



The interaction of self-monitoring and organizational position on perceived effort

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Abstract

Purpose – This study aims to investigate self-monitoring as a moderator of the relationship between organizational position and perceptions of individual effort.

Design/methodology/approach. – A total of 133 students were randomly assigned to organizations of 12-15 members. Each organization completed three projects in 14 weeks. Each student served in one position: management or non-management. Participants also rated the effort of organizational members and then responded to items on the Self-monitoring Scale.

Findings – Persons in management were rated as giving more effort than persons in non-management. Self-monitoring moderated the relationship between organizational position and perceptions of effort. Organizational members perceived high self-monitors (HSMs) in management as giving more effort than HSMs in non-management. In contrast, there was no difference in perceived effort of low self-monitors (LSMs) across positions.

Research limitations/implications – By using students instead of actual employees working in project teams, the results may not generalize to all organizations. Because job performance is a multidimensional construct, findings may have limited application to very specific aspects of contextual performance.

Originality/value – These findings provide support for self-monitoring as a moderator of organizational position and performance. This helps to reconcile debate about predicting behavior for cross-situationally consistent LSMs and cross-situationally variable HSMs. Implications for performance appraisals and differential prediction of criteria are discussed.

Keywords General management, Leadership, Performance management

Paper type Research paper

Research supports the use of individual differences to predict job performance in organizations (Borman and Motowidlo, 1993, 1997; Campbell, 1990a,b; Van Scotter *et al.*, 2000). Some researchers argue that performance depends on individual and organizational factors (Katz and Kahn, 1978). Few individual difference variables,

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however, account for both internal and external motivational factors to explain job performance. There has been a call for research to explore individual differences beyond the Big Five in understanding work criteria (Day and Schleicher, 2006; Day *et al.*, 2002). This study addresses the call by investigating self-monitoring, which considers internal and external motivational factors in predicting behavior. The behavior of interest in this research is perceived effort.

This study is organized as follows. First, there is a review of the self-monitoring construct. Second, the research contribution to the literature is given. Third, self-monitoring in relation to leadership and organizational position is highlighted, which is followed by a summary of the contexts used to predict workplace behavior. Fourth, a review of the individual effort construct is provided. Hypotheses are then advanced about self-monitoring and organizational position in predicting perceived effort.

Self-monitoring

Self-monitoring theory accounts for motivational, behavioral, and situational components to explain social behavior (Gangestad and Snyder, 2000; Snyder, 1987). According to the theory, people are internally or externally motivated (Snyder, 1974). Based upon scores on the Self-monitoring Scale (Gangestad and Snyder, 1985), internally motivated individuals are characterized as low self-monitors (LSMs), and externally motivated individuals are characterized as high self-monitors (HSMs). The difference in motivational orientation leads to predictable patterns of behavior for these qualitatively distinct types of individuals (Snyder, 1979).

HSMs have a situationally driven orientation such that they want to be the right person, in the right place, at the right time (Snyder, 1987). They use salient features of a given situation as guides to appropriate behavior. Accordingly, HSMs show considerable cross-situational variability in behavior (Snyder and Monson, 1975) by employing prototypic expressions that are properly matched to a specific context (Snyder and Cantor, 1980). Motivated by external cues (e.g. social norms and expectations), HSMs mentally construct carefully tailored images and use these images as guides to engage in the appropriate behaviors. These individuals indicate that their behavior is guided by the situation (Snyder, 1979).

LSMs behave consistently across situations, subscribing to the dictum, "To thine own self be true" (Snyder, 1987, p. 5). They use internal attitudes, values, and beliefs as guides to behavior. LSMs are not sensitive to situational and interpersonal cues about appropriate behavior (Snyder and Monson, 1975) and are not motivated to adjust their behavior to fit situational demands (Snyder, 1974). Thus, LSMs are cross-situationally consistent in their expressions (Snyder and Monson, 1975) and employ behaviors aligned with their internal dispositions (Snyder and Cantor, 1980). Cross-situational consistency of behavior for LSMs and cross-situational variability of behavior for HSMs have implications for understanding the quantity and quality of behavior within industrial and organizational psychology.

In organizations, self-monitoring explains systematic variations in pay, organizational commitment, selection decisions, performance appraisals, managerial promotion decisions, and leadership (Day *et al.*, 2002; Jawahar and Mattson, 2005; Miller and Cardy, 2000; Zaccaro *et al.*, 1991). In a recent meta-analysis of 136 studies ($n = 23,191$), Day *et al.* (2002) estimated effect sizes for self-monitoring in relation to the following work criteria: job advancement, leadership, organizational commitment,

role ambiguity, and job involvement. Based on the meta-analytic results, HSMs receive more promotional opportunities, emerge as leaders, are less committed to organizations, and receive better performance ratings as compared to LSMs. However, “[M]ore needs to be known about their [HSM] effectiveness in those top-level positions (e.g. management). Theory building and additional research are needed to better develop these leadership specific inferences about the SM construct” (Day *et al.*, 2002, p. 398). Therefore, this study investigates self-monitoring by evaluating its interaction with organizational variables to predict individual performance.

Contribution to the self-monitoring literature

Several contributions are made in this research. First, this study provides evidence to support the class variable supposition of self-monitoring (Gangestad and Snyder, 1985). This research is the first to investigate how self-monitoring predicts an external variable when modeled by Latent Class Analysis (LCA, Lazarsfeld and Henry, 1968). Although self-monitoring is traditionally measured as a dimension, this operational definition is inconsistent with its conceptual definition as a type or class variable (Gangestad and Snyder, 1985, 2000). Research suggests other models may be more appropriate than a dimension dichotomized into HSM and LSM categories (Bedeian and Day, 2004; Forde and Bryant, 2010; Von Davier and Rost, 1997).

In a discussion of self-monitoring and leadership, Bedeian and Day (2004) cited the aforementioned modeling concerns. Bedeian then noted the following:

[W]hat may be of interest is more recent research suggesting that whereas LSMs are generally a homogenous group, there are subpopulations of HSMs . . . Thus, the structure of self-monitoring as a construct may be more complex than most research to date indicates (p. 695).

Evidence by Von Davier and Rost (1997) suggests that instead of two types of self-monitors, there are three latent types: one LSM class and two HSM classes that differ in acting ability or behavioral flexibility. Forde and Bryant (2010) also showed that a LCA model with three self-monitoring classes provides the best fit to scale data relative to a continuous, unidimensional model or a LCA model with two classes. Although the class versus dimension debate is important (see Gangestad and Snyder (2000) for an overview of critiques), the focus is in providing validity evidence in support of self-monitoring as a moderator variable. Thus, alignment of the conceptual and operational definitions of self-monitoring is an important but ancillary consideration.

A second contribution is in providing support for self-monitoring as a moderator variable to explain person-situation interactions at work. To advance the theory of self-monitoring, it is important to demonstrate the hallmark characteristic of moderation within industrial and organizational psychology (Snyder, 1979). Previous research in social psychology has clearly demonstrated the moderating role of self-monitoring in predicting perceived and actual behavior (Gangestad and Snyder, 2000; Snyder, 1975; Snyder and Monson, 1975). These studies have established the cross-situational variability of HSMs and cross-situational consistency of LSMs, while also predicting criteria meaningfully in the form of an interaction (Snyder, 1987). The moderating role of self-monitoring has been shown to generalize to work organizations.

Within the world of work, self-monitoring as a moderator variable has implications concerning selection decisions and performance management activities (Jawahar, 2001; Jawahar and Mattson, 2005). In regard to performance management, Jawahar (2001)

showed that self-monitoring moderates the relationship between attitudes and rating accuracy. Evidence suggests that HSMs are more variable and less accurate in ratings while LSMs are perceived as more consistent and accurate in ratings. Jawahar and Mattson (2005) have also demonstrated the moderating role of self-monitoring in decision makers' willingness to hire simulated job applicants. Evidence from their study suggests that HSM decision makers use irrelevant external information (e.g. sex-type of the job) to make demographically based (sex or attractiveness) decisions on willingness to hire. In contrast, LSM decision makers are not likely to consider the sex-type of the job or demographic variables of the applicant in making decisions. These studies support the cross-situationally consistent and variable patterns of behavior for LSMs and HSMs, respectively, while alluding to the legal implications of inaccurate or biased decision-making in human resource management practices.

The final contribution is in predicting meaningful relationships in the area of leadership/management. Bedeian and Day (2004), while debating self-monitoring and leadership, discussed two seemingly contradictory findings:

- (1) HSMs engage in contextual performance more than LSMs (Mehra *et al.*, 2001); and
- (2) LSMs engage in contextual performance more than HSMs (Caligiuri and Day, 2000).

The present study attempts to reconcile the debate by advancing a moderator hypothesis. We argue that different results are found across different organizational roles as a function of self-monitoring.

Self-monitoring, leadership, and organizational position

Research suggests that self-monitoring behavior is related to leadership (Dobbins *et al.*, 1990; Jung and Sosik, 2006; Zaccaro *et al.*, 1991). Zaccaro *et al.* (1991) found that across different tasks involving the use of a salient leader trait, HSMs were perceived as leaders more often than LSMs. Similarly, Dobbins *et al.* (1990) showed that in tasks requiring members to reach a consensus, HSMs emerged more often as leaders than LSMs. Research by Jung and Sosik (2006) discovered that managers rated as charismatic tended to be HSMs. Although evidence of the exceptional performance of HSM leaders and managers is strong, less is known about performance of HSMs and LSMs across positions with different role expectations (Day *et al.*, 2002).

There is little research examining the impact of organizational position and self-monitoring on performance. Mehra *et al.* (2001) investigated self-monitoring and position within an informal social network in predicting work behaviors. There was, however, no prediction about organizational position and its interaction with self-monitoring in predicting job performance. Note that organizational position (rank) was a control variable in their study and was positively related to contextual performance. For the current study, organizational position is operationalized by being in management or non-management. Hence, a sound rationale for self-monitoring moderating the relationship between organizational position and performance becomes clear.

Management positions require more interpersonal interaction (Stone-Romero *et al.*, 2009), behavioral flexibility, (Hooijberg and Schneider, 2001), communication (Sypher and Sypher, 1982), attention to external demands (Snyder, 1974) and interaction with diverse organizational members (Cadwell and O'Reilly, 1982). HSMs are well suited to

perform these activities due to their external motivational tendencies. HSMs should be particularly sensitive and behaviorally reactive to the aforementioned role expectations (Katz and Kahn, 1978).

Because LSMs are cross-situationally consistent (Gangestad and Snyder, 2000), external role expectations of organizational positions should not have an impact on their typical performance. This is in line with the notion that LSMs are internally motivated by attitudes, values, and beliefs (Snyder, 1974). Because of the internal motivational orientation, LSM should be insensitive and behaviorally invariant to changes in role expectations. Before advancing hypotheses related to individual effort, a brief description of the construct is warranted.

Perceived effort

Borman and Motowidlo (1993, 1997) developed a taxonomy of performance with two dimensions: task and contextual performance. Task performance is the set of non-discretionary, job-related activities involving the use of knowledge, skills, and abilities to produce outcomes contributing to the organizational core. Contextual performance is a set of discretionary behaviors including engaging in extra effort (Brief and Motowidlo, 1986; Katz and Kahn, 1978), being persistent, and providing assistance to others (Borman and Motowidlo, 1997).

Van Scotter and Motowidlo (1996) refined contextual performance to include two facets: interpersonal facilitation and job dedication. Interpersonal facilitation includes considerate, cooperative, and helpful behaviors to assist organizational members. Job dedication involves “self-disciplined, motivated acts such as working hard, taking initiative, and following rules to support organizational objectives” (Van Scotter and Motowidlo, 1996, p. 525). Extra effort is subsumed under the contextual performance facet of job dedication. Although aspects of contextual performance do not contribute directly to the organizational core, they are purportedly discretionary behaviors that facilitate task performance. Some, however, disagree.

Stone-Romero *et al.* (2009) contend that some contextual performance behaviors operationalized by the Contextual Performance Scale (CPS, Van Scotter *et al.*, 2000) are confounded with task performance. They showed that the majority of items from the CPS are related to non-discretionary tasks across a variety of jobs. Stone-Romero *et al.* (2009) do not advise using the CPS because it measures required job behaviors. They also recommend that operational definitions of contextual performance measure behaviors that go above and beyond the requirements of the job. In their study, an item on the CPS that is clearly related to effort includes “working harder than necessary.” In Table 4 of Stone-Romero *et al.* (2009), the aforementioned item was not associated with any non-discretionary tasks across jobs.

Evidence suggests that working hard or engaging in extra effort is a discretionary behavior that generalizes across most jobs (Brief and Motowidlo, 1986; Katz and Kahn, 1978). This makes it a suitable construct for investigation across organizational positions in this study. Thus, we operationalize performance as effort perceived by others. In light of the aforementioned review of person and organizational variables, we advance the following hypotheses:

- H1.* Organizational position relates to perceived effort such that persons in management are recognized as giving more effort than persons in non-management.

Management positions in traditional organizations provide greater levels of exposure to information and access to various organizational members (Mehra *et al.*, 2001). There are also frequent opportunities for others to observe the manager's performance. Thus, persons in managerial roles may be perceived as giving more effort due to exposure to different organizational members.

H2. Self-monitoring moderates the relationship between organizational position and perceived effort.

HSMs show cross-situational variability in behavior due to their external motivational orientation (Snyder, 1974; Snyder and Monson, 1975). In management, where interpersonal role expectations are highly salient (Stone-Romero *et al.*, 2009), HSMs will be motivated by these external demands to meet member expectations and will give extra effort. In non-management, where the role expectations are not as strong, HSMs will have lower motivation to engage in extra effort as compared to being in management. Because external cues are the motivating potential for HSMs, we expect effort exerted in non-management positions to be substantially lower than HSMs in management. In regard to LSMs, a different relationship is expected.

LSMs are cross-situationally consistent in their behaviors as a consequence of being internally motivated (Snyder, 1987). Accordingly, there is less focus on interpersonal demands, social/organizational norms, and role expectations across positions. Thus, the likelihood that LSMs are rated by others as giving extra effort is minimized by motivational and behavioral considerations:

- external demands by group members that are unmet; and
- an inability to engage in the most appropriate behaviors that vary according to diverse role prescriptions (Katz and Kahn, 1978).

Therefore, we expect no difference in effort between LSMs in management and non-management positions.

Method

Participants

One hundred and thirty-three (133) students enrolled in different sections of an organizational behavior course participated as part of their course grade. There were 76 males and 57 females. The majority of the sample was Caucasian (109) with the next highest ethnic group representation being Hispanic (ten). The average age was 22.49 years with a standard deviation of 4.39 years.

Procedures

Students were randomly assigned to "mini-organizations" with 12-15 members holding different management (six) and non-management (six to nine) roles. There were three tasks to be completed by the end of 14-weeks: a writing project, a multimedia presentation, and a CEO final presentation. The writing project required each organization to complete a ten to 15 page paper on an organizational psychology topic. The multimedia project required a 20-30 minute presentation on a topic discussed during lectures (e.g. motivation). The topics covered in the presentation were independent of the writing assignment. The CEO final presentation was developed by the CEO project team but required a 20-30 minute presentation by the CEO about organizational processes

experienced during the course of the 14 weeks. Topics included teamwork, conflict, satisfaction, and organizational communication. Once the project was completed, participants rated the effort of other members and completed the Self-monitoring Scale.

Measures

Self-monitoring. This construct was operationalized using LCA in line with the conceptual definition of self-monitoring as a type or class variable (Gangestad and Snyder, 2000). As reported in Von Davier and Rost (1997), seven items were used from the Self-Monitoring Scale (Gangestad and Snyder, 1985). Class proportions and conditional item response probabilities from Forde and Bryant (2010) were used (see Table I). These estimates were comparable to estimates in Von Davier and Rost (1997).

Based on their response patterns, persons were classified into one of three categories:

- (1) LSM Class;
- (2) HSM Class I (HSM I); and
- (3) HSM Class II (HSM II).

The three-class solution was defined as having one internally motivated LSM and two externally motivated HSM classes. The LSM classification is consistent with the original definition by Snyder (1974). The primary distinction between the two HSM classes is that one group has superb skill in the control of expressive behavior or acting (Forde and Bryant, 2010; Von Davier and Rost, 1997). This class of self-monitors (HSM II) is conceptually similar to the original definition of the HSM (Snyder, 1987). These individuals are behaviorally flexible and endorse items such as “I would probably make a good actor” and “I have considered being an entertainer.” Although motivated by external cues, the other latent HSM class (HSM I) is not adept in controlling expressive behavior.

Two weighted effects-coded variables representing the three classes were created to evaluate study hypotheses (West *et al.*, 1996). To assess convergent validity of

Manifest variables		Class		
		LSM	HSM I	HSM II
1. I find it hard to imitate the behavior of other people	True	0.37	0.30	0.15
	False	0.63	0.70	0.85
2. I can make impromptu speeches even on topics about which I have almost no information	True	0.29	0.57	0.77
	False	0.71	0.43	0.23
3. I guess I put on a show to impress or entertain people	True	0.15	0.31	0.69
	False	0.85	0.69	0.31
4. I would probably make a good actor	True	0.18	0.26	0.91
	False	0.82	0.74	0.09
5. In a group of people, I am rarely the center of attention	True	0.76	0.15	0.21
	False	0.24	0.85	0.79
6. I have considered being an entertainer	True	0.11	0.04	0.79
	False	0.89	0.96	0.21
7. At a party, I let others keep the jokes and stories going	True	0.78	0.01	0.45
	False	0.22	0.99	0.55
Latent class probability		0.47	0.20	0.33

Table I.
Conditional item probabilities and latent class proportions

self-monitoring classifications, two regression analyses were performed. In Gangestad and Snyder (1985), two measures of self-monitoring were provided: the 18-item scale, which is the most commonly used, and an 8-item scales for taxometric or class analyses (Meehl, 1979). Summed item scores from both measures were regressed on the latent class variable. The multiple correlation coefficients for the 18- and 8-item scales were 0.70 and 0.77, respectively, indicating relatively strong convergent validity.

Organizational position. There were two types of positions in each organization: management and non-management. Non-management positions included Associate Writing Project Member, Associate Multimedia Presentation Member, and Associate CEO Presentation Member. After random assignment to an organization, participants interested in non-management positions were required to join only one of three project teams where they remained for 14 weeks. There were two to three members holding each of the associate positions. Role expectations (Katz and Kahn, 1978) were not printed in the course syllabus or verbally communicated for these roles. Duties and responsibilities were determined at the discretion of management once organizations were formed.

Management positions included Chief Executive Officer (CEO), Vice President of Operations (VPO), Vice President of Human Resources (VPHR), Project Manager of Multimedia Presentation, Project Manager of CEO Presentation, and Project Manager of Writing Project. To increase the salience of being in management, role expectations (Katz and Kahn, 1978) were made known to all organizational members at the beginning of the semester. This information was printed in the course syllabus and verbally communicated to participants. Duties and responsibilities were summarized below.

The CEO was responsible for all aspects of the organization; s/he took responsibility for all completed products. The CEO communicated a vision of how the organization would operate. The VPO was responsible for executing the CEO's vision and monitoring operations to accomplish objectives. This included monitoring project completion timelines, following up with project managers on assigned tasks, and assisting the CEO. The VPHR was responsible for personnel-related issues, e.g. conflict resolution and taking attendance. To the extent that there were interpersonal organizational problems, the VPHR served as the point of contact to resolve those issues prior to escalating to the course instructor. Project managers supervised two-to-three associates in their respective teams to complete assigned tasks. The manner in which associates accomplished tasks was decided by management. Project team members were responsible for executing tasks based on their chosen area of expertise (e.g. writing papers, presentation preparation, speech giving, or coaching).

Members interacted at least two times a week for 30 minutes during each class period and once per week outside of class. Communication patterns were determined by each organization. Some organizations developed a communication system on the Blackboard course management website, while others communicated by meetings, phone, and email outside of class. Each person could hold only one management or non-management position. Organizational position was treated as a situational variable with two levels and was represented in the regression as a weighted effects-coded variable (West *et al.*, 1996).

Perceived effort. This variable was operationalized as the individual effort perceived by organizational members to accomplish assigned tasks. At the end of 14 weeks, each participant identified one person who demonstrated the greatest effort in the

organization. Participants also identified one person who gave the least effort. Kane and Lawler (1978) recommended this peer nomination method over peer ratings and peer ranking based on its validity and lack of bias. Its superiority over peer ranking and rating assessment methods has been documented elsewhere, see Kane and Lawler (1978).

Effort was maintained as a measure of performance obtained from other organizational members. Nominations did not count if raters identified themselves as persons giving the greatest or least effort. For each greatest effort nomination, a value of one (1) was assigned to the respective member. For every least effort nomination, a value of negative one (-1) was assigned to the organizational member. These values were combined to produce a perceived effort score in line with previous guidance (Kane and Lawler, 1978).

Extreme outliers were identified in a preliminary regression analysis by standardized residuals greater than the absolute value of two and a Cook's distance greater than 0.31 ($4/N-k-1$). These extreme scores corresponded to members giving a lot of nominations to one person who gave either the greatest effort or the least amount of effort. To reduce the extreme outliers and retain all participant data, values were censored. A value of one (1) was assigned if a participant was identified as having a net value of one or more nominations of greatest effort. A value of negative one (-1) was assigned if the participant had one or more net nominations of least effort. A value of zero (0) was assigned if the participant had a sum of zero nominations or no nominations.

Analysis

Moderated multiple regression was used to evaluate hypotheses. Two self-monitoring effects codes and one organizational position effects code were used to create the interaction. The two-way interaction of self-monitoring and organizational position was represented by two product terms: organizational position multiplied by each of the two self-monitoring effects codes. Because the two-way interaction was represented by two product terms, they were evaluated as a set to test the moderator hypothesis (West *et al.*, 1996). The Type I error rate was 0.05.

Results

Preliminary analyses

Correlations are displayed in Table II. Perceived effort was correlated with position, $r = 0.37$, $p < 0.01$. As organizational position increased from non-management to management, there was an increase in persons perceived as giving the greatest effort. The two self-monitoring effects codes for the three classes showed no relation to effort (all $ps > 0.05$).

Variables	1	2	3	4
1. Perceived effort	-			
2. Organizational position	0.37*	-		
SM EC1 (LSM vs HSM I)	0.04	0.06	-	
SM EC2 (LSM vs HSM II)	0.13	0.05	0.40*	-

Notes: $n = 133$; * $p < 0.01$; Self-monitoring = SM; Effects code = EC; the self-monitoring latent class variable is represented as two effects-coded variables

Table II. Means, standard deviations, and correlations of study variables

Because some participants self-selected into non-management and organizational members selected others to be in management, an analysis was done to determine if self-monitoring was related to organizational position. See Table III for cross tabulations. Results of the chi-squared analysis indicated that self-monitoring was not related to position, $\chi^2(2) = 0.62$, $p = ns$. Hence, there was no self-selection bias into non-management or biased selection process into management by organizational members as a function of self-monitoring.

After transforming the dependent variable to reduce the number of extreme outliers, two cases remained as outliers according to Cook's distance and standardized residuals. When the two cases were removed, the model was still significant, $F(5, 127) = 7.85$, $p < 0.001$, explaining 23.9 percent of the variance. Notwithstanding a significant improvement in variance explained, the interpretation of results when deleting the two outliers did not differ from results in the primary analysis. Therefore, all data were retained for the primary analysis. A comparison was also made to analyses that operationalized self-monitoring as a dimension. Results indicated that relative to the LCA results, less variance was explained in perceived effort (17.7 percent vs 19.7 percent) when self-monitoring was operationalized as a continuous variable, $F(3, 129) = 9.23$, $p < 0.001$. In other research, class variables have also explained more variance than dimensional variables when operational definitions of type variables matched conceptual definitions (see Strube, 1989 for Type A personality).

Primary analysis

H1 stated that organizational position relates to perceived effort such that persons holding management positions are recognized as giving more effort than persons in non-management positions. The multiple regression summary predicting perceived effort is shown in Table IV. The overall model was significant, $F(5, 127) = 6.22$, $p < 0.001$, explaining 19.7 percent of the variance in perceived effort.

In support of *H1*, organizational position was a significant predictor of perceived effort ($b = 0.23$, $t(127) = 4.48$, $p < 0.01$). Standardized predicted values were estimated. Perceived effort was significantly higher for managers ($M = 1.0$) as compared to non-managers ($M = -0.68$). However, the relationship between organizational position and perceptions of individual effort was considered to be a conditional relationship (West *et al.*, 1996). It should be noted that self-monitoring was not related to effort, as the two self-monitoring effects-coded variables were not significant (all $ps = ns$).

H2 stated that self-monitoring moderates the relationship between organizational position and perceived effort such that HSM managers are seen as giving more effort as compared to HSM non-managers; LSMs are not expected to differ. The interaction

	Low self-monitor	Self-monitoring High self-monitor I	High self-monitor II
<i>Organizational position</i>			
Management	21	13	20
Non-Management	36	16	27

Notes: $\chi^2(2) = 0.62$; $p = ns$

Table III.
Cross tabulations of
self-monitoring and
organizational position

Table IV.
Moderated multiple regression analysis predicting perceived effort

Predictor Variables	<i>b</i>	SE <i>b</i>	<i>r</i>	<i>R</i> ²
Constant	0.03	0.06	0.55	0.197**
OP (Management vs non-management)	0.23	0.05	4.48**	
SM EC1 (LSM vs HSM I)	-0.02	0.06	-0.28	
SM EC2 (LSM vs HSM II)	0.10	0.07	1.42	
OP × SM EC1	0.04	0.05	0.90	
OP × SM EC2	0.12	0.06	2.12*	

Notes: $F(5, 127) = 6.22; p < 0.01$; Organizational position (OP) is a weighted, effects-coded variable; Self-monitoring (SM_{EC}) is represented by two weighted, effects-coded variables; * $p < 0.05$ (two-tailed); ** $p < 0.01$ (two-tailed); $n = 133$

was tested by the set of two interaction terms for self-monitoring and organizational position (West *et al.*, 1996). Although only one of the terms for the person-situation interaction was significant ($b = 0.12, t(127) = 2.12, p < 0.05$), collectively, the set of terms representing the interaction was significant, $F(2, 127) = 3.93, p < 0.05$. Results were the same when analyzing the data using ANOVA, see Figure 1. The post hoc method recommended in West *et al.* (1996) for testing cell mean differences in regression interactions was used with an α per comparison of 0.017 (0.05/3).

Organizational members perceived HSM II managers as giving more effort than HSM II non-managers (1.90 vs -0.78, $p < 0.001$). HSM I managers were perceived as

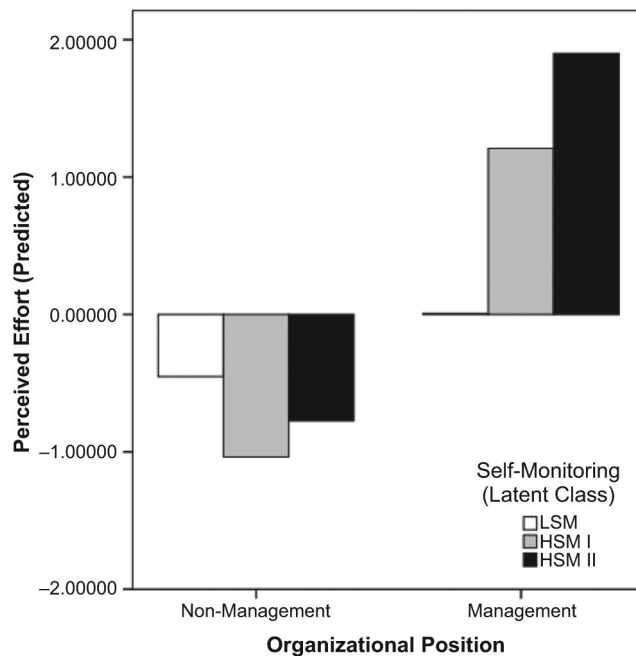


Figure 1.
Perceived effort as a function of self-monitoring and organizational position

giving more effort than HSM I non-managers (1.21 vs -1.04 , $p < 0.01$). LSM managers, however, did not differ significantly from LSM non-managers (0.01 vs -0.45 , $p = ns$). In line with the cross-situational variability of HSMs, the two types of HSMs were perceived as giving both the greatest amount of effort (HSM II, $M = 1.90$) and the least amount of effort (HSM I, $M = -1.04$) across work situations.

Discussion

The purpose of the current research was to investigate self-monitoring as a moderator of the relationship between organizational position and perceptions of individual effort. Because HSMs and LSMs differ in motivational orientations and patterns of behaviors, it was reasonable to suspect different performance outcomes as a function of organizational position. Results suggest that self-monitoring does moderate the effect of position on perceived effort. Organizational members perceived HSMs as giving different amounts of effort across work roles. LSMs, however, were perceived as giving the same amount of effort across positions. These findings highlight the moderating role of self-monitoring in predicting performance in terms of cross-situational consistency and cross-situational variability in behavior.

Organizational members saw HSM managers as giving more effort than HSM non-managers. However, there was no difference in perceived effort of LSMs across management and non-management roles. It is reasonable to assume that HSM managers were able to leverage their positions to create favorable impressions of themselves and meet external expectations of organizational members by exhibiting extra effort (Bedeian and Day, 2004). HSM non-managers, however, were not as motivated to exhibit effort. This is perhaps due to having different external role expectations (Katz and Kahn, 1978). In contrast, LSMs, being insensitive to external role expectations, were perceived as giving similar amounts of efforts across positions. These results are in line with theory and empirical research on self-monitoring (Snyder, 1987).

Bedeian argued that HSMs would only engage in contextual behaviors to the extent that doing such will assist in cultivating a positive impression in meeting expectations (Bedeian and Day, 2004). This impression-management motive is also consistent with the theory of self-monitoring (Snyder, 1987, Gangestad and Snyder, 2000). In the present study, there were fewer external demands placed on persons in non-management relative to being in highly interpersonal management roles. Thus, HSMs were not motivated to engage in extra effort to accomplish tasks in non-management functions.

LSM managers did not differ from LSM non-managers in perceived effort. This finding is expected given the cross-situational consistency in behavior for the LSM (Gangestad and Snyder, 2000). Despite the strong external role expectations in management or the lack thereof in non-management, LSMs' completion of tasks was driven by their own internal dispositions. Questions from researchers and practitioners may center on increasing performance of the LSM. It is conceivable to manipulate role expectations to be consistent with the values and beliefs of the LSM employees to increase performance. As a consequence, is it possible to see LSMs consistently outperform HSMs in organizational contexts? This question can only be addressed by future research.

The role expectations in management were communicated verbally and in print by an important role sender (Katz and Kahn, 1978). In contrast, the role expectations for non-management positions were not printed or verbally communicated by the role

sender prior to starting the 14-week project: organizational management created duties and responsibilities for non-management once organizations were formed. This was done to investigate the extent to which self-monitoring propensities would be reactive to such manipulations and evoke predictable behaviors from HSMs and LSMs. Evidence suggests that cross-situationally consistent and cross-situationally variable patterns of behavior are predictable by manipulating work role expectations.

Strengths and limitations

One strength of the current investigation is that peer nominations of effort were obtained from difference sources (Kane and Lawler, 1978). Participants recognized those who exerted substantial amounts of effort in accomplishing tasks. They also identified others within the organization who gave the least amount of effort. Although considered initially, self-ratings were ruled out as a data source to ensure that valid inferences could be made. Researchers have noted how self-ratings can lead to inflated scores (Cook and Campbell, 1979), which may attenuate relations with external variables (Kane and Lawler, 1978). In contrast, common method bias is known to increase relationships among variables due to the same person responding to both criterion and predictor measures (Podsakoff and Organ, 1986). Therefore, relations are an artifact of the data collection method and not solely attributable to the operationalized constructs. By not using self-ratings, this study eliminates these threats to validity.

One limitation of this study relates to external validity. Because business students participated in simulated organizations for 14 weeks instead of employees working in management and non-management roles, care must be taken in generalizing findings to other settings. Although this simulation is far removed from actual work organizations, it is conceivable that results may extend to small project teams of 12-15 members who are assembled to complete intra- or inter-organizational tasks. Practitioners should also consider manipulating role expectations in project teams to optimize performance for HSMs. From this investigation and other research (Bedeian and Day, 2004; Jung and Sosik, 2006; Zaccaro *et al.*, 1991), the boundary condition for optimizing performance for HSMs is clear. However, there should be a concerted effort to understand the condition(s) for optimizing performance of LSMs, which will be based in comprehending sources of internal motivation.

Another limitation is the manner in which effort was operationalized. This study measured perceptions of effort instead of actual effort. Generalizing the perception to actual effort seems reasonable, as other studies have demonstrated a direct relationship between perceived and actual behavior (Snyder, 1987; Gangestad and Snyder, 2000). Future research would need to qualify this claim. Because the construct of effort is narrowly defined, extending it to job dedication or contextual performance as currently operationalized may not be a wise choice considering the current ambiguity of conceptual and operational definitions of these broader constructs. Accordingly, more research is needed that investigates aspects of contextual performance that are not confounded with task performance (Stone-Romero *et al.*, 2009).

General conclusion

The main conclusion of this study is that self-monitoring is a very useful moderator in explaining effort in terms of motivational orientation (internal vs external) and patterns of behaviors (consistent vs variable). This study also supports the class

variable supposition of self-monitoring. This was done by properly aligning self-monitoring's operational and conceptual definitions as a class variable using LCA and then demonstrating a theoretically meaningful relationship with an external criterion. Moreover, the results reconcile seemingly contradictory findings in the literature pertaining to self-monitoring, leadership/management, and individual performance (Bedeian and Day, 2004). Performance of HSMs differs considerably as a function of external role expectations, whereas LSMs' performance is consistent across situations. This leads to different results in different situations.

From the perspective of research on self-monitoring, management, and leadership, the condition in which HSMs outperform LSMs is clear considering the evidence in this and other investigations (e.g. Cadwell and O'Reilly, 1982; Day *et al.*, 2002; Zaccaro *et al.*, 1991). Our study suggests that performance of HSMs in organizations depends partly on the strong external role expectations of the job in which they work. In some contexts, LSMs, due to their ability to work in ambiguous situations (Snyder, 1987), may outperform HSMs (e.g. Caligiuri and Day, 2000). Even though the HSM and LSM comparison was not central to our study, we observed the aforementioned pattern in the non-management condition.

An important implication for society is that researchers and practitioners can leverage these findings to improve employment outcomes while also optimizing organizational performance. Understanding how divergent motivational orientations influence people who are consistent or variable in behavior can have great individual and organizational payoffs. Quality selection decisions can be made by increasing the accuracy of ratings and fairness of selection decisions (Jawahar, 2001), which can improve the quality of life of some applicants and employees. Workers can be assigned management and non-management roles within project teams depending on functional capabilities and individual differences in motivational orientations. Moreover, HR activities can be conducted to determine the extent to which selection tools (e.g. personality variables) exhibit differential prediction of work criteria. The theory of self-monitoring suggests that trait-based measures may have validity in predicting performance only for those who are consistent in their behavior and internally motivated, while such trait-based measures will have no validity in predicting performance for those who are highly variable in their behavior and externally motivated.

The goal of the current research was to investigate the moderating role of self-monitoring. As a result, there is a better understanding of the extent to which divergent motivational orientations lead to predictable patterns of behavior for cross-situationally consistent and cross-situationally variable individuals. We hope that there is now a greater appreciation for understanding workplace behaviors as a function of different types of people and the situations in which they work.

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