus on individual, dyadic and team processes can enrich the understanding of how shared leadership unfolds in teams. While this understanding provides future avenues to development of theory and research on shared leadership, it also informs the identity process that involve different identity representations (e.g., the rows in Table 1). Similarly, our theory extends research on identity representations to encompass their different qualities when theory and analyses focus on individuals, compared to dyads or groups.
We maintained that identity underlies leadership and followership processes, and we developed a framework that explaining the dynamic adjustments that connecting leaders undergo as they construct a leader or a follower situated identities as part of their role. This chapter provides a base to explore the complexity and dynamism of such process, as individuals represent their identity at the individual, relational or collective level, but also as they engage in processes individually, with dyadic partners and as part of relevant groups. This framework has implications for theory, research, practice and development of individuals who are expected to shift in active identities from follower to leader and, to follower again.
### TABLES

Table 1. Conceptual model for Shared Leadership Process Studies (shaded area is our emphasis)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Level of Analysis for Theory or Statistics</th>
<th>Individual</th>
<th>Dyadic</th>
<th>Collective/Team</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Individual</strong></td>
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<td>1. The self is represented as a distinct</td>
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<td>from others, but the unit for theory and</td>
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<td>analysis is the collective.</td>
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<td><strong>Relational</strong></td>
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<td>4. The self is represented in terms of</td>
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<td>role relations with specific others, but</td>
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<td>dyad.</td>
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<td>7. The self is represented as being part</td>
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<td>and analysis is the collective.</td>
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</table>

Note. Each cell represents the way the subject of analysis represents him or herself in combination with how researchers theorize and analyze this representation. Over time an individual’s self-representation can change (vertical movement in table), and this differences is independent of the way researchers theorize and analyze phenomena (horizontal differences in table). Cells 1, 5, and 9 reflect theory and analyses that are consistent with the way an individual represents the self. Cells 2, 3 and 6 reflect analyses that are at a level higher than subjects represent the self, aggregating distinct
representations; whereas Cells 4, 7 and 8 reflect analyses that are lower than the way individuals represent themselves, thus reflecting the effects of an individual’s own representation of higher level units (e.g., group).
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Level of analysis</th>
<th>Relevant definition</th>
<th>Conceptualization</th>
<th>Operationalization</th>
<th>Sample papers</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Team</td>
<td>“An emergent team property of mutual influence and shared responsibility among team members whereby they lead each other toward goal achievement” (Carson et al., 2007; Hoch &amp; Kozlowski, 2014; Pearce &amp; Conger, 2003; Wang et al., 2014) &lt;br&gt;“an emergent phenomenon in which leadership is performed collectively by multiple members of a task group” (Paunova, 2015, p. 936) &lt;br&gt;&quot;Process of influencing others and facilitating goal-related efforts, implying nothing about the number of people who perform these functions&quot; (Yukl, 2002).</td>
<td>Leadership (task and or relationship specific) behaviors shared by the team</td>
<td>Aggregation: each member’s perception about team behaviors shared by the team rather than resting on individual is aggregated</td>
<td>Wood (2005) &lt;br&gt;Avolio, Sivasubramaniam, Murry, Jung, and Garger (2003) &lt;br&gt;Pearce and Ensley (2004) &lt;br&gt;Hiller, Day, and Vance (2006)</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Influence is shared and distributed within the team</td>
<td>Social network: Density of leadership ties</td>
<td>(Carson et al., 2007; Wang et al., 2014) &lt;br&gt;Chiu, Owens, and Tesluk (2016)</td>
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<td></td>
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<td>Density and decentralization of leadership ties within a team</td>
<td>DeRue et al. (2015)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Relational (dyad)</td>
<td>&quot;A set of <em>interactive influence processes</em> in which team leadership functions are voluntarily shared among internal team members in the pursuit of team goals&quot; (Nicolaides et al., 2014)</td>
<td>Dynamically changing relationship ties claiming and granting of leadership or followership without precluding the chances of changing role while working as a team (DeRue &amp; Ashford, 2010)</td>
<td>Exchange of leader and follower role within a dyad – leadership ties change structure</td>
<td>DeRue &amp; Ashford 2010, DeRue et al. (2015)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Intra-individual</td>
<td>“Shared leadership reflects pattern where multiple group members are engaging in both leadership and followership” (DeRue, 2011, p. 135) Shared leadership can be viewed in terms of how different individuals enact leader and follower roles at different points in time. (Lord et al., 2017, p. 444)</td>
<td>Engaging on both <strong>leader and follower associated functions</strong> while interacting with others/within a dyad.</td>
<td>An individual is able to shift and engage in both leadership and followership behaviors</td>
<td>Addressed conceptually DeRue (2011) Acton et al. (2018) Sy &amp; McCoy (2014) Empirically Coluccio, Adriasola, Espejo (2019)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 3. Propositions Relating Leader/Follower Identity Dynamics to Shared Leadership Processes.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Individual level</th>
<th>Dyadic level</th>
<th>Team level</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Proposition 1.</strong> Active leader and follower individual-level self-schemas will influence the contextualized identity that is constructed, social and self-perceptions, and leader (follower) behavior.</td>
<td>Generalizes to dyad, which provides additional activation cues, structure, and history.</td>
<td>Generalizes to team levels, except that team norms become important.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Proposition 2.</strong> As one moves from individual to relational to collective identity levels (e.g., from cell 1 to cell 4 to cell 7), activation of leader or follower self-schema will also tend to change.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Proposition 3.</strong> Individual identities will stabilize as double-interacts, which involves movement to a dyadic level of analysis in which both members contribute to schema-activation and identity construction.</td>
<td>Dyads and double-interacts are affected by team identities under which they are nested.</td>
<td>Generalizes to team level, but team norms and prototypes become relevant.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Proposition 4.</strong> Relevant domains for understanding leadership and followership change as one moves from individual to relational level identities (Cells 2 to 5): Leader and follower self-schema are more critical when individual level identities predominate, but relational history and dyadic dynamics predominate when relational levels are salient.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Proposition 5.</strong> The dynamic shift of activation from a leader to a follower self-schema and vice-versa in a particular situation will depend on both leader and follower self-schemas being easily accessible at that particular situation.</td>
<td>Generalizes to dyads and teams which both provide additional structures and cues that affect schema accessibility.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Proposition 6.</strong> The probability that an individual is able to perform both leadership and followership behaviors in a specific situation or context, will depend on the capacity to dynamically shift between construction of a leader and follower self-schema in that context.</td>
<td>Generalizes to dyads and teams which both provide additional structures and cues that affect schema accessibility.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Proposition 7.</strong> The similarity of ILTs and self-schemas will promote clarity and centrality in leader identities and increase the probability that one will self-categorize as a leader and assume leadership roles; whereas similarity of IFTs and self-schemas will</td>
<td></td>
<td>Generalizes to dyads and teams which both add additional constraints on identity construction.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
promote clarity and centrality in follower identities, increasing the probability of self-categorization as followers and assuming follower roles.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>Proposition 8.</strong> Similarity in ILTs and IFTs (and leader and follower prototypes) will facilitate integration between leader and follower self-schema, allowing flexible shifting between these schemas.</th>
<th>Generalizes to dyads and teams which both affect identity construction through transference from dyadic partner or salient aspects of group prototypes.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Proposition 9.</strong> Shared leadership and collective identities will promote ILT and self-schema congruence, clarifying leadership roles, and fostering development of leadership identities in a larger proportion of group members than in hierarchical leadership situations.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Proposition 10.</strong> Expertise and use of principled knowledge by leaders will reduce working-memory demands and increase the extent to which their leader and follower self-schema are both easily accessible. Thus, the likelihood of being able to shift easily between competing schema should be higher for experts than novices.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. Columns indicate levels of analysis for which proposition applies.
FIGURES

Figure 1. Individual level interplay between leader and follower self-schema activation

[Diagram showing the interplay between leader and follower self-schemas with leader behaviors and follower behaviors, under two scenarios: No Shared Leadership and Shared Leadership.]

Leader-Follower identity dynamics and shared leadership
Figure 2. Multilevel nature of shared leadership


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From a leader and a follower to shared leadership: An identity-based structural model for shared leadership emergence

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In this chapter, we develop an identity-based structural model to understand how identity processes at the individual, dyadic, and team level can partially explain shared leadership emergence. We differentiate between the level at which an identity is represented (individual, relational, collective) and levels of analysis (individual, dyadic, collective) to explain how interrelated identities provide a structure for shared leadership. Using this framework, we focus mainly on individual and dyadic processes to explore how team members’ identity composition (i.e., leader and follower) and the processes regarding individual self can affect (and be affected by) dyadic and team-level processes and partially explain shared leadership emergence. Throughout this chapter we address the dynamic and process-oriented role of identity as it becomes contextualized, and how cognitive, motivational and learning processes impact the team, the dyad, and the individual. This chapter provides a rich perspective for understanding shared leadership in its complexity, and it develops a framework that can help organize theory and research, particularly that which explains the connection between seeing oneself as a leader and as a follower.

Shared leadership, Leader identity, Follower identity, Multilevel