To the Graduate Council:

I am submitting herewith a dissertation written by Denise Roper Campbell entitled "An investigation of the relationship between self-monitoring and leader effectiveness." I have examined the final copy of this dissertation for form and content and recommend that it be accepted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy, with a major in Industrial and Organizational Psychology.

Dr. Gregory H. Dobbins, Major Professor

We have read this dissertation
and recommend its acceptance:

Accepted for the Council:

Associate Vice Chancellor
and Dean of The Graduate School

AN INVESTIGATION OF THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN SELF-MONITORING AND LEADER EFFECTIVENESS

A Dissertation

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Doctor of Philosophy

Degree

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Denise Roper Campbell

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DEDICATION

This dissertation is dedicated to my father, William Ray Roper.
I wish he had lived to celebrate this achievement with me.
He is loved and missed very much.

Also, to my mother, Doris Smith Roper,
for her love, encouragement, and support.
I cannot recall a time when she did not put the
needs and wants of her children above her own.

Finally, to my husband, Christopther Marion Campbell,
for his loving patience and understanding through it all.

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ABSTRACT

The present study was conducted to investigate the relationship between self-monitoring and leader effectiveness. Several surrogate measures of leader effectiveness were used including: subordinate organizational commitment, overall job satisfaction, satisfaction with supervision, intention to turnover, organizational citizenship behavior, and leader performance ratings. The study was conducted in a retail setting. The sample consisted of fifteen store managers, 116 department supervisors, and 597 sales associates. The results of the study did not support a relationship between self-monitoring and leader effectiveness. This study also examined task structure as a potential moderator of the relationship between self-monitoring and effectiveness. It was predicted that situations low in structure would present more opportunities for high self-monitors to engage in impression management and subsequently influence outcome measures. However, this prediction was not supported.

Impression management, leadership categorization processes, and leader behavior were investigated as potential mediators of the relationship between self-monitoring and outcome variables. However, self-monitoring was not associated with the mediators or the outcome measures. Therefore, Hypothesis 3 was not supported.

The results of this study suggest that it may be difficult to assess self-monitoring in applied settings using self-report measures. A primary difficulty associated with the use of this scale in applied settings is social desirability. In an organizational setting where the results may have future

implications, respondents may be more likely to respond in socially desirable ways than are subjects in a laboratory setting. It may be difficult for individuals to accurately self-assess their own self-monitoring abilities. In addition, there has been considerable controversy surrounding the meaning of the self-monitoring construct. Critics argue that the construct is vague, making it impossible to evaluate whether any scale is valid. Before additional research in this area is conducted, a re-analysis of the self-monitoring construct is needed. The core propositions of the construct must be clearly identified in order to develop more useful measures. Future measures that assess behavior directly may be more useful for assessing self-monitoring as they would avoid the problem of social desirability in ratings.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

The topic of leadership has been researched extensively during the past 50 years. Researchers have tried to identify the factors that predict leader emergence and effectiveness. Early research in this area was dominated by the trait approach. Researchers theorized that personal attributes or traits predicted leadership effectiveness. Characteristics such as intelligence, dominance, adjustment, and masculinity-femininity were frequently examined. Despite the intuitive appeal of the trait approach, hundreds of studies failed to support it. Traditional reviews of the literature emphasize the failure to find strong and consistent support for any particular trait that distinguishes leaders from non-leaders (Jenkins, 1947; Stogdill, 1948; Mann, 1959; Geier, 1967).

Some examinations of the trait approach, however, have been more optimistic. For instance, Bell and French (1950) reported that leadership ratings were highly consistent even when group composition was varied. Borgatta, Couch, and Bales (1954) also examined the stability with which men were chosen to assume leadership positions across groups. They found that certain individuals consistently emerged as leaders. Carter and Nixon (1949) examined leader emergence using consistent group membership but varying group tasks. They reported leadership to be stable across different tasks. While the previous studies found support for cross-situational consistency in leadership, Barnlund (1962) was the only

researcher to examine leadership consistency when both group membership and tasks changed. He concluded that leadership is not a stable trait rather it is "dependent upon situational variables" (p. 52). Kenny and Zaccaro (1983), however, questioned the accuracy of Barnlund's analyses. They re-analyzed this data using the social relations model (Kenny, 1981). Based on their analyses, they estimated that 49% to 82% of leadership variance can be attributed to a stable personality characteristic of the emergent leader. In addition, Lord, De Vader, and Alliger (1986) reexamined the relationship between personality traits and leader emergence. They concluded that "personality traits are associated with leadership perceptions to a higher degree and more consistently than the popular literature indicates" (p. 407). These studies provide evidence suggesting that consistency in leadership emergence may be attributable to a stable trait.

Recently, researchers have proposed that the characteristics associated with leader emergence may be the abilities to perceive situational differences and modify behavior accordingly (Hollander, 1964; Garland & Beard, 1979; Kenny & Zaccaro, 1983). Kenny and Zaccaro (1983) posit that

> persons who are consistently cast in the leadership role possess the ability to perceive and predict variations in group situations and pattern their own approaches accordingly. Such leaders may be highly competent in reading the needs of their constituencies and altering their behaviors to more effectively respond to these needs (p. 683).

The abilities described above are highly consistent with the personality construct called self-monitoring (Snyder, 1974). Snyder (1974) identified the construct of self-monitoring as an individual propensity to

"monitor (observe, regulate, and control) the public appearance of self they display in social situations and interpersonal relationships" (pp. 4-5). Evidence indicates that people differ in the extent to which they are attentive and responsive to situational cues as guides to appropriate behavior (Snyder, 1987). High self-monitors (HSMs) modify their behavior as a response to social observation and evaluation in order to maximize their presentation of self. They are motivated by a need to make a positive impression on others while low self-monitors (LSMs) generally strive to act consistently with their own beliefs and attitudes (Snyder, 1987). LSMs are less motivated to modify their behavior across situations because they have little concern about the reactions of others. High self-monitors are more socially sensitive (Dabbs, Evans, Hopper, & Purvise, 1980; Geizer, Rarick, & Soldow, 1977; Synder & Monson, 1975) and are better at modifying their behavior to make it consistent with social demands of situations even when these behaviors are not entirely consistent with their inner dispositions (Lippa, 1976; Snyder, 1974; Tobey & Tunnell, 1981). High self-monitors are typically skilled at controlling their verbal and nonverbal expressions. They are skilled at using impression management to optimize their self-presentation across a variety of situations (Lippa, 1978). Low self-monitors, on the other hand, tend to be less sensitive to social cues (Snyder & Monson, 1975) and their behavior is more strongly related to their internal feelings, beliefs, and attitudes even at the risk of possible social impropriety (Adjzen, Timko, & White, 1982; Snyder, 1987).

Self-monitoring propensities also influence the way individuals interact with others. High self-monitors try to appear friendly, outgoing,

and extroverted in order to win the trust and friendship of others (Lippa, 1978). They are more likely to initiate conversation and initiate subsequent conversation (Ickes & Barnes, 1977). In addition, high self-monitors tend to exert more control over the direction of their conversations than do low self-monitors. Riggio, Friedman, and DiMatteo (1981) reported that high self-monitors are very skilled at conveying an immediate sense of intimacy with strangers. They are also better at reciprocating the intimacy, emotionality, and descriptive content of other people's self-disclosures than are low self-monitors (Shaffer, Smith, & Tomarelli, 1982). Friedman, Riggio, and Cassella (1988) reported that self-monitoring ability is significantly related to how well individuals are liked in initial social encounters with others. High self-monitors use plural pronouns, such as us and we, more frequently and singular pronouns, such as I and me, less frequently than do low self-monitors (Snyder, 1987). Caldwell and O'Reilly (1982) found that HSMs are more likely to manipulate information than are LSMs. They engage in information manipulation as a means of controlling impressions of a situation. Sypher and Sypher (1983) reported that high self-monitors rate themselves more highly on persuasive and communication skills than do low self-monitors.

Recent investigations in the area of leadership have examined the relationship between self-monitoring and leader emergence. Garland and Beard (1979) studied the effect of self-monitoring on leader emergence across two different tasks. The results of their study supported the idea that high self-monitors emerge as leaders more frequently than do low self-monitors. However, this finding only applied to female leaders. Ellis,

Adamson, Deszca, and Cawsey (1988) examined the relationship between self-monitoring and leader emergence in a long-term field study of natural groups. The results of this study strongly supported the proposition that self-monitoring is related to leader emergence. Ellis (1988) examined the relationship between self-monitoring and leader emergence and leadership behavior. He reported that self-monitoring is strongly associated with leader emergence and initiating structure behavior. Dobbins, Long, Dedrick, and Clemons (1990) conducted a laboratory and field study to determine the role of self-monitoring and gender on leader emergence. They found that "high self-monitors emerged as leaders, exerted more influence on group decisions, and initiated more structure than did low-self-monitors" (p. 615). Zaccaro, Foti, and Kenny (1991) conducted a study to examine self-monitoring as the trait that enables individuals to perceive group requirements and select appropriate responses to these demands. The results of this study indicated that self-monitoring is associated with leadership ratings and that leader emergence appears stable across group situations. Furthermore, they reported that high self-monitors display more behavioral flexibility than do low self-monitors. They concluded that high self-monitors are more likely to emerge as leaders than low self-monitors because they are able to perceive the needs of their group and modify their behavior to meet these needs. These studies provide consistent support for the proposal that self-monitoring predicts leader emergence.

The first purpose of this research is to investigate the relationship between leader self-monitoring and leader effectiveness. Research indicates that HSMs tend to emerge as leaders more often than LSMs.

However, this finding does not imply that HSMs are more effective than low self-monitors once in these positions. Few studies have examined the relationship between self-monitoring and leader effectiveness. Seites and Anderson reported better task performance from groups with emergent HSM leaders than groups with emergent LSM leaders (cited in Anderson and McLenigan, 1987). Anderson and McLenigan (1987) reported that self-monitoring is correlated with task-oriented behavior for female leaders. These findings suggest the potential importance of self-monitoring in predicting leader effectiveness. Since HSMs are sensitive to social cues and modify their behavior to make it consistent with the situation, it is predicted that HSM leaders will receive higher performance ratings from their supervisors than will LSM leaders. In addition, it is expected that subordinates of HSM leaders will report more positive outcomes in terms of satisfaction with leadership, commitment to the organization, and intention to turnover.

While there may be a general relationship between self-monitoring and leader effectiveness, there are situations in which leader self-monitoring could be expected to have minimal impact on effectiveness. Specifically, the extent to which leader effectiveness is influenced by self-monitoring may vary with the nature of the task. Task structure refers to the extent to which a task is highly defined versus ambiguous. It has been argued that impression management as a social influence process is most likely to occur and be effective in situations that are characterized by high uncertainty or ambiguity (Ferris, Russ, & Fandt, 1989; Dedrick & Dobbins, 1991). Unstructured tasks may provide more opportunities for leaders to

engage in impression management than do highly defined tasks. In ambiguous situations, specific behaviors necessary for good performance are largely undefined. Thus, impression management tactics may be used to impact effectiveness. In highly structured situations, the need to possess technical knowledge nullifies the importance of impression management skills. Hence, it is expected that task structure will moderate the relationship between self-monitoring and leader effectiveness.

Factors Mediating the Relationship Between Leader Self-monitoring and Effectiveness

Recent research suggests the relationship between self-monitoring and leader emergence may be mediated by certain behavioral processes. However, the actual behaviors that mediate the effects of self-monitoring on leader emergence and effectiveness are largely unknown. This study will investigate several behavioral processes that may mediate the relationship between self-monitoring and leader effectiveness. Impression management tactics, leadership categorization processes, and leader behavior will be examined as mediators of the effects of self-monitoring on leadership effectiveness.

Impression Management

Leaders have long recognized the importance of their public images in the effective exercise of leadership (Leary, 1989). Caine (1976) said, "the ability to establish one's credibility and suitability for the role of leader is

critical to the formation of working relationships that will facilitate goal achievement and ascriptions of effectiveness" (pp. 2-3). Most leaders recognize that subordinates' impressions of them have implications for their effectiveness (Korda, 1975). The use of impression management strategies is particularly important in situations where the leader's position is not firmly established, when the leader's capabilities are unknown, or when the leader doesn't have unilateral decision-making authority (Leary & Schleker, 1980; Leary, 1978). Leaders also tend to engage in impression management when they believe their strengths do not match the situation or when they feel they lack a needed skill (Leary, Robertson, Barnes, & Miller, 1986). This research suggests that leaders can use impression management tactics to achieve a number of desirable outcomes.

Self-monitoring may predict the tendency to engage in impression management behavior. High self-monitors tend to be concerned about their self-presentations to others. Consequently, high self-monitors should engage in impression management strategies more frequently than do low self-monitors. The use of these impression management strategies assists a leader in presenting ideas, attitudes, and behaviors in a favorable manner and increases the possibility of a positive reaction from subordinates. Thus, it is predicted that high self-monitoring leaders use impression management strategies more frequently than low self monitors as a means of positively influencing others' evaluations of their effectiveness.

Leadership Categorization

Researchers in the area of cognition and perception have identified mental categories that represent groups of people. These categories or cognitive prototypes are defined by the attributes most typical of category members. Individuals classify particular people into these categories to the extent that they match the relevant prototype. Research has shown that people widely share beliefs about leader behaviors and traits (Eden & Leviatan, 1975; Lord et al., 1984; Rush, Thomas, & Lord, 1977; Weiss & Adler, 1981). Hollander and Julian (1969) argued that leaders often emerge because they fit the leader prototype held by followers. Being categorized as a leader is important because it allows one to exert greater influence and to foster subordinate commitment to an organization (Foti, Fraser, & Lord, 1982; Pfeffer, 1981). Since self-monitoring relates to one's sensitivity to the social and situational cues, HSMs may be more sensitive to subordinates' leader prototypes. As a result, HSM leaders may be able to exhibit behaviors that cause observers to categorize them as leaders. It is predicted that high self-monitoring leaders will be perceived as fitting the leader prototype better than low self-monitoring leaders and will subsequently receive more positive evaluations in terms of effectiveness.

Leadership Behavior

Several studies have documented the importance of leadership behavior in determining leader emergence. For example, Dobbins et al. (1990) reported that self-monitoring predicted leader emergence. Initiating structure also predicted leader emergence. However, while self-monitoring

predicted emergence, it did not account for any additional variance in leader emergence above and beyond initiating structure and consideration behavior. This finding suggests that self-monitoring affected leader emergence indirectly through leader behavior. In addition, Ellis (1988) reported a significant relationship between self-monitoring and initiating structure behavior. Hence, leader behavior will also be assessed as a potential mediator of the relationship between self-monitoring and leader effectiveness.

In conclusion, recent reviews of research in the area of leadership indicate that individual traits may be more strongly related to leader emergence than is commonly believed. It has been suggested that the ability to perceive situational requirements and to respond with appropriate behavior are critical to leader emergence. Self-monitoring is one construct that reflects these leader characteristics. Recent research provides evidence that high self-monitors tend to emerge as leaders more frequently than low self-monitors. Research suggests that self-monitoring may be more important to leader emergence when a group's task is ambiguous than when it is well defined. Finally, the effect of self-monitoring on leader effectiveness may be mediated through impression management tactics, leadership categorization processes, and leader behavior.

The present study examined the influence of leader self-monitoring on leader effectiveness as measured by leader performance, subordinate intention to turnover, satisfaction with leadership, and organizational commitment. In addition, it was predicted that task structure would moderate the relationship between leader self-monitoring and leader

effectiveness. Finally, three potential mediators of the relationship between self-monitoring on leader effectiveness were explored.

The present study is the first to investigate the relationship between leader self-monitoring and leader effectiveness. This study will also help identify the actual mechanisms through which self-monitoring impacts leader emergence and effectiveness. Figure 1.1 illustrates the proposed relationships that will be investigated in this study.

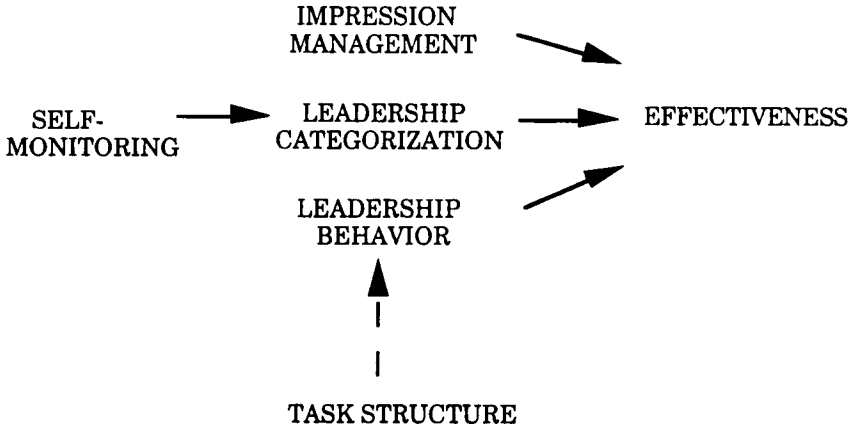

Figure 1.1 Relationships between leader self-monitoring and leader effectiveness with mediating and moderating variables.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

This chapter provides a brief review of the traditional leadership research. Evidence is discussed that suggests the trait approach to leadership may have been prematurely dismissed as a theory regarding leader emergence. Past research indicates that a critical factor predictive of leader emergence may be the ability to perceive situational differences and to respond with appropriate behavior. A number of studies have demonstrated that self-monitoring may be one individual difference variable that determines these abilities. The relationship between self-monitoring and leader effectiveness will be examined. Finally, some hypotheses are made regarding factors that may moderate and mediate the effect of self-monitoring on leader effectiveness.

Contributions of Traditional Leadership Research

Early research in the area of leader emergence was dominated by the trait approach. It was widely believed that certain individual characteristics would differentiate leaders from non-leaders. Researchers tried to identify the specific factors that would predict leader emergence and effectiveness. Two major types of studies were used to evaluate the trait approach. The first type of study attempted to identify leadership traits. Characteristics such as intelligence, dominance, adjustment, and

masculinity-femininity were frequently examined. Hundreds of studies were conducted in an effort to identify the leadership trait. The results, however, were not clearly supportive of the trait approach. Reviews of the literature tend to emphasize the failure to find consistent support for any particular leadership trait. Most reviews concluded that "no single trait or group of characteristics has been isolated which set off the leader from the members of his group" (Jenkins, 1947, pp. 74-75).

Nevertheless, certain traits were found to be consistently correlated with leadership. Stogdill (1948) reviewed studies conducted between 1904 and 1947 that examined physical characteristics or personality traits that differentiate leaders from non-leaders. He reported a significant positive correlation between intelligence and leadership in 23 of 33 studies. Mann (1959) echoed support for this finding in his review, but cast doubt on the strength of this relationship by reporting a median correlation of .25. Dominance and personality adjustment are two other traits that have received substantial support. Gibb (1969) and Stogdill (1948) reported that a number of studies indicated that leaders have higher dominance scores than non-leaders. However, Mann (1959) again questioned the strength of this relationship by reporting a median correlation of .20 between dominance and leadership and a median correlation of .15 between personality adjustment and leadership. All major reviews of the leadership literature conclude that research has failed to identify a strong trait or group of traits that could reliably predict leader emergence.

Because of the disappointing results of the trait studies, many researchers began using the second type of design, the rotation study, as an

alternate method of testing the trait theory. The rotation designs are based on the idea that if leadership is a function of personal traits, then the same person will emerge as a leader across situations. However, if leadership is a function of the situation or an interaction of the person and the situation, then different members will emerge as the leader as the situation changes. Three rotation designs have been used in past research. The first type of rotational study holds the task constant, but varies group membership. The second type of study varies the task, but keeps group membership constant. The third type of rotation study varies both group membership and task over a series of sessions. With each of these schemes, the critical factor is the relationship of leadership rank across sessions.

Bell and French (1950) employed the first type of rotational scheme in which they varied only group membership to study leader emergence. They found an average correlation of .75 between average leadership rank and mean status score in five other groups. This finding lead to the conclusion that leadership ratings are highly consistent even when group composition was varied and "recent trends toward emphasis upon situational factors in leadership may require reevaluation" (Bell & French, 1950, p. 767). Borgatta, Couch, and Bales (1954) also examined leadership stability across changing group membership. They used three-member groups who planned a future role play session. Eleven leaders were identified in the first session. In subsequent sessions, eight of those eleven leaders remained in the leadership role. Thus, they concluded that leadership was constant over changing groups. However, because the task was not varied, it is possible

that the same people emerged in the leadership role because they possessed a particular skill for that task.

Carter and Nixon (1949) examined leader emergence using consistent group membership, but varying group tasks. They had the same dyads work on three different types of tasks. They reported leadership to be stable across the different tasks. While these studies provide some support for the trait approach, both designs are contaminated. When the task is held constant, but group membership changes, leader emergence may be a function of task competence. When group membership is constant, but the task changes, leader emergence may be due to a history effect. The person who emerges as the leader in the first task is likely to remain in this position across subsequent tasks. Hence, the most complete test of this theory involves varying both task and group composition. Barnlund (1962) conducted a study in which both of these factors were varied. Barnlund had 25 subjects work in groups of four on six different tasks. The tasks were highly varied so that each would require a different type of skill. At the conclusion of each session, members rank ordered their preferences for a leader. Barnlund found a .64 correlation between average leadership rank and mean status score across the six sessions. He determined this correlation to be statistically non-significant and concluded that his data supported "the idea that leadership grows out of the special problems of coordination facing a given group and the available talent of the participants" (p. 51). This study was interpreted as providing convincing evidence against the trait approach since it examined leadership stability while varying both task and group composition.

Kenny and Zaccaro (1983) re-analyzed Barnlund's 1962 data using the Social Relations Model (Kenny, 1981). They asserted that this method would provide a more accurate estimate of leadership stability than the qualitative method used by Barnlund. Based on their re-analysis of Barnlund's data, they estimated that 49% to 82% of leadership variance can be attributed to a stable personality characteristic of the emergent leader. They concluded that leadership is much more stable than traditional reviews of the literature would suggest. In addition, a meta-analysis of past research on the relationship between personality traits and leader emergence by Lord, De Vader, and Alliger (1986) led them to conclude that "personality traits are associated with leadership perceptions to a higher degree and more consistently than the popular literature indicates" (p. 407). These studies provide evidence indicating that consistency in leadership emergence may be attributable to a stable trait.

It has been suggested that studies have failed to find a leadership trait because researchers have over-looked some significant aspect of personality in their research on leader emergence. Exchange theorists argued that those who emerge in leadership positions do so because of their ability to react appropriately to group members (Blau, 1964; Emerson, 1962; Thibaut & Kelly, 1959). Hollander (1964) suggests that social perceptiveness and modifiable behavior are the two characteristics that enable an individual to emerge in leadership roles. Kenny and Zaccaro (1983) posit that

> persons who are consistently cast in the leadership role possess the ability to perceive and predict variations in group situations and pattern their own approaches accordingly. Such leaders may be highly competent in reading the needs of their constituencies and altering their behaviors to more effectively respond to these needs (p. 683).

Self-monitoring as a Leadership Trait

The personality theory called self-monitoring offers a new perspective on past leadership research (Snyder, 1974). Snyder (1974) identified the construct of self-monitoring as an individual's tendency to engage in successful impression management. People who are attentive and responsive to situational cues as guides to appropriate behavior are called high self-monitors while people lacking these abilities are called low self-monitors (Snyder, 1987). The nature of the self-monitoring construct can best be understood by examining the differences between high and low self-monitors.

High self-monitors (HSMs) modify their behavior in response to social observation and evaluation in order to maximize their presentation of self. They are motivated by a need to convey a positive image to others. High self-monitors are more socially sensitive (Dabbs, Evans, Hopper, and Purvise, 1980; Geizer, Rarick, & Soldow, 1977; Synder & Monson, 1975) and are better at modifying their behavior to make it consistent with social demands of situations than are low self-monitors (Lippa, 1976; Snyder, 1974; Tobey & Tunnell, 1981). High self-monitors are typically skilled at controlling their verbal and nonverbal expressions to optimize their self-presentation across a variety of situations (Lippa, 1978). Research has

indicated that HSMs search for information about people they are going to meet in order to optimize their self-presentation (Berger & Douglas, 1981).

In contrast, low self-monitors tend to be less sensitive to social cues (Snyder & Monson, 1975) and their behavior is more strongly related to their internal feelings, beliefs, and attitudes (Adjzen, Timko, & White, 1982; Snyder, 1987). LSMs are less motivated to modify their behavior across situations because they are not as concerned about the reactions of others. As a result, the social behavior of LSMs tends to be more predictable than the social behavior of HSMs since it is not situation-dependent.

Research has also documented the difference in the social interactions of high and low self-monitors. For example, high self-monitors try to appear friendly, outgoing, and extroverted in order to win the trust and friendship of others (Lippa, 1978). Ickes and Barnes (1977) reported that HSMs are more likely to start initial and subsequent conversations when meeting strangers than are LSMs. In addition, high self-monitors tend to exert more control over the direction of their conversations than do low self-monitors. Likewise, Sypher and Sypher (1983) reported that high self-monitors rate themselves more highly on persuasive and communication skills than do low self-monitors. They are also better at reciprocating the intimacy, emotionality, and descriptive content of other people's self-disclosures than are low self-monitors (Shaffer, Smith, & Tomarelli, 1981). Riggio, Friedman & DiMatteo (1981) reported that high self-monitors are very skilled at conveying an immediate sense of intimacy with strangers. Friedman, Riggio, and Cassella (1988) reported that self-monitoring ability is significantly related to how well individuals are liked

in initial social encounters with others. Caldwell and O'Reilly (1982) found that HSMs are more likely to manipulate information than are LSMs. They engage in information manipulation as a means of controlling impressions of a situation.

To summarize, it appears that a person's ability to control the image he presents is directly related to his self-monitoring skills. The self-monitoring research seems to suggest that high self-monitoring individuals should be more sensitive and responsive to social cues regarding the appropriateness of their behavior than low self-monitoring individuals. Furthermore, high self-monitoring individuals may use verbal and nonverbal impression management tactics to influence others' perceptions of them. Hence, it seems likely that self-monitoring may influence leader effectiveness. Several researchers have studied such a possibility.

The Relationship Between Self-monitoring and Leader Emergence

Recent investigations in the area of leadership have documented the relationship between self-monitoring and leader emergence. Garland and Beard (1979) examined the effect of self-monitoring on leader emergence across two different group tasks. Subjects were assigned to same-sex, three-person groups and participated in either a modified brainstorming task or an anagrams task. Subjects completed the Self-Monitoring Scale (Snyder, 1974) prior to their group participation. The results of their study supported the idea that high self-monitors emerge as leaders more

frequently than do low self-monitors. However, this finding only applied to female leaders in the modified brainstorming task. The relationship between self-monitoring and leader emergence in the anagrams task was statistically non-significant for both males and females. One shortcoming of this study is the manner in which groups were formed. A more powerful test of the hypotheses could have been achieved by pre-selecting group members based on self-monitoring scores so the differences between members could have been maximized. As a result of the random assignment procedure, many groups had members with very similar self-monitoring scores.

Ellis, Adamson, Deszca, and Cawsey (1988) examined the relationship between self-monitoring and leader emergence using third year business students who worked in mixed-sex groups of six to seven members for a four-month term. These groups participated in a wide variety of tasks during this time. The results of this study strongly supported the hypothesis that self-monitoring is related to leader emergence. Unlike the results of the Beard and Garland (1979) study, this finding applied to both males and females. Ellis et al. (1988) suggested that differences in the nature of the tasks and the samples may account for the divergent results. Nevertheless, both studies provide support for the notion that self-monitoring is related to leader emergence.

Ellis (1988) examined the relationship between self-monitoring and general leadership impressions and leader behavior. Again, his subjects were third-year business students who participated in mixed-sex groups for a duration of four months. He found that self-monitoring was strongly

associated with leader emergence and initiating structure behavior. He also reported this relationship to be particularly strong for the Revised Self-Monitoring Scale (Lennox & Wolfe, 1984). Since the Revised Self-Monitoring Scale focuses on the dimensions of (a) ability to modify self-presentation and (b) sensitivity to expressive behavior of others, the previous finding appears to support Kenny and Zaccaro's (1983) proposal that individuals are cast into leadership roles because they are able to perceive situational differences and modify their behavior to fit the need.

Dobbins, Long, Dedrick, and Clemons (1990) conducted a laboratory and field study to determine the role of self-monitoring and gender in leader emergence. In the first study, 60 male and 60 female students were assigned to four-person groups. Each group had one HSM male, one HSM female, one LSM male, and one LSM female. The groups were asked to solve a salary allocation problem. Following the problem solving activity, subjects were asked to rate the extent to which they would like each group member to serve as the leader. They also nominated one person to serve as the leader of the group. Subjects also rated each member's initiating structure and consideration behavior. Correlations between individual salary allocations and the group's consensus allocation were calculated as a measure of the individual's influence in the group. Dobbins et. al. (1990) found that "high self-monitors emerged as leaders, exerted more influence on group decisions, and initiated more structure than did low-self-monitors" (p. 615). However, the actual mechanism through which self-monitoring operates to influence leader emergence was not clear. They suggested that HSMs are more likely to emerge as leaders because they are

perceived as initiating more structure than LSMs. However, another alternative is that HSMs were nominated as leaders because they were sensitive to the group members' leader prototype and engaged in behaviors that resulted in their categorization as leaders. Study two was a partial replication of study one using members of social organizations at a large southeastern university. The results of study two supported the hypothesis that self-monitoring predicts leader emergence. The results of these studies also suggest that Kenny and Zaccaro (1983) may have been correct in suggesting that self-monitoring is a leadership trait.

While the previous studies examined the relationship between self-monitoring and leader emergence, they failed to vary actual group situations. Thus, Zaccaro, Foti, and Kenny (1991) extended these investigations by adding a rotation design experiment. They conducted a study in which subjects participated in twelve separate rotations working on four different group tasks. Each task required a different primary behavioral style, and group composition was varied with each task. The purpose of their study was to examine the relationship between perceived leader status across different group situations and individual sensitivity to social demands. Zaccaro et al. (1991) hypothesized that HSM members are more adept than LSM members at perceiving group requirements and responding appropriately to these demands resulting in leader emergence. They found that leaders were more likely than non-leaders to display task-relevant behavior for two of four group tasks. In addition, self-monitoring was significantly correlated with leadership rankings. These results indicated that leader emergence is stable across group situations and can

be attributed to individual characteristics. They concluded that high self-monitors are more likely to emerge as leaders than low self-monitors because they are able to perceive the needs of their group and modify their behavior to meet these needs. These studies provide consistent support for the proposal that self-monitoring predicts leader emergence.

The Relationship Between Self-monitoring and Leader Effectiveness

The research cited above indicates that self-monitoring predicts leader emergence. Evidence suggests that HSMs tend to emerge as leaders more often than LSMs because they are sensitive to the needs of the group and are able to modify their behavior to satisfy these needs (Zaccaro, et al., 1990). It is proposed that HSMs may be more effective than LSM leaders because they are able to recognize the requirements for attaining group goals and display the required behaviors. Numerous leadership theories propose that the ability to accurately perceive subordinate needs is critical for leadership effectiveness (e.g. Path-Goal, Vroom-Yetton, and Situational Leadership). Limited research has been conducted to address the relationship between self-monitoring and effectiveness. Seites and Anderson investigated the relationship between self-monitoring and group performance (cited in Anderson and McLenigan, 1987). They reported somewhat better task performance from groups with emergent HSM leaders than groups with LSM leaders. Anderson and McLenigan (1987) examined the relationship between self-monitoring and leader effectiveness in a laboratory study using a consensus exercise. Results from this study

indicated that self-monitoring was correlated with task oriented behavior and effectiveness for female leaders. These findings suggest the potential importance of self-monitoring for predicting leader effectiveness in addition to predicting leader emergence.

The first purpose of this research is to investigate the relationship between leader self-monitoring and leader effectiveness. Since high self-monitors should be more sensitive to the needs of subordinates and modify their behavior to meet these needs, it is predicted that HSM leaders will receive better performance ratings from their supervisors than will LSM leaders. In addition, enhanced leader effectiveness as a function of self-monitoring should be reflected by more positive outcomes in the areas of subordinate overall job satisfaction, satisfaction with leadership, commitment to the organization, intention to turnover, and organizational citizenship behavior.

Ambiguous Versus Highly Structured Tasks

While there may be a general relationship between self-monitoring and leader effectiveness, there are situations in which leader behaviors could be expected to have minimal impact on leader effectiveness. Specifically, the extent to which leader effectiveness is influenced by leader self-monitoring may vary as a function of task structure. Task structure refers to the extent to which a task is highly defined versus ambiguous. It has been argued that impression management as a social influence process is most likely to occur and be effective in situations that are

characterized by high uncertainty or ambiguity (Ferris, Russ, & Fandt, 1989; Dedrick, 1992). Unstructured tasks provide more opportunities for leaders to engage in impression management than do highly defined tasks because specific behaviors necessary for good performance are ambiguous. In highly structured situations, the need to possess technical knowledge may nullify the importance of self-monitoring skills. In these situations the group might be expected to choose their best performer as leader (Hollander, 1964).

Garland and Beard (1979) examined the relationship between self-monitoring and leader emergence across two tasks. They proposed that the effects of self-monitoring would depend on the nature of the group's task. When the task emphasized discussion and task competence was difficult to assess, HSM emerged as the leader. Such situations provided the opportunity to clarify expectations and to modify one's self-presentation in light of these demands. However, when task competence was clear, task performance determined leader emergence. Hence, it is expected that self-monitoring will be more strongly related to leader effectiveness when the task is ambiguous than when it is highly structured.

Factors Mediating the Relationship Between Self-monitoring and Leader Effectiveness

Recent research has documented the relationship between self-monitoring and leader emergence. Yet, the actual mechanisms through which self-monitoring affects leader effectiveness are largely unknown.

Research suggests that self-monitoring may affect leader effectiveness indirectly through certain behaviors. This study will examine three behavioral processes that may mediate the effect of self-monitoring on leader effectiveness. Specifically, impression management tactics, leadership categorization processes, and leadership behavior will be examined as potential mediators.

Impression Management

Researchers in the field of social psychology have defined impression management as "any behavior by a person that has the purpose of controlling or manipulating the attributions and impressions formed of that person by others" (Tedeschi & Reiss, 1981, p. 3). In addition, impression management includes behaviors initiated by an individual to establish an identity or to influence others' attributions of that individual's disposition (Jones & Pittman, 1982). There are many impression management tactics that may be used to make the desired impressions on others.

Most leaders recognize that subordinates' impressions of them have implications for their effectiveness (Korda, 1975). Jones and Pittman (1982) identified four self-presentation strategies that are particularly important to leaders. The use of these strategies helps leaders establish perceptions of competence, increase attractiveness, illustrate moral worthiness, and show ability to intimidate. The use of these strategies to establish public images is important to the effective exercise of leadership (Leary, 1989). In situations where the leader's position is not firmly established, when the leader's capabilities are unknown, or when the leader doesn't have

unilateral decision-making authority, the use of impression management strategies becomes particularly important (Leary & Schleker, 1980; Leary, 1978). Impression management tactics are also critical when leaders believe their strengths do not match the situation or when they feel they lack a skill required by the situation (Leary, Robertson, Barnes, & Miller, 1986). Caine (1976) said, "the ability to establish one's credibility and suitability for the role of leader is critical to the formation of working relationships that will facilitate goal achievement and ascriptions of effectiveness" (pp. 2-3).

The research described above suggests that leaders can use impression management tactics to enhance followers' perceptions of a leader. In addition, high self-monitors tend to engage in impression management more than low self-monitors (Lippa, 1978). Hence, the self-monitoring-leader effectiveness relationship may be mediated by leader impression management. Specifically, high self-monitors should use more impression management strategies than low self-monitors and these impression management behaviors should result in higher levels of effectiveness.

Leadership Categorization

Categorization theory asserts that people have mental categories defined by characteristics or attributes typical of category members. The prototype represents the set of characteristics possessed by most category members. When individuals display characteristics or behaviors that match a prototype, they are mentally labeled as a member of that category.

Research has shown that people widely share beliefs about leader behaviors and traits (Eden & Leviatan, 1975; Lord et al., 1984; Rush, Thomas, & Lord, 1977; Weiss & Adler, 1981).

Hollander and Julian (1969) argued that leaders often emerge because they fit the leader prototype held by followers. Work by Foti, Fraser, and Lord (1982) and Cronshaw and Lord (1987) demonstrates that categorization is a central process in forming leadership perceptions and making behavioral ratings. Cronshaw and Lord (1987) suggest that

> some individuals are particularly good fits to leadership prototypes, [and] they are automatically recognized as leaders. This would increase their social power and imply that they were causally important in producing good outcomes. This, in turn, could affect the quality of superior-subordinate exchanges....Alternatively, individuals who do not fit leadership prototypes may have difficulty in influencing subordinates and may not be given proper credit by superiors for good work outcomes for which they are responsible (pp. 104-105).

Zaccaro et al. (1991) suggest that while the leader's contributions may vary with task demands, it is possible that group member perceptions may be as important as actual leader behaviors in predicting leader emergence. As indicated earlier, self-monitoring refers to one's sensitivity to the social and situational cues. HSMs may be more sensitive to subordinates' leader prototypes. As a result, HSMs may exhibit behaviors that cause observers to categorize them as leaders more often than LSMs. Subordinate judgments of leader effectiveness should be enhanced since the leader matches the leader prototype. Thus, the effect of self-monitoring on leader effectiveness may be mediated through leadership categorization processes.

Leadership Behavior

Past research has shown leader behavior to be an important factor in leader effectiveness. Consideration and initiating structure have been identified as two of the primary factors of leader behavior. Consideration describes the extent to which a leader exhibits concern for the welfare of group members. Examples of consideration behavior include expressing appreciation for good work, stressing the importance of job satisfaction, obtaining input from others, and treating others as equals. Initiating structure refers to the extent to which a leader initiates activity in the group, organizes, and defines work. Initiating structure behaviors include maintaining standards, meeting deadlines, planning in detail how tasks should be done, defining roles, and establishing clear patterns of work organization. A large body of research supports relationships between consideration and initiating structure group performance, satisfaction, turnover, and grievances (Bass, 1981; Kerr & Schriesheim, 1974; Yukl, 1971).

Several studies have documented a relationship between leadership behavior, self-monitoring, and leader emergence. For example, Dobbins et al. (1990) reported that self-monitoring predicted leader emergence. Initiating structure also predicted leader emergence. While self-monitoring predicted emergence, it did not account for any additional variance in leader emergence above and beyond initiating structure and consideration behavior. This finding suggests that self-monitoring affected leader emergence indirectly through leader behavior. Ellis (1988) reported that self-monitoring was associated with leader emergence. In addition, there was a significant relationship between self-monitoring and initiating

structure. HSMs may exhibit more initiating structure and consideration behavior that subsequently results in higher levels of leader effectiveness. Hence, leadership behavior will also be investigated as a mediator of the relationship between self-monitoring and leader effectiveness.

Hypotheses

Recent research in the area of leadership has shown a relationship between leader self-monitoring and leader emergence (Garland & Beard, 1979; Ellis, Adamson, Deszca, & Cawsey, 1988; Ellis, 1988; Dobbins, Long, Dedrick, & Clemons, 1990). High self-monitors tend to emerge in leadership roles more often than low self-monitors. The self-monitoring research suggest that high self-monitors possess many of the characteristics associated with leadership (Dabbs, Evans, Hopper, & Purvis, 1980; Geizer, Rarick, & Soldow, 1977; Snyder & Monson, 1975; Lippa, 1976; Snyder, 1974; Tobey & Tunnell, 1981). In addition, there is some evidence indicating that groups with HSM leaders may perform better than groups with LSM leaders (Anderson & McLenigan, 1987). Based on these findings, high self-monitors should be more effective than low self-monitors in leadership positions. Hypothesis 1 is based on this rationale.

Hypothesis 1a:	Leader self-monitoring will be positively related to performance ratings.
Hypothesis 1b:	Leader self-monitoring will be positively related to subordinate organization commitment.
Hypothesis 1c:	Leader self-monitoring will be positively related to subordinate overall job satisfaction.

Hypothesis 1d: Leader self-monitoring will be positively related to subordinate satisfaction with supervision.

Hypothesis 1e: Leader self-monitoring will be negatively associated with subordinate intention to turnover.

Hypothesis 1f: Leader self-monitoring will be positively associated with subordinate organizational citizenship behavior.

Recent research suggests that impression management is most likely to occur and be effective in situations that are characterized by high ambiguity (Ferris, Russ, & Fandt, 1989; Dedrick, 1992). In addition, Garland and Beard (1979) found some support for the hypothesis that the relationship between self-monitoring and leader emergence will depend on group task factors. These findings suggest that leader self-monitoring should be more strongly related to leader effectiveness when the group task is ambiguous versus highly defined. Hypothesis 2 is based on this rationale.

Hypothesis 2: Self-monitoring will be more strongly related to ratings of performance, intention to turnover, satisfaction with supervision, and organizational commitment when the group task is ambiguous than when it is highly defined.

Hypothesis 3a is based on Wayne and Ferris' (1990) research which suggests that use of impression management tactics is important in the establishment of perceptions of leadership ability and judgments of competence. As noted earlier, HSMs tend to engage in more impression management tactics than do LSMs, which should result in higher levels of leader effectiveness. This proposition is stated in hypothesis 3a.

Hypothesis 3a: The effect of self-monitoring on leader effectiveness will be mediated through impression management tactics.

Research in the area of leadership perceptions has demonstrated that people have leadership categories consisting of a core set of characteristics related to leadership (Foti, Fraser, & Lord, 1982; Lord, Foti, & De Vader, 1984). Several researchers have suggested that sensitivity to group members' categories of leadership and the ability to exhibit behaviors consistent with these categories may enable an individual to present himself in such a manner as to be categorized as a leader (Lord, De Vader, & Alliger, 1986; Dobbins, Long, Dedrick, & Clemons, 1990). HSMs may be more sensitive to prototypes and better at exhibiting behaviors that cause subordinates to categorize them as leaders. LSMs may be less sensitive to subordinates' leader prototypes and less able to modify their behavior to match these prototypes. Evidence suggests that implicit theories about leadership may have more impact on ratings of leadership than do actual leader behaviors (Eden & Leviatan, 1975; Rush, Thomas, & Lord, 1977; Weiss & Adler, 1981). In addition, Cronshaw and Lord (1987) suggest that leaders who fit the prototype have increased social power and may be seen as causally related to positive outcomes. Individuals who do not fit the prototype may have difficulty influencing the group and may not be given credit for group outcomes. Hence, the effect of self-monitoring on leader effectiveness may be mediated through leadership categorization processes. Specifically, HSMs may exhibit behavior that increases their categorization as leaders and subsequently enhances performance. Hypothesis 3b is based on this rationale.

Hypothesis 3b: The effect of self-monitoring on leader effectiveness will be mediated through leadership categorization processes.

Past research has demonstrated a relationship between consideration and initiating structure and turnover, grievance, group performance, and satisfaction (Bass, 1981; Kerr & Schriesheim, 1974; Yukl, 1971). Several studies have documented a relationship between self-monitoring and leader emergence (e.g., Dobbins, et al, 1990; Ellis, 1988). In addition, Dobbins, et al. (1990) suggested that the effect of self-monitoring on emergence may be mediated through leader behavior. Hence, HSM may exhibit more initiating structure and consideration that subsequently results in higher levels of leader effectiveness. Hypothesis 3c is based on this rationale.

Hypothesis 3c: The effect of self-monitoring on leader effectiveness will be mediated through leader behavior.

CHAPTER 3

METHOD

A field study was conducted to investigate the relationship between self-monitoring and leader effectiveness. Leader effectiveness was evaluated in terms of leader performance, subordinate intention to turnover, satisfaction with leadership, organizational citizenship behavior, and organizational commitment. Task structure as a potential moderator of self-monitoring--leader effectiveness relationship was also examined. In addition, impression management tactics, leadership categorization, and leader behavior were examined as potential mediators of the relationship between leader self-monitoring and leader effectiveness.

Participants

Fifteen store managers, 116 department supervisors and 597 sales associates from a large retail organization located in Georgia, North Carolina, and Tennessee participated in the study. Most analyses were conducted at the group level, (i.e. subordinate ratings were averaged to get a mean score for each department).

The sample of store managers consisted of 12 (80%) females and three (20%) males. The average age of this group was forty-one years with a standard deviation equal to 11.55. The average company tenure for this group was 3.29 years with a standard deviation of 3.63. The sample of 116

department supervisors consisted of 94 females and 16 males (six respondents did not indicate their gender). The average age of this group was 38 years with a standard deviation of 11.90. The average company tenure for this group was 5.99 years with a standard deviation of 6.48. The sample of 597 sales associates consisted of 482 females and 75 males (40 respondents did not indicate their gender). The average sales associate was 38.43 years old with a standard deviation of 16.94. The average company tenure for this group was 3.64 years with a standard deviation of 5.62.

Procedure

Data Collection

Participation of store managers. A survey containing a leader performance rating scale and demographic information questionnaire was distributed to each store manager. Managers were asked to complete a performance rating form for each department supervisor in his or her store. The performance rating form was a seven-item scale which requested information about the quality of the supervisor's work during the past year. The survey contained instructions on how to complete the survey. The researcher was present to answer questions, explain the uses of the information, and collect completed surveys.

Participation of department supervisors. Data were collected over a four week period at fifteen store locations. The surveys were administered at the stores during business hours. The survey assessed self-monitoring (Lennox and Wolfe, 1984), influence tactics (Wayne and Ferris, 1990), leader

performance, and organizational citizenship behavior (Smith, Organ, & Near, 1983). Demographic information was also collected. The survey contained instructions on how to complete the items. The researcher was present to answer questions, explain the uses of the information, and collect completed surveys.

Participation of sales associates. A survey assessing satisfaction with supervision (Hackman & Oldham, 1975), overall job satisfaction (Hackman & Oldham, 1975), organizational citizenship behavior (Smith, Organ, & Near, 1983), leader performance, leader behavior (Stogdill, 1963), influence tactics (Wayne & Ferris, 1990), organizational commitment (Mowday, Steers, & Porter, 1979), intention to turnover (Cammann, Fichman, Jenkins, & Klesh, 1983), general leadership impression (Cronshaw & Lord, 1987), and task structure (Fiedler, Chemers, & Mahar 1976) was administered to sales associates at each store. Demographic information was also collected. The number of associates surveyed from each department varied between three and seven. The exact number of associates surveyed in each department depended on the size of the department and the staffing of the store on the day of survey administration. On average, five associates from each department completed a survey. The survey contained instructions on how to complete the items. The researcher was present to answer questions, explain the uses of the information, and collect completed surveys.

In most stores, it was not possible to collect surveys from the required number of respondents for every department. Therefore, it was necessary to leave some surveys at the store to be completed by associates and returned

by mail. In these situations, participants were provided with a self-addressed stamped envelop in which to return the completed survey.

Measures

Store Manager Survey

The store manager survey contained two scales. Space was also provided for comments and suggestions. Prior to administration, each survey was coded with a form number corresponding to the store location. These numbers were used to match completed surveys by location.

Demographic Information. Demographic information was collected from all store managers. The questionnaire requested information about gender, education level, marital status, race, age, company tenure, hours worked per week, and annual salary.

Performance Appraisal. A seven-item scale was used to evaluate the quality of department supervisor's performance (see *Appendix A).* The items on this scale requested information about the department supervisor's performance during the past year. Coefficient alpha for this scale was .93 for store managers.

Item analyses were performed on all measures as a means of assessing the reliability of each scale. Inter-item correlations and item-total statistics were calculated to determine how each individual item affected the reliability of the total scale.

Department Supervisor Survey

The department supervisor survey contained five scales with a total of 69 items. Space was also provided for comments and suggestions. Prior to administration, each survey was coded with a form number corresponding to the store location and the department. These numbers were used to match completed surveys by department.

Demographic Information. A demographic information questionnaire was administered to department supervisors. The questionnaire requested information about gender, education level, marital status, race, age, company tenure, supervisor tenure, hours worked per week, and annual salary.

Influence Tactics. A modified version of the Wayne and Ferris (1990) Influence Tactics Scale was used to assess leaders' use of impression management behaviors. Coefficient alpha was .83 for this scale. The items comprising this scale are shown in *Appendix B*.

Organizational Citizenship Behavior. The revised version of the Organizational Citizenship Behavior Scale was used (Smith, Organ, & Near, 1983). One item was deleted from this scale ("Attends functions not required but that help company image") because the participating organization felt the item was not relevant for their employees. This scale was used in a slightly different manner than in past research. In previous research, this scale is completed for each subordinate. In the present study, the supervisor was asked to complete this survey in reference to the typical or average behavior of the subordinates in his or her department.

Coefficient alpha for this scale was .84. The items comprising this scale are shown in *Appendix C.*

Performance Appraisal. A seven-item scale was used to evaluate the effectiveness of department supervisor's performance. The items on this scale requested information about the department supervisor's performance during the past year. This scale was identical to the one completed by store managers. Coefficient alpha for this scale was .84. The performance appraisal scale is shown in *Appendix A.*

Self-monitoring. The revised version of the self-monitoring scale was used in this study (Lennox & Wolfe, 1984). The items from this scale are shown in Figure 3.1. The Lennox and Wolfe (1984) scale was selected over Snyder's original (1974) and revised (1986) scales because of the criticisms associated with Snyder's measures (e.g., Briggs & Cheek, 1988; Briggs & Cheek, 1986; Briggs, Cheek, & Buss, 1980; Gabrenya & Arkin, 1980). The Lennox and Wolfe (1984) scale appears to be more consistent with the current concept of the self-monitoring construct (Lennox & Wolfe, 1984). A six-point response format was used as recommended by Lennox and Wolfe. In this study the coefficient alpha was .73. Lennox and Wolfe reported a coefficient alpha of .75 for the scale based on a sample of 201. This scale is also presented in *Appendix D.*

Sales Associate Survey

The sales associate survey contained eleven scales with a total of 114 items. Prior to administration, each survey was coded with a form number

Please indicate the degree to which you agree or disagree with each statement by circling the response which best describes your feeling toward the statement. The scale is as follows:

0 Certainly, always false
1 Generally, false
2 Somewhat false, but with exception
3 Somewhat true, but with exception
4 Generally true
5 Certainly, always true

1. I am often able to read people's true emotions correctly through their eyes. 0 1 2 3 4 5

2. Once I know what the situation calls for, it's easy for me to regulate my actions accordingly. 0 1 2 3 4 5

3. I have the ability to control the way I come across to people, depending on the impression I wish to give them 0 1 2 3 4 5

4. I can usually tell when I have said something inappropriate by reading it in the listener's eyes 0 1 2 3 4 5

5. I have found that I can adjust my behavior to meet the requirements of any situation I find myself in. 0 1 2 3 4 5

6. My powers of intuition are quite good when it comes to understanding others' emotions and motives. 0 1 2 3 4 5

7. Even when it might be to my advantage, I have difficulty putting up a good front* 0 1 2 3 4 5

8. I can usually tell when others consider a joke to be in bad taste, even though they may laugh convincingly. 0 1 2 3 4 5

9. In social situations, I have the ability to alter my behavior if I feel that something else is called for. 0 1 2 3 4 5

10. If someone is lying to me, I usually know it at once from the person's manner of expression. 0 1 2 3 4 5

11. When I feel that the image I am portraying is not working, I can readily change it to something that does. 0 1 2 3 4 5

12. I have trouble changing my behavior to suit different people and different situations* 0 1 2 3 4 5

13. In conversations, I am sensitive to even the slightest change in the facial expression of the person I am conversing with. 0 1 2 3 4 5

Note:

* indicates item is reversed scored
Modifiability Subscale Items: 2, 3, 5, 7, 9, 11, 12
Sensitivity Subscale Items: 1, 4, 6, 8, 10, 13

Figure 3.1 Self-monitoring scale.

corresponding to the store location and the department. These numbers were used to match completed surveys by department.

Demographic Information. Demographic information was collected from all sales associates. The questionnaire requested information about gender, education level, marital status, race, age, company tenure, supervisor tenure, hours worked per week, and annual salary.

General Leadership Impression. Cronshaw and Lord's (1987) five-item General Leadership Impression Scale was used to assess subordinates' perceptions of leadership regarding their department supervisor. The coefficient alpha for this five-item scale was .94 which is similar to the reliability (α=.87) reported by Cronshaw and Lord (1987). The items from this scale are shown in *Appendix E.*

Influence Tactics. A modified version of the Wayne and Ferris Influence Tactics Scale (1990) was used to assess leaders' use of impression management behaviors. This scale was identical to the one completed by department supervisors with the exception that the point of reference changed. For example, "sales associates" was changed to "me" in the following item: "Does personal favors for me." Coefficient alpha was .84 for sales associates. The version of this scale used for sales associates is shown in *Appendix F.*

Intention to Turnover. Three items from Cammann, Fichman, Jenkins, and Klesh (1983) were used to assess intention to turnover. The coefficient alpha for this scale was .87. This is similar to the internal consistency reliability (α=.83) reported by Cammann et al. The three-item Intention to Turnover Scales is shown in *Appendix G.*

Leader Behavior Descriptive Questionnaire. The 20-item revised version of the Leader Behavior Descriptive Questionnaire (Stogdill, 1963) was used to assess the leader behavior of each supervisor. This scale assesses two dimensions of leader behavior: consideration and initiating structure. Coefficient alpha for the consideration subscale was .89. Coefficient alpha for the initiating structure subscale was .90. These subscales are presented in *Appendix H* and *Appendix I*, respectively.

Organizational Citizenship Behavior. The revised version of the Organizational Citizenship Behavior Scale was used (Smith, Organ, & Near, 1983). One item was deleted from this scale at the request of the participating organization. This scale is identical to the scale completed by department supervisors. Again, the use of this scale was slightly different than in past research. Sales associates were asked to think of their work group as a whole and complete this scale with regard to the typical sales associate. Coefficient alpha for this scale was .85 for sales associates. The version of this scale used for sales associates is shown in *Appendix J.*

Organizational Commitment Questionnaire. The 15-item organization commitment scale developed by Mowday, Steers, and Porter (1979) was used in this study (see *Appendix K.*). The coefficient alpha for this scale was .85 which is similar to the value (α=.90) reported by Mowday et al. (1979).

Overall Job Satisfaction. The three-item scale by Hackman and Oldham (1975) was used to measure general job satisfaction. The coefficient alpha for this scale was .72. The Overall Job Satisfaction scale is shown in *Appendix L.*

Performance Appraisal. A seven-item scale was used to evaluate the quality of department supervisors' performance (see *Appendix A).* The items on this scale requested information about the department supervisor's performance during the past year. This scale was identical to the one completed by store mangers and department supervisors. The coefficient alpha for this scale was .94 for sales associates.

Satisfaction with Supervision. The three-item Satisfaction with Supervision sub-scale from the Job Diagnostic Survey (Hackman & Oldham, 1975) was used to measure satisfaction with supervision. Coefficient alpha was .93, which is similar to the .87 reported by Oldham et al. (1978). The Satisfaction with Supervision Scale is shown in *Appendix M.*

Task Structure. As shown in Figure 3.2, the Task Structure scale developed by Fielder, Chemers, and Mahar (1976) was used to assess the degree to which tasks are defined versus ambiguous. The following item was deleted from the scale at the request of the participating organization: "Is there a specific way to subdivide the task into separate parts or steps?" The items on the scale were also modified to reference customer service since the survey was administered in a retailing environment. Potter and Fiedler (1981) reported a split-half reliability of .74, with scores ranging from 2 to 19 and a median of 12.88 using a sample of 130. In this study, the scale had a coefficient alpha of .75. The Task Structure Scale is shown *Appendix N.*

Indicate the degree to which each statement best describes your job by circling the most appropriate response following each statement. The scale is as follows:

0 Seldom true
1 Sometimes true
2 Usually true

1. Is there a detailed description available of the customer service that should be offered? 0 1 2

2. Is there a person available to advise and give a description of the customer service that should be offered? 0 1 2

3. Is there a step-by-step procedure, or a standard operating procedure which indicates in detail the manner in which the company expects you to serve the customer? 0 1 2

4. Are there some methods clearly recognized as better than others for providing good customer service? 0 1 2

5. Is it obvious when good customer service has been provided? 0 1 2

6. Is there a book, manual, or job description which indicates the best ways to provide good customer service? 0 1 2

7. Is there a generally agreed understanding about the level customer service has to meet to be considered acceptable? 0 1 2

8. Is the evaluation of good customer service generally made against an objective standard? 0 1 2

9. Can the group sales manager find out how well customers are being served in enough time to improve future customer service? 0 1 2

Figure 3.2 Task structure scale.

Analysis Strategy

Hypothesis 1 predicts that high self-monitoring leaders will have more positive ratings than low self-monitoring leaders in terms of employee attitudes and leader performance ratings. These analyses were conducted at the group level. Sales associates' ratings within each department were averaged to arrive at a single score for each outcome variable. To test this hypothesis, average scores on organizational commitment, overall job satisfaction, intention to turnover, satisfaction with supervision, organizational citizenship behavior, and performance were regressed on department supervisors' self-monitoring scores. Support for this hypothesis would be provided if the beta weights for self-monitoring were significant in the regression models. Correlations between self-monitoring and the dependent measures were also used to assess the relationships among these variables.

Hypothesis 2 predicts that self-monitoring will be more strongly related to leader effectiveness when the group's task is ambiguous rather than well defined. This hypothesis was also tested at the group level using moderated regression analyses. This procedure consisted of two steps. Step 1 consisted of regressing organizational commitment, overall job satisfaction, intention to turnover, satisfaction with supervision, organizational citizenship behavior, and performance onto self-monitoring and task structure scores. Next, the cross-product vector (self-monitoring x task structure) was added to the regression equation. If there was a significant increase in R^2 resulting from addition of the self-monitoring by

task structure, then task structure was moderating the relationship between self-monitoring and effectiveness.

Hypotheses 3a, 3b, and 3c predicted that the effect of self-monitoring on leader effectiveness will be mediated through impression management tactics, leadership categorization processes, and leader behavior, respectively. These hypotheses were tested using hierarchical regression analyses.

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS

This chapter details the results of the study beginning with a description of the three participant groups. Next, the measures are described. Tests of the three hypotheses are then presented. The results of a series of supplemental analyses and a summary of results conclude this chapter.

Participant and Scale Characteristics

Store Managers

Fifteen store managers participated in the study. Characteristics of the store managers are summarized in Table 4.1. This group consisted of 12 females and 3 males. All store managers were Caucasian. The average age of the store managers was 41.86 years with a standard deviation of 11.55. Store managers have been employed by the organization on average for 3.29 years (SD=3.63) and work 49.21 (SD=5.39) hours each week. In terms of education, 57.1% were college graduates, 21.4% had some college or technical training, 14.3% were high school graduates, and 7.1% had some graduate school. Regarding marital status, 71.4% were married, 14.3% were single, 7.1% were divorced, and 7.1% were widowed.

Table 4.1 Store manager characteristics.

Variable	N	Mean	SD	Min	Max
Age	14	41.86	11.55	26.00	62.00
Company Tenure	14	3.29	3.63	.50	13.00
Hours per Week	14	49.21	5.39	40.00	60.00

Department Supervisors

One hundred and sixteen department supervisors participated in the study. Characteristics of the department supervisors participating in the study are summarized in Table 4.2. This group was 85.5% female and 14.5% male. Six department supervisors did not indicate their gender. The department supervisors were 89.7% Caucasian, 6.0% African American, and 2.6% native American. The average age of the department supervisors was 38.07 years with a standard deviation of 11.9. The range in age among department supervisors is quite large with a low of 22 years and a high of 66 years. The average company tenure for department managers was 5.99 years with a standard deviation of 6.48. On average, they have worked for their current supervisor for 2.01 years. The department supervisors work an average of 43 hours per week (SD=4.79). In terms of education, 37.9% have some college or technical training, 33.6% are college graduates, 23.3% are high school graduates, 3.4% have some graduate school, and 1.7% have graduate degrees. Regarding marital status, 63.8% are married, 22.4% are single, 10.3% are divorced, 1.7% are separated, and 1.7% are widowed. The mean self-monitoring score for department supervisors was 46.42 (N=116) with a standard deviation of 4.88. This mean is slightly higher than the mean of 42.00 reported by Lennox and Wolfe (1984). The coefficient alpha for the self-monitoring scale was .73.

Table 4.2 Department supervisor characteristics.

Variable	N	Mean	SD	Min	Max	α
Age	115	38.07	11.90	22.00	66.00	-
Company Tenure	114	5.99	6.48	00.25	35.00	-
Supervisor Tenure	114	2.01	2.55	00.25	18.00	-
Hours per Week	115	43.02	4.79	35.00	65.00	-
Self-monitoring[a]	116	46.42	4.88	33.00	61.00	.73

[a]Possible scores range from 0 to 65

Sales Associates

Five hundred and ninety-seven sales associates participated in the study. On average, five sales associates were surveyed from each department. The responses of sales associates from each department were averaged together to get a mean score for each supervisor. This strategy reduced the sample size from 597 to 116 which corresponds to the number of department supervisors in the study. Characteristics of the sales associates participating in the study are summarized in Table 4.3. The sales associate group was 86.5% female and 13.5% male. With regard to race, 85.5% of the sales associates were Caucasian, 6.3% were African American, and 4% were native American. The average age was 38.4 years with a standard deviation of 16.9. On average, sales associates have been employed by the organization for 3.6 years with a standard deviation of 5.6. They have worked under the direction of their current supervisor on average for 1.3 years (SD=1.97) and averaged 32.2 hours per week (SD=6.82). Seventy-eight percent of the sales associates worked 30 hours or more per week. With respect to education, 43.5% have some college or technical training, 35.5% are high school graduates, 15.9% are college graduates, 3.9% have some graduate school, and 1.2% have graduate degrees. Regarding sales associate marital status, 46.1% were married, 35.3% were single, 10.3% were divorced, and 7.6% were widowed.

Descriptive statistics for the employee attitude and leader performance measures are provided in Table 4.4. The mean organizational commitment score was 4.98 with a standard deviation of .54. The average score for overall job satisfaction was 5.11 with a standard deviation of .68.

Table 4.3 Sales associate characteristics.

Variable	N	Mean	SD	Min	Max
Age	565	38.44	16.94	16.00	83.00
Company Tenure	581	3.64	5.62	0.25	31.00
Supervisor Tenure	573	1.35	1.97	0.25	21.00
Hours per Week	589	32.24	6.82	7.00	65.00

Table 4.4 Descriptive statistics for employee attitude and leader performance measures.

Variable	N	Mean	SD	Min	Max	α
Organizational Commitment[a]	116	4.97	.54	3.49	6.23	.88
Overall Satisfaction[a]	116	5.11	.68	3.40	6.52	.72
Satisfaction with Supervision[a]	116	5.66	.80	3.22	7.00	.93
Intention to Turnover[b]	116	7.96	1.80	4.00	14.00	.87
OCB (subordinate)[c]	116	56.07	5.12	42.60	67.00	.85
OCB (supervisor)[c]	116	55.82	7.95	29.00	72.00	.84
Performance (subordinate)[d]	116	2.79	.58	1.54	3.96	.94
Performance (self)[d]	116	2.90	.49	1.86	4.00	.84
Performance (manager)[d]	116	2.44	.69	1.00	4.00	.93
Consideration[e]	116	39.12	4.77	26.86	46.67	.89
Initiating Structure[f]	116	39.74	4.10	28.25	47.67	.90

[a]Possible scores range from 1 to 7
[b]Possible scores range from 3 to 15
[c]Possible scores range from 15 to 75
[d]Possible scores range from 0 to 4
[e]Possible scores range from 10 to 50
[f]Possible scores range from 10 to 50

The average score for satisfaction with supervision was 5.66 with a standard deviation of .80. The mean score for intention to turnover was 7.96 with a standard deviation of 1.80. Ratings of organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) were collected from sales associates and department supervisors. These ratings of organizational citizenship behavior were positively correlated (r= .36).

The average score for the consideration subscale of the Leader Behavior Descriptive Questionnaire was 39.12 with a standard deviation of 4.77. The average score for initiating structure subscale was 39.74 with a standard deviation of 4.10. The coefficient alpha for the consideration and initiating structure subscales was .89 and .90, respectively.

Ratings of supervisor performance were collected from subordinates, managers, and the supervisors themselves. The average performance rating from subordinates was 2.79 with a standard deviation of .58. On average, supervisors gave themselves a rating of 2.90 with a standard deviation of .49. Managers gave an average leader performance rating of 2.44 with a standard deviation of .69. Subordinate and manager ratings of performance were positively correlated (r=.42). However, self-ratings of performance were not significantly correlated with either subordinate or manager ratings (r=.16 and r=.17, respectively).

Descriptive statistics for task structure, impression management, and leadership categorization are shown in Table 4.5. Ratings of task structure were collected from subordinates. The mean task structure rating was 14.88 with a standard deviation of 1.39. The coefficient alpha for this scale was .75. The total number of possible points in this study was 18

Table 4.5 Descriptive statistics for moderator and mediator variables.

Variable	N	Mean	SD	Min	Max	α
Task Structure[a]	116	14.88	1.39	10.00	17.33	.75
Impression Mgmt (subordinate)[b]	116	99.12	10.67	77.00	126.67	.84
Impression Mgmt (self)[b]	116	112.04	14.28	76.00	156.00	.83
Leadership Categorization[c]	116	18.87	3.03	10.33	24.67	.94

[a]Possible scores range from 0 to 18
[b]Possible scores range from 24 to 168
[c]Possible scores range from 5 to 25

because one item was deleted from the original scale. Fiedler and Chemers (1984) classified tasks rated less than six as low in structure. Tasks rated between seven and thirteen were classified as medium in structure. Tasks rated higher than fourteen were classified as high in structure. Hence, the jobs in the present study were highly structured.

Ratings of supervisors' impression management behavior were collected from subordinates and supervisors themselves. The average subordinate rating was 99.12 with a standard deviation of 10.67. The average supervisor self-rating was 112.04 with a standard deviation of 14.28. The correlation between these ratings was -.01. The mean leadership categorization rating was 18.87 with a standard deviation of 3.03.

Relationships Between the Variables

Table 4.6 presents the correlation between the measures. The employee attitude measures were highly intercorrelated. Organizational commitment was significantly correlated with overall job satisfaction, satisfaction with supervision, and organizational citizenship behavior. There was a strong negative correlation between intention to turnover and organizational commitment.

Subordinate ratings of leader performance were strongly correlated with organizational commitment, overall job satisfaction, satisfaction with supervision, and organizational citizenship behavior. There was a strong negative correlation between subordinate ratings of performance and intention to turnover. Supervisor ratings of performance were positively correlated with overall job satisfaction, satisfaction with supervision, and

Table 4.6 Correlation matrix of major variables.

Variable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16
1. Org. Commitment	1.00	.71**	.56**	-.69**	.50**	.26**	.47**	-.07	.10	.46**	.46**	.39**	.10	.28**	-.10	.47**
2. Overall Satisfaction		1.00	.50**	-.68**	.52**	.29**	.49**	-.05	.19*	.46**	.45**	.52**	-.01	.32*	-.10	.40**
3. Satisfaction w/ Sup.			1.00	-.56**	.49**	.41**	.78**	.04	.28**	.36**	.82**	.68**	.04	.49**	-.07	.76**
4. Intention to Turnover				1.00	-.47**	-.32**	-.52**	.03	-.17	-.43*	-.53*	-.52*	-.01	-.40*	.11	-.52**
5. Org. Cit. Beh. (subordinates)					1.00	.36**	.50**	.01	.22**	.28**	.41**	.47**	.02	.28**	-.13	.44**
6. Org. Cit. Beh. (supervisor)						1.00	.40**	.08	.26**	.09	.44**	.38**	.02	.24**	.16	.36**
7. Performance (subordinates)							1.00	.16	.42**	.40**	.86**	.82**	.08	.54**	-.08	.88**
8. Performance (self)								1.00	.17	.07	.11	.10	.37**	-.00	.34**	.08
9. Performance (manager)									1.00	.10	.36**	.37**	.11	.12	.21*	.10**
10. Task Structure										1.00	.40**	.44**	.22*	.28**	-.04	.32**
11. Consideration											1.00	.78**	.10	.59**	-.04	.81**
12. Initiating Structure												1.00	.04	.52**	-.06	.81**
13. Self-monitoring													1.00	.13	.30**	.02
14. Imp. Mgmt (sub.)														1.00	-.01	.50**
15. Imp. Mgmt (self)															1.00	-.15
16. Leadership Categorization																1.00

*p<.05 **p<.01

organizational citizenship behavior. Self-ratings of performance were not significantly correlated with any of the job attitudes. There was a significant positive correlation between subordinate and manager ratings of leader performance (r=.42). However, supervisors' self-ratings of performance were not significantly correlated with ratings from managers or subordinates (r=.17 and r=.16, respectively).

Subordinate ratings of impression management were significantly correlated with organizational commitment, overall job satisfaction, satisfaction with supervision, organizational citizenship behavior, and intention to turnover. Interestingly, self-ratings of impression management behavior were significantly correlated only with self-ratings and manager ratings of performance. The correlation between subordinate ratings of impression management and self-ratings of impression management was -.01.

Initiating structure and consideration behavior were related to all the job attitudes as well as organizational citizenship behavior. General leadership impressions were also positively correlated with all the job attitudes as well as organizational citizenship behavior.

Table 4.6 also indicates that self-monitoring was significantly related only to self-ratings of performance, self-ratings of impression management, and subordinate ratings of task structure. However, self-monitoring was not significantly related to any of the employee attitude variables.

Hypothesis 1

The first hypothesis predicted that leader self-monitoring would be related to leader effectiveness. Specifically, it was expected that high self-monitoring leaders would be rated more positively than low self-monitoring leaders in terms of organizational commitment, overall job satisfaction, satisfaction with supervision, subordinate intention to turnover, organizational citizenship behavior, and leader performance. To test Hypothesis 1, organizational commitment, overall job satisfaction, satisfaction with supervision, subordinate intention to turnover, organizational citizenship behavior, and leader performance were regressed on leader self-monitoring scores. The results of these analyses are shown in Table 4.7. Self-monitoring predicted only self-ratings of performance, accounting for 13% of the variance in this rating. Overall, Hypothesis 1 was not supported. Self-monitoring did not predict leader effectiveness.

Hypothesis 2

Hypothesis 2 predicted that leaders' self-monitoring would be more strongly related to leader effectiveness when the job is ambiguous than when it is highly structured. Hypothesis 2 was tested using hierarchical regression analyses (Cohen & Cohen, 1982). This analysis was performed in two steps. In the first step, organizational commitment, overall job satisfaction, satisfaction with supervision, subordinate intention to turnover, organizational citizenship behavior, and leader performance

Table 4.7 Relationship between self-monitoring and employee attitude and leader performance ratings.

Variable	Betas	t	Stan. Betas	F	R^2
Organizational Commitment					
intercept	4.440195	9.191***	0.000000	F= 1.246	R^2= .0108
self-monitoring	0.011555	1.116	0.103994		
Overall Job Satisfaction					
intercept	5.186265	8.513***	0.000000	F= 0.014	R^2= .0001
self-monitoring	-0.001526	-0.117	-0.010946		
Satisfaction with Supervision					
intercept	5.194163	7.262***	0.000000	F= 0.423	R^2= .0037
self-monitoring	0.009970	0.651	0.060821		
Intention to Turnover					
intercept	8.211891	5.111***	0.000000	F= 0.025	R^2= .0002
self-monitoring	-0.005397	-0.157	-0.014685		
OCB (subordinate)					
intercept	55.120468	12.028***	0.000000	F= 0.043	R^2= .0004
self-monitoring	0.020401	0.208	0.019457		
OCB (supervisor)					
intercept	54.163392	7.610***	0.000000	F= 0.055	R^2= .0005
self-monitoring	0.035663	0.234	0.021900		
Performance (subordinate)					
intercept	2.356551	4.554***	0.000000	F= 0.698	R^2= .0061
self-monitoring	0.009263	0.836	0.078025		
Performance (self)					
intercept	1.207804	2.977***	0.000000	F=17.647***	R^2= .1341
self-monitoring	0.036510	4.201***	0.366129		
Performance (manager)					
intercept	3.183641	5.195***	0.000000	F= 1.495	R^2= .0129
self-monitoring	-0.01653	-1.223	-0.113765		

*p<.10 **p<.05 ***p<.01

were regressed on self-monitoring and task structure scores. In the second step, the cross-product vector (i.e. self-monitoring by task structure) was added to the model. The increase in R^2 resulting from the addition of the self-monitoring by task structure interaction term was then tested for significance. The results of these analyses are shown in Table 4.8. The incremental variance resulting from the addition of the interaction term to the model was not significant for any of the outcome measures. Therefore, Hypothesis 2 was not supported. Task structure did not moderate the relationship between self-monitoring and leader effectiveness.

Hypothesis 3

The third hypothesis predicted that the effect of self-monitoring on employee attitude and leader performance ratings would be mediated through impression management tactics, leadership categorization processes, and leader behavior. In mediation models, the influence of an antecedent is transmitted to a consequence through an intervening variable. The intervening variable is called a mediator. Generally, a variable may be said to function as a mediator to the extent that it accounts for the relation between the predictor and the criterion. James and Brett (1984) explain that:

> a complete mediation model has the form *x*-->*m*-->*y*, where *x* is the antecedent, *m* is the mediator, and y is the consequence. The antecedent *x* is expected to affect the consequence *y* only indirectly through transmission of influence from *x* to *y* by the mediator *m*. The indirect transmission of influence from *x* to *y* via m denotes that all of the effect of *x* on *y* is transmitted by *m* (p. 307).

Table 4.8 Task structure as a moderator of the relationship between self-monitoring and outcome variables.

Organizational Commitment

Variable	Betas	t	Stan. Betas	R^2
Step 1				
intercept	2.270250	3.864***	0.000000	.2165
self-monitoring	0.000001	0.000	0.000000	
task structure	0.181824	5.446***	0.465285	
Step 2				
intercept	5.558097	1.377	0.000000	.2212
self-monitoring	-0.072907	-0.819	-0.656177	
task structure	-0.037953	-0.141	-0.097120	
self-monitoring*task	0.004864	0.823	0.957364	
				ΔR^2= .0047
				F= .2213
				p= .8814

Overall Job Satisfaction

Variable	Betas	t	Stan. Betas	R^2
Step 1				
intercept	2.370259	3.224***	0.000000	.2203
self-monitoring	-0.016518	-1.391	-0.118520	
task structure	0.235960	5.648***	0.481369	
Step 2				
intercept	10.797262	2.159**	0.000000	.2399
self-monitoring	-0.203390	-1.843*	-1.459327	
task structure	-0.327347	-.982	-0.667804	
self-monitoring*task	0.012466	1.703*	1.956199	
				ΔR^2= .0196
				F= .9455
				p= .4213

Satisfaction with Supervision

Variable	Betas	t	Stan. Betas	R^2
Step 1				
intercept	2.658735	2.915***	0.000000	.1327
self-monitoring	-0.003529	-0.240	-0.021529	
task structure	0.212449	4.100***	0.368496	
Step 2				
intercept	14.245768	2.303**	0.000000	.1596
self-monitoring	-0.260475	-1.908*	-1.589006	
task structure	-0.562090	-1.363	-0.974952	
self-monitoring*task	0.017141	1.893*	2.286904	
				ΔR^2= .0269
				F= 1.1736
				p= .3232

*p<.10 **p<.05 ***p<.01

Table 4.8 (continued)

Intention to Turnover

Variable	Betas	t	Stan. Betas	R^2
Step 1				
intercept	15.211099	7.723***	0.000000	.1957
self-monitoring	0.031868	1.002	0.086692	
task structure	-0.5864709	-5.241***	-0.453624	
Step 2				
intercept	-16.403462	-1.240	0.000000	.2355
self-monitoring	0.732931	2.511**	1.993833	
task structure	1.526808	1.731	1.180941	
self-monitoring*task	-0.046768	-2.415**	-2.782464	
				ΔR^{2}= .0398
				F= 1.9089
				p= .1323

Organizational Citizenship Behavior (subordinate ratings)

Variable	Betas	t	Stan. Betas	R^2
Step 1				
intercept	42.281589	7.042***	0.000000	.0812
self-monitoring	-0.047955	-0.494	-0.045737	
task structure	1.075798	3.154***	0.291731	
Step 2				
intercept	71.177493	1.724*	0.000000	.0853
self-monitoring	-0.688731	-0.756	-0.656876	
task structure	-0.655759	00.311	-0.232032	
self-monitoring*task	0.042746	0.708	0.891635	
				ΔR^{2}= .0041
				F= .1644
				p= .9202

Organizational Citizenship Behavior (supervisor ratings)

Variable	Betas	t	Stan. Betas	R^2
Step 1				
intercept	48.269453	4.980***	0.000000	.0075
self-monitoring	0.004283	0.027	0.002630	
task structure	0.493866	0.897	0.086230	
Step 2				
intercept	178.792507	2.725***	0.000000	.0421
self-monitoring	-2.890106	-1.996**	-1.774793	
task structure	-8.230995	-1.882*	-1.437156	
self-monitoring*task	0.193085	2.011**	2.593209	
				ΔR^{2}= .0346
				F= 1.3244
				p= .2701

*p<.10 **p<.05 ***p<.01

Table 4.8 (continued)

Leader Performance (subordinate ratings)

Variable	Betas	t	Stan. Betas	R^2
Step 1				
intercept	0.323006	0.498	0.000000	.1643
self-monitoring	-0.001564	-0.149	-0.013174	
task structure	0.170395	4.625***	0.408081	
Step 2				
intercept	8.637349	1.965*	0.000000	.1907
self-monitoring	-0.185937	-1.917*	-1.566162	
task structure	-0.385380	-1.315	-0.922950	
self-monitoring*task	0.012300	1.912*	2.265769	
				ΔR^2= .0264
				F= 1.1961
				p= .3147

Leader Performance (supervisor/self-ratings)

Variable	Betas	t	Stan. Betas	R^2
Step 1				
intercept	1.276598	2.303**	0.000000	.1343
self-monitoring	0.036877	4.118***	0.369802	
task structure	-0.005764	-0.183	-0.016436	
Step 2				
intercept	7.887246	2.094**	0.000000	.1580
self-monitoring	-0.109716	-1.320	-1.100240	
task structure	-0.447656	-1.783*	-1.276374	
self-monitoring*task	0.009779	1.774*	2.144749	
				ΔR^2= .0237
				F= 1.0321
				p= .3814

Leader Performance (manager ratings)

Variable	Betas	t	Stan. Betas	R^2
Step 1				
intercept	2.423387	2.917***	0.000000	.0286
self-monitoring	-0.020101	-1.498	-0.142450	
task structure	0.063703	1.349	0.128361	
Step 2				
intercept	7.037751	1.233	0.000000	.0344
self-monitoring	-0.122426	00.972	-0.867612	
task structure	-0.244745	-0.643	-0.493158	
self-monitoring*task	0.006826	0.817	1.057990	
				ΔR^2= .0058
				F= .2202
				p= .8823

*p<.10 **p<.05 ***p<.01

Baron and Kenny (1986) specify the following conditions a variable must meet in order to function as a mediator:

> (a) variations in levels of the independent variable significantly account for variations in the presumed mediator (i.e., Path *a*) (b) variations in the mediator significantly account for variations in the dependent variable (i.e., Path *b*), and (c) when Paths *a* and *b* are controlled, a previously significant relation between the independent and dependent variables is no longer significant, with the strongest demonstration of mediation occurring when Path *c* is zero. (p. 1176)

Results from analyses testing Hypothesis 1 and 2 showed no significant relationship between self-monitoring and the outcome measures. Using the above terminology, Path *c* between self-monitoring and the outcome variables was not significant. Furthermore, Path *a* was not significant. There was no relationship between self-monitoring and the mediators. These findings indicate that impression management, leadership categorization, and leader behavior are not mediating the relationship between self-monitoring and effectiveness.

Supplemental Analyses

The hypotheses in the present study were not supported. Therefore, a number of supplemental analyses were of interest. First, Hypothesis 1 and Hypothesis 2 were retested using the two subscales of the self-monitoring scale. Second, Hypothesis 2 was retested at the individual level. Third, the relationship between self-monitoring and variance in subordinate ratings of consideration and initiation structure was examined. The rationale for and the results of these analyses are presented in the following sections.

Modifiability and Sensitivity Subscales

Typically, self-monitoring is conceptualized as a unidimensional construct. However, recent research by Lennox and Wolfe (1984) suggests that self-monitoring is best conceptualized as consisting of two components. These two dimensions are ability to modify self-presentation (modifiability) and sensitivity to the expressive behavior of others (sensitivity). The revised self-monitoring scale is based on this two-component definition. Lennox and Wolfe (1984) report that the two subscales are not highly correlated and that they correlate dissimilarly with a number of variables. In addition, research indicates that the subscales may differentially moderate the attitude behavior relationship (Baize & Tetlock, 1985; Dobbins, Farh, & Werbel, 1993). Therefore, consistent with the recommendations by Briggs and Cheek (1988) and Lennox and Wolfe (1984), the subscale scores were considered separately to re-test Hypotheses 1 and 2. The average score for the modifiability subscale was 24.24 with a standard deviation of 3.59. The coefficient alpha for the modifiability subscale was .72. The sensitivity subscale had a mean of 21.96 with a standard deviation of 2.31. This subscale had a coefficient alpha of .58. Table 4.9 presents the correlation between these subscales and other variables in the study. As shown in Table 4.9, the correlation between modifiability and sensitivity is .34.

Hypothesis 1: Using Modifiability and Sensitivity

Hypothesis 1 was tested using modifiability and sensitivity as predictors of employee attitude and leader performance ratings. The employee attitude and leader performance measures were regressed on

Table 4.9 Correlation matrix with self-monitoring subscales.

Variable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18
1. Org. Com	1.00	.71**	.56**	-.69**	.50**	.26**	.47**	-.07	.10	.46**	.46**	.39**	.10	.06	.13	.28	.10	.47
2. Overall Sat.		1.00	.50**	-.68**	.52**	.29**	.49**	-.05	.19*	.45**	.46**	.52**	-.01	-.04	.04	.32	.01	.40
3. Sat. w/ Sup.			1.00	-.56**	.49**	.41**	.78**	.04	.28**	.36**	.82**	.68**	.04	.07	.01	.49**	-.07	.76**
4. Int. to Turnover				1.00	-.47**	-.32**	-.52**	.03	-.17	-.43**	-.53**	-.52**	-.01	-.01	-.01	-.40	.11	-.52
5. OCB (subordinates)					1.00	.36**	.50**	.01	.22**	.28**	.44**	.47**	.02	-.04	.09	.28**	-.13	.44**
6. OCB (supervisor)						1.00	.40**	.08	.26**	.09	.44**	.38**	.02	.03	-.00	.24**	.16	.36**
7. Perf. (subordinates)							1.00	.16	.42**	.40**	.86**	.82**	.08	.09	.02	.54**	-.08	.88**
8. Perf. (self)								1.00	.17	.07	.11	.10	.37**	.42**	.13	-.00	.34**	.08
9. Perf. (manager)									1.00	.10	.36**	.37**	-.11	-.04	-.18	.12	-.21	.40*
10. Task Str.										1.00	.40**	.44**	.22*	.20*	.16	.28**	-.04	.32**
11. Consideration											1.00	.78**	.10	.09	.07	.59**	-.04	.81**
12. Initiating Str.												1.00	.04	.08	-.03	.52**	-.06	.81**
13. Self-monitoring													1.00	.90**	.72**	.13	.30**	.02
14. Modifiability														1.00	.34**	.17	.29**	.04
15. Sensitivity															1.00	.01	.19*	-.01
16. Imp. Mgmt (sub.)																1.00	-.01	.50**
17. Imp. Mgmt (self)																	1.00	-.15
18. Leadership Cat.																		1.00

*p<.05 **p<.01

modifiability and sensitivity scores. The results of these analyses are presented in Table 4.10 and Table 4.11, respectively. Modifiability was a significant predictor of supervisors' self-ratings of performance. As ability to alter behavior increased, self-ratings of performance increased. Sensitivity was a significant predictor of store managers' ratings of leader performance. Specifically, as sensitivity to external cues increased, the managers' ratings of performance decreased.

Hypothesis 2: Using Modifiability and Sensitivity

Hypothesis 2 was tested using the two dimensional conceptualization of self-monitoring. The results of these analyses for modifiability are shown in Table 4.12. The incremental variance resulting from the addition of the modifiability by task structure interaction term to the model was not significant for any of the outcome measures.

The results of these analyses for sensitivity are shown in Table 4.13. The incremental variance resulting from the addition of the modifiability by task structure interaction term to the model was significant for intention to turnover. A graph of this relationship is shown in Figure 4.1. Turnover intentions decreased as sensitivity increased in highly structured situations. With low structure, the opposite was true, i.e., as sensitivity increased, turnover intentions increased. Hence, while there was a significant interaction between the sensitivity subscale and task structure for intention to turnover, the direction of this effect was contrary to that predicted in Hypothesis 2.

Table 4.10 Relationship between modifiability and outcome variables.

Variable	Betas	t	Stan. Betas	F	R^2
Organizational Commitment					
intercept	4.761916	13.627***	0.000000	F= 0.385	R^2= .0034
modifiability	0.008775	0.621	0.058051		
Overall Job Satisfaction					
intercept	5.309646	12.104***	0.000000	F= 0.200	R^2= .0018
modifiability	-0.007938	-0.447	-0.041865		
Satisfaction with Supervision					
intercept	5.251890	10.198***	0.000000	F= 0.632	R^2= .0055
modifiability	0.016558	0.795	0.074251		
Intention to Turnover					
intercept	8.151183	7.040***	0.000000	F= 0.027	R^2= .0002
modifiability	-0.007759	-0.166	-0.015516		
OCB (subordinate)					
intercept	57.344836	17.373***	0.00000	F= 0.153	R^2= .0013
modifiability	-0.052208	-0.391	-0.036602		
OCB (supervisor)					
intercept	54.189277	10.568***	0.000000	F= 0.103	R^2= .0009
modifiability	0.066612	0.321	0.030069		
Performance (subordinate)					
intercept	2.422560	6.505***	0.000000	F= 0.976	R^2= .0085
modifiability	0.014879	0.988	0.092123		
Performance (self)					
intercept	1.524405	5.334***	0.000000	F=23.757***	R^2= .1725
modifiability	0.056337	4.874***	0.415230		
Performance (manager)					
intercept	2.623975	5.907***	0.000000	F= 0.178	R^2= .0016
modifiability	-0.007584	-0.422	-0.039509		

*p<.10 **p<.05 ***p<.01

Table 4.11 Relationship between sensitivity and outcome variables.

Variable	Betas	t	Stan. Betas	F	R^2
Organizational Commitment					
intercept	4.308795	8.952***	0.000000	F= 1.946	R^2= .0168
sensitivity	0.030414	1.395	0.129559		
Overall Job Satisfaction					
intercept	4.844585	7.964***	0.000000	F= 0.200	R^2= .0018
sensitivity	0.012336	0.448	0.041893		
Satisfaction with Supervision					
intercept	5.556734	7.760***	0.000000	F= 0.020	R^2= .0002
sensitivity	0.004566	0.141	0.013184		
Intention to Turnover					
intercept	8.079393	5.031***	0.000000	F= 0.005	R^2= .0000
sensitivity	-0.005376	-0.074	-0.006922		
OCB (subordinate)					
intercept	51.303022	11.254***	0.000000	F= 1.104	R^2= .0096
sensitivity	0.216994	1.051	0.097955		
OCB (supervisor)					
intercept	55.851294	7.851***	0.000000	F= 0.000	R^2= .0000
sensitivity	-0.001472	-0.005	-0.000428		
Performance (subordinate)					
intercept	2.666635	5.143***	0.000000	F= 0.054	R^2= .0005
sensitivity	0.005462	0.233	0.021777		
Performance (self)					
intercept	2.307829	5.342***	0.000000	F= 1.917	R^2= .0165
sensitivity	0.027093	1.385	0.128594		
Performance (manager)					
intercept	3.610150	5.953	0.000000	F= 3.774*	R^2= .0320
sensitivity	-0.053365	-1.943*	-0.179000		

*p<.10 **p<.05 ***p<.01

Table 4.12 Task structure as a moderator of the relationship between modifiability and outcome variables.

Organizational Commitment

Variable	Betas	t	Stan. Betas	R^2
Step 1				
intercept	2.363427	4.447***	0.000000	.2178
modifiability	-0.005561	-0.433	-0.036793	
task structure	0.184711	5.566***	0.472671	
Step 2				
intercept	2.816275	0.854	0.000000	.2179
modifiability	-0.024971	-0.178	-0.165202	
task structure	0.154808	0.712	0.396151	
modifiability*task	0.001279	0.139	0.162551	
				ΔR^2= .0001
				F= .0047
				p= .9996

Overall Job Satisfaction

Variable	Betas	t	Stan. Betas	R^2
Step 1				
intercept	2.237094	3.372***	0.000000	.2254
modifiability	-0.026303	-1.641	-0.138726	
task structure	0.236621	5.712***	0.482720	
Step 2				
intercept	7.510583	1.839*	0.000000	.2371
modifiability	-0.252327	-1.455	-1.330825	
task structure	-0.111602	-0.414	-0.227674	
modifiability*task	0.014896	1.309	1.509067	
				ΔR^2= .0117
				F= .5623
				p= .6410

Satisfaction with Supervision

Variable	Betas	t	Stan. Betas	R^2
Step 1				
intercept	2.531229	3.065	0.000000	.1323
modifiability	0.000296	0.015	0.001329	
task structure	0.209522	4.063	0.363418	
Step 2				
intercept	10.300522	2.033**	0.000000	.1506
modifiability	-0.332699	-1.546	-1.491918	
task structure	-0.303506	-0.908	-0.526435	
modifiability*task	0.021947	1.554	1.890287	
				ΔR^2= .0183
				F= .7900
				p= .5020

*p<.10 **p<.05 ***p<.01

Table 4.12 (continued)

Intention to Turnover

Variable	Betas	t	Stan. Betas	R^2	
Step 1					
intercept	15.692815	8.793***	0.000000	.1939	
modifiability	0.037318	0.866	0.074624		
task structure	-0.580791	-5.211***	-0.449225		
Step 2					
intercept	1.964949	0.179	0.000000	.2053	
modifiability	0.625700	1.340	1.251200		
task structure	0.325698	0.449	0.251918		
modifiability*task	-0.038778	-1.266	-1.489416		
				ΔR^2=	.0144
				F=	.5260
				p=	.6653

Organizational Citizenship Behavior (subordinate ratings)

Variable	Betas	t	Stan. Betas	R^2	
Step 1					
intercept	42.932959	7.930***	0.000000	.0883	
modifiability	-0.138350	-1.058	-0.096994		
task structure	1.109877	3.283***	0.300973		
Step 2					
intercept	76.402097	2.286**	0.000000	.0966	
modifiability	-1.572851	-1.108	-1.102697		
task structure	-1.100182	-0.499	-0.298344		
modifiability*task	0.094543	1.015	1.273109		
				ΔR^2=	.0083
				F=	.3369
				p=	.7987

Organizational Citizenship Behavior (supervisor ratings)

Variable	Betas	t	Stan. Betas	R^2	
Step 1					
intercept	47.929323	5.464***	0.000000	.0077	
modifiability	0.029195	0.138	0.013179		
task structure	0.482087	0.880	0.084174		
Step 2	**betas**	**t**	**stan. betas**	R^2	
intercept	135.835048	2.527**	0.000000	.0315	
modifiability	-3.738482	-1.637	-1.687577		
task structure	-5.322571	-1.502	-0.929337		
modifiability*task	0.248315	1.657*	2.152970		
				ΔR^2=	.0238
				F=	.9010
				p=	.4432

*p<.10 **p<.05 ***p<.01

Table 4.12 (continued)

Leader Performance (subordinate ratings)

Variable	Betas	t	Stan. Betas	R^2
Step 1				
intercept	0.238194	0.406	0.000000	.1643
modifiability	0.001822	0.129	0.011283	
task structure	0.168221	4.589***	0.402874	
Step 2				
intercept	7.043017	1.966*	0.000000	.1910
modifiability	-0.289835	-1.905*	-1.794556	
task structure	-0.281120	-1.190	-0.673258	
modifiability*task	0.019222	1.925*	2.285994	
				ΔR^2= .0267
				F= 1.2101
				p= .3095

Leader Performance (supervisor/self-ratings)

Variable	Betas	t	Stan. Betas	R^2
Step 1				
intercept	1.605658	3.274***	0.000000	.1728
modifiability	0.056822	4.796	0.418860	
task structure	-0.006257	-0.204	-0.017841	
Step 2				
intercept	6.501964	2.163**	0.000000	.1924
modifiability	-0.153036	-1.199	-1.128088	
task structure	-0.329574	-1.663*	-0.939695	
modifiability*task	0.013831	1.651	1.958266	
				ΔR^2= .0196
				F= .8899
				p= .4488

Leader Performance (manager ratings)

Variable	Betas	t	Stan. Betas	R^2
Step 1				
intercept	1.922599	2.536**	0.000000	.0129
modifiability	-0.011776	-0.643	-0.061348	
task structure	0.054014	1.141	0.1088367	
Step 2				
intercept	6.920477	1.479	0.000000	.0232
modifiability	-0.225988	-1.137	-1.77260	
task structure	-0.276010	-0.895	-0.556155	
modifiability*task	0.014118	1.083	1.412622	
				ΔR^2= .0103
				F= .3966
				p= .7628

*p<.10 **p<.05 ***p<.01

Table 4.13 Task structure as a moderator of the relationship between sensitivity and outcome variables.

Organizational Commitment

Variable	Betas	t	Stan. Betas	R^2
Step 1				
intercept	2.032588	3.379**	0.000000	.2196
sensitivity	0.013221	0.669	0.056321	
task structure	0.178293	5.419	0.456248	
Step 2				
intercept	8.355806	2.213**	0.000000	.2391
sensitivity	-0.277247	-1.608	-1.181030	
task structure	-0.254029	-0.988	-0.650055	
	0.019826	1.696*	1.792749	
				ΔR^2= .0195
				F= .9397
				p= .4241

Overall Job Satisfaction

Variable	Betas	t	Stan. Betas	R^2
Step 1				
intercept	1.965823	2.586**	0.000000	.2079
sensitivity	-0.009408	-0.377	-0.031949	
task structure	0.225490	5.423***	0.460012	
Step 2				
intercept	10.932521	2.298**	0.000000	.2329
sensitivity	-0.421309	-1.940*	-1.430768	
task structure	-0.387567	-1.197	-0.790658	
sensitivity*task	0.028114	1.909*	2.026694	
				ΔR^2= .0250
				F= 1.1950
				p= .3151

Satisfaction with Supervision

Variable	Betas	t	Stan. Betas	R^2
Step 1				
intercept	2.825064	3.022***	0.000000	.1344
sensitivity	-0.013037	-0.523	-0.046390	
task structure	0.213969	4.185***	0.371131	
Step 2				
intercept	12.460358	2.122**	0.000000	.1552
sensitivity	-0.458681	-1.711*	-1.324388	
task structure	-0.444801	-1.113	-0.771513	
sensitivity*task	0.030210	1.662*	1.851639	
				ΔR^2= .0208
				F= .9028
				p= .4423

*p<.10 **p<.05 ***p<.01

Table 4.13 (continued)

Intention to Turnover

Variable	Betas	t	Stan. Betas	R^2
Step 1				
intercept	15.417764	7.616***	0.000000	.1926
sensitivity	0.050052	0.753	0.064445	
task structure	-0.574806	-5.192	-0.444596	
Step 2				
intercept	-23.714167	-1.926*	0.000000	.2610
sensitivity	1.847645	3.287***	2.378976	
task structure	2.100664	2.506**	1.624802	
sensitivity*task	-0.122692	-3.218***	-3.353432	
				ΔR^2= .0684
				F= 3.3938
				p= .0205

Organizational Citizenship Behavior (subordinate ratings)

Variable	Betas	t	Stan. Betas	R^2
Step 1				
intercept	38.456158	6.246***	0.000000	.0821
sensitivity	0.119982	0.593	0.054132	
task structure	1.006045	2.988***	0.272816	
Step 2				
intercept	54.357568	1.390	0.000000	.0835
sensitivity	-0.610339	-0.342	-0.275519	
task structure	-0.080937	-0.030	-0.021948	
sensitivity*task	0.049847	0.412	0.477661	
				ΔR^2= .0014
				F= .0560
				p= .9825

Organizational Citizenship Behavior (supervisor ratings)

Variable	Betas	t	Stan. Betas	R^2
Step 1				
intercept	49.330229	4.962***	0.000000	.0077
sensitivity	-0.050727	-0.155	-0.014744	
task structure	0.510788	0.939	0.089185	
Step 2				
intercept	161.022773	2.585**	0.000000	.0361
sensitivity	-5.181518	-1.822*	-1.506040	
task structure	-7.125688	-1.681*	-1.244166	
sensitivity*task	0.350195	1.816*	2.160679	
				ΔR^2= .0284
				F= 1.0803
				p= .3606

*p<.10 **p<.05 ***p<.01

Table 4.13 (continued)

Leader Performance (subordinate ratings)

Variable	Betas	t	Stan. Betas	R^2
Step 1				
intercept	0.468949	0.706	0.000000	.1661
sensitivity	-0.011137	-0.510	-0.044400	
task structure	0.172142	4.737***	0.412265	
Step 2				
intercept	5.473981	1.304	0.000000	.1768
sensitivity	-0.241052	-1.258	-0.961009	
task structure	-0.170054	-0.595	-0.407265	
sensitivity*task	0.015693	1.208	1.328038	
				ΔR^2= .0107
				F= .4766
				p= .6992

Leader Performance (supervisor/self-ratings)

Variable	Betas	t	Stan. Betas	R^2
Step 1				
intercept	2.098418	3.466***	0.000000	.0187
sensitivity	0.025511	1.283	0.121086	
task structure	0.016403	0.495	0.046769	
Step 2				
intercept	5.443342	1.419	0.000000	.0255
sensitivity	-0.128144	-0.732	-0.608216	
task structure	-0.212291	-0.813	-0.605293	
sensitivity*task	0.010488	0.833	1.056658	
				ΔR^2= .0068
				F= .2559
				p= .8570

Leader Performance (manager ratings)

Variable	Betas	t	Stan. Betas	R^2
Step 1				
intercept	2.795524	3.313***	0.000000	.0481
sensitivity	-0.059518	-2.147**	-0.199639	
task structure	0.063809	1.383	0.128574	
Step 2				
intercept	2.319864	0.432	0.000000	.0482
sensitivity	-0.037668	-0.154	-0.126348	
task structure	0.096330	0.264	0.194103	
sensitivity*task	-0.001491	-0.090	-0.106190	
				ΔR^2= .0001
				F= .0038
				p= .9997

*p<.10 **p<.05 ***p<.01

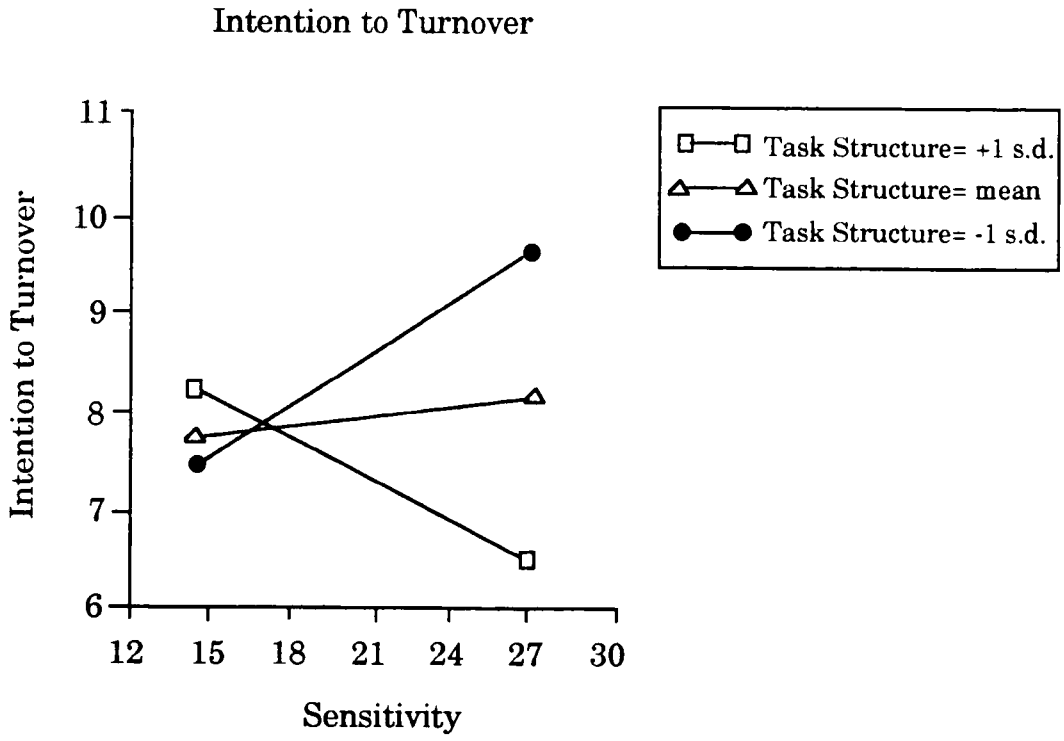

Figure 4.1 Interaction between sensitivity and task structure for intention to turnover.

Analyses at the Individual Level

Several researchers have argued that interactions are difficult to detect with moderated regression due to low power (Evans, 1985; Stone & Hollenbeck, 1984). The previous analyses were conducted at the group level in order to avoid common method variance and because self-monitoring was measured at the group level. However, this analysis strategy resulted in the reduction of the sample size from 597 to 116 observations. In order to have a more powerful test of the moderation hypothesis, the moderated regression analyses were repeated using the individual ratings of task structure. The results for self-monitoring are presented in Table 4.14 The results of these analyses for modifiability and sensitivity are presented in Table 4.15 and Table 4.16, respectively. The incremental variance resulting from the addition of the interaction terms to the models in these analyses was not significant for any of these analyses. Therefore, Hypothesis 2 was not supported even when using individual ratings to achieve greater statistical power.

Correlation between Self-monitoring and Variance in Subordinate Ratings

The results of the previously analyses were not consistent with the predictions made in this study. An additional analysis was conducted to determine whether high self-monitors responded more differently across subordinates than did low self-monitors. Support for this idea would be consistent with the notion that HSM leaders alter their leadership style more than do LSM leaders. In order to address this issue, variance in

Table 4.14 Task structure at the individual level as a moderator of the relationship between self-monitoring and outcome variables.

Organizational Commitment

Variable	Betas	t	Stan. Betas	R^2
Step 1				
intercept	2.64290	6.379***	0.000000	.1353
self-monitoring	0.009625	1.167	0.044879	
task structure	0.129075	9.353***	0.359606	
Step 2				
intercept	5.294500	2.881***	0.000000	.1385
self-monitoring	-0.049403	-1.222	-0.230352	
task structure	-0.051269	-0.421	-0.142838	
self-monitoring*task	0.003977	1.491	0.604601	
				ΔR^2= .0032
				F= .1362
				p= .9382

Overall Job Satisfaction

Variable	Betas	t	Stan. Betas	R^2
Step 1				
intercept	3.262306	6.485***	0.000000	.1260
self-monitoring	-0.010077	-0.999	-0.038630	
task structure	0.156164	9.254***	0.357712	
Step 2				
intercept	4.101992	1.822*	0.000000	.1263
self-monitoring	-0.028639	-0.578	-0.109790	
task structure	0.099452	0.667	0.227807	
self-monitoring*task	0.001250	0.383	0.156318	
				ΔR^2= .0003
				F= .0126
				p= .9981

Satisfaction with Supervision

Variable	Betas	t	Stan. Betas	R^2
Step 1				
intercept	3.029154	5.022***	0.000000	.1275
self-monitoring	-0.003936	-0.326	-0.012573	
task structure	0.187774	9.280***	0.358411	
Step 2				
intercept	2.955340	1.095	0.000000	.1275
self-monitoring	-0.002304	-0.039	-0.007360	
task structure	0.192759	1.078	0.367927	
self-monitoring*task	-0.000110	-0.028	-0.011450	
				ΔR^2= .0000
				F= .0000
				p= 1.0000

*p<.10 **p<.05 ***p<.01

Table 4.14 (continued)

Intention to Turnover

Variable	Betas	t	Stan. Betas	R^2	
Step 1					
intercept	11.933852	8.073****	0.000000	.0652	
self-monitoring	0.016190	0.546	0.021844		
task structure	-0.318839	-6.430***	-0.257043		
Step 2					
intercept	2.691616	0.408	0.000000	.0684	
self-monitoring	0.220501	1.517	0.297505		
task structure	0.305375	0.698	0.246188		
self-monitoring*task	-0.013764	-1.436	-0.605548		
				ΔR^2=	.0032
				F=	.1260
				p=	.9446

Organizational Citizenship Behavior (subordinate ratings)

Variable	Betas	t	Stan. Betas	R^2	
Step 1					
intercept	40.606176	10.881***	0.000000	.1057	
self-monitoring	-0.008335	-0.111	-0.004357		
task structure	1.042216	8.326***	0.325557		
Step 2					
intercept	38.855514	2.327**	0.000000	.1057	
self-monitoring	0.030366	0.083	0.015875		
task structure	1.160455	1.049	0.362491		
self-monitoring*task	-0.002607	-0.108	-0.044444		
				ΔR^2=	.0000
				F=	.0000
				p=	1.0000

Organizational Citizenship Behavior (supervisor ratings)

Variable	Betas	t	Stan. Betas	R^2	
Step 1					
intercept	54.048370	15.241***	0.000000	.0004	
self-monitoring	0.023699	0.333	0.013783		
task structure	0.034361	0.289	0.011741		
Step 2					
intercept	89.777117	5.682***	0.000000	.0094	
self-monitoring	-0.766130	-2.203**	-0.445576		
task structure	-2.378734	-2.272**	-0.826637		
self-monitoring*task	0.053209	2.320**	1.009078		
				ΔR^2=	.0090
				F=	.3331
				p=	.8014

*p<.10 **p<.05 ***p<.01

Table 4.14 (continued)

Leader Performance (subordinate ratings)

Variable	Betas	t	Stan. Betas	R^2
Step 1				
intercept	0.851626	2.272**	0.000000	.1518
self-monitoring	0.000114	0.015	0.000579	
task structure	0.128665	10.231***	0.389578	
Step 2				
intercept	2.516654	1.501	0.000000	.1533
self-monitoring	-0.036693	-0.995	-0.185939	
task structure	0.016210	0.146	0.049082	
self-monitoring*task	0.002480	1.019	0.409726	
			ΔR^2=	.0015
			F=	.0650
			p=	.9783

Leader Performance (supervisor/self-ratings)

Variable	Betas	t	Stan. Betas	R^2
Step 1				
intercept	1.255596	6.404***	0.000000	.1246
self-monitoring	0.035906	9.137***	0.353456	
task structure	-0.000650	-0.099	-0.003821	
Step 2				
intercept	2.790372	3.189***	0.000000	.1294
self-monitoring	0.001978	0.103	0.019470	
task structure	-0.104307	-1.799*	-0.613526	
self-monitoring*task				
			ΔR^2=	.0048
			F=	.2022
			p=	.8947

Leader Performance (manager ratings)

Variable	Betas	t	Stan. Betas	R^2
Step 1				
intercept	3.338550	11.145***	0.000000	.0264
self-monitoring	-0.023467	-3.909***	-0.159458	
task structure	0.013804	1.374	0.056048	
Step 2				
intercept	4.146029	3.094***	0.000000	.0270
self-monitoring	-0.041317	-1.401	-0.280752	
task structure	-0.040732	-0.459	-0.165380	
self-monitoring*task	0.001203	0.618	0.266449	
			ΔR^2=	.0006
			F=	.0226
			p=	.9954

*p<.10 **p<.05 ***p<.01

Table 4.15 Task structure at the individual level as a moderator of the relationship between modifiability and outcome variables.

Organizational Commitment

Variable	Betas	t	Stan. Betas	R^2
Step 1				
intercept	2.916778	8.964***	0.000000	.1337
modifiability	0.005467	0.488	0.018740	
task structure	0.130347	9.455***	0.363150	
Step 2				
intercept	4.606070	3.137***	0.000000	.1357
modifiability	-0.065547	-1.071	-0.224702	
task structure	0.017454	0.181	0.048627	
modifiability*task	0.004732	1.180	0.420113	
				ΔR^2= .0020
				F= .0848
				p= .9682

Overall Job Satisfaction

Variable	Betas	t	Stan. Betas	R^2
Step 1				
intercept	3.226705	8.122***	0.0000000	.1271
modifiability	-0.017824	-1.303	-0.050237	
task structure	0.156415	9.293***	0.358287	
Step 2				
intercept	3.242070	1.807*	0.000000	.1271
modifiability	-0.018470	-0.247	-0.052058	
task structure	0.155388	1.315	0.355935	
modifiability*task	0.000043	0.009	0.003142	
				ΔR^2= .0000
				F= .0000
				p= 1.0000

Satisfaction with Supervision

Variable	Betas	t	Stan. Betas	R^2
Step 1				
intercept	2.952653	6.195***	0.000000	.1274
modifiability	-0.004163	-0.254	-0.009887	
task structure	0.187506	9.285***	0.357900	
Step 2				
intercept	3.805053	1.767*	0.000000	.1277
modifiability	-0.039996	-0.446	-0.093935	
task structure	0.130541	0.921	0.249469	
modifiability*task	0.002388	0.406	0.145233	
				ΔR^2= .0003
				F= .0126
				p= .9980

*p<.10 **p<.05 ***p<.01

Table 4.15 (continued)

Intention to Turnover

Variable	Betas	t	Stan. Betas	R^2	
Step 1					
intercept	12.295278	10.525***	0.000000	.0649	
modifiability	0.015033	0.374	0.014912		
task structure	-0.0317463	-6.414***	-0.255934		
Step 2					
intercept	7.480564	1.419	0.000000	.0663	
modifiability	0.2177433	0.989	0.215687		
task structure	0.004296	0.012	0.003434		
modifiability*task	-0.013488	-0.936	-0.346481		
				ΔR^2=	.0014
				F=	.0550
				p=	.9830

Organizational Citizenship Behavior (subordinate ratings)

Variable	Betas	t	Stan. Betas	R^2	
Step 1					
intercept	42.842768	14.546***	0.000000	.1076	
modifiability	-0.116071	-1.144	-0.044613		
task structure	1.055676	8.460***	0.329761		
Step 2					
intercept	42.928306	3.226***	0.000000	.1076	
modifiability	-0.119667	-0.216	-0.045775		
task structure	1.049960	1.199	0.327976		
modifiability*task	0.00240	0.007	0.002385		
				ΔR^2=	.0000
				F=	.0000
				p=	1.0000

Organizational Citizenship Behavior (supervisor ratings)

Variable	Betas	t	Stan. Betas	R^2	
Step 1					
intercept	53.731892	19.180***	0.000000	.0008	
modifiability	0.059814	0.620	0.025576		
task structure	0.031430	0.265	0.010922		
Step 2					
intercept	74.222105	5.879***	0.000000	.0055	
modifiability	-0.801547	-1.523	-0.342739		
task structure	-1.337899	-1.609	-0.464935		
modifiability*task	0.057401	1.664*	0.635610		
				ΔR^2=	.0047
				F=	.1733
				p=	.9143

*p<.10 **p<.05 ***p<.01

Table 4.15 (continued)

Leader Performance (subordinate ratings)

Variable	Betas	t	Stan. Betas	R^2
Step 1				
intercept	0.829236	2.799***	0.000000	.1518
modifiability	0.001221	0.120	0.004550	
task structure	0.128529	10.241***	0.389166	
Step 2				
intercept	1.887122	1.411	0.000000	.1528
modifiability	-0.043250	-0.776	-0.161133	
task structure	0.057832	0.657	0.175107	
modifiability*task	0.002964	0.811	0.285923	
			ΔR^2=	.0010
			F=	.0433
			p=	.9880

Leader Performance (supervisor/self-ratings)

Variable	Betas	t	Stan. Betas	R^2
Step 1				
intercept	1.562858	10.303***	0.000000	.1608
modifiability	0.055444	10.615***	0.401272	
task structure	-0.000489	-0.076	-0.002878	
Step 2				
intercept	2.503043	3.659***	0.000000	.1636
modifiability	0.015921	0.558	0.115226	
task structure	-0.063320	-1.406	-0.372445	
modifiability*task	0.002634	1.409	0.493636	
			ΔR^2=	.0028
			F=	.1227
			p=	.9465

Leader Performance (manager ratings)

Variable	Betas	t	Stan. Betas	R^2
Step 1				
intercept	2.767159	11.599***	0.000000	.0109
modifiability	-0.019665	-2.394**	-0.098244	
task structure	0.011532	1.141	0.046823	
Step 2				
intercept	3.540046	3.286***	0.000000	.0118
modifiability	-0.052155	-1.161	-0.260561	
task structure	-0.040119	-0.566	-0.162888	
modifiability*task	0.002165	.736	0.280115	
			ΔR^2=	.0009
			F=	.0334
			p=	.9918

*p<.10 **p<.05 ***p<.01

Table 4.16 Task structure at the individual level as a moderator of the relationship between sensitivity and outcome variables.

Organizational Commitment

Variable	Betas	t	Stan. Betas	R^2	
Step 1					
intercept	2.447711	5.976***	0.000000	.1374	
sensitivity	0.028530	1.674*	0.064056		
task structure	0.128904	9.382***	0.359130		
Step 2					
intercept	4.680169	2.886***	0.000000	.1403	
sensitivity	-0.075570	-1.006	-0.169673		
task structure	-0.024601	-0.226	-0.068539		
sensitivity*task	0.007141	1.423	0.509142		
				ΔR^2=	.0029
				F=	.1237
				p=	.9460

Overall Job Satisfaction

Variable	Betas	t	Stan. Betas	R^2	
Step 1					
intercept	2.863966	5.707***	0.000000	.1246	
sensitivity	-0.001730	-0.083	-0.003194		
task structure	0.154215	9.161***	0.353247		
Step 2					
intercept	4.400033	2.212**	0.000000	.1255	
sensitivity	-0.073358	-0.796	-0.135417		
task structure	0.048594	0.364	0.111310		
sensitivity*task	0.004914	0.798	0.288027		
				ΔR^2=	.0009
				F=	.0377
				p=	.9902

Satisfaction with Supervision

Variable	Betas	t	Stan. Betas	R^2	
Step 1					
intercept	3.008471	5.004***	0.000000	.1275	
sensitivity	-0.007185	-0.287	-0.011052		
task structure	0.187505	9.297***	0.357898		
Step 2					
intercept	1.701135	0.713	0.000000	.1279	
sensitivity	0.053777	0.487	0.082721		
task structure	0.277398	1.735*	0.529480		
sensitivity*task	-0.004182	-0.567	-0.204270		
				ΔR^2=	.0004
				F=	.0168
				p=	.9970

*p<.10 **p<.05 ***p<.01

Table 4.16 (continued)

Intention to Turnover

Variable	Betas	t	Stan. Betas	R^2
Step 1				
intercept	11.918196	8.088***	0.000000	.0652
sensitivity	0.034414	0.561	0.022358	
task structure	-0.318100	-6.436***	-0.256447	
Step 2				
intercept	3.385449	0.580	0.000000	.0688
sensitivity	0.432314	1.600	0.280872	
task structure	0.268638	0.687	0.216572	
sensitivity*task	-0.027297	-1.512	-0.563131	
				ΔR^2= .0036
				F= .1418
				p= .9348

Organizational Citizenship Behavior (subordinate ratings)

Variable	Betas	t	Stan. Betas	R^2
Step 1				
intercept	35.393086	9.533***	0.000000	.1091
sensitivity	0.234194	0.516	0.058955	
task structure	1.022784	8.213***	0.319487	
Step 2				
intercept	35.268723	2.395**	0.000000	.1091
sensitivity	0.239993	0.352	0.060415	
task structure	1.031335	1.044	0.322158	
sensitivity*task	-0.000398	-0.009	-0.003180	
				ΔR^2= .0000
				F= .0000
				p= 1.0000

Organizational Citizenship Behavior (supervisor ratings)

Variable	Betas	t	Stan. Betas	R^2
Step 1				
intercept	55.847686	15.798***	0.000000	.0003
sensitivity	-0.037544	-0.255	-0.010514	
task structure	0.042092	0.355	0.014628	
Step 2				
intercept	85.730513	6.139***	0.000000	.0085
sensitivity	-1.430991	-2.212**	-0.400757	
task structure	-2.012666	-2.149**	-0.699424	
sensitivity*task	0.095592	2.212**	0.850082	
				ΔR^2= .0082
				F= .3032
				p= .8230

*p<.10 **p<.05 ***p<.01

Table 4.16 (continued)

Leader Performance (subordinate ratings)

Variable	Betas	t	Stan. Betas	R^2
Step 1				
intercept	0.905264	2.422**	0.000000	.1519
sensitivity	-0.002350	-0.151	-0.005735	
task structure	0.128866	10.280***	0.390188	
Step 2				
intercept	2.167443	1.463	0.000000	.1530
sensitivity	-0.061206	-0.892	-0.149350	
task structure	0.042078	0.424	0.127407	
sensitivity*task	0.004038	0.881	0.312842	
				ΔR^2= .0011
				F= .0476
				p= .9862

Leader Performance (supervisor/self-ratings)

Variable	Betas	t	Stan. Betas	R^2
Step 1				
intercept	2.286176	11.030***	0.000000	.0154
sensitivity	0.024925	2.889***	0.118147	
task structure	0.004877	0.701	0.028686	
Step 2				
intercept	3.138328	3.821***	0.000000	.0173
sensitivity	-0.014812	-0.389	-0.070209	
task structure	-0.053717	-0.975	-0.315961	
sensitivity*task	0.002726	1.072	0.410304	
				ΔR^2= .0019
				F= .0709
				p= .9754

Leader Performance (manager ratings)

Variable	Betas	t	Stan. Betas	R^2
Step 1				
intercept	3.463653	11.641***	0.000000	.0332
sensitivity	-0.054823	-4.27***	-0.179383	
task structure	0.013107	1.313	0.053216	
Step 2				
intercept	3.535360	2.996***	0.000000	.0332
sensitivity	-0.058166	-1.064	-0.190324	
task structure	0.008176	0.103	0.033196	
sensitivity*task	0.000229	0.063	0.023833	
				ΔR^2= .0000
				F= .0000
				p= 1.0000

*p<.10 **p<.05 ***p<.01

subordinate ratings of consideration and initiating structure behavior within each department were computed. Then, self-monitoring and the two self-monitoring subscales were correlated with these variances. The results of these analyses are presented in Table 4.17. The results indicate that self-monitoring was not significantly correlated with the variance in leader behavior. These results do not support the idea that high self-monitors exhibit a wider range of behavior across subordinates than do low self-monitors.

Summary of Results

Overall, the results of the study failed to support Hypothesis 1. There was no general relationship between self-monitoring and organizational commitment, overall job satisfaction, intention to turnover, satisfaction with supervision, organizational citizenship behavior, and leader performance as rated by subordinates and managers. However, self-monitoring was a significant predictor of self-ratings of leader performance.

The results of the study were also not supportive of Hypothesis 2. While a large number of interactions were assessed, the interaction was significant in only one analysis. The incremental variance resulting from the addition of the sensitivity by task structure interaction term to the model was significant for intention to turnover (see Table 4.13). Figure 4.1 shows the nature of this interaction. For high task structure, as sensitivity increased, the intention to turnover decreased. For low task structure, as

Table 4.17 Correlation matrix for self-monitoring, modifiability subscale, sensitivity subscale scores and variance in leader behavior.

Variable	1	2	3	4	5
1. Self-monitoring	1.00	.895***	.722***	-.010	-.135
2. Modifiability		1.00	.339***	.028	-.154
3. Sensitivity			1.00	-.064	-.046
4. Variance in Consideration				1.00	.499***
5. Variance in Initiating Str.					1.00

*p<.10 **p<.05 ***p<.01

sensitivity increased, intention to turnover increased. These effects are contrary to those predicted in Hypothesis 2. Therefore, Hypothesis 2 was not supported.

Hypothesis 3 was also not supported. Self-monitoring was not associated with either mediator or the outcome measures. These findings suggest that impression management, leadership categorization processes, and leader behavior are not mediating the relationship between self-monitoring and effectiveness as indicated by employee attitudes and ratings of leader performance. Therefore, Hypothesis 3 was not supported.

A number of supplemental analyses were conducted. First, Hypothesis 1 and Hypothesis 2 were retested using the two self-monitoring subscales. Modifiability was found to be related to self-ratings of performance, and sensitivity was related to supervisor ratings of performance. While a significant interaction was found between sensitivity and task structure, the direct of this effect was contrary to that predicted in Hypothesis 2. Second, in order to have a more powerful test of the moderation hypothesis, Hypothesis 2 was tested at the individual level. The results did not support task structure as a moderator of the relationship between self-monitoring and effectiveness. Third, self-monitoring was correlated with variance in subordinate ratings of consideration and initiating structure. The results did not support the idea that high self-monitor leaders exhibit a wider range of behavior across subordinates than do low self-monitoring leaders.

CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION

The purpose of this study was to examine the relationship between self-monitoring and leader effectiveness. Several measures were used as surrogate measures of leader effectiveness, including subordinate ratings of organizational commitment, overall job satisfaction, satisfaction with supervision, intention to turnover, organizational citizenship behavior, and leader performance. Task structure was examined as a potential moderator of the relationship between self-monitoring and leader effectiveness. Three potential mediators of the self-monitoring--leader effectiveness relationship were also investigated. This chapter will summarize the results of the present study. Limitations of this study will be identified, and practical implications will be discussed. Finally, areas for future research will be outlined.

Self-monitoring as a Predictor of Employee Attitudes and Leader Performance

Research in the area of leadership has recently found support for the relationship between self-monitoring and leader emergence across a variety of tasks (e.g. Garland & Beard, 1979; Ellis et al., 1988; Ellis, 1988; Zaccaro et al., 1991; Dobbins et al., 1990). In these studies, high self-monitoring individuals tended to emerge in leadership roles more often than low self-

monitoring individuals. In addition, there is limited evidence suggesting that groups with high self-monitoring leaders have better performance than groups with low self-monitoring leaders (Seites & Anderson, 1981). Based on this research, Hypothesis 1 predicted a positive relationship between leader self-monitoring and employee attitudes and leader performance. However, this prediction was not supported. Self-monitoring was not significantly correlated with organizational commitment, overall job satisfaction, or satisfaction with supervision. There was also no relationship between self-monitoring and intention to turnover, organizational citizenship behavior, and performance ratings from subordinates and managers. In addition, the modifiability and sensitivity subscales were not related to these measures of leader effectiveness.

However, self-monitoring was positively related to supervisors' self-ratings of performance. The modifiability subscale also predicted self-ratings of performance. A positive relationship between self-monitoring and self-ratings of performance is not surprising. Research in the area of self-reports shows self-ratings are susceptible to inflation bias or socially desirable responding (Webb, Campbell, Schwarts, & Sechrest, 1966). These findings are consistent with results reported by Kent and Moss (1990). They found that self-monitoring was related to self-ratings of leader emergence, but did not influence leader emergence *per se*. Using a three-item leader emergence scale, they found that only one item which asked about the individual's influence on group goals and decisions was significantly correlated with self-monitoring. While the high self-monitor perceived himself or herself as a leader, others perceived the high self-monitor not as a leader but as an

important contributor to the group. Kent and Moss (1990) suggest that high self-monitors give themselves higher emergence ratings as an impression management strategy. They want others to think they possess leadership qualities whether or not they actually do.

Hypothesis 2 predicted that the relationship between self-monitoring and leader effectiveness would be stronger in low task structure than in high task structure situations. It was proposed that self-monitoring skills would be most beneficial in situations characterized by high ambiguity since it is difficult to define specific behaviors required for good performance in these situations. This hypothesis was tested in several ways including: 1) using total self-monitoring scores and separate subscale scores, and 2) using group as well as individual ratings of task structure. The results of these moderated regression analyses revealed only one significant interaction. Moreover, the pattern of this interaction was contrary to that predicted in Hypothesis 2. When task structure was low, intention to turnover increased as sensitivity increased. The opposite was true for high task structure. Given the large number of statistically non-significant results, this finding may be a chance event. Hence, hypothesis 2 was not supported.

Given the statistically non-significant results of the present study, the adequacy of the measures becomes an important issue. The two central variables in the present study were self-monitoring and task structure. Given the null results, a critical review of the psychometric characteristics of each scale is warranted. As reported previously, values of coefficient alpha were .73 for the total self-monitoring scale, .72 for the modifiability subscale, and .58 for the sensitivity subscale. The coefficient alpha values for the total

scale and the modifiability subscale were consistent with past research (Lennox & Wolfe, 1984). However, the alpha for the sensitivity subscale is much lower than the .70 reported by Lennox and Wolfe (1984). Item analysis did not reveal problems with the scale.

The self-monitoring scale was also submitted to a confirmatory factor analysis to determine if the underlying pattern of relationships among items was consistent with past research. The overall fit of the 13 items to the *a priori* constructs using the LISREL VII program was determined with a measurement model (Joreskog & Sorbom, 1989). Items were forced to load on their associated *a priori* factors. The goodness of fit index (GFI) and adjusted goodness of fit index (AGFI) were acceptable (GFI=.92 and AGFI=.88). In addition, all of the items loaded on their *a priori* determined factor, and the lambda values were statistically significant. Table 5.1 presents the factor loadings for the items on the two latent variables. As shown in Table 5.1, Item 1 and Item 13 had low factor loadings. Furthermore, Item 1 showed some tendency to load on Factor 1. Overall, these results suggest that the self-monitoring scale used in the present study possessed acceptable psychometric characteristics.

While the self-monitoring scale was acceptable psychometrically, there has been considerable controversy surrounding the meaning of the self-monitoring construct (Briggs & Cheek, 1986; Briggs, Cheek, & Buss, 1980; Gabrenya & Arkin, 1980; John & Block, 1986; Lennox & Wolfe, 1984). Critics question the uniqueness of the self-monitoring construct and the cognitive processing underlying it. They argue that the construct itself is vague, making it impossible to evaluate whether any scale is valid. Despite the

Table 5.1 Factor structure for the self-monitoring scale.

	Factors	
	1	2
1. I am often able to read people's true emotions correctly through their eyes.	.00	.21
2. Once I know what the situation calls for, it's easy for me to regulate my actions accordingly.	.41	.00
3. I have the ability to control the way I come across to people, depending on the impression I wish to give them.	.53	.00
4. I can usually tell when I have said something inappropriate by reading it in the listener's eyes.	.00	.53
5. I have found that I can adjust my behavior to meet the requirements of any situation I find myself in.	.59	.00
6. My powers of intuition are quite good when it comes to understanding others' emotions and motives.	.00	.44
7. Even when it might be to my advantage, I have difficulty putting up a good front.	.47	.00
8. I can usually tell when others consider a joke to be in bad taste, even though they may laugh convincingly.	.00	.59
9. In social situations, I have the ability to alter my behavior if I feel that something else is called for.	.52	.00
10. If someone is lying to me, I usually know it at once from the person's manner of expression.	.00	.44
11. When I feel that the image I am portraying is not working, I can readily change it to something that does.	.59	.00
12. I have trouble changing my behavior to suit different people and different situations.	.53	.00
13. In conversations, I am sensitive to even the slightest change in the facial expression of the person I am conversing with.	.00	.29

Modifiability Subscale Items: 2, 3, 5, 7, 9, 11, 12
Sensitivity Subscale Items: 1, 4, 6, 8, 10, 13

negative criticism, self-monitoring has generated much research interest since its initial formulation. Self-monitoring is one of the most popular measures of personality introduced in recent years. Many studies have been conducted to investigate the relationship between self-monitoring and a variety of other variables (e.g. Shaw & Costanzo, 1982; Snyder, 1979, 1987; Snyder & Campbell, 1982; John & Block, 1986). The popularity of the scale suggests that it assesses a construct of interest (Briggs & Cheek, 1988).

A primary difficulty associated with the use of self-monitoring in applied settings is social desirability. In an organizational setting where the results may have future implications, respondents are more likely to respond in socially desirable ways than are subjects in a laboratory setting. In addition, it may be difficult for individuals to accurately self-assess their own self-monitoring abilities. For example, one item on the self-monitoring scale reads, "I am often able to read people's true emotions correctly through their eyes." This item assumes people are perceptive of others. A person must have self-monitoring abilities in order to respond to this item. In addition, an individual may think they have this ability when in reality they do not. Or, they may give an affirmative answer to this item because they want others to think they have this ability whether or not they actually do. Thus, assessing self-monitoring via self-report may not be the most accurate way to measure this construct. Future work in this area will need to focus on the clarification of the self-monitoring construct and the development of more useful measures.

The second important variable in the present study was task structure. The psychometric properties of this scale were also carefully examined. As

reported previously, the coefficient alpha for task structure was .75 in the present study. Few studies have used Fiedler's task structure measure as a continuous scale. Theodory (1982) reported a test-retest reliability of .68 for this scale. Studies investigating the relationship between this task structure measure and other variables are unavailable. Results of an item analysis did not suggest problems with the task structure scale.

The task structure scale was also submitted to a confirmatory factor analysis. The overall fit of the 9 items to the *a priori* construct using LISREL VII (Joreskog & Sorbom, 1989) was determined with a measurement model. Items were forced to load on a single factor. The goodness of fit index (GFI) and adjusted goodness of fit index (AGFI) were acceptable (GFI=.98 and AGFI=.95). In addition, all of the items loaded on their *a priori* determined factor, and the lambda values were statistically significant. These values indicate that the measurement model fit the data reasonably well. Table 5.2 presents the factor loadings of the items on the latent variable. These results suggest that the task structure measure assessed a single dimension.

The task structure scale used in the present study was based on four components: decision verifiability, goal clarity, goal path multiplicity, and solution specificity (Fielder, 1967). This scale actually assessed task structure as opposed to the degree of structure associated with a job. Typically, a job consists of many tasks, as was the case in this study. Therefore, it is unclear exactly what construct was being assessed by this measure. Respondents may have based their ratings on an average of all tasks associated with their jobs, or their ratings may have reflected their general affect toward the job. Role clarity or role ambiguity may have been a

more appropriate measure of the amount of perceived ambiguity associated with the job.

The task structure measure suffered considerable range restriction in the present study. Compared with the task structure values for other occupations, the retail tasks in this sample were highly structured. Fiedler and Chemers (1984) reported typical task structure scores for a variety of occupations. These scores are presented in Table 5.3. These ratings ranged from a high of 15.88 for hotel managers to a low of 6.15 for nurse supervisors. A recent study by Dow and Oakley (1992) reported a mean task structure of 10.39 with a standard deviation of 3.31 for school principals. The mean task structure rating in the present study was 14.88 with a standard deviation of 1.39. In addition, one item was deleted from the scale making the highest possible score 18 for this study. Given these values, it appears that the tasks in the present study were highly structured. Ferris, Russ, and Fandt (1989) suggest that impression management is most likely to occur and be effective in situations characterized by high ambiguity. In this study, the opportunity to observe self-monitoring leaders in unstructured tasks was not available. Even when individual ratings of task structure were used, only 35 of 597 subordinates rated task structure less than 10. Sampling a highly diverse range of jobs may be necessary to test the moderating influence of task structure on the relationship between self-monitoring and leader effectiveness. Hence, an adequate test of the effect of self-monitoring in low structure situations may not have been possible in the current study.

Table 5.2 Factor structure for the task structure scale.

	Factor 1
1. Is there a detailed description available of the customer service that should be offered?	.54
2. Is there a person available to advise and give a description of the customer service that should be offered?	.57
3. Is there a step-by-step procedure, or a standard operating procedure which indicates in detail the manner in which the company expects you to serve the customer?	.59
4. Are there some methods clearly recognized as better than others for providing good customer service?	.35
5. Is it obvious when good customer service has been provided?	.42
6. Is there a book, manual, or job description which indicates the best ways to provide good customer service?	.60
7. Is there a generally agreed understanding about the level customer service has to meet to be considered acceptable?	.54
8. Is the evaluation of good customer service generally made against an objective standard?	.41
9. Can the group sales manager find out how well customers are being served in enough time to improve future customer service?	.47

Table 5.3 Task structure scores for Various Occupational Groups.

Job Title	Task Structure Score[a]
Hotel Managers	15.88
Head Nurses (U.S. and Canadian)	14.61
Second Level Managers (Mexico)	13.98
Company Commanders (U.S. Army)	12.46
Battalion Staff Officers (U.S. Army)	12.38
Fire Fighters (Urban Fire Departments)	11.54
Principals (Public Schools)	10.86
National Guard Senior Officers	9.50
Lieutenants (Urban Fire Departments)	9.37
Captains (Urban Fire Departments)	8.25
Battalion Chief (Urban Fire Department)	8.13
Administrators (City Treasurer's Office)	7.75
Assistant State Executive	6.36
State Executives (Reporting to the Governor)	6.35
Nurse Supervisors (U.S.)	6.15

[a]Possible scores range from 0 to 20.

Source: Fiedler Fred E., & Martin M. Chemers (1984). Improving leadership effectiveness: The leader match concept (2nd ed.). New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc.

It should be emphasized, however, that there was some variance in task structure ratings. Task structure was significantly correlated with most other variables in the present study. Since the jobs in this study were very similar, the amount of "true" variance in task structure ratings should be small. It seems likely that task structure ratings were contaminated by other factors, such as the employees' general affect toward the job. This contamination would explain the significant relationship between task structure and employee attitudes. If a wider range of job types had been included in the sample, there would have been greater "true" variance in task structure ratings and contamination due to general affect would have been a less serious problem.

Lack of support for task structure as a moderator of the self-monitoring--leader effectiveness relationship may also have been due to the particular aspects of task structure assessed. Fiedler's task structure measure focused on ambiguity in the task. Other task features may be more important than this one. For example, the amount of interaction within the work group may moderate the relationship between self-monitoring and leader effectiveness. The tasks in the present study were performed in a retail setting, and subjects were largely independent of other department members and supervisors. Subordinates typically spent the majority of their time interacting with customers, not co-workers. The frequency and length of interactions among co-workers may have been minimal. Other settings where groups interact more extensively may show different results.

Task competence or technical expertise may be another important factor in the relationship between self-monitoring and effectiveness

measures. For instance, Barland and Beard (1979) reported that self-monitoring was unrelated to leader emergence when the task required minimal interaction and task competency was clear. Task competence may be such a salient factor that it overrides the effect of impression management. If an individual is unable to perform required tasks and lacks knowledge of policies and procedures, no amount of impression management can compensate for these deficits. Impression management may only enhance outcomes for leaders who demonstrate technical competence. In the present study, department managers may have had limited interactions with sales associates and their primary responsibilities may be technical (e.g. handling refunds). Thus, self-monitoring may not be an important factor in this setting.

Emergent Versus Appointed Leaders

While self-monitoring appears to predict leader emergence (e.g. Garland & Beard, 1979; Ellis et al., 1988; Ellis, 1988; Dobbins et al., 1990), the results of the present study suggest that self-monitoring may not predict effectiveness once in positions of leadership. One explanation for the results of this study may be related to the distinction between leader election and leader appointment. Past research has shown differences between leadership processes for elected versus appointed leaders. Carter, Haythorn, Shriver, and Lanzetta (1951) reported that emergent leaders were more active than appointed leaders and tended to dominate the situation. Further, Ben-Yoak, Hollander, and Carnevale (1983) reported that elected leaders were considered to be more responsive to the followers' needs, more interested in

the group task, and more competent than appointed leaders. In addition, elected leaders were favored as future leaders more than appointed leaders. Dellva, McElroy, and Schrader (1987) found that formally appointed leaders tended to lose influence over time while emergent leaders gained influence. Most of the past research supporting the relationship between self-monitoring and leadership has focused on emergent leaders. However, in most organizations, leaders are appointed as was the case with the leaders in the present study. While there may not be a relationship between self-monitoring and effectiveness for appointed leaders, one may exist for emergent leaders. High self-monitors may be more adept at marketing themselves as leaders so that they assume leadership roles by election and appointment more often than low self-monitors. However, once selected for the position, they may not be more qualified or effective than low self-monitors.

Methodology of Past Research

Methodological differences between the present study and past research may also explain the divergent findings. Without exception, previous studies examining the relationship between self-monitoring and leader emergence have used university students as their subjects. Some researchers have questioned whether laboratory findings based on university student subjects will generalize to organizational settings (Locke, 1986; Gordon, Slade, & Schmitt, 1986, 1987). In addition, some of the emergence studies are described as "field studies" (e.g. Ellis et al., 1988; Ellis, 1988; Dobbins et al., 1990). However, these studies were also conducted using

students in an academic setting. The composition of many of the groups in these studies was quite artificial. For example, some studies used same sex groups. In other studies, group composition was based on self-monitoring scores and gender. Finally, the tasks used in these studies were often contrived and the length of group interaction was very brief. For example, one study used a 40 minute Ramagon task requiring that subjects buy parts for, assemble, and sell geodesic models (Cronshaw & Ellis, 1991). The use of these contrived tasks limited the amount of domain-specific knowledge available to subjects. Consequently, it is possible that findings from previous studies in this area are the result of artificial tasks with limited duration.

Limitations of the Study

While every effort was taken to assure the methodological integrity of the present study, several factors may have adversely influenced the results of this study. The limitations of the present study will be discussed in the following section.

As noted earlier, a major limitation of the present study centers around the adequacy of the self-monitoring and task structure measures. The self-monitoring construct has been characterized as vague, and subsequently, measures of this personality construct have been questioned (Briggs & Cheek, 1986; Briggs, Cheek, & Buss, 1980; Gabrenya & Arkin, 1980; John & Block, 1986; Lennox & Wolfe, 1984). Lack of clarity in this construct and difficulties associated with assessing this construct using self-report methods in applied settings limits research in this area. In addition, the task

structure measure suffered severe range restriction in the present study. While employees from both sales and service areas are represented in the sample, tasks were generally rated as highly structured (M=14.88, SD=1.39). The highly structured nature of the tasks may have prevented an adequate test of the moderating effects of task structure.

Another potential limitation of the present study was the failure to observe actual behavioral differences between low and high self-monitors. This study relied on self-reports as a measure of self-monitoring. Impression management tactics were also assessed using self-report and subordinate ratings. It is unclear whether respondents provided accurate ratings of their behavior or answered in a socially desirable manner to enhance their self-presentation. It is possible that HSM leaders may have distorted their ratings more often than LSM leaders. In addition, the impression management scale also generated a lot of negative reaction from subjects. Several items on this scale imply a motive for a particular action. For example, one item reads, "Arrive at work early in order to look good in front of your sales associates." Many respondents were unsure how to answer this item. Subjects often said they arrived early, but the reason was not to look good to their subordinates. It is possible subjects responded in a socially desirable manner. Again, it is impossible to know whether responses to this scale were accurate. The lack of correlation (r=-.01) between subordinate and self-ratings on this variable suggests that there may have been problems with it.

Another possible limitation of this study was the nature of the effectiveness indices. Many of the outcome variables focused on employee

attitudes (e.g. organizational commitment, overall job satisfaction, and satisfaction with supervision). While these are important indicators, ratings on these scales may have been subject to social desirability. Objective indicators of productivity and performance such as sales volume, internal theft, employee turnover rates, and customer complaints or compliments might be more useful indicators of effectiveness. Past research supporting a relationship between self-monitoring and effectiveness focused on group performance rather than leader performance and subordinate attitudes (Anderson and McLenigan, 1987). In addition, group task performance has been the most common measure of effectiveness used in the leadership research (Bass, 1981). Perhaps there is a stronger relationship between self-monitoring and objective indicators of group performance than between self-monitoring and employee attitudes.

Respondents were informed that results of this study were to be shared with the company. While the researcher was to have sole access to the completed surveys and responses for associates in each department were to be averaged, some subjects were concerned that their responses would be identified. In addition, some associates feared retribution should averages reflect negatively upon their supervisor. These fears may have caused associates to distort their ratings. These fears may have been magnified because the organization was in a state of transition at the time data were collected. Several stores had been open only for a short time and new stores were being opened soon. Employee promotion and reassignment were frequently occurring during this period. Given these conditions, employees

may have been motivated to inflate ratings as a means to impress management and acquire promotions or retain their current positions.

Also, certain portions of the survey were confusing to the subjects. The wording of several reverse-coded items on the organizational commitment scale were difficult for some subjects to answer. For example, one item read, "I feel very little loyalty to this company." The response scale ranged from "Strongly disagree" to "Strongly agree." Many subjects asked for assistance in responding to this item. However, there is no way to determine if those subjects who did not ask for help understood the item and marked the appropriate response.

Other potential limitations are the nature of the sample and setting of the present study. The selection of employees to participate in this study was not entirely random. In fact, supervisors scheduled associates from their departments to complete the survey. The employees chosen may or may not have been a fair representation of the subordinates reporting to a supervisor. In some cases, supervisors had as many as 50 sales associates under their direction. On average, only five associates were surveyed from each department. However, two factors mitigate this criticism. First, it is unlikely that supervisors had the motivation or opportunity to manipulate scheduling so that favorite employees were selected to complete the survey. Second, given staffing and scheduling constraints, most associates working on the day of survey administration were sampled.

Some loss of control may have existed when surveys were left at stores to be completed and returned by mail. As described previously, most of the surveys were administered by the researcher. However, a few surveys were

left at the stores to be completed and returned by mail. It is impossible to know the circumstances under which these survey was administered (e.g. some of these surveys may not have been completed by the appropriate people). It should be emphasized, however, that only 49 of 727 surveys were returned by mail. Also, these 49 survey were distributed across 14 of the 15 store locations. Therefore, it is unlikely that leaving surveys to be completed later and returned by mail seriously compromised the data.

Another potential problem was the short tenure of many employees. In fact, 43% of the sales associates had worked for their current supervisor less than 6 months. Several department supervisors were new to the company and lacked extensive work histories with their subordinates. It may have been difficult in some cases for subjects to provide knowledgeable responses to the questions. In an effort to address this criticism, analyses were repeated eliminating observations with supervisor or company tenure less than or equal to six months. The results of these analyses were not different from those using the entire sample. Thus, limited tenure did not appear to be a critical issue.

Another possible limitation associated with the sample was the small number of male subjects. The results of past research with regard to gender differences in leadership processes have been inconsistent. Garland and Beard (1979) reported that self-monitoring was related to emergence for females only when using same-sex groups. Ellis (1988) found self-monitoring predicted emergence in mixed-sex groups, but only for males. Ellis and Cronshaw (1992) reported strong support for a relationship between self-monitoring and emergence for males using mixed-sex groups. However,

Dobbins et al. (1990) found that self-monitoring predicted emergence for both men and women. Since results of the present study are based primarily on a female sample, future research would need to address the self-monitoring and effectiveness relationship for male subjects.

Practical Implications

Given the limitations of the present study, practical implications should be viewed as tenuous. While past research has shown a relationship between self-monitoring and leadership emergence, the present study suggests that this relationship does not generalize to the area of leadership effectiveness. These findings suggest the need to recognize a distinction between leadership style and substantive leadership abilities. Zaleznik (1989) has identified what he calls the "managerial mystique" as a problem in many businesses today. The managerial mystique is characterized by "Act[ing] on form and hop[ing] substantive solutions will follow." Zaleznik's ideas appear to apply to the current findings. While high self-monitors may present themselves as fitting the leadership role, they may not possess the technical expertise or leadership skills necessary to be successful in this role. Research in the area of selection has demonstrated a relationship between use of impression management tactics and interviewers' judgments. Candidates who engaged in impression management tactics were evaluated more favorably than were candidates who did not use these tactics, regardless of their objective qualifications (Gilmore & Ferris, 1989). Organizations may need to examine their selection and promotions systems

to ensure these systems are free from bias. It is possible these systems favor impression management differences among candidates rather than differences in technical expertise and competence. The present study suggests that impression management may not have any long-term impact.

Areas for Future Research

The present study was unable to demonstrate a relationship between self-monitoring and leader effectiveness. The results of this study suggest that it may be difficult to assess self-monitoring in applied settings using self-report measures. A primary difficulty associated with the use of this scale in applied settings is social desirability. In an organizational setting where the results may have future implications, respondents may be more likely to respond in socially desirable ways than are subjects in a laboratory setting. It may be difficult for individuals to accurately self-assess their own self-monitoring abilities. In addition, a number of researchers have commented on the failures of the self-monitoring scale to predict in a consistent manner and reviews suggest that the evidence supporting the self-monitoring scale is not as robust as commonly believed (Snyder & Gangestad, 1986; John & Block, 1986). Snyder and Gangstad (1986) acknowledged that the "truth of the self-monitoring construct (whatever we might decide it really is at heart)..." is vague. Before additional research in this topic is conducted, a re-analysis of the self-monitoring construct is needed. The core propositions of the construct must be clearly identified before it is possible to develop more useful measures. Current self-monitoring measures rely on self-report of

one's typical behavior. Future measures that assess behavior directly may be more useful measures of self-monitoring, as they would avoid the problem of social desirability in ratings.

Future research should also focus on the nature of the relationship between self-monitoring and effectiveness in other settings. Examining the relationship between self-monitoring and effectiveness in situations exhibiting more ambiguity than found in the retail setting of the present study would provide a better test of the relationship between self-monitoring and employee attitudes and leader performance. In addition, measures of role clarity or role ambiguity may be more useful indicators of perceived job structure.

One unexpected finding that should be examined in future research was the relationship between leader performance and organizational citizenship behavior (OCB). The correlation between subordinate ratings of leader performance and work group OCB was .50 ($p<.01$), while the correlation between supervisor ratings on these variables was .08. These correlations suggest that subordinates and leaders may consider different factors when assessing leader effectiveness. Subordinates appear to view the behavior of their work group and the performance of their supervisor as related. They may have viewed OCB as a result of the department supervisor's leadership skills. However, department supervisors appear to view the OCB behavior of their subordinates as independent of their own performance. Department supervisors may believe OCB is determined by organizational norms, organizational culture, or reward systems. Therefore, they may believe that they cannot control whether or not subordinates

engage in these behaviors. Future research should focus on identifying the factors employees at different levels in the organization consider when evaluating leader effectiveness.

Future research should investigate additional personality variables linked with social perceptiveness and behavioral flexibility. Ellis et al. (1988) suggest that self-monitoring should be investigated with a conjunction of other traits. For example, dominance, intelligence, and masculinity-femininity are strongly and consistently associated with leadership (Lord, Vader, & Alliger, 1986). Also, McClelland's Leadership Motive Pattern has been associated with success in management (McClelland & Boyatzis, 1982). Individuals possessing the characteristics of a high self-monitor with the motivational pattern appropriate for management may prove to be highly successful managers. Task competence may also be an important moderator in the relationship between self-monitoring and leader effectiveness. It may be the case that self-monitoring is only important for leaders who demonstrate task competence; i.e., self-monitoring cannot compensate for a lack of competence. A multivariate approach to individual characteristics facilitating leader effectiveness could contribute significantly to this area of research.

Summary

To summarize, the present research failed to support a relationship between self-monitoring and leader effectiveness as indicated by organizational commitment, overall job satisfaction, satisfaction with

supervision, intention to turnover, organizational citizenship behavior, and leader performance. In addition, results did not support Hypothesis 2 which predicted that task structure would moderate the relationship between self-monitoring and employee attitudes and leader performance. Finally, results also indicated that self-monitoring was not related to impression management, leadership categorization processes, or leader behavior. Therefore, Hypothesis 3, which predicted that impression management, leadership categorization processes, and leader behavior would mediate the relationship between self-monitoring and effectiveness, was not supported.

The results of the present study suggest that the relationship between self-monitoring and leader emergence does not generalize to leadership effectiveness. Fiedler (1967) made the distinction between "leadership effectiveness traits" and "leadership emergent traits." Leadership effectiveness traits are those personality traits directly correlated with group task performance. Leadership emergent traits are personality traits that facilitate movement into leadership positions. It may be the case that self-monitoring is a leadership emergent trait rather than a leadership effectiveness trait.

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APPENDIXES

APPENDIX A

PERFORMANCE APPRAISAL SCALE

PERFORMANCE APPRAISAL SCALE

This part of the survey asks you to rate the performance of each group sales manager who reports to you. Write the department name for which each group sales manager is responsible in the space provided. Please circle the response to each item that best describes the group sales manager's performance during the last year. You should complete a separate form for each group sales manager. If there are more forms than you need, simply leave those blank. All responses will be kept **strictly confidential.**

Group Sales Manager's Department: _____

0	Unsatisfactory:	Consistently fails to achieve what is expected
1	Below standard:	Occasionally fails to achieve what is expected
2	Standard:	Consistently achieves what is expected
3	Above standard:	Frequently exceeds what is expected
4	Outstanding:	Consistently exceeds what is expected

1. Develops and carries out solutions to problems 0 1 2 3 4
2. Shares important information with others in a clear and effective manner 0 1 2 3 4
3. Coordinates and directs work by assigning people roles and explaining when tasks should be performed 0 1 2 3 4
4. Motivates associates to do their best 0 1 2 3 4
5. Shows concern for the welfare and interpersonal needs of his or her associates 0 1 2 3 4
6. Demonstrates knowledge of departmental procedures and policies 0 1 2 3 4
7. Overall effectiveness as a group sales manager 0 1 2 3 4

Note: Only the directions were slightly modified to be appropriate for sales associates and department supervisors. The items were identical.

APPENDIX B

INFLUENCE TACTICS SCALE
DEPARTMENT SUPERVISOR VERSION

INFLUENCE TACTICS SCALE
DEPARTMENT SUPERVISOR VERSION

The following statements concern your style of working with your sales associates. Indicate how often you perform the behavior described in each statement by circling the response which best describes you. The scale is as follows:

1 Never
2 Very infrequently
3 Infrequently
4 About as often as not
5 Frequently
6 Very frequently
7 Always

1. Agree with your sales associates' major ideas.....1 2 3 4 5 6 7

2. Praise your sales associates on their accomplishments.....1 2 3 4 5 6 7

3. Present yourself to your sales associates as being a polite person.....1 2 3 4 5 6 7

4. Try to act as a "model" associate in front of your sales associates by, for example, never taking longer than the established time for lunch or dinner. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

5. Volunteer to help your sales associates on a task.....1 2 3 4 5 6 7

6. Disagree with your sales associates on major issues.....1 2 3 4 5 6 7

7. Work hard when you know the results will be seen by your sales associates 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

8. Work late at the store so that your sales associates will see you working late and think that you are a hard worker. 1 2 3 4 5 7

9. Agree with your sales associates' opinions outwardly even when you disagree inwardly.....1 2 3 4 5 6 7

10. Recognize your sales associates' accomplishments.....1 2 3 4 5 6 7

11. Do personal favors for your sales associates 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

12. Arrive at work early in order to look good in front of your sales associates 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

13. Compliment your sales associates on their dress or appearance. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

14. Present yourself to your sales associates as being a friendly person. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

15. Take an interest in your sales associates' personal lives 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

16. Try to let your sales associates know that you recognize who is responsible for the positive events that occur in their department 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

17. Try to make a positive event that sales associates are responsible for better than it really is 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

18. Let your sales associates know that you try to do good job in your department. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

19. Offer to do something for your sales associates which you are not required to do; that is, you do it as personal favors for them 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

20. Take responsibility for negative events, even when you are not solely responsible 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

21. Create the impression that you are a "good" person to your sales associates 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

22. Try to minimize negative events that you are responsible for so they appear less severe than they actually are. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

23. Try to take responsibility for positive events, even when you are not solely responsible. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

24. Play up the value of a positive event that you have taken credit for 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

APPENDIX C

ORGANIZATIONAL CITIZENSHIP SCALE
DEPARTMENT SUPERVISOR VERSION

ORGANIZATIONAL CITIZENSHIP SCALE
DEPARTMENT SUPERVISOR VERSION

This part of the survey asks you to describe the work habits of the sales associates who work in your department. Think about the way these associates as a group usually act on the job. Circle the response following each statement that best describes these sales associates on average. The scale is as follows:

1 Not at all characteristic
2 Not characteristic
3 Unsure
4 Characteristic
5 Very characteristic

Overall, the associates working in my department...

1. Help others who have been absent..... 1 2 3 4 5
2. Are punctual..... 1 2 3 4 5
3. Volunteer for things that are not required..... 1 2 3 4 5
4. Take undeserved breaks*..... 1 2 3 4 5
5. Orient new people even though it is not required..... 1 2 3 4 5
6. Have above normal work attendance..... 1 2 3 4 5
7. Help others who have heavy work loads..... 1 2 3 4 5
8. Coast toward the end of the day*..... 1 2 3 4 5
9. Give advance notice if unable to come to work..... 1 2 3 4 5
10. Spend a great deal of time with personal phone conversations*..... 1 2 3 4 5
11. Do not take unnecessary time off work..... 1 2 3 4 5
12. Assist the group sales manager with his or her work..... 1 2 3 4 5
13. Make innovative suggestions to improve department..... 1 2 3 4 5
14. Do not take extra breaks..... 1 2 3 4 5
15. Do not spend time in idle conversation..... 1 2 3 4 5

Note: * indicates item reverse scored

APPENDIX D

SELF-MONITORING SCALE

SELF-MONITORING SCALE

Please indicate the degree to which you agree or disagree with each statement by circling the response which best describes your feeling toward the statement. The scale is as follows:

0 Certainly, always false
1 Generally, false
2 Somewhat false, but with exception
3 Somewhat true, but with exception
4 Generally true
5 Certainly, always true

1. I am often able to read people's true emotions correctly through their eyes. 0 1 2 3 4 5

2. Once I know what the situation calls for, it's easy for me to regulate my actions accordingly. 0 1 2 3 4 5

3. I have the ability to control the way I come across to people, depending on the impression I wish to give them 0 1 2 3 4 5

4. I can usually tell when I have said something inappropriate by reading it in the listener's eyes 0 1 2 3 4 5

5. I have found that I can adjust my behavior to meet the requirements of any situation I find myself in. 0 1 2 3 4 5

6. My powers of intuition are quite good when it comes to understanding others' emotions and motives. 0 1 2 3 4 5

7. Even when it might be to my advantage, I have difficulty putting up a good front* 0 1 2 3 4 5

8. I can usually tell when others consider a joke to be in bad taste, even though they may laugh convincingly. 0 1 2 3 4 5

9. In social situations, I have the ability to alter my behavior if I feel that something else is called for. 0 1 2 3 4 5

10. If someone is lying to me, I usually know it at once from the person's manner of expression. 0 1 2 3 4 5

11. When I feel that the image I am portraying is not working, I can readily change it to something that does. 0 1 2 3 4 5

12. I have trouble changing my behavior to suit different people and different situations* 0 1 2 3 4 5

13. In conversations, I am sensitive to even the slightest change in the facial expression of the person I am conversing with. 0 1 2 3 4 5

Note:
* indicates item is reversed scored
Modifiability Subscale Items: 2, 3, 5, 7, 9, 11, 12
Sensitivity Subscale Items: 1, 4, 6, 8, 10, 13

APPENDIX E

GENERAL LEADERSHIP IMPRESSION

GENERAL LEADERSHIP IMPRESSION

Circle the response following each statement that best describes your group sales manager. The scale is as follows:

1 Strongly disagree
2 Disagree
3 Neither disagree nor agree
4 Agree
5 Strongly agree

1. My group sales manager acts like a leader. 1 2 3 4 5

2. If I could select someone to be a leader, I would pick my current group sales manager. 1 2 3 4 5

3. My group sales manager is a typical leader 1 2 3 4 5

4. My group sales manager performs behaviors I would consider typical of a leader. 1 2 3 4 5

5. My group sales manager highly matches my image of a leader. 1 2 3 4 5

APPENDIX F

INFLUENCE TACTICS SCALE
SALES ASSOCIATE VERSION

INFLUENCE TACTICS SCALE
SALES ASSOCIATE VERSION

Indicate how often your group sales manager performs the behavior described in each item by circling the most appropriate number. The scale is as follows:

1 Never
2 Very infrequently
3 Infrequently
4 About as often as not
5 Frequently
6 Very frequently
7 Always

My group sales manager...

1. Agrees with my major ideas.....1 2 3 4 5 6 7
2. Praises me on my accomplishments.....1 2 3 4 5 6 7
3. Presents himself or herself as being a polite person.....1 2 3 4 5 6 7
4. Tries to act as a model" associate by, for example, never taking longer than the established time for lunch or dinner.....1 2 3 4 5 6 7
5. Volunteers to help me on a task.....1 2 3 4 5 6 7
6. Disagrees with my major issues.....1 2 3 4 5 6 7
7. Works hard when he or she know the results will be seen by me.....1 2 3 4 5 6 7
8. Works late at the store so that I will see him or her working late and think that he or she is a hard worker.....1 2 3 4 5 6 7
9. Agrees with my opinions outwardly even when he or she disagrees inwardly.....1 2 3 4 5 6 7
10. Recognizes my accomplishments.....1 2 3 4 5 6 7
11. Does personal favors for me.....1 2 3 4 5 6 7

12. Arrives at work early in order to look good in front of me 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

13. Compliments me on my dress or appearance. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

14. Presents himself or herself as being a friendly person 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

15. Takes an interest in my personal life 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

16. Tries to let me know that he or she recognizes who is responsible for the positive events that occur in my department 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

17. Tries to make a positive event that I am responsible for better than it really is. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

18. Lets me know that he or she tries to do good job in his or her work. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

19. Offers to do something for me which he or she is not required to do; that is, he or she does it as a personal favor 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

20. Takes responsibility for negative events, even when he or she is not solely responsible. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

21. Creates the impression that he or she is a "good" person 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

22. Tries to minimize negative events that he or she is responsible for so they appear less severe than they actually are. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

23. Tries to take responsibility for positive events, even when he or she is not solely responsible.. ..... 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

24. Plays up the value of a positive event that he or she has taken credit for. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

APPENDIX G

INTENTION TO TURNOVER

INTENTION TO TURNOVER

Circle the number that best indicates how you feel about each item below.

1. I will probably look for a new job in the next year.

   1 Strongly disagree
   2 Disagree
   3 Neither disagree not agree
   4 Agree
   5 Strongly agree

2. I often think about quitting.

   1 Strongly disagree
   2 Disagree
   3 Neither disagree not agree
   4 Agree
   5 Strongly agree

3. How likely is it that you will actively look for a new job in the next year?

   1 Not at all likely
   2 Not likely
   3 Unsure
   4 Likely
   5 Very likely

APPENDIX H

CONSIDERATION SUBSCALE
LEADER BEHAVIOR DESCRIPTIVE QUESTIONNAIRE

CONSIDERATION SUBSCALE
LEADER BEHAVIOR DESCRIPTIVE QUESTIONNAIRE

Indicate how often your group sales manager performs the behavior described in each item by circling the most appropriate number. The scale is as follows:

1 Never
2 Seldom
3 Occasionally
4 Often
5 Always

My group sales manager...

1. Is friendly and approachable.....1 2 3 4 5
2. Does little things to make it pleasant to be a member of the department.....1 2 3 4 5
3. Puts suggestions made by sales associates into operation.....1 2 3 4 5
4. Treats all department members as his or her equals.....1 2 3 4 5
5. Gives advance notice of changes.....1 2 3 4 5
6. Keeps to himself or herself*.....1 2 3 4 5
7. Looks out for the personal welfare of department members.....1 2 3 4 5
8. Is willing to make changes.....1 2 3 4 5
9. Refuses to explain his or her actions*.....1 2 3 4 5
10. Acts without consulting department members*.....1 2 3 4 5

Note: * indicates item is reverse scored

APPENDIX I

INITIATING STRUCTURE SUBSCALE
LEADER BEHAVIOR DESCRIPTIVE QUESTIONNAIRE

INITIATING STRUCTURE SUBSCALE
LEADER BEHAVIOR DESCRIPTIVE QUESTIONNAIRE

Indicate how often your group sales manager performs the behavior described in each item by circling the most appropriate number. The scale is as follows:

1 Never
2 Seldom
3 Occasionally
4 Often
5 Always

My group sales manager...

1. Lets department members know what is expected of them 1 2 3 4 5
2. Encourages the use of standard procedures 1 2 3 4 5
3. Tries out his or her ideas on department members 1 2 3 4 5
4. Makes his or her attitudes clear to department members 1 2 3 4 5
5. Decides what shall be done and how it will be done 1 2 3 4 5
6. Assigns department members to particular jobs. 1 2 3 4 5
7. Makes sure that his or her role in the department is understood by the department members 1 2 3 4 5
8. Schedules the work to be done. 1 2 3 4 5
9. Maintains definite standards of performance. 1 2 3 4 5
10. Asks that department members follow policies and procedures. 1 2 3 4 5

Note: * indicates item is reverse scored

APPENDIX J

ORGANIZATIONAL CITIZENSHIP SCALE
SALES ASSOCIATE VERSION

ORGANIZATIONAL CITIZENSHIP SCALE
SALES ASSOCIATE VERSION

This part of the survey asks you to describe the work habits of the associates in your department. Think about the way you and your co-workers as a group usually act on the job. Circle the number after each statement that best describes your work group on average. The scale is as follows:

1 Not at all characteristic
2 Not characteristic
3 Unsure
4 Characteristic
5 Very characteristic

Overall, sales associates working in my department...

1. Help others who have been absent..... 1 2 3 4 5
2. Are punctual..... 1 2 3 4 5
3. Volunteer for things that are not required..... 1 2 3 4 5
4. Take undeserved breaks*..... 1 2 3 4 5
5. Orient new people even though it is not required..... 1 2 3 4 5
6. Have above the norm work attendance..... 1 2 3 4 5
7. Help others who have heavy work loads..... 1 2 3 4 5
8. Coast toward the end of the day*..... 1 2 3 4 5
9. Give advance notice if unable to come to work..... 1 2 3 4 5
10. Spend a great deal of time with personal phone conversations*..... 1 2 3 4 5
11. Do not take unnecessary time off work..... 1 2 3 4 5
12. Assist the group sales manager with his or her work..... 1 2 3 4 5
13. Make innovative suggestions to improve the department..... 1 2 3 4 5
14. Do not take extra breaks..... 1 2 3 4 5
15. Do not spend time in idle conversation..... 1 2 3 4 5

Note: * indicates item is reverse scored

APPENDIX K

ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT QUESTIONNAIRE

ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT QUESTIONNAIRE

Indicate the degree to which you agree or disagree with each statement by circling the response which best describes your feeling toward the statement. The scale is as follows:

1 Strongly disagree
2 Moderately disagree
3 Slightly disagree
4 Neither agree nor disagree
5 Slightly agree
6 Moderately agree
7 Strongly agree

1. I am willing to put in a great deal of effort beyond that normally expected in order to help this company be successful..... 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

2. I talk up this company to my friends as a great company to work for..... 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

3. I feel very little loyalty to this company*..... 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

4. I would accept almost any type of job assignment in order to keep working for this company..... 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

5. I find that my values and the company's values are very similar..... 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

6. I am proud to tell others I am a part of this company..... 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

7. I could just as well be working for a different company as long as the type of work were similar*..... 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

8. This company really inspires the very best in me in the way of job performance..... 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

9. It would take very little change in my present circumstances to cause me to leave this company*..... 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

10. I am extremely glad that I chose this company to work for, over others I was considering at the time I joined..... 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

11. There's not too much to be gained by sticking with this company indefinitely*..... 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

12. Often, I find it difficult to agree with this company's policies on important matters relating to its associates*..... 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

13. I really care about the fate of this company..... 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

14. For me this is the best of all possible companies for which to work..... 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

15. Deciding to work for this company was a definite mistake on my part.*..... 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Note: * indicates item is reverse scored

APPENDIX L

OVERALL JOB SATISFACTION

OVERALL JOB SATISFACTION

Circle the number that best describes how you feel about each item below. The scale is as follows:

1 Strongly disagree
2 Moderately disagree
3 Slightly disagree
4 Neither agree nor disagree
5 Slightly agree
6 Moderately agree
7 Strongly agree

1. Generally speaking, I am very satisfied with this job 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

2. I am generally satisfied with the kind of work I do in this job 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

3. Most people on this job are very satisfied with the job 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

APPENDIX M

SATISFACTION WITH SUPERVISION

SATISFACTION WITH SUPERVISION

Indicate the degree to which you are satisfied with each of the following aspects of your job by circling the most appropriate number following each item. The scale is as follows:

1 Very dissatisfied
2 Moderately dissatisfied
3 Slightly dissatisfied
4 Neither dissatisfied nor satisfied
5 Slightly satisfied
6 Moderately satisfied
7 Very satisfied

1. The degree of respect and fair treatment I receive from my group sales manager 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

2. The amount of support and guidance I receive from my group sales manager. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

3. The overall quality of the supervision I receive in my work 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

APPENDIX N

TASK STRUCTURE

TASK STRUCTURE

Indicate the degree to which each statement best describes your job by circling the most appropriate response following each statement. The scale is as follows:

0 Seldom true
1 Sometimes true
2 Usually true

1. Is there a detailed description available of the customer service that should be offered? 0 1 2

2. Is there a person available to advise and give a description of the customer service that should be offered? 0 1 2

3. Is there a step-by-step procedure, or a standard operating procedure which indicates in detail the manner in which the company expects you to serve the customer? 0 1 2

4. Are there some methods clearly recognized as better than others for providing good customer service? 0 1 2

5. Is it obvious when good customer service has been provided? 0 1 2

6. Is there a book, manual, or job description which indicates the best ways to provide good customer service? 0 1 2

7. Is there a generally agreed understanding about the level customer service has to meet to be considered acceptable? 0 1 2

8. Is the evaluation of good customer service generally made against an objective standard? 0 1 2

9. Can the group sales manager find out how well customers are being served in enough time to improve future customer service? 0 1 2

VITA

Denise Roper Campbell was born in Morganton, North Carolina on January 20, 1965 to Doris Smith Roper and the late William Ray Roper. She has one younger brother, Scott. Denise attended Freedom High School and graduated with honors in June, 1983. She attended the University of North Carolina at Chapel Hill earning a Bachelor of Arts in Psychology and graduating with distinction in May, 1987. She began her graduate studies at The University of Tennessee at Knoxville in September, 1987. During this time she developed an interest in employee training and selection as well as organizational assessment. Denise received her doctorate in Industrial and Organization Psychology in December, 1993. She is currently employed as a Human Resource Analyst by the City of Knoxville. Denise and her husband, Chris, live in Knoxville with their cocker spaniel, Miss Molly.