

ABSTRACT

WILGUS, SAMUEL JAMES. Examining the Influence of Self-Monitoring on Leader-Follower Congruence. (Under the direction of Dr. Adam Meade).

Regardless of the goal or setting, leadership involves a social interaction between a leader and follower. The social interaction inherent in leadership is emphasized in several streams of leadership research, such as leader member exchange quality or assessing examining the congruence of the follower's implicit leadership theory (ILT) and the leader's exhibited traits. These approaches provide a contextualized view of leadership that considers the idiosyncratic differences between different leader-member dyads. However, these approaches to examine potential differences between simply having "good matches" between a leader and follower or whether a leader is actively adapting to unique social situational demands through self-monitoring. Such distinction is important in an increasingly diverse workplace where members of teams may have varying schemas for ideal leadership. The present study attempts to fill this gap in the current approaches by examining the extent to which ILT congruence predicts impressions of leadership and how self-monitoring ability buffers against being ILT incongruence. Results indicate self-monitoring ability significantly moderates the relationship between ILT congruence and ratings of leadership emergence, such that the relationship weakens as self-monitoring ability increases. Implications and directions for future research are discussed.

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Examining the Influence of Self-Monitoring on Leader-Follower Congruence

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Examining the Influence of Self-Monitoring on Leader-Follower Congruence

The Importance of the Social Interaction within Leadership

Leadership, regardless of its environment or goal, or whether it exists formally or informally, occurs within a social setting (House & Baetz, 1979). In order to understand the characteristics and behaviors of individuals within leader roles and how those individuals' characteristics and behaviors contribute to leader effectiveness, it is crucial to consider the social nature and embeddedness of leadership (Fiedler & Garcia, 1987; Hackman, Walton, & Goodman, 1986; Hollander & Julian, 1970; House & Baetz, 1979). Despite the clear importance of the social setting, many leadership theories do not adequately take into consideration the social interaction in which leadership takes place.

For example, a lack of consideration for the social nature of leadership is part of the reason many early trait theorists failed to identify traits that were consistently associated with successful leadership (Mann, 1959; Stogdill, 1948). This criticism of the trait approach gave rise to several behavioral approaches that instead focus on specific actions exhibited by successful leaders. The shift of attention to actions of leaders led to behavioral theories such as leadership being defined by initiating structure and consideration behaviors (Hemphill & Coons, 1957; Stogdill, 1963), the contingency model (Fiedler, 1967), the managerial grid (Blake & Mouton, 1964), and the widely used full range model of leadership (transformational and transactional leadership; (Avolio, 2003; Bass, 1985; Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Moorman, & Fetter, 1990). While these behavioral theories highlight the importance of the social context of leadership by describing the influence a leader has on a

follower, these approaches have also been criticized due to their ambiguity in how the specific behaviors described are influential across unique situations and followers (Schriesheim, Tepper, & Tetrault, 1994; Yukl, 1999). Furthermore, these approaches may not be sufficient to understand distributed leadership within teams, where multiple leaders may emerge and contribute to team effectiveness in different ways and with varying leader behaviors based on the specific leader roles they take (Pearce & Sims, 2002).

One important element that may account for some of the inconsistencies between several of the major leadership theories is the lack of an adequate description of the social interaction that takes place within a relationship where one member takes on a leader role. Indeed, with an increasingly diverse workplace, viewing leadership without considering how unique perceptions based on differing backgrounds, cultures, and experience may become increasingly impractical. For example, consider a project leader who wishes to encourage creative thinking through offering an unstructured period of time per week in which the other individuals on the project can work on whatever they'd like. Whether or not this type of leader behavior is successful may be influenced by the unique perceptions each individual holds of the person in the leader role. Lord and colleagues touch on this idea with leader categorization theory (Foti & Lord, 1987; Lord & Alliger, 1985; Lord, Foti, & de Vader, 1984; Lord & Maher, 1991).

Leader categorization theory posits that a follower's tendency to categorize a person as a leader or not is based on his/her implicit leadership theory (ILT). Supported by the conceptual framework of cognitive categorization (Rosch, 1978) and person perception

(Cantor & Mischel, 1979), ILTs are constructed as mental frameworks that describe an individual's notion about the attributes that are most representative of leaders. ILTs develop from past experiences with leaders and operate as a heuristic that allows an individual to match potential leaders' behavioral tendencies to that individual's expectations.

By providing a heuristic, ILTs allow a subordinate to quickly categorize the potential leader into a leader or non-leader category. Being categorized by a follower as being a leader has a significant influence on that follower's perceptions of leader effectiveness (Nye & Forsyth, 1991). Returning to the example of the manager offering creative thinking time, followers that have categorized this manager as a leader might see this strategy as empowering, while those who have categorized the manager as a non-leader might see this activity as a waste of time. Indeed, individuals that fail to be seen as a prototypical individual are not seen as deserving of influence in a leadership role (Kenney, Schwartz-Kenney, & Blascovich, 1996). The idea that followers may react differently to leaders based on individual follower ILTs is a departure from the traditional idea of leader behaviors directly influencing subordinate behavior. In this way, leader categorization theory reflects the idea that leader-subordinate relationships are instead more accurately conceptualized as a mutual influence process (Herold, 1977).

Varying Definitions of Leadership Social Interaction

The importance of a mutual influence between a leader and subordinate is not a recently developed idea. For example, in their research on power and influence, French and Raven (1959) presented the idea that power largely depends on the perception of the

observer. More recently, research on the levels of shared trust, respect, and obligation, also known as leader-member exchange (LMX; Liden & Graen, 1980) quality, has been linked to a variety of relevant workplace outcomes (Gerstner & Day, 1997; Ilies, Nahrgang, & Morgeson, 2007). Dyad relationship quality has been further linked to similarity between the leader and subordinate. For example, Pulakos and Wexley (1983) reported that leader-subordinate dyads that perceived higher levels of similarity between one another rated each other more favorably, compared to dyads that perceived dissimilarity. Relatedly, Turban and Jones (1988) found that perceived similarity predicted performance, in addition to levels of satisfaction.

More recent research has focused on leader-follower similarity by utilizing ILTs in an attempt to parse out the underlying reasons why a “good match” between a leader and a follower predicts successful leadership (Engle & Lord, 1997; Epitropaki & Martin, 2005; Riggs & Porter, 2016). Generally, researchers in this area define leader-follower congruence as extent to which a leader matches a follower’s unique ILT. For example, ILT congruence has been operationalized as the congruence between a follower’s ILT and that follower’s ratings of their leader in terms of the ILT characteristics of the leader (Epitropaki & Martin, 2005; Riggs & Porter, 2016). The level of this congruence was found to indirectly predict employee job satisfaction, commitment, well-being, and performance through LMX. Unique to this approach of examining leadership is the underlying consideration that there is not a “one-size-fits-all” when it comes to perceptions of leadership and that leadership occurs within specific dyadic relationships based on how leader actions match follower schemas.

However, given the increasing use of work teams on projects within the workplace (Chen, Kirkman, Kanfer, Allen & Rosen, 2007; Day, Gronn, & Salas, 2006; Morgeson, DeRue, & Karam, 2010), it is important for organizations to have insight into how leaders can be successful while not always being congruent with a diverse set of team members or followers. For example, a high level of ILT congruence indicates a leader may be a perfect match for what a given follower sees as an ideal leader which may result in that leader being seen by the follower as worthy of influence (Kenney et al., 1996). However, there is a paucity of research examining how leaders may operate successfully when they experience low congruence with their followers. Research is needed in this area given the influence personality and parental traits have on the development of ILTs (Keller, 2000) and the increasing diversity of backgrounds and experiences within work teams (Jackson, Joshi, & Erhardt, 2003; Phillips, Northcraft, & Neale, 2006). While ILT congruence remains an important method of gaining a contextualized look at leadership given unique follower perceptions, it is equally important to understand the influence of leader's ability to be socially adaptive.

Social Adaptability as a Key Component of Leader-Subordinate Social Interaction

The idea of adaptive social ability is very similar to the idea of social perceptiveness described by Zaccaro, Gilbert, Thor, and Mumford (1992). Zaccaro describes social perceptiveness as the capacity to ascertain an accurate awareness of social situational demands. While similar to social insight or empathy within leadership (Bass & Stogdill,

1990), social perceptiveness goes beyond simply recognizing problems by also including the element of perceiving and understanding critical social information (Zaccaro et al., 1992).

The concept of social perceptiveness is similar to many constructs used in leadership research. For example, empathy, which is defined as an “ability to comprehend another’s feelings and to re-experience them oneself” (Plutchik, 1987, p. 43), has been conceptually related to leadership effectiveness (Cooper & Shawaf, 1997; Goleman, 1998b). Emotional intelligence (Salovey & Mayer, 1990) and earlier conceptualizations of social intelligence (Thorndike, 1920) have also touched on the general idea of recognizing appropriate actions and responses based on information gleaned from others.

Perhaps the closest conceptualization of social perceptiveness in the leadership literature is self-monitoring ability. Snyder (1974, 1979) described this ability as an individual’s capacity to monitor and control one’s behaviors. Similar conceptualizations of self-monitoring involve being sensitive to the expressive behaviors to others and the ability to modify self-presentation accordingly (Lennox & Wolfe, 1984). Individuals who possess a high ability to self-monitor may demonstrate a higher level of self-awareness when interacting with others and may tend to utilize others’ behaviors as cues for their own actions (Ickes, Holloway, Stinson, & Hoodenpyle, 2006).

While self-monitoring has demonstrated weak but positive direct relationships to several relevant workplace outcomes such as job performance (Day, Schleicher, Unckless, & Hiller, 2002), it appears to play a less direct but more important role in determining someone’s ability to either be adaptive or rigid across different situations (Zaccaro, Foti, &

Kenny, 1991; Britt, 1993; Dalal et al., 2015), which may be a key factor in leadership. Indeed, high levels of this ability have been demonstrated to predict several outcomes specifically relevant to leadership such as socially desirable self-presentation (Lippa, 1978), adaptability to new situations (Snyder, 1979), and a higher probability of initiating conversation, compared to low levels of self-monitoring (Ickes & Barnes, 1977). Other research has found that high self-monitoring ability predicts leadership emergence (Ellis, 1988; Ellis, Adamson, Deszca, & Cawsey, 1988; Garland, & Beard, 1979) and that high self-monitoring results in stable leadership emergence across different situations with unique social demands (Zaccaro et al., 1991).

Integrating Self-Monitoring Ability into ILT Congruence Research

In particular, self-monitoring may be an important factor in differentiating between highly schema-congruent leaders (e.g., “good matches”) versus socially adaptive leaders. By examining how leader impressions form in leaderless group settings, the present study is an attempt to integrate self-monitoring ability with ILT congruence. This study not only extends ILT congruence research to leader emergence criteria, but also addresses the lack of distinguishing “good matches” from adaptive leaders in research examining the congruence between an individual’s ILT and another’s demonstrated traits in predicting impressions of leadership. If an individual has high self-monitoring ability, ILT congruence will be less a determinant of being seen as a leader; they will be able to actively adapt to different leader expectations whether those expectations match the traits they possess or not. Conversely, since low self-monitors are not able to actively adapt to different leader expectations, having

traits congruent with others' ILTs should be a key factor in being seen as a leader. In other words, self-monitoring ability should have a buffering effect on ILT *incongruence*.

The present study's goals are twofold. First, this study aims to investigate the influence of ILT congruence on leadership emergence. Specifically, it is predicted that:

H1: ILT congruence will correlate positively and significantly with leadership emergence.

Additionally, this study aims to examine how self-monitoring ability influences the strength of the ILT congruence-leadership emergence relationship. Specifically, it is predicted that:

H2: The relationship between ILT congruence and leadership emergence ratings will be significantly moderated by self-monitoring behavior such that the relationship will be stronger when self-monitoring ability is low (Figure 1).

METHOD

Sample

Participants were 111 undergraduates from a large southeastern university enrolled in a course that involved a group project in a business course. Students in this course indicated if they would like to participate at the beginning of the semester once the group project assignment was announced. Participants were incentivized by receiving extra credit in their course for full participation in the study. Surveys were sent out to 29 groups, with group sizes ranging from three to five members per group ($M = 3.96$ members per group, $SD = .56$). The final sample consisted of 97 participants across 27 groups ($M = 3.44$ members per group, $SD = .92$) for which there was sufficient data for analysis. The average age of the participants

was 20.76 years old ($SD = 1.25$ years), ranging from 18 to 27 years of age. In addition, the sample was 57.7% male. The racial/ethnic breakdown of the sample was 84.5% White/Caucasian, 6.1% Black/African-American, 3.1% Hispanic/Latino, 3.1% Asian-American, and 3.1% other.

Procedure

Participants that indicated they would like to participate in the study first completed an online survey (Survey 1) after the group project was assigned. This survey included scales for the participant's own ILT, self-reported self-monitoring ability, and demographic variables. Later in the semester, after completion of the group project, participants were sent another online survey (Survey 2) that contained scales to assess ILT recognition of each team member and leader impression ratings of each group member. Participants were reminded that all of their own ratings as well as ratings of other group members were to be confidential and that only aggregated data reports would be reported.

Measures

A table summarizing the administration of the measures between Survey 1 and Survey 2 can be found in the appendix (Table 1).

Implicit leadership theories. A revised 21-item version (Epitropaki & Martin, 2004) of the 41-item scale developed by Offerman and colleagues (1994) was used to examine ILTs. This scale asks participants to rate how characteristic each of the each of the 21 traits was of a "good leader." Participants rated each trait on a 9-point scale ranging from 1 (not at all characteristic) to 9 (extremely characteristic). Based on past research (Epitropaki &

Martin, 2004; 2005), mean scale scores were calculated for each of the two major dimensions: prototypical and anti-prototypical leader traits. Prototypical subdimensions are sensitivity (3 items: understanding, sincere, helpful), intelligence (4 items: intelligent, knowledgeable, educated, clever), dedication (3 items: motivated, dedicated, hardworking), dynamism (3 items: energetic, strong, dynamic). Anti-prototypical dimensions include tyranny (5 items: domineering, pushy, manipulative, conceited, selfish) and masculinity (3 items: masculine, male, loud).

ILT Recognition. The previously mentioned ILT scale were administered again after completion of the group project, with some changes. Instead of being asked to rate how characteristic each trait was of a “good leader,” participants were asked to indicate how characteristic each of the attributes are for each of their group members. A 9-point scale was used with response options ranging from 1 (not at all characteristic) to 9 (extremely characteristic). Mean scores were calculated for prototypical and anti-prototypical dimensions.

ILT Congruence. In order to assess congruence between an individual’s prototypical and anti-prototypical leader schema and how prototypical or anti-prototypical each of their team members were, the absolute difference between ILT and ILT recognition scores were calculated. These absolute differences were then summed for each team member, such that each team member received a total absolute difference score that represented the difference score between each of their teammates’ ILTs and those respective teammates’ ratings of the team member. This is a similar index of congruence used in past ILT congruence research

(Epitropaki & Martin, 2005; Riggs & Porter, 2016) along with several other areas of research that represent congruence, such as congruence between perceived and desired job attributes (Swaney & Prediger, 1985), perceived and desired subordinate characteristics (Dansereau, Graen, & Haga, 1975; Toffler, 1981).

There are a number of typically untested assumptions when using a difference score (Edwards, 1994), such as the difference measure representing equal and opposite contributions of each component measure and that these component measures possess the same variance. In order to assess the suitability of using such a distance score, a number of assumptions were tested using recommendations set forth by Edwards (1994). These recommendations essentially involve examining the relationship of the ILT congruence index with the scales that the difference score is comprised of (ILT and ILT recognition scales). This process involved testing a regression model conducted with the difference score as the outcome. Beta weights were calculated for each of the component measures (ILT and ILT recognition scales) along with three other terms (W , $W * ILT$, $W * ILT$ recognition). The W term was a dummy variable valued at 1 if ILT recognition $>$ ILT and 0 otherwise. According to Edwards (1994), in order for absolute difference scores to be appropriate for further analyses, the following constraints should be upheld. First, the coefficients on ILT , ILT recognition, $W * ILT$, and $W * ILT$ recognition should all be significant, while the coefficient on W should be nonsignificant. Second, the coefficients on ILT and ILT recognition should have opposite signs but be relatively equal in magnitude. Third, the coefficients on $W * ILT$ and $W * ILT$ recognition should be opposite in sign but relatively

equal in magnitude. Finally, the coefficient on $W * \text{ILT}$ should be opposite in sign and roughly two times in magnitude of the coefficient on ILT .

Because the total ILT congruence index for one individual was an aggregation of the ILT congruence with each of the other team members in the group, it was necessary to conduct this regression at the dyadic level of analyses (with each row representing a unique duo of a team members own ILT score and their rating of ILT recognition for one of their teammates). A linear mixed effects model was conducted to account for the fact that each dyad was nested within multiple rows of the same individual. As indicated in Table 2, these constraints held for the model for the prototypical dimension of ILT and ILT recognition, but not for the anti-prototypical dimension of ILT and ILT recognition. For this reason, the remaining analyses utilized only the prototypical ILT congruence score. The ILT congruence measure for the prototypical dimension was then multiplied by -1 for easier interpretation of results.

Self-Monitoring. Self-monitoring was assessed using a revised 13-item scale (Lennox & Wolfe, 1984) of the original 25-item true or false questionnaire developed by Snyder (1974). Although the scale assesses two factors – ability to modify self-presentation and sensitivity to expressive behavior of others, a total score can be used due to the high correlation between the two factors (Lennox & Wolfe, 1984). The scale presented statements such as “In social situations, I have the ability to alter my behavior if I feel that something else is called for.” Responses were recorded on a 6-point scale from 1 (always false) to 6

(always true). A mean scale score for the overall self-monitoring scale was calculated for each individual.

Leadership Emergence Ratings. In order to assess leader emergence within the teams, the General Leadership Impressions (GLI; Lord et al., 1984) scale was used. A sample item from this scale is “This leader had influence over the group” on a 5-point Likert scale from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). Each participant rated each their group members on this scale.

To assess the appropriateness of aggregating multiple ratings of leadership emergence for each individual, interrater agreement was assessed by calculating $r_{WG(j)}$ for each case of multiple raters (James, Demaree, & Wolf, 1984; Kozlowski & Hults, 1987). As recommended by Biemann, Cole, and Voelpel (2011) two sets of $r_{WG(j)}$ scores were compared based on a rectangular null distribution ($\sigma^2_E = 2$) and a moderately skewed null distribution ($\sigma^2_E = .9$). Skewed distributions have been described as being appropriate null distributions when ratings may be biased by leniency or severity (James et al., 1984; LeBreton & Senter, 2008, Smith-Crowe et al., 2013), which may be appropriate for ratings of others in work settings (Ng, Koh, Ang, Kennedy & Chan, 2011; Wang, Wong, & Kwong, 2010).

The resulting set of $r_{WG(j)}$, assuming a rectangular null distribution, demonstrated a high level of interrater agreement, ranging from .91 to 1.00 ($M = .98$, $SD = .02$). While $r_{WG(j)}$ scores based on moderately skewed null distribution indicated a similarly high mean $r_{WG(j)}$ ($M = .93$, $SD = .09$), two groups of ratings demonstrated weak levels of interrater agreement

at $r_{WG(J)}$ scores of .48 and .50. The remaining $r_{WG(J)}$ scores indicated a strong to very strong level of agreement (LeBreton & Senter, 2008; Brown & Hauenstein, 2005). Removing these two cases from the subsequent analyses did not change the pattern of results. Based on no differences to results and given the already small size of the sample, the decision was made to retain these cases, as recommended by Biemann and colleagues (2011).

RESULTS

Descriptive statistics and bivariate correlations for all measured variables are presented in Table 3. The distribution of aggregated GLI scores was negatively skewed, so a square root transformation (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007) was conducted in an attempt to reduce skewness. While this transformation was successful in reducing skewness to appropriate levels, the transformed score did not result in any change across the pattern of results. For this reason, and for easier interpretability of the results, all following analyses utilize the untransformed variable.

Before conducting tests of the hypotheses, the distinctiveness of the different constructs were assessed using a confirmatory factor analysis. In order to adjust for the potential sampling error in a small sample and the longer length of some of the scales used in the study, the amount of indicators per construct was reduced by using item parcels (Hau & Marsh, 2004). An item parcel is an aggregated indicator calculated from taking the mean of two or more items. While there are many differing viewpoints regarding the use of item parcels (Hau & Marsh, 2004; Little, Cunningham, Shahar, & Widaman, 2002; Sass and Smith, 2006; Yang, Nay, and Hoyle, 2010), the present study constructed item parcels as

construct indicators in this study in order to not only better conform to normality assumptions (Sass & Smith, 2006), but also to provide a simpler interpretation of results (Yang et al., 2010). In addition, the appropriateness of utilizing item parcels in this study is supported by the high reliability of every scale used to assess the constructs (Yang et al., 2010) and because the present study is concerned with the relationships among the constructs and not necessarily concerned with the specific loadings of items onto latent construct.

Four parcels (three three-item parcels and one four-item parcel) were created for prototypical ILT, ILT recognition, and ILT congruence scores using each of the prototypical subdimensions. Four parcels (three three-item parcels and one four-item parcel) were created for the self-monitoring scale with two parcels created for each subdimension of self-monitoring. Finally, two parcels (one three-item parcel and one four-item parcel) were created for the GLI scale. For this scale, items were chosen at random for each parcel (Little et al., 2002).

To test the distinctiveness of all of the constructs examined, a five-factor solution was tested with all of the item parcels loading onto their respective constructs (prototypical ILT, ILT recognition, ILT congruence, self-monitoring, leader emergence). Results indicated a mixture of adequate fit and marginal fit across the fit indices, however the collective evaluation suggested that this model provided a marginal fit to the data [$\chi^2(94) = 171.33, p < .001$; TLI = .92; CFI = .94; RMSEA = .09].

Prior to testing hypotheses, all variables of interest were standardized. Hypothesis 1, which predicted that ILT congruence would be positively related to GLI scores, was

supported for prototypical ILT congruence with $r = .64, p < .001$. Hypothesis 2 predicted that the relationship between ILT congruence and leadership emergence ratings would be significantly moderated by self-monitoring behavior such that the relationship will be stronger when self-monitoring ability is low. To test this hypothesis, a regression analysis was conducted with GLI scores regressed on the aggregated ILT congruence scores, self-monitoring scores, and an interaction term of ILT congruence * self-monitoring. A significant interaction term would indicate the strength of the relationship between ILT congruence and GLI scores varies based on the level of self-monitoring (Baron & Kenny, 1986). As indicated in Table 4, self-monitoring appeared to be a significant moderator, such that the relationship between ILT congruence and leadership emergence ratings weakened as self-monitoring scores increased and strengthened as self-monitoring scores decreased (Figure 2). Thus, Hypothesis 2 was supported for prototypical ILT congruence.

DISCUSSION

This study aimed to extend ILT congruence research into a leadership emergence setting while also integrating self-monitoring ability in order to better differentiate between adaptive leaders and leaders that are highly congruent with potential followers. The first hypothesis predicted leadership emergence ratings would be significantly and positively related to ILT congruence. Results supported this hypothesis, supporting past research on ILT congruence (Epitropaki & Martin, 2005; Riggs & Porter, 2016) but also extending research on ILT congruence to informal leadership settings involving leader emergence within teams. However, this relationship is qualified by finding support for the second

hypothesis, which predicted the relationship between ILT congruence and leadership emergence ratings would vary in strength based on the level of self-monitoring. By finding support for the moderating effect of self-monitoring on the relationship between ILT congruence and leadership emergence ratings, this study demonstrates evidence that individuals who actively monitor and change their behavior to match different social settings may be able to compensate for not being congruent with the leadership schemas of others around them. In contrast, the extent to which individuals that are less able to self-monitor emerge as leaders appeared to be much more dependent on being congruent with the leader schemas of those around them.

However, the results only examined congruence of prototypical ILTs, not anti-prototypical ILTs. This was due the congruence index for the anti-prototypical dimension being largely comprised of variance contributed from only ILT recognition and not each individual's own ILT score. This may suggest there is variance in other-perceptions of anti-prototypicality, but that standards for anti-prototypical relatively within ideal leaders is relatively stable across different individuals.

Future Research

Several directions for future research can be set based on this study's findings. First, greater clarity is needed in understanding the attributions of leadership being made for individuals that do not see a team member as congruent with their ILT while still viewing the team member as a leader. Second, the research on ILTs should be expanded to identify and examine prototypical leader behaviors instead of primarily focusing on prototypical leader

traits. While ILT congruence in terms of prototypical *traits* was found to be less related to leadership emergence when self-monitoring was high, it could be the case that high self-monitors with low ILT *trait* congruence are instead adapting to unique individuals by adjusting *behaviors* to be more prototypical for any given follower. Third, the relationship between surface acting, deep acting, and emotional exhaustion (Grandey, 2003) should be integrated with research on self-monitoring and leadership to identify potential long-term consequences of social monitoring and adaptation. Finally, research on team diversity and team effectiveness (Horwitz & Horwitz, 2007; Schippers, Den Hartog, Koopman, & Wienk, 2003) should examine moderating effects of ILT congruence and self-monitoring to better understand how these factors play a role in increasingly diverse teams.

Limitations

This study was limited to using self-report scales to measure self-monitoring ability, limiting the ability of this study to understand the actual behaviors of self-monitoring on adapting to unique individuals or others' perceptions of an individual's self-monitoring ability. In addition, only examining ratings of ILT recognition after completion of the project limited the extent to which the process of ILT attributions are being made throughout the work process. Similarly, this study was limited in examining teams completing a project over 10 weeks and did not examine differences among teams in terms of frequency or intensity of interaction. The lack of this information limits the extent to which these findings can be generalized to different team settings.

Implications

This study contributes to research on leadership by demonstrating that self-monitoring plays an important, albeit less direct role on whether an individual is viewed as a leader. Indeed, the results of this study support past research that indicates a modest relationship between self-monitoring and leadership emergence (Ellis, 1988; Ellis et al., 1988; Garland, & Beard, 1979). However, the study also suggests that findings suggesting self-monitoring ability predicts consistent performance across different situations (Zaccaro et al., 1991; Britt, 1993; Dalal et al., 2015) may also extend to consistent performance across different *people*.

Given the increasingly diverse workplace and research on diversity in teams (Jackson, Joshi, & Erhardt, 2003; Phillips, Northcraft, & Neale, 2006), these results also have practical implications for predicting informal leadership in work teams that consist of individuals with varying ILTs based on unique backgrounds, cultures, and experiences. With self-monitoring appearing to buffer against effects of not being congruent with others' leader schemas, it may be more practical to assess levels of self-monitoring ability when selecting for jobs that involve collaboration and teamwork.

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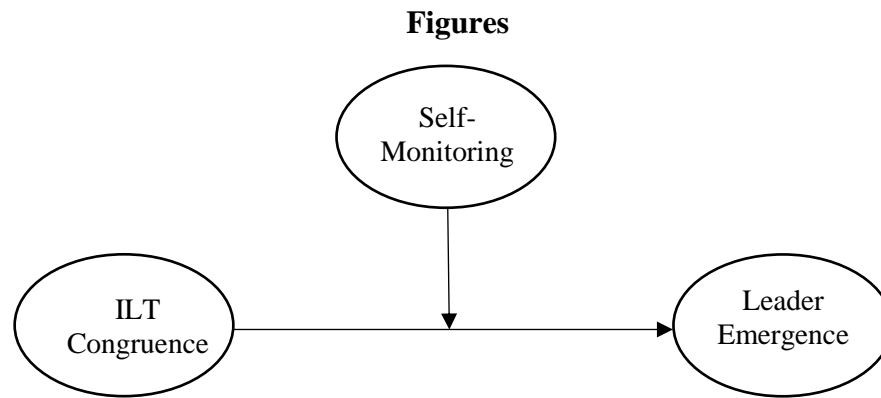
TABLES AND FIGURES

Figure 1. Proposed moderation model of Self-monitoring ability moderating the relationship between ILT congruence and ratings of leader emergence.

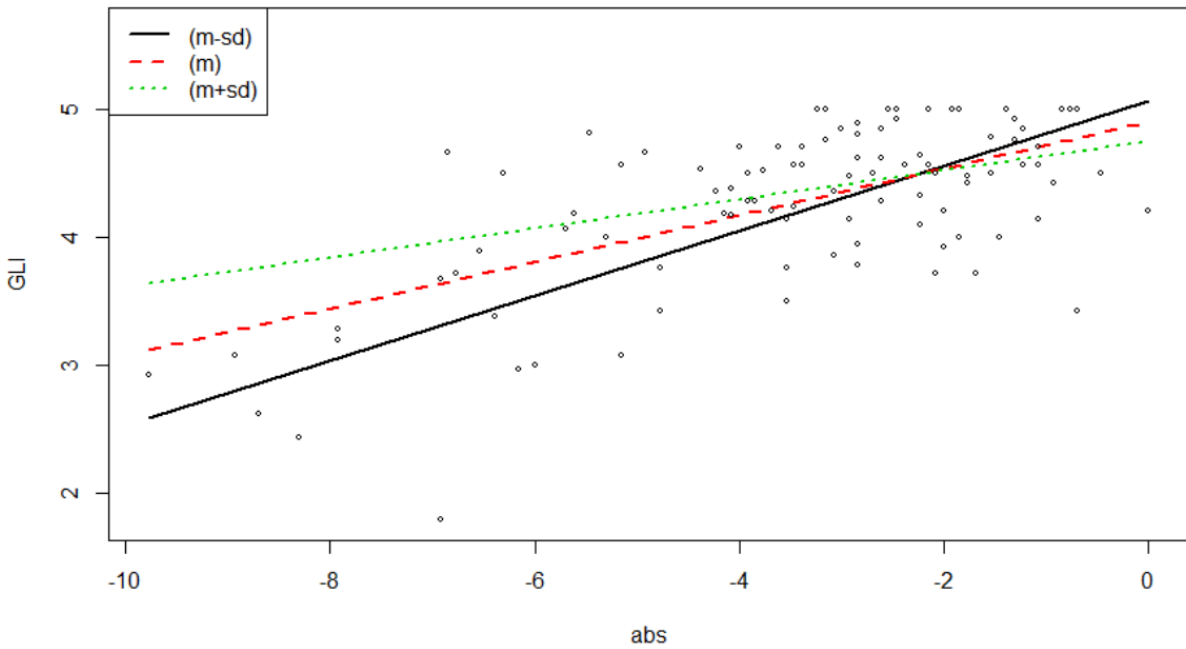


Figure 2. Slopes plot for the moderating effect of self-monitoring ability on the relationship between ILT congruence and leadership emergence

Note. abs = ILT congruence index, m = self-monitoring mean

Tables

Table 1. Administration of measures across survey 1 and survey 2.

Time point	Measures
Timepoint 1 (after group project is assigned)	21-item ILT Scale 13-item Revised Self-Monitoring Scale Demographics
Time point 2 (after completion of group project)	21-item ILT Recognition (for each group member) 7-item General Leadership Impressions Scale (for each group member)

Table 2. Results of regression analyses testing the effects of the component measures of ILT and ILT recognition on the ILT congruence score nested within each participant.

Predictor	β
Prototypical Dimension	
ILT	.64***
ILT Recognition	-.88***
W	.59
W * ILT	-1.56***
W * ILT Recognition	1.46***
Anti-Prototypical Dimension	
ILT	.87***
ILT Recognition	-.70***
W	.90***
W * ILT	-1.65***
W * ILT Recognition	1.46***

Note. W is a dummy variable that takes the value 1 if ILT recognition > ILT, 0 otherwise.

*** $p < .001$

Table 3. Descriptive statistics, bivariate correlations, and scale alphas.

Variable	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5
1 GLI	4.25	.65	(.96)				
2 ILTC	-3.47	2.12	.64***	(.93)			
3 SFM	4.5	.53	.27**	.14	(.82)		
4 ILTR	7.76	1.04	.83***	.66***	.22*	(.98)	
5 ILT	7.77	.78	.08	.04	.26**	.04	(.86)

Note. GLI: General Leadership Impressions scale, ILTC: ILT congruence, SFM: Self-monitoring scale, ILTR: ILT recognition. Scale alphas are listed in parentheses.

*** $p < .001$, ** $p < .01$, * $p < .05$

Table 4. Regression analysis results examining the interaction between self-monitoring and
ILT congruence on leadership emergence ratings.

Predictor	β	SE	95% CI	
ILT Congruence	.78***	.2	.39	1.18
Self-Monitoring	-.3	.2	-.7	.08
Self-Monitoring * ILT Congruence	-.13**	.04	-.22	-.05
			Adjusted R^2 :	.48

*** $p < .001$, ** $p < .01$