

Toward a Clear Understanding of Self-monitoring and Its Relationship with Leadership

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To my family,

You have made me into a person capable of loving. Above knowledge and accomplishments, the simple and sincere life is more important. While theories are important, moments of everyday life in practice matter more.

That is the meaning of my research: the path, the process, to cherish small moments with important people.

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DECLARATION OF ORIGINALITY

I, Linghe Lei, declare that this doctoral thesis, titled *Toward a Clear Understanding of Self-monitoring and Its Relationship with Leadership*, is the product of my original research. I have appropriately acknowledged the contributions of others through citations and references. Due acknowledgement has been made to my co-authors, with whom I have worked on research manuscripts.

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ABSTRACT

The self-monitoring construct has generated substantial research in social psychology and management. However, research has predominantly focused on the positives of self-monitoring, including its association with leadership. This dissertation seeks to address this imbalance.

Chapter I introduces the self-monitoring research, the motivation, and the outline of my thesis.

Chapter II conducts a comprehensive review of fifty empirical papers on self-monitoring, with a focus on LSMs. The review generates three key findings: an overemphasis on the positives of self-monitoring, a relative ignorance of LSMs, and an unclear understanding of LSMs. This chapter also outlines a research agenda aimed at balancing the self-monitoring literature.

Chapter III presents a meta-analysis (9,029 individuals across 55 samples) that concentrates on the relationship between self-monitoring and six leadership variables: leadership emergence, leadership effectiveness, authenticity leadership, transformational and transactional leadership, and managerial leadership. Although self-monitoring typically exhibits a positive main effect with these variables, the relationships are largely non-significant when leadership is assessed through subordinate ratings. Moreover, correlations vary based on the measurement scales used to assess self-monitoring, indicating the differential impact of self-monitoring motivation and ability on leadership.

Chapter IV conducts a longitudinal study to unravel the puzzle that self-monitoring is positively related to leadership emergence but non-significantly related to leadership effectiveness. This study measured the leadership emergence score of 95 MBA students twice: initially and after three months. The results show a marginally significant decline in the relationship between self-monitoring and leadership emergence over time, alongside an increased leadership emergence score for LSMs.

These findings contribute to a nuanced and dynamic view of the self-monitoring leadership relationship. Theoretical and practical implications, along with future research avenues, are discussed in each paper. Finally, Chapter V concludes the dissertation, summarizing the key findings and implications.

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CHAPTER I INTRODUCTION

“All the world’s a stage, and all the men and women merely players: they have their exits and their entrances; and one man in his time plays many parts, his acts being seven ages.”

- *As You Like It*, William Shakespeare

“The problem with chameleoning your way through life is that it gets to the point where nothing is real.”

- *An Abundance of Katherines*, John Green

1.1 Motivation

Snyder (1974) introduced the construct of *self-monitoring* to describe individual differences in the extent to which people value, regulate, and cultivate expressive behaviors to adapt to social appropriateness. Self-monitoring is a personality-related construct (Kudret, et al., 2019; Ozcelik, 2013) that conceptually, and sometimes empirically, treats individuals categorically, distinguishing them as either high self-monitors (HSMs) or low self-monitors (LSMs). HSMs are individuals “who craft their self-presentations to fit the requirements of the situation and context” (Kudret et al., 2019, p. 194). Embodying a repertoire of social adeptness and flexibility, however, HSMs are often characterized as chameleon-like (e.g., Miller & Cardy, 2000; Oh et al., 2014; Semadar et al., 2006), opportunistic (e.g., Fandt & Ferris, 1990; Oh et al., 2014), or instrumental (Barrick et al., 2005; Sosik & Dinger, 2007). In contrast, LSMs “are likely to attempt actively to convey to others that they present no false images” (Day & Schleicher, 2006, p. 688). While LSMs may have limitations in situational adaptability, they are regarded as principled (e.g., Kilduff & Buengeler, 2019; Snyder, 1979) or authentic individuals (e.g., Bizzi & Soda, 2011; Premeaux & Bedeian, 2003).

The self-monitoring construct has been extensively studied in various fields, including social psychology, management, marketing, and education (Day et al., 2002; Kudret et al., 2019; Gangestad & Snyder, 2000). Bedeian and Day (2004, p. 705) emphasized that “there is

little debate that self-monitoring is one of the most heavily researched personality constructs in social and applied psychology.” However, the majority of self-monitoring research has primarily focused on its advantages (Kudret et al., 2019), with an inclination to praise individuals scoring higher in self-monitoring, while suggesting that being LSMs have disadvantages. Research finds that HSMs have numerous advantages over LSMs, including higher success in recruitment (Higgins & Judge, 2004), better job performance (Wang et al., 2015), enhanced career progression (Kilduff & Day, 1994; O’Neill & O’Reilly, 2011), increased likelihood of leadership emergence (Eby et al., 2003; Hall et al., 1998), and access to more advantageous network positions (Burt et al., 2013; Sasovova et al., 2010). Conversely, limited research has investigated the negative aspects of self-monitoring. A few studies have shown that self-monitoring is positively correlated with engaging in counterproductive behaviors toward organizations (Parks & Mount, 2005) and unethical behaviors (Levashina & Campion, 2007; Ogunfowora et al., 2013). Additionally, research shows that self-monitoring is negatively correlated with organizational commitment (e.g., Day et al., 2002).

Overall, the existing body of research has placed a strong emphasis on the positives of self-monitoring (Kudret et al., 2019), leading to a general perception of it as a favorable individual difference. Organizational behavior (OB) textbooks also portray self-monitoring as a positive trait in the workplace (Hitt et al., 2009; Kinicki & Kreitner, 2008; Quick & Nelson, 2009). The observation that HSMs, with chameleon-like characteristics, have more advantages than LSMs, who adhere to principles, originally motivated my exploration and became the central topic of my dissertation. My aim was to gain a clearer understanding of LSMs and further explore their advantages in comparison to HSMs.

Leadership. Leadership is one of the most crucial topics in the realm of social sciences (Avolio et al., 2003). Extensive research has explored the relationship between self-

monitoring and leadership, finding positive associations between the two (Day et al., 2002; Foti & Hauenstein, 2007; Kilduff et al., 2017). However, this relationship is not one-sided, as there are mixed findings concerning self-monitoring's influence on various leadership variables, including leadership emergence (e.g., Côté et al., 2010; Eby et al., 2003; Hall et al., 1998), leadership effectiveness (e.g., Campbell, 1993; Douglas & Ammeter, 2004; Sosik et al., 2002), and specific leadership styles, including transformational leadership (Jung & Sosik, 2006; Sosik et al., 2002) and authentic leadership (Chaudhary & Panda, 2019; Tate, 2008).

In addition to these mixed empirical findings, the question of whether self-monitoring positively influences leadership has also become a subject of academic debate (Bedeian & Day, 2004). In the exchange of theoretical letters titled “Can chameleons lead?,” Bedeian (Bedeian & Day, 2004, p. 689) expressed the concern that “pragmatic” HSMs might gain leadership positions over “principled” LSMs:

“I find disturbing the notion such individuals [HSMs] might occupy positions of leadership, especially when selected over true-to-themselves LSMs, who have been repeatedly shown to be less worried with projecting public images and to be more concerned with sustaining their underlying values and beliefs than furthering their own entitlements” [Parenthesis added].

Day argued for the advantages of the pragmatic HSMs, which enable them to be both emergent and effective leaders, emphasizing the necessity of flexibility in leadership roles:

“The reasons why high self-monitors might emerge more often as leaders seem pretty straightforward. The evidence indicates that they tend to be more extraverted than low self-monitors, are more likely to be situationally appropriate, have better control over their expressive behavior, and are flexible and adaptable with regard to their attitudes and behavior. All of these actions

and characteristics increase the high self-monitor's salience and likeability in a group. The reasons why high self-monitors might be more effective as leaders may seem less intuitively obvious, but exist nonetheless” (Bedeian & Day, 2004, p. 702).

The perspectives above suggest that the relationship between self-monitoring and leadership possesses nuanced complexities. Bedeian (Bedeian & Day, 2004, p. 696) describes this question as “A Worthy Puzzle,” further emphasizing the significance of a deep investigation into the relationship between self-monitoring and leadership.

1.2 Overview of My Dissertation

My dissertation thus seeks to provide a finer-grained understanding of the self-monitoring construct, as well as examining LSMs and HSMs. Through this investigation, I aim to provide insights into the reasons behind the research's tendency to uncover more advantages in HSMs than LSMs. Additionally, with a clearer understanding of these constructs, my research aims to further our understanding of the role of self-monitoring in leadership, delving into the intricate and mixed impact that self-monitoring has on leadership.

Chapter II presents a review paper entitled “**Low Self-monitors: The Missing Persons in Literature.**” This chapter not only examines the self-monitoring construct but also places a specific focus on LSMs, who have received comparatively less attention compared to HSMs. Applying the “first principles” approach, I reviewed and dissected the self-monitoring construct and examined the issues surrounding the conception of LSMs, which largely explain the limited studies on LSMs and their positives. Through a comprehensive review of fifty quality empirical articles, this paper compares what is known about LSMs and HSMs, identifying potential gaps in the literature and proposing a future research direction to achieve a balanced understanding of LSMs and HSMs.

Chapter III presents a meta-analysis paper titled “**A Meta-analysis of the Self-monitoring and Leadership Relationship**,” which examines the relationship between self-monitoring and six leadership dependent variables. This meta-analysis is the first of this kind, exclusively focusing on their relationships, allowing for a thorough investigation of both the independent variable and dependent variables, thus explaining the intricate impact of self-monitoring on leadership. By considering the moderators of self-monitoring measurements, it aims to comprehend the different influences of self-monitoring motivation and ability on leadership. Additionally, the moderators of different ratings source of leadership, including self, subordinates, peers, and supervisors, provide a finer-grained understanding of the relationship between self-monitoring and leadership. I conclude this paper by discussing the theoretical and practical implications as well as providing limitations of this meta-analysis and suggestions for future research.

Chapter IV, titled “**A Longitudinal Study on the Relationship between Self-monitoring and Leadership Emergence**,” presents an empirical paper with a longitudinal study. This chapter aims to further comprehend the perplexing relationship between self-monitoring and leadership, driven by the findings gained from the meta-analysis in Chapter III. Notably, although self-monitoring is positively related to leadership emergence, it exhibits a non-significant relationship with leadership effectiveness. This highlights the fact that HSMs are more likely to emerge as leaders but not necessarily more effective than LSMs. To address this puzzle, I develop hypotheses concerning time and self-monitoring. The empirical findings shed light on a more nuanced understanding of self-monitoring and leadership. I then discuss the theoretical and practical implications, outline the limitations of the empirical study, and provide suggestions for future research.

Finally, in Chapter V, I present conclusions based on the findings from the three papers and summarize the findings and implications of my dissertation.

CHAPTER II LOW SELF-MONITORS: THE MISSING PERSONS IN SELF-MONITORING RESEARCH

According to Kudret et al. (2019), “a potentially problematic trend in self-monitoring research is that studies have tended to emphasize the benefits of self-monitoring” (p. 193). The emphasis on self-monitoring advantages favors HSMs over LSMs. This review was driven by the question of why research has less praised LSMs, with a starting point to find what we know about LSMs in management and applied psychology research. Therefore, I reviewed a high-quality sample of fifty empirical articles and found evidence that the current research is skewed toward the positive aspects of HSMs (as compared to LSMs). Besides, I identified two further issues about LSMs that extant research has not paid attention to. The first issue is that research pays less attention to LSMs than to HSMs. The second issue is that there is no clear and consistent understanding of LSMs, in terms of whether they lack the motivation *or/and* abilities to self-monitor, and whether they have other motivations (e.g., expressing authentic self).

This chapter is structured as follows: Firstly, I adopt the “first principles” approach to unpack the self-monitoring construct by dissecting the most foundational papers on the development of the self-monitoring construct. Next, I outline the review methodology. Subsequently, I present the findings. Lastly, I delve into the implications of these findings and outline a future research agenda based on the insights gained from the review.

2.1 The Self-monitoring Construct

Snyder (1974) first defined self-monitoring as “self-observation and self-control guided by situational cues to social appropriateness” (p. 526). He introduced the construct as an individual difference variable and articulated that there are “striking and important individual differences in the extent to which individuals *can* and *do* monitor their self-presentation, expressive behavior, and non-verbal affective display” (p. 526-527) [emphasis

added]. Alongside introducing the self-monitoring construct, Snyder (1974) initially described HSMs as follows, “The self-monitoring individual is one who, out of a concern for social appropriateness, is particularly sensitive to the expression and self-presentation of others in social situations and uses these cues as guidelines for monitoring his own self-presentation” (p. 528). (Snyder firstly referred to HSMs as “the self-monitoring people”.) In this description, HSMs have a high level of motivation, i.e., “a concern for social appropriateness”, a high level of sensing ability, i.e., “particularly sensitive to the expression and self-presentation of others in social situations”, and a high level of acting ability, i.e., “monitoring his own self-presentation.” However, Snyder (1974) was silent about who are low self-monitors (LSMs) in this foundational work.

After this seminal work, the self-monitoring construct generated substantial scholarship, including the work on self-monitoring conception development. Table 2.1 summarizes the definitions and descriptions of self-monitoring, HSMs, and LSMs from the most influential work on self-monitoring conceptualization (as the standard of papers on the self-monitoring concept development that has generated over 1000 Google citations until May 2023).

HSM. The conceptualizations of HSMs are generally consistent, encompassing motivation, sensing ability, and acting ability. One exception is the work by Lennox and Wolfe (1984). They explicitly defined self-monitoring as having only two components: (i) “sensitivity to the expressive behavior of others” and (ii) “ability to modify self-presentation” (p. 1359), corresponding to “sensing ability” and “acting ability”, and thus they depicted HSMs as encompassing these two abilities. They overlooked the motivational component of self-monitoring. Subsequent research by Briggs and Cheek (1988) underscored the issue with this omission, emphasizing that the capacity for self-monitoring does not automatically equate to the motivation to do so, not necessarily leading to engagement in self-monitoring.

Table 2.1 Definitions/Descriptions of Self-monitoring, HSMs, and LSMs

#	Author(s)	Year	# Cites	Self-monitoring	HSMs			LSMs				
				Definition/description	Defination/description	Motivation to self-monitor	Sensing ability	Acting ability	Definition/description	Motivation to self-monitor	Sensing ability	Acting ability
1	Snyder	1974	6716	"Self-observation and self-control guided by situational cues to social appropriateness" (p. 526).	"The self-monitoring individual is one who, out of a concern for social appropriateness, is particularly sensitive to the expression and self-presentation of others in social situations and uses these cues as guidelines for monitoring his own self-presentation" (p.528).	High	High	High	No description.			
2	Snyder	1979	1966	"People do differ in the extent to which they <i>can and do</i> exercise control over their verbal and nonverbal self-presentation" (p.88).	"The prototypic high self-monitoring individual is one who, out of a concern for the situational and interpersonal appropriateness of his or her social behavior, is particularly sensitive to the expression and self-presentation of relevant others in social situations and uses these cues as guidelines for monitoring (that is, regulating and controlling) his or her own verbal and nonverbal self-presentation" (p.89).	High	High	High	"The prototypic low self-monitoring individual is not so vigilant to social information about situationally appropriate self-presentation. Neither does he or she have such well-developed repertoires of self-presentational skills. In comparison with their high self-monitoring counterparts, the self-presentation and expressive behavior of low self-monitoring individuals seem, in a functional sense, to be controlled from within by their affective states and attitudes (they express it as they feel it) rather than molded and tailored to fit the situation" (p.89).	?	Low	Low
3	Lennox & Wolfe	1984	1943	"We assumed that two characteristics could fully represent self-monitoring: Ability to modify self-presentation, and sensitivity to the expressive behaviour of others..." (p.1359)	"The high self-monitor as one who 'is particularly sensitive to the expression and self-presentation of relevant others'... and who uses these cues as a guide to regulating self-presentation" (p.1359).	?	High	High	No description.			
4	Snyder & Gangestad	1986	1766	"People differ in the extent to which they <i>can and do</i> observe and control their expressive behavior and self-presentation" (p.125) [emphasis added].	"Individuals high in self-monitoring are thought to regulate their expressive self-presentation for the sake of desired public appearances, and thus be highly responsive to social and interpersonal cues of situationally appropriate performances" (p.125).	High	High	High	"Individuals low in self-monitoring are thought to <i>lack either the ability or the motivation</i> to so regulate their expressive self-presentations. Their expressive behaviors, instead, are thought to functionally reflect their own enduring and momentary inner states, including their attitudes, traits, and feelings" (p.125). [emphasis added]	?	?	?
5	Snyder	1987	2243	"Differences in the extent to which people monitor (observe, regulate, and control) the public appearances of self they display in social situations and interpersonal relationships" (p.4-5).	"They monitor or control the images of self they project in social interaction to a great extent... (unlike their high self-monitoring counterparts, low self-monitors are not) so concerned with constantly assessing the social climate around them" (p.5).	High	High	High	"Value congruence between who they are and what they do...are not so concerned with constantly assessing the social climate around them. Their behavior is quite consistent: they typically express what they really think and feel" (p.5).	Low	?	?
6	Gangestad & Snyder	2000	1243	"The theory of self-monitoring concerns differences in the extent to which people value, create, cultivate, and project social images and public appearances" (p.531).	"Out of a concern for the situational appropriateness of their expressive self-presentation, have come to monitor their expressive behavior and accordingly regulate their self-presentation for the sake of desired public appearances. Thus, the behavior of these high self-monitors may be highly responsive to social and interpersonal cues of situationally appropriate performances" (p.530).	High	High	High	"Do not engage in expressive control, have not acquired the same concern for the situational appropriateness of their expressive behavior...low self-monitors seem <i>not only unwilling but also unable</i> to carry off appearances. They live as if put-on images are falsehoods, as if only those public displays true to the privately experienced self are principled" (p.531). [emphasis added]	Low	?	Low

LSM. However, there are significant differences in the descriptions of LSMs. The first definition of LSMs was by Snyder (1979), several years after Snyder (1974) introduced the self-monitoring construct. In this definition, LSMs (referred to as “the prototypic low self-monitoring individual”) were described as “*not* so vigilant to social information about situationally appropriate self-presentation. *Neither* does he or she have such well-developed repertoires of self-presentational skills. In comparison with their high self-monitoring counterparts, the self-presentation and expressive behavior of low self-monitoring individuals seem, in a functional sense, to be controlled from within by their affective states and attitudes (they express it as they feel it) rather than molded and tailored to fit the situation” (p. 89) [emphasis added]. This description suggests that LSMs lack both sensing and acting abilities, so they disregard situational requirements and behave purely according to their inner states.

This original description of LSMs did not address the motivation component, which could involve three possibilities: (i) LSMs have the motivation to self-monitor (but lack the ability to do so), (ii) LSMs lack the motivation to self-monitor, or (iii) LSMs have other specific motivations, such as a desire to be their true selves. This component would result in vastly different types of individuals. In the first case, if LSMs have the motivation to self-monitor to meet social expectations but cannot do so, they would resemble individuals with a high “need for approval” (Crowne & Marlowe, 1964), who seek to please others. In the second case, if LSMs lack both the motivation and ability to self-monitor, they are simply self-centered persons living in their own world, in contrast to the third case where LSMs value authenticity, a highly regarded value.

Therefore, the conceptualization of LSMs has been ambiguous from the outset. To compound the confusion, Snyder’s later work contains inconsistent descriptions of LSMs not only in terms of the motivation component but also the ability components. Snyder and Gangestad (1986) described LSMs as individuals who lack either the motivation *or* ability to

self-monitor, suggesting that LSMs may possess both sensing and acting abilities. Later, Snyder (1987) revised the description of LSMs again as “value congruence between who they are and what they do” (p. 5). In this sense, LSMs have a clear motivation and are esteemed people who value authenticity. However, later, Gangestad and Snyder (2000) modified the description again, portraying LSMs as lacking both motivation and the ability to self-monitor.

To sum up, despite being widely studied for nearly half a century, questions surrounding the self-monitoring construct and its relevant constructs of HSMs and LSMs persist. These issues include: (i) whether the self-monitoring construct involves motivation, in contrast to Lennox and Wolfe’s (1984) definition; (ii) what specific components comprise LSMs (e.g., motivation, sensing ability, and acting ability); (iii) regarding the motivation component, whether LSMs have specific motivations, such as an intention to be true (Briggs & Cheek, 1988; Kim, 2004).

Measurement. When Snyder (1974) introduced the self-monitoring construct, he also developed the original self-monitoring scale (SMS), which comprised 25 items. However, the SMS faced criticism for lacking internal reliability (Briggs et al., 1980; Hoyle & Lennox, 1991; Lennox, 1988) and containing orthogonal factors (Briggs & Cheek, 1988; Wilmot et al., 2016). In response to these critiques, Gangestad and Snyder (1986) modified the SMS by removing seven items, resulting in a shorter version known as the SMS Reduced (SMS-R). This shortened scale achieved higher internal reliability with fewer items, thus more encouraged to use compared to the original SMS (Kudret et al., 2019).

Meanwhile, building on Lennox and Wolfe’s (1984) definition of self-monitoring, which included two dimensions: (i) “sensitivity to the expressive behavior of others” and (ii) “ability to modify self-presentation” (p. 1359), Lennox and Wolfe (1984) developed the revised self-monitoring scale (RSMS). This scale comprises two corresponding subscales and consists of thirteen items with good internal reliability (Kudret et al., 2019). However, this

scale only captures the two abilities (Cramer & Gruman, 2002), but did not encompass the motivational element of self-monitoring (O’cass, 2000).

Although self-monitoring scales seem to measure this construct as a continuous variable, scholars, including Snyder himself, have operationalized HSMs and LSMs using various categorizing methods, such as median-split (e.g., Dobbins et al., 1990; Harnish & Bridges, 2016), tripartite split (e.g., Hall et al., 1998; Miller & Thayer, 1988), quartile split (e.g., Snyder, 1974), mean plus or minus one standard deviation (e.g., Osborn et al., 1998; Sanz et al., 1996), or specific self-monitoring score(s) to classify HSMs and LSMs (e.g., Snyder & Gangestad, 1982; Snyder & Simpson, 1984).

2.2 Review Method

The sample consists of two subsamples. The first subsample includes the *most-cited* empirical articles in the fields of social psychology and management. Through this subsample, I intend to review the influential empirical research on self-monitoring. I set the “most-cited” standard as above 500 Google citations (until May 2023). 500 citation was set as the threshold because it resulted in the desired sample size (i.e., 25 articles) that allowed for a comprehensive qualitative review (Marshall et al., 2013). The inclusion criterion is that it is an empirical paper that developed and tested hypotheses about self-monitoring.

I utilized a combination of Google Scholar and Web of Science databases to identify articles that meet the criterion. My search strategy involved two main steps. Firstly, I conducted a cited reference search on the aforementioned most seminal articles on developing the self-monitoring construct, i.e., Lennox and Wolfe (1984), Gangestad and Snyder (2000), Snyder (1974), Snyder (1979), Snyder (1987), and Snyder and Gangestad (1986). These articles are foundational to the self-monitoring construct and include the most widely used self-monitoring scales (Kudret et al., 2019). Thus, empirical articles on self-monitoring will cite them. Next, I conducted a keyword search using the terms “self-

monitoring” and “personality” to triangulate the search in the two databases. In total, I identified 25 articles that met my criteria for inclusion in the analysis.

To achieve a symmetric comparison, the second subsample includes an equal number of the *most recent* empirical articles from the top journals in social psychology and management. These top journals were categorized as 4* and 4 according to the Chartered Association of Business Schools Academic Journal Guide of 2021 (AJG2021). Through this subsample, I aim to review the most recent and updated empirical research on self-monitoring. The selection criterion is the same as the most-cited subsample, i.e., empirical articles that developed and tested hypotheses about self-monitoring.

I identified the most recent twenty-five articles through the Google Scholar database and triangulated the search through the Web of Science. Firstly, I identified all journals in the areas of social psychology and management that are categorized as 4* and 4 by AJG2021. Secondly, I searched with the keyword “self-monitoring” within each journal that was released since 2005 (I chose the year 2005 as the starting point since it was sufficient to generate over twenty-five articles that met the inclusion criteria). Hence, I obtained the most recent subsample of twenty-five articles.

2.3 Findings

Table 2.2 A and Table 2.2 B display information on the two subsamples, including the basis of theory development (articulating the self-monitoring construct, HSMs, or LSMs), the articulation of hypotheses (using the self-monitoring construct, HSMs, or LSMs), and the consistency between theorizing and hypothesis articulation (indicating whether the hypothesized concepts have been explicitly articulated). Additionally, the tables detail the role of self-monitoring in the hypothesized relationship (i.e., as an independent variable, dependent variable, moderator, or mediator), the scale utilized, and the operationalization of HSMs and LSMs, if applicable (i.e., when HSMs and LSMs are hypothesized).

Table 2.2A The Most-cited Papers on Self-monitoring

#	Paper	Theorizing	Hypotheses	Consistency in theorizing and hypotheses?	Role of SM Variable	Scale	HSM & LSM operationalization
1	Abraham, 1999	SM, HSM	SM	Y	Moderator	RSMS (adapted)	N/A
2	Ajzen et al., 1982	HSM, LSM	HSM, LSM	Y	Moderator	SMS	Median & Tripartite split
3	Allen et al., 2005	HSM, LSM	SM	N	Moderator	SMS-R	N/A
4	Ambady et al., 1995	SM, HSM	HSM	Y	Antecedent	SMS-R	Not operationalized
5	Brotheridge & Lee, 2002	SM, HSM	HSM	Y	Antecedent	SMS	Not operationalized
6	Church, 1997	SM, HSM, LSM	SM	Y	Antecedent	SMS-R	N/A
7	DeBono & Harnish, 1998	SM, HSM, LSM	HSM, LSM	Y	Antecedent	SMS-R	Median split
8	Diefendorff et al., 2005	SM, HSM, LSM	SM	Y	Antecedent	SMS-R	N/A
9	Ferris et al., 2005	SM	SM	Y	Antecedent	SMS-R	N/A
10	Flynn et al., 2006	SM, HSM	SM, HSM, LSM	N	Antecedent	SMS & RSMS	Not operationalized
11	Glomb & Liao, 2003	SM, HSM, LSM	SM	Y	Antecedent	SMS-R (adapted)	N/A
12	Kilduff & Day, 1994	SM, HSM, LSM	HSM, LSM	Y	Antecedent	SMS-R	Not operationalized
13	Hewitt et al., 2003	HSM	SM	N	Antecedent	RSMS	N/A
14	McFarland & Ryan, 2000	HSM	HSM, LSM	N	Antecedent	SMS-R	Not operationalized
15	Mehra et al., 2001	SM, HSM, LSM	SM, HSM, LSM	Y	Antecedent & Moderator	SMS-R	An SMS-R score to split
16	Premeaux & Bedeian, 2003	SM, HSM, LSM	SM	Y	Moderator	RSMS	N/A
17	Schutte et al., 2001	SM	SM	Y	Antecedent	RSMS	N/A
18	Semadar et al., 2006	SM, HSM	SM	Y	Antecedent	SMS-R	N/A
19	Snyder & DeBono, 1985	HSM, LSM	HSM, LSM	Y	Antecedent	SMS	Median split
20	Snyder & Monson, 1975	HSM, LSM	HSM, LSM	Y	Antecedent	SMS	Median split
21	Sosik & Megerian, 1999	SM	SM	Y	Antecedent	SMS	N/A
22	Tice, 1992	SM, HSM	SM	Y	Moderator	SMS	N/A
23	Turban & Dougherty, 1994	SM, HSM	SM	Y	Antecedent	SMS-R	N/A
24	Turnley & Bolino, 2001	SM, HSM	HSM, LSM	N	Antecedent	SMS-R	Tripartite split
25	Zaccaro et al., 1991	SM, HSM	SM	Y	Antecedent	SMS	N/A

Note. Y = Yes; N = No; N/A = Not applicable (i.e., the hypotheses are only articulated with the self-monitoring construct); SMS = Self-monitoring Scale, 25 items, by Snyder (1974); SMS-R = Self-monitoring Scale reduced to 18 items, by Snyder and Gangestad (1986); RSMS = Revised Self-monitoring Scale, 13 items, by Lennox and Wolfe (1984).

Table 2.2B The Most Recent Papers on Self-monitoring

#	Paper	Theorizing	Hypotheses	Consistency in theorizing and hypotheses?	Role of SM Variable	Scale	HSM & LSM operationalization
1	Bizzi & Soda, 2011	SM, HSM, LSM	SM	Y	Antecedent	SMS-R	N/A
2	Bolino et al., 2010	HSM	SM, HSM	N	Moderator	RSMS	Not operationalized
3	Church et al., 2008	SM	SM	Y	Antecedent	RSMS (adapted)	N/A
4	Effron & Miller, 2015	HSM	HSM	Y	Moderator	SMS-R	1 SD above/below the mean
5	Evans & Clark, 2012	SM, HSM, LSM	HSM & LSM	Y	Antecedent	SMS	Not operationalized
6	Fang & Shaw, 2009	SM, HSM, LSM	SM	Y	Moderator	RSMS	N/A
7	Fetvadjev et al., 2018	SM	SM	Y	Antecedent & Moderator	RSMS (adapted)	N/A
8	Ghosh, 2014	SM, HSM, LSM	SM	Y	Antecedent	SMS-R	N/A
9	Hewlin, 2009	SM, HSM, LSM	HSM	Y	Antecedent & Moderator	SMS-R	Not operationalized
10	Huang & Ryan, 2011	SM, HSM, LSM	SM	Y	Moderator	RSMS	N/A
11	Kleinbaum et al., 2015	SM, HSM, LSM	SM	Y	Antecedent	SMS-R	N/A
12	Lam et al., 2017	SM, HSM	SM	Y	Moderator	RSMS	N/A
13	Lievens et al., 2018	HSM, LSM	SM	N	Antecedent	SMS-R	N/A
14	Mehra & Schenkel, 2008	SM, HSM, LSM	SM	Y	Antecedent	SMS-R	N/A
15	Methot et al., 2021	SM, HSM, LSM	SM	Y	Moderator	SMS-R (adapted)	N/A
16	Oh et al., 2014	SM, HSM, LSM	SM	Y	Moderator	SMS-R	N/A
17	Oh & Kilduff, 2008	SM, HSM, LSM	SM	Y	Antecedent	SMS	N/A
18	O'Neill & O'Reilly, 2011	SM, HSM	SM	Y	Moderator	SMS-R	N/A
19	Ozcelik, 2013	SM, HSM	SM	Y	Antecedent	RSMS	N/A
20	Roberson & Williamson, 2012	SM, HSM, LSM	SM	Y	Moderator	RSMS	N/A
21	Sasovova et al., 2010	SM, HSM, LSM	SM	Y	Antecedent	SMS-R	N/A
22	Scott et al., 2012	SM, HSM, LSM	SM	Y	Antecedent & Moderator	SMS-R	N/A
23	Tasselli & Kilduff, 2018	SM, HSM, LSM	SM	Y	Antecedent & Moderator	SMS-R	N/A
24	Wang et al., 2015	HSM, LSM	SM	N	Antecedent	RSMS	N/A
25	Wu et al., 2021	SM, HSM, LSM	SM	Y	Moderator	SMS-R (adapted)	N/A

Note. Y = Yes; N = No; N/A = Not applicable (i.e., the hypotheses are only articulated with the self-monitoring construct); SMS = Self-monitoring Scale, 25 items, by Snyder (1974); SMS-R = Self-monitoring Scale reduced to 18 items, by Snyder and Gangestad (1986); RSMS = Revised Self-monitoring Scale, 13 items, by Lennox and Wolfe (1984).

The twenty-five most-cited empirical articles were published between 1982 and 2006, whereas the twenty-five most recent empirical articles were published from 2008 to 2021. Collectively, these two subsamples spanning different periods provide a strong foundation for the review.

2.3.1 Emphasis on HSMs & LSMs

Researchers predominantly studied self-monitoring from the perspective of two distinct types of individuals (i.e., HSMs and LSMs) by developing theories around their characteristics. A significant portion of the papers (90%) built their theories by elaborating on attributes of HSMs (and LSMs)¹. Scholars also developed hypotheses focusing on these two types of persons, although less pronounced as compared to theory development. Fifteen articles developed hypotheses by articulating HSMs (and LSMs). Seven articles have also operationalized HSMs and LSMs specifically, including approaches by median-split (e.g., Debono & Harnish, 1998; Snyder & Debono, 1985), tripartite-split (e.g., Ajzen et al., 2002; Turnley & Bolino, 2001), a specific score (Mehra et al., 2001), and using one standard division above or below the mean (Effron & Miller, 2015) to split HSMs and LSMs.

2.3.2 Overemphasis on HSMs

However, when studying individual attributes, research has emphasized HSMs while relatively ignoring LSMs. Among the papers that based theory on individuals rather than the self-monitoring construct, 36% of the articles solely concentrated on describing HSMs without any mention of LSMs in their theory development. This indicates studying HSMs as an exclusive type of individual. It is noteworthy that I did not encounter the reverse scenario: none of the articles exclusively focused on LSMs in theory development without referencing

¹ Though focusing on individual attributes, not all papers described both HSMs and LSMs. Some only described HSMs.

HSMs. This ignorance also occurred in hypothesis articulation. Four papers hypothesized only around HSMs, without referencing LSMs.

To delve into the intricacies on why researchers focused on HSMs in theory development while omitting LSMs, some did so because the author(s) only intended to study HSMs as a distinct type of individual without comparing with LSMs. For example, Brotheridge and Lee (2002) described HSMs' capacity in expressing emotions without inner feelings of these emotions, and built on this, they hypothesized HSMs to be more likely engaged in surface acting than deep acting. Their theory and hypothesis development only focused on HSMs.

Others ignored the description of LSMs in theory development because the authors implied LSMs as the opposite of HSMs. One example is the work by Turnley and Bolino (2001). In their study about the relationship between self-monitoring and impression management (IM), their theory development is based on HSMs' high sensitivity to social appropriateness (sensing ability) and adeptness in adjusting public self-presentations (acting ability), without describing LSMs. They imply LSMs as the opposite, i.e., with a low level of both sensing ability and acting ability, and therefore they hypothesized that HSMs (compared to LSMs) would more frequently achieve the desirable images when applying each of the five IM tactics (i.e., ingratiation, self-promotion, exemplification, supplication, intimidation), whereas LSMs (compared to HSMs) would more likely achieve the undesirable images when applying each of the five IM tactics. In this sense, their theoretic development focused on the contrast of HSMs' and LSMs' abilities while assuming that LSMs will also engage in IM, which indicates LSMs have a motivation to self-monitor.

2.3.3 Overemphasis on the Positives of HSMs

The fifty articles in total developed 126 hypotheses. I found an apparent focus on the positives of self-monitoring/HSMs (indicating the negatives of lower self-monitoring/LSMs),

as compared to the negatives of self-monitoring/HSMs (suggesting the positives of lower self-monitoring/LSMs). 45.2% of the hypotheses focused on the positives of self-monitoring, and 22.2% were focused on the positives of HSMs. In sharp contrast, only 6.3% of the hypotheses were focused on the negatives of self-monitoring, and 1.6% were focused on the negatives of HSMs. No hypotheses were directly articulated around LSMs' positive attributes. The remaining hypotheses were neutral aspects².

Positives of HSMs

To summarize the supported hypotheses regarding the advantages of HSMs (indicating negatives of LSMs), I will provide separate summaries of the findings related to self-monitoring as an independent variable and as a moderator.

Self-monitoring as an independent variable. Firstly, HSMs have more advantages in social relationships with others than LSMs, including occupying more advantageous network positions (Mehra et al., 2001), occupying more brokerage positions (Kleinbaum et al., 2015; Oh & Kilduff, 2008; Sasovova et al., 2010), forming more new ties (Kleinbaum et al., 2015; Sasovova et al., 2010), acquiring more new friends from functional groups other than one's own (Sasovova et al., 2010), having a more diverse network (Wang et al., 2015), initiating more mentoring relationships (Turban & Dougherty, 1994), being viewed as possessing higher status (Flynn et al., 2006), gaining a higher level of reciprocity (Kleinbaum et al., 2015), receiving more mentoring support (Ghosh, 2014), and gaining better leader-member exchange (LMX) quality (Wang et al., 2015).

Secondly, compared with LSMs, HSMs gain various benefits in the workplace, such as better job performance (as rated by supervisors) (Mehra et al., 2001), better contextual performance (i.e., work that supports organizational and social contexts in which job tasks are

² For example, small talk (Methot et al., 2021), surface acting and deep acting (Scott et al., 2012), turnover intention (Allen et al., 2005), etc., are regarded as neutral variables.

performed), a higher perception of job autonomy (Bizzi & Soda, 2011), more job promotions in managerial careers (Kilduff & Day, 1994), and more job promotions for masculine women (O'Neill & O'Reilly, 2011).

Finally, HSMs have a higher level of abilities such as emotional intelligence (Schutte et al., 2001), political skill (Ferris et al., 2005), managerial self-awareness (i.e., the congruence between self and subordinates' ratings of their managerial behaviors) (Church, 1997), ability in applying three impression management tactics (ingratiation, self-promotion, and exemplification) (Turnley & Bolino, 2001), and perceptive accuracy in people's status in interpersonal relations (Flynn et al., 2006).

Self-monitoring as a moderator. This sample shows the following positives of self-monitoring as a moderator, which can be grouped into two aspects. The first aspect is that self-monitoring involves the ability to control and modify negative expressive behaviors in social settings to build a positive self-image (Lam et al., 2017; Methot et al., 2021), and thus self-monitoring mitigates the potential negative consequences of these negative behaviors. For example, Methot et al. (2021) found that higher self-monitoring mitigates the potential negative effect of small talk on work engagement. This is because HSMs are more adept at managing the appropriate form and amount of small talk, and thus they manage to reduce the negative impacts of small talk on work engagement. Likewise, Lam et al. (2017) found that the relationship between supervisors' emotional exhaustion and abusive supervision is weaker when the supervisors' self-monitoring is higher. This is because HSMs are more likely to control their negative behaviors towards others in order to maintain a positive social image. Therefore, HSMs are less likely to exhibit abusive supervision even when they are emotionally exhausted, as opposed to LSMs who may directly vent negative emotions.

Other similar examples include that, Wu et al. (2021) found self-monitoring moderates the relationship between ostracism and favor rendering such that HSMs (as compared to

LSMs) tend to overcome ostracism and still render favor to others. This is because HSMs are more motivated to gain a positive social standing over others, and thus they tend to reconnect to others even after rejection. Oh et al. (2014) found that less agreeable people would be more likely to engage in counterproductive work behaviors toward others, but this relationship is weaker as self-monitoring increases. In other words, compared to LSMs, HSMs do less counterproductive work toward other people even when they are not agreeable, because their image-building concern curtails their unagreeable expressions in front of other people. Further, Scott et al. (2012) found that the negative relationship between both surface-acting and deep-acting variability and job dissatisfaction is weaker for HSMs than LSMs. This indicates that HSMs are less negatively affected by both surface acting and deep acting, because they are more accustomed to both. For a similar reason, they also found the relationship between surface-acting variability and work withdrawal is weaker for HSMs than LSMs.

In addition to self-monitoring serving as a moderator to *mitigate* certain negative impacts, another positive aspect of self-monitoring as a moderator is its ability to *enhance* certain positive consequences. For example, Wu et al. (2021) found that HSMs are more popular than LSMs through favor rendering because HSMs employ favor rendering more effectively to cultivate a positive impression on others. Roberson and Williamson (2012) found that the positive relationship between the density of expressive network (channels for the exchange of interpersonal sources) and procedural justice climate strength in self-managing teams is stronger when there is a higher level of self-monitoring in teams. This is because a higher level of team-level self-monitoring involves attentiveness to others' voices and subsequent adaptation to interpersonal norms, which are important to team coordination. Similarly, Fang and Shaw (2019) found that the relationship between an individual's coworker network size and their intentions to seek, accept, and provide justice-related

information is stronger when the individual has a higher level of self-monitoring. This is because HSMs are more likely to attend to the needs of others, making them more likely to seek and provide justice-related information.

Positives of LSMs

Comparatively, the hypotheses on the positives of LSMs (or the negatives of HSMs) are rare. In the most-cited sample, only two studies found the positives of lower self-monitoring, both treating self-monitoring as a moderator. The first is by Premeaux and Bedeian (2003), who found that self-monitoring moderates the relationship between four independent variables (i.e., a. internal locus of control, b. self-esteem, c. top-management openness, d. trust in supervisor) and *speaking up*, such that the positive relationship between these independent variables and speaking up is positive for LSMs but negative for HSMs. This is because LSMs express their inner states straightforwardly, as compared to HSMs who are reserved in speaking up due to instrumental concerns.

The second study is by Abraham (1999), who found that the negative relationship between emotional dissonance and job satisfaction, organizational commitment would be stronger for HSMs than LSMs, indicating that HSMs are more negatively impacted by emotional dissonance than LSMs. This is because HSMs tend to worsen their emotional dissonance by being chameleon-like to fit various situations, which further decreases their level of job satisfaction and organizational commitment. In contrast, LSMs are more likely to genuinely confront and resolve emotional dissonance when they experience it, thus reducing its negative impact on job satisfaction and organizational commitment.

In the most recent sample, only two positives of LSMs were found, and they were hypothesized from the perspective of the negatives of HSMs. One negative aspect of higher self-monitoring is that conscientiousness and self-monitoring interact to predict counter-productive behavior toward organizations (Oh et al., 2014). Specifically, lower

conscientiousness leads to more counter-productive behaviors toward organizations when one's self-monitoring level is higher (Oh et al., 2014). This is because counter-productive behaviors toward organizations can occur in private settings. Thus, HSMs with low conscientiousness may resort to doing whatever it takes, including engaging in counter-productive behaviors, to achieve their instrumental purposes, as such actions would not directly sabotage their public image.

The other negative of higher self-monitoring is that self-monitoring is associated with perceived role conflict, as mediated by HSMs' higher likelihood to occupy external boundary-spanning positions (i.e., positions that require a high level of interaction with internal and external constituents) (Caldwell & O'Reilly, 1982; Mehra & Schenkel, 2008). As these positions bring conflicting role expectations, they lead to a higher level of role conflict. In other words, since LSMs are less likely to occupy boundary-spanning positions, they experience less role conflict.

2.3.4 Misalignment in Theorizing, Hypotheses, and Operationalization

There was a misalignment between theorizing and hypothesis articulation, in the sense that the constructs (i.e., self-monitoring, HSM, LSM) articulated in the hypotheses do not necessarily find explicit description in theory development. For instance, five articles (Allen et al., 2005; Bolino et al., 2010; Hewitt et al., 2003; Lievens et al., 2018; Wang et al., 2015) developed hypotheses around the self-monitoring variable, but theorizing based on individual characteristics of HSMs (and LSMs), rather than specifying self-monitoring as a continuous construct. Additionally, three articles' (Flynn et al., 2006; McFarland & Ryan, 2000, Turnley & Bolino, 2001) hypotheses included LSMs, but they developed theories only around HSMs or the self-monitoring variable without the descriptions of LSMs.

There was also a misalignment between hypothesis articulation and operationalization. Eight articles (e.g., Brotheridge & Lee, 2002; Evans & Clark, 2012) did

not operationalize HSMs and LSMs when their hypotheses were articulated with one or both types of individuals.

2.3.5 Trend

Decreased Emphasis on HSMs and LSMs

Though both samples still developed theory based on individuals of HSMs and LSMs, compared to the most-cited sample, the most recent sample tended to hypothesize around the self-monitoring construct rather than around HSMs and LSMs: only four articles developed hypotheses with HSMs (and LSMs) in the most recent sample, as compared to eleven articles did so in the most-cited sample. In line with the hypotheses, fewer articles have operationalized HSMs and LSMs. In the most cited sample, six articles operationalized HSMs and LSMs, but only one article operationalized HSMs and LSMs.

Increased Moderator

All studies in the sample studied self-monitoring as either an antecedent variable (60%) or a moderator (30%), or both (10%). None studied self-monitoring as a dependent variable or mediator. However, the most recent sample demonstrates an apparent increasing trend to study self-monitoring as a moderator (28%) than the most-cited sample (12%).

Decreased Use of SMS

Studies appear to be moving away from the use of SMS. In the most-cited sample, eight articles use SMS, while only two articles use SMS in the most recent sample. Comparatively, RSMS is becoming more popular, with nine studies using it in the most recent sample and four in the most-cited sample. This shift away from the SMS can be attributed to criticism of its orthogonal factors (c.f., Briggs et al., 1980) and lower internal consistency (Snyder & Gangestad, 1986).

2.3.6 Unclear Understanding of LSMs

Based on the findings and issues identified from the samples, it appears that the cause of the issues lies in the lack of clarity around who LSMs are, and specifically, what components (motivation and abilities) they possess. A close examination of the fifty articles shows that 94% of the whole sample clearly described HSMs in theory development. These descriptions were consistent in their characterization of HSMs as individuals with a high level of motivation to self-monitor, sensing ability, and acting ability. Specifically, 50% of the articles described HSMs as having a high level of all three components, while the remaining 44% explicated one or two of these components, and they were consistent that HSMs have a high level of these components.

However, the descriptions of LSMs' components were both unclear and inconsistent. Only 58% of the whole sample described LSMs in their theory development, i.e., 42% of the articles did not mention LSMs at all. Further, among those that did describe LSMs' components, the descriptions were not consistent.

LSMs' Motivation

Of the entire sample, 40% described the motivation of LSMs: 30% clearly indicated their motivation to present their true self, whereas 10% mentioned their lack of motivation to self-monitor, without clarifying if they have specific motivations.

Among the 30% of articles that explicated LSMs' motivation to present their true self, for example, Mehra et al., (2001, p. 124) stated that in social settings, LSMs will ask, "Who am I and how can I be me in this situation?" Kleinbaum et al. (2005, p. 1227) described LSMs' motivation as "to thine own self be true." Wang et al. (2015, p. 181) depicted that LSMs "put more emphasis on self-validation rather than a positive image." Oh et al. (2014, p. 59) described that LSMs "are more interested in self-validation and preserving their self-defined identity than in attaining status or prestige goals." Evans and Clark (2012, p. 383)

described that “attitudes held by low self-monitors typically serve a value-expressive function—one that emphasizes inner values, beliefs, and feelings.” These descriptions align with Snyder’s (1987, p. 5) earlier description of LSMs that they “value congruence between who they are and what they do” (p. 5). In this regard, LSMs’ social presentation reflects an intentional choice, rather than necessarily constrained by their lack of ability to adapt to situations (Briggs & Cheek, 1988).

However, 10% of articles described that LSMs lack the motivation to fit into situational requirements, but they did not specify what their motivations are. For example, Snyder and Monson (1975, p. 637) described that LSMs “have less concern for the appropriateness of their social behavior”, and Wu et al. (2020, p. 112) described that LSMs “are unwilling to change their expressions to meet social demands across situations.”

LSMs’ Sensing Ability

Only 10% of articles clearly specified whether LSMs have a low or high level of sensing ability. Other articles either didn’t mention sensing ability at all or were implicit about their level of sensing ability. However, even for the 10% of articles (i.e., only five articles) that offered descriptions of sensing ability, the descriptions were inconsistent. Three articles described LSMs as having a low level of sensing ability. For example, Glomb and Liao (2003, p. 489) described that “low self-monitors are more likely to behave provocatively in conflict situations and more likely to *misinterpret* others’ motives because they have low social sensitivity” [emphasis added]. However, two articles described that LSMs have a high level of sensing ability. For example, Premeaux and Bedeian (2003, p. 1542) described that “This is not to say, however, that LSMs do not use contextual cues to guide their behavior, but that they do so for a different reason. Rather than assessing situations for guidance in how to project a desired image, LSMs *search for situations that permit the display of their authentic selves*” [emphasis added].

LSMs' Acting Ability

Only 28% of the articles specifically described LSMs' acting ability, and they were not consistent. Although they were consistent that LSMs *do not* act to respond to situational cues, they diverged on LSMs' level of *ability*. 20% of the articles specified that LSMs have a low level of acting ability, noting that they are "less apt to adjust their behavior in social settings" (Oh et al., 2014, p. 95), and "they are also unable to carry off appearances" (Bizzi & Soda, 2011, p. 326). Conversely, 8% suggested that LSMs have a strong acting ability. Rather than utilizing this ability to conform to situational demands, LSMs wield it to genuinely represent their values and beliefs. For instance, Oh et al. (2014, p. 97) described that LSMs "are more likely to behaviorally enact their disposition in a natural manner," while Snyder and Debono (1985, p. 588) stated that LSMs "guide their behavioral choices on the basis of information from relevant inner sources." Such descriptions suggest that LSMs deliberately use their acting ability to authentically express their inner selves.

In summary, the relatively absent and varied descriptions of LSMs' motivation, sensing, and acting abilities suggest the ambiguous and inconsistent understanding of LSMs in research, which undoubtedly impede the study of them.

2.4 Discussion

This review paper reveals the unbalanced research on self-monitoring, with regard to the following three issues. Firstly, LSMs are largely missing in the literature compared to HSMs, in terms of less theoretical development and hypothesis development from LSMs' perspective. Secondly, particularly missing is the examination of LSMs' positives over HSMs. Thirdly, there is an unclear and inconsistent (even contradictory) understanding of LSMs in literature, and this unclarity is traced back to the foundational papers that developed the self-monitoring construct. The third issue is largely the cause of the first two issues. To

balance the research on self-monitoring requires resolving all the above three issues. I explicate each and then delineate a future research agenda in the following sections.

With regard to the first issue, my review shows that many authors focus solely on the attributes of HSMs and consider this sufficient to develop theories about self-monitoring. This approach implicitly assumes that LSMs are the opposite of HSMs, which can be problematic. Extant research is consistent that HSMs have a high level of all three components, i.e., motivation to self-monitor, sensing ability, and acting ability. Thus, when regarding LSMs as the opposite, LSMs are presumed to be low in all three components. However, this assumption overlooks the fact that some LSMs may not be the opposite of HSMs. For instance, they may possess a high level of ability but a low level of motivation, and vice versa. Treating all LSMs as the same, simply as those who are not HSMs, would result in a lack of nuanced understanding of individuals along the self-monitoring spectrum. I will revisit this issue later when discussing the unclear definition of LSMs.

The second issue is that extant literature has largely neglected the positive attributes of LSMs. When research focuses on HSMs' positives, LSMs, who are presumed to be the opposite, would have the corresponding negatives. My review reveals that research on HSMs' positives can be grouped into two broad streams. The first stream focuses on HSMs' overall behavioral adaptability to various people and situations. This flexibility brings them positive outcomes, such as gaining advantageous network positions (Kleinbaum et al., 2015; Wang et al., 2015) and higher social status (Flynn et al., 2006). The second stream focuses on HSMs' abilities, such as political skills (Ferris et al., 2005) and emotional intelligence (Schutte et al., 2001). Abilities, including sensing ability and acting ability, are perhaps an unalloyed good that brings many benefits in the workplace. Presuming LSMs to be the opposite of HSMs means LSMs lack these abilities, resulting in many negatives. While the

first stream holds true, the second stream requires further investigation. If some LSMs possess (some of) these abilities, what are the positive outcomes?

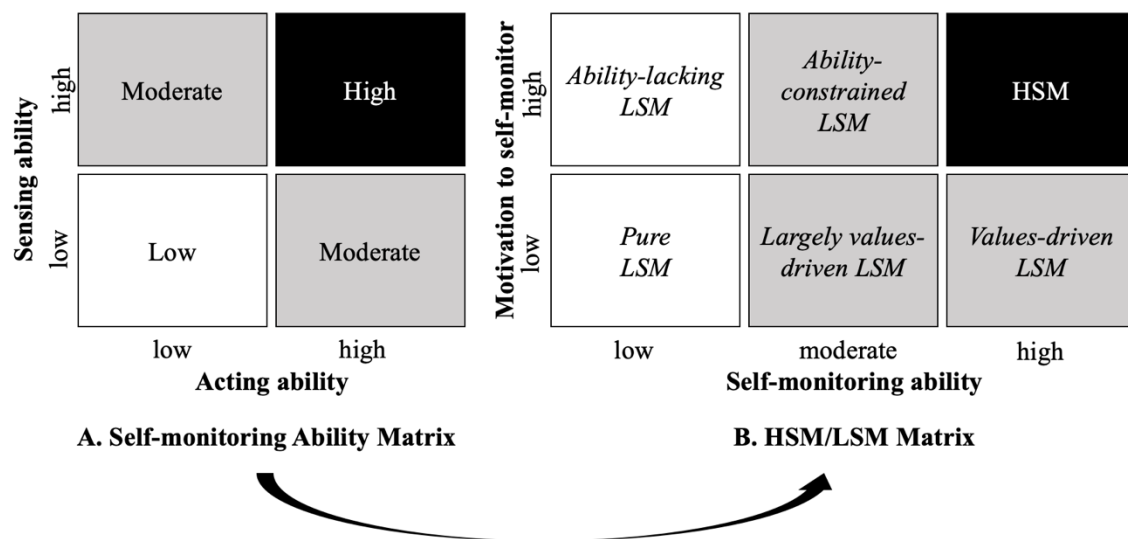
Only a few studies examined the downsides of self-monitoring, mainly focused on the dark side of self-monitoring motivation, a self-serving status-enhancement motive (Day & Schleicher, 2006). This motive can entail negative outcomes such as inauthenticity (Tasselli & Kilduff, 2018), inconsistency (Mehra & Schenkel, 2008), instrumental behaviors (Oh et al., 2014), and even unethical behaviors (McFarland & Ryan, 2000). Studies on the negative side of HSMs implied the positive of LSMs. However, none of the studies in this review developed a direct understanding of the positive attributes of LSMs from their perspective.

Regarding the third issue, my review indicates that the understanding of LSMs is inconsistent and even contradictory across the three components of self-monitoring. Concerning motivation, the literature consistently portrays LSMs as having a low level of motivation to self-monitor, while it remains unclear whether they harbor other specific motivations, such as a desire for authenticity. However, the assumption that LSMs entirely lack the motivation to self-monitor also requires further investigation. Is it possible that some LSMs have the motivation to self-monitor but lack the ability to do so, resembling individuals with a need for approval (Crowne & Marlowe, 1964; Snyder, 1974)?

With regards to the two abilities, namely sensing ability and acting abilities, existing research presents inconsistencies and contradictions. Some studies suggest that LSMs lack sensing ability (Glomb & Liao, 2003), whereas others indicate that LSMs possess a high level of sensing ability and adeptly use it to select situational cues that allow them to express their true selves (e.g., Premeaux & Bedeian, 2003). Similarly, while some studies suggest that LSMs lack acting ability (e.g., Oh et al., 2014), others describe their self-presentation skills as effective means of expressing their true inner states (Snyder & Debono, 1985).

To illustrate the complexity of the components, I illustrate the likelihood of different types of LSMs in Figure 2.1, which consists of two panels: Figure A (Self-Monitoring Ability Matrix) and Figure B (HSM/LSM Matrix). Figure A depicts a 4-cell matrix with sensing ability (low, high) on one axis, and acting ability (low, high) on the other axis. Therefore, Figure A displays three levels of overall self-monitoring ability: (1) low (white cell), i.e., low on both sensing ability and acting ability; (2) high (black cell), i.e., high on both abilities; and (3) moderate (grey cells), i.e., high on one ability and low on the other. I then juxtapose these three levels of overall self-monitoring ability with the two levels of motivation³ (low, high), as shown in Figure B, which results in a 6-cell matrix (2 x 3) that includes five types of LSMs (apart from one type of HSM). It is pertinent to note that both the motivation and ability components are continuous in level, I make the ability level as a three-level continuum in Figure B just to highlight that there are two abilities concerning this dimension. Therefore, accordingly, I label these five types of LSMs as the following: *pure LSMs*, *ability-lacking LSMs*, *ability-constrained LSMs*, *largely values-driven LSMs*, and *values-driven LSMs*.

Figure 2.1 6-Cell HSM LSM Matrix Derivation



³ In terms of motivation, Figure B only indicates whether LSMs have a low or high motivation to self-monitor, but it does not address the possibility that LSMs may have other motivations.

2.5 Agenda for Future Research

To address the skewed focus in the literature on self-monitoring, future research should develop theories and hypotheses from the perspective of LSMs, with a focus on their unique attributes, rather than simply assuming that LSMs are the opposite of HSMs. Two potential avenues for future research include studying LSMs as a composite construct and focusing on the different components of LSMs. Table 2.4 presents a list of potential research questions from these two perspectives.

Table 2.3 A Research Agenda for LSMs from Different Perspectives

Perspective	Research questions
LSM as a composite	1. What are the advantages of being 'principled' (i.e., LSMs) at work over being 'chameleon-like'(i.e., HSMs)?
	2. Under what circumstances LSMs may have more advantages over HSMs at work
	3. What jobs fit LSMs more than HSMs?
	4. What advantages do LSMs have in social network?
	5. Under what conditions do LSMs more likely emerge as leaders than HSMs?
	6. Under what conditions do LSMs achieve greater leadership effectiveness than HSMs?
Motivation	7. Do LSMs have a clear motivation <i>not</i> to self-monitor (such as striving for authenticity)?
	8. What are the advantages of LSMs with a authenticity-seeking motive?
	9. Do (some) LSMs have the motivation to adapt to situations but lack the abilities to do so?
	10. Do LSMs have a high or low level of sensing ability?
Components Sensing ability	11. What advantages do LSMs have when they have a high level of sensing ability?
	12. What advantages do LSMs have when they have a high level of emotional intelligence?
Acting ability	13. Do LSMs have a high or low level of acting ability?
	14. What advantages do LSMs have when they have a high level of acting ability?
	15. What are the outcomes when LSMs engage in emotional labor?
Other	16. Are LSMs the opposite of HSMs?
	17. What are the different types of LSMs?
	18. How to measure different types of LSMs?

LSM as a Composite

LSMs exhibit behaviors consistent with their inner states (Gangestad & Snyder, 2000) and possess desirable attributes, including principled conduct (Day & Schleicher, 2006), situational consistency (Scott et al., 2012), authenticity (Pillow et al., 2017), and a straightforward approach to self-expression. They are less influenced by external factors such as situational demands or others' expectations. Given these characteristics, it would be beneficial for future research to examine the advantages of LSMs compared to chameleon-like HSMs. One broad avenue is to examine situational factors that enable LSMs to show

more advantages over HSMs in the workplace. For instance, Premeaux and Bedeian (2006) discovered that open-minded leaders foster an environment that encourages straightforward expression, making LSMs more likely to speak up compared to HSMs.

Research could investigate the positive aspects of LSMs in relation to various dependent variables. For instance, exploring person-job fit (Caldwell & O'Reilly, 1990) could help identify which types of jobs are better suited to LSMs compared to HSMs. It is plausible that LSMs may thrive in professions where principles are highly valued over social flexibility, such as scientists and lawyers. Another area of interest is social networks. Although research has predominantly emphasized the advantages of HSMs over LSMs in social networks, it remains valuable to examine situations in which LSMs gain advantages over HSMs. For example, Tasselli and Kilduff (2018) found that LSMs are more likely to be part of a single friendship clique rather than becoming Simmelian brokers (who connect multiple disconnected cliques), and in this context, LSMs who are loquacious gain more trust than HSMs. This study suggests potential benefits of being an LSM in specific network contexts. Additionally, future research could investigate whether LSMs tend to develop stronger ties (Granovetter, 1973) compared to HSMs. Considering that LSMs display a higher level of commitment both in work (Day & Kilduff, 1994; Jenkins, 1993) and in personal relationships (Norris & Zweigenhaft, 1999; Snyder & Simpson, 1984), it is possible that LSMs tend to maintain closer, more frequent, and more intimate connections, which are characteristics of stronger ties.

The domain of leadership presents another promising area for examination. Though some research has demonstrated a positive relationship between self-monitoring and leadership emergence (Day et al., 2002), other studies have found no significant correlation between the two (e.g., Côté et al., 2010; Foti & Hauenstein, 2007). As a result, a potential research direction is to investigate the circumstances under which LSMs are more likely to

emerge as leaders than HSMs. For example, LSMs may be more likely to take on leadership roles when given ample time. This period allows others to identify and appreciate the consistent, principled traits of LSMs, and simultaneously recognize the changeable, chameleon-like characteristics of HSMs, which may cause skepticism about their appropriateness for leadership roles (Bedeian & Day, 2004). Further, previous research shows a non-significant relationship between self-monitoring and leadership effectiveness (e.g., Douglas & Ammeter, 2004), and various leadership styles, such as authentic leadership, transformational leadership, and transactional leadership (e.g., Sosik et al., 2002; Tate, 2008). This opens opportunities to investigate situational moderators that can shed light on when LSMs demonstrate greater leadership compared to HSMs.

LSMs' Components

Future research can also study LSMs from the perspective of their components. Regarding motivation, research has specifically examined HSMs' status-enhancement motive, both theoretically (Day & Schleicher, 2006; Fuglestad & Snyder, 2010), and empirically (Wilmot et al., 2019). However, few studies have explicitly investigated LSMs' motives. Snyder (1987) raised this issue about LSMs' specific motivation: "Much as it may seem, at an intuitive level, that there is something automatic, unreflective, and unconscious about expressing one's attitudes and 'just being oneself', it really may be that these features of the low self-monitoring orientation demand as much ***deliberate, intentional, and motivational planning*** as the impression-managing activities of the high self-monitoring orientation" (p. 57)[emphasis added].

Despite this depiction, later research seemed to disregard the motivation of LSMs. Briggs and Cheek (1988) also raised the issue of LSMs' motivation, stating that: "even the apparently trait-like behavior of the low self-monitor is premeditated and voluntary" (p. 765). More recently, Kim (2004) investigated LSMs' motivation and questioned the extant view

that LSMs lack self-presentation concerns. He argued that LSMs have a clear self-presentation motivation, which is to appear sincere to others. Although his findings partially support this argument, his study suggests the importance of further investigating LSMs' motivations. After clarifying LSMs' motivation, research could investigate the potential outcomes of this motivation. For example, Moore et al. (2017) found that high-performing job candidates who also display an authentic self-verification motive would more likely receive job offers than those without such motive. Though this finding was not specifically about LSMs, it suggests the potential positive outcomes of LSMs' motivations, inspiring further research in this area. Finally, as aforementioned, it is also possible that some LSMs have a high level of motivation to self-monitor (but lack the ability to do so), and future research needs to clarify this issue.

With regard to sensing ability, future research needs to investigate whether LSMs have a high or low level of sensing ability, and what are the outcomes of LSMs with differing levels of this ability. For example, LSMs with a high level of sensing ability might engage in more prosocial behaviors compared to those without. Additionally, researchers could examine LSMs with a high level of emotional intelligence, as sensing ability concerns the understanding of others' emotions, which is a key component of emotional intelligence (Salovey & Mayer, 1990).

Likewise, research needs to study LSMs' acting ability. Can skillful actors be LSMs? Snyder (1974) identified HSMs' acting ability with stage actors and acknowledged that "Clearly, professional stage actors can do what I cannot" (p. 527). However, are all skillful actors HSMs? Additionally, further research could examine the relationship between LSMs and emotional labor. Whereas some studies have found a positive correlation between self-monitoring and surface acting (Diefendorff et al., 2005), future research can study whether

and when LSMs engage in emotional labor (surface or deep acting) and the outcomes for LSMs involved in emotional labor.

Finally, future research could potentially develop the framework of a complete understanding of LSMs, i.e., the different types of LSMs. This could involve developing scales to capture the different types of LSMs. Measuring LSMs on a spectrum with the self-monitoring scale may be problematic, as LSMs may not simply be the opposite of HSMs. Treating self-monitoring as a multi-component construct could yield a more nuanced understanding of this trait (Kudret et al., 2019) and the different types of LSMs, thus balancing the self-monitoring literature.

CHAPTER III A META-ANALYSIS OF THE SELF-MONITORING AND LEADERSHIP RELATIONSHIP

This chapter sets out to examine the relationship between self-monitoring and leadership through a comprehensive meta-analysis, incorporating a range of leadership dependent variables wherever adequate data is available for analysis. The motivation for this meta-analysis stems from mixed findings regarding the relationship between self-monitoring and various leadership variables (e.g., Chaudhary & Panda, 2019; Douglas & Ammeter, 2004; Sosik et al., 2002; Tate, 2008). Additionally, the unclear relationship between self-monitoring and leadership has been debated in the literature (Bedeian & Day, 2004).

Conducting a meta-analysis to elucidate the relationships is important. Meta-analysis can both draw productive lines of research by providing a summary of prior findings, and more importantly, identify issues to spark new lines of research (Lord et al., 2017). A meta-analysis exclusively focused on self-monitoring and leadership would allow a closer examination of both the independent and dependent variables, which will yield significant theoretical implications. Previous meta-analyses have only partially examined the self-monitoring leadership relationship. Day et al. (2002) examined the relationship between self-monitoring and “leadership” (where the authors incorporated both leadership emergence and leadership behaviors in this category), among a host of other dependent variables. Moreover, this study was conducted two decades ago. Another meta-analysis by Hoffman et al. (2011) has only examined the relationship between self-monitoring (among numerous individual attributes) and leadership effectiveness.

This meta-analysis, comprising 9,029 individuals across 55 samples, is the inaugural meta-analysis that exclusively concentrates on the relationship between self-monitoring and leadership, investigating the connection between self-monitoring and six leadership-related

constructs: leadership emergence, leadership effectiveness, authentic leadership, transformational leadership, transactional leadership, and managerial leadership (variables selected when data is available). This focused approach allows an in-depth investigation of the relationship, including two moderators from the independent variable and the dependent variable respectively: (i) the scale used to measure self-monitoring and (ii) the source of leadership ratings (e.g., subordinates, peers, or supervisors). The granular examination of these relationships not only contributes to a clearer understanding of the impact of self-monitoring on leadership but also adds to a finer-grained understanding of both constructs.

The structure of this chapter is as follows. First, I present a concise review of pertinent literature on the relationship between self-monitoring and leadership. Following this, I develop hypotheses concerning the relationship between self-monitoring and each of the six leadership-related variables, inclusive of moderation hypotheses, subject to data availability for testing. Subsequently, I detail the meta-analytical methods and procedures in this study, followed by the results. To conclude, I deliberate on the theoretical and practical implications that emanate from this study.

3.1 Self-monitoring and Leadership

Self-monitoring encompasses two aspects—one, the extent to which people value social images and public impressions, and two, the extent to which they are able to create, cultivate, and project an appropriate social image in public appearances (Gangestad & Snyder, 2000). The first is the motivational (i.e., willingness) aspect of self-monitoring and the second is the ability (i.e., adeptness) to self-monitor. These two aspects are clearly delineated in a recent definition of self-monitoring (Kudret et al., 2019). According to Kudret et al. (2019, p. 194), “*self-monitoring captures one’s **willingness** and **adeptness** at modifying their social images in line with situational demands, and behaving in line with social role expectations of others*” [emphasis added]. The validity of these two dimensions is further reinforced by Warech et al.

(1998), who have developed scales to measure self-monitoring motivation and self-monitoring ability separately.

Self-monitoring Motivation. Research has examined the different dimensions of self-monitoring motivation, encompassing protective motivation and acquisitive motivation (Lennox, 1988). Protective motivation refers to passively conforming to fit into a situation to avoid rejection, associated with the “getting along” aspect of social life according to socioanalytic theory (Day & Schleicher, 2006; Hogan et al., 1985). Acquisitive motivation refers to actively engaging in social settings to cultivate a positive impression, linked to the “getting ahead” aspect as per socioanalytic theory (Day & Schleicher, 2006; Gangestad & Snyder, 2000; Snyder & Gangestad, 1986).

Despite acknowledging that self-monitoring concerns both protective and acquisitive motivations, research indicates that the ultimate motivation of self-monitoring is the acquisitive motive (Day & Schleicher, 2006; Gangestad & Snyder, 2000). Engaging in a protective motivation, such as striving for acceptance and approval, contributes to the acquisitive motive to get ahead (Day & Schleicher, 2006). According to Gangestad and Snyder (2000, p. 547), the primary question regarding HSMs’ motivations is: “What do high self-monitors strive to acquire?” Based on a review of empirical studies, they elucidated that the ultimate acquisitive goal of self-monitoring is status enhancement (Gangestad & Snyder, 2000). This conclusion is supported by Fuglestad and Snyder (2010), who reaffirmed status enhancement as the foundational motive of self-monitoring. Furthermore, Wilmot et al. (2019) also found a positive meta-analytic relationship between self-monitoring and status motivations.

Self-monitoring motivation can have both positive and negative effects on leadership. On one hand, it enables an individual to navigate social settings effectively, facilitating leadership processes (Judge et al., 2009). On the other hand, this motivation can be self-

serving and lead to instrumental behaviors, potentially undermining leadership processes (Sosik et al., 2002).

Self-monitoring Ability. According to Snyder (1974), self-monitoring ability includes “an acute sensitivity to the cues in a situation which indicate what expression or self-presentation is appropriate” (p. 527) and “the ability to control and modify one’s self-presentation and expressive behavior” (p. 529). These two abilities have been specifically defined as two subdimensions of self-monitoring in Lennox and Wolfe’s (1984, p. 1361) self-monitoring definition, namely “sensitivity to expressive behavior of others” and “ability to modify self-presentation.”

Self-monitoring ability is widely recognized in the literature. In fact, many scholars refer to the self-monitoring construct as “self-monitoring ability” (Anderson et al., 1999; Becker et al., 2002) or “self-monitoring skill” (Child & Agyeman-Budu, 2010), rather than considering it as a holistic individual attribute, even though Gangestad and Snyder (2000) underscored the motivational element of the self-monitoring construct. Overall, self-monitoring abilities, regarded as key dimensions of the self-monitoring construct, contribute positively to leadership. Sensitivity concerns a key ability in leadership (Campbell et al., 2003; Keller, 1999), and the ability to modify self-presentation is critical for communication skills (Duran & Spitzberg, 1995), which also play a significant role in leadership.

Self-monitoring Measurement Scales. All the studies included in this meta-analysis used one of the three most-acknowledged self-monitoring scales, i.e., the original self-monitoring scale, SMS (Snyder, 1974), the revised self-monitoring scale, RSMS (Lennox & Wolfe, 1984), and the shorter version of the original self-monitoring scale, SMS-Reduced, or SMS-R (Snyder & Gangestad, 1986). Whereas the SMS and SMS-R operationalize self-monitoring as including both motivation and ability (Gangestad & Snyder, 2000), the RSMS is exclusively focused on self-monitoring ability (Lennox & Wolfe, 1984; O’Cass, 2000),

which include two subscales, i.e., “sensitivity to expressive behavior of others” and “ability to modify self-presentation” (Lennox & Wolfe, 1984, p. 1361).

Leadership

Leadership is a prominent concern in all types of organizations (Day et al., 2014) and is one of the most important issues in human sciences and applied psychology (Gardner et al., 2020; Hogan & Kaiser, 2005). There are several definitions of leadership. For instance, according to Antonakis and Day (2017, p. 5), “leadership is a formal or informal contextually rooted and goal-influencing process that occurs between a leader and a follower, groups of followers, or institutions.” The influencing or persuading aspect is typically central to leadership definitions. According to Vroom and Jago (2007, p. 17), “virtually all definitions of leadership share the view that leadership involves the process of influence”. Hogan et al., (1994, p. 493) definition is more specific: “Leadership involves persuading other people to set aside for a period of time their individual concerns and to pursue a common goal that is important for the responsibilities and welfare of a group.” Influence is also related to self-monitoring because high self-monitoring could be interpreted as fulfilling a desire to influence (Gangestad & Snyder, 2000; Oyamot et al., 2010).

In terms of studying leadership in general, researchers have parsed it into two broad categories, i.e., leadership emergence and leadership effectiveness (Judge et al., 2002). This categorization is relevant and important because not all emergent leaders are good leaders (Hogan et al., 1994). Scholarship on leadership has also generated a plethora of specific theories and constructs (Dinh et al., 2014). Early theories include trait theories (Cowley, 1931), behavioral theories (Fleishman, 1953), contingency theories (Fiedler, 1964), and implicit leadership theories (Eden & Leviatan, 1975). More recent leadership constructs and theories, according to Gardner et al. (2020), include authentic leadership (Gardner et al., 2011), ethical leadership (Eisenbeiss, 2012), servant leadership (Van Dierendonck, 2011),

strategic leadership (Boal & Hooijberg, 2000), team leadership (Zaccaro et al., 2001), and transformational leadership (Dinh et al., 2014). Not all of these constructs and theories have been studied with regard to their relationship with self-monitoring. Thus, based on the availability of data, I examined the relationship between self-monitoring and the following six leadership variables: (i) leadership emergence; (ii) leadership effectiveness; (iii) authentic leadership; (iv) transformational leadership; (v) transactional leadership; and (vi) managerial leadership.

3.2 Hypothesis Development

3.2.1 Leadership Emergence

Leadership emergence (Judge et al., 2002) is one of three similar constructs; the other two are *emergent leadership* (Hanna et al., 2021) and *leader emergence* (Zhang et al., 2012). Leadership emergence refers to the extent to which an individual is viewed as a leader by others “who typically have only limited information about that individual’s performance” (Judge et al., 2002 p. 767). Emergent leadership refers to “the degree to which an individual with no formal status or authority is perceived by one or more team members as exhibiting leaderlike influence” (Hanna, et al., 2021, p. 82). Leader emergence refers to “when a member achieves influence over other team members in terms of direction, motivation, and task behavior” (Zhang et al., 2012, p. 50). The three concepts are usually used interchangeably (Badura et al., 2022). In this paper, I use the term “leadership emergence.”

Although leadership emergence definitions slightly vary, they involve an individual coming to be seen as influential and becoming a leader in a team, organization, or among others (Badura et al., 2022; Judge et al., 2022). Leadership emergence could occur in formal or informal leadership roles, including the implicit and explicit granting of the leadership role by others (Badura et al., 2022). The leadership emergence process would entail interactions,

perceptions, and behaviors between the prospective leader and followers (Derue & Ashford, 2010).

Previous research has hypothesized a positive relationship between self-monitoring and leadership emergence (e.g., Eby et al., 2003; Rubin et al., 2002; Rutti, 2009; Türetgen et al., 2008; Zaccaro et al., 1991). This hypothesis has found support in some studies (e.g., Türetgen et al., 2008; Zaccaro et al., 1991), but some studies have reported a non-significant relationship between the two (e.g., Côté et al., 2010; Foti & Hauenstein, 2007; Rutti, 2009). In this meta-analysis, I also hypothesize a positive relationship between self-monitoring and leadership emergence for the following four reasons.

Firstly, leadership emergence is contingent upon the subjective perception of leadership by others (Badura et al., 2022). This perception is rooted in *implicit leadership theory* (Lord et al., 1984), which posits that emergent leaders are determined based on others' perceptions of what a leader should be like, regardless of other key factors such as the situation, the team, or the task (Lord et al., 1986; Lord et al., 2020). According to implicit leadership theory, attributes of dominance and extraversion are crucial in shaping leader perceptions, and thus individuals manifesting these traits are often seen as leader-like and emerge as leaders (Judge et al., 2002; Lord et al., 1986; Hogan et al., 1994). Compared to LSMs, HSMs are more dominant in social interactions, usually becoming the center of attention and initiating conversations (Foti & Hauenstein, 2007; Ickes & Barnes, 1977; Snyder, 1974; Zaccaro et al., 1991). Additionally, HSMs display more extraverted and expressive behaviors than LSMs to actively display socially desirable behaviors. Research also indicates that the self-monitoring construct encompasses the extraversion factor (Briggs et al., 1980; Parks-Leduc et al., 2014) and public performing (Briggs & Cheek, 1988), reinforcing the pronounced extraversion aspect of self-monitoring. Thus, given the higher

level of dominance and extraversion displayed by HSMs, they are more likely to emerge as leaders compared to LSMs.

Secondly, in comparison to LSMs, HSMs exhibit higher levels of attentiveness and responsiveness to the expectations of group members and are more adaptive to changing situations (Snyder, 1979). When collaborating within groups, HSMs tend to display greater flexibility and demonstrate superior interpersonal capabilities (Hall et al., 1998). These interpersonal capabilities align with the leader prototype per implicit leadership theory (Lord et al., 1984), making HSMs more likely to be perceived as leaders.

Thirdly, socioanalytic theory (Hogan et al., 1985) posits that people possess two primary motivations, getting along (i.e., seeking acceptance in interpersonal relationships) and getting ahead (i.e., achieving status among a group of people). Self-monitoring is associated with the inclination to both (Day & Schleicher, 2006), which are critical factors influencing leadership emergence (Judge et al., 2009; Marinova et al., 2013). Lastly, compared to LSMs, HSMs are more inclined to exhibit leader behaviors (Eby et al., 2003), including *initiating structure*, i.e., clarifying roles and specifying rules and procedures (e.g., Dobbins et al., 1990) and *consideration*, i.e., demonstrating concern, respect, and support for followers (e.g., Hall et al., 1998). These leadership behaviors would contribute to their perception as leaders within the group (Badura et al., 2022).

H1. Self-monitoring is positively related to leadership emergence.

Self-monitoring motivation encompasses both “getting ahead” and “getting along,” which are two important drives leading to leadership emergence (Badura et al., 2022; Judge et al., 2009; Marinova et al., 2013). Additionally, the acquisitive motivation of self-monitoring involves the status-enhancement motive (Day & Schleicher, 2006), and being a leader entails having status over others. Thus, the acquisitive motive aspect becomes critical for actively engaging in self-monitoring, including positive image-building and engagement

in leader behaviors. Consequently, when self-monitoring is measured by scales that include self-monitoring motivation (i.e., SMS and SMS-R), its relationship with leadership emergence is expected to be stronger compared to when it is measured by RSMS, which excludes the motivation component.

***H2.** Self-monitoring scale moderates the relationship between self-monitoring and leadership emergence, such that the relationship is stronger when self-monitoring is measured by (H2a) SMS and (H2b) SMS-R as compared to when it is measured by RSMS.*

Leadership emergence has been measured in two ways. First, by subjective perceptions of others (e.g., peers, observers, subordinates⁴), which are measured by ratings, such as using the *General Leadership Impression* (GLI) scale (e.g., Kilduff et al., 2017). Second, by peers either nominating (Kalish & Luria, 2021) or ranking (Zaccaro et al., 1991) whom they perceive to be emergent leaders. I expect a stronger relationship between self-monitoring and leadership emergence when the latter is measured by peers than subordinates. When interacting with subordinates, leaders may feel a reduced need to actively cultivate their image to enhance their status, likely because their status is already solidified through formal leadership positions (Badura et al., 2022). Conversely, when interacting with peers where individuals have not recognized formal status or authority, they are more likely to engage in self-monitoring to elevate their standing. Furthermore, compared to peers, subordinates are often seen as lower on the hierarchical ladder and might be deemed less relevant to instrumental goals. As a result, self-monitoring will be more activated to cultivate a more positive image when interacting with peers than subordinates, resulting in a stronger

⁴ Leadership emergence, which refers to perceptions of leadership attributed to an individual not holding a formal leader role, is typically not assessed by subordinates (Hanna et al., 2021). However, in the present sample, subordinates were involved in providing leadership perception ratings for the focal leader (e.g., Campbell, 1993), using the same measures as for leadership emergence. This enabled me to compare subordinate ratings with other evaluations, thus providing further insights.

relationship between self-monitoring and leadership emergence when the latter is measured by peers than subordinates.

H3. Rating source moderates the relationship between self-monitoring and leadership emergence, such that the relationship is stronger when leadership is measured by peers' ratings as compared to when it is measured by subordinates' ratings.

3.2.2 Leadership Effectiveness

Leadership effectiveness (or *leader effectiveness*, e.g., Hoffman et al., 2011) refers to “a leader’s performance in influencing and guiding the activities of his or her unit toward achievement of its goals” (Judge et al., 2002, p. 767). Even though leadership effectiveness is an individual-level construct, Hogan et al. (1994) suggested that it should be measured based on the unit: the group, team, or organization’s effectiveness as led by the leader. However, in practice, leadership effectiveness is usually measured through subjective ratings, including assessments from the leader’s supervisor, peers, or subordinates (Judge et al., 2002). These subjective ratings of leadership effectiveness are influenced by followers’ implicit leadership theories, which suggest that individuals tend to perceive those who are dedicated, charismatic, intelligent, and sensitive as effective leaders (Offermann et al., 1994).

Self-monitoring could positively contribute to leadership effectiveness for three reasons. Firstly, compared to LSMs, HSMs are more sensitive and responsive to others’ reactions and expectations. This enables HSMs to better discern and consider followers’ needs and feedback (Bedeian & Day, 2004), contributing to the leading process (George, 2000). Moreover, followers who perceive their leaders as sensitive are more likely to consider them effective based on implicit leadership theory (Offermann et al., 1994). Secondly, HSMs’ greater behavioral flexibility in different situations helps them lead the group to respond to various situational demands and adapt to changes (Foti & Hauenstein,

2007; Zaccaro et al., 1991). This flexibility is an important aspect of effective leadership (Zaccaro et al., 1991). Finally, self-monitoring is positively associated with extraversion, openness, and emotional intelligence (Barrick et al., 2005; Wilmot et al., 2016), which are important attributes for leadership effectiveness (Judge et al., 2002; Judge, Colbert et al., 2004; Rosete & Ciarrochi, 2005; Zaccaro et al., 2018).

However, self-monitoring could also have negative effects on leadership effectiveness, including the following aspects. Firstly, HSMs' chameleon-like character and behavioral inconsistency may make them less trustworthy to followers compared to principled and consistent LSMs (Tasselli & Kilduff, 2018). Reduced trust in the leader could hinder leader-follower interactions and lead to negative attitudes, such as lower follower commitment and job satisfaction (Dirks & Ferrin, 2002), ultimately undermining leadership effectiveness. Secondly, HSMs may tend to be opportunistic in advancing their status (Oh et al., 2014), leading to unethical decision-making (Ogunfowora et al., 2013) and counterproductive behaviors toward organizations (Parks & Mount, 2005). These actions could diminish their credibility as leaders, negatively impacting the leading process and overall effectiveness of the unit. Finally, HSMs show a lower level of both attitudinal and behavioral commitment to interpersonal relationships and organizations compared to LSMs (Day et al., 2002). Therefore, leaders who are HSMs tend to be less committed than LSMs, which could have a negative impact on team or organizational outcomes. A lower level of commitment and dedication may also influence the subjective perception of leadership effectiveness (Offermann et al., 1994).

Self-monitoring appears to have both positive and negative aspects on leadership effectiveness. However, some of the negatives are more relevant to the unit's objective performance. Since leadership effectiveness is usually measured through subjective ratings by others, and self-monitoring overall concerns creating a positive impression on others, I

would hypothesize that the overall relationship (main effect) between self-monitoring and leadership effectiveness is positive.

H4. Self-monitoring is positively related to leadership effectiveness.

The aforementioned positive associations between self-monitoring and leadership effectiveness are largely relevant to self-monitoring abilities, namely, “sensitivity to the expressive behaviors of others” and “ability to modify self-presentation” (Lennox & Wolfe, 1984, p. 1361). These abilities enable leaders to have the sensitivity to attend to followers’ needs and the behavioral flexibility to adapt to situational demands and changes. However, it is the self-serving instrumental motive of self-monitoring that would lead to inconsistent, opportunistic, and even unethical behaviors, which could result in a leader’s reduced credibility and harm to the team or organization. Thus, when self-monitoring is measured by the RSMS (a scale that focuses on self-monitoring ability and excludes self-monitoring motivation) the relationship with leadership effectiveness would be stronger than when it is measured by SMS and SMS-R (scales that include self-monitoring motivation).

H5. Self-monitoring scale moderates the positive relationship between self-monitoring and leadership effectiveness, such that the relationship is stronger when self-monitoring is measured by RSMS as compared to when it is measured by (H5a) SMS and (H5b) SMS-R.

We expect that self-monitoring will show a stronger positive correlation with leadership effectiveness when the latter is rated by supervisors rather than by subordinates, for two reasons. Firstly, compared to leaders who are LSMs, HSMs are more likely to demonstrate more positive performance in front of supervisors than subordinates since the former is more critical to HSMs’ instrumental purposes. This aligns with the finding that HSMs tend to behave more positively in interpersonal settings where their behaviors are visible to supervisors, compared to situations where their behaviors are not witnessed by

important audiences (e.g., Oh et al., 2014). Secondly, leaders are expected to interact more frequently with their subordinates than with their supervisors in the leading process. As a result, subordinates are more likely to observe HSMs' negative aspects, such as inauthenticity, inconsistent behaviors, and unethical conduct, which could lead them to rate the leader less favorably. In contrast, supervisors may have fewer opportunities to witness such negative behaviors and may only see the more positively cultivated side of HSMs during interactions, resulting in more favorable ratings of leadership effectiveness.

H6. Rating source moderates the relationship between self-monitoring and leadership effectiveness, such that the relationship is stronger when leadership is measured by supervisors' ratings as compared to when it is measured by subordinates' ratings.

3.2.3 Authentic Leadership

Authentic leadership is grounded in the construct of *authenticity*, which traces back to the ancient Greek philosophy of “to thine own self be true” (Gardner et al., 2011).

Authenticity refers to “consistency between an entity's external expressions and its internal values and beliefs” (Lehmann et al., 2019, p. 1). It is considered to be a positively valenced construct and is included as part of the positive psychology (Harter, 2002; Seligman & Csikszentmihalyi, 2014) research stream.

Built on the conceptualization of authenticity, authentic leadership is defined as “a pattern of leader behavior that draws upon and promotes both positive psychological capacities and a positive ethical climate, to foster greater self-awareness, an internalized moral perspective, balanced processing of information, and relational transparency on the part of leaders working with followers, fostering positive self-development” (Walumbwa et al., 2008, p. 94). Authentic leadership incorporates four dimensions which are as follows: (i)

self-awareness; (ii) balanced processing, (iii) relational transparency; and (iv) internalized moral perspective (Gardner et al., 2005; Walumbwa et al., 2008).

Self-monitoring contradicts two of these components of authentic leadership, i.e., relational transparency (the third component) and internalized moral perspective (the fourth component). *Relational transparency* requires leaders to establish a transparent relationship with followers by demonstrating their true selves in leader-follower interactions (Avolio & Gardner, 2005; Shamir & Eilam, 2005). However, leaders with a higher level of self-monitoring may hide their true feelings and inner states, and this would undermine the development of a transparent relationship between leaders and followers. *Internalized moral perspective* requires leaders to have high moral and ethical standards, according to which they act in a principled manner (Luthans & Avolio, 2003; May et al., 2003). However, self-monitoring is associated with unethical behaviors such as unethical business decision-making (Ogunfowora et al., 2013), faking in interviews (Levashina & Campion, 2007), and counterproductive behaviors towards organizations (Parks & Mount, 2005), which conflicts with this component. Also, under situational pressure, HSMs tend to behave in a pragmatic manner, in contrast to authentic leaders who would behave in a manner consistent with their internalized values (Walumbwa et al., 2008). Thus, I expect self-monitoring to be negatively related to authentic leadership.

Also, self-monitoring involves adjusting self-presentation to meet situational demands rather than acting according to the inner self (Gangestad & Snyder, 2000) and therefore contradicts the very essence of authenticity, i.e., consistency between one's expressive behaviors and inner true self (Lehmann et al., 2019). Indeed, empirical studies find a negative correlation between self-monitoring and authenticity (Brotheridge & Lee, 2002; Pillow et al., 2017). Research also finds that HSMs, as compared to LSMs, demonstrate a lower level of intention-behavior consistency (Ajzen et al., 1982), and are more engaged in surface acting

(Brotheridge & Lee, 2002; Diefendorff et al., 2005), both of which imply low authenticity (Brotheridge & Lee, 2002). According to Gardner et al. (2005, p. 345), “First and foremost, an authentic leader must achieve authenticity.” Hence, I expect self-monitoring to be negatively related to authentic leadership.

H7. Self-monitoring is negatively related to authentic leadership.

The factor influencing inauthenticity is the self-monitoring motivation, not self-monitoring abilities including “sensitivity to the expressive behaviors of others” and “ability to modify self-presentation” (Lennox & Wolfe, 1984, p. 1361). When individuals are driven by the desire to strategically manage impressions for personal gain, they could risk compromising their authenticity. Thus, the negative association between self-monitoring and authentic leadership stems from the motivation to self-monitor, rather than the ability to do so, and the two self-monitoring abilities alone do not result in one’s inauthenticity.

These two abilities could, conversely, contribute to authentic leadership as they could be associated with two components of authentic leadership: *self-awareness* and *balanced processing*. Self-awareness involves recognizing and comprehending one’s emotions (Ilies et al., 2005), an integral aspect of emotional intelligence (EI), which encompasses the ability to perceive, understand, manage, and effectively utilize emotions (Salovey & Mayer, 1990). Research shows a positive correlation between self-monitoring ability (measured by RSMS) and EI (e.g., Wilmot, 2011), suggesting that self-monitoring ability is likely to enhance the authentic leadership dimension of self-awareness. *Balanced processing* refers to objectively perceiving self-relevant information, including reactions and feedback from others (Ilies et al., 2005). It requires leaders to perceive information from different perspectives and to sense cues and information from various people and situations (Avolio & Gardner, 2005). This requires the self-monitoring ability of sensitivity. Therefore, since RSMS is solely focused on self-monitoring ability, but SMS and SMS-R involve the motivation to self-monitor, the

dimension contributing to inauthenticity, I hypothesize the measurement scale of self-monitoring would moderate the relationship between self-monitoring and authentic leadership.

***H8.** Self-monitoring scale moderates the relationship between self-monitoring and authentic leadership, such that the relationship is positive when self-monitoring is measured by RSMS as compared to a negative relationship when it is measured by SMS-R⁵.*

3.2.4 Transformational Leadership

Transformational leadership refers to “the leader moving the follower beyond immediate self-interests through idealized influence (charisma), inspiration, intellectual stimulation, or individual consideration” (Bass, 1999, p. 11). Transformational leadership thus incorporates four dimensions, i.e., (i) idealized influence, (ii) inspirational motivation, (iii) intellectual stimulation, and (iv) individualized consideration (Avolio & Bass, 2002; Bass, 1985). Researchers hypothesized a positive correlation between self-monitoring and transformational leadership, but the research findings are mixed (e.g., Jung & Sosik, 2006; Sosik et al., 2002). The hypothesized positive relationship is based on the following three reasons. Firstly, self-monitoring involves constructing a positive self-image in various situations, which seems to be linked to the charisma of the leader (Gardner & Avolio, 1998). Secondly, self-monitoring concerns sensing and understanding other people’s needs, feelings, and reactions, which helps the leader influence and develop followers — a key aspect of transformational leadership in transforming followers to go beyond self-interest toward a shared vision (Gardner & Avolio, 1998; Siangchokyo et al., 2020; Sosik et al., 2002). Finally, self-monitoring involves adaptability to different environments, which aids leaders in

⁵ SMS was not compared because there was no data for this analysis.

guiding the team or organization toward positive changes — a broad goal of transformational leadership (Sosik et al., 2002; Eisenbach et al., 1999).

However, research support for this hypothesis is mixed. This is because self-monitoring is also negatively associated with the first two dimensions of transformational leadership. *Idealized influence* refers to the leader influencing followers by being a role model (Bass, 1999). The leader is influential in promoting ideals (Bass, 1999), where he or she transcends self-interests to lead a group or organization toward greatness and influences followers to transcend their self-interests for this common goal (Bass, 1985; Siangchokyoo et al., 2020). The leader also places followers' needs over self-needs in the influential process (Bass et al., 2003). Inherent in this dimension is the leader's commitment to personal values, principles, and morality (Bass, 1999; Walumbwa et al., 2008), based on which the leader serves as a role model, inspiring followers to transform their own values and beliefs accordingly (Kuhnert & Lewis, 1987). However, self-monitoring is motivated by self-serving goals to enhance status in front of others (Fuglestad & Snyder, 2010) rather than place others' needs and common goals beyond self-interest, and self-monitoring involves pragmatic actions towards situations rather than acting based on principles. Thus, self-monitoring contradicts this dimension. *Inspirational motivation* refers to motivating followers by providing meaning to work and articulating a clear vision to followers (Bass, 1985). This dimension is highly correlated with idealized influence (Judge & Bono, 2000), as leaders inspire followers to trust in the envisioned future by setting themselves as an example. These leaders firmly believe in the vision and behave consistently with their beliefs (Bass, 1999; Bass et al., 2003). Therefore, inspiring followers is built on leaders' deeply held principles and authentic behaviors, which contradicts chameleon-like HSMs.

Another important reason that the relationship between self-monitoring and transformational leadership is expected to be negative is the conceptual overlap between

transformational leadership and authentic leadership (Luthans & Avolio, 2003; Walumbwa et al., 2008). This overlap has also been confirmed by empirical studies (Banks et al., 2016; Spitzmuller & Ilies, 2010). Banks et al.'s (2016) meta-analysis shows a strong correlation between transformational leadership and authentic leadership. Spitzmuller and Ilies (2010) found that authentic leadership is positively associated with follower rating of their leader's idealized influence, individualized consideration, and inspirational motivation, three dimensions of transformational leadership.

Self-monitoring could both contribute to and undermine transformational leadership. However, the most essential dimension of transformational leadership, idealized influence, is grounded in principled and values-driven behaviors (Bass, 1999). The chameleon-like nature of self-monitoring conflicts with this fundamental dimension. Additionally, transformational leadership overlaps with authentic leadership (Walumbwa et al., 2008), which emphasizes authenticity, contradicting the nature of self-monitoring. Given these, I hypothesize an overall negative relationship between self-monitoring and transformational leadership.

H9. Self-monitoring is negatively related to transformational leadership.

3.2.5 Transactional Leadership

Transactional leadership refers to “the exchange relationship between leader and follower to meet their own self-interests” (Bass, 1999, p. 10). Compared to transformational leaders who inspire followers to pursue a vision beyond self-interests, transactional leadership involves catering to followers' immediate self-interests, expectations, and needs (Burns, 1978; Bass, 1999; Kuhnert & Lewis, 1987). Transactional leadership comprises three dimensions: (i) contingent rewards — providing rewards for achieving performance goals, (ii) management by exception — intervening when deviations occur, and (iii) laissez-faire — adopting a hands-off approach, allowing followers to manage tasks independently (Bass et al., 2003).

The core of transactional leadership is *contingent rewards*, in which the leader specifies and clarifies tasks and requirements for followers, including the rewards followers could attain by achieving requirements (Bass, 1985). Self-monitoring is expected to be positively related to transactional leadership for the following two reasons. Firstly, the core of transactional leadership, contingent reward, relies on leaders' accurate understanding of followers' interests, expectations, and needs, by which leaders could persuade followers to accomplish tasks in exchange for fulfilling followers' demands. Followers' demands include tangible rewards such as money and resources, and intangible rewards such as recognition and praise (Bass et al., 2003). Self-monitoring involves accurately sensing and understanding others' expectations, which would help the leader understand what to provide to followers so that they would best accomplish work. Secondly, self-monitoring involves a pragmatic manner in the interaction with others, which aligns with transactional leaders' tendency to lead followers based on the exchange of interests. Therefore, I hypothesize the following:

H10. Self-monitoring is positively related to transactional leadership.

3.2.6 Managerial Leadership

Managerial leadership involves supervising subordinates to accomplish tasks and managing daily operations (Bedeian & Hunt, 2006; Yukl, 1989). It focuses on overseeing followers' day-to-day responsibilities at the micro-level and does not extend to developing followers or leading macro-level organizational changes (Bedeian & Hunt, 2006; Hunt, 2004). The tasks managed by managerial leaders are often diverse, fast-paced, and fragmented (Yukl, 1989). To effectively handle these complex tasks and roles, leaders need to demonstrate a combination of managerial and leadership behaviors, encompassing both task-oriented and relationship-oriented approaches, rather than focusing on a single type of leader behavior (Denison et al., 1995; Lawrence et al., 2009; Yukl, 1989). The concept of managerial leadership aligns with the theory of managerial grid (Blake et al., 1962), which

suggests that effective managers should display concern for both production and people, resembling task-oriented and relationship-oriented leadership behaviors (Bernardin & Alvares, 1976).

Regarding leadership behaviors, the early behavioral approach by Bales (1950) categorized leader behaviors into *task* and *socio-emotional* functions (Lord et al., 2017). Meanwhile, a group of researchers at Ohio State University examined day-to-day leadership behaviors (Fleishman, 1953; Stogdill, 1950) and found that the behaviors leaders engage in could be grouped into two broad categories: *initiating structure* (or structure) and *consideration* (Fleishman, 1953). These two categories align with Bales' task and socio-emotional behaviors respectively (Lord et al., 2017), and scholars later categorized and studied these behaviors as *task-oriented* and *relationship-oriented* behaviors, respectively (Derue et al., 2011).

We hypothesize that there is a positive relationship between self-monitoring and managerial leadership. This is supported by research indicating that self-monitoring is positively associated with general leader behaviors (Church, 1997; Day et al., 2002) as well as specific behaviors, including both task-oriented (e.g., Dobbins et al., 1990; Eby et al., 2003) and relationship-oriented behaviors (e.g., Hall et al., 1998). Given the day-to-day complexity and reactivity of managerial work, effective managerial leaders need to exhibit both task-oriented and relationship-oriented behavioral styles to adapt to the diverse requirements of followers and situations (Yukl, 1989). Therefore, I hypothesize the following:

H11. Self-monitoring is positively related to managerial leadership.

Regarding the moderating role of rating sources, I hypothesize that supervisors would rate managerial leaders more positively than subordinates. Firstly, compared to LSMs, HSMs are expected to exhibit superior managerial behaviors in the presence of supervisors, driven

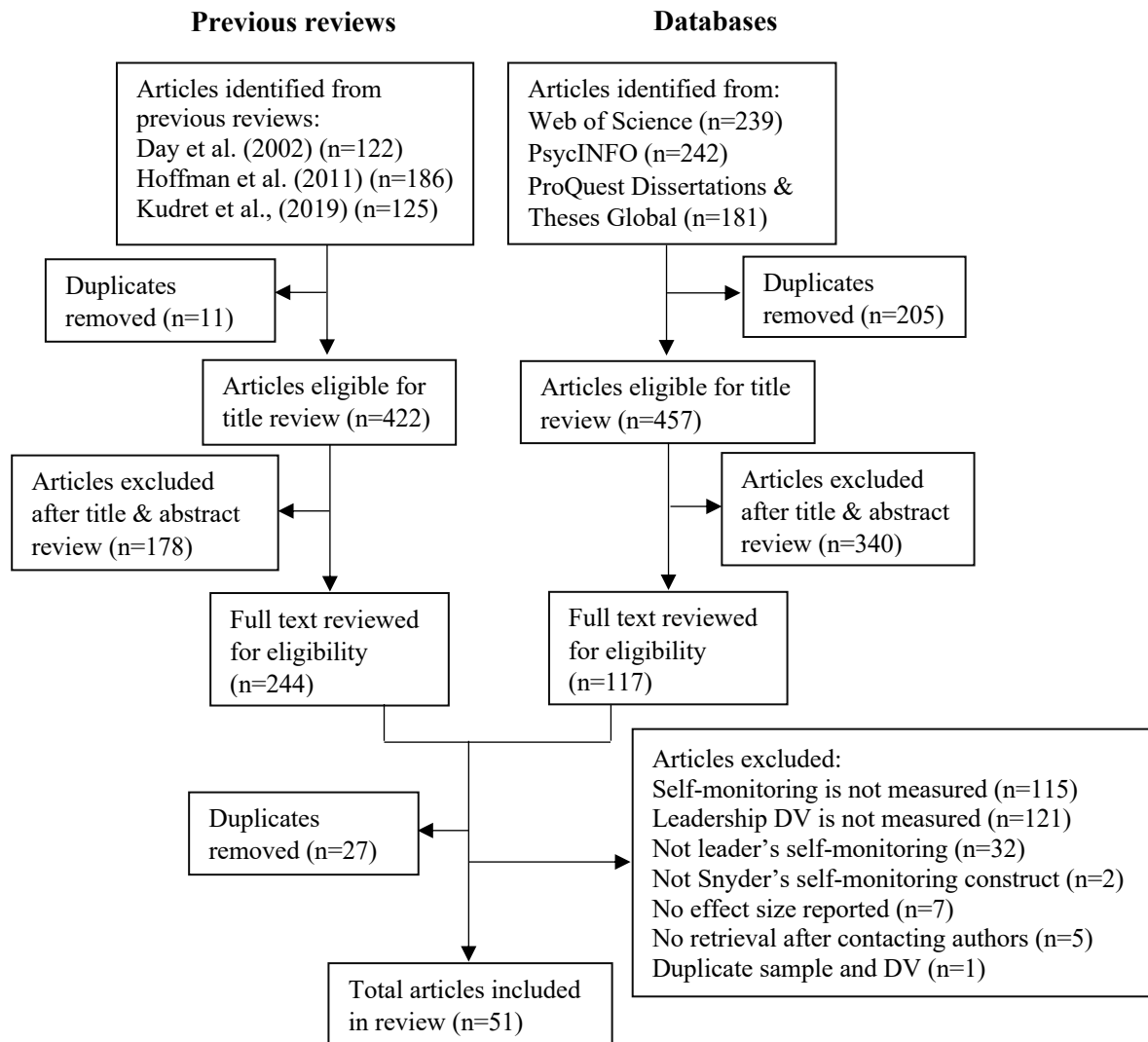
by their instrumental motives. Secondly, especially with regard to relationship-oriented behaviors, HSMs are anticipated to manifest these behaviors more toward their supervisors. This encompasses showing enhanced respect, extending more help, and furnishing augmented support, with the aim of securing advantages from their supervisors. Therefore, I hypothesize the following:

H12. Rating source moderates the relationship between self-monitoring and managerial leadership, such that the relationship is stronger when leadership is measured by supervisors' ratings as compared to when it is measured by subordinates' ratings.

3.3 Method

3.3.1 Collection of Sample

My search methods were in line with the Preferred Reporting Items for Systematic Reviews and Meta-Analyses (PRISMA) guidelines (Page et al., 2021). The search and screening procedure is displayed in Figure 3.1. First, I conducted searches in Web of Science, PsycINFO, and ProQuest Dissertations & Theses Global, covering the period from 1974 (when the self-monitoring construct was introduced) until July 2023. I used combined keywords of self-monitor* AND (leader* OR manager* OR supervisor OR follower* OR subordinate) appearing in the abstract. Second, I searched for studies included in previous review papers that examined the relationship between self-monitoring and leadership (Day et al., 2002; Hoffman et al., 2011; Kudret et al., 2019). Based on the PRISMA guidelines, the initial results were screened by the first two authors to assess their eligibility. After completing a full-text review, 51 articles (55% journal articles, 41% dissertations, and 4% book chapters), which include 55 independent samples (some articles contain multiple samples, whereas several articles used identical samples), meet the inclusion criteria. The total sample size across articles is 9029.

Figure 3.1 PRISMA Flow Diagram for Final Article Inclusion

Note: Articles excluded after title & abstract review include the following apparent reasons: not the self-monitoring concept developed by Snyder (1974), such as “self-monitoring” in computer, biology, healthcare, etc.; non-empirical paper; not at all relevant to leadership.

Kudret et al. (2019) examined post-2000 studies, Day et al. (2002) focused on leadership emergence and behavior, and Hoffman et al. (2011) concentrated on leadership effectiveness. The three reviews included studies on self-monitoring and leadership, along with a list of other variables. This is why they only have a few duplicates, and many studies could be excluded after title and abstract screening.

Articles were considered eligible for inclusion based on the following criteria. Firstly, the study's "self-monitoring" variable aligns with Snyder's (1974) definition, which refers to "self-observation and self-control guided by situational cues to social appropriateness" (p. 526). Studies focusing on other forms of "self-monitoring" unrelated to this definition, such as family "self-monitoring" of business (Ghaleb et al., 2020), "self-monitoring" of diet and exercise (Campbell & Crawford, 2000), were excluded. Secondly, since my research question concerns the impact of a leader's self-monitoring on leadership outcomes, the study must assess the leader's self-monitoring, excluding studies that only measured followers' self-monitoring. Thirdly, the study should report at least one effect size for the zero-order correlation (Day et al., 2002) between self-monitoring and any leadership variables. Alternatively, the study should have provided data that allows for the computation of a zero-order correlation, such as Cohen's d or t -statistic. Finally, to conduct a meta-analysis of the relationship, there should be a minimum of two studies (i.e., $k \geq 2$) that present the relationship between self-monitoring and a leadership-dependent variable.

3.3.2 Coding

I and the second co-author examined the studies in the sample and together decided on the coding protocols. After deciding the protocol, I coded all the articles, including sample size, correlations, and reliabilities of self-monitoring and leadership variables. I cross-checked the coding at least three times: during the coding process, when calculating composite scores, and during the final stage of analyzing data. The second author and a research assistant then checked all the coding for each article and recorded the agreement of coding. The final interrater consistency was 97%. Whenever there were questions and uncertainties, I and the second co-author discussed to reach an agreement.

3.3.2 Dependent Variables

Leadership Emergence. Consistent with the conceptualization of leadership emergence as whether or to what extent an individual is perceived as a leader by others (Judge et al., 2002), leadership emergence includes studies that explicitly operationalize leadership emergence or its variants (i.e., emergent leadership, leadership emergence) or studies that regard leadership perception as leadership emergence (e.g., Hall et al., 1998).

Leadership Effectiveness. Consistent with its conceptualization, i.e., a leader's performance in influencing the unit towards its goals (Judge et al., 2002), leadership effectiveness includes studies that operationalize leadership effectiveness, as measured by ratings from subordinates, supervisors, and self, and by group performance (Hogan et al., 1994; Judge et al., 2002). Following Hoffman et al. (2011), I also include leader performance and managerial performance in this category. Also, a leader's job promotion is in this category because leader promotion decisions are contingent on leadership effectiveness (Giessner & van Knippenberg, 2008).

Authentic Leadership. Three of the five studies included measured authentic leadership by the most frequently used measure of authentic leadership, i.e., the Authentic Leadership Questionnaire (ALQ) (Avolio & Gardner, 2005; Gardner et al., 2011; Walumbwa et al., 2008). One study measured authentic leadership by the Authentic Leadership Inventory (ALI) (Neider & Schriesheim, 2011), and one study measured authentic leadership by an originally developed scale (Tate, 2008).

Transformational Leadership. The studies included measured transformational leadership using the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) which captures the four dimensions, i.e., idealized influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration (Avolio & Bass, 1996; Siangchokyoo et al., 2020).

Transactional Leadership. The studies included measured transactional leadership using the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) which captures the three dimensions, i.e., contingent reward, active management by exception, and passive management by exception (Bass & Avolio, 1996).

Managerial Leadership. Based on Yukl (1989), I operationalized managerial leadership based on day-to-day leadership behaviors, including task-oriented leader behaviors (e.g., initiating structure), relationship-oriented leader behaviors (e.g., consideration), and generic leadership behaviors (i.e., behaviors that have not been specifically categorized into either task- or relationship-oriented behavior by authors). This is also to follow Day et al.'s (2002) practice to categorize different leader behaviors into a broad leadership behavior category.

3.3.3 Meta-analytical Procedures

I applied the Schmidt-Hunter random-effect meta-analysis method (Hunter & Schmidt, 1990), which allowed to produce a sample-weighted mean correlation (r) and a mean correlation corrected for unreliability (ρ). The majority of studies in the sample reported internal reliability of variables (i.e., Cronbach's alpha). For studies that reported reliabilities at the facet level, I computed composite reliabilities for the overall construct using Mosier's (1943) formula. For studies that did not report internal reliability, I imputed the average Cronbach's alpha of other studies included in this meta-analysis (Hunter & Schmidt, 1990; Li et al., 2021).

I used the “metafor” package (Viechtbauer, 2010) in R to conduct the analyses. I reported 95% confidence intervals (CI) and 80% credibility intervals (CV). CI provides the level of uncertainty around the estimated mean correlation due to sampling error (Whitener, 1990). 95% CI indicates that we can be 95% certain that the corrected mean correlation (ρ) lies in the lower and upper limit of the interval. The corrected correlation is considered to be

statistically significant if the 95% confidence interval does not include zero. CV provides the range of values by which the estimated mean correlations (ρ) can vary due to moderators (Whitener, 1990). 80% CV indicates that there is an 80% probability that the corrected mean correlation (ρ) would lie within this interval.

I first implemented the Egger's regression test (Egger et al., 1997) to assess publication bias. A significant intercept indicates asymmetry in the funnel plot and the possibility for publication bias (Webster, 2019). When statistically significant results were observed in the Egger's regression test, I used a trim and fill procedure to obtain a bias-corrected estimate of the overall effect (Duval, 2005; Duval & Tweedie, 2000a, 2000b). Funnel plots for main effects are presented in Figure 3.2.

3.4 Results

3.4.1 Main Effects

Table 3.1 presents the main effects between self-monitoring and leadership variables. The relationship between self-monitoring and leadership emergence is positive ($\rho = .171$, 95% CI [.110, .232]), supporting H1. Self-monitoring is also positively related to leadership effectiveness ($\rho = .123$, 95% CI [.061, .184]), supporting H4.

Table 3.1 Self-monitoring and Leadership: Main Effects

Leadership Variables	<i>k</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>r</i>	<i>SD_r</i>	ρ	<i>SD_ρ</i>	95% CI		80% CV	
							<i>LL</i>	<i>UL</i>	<i>LL</i>	<i>UL</i>
Leadership Emergence	25	3355	.145	.120	.171	.031	.110	.232	.046	.296
Leadership Effectiveness	25	3162	.099	.116	.123	.032	.061	.184	.010	.235
Authentic Leadership	5	594	.199	.149	.248	.100	.053	.444	.047	.449
Transformational Leadership	7	829	.079	.085	.094	.043	.010	.179	.094	.094
Transactional Leadership	3	395	.002	.096	-.005	.074	-.150	.141	-.069	.059
Managerial Leadership	18	3802	.095	.086	.121	.035	.053	.190	.047	.196
Task-oriented Behavior	12	1264	.169	.107	.205	.039	.129	.281	.133	.278
Relationship-oriented Behavior	13	1308	.078	.116	.100	.042	.018	.182	.006	.193

Note. Effects in **bold** are statistically significant.

k = number of samples; *N* = total sample size; *r* = sample-size weighted average correlation; *SD_r* = standard deviation of sample-size weighted average correlation; ρ = estimated true-score correlation; *SD_ρ* = standard deviation of estimated true-score correlation; 95% CI = 95% confidence interval; 80% CV = 80% credibility interval; *LL* = lower limit, *UL* = upper limit; Managerial Leadership includes generic leadership behaviors not categorized as either task/relationship-oriented behavior by the original author(s).

Self-monitoring is positively related to authentic leadership ($\rho = .248$, 95% CI [.053, .444]), not supporting H7. Self-monitoring is positively related to transformational leadership ($\rho = .094$, 95% CI [.010, .179]), not supporting H9. The relationship between self-monitoring and transactional leadership is non-significant ($\rho = -.005$, 95% CI [-.150, .141]), not supporting H10. The relationship between self-monitoring and managerial leadership is positive ($\rho = .121$, 95% CI [.053, .190]), supporting H11. With regard to specific leadership behaviors, self-monitoring is positively related to both task-oriented behavior ($\rho = .205$, 95% CI [.129, .281]) and relationship-oriented behavior ($\rho = .100$, 95% CI [.018, .182]).

3.4.2 Moderator Analyses

Table 3.2 presents the moderation effects of different self-monitoring scales. The correlation between self-monitoring and leadership emergence is statistically significant when self-monitoring is measured using RSMS ($\rho = .175$, 95% CI [.099, .250]) and SMS-R ($\rho = .266$, 95% CI [.165, .367]), but not SMS ($\rho = .086$, 95% CI [-.006, .178]). Further *z* tests (Raju & Brand, 2003) suggest that the effect size is significantly weaker when self-

monitoring is measured using SMS than SMS-R ($z = -2.613, p < .05$). There was no statistical significance when comparing RSMS with SMS ($z = -1.683, p > .05$) or RSMS with SMS-R ($z = -1.657, p > .05$). Therefore, H2 is not supported.

Table 3.2 Moderation: Self-monitoring Measurement Scale

Leadership Variables	<i>k</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>r</i>	SD _r	ρ	SD _{ρ}	95% CI		80% CV		<i>z</i> test
							<i>LL</i>	<i>UL</i>	<i>LL</i>	<i>UL</i>	
Leadership Emergence											
RSMS ^a	17	2421	.151	.122	.175	.038	.099	.250	.044	.305	1.683 ^{ab}
SMS ^b	5	705	.069	.078	.086	.047	-.006	.178	.086	.086	-2.613 ^{**bc}
SMS-R ^c	5	517	.218	.063	.266	.052	.165	.367	.266	.266	-1.657 ^{ac}
Leadership Effectiveness											
RSMS ^a	9	1638	.147	.085	.175	.036	.104	.246	.109	.240	3.712 ^{***ab}
SMS ^b	9	669	-.028	.137	-.036	.059	-.152	.080	-.148	.078	-2.602 ^{**bc}
SMS-R ^c	7	855	.107	.065	.131	.042	.049	.213	.131	.131	0.872 ^{ac}
Authentic Leadership											
RSMS ^a	2	370	.302	.028	.391	.061	.270	.511	.391	.391	
SMS-R ^c	2	166	.032	.128	.048	.109	-.165	.261	-.046	.142	
Transformational Leadership											
SMS ^b	3	210	.058	.068	.073	.092	-.108	.254	.073	.073	-1.129 ^{bc}
SMS-R ^c	3	471	.129	.054	.159	.057	.048	.270	.159	.159	
Managerial Leadership											
RSMS ^a	8	1061	.182	.094	.215	.039	.138	.292	.159	.272	3.356 ^{***ab}
SMS ^b	6	2207	.052	.024	.067	.028	.013	.121	.067	.067	-1.179 ^{bc}
SMS-R ^c	6	822	.102	.084	.127	.043	.042	.212	.127	.127	1.606 ^{ac}

Note. Effects in **bold** are statistically significant.

k = number of samples; *N* = total sample size; *r* = sample-size weighted average correlation; SD_r = standard deviation of sample-size weighted average correlation; ρ = estimated true-score correlation; SD _{ρ} = standard deviation of estimated true-score correlation; 95% CI = 95% confidence interval; 80% CV = 80% credibility interval; *LL* = lower limit, *UL* = upper limit; *z* test = tests whether effect sizes are significantly different. ^{ab} = *z* test between self-monitoring measured by RSMS and SMS; ^{bc} = *z* test between self-monitoring measured by SMS and SMS-R; ^{ac} = *z* test between self-monitoring measured by RSMS and SMS-R. I only conducted analysis when at least 2 studies reported the correlation, and some subcategory analysis cannot be implemented. The addition of subcategory *k* can be larger than the total *k* because some studies include more than one subcategory datapoint.

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

H5 proposes that the relationship between self-monitoring and leadership effectiveness will be stronger when self-monitoring is measured by RSMS than (H5a) SMS and (H5b) SMS-R. The correlations are positive and significant when self-monitoring is measured using RSMS ($\rho = .175$, 95% CI [.104, .246]) and SMS-R ($\rho = .131$, 95% CI [.049, .213]), but non-significant using SMS ($\rho = -.036$, 95% CI [-.152, .080]). Further examination suggests that the effect is significantly stronger when self-monitoring is measured with RSMS than SMS ($z = 3.712$, $p < .05$), supporting H5a. However, no such significant differences were observed when self-monitoring is measured by RSMS versus SMS-R ($z = 0.872$, $p > .05$), not supporting H5b. In addition, there is a statistically significant difference between when self-monitoring is measured by SMS and SMS-R ($z = -2.602$, $p < .05$).

H8 hypothesized that the relationship between self-monitoring and authentic leadership is significantly different when self-monitoring is measured by RSMS as compared to SMS-R. The correlation is positive and significant when self-monitoring is measured by RSMS ($\rho = .391$, 95% CI [.270, .511]), whereas the correlation is non-significant when self-monitoring is measured by SMS-R ($\rho = .048$, 95% CI [-.165, .261]). I was not able to conduct a z -test because of the small number of independent studies. However, the confidence intervals between these two effect sizes did not overlap, providing preliminary evidence that the type of self-monitoring scale may be a moderator.

Table 3.3 presents the moderation effects of different rating sources. The correlation between self-monitoring and leadership emergence is positive for peer-rating ($\rho = .158$, 95% CI [.084, .232]), observer-rating ($\rho = .178$, 95% CI [.045, .312]) and self-rating ($\rho = .269$, 95% CI [.082, .456]), but non-significant for subordinate-rating ($\rho = .135$, 95% CI [-.064, .334]). Results from a series of z tests show that there were no statistically significant differences among these effect sizes. Therefore, H3 is not supported.

Table 3.3 Moderation: Leadership Rating Source

Leadership Variables	<i>k</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>r</i>	SD _r	ρ	SD ρ	95% CI		80% CV		<i>z</i> test
							<i>LL</i>	<i>UL</i>	<i>LL</i>	<i>UL</i>	
Leadership Emergence											
Subordinate ^a	2	174	.112	.121	.135	.102	-.064	.334	.053	.217	
Peer ^b	19	2568	.134	.125	.158	.038	.084	.232	.022	.294	-0.250 ^{ab}
Observer ^c	3	425	.148	.103	.178	.068	.045	.312	.110	.246	-0.407 ^{ac} , -0.328 ^{bc}
Self ^d	3	259	.213	.127	.269	.095	.082	.456	.144	.395	-1.267 ^{ad} , -1.434 ^{bd} , -0.977 ^{cd}
Leadership Effectiveness											
Subordinate ^a	9	1075	.024	.120	.034	.049	-.063	.131	-.082	.150	
Self ^d	5	1222	.184	.086	.223	.051	.124	.323	.131	.314	-3.780 ^{***ad}
Supervisor ^e	13	1323	.056	.128	.071	.046	-.019	.160	-.057	.198	-0.733 ^{ae} , 3.157 ^{**de}
Authentic Leadership											
Subordinate ^a	3	455	.215	.114	.261	.098	.070	.452	.109	.413	
Self ^d	3	197	.109	.202	.138	.150	-.155	.432	-.126	.403	1.181 ^{ad}
Transformational Leadership											
Subordinate	7	829	.054	.071	.064	.044	-.021	.150	.064	.064	
Transactional Leadership											
Subordinate	3	395	.002	.096	-.005	.074	-.150	.141	-.069	.059	
Managerial Leadership											
Subordinate ^a	8	675	.046	.151	.058	.075	-.089	.204	-.110	.225	
Peer ^b	4	463	.220	.107	.272	.059	.157	.386	.213	.332	-3.007 ^{**ab}
Observer ^c	5	2481	.072	.057	.093	.040	.015	.172	.040	.146	-0.704 ^{ac} , 3.048 ^{**bc}
Self ^d	8	748	.030	.115	.041	.053	-.064	.145	-.035	.116	0.296 ^{ad} , 3.288 ^{**bd} , 1.033 ^{cd}
Supervisor ^e	3	402	.146	.020	.184	.062	.063	.305	.184	.184	-1.645 ^{ae} , 1.108 ^{be} , -1.372 ^{ce} , -1.881 ^{de}

Note. Effects in **bold** are statistically significant.

k = number of samples; N = total sample size; r = sample-size weighted average correlation; SD_r = standard deviation of sample-size weighted average correlation; ρ = estimated true-score correlation; SD_ρ = standard deviation of estimated true-score correlation; 95% CI = 95% confidence interval; 80% CV = 80% credibility interval; LL = lower limit, UL = upper limit; z test = tests whether effect sizes are significantly different. ^{ab} = z test between subordinate and peer ratings; ^{ac} = z test between subordinate and observer ratings; ^{ad} = z test between subordinate and self-ratings; ^{ae} = z test between subordinate and supervisor ratings; ^{be} = z test between peer and observer ratings; ^{bd} = z test between peer and self-ratings; ^{be} = z test between peer and supervisor ratings; ^{cd} = z test between observe and self-ratings; ^{ce} = z test between observer and supervisor ratings; ^{de} = z test between self and supervisor ratings. We only conducted analysis when at least 2 studies reported the correlation, and some subcategory analysis cannot be implemented. The addition of subcategory k can be larger than the total k because some studies include more than one subcategory datapoint. The rating source indicates rating by this source only, excluding those with multiple rating sources.

We only conducted analysis when at least 2 studies reported the correlation, and some subcategory analysis cannot be implemented. The addition of subcategory k can be larger than the total k because some studies include more than one subcategory datapoint. The rating source indicates rating by this source only, excluding those with multiple rating sources.

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

The correlation between self-monitoring and leadership effectiveness is non-significant when the latter is measured by either subordinates ($\rho = .034$, 95% CI $[-.063, .131]$) or supervisors ($\rho = .071$, 95% CI $[-.019, .160]$), and there were no statistically significant differences among these effect sizes ($z = -0.733$, $p > .05$). Therefore, H6 is not supported. However, my exploratory analyses suggest that the self-monitoring—leadership effectiveness relationship is positive and significant when leadership effectiveness is self-rated ($\rho = .223$, 95% CI $[-.124, .323]$). The moderation effect by rating sources of leadership effectiveness is significant when comparing subordinate- with self-ratings ($z = -3.780$, $p < .05$) and self with supervisor ratings ($z = 3.157$, $p < .05$).

Finally, the meta-correlation between self-monitoring and managerial leadership is weaker when managerial leadership is reported by subordinates ($\rho = .058$, 95% CI $[-.089, .204]$) than by supervisors ($\rho = .184$, 95% CI $[-.063, .305]$); however, the difference was not statistically significant ($z = -1.645$, $p > .05$). Therefore, despite being in the predicted direction, the results do not support H12. In my exploratory analyses involving managerial leadership reported by other sources, I find that the self-monitoring—managerial leadership relationship is positive and significant when managerial leadership is reported by peers ($\rho = .272$, 95% CI $[-.157, .386]$) and other observers ($\rho = .093$, 95% CI $[-.015, .172]$). Comparisons of z test results indicate that the relationship between self-monitoring and managerial leadership is significantly weaker when managerial leadership is rated by subordinates than by peers ($z = -3.007$, $p < .05$). Furthermore, self-monitoring has a significantly stronger correlation with managerial leadership when its peer-rated than observer-rated ($z = 3.048$, $p < .05$) or self-rated ($z = 3.288$, $p < .05$).

3.4.2 Publication Bias

The Egger's test showed no significant funnel-plot asymmetry in all but two relationships: (1) the main effect between self-monitoring and leadership effectiveness

original $\rho = .123$ ($k = 25$, 95% CI [.061, .184]), Egger's test ($z = -2.198$, $p < .05$), T&F $\rho = .182$ (imputed $k = 8$, 95% CI [.108, .257]) and (2) the relationship between self-monitoring and subordinate-rated authentic leadership original $\rho = .261$ ($k = 3$, 95% CI [.070, .452]), Egger's test ($z = -2.745$, $p < .05$), T&F $\rho = .373$ (imputed $k = 2$, 95% CI [.145, .600]). As shown in the trim and fill results, despite the slight change in effect sizes (i.e., increasing by 0.059 and 0.112 for the above-mentioned relationships, respectively), both relationships remain statistically significant, and interpretations of these effects also remain the same. Therefore, the potential impact of publication was likely minimal in the present meta-analysis. Details on the Egger's test for additional relationships are presented in Table 3.4, Table 3.5, and Table 3.6. Funnel plots for main effects are presented in Figure 3.2.

Table 3.4 Results with Egger's Test: Main Effects

Leadership Variables	Original Effects					Egger's test		Trim and Fill		
	<i>k</i>	<i>N</i>	ρ	SD_{ρ}	95% CI	<i>z</i> -value	<i>p</i> -value	TF ρ	95% CI	Missing#
Leadership Emergence	25	3355	.171	.031	[.110, .232]	0.818	.413	.164	[.100, .229]	1
Leadership Effectiveness	25	3162	.123	.032	[.061, .184]	-2.198	.028	.182	[.108, .257]	8
Authentic Leadership	5	594	.248	.100	[.053, .444]	-1.578	.115	.334	[.106, .561]	2
Transformational Leadership	7	829	.094	.043	[.010, .179]	0.429	.668	.094	[.009, .179]	0
Transactional Leadership	3	395	-.005	.074	[-.150, .141]	1.881	.060	-.005	[-.150, .141]	0
Managerial Leadership	18	3802	.121	.035	[.053, .190]	1.863	.062	.087	[-.008, .181]	6
Task-oriented Behavior	12	1264	.205	.039	[.129, .281]	0.264	.792	.205	[.129, .281]	0
Relationship-oriented Behavior	13	1308	.100	.042	[.018, .182]	-0.423	.672	.111	[.024, .198]	1

Note. Effects in **bold** are statistically significant.

k = number of samples; *N* = total sample size; *r* = sample-size weighted average correlation; SD_r = standard deviation of sample-size weighted average correlation; ρ = estimated true-score correlation; SD_{ρ} = standard deviation of estimated true-score correlation; 95% CI = 95% confidence interval; Missing# = estimated No. of missing studies; Managerial Leadership includes generic leadership behaviors not categorized as either task/relationship-oriented behavior by the original author(s)

Table 3.5 Results with Egger's Test: Moderation Effects of Self-monitoring Measurement Scale

Leadership Variables	Original Effects					Egger's test		Trim and Fill		
	<i>k</i>	<i>N</i>	ρ	SD_{ρ}	95% CI	<i>z</i> -value	<i>p</i> -value	TF ρ	95% CI	Missing#
Leadership Emergence										
RSMS	17	2421	.175	.038	[.099, .250]	0.555	.579	.175	[.099, .250]	0
SMS	5	705	.086	.047	[-.006, .178]	1.705	.088	.060	[-.031, .151]	1
SMS-R	5	517	.266	.052	[.165, .367]	0.039	.969	.266	[.165, .367]	0
Leadership Effectiveness										
RSMS	9	1638	.175	.036	[.104, .246]	-1.475	.140	.205	[.125, .285]	3
SMS	9	669	-.036	.059	[-.152, .080]	0.638	.524	-.050	[-.172, .073]	1
SMS-R	7	855	.131	.042	[.049, .213]	0.086	.931	.131	[.049, .213]	0
Authentic Leadership										
RSMS	2	370	.391	.061	[.270, .511]					
SMS-R	2	166	.048	.109	[-.165, .261]					
Transformational Leadership										
SMS	3	210	.073	.092	[-.108, .254]	0.985	.325	-.026	[-.170, .117]	2
SMS-R	3	471	.159	.057	[.048, .270]	0.615	.538	.143	[.039, .247]	1
Managerial Leadership										
RSMS	8	1061	.215	.039	[.138, .292]	-0.023	.981	.215	[.138, .292]	0
SMS	6	2207	.067	.028	[.013, .121]	0.358	.721	.064	[.010, .117]	2
SMS-R	6	822	.127	.043	[.042, .212]	1.873	.061	.104	[.002, .205]	1

Note. Effects in **bold** are statistically significant.

k = number of samples; *N* = total sample size; *r* = sample-size weighted average correlation; SD_r = standard deviation of sample-size weighted average correlation; ρ = estimated true-score correlation; SD_{ρ} = standard deviation of estimated true-score correlation; 95% CI = 95% confidence interval; Missing# = estimated No. of missing studies.

We only conducted analysis when at least 2 studies reported the correlation, and some subcategory analysis cannot be implemented. The addition of subcategory *k* can be larger than the total *k* because some studies include more than one subcategory datapoint.

Table 3.6 Results with Egger's Test: Moderation Effects of Leadership Rating Source

Leadership Variables	Original Effects					Egger's test		Trim and Fill		
	<i>k</i>	<i>N</i>	ρ	SD_{ρ}	95% CI	<i>z</i> -value	<i>p</i> -value	TF ρ	95% CI	Missing#
Leadership Emergence										
Subordinate	2	174	.135	.102	[-.064, .334]					
Peer	19	2568	.158	.038	[.084, .232]	0.976	.329	.149	[.070, .227]	1
Observer	3	425	.178	.068	[.045, .312]	-1.946	.052	.244	[.075, .412]	2
Self	3	259	.269	.095	[.082, .456]	-1.701	.089	.269	[.082, .456]	0
Leadership Effectiveness										
Subordinate	9	1075	.034	.049	[-.063, .131]	-1.312	.190	.091	[-.027, .210]	2
Self	5	1222	.223	.051	[.124, .323]	0.230	.818	.223	[.124, .323]	0
Supervisor	13	1323	.071	.046	[-.019, .160]	-1.765	.078	.071	[-.019, .160]	0
Authentic Leadership										
Subordinate	3	455	.261	.098	[.070, .452]	-2.745	.006	.373	[.145, .600]	2
Self	3	197	.138	.150	[-.155, .432]	-0.550	.583	.138	[-.155, .432]	0
Transformational Leadership										
Subordinate	7	829	.064	.044	[-.021, .150]	1.071	.284	.037	[-.043, .117]	2
Transactional Leadership										
Subordinate	3	395	-.005	.074	[-.150, .141]	1.881	.060	-.005	[-.150, .141]	0
Managerial Leadership										
Subordinate	8	675	.058	.075	[-.089, .204]	1.442	.149	.006	[-.150, .162]	3
Peer	4	463	.272	.059	[.157, .386]	-0.010	.992	.272	[.157, .386]	0
Observer	5	2481	.093	.040	[.015, .172]	1.000	.317	.093	[.015, .172]	0
Self	8	748	.041	.053	[-.064, .145]	0.094	.925	.041	[-.064, .145]	0
Supervisor	3	402	.184	.062	[.063, .305]	-0.487	.626	.208	[.108, .307]	2

Note. Effects in **bold** are statistically significant. *k* = number of samples; *N* = total sample size; *r* = sample-size weighted average correlation; SD_r = standard deviation of sample-size weighted average correlation; ρ = estimated true-score correlation; SD_{ρ} = standard deviation of estimated true-score correlation; 95% CI = 95% confidence interval; Missing# = estimated No. of missing studies. I only conducted analysis when at least 2 studies reported the correlation, and some subcategory analysis cannot be implemented. The addition of subcategory *k* can be larger than the total *k* because some studies include more than one subcategory datapoint. The rating source indicates rating by this source only, excluding those with multiple rating sources.

Figure 3.2 Funnel Plot (Main Effect)

Figure 3.2.1 Funnel Plot for Self-monitoring and Leadership Emergence

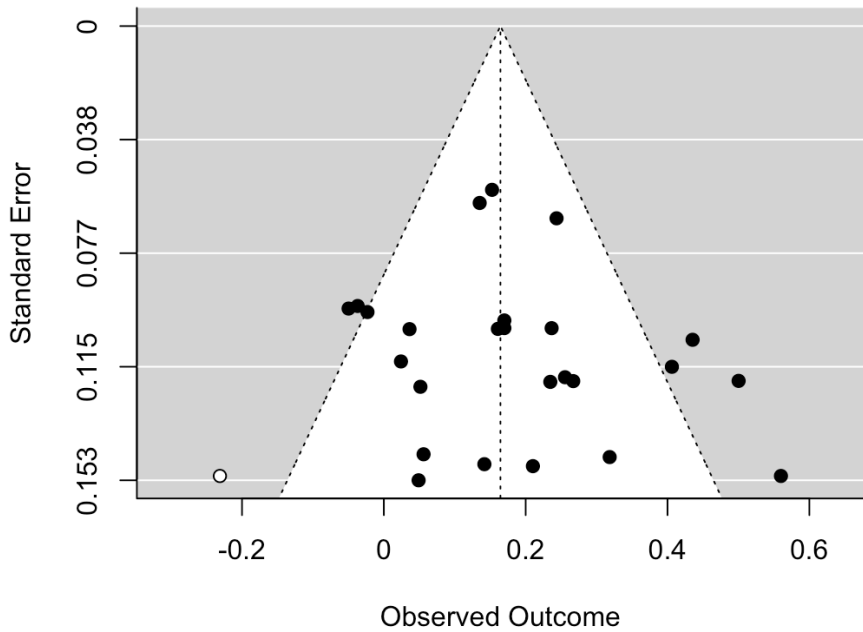


Figure 3.2.2 Funnel Plot for Self-monitoring and Leadership Effectiveness

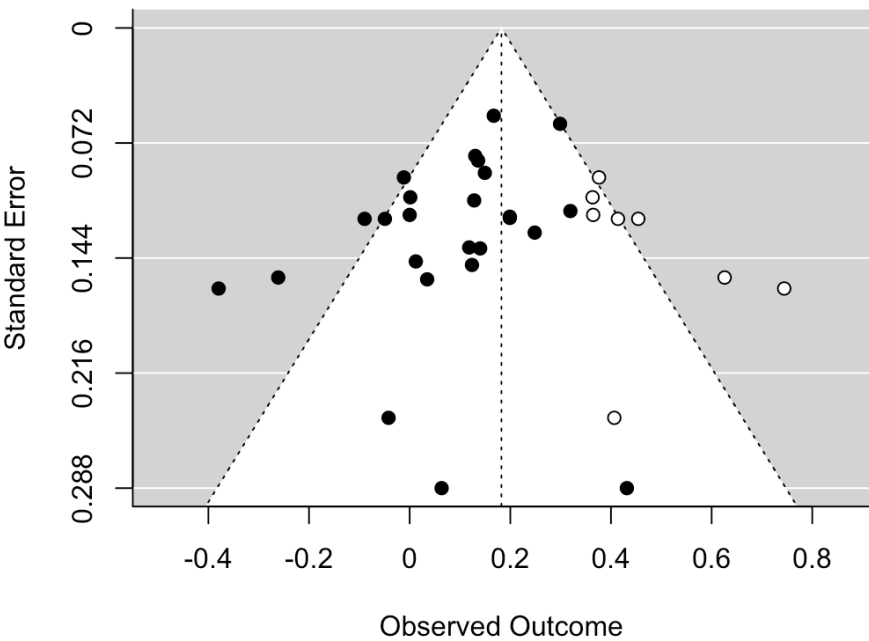


Figure 3.2.3 Funnel Plot for Self-monitoring and Authentic Leadership

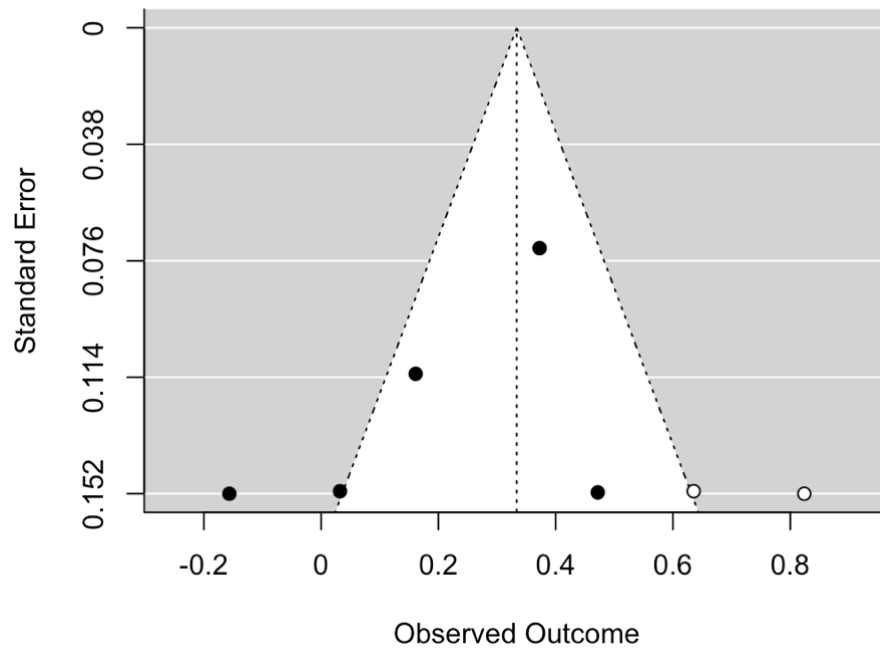


Figure 3.2.4 Funnel Plot for Self-monitoring and Transformational Leadership

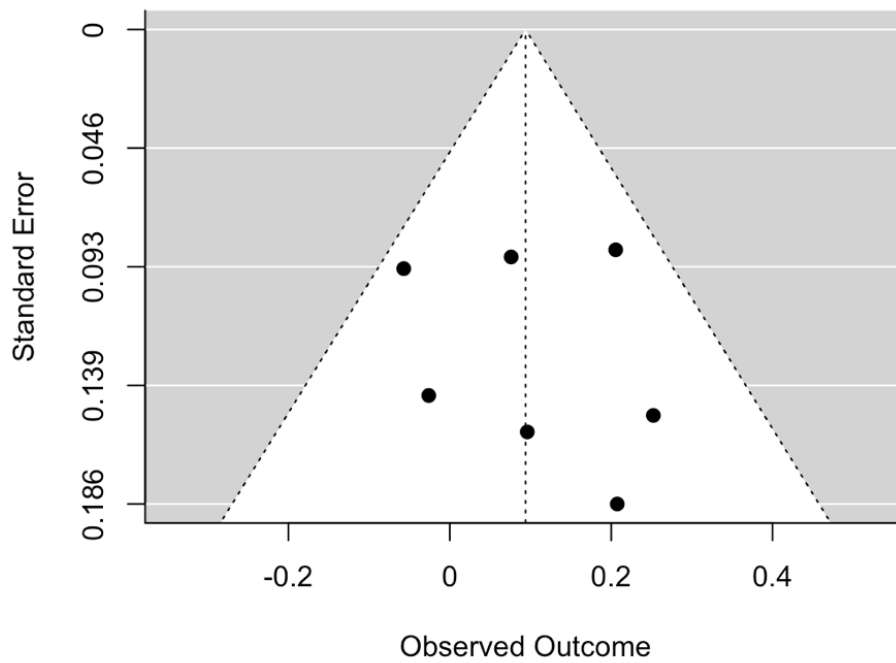


Figure 3.2.5 Funnel Plot for Self-monitoring and Transactional Leadership

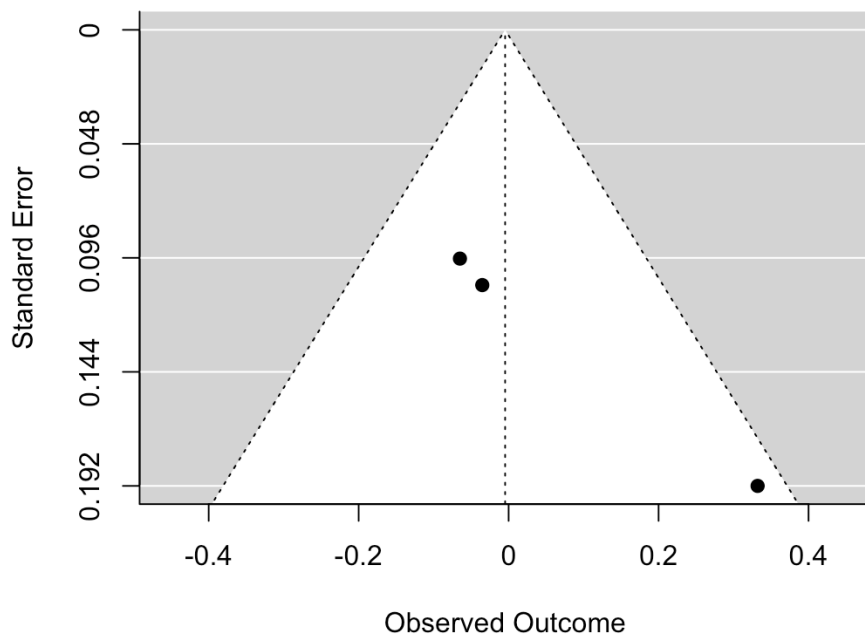
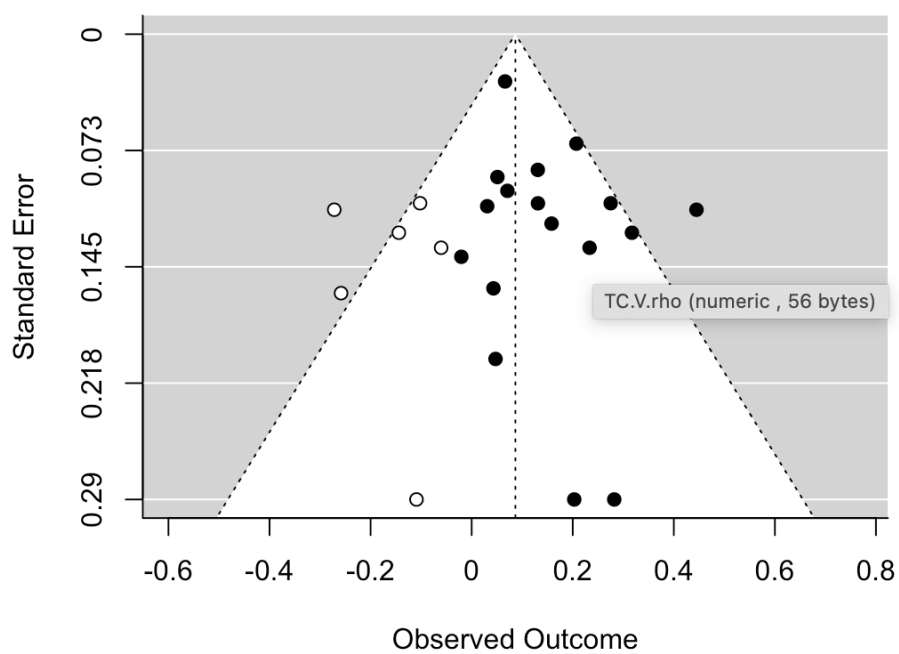


Figure 3.2.6 Funnel Plot for Self-monitoring and Managerial Leadership



3.5 Discussion

3.5.1 Theoretical Implications

This meta-analysis examined the relationship between self-monitoring and six leadership variables, i.e., leadership emergence, leadership effectiveness, authentic leadership, transformational leadership, transactional leadership, and managerial leadership. I also investigated the influence of two moderators, i.e., self-monitoring measurement scale and rating sources of leadership. The findings show that except for transactional leadership, self-monitoring appears to have a modest positive relationship (ρ ranges from .094 to .248) with each of the other five leadership variables. However, the relationship between self-monitoring and the leadership variables is generally non-significant when the latter is rated by subordinates, the constituency of leadership. The relationships also differ as to what self-monitoring scale measured self-monitoring. These findings make significant contributions to the literature by providing a more nuanced understanding of the relationship between self-monitoring and leadership while also offering clearer insights into both constructs.

The Relationship between Self-monitoring and Leadership

The results advance the understanding of the complex nature of the self-monitoring and leadership relationship, revealing that it is not as simple as research has shown, despite earlier studies (e.g., Day et al., 2002; Hoffman et al., 2011) reporting a positive effect of self-monitoring on leadership. Regarding the main effect, the present results indeed indicate that self-monitoring has a modest positive relationship with leadership variables, which aligns with previous research. For instance, Day et al. (2002) reported a positive relationship of 0.19 between self-monitoring and *leadership* (a dependent variable that combines leadership behavior and emergence). Similarly, Hoffman et al. (2011) found a positive relationship of 0.19 between self-monitoring and leadership effectiveness.

Despite the positive main effects, the present findings suggest that self-monitoring is not associated with leadership *in the eyes of subordinates*, who are the followers, the key constituency of the leader (Siangchokyoo et al., 2020). The relationship between self-monitoring and five leadership-related variables (i.e., leadership emergence, leadership effectiveness, transformational leadership, transactional leadership, and managerial leadership) is non-significant when they are measured by subordinate ratings. This finding is particularly important because subordinate ratings of leadership are often considered more valid than other ratings (Hogan et al., 1994; Kim & Yukl, 1995). Therefore, the generally positive self-monitoring-leadership relationship should be interpreted cautiously given that relationships assessed via subordinate ratings are non-significant.

Additionally, the present findings offer clarity over the controversial findings between self-monitoring and leadership effectiveness (Kudret et al., 2019) by demonstrating that self-monitoring is only positively related to self-rated leadership effectiveness, whereas ratings from subordinates and supervisors show no significant correlations and differ significantly from self-ratings. It is possible that the positive association with self-rated leadership effectiveness is due to the potential narcissistic aspect of self-monitoring and its probable association with narcissistic leadership (Judge et al., 2006; Rosenthal & Pittinsky, 2006). Indeed, prior research indicates that narcissists' self-ratings greatly overestimate their leadership performances relative to others' ratings (Grijalva & Zhang, 2016; Judge et al., 2006; Rosenthal & Pittinsky, 2006). Additionally, this finding offers valuable insights into the relationship between self-monitoring and self-other rating agreement (SOA) on leadership, which is defined as "agreement between self and other leadership ratings" (Atwater & Yammarino, 1992, p. 141). SOA is pivotal for leader performance (Fleenor et al., 2010). Inflated self-rating is problematic because overconfidence in leadership would lead to ineffective decision-making and refusal of necessary training and development (Bass &

Yammarino, 1991; Lee & Carpenter, 2018). While Fleenor et al. (2010) posit that HSMs might achieve better SOA due to their attunement to interpersonal cues, the present study finds the contrary, suggesting that leaders with higher levels of self-monitoring overestimate their leadership effectiveness.

Further, the present findings offer valuable insights into the consequences of being an “emergent leader”, namely whether emergent leaders become “effective leaders” (Badura et al., 2022; Lanaj & Hollenbeck, 2015). The results suggest that HSMs are more likely to emerge as leaders than LSMs, but not necessarily more effective leaders, except in their own perception (self-rating). Therefore, HSMs are more likely to become *over-emergers*, i.e., “instances when the level of one’s leadership emergence is higher than the level of one’s leadership effectiveness” (Lanaj & Hollenbeck, 2015, p. 1476). This prompts us to consider the implications of HSMs’ leadership emergence.

Self-monitoring

The findings underscore the importance of examining self-monitoring in its dimensions and taking into account the measurement scales employed. The difference between RSMS and SMS-R in the relationship between self-monitoring and authentic leadership highlights the difference between self-monitoring motivation and ability. I found that while self-monitoring motivation (captured by SMS-R) undermines authentic leadership, self-monitoring abilities (captured by RSMS) are positively associated with it. By delving into self-monitoring motivation and abilities to comprehend their associations with authentic leadership, this study responds to Gardner et al.’s call (2011, p. 1138) to adopt “a more sophisticated understanding of the self-monitoring construct” to explore the complex relationship between self-monitoring and authentic leadership.

Additionally, the results highlight differences between acquisitive motivation and protective motivation of self-monitoring. The relationship between self-monitoring and

leadership emergence is significantly stronger when self-monitoring is measured by SMS-R than by SMS, indicating the acquisitive motive rather than the protective motive contributes to leadership emergence. This is because the shorter 18-item SMS-R omits seven items from the 25-item SMS, with the removed items mainly addressing the protective concern of self-monitoring (Briggs & Cheek, 1988). Consequently, the SMS-R emphasizes more on the acquisitive aspect of self-monitoring motivation, while the SMS comparatively focuses on the protective aspect of self-monitoring motivation. Additionally, the relationships between self-monitoring and leadership effectiveness are significantly stronger for both RSMS and SMS-R than for SMS. Likewise, the relationship between self-monitoring and managerial leadership is stronger when the former is measured by RSMS than SMS. These results overall indicate that the protective motive has little impact on leadership.

Leadership

This meta-analysis contributes to leadership research by extending the understanding of the leader trait paradigm (c.f., Judge et al., 2009) by providing a detailed quantitative analysis of the relationship between the self-monitoring trait and leadership. Judge et al. (2009) conceptually mapped the association between twelve traits and leadership emergence and effectiveness, naming it the Leader Trait Emergence Effectiveness (LTEE) heuristic model. Yet, they left out self-monitoring. Since “getting-along” and “getting-ahead” are important mediators in their model, based on socioanalytic theory (Hogan et al., 1985), self-monitoring should be a crucial trait within the framework because it concerns both motivations (Day & Schleicher, 2006). Thus, the present findings contribute to a more comprehensive understanding of leadership from the leader trait perspective (Judge et al., 2009; Kaiser et al., 2008).

The present findings also shed light on the intricacies of the 360-degree leadership ratings (“full circle” assessment ratings from different sources, including supervisors, peers,

subordinates, and even suppliers and customers, London & Smither, 1995) and self-other rating agreement (SOA) (Atwater & Yammarino, 1992) on leadership. The results demonstrate that a leader's motivational factors may contribute to variations in these ratings. For instance, when in the presence of subordinates, leaders with instrumental motives may pay less attention to their interpersonal behaviors. Understanding the reasons for leadership rating discrepancy is critical for gaining a deeper knowledge of leadership, as well as for informing leadership development (Atwater & Waldman, 1998).

Finally, the present research offers valuable insights into the distinctiveness of leadership measures. Previous meta-analyses have suggested a potential redundancy in leadership variables. For instance, authentic leadership and transformational leadership have been subject to the critique of construct redundancy (Banks et al., 2016; Hoch et al., 2018). The present results indicate that their correlations with self-monitoring present a meaningful difference: a main effect size of .248 for authentic leadership compared to .094 for transformational leadership. This suggests that a possible distinction between these two leadership constructs lies in individual differences in self-monitoring, such that self-monitoring seems to be crucial for perceptions of authentic leadership. This finding aligns with the notion of “embodied authentic leadership” (Ladkin & Taylor, 2010), which suggests that authentic leaders should deliberately embody their “true selves” rather than freely expressing all emotions. Self-monitoring abilities may facilitate this by enabling leaders to make more informed choices about emotional expression and adapt appropriately when enacting leadership.

3.5.2 Limitations and Future Research

One limitation of this meta-analysis is that it only examined linear correlations. Since meta-analyses draw on correlations, they only test linear relationships. This assumes a linear relationship between self-monitoring and the leadership-dependent variables. However, it is

possible that there are nonlinear associations, which necessitates further research for investigation. For example, self-monitoring might show a nonlinear correlation with transformational leadership: when self-monitoring is very low, it hinders leaders' capacity for individualized consideration and idealized influence; but when self-monitoring is very high, the chameleon aspect of self-monitoring casts doubt on leaders' authenticity and principle, which negatively affects transformational leadership (Bass et al., 2003).

Another limitation of this meta-analysis is that some correlations are computed with a small number of studies, such as authentic leadership and transformational/transactional leadership. As a result, the interpretation of these results should be approached with caution. Since this study encompasses all available findings in the literature, it indicates that there is less research on the relationship between self-monitoring and these leadership constructs. Hence, future research could further examine their associations. In particular, future research could examine the relationship between self-monitoring and the components of these leadership variables since self-monitoring can have different impacts on the components. Further, no studies have explored the relationship between self-monitoring and other leadership styles, such as ethical leadership, servant leadership, parental leadership, or negative leadership styles like destructive leadership, representing a promising area for investigation in future studies.

Future research could potentially examine the role of time in the relationship between self-monitoring and leadership. The findings that self-monitoring shows a non-significant association with subordinate-rated leadership emergence and leadership effectiveness (compared to a positive relationship with peer-rated leadership emergence) suggests that over time, leadership ratings of HSMs may decrease, considering that peer-nominated leadership emergence occurs earlier than subordinate-rated leadership. This is also because self-monitoring involves the cultivation of a positive self-image, which could be short-term rather

than long-term. Longitudinal studies on leadership (e.g., Kalish & Luria, 2021; Tate, 2008) could yield important insights into the dynamic of leadership, which is an important research avenue because leadership is an interactive process rather than a static phenomenon (Shamir, 2011), and self-monitoring may also concern perception changes by others.

Future research also needs to examine the relationship between self-monitoring and leadership effectiveness as measured by more objective criteria (Hogan et al., 1994). Examples of such criteria include unit performance, turnover in the unit, and survival of a unit, which provide valuable information as important as subjective measurements of leadership effectiveness (Judge et al., 2009). In fact, only two studies from this sample measured leadership effectiveness by taking into consideration unit performance (Anderson & McLenigan, 1987; Douglas & Ammeter, 2004). It is likely that self-monitoring will be found to be negatively associated with leadership when it is measured by more objective criteria.

Finally, with regard to the self-monitoring construct, although I have investigated self-monitoring motivation and ability by comparing different self-monitoring scales, there could be opportunities to conduct a finer-grained analysis of the two dimensions using scales that are more explicitly designed to separately capture these two dimensions (e.g., Warech et al., 1998). Operationalizing self-monitoring as separate sub-scales to capture each of its dimensions would greatly enhance our understanding of both self-monitoring and its relationship with leadership. For example, with separate measurements of the ability and motivation dimensions, there is potential to examine different types of LSMs, including those low in motivation or ability to self-monitor, or both, and their associations with leadership.

Understanding the dimensions of motivation and ability in self-monitoring will also enhance the differentiation between the self-monitoring construct and related concepts, such as social-monitoring — which focuses on attending to social cues and information (Gardner

et al., 2005) — and Machiavellianism — which is characterized by manipulateness and the drive to use any means necessary for self-gain (Lange et al., 2018). The sensitivity aspect of self-monitoring ability aligns with the concept of social monitoring. However, while social monitoring seeks social acceptance and belongingness (Gardner et al., 2005), which relates to the “getting along” motivation of self-monitoring, it doesn’t align with the “getting ahead” motivation of self-monitoring, which aims for elevated status among others. Regarding Machiavellianism, this dark triad trait aligns with self-monitoring in its acquisitive motivation for power and status attainment (Hawley, 2003), driven by self-centered interest (Jones & Paulhus, 2017). This shared motivation underscores the positive correlation between self-monitoring and Machiavellianism (Kowalski et al., 2018). However, unlike Machiavellianism, self-monitoring is not inherently manipulative and also incorporates the abilities to adapt to social appropriateness. Future research could examine the nuanced associations of these constructs by considering the self-monitoring dimensions.

3.5.3 Practical Implications

Previous research (e.g., Day et al., 2002) indicates a positive relationship between self-monitoring and leadership. However, my findings reveal a more nuanced picture, indicating that the positive relationship should be interpreted with caution from a practical standpoint. Self-monitoring generally shows a non-significant relationship with subordinate-rated leadership. This implies that practitioners should be cautious not to be easily impressed by individuals skilled at cultivating favorable social images. The ability to meet situational demands does not necessarily translate to effective leadership. On the contrary, individuals who may not seem adept at adapting to situations (but showcasing strong principles) might still possess valuable leadership qualities and should be given equal opportunities in leadership roles.

Practitioners are advised to closely examine those who emerge as leaders to ensure that they are not only successful in the process of emergence but also effective leaders in practice. Organizations can implement 360-degree appraisals for their managers and leaders, gathering ratings from multiple sources (supervisor, peer, subordinate, and self) to gain a comprehensive and more accurate assessment, especially when dealing with managers or leaders who exhibit high self-monitoring tendencies.

Furthermore, the findings suggest that self-monitoring ability contributes positively to leadership, particularly authentic leadership, while self-monitoring motivation might undermine it. Leaders are encouraged to nurture their abilities in sensitivity and self-presentation abilities. However, they should be cautious not to use these abilities for chameleon-like behaviors and opportunistic gains. Instead, leaders should use these abilities as valuable resources with authenticity, i.e., with a lower level of self-monitoring motivation. Therefore, leaders can be both socially capable and principled, aligning with what Bedeian (Bedeian & Day, 2004) referred to as “real” leaders.

CHAPTER IV A LONGITUDINAL STUDY ON THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN SELF-MONITORING AND LEADERSHIP EMERGENCE

The objective of this Chapter is toward resolving the puzzling relationship between self-monitoring and leadership. The enigma stems from the literature as well as findings obtained in Chapter III through my meta-analysis, which shows that although self-monitoring has a positive correlation with leadership emergence, its relationship with leadership effectiveness is non-significant⁶. This implies that individuals with a higher level of self-monitoring are more likely to emerge as leaders, but not necessarily become more effective in leadership roles. This could mean we sometimes select leaders who are not effective. To gain deeper insights into the factors contributing to this puzzle, this chapter undertakes a longitudinal study to explore the association between self-monitoring and leadership emergence and extends upon Chapter III by utilizing raw data.

In this study, I hypothesize two factors that could shed light on resolving this puzzle. The first factor is time, which arises from comparing the constructs of leadership emergence and leadership effectiveness. A crucial distinction is that leadership emergence takes place at an earlier stage when group members have limited interaction, while leadership effectiveness happened later when sufficient information about group members becomes available. Another factor pertains to the independent variable, self-monitoring. While self-monitoring abilities would be an asset for both leadership emergence and effectiveness, self-monitoring motivation, characterized by acquisitive and self-interest motives (Day & Schleicher, 2006) might only enhance leadership emergence.

⁶ Chapter III shows a positive correlation between self-monitoring and leadership emergence, except when considering subordinate ratings. Here, I refer to the positive relationship excluding subordinate rating, as I refer to leadership emergence occurring before a leadership role is established (Badura et al., 2022), therefore no subordinate rating existing. As for leadership effectiveness, the relationship between self-monitoring and effectiveness is non-significant, except for self-rating. Given common method bias in self-rating, I refer to a non-significant relationship excluding self-rating.

By examining these two factors, this chapter aims to provide insights into the dynamics between self-monitoring and leadership, specifically offering contributions in three areas. First, it adds to studying leadership emergence from a dynamic and process-oriented perspective (Shamir, 2011), rather than viewing it as a static outcome. Second, by directly developing hypotheses from LSMs' perspective, it broadens our understanding of LSMs, who have received limited attention in the literature and typically only studied as a comparison to HSMs (as suggested in Chapter II). Third, this study contributes to the understanding of the self-monitoring construct by developing theory and testing hypotheses based on its dimensions. Studying self-monitoring from a multi-dimensional view will potentially yield fruitful information (Kudret et al., 2019).

The structure of this chapter is as follows. The subsequent section will present conceptualization differences between leadership emergence and leadership effectiveness. Based on that, I develop hypotheses around the aforementioned two factors. The methodology section will then outline the research design and variable operationalizations for hypothesis testing. Finally, the discussion section will outline the potential contributions of this research to both academics and practitioners, as well as provide suggestions for future research.

4.1 Leadership Emergence VS. Leadership Effectiveness

Leadership research has made a distinction between *leadership emergence* (sometimes referred to as “leader emergence” or “emergent leadership”, e.g., Hogan et al., 1994; Zhang et al., 2012) and *leadership effectiveness* (sometimes referred to as “leader effectiveness”, e.g., Hoffman et al., 2011). Leadership emergence refers to “whether (or to what degree) an individual is viewed as a leader by others, who typically have only limited information about that individual’s performance” (Judge et al., 2002, p. 767), whereas leadership effectiveness refers to “a leader’s performance in influencing and guiding the activities of his or her unit

toward achievement of its goals” (Judge et al., 2002, p. 767). A comprehensive comparison of the two constructs is outlined in Table 4.1.

There are three broad differences between the two concepts to draw from Table 4.1. Firstly, leadership emergence is measured at the individual level (e.g., Dobbins et al., 1990; Rueb et al., 2008), whereas leadership effectiveness is measured at the group or organization level (e.g., Douglas & Ammeter, 2004; House et al., 1991). Secondly, leadership emergence is measured based on perceptions around a person (e.g., Kilduff et al., 2017), whereas leadership effectiveness should be measured based on group or unit performance as led by the leader (Hogan et al., 1994). Thirdly, leadership emergence is measured in a relatively short period of time, based on limited information about group members (e.g., Foti & Hauenstein, 2007), whereas leadership effectiveness is measured based on a broader set of information collected over a longer period of time (e.g., House et al., 1991).

These differences suggest possible explanations for why people tend to choose individuals with higher levels of self-monitoring as leaders, but they may not necessarily perceive them as more effective. One plausible explanation is that individuals view those with high self-monitoring more positively during the leadership emergence period but not necessarily so in the actual leadership process. Another explanation could be rooted in the subjective perception that individuals with higher self-monitoring levels are better suited for leadership roles. As a result, I will formulate hypotheses that are grounded in these explanations.

Table 4.1 Leadership Emergence VS. Leadership Effectiveness

Concepts	Leadership Emergence		Leadership Effectiveness	
	Description	Reference	Description	Reference
Definitions	“...whether (or to what degree) an individual is viewed as a leader by others, who typically have only limited information about that individual’s performance...”	Judge et al., 2002, p.767	“...a leader’s performance in influencing and guiding the activities of his or her unit toward achievement of its goals...”	Judge et al., 2002, p.767
Level of analysis	Individual level (within a group)	Judge et al., 2002, p.767	Group level (between groups)	Judge et al., 2002, p.767
Condition in which the concept appears	“...in groups with no formal leader...”	Judge et al., 2002, p.767	“...the individual being evaluated must first be a leader. Subsequent evaluation of that leader’s effectiveness...”	Judge et al., 2002, p.767
Operationalization/Scale	General Leadership Impression scale (GLI)	Lord et al., 1984	Unit performance (objective measurement)	e.g., Curphy, 1993; House et al., 1991
	Nomination (number of times)	e.g., Kilduff et al., 2017	Unit performance (rated by followers)	e.g., Douglas & Ammeter, 2004
	The likelihood of being selected as a leader (Likert scale)	e.g., Dobbins et al., 1990	Leader performance (rated by supervisor, subordinates, self)	e.g., Foti & Hauenstein, 2007
Measurement	Group members	e.g., Kilduff et al., 2017	Objective/subordinates/supervisor/self	e.g., Bastaman et al., 2018; House et al., 1991
Time in which the concept is measured	(As short as) after a group exercise (3.5 hours)	e.g., Foti & Hauenstein, 2007	(As long as) over years	e.g., House et al., 1991; McEvoy & Betty, 1989

4.2 Hypotheses

4.2.1 Time

One key to resolving the puzzle is time. Self-monitoring concerns image construction to comply with situational demands rather than expressing one's inner self. This constructed positive image is, therefore, superficial and not indicative of one's authentic self, which could be more easily managed in a shorter time. This is substantiated by the fact that self-monitoring is positively linked with surface acting (Scott et al., 2012; Ozcelik, 2013) and the creation of a facade of conformity (Hewlin, 2009). Therefore, in situations where time and personal information are limited, HSMs are more likely to uphold such a positive image and gain others' approval. However, as time elapses and reveals more about individuals' true characteristics, two potential consequences arise. Firstly, individuals may increasingly recognize that HSMs project a facade, lacking genuine substance and principles. This realization could lead to a decline in the favorable impression they once hold. Secondly, as time goes on, people may start to notice negative attributes of HSMs, such as their inauthenticity (Pillow et al., 2017) and inconsistency across various situations (Gangestad & Snyder, 2000). These factors undermine the positive perceptions of HSMs, and thus the positive impact of self-monitoring on leadership emergence diminishes.

This reasoning is also substantiated by the research of Kalish and Luria (2021), who found that when individuals have limited interactions with others, their perception of leadership is based on more superficial information, including physical characteristics and extroversion. However, as interactions prolong, the interpersonal distance diminishes (Antonakis & Atwater, 2002), and thus individuals are more likely to assess targets based on traits that aren't readily observable (Kunda, 1999; Kunda & Thagard, 1996), thus lessening the impact of superficial attributes on leadership emergence. Just as extroversion is quickly and easily observable, even in as little as 250 milliseconds (Funder & Dobroth, 1987), and

even among strangers (Borkenau & Liebler, 1995), self-monitoring, which incorporates the factor of extraversion (Briggs & Cheek, 1988) and conceptually involves behaviors in public and social settings, is also easily discernible. Additionally, self-monitoring also involves easily recognizable leadership behaviors. Therefore, aligning with the declining influence of easily observable traits and behaviors on leadership emergence as time elapses (Kalish & Luria, 2021), the positive impact of self-monitoring on leadership emergence is expected to decline with time.

To test the moderation effect of time on the relationship between self-monitoring and leadership emergence, I will first replicate the hypothesis of the main effect. Thus, I hypothesize the following:

H1. Self-monitoring is positively related to leadership emergence.

H2. Time would moderate the relationship between self-monitoring and leadership emergence such that the relationships would be weaker as time goes by, i.e., the relationships at T2 would be weaker than at T1.

For HSMs and LSMs respectively, I hypothesize these two types of individuals to experience divergent changes in their leadership emergence score over time. Specifically, for HSMs, their leadership emergence score is expected to decrease for the reasons explained earlier, primarily due to the diminishing effect of their surface-level positive image. Moreover, as people get to know each other better over time, they tend to pay more attention to internal attributes that are not immediately observable (Kalish & Luria, 2021; Kunda & Thagard, 1996). Consequently, as time elapses, as HSMs' internal negative attributes, such as inconsistency and inauthenticity, become more apparent, their leadership emergence score would decrease.

H3. For HSMs, their leadership emergence score decreases over time (T2), as compared to the initial leadership emergence score (T1).

Nevertheless, for LSMs, I hypothesize an increase in their leadership emergence score due to the following two reasons. Firstly, at the onset, LSMs, being less extroverted and socially adept at meeting societal expectations and situational requirements, may receive less attention from others. Indeed, LSMs are less the center of attention compared to HSMs (Snyder, 1974). However, as time progresses and team members grow more familiar with one another, the chances for LSMs to be noticed and recognized increase. In other words, LSMs become more noticeable and known to others over time, thereby enhancing their likelihood of being selected as leaders compared to the initial stages when they may leave a less pronounced impression on others. Secondly, LSMs are known to be principled individuals (Gangestad & Snyder, 2000), an attribute not immediately apparent with limited interactions. However, over time and through increased team interactions and collaborations, this trait becomes more discernible. For instance, in teamwork, LSMs are more likely to adhere to principles rather than be influenced by situational factors or other people's demands, resulting in a more consistent and principled approach to collaboration and dealing with tasks. I hypothesize that as individuals get the opportunity to observe this principled attribute in LSMs, they will likely value this trait and select them as leaders. This also resonates with *implicit leadership theory* (Lord et al., 1984) which suggests that honesty, a trait highly related to principle, is part of a leader's prototypicality (Epitropaki et al., 2013). Once recognized over time, this attribute would contribute to LSMs' leadership emergence. With these considerations, I hypothesize the following.

H4. For LSMs, their leadership emergence score increases over time (T2), as compared to the initial leadership emergence score (T1).

4.2.2 Self-monitoring Motivation and Ability

Self-monitoring motivation is another key to resolving the puzzle. Although self-monitoring motivation may undermine leadership effectiveness due to its self-serving nature

and propensity for chameleon-like behaviors and inauthenticity, this motive is expected to be positively associated with leadership emergence. Self-monitoring motivation comprises two motives: protective motivation and acquisitive motivation (Lennox, 1988). Both play significant roles in leadership emergence (Badura et al., 2022; Hogan et al., 1985; Marinova et al., 2013). Additionally, the ultimate motivation of self-monitoring is an acquisitive motive, specifically a status-enhancement motive (Day & Schleicher, 2006; Fuglestad & Snyder, 2010; Gangestad and Snyder), which is associated with the motivation to be leaders (Day & Schleicher, 2006) as a key part of leadership emergence (Luria & Berson, 2013). During the relatively short leader emergence process, HSMs' motivation for image building will prompt them to cultivate positive images and engage actively in leader behaviors, which help them be nominated as leaders (Badura et al., 2022). I thus hypothesize the following:

H5. Self-monitoring motivation is positively associated with leadership emergence.

Self-monitoring ability encompasses sensitivity and the capacity to adjust one's self-presentation (Snyder, 1974). Sensitivity contributes to leadership emergence according to *implicit leadership theory* (Lord et al., 1984), which posits it as an essential factor in the leader prototype (Offerman et al., 1994). Besides, Parks-Leduc et al. (2014) show that self-monitoring ability correlates with extraversion, which is a fundamental aspect of the leader prototype, significantly contributing to leadership emergence (Judge et al., 2002). Finally, self-monitoring ability bears relevance to social and communication skills (Riggio, 1986), both of which are crucial for leadership emergence (Riggio et al., 2003). Therefore, I hypothesize the following:

H6. Self-monitoring ability is positively associated with leadership emergence.

4.3 Method

4.3.1 Sample and Procedure

Wave 1. Wave 1 of the study involved 100 participants who were enrolled in the Weekend MBA program at a Business School in the UK. The students were divided into two streams, and within each stream, they were further divided into study groups consisting of either five or six members. Data collection for Wave 1 occurred during the 4th and 5th days of the program's orientation week. By this point, the students had already attended four sessions of their core Organizational Behavior class, which were conducted with both streams combined. For the fifth session, the class was conducted separately for each stream. During this session, a 30-minute group decision-making exercise was conducted, providing students with an opportunity to engage in formal teamwork. Following this exercise, paper-and-pen surveys were distributed to collect data from each stream.

The purpose of this survey was stated, and participation was voluntary. Before the class began, the professor and I distributed the paper surveys and allowed participants time to complete them. Out of the 100 participants, 99 completed the survey, resulting in a high response rate of 99%. This enabled me to determine participants' leadership emergence score at Time 1.

The design of this data collection aimed to capture information after the students had engaged in meaningful group interactions, but not to the extent where they had already developed a deep familiarity with each other. This design aligns with my hypothesis about Time 1, which requires a team's initial interactions to ensure that participants have formed a basic understanding of each other while still preserving the potential for further interaction.

Wave 2. The data for Wave 2 was collected three months after the initial Wave 1 data collection, specifically during the 9th session of the program. During this time, two students dropped from the program, resulting in a total of 98 participants. The 9th session was focused

on a 2-hour group change-management exercise, which provided an opportunity for the participants to engage in a meaningful team activity. Immediately after this exercise, data was collected for each stream following the same procedure as Wave 1, yielding a high response rate of 99% (97 out of the 98 participants answered the survey). This allowed me to obtain the leadership emergence score at Time 2.

During the three-month course, the participants had ample opportunities to interact and develop a deeper understanding of one another. This data collection design aligned with my theory, aiming to create a situation where participants become much more familiar with each other by Time 2 compared to their initial level of familiarity at Time 1.

Final Sample. In the end, I obtained responses from 96 participants who completed the survey in both Wave 1 and Wave 2. However, one participant did not answer the self-monitoring measurement and therefore was excluded from the sample. As a result, the total sample size used for analysis was $n = 95$. Considering the original number of participants, this longitudinal study achieved a final response rate of 95%, which is considered a very respectable response rate. Among these respondents, 42% identified as females. Their average age was 30.3 years, and their average work experience was 6.5 years. Regarding ethnic diversity, 47.4% of the participants identified themselves as belonging to the White ethnic group.

4.3.2 Measures

Participants filled up the survey in the manner shown in the Appendix. To avoid common method bias (Podsakoff et al., 2003), participants provided measures of others' leadership emergence score while providing their own attribute measurement, i.e., the measurement source of dependent variables and independent variables are separated. Also, to avoid the priming effect (Podsakoff et al., 2003), participants first responded to the question regarding the dependent variable, leadership emergence. Subsequently, they filled up the

section of their own attributes of self-monitoring and demographics. Since there are two measurements of self-monitoring (as detailed below), to prevent redundancy and response bias (Buchner et al., 1995), participants only answered one measurement at each Time.

Self-monitoring. Self-monitoring was measured by two scales. The first one is a 16-item scale developed by Warech et al. (1998), which comprises two subscales, i.e., *self-monitoring motivation* (eight items) and *self-monitoring abilities* (eight items). Warech et al. (1998) provided evidence of good convergent and divergent validity, as well as internal reliability for both subscales. In this sample, the internal reliability coefficient (measured by Cronbach's alpha) for self-monitoring motivation was $\alpha = 0.850$, while the internal reliability for self-monitoring abilities was $\alpha = 0.759$. Consistent with the original scale, the items in both subscales were measured using a 5-point Likert scale, ranging from 1 (Disagree strongly) to 5 (Agree strongly). A sample item from the self-monitoring motivation subscale is "I am highly motivated to control how others see me." A sample item from the self-monitoring abilities subscale is "When I feel that the image I am portraying isn't working, I can readily change it to something that does."

The second scale used to measure self-monitoring is the 18-item self-monitoring scale (SMS-R, Snyder & Gangestad, 1986). This scale demonstrates higher internal reliability than the original 25-item self-monitoring scale (SMS, Snyder, 1974), and is more suggested to use (Gangestad & Snyder, 2000). In the present sample, the internal reliability is $\alpha = 0.729$. Consistent with the original scale, the items were measured by True/False in the present study. A sample item is "In different situations and with different people, I often act like very different persons."

Leadership Emergence. Following Kalish and Luria (2021), leadership emergence was measured by asking participants "Whom do you view as a leader in the group?" This question does not specifically define leaders but rather intentionally captures participants implicit

theory of leadership (Kalish & Luria, 2021), which aligns with my hypothesis about leadership emergence.

Following established practices in previous studies such as Neubert and Taggar (2004) and Nevicka, De Hoogh, Van Vianen, Beersma, and Mcllwain (2011), I measured leadership emergence in the following manner: During the survey, participants were presented with a list of names of their group members (excluding themselves) and were instructed to rank these group members based on their preference for nominating them as a leader. To calculate the leadership emergence score for each participant, I tallied the number of times an individual was ranked as the top choice by other group members. This total number of nominations received by an individual was then divided by the number of possible nominations, which corresponds to the total number of other group members. This division yields a proportion that indicates the likelihood of being nominated as a leader. This proportion serves as the final leadership emergence score for each participant. This operationalization enabled the comparison of leadership emergence scores across different team sizes⁷.

Control Variables

I choose the following variables as control variables, following the guidance by Becker (2005) and Bono and McNamara (2011) that control variables need to meet all the following three criteria. Firstly, the control variable is predicted to be correlated with the dependent variable either based on a clear theoretical reason or extant empirical research. Secondly, the control is expected to be correlated with the independent variable, again based on theoretical reason or empirical research. Finally, there is a reason that the control variable is not the central interest in the study.

⁷ Previous studies, such as Zaccaro et al. (1991), have employed participants' ranking order as a measurement of leadership emergence. However, these studies had groups of the same size, which made ranking order comparable. In the present study, I was unable to utilize ranking order as the leadership emergence score due to the inability to make different group sizes comparable.

Gender. Gender is controlled because it is likely to be associated with leadership emergence (Badura et al., 2018) and self-monitoring (Day et al., 2002).

Age. Age is controlled because it is associated with self-monitoring (Day et al., 2002), as well as leadership (Walter & Scheibe, 2013).

Work Experience. Participants' working experience, as measured by years, is controlled, because it could affect leadership emergence (Kalish & Luria, 2021). Work experience could also be related to self-monitoring because individuals with different levels of work experience can differ both in status-enhancement motivation (relevant to self-monitoring motivation) and abilities in modifying self-presentation in public settings (relevant to self-monitoring ability).

Ethnicity. Ethnicity is controlled because it could be associated with self-monitoring and leadership (Day et al., 2002). Research also suggests that national culture may influence both self-monitoring and leadership (e.g., Harrison et al., 1996; Weierner et al., 1997).

Team Size. Team size is controlled because it could influence team dynamics (Mueller, 2012) and leadership emergence (Livi et al., 2008; Neubert & Taggar, 2004). Also, since team size is likely to influence people's behaviors in teams (Mueller, 2012), team size could potentially impact the extent to which people engage in expressive behaviors including self-monitoring.

I also control the interaction between each of the above variables and time following the longitudinal study by Kalish and Luria (2021), who confirmed that demographics and time interacted to predict leadership emergence.

4.4 Data Analysis and Results

4.4.1 Main Results

Correlations

Table 4.2 presents the descriptive statistics and bivariate correlations of the variables. The correlation between self-monitoring and leadership emergence at Time 1 is marginally significant ($r = 0.185$, $p = 0.073$), but the correlation between self-monitoring and leadership emergence at Time 2 is not significant ($r = 0.059$, $p = 0.570$). These results align with the prediction that as time goes by, the effect of self-monitoring on leadership emergence would be weaker. With regard to self-monitoring motivation, there is a non-significant correlation with leadership emergence both at Time 1 ($r = -0.016$, $p = 0.877$) and at Time 2 ($r = 0.134$, $p = 0.198$). Regarding self-monitoring ability, it shows a marginally significant positive correlation with leadership emergence at Time 1 ($r = 0.198$, $p = 0.054$), but the relationship is not significant at Time 2 ($r = 0.047$, $p = 0.649$). Hypothesis testing would be conducted in the following retrogression analysis section.

It is worth noting that self-monitoring ability and self-monitoring motivation are not correlated ($r = 0.168$, $p = 0.104$), adding to the argument that these two dimensions are independent. Naturally, as two dimensions of the self-monitoring construct, both are significantly correlated with the self-monitoring construct as measured by SMS-R, with moderate to strong effect size. The correlation between self-monitoring motivation and SMS-R is $r = 0.333$, $p = 0.001$; and the correlation between self-monitoring ability and SMS-R is $r = 0.467$, $p < 0.001$.

Table 4.2 Means, Standard Deviations, and Correlations

	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1 Age	30.284	3.578									
2 Ethnicity	0.526	0.502	0.070								
3 Gender	0.421	0.496	-0.170†	-0.045							
4 Work experience	6.542	3.066	0.745**	0.091	0.049						
5 Team size	0.589	0.495	-0.036	-0.110	-0.110	-0.040					
6 SMS-R	8.832	3.631	-0.122	-0.190†	-0.055	-0.258*	-0.075	(0.729)			
7 Self-monitoring motivation	3.137	0.780	-0.075	-0.108	0.025	-0.010	0.013	0.333**	(0.850)		
8 Self-monitoring ability	3.636	0.629	-0.082	-0.056	0.003	-0.230*	-0.003	0.467**	0.168	(0.759)	
9 Leadership Emergence T1	0.221	0.264	-0.158	-0.064	0.062	-0.117	-0.090	0.185†	-0.016	0.198†	
10 Leadership Emergence T2	0.233	0.268	-0.126	-0.136	-0.019	-0.124	-0.140	0.059	0.134	0.047	0.618**

Note. n = 95. Cronbach's alpha coefficients are displayed within parentheses along the diagonal of the matrix.

Gender: 0 = male, 1 = female; Ethnicity: 0 = white, 1 = other; Team size: 0 = five-member team; 1 = six-member team

† p < 0.10, * p < 0.05, ** p < 0.01

Regressions

Because my data contains two time points, I applied hierarchical linear modeling (HLM) to analyze the data. HLM is also known as multilevel modeling or nested data modeling, which is a statistical technique used when data is structured in a nested or hierarchical format (Raudenbush & Bryk, 2002). HLM analysis is an appropriate approach for analyzing the present data since longitudinal investigations are hierarchical in nature (Hofmann, 1997). I conducted analyses using STATA version 18 (StataCorp., 2023).

Table 4.2 presents the results of regressions. Following Kalish and Luria's (2021), I started with the baseline model, i.e., Model 1a, incorporating time and demographics. This baseline model provides a comparison to other models of increasing complexity. Model 1b adds the interaction of time with these demographics, which are necessary controls (Kalish & Luria, 2021). Model 2, Model 3, and Model 4 are to test hypotheses regarding self-monitoring, self-monitoring motivation, and self-monitoring ability, respectively. Model 2a adds self-monitoring (SMS-R), and Model 2b adds the interaction between self-monitoring and time. Model 3a and 3b adds self-monitoring motivation, and its interaction with time, respectively. Finally, likewise, Model 4a and 4b adds self-monitoring ability, and its interaction with time, respectively.

Hypothesis 1 posited that there is a positive relationship between self-monitoring and leadership emergence. However, Model 2a results show that self-monitoring is not significantly related to leadership emergence ($\beta = 0.006$, $SE = 0.007$, $p = 0.476$) after controlling time, demographics, and their interactions with time. Therefore, the results do not support Hypothesis 1. Hypothesis 2 posited that the effect of self-monitoring on leadership emergence will decline over time. According to Model 2b results, the moderation effect of time on the relationship between self-monitoring and leadership emergence is marginally significant with a negative

coefficient ($\beta = -0.013$, $SE = 0.007$, $p = 0.077$), which partially supports Hypothesis 2. To illustrate, Figure 4.1 demonstrates the effect.

Hypothesis 5 posited that self-monitoring motivation positively relates to leadership emergence. Model 3a results show that self-monitoring motivation is not significantly related to leadership emergence ($\beta = 0.014$, $SE = 0.032$, $p = 0.597$), not supporting Hypothesis 5. And its interaction with time also shows a non-significant relationship with leadership emergence, as displayed in Model 3b.

Hypothesis 6 posited that self-monitoring ability positively relates to leadership emergence. As shown in Model 4a, the relationship between self-monitoring ability and leadership emergence is not significant ($\beta = 0.046$, $SE = 0.041$, $p = 0.258$), not supporting Hypothesis 6. However, as shown in Model 4b, there was a marginally significant relationship between self-monitoring ability and leadership emergence after controlling the interaction of self-monitoring ability and time ($\beta = 0.082$, $SE = 0.045$, $p = 0.070$), indicating that at Time 1 (rather than Time 2), self-monitoring ability is positively associated with leadership emergence at a marginal significance level. Finally, the interaction between self-monitoring ability and time also shows a marginally significant correlation with leadership emergence ($\beta = -0.072$, $SE = 0.040$, $p = 0.070$), indicating a potential decrease of the impact of self-monitoring ability on leadership emergence at Time 2 than Time 1.

Table 4.3 Regression Results Predicting Leadership Emergence over Time

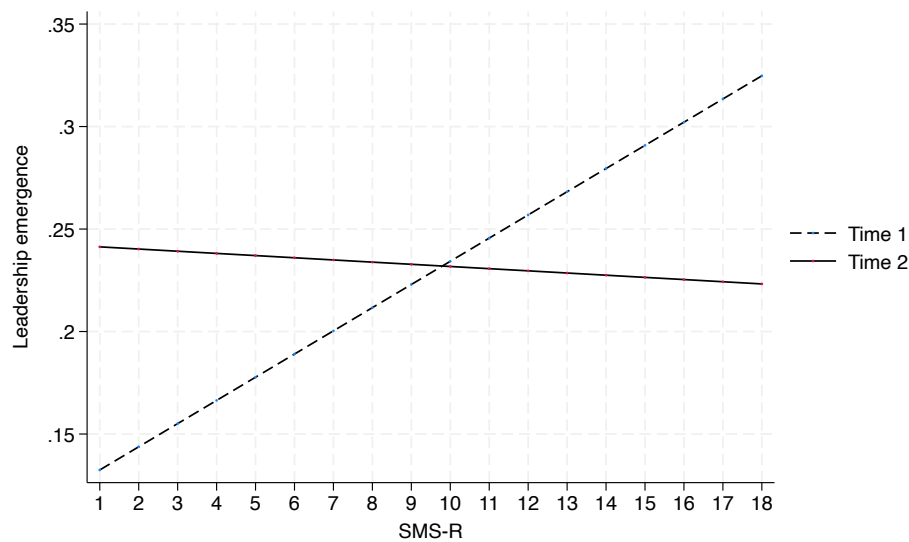
	Model 1a	Model 1b	Model 2a	Model 2b	Model 3a	Model 3b	Model 4a	Model 4b
Time	0.012 (0.024)	-0.006 (0.282)	-0.006 (0.282)	0.101 (0.285)	0.003 (0.011)	-0.216 (0.307)	-0.006 (0.282)	0.208 (0.302)
Age	-0.009 (0.011)	-0.011 (0.012)	-0.012 (0.012)	-0.013 (0.012)	-0.011 (0.012)	-0.011 (0.012)	-0.013 (0.012)	-0.014 (0.012)
Ethnicity	-0.055 (0.050)	-0.033 (0.055)	-0.026 (0.056)	-0.017 (0.056)	-0.031 (0.056)	-0.035 (0.056)	-0.031 (0.055)	-0.030 (0.055)
Gender	-0.010 (0.053)	0.012 (0.059)	0.013 (0.059)	0.015 (0.059)	0.012 (0.059)	0.012 (0.059)	0.008 (0.059)	0.006 (0.059)
Work experience	-0.002 (0.013)	-0.001 (0.014)	0.002 (0.014)	0.005 (0.014)	-0.001 (0.014)	0.000 (0.014)	0.003 (0.014)	0.006 (0.014)
Team Size	-0.073 (0.050)	-0.037 (0.050)	-0.050 (0.057)	-0.045 (0.056)	-0.054 (0.057)	-0.054 (0.056)	-0.054 (0.056)	-0.053 (0.056)
Time X Age		0.003 (0.011)	0.003 (0.011)	0.005 (0.011)	0.003 (0.011)	0.005 (0.011)	0.003 (0.011)	0.006 (0.011)
Time X Ethnicity		-0.044 (0.052)	-0.044 (0.049)	-0.061 (0.049)	-0.044 (0.049)	-0.036 (0.049)	-0.044 (0.049)	-0.047 (.049)
Time X Gender		-0.044 (0.052)	-0.044 (0.052)	-0.047 (0.052)	-0.044 (0.052)	-0.043 (0.052)	-0.044 (0.052)	-0.039 (0.052)
Time X Work Exp		-0.003 (0.012)	-0.003 (0.012)	-0.008 (0.013)	-0.003 (0.012)	-0.004 (0.012)	-0.002 (0.012)	-0.009 (0.013)
Time X Team Size		-0.037 (0.050)	-0.037 (0.050)	-0.047 (0.050)	-0.037 (0.050)	-0.036 (0.050)	-0.037 (0.050)	-0.037 (0.049)
SMS-R			0.006 (0.007)	0.012 (0.008)				
Time X SMS-R				-0.013[†] (0.007)				
SM Motivation					0.014 (0.032)	-0.012 (0.036)		
Time X SM Motivation						0.052 (0.031)		
SM Ability							0.046 (0.041)	0.082[†] (0.045)
Time X SM Ability								-0.072[†] (0.040)
Constant	0.593* (0.285)	0.602* (0.318)	0.553 (0.324)	0.499 (0.325)	0.544 (0.345)	0.350* (0.141)	0.465 (0.339)	0.359 (0.344)
R ²	0.047	0.051	0.057	0.063	0.053	0.052	0.062	0.069
ΔR ² (compared to Model 1a)		0.004	0.010	0.016	0.006	0.012	0.015	0.022
	$\chi^2(5)=$ 5.65	$\chi^2(9)=$ 7.75	$\chi^2(10)=$ 8.37	$\chi^2(11)=$ 11.66	$\chi^2(10)=$ 7.90	$\chi^2(11)=$ 9.85	$\chi^2(11)=$ 9.05	$\chi^2(11)=$ 12.40

Note: n=190. Standard Errors are in Brackets. X indicates an interaction.

Gender: 0 = male, 1 = female; Ethnicity: 0 = white, 1 = other; Team size: 0 = five-member team; 1 = six-member team

† p < 0.10, * p < 0.05, ** p < 0.01

Figure 4.1 Interaction of Time and Self-monitoring Predicting Leadership Emergence



T-test

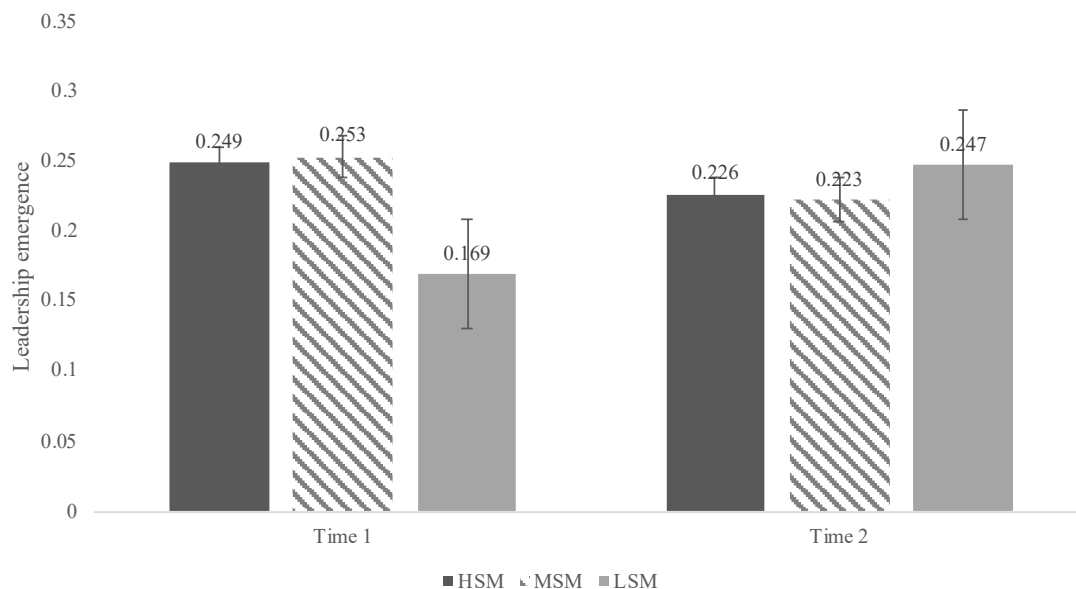
To test Hypothesis 3 and Hypothesis 4 which posited that HSMs' and LSMs' leadership emergence score show divergent changes, I conducted a dependent sample t-test. HSMs are operationalized as those who scored in the top one-third⁸ of the self-monitoring scores (following Hall et al., 1998). LSMs are operationalized as those who scored the bottom one-third of self-monitoring scores (Hall et al., 1998). Individuals with a level of self-monitoring in the middle third are referred to as Middle Self-monitors (MSM). Although research has utilized a median-

⁸ I applied 66.7% percentile (SMS-R=10) and operationalized HSMs as scoring ≥ 10 , n (HSMs) = 41. Likewise, LSMs were operationalized as scoring below 33.3% percentile (SMS-R=7), n (LSMs) = 34. The rest scoring between (not including) 33.3% and 66.7% are MSMs (n = 30).

split to operationalize HSMs and LSMs (e.g., Cheng & Chartrand, 2003; Ellis, 1988), this method has been criticized (e.g., MacCallum et al., 2002) because participants scoring close to the median will be grouped arbitrarily into high and low groups when their scores are in effect similar, and this classification of HSMs and LSMs would vary with different samples when samples generate different median scores. Therefore, tripartizing the self-monitoring score to operationalize HSMs and LSMs would be more valid.

Figure 4.2 shows the mean of HSM, MSM, and LSM's leadership emergence at Time 1 and Time 2. The difference between HSMs' leadership emergence score is not significantly different between Time 1 ($M = 0.249$, $SD = 0.305$) and Time 2 ($M = 0.226$, $SD = 0.264$); $t(40) = 0.550$, $p = 0.586$; not supporting Hypothesis 3. However, LSMs' leadership emergence score is significantly higher at Time 2 ($M = 0.169$, $SD = 0.227$) than at Time 1 ($M = 0.247$, $SD = 0.284$); $t(33) = -2.249$, $p = 0.016$, supporting Hypothesis 4.

Figure 4.2 HSMs, MSMs, and LSMs' Leadership Emergence at Time 1 and Time 2



Note. Based on tripartizing the self-monitoring score (e.g., Hall et al., 1998), HSMs: $SMS-R \geq 10$, n (HSMs) = 41; LSMs: $SMS-R \leq 7$, n (LSMs) = 34; MSMs: $7 < SMS-R < 10$, n (MSMs) = 30.

4.4.2 Additional Analysis

I further examined Hypothesis 1 by dichotomizing HSMs and LSMs using tripartite split. I applied an independent sample t-test to test whether HSMs' leadership emergence was significantly higher than LSMs' score at Time 1. As shown in Figure 4.2, although HSMs' leadership emergence score (Mean = 0.249, SD = 0.305) was higher than LSMs' leadership emergence score (Mean = 0.169, SD = 0.227), the difference was not significant, $t(73) = 1.260$, $p = 0.106$.

To further consolidate my analysis, I also operationalized HSMs and LSMs based on the mean plus or minus one standard deviation, as some scholars adopted this operationalization (e.g., Osborn et al., 1998; Sanz et al., 1996). With regard to Hypothesis 1, with this operationalization, HSMs' leadership emergence at Time 1 (Mean = 0.300, SD = 0.319) was significantly higher than LSMs' score at Time 1 (Mean = 0.145, SD = 0.179); $t(37) = 1.904$, $p = 0.032$. This result indicates that when operationalizing HSMs and LSMs in a more extreme way - HSMs and LSMs are operationalized with more extreme scores at the higher end and at the lower end - their difference in leadership emergence score at Time 1 emerges.

Applying this operationalization to further consolidate the testing of Hypothesis 3 and 4 regarding HSMs' and LSMs' leadership emergence score change over time, the results stay the same, which does not support Hypothesis 3, but confirms the support of Hypothesis 4. HSMs' leadership emergence score at Time 2 (Mean = 0.305, SD = 0.077) was not significantly lower than at Time 1 (Mean = 0.300, SD = 0.075); $t(17) = -0.079$; $p = 0.531$, not supporting Hypothesis 3. However, LSMs' leadership emergence was significantly higher at Time 2 (Mean = 0.256, SD = 0.057) than at Time 1 (Mean = 0.145, SD = 0.039); $t(20) = 2.650$, $p = 0.008$, supporting Hypothesis 4.

4.5 Discussion

In this Chapter, I have developed six hypotheses applying a longitudinal study to examine the relationship between self-monitoring and leadership emergence. The findings shed light on resolving the puzzling relationship between self-monitoring leadership, and this Chapter makes several contributions to both theory and practice.

4.5.1 Theoretical Implications

This study enriches our understanding of the relationship between self-monitoring and leadership emergence. While past research (Day et al., 2002; Kudret et al., 2019) has established a positive correlation, this longitudinal design reveals nuanced dynamics. Over time, LSMs tend to score higher in leadership emergence, highlighting their growing recognition as leaders and emphasizing the value of studying LSMs from their perspective. Moreover, the results show a marginally significant interaction between time and self-monitoring in predicting leadership emergence. HSMs may initially excel in leadership, but this image might wane as more information unfolds over time. While marginally significant, this aligns with theoretical expectations and inspires further research.

Although Tate (2008) examined the relationship between self-monitoring and leadership over time, my study advances this work in significant ways. Tate measured leadership after nine weeks, failing to capture the varying impact of self-monitoring on initial and later leadership perceptions. Furthermore, while Tate hypothesized a negative correlation between self-monitoring and leadership perception over time, I hypothesized that the initially positive effect of self-monitoring would weaken, not reverse. This perspective considers the fading of initial positive impressions created by HSMs and the recognition of the latent positive traits of LSMs. My findings align with the non-significant relationship between self-monitoring and leadership

effectiveness, indicating no leadership performance difference between HSMs and LSMs when ample time has elapsed.

My findings shed light on the phenomenon of “under-emergence” (Lanaj & Hollenbeck, 2015) which “occurs when a team member effectively influences team performance but does not stand out or attain high status as a team leader to a commensurate extent” (p. 1487). This contrasts with “over-emergence” where leadership emergence surpasses effectiveness (Lanaj & Hollenbeck, 2015). My research suggests that LSMs are likely “under-emergers,” initially overlooked for leadership but recognized positively over time, suggesting greater effectiveness. These insights stimulate further research into the correlation between LSMs and leadership.

This study resonates with the view that “leadership takes time” (Shamir, 2011). The findings underscore the evolving nuances in leadership emergence over time and extend Kalish and Luria's (2021) findings, which show the increasing influence of less observable traits like conscientiousness on leadership emergence as time elapses. Similarly, I found that LSMs, who embody less noticeable traits like principle, authenticity, and trustworthiness, garner increasing recognition and higher leadership emergence scores over time. This suggests these traits could mediate the relationship between self-monitoring and leadership emergence over time, indicating a compelling area for future research.

Another important contribution of this study is its focus on LSMs, responding to the call in the review paper from Chapter II. Rather than treating LSMs as the opposite of HSMs, as is common in existing literature, this study theorizes from the LSMs' viewpoint. I focus on LSM-specific attributes like initial lower social activity and adeptness, but a higher level of principle, unveiling their potential for gradual recognition. This focus on LSMs' unique strengths challenges the assumption that HSMs inherently possess superior leadership qualities.

The present study also adds meaningful findings on the impact of gender and time on leadership emergence. Kalish and Luria (2021) found that males were more likely to emerge as leaders compared to females, but as time went by, this difference diminished. However, results of this study did not replicate their findings. There was no significant difference in the leadership emergence scores between men and women ($\beta = 0.012$, $SE = 0.059$, $p = 0.840$), and the interaction between gender and time in predicting leadership emergence was not significant ($\beta = -0.044$, $SE = 0.052$, $p = 0.398$).

The main difference between the present study and Kalish and Luria's (2021) lies in the approach to selecting leaders. In their study, participants chose leaders from a larger group of 63 participants (excluding themselves). They found that men are more likely to be nominated as leaders in the beginning, aligning with the notion that men tend to exhibit more agentic behaviors than women, particularly in larger groups (Baumeister & Sommer, 1997), which contribute to leadership emergence. In contrast, the present study examined leadership emergence within smaller teams consisting of only five or six members. This small team setting provided participants with a greater opportunity to develop sufficient knowledge of each other, and thus the influence of men's agentic characteristics in large groups became less relevant. Consequently, the effect of gender on leadership emergence disappeared in the present study. Furthermore, the interaction effect between time and gender in predicting leadership emergence was also non-significant in the present study. Therefore, the present study provides valuable insights into leadership emergence within small team settings, offering potential boundary condition of Kalish and Luria's (2021) study.

Further, O'Neill and O'Reilly (2011) found differing job promotion outcomes for males and females with self-monitoring. They found that self-monitoring is positively associated with

job promotion for women but not for men. Motivated by this finding, I investigated the interaction between gender and self-monitoring in predicting leadership emergence. However, the results did not yield a significant interaction effect. Thus, future studies could further investigate the situational factors when self-monitoring and gender interact to influence leadership emergence or promotion.

4.5.2 Limitations and Future Research

The first limitation pertains to the context in which leadership emergence occurred. Although the participants in this study were MBA students with substantial work experience, their engagement in a classroom setting could differ from the dynamics of a work environment. Classroom teamwork experiences could demonstrate less competitiveness relevance to individual status-enhancement motives that are more salient in real work settings. As a result, participants may not be as fully activated in terms of their acquisitive motivation, which is closely tied to their desire to be nominated as leaders. This contextual limitation could potentially explain the lack of support for the main effect of self-monitoring on leadership emergence, despite that this positive effect is well evidenced in the literature. Although a marginal correlation of the relationship between self-monitoring and leadership emergence was observed at Time 1, the regression analysis did not support a positive relationship when including controls. This student teamwork context might also explain why self-monitoring motivation is not positively related to leadership emergence. Therefore, future research could consider examining the role of self-monitoring motivation in leadership emergence within scenarios that more closely resemble real work situations.

A second limitation relates to the sample size and team sizes. In this study, I obtained a sample size of 95 and team size of five or six members. However, it is plausible that a larger

sample size and varying team sizes could provide further insights. In a similar longitudinal design, Kalish and Luria (2021) examined leadership emergence with a smaller sample size of 64, but they measured leadership emergence among all participants rather than among small teams. Their found significant results, suggesting that observable attributes initially predict leadership emergence, but this effect diminish over time, with less recognizable traits becoming more influential. Inspired by the differences between their study and the present study, future research could further examine the effect of self-monitoring and other attributes (including easily recognizable and less discernible ones) on leadership emergence using various team sizes (including both larger and smaller teams).

Thirdly, with regard to self-monitoring dimensions, whereas the literature has extensively discussed the motivation of self-monitoring (e.g., Fuglestad & Snyder, 2010; Gangestad & Snyder, 2000), limited research has explicitly examined this dimension. Future research could further develop and validate scales to measure self-monitoring motivation and abilities separately to delve into the nuances of the self-monitoring construct.

Lastly, the role of time in understanding leadership emergence is critical, as leadership emergence is a process that involves dynamic interactions over time (Acton et al., 2019; Shamir, 2011). Although this study utilized two important time points - an initial stage with limited interactions as Time 1 and a later stage with sufficient information among members as Time 2 - further studies could investigate additional dynamics of leadership by incorporating more time points. For instance, an even earlier time point can capture first impressions and examine the change of first-time impression. Similarly, subsequent time points could be extended to allow participants to develop a deeper understanding of each other. In practice, it often takes months or even years to perceive and know others thoroughly. Leadership is not a one-time event but rather

a reciprocal relationship between (potential) leaders and followers (Howell & Shamir, 2005), which requires more various longitudinal studies on leadership.

4.5.3 Practical Implications

When it comes to selecting leaders, managers and team members are advised to pay careful attention to both the observable and less observable attributes of potential leaders, while also acknowledging the potential bias of early impressions. To mitigate the limitations of one-time selection processes, employees can aim to nominate leaders after gathering more comprehensive information and allowing for a longer period of observation. By taking a more time-sensitive approach to leadership selection, organizations can foster a more accurate and comprehensive understanding of individuals' leadership potential.

Further, managers are encouraged to closely monitor the performance of emerging leaders over time. Rather than assuming that individuals who emerge as leaders will consistently perform at the same level, it is important to assess their sustained effectiveness over time. Employees may dedicate excessive effort to cultivating a positive image and securing leadership roles or promotions, this does not guarantee their leadership effectiveness after obtaining leadership positions.

CHAPTER V CONCLUSION

My dissertation is driven by a broad puzzle: Why does existing research highlight the positive aspects of self-monitoring, despite the fact that chameleon-like and instrumental High Self-Monitors (HSMs) may not be well-liked compared to consistent and principled Low Self-Monitors (LSMs)? This intriguing puzzle is not only of academic interest but also rooted in my personal experiences, where I find myself admiring principled individuals over those who are swayed by others' expectations and situational demands.

To unravel this broad puzzle, I delved deep into the self-monitoring construct, as introduced by Snyder (1974), to explore its development, measurement, and research. Self-monitoring has received substantial attention and provides valuable insights into understanding individual behaviors at work, considering its focus on the interaction between individuals and their situational context (Fleeson, 2004). Previous research has examined a multitude of antecedents and outcomes related to self-monitoring (Kudret et al., 2019). However, issues if studying this construct pertain, such as concerns about its multidimensionality (e.g., Briggs & Cheek, 1980; Snyder & Gangestad, 1986), the presence of orthogonal factors within its measurement scales (Briggs & Cheek, 1980; Gangestad & Snyder, 2000; Lennox, 1988), the conceptualization of self-monitoring as a dichotomy categorizing individuals into HSMs and LSMs (Gangestad & Snyder, 1985; Miller & Thayer, 1989), and over-emphasis on its positives (Kudret et al., 2019).

Among these issues, my dissertation is the first exclusively focused on LSMs, i.e., missed persons in literature. Chapter II, the review paper examined the self-monitoring construct with a focus on what research has known about LSMs. The findings suggest that our understanding of LSMs is much less than that of HSMs, particularly their positives. Moreover, the existing knowledge about LSMs is inconsistent and sometimes even

contradictory. Uncertainty remains about whether LSMs, as individuals with lower levels of self-monitoring, lack motivation, the ability to self-monitor, or both. Additionally, we lack knowledge of their other motivations when they do not engage in self-monitoring.

My review paper identifies these issues and highlights the need for future research to balance the literature by developing a clearer understanding of LSMs and studying their attributes, behaviors, and outcomes at work directly from their perspective, rather than merely treating them as the opposite of HSMs and using them as a comparison point. Research on self-monitoring would greatly benefit from investigating the positive aspects of lower self-monitoring. A parallel can be drawn with how research has not found many of the positives of introverts, but research has come to realize their strengths and unique positives (Blevins et al., 2022), as depicted in the best-selling book “Quiet: The Power of Introverts in a World That Can't Stop Talking” (Cain, 2016). Similarly, LSMs might be underestimated in terms of their principled and authentic expression of their inner states, consistency, and authenticity. While organizational settings often praise situational propriety, there are definite positives in embracing straightforward and authentic self-expression.

After conducting a review of LSMs, I proceeded to examine the relationship between self-monitoring and leadership. Leadership was chosen as the dependent because it is one of the most widely discussed and debated topics in social sciences (Derue et al., 2011). Thus, studying the relationship between self-monitoring and leadership would be an important initial step toward gaining a deeper understanding of both constructs. Furthermore, there have been inconsistent findings in this relationship, and given the abundance of existing research, I was able to conduct a detailed review, i.e., a meta-analysis, paving the way for a more nuanced investigation into the relationship between self-monitoring and leadership.

Therefore, as presented in Chapter III, I conducted a meta-analysis to achieve a comprehensive and finer-grained understanding of self-monitoring and its associations with

various leadership dependent variables (based on available data). The meta-analysis included moderation analysis, considering the self-monitoring measurement scales, which could capture the motivation and ability dimensions of self-monitoring, as well as the rating sources of leadership, which could capture the instrumental motivation of self-monitoring. This meta-analysis, as the first exclusively focused on the relationship between self-monitoring and leadership, yields significant contributions to literature. The findings indicate that while self-monitoring appears to be positively correlated with leadership variables, these correlations become non-significant when the leadership variables are rated by subordinates. This suggests that self-monitoring may not positively impact leadership from the perspective of followers. Moreover, the relationships between self-monitoring and leadership vary depending on the self-monitoring measurement scales used, indicating the distinct roles of self-monitoring motivation and ability in leadership.

Following these findings, Chapter IV delves deeper to investigate the puzzle that self-monitoring is positively related to leadership emergence but shows a non-significant relationship with leadership effectiveness. To better understand this phenomenon, I hypothesized and tested factors that could potentially explain this puzzle. Using data from a longitudinal study, I examined the role of time that might influence the relationship between self-monitoring and leadership. The results show that self-monitoring shows a (marginally significant) stronger positive relationship with leadership emergence in the earlier stages, when easily observed behaviors and positive images are more likely to contribute to leadership emergence. This finding inspires future research to investigate the dynamics of the relationship between self-monitoring and leadership. Another important finding is that LSMs obtain higher leadership emergence scores at a later time point, indicating that they are increasingly recognized as leaders as time elapses. This finding not only helps understand the

puzzle but also highlights the significance of examining LSMs' from their angle, aligning with the call in my Chapter II review paper for greater emphasis on LSMs.

In conclusion, my dissertation delivers key contributions to the self-monitoring and leadership literature, through a focused review on LSMs, a meta-analysis of the self-monitoring leadership relationship, and a longitudinal study probing self-monitoring's effect on leadership emergence. It inspires future work on a more balanced, nuanced, and dynamic study of self-monitoring and leadership. Practically, it highlights the importance of principled individuals and underscores the necessity of multiple leadership assessment sources, especially subordinates. It also urges a dynamic approach to leadership, moving beyond a static view.

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APPENDIX

Measurements

Leadership Emergence (Kalish & Luria, 2021)

Below are the names of your group members. Whom do you view as a leader in the group?

Please put a number (1, 2, 3, 4, or 5) after each name to rank your choice of leader. 1 means your TOP choice, 2 means your second choice, 3 means your third choice, 4 means your fourth choice, and 5 means your LAST choice.

Self-monitoring Scale (Warech et al., 1998)

Instruction: Below is a list of statements describing your characteristics. Please indicate how you agree or disagree with each statement.

#	Statements	Disagree strongly	Disagree a little	Neutral	Agree a little	Agree strongly
1	I am highly motivated to control how others see me.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
2	I feel there are many good reasons to control how others see me.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
3	Controlling others' impressions of me is not important to me.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
4	In social situations, one of my goals is to get others to form a certain kind of impression of me.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
5	I never try to lead others to form particular impressions of me.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
6	I don't try to control the impression others form of me when I first meet them.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
7	I try to affect others' impressions of me most of the time.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
8	At parties and social gatherings, I do not attempt to say or do things that others will like.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
9	When I feel that the image I am portraying isn't working, I can readily change it to something that does.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
10	Even when it might be to my advantage, I have difficulty putting up a good front.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
11	I am not particularly good at making other people like me.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
12	In social situations, I have the ability to alter my behavior if I feel that something else is called for.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
13	I feel a bit awkward in company and do not show up quite so well as I should.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
14	I have trouble changing my behavior to suit different people and different situations.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
15	Once I know what the situation calls for, it's easy for me to regulate my actions accordingly.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
16	I have found that I can adjust my behavior to meet the requirements of any situation I find myself in.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)

Note. Items 1-8 are items of the subscale Self-monitoring motivation. Items 9-16 are items of the subscale Self-monitoring Ability. Reversed score: 3, 5, 6, 8, 10, 11, 13, 14.

Self-monitoring Scale (Snyder & Gangestad, 1986)

Instruction: The following items concern your personal reactions to a number of different situations. No two statements are exactly alike, so consider each statement carefully before answering. If a statement is TRUE or MOSTLY TRUE as applied to you, blacken the space marked T on the answer sheet. If a statement is FALSE or NOT USUALLY TRUE as applied to you, blacken the space marked F.

#	Item	TRUE	FALSE
1	I find it hard to imitate the behavior of other people.	T	F
2	At parties and social gatherings, I do not attempt to do or say things that others will like.	T	F
3	I can only argue for ideas which I already believe.	T	F
4	I can make impromptu speeches even on topics about which I have almost no information.	T	F
5	I guess I put on a show to impress or entertain others.	T	F
6	I would probably make a good actor.	T	F
7	In a group of people I am rarely the center of attention.	T	F
8	In different situations and with different people, I often act like very different persons.	T	F
9	I am not particularly good at making other people like me.	T	F
10	I'm not always the person I appear to be.	T	F
11	I would not change my opinions (or the way I do things) in order to please someone or win their favor.	T	F
12	I have considered being an entertainer.	T	F
13	I have never been good at games like charades or improvisational acting.	T	F
14	I have trouble changing my behavior to suit different people and different situations.	T	F
15	At a party I let others keep the jokes and stories going.	T	F
16	I feel a bit awkward in public and do not show up quite as well as I should.	T	F
17	I can look anyone in the eye and tell a lie with a straight face (if for a right end).	T	F
18	I may deceive people by being friendly when I really dislike them.	T	F

Note. The instruction is adapted from Snyder (1974). Reversed score: 1, 2, 3, 7, 9, 13, 14, 15 16.

Background Information

Gender

What is your gender?

1. Female
2. Male
3. Rather not to say

Age

What is your age? _____

Work experience

How many years of work experience do you have? _____

Ethnicity

What is your ethnic group?

- ☐ White
- ☐ Mixed or Multiple ethnic groups
- ☐ Asian or Asian British
- ☐ Black, African, Caribbean or Black British
- ☐ Other ethnic group

Note. This list of ethnic groups is suggested by the UK government (GOV.UK). <https://www.ethnicity-facts-figures.service.gov.uk/style-guide/ethnic-group>