

Can Chameleons Lead Change?

The Effect of Resistance to Change on High Self-Monitoring Leaders' Strength of Purpose

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Submitted in partial fulfillment of the
requirements for the degree of
Doctor of Philosophy
under the Executive Committee
of the Graduate School of Arts and Sciences

COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY

2011

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ABSTRACT

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The evidence linking *self-monitoring* (Snyder, 1974) and leadership suggests that it is better to be high than low in self-monitoring regarding leader effectiveness (Day et al., 2002); however, social responsiveness could be a double-edged sword when it comes to leading organization change. It was hypothesized that high self-monitoring (HSM) leaders would launch change in a participative manner and create positive conditions for change, but they would lack strength of purpose for leading the effort in the face of resistance. *Grit* (Duckworth, Peterson, Matthews & Kelly, 2007), an individual characteristic introduced recently by positive psychologists, is potentially a positive characteristic of change leaders. It was also predicted that grit would be a positive predictor of leader strength of purpose for leading change. Drawing on these literatures, a theoretical model was developed and tested to examine the interaction effect of these two characteristics and a change leader's situation (resistance or support) on strength of purpose (commitment to change goals and intentions to stay with the organization). Two surveys, one scenario-based and one experience-based, were administered to senior leaders (mean age = 43) from across the globe representing a wide range of industries and job functions. The results provided some support that self-monitoring interacted with the leader situation to predict leader approach to change in the scenario survey group, but not in the experience survey group. The findings also demonstrated support for self-monitoring theory in that cultural context moderated the relationship between self-monitoring and leader approach to change, such that HSMs' approach varied significantly depending on whether they were leading change inside or outside

their own country of origin (i.e., nationality) whereas LSMs did not vary their approach across these different contexts. The prediction that grit would predict leader strength of purpose was unsupported. It was also found that cultural context moderated the relationship between leader situation and intentions to stay with the organization such that, in conditions of less support (i.e., resistance) from one's established in-group (nationality or societal culture match between the leader and change recipients), leaders expressed higher intentions to leave than when unsupported in out-group conditions. These results and the implications for future research and practice are discussed.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Chapter I: Introduction	1
Chapter II: Review of Existing Literature	9
Overview of Chapter	9
Introduction of the Theoretical Model	9
Creating the Conditions for Successful Change	11
Leader Approach to Launching Change	12
Leader Situation	17
Individual and Group Resistance	17
Leader Strength of Purpose	19
Self-Monitoring Orientation	22
Self-Monitoring Theory	23
Self-Monitoring and Leader Approach	24
Self-Monitoring and Strength of Purpose	27
Grit Personality	32
Grit and Strength of Purpose	33
Summary of Hypotheses and Predicted Results	37
Chapter III: Methodology	39
Overview of Chapter	39
Participants and Procedure	39
Measures	43
Analysis	51

Chapter IV: Results	55
Overview of Chapter	55
Descriptive Statistics and Correlation Analysis	55
Testing Hypothesis 1	61
Testing Hypothesis 2	64
Testing Hypothesis 3a	68
Testing Hypothesis 3b	72
Testing Hypothesis 3c	72
Additional Analyses	76
Chapter V: Discussion	85
Overview of Chapter	85
Interpretation of Key Findings	87
Launching Change Efforts: Leader Approach Findings	87
Sticking with Difficult Change Efforts: Leader Strength of Purpose	95
Implications for Research and Practice	99
Limitations of Research	103
Conclusions	113
References	115
Appendices	123
Appendix A: Invitation to Participate in Research	123
Appendix B: Informed Consent	124
Appendix C: Scenario-Based Survey	127
Appendix D: Experience-Based Survey	137

LIST OF FIGURES

FIGURE	DESCRIPTION	PAGE
Figure 1	Lewin's (1947, 1951) change process	4
Figure 2	Proposed theoretical model for this research	11
Figure 3	Tannenbaum & Schmidt's (1958) continuum of leadership behavior	12
Figure 4	Interaction effect of self-monitoring and nationality match on leader approach	81
Figure 5	Interaction effect of leader situation and societal cluster match on leader strength of purpose	84

LIST OF TABLES

TABLE	DESCRIPTION	PAGE
Table 1	Industry, job function and nationality of sample population (all respondents)	42
Table 2	Standardized loadings for principle components analysis for <i>Grit</i>	44
Table 3	Standardized loadings for principle components analysis for <i>Strength of Purpose</i>	48
Table 4	List of variables that significantly predicted one or more of the outcome variables	52
Table 5	Data analysis plan by hypothesis	53
Table 6	Age, gender, education and job level of respondents by survey group	56
Table 7	Means, standard deviations and correlations for IV, DV, and control variables (scenario survey)	58
Table 8	Means, standard deviations and correlations for IV, DV and control variables (experience survey)	60
Table 9	Means, standard deviations and range for leader approach by survey group	61
Table 10	The effect of self-monitoring on leader approach by survey group	63
Table 11	Means, standard deviations, and range for leader situation by survey group	64
Table 12	Paired samples t-Tests for strength of purpose variables (scenario survey)	65
Table 13	The effect of leader situation on strength of purpose (experience survey)	67
Table 14	The effect of leader situation and self-monitoring on strength of purpose (experience survey)	70
Table 15	The effect of leader situation and grit on strength of purpose (experience survey)	74
Table 16	List of cross-cultural demographic variables	78
Table 17	Leader approach scores for each cultural group (experience survey)	79

Table 18	The interaction effect of nationality match and self-monitoring on leader approach (experience survey)	81
Table 19	Strength of purpose scores for each cultural group (experience survey)	82
Table 20	The effect of nationality match on leader affective commitment to change (experience survey)	83
Table 21	The interaction effect of societal cluster match and leader situation on leader intentions to stay (experience survey)	84

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

Although the research and writing of this dissertation has occurred over the past eighteen months, the end product is the result of thirty-nine years of experience and education. This is a great opportunity to express my respect and gratitude to all who have enabled and encouraged me along the way.

First and foremost, to my wife and best friend Tina, for her encouragement, coaching, and love throughout the past fifteen years and especially during the arduous dissertation process. You always champion me and my adventures. Your partnership means more to me than words can describe, and my respect for you is beyond measure.

To my parents Bob and Susie, who instilled within me a deep value and thirst for learning. The countless hours of supervision, summer workbooks, and your continuous pursuit of learning inspired me to be the lifelong learner that I am today.

To my advisor and sponsor, Dr. W. Warner Burke, for his mentorship and for transferring to me the “license to learn.” Thank you for taking me under your wing and teaching me leadership, not only through rigorous study but also through your personal example.

To my committee chair and mentor Dr. Debra Noumair, for her guidance and support during this dissertation process and throughout the past five years. Thank you for holding the boundaries and prioritizing the task. Your influence on my orientation as a coach and team developer has been profound and I cannot thank you enough.

To my committee member and mentor Dr. L. Lee Knefelkamp, for her inspiration, love, and self-sacrifice. The three years we spent together learning deeply about human development

stretched my thinking and enabled my personal growth perhaps beyond anything else. You knew what I needed in order to grow and you gave it to me; for that I am truly indebted to you.

To my committee members Joel Brockner and Michael Lau, for role modeling to me the values of professional scholarship and personal development. I thank you both for contributing your time and expertise to this study.

To my colleagues and friends, for all of your encouragement and support throughout this process. My many comrades at Columbia, and especially Naira Musallam, Kate Roloff, Adam Mitchinson, and Frank Golom, as well as my colleagues at YSC, Ltd., particularly Andy Houghton and Neil Jacobs, helped me to remain focused while simultaneously granting me the personal space and freedom to pursue this dream. Although each person enabled me in different ways, all listened patiently as I thought out loud and tested my radical ideas. Thank you for grounding me as I wore these multiple hats.

Finally, to my many teachers, mentors, and students who came before and who are sure to follow. I hope to give back to others as much as has been given to me.

**To Tess:
May your trials give you the
confidence, understanding, and humility
to realize your highest potential**

CHAPTER I: INTRODUCTION

Can Chameleons Lead Change?

The Effect of Resistance to Change on High Self-Monitoring Leaders' Strength of Purpose

Organizations continue to learn that success, regardless of the scope and scale of it, does not protect them from subsequent failure. Quite the opposite, success can limit thriving companies that choose to stick with what has worked for them in the past instead of adapting to their changing external environment (Audia, Locke, & Smith, 2000; Gagliardi, 1986). To compete and win in today's unpredictable global business context, companies must develop systems and structures that encourage change (Lawler & Worley, 2006). Creating these nimble organizations requires a transition for many, as organization design has traditionally promoted efficiency through stability, predictability, and control. Such transformations require strong leadership, and the evidence suggests that organizations are lacking in this essential capacity.

Organization change research shows that efforts to fundamentally change organizations continue to fail more than they succeed, around 70% of the time, in part because leaders do not create a sense of urgency and they lack the perseverance to stick with the change goals over time (Burke, 2011; Collins, 2001; Kotter, 2007). There is convergent support for this claim, as leadership scholars have also found that leaders fail as much as they succeed, i.e., 50% of the time on average (Hogan, Curphy & Hogan, 1994; Hogan and Kaiser, 2005; Kaiser, Hogan & Craig, 2008). Hollenbeck (2009) argues that this is a systemic judgment problem that can be addressed with more reliable selection methods. Implicitly, reliable methods targeted at the wrong attributes only compounds the problem. Executive selection and development within organizations tends to reward technical competence and skill; instead, the focus should be on interpersonal skills, because many of the challenges associated with leading change stem from the complex social-psychological processes of organizations and culture.

The central argument of this study is that self-monitoring (Snyder, 1974), a personality trait that is associated with interpersonal skill and leadership (Day, Schleicher, Unckless, & Hiller, 2002), has been universally accepted as a positive leadership attribute, when in fact it could be contributing to these high failure rates. There are many positive aspects of the trait that have enabled high self-monitoring leaders to rise to the highest ranks in organizations, but there are also boundaries to high self-monitoring that must be understood (Bedeian & Day, 2004; Day et al, 2002). A limitation of the literature linking self-monitoring and leadership is that studies have focused primarily on its association with leadership emergence and effectiveness, and not whether self-monitoring actually predicts certain key change leader behaviors such as change leadership style and sticking with change in the face of resistance. Although there are undoubtedly many situations where high self-monitoring positively predicts leader behavior, it remains unclear whether the context of leading change is one of them.

There is, however, compelling evidence that leaders and leader characteristics do make a difference in these matters. Historical case studies and scientific research alike link certain leader characteristics such as political motives and skill (Burns, 1978), drive and leadership motivation (Kirkpatrick & Locke, 1991), humility and fierce resolve (Collins, 2001), and extraversion and conscientiousness (Judge, Bono, Ilies, & Gerhardt, 2002) with transformational change and better group performance. Regardless of the type of organization, individuals who can lead change competently are in demand more than ever before, necessitating a critical examination of characteristics like self-monitoring.

The Change Leader's Challenge: Culture

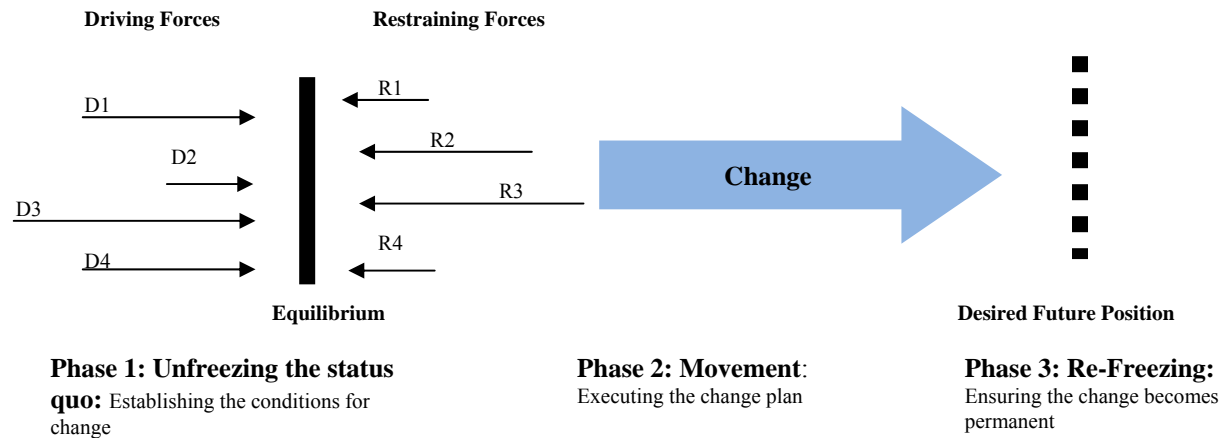
In the organization change literature, it has been shown that successful change leaders monitor the external environment, anticipate future challenges, establish a strategic direction, enthusiastically communicate this and rally others toward it, and remain steadfast in delivering

that destination, often in the face of staunch resistance and uncertainty (Burke, 2011). To affect significant organization change entails fundamentally modifying “the way we do things” (Burke, 2011) or creating new “rules of the game” (Gersick, 1991). These rules and attitudes are largely implicit and deeply embedded in the culture of the organization, increasing the complexity and level of difficulty for leaders who attempt to change them.

Organizational culture is defined as “a pattern of shared basic assumptions that the group learned as it solved its problems of external adaptation and internal integration, that has worked well enough to be considered valid and, therefore, to be taught to new members as the correct way to perceive, think, and feel in relation to those problems” (Schein, 1992, p.12). At its core, culture is the set of unique shared unconscious beliefs, thoughts, feelings, and values in an organization. Over time, the culture is embedded and dispersed throughout an organization through stories, myths shared experiences (Schein, 1992), and especially shared success (Gagliardi, 1986). This helps stabilize it in the absence of concerted efforts to change it. There are many models of planned change, but Lewin’s (1943; 1947; 1951) influential model merits brief explanation.

To begin with, equilibrium - the state of no change - is the status quo for most organizations. All social systems are in a constant state of change, but they tend toward a state of quasi-stationary equilibrium enabled by a large force field of driving and restraining forces (Lewin, 1947). Drawing on the principles of field theory, Lewin (1943) compared social systems to a flowing river. Rivers tend to flow in predictable patterns, and although there are boundaries that keep them moving in the same general direction (i.e., river banks, gravity), their water levels fluctuate up and down and they move faster or slower depending on the external environment. In this way, rivers are neither in a state of “no change” nor do they change fundamentally. For the latter to occur, one must radically disrupt a river's flow, forever altering or re-directing it.

Figure 1. Lewin's (1947; 1951) change process



Similarly, organization change requires disruption of the status quo, either by strengthening or adding driving forces or by diminishing or eliminating restraining forces, which, in turn, establishes a new equilibrium. Simply put, driving forces push for change or movement, while restraining forces oppose it (see Figure 1). Adding or increasing the strength of driving forces tends to produce an immediate counterforce to maintain equilibrium, resulting in a high tension level for the field (Lewin, 1947; Coch & French, 1948; Watson, 1967). This creates the condition for conflict, often presenting itself in some form of resistance to change. In general, the change process consists of *unfreezing* the existing equilibrium, then *moving* to a new desired level, and finally *re-freezing* at the new level to create stability and resist further change.

This framework remains helpful for planned organization change initiatives because it requires a leader to first diagnose what enables the organization's stability in the current state. Following this careful diagnosis, a plan or approach that can mitigate or transform these restraining forces into positive driving forces for change can then be formed. Such transformations often begin and end with the person in charge, leading some scholars to conclude "The single most visible factor that distinguishes major cultural changes that succeed from those that fail is competent leadership" (Kotter & Heskett, 1992, p.84). This puts a

premium on the characteristics that make up competent change leaders, which includes an ability to read and manage social systems and persevere through long, and often difficult, transitions.

Characteristics of Change Leaders

A critical factor in leader selection is the continued development and application of knowledge about personality traits associated with leadership effectiveness. Although the study of leader traits has been controversial, there is substantial support that effective leaders differ from non-leaders in key characteristics of personality (Kirkpatrick & Locke, 1991; Judge, Bono, Ilies & Gerhardt, 2002; Zaccaro, Kemp, & Bader, 2004). Two of these traits – self-monitoring and grit – are the focus of this research.

The Mixed Message of Self-Monitoring and Leadership Effectiveness

Numerous studies have identified *self-monitoring* as an important individual difference variable associated with leadership, but not all agree that the results should be accepted at face value. Self-monitoring theory (Snyder, 1974) contends that individuals differ in the extent to which they observe and control their expressive behavior and self-presentation in social situations. High self-monitors (HSMs) are particularly sensitive to social cues and interpersonal relationships and they frequently adapt their behavior to fit the needs of their audience, prompting Snyder and others to refer to them as “social chameleons.” In contrast, low self-monitors (LSMs) take cues from within and choose behavior congruent with their own values and beliefs. Instead of looking to their environment, LSMs orient on their principles for guidance.

There are strengths and limitations of each orientation, but the chameleon aspect of HSMs seems to spark the most controversy. A published debate between Bedeian and Day (2004) entitled “Can chameleons lead?” highlighted the issue:

Bedeian: LSMs, with their established values and beliefs, are actually better suited for a world of change because they are able to shepherd a central idea through continually evolving circumstances, while maintaining a clear and stable identity. This contrasts with HSMs, who possess an exceptional sensitivity to the actions and wishes of others and are driven by an insatiable need for the respect and affection of an amorphous and shifting jury of relevant others (p.708).

Day (in response): Whereas it is more likely the case for LSMs to be guided by the desire to build close social relationships of mutual trust, the number of such relationships is necessarily small. This limited number of close relationships may be insufficient for effective leadership. It may be the individual who fosters many weak ties that connect otherwise unconnected individuals who builds the type of social capital that is needed to for [*sic*] successful adaptation in turbulent environments (p.717).

A meta-analysis of the self-monitoring literature found evidence that high-self monitoring predicts who emerges as a leader in groups and who is perceived to be effective in leadership roles, leading the researchers to conclude that HSMs should be over-represented in upper-level management positions (Day et al., 2002). In the context of leading change, there is some support that HSMs would be particularly skilled at certain interpersonal tasks, such as boundary spanning, i.e., bridging between groups with different norms (Caldwell & O'Reilly, 1982). In this way, HSMs would be expected to consider highly the social impact of launching change. For example, they should be better at creating a sense of urgency, defined by Kotter (2007) as aggressive cooperation from at least 75% of a company's management. However, self-monitoring may hinder other aspects of leading change, such as voicing one's position openly (Premeaux & Bedeian, 2003) and persevering in difficult conditions (Jenkins, 1993).

Reviewing this literature highlights the mixed message about self-monitoring as a change leader trait. High self-monitoring seems to align with the social aspect of leading change, but organization change efforts require leaders to push boundaries and norms, not necessarily to "fit in." The evidence seems to suggest that the focus of HSMs is more on the latter than the former, which would imply that in the case of leading change organizations should select for low rather than high self-monitoring characteristics. This opposes conventional thinking and practice, so

more research is needed to determine the strength of this claim. A primary goal and key contribution of this study is determining which self-monitoring orientation (high or low) predicts change leadership behaviors such as creating the conditions for change and sticking with difficult change efforts.

The Potential of Grit as a Positive Characteristic of Change Leaders

Grit, defined as passion and perseverance for long-term goals (Duckworth, Peterson, Matthews & Kelly, 2007), is relatively new to the personality trait literature, and it could be an important characteristic of change leaders who stick with the change long-term. Although the research on grit is limited, early studies have found evidence that it predicts achievement in difficult situations (Duckworth et al., 2007; Duckworth & Quinn, 2009; Duckworth, Quinn, & Seligman, 2009). The condition of resistance to change is a particularly difficult situation for change leaders, and it has been proposed here that this situation is potentially even more difficult for HSMs. It can take months to create the urgency and conditions for change and years to see a change plan through to completion (Kotter, 2007). This requires a certain type of persistence and follow-through, characteristics of gritty people. "The gritty individual approaches achievement as a marathon; his or her advantage is stamina. Whereas disappointment or boredom signals to others that it is time to change trajectory and cut losses, the gritty individual stays the course (Duckworth, et al., 2007, p.1088). A second goal of this research is to understand whether grit predicts leader strength of purpose in the condition of resistance to change. As the first known change leadership study involving grit, this is a key contribution to the literature.

Improving Change Success Rates

Although much is known about the change process and what successful change leaders actually do, the high failure rates must be addressed. The evidence suggests that interpersonal competence and perseverance both seem to be critical change leader characteristics. This study examines self-monitoring and grit as characteristics of interpersonally competent and perseverant leaders, respectively. The mixed-messages found in the self-monitoring literature, coupled with the early development of grit as a characteristic of personality, demand this further exploration.

In addition to the contributions of this research that have already been mentioned, there are practical considerations for the field. The insights gleaned from this research provide practitioners with criteria and a process that will enable them to better select and develop individuals who can launch and stick with change successfully. The scientific rigor in this approach can enhance judgment when selecting leaders for change roles. Because personal characteristics and tendencies are measured, the results will also improve leader development initiatives. If leaders understand the strengths and limitations of their own orientation, then they can accommodate new and different behaviors to increase personal effectiveness.

This dissertation contains five chapters, including this introduction. Next, the theoretical model is introduced and a review of the associated literature from which the hypotheses were developed is presented in Chapter 2 (Literature Review). Following this review, the hypotheses and predicted results are summarized. Then, an outline of the research methodology for testing the theoretical model is provided in Chapter 3 (Methodology). First, each variable is defined and the measures that were used are provided. Next, the statistical analysis for testing this model is presented. The statistical results are presented in Chapter 4 (Results). Finally, an analysis of the results, limitations of the research and implications for research and practice is provided in Chapter 5 (Discussion).

CHAPTER II: LITERATURE REVIEW

Overview

This chapter begins with a brief introduction to the theoretical model guiding this research. Next, model linkages are discussed and the literature is reviewed in the context of these linkages. To begin with, leadership approaches that create the conditions for success during change are reviewed. This is followed by a detailed overview of the condition of resistance to change. Finally, leader strength of purpose is examined. Next, the self-monitoring and grit literatures are reviewed along with their predicted effects on the outcome variables in the model – leader approach and leader strength of purpose. The chapter concludes with a summary of the hypotheses to be tested, along with the expected results.

Introduction of the Theoretical Model

There is agreement among some scholars that a leader's primary responsibility involves leading organization change and shaping or transforming culture (Burke, 2011; Gagliardi, 1986; Kotter, 2007; Schein, 1992). This involves monitoring the external environment and responding by implementing new strategies and inculcating new or different values that will ensure the survival of the organization. Implicitly, it also entails understanding and managing the internal dynamics and resistance that may result and sticking with the effort, potentially for years. These high stakes demand valid leader selection, development, and promotion practices.

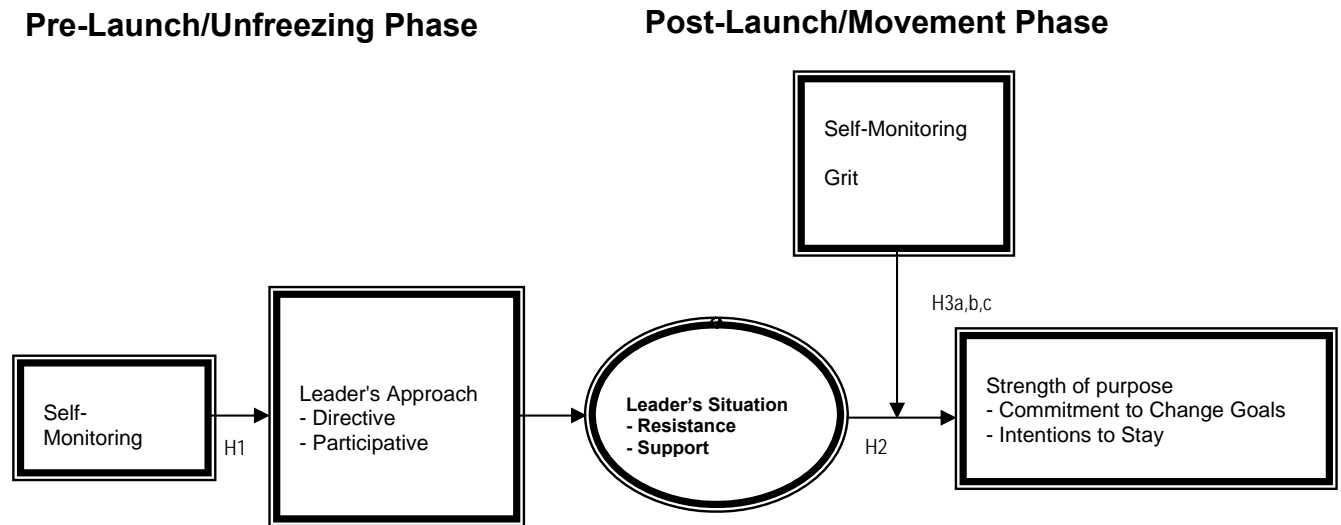
Scholars have argued for some time that studies should examine the traits and the situation together – and preferably multiple traits together with the situation – in order to explain the most variance in individual behavior (e.g., Follett, 1949; Lewin, 1951; Lord, De Vader, & Alliger, 1986; Stogdill, 1948; Zaccaro, 2007). The two aspects of change leadership that have been highlighted are creating positive conditions (i.e., urgency) for change and sticking with change until completion. The former is believed to be associated with one's interpersonal competence,

and the latter with an individual's drive. To that end, this study examines *self-monitoring* as a characteristic of interpersonally competent change leaders, along with *grit* as a positive characteristic of change leaders who stick with difficult change efforts until completion.

Theoretical Model: Leader Approach, Leader Situation, Self-Monitoring and Grit

Systematic change is aimed at changing the established patterns of behavior and norms in an organization (Burke, 2011). To overcome inertia associated with the status quo, leaders must understand and navigate a complex network of socio-emotional issues in addition to the many other activities they must execute (e.g., monitoring the external environment, communicating consistently the vision, monitoring progress, etc.). The inertia that frustrates change leaders stems from the functional norms that were formed over time and are believed to have contributed to the organization's past success (Gagliardi, 1986). Depending on how they approach the change effort, leaders can create more tension inadvertently, which could impede progress and contribute to failure. Change leaders must understand all of the forces for and against change or they risk creating strong forms of resistance that are difficult to manage and endure (Coch & French, 1948; Lewin, 1951). Figure 2 illustrates the proposed theoretical model for this study.

It is proposed that a leader influences the situation in positive or negative ways depending on his or her approach to launching the change effort, which is also influenced by his or her self-monitoring orientation. A leader's approach determines whether individuals cooperate, how long it will take for them to make the transition, and whether the change 'sticks' in the long-term. Inherently, launching a change initiative requires social competence and strength of purpose, especially in the condition of resistance to change.

Figure 2. Proposed theoretical model

It is further proposed that strength of purpose, a leaders' drive to rise above the difficulty of the situation to take responsibility for group outcomes, is a function of his or her commitment to the change goals and intentions to stay with the organization. This is an antecedent to success, and has been cited as a common reason change initiatives fail (Burke, 2011). There are key individual traits (self-monitoring and grit) that moderate the relationship between the situation and an individual's strength of purpose. The overarching purpose of this study is to test these effects empirically. A review of the literature regarding these propositions follows.

Creating the Conditions for Successful Change

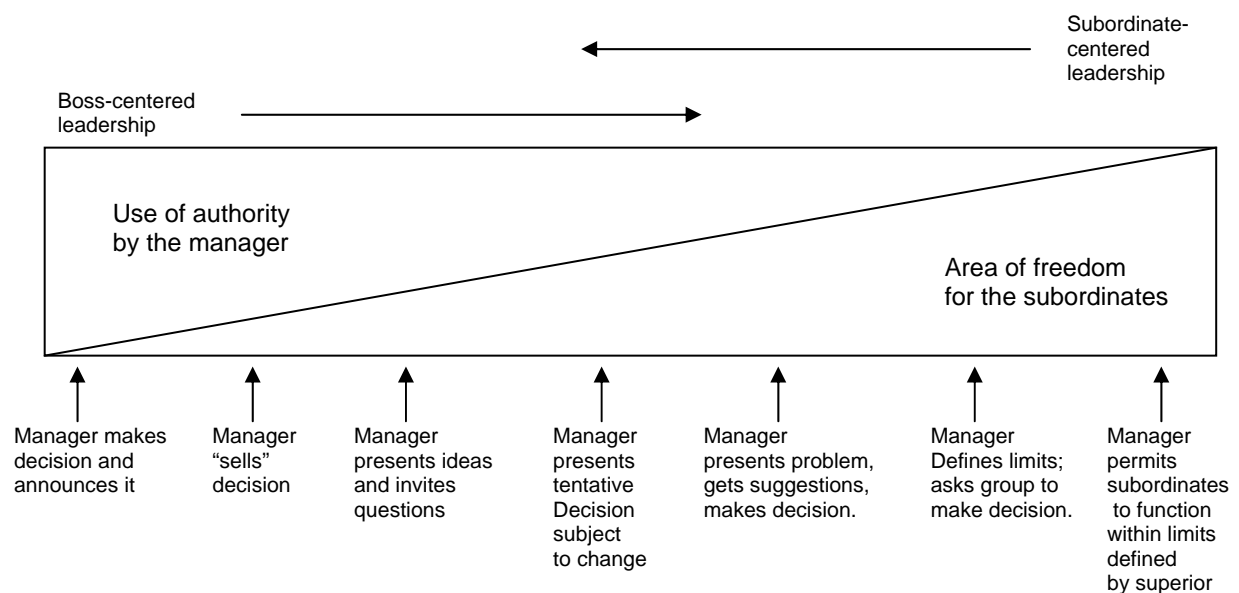
Consistent with current theorizing, leading organization change is defined as directing a major overhaul of the mission, strategy, leadership or culture of an organization (Burke, 2011). This definition applies to planned change initiatives that are systematic and methodical (Burke, 2011; Huy & Mintzberg, 2003). To identify those characteristics that enable success, one must first consider the conditions in which change leaders operate (Armenakis, & Bedeian, 1999).

Resistance is both an outcome of a leader's attempt to engage others in change, and it is a condition of change that influences success or failure.

Model Linkage #1: Leader Approach → Leader Situation

In response to the external environment, leaders must establish the need for change and obtain cooperation from the organization on how to move forward (Burke, 2011; Kotter, 2007). There are several approaches that leaders take to do this, most of which fall along a continuum from directive to participative (Lewin, Lippitt, & White, 1939; Tannenbaum & Schmidt, 1958). At one extreme, total direction or autocratic, the leader gives orders to subordinates without explaining why. At the other extreme, laissez-faire or hands-off, the leader completely delegates the problem to subordinates and removes him or her self from the situation and decision-making. In the middle, there are various degrees of involvement where leaders and subordinates work together to devise a solution and make decisions about what should be done (see Figure 3).

Figure 3. Tannenbaum & Schmidt's (1958, p.96) continuum of leadership behavior



A substantial body of evidence has been gathered on the effects and antecedents of each approach. A review of this literature reveals mixed results regarding the effectiveness of directive and participative approaches to leadership, indicating that certain styles suit some situations more than others. Following his survey of the literature, Bass (1990) concluded:

Participation is indicated when the subordinates' acceptance, satisfaction, and commitment are important and when subordinates have the required information. But direction can also be effective when structure is needed or when the leader has the necessary information and the quality of the decision is more important than is the commitment of the subordinates...Both empirical and rational models are available for specifying the conditions under which either more direction or more participation is appropriate. The direction often may work as well or better than participation in short-term laboratory studies, but greater payoff from participative leadership appears in the field for longer-term relations and outcomes, although the effects remain mixed when subjected to meta-analyses (p.471).

It is argued that participative approaches are more appropriate for change for two main reasons. First, sustainable culture change occurs only when the organization as a whole adopts new beliefs, values and assumptions (Gagliardi, 1986), which implicitly means organization members are satisfied and committed to the change. Early in the change process, the leader's focus should be on creating the conditions for successful change. A less than participative approach not only creates more resistance and increased difficulty for the leader early on, but it is also more likely to fail in gaining the support and commitment required for sustaining change long-term or in the leader's absence. A second reason participative approaches are more desirable is that leaders initiate change in today's chaotic environment with less than complete

information. Burke (1980) argued that it is difficult for leaders to know everything, and a participative approach helps gain support for the change effort and gather better information for decision-making. The quality of leaders' decisions is less important early in the change process as the chaotic nature of change means that these decisions are rarely, if ever, finalized or set in stone. Change leaders must understand that change efforts almost never go according to plan (Burke, 2011). Since this is the case, more ground can be gained by the leader who shares in the planning and decision-making rather than imposing his or her decisions on others. As such, the nature and intention of leading systematic change requires an inclusive approach.

There is solid evidence to support this claim. Perhaps the most compelling support originated with an early study at the Harwood Manufacturing Company to understand what kind of approach would decrease resistance to change (Coch & French, 1948). The company sought to redesign jobs in order to increase plant productivity, so the researchers designed a field experiment that would approach change in three different ways: no participation from employees, participation through representation, and total participation. They found that each approach elucidated different responses and degrees of support from the employees.

No Participation (Directive or Autocratic)

The key characteristic of a directive approach is that the leader initiates change without consulting his or her subordinates beforehand. In the Coch and French (1948) study, the employees had no role in planning the changes, although they did attend a meeting where it was explained that changes had to be made due to competitive conditions. After the explanation, management answered employees' questions and then sent them on their way. As expected, the group showed no improvement in overall efficiency and resistance emerged quickly in the form of: aggressive expressions towards management, hostility towards the supervisor, reduced cooperation and increased conflict in the group, and the filing of formal grievances.

These reactions are consistent with other research on directive approaches to change. Directive leaders typically try to overcome resistance by persuading or convincing followers that they need to change. Rationally, employees should adopt the proposed change if it can be shown that they stand to gain from doing so (Chin & Benne, 1985). However, it has been shown that people have a bias for the status quo and place a higher value on that which they have today instead of that which they could have tomorrow (Thaler & Sunstein, 2009). There is also support that previous success validates one's belief that current strategies are the best and increases the likelihood one will stick with those strategies (Audia, Locke & Smith, 2000; Gagliardi, 1986). Any change in behavior due to senior leader pressure is likely borne out of compliance and will not last once the pressure is released (Gagliardi, 1986). As such, directive approaches can generate change, but not that which is fundamental or sustainable.

Participation (Democratic or Consultative)

Participative approaches take many forms, with the intention being that involvement of subordinates in the planning and decision-making process gains their commitment. Coch and French (1948) created two types of participative groups in their study: a 'participation through representation' group and a 'total participation' group. The participation through representation group was assembled in a group meeting prior to any changes being made, and the need for change was presented as dramatically as possible. The management team presented a tentative plan and asked for approval from the group. They also asked the group to choose special operators (i.e., group representatives) who would finalize the plan and establish the group goals, then train the rest of the operators in the new method. This happened in a second group meeting with all operators involved present. The total participation group went through a similar process, but the group meetings were smaller. Instead of choosing special operators to finalize the plan and obtain training, all operators involved in the change were included in the process.

The outcome in both participation groups was more immediate engagement from the individuals involved in the form of increased communication, suggestions, and cooperation. The participation through representation group showed a faster learning curve than the no participation group, as well as a more positive attitude toward each other, their supervisor and with other managers in the plant. The total participation group experienced the best results and the least amount of resistance. The group recovered faster than the other two groups, there was no aggression or turnover, and it sustained its increased efficiency. Recovery in this sense means that the total participation group moved through the transition process faster than the others.

In sum, change leaders create the conditions for success, which begins with the manner in which they launch the change effort. Their alternatives range from total directive to more participative approaches. Because change involves altering a social system, competent change leaders will assess accurately the social-psychological issues associated with this and adopt a more inclusive approach. As compared to directive approaches, participative launch strategies are those in which the leader engages other people, either individually or in a group, in two-way communication as opposed to one-way or top-down patterns (Lawler, 1986; Sargent & Miller, 1971). This means that the leader's ideas, beliefs and plans are adaptable and subject to the input of others. Indeed, those plans may actually be the plans of others. This social approach creates ownership within the organization's membership for the process and decisions that are made, which leads to commitment on behalf of the employees and an increased likelihood of shared success. The new myths, stories and ideals created by this success help reorient the culture (Gagliardi, 1986). In this way, participative approaches not only diminish potential restraining forces, but they also increase the chances of sustaining change once it is achieved.

Proposition 1: *Change leaders who take the time to read carefully and engage with the social situation are more likely to understand the culture and potential restraining forces, and, as a result, are more likely to launch change in a way that*

diminishes the potential resistance and increases cooperation so that sustainable, fundamental change can occur.

Model Linkage #2: Leader Situation → Leader Strength of Purpose

It has been proposed that leaders create more or less inertia depending on their ability and willingness to read the situation and then adopt a more participative approach to launching change. Resistance to change can be a very difficult condition for leaders, and it contributes to the high organization change failure rates (Burke, 2011). Resistance has conventionally been viewed as "bad" or as an obstacle for leaders to overcome, but it serves an important function in social systems (Ford, Ford, & D'Amelio, 2008; Piderit, 2000). Resistance can be perceived as any or all of the forces that contribute to stability in an organization (Watson, 1967) or as pressure to maintain the status quo (Gersick, 1991). Because equilibrium – not resistance – is the natural state of organizations, these forces are illuminated during attempts to disturb it. Implicitly, these forces already exist in the group norms and every-day patterns of behavior, and they contribute to the success and effectiveness of daily operations. In this way, they are functional and positive. These same forces are negative when, despite evidence that they are becoming or have already become obsolete, the organization acts in ways to sustain those destructive patterns such as: rationalizing failure, scapegoating individuals or groups, blaming the situation, etc. (Gagliardi, 1986). Haphazard attempts to disrupt these patterns results in various forms of individual and group resistance. Next, the condition of resistance to change is examined, followed by its effect on leader strength of purpose for leading the change effort.

Individual and Group Resistance to Change

Individuals resist change in many ways, which makes it difficult for change leaders to establish or sustain momentum for change. For example, there is empirical evidence that individuals differ in their orientation and openness towards change (Oreg, 2003). Some are more

naturally open to it, while others prefer stability and tradition. Those who prefer stability are more likely to resist change regardless of the context or conditions; it seems as if resistance is simply in their DNA. Scholars have also found support that change is a difficult, anxiety-provoking process for many people, even those who are open to it, and it takes time to move through the full transition process (Bridges, 1986). This can be a lengthy and consuming process that tests the patience and resources of time pressured change leaders. There is also support that people are motivated to maintain personal freedom to choose their own behavior, so they react to restore that freedom when it is threatened or taken (Brehm, 1966). Finally, change threatens the validity of people's assumptions, values and beliefs, which are deeply rooted in the current culture of the organization, creating anxiety and fear of loss of status, turf, identity, or control (Gagliardi, 1986; Jick, 1990; Schein, 1992). These complex human emotions can be difficult to manage one-on-one and even tougher to deal with in the presence of group level resistance.

Another challenge for leaders stems from group standards and norms of behavior. Research on human relations in groups has found that groups take on different 'cultures' or mentalities (Bion, 1948). The first mentality, the *work group*, is characterized by functional attitudes and behavior oriented at the group's primary task. In contrast, the *basic assumption group* (BA) exists when the group tacitly evades work due to psychological stress or conflict. A group in this mentality acts on assumptions that are different from reality and from the task at hand. Group self-preservation, psychological well-being and hope based on irrational group expectations guide BA group behavior (Rioch, 1970; Stokes, 1994). When groups are in a BA mentality, difficult circumstances arise for the leader, who must first recognize this and then resist the temptation to fall into the same mindset. If the leader eludes this successfully, he or she must then persist through the difficult conditions while working to establish a work group culture.

To summarize, fundamental change oriented at the group norms (i.e., the culture) threatens the very order that leaders and organization members work hard to establish, which creates the condition for dependency or fight-flight (e.g., BA mentality) and prompts strong counter-forces directed at the person instigating the change. The strength of these reactions is proportional to the strength of the force advocating for change and often manifests through powerful, “unacceptable” emotions such as anger, depression, and stress into behaviors like turf protection, closing ranks, and even sabotage (Burke, 2011; Jick, 1990). Leaders who push for change can become scapegoats who are persecuted for breaking tradition. "If the individual should try to diverge 'too much' from group standards, he would find himself in increasing difficulties. He would be ridiculed, treated severely, and finally ousted from the group" (Lewin, 1947, p.75). These strong social-psychological forces can be difficult to deal with and, because most group members know this implicitly, they have contributed to the mythology of the “hero leader.” That is, only persons with “heroic” strength of purpose can succeed in these difficult circumstances.

Proposition 2a: *Resistance is both an outcome and a condition of change that is influenced by the leader and, in turn, influences the leader. When present, resistance is negatively associated with a leader's commitment and resolve to stick with a change effort (i.e., strength of purpose).*

Leader Strength of Purpose

There are many strategies and tactics that leaders can employ to mitigate or diminish resistance from the outset of a change effort, but it is unlikely that one will eliminate all resistance if the change effort is significant. To succeed, leaders must possess some form of perseverance that is grounded in a deep commitment to the change goals.

Paradoxically, leadership is not a popularity contest, yet it is rare that unpopular people emerge as leaders. Stogdill (1948) found a high correlation between popularity and leadership; however, Burns (1978) provided detailed accounts of transformational leaders throughout history

who were persecuted for their convictions. From his account, society admires people who endure personal hardship on the journey to large-scale reform. It is the reformist's commitment to a higher purpose that helps sustain them through difficult periods. Although Burns' point was to distinguish transformational leaders from others, his case rested on a similar foundation to that of the 'great man' theories of leadership, which is that great leaders are persistent, even in the face of personal loss. Such accounts abound and serve as solid qualitative support for the argument that leaders are persistent in conquering great obstacles. Notably, empirical evidence also supports the belief that leaders differ from non-leaders in their determination to succeed.

In his review of the leader trait research from 1904-1947, Stogdill (1948) found that, in at least one-third of those studies, leaders exceeded the average member of his or her group in persistence and initiative. He later reviewed 163 leadership studies conducted between 1948 and 1970 and concluded:

The leader is characterized by a strong drive for responsibility and task completion, vigor and persistence in pursuit of goals, venturesomeness and originality in problem-solving, drive to exercise initiative in social situations, self-confidence and a sense of personal identity, willingness to accept consequences of decision and action, readiness to absorb interpersonal stress, willingness to tolerate frustration and delay, ability to influence other persons' behavior, and capacity to structure interaction systems to the purpose at hand" (Bass, 1990, p. 87).

Even developmental scholars who are typically antagonists of the leader trait approach argue that hardiness is a key quality of successful leaders (e.g., Bennis & Thomas, 2007). The general argument in this camp is that individuals experience a series of "crucible" experiences throughout life, and leaders are those individuals who "create meaning out of those events and relationships that devastate non-leaders. When battered by experience, leaders do not see

themselves as helpless or find themselves paralyzed” (p.17). Essentially, leaders rise above adversity and they turn out better for having had the experience, which is enabled by their having characteristics of 'hardiness.'

There is some evidence that hardiness is a personality trait that predicts how an individual evaluates and copes with stress. In a study of 837 middle and upper level executives at a large public utility company experiencing significant change, Kobasa (1979) found that hardy individuals perceived less stress, more control over their situation, and more commitment than their less hardy peers. In addition, she found that hardy individuals engaged with and owned their personal challenges, while less hardy individuals internalized the stress as a loss of control over self and the situation. A diverse group of scholarly orientations seem to converge on the idea that perseverance is a key differentiator between leaders and non-leaders. It is the combination of individual traits and a deep commitment to a higher collective purpose that ultimately determines whether one exerts extra effort to achieve group goals.

Whereas drive pushes one toward a goal, strength of purpose enables a leader to rise above the stress and take responsibility for group outcomes by pulling them toward that in which they believe strongly. Commitment to a higher purpose, which Follett (1949) called the invisible leader, not only enhances a leader's resolve, but it also ties him or her emotionally to the change effort. There is evidence of a positive relationship between affective commitment to change goals and change-enabling behavior such as making sacrifices and going 'above and beyond' what is required (Herscovitch & Meyer, 2002). Commitment to change is defined as "a force (mind-set) that binds an individual to a course of action deemed necessary for the successful implementation of a change initiative" (p.475). One source of this force comes from an individual's belief in the change (affective commitment). Studies found support that employees who reported high affective commitment to change goals also reported more cooperative and

supportive behavior (Herscovitch & Meyer, 2002). It is proposed that effective change leaders have high affective commitment, which boosts their overall strength of purpose for change.

In summary, it has been argued that resistance is a natural condition of change, and as such is a way of life for leaders. Resistance is a key restraining force that often contributes to the high failure rate of change initiatives (Burke, 2011). After launching a change effort, the successful change leader is the one who can “take the heat” and “stay the course” in the face of this resistance (pp. 261-263). Leading change when there is urgency or *support*, i.e., when at least 75% of the company’s management cooperate (Kotter, 2007), emphasizes less one's resolve and places more weight on other change skills. Although there are many roles, skills and tasks associated with leading change once it is launched, they all presuppose the leader has persistence and remains with the organization. As such, strength of purpose is a function of one’s affective commitment to the change goals and intention to remain with the organization and it is considered an antecedent to success.

Proposition 2b: *Strength of purpose, the commitment to rise above the challenges associated with leading change, is a function of one’s affective commitment to the change goals and intentions to remain with the organization.*

Self-Monitoring

Self Monitoring Theory (Snyder, 1974) holds that individuals differ in the degree to which they monitor their environment to pick up cues and guidelines about what constitutes appropriate behavior. The extent to which an individual does this shapes his or her interpersonal interactions and influence on the situation. In this way, the situation influences the person, who then influences the situation. Central to self-monitoring theory is the notion that individuals try to influence and control their impression – images that others have of them – in social situations (Snyder, 1974; 1979). Empirical research has found evidence that some individuals try harder than others to regulate their patterns of behavior (Snyder, 1974). It is proposed that this behavior

is more social and translates more easily into participative approaches to launching change. It is further argued that individuals who are more concerned with adapting to the social norms would be even more affected by resistance to change, and their overall strength of purpose would take a "hit" as a result. Next, a brief overview of self-monitoring theory is presented, followed by a review of the literature in support of the model linkages.

Self-Monitoring Theory

High self-monitors (HSMs) can accurately read and interpret social norms, then use these to regulate and control their own behavior. "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" (Snyder, 1974, p.528). HSMs are affected greatly by the situation, and they adapt skillfully their own behavior to fit social expectations. The question that HSMs try to answer is "Who does this situation want me to be and how can I be that person?" (Snyder, 1979, p. 102). To answer this, HSMs read the situation and construct a prototype of the ideal person in the given situation. They then act on this interpretation by presenting themselves accordingly. In this way, HSMs are like actor-screenwriters in that they write their own script then play the role they have created. This active engagement in the social situation is characteristic of the group of traits identified by Stogdill (1948) as 'participation' in social activities (i.e., sociability, cooperation, adaptability, and humor). One limitation of this outside-in approach is that it may be difficult for others to understand truly what a high self-monitoring individual stands for, since his or her attitude may be more a reflection of the situation than of his or her own values and beliefs. It is also difficult to predict consistently how a HSM will behave across situations, because it will likely depend on the individual's interpretation of the social forces affecting him or her at a specific moment in time.

On the other hand, low self-monitors (LSMs) are concerned less with constructing an appropriate response to the context and more with presenting behavior consistent with their own attitudes, values and beliefs. LSMs attempt to answer the question “Who am I and how can I be me in this situation?” (Snyder, 1979, p.103). Importantly, LSMs also read the situation. The difference is that following this, they conduct a self examination to determine who they are and how they can behave congruent with their understanding of self, even if it shows poor social form. This is perhaps why some have argued against selecting LSMs as leaders, since courtesy, tact and diplomacy have been traits associated with leadership in studies dating back to 1915 (Stogdill, 1948). This inside-out approach enables others to understand clearly what LSMs stand for, and provides for consistency of attitude and behavior across contexts.

Organization change, if planned and transformational, entails fundamentally shifting the fabric of a social system (i.e., the culture), and as such provides a rich context for highlighting the differences between the two types of self-monitoring. A review of the literature indicates that self-monitoring is an important individual difference variable that influences a wide range of organizational behavior, including how people choose their jobs (Snyder & Copeland, 1989), how much structure people need in their roles (Snyder & Gangestad, 1982), and who emerge as leaders and who are perceived to be effective leaders (Day et al., 2002). Self-monitoring, like all other traits, potentially has both positive and dark side effects when it comes to the task of leading change (see Judge, Piccolo, & Kosalka, 2009). There are two specific questions under review. First, does self-monitoring influence a leaders approach to launching change? Second, does self-monitoring predict who sticks with change in the face of resistance?

Model Linkage #3: Self-Monitoring → Leader Approach to Change

There is evidence that HSMs adopt a more social approach in situations than LSMs. In an early and important study of self-monitoring processes, Ickes and Barnes (1977) examined the

interactions of sixty same-sex dyads to determine whether high or low self-monitors would speak first following periods of silence. As predicted, HSMs were more likely to initiate conversation following periods of silence than LSMs. The researchers also found a significant association between high self-monitoring and the number of periods of silence during the interaction, such that an increased number of periods of silence correlated with increased self-consciousness in HSM participants. This provided initial support that HSMs are more motivated to make their interpersonal interactions “work” and they take action to ensure this by starting and regulating conversations. It also suggests that when HSMs perceive the interaction is not going well, or in the absence of feedback that it is, they experience more self-consciousness than LSMs.

This provided some convergent support to Snyder’s (1974) proposition that HSMs attempt to control the image that others perceive of them. Several studies conducted as a result of these early findings provided more evidence that HSMs deliberately manage their impressions on others by seeking clearly defined situations, planning their social encounters, and adjusting their presentation in the moment based on using other people’s behavior as a guide (Gangestad & Snyder, 2000; Ickes, Holloway, Stinson, & Hoodenpyle, 2006). This process helps explain why HSMs have also been found to be agile communicators and connectors between diverse groups in organizations.

Boundary roles are those that bridge between different groups within an organization or between an organization and its external environment (Aldrich & Herker, 1977). Effective boundary spanning occurs when an individual in such a role creates alignment and commitment across boundaries in service of a higher goal. This type of role emphasizes one’s ability to perceive and adapt to diverse social situations and to attend equally to parties with very different goals. Caldwell & O’Reilly (1982) designed a field study to examine the effect of self-monitoring on field representatives’ performance in servicing various different outlets of a

franchise organization. The representatives' tasks were to present corporate positions to the outlets, as well as mediate between outlets and refer franchisees to information sources and suppliers. Outlet supervisors were then asked to rate the performance of the field representatives. As hypothesized, compared to the LSM representatives, the HSM representatives were more sensitive to the social cues of the different outlets and they adjusted their behavior accordingly. As a result, the outlet supervisors rated the performance of HSM representatives higher than the performance of LSM representatives.

Other research provides insight into the different approaches of high and low self-monitors in conflict situations, which helps explain further these findings. In a different study of 108 employees in a food-processing plant, HSMs were found to use collaboration and compromise to resolve conflict in work situations more than LSMs (Baron, 1989). When given a choice regarding the style of handling potential conflict, it seems that HSMs consider the needs of others at least as much or more than their own. Stogdill (1948) found such an activity - reading the situation by considering the needs and interests of others - to be associated with leadership. In all, these results suggest that HSMs are more sensitive to the social cues of situations than LSMs, and HSMs use the information gleaned from reading the situation to adapt their behavior in a way that minimizes conflict and coordinates the activities of groups with different goals and interests. This type of behavior is consistent with those leadership factors identified by Stogdill (1948) as participation in group activities and attending to the situation.

It is proposed that HSMs are more likely to consistently choose participative approaches to launching change, because they will naturally initiate more conversation with disparate groups within the organization. This collaborative style not only resembles a participative approach, but it also enables them to read the situation as one requiring even more inclusion in order to gain the cooperation of others. Importantly, this implies that HSMs are more prone to selecting a

participative approach because of their sensitivity to the social cues of situations, not necessarily because they believe participative approaches are the “best” way to launch change. Furthermore, the foundation of high self-monitoring is flexibility, as is the foundation of participative leadership. HSMs are more likely to adopt the ideas and decisions of others, whereas LSMs are more likely to act out of personal beliefs and ideals. Indeed, LSMs may read the situation as calling for a participative approach, but they will only choose this strategy if it aligns with their own principles. LSMs will therefore show more variability in their selection of an approach, which can be explained by the differences in their personal dispositions.

Proposition 3: *Compared to LSMs, HSMs select more participative approaches (i.e., higher involvement of others) when launching change.*

Self-Monitoring



Model Linkage #4: Leader Situation → Leader Strength of Purpose

Many of the same processes that enable a high self-monitoring individual to engage in the social aspects of launching change positively may be negatively associated with his or her strength of purpose in unfavorable conditions such as high resistance. Specifically, HSMs use their social perception to engage in active image management processes, whereas LSMs attempt to project no false images out of principle (Gangestad & Snyder, 2000). It has been shown that individual and group resistance to change is often directed at the change leader in an attempt to reduce the pressure to change or to save or protect the group from real or perceived threats. It is proposed that HSMs, who are particularly sensitive to this type of feedback, would 1) know that the prototypical change leader is supposed to stick with it, even in these conditions, but, 2) being incapable of quickly reconciling the tension created by this situation and perceiving loss of status with the group as a result of initiating the change, would experience a decreased drive to carry

on, and 3) would be more likely to accommodate others and “back off” the change agenda, or simply leave the situation altogether in search of better opportunities for self.

There is theoretical and empirical support that HSMs are adept at creating prototypical images of ideal types of people, then they use these images as guides for their own social behavior (Snyder, 1974). In change situations, a high self-monitoring leader would construct an image of the exemplary change leader and would model that behavior. In contrast, a low self-monitoring leader would construct an image of him or her self and would choose behavior that characterizes that image. Evidence suggests that LSMs have more self-knowledge and HSMs have more other-knowledge (Snyder & Cantor, 1979). The implications for leading in the condition of resistance to change are different for each orientation as a result. LSMs would be less concerned about what other, prototypical change leaders would do and more concerned about choosing behavior characteristic of their own disposition. HSMs, on the other hand, would likely realize that dissention is a natural condition of leading change and good change leaders persist through it. However, this knowledge and the impending effort that the HSM must put forth in playing the role of the effective change leader comes at a higher personal price, testing his or her resolve.

There is an intangible psychological “cost” associated with self-monitoring. Because self-monitoring is a personal trait, many have assumed that, like chameleons, HSMs adapt to the environment in an effortless, almost unconscious manner. In fact, there is supporting evidence that HSMs expend energy preparing for, thinking about and participating in their “performance” (Ickes et al., 2006). Because HSMs want their interpersonal interactions to “go well,” they put forth extra effort and emotionally react (become self-conscious) when they perceive that they failed to do this. Another key finding was a strong association between self monitoring and positive self-affect. When HSMs perceived their self-presentation was effective, they experienced positive self affect in the form of acceptance and validation; when they perceived

their self-presentation was ineffective, they experienced negative self affect in the form of rejection and dismissal (Ickes et al., 2006). Using the actor-screenwriter analogy, this implies that HSMs prefer roles of the protagonist over those of the villain.

In order to help manage their impression effectively, HSMs prefer clearly defined situations and expectations. This enables them to apply “social scripts” and “action plans” that increase the probability that their interactions go well (Ickes et al., 2006, p.681). Organization change, by definition, is highly unpredictable and rarely goes according to plan (Burke, 2011). It is not uncommon for employees to “shoot the messenger” (Kotter, 2007) or for unanticipated resisters to emerge and create challenges for the leader (Burke, 2011). The context of leading change would therefore be particularly difficult for HSMs to endure, as they are more likely to become self-conscious in such conditions than LSMs.

It follows that a possible cost for high self-monitoring leaders in these conditions could be reduced drive to carry on with the change. Their choices in situations where their behavior is incongruent with social norms, such as pressing for culture change, are limited. They can either accommodate the social forces by changing their behavior to align with others' expectations, or they can stick with it and persist in the face of this pressure. It is likely that such persistence without positive feedback would result in a reduced desire to stick with the change in the long-term for any leader, but especially so for HSMs.

In fact, the research has shown that difficult conditions do prompt specific reactions from HSMs more than from LSMs. Ickes, Reidhead and Patterson (1986) found support that high self-monitoring is linked to the accommodating style of impression management. Essentially, accommodative impression managers are “other-focused,” meaning they adapt their behavior to conform to social demands. To explain this, Gangestad and Snyder (2000) have proposed that HSMs are driven by a status-enhancement motive which leads them to put a premium on social

cues (e.g., these become guidelines for appropriate behavior) while LSMs assign less importance to those cues when it comes to shaping their own behavior. To lead change in social systems inherently means diverging from the norm, and such situations are not a good fit for the high self-monitoring individual because it threatens their good standing and status with others.

The question remains, what do HSMs do when faced with challenging situations that they cannot control or that create negative self-affect? There is some evidence to suggest that they would choose to remove themselves from those situations altogether. Evidence also indicates that negative affectivity leads to an increased state of dissonance (Abraham, 1998). Emotional dissonance occurs when an individual perceives incongruence between his or her true inner feelings and social expectations. As Snyder (1987) pointed out, HSMs "exhibit striking gaps and contradictions between the public appearances and private realities of the self" (p.4). In the job satisfaction and organization commitment literature, research has found support that emotional dissonance induced by job dissatisfaction influences turnover intentions and emotional exhaustion (Abraham, 1998; 1999). The researcher designed a study to determine whether employees who were expected to behave contrary to their inner feelings would experience emotional dissonance and a resulting desire to leave their job (Abraham, 1999). Self-monitoring was predicted to moderate this relationship such that high self-monitoring employees would experience even more dissonance and higher turnover intentions than low self-monitoring employees. The study spanned several service industries in which employees frequently had to present a friendly outward appearance to customers. The findings were consistent with the prediction that emotional dissonance reduces high self-monitors' job satisfaction and commitment and it increases their turnover intentions. The effects were less pronounced on low self-monitoring employees.

Other research in this area has produced similar results. Studies have shown a link between self-monitoring and the depth and longevity of one's relationships, such that HSMs tend to initiate more relationships than LSMs, but they also terminate those relationships more easily and quickly than LSMs (Snyder, Gangestad, & Simpson, 1983; Snyder & Simpson, 1984; Snyder, Simpson, & Gangestad, 1986). Similarly, HSMs have also been found to express less commitment to their organizations and increased intentions to leave if they were not satisfied. In a study of 183 power plant employees, self-monitoring correlated (inversely) with job satisfaction and turnover intentions under poor working conditions (Jenkins, 1993). The researcher concluded that increased satisfaction was a necessary condition to ensure retention of high self-monitoring employees. Taking everything into account, the evidence suggests that when the going gets tough, HSMs don't simply adapt – they actually leave.

Proposition 4a: *The effect of resistance to change on an individual's strength of purpose depends on whether the leader is a high or low self-monitor. Resistance to change has more of an effect on high self-monitoring leaders' strength of purpose than on low self-monitoring leaders' strength of purpose.*

In the same way that resistance to change can negatively affect an individual's commitment and intentions to stay with an organization, support from others enhances a leader's commitment and desire to remain. This is especially true for HSMs who seek positive cues that their behavior is acceptable. Hence, support for to change goals appeals to the high self-monitor's drive to fit in and gain status, making it an ideal condition to enhance their commitment to the change goals and intentions to stay with the organization. It is important to establish this difference, because the positive affect generated by HSMs during 'good times' contributes to their rise to the top leadership roles in organizations. By demonstrating a significant difference in a high self-monitoring leader's strength of purpose in each situation, one can better understand the potential risk of making decisions based on this limited data.

Proposition 4b: *Organizational support for change increases high self-monitoring leaders' strength of purpose, and it affects less low self-monitoring leaders' strength of purpose.*

Grit Personality

In an evaluation of the empirical research on leader traits, Yukl (1989) concluded:

"Managerial motivation is one of the most promising predictors of effectiveness" (p. 260). Grit, a relatively new personal quality that has emerged recently in the positive psychology literature, could have significant relevance to the prediction of change leadership effectiveness. Grit is defined as "perseverance and passion for long-term goals," and individuals that possess it are said to have "sustained commitment to their ambitions" (Duckworth et al., 2007, p.1087).

Individuals with grit set long-term goals and passionately work towards them until they are successful. Because change leaders need to be able to take the heat and remain committed in the face of challenge, often for long periods of time, it is important to explore whether grit predicts who has the potential to do so.

Over the past ten years, leader trait research has centered on the Big 5 personality model (McCrae & Costa, 1987). This stream of research categorizes personality into the five broad factors of neuroticism (emotional stability), extraversion, agreeableness, conscientiousness, and openness to experience. A meta-analysis of this literature found that all five factors together were highly correlated with leadership, and extraversion was the factor most associated with leadership by itself (Judge et al., 2002). Conscientiousness, neuroticism, and openness were also associated with leadership, but agreeableness and leadership were only weakly correlated.

In addition to these 'core' personality traits, there continues to exist a common interest in characteristics of a leader's drive in the face of adversity, such as persistence (Cox, 1926), need for achievement (McClelland, 1961), efficacy (Bandura, 1977), hardiness (Kobasa, 1979), and, more recently out of the positive psychology literature, hope, optimism and resiliency (Luthans,

Vogelgesang, & Lester, 2006). More in line with these characteristics, grit is a personality characteristic that evolved recently from field studies in which researchers questioned professionals about the distinguishing characteristic between star performers and the rest of the pack (Duckworth et al., 2007). Time and again the researchers recorded stories in which “less gifted” people (i.e., less talented) rose to the top while “gifted” people failed to meet expectations. This paradox has interested personality researchers for decades. Over time, scholars have found that talent (IQ), is the single best predictor of achievement, yet it only explains about 33% of the variance in some measures of success (Neisser et al., 1996). Performance is therefore said to be a function of both talent and motivation, and the motivation of most interest in this study is a leader’s desire to stick with difficult change efforts.

Grit
↓
Model Linkage #5: Leader Situation → *Leader Strength of Purpose*

Burke (2011) points out that the road of change is non-linear and chaotic, such that progress often succumbs to failure, causing leaders to re-group and re-orient along the way. There is some support that grit predicts achievement *in the face of difficulty* better than other Big 5 personality traits (Duckworth et al., 2007). The researchers surmised that working hard and working longer without switching objectives are both important to achieving difficult goals, so they defined the key characteristics of gritty individuals as: they set long-term goals, they stay the course (even in the absence of positive feedback), and they do so regardless of whether the goals are intrinsically or extrinsically rewarding. There is some initial support that grittier individuals do perform better in difficult conditions.

Although several studies were conducted to develop and validate long and short versions of the grit scale (Duckworth et al., 2007; Duckworth & Quinn, 2009) a review of the literature on grit uncovered only one published field study. Researchers set out to determine whether grit

predicted teacher effectiveness in the Teach for America (TFA) program (Duckworth, Quinn, & Seligman, 2009). This program recruits recent college graduates from selective schools to teach for two consecutive years in under-resourced urban and rural public schools. Teacher life satisfaction, teacher performance, and grit data were collected from 390 first and second-year teachers. Importantly, these teachers all had no prior teaching experience. The results were as predicted. Second-year teachers reported less satisfaction, but outperformed first-year teachers. Teachers who scored one standard deviation higher in grit were 31% more likely to outperform less gritty teachers. The performance criterion was the TFA administration's estimation of the students' academic gains at the end of a year. Because student outcomes were not immediate and they were limited by poor resourcing, teachers had to exert extra effort to ensure success. Importantly, their assessment and subsequent feedback only occurred on an annual basis.

That gritty people stay the course even in the absence of positive feedback differentiates the motive of grit from many other personality traits, and specifically from the Big 5 trait conscientiousness. Grit's association with conscientiousness is important, because there is evidence that conscientiousness is related to job performance in general (Barrick & Mount, 1991) and specifically to leadership (Judge et al., 2002). Conscientiousness is the trait of being careful, goal-oriented and acting with integrity (Hogan, Curphy and Hogan, 1994), and it includes the two sub-factors *achievement* and *dependability*. These two facets of conscientiousness appear to have face validity as important change leader characteristics; however, by itself conscientiousness is only weakly associated with leadership and there is evidence that it is more strongly related to leader emergence than leader effectiveness (Judge et al., 2002). This highlights a key limitation of conscientiousness as a predictor of change leadership - it does not account for the long-term nature of achievement. Whereas conscientiousness is based on McClelland's (1961) need for achievement, which enables an

individual to leverage immediate feedback to accomplish short-term goals, grit emphasizes long-term stamina over short-term intensity (Duckworth et al., 2007). This key difference makes grit particularly relevant to the study of change leadership.

Grit may be an important factor in predicting whether an individual sticks with a difficult task for a long period of time. Researchers found grit to be associated with educational attainment and age, that it predicted retention of West Point cadets during tough summer training activities associated with a high drop-out rate, and performance of finalists in the National Spelling Bee competition (Duckworth et al., 2007; Duckworth & Quinn, 2009). Grit was highly correlated with conscientiousness and had incremental predictive validity for education, age and number of lifetime career changes (inverse) over and beyond conscientiousness and other Big 5 traits (Duckworth et al., 2007). Notably, grit was also associated with lower SAT scores in a population of Ivy League undergraduate students, making it possible that in high achieving populations the less smart people compensate with their grit.

That grit is inversely associated with the number of lifetime career changes is important, because HSMs have been shown to change careers more frequently than LSMs (Day et al., 2002). This raises the question whether self-monitoring could be associated with grit. Do HSMs voluntarily leave more often because they have less grit than their LSM peers? In other words, are LSMs just gritty by nature? There is no research on the association between the two constructs, but theory suggests they would not be correlated significantly. First, grit is highly correlated with conscientiousness, and studies have not found self-monitoring to have a significant association with conscientiousness. In fact, recent studies found no correlation between conscientiousness and self-monitoring (Douglas, Frink & Ferris, 2004), and a high correlation with openness and extraversion (Wolf, Spinath, Rienmann & Angleitner, 2009). Second, HSMs have been found to voluntarily leave because they create numerous weak ties,

whereas LSMs create fewer but stronger ties with both people and organizations. LSMs take longer to initiate relationships, but they remain in them longer. Their commitment is therefore not necessarily a function of their drive for responsibility; rather it likely is a function of how close they are to others. In all, there is no theoretical or empirical reason to conclude that grit and self-monitoring are associated.

Proposition 5a: *There is no association between self-monitoring and grit.*

There is reason to believe that grit can only aid both high and low self-monitoring leaders. In the midst of a challenging situation, self monitoring theory contends that HSMs would draw less on personal characteristics such as grit unless their image of a prototypical leader included "gritty" characteristics. The real benefit to HSMs involves persevering through the dissonance created by any incongruence between the individual's private self and public self presentation. If a high self-monitoring individual is less gritty, then he or she would express significantly less strength of purpose as a result of the emotional strain caused by the situation. On the other hand, gritty high self-monitoring leaders would express significantly higher strength of purpose because they would know how to play the part and they would draw on core strength to do so.

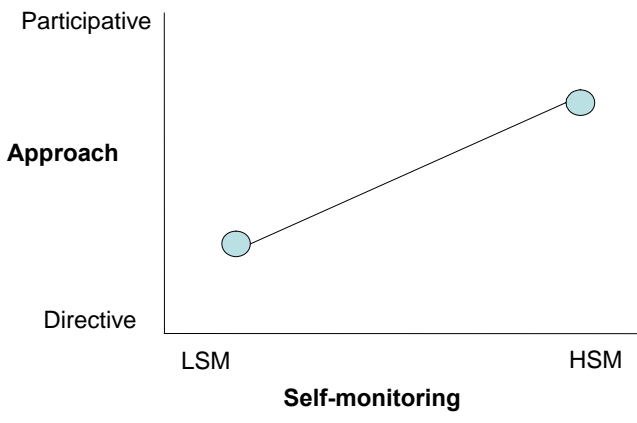
In the case of the low self-monitoring leader, one would expect grit to have more influence on strength of purpose because it is an internal, stable disposition. Because LSMs' strength of purpose is less dependent on the external environment, it would be less susceptible to radical change due to the condition. It is proposed that low self-monitoring leaders would assess their own grittiness early in the change process and would take this into consideration when determining their level of commitment and intentions to withdraw from the start, whereas high self-monitoring leaders would make their assessment based on how effective they perceived themselves at any given moment in time.

Proposition 5b: *Grit has a significant positive effect on a leader's strength of purpose.*

Summary of Hypotheses and Predicted Results

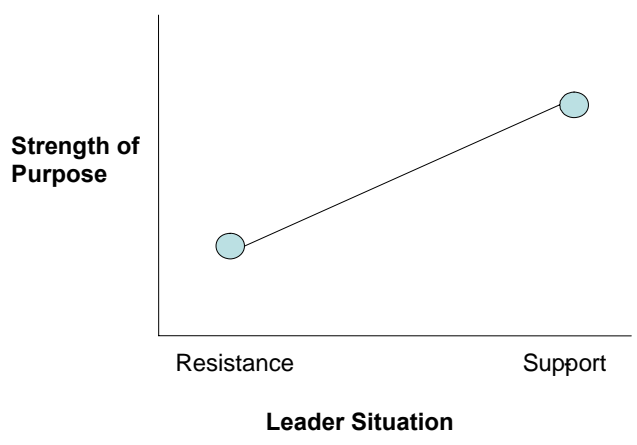
***Hypothesis 1:** Self-monitoring is a significant positive predictor of leader approach to launching change. Compared to low self-monitoring individuals, high self-monitors choose more participative approaches to launching change.*

Hypothesis 1: Predicted Results



***Hypothesis 2:** A leader's situation predicts his or her strength of purpose for leading and sticking with change. Strength of purpose is diminished in the condition of resistance to change, whereas it is enhanced in the condition of support.*

Hypothesis 2: Predicted Results



Hypotheses 3a: *Self-monitoring moderates the effect of the situation on strength of purpose such that resistance to change decreases high self-monitoring leaders' strength of purpose and support for change increases it, whereas low self-monitoring leaders' strength of purpose remains stable across conditions.*

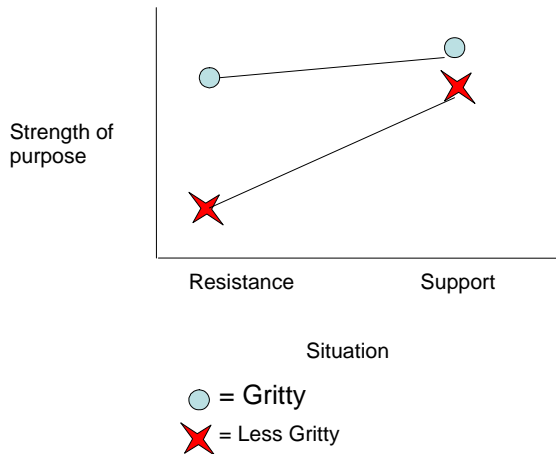
Hypothesis 3a: Predicted Results



Hypothesis 3b: *There is no association between self-monitoring and grit.*

Hypothesis 3c: *Grit moderates the effect of the situation on a leader's strength of purpose, such that grittier individuals have higher strength of purpose regardless of the condition, whereas less gritty individuals' strength of purpose depends on the situation.*

Hypothesis 3b: Predicted Results



CHAPTER III: METHODOLOGY

Overview

This chapter describes the methodology used to test the hypotheses presented in Chapter 2. Two surveys were administered to a sample of senior leaders across several industries and job functions. One survey was scenario-based (i.e., participants answered questions after reading an organization change scenario) and one was experience-based (i.e., participants described a change effort that they were leading and answered questions based on their experience). The sample and data collection procedures are described first, including a description of the whole sample population (e.g., the aggregate of both surveys). Next, the measures for the variables in the theoretical model are described. These are: self-monitoring, grit, leader approach to change, and strength of purpose. The demographic variables, control measures, and the data analysis plan are also presented.

Participants and Procedure

Volunteers to participate in the study were queried from the client database of a global business psychology consultancy based in the Northeastern United States. The consultancy was a global firm with a robust clientele spanning all industries and many of their clients were engaged in significant organization change initiatives. The firm maintained a record of clients who consented to be contacted for various purposes such as workshops, professional training, and research. Because the firm operated at the senior levels of management in organizations, its clients conformed to the desired sample population (e.g., change leaders or managers).

Volunteers were recruited electronically (via email invitation) to take a 30-minute survey online. An invitation was emailed to 1,554 individuals primarily located in the United States describing the overall research objectives and the benefits of participation, which included a copy of the study's findings and individual feedback on personal results at the participant's

request (see Appendix A). Participants were also given the researcher's contact information (phone and email) so they could ask questions about the study if necessary. Volunteers were asked to complete the survey independently of other people in a non-distracting setting. Data were collected online and no results were reported back to the participants until the study was completed. Once consenting, participants were first asked to select the statement that most accurately described their experience with change. The options were: 1) *I am currently leading a significant organization change effort*, 2) *I have led a significant change effort in the past*, 3) *I have not led a significant change effort, but I have taken part in change as an employee*, 4) *I have never led or taken part in a significant change effort*. The response to this question directed each participant to either a scenario-based survey or an experienced-based survey.

Scenario-Based Survey

Participants who were not currently leading a change effort completed the scenario-based survey (see Appendix C). *Part 1* of the survey provided the business scenario, which first described a fictional company (Magnetic Securities) in the early stages of launching a large-scale change initiative. To prime the participants' thinking about this change, they were asked to respond to seven questions that mirror the strength of purpose questions presented later in the survey. They were then asked how they would launch this change initiative. *Part 2* described two conditions (resistance or support) as a result of the change. To reduce common method bias, the scenarios were counter-balanced (i.e., half of the participants received the resistance scenario first and half received the support scenario first). Each scenario was followed by seven questions about the participant's strength of purpose based on the scenario. *Part 3* consisted of four psychometric tests to measure the independent and control variables, and *Part 4* contained the demographic questions.

Experience-Based Survey

A limitation of the scenario-based survey is the potential for common method bias, which can be error resulting from correlating variables that are measured using the same method (Campbell & Fiske, 1959). Whereas the scenario-based survey measured participants' intentions, the experienced-based scenario measured their self-reported actual behavior (see Appendix D). It also consisted of four parts, with parts 1 and 2 differing from the scenario-based survey. *Part 1* asked participants to write a short description of the change that they were leading, including the need for implementing the change (i.e., why they were doing it) and their long-term goal (i.e., what would constitute success), and to respond to seven questions that mirror the strength of purpose questions presented later in the survey. *Part 2* asked the participants to indicate how they launched the change and how the organization responded to it. Based on the group's response, the survey then asked participants to answer the same questions about their personal opinions toward the change and the organization to measure any change in their strength of purpose. *Parts 3 and 4* were identical to the measures in the scenario-based survey.

In total, 377 individuals responded to the survey; however, several respondents abandoned or only partially completed the survey, resulting in a final sample of 202 participants from 18 countries, 26 different industries in both the public and private sectors, and more than 19 job functions (see Table 1). The overall response rate was 24%, but the high survey break-off rate resulted in only 13% of the responses as useable data (see Chapter 5 for deeper discussion of this issue). The demographics of the 202 participants who completed the survey in its entirety were: gender (male 62%, female 38%), age ($M = 43$ years; $range = 25-72$, $SD = 9.14$), highest level of education completed (associate's/technical degree or less 8%, bachelor's degree 30%, master's degree 49%, doctorate or equivalent 13%), race/ethnicity (Asian/Pacific Islander 9%, Black/African American 2%, White/Caucasian 82%, Hispanic/Latino 3%, Other/Multi-Racial

1%, Declined to respond 3%), and job level (individual contributor 9%, team leader/supervisor 19%, senior manager 23%, functional manager 21%, business manager 19%, group manager 9%).

Table 1

Industry, job function and nationality of sample population (n = 202)

Industry	%	Job Function	%	Nationality	%
Accounting	1	Accounting	9	Australia	1
Advertising	1	Admin/Clerical	1	Barbados	.5
Aerospace/Aviation/ Auto	1	Advertisement	22	Canada	3
Business/Prof. Services	6	Communications	1	China	.5
Computers (Hardware)	1	Consulting	8	India	1
Consulting	12	Customer Service	1	Ireland	1
Education	1	Edu./Training	1	Japan	.5
Engineering/Architecture	1	Health Care	1	Mexico	1
Entertainment	3	Human Resources	15	Netherlands	.5
Finance/Banking/Insurance	37	Legal	4	New Zealand	.5
Food Service	3	Logistics	1	Norway	.5
Government/Military	2	Management	16	Philippines	.5
Healthcare/Medical	2	Operations	7	Romania	.5
Legal	4	Real Estate	1	Spain	.5
Manufacturing	4	Research	1	Switzerland	.5
Marketing	2	Sales/Marketing	8	Ukraine	1
Media/Print/Publishing	2	Science/Tech.	1	United Kingdom	9
Not-for-Profit	4	Other	2	United States	78
Pharmaceutical/Chemical	1				
Procurement	1				
Real Estate	2				
Retail	2				
Telecommunications	2				
Utilities	2				
Wholesale	1				
Other	4				

Note. Valid % reported.

Measures

IV 1 - Self-Monitoring. The present study used the shortened Self-Monitoring Scale (SMS), which consists of 18 items and is psychometrically superior to the original 25-item questionnaire (Gangestad & Snyder, 2000; Snyder & Gangestad, 1985; Snyder and Gangestad, 1986). Items are scored true or false, where high self-monitors answer in the keyed direction and low self-monitors answer in the alternative direction. Example items are “I find it hard to imitate the behavior of other people” (*false*) and “I can only argue for ideas which I already believe” (*false*). The scale produces a total score from 0 - 18, and higher scores indicate more self-monitoring (LSM < 11 \geq HSM). The scale yielded adequate overall reliability, Cronbach’s $\alpha = .73$, and scores ($M = 9.72$, $SD = 3.63$) consistent with previous findings (Gangestad & Snyder, 2000; Day et al., 2002). The sample population contained 56 % LSMs and 44 % HSMs.

IV 2 - Grit. Grit is measured by either of two scales, the long version (Grit-O; Duckworth et al., 2007) which consists of 12 items and the two sub-factors *consistency of interests* and *perseverance of effort*, or the short version (Grit-S; Duckworth & Quinn, 2009) which consists of 8 items and maintains the same two sub-factors. The Grit-S scale is a more efficient measure of the trait that has adequate to good scale reliability (alphas ranged from .73 to .83 across four samples) and good sub-scale inter-correlation, $r = .59$, $p < .001$. Example items that tap into one’s ability to sustain effort in the face of adversity (e.g., perseverance of effort) are “I finish whatever I begin” and “Setbacks don’t discourage me.” Example items that get at whether individuals focus their effort (e.g., consistency of interests) are “I often set a goal but later choose to pursue a different one” (R) and “I have difficulty maintaining my focus on projects that take more than a few months to complete” (R). Items are rated on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 = *not at all like me* to 5 = *very much like me*.

The grit score is calculated as the mean score on all items and higher scores indicate more grit. Results were similar to those data reported by Duckworth et al. (2007) and Duckworth and Quinn (2009). Overall scale reliability was adequate, $\alpha = .77$, and principle components analysis using orthogonal (varimax) rotation revealed that the two sub-factors accounted for 60% of the total variance (eigenvalues greater than 1). Subscale reliabilities were also adequate and there was a moderately significant correlation between the two subscales (see Table 2).

Table 2

Standardized loadings^a from principle components analysis for Grit (n = 202)

<i>Item</i>	<i>Loadings^b</i>	
	<i>1</i>	<i>2</i>
<i>Consistency of Interest ($\alpha = .76$)</i>		
4. New ideas and projects sometimes distract me from previous ones. (R)	.82	-.03
1. I often set a goal but later choose to pursue a different one. (R)	.74	.14
2. I have been obsessed with a certain idea or project for a short time but later lost interest. (R)	.72	.14
3. I have difficulty maintaining my focus on projects that take more than a few months to complete. (R)	.71	.29
<i>Perseverance of Effort ($\alpha = .73$)</i>		
8. I am a hard worker.	-.10	.87
7. I am diligent.	.11	.86
5. I finish whatever I begin.	.31	.68
6. Setbacks don't discourage me.	.25	.55
Eigenvalues	2.42	2.39
(% of Variance)	30.26	29.82
Mean	3.63	4.12
SD	.65	.58

a. Results of rotated component matrix reported; rotation converged in 3 iterations. Extraction method was principal component analysis using varimax rotation with Kaiser normalization. Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy was .769, Bartlett's test of sphericity $X^2 = 483.301$, $p < .000$.

b. Significant item loadings have been emboldened only for the factor on which they load most heavily.

IV3 – Leader’s Situation. The purpose of the study was to measure the effect of the condition of resistance to change on a leader’s strength of purpose. Each version of the survey assessed the leader's situation, which was operationalized as his or her perception of the amount of group behavioral support for change.

Scenario-Based Survey. In *Part 2* of this survey, participants were put into each condition of organization resistance and support. After selecting a launch strategy, participants read a short business scenario that described the group’s response to the change. The effectiveness of this priming was measured using the *behavioral support for change* continuum (Herscovitch & Meyer, 2002). This 101-point continuum reflects a range of support behavior from active resistance to championing the change effort, permitting an assessment of the participant's perceived amount of behavioral support for the change initiative. Participants were asked to provide a number on the continuum that most closely resembles the group's response to the change initiative as described in the scenario. Anchor points along the continuum were labeled and numbered from left to right at 20-point intervals as *active resistance*, *passive resistance*, *compliance*, *cooperation*, and *championing*. Written descriptions of each anchor were provided, such as: *active resistance* - demonstrating opposition in response to the change by engaging in overt behaviors that are intended to ensure that the change fails; and, *championing* - demonstrating strong enthusiasm for the change by going above and beyond what is formally required to ensure the success of the change and promoting the change to others. The mean scores for each condition indicated that participants perceived the group's response as intended (resistance scenario: $M = 22$, $SD = 21.04$; support scenario: $M = 77$, $SD = 15.31$). A score of 22 falls between active and passive resistance on the scale, and a score of 77 falls between cooperation and championing.

Experience-Based Survey. Whereas this variable was manipulated in the previous survey described, it was determined by the participant in the experience-based survey. First, one open-answer question primed the participant's thinking about the group's initial response to the change effort. This question was "From your perspective, how have people reacted to the change? Please provide three examples of behavior that you have observed from your colleagues in the organization since launching the change." In effect, by recounting their experience participants wrote their own scenarios. Next, the *behavioral support for change* continuum was used to assess the participant's perception of the group's response to the change effort.

DV 1 - Leader's Approach to Change. To assess this, an item was created by integrating previously tested launch strategies (Coch & French, 1948) into the continuum of leader behavior (Tannenbaum & Schmidt, 1958). Using the behavioral support continuum described above as a guide, a similar 101-point continuum was constructed to measure a range of launch strategies from directive to participative. Anchor points along the continuum are labeled from left to right as *directing the change*, *selling the change*, *consulting with others*, *participating with employee representatives*, *involving all employees*, and *delegating to others*. Following a brief description of the change that needs to occur, participants were asked to select a number on the continuum that most closely represented their approach to launching this change effort. Each anchor is described to enable participants' understanding of the continuum of choices. The two ends of the continuum are: *directing the change* - having analyzed the need and created a plan for change based on this, inform the company and execute the change according to plan; and, *delegating to others* - before any changes take place or decisions are made, explain the need for a change, then delegate the planning and decisions to others and allow them to implement the change plan as they see fit. Higher scores indicate a more participative or inclusive approach to launching the change initiative, whereas lower scores indicate a more autocratic or directive approach

DV 2 - Change Leader's Strength of Purpose. To measure the change in strength of purpose based on the condition (resistance or support) a 7-item scale was created that comprised 4 items to measure affective commitment to change goals and three items to measure the leader's intentions to stay with the organization. Using previous research as a guide (Brockner, Grover, Reed, DeWitt and O'Malley, 1987), participants were asked to account for the degree of change in their opinion by reporting how much each item applied to them *before* relative to *after* launching the change. The instructions were "Given the reaction described above, please indicate how your opinion might be different now than it was before the change was launched." The scales had 11-points with the anchors, 1 = *this applied to me more BEFORE launching the change than now*, 6 = *this applies to me the SAME* (mid-point), and 11 = *this applies to me more NOW than before launching the change*.

Affective commitment to change goals (AC). The sum of four items from the commitment to change scale (Herscovitch and Meyer, 2002) measured how much the leader wants to see the change through to completion. Example items are "I believe in the value of this change" and "This change serves an important purpose." Higher AC scores indicate an increase in strength of purpose.

Intentions to stay with the organization (IS). The sum of three items from the turnover intentions measure developed by Kelloway, Gottlieb and Barham (1999) were used to measure leader intentions to stay with the organization. Example items are "I don't plan to be in this organization much longer" and "I am planning to look for a new job." Because they measured individual turnover intentions, the items were reverse-scored. Higher scores therefore indicate an increased strength of purpose.

The mean of these items forms a *Strength of Purpose Score (SPS)*, which was used as an overall measure of strength of purpose for leading change. An initial principle components

analysis using orthogonal (varimax) rotation and reliability analysis found that one item diminished the overall scale reliability and cross-loaded on other items, so it was dropped from the scale. The principle components analysis was repeated on the remaining six items, and the results revealed that the two sub-factors – *affective commitment* and *intentions to stay* – accounted for 83% of the total variance (eigenvalues greater than 1) and good overall scale reliability, $\alpha = .84$. Table 3 provides the factor loadings and reliabilities for the final scale.

Overall commitment to stick with the change. Using the same scale as above, one item was created to measure strength of purpose in one global commitment (GC) question “I am committed to seeing this change through to the end, come what may.”

Table 3

Standardized loadings^a from principle components analysis for Strength of Purpose¹ (n = 105)

<i>Item</i>	<i>Loadings^b</i>	
	<i>1</i>	<i>2</i>
<i>Intentions to Stay (IS), $\alpha = .95$</i>		
I am planning to look for a new job. (R)	.95	.13
I don't plan to be in this organization much longer. (R)	.94	.11
I am thinking about leaving this organization. (R)	.94	.21
<i>Affective Commitment (AC), $\alpha = .83$</i>		
This change serves an important purpose.	.04	.89
This change is a good strategy for this organization.	.19	.85
I believe in the value of this change.	.20	.83
Rotation Sum of Squares	Eigenvalues	2.74
	(% of Variance)	45.64
		2.27
		27.61

a. Rotation converged in 3 iterations. Extraction method was principal component analysis using varimax rotation with Kaiser normalization. Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy was .773, Bartlett's test of sphericity $X^2 = 457.530, p < .000$.

b. Significant item loadings have been emboldened only for the factor on which they load most heavily.

¹ Analysis is reported for the resistance condition on the scenario-based survey. Analysis of the strength of purpose items for both the support condition and the experienced-based survey produced similar results.

Control variables

Because age has been shown to explain some variance in grit (Duckworth et al., 2007) and in self-monitoring (Day et al., 2002) – older people tend to score slightly higher on grit and tend to be lower self-monitors – it could be an important control variable in the analyses. Other control variables were gender, education, level in the organization, social desirability (Marlowe & Crowne, 1960; Strahan & Gerbasi, 1972), and the Big-5 factors of personality (Saucier, 1994).

Social Desirability. As a self-report measure, this survey is subject to demand bias in the form of social desirability. Social desirability is the tendency of an individual to respond so that others will view the individual favorably, rather than responding in accordance with one's own core beliefs or values (Marlowe & Crowne, 1960). The Strahan-Gerbasi (1972) short scale measures social desirability in 10, true-false items, where socially desirable answers are in the alternative direction. Example items are "I always practice what I preach" (*false*) and "There have been occasions when I took advantage of someone" (*true*). Principle components analysis revealed a five-factor structure that accounted for 62% of the total variance and a less than adequate overall scale reliability, $\alpha = .57$. As a result, the variable was not used in further analyses. This issue is highlighted further in the discussion section.

Big 5 Personality Factors. The mini-markers provide personality data that can be compared to both self-monitoring and grit in order to determine the relative impact of each on the leader's strength of purpose. Self-monitoring and grit are two individual difference variables that are theoretically different from the Big 5 factors of personality, so they should explain variation in leader approach and strength of purpose beyond the Big 5. Using a Likert-scale ranging from 1 = *extremely inaccurate* to 9 = *extremely accurate*, participants were asked to describe themselves as accurately as possible by rating themselves on forty trait-descriptive adjectives. Example traits are bashful (R), envious, creative, philosophical, and withdrawn (R). Principle components

analysis confirmed the five-factor structure with good overall scale reliability, $\alpha = .87$, and acceptable to good subscale reliability: *extraversion* $\alpha = .88$, *conscientiousness* $\alpha = .85$, *emotional stability* $\alpha = .81$, *agreeableness* $\alpha = .80$, and *openness* $\alpha = .78$.

Significance. Participants may not perceive their change effort (or the scenario) as significant, which could affect their strength of purpose. Why commit strongly to something that is difficult and insignificant? To control for this, one item was created that asked the participants “Before you launched the change, how would you have rated the significance of this change effort to your organization and the people within it?” (experience) or “How would you rate the significance of this change effort to Magnetic Securities and its employees?” (scenario). The item was scored on a 9-point Likert scale ranging from 1 = *extremely insignificant* to 9 = *extremely significant*.

Prior Success with Change Efforts. A basic assumption of this study is that most of the sample population had some experience with change, especially the experience-based survey respondents. As such, it is likely that each participant had an opinion about the successfulness of such efforts, especially if he or she were involved. One item in the demographic section of the survey measured whether respondents perceived change efforts that they have been involved with as successful. The item was “In general, how successful have the change efforts been that you have been involved with? Success is defined as a major overhaul of the organization resulting in long-term (i.e., sustained) change in the mission, strategy or culture.” This definition was adapted from Burke (2011). The *success* item was scored on a 7-point Likert scale ranging from 1 = *extremely unsuccessful* to 7 = *extremely successful*.

Analysis

The hypotheses were primarily tested with multiple regression (MR) analysis. The *strength of purpose* variables were recoded in order to determine participants' change in strength of purpose due to the leader's situation. The mid-point anchor of the scale, "this applies to me the same," indicates no change so it was recoded to establish a baseline (6 = 0). The far right anchor, "this applies to me more NOW than before launching the change," indicates an increase in strength of purpose on points 7 - 11, so these scores were each recorded in the positive direction (7 = +1, 8 = +2, 9 = +3, 10 = +4, 11 = +5). Points 1-5 on the scale indicate reduced strength of purpose, so each score was recorded in the negative direction (5 = -1, 4 = -2, 3 = -3, 2 = -4, 1 = -5). The global commitment (GC) item was recoded in the same manner. Affective commitment and intentions to stay were calculated as the mean of all items for each factor. The strength of purpose score was calculated as the mean of affective commitment and intentions.

The data analysis plan included testing of interaction terms, and one issue with testing interactions is maintaining statistical power (Aiken & West, 1991). For this reason, all control and demographic variables were tested to determine whether they predicted the outcome variables. Those variables that possessed no theoretical or empirical justification for including in the analysis were deemed extraneous and dropped from the final MR tests. Table 4 lists the variables that were found to predict significantly each outcome variable. As the majority of the sample had graduate level degrees, the sample was divided into graduate degree (62%) vs. no graduate degree (38%). Regression analysis found that graduate degree was a positive predictor of leader approach in the scenario-based survey and it was a negative predictor of certain strength of purpose variables in both survey groups, so it was added to the MR analyses as a covariate. In a similar way, job level was split to create an executive (functional manager and above) vs. non-executive (senior manager and below) variable labeled *role*. Since a major

function of executive leadership is leading significant change (Burke, 2011), one can predict a significant difference in attitudes and behavior between these two groups. Notably, role was a positive predictor of strength of purpose and global commitment in the resistance condition of the survey group, so it was included in those MR analyses targeting the scenario-based survey.

Table 4

List of variables that significantly predicted one or more of the outcome variables

Variables	Predictors*
<i>Strength of Purpose</i>	
Experience Survey	Education, Success, Emotional Stability
Resistance Scenario	Role, Emotional Stability
Support Scenario	None
<i>Affective Commitment</i>	
Experience Survey	Assessment, Emotional Stability
Resistance Scenario	None
Support Scenario	None
<i>Intentions to Stay</i>	
Experience Survey	Education, Success
Resistance Scenario	Extraversion, Role, Emotional Stability
Support Scenario	None
<i>Global Commitment Item</i>	
Experience Survey	Education, Success, Emotional Stability
Resistance Scenario	None
Support Scenario	Emotional Stability
<i>Leader Approach</i>	
Experience Survey	Age, Extraversion, Conscientiousness
Scenario Survey	Education, Conscientiousness

*Note. Only significant predictors are listed and included in MR analyses.

Predictors were centered for analyses including interaction terms, and unstandardized regression coefficients were interpreted and reported in the results section (Aiken and West, 1991). The data analysis plan is outlined in Table 5.

Table 5

Data analysis plan

Hypothesis 1: Self-monitoring positively predicts leader approach. There is a difference between HSM and LSM leaders' approach to change such that HSMs are more participative whereas LSMs are more directive.

IV: Self-Monitoring
DV: Leader Approach to Change

Hypothesis 2: The situation influences a leader's strength of purpose such that resistance diminishes it whereas support enhances it.

IV: Leader's Situation – Perceived Behavioral Support
DV: Leader Strength of Purpose (SPS)

- Affective Commitment (AC)
- Intentions to Stay (IS)
- Global Commitment (GC)

Hypothesis 3a: Self-monitoring interacts with leader situation to predict strength of purpose.

IV1: Leader's Situation
IV2: Leader Situation
IV3: Self-Monitoring X Leader Situation
DV: Leader Strength of Purpose (SPS)

- Affective Commitment (AC)
- Intentions to Stay (IS)
- Global Commitment (GC)

**Multiple linear regression (MR) analysis
Experience-Based Survey**

- Step 1: Controls**
- Conscientiousness
 - Education
- Step 2: Predictor**
- Self-Monitoring Score

Number of terms in regression equation:3
Sample size needed to test model: 89²
 $F_{crit}(1, 84) = 3.95$

Experience-Based Survey

- Step 1: Controls**
- Conscientiousness
 - Age
 - Extraversion
- Step 2: Predictor**
- Self-Monitoring Score

Number of terms in regression equation:4
Sample size needed to test model: 89
 $F_{crit}(1, 84) = 3.95$

Scenario Survey: Mean comparison (t-Test) and one-way repeated measures ANOVA

- Grouping Variable: Support (Resist vs. Support)
- Compare mean score in resistance condition with mean score in support condition for:
 - a. Leader Strength of Purpose (SPS)
 - b. Affective Commitment (AC)
 - c. Intentions to Stay (IS)
 - d. Global Commitment (GC)

Experience Survey: Multiple linear regression analysis

- Step 1: Controls**
- Emotional Stability
 - Success
 - Age
- Step 2: Predictor**
- Leader Situation

Number of terms in regression equation:4
Sample size needed to test model: 89
 $F_{crit}(1, 84) = 3.95$

Scenario Survey: Two-way repeated measures ANOVA

- Grouping Variable: Leader Situation (Resist vs. Support)
- Compare mean score in resistance condition with mean score in support condition with self-monitoring as a covariate

Experience Survey: Multiple linear regression analysis (full model between subjects)

- Step 1: Controls**
- Emotional Stability
 - Success
 - Age
- Step 2: Predictor**
- Leader Situation
 - Self-Monitoring
- Step 3: Predictor**
- Self-monitoring X Leader Situation

Number of terms in regression equation: 6
Sample size needed to test model: 89
 $F_{crit}(1, 84) = 3.95$

² All sample size requirements for regression analyses were calculated to detect a medium effect, $r = .15$ (Cohen, 1992), using G*POWER (Faul et al., 2007; Faul et al., 2009).

Table 5 (continued)

Data analysis plan

Hypothesis 3b: There is no association between self-monitoring and grit.

Variables: Self-monitoring, Grit

Hypothesis 3c: Grit interacts with leader situation to predict strength of purpose.

IV1: Leader's Situation
IV2: Grit
IV3: Grit X Leader Situation

DV: Leader Strength of Purpose (SPS)
○ Affective Commitment (AC)
○ Intentions to Stay (IS)
○ Global Commitment (GC)

Pearson's *r* Correlation

One-way correlation analysis between self-monitoring and grit

Scenario Survey: Two-way repeated measures ANOVA

Grouping Variable: Leader Situation (Resist vs. Support)

- Compare mean score in resistance condition with mean score in support condition with grit as a covariate

Experience Survey: Multiple linear regression analysis (full model between subjects)

Step 1: Controls

- Emotional Stability
- Success
- Age

Step 2: Predictor

- Leader Situation
- Grit

Step 3: Predictor

- Grit X Leader Situation

Number of terms in correlation: 2
Sample size needed: 115

Number of terms in regression equation: 6
Sample size needed to test model: 89
 $F_{crit}(1, 84) = 3.95$

CHAPTER IV: RESULTS

Overview

The statistical analysis of the data and the associated results are presented in this chapter. First, descriptive and correlation statistics are presented, followed by the regression models that were performed to test each of the hypotheses presented in Chapter 2. Next, the results for each hypothesis test are presented. Significant differences were found to exist between the scenario-based survey group and the experience-survey group, so each survey was analyzed separately. Supplementary tests were also performed, and these are presented as well.

Descriptive Statistics and Correlation Analysis

All data were entered into SPSS for statistical analysis. A comparison of demographic data for both the scenario and experience-based surveys is included in Table 6. There were no significant differences of self-monitoring or grit scores between the two survey groups. A *t*-Test comparison of mean scores from each survey group found that the experience-based survey respondents assessed organization change efforts that they have been involved with as significantly more successful ($M = 4.78, SE = .09$) than survey-based respondents ($M = 4.26, SE = .14$), $t(108.67) = 3.146, p < .01$. In comparison, the scenario-based survey respondents were slightly more diverse with respect to gender, but were more homogeneous with regards to nationality and ethnicity. The experience-based survey sample had a larger percentage of non-United States participants (29%) and was slightly more racially diverse.

Table 6*Age, gender, education and level of respondents broken down by survey group*

Scenario-Based Survey Respondents (n = 105)													
Age (years)		Gender (%)		Education (%)				Job Level (%)					
<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>AS</i>	<i>BA</i>	<i>MA</i>	<i>PhD</i>	<i>IC</i>	<i>TL</i>	<i>SM</i>	<i>FM</i>	<i>BM</i>	<i>GM</i>
42	8.87	58	42	11	31	47	11	14	29	21	17	13	6

Experienced-Based Survey Respondents (n = 97)													
Age (years)		Gender (%)		Education (%)				Job Level (%)					
<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>AS</i>	<i>BA</i>	<i>MA</i>	<i>PhD</i>	<i>IC</i>	<i>TL</i>	<i>SM</i>	<i>FM</i>	<i>BM</i>	<i>GM</i>
44	9.41	63	37	6	28	52	14	4	7	28	25	24	12

Note. Education: AS = Associate's/technical degree or less, BA = Bachelor's degree, MA = Master's degree, PhD = doctorate degree or equivalent; Job Level: IC = individual contributor, TL = team leader, SM = senior manager, FM = functional manager, BM = business manager, GM = group manager.

Descriptive statistics and correlations among the independent variables and the control variables were also calculated. Table 7 lists the results for the scenario-based survey group, broken down by condition (resistance and support), and Table 8 lists the results for the experience-based survey group. As predicted in hypothesis 3b, there was no correlation between self-monitoring and grit in either of the survey groups independently or when analyzing all of the respondents together, $r(202) = -.02$ (one-tailed). Self-monitoring and grit were significantly correlated with several of the Big 5 factors of personality, so these relationships were probed further with *t*-Tests. Self-monitoring scores of 11 or higher indicate high self-monitoring and scores less than 11 reflect low self-monitoring (Snyder & Gangestad, 1985), so this cut-point was used for the analysis. As compared to LSMs, HSMs were significantly more extraverted, $t(200) = 3.24, p \leq .001$, significantly less conscientious, $t(200) = -3.33, p \leq .001$, and significantly less emotionally stable, $t(200) = -2.28, p < .05$. On average, men scored higher on self-monitoring

($M = 10.17$, $SE = .33$) than women ($M = 9.07$, $SE = .39$), $t(197) = 2.11$, $p < .05$. There was no difference in perceived *significance* of the change effort between the scenario and experience survey groups, $t(185) = -.10$, $p > .05$. Grit was also significantly associated (positively) with conscientiousness, which is consistent with previous findings (Duckworth et al., 2007; Duckworth & Quinn, 2009).

Examining the correlations between the predictor variables and the outcome variables yielded both predicted and unexpected findings. Unexpectedly, neither self-monitoring nor grit was significantly associated with any of the dependent variables. As expected, self-monitoring had a small positive correlation with intentions to stay in the support condition, $r = .15$, whereas it had the opposite effect on intentions to stay in the resistance condition, $r = -.15$. Both of these correlations were non-significant; however, it was especially surprising that grit had such little correlation with all of the strength of purpose variables. Grit was a stronger, although not a significant predictor (inverse), of leader approach in the experience-based group, $r = -.16$.

The Big 5 factors were significantly correlated with several outcome variables. In the scenario group, conscientiousness and agreeableness each had small associations (inverse) with leader approach, $r = -.19$, $p < .05$ and $r = -.14$, *ns*, respectively. Education had a significant positive correlation with leader approach in the scenario-based survey, $r = .34$, $p < .01$. The global commitment (GC) item was significantly correlated with all of the strength of purpose scores (resistance condition: $r = .65$, support condition: $r = .69$, experience survey: $r = .68$, all significant at $p < .01$). Conscientiousness, agreeableness, emotional stability, age and gender were each associated with one or more strength of purpose variables.

Table 7*Means and correlations for the independent, control and dependent variables for the scenario group**Scenario-Based Survey Group - Resistance Condition*

Variable	M	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18
1. SMS	9.63	---																	
2. GS	3.86	.05	---																
3. Extraversion	6.62	.36**	.31**	---															
4. Conscientiousness	7.20	-.05	.48**	.16	---														
5. Openness	6.65	.24**	.34**	.34**	0.17	---													
6. Agreeableness	7.14	.04	.15	.22*	.33**	.28**	---												
7. Emotional Stability	5.73	-.07	.31**	.16	.36**	.25**	.29**	---											
8. Age	42.29	-.19	.12	.07	.18	.07	.12	.18	---										
9. Gender	0.42	-.09	.02	.07	.14	.01	.43**	-.13	.01	---									
10. Education	0.57	.04	.00	-.09	-.17	-.05	-.20	-.14	-.05	-.08	---								
11. Role	0.35	-.03	-.04	.07	-.01	.06	.03	-.01	.29*	-.18	.18	---							
12. Significance	7.59	.04	.05	-.23*	.02	.00	-.02	.06	-.03	.04	.04	-.04	---						
13. Success	4.26	-.12	.10	.17	-.01	.26*	-.02	.18	.38**	.05	-.15	.07	-.04	---					
14. Leader Approach	51.21	.03	-.03	-.06	-.19*	-.05	-.14	-.08	-.01	-.08	.35**	.10	.10	.11	---				
15. GC	0.61	-.06	.11	.07	-.12	.05	-.03	.11	.05	-.03	-.10	.06	-.16	-.01	.08	---			
16. SPS	0.10	-.11	.07	.07	.08	.02	.02	.19*	.11	-.01	-.21	.17	-.12	-.04	.01	.65**	---		
17. AC	0.84	-.02	.05	.12	.06	.10	.02	.07	.22*	.05	-.12	.13	-.13	-.12	.04	.65**	.77**	---	
18. IS	-0.22	-.15	.06	.00	.08	-.06	.01	.22*	-.02	-.05	-.22	.14	-.06	-.05	-.01	.43**	.85**	.32**	---

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Note. N ranges from 74 to 105 based on missing data. *Gender*: male = 0, female = 1; *Education*: no graduate degree = 0, graduate degree = 1;*Role*: non-executive = 0, executive = 1; *GC* - global commitment; *SPS* = strength of purpose score; *AC* = affective commitment; *IS* = intentions to stay.

Table 7 (continued)*Means, standard deviations and correlations for the independent, control and dependent variables for the scenario group*

Scenario-Based Survey Group - Support Condition

Variable	M	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18
1. SMS	9.63	---																	
2. GS	3.86	.05	---																
3. Extraversion	6.62	.36**	.31**	---															
4. Conscientiousness	7.20	-.05	.48**	.16	---														
5. Openness	6.65	.24*	.34**	.34**	.17	---													
6. Agreeableness	7.14	.04	.14	.22*	.33**	.28**	---												
7. Emotional Stability	5.73	-.07	.31**	.16	.36**	.24*	.29**	---											
8. Age	42.29	-.18	.12	.07	.17	.07	.12	.18	---										
9. Gender	0.42	-.09	.02	.07	.14	.01	.43**	-.13	.01	---									
10. Education	0.57	.04	.00	-.09	-.17	-.05	-.20	-.14	-.05	-.08	---								
11. Role	0.35	-.03	-.03	.07	-.01	.06	.03	-.01	.29*	-.18	.18	---							
12. Significance	7.59	.04	.05	-.22*	.02	.00	-.01	.05	-.03	.04	.03	-.04	---						
13. Success	4.26	-.12	.10	.17	-.01	.26*	-.02	.18	.38**	.05	-.15	.07	-.04	---					
14. Leader Approach	51.21	.03	-.03	-.06	-.19*	-.05	-.14	-.08	-.01	-.08	.34**	.10	.10	.11	---				
15. GC	1.86	.02	-.06	.04	-.10	.11	.20*	-.04	.02	.13	.09	-.13	.06	-.14	.01	---			
16. SPS	1.06	.04	-.06	.10	-.03	.08	.10	-.04	-.09	.05	.01	.03	.09	-.10	-.10	.69**	---		
17. AC	1.77	-.09	.02	.13	.06	.13	.14	-.13	-.03	.24*	-.08	.04	.08	-.07	-.16	.62**	.76**	---	
18. IS	1.42	.15	-.11	.03	-.09	.01	.02	.05	-.11	-.14	.09	.01	.06	-.08	.00	.48**	.81**	.25**	---

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Note. N ranges from 74 to 105 based on missing data. *Gender*: male = 0, female = 1; *Education*: no graduate degree = 0, graduate degree = 1;*Role*: non-executive = 0, executive = 1; *GC* - global commitment; *SPS* = strength of purpose score; *AC* = affective commitment; *IS* = intentions to stay.

Table 8*Means and correlations for the independent, control and dependent variables for the experience survey group*

<i>Experience-Based Survey Group</i>																				
Variable	<i>M</i>	<i>1</i>	<i>2</i>	<i>3</i>	<i>4</i>	<i>5</i>	<i>6</i>	<i>7</i>	<i>8</i>	<i>9</i>	<i>10</i>	<i>11</i>	<i>12</i>	<i>13</i>	<i>14</i>	<i>15</i>	<i>16</i>	<i>17</i>	<i>18</i>	<i>19</i>
1. SMS	9.81	---																		
2. GS	3.90	-.08	---																	
3. Extraversion	6.62	.36**	.19	---																
4. Conscientiousness	7.38	-.42**	.40**	-.11	---															
5. Openness	6.81	.12	-.06	.13	.05	---														
6. Agreeableness	7.24	-.08	.12	.28**	.18	.20*	---													
7. Emotional Stability	6.01	-.19	.20	.06	.42**	.06	.51**	---												
8. Age	43.82	-.10	.03	.25**	.09	.04	.02	.10	---											
9. Gender	0.34	-.21*	.05	.13	.17	.01	.07	.09	-.10	---										
10. Education	0.68	-.10	.01	-.06	-.08	-.05	-.08	.05	.06	-.10	---									
11. role	0.63	.07	-.05	.15	-.03	.04	-.09	.01	.21	-.06	.09	---								
12. Significance	7.59	-.14	-.00	-.09	.17	-.06	.01	.02	-.14	-.11	.01	.06	---							
13. Success	4.78	.20	.02	.03	.04	.07	.03	-.09	.02	-.13	-.04	-.01	.07	---						
14. Leader Approach	36.33	-.10	-.16	-.08	-.11	.03	.13	.04	.05	.07	.11	.18	-.06	.03	---					
15. Leader Situation	0.47	-.09	.05	.05	-.04	.04	.06	.12	.23*	-.03	-.12	.05	.08	.12	.24*	---				
16. GC	1.36	-.10	.04	.08	.14	-.04	.20*	.23*	.15	.02	-.22*	-.10	.03	.26*	-.13	.06	---			
17. SPS	0.32	-.08	.02	.00	-.02	-.06	.17	.21*	-.02	.00	-.19	-.17	.03	.24*	-.17	.03	.68**	---		
18. AC	1.33	-.11	-.07	.03	.07	-.04	.07	.24*	.12	-.01	-.02	-.12	.09	.20	-.12	.11	.68**	.78**	---	
19. IS	0.58	-.02	.09	-.03	-.09	-.07	.20	.12	-.13	-.01	-.26*	-.15	-.03	.18	-.15	-.05	.44**	.84**	.32**	---

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Note. N ranges from 76 to 97 based on missing data. *Gender*: male = 0, female = 1; *Education*: no graduate degree = 0, graduate degree = 1;*Role*: non-executive = 0, executive = 1; *GC* - global commitment; *SPS* = strength of purpose score; *AC* = affective commitment; *IS* = intentions to stay.

Testing Hypothesis 1

Hypothesis 1 predicts that self-monitoring is a significant positive predictor of leader approach to change. This hypothesis was unsupported. There is some initial evidence that self-monitoring may have a slight negative (instead of the positive effect predicted in the hypothesis) effect on how a leader chooses to launch change efforts. Table 9 lists the mean leader approach score for each survey group and its correlation with self-monitoring. A one-way ANOVA found that scenario-based survey respondents chose significantly higher (i.e., more participative) approaches to change than experience-based survey respondents, $F(1, 200) = 21.75, p < .001$, so tests were performed for each survey group separately.

Table 9

Means, standard deviations and range for leader approach broken down by survey

Survey Group	M	SD	Range	Correlation with Self-Monitoring
Scenario (n =105)	51.21	22.48	1 - 100	.03
Experience (n = 97)	36.33	23.28	0 - 90	-.10

Significance Tests

The hypothesis was tested with both *t*-Tests and MR analysis. For the MR analysis, the control variables were entered into the regression equation in step 1. Next, self-monitoring was added to the regression equation in step 2 to assess its significance as a predictor for leader approach. These tests were performed on all the scenario-based survey respondents' scores first then on the experience-based respondents' scores. See Table 10 for the results.

Scenario-based survey

Self-monitoring did not predict leader approach ($b = .11, p > .05$). This was confirmed with a mean group comparison of high and low self-monitoring leaders' approach scores. As predicted,

HSMs chose a slightly more participative approach ($M = 54.39$, $SE = 3.23$) than LSMs ($M = 48.92$, $SE = 2.96$), but this difference was not significant, $t(103) = 1.23$, $p > .05$. As shown, education was a positive predictor of approach, and further tests found that leaders with graduate degrees chose a significantly more participative approach to launching change efforts ($M = 54.83$, $SD = 20.37$) than leaders without graduate degrees ($M = 39.69$, $SD = 21.14$).

Conscientiousness had a negative effect on leader approach (non-significant) in that more conscientious leaders chose slightly less participative approaches to launching change. The full regression model did not explain significantly more variance in leader approach, so self-monitoring added little predictive power above and beyond that explained by education and conscientiousness.

Experience-based survey

The effect of self-monitoring on leader approach was reversed in the experience-based survey group where LSMs had a slightly higher mean approach score ($M = 36.72$, $SD = 22.90$) than HSMs ($M = 35.86$, $SD = 23.99$). The MR analysis found similar results in that self monitoring had a slightly negative effect on leader approach score, $b = -.86$, $p > .05$. Conscientiousness and extraversion also had small effects (inverse) on leader approach, although neither was significant. The full regression model was not a significant predictor of leader approach, and it only accounted for 4% of the total variance in leader approach score.

Table 10*The effects of self-monitoring on leader approach to change (both survey groups)*

DV: Leader Approach Scenario Group		B	SE B	R²	Δ R²	F	F Change
Step 1	Constant	65.78**	19.90	.14	.14	5.80** (2, 71)	5.80**
	Education	14.02**	4.91				
	Conscientiousness	-3.49	2.62				
Step 2	Constant	64.40**	21.83	.14	.00	3.82* (3, 70)	.03
	Education	14.01**	4.94				
	Conscientiousness	-3.44	2.65				
	Self-Monitoring	.11	.70				
DV: Leader Approach Experience Group		B	SE B	R²	Δ R²	F	F Change
Step 1	Constant	60.97**	21.85	.03	.03	.94 (3, 94)	.94
	Age	.23	.26				
	Extraversion	-1.98	1.77				
	Conscientiousness	-2.91	2.25				
Step 2	Constant	74.53**	24.71	.04	.01	1.05 (4, 93)	1.36
	Age	.17	.27				
	Extraversion	-1.13	1.91				
	Conscientiousness	-4.02	2.44				
	Self-Monitoring	-.89	.76				

* $p \leq .05$, ** $p \leq .01$

Note. Unstandardized beta reported.

Testing Hypothesis 2

Hypothesis 2 predicts that the leader's situation influences strength of purpose, such that more supportive behavior from the organization would be associated with higher strength of purpose and less supportive behavior (i.e., resistance) would be negatively associated with strength of purpose. This hypothesis was supported in the scenario-based survey, but not in the experience-based survey. Table 11 lists the means, standard deviations and range of participants' perceptions of group support for change for both survey groups.

Table 11

Means, standard deviations and range for leader situation broken down by survey

<i>Respondents</i>	<i>Mean</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>Range</i>
Resistance Scenario (n = 105)	21.95	21.04	0 – 100
Support Scenario (n = 105)	76.57	15.31	15 – 100
Experience Survey (n = 97)	59.05	19.05	15 – 95

Significance Tests

Scenario-based survey

To begin with, the mean scores of leader situation for each of the scenario-based survey conditions indicate that, on the whole, participants were primed in the desired direction for each condition. After reading each scenario, participants selected a number on the *behavioral support for change continuum* to indicate how they perceived the organization's response. Results show that respondents characterized the organization's response in the resistance condition as *passive resistance*, whereas they rated the response in the support scenario as *cooperative*. To test whether the leader's strength of purpose was significantly lower in the resistance condition than in the scenario-based survey, a comparison of strength of purpose scores, affective commitment, intentions to stay and global commitment was performed using the paired samples *t*-Test. The

results of these tests are provided in Table 12. The findings supported the hypothesis. Overall, participants experienced significantly less strength of purpose in the resistance condition than in the support condition, which represents a medium effect, $r = .33$. The global commitment item measured a similar result, with less overall commitment to the change effort in the resistance condition and more commitment to the change effort in the support condition, $r = .18$. Similar significant effects were found for both affective commitment and intentions to stay. This finding provides some support that the leader's situation (resistant vs. supportive) affected his or her strength of purpose; however, it did not explain fully whether this was due to level of support for the change or some other variable.

Table 12

Paired samples t-Tests for strength of purpose variables (scenario survey)

<i>Pairs</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>Correlation</i>	<i>t</i>
<i>Global Commitment (GC)</i>			.30**	-4.85**
Resistance Scenario	.61	2.38		
Support Scenario	1.86	2.03		
<i>Strength of Purpose (SPS)</i>			.21*	-10.21**
Resistance Scenario	.10	.52		
Support Scenario	1.06	.93		
<i>Affective Commitment (AC)</i>			.31**	-4.74**
Resistance Scenario	.84	1.76		
Support Scenario	1.77	1.67		
<i>Intentions to Stay (IS)</i>			.23*	-6.89**
Resistance Scenario	-.22	2.08		
Support Scenario	1.42	1.84		

Note. N = 105; $df = 104$; * $p \leq .05$ ** $p \leq .01$

Experience-based survey

For the experience-based survey, MR analysis was performed with leader situation as a predictor for strength of purpose, controlling for education, success, and emotional stability. The sub factors affective commitment and intentions to stay were also assessed as outcome variables, as was leader global commitment. The output of the MR analysis is provided in Table 13. The hypothesis was unsupported. For each of these dependent variables, emotional stability and success were both stronger positive predictors of strength of purpose.

An unexpected finding was that leader success with past change (self-reported) was a significant positive predictor of all strength of purpose variables. Leader situation accounted for very little of the variance in leader approach and was not a significant predictor of strength of purpose independent of emotional stability and assessment. One interesting result was the effect of education and leader situation together on intentions to stay. Education, success and leader situation together had a significant negative effect on intentions to stay, indicating that leaders with graduate degrees who rated themselves as having had more success with change in the past and also experienced more support for their current change efforts had decreased intentions to stay with their organization. The results of this analysis seem to indicate that there is a significant difference in leader strength of purpose between resistance and support conditions, and this difference can be explained in part by a leader's emotional stability and assessment of past success with change.

Table 13*The effects of leader situation on strength of purpose (experience survey)*

DV: Strength of Purpose		B	SE B	R²	Δ R²	F	F Change
Step 1	Constant	-1.05*	.43	.17	.17	4.81**	4.81**
	Education	-.17	.11			(3, 71)	
	Success	.21**	.08				
	Emotional Stability	.08***	.04				
Step 2	Constant	-.94*	.44	.19	.02	4.09**	1.79
	Education	-.20	.12			(4, 70)	
	Success	.23**	.08				
	Emotional Stability	.09*	.04				
	Leader Situation	-.00	.00				
DV: Affective Commitment		B	SE B	R²	Δ R²	F	F Change
Step 1	Constant	-3.61*	1.53	.14	.14	3.79**	3.79**
	Education	.04	.40			(3, 71)	
	Success	.65*	.28				
	Emotional Stability	.32*	.15				
Step 2	Constant	-3.71*	1.57	.14	.00	2.84*	.11
	Education	.06	.41			(4, 70)	
	Success	.63*	.29				
	Emotional Stability	.31*	.16				
	Leader Situation	.00	.01				
DV: Intentions to Stay		B	SE B	R²	Δ R²	F	F Change
Step 1	Constant	-2.69	1.83	.12	.12	3.26*	3.26*
	Education	-1.08*	.48			(3, 71)	
	Success	.60	.34				
	Emotional Stability	.16	.18				
Step 2	Constant	-1.91	1.82	.18	.06	3.82**	4.94*
	Education	-1.28**	.48			(4, 70)	
	Success	.72*	.33				
	Emotional Stability	.22	.18				
	Leader Situation	-.03*	.01				
DV: Global Commitment		B	SE B	R²	Δ R²	F	F Change
Step 1	Constant	-5.94**	1.95	.26	.26	8.28**	8.28**
	Education	-1.20*	.51			(3, 71)	
	Success	.99**	.36				
	Emotional Stability	.57**	.19				
Step 2	Constant	-6.12**	1.99	.26	.00	6.19**	.22
	Education	-1.16*	.52			(4, 70)	
	Success	.96**	.37				
	Emotional Stability	.56**	.20				
	Leader Situation	.01	.01				

* $p \leq .05$, ** $p \leq .01$, *** $p = .07$

Note. Unstandardized beta reported.

Testing Hypothesis 3a

Hypothesis 3 builds on hypothesis 2, which was not supported fully in the experience group. Hypothesis 3a predicts that the effect of the leader's situation would be moderated by self-monitoring. This hypothesis was partially supported in the scenario group and unsupported in the experience group. To determine this, a two-way mixed-model repeated design ANOVA test was performed on the scenario-based survey and a MR analysis was performed on the experience-based survey. The MR analyses controlled for education, success, and emotional stability. Before running the MR, all predictor variables were centered by subtracting the mean from each score in order to reduce potential issues with multicollinearity and increase interpretability of the regression coefficients (Aiken and West, 1991). The interaction term (self-monitoring X leader situation) was calculated as the product of the two centered predictors.

Significance Tests

Scenario-based survey

This hypothesis was partially supported. There was a significant interaction effect of self-monitoring and leader situation on strength of purpose, $F(15, 89) = 2.53, p < .01$. This indicates that the strength of purpose score for respondents differed according to their self-monitoring score. There was also a significant main effect for leader situation, $F(1, 89) = 31.81, p < .001$, but not for self-monitoring, $F(15, 89) = 1.02, p > .05$. Mean estimates revealed less strength of purpose in the resistance condition ($M = -.278, SE = .268$) than in the support condition ($M = 1.38, SE = .235$).

Self-monitoring also significantly interacted with leader situation to predict intentions to stay, $F(15, 89) = 1.96, p < .05$. There was a significant main effect of leader situation, $F(1, 89) = 62.36, p < .001$, and self-monitoring, $F(15, 89) = 1.86, p < .05$, on intentions to stay. The results showed a significant difference in intentions to stay between the resistance and support

condition, such that participants experienced decreased intentions to stay in the resistance scenario. There was also a significant difference in intentions depending on self-monitoring score, such that participants with higher self-monitoring scores experienced more change in intentions across the two scenarios and participants with lower self-monitoring scores experienced less change in intentions across the two scenarios. There was no significant interaction of self-monitoring and leader situation on affective commitment or on the global commitment item. These findings support the results of the analyses performed for hypothesis 2, and they provide some support that self-monitoring and leader situation interact to predict strength of purpose, and particularly the sub-factor intentions to stay.

Experience-based survey

To run the regression for the experience-based survey, emotional stability, success and education were entered into the regression equation in step 1, followed by self-monitoring and leader situation in step 2, then the interaction term self-monitoring X leader situation in step 3. Each of the strength of purpose dependent variables was regressed on this model to test for significance. The results of these tests are provided in Table 14.

Success was a significant positive predictor of all strength of purpose variables. Self-monitoring and leader situation had the largest effect on intentions to stay. When added to the regression equation in step 2, self-monitoring and leader situation each had a negative (non-significant) affect on intentions to stay, but education became a significant predictor (inverse) of intentions to stay and success lost some of its predictive power of intentions to stay (marginally significant). It seems that high self-monitors who were more educated had higher intentions to leave the organization. This finding is consistent with the results of testing hypothesis 2.

Table 14*The effects of leader situation and self-monitoring on strength of purpose (experience survey)*

DV: Strength of Purpose		B	SE B	R²	Δ R²	F	F Change
Step 1	Constant	.39**	.10	.17	.17	4.63** (3, 67)	4.63**
	Success	.21*	.08				
	Emotional Stability	.07	.05				
	Education	-.19	.12				
Step 2	Constant	.41**	.10	.21	.04	3.39** (5, 65)	1.43
	Success	.23**	.08				
	Emotional Stability	.08	.05				
	Education	-.24*	.12				
	Self-Monitoring	-.01	.02				
	Leader Situation	-.01	.00				
Step 3	Constant	.40**	.10	.23	.03	3.25** (6, 64)	2.26
	Success	.24**	.08				
	Emotional Stability	.07	.05				
	Education	-.22	.12				
	Self-Monitoring	-.02	.02				
	Leader Situation	-.01	.00				
	Interaction: SM X LS	-.00	.00				
DV: Affective Commitment							
Step 1	Constant	1.17**	.35	.14	.14	3.72* (3, 67)	3.72*
	Success	.73*	.30				
	Emotional Stability	.29	.16				
	Education	.08	.42				
Step 2	Constant	1.18**	.36	.16	.02	2.53* (5, 65)	.78
	Success	.73*	.30				
	Emotional Stability	.27	.16				
	Education	.06	.44				
	Self-Monitoring	-.07	.06				
Step 3	Constant	1.15**	.36	.17	.01	2.15*** (6, 64)	.39
	Success	.74*	.31				
	Emotional Stability	.26	.17				
	Education	.09	.44				
	Self-Monitoring	-.07	.06				
	Leader Situation	.00	.01				
	Interaction: SM X LS	-.00	.00				

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p = .06$

Note. Unstandardized coefficients are reported.

Table 14 (continued)*The effects of leader situation and self-monitoring on strength of purpose (experience survey)*

DV: Intentions to Stay		B	SE B	R²	Δ R²	F	F Change
Step 1	Constant	1.14**	.41	.13	.131	3.38*	3.38*
	Success	.55*	.36				
	Emotional Stability	.13	.19				
	Education	-1.21	.49				
Step 2	Constant	1.31**	.41	.21	.076	3.39**	3.10*
	Success	.65***	.35				
	Emotional Stability	.20	.19				
	Education	-1.51**	.50				
	Self-Monitoring	-.01	.07				
	Leader Situation	-.03	.01				
Step 3	Constant	1.22**	.41	.24	.032	3.35**	2.70
	Success	.69*	.34				
	Emotional Stability	.18	.19				
	Education	-1.42**	.49				
	Self-Monitoring	-.02	.07				
	Leader Situation	-.03*	.01				
	Interaction: SM X LS	-.01	.00				
DV: Global Commitment							
Step 1	Constant	1.94**	.45	.26	.26	7.95**	7.95**
	Success	1.04**	.38				
	Emotional Stability	.56**	.21				
	Education	-1.20*	.53				
Step 2	Constant	1.94**	.46	.28	.02	5.00**	.69
	Success	1.03**	.39				
	Emotional Stability	.53*	.21				
	Education	-1.21*	.56				
	Self-Monitoring	-.08	.08				
	Leader Situation	.00	.01				
Step 3	Constant	1.88**	.46	.29	.01	4.35**	1.06
	Success	1.06**	.39				
	Emotional Stability	.51	.21				
	Education	-1.16*	.56				
	Self-Monitoring	-.09	.08				
	Leader Situation	.00	.01				
	Interaction: SM X LS	-.00	.00				

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p = .06$

Note. Unstandardized coefficients are reported.

Testing Hypothesis 3b

Hypothesis 3b predicts that there is no correlation between grit and self-monitoring. This hypothesis was tested using Pearson's r , one-tailed test. This hypothesis was supported as grit and self-monitoring were not correlated, $r(202) = -.02, p(\text{one-tailed}) > .05$. As such, grit and self-monitoring should account for variance in strength of purpose independently.

Testing Hypothesis 3c

Hypothesis 3c predicts that the effect of the leader's situation would be moderated by grit. This hypothesis was tested using the same analysis as in testing hypothesis 3a. A two-way mixed-model repeated design ANOVA test was performed on the scenario-based survey and a MR analysis was performed on the experience-based survey. Once again, all variables were centered and unstandardized coefficients were assessed and reported. This hypothesis was unsupported.

Significance Tests

Scenario-based survey

There was no significant interaction effect of grit and leader situation for any of the strength of purpose variables. Results confirmed the findings for hypothesis 2 and hypothesis 3a in that there was a significant main effect of leader situation on all of the strength of purpose variables. In addition, there were no significant main effects of grit on any of the strength of purpose measures.

Experience-based survey

To run the regression for the experience-based survey, emotional stability was entered into the regression equation in step 1, followed by grit and leader situation in step 2, then the

interaction term grit X leader situation in step 3. Each of the strength of purpose dependent variables was regressed on this model to test for significance. The results are provided in Table 15. The hypothesis was unsupported, and results were similar to those found in testing hypothesis 3a. The interaction of grit and the leader situation was not significant for any of the strength of purpose variables. In step 2 of the regression model, grit had a small negative effect on affective commitment for the change goals and a small positive effect on intentions to stay, although both effects were not significant. Consistent with the findings in testing hypothesis 3a, the effect of adding grit and leader situation in step 2 had the greatest effect on intentions to stay. Taken together, leader situation seems to have a stronger influence (inverse) on intentions to stay than it does on affective commitment.

Summary and Next Steps

Overall, there was no support for the prediction that self-monitoring directly affects whether leaders choose directive or participative approaches to launching change; however, there was partial support that resistance to change diminishes leader strength of purpose, especially for high-self-monitors. There was no support that grit predicts strength of purpose. These analyses focused heavily on individual characteristics and less on situational factors, which may account for some of the mixed findings. For example, included in the analyses were seven individual traits (the Big 5 factors, self-monitoring and grit) and one individual attitude (belief in past success), but only one situational factor (the amount of support for change). Previous researchers have argued that findings such as these require a deeper analysis of the situation in order to explain more variance in the outcome variables of interest (Lewin, 1951; Mischel, 1977; Stogdill, 1948). As such, new predictions and supplementary analysis on situational factors, specifically national and cultural context, were performed next.

Table 15*The effects of leader situation and grit on strength of purpose (experience survey)*

DV: Strength of Purpose		B	SE B	R²	Δ R²	F	F Change
Step 1	Constant	.39**	.10	.17	.17	4.63** (3, 67)	4.63**
	Success	.21*	.08				
	Emotional Stability	.07	.05				
	Education	-.19	.12				
Step 2	Constant	.41**	.10	.20	.03	3.22* (5, 65)	1.09
	Success	.22**	.09				
	Emotional Stability	.08	.05				
	Education	-.23***	.12				
	Leader Situation	-.00	.00				
	Grit	.02	.11				
Step 3	Constant	.39**	.10	.21	.01	2.81* (6, 64)	.77
	Success	.23**	.09				
	Emotional Stability	.08	.05				
	Education	-.21	.12				
	Leader Situation	-.00	.00				
	Grit	.01	.11				
	Interaction: GS X LS	.01	.01				
DV: Affective Commitment							
Step 1	Constant	1.17**	.35	.14	.14	3.72* (3, 67)	3.72*
	Success	.73*	.30				
	Emotional Stability	.29	.16				
	Education	.08	.42				
Step 2	Constant	1.11**	.36	.16	.02	2.56* (5, 65)	.84
	Success	.68*	.31				
	Emotional Stability	.35*	.17				
	Education	.13	.43				
	Leader Situation	.01	.01				
	Grit	-.47	.38				
Step 3	Constant	1.12**	.37	.17	.00	2.11*** (6, 64)	.05
	Success	.69*	.31				
	Emotional Stability	.35	.18				
	Education	.11	.44				
	Leader Situation	.01	.01				
	Grit	-.47	.38				
	Interaction: GS X LS	-.00	.02				

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p = .06$

Note. Unstandardized coefficients are reported.

Table 15 (continued)*The effects of leader situation and grit on strength of purpose (experience survey)*

DV: Intentions to Stay		B	SE B	R²	Δ R²	F	F Change
Step 1	Constant	1.14**	.41	.13	.13	3.38*	3.38*
	Success	.55*	.36				
	Emotional Stability	.13	.19				
	Education	-1.21	.49				
Step 2	Constant	1.35**	.40	.23	.10	3.82**	4.04*
	Success	.69**	.34				
	Emotional Stability	.12	.20				
	Education	-1.50**	.49				
	Leader Situation	-.03**	.01				
	Grit	.56	.42				
Step 3	Constant	1.24**	.41	.25	.03	3.64**	2.32
	Success	.66*	.34				
	Emotional Stability	.11	.19				
	Education	-1.39**	.49				
	Leader Situation	-.03*	.01				
	Grit	.54	.42				
	Interaction: GS X LS	.03	.02				
DV: Global Commitment							
Step 1	Constant	1.94**	.45	.26	.26	7.95**	7.95**
	Success	1.04**	.38				
	Emotional Stability	.56**	.21				
	Education	-1.20*	.53				
Step 2	Constant	1.90**	.46	.27	.00	4.68**	.10
	Success	1.01**	.39				
	Emotional Stability	.55*	.22				
	Education	-1.14*	.56				
	Leader Situation	.01	.01				
	Grit	-.07	.49				
Step 3	Constant	2.00**	.47	.28	.01	4.10**	1.15
	Success	1.03**	.39				
	Emotional Stability	.56*	.22				
	Education	-1.23*	.56				
	Leader Situation	.00	.01				
	Grit	-.05	.49				
	Interaction: GS X LS	-.03	.02				

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p = .06$

Note. Unstandardized coefficients are reported.

Additional Analyses

Culture is an important contextual factor that has received increased study over the past twenty years. The GLOBE project, an extensive 15-year cross-cultural leadership study, identified ten societal clusters encompassing 62 independent societies (House et al., 2004). In this study, scholars performed discriminate analysis on international data to identify and confirm these clusters of societies. An important finding was the identification and classification of culturally endorsed implicit theories of leadership (CLT). Essentially, most models and theories of leadership – leadership dimensions – are culturally relevant (i.e., not endorsed across all societal clusters). Importantly, participative leadership was identified as a culturally relevant leadership dimension.

There were differences between the experience survey group and the scenario survey group in that the experience group was significantly more directive in launching change, rated themselves as significantly more successful with past change efforts, and had slightly more diversity with regards to nationality. It was feasible to test whether nationality or cultural differences influenced the outcomes and led to the mixed results and unsupported findings. Importantly, nationality and culture are different constructs, as nationality is man-made and culture is organic (Hofstede & Hofstede, 2005). However, results of the GLOBE study enable identification and analysis of both.

Three survey questions enabled assessment of this possibility: *What is your nationality?* (all participants), *In what country did you launch this change? If more than one, please list* (experience survey group), and *What was the nationality of the majority of employees affected by this change effort?* (experience survey group). The scenario-based survey was largely homogeneous, and the scenario was not written as a multi-national change effort. However, the experience-based survey was more diverse and many of the respondents' change efforts were

multi-national or global initiatives (29%). Participants in the experience group originated from 14 different countries, representing 29% of the total sample (the remaining 71% were from the United States). By comparison, the scenario group represented only 9 countries, 85% of the respondents were from the United States and 94% of the sample was from the Anglo societal cluster. As such, cross-cultural comparisons were not possible for this group. In all, the experience group was more diverse with regards to nationality, and the data from the three items above allowed probing of these differences.

Three questions guided this analysis: 1) Do leaders take different approaches to launching change efforts due to cultural context? 2) Does self-monitoring moderate the relationship between cultural context and leader approach?, and 3) Do cross-cultural factors influence strength of purpose, and if so, do they interact with the leader situation (i.e., resistance or support for change) to predict strength of purpose? Based on previous research, post-hoc predictions could be made regarding each of these questions. First, it was predicted that each of these variables would predict leader approach to change, because participative leadership has been found to be a culturally relevant leadership dimension. There is convincing evidence that an autocratic approach would be preferable in some cultures (House et al., 2004); therefore, a person's societal culture should predict his or her approach. Second, these effects should be moderated by self-monitoring. Self-monitoring theory (Snyder, 1974; 1979) contends that context matters more for some (HSMs) than others (LSMs), and as such leader style should vary more for high self-monitoring leaders than for low self-monitoring leaders across context. Third, cross-cultural factors should not significantly affect strength of purpose. The sample population was very senior and, in their own estimation, very successful at leading change. There is empirical support that success leads to strategic persistence, which is sticking with strategies that worked in the past instead of adapting when faced with radical change in the environment

(Audia, Locke, & Smith, 2000). The researchers found that successful leaders had increased self efficacy and decreased motivation to seek feedback and change courses of action.

Cross-cultural variables

The nationality items were combined and coded in SPSS to create three new categorical variables. First, a variable was created entitled *nationality match*, operationalized as whether the leader launched the change effort in his or her country of origin (“no match” = 0, Match = 1). Second, using the GLOBE findings as a guide, leaders and change recipients were grouped into their respective societal clusters and a similar variable was created called *societal cluster match* (“no match” = 0, Match = 1). Finally, a variable called *cultural context* was created, operationalized as whether the change effort was a multi-national effort or carried out in only one country (Uni-national = 0, Multi-national = 1). Change efforts spanning multiple countries were considered multi-national, and change efforts occurring in only one country were uni-national. The demographics of these variables are provided in Table 16. As indicated, 29% of the change efforts were multi-national in nature, and about 1/3 of the efforts were launched outside leaders' own cultural in-group (i.e., country of origin and societal cluster).

Table 16
Cross-cultural demographic variables (experience survey)

Variable	No	Yes
<i>Nationality Match</i> Did the leader launch the change effort in his or her country?	35%	65%
<i>Societal Cluster Match</i> Did the leader launch the change effort in his or her social cluster (change leader-recipient match)?	32%	68%
<i>Cultural Context</i> Was the change effort a multi-national effort?	71%	29%

Note. Variables were coded in SPSS as *No* = 0, *Yes* = 1. The sample size and make-up did not allow for identification of leaders and recipients' CLT (high or low participative CLT), but this would be an important variable for future research.

Significance Tests

Prediction#1: There is a difference in leader approach depending on cultural context, i.e., whether there is a match of nationality and societal cluster and whether the change effort is multi-national in nature.

To begin with, one-way ANOVA tests assessed whether there were significant differences of the mean scores on the independent, dependent, demographic, and control variables based on these new cross-cultural predictors. The results found support of a difference in leader approach based on this diversity (see Table 17). Specifically, there was a difference in leader approach depending on *nationality match* (marginally significant) and *societal cluster match* (significant). In both cases, leaders chose more directive approaches when they were leading change in their established in-group (i.e., when there was a match). On average, multi-national change efforts were launched with a significantly more participative approach than uni-national change efforts.

Table 17

Leader approach scores for each cultural group (experience survey)

	<i>Leader Approach</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>df</i>
<i>Societal Cluster Match</i>		4.37*	(1, 95)
Yes (<i>n</i> = 66)	33.00 (22.96)		
No (<i>n</i> = 31)	43.42 (22.68)		
<i>Nation Match</i>		3.53**	(1, 95)
Yes (<i>n</i> = 63)	33.11 (22.87)		
No (<i>n</i> = 34)	42.29 (23.18)		
<i>Cultural Context</i>		5.63*	(1, 95)
Multi-national (<i>n</i> = 28)	44.93 (22.24)		
Uni-national (<i>n</i> = 69)	32.84 (22.93)		

Note. * $p < .05$; ** $p = .06$. Standard deviations appear in parentheses below means.

Prediction #2: Self-monitoring moderates the relationship between the three contextual variables and leader approach, such that a HSM leader's approach varies across context whereas a LSM leader's approach does not.

MR Analyses were performed on the cross-cultural predictors to assess whether self-monitoring moderated those relationships. Results found support that self-monitoring score interacted significantly with nationality match to predict leader approach, $b = -3.30, p < .05$ (see Figure 4 and Table 18). There was no support that self-monitoring score (continuous variable) interacts with societal cluster to predict leader approach, $b = -1.81, p > .05$, but factorial ANOVA tests using HSM vs. LSM (categorical variable) found a marginally significant interaction between self-monitoring orientation and societal cluster match, $F(15, 88) = 3.69, p = .06$. HSM change leaders were more participative when leading outside of their societal cluster, and they were more directive when leading change within their social cluster. There were no significant effects of multi-national change and self-monitoring on leader approach.

In all, these results provide support that self-monitoring moderated the relationship between nationality match and leader approach. Importantly, these findings also provide empirical support for self-monitoring theory, because the cultural context affected HSMs more than it did LSMs. Said another way, HSM leaders adapted their styles depending on whether the change was within or external to their established in-group nation (significant) or societal cluster (marginally significant), whereas LSM leaders did not.

Figure 4. Interaction effect of self-monitoring and nationality match on leader approach to change (experience survey)

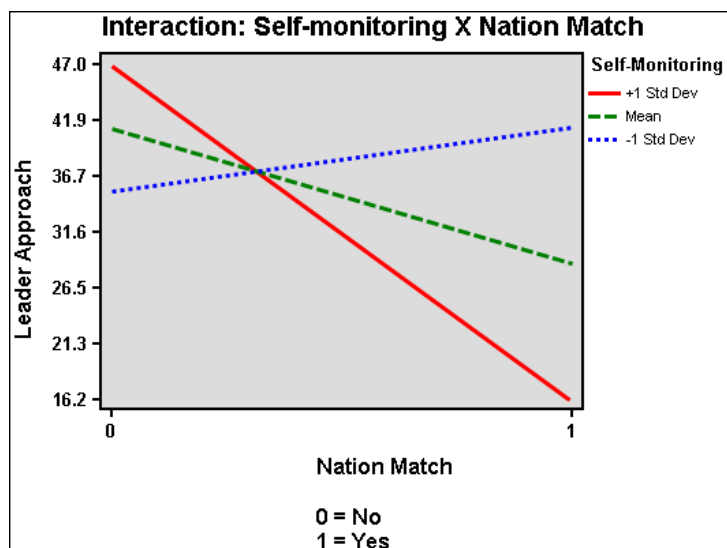


Table 18

The moderating effect of nationality match and self-monitoring on leader approach (experience survey)

DV: Leader Approach		B	SE B	R ²	Δ R ²	F	F Change
Step 1	Constant	19.63	12.07	.09	.09	1.74 (5, 92)	1.74
	Conscientiousness	-4.57*	2.32				
	Extraversion	-3.58*	1.86				
	Agreeableness	5.44*	2.65				
	Gender	6.62	5.07				
	Age	.33	.26				
Step 2	Constant	24.85*	12.18	.16	.08	2.50* (7, 90)	4.09*
	Conscientiousness	-5.19*	2.37				
	Extraversion	-2.93	2.01				
	Agreeableness	6.92**	2.67				
	Gender	7.00	5.10				
	Age	.41	.26				
	Nation Match	-14.00**	5.01				
Self-Monitoring	-.73	.76					
Step 3	Constant	21.03	11.93	.22	.06	3.12** (8, 89)	6.41**
	Conscientiousness	-4.99*	2.30				
	Extraversion	-2.93	1.95				
	Agreeableness	6.70**	2.60				
	Gender	6.75	4.95				
	Age	.45	.26				
	Nation Match	-12.23*	4.92				
	Self-Monitoring	1.57	1.17				
	Interaction: NM X SM	-3.30*	1.30				

• $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p = .06$ Note. Unstandardized coefficients are reported.

Prediction #3: Past success with change predicts strength of purpose above and beyond contextual variables.

First, one-way ANOVA tests compared mean scores on all strength of purpose variables to assess whether differences in strength of purpose existed depending on each of the contextual variables. Results found support that affective commitment scores were different depending on *nationality match* and *societal cluster match* (see Table 19). Leaders experienced more affective commitment for the change goals when leading efforts inside their country (significant) or societal cluster (marginally significant). There were no significant differences found for any of the strength of purpose variables regarding multi-national change efforts.

Table 19

Strength of Purpose scores for each cultural group (experience survey)

	<i>Affective Commitment</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>df</i>
<i>Societal Cluster Match</i>		-1.91**	(1, 95)
Yes (<i>n</i> = 66)	1.57 (1.91)		
No (<i>n</i> = 31)	.839 (1.33)		
<i>Nation Match</i>		-1.97*	(1, 91.54)
Yes (<i>n</i> = 63)	1.56 (1.96)		
No (<i>n</i> = 34)	.912 (1.28)		

Note. * $p < .05$; ** $p = .06$. Standard deviations appear in parentheses below means.

Next, MR analyses were performed on the strength of purpose variables and cultural variables. *Education, success, emotional stability, and leader situation* were entered into the regression equation in step 1, and the contextual variables were entered into the regression model in step 2 for each set of analyses. Nationality match was the only contextual variable found to predict any of the strength of purpose variables. There was evidence that it was a marginally significant

positive predictor for affective commitment (see Table 20). This finding suggests that when change leaders were operating in their own country, they had more affective commitment for the change goals.

Table 20

The effect of nationality match on affective commitment to change (experience survey)

DV: Affective Commitment		B	SE B	R²	Δ R²	F	F Change
Step 1	Constant	-3.71*	1.57	.14	.14	2.83*	2.83*
	Education	.06	.41				
	Emotional Stability	.31*	.16				
	Success	.62*	.29				
	Leader Situation	.00	.01				
Step 2	Constant	-3.74*	1.55	.18	.04	3.04*	3.46**
	Education	.13	.41				
	Emotional Stability	.26	.16				
	Success	.61*	.28				
	Leader Situation	.00	.01				
	Nationality Match	.73**	.39				

Note. * $p < .05$; ** $p = .06$.

Next, MR analyses were performed to determine whether the cultural variables moderated the relationship between leader situation and leader approach to change. There were no significant effects of multi-national change efforts. Societal cluster match significantly moderated the relationship between leader situation and intentions to stay (see Figure 5 and Table 21). The results suggest that when there is no societal cluster match, the leader situation has little effect on a leader's intentions to stay; however, when there is a societal cluster match, a leader's intentions to stay depends on whether the organization is supportive or resistant to the change. Essentially, out-group resistance seems to matter less to leaders than in-group resistance. A similar (marginally significant) effect was found for nationality match.

Together, these results provide support that leader situation moderated the relationship between nation match and leader approach. Importantly, they also provide empirical support for

self-monitoring theory as the cultural context affected HSM leader behavior more than it did LSM leaders.

Figure 5. Illustration of the moderating effect of leader situation and societal cluster match on intentions to stay (experience survey)

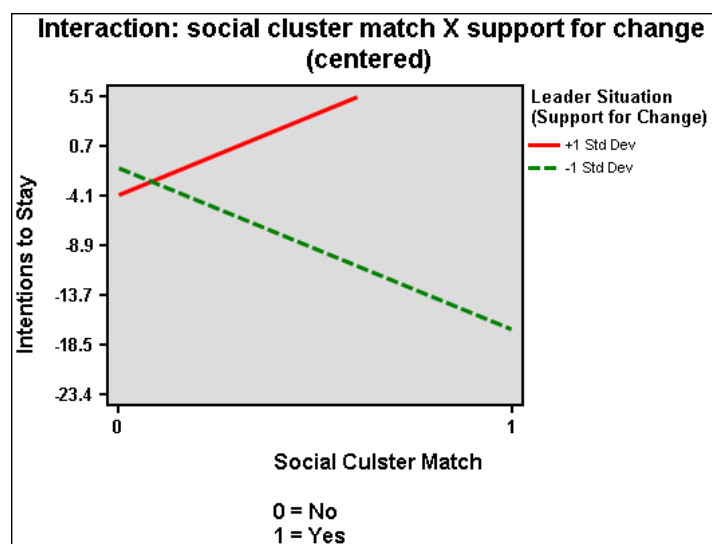


Table 21

The moderating effect of societal cluster match and leader situation on intentions to stay (experience survey)

DV: Intentions to Stay		B	SE B	R ²	Δ R ²	F	F Change
Step 1	Constant	.98*	.40	.11	.11	4.51*	4.51*
	Education	-1.05*	.48				
	Success	.65***	.33				
Step 2	Constant	1.15*	.55	.16	.05	3.36*	2.08
	Education	-1.23*	.48				
	Success	.79*	.34				
	Leader Situation	-.08	.50				
	Societal Cluster Match	-.02*	.01				
Step 3	Constant	1.09*	.54	.21	.05	3.66**	4.22*
	Education	-1.35**	.47				
	Success	.82*	.34				
	Leader Situation	-3.38*	1.68				
	Societal Cluster Match	-.07**	.03				
	Interaction: LS X SCM	.06*	.03				

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p = .06$

Note. Unstandardized coefficients are reported.

CHAPTER V: DISCUSSION

Overview

Self-monitoring (Snyder, 1974) is a well-established individual personality trait that has been positively associated with leadership and leader effectiveness (Day et al., 2002). Although the link between self-monitoring and leadership is well documented, the boundaries of self-monitoring as a positive leadership characteristic remain unclear, evidenced by the continued debate as to what specific leader behavior is predicted by each self-monitoring orientation (see Bedeian & Day, 2004). To gain more clarity on this issue, the present study examined the interaction of the leader's situation, operationalized as the organization's level of support for change, and a combination of leader traits (self-monitoring and grit), in predicting one's potential to initiate positively and stick with organization change. After reviewing the literature, it was proposed that *self-monitoring* would be positively associated with the manner in which leaders launch change efforts and negatively associated with leader strength of purpose to stick with these efforts in difficult conditions (i.e., resistance to change). It was further proposed that *grit*, a recently established individual difference variable (Duckworth et al., 2007), would be a positive predictor of leader strength of purpose during difficult conditions. A theoretical model was presented and tested with a sample of senior leaders in an attempt to gain more clarity about these claims (see Figure 2).

The two measures of effectiveness for this study were *leader approach* to launching change and leader *strength of purpose*. Hypotheses were developed by linking each of the independent variables, *self-monitoring* and *grit*, to each of these outcomes. Leader approach was operationalized as the level of involvement of others in planning and decision-making as scored on a continuum ranging from directing the change in an autocratic manner to delegating the change to others (Coch & French, 1948; Tannenbaum & Schmidt, 1958). Strength of purpose,

defined as the commitment to rise above the challenges associated with leading change, was operationalized as the sum of a leader's affective commitment to the change goals, i.e., the leader's desire to deliver the change goals (Herscovitch & Meyer, 2002), and intentions to remain with the organization (Kelloway et al., 1999).

Overall, there was a general lack of support for the initial predictions which was later explained in part due to cultural factors that were not in the preliminary analysis. The covariates *Big 5* extraversion, conscientiousness, and emotional stability, as well as education and participants' self-reported success with past change efforts, were all found to predict one or more of the dependent variables. Education was a positive predictor of leader approach, whereas extraversion and conscientiousness were negatively associated with leader approach. Education was also negatively associated with leader strength of purpose, but emotional stability and past success were positive predictors of strength of purpose. There was also a significant difference in leader approach between senior executives and mid-level managers, as evidenced by the difference in leader approach scores on the scenario and experience surveys. These findings will be examined in more detail later.

As indicated, the initial predictions did not take into account the cultural context of change. Nationality data on the change leaders and change recipients was collected, but only for the experience survey group. This permitted an analysis of culture's influence on change leader attitudes and behavior for the experience-based survey group. Three variables were created to capture these effects. These were: *nationality match* (match vs. "no match") - whether the leader and the change recipients were from the same country of origin; *societal cluster match* (match vs. "no match") - whether the leader and the change recipients were from the same societal cluster as defined by House et al., 2004; and *cultural context* (multi-cultural vs. uni-cultural) - whether the change effort spanned multiple countries or took place in only one country. Taking

these factors into consideration revealed the following key findings: 1) Leaders selected a significantly more participative approach when launching multi-national change efforts and when launching change outside their cultural in-group (e.g., in “no match” conditions for nationality and societal cluster), 2) Self-monitoring moderated the relationship between nationality match and leader approach, 3) Leaders had significantly more desire to achieve the change goals when operating within their own in-group, and 4) Nationality match moderated the relationship between leader situation and intentions to stay with the organization.

This chapter continues by interpreting these key findings, highlighting their significance and relationship to other studies in the literature. Next, limitations of the study are discussed, with focus placed on how these may have contributed to the lack of full support for the initial hypotheses presented in Chapter 2. Finally, the wider implications of this research and directions for future research and practice are examined.

Interpreting the Key Findings

The theoretical model tested first how the leader influenced the situation and then how the leader may have changed his or her opinion about leading the change after being subjected to the very conditions which he or she enabled, thereby examining the reciprocal nature of leadership. Findings 1 and 2 (above) concerned leader approach to change and will be interpreted first, followed by an explanation of findings 3 and 4 which concerned leader strength of purpose.

Launching Change Efforts: Leader Approach Findings

It was argued that launching change requires sophisticated social and cultural diagnosis, followed by planned interventions that reduce or diminish potential restraining forces against change (Lewin, 1951; Burke, 2011). Evidence from prior theorizing and research showed that a participative approach is better for obtaining long-term support and commitment from the

organization (Coch & French, 1948; Watson, 1967; Burke, 1980; Bass, 1990). When such an approach is not taken, individuals and groups provide feedback to the leader in various forms of resistance that they are unsupportive of the change (Ford et al., 2008). It was hypothesized that high self-monitoring leaders would adopt a more participative approach to launching change than low self-monitoring leaders. This prediction was supported only after considering the cultural context in which the change was launched. First, scenario respondents selected significantly more participative approaches to change than experience survey respondents. Second, leaders selected a significantly more participative approach when launching multi-national change efforts and when launching change outside of their cultural in-group. And third, HSM leaders were significantly more participative in “no match” situations than they were in “match” situations, whereas LSM leaders were consistent in their approach across both conditions. Each of these findings is now discussed in further detail.

The difference between fantasy and reality

There was a significant difference in leader approach to change between the scenario and experience survey groups, which measured leaders' intentions and behavior, respectively. On average, scenario respondents indicated that they would launch the change in a significantly more participative manner than experience survey respondents. The scenario respondents' average approach score put them in the category of “participating with employee representatives,” as indicated on the leader approach to change continuum. In contrast, experience survey respondents reported that, on average, they launched the change efforts that they were currently leading with a “consultative” approach. There are at least three possible interpretations of this difference: 1) The difference in approach between the two groups is a measure of the intentions-behavior gap, and 2) The hypothetical nature of the scenario, and 3) The difference represents the *Anglo* societal culture's preference for participative leadership.

The attitude-intention gap. The classic study of racial prejudice conducted by Richard LaPierre in 1934 established with empirical evidence the incongruence between questionnaire-assessed attitudes and actual behavior (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975). In this study, LaPierre travelled the United States with a Chinese couple, logging the number of establishments (hotels, auto camps, and restaurants) visited and whether they serviced or denied service to the couple. During that trip, the couple was refused service at only one of the 66 hotels and none of the other establishments. Six months later, LaPierre sent questionnaires to all of those establishments and asked whether they would accept and service members of the Chinese race at their establishment. The answer from 92% of the respondents was "no," there was only one "yes" response, and the rest answered "uncertain" (Dockery & Bedeian, 1989). Since then, a great deal of effort and research has focused on understanding this gap and predicting accurately individual behavior.

Behavioral intention models have shown that intentions and behavior are a function of one's attitudes, subjective norms, and perceived control (Ajzen, 1985; Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975). According to the theory of planned behavior (Ajzen, 1985), individual action is preceded by one's attitude about the favorability of executing the behavior, perceived social pressure to perform the behavior, and self-efficacy in relation to the behavior. The stronger these three factors, the higher one's intentions to perform the behavior, and intentions are expected to directly influence actions. Importantly, the theory of planned behavior was developed as an extension of Fishbein and Ajzen's (1975) theory of reasoned action, with the main difference being the addition of perceived behavioral control (i.e., self-efficacy) into the model. Perceived behavioral control, one's perceptions regarding his or her actual ability to perform the behavior, can influence directly one's behavior (Ajzen, 1991). There is some evidence that the experience group had higher perceived behavioral control over the change outcomes, which could have affected their decisions regarding the amount of involvement of others.

The experience group scored significantly higher on the success item, indicating that as a group the experienced survey respondents believed they had significantly more success in the past with organization change efforts. There is evidence that success leads to self-efficacy, i.e., task-specific confidence (Audia, et al., 2000; Bandura, 1977). By asking participants about their experience with change and how they rate the successfulness of these efforts, the survey may have measured an important source of self-efficacy, *enactive attainment*. Bandura (1977) describes this as “mastery experience” and claims that it is the most important factor in determining one's self-efficacy. As such, leaders in the experience group – who considered themselves to have had significantly more success than leaders in the scenario group – may have perceived that they had more control over the situation and chose less participative approaches as a result.

Hypothetical nature of the scenarios. It has been argued that self-report measures incorporating hypothetical examples engage survey respondents in higher-order cognitive processes that involve "weighing, inference, prediction, interpretation, and evaluation" (Podsakoff & Organ, 1986, p.533). A key problem with this method is that, in performing this function, individuals revert to implicit theories of personality and behavior to guide their answers. It has been shown that these implicit theories are culturally biased (Hofstede & Hofstede, 2005; House et al., 2004), which implies that the respondents' choices about leader approach are actually measures of their culturally endorsed implicit theories of leadership.

Cultural relevance. In line with the theory of planned behavior described above, scenario participants may have perceived social pressure (subjective norm of their cultural in-group) to answer in a positive manner. There are many terms for this type of error in survey research, such as social desirability (Marlowe & Crowne, 1960), hypothetical bias (Campbell, 1963), and

demand bias (Campbell & Stanley, 1963). There is evidence that this could account for results in the present study.

The scenario respondents represented the *Anglo* societal cluster (94%), which endorses participative leadership (House et al., 2004), and they answered consistently with this norm by choosing a significantly more participative approach. In contrast, the majority of the experience group was also from the Anglo societal cluster (81%), but they chose a significantly less participative approach. This can be explained in the different ways in which each survey was constructed.

One way to reduce demand bias issues in self-report survey research is to have respondents report on discrete events (Podsakoff & Organ, 1986). The survey group was asked to read a hypothetical scenario about a company preparing to launch a significant change effort, and then choose the approach that they would take as the leader. In comparison, the experience group was asked to list specific reasons for launching the change effort, as well as specific behavior observed from colleagues during the change effort. Doing so likely forced the respondents to create a clearer and more precise picture of what actually happened, rendering their responses to be more accurate reflections of the constructs being studied and less a function of the respondents' socially endorsed style.

Working harder for those we don't know

The second major finding was that leaders selected a significantly more participative approach when launching multi-national change efforts and when launching change outside of their cultural in-group (nationality and societal cluster "no match" situations). Essentially, the change leaders in this sample were more participative in contexts and with people with whom they were less familiar. This leads to the third significant result, which was that self-monitoring moderated the relationship between nationality match and leader approach. These two findings

are related, and they lend some support for the initial predictions. Two interpretations of these results are discussed next. First, people are motivated to fit in which would drive a more cooperative approach. Second, these findings support self-monitoring theory and previous empirical studies.

Gaining acceptance as a basic motivation. Approximately 29% of the executives in the experience group reported leading multi-national change efforts, and about 33% were leading change outside their established cultural in-group. It has long been argued that relationships and belonging are basic human needs (Maslow, 1954; Herzberg, 1959), suppositions that have face validity but little empirical evidence to support their claims. More recently, self-categorization theory (Hogg & Terry, 2000; Turner et al., 1987) proposed that individuals are innately motivated to reduce ambiguity, and one way they do this is cognitively to assimilate into an in-group prototype. This results in normative behavior, increased cooperation and shared norms with the in-group.

It was further proposed by Hogg and Terry (2000) that this motivation is even stronger in times of uncertainty. The authors postulated that individuals are further motivated to “reduce subjective uncertainty about one’s perceptions, attitudes, feelings, and behaviors, and, ultimately, one’s place within the social world” (p.124). They argued that minority leaders would have more difficulty fitting into culturally prescribed prototypes, and an inability to gain support fails to validate one’s self-concept. The results of the present study lend some support to these claims, as the participative approach chosen in "no match" situations could be interpreted as leaders working harder to reduce ambiguity and gain acceptance from the majority group.

The moderating effect of self-monitoring. The moderating effect of self-monitoring on the relationship between cultural variables and leader approach is consistent with previous research in two ways. First, it has been established that high self-monitors create prototypical images of

ideal types of people and then adapt their behavior to fit those images (Snyder, 1974). Second, there is also evidence that high self-monitors work hard to make their interpersonal interactions effective, and they do this by applying social scripts and action plans and by speaking up first in ambiguous situations so they can gain feedback on their interpersonal "performance" (Ickes & Barnes, 1977; Ickes et al., 2006). In the present study, HSMs were significantly more participative in "no match" situations, indicating that they responded to the change in cultural context by engaging more with the change recipients. However, LSMs were slightly more directive in these situations, which suggests that when faced with ambiguity, LSMs relied even more on their own authority and ability to make decisions rather than seeking outsider help. Taken at face value, these results may argue that HSMs are better suited for cross-cultural change roles, because more ambiguity calls for a more participative approach (Bass, 1990; Vroom & Yetton, 1973); however, a deeper assessment of these findings paints a less definitive picture.

Consistent with the self-monitoring theory propositions, HSM leaders varied their behavior across situations in that they were significantly more participative when there was "no match," and they were significantly less participative when there was a match. There was no significant difference in approach for LSM leaders across these conditions. These results provide empirical support for the claim that the situation influences high self-monitors more than it does low self-monitors; however, it remains unclear whether high self-monitoring leaders adapted their behavior correctly. That is, did HSM leaders adopt a more participative approach because it was the culturally correct approach, or were they simply participating as a means to reduce the ambiguity of the situation and manage their impression actively?

Several studies have found that HSMs deliberately manage their impressions in the moment by planning their social interactions and adapting in the moment their own behavior to fit others'

expectations (Gangestad & Snyder, 2000; Ickes et al., 2006). Because they would have less "stored" knowledge about people and leaders from other cultures, they could plan these interactions less and would rely more on their adaptive skills in the moment to manage their impressions. This implies that their self-reported 'participative' approach may have actually been their participating with others in a social performance of their role.

HSM has been positively linked to boundary spanning behavior, and there is evidence that HSMs adapt their behavior more naturally to accommodate others (Caldwell & O'Reilly, 1982). This has been identified as a main reason HSMs emerge as leaders in groups (Day et al., 2002) and an important argument for their selection into leadership roles. For example, adaptable behavior and self-regulation have been linked to emotional intelligence and leadership effectiveness, which many scholars and practitioners consider to be the key competency for leadership effectiveness.

People who lack adaptability are ruled by fear, anxiety, and a deep personal discomfort with change...If there is any competence these times call for it is adaptability. Stars in this competence relish change and find exhilaration in innovation. They are open to new information, and...can let go of old assumptions, and so adapt how they operate. They are comfortable with the anxiety that the new or unknown often brings and are willing to take a gamble on a new way of doing things (Goleman, 1998, pp. 98-99).

The results of the present study, when considered in the context of previous research (Ickes & Barnes, 1977; Ickes et al., 2006), suggest that HSMs are more social because they dislike social ambiguity, not that they are comfortable with it. Their engagement is actually motivated by the reduction of ambiguity, and when they perceive less ambiguity, such as in the "no match" situations, their behavior is not as participative as one might expect.

Furthermore, this study provided evidence that HSMs were significantly less emotionally stable, which is not a desired leader characteristic. The results also showed that HSMs tend to respond negatively to unsupportive group behavior in that they had higher intentions to leave in the resistance condition of the scenario-based survey. This would be consistent with previous research that found HSMs have higher turnover intentions in difficult situations (Jenkins, 1993). It seems high self-monitoring may have serious limitations.

However, these results are not definitive and require further examination and replication. Because of the many positive outcomes of self-monitoring, it remains an important area for future research. To gain better understanding about this specifically, leader approach should again be measured in cross-cultural contexts, along with multi-rater assessments using the leader approach to change continuum. This would allow one to determine whether HSMs chose participative approaches in the right contexts, i.e., in cultures where participative leadership is endorsed, which would give better insight into both the motivation and skill of the high self-monitoring 'boundary spanners.'

Sticking with Difficult Change Efforts: Leader Strength of Purpose

There is theoretical and empirical evidence that resistance to change is a strong force that influences leaders (Coch & French, 1948; Lewin, 1943; 1947) and contributes to the high failure rates of change (Burke, 2011). By examining the effect of resistance to change as it is experienced by both high and low self-monitoring leaders, one can better understand and predict leader behavior. It was argued that a paradox of leadership is that individuals who fail to gain acceptance rarely rise to the top of organizations, yet history shows that transformational leaders are often persecuted early for their actions. Those who maintain the strength of their convictions and connect with their followers over time have a greater chance of leading effectively transformational change. It was predicted that HSMs would have less strength of purpose in the

face of adversity, and leaders with more grit would have more strength of purpose in these conditions. Although these results were not supported fully, some unexpected findings merit further discussion. First, leaders experienced significantly less affective commitment, i.e., desire to achieve the change goals, when leading in “no match” situations. Second, grit was not found to be associated with strength of purpose as predicted. And third, societal cluster match moderated the relationship between leader situation and intentions to stay with the organization. Some possible explanations of these results follow.

Situational Strength: Resistance vs. Culture

It was predicted that the leader's situation, operationalized as the amount of behavioral support for change from the group (Herscovitch & Meyer, 2002), positively predicted his or her strength of purpose. This prediction tested the findings of previous work (e.g., Coch & French, 1948) to provide further evidence that resistance is a strong social-psychological force that influences leader attitudes and behavior. This hypothesis was supported in the scenario group and unsupported in the experience group.

The within-subjects design of the scenario group, and that the scenario was a uni-national change effort, controlled for random variables due to selection. In this condition, self-monitoring did interact with the condition to predict leader strength of purpose. However, in the experience survey self-monitoring did not interact with leader situation, and in fact leader situation was not even a predictor of strength of purpose. It is possible that resistance was a stronger situational factor in the scenario, and the cultural context was a stronger situational factor in the experience survey.

Situational strength is the degree to which a situation constrains individual personality (Mischel, 1977). It is argued that personality is less important in stronger situations and more important in weaker situations, because strong situations constrain one's range of options and

provide clear direction for individual action. Every respondent in the scenario group answered the strength of purpose items after reading scenarios that primed them into each condition of resistance and support for change. It is likely that participants saw clearly that the most important situational factor was the level of support (resistance or cooperation) from the organization, and they answered the strength of purpose questions accordingly. When given more free choice about this, as in the experience survey, it appears that cultural context mattered more than the amount of support.

This also may explain why grit was not a significant predictor of strength of purpose. Grit was significantly correlated with extraversion, conscientiousness and emotional stability, three important characteristics of leaders (Judge et al., 2002; Lord et al., 1986), yet it did not predict any of the strength of purpose variables in this study. It is possible that the strength of the situation reduced the effect of grit on these outcomes and made salient more relevant factors, such as one's belief in his or herself due to past success.

The experience group's self-assessment of past success with change was significantly higher than the scenario group's, and this assessment of success significantly predicted all strength of purpose variables in the experience group. These results suggest that leaders who believe they have been successful with change in the past have significantly more strength of purpose for leading current change efforts. Lewin (1943) clearly articulated that a person's history is a critical component of his or her current situation, and these results provide some empirical support for his claim. The results are also consistent with previous research which found evidence that, in the face of radical environmental change, leaders rely more on their confidence due to past successes to drive their current behavior than they rely on cues from their environment (Audia et al., 2000). It seems that success may actually create within oneself strength of purpose for similar tasks.

Wanting to lead and staying the course in cross-cultural contexts

Two key findings of this research were a reduced desire to lead in out-group (i.e., “no match”) situations and higher voluntary turnover intentions in out-group non-supportive situations. First, leader affective commitment (AC) for the change goals was stronger in match situations (nationality and societal cluster), indicating that leaders had significantly more desire to achieve the change goals when operating within their own in-group. It was also found that in match situations, leaders who experienced more support for change reported increased intentions to stay with the organization, whereas leaders who experienced more resistance to change reported increased intentions to leave. In “no match” situations, there was no difference in intentions to stay depending on leader situation.

Similar to before, these effects can be explained with self-categorization theory, which argues that individuals are more motivated to assimilate into an in-group prototype, especially in ambiguous situations (Hogg & Terry, 2000). Leading change outside one’s established country or societal cluster is by definition ambiguous and wrought with difficulty, because societal culture consists of the unwritten and often unobservable values learned over the lifetime of people who live in the same place (Hofstede & Hofstede, 2005). To be effective in these conditions requires much work on behalf of the cross-cultural leader, whose first course of action should be focused more on learning social aspects of life in the change recipients’ respective culture(s) than on directing change. However, change leaders are rarely if ever tasked with learning about culture; instead, they are charged with achieving business results quickly and efficiently. Arguably, astute and successful leaders would understand this challenge implicitly, and would be less inclined to take on such a task.

This also helps explain the moderating effect of societal cluster match and leader situation on strength of purpose. In “match” situations, leaders who experienced more support for change

reported increased intentions to stay with the organization, whereas leaders who experienced more resistance to change reported increased intentions to leave. In “no match” situations, there was no difference in intentions to stay depending on leader situation. Although the findings in the present study were not testing the propositions of self-categorization theory, they do seem to suggest that leaders who failed to gain support from their own in-group during change experienced significantly higher intentions to withdraw. This could be interpreted as their having failed to validate their self-concept, and according to self-categorization theory, they would be motivated to reduce this ambiguity. As such, they would have increased motivation to seek out more favorable situations in which they can gain acceptance (i.e., leave their current situation). On the other hand, leaders who failed to gain support in “no match” situations were affected significantly less. It could be that their self-categorization was not invalidated by out-group resistance, so there was no ambiguity to resolve.

Implications for Research and Practice

This study has several implications for research. First, it builds on the leader trait and organization change literatures by providing a unique investigation into the influence of resistance to change on the relationship between two individual factors (self-monitoring and grit) and one’s strength of purpose (commitment to change goals and intentions to stay). The operationalization of strength of purpose was conceived of as an antecedent to leading change successfully. As measured here, strength of purpose can serve as a dependent, independent, mediating or moderating variable in future studies. Future research should test the validity of the assumption that strength of purpose is an antecedent to successful change.

Second, this research challenged the position that HSMs are better-suited for leadership roles than LSMs by proposing one condition in which HSMs may be less suited for leading - in the face of resistance to change. It was proposed that selecting HSMs to lead in these conditions

could be risky. It was also hypothesized that LSMs would be less affected by the condition of high resistance to change, whereas HSMs would vary widely in their level of commitment to stick with the change in this condition. Some initial evidence has been provided that the situation did affect HSMs more than LSMs. Specifically, in the scenario survey group HSMs had significantly higher intentions to withdraw in the resistance condition than LSMs. The increased understanding due to the findings of this research supports previous findings that HSMs are more likely to voluntarily leave in undesirable or difficult conditions (e.g., Jenkins, 1993). Future studies may examine the same claims using multi-rater outcome variables instead of the self-report measures employed here.

Third, this study introduced the personal trait grit into the organization change literature, because it could be a critical characteristic of successful change leaders. It was hypothesized that grit would predict a leader's commitment to stick with change, and that it would interact with the leader situation such that leaders with more grit would be more likely than less gritty leaders to stick with change goals in difficult conditions. This hypothesis was unsupported, but the results did find convergent support that grit is significantly correlated with extraversion, conscientiousness, and emotional stability. These same traits have been found in a meta-analysis to correlate highly with leadership (Judge et al., 2002). Grit's association with these factors implies that it remains a potentially strong predictor of leader emergence and possibly leadership effectiveness. Future research should examine grit as a predictor of other outcome variables, such as performance reviews, multi-rater feedback ratings, and high potential assessments. The results of this study are somewhat puzzling, however, as grit should theoretically be linked to a person's affective commitment and intentions to remain with a difficult task. This leads one to question whether grit is a better predictor of individual level achievement outcomes than of group outcomes. For example, previous published studies on grit focused on retention of

individuals, spelling bee finalists, and grade point average and SAT scores – all individual pursuits (Duckworth et al., 2007; Duckworth & Quinn, 2009). Grit has also been shown to predict teacher effectiveness, which was operationalized with objective measures of student performance over the course of one school year (Duckworth et al., 2009). Grit may be a characteristic that is associated highly with growth mindsets (Dweck, 2007), which is the belief by students and teachers that talent can be developed (as opposed to being fixed at birth). The perseverance and consistency of interests measured by grit may actually tap into the behavior that is an outcome of having this belief. Future research along these lines is needed to define better the boundaries of this new, interesting personality trait.

Finally, the results of this study provide more support for Stogdill's (1948) claim that increased predictive power results from studying multiple traits along with the situation. A long-standing critique of the leader trait approach has been that there are no 'global' traits that predict leader effectiveness across situational contexts (Bass, 1990; Stogdill, 1948). Although Stogdill was not the first to make this claim, his review was influential in the leadership field, particularly in the personal-situational tradition. The goal of scholars and practitioners with this conviction is to predict the leadership potential of prospective leaders (Bass, 1990). As such, researchers in this field could examine multiple leader traits within specific contexts in order to increase the amount of variance that can be explained (Zaccarro, 2007; Zaccarro, Kemp, & Bader, 2004). The results of the present study support this claim. For example, the interaction of self-monitoring and leader situation accounted for 23% of the variance in leader strength of purpose, whereas the simple model only accounted for 17% of the variance. Future research should continue to incorporate multiple individual and situational factors together to increase our understanding of these complex forces that influence leader attitudes and behavior.

This study has clear implications for practice as well, especially in the selection and development of leaders for global roles. The large number of multi-national change efforts described in this research is indicative of the global business environment. One implication of this with regards to development is that organizations, especially those operating in the emerging markets, need to educate their leaders about culturally endorsed implicit theories of leadership (House et al., 2004). Simply relying on past strategies that have worked in one's own culture will not always work in these new contexts. Next, leaders would benefit from continued education on effective decision-making, such as when to involve others and when to direct them (Vroom & Yetton, 1973; Vroom & Yago, 1978). This education should be followed with international job assignments or cross-functional assignments accompanied by a structured mentorship or executive coaching program to ensure high potential leaders develop effective cross-cultural leadership and decision-making skills. Finally, with regards to selection, that LSMs were found to adapt less to contextual variables should be cause for concern. LSM leaders in this sample were significantly more conscientious and emotionally stable than the HSM leaders, and the sample population had more LSMs (55%) than HSMs (45%). Considering that emotional stability and conscientiousness have been consistent predictors of job success, and too often leaders are selected for their technical competence over leadership potential (Hogan, Curphy & Hogan, 1994), this does make some sense. The results, however, suggest that selecting low self-monitoring and conscientious leaders for cross-cultural leadership roles could be risky because they are less adaptive and less participative than high self-monitoring leaders. Importantly, these results only illustrated that high self-monitoring leaders adapted their approach in different contexts, but it remains to be determined why they did it and whether they adapted effectively. In all, this study should give practitioners more insights into the potential

strengths and limitations of their leaders as well as those key learning and development guidelines mentioned above.

Limitations

This study enabled a unique examination of two specific change leader outcomes that demand further research, and it yielded some interesting and unanticipated results even though not all of the initial predictions were supported. This is partially due to some of the limitations of the operationalization of leadership effectiveness, possible measurement error, and the study sample population. Each of these areas merits further discussion so future research can build on this study's findings.

Limited view of leadership effectiveness

There are many definitions and conceptions of leadership and leadership effectiveness, and some personality scholars have campaigned for standard definitions of the concepts to improve the overall rigor and generalizability of research (e.g., Hogan, Curphy & Hogan, 1994; Hogan and Kaiser, 2005; Kaiser, Hogan & Craig, 2008). Other leadership scholars have claimed that the definition should meet the purposes of the research at hand (Bass, 1960). It was argued that leaders are agents of change, and, as such, they direct interventions toward an organization's culture. The strength and unconscious nature of culture makes it difficult to target directly, prompting Burke (2011) to argue that, "Taking a direct, frontal approach to changing values is fraught with difficulty, resistance, and strong human emotion. We therefore start with behavior instead. We start with the behavior that will lead to the desired change in attitudes and values" (p.24). Leadership was therefore defined for this research as the attempt to change the behavior of others by structuring or restructuring the situation (Bass, 1960; Bass, 1990). Outcome variables such as team effectiveness and organizational productivity were beyond the scope of this study. A key assumption of this research was that achieving these outcomes presupposes

that a leader launches change successfully and sticks with it until the end. The outcomes of interest for this study were therefore initiating positively – which was defined as more participative – and sticking with difficult organization change efforts. It has already been shown that a flaw in this assumption is that participative approaches are not endorsed globally, and modern business leaders stand a good chance of leading cross-cultural change efforts. Future research must incorporate cultural context into the definitions and operationalizations of outcome variables. Furthermore, although critical to leading successful change, these are only two of the many leader roles and qualities that influence the success of an organization change effort. Future research needs to examine other qualities and roles of change leaders, such as the ability to provide clarity of vision and communicate the need for change (Burke, 2011), with the same amount of rigor so that scholars and practitioners can understand more deeply the many details of the meta-theories of change.

Measurement

The mixed-model design of this study permitted a within-subjects analysis of leader strength of purpose due to the leader's situation, thereby controlling for much of the random error due to selection. It also allowed for a between-subjects comparison and analysis of leader approach and changes in opinion due to the leader's situation. Examining both should enhance the overall generalizability of the study, since both leader intentions and actual leader behavior were examined in the scenario and experience-based surveys, respectively. However, the self-report format of this study, repeated measures design of the scenario-based survey, the leader approach and behavioral support measures, and the controversial measurement of self-monitoring using true-false items introduce potential bias and error that needs to be highlighted.

Self-Report Measures

A key limitation of this study is that it was a self-report measure, and therefore subject to demand bias in the form of social desirability. Social desirability is the tendency of an individual to respond so that others will view the individual favorably, rather than responding in accordance with one's own core beliefs or values (Marlowe & Crowne, 1960). It has been proposed in this study that high-self-monitoring individuals are particularly sensitive to social cues and adapt their behavior accordingly, so it was important to determine whether this bias influenced the results. The Strahan-Gerbasi (1972) short scale measures social desirability in 10, true-false items, where socially desirable answers are in the alternative direction. Example items are "I always practice what I preach" (false) and "There have been occasions when I took advantage of someone" (true). The factor structure for the X1 scale in this study did not prove reliable, so it was dropped from the analyses. Unfortunately, this appears to be a systemic problem in the field.

Many of the social desirability scales are long in nature and contain items that may be inappropriate for managerial populations (Marlowe & Crowne, 1960; Paulhus, 1984), so shorter forms of the scale such as the X1 were created. The present study found that nearly 15% of the useable surveys contained incomplete social desirability results. In other words, 29 of the 202 managers who took the survey in its entirety skipped one or more of the social desirability items. Other studies have had similarly poor results using the X1 scale with senior managers, and a recent exploratory study found no evidence of internal reliability or unidimensionality for the X1 scale (Thompson & Phua, 2005). The results obtained in this study support Thompson and Phua's findings and conclusions that the scale is not appropriate for this sample population, and a senior manager-specific social desirability scale is needed due to the large amount of self-report research in organizations.

Repeated Measures Designs

In repeated measures (or within-subjects) designs, there is the potential for common-method bias. This is error introduced into the study as a result of measuring different variables from a single source, i.e., one individual (Campbell & Fiske, 1959). In the scenario-based survey, respondents were primed into each condition of resistance and support and answered the same set of questions targeting the individual's change in strength of purpose due to the condition. To reduce the potential for this error, the conditions were presented to participants using a counter-balanced approach. In this way, the order in which participants received the conditions was random.

Repeated measures designs using multiple regression (MR) analysis, such as this one, risk violating the assumption of independence and creating a multicollinearity problem. In this study, there was a moderate correlation between the within-subjects measures of strength of purpose in the resistance and support conditions, as should be expected because the same individual answered for each condition. However, using Aiken and West (1991) as a guide, all variables were centered when analyzing interaction terms. An assessment of the VIF and tolerance results indicated no issues with multicollinearity.

However, another potential issue with repeated measures designs is testing effects, specifically introducing demand bias mentioned above. As participants read the second scenario, regardless of whether it was counter-balanced, it is possible that they intuitively determined what the study was attempting to measure and answered in a socially-desirable way. As discussed above, improved measurement of social desirability in senior manager populations will enable better control of this potential source of bias in similar studies going forward.

Measuring Leader Approach to Change and Behavioral Support for Change

Each of these variables was measured using only one item. This presents two potential opportunities for measurement error. First, each item measures one individual's perception about what actually happened. Implicitly, this means that the individual filtered the experience through only his or her own lens, which is biased and potentially uninformed. For example, on the experience-based survey participants may have chosen a leader approach that they *think* they executed, but others may have a different interpretation of what actually happened. It would be interesting in future research to use a multi-rater approach and ask others what approach the leader took, and then measure the amount of congruence between the leader's self rating and ratings of others. A possible hypothesis would be that more congruence predicts more behavioral support post-launch. A second potential issue that may have influenced the results is whether the respondent actually understood the question. Because there were no other items measuring the same or similar constructs (i.e., these were not scales), it was not possible to establish the reliability of the measures. There was some data to support the face validity of the items, as several respondents on the pilot study commented on the ease of answering them, meaning the items were simple to understand and could be answered quickly. Future research should establish the reliability of these items as they seem to have meaning and utility for explaining leader behavior, and could be useful measures in future research.

Measuring Self-Monitoring

Although it is a well-researched personality trait, the measurement of self-monitoring as a construct has been criticized and debated in the literature. Snyder (1974) originally created a 25-item true-false scale to measure the construct of self-monitoring. Briggs, Cheek and Buss (1980) questioned the appropriateness of factor analyzing the Self-Monitoring Scale (SMS) because it generates dichotomous data, so they administered Snyder's (1974) scale in a 5-point Likert

scoring format to 1,116 undergraduate students to determine whether it measures a one-dimensional or multi-dimensional construct. The results of their study found evidence of three subscales, which they labeled *acting*, *extraversion* and *other-directedness*. In a within-subjects study, the researchers also administered both the Likert scale and true-false measures to 140 students and found a significant correlation between the two versions, $r = .72, p < .001$. Following this critique, a new 18-item scale was published and submitted to similar scrutiny (Snyder & Gangestad, 1985).

Subsequent structural factor analysis of the original 25-item (Snyder, 1974) and newer 18-item shortened scale (Snyder & Gangestad, 1985) found evidence that the three subscales (i.e., factors) fall into a two-factor space and that 70% of the scale's variance is accounted for by the first factor and only 2% by the second factor (Gangestad & Snyder, 2000). The researchers concluded from this analysis that the scale measures only one construct (self-monitoring) and it is a valid measure for studying behavior variability across contexts. A separate meta-analytic study of the construct validity of self-monitoring determined that 71% of self-monitoring studies used the true-false scoring format with an acceptable average reliability for the 18-item scale, Cronbach's $\alpha = .73$ (Day et al., 2002). The researchers also deduced that self-monitoring is a valid personality construct and the scale or scoring method used to study it makes little empirical difference.

Although these studies support the use of the true-false questionnaire, the present study used MR analyses instead of the popular factorial ANOVA design in order to maximize the power of the statistical tests (Aiken & West, 1991; Cohen & Cohen, 1983). The 18-item self-monitoring questionnaire produces a score and recommends a categorical variable of high vs. low self-monitors. Future research should utilize the Likert scale formatted items and run the same tests to determine whether it makes a difference.

Survey Response Rate, Survey Break-off, and the Sample Population

As noted in Chapter 3, the overall response rate was 24% for the survey, but only 13% of the 377 respondents produced useable data, leaving a total sample population for the study of 202 leaders (13% of those leaders queried for participation). The sample population was derived from the database of a global business psychology consultancy based in the Northeast United States, and participants were clients of the firm who had consented to receive research reports, take part in research, or receive marketing materials from the firm. Although this enabled access to a very senior leadership population, the type of person who consents to such matters introduces bias through selection (Campbell & Stanley, 1959). Three issues are discussed with regards to this potential bias: active vs. passive non-respondents, survey break-off, and potential sample bias due to the over-representation of highly conscientious leaders.

The use of e-mail and web-based surveys is common in social science research because it is a quick and cost-effective way of reaching a very large number of individuals within a given sample population. Traditionally, response rates have been a measure of the quality of research, and more specifically of the *representativeness* of a particular sample (Cook, Heath, & Thompson, 2000). This is a desirable characteristic of every study, for it enhances the generalizability of the findings. As these researchers have argued, response rate is not the same as representativeness of the sample, and it has been argued that a high response rate in a nonrandom sample is worse than a low response rate in a random (i.e., more representative) sample (Cook et al., 2000). However, low responses tend to decrease statistical power for quantitative analyses and therefore limit the strength of conclusions that can be drawn from a study's results (Baruch & Holton, 2008). What's troubling with the present study is that, although the analyses maintained strong statistical power, the low response rate and that the

participants were not randomly selected, introduces possible bias and limits the conclusions one can draw from the results.

There is meta-analytic evidence that response rates for surveys targeting individuals declined for about 60 years - web-based surveys were no exception to this trend - until they stabilized at around 53% (SD = 20%) in the years between 2000-2005 (Baruch & Holton, 2008). In a different meta-analysis, Cook et al. (2000) found a slightly lower mean response rate of 40% (SD = 20%), citing factors such as pre-notification, personalization (i.e., addressing the respondent by name on the survey questionnaire), the use of incentives, and salience of the survey topic as predictive of response rates. This may help account for the 13% response rate of the present study, which did not pre-notify respondents of the research and did not personalize the requests. It was also assumed that the issues of change and leader selection were salient to leaders, but it is possible that these issues were not made clear enough at the outset of the questionnaire. Although no monetary issues or rewards were provided, free feedback on personal results was offered as an incentive to participate. Only 20 participants contacted the researcher to seek this feedback, suggesting that either respondents did not value the incentive or they did not understand what was being offered.

It is also important to distinguish between active non-response, passive non-response and survey break-off, because each has implications for the representativeness of the study or the study methodology. *Non-random missingness* of data, i.e., data that is missing because it is related to a variable in the study, generates biased results, whereas *random missingness* does not affect the generalizability of the findings (Rogelberg et al., 2003). Rogelberg and his colleagues found evidence that active non-respondents differ significantly from passive non-respondents and respondents in that they have been shown to be less conscientious and less satisfied with the survey administrator or sponsor. The researchers also found that most non-response can be

categorized as passive in nature, as most people are not overtly opposed to the survey effort. Furthermore, passive non-respondents did not differ significantly from respondents on satisfaction, and it was argued that the difference existed in their level of conscientiousness. There is some evidence from the present study that the respondents were highly conscientious.

On a 9-point scale, the mean conscientiousness score for this sample was higher than the mean score of the sample surveyed in the development of the mini-marker scales (Saucier, 1994). It can also be argued that this sample population was composed of generally successful people, based on the average education and job level reported by respondents. As conscientiousness predicts education and number of promotions, it makes sense that this group would be highly conscientious. The implication of this is that the sample could have been biased and therefore produced less generalizability results. For example, perhaps conscientiousness would have been a less strong predictor of leader approach if the sample included a larger amount of 'less conscientious' individuals. On one hand, it could be argued that this actually increases the validity of the study because senior executive populations are expected to be more conscientious. In another respect, the findings could be less valid because it is unclear whether this effect was due to selection bias. Future research needs to control for this by studying a wide range of conscientious and less conscientious leaders' approach to change.

Finally, a clear issue with this study is survey break-off, which is the term used to describe when an individual starts a survey but terminates it before finishing (Peytchev, A., 2009). Five individuals non-consented to the research, leaving 170 of the 377 respondents as falling into the category of "break-off" (45%). Although the research on survey break-off is sparse, this high rate represents cause for concern. Peytchev argued that break-off can be categorized into respondent factors and survey factors. A closer look at the response patterns revealed two important insights into that can be categorized into these two broad factors. With regards to the

survey, 62% of the experience survey group terminated the survey when asked to describe the need for change. In addition, 64% of the break-off on the scenario survey occurred during or immediately after respondents read the initial case study that described the change effort of the fictional company Magnetic Securities. This is consistent with Peytchev's findings that open-ended questions induce higher break-off rates, as do questions that require substantial comprehension. With regards to respondents, the highest break-off rate (37%) occurred in senior executives who reported that they were currently leading change efforts. Task and survey salience was not likely a factor for these individuals, but it is highly likely that the demands of their job, coupled with the length and difficulty of the survey, contributed to their break-off rate.

All together, a limitation of this study is the representativeness of the survey sample. First, the potential bias due to selection was represented by a highly conscientious sample population, which may have skewed the manner in which individuals answered the questionnaire, particularly how they chose to launch the change effort. Second, although the non-response rate itself may not have been serious cause for concern, the high break-off rate of the survey suggests that the results should be interpreted with caution. The survey design was potentially cumbersome to the respondents, and perhaps only the highly intelligent or persistent respondents finished the task. Although intelligence was not measured, grit - a measure of persistence - was measured, and the high average grit score for this sample provides some further support that the survey sample population may have been biased.

Conclusion

The convergent evidence from years of research on self-monitoring and leadership suggest that it is better to be high than low in self-monitoring as a leader (Day et al., 2002). The two surveys described here demonstrate support for self-monitoring theory in that cultural context moderated the relationship between self-monitoring and leader approach to change. At this point, the evidence simply suggests that HSMs do change their approach depending on the situation; however, there is little reason to believe that this adaptability is skillful or reasoned. Instead, there is some evidence that high self-monitoring leaders participate in a social “performance” of their role for self-interested reasons (i.e., to gain acceptance) rather than for the group’s benefit.

It is also important to note that LSMs were less adaptive across contexts, which could limit their effectiveness as cross-cultural leaders. Before one can argue for the selection of the more conscientious and emotionally stable low self-monitoring leaders, one must consider that cultural relativism:

Does call for suspending judgment when dealing with societies different from one’s own. One should think twice before applying the norms of one person, group, or society to another. Information about the nature and cultural differences between societies, their roots, and their consequences should precede judgment and action (Hofstede & Hofstede, 2005, p. 6).

The results of this study suggest that LSMs may not demonstrate this competence easily. Further to this, the results also illustrated the toll that leadership takes both within and outside of one’s cultural in-group. Leaders had less desire to lead in out-group conditions, and they had increased intentions to leave the company when faced with in-group resistance. This supports Stogdill’s (1948) conclusion that leaders need to possess the

“willingness to tolerate frustration and delay” and an “ability to influence other persons’ behavior” (Bass, 1990, p. 87). Selecting leaders without this desire and capability will undoubtedly contribute to the sustained high failure rates of change and change leaders.

In sum, these results increase our understanding of contextual effects on leaders’ attitudes and behavior by demonstrating that leader approach varies depending on an individual’s self-monitoring orientation, and strength of purpose varies depending on the context and amount of group support for change. The findings also provide clear support for the person-situation interaction and suggest that the recent research on cross-cultural leadership is both a timely and relevant field of study.

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(Appendices Follow)

Appendix A: Invitation to participate

Leading and Reacting to Transformational Change: Invitation to Participate In Study Conducted By Columbia University

FROM: W. Warner Burke, Ph.D. – TC, Columbia University

Robert B. Morris II, M.S. – Doctoral Candidate, TC, Columbia University

Description of Study

Have you led or taken part in a significant organization change effort, such as a merger, acquisition, or strategic reorientation?

Research shows that these efforts continue to fail more than they succeed (approximately 70% of the time). We would like to invite you to collaborate with us on a study we are conducting at Columbia University. Your participation involves taking a short, two-part survey.

Data from this study will:

- Enable leaders to understand what characteristics influence positively change in modern organizations.
- Help leaders identify personal characteristics that enhance and inhibit their own leadership during times of change.

Benefits of Your Participation

A research report and findings will be provided at **NO COST**. This may help you understand more about change situations and the characteristics of change leaders in various change situations.

As a volunteer, your personal data will be anonymous; however, you will be asked to create a special code (identifiable only to you) so that you can receive personal feedback (if you so desire), again at **NO COST**, once the research findings are released. A feedback coach will access and analyze your data and contact you to set up a convenient time for your personal feedback. You may use this to develop more self-awareness and, potentially, to enhance your personal leadership effectiveness.

How the Study Works

- Data collection will continue until May 2011.
- Online survey will take approximately 30 minutes to complete.
- All data is anonymous and strictly confidential; only summary information will be provided in the research report.
- No information is collected that identifies your organization.
- Results are compiled, stored and analyzed on a secure Columbia University Database.
- All analysis (and personal feedback for those who choose to receive it) completed at no cost.
- Findings may be published in academic journals without the inclusion of participant's names.

Appendix B: Informed Consent

DESCRIPTION OF THE RESEARCH

Approximately 500 people will take part in this study, which is designed to understand more about how individuals approach and react to various conditions of leading change. Your participation involves taking a short, two-part survey which should take about 30 minutes of your time.

Part 1 asks you to answer a few questions about leading change. Part 2 asks you to complete a survey about your approach to situations and tasks in general and to provide basic demographic information.

RISKS AND BENEFITS

Your participation in the study is completely voluntary and you must be at least 18 years old in order to participate. The risks associated with this study are that you could feel uneasy or self-conscious when answering questions regarding your personality. You may choose not to answer any of the questions and you may withdraw from the study at any time up until the point at which you submit the completed survey.

It cannot be guaranteed or promised that you will receive any benefits from participation in this study; however, your participation may contribute to a better understanding of organization change. Also, your personal data will be anonymous, but you can receive a 30 minute personal feedback session from a professional business psychology consultant upon your request AT NO COST. You may use this to develop more self-awareness and, potentially, to enhance your personal leadership effectiveness.

PAYMENTS

There is no payment for your participation.

DATA STORAGE TO PROTECT CONFIDENTIALITY

Data collection is underway and will continue until May 2011. To ensure your confidentiality, you will be asked to create a special code (identifiable only to you) so that a feedback coach can access and analyze your data if you so desire. All data is anonymous and strictly confidential; only summary information will be provided in follow-on reports. Results are compiled, stored and analyzed on a secure Columbia University Database.

TIME INVOLVEMENT

Your participation will take approximately 30 minutes.

HOW WILL RESULTS BE USED

The aggregated results of the study will be analyzed and presented in partial fulfillment of doctoral dissertation requirement for the principal investigator. Findings may be presented without the inclusion of participant's names at professional conferences, published in academic journals, or used for educational purposes.

When the project is completed, a summary of results will be available by e-mail. If you have any

Appendix B: Informed Consent

questions about this study, please call or send an e-mail to the principle investigator, Rob Morris: (212) 678-6642 or rhm2123@columbia.edu.

Principal Researchers:

Robert B. Morris II, M.S. – Doctoral Candidate, TC, Columbia University

W. Warner Burke, Ph.D. – Professor, TC, Columbia University

- I have read the Research Description and I have had the opportunity to ask questions about the purposes and procedures regarding this study.
- My participation in research is voluntary. I may refuse to participate or withdraw from participation at any time without jeopardy to employment, student status or other entitlements.
- The researcher may withdraw me from the research at his/her professional discretion.
- If, during the course of the study, significant new information that has been developed becomes available which may relate to my willingness to continue to participate, the investigator will provide this information to me.
- Any information derived from the research project that personally identifies me will not be voluntarily released or disclosed without my separate consent, except as specifically required by law.
- If at any time I have any questions regarding the research or my participation, I can contact the investigator, who will answer my questions. The investigator's phone number is (212) 678-6642.
- If at any time I have comments or concerns regarding the conduct of research, or questions about my rights as a research subject, I should contact the Teachers College, Columbia University Institutional Review Board (IRB). The phone number for the IRB is (212) 678-4105, IRB Case #11-113. Or, I can write to the IRB at Teachers College, Columbia University, 525 W 120th Street, New York, NY 10027, Box 151.

I have read and understand the above and agree to participate in the study.

I am 18 years or older and accept.

I decline or I am under 18 years of age.

Appendix B: Informed Consent

Getting Started

OPTIONAL: If you would like to understand your results within the context of this study (at NO COST to you or your organization), please provide a personal code so we can access your data.

This coding system ensures your confidentiality as it will not be linked to any identifiable information about you or your employer. Your code will be:

- The first two letters of your mother's first name
- The last two letters of your father's first name
- The two-digit date on which you were born

Example:

Mother = Susie

Father = Robert

Date of birth = Feb 28

Example Code = SURT28

IMPORTANT: Without this code, your personal data will not be identifiable, and you will not be able to receive the personalized feedback.

Thank you for agreeing to participate!

There are no right and wrong answers to the questions in this survey. No matter how you answer each question, you can be assured that many people will answer it the same way.

This survey will take approximately 30 minutes to complete. Please try to answer all questions.

Before you begin, please select the statement below that most closely resembles your experience with organization change.

- I am currently leading a significant organization change effort.
- I have led a significant change effort in the past.
- I have not led a significant change effort, but I have taken part in change as an employee.
- I have never led or taken part in a change effort.

1.2 What is your opinion about the strategic change mentioned above?

	Strongly Disagree	2	3	4	Neither agree nor disagree	6	7	8	Strongly Agree
This change is a good strategy for this organization.									
This change serves an important purpose.									
I believe in the value of this change.									
Things would be better without this change.									
I don't plan to be in this organization much longer.									
I am planning to look for a new job.									
I am thinking about leaving this organization.									

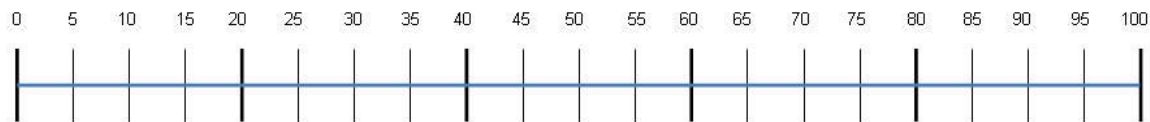
Launching Change

Eager to get started, you must first decide first how to proceed. There are several alternatives from which to choose when deciding how to launch this change.

On a scale of 0-100, the continuum below displays your range of alternatives for launching the change. These range from directing the change (0) to delegating the planning and implementation of the change to others (100).

1.3 Select a number on the continuum that most closely represents the approach you will take in launching this change effort.

Your Approach (select a number from 1-100): _____



Directing the change:
Having analyzed the need and created a plan for change based on this, inform the company and execute the change according to plan.

Selling the change:
Hold a group meeting with all those employees involved. Using demonstrations, dramatically present the need for change and the plan for increasing innovation in all areas. Answer any questions and ask the group for its support going forward. Then, implement the change as planned.

Consulting with others :
Have a group meeting with those employees involved and explain the need for change. Present a tentative plan for increasing innovation in all areas and ask the group for approval, allowing for suggested changes where warranted. Following this, implement the change.

Participating with employee representatives:
Hold a group meeting with all those employees involved. Using demonstrations, dramatically present the need for change. Present a tentative plan for increasing innovation in all areas and ask the group to select "special" representatives who will finalize, test and implement the innovation plan. Study their results and later have them serve as trainers for everyone else.

Involving all employees:
Divide all employees into smaller groups and hold meetings with each. Using demonstrations, dramatically present the need for change. Enlist every employee to analyze the problem, create ideas and make suggestions. All employees will implement and test the innovation plan. In this way, every employee in the organization is involved and their collective results are studied.

Delegating the change:
Before any changes take place or decisions are made, explain the need for change to those involved and share ideas about possible ways forward. Delegate the planning and decision-making to others and allow them to implement the change plan as they see fit.

Reacting to Change at Magnetic Securities

You have been leading Magnetic Securities’ Innovation Change Initiative (ICI) in the hopes of maintaining and even increasing its competitiveness in a changing marketplace. Magnetic Securities’ overall goal is to return to growth as a competitive business. The goal of the ICI, which is the plan you pitched to the executive board, is to increase innovation in all areas of the company to enable the desired growth.

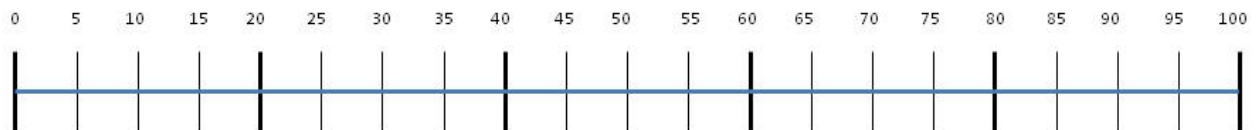
While leading this initiative, you have encountered staunch resistance to change from most of the organization. Many employees and executives, as well as entire divisions within the company, have not bought in to the change goals. As the champion of this change, others have projected anger at you directly and you believe some have attempted to mar your good reputation. Some have blindly resisted in that they won’t even listen to your case for change, while others rationalize the declining sales in some way. Some groups agree with you in principle but have done little to actually implement the plan.

Overall, there has been little progress due to too many people holding on to the old ways. In an update meeting with your peers just last week, one of them said “That’s not the way we do it around here” and another commented “If it isn't broken, don’t fix it.” Two of the five members of the senior executive team have voluntarily left the company and others have told you that they plan to leave as well.

2.1 How would you characterize the state of Magnetic Securities at this time?

On a scale of 0-100, the continuum below displays a range of behavioral support for change. These range from people actively resisting the change (0) to championing it to others (100).

Select a number on the continuum that most closely represents the group's overall reaction to the change initiative.



Active Resistance:

Demonstrating opposition in response to the change by engaging in overt behaviors that are intended to ensure that the change fails.

Passive Resistance :

Demonstrating opposition in response to the change by engaging in covert or subtle behaviors aimed at preventing the success of the change.

Compliance:

Demonstrating minimum support for the change by going along with it, but doing so reluctantly.

Cooperation:

Demonstrating support for the change by exerting effort when it comes to the change, going along with the spirit of the change, and being prepared to make modest sacrifices.

Championing:

Demonstrating extreme enthusiasm for the change by going above and beyond what is formally required to ensure the success of the change and promoting the change to others.

Reacting to Change at Magnetic Securities

You have been leading Magnetic Securities’ Innovation Change Initiative (ICI) in the hopes of maintaining and even increasing its competitiveness in a changing marketplace. Magnetic Securities’ overall goal is to return to growth as a competitive business. The goal of the ICI, which is the plan you pitched to the executive board, is to increase innovation in all areas of the company to enable the desired growth.

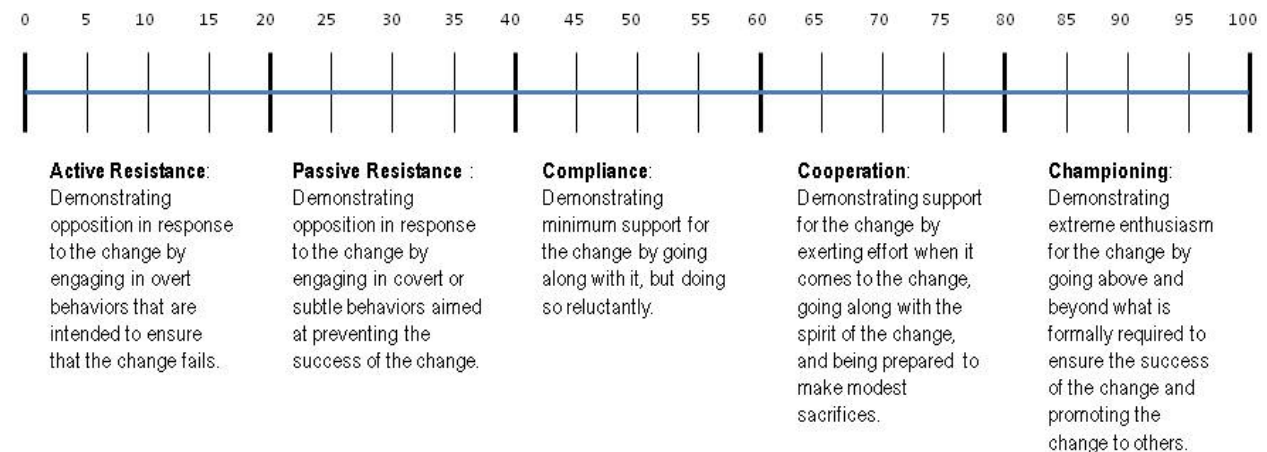
While leading this initiative, you have received support from the majority of the organization. For the most part employees and executives have attempted to implement the change goals; however, the changes that have been introduced have not had much effect on the bottom line as of yet, and the outlook for this year’s sales is not positive. In fact, profitability will likely slip further.

The majority of people, however, are arguing that this is evidence for even more diligence in adopting the plan more widely in the company. Just last week at an executive team meeting, three of your peers announced that they signed new contracts to remain with the company for two more years. It seems that the executive team is committed to seeing this through to completion.

2.3 How would you characterize the state of Magnetic Securities at this time?

On a scale of 0-100, the continuum below displays a range of behavioral support for change. These range from people actively resisting the change (0) to championing it to others (100).

Select a number on the continuum that most closely represents the group's overall reaction to the change initiative.



Personal Preferences- How accurately can you describe yourself?

The following sections ask you to describe yourself as accurately as possible. Consider the following as guidelines when answering the questions:

- Describe yourself as you see yourself at the present time, not as you wish to be in the future.
- Describe yourself as you are generally or typically, as compared to other persons you know of the same sex and of roughly the same age.

3.1. Please use this list of common human traits to describe yourself. For each trait below, please select the response that indicates how accurately the trait describes you.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Extremely Inaccurate	Very Inaccurate	Moderately Inaccurate	Slightly Inaccurate	Neither Inaccurate nor Accurate	Slightly Accurate	Moderately Accurate	Very Accurate	Extremely Accurate

- | | | | |
|---------------------------------------|---------------------------------------|--|---|
| <input type="checkbox"/> Bashful | <input type="checkbox"/> Energetic | <input type="checkbox"/> Moody | <input type="checkbox"/> Systematic |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Bold | <input type="checkbox"/> Envious | <input type="checkbox"/> Organized | <input type="checkbox"/> Talkative |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Careless | <input type="checkbox"/> Extraverted | <input type="checkbox"/> Philosophical | <input type="checkbox"/> Temperamental |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Cold | <input type="checkbox"/> Fretful | <input type="checkbox"/> Practical | <input type="checkbox"/> Touchy |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Complex | <input type="checkbox"/> Harsh | <input type="checkbox"/> Quiet | <input type="checkbox"/> Uncreative |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Cooperative | <input type="checkbox"/> Imaginative | <input type="checkbox"/> Relaxed | <input type="checkbox"/> Unenvious |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Creative | <input type="checkbox"/> Inefficient | <input type="checkbox"/> Rude | <input type="checkbox"/> Unintellectual |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Deep | <input type="checkbox"/> Intellectual | <input type="checkbox"/> Shy | <input type="checkbox"/> Unsympathetic |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Disorganized | <input type="checkbox"/> Jealous | <input type="checkbox"/> Sloppy | <input type="checkbox"/> Warm |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Efficient | <input type="checkbox"/> Kind | <input type="checkbox"/> Sympathetic | <input type="checkbox"/> Withdrawn |

3.2 The following statements concern your personal reactions to a number of situations. No two statements are exactly alike, so consider each carefully before answering. If a statement is *TRUE* or *MOSTLY TRUE*, select True. If a statement is *FALSE* or *NOT USUALLY TRUE* as applied to you, select False.

	True	False
I find it hard to imitate the behavior of other people.		
At parties and social gatherings, I do not attempt to do or say things that others will like.		
I can only argue for ideas which I already believe.		
I guess I put on a show to impress or entertain others.		
I would probably make a good actor.		
I can make impromptu speeches even on topics about which I have no information.		
In a group of people I am rarely the center of attention.		
In different situations and with different people, I often act like very different persons.		
I am not particularly good at making other people like me.		
I'm not always the person I appear to be.		
I would not change my opinions (or the way I do things) in order to please someone or win their favor.		
I have considered being an entertainer.		
I have never been good at games like charades or improvisational acting.		
I have trouble changing my behavior to suit different people and different situations.		
At a party, I let others keep the jokes and stories going.		
I feel a bit awkward in public and do not show up quite as well as I should.		
I can look someone in the eye and tell a lie with a straight face (if for a right end).		
I may deceive people by being friendly when I really dislike them.		
I am always willing to admit it when I make a mistake.		
There have been occasions when I felt like smashing things.		
I always try to practice what I preach.		
I never resent being asked to return a favor.		
At times, I have really insisted on having things my own way.		
I sometimes try to get even rather than to forgive and forget.		
I have never been annoyed when people expressed ideas very different from my own.		
There have been occasions when I took advantage of someone.		
I have never deliberately said something that hurt someone's feelings.		
I like to gossip at times.		

3.3 Please respond to the following eight items. Indicate how accurately each statement describes you using the scale below. Be honest - there are no right or wrong answers!

- 1 Not at all like me
- 2 Not much like me
- 3 Somewhat like me
- 4 Mostly like me
- 5 Very much like me

	1 Not at all like me	2 Not much like me	3 Some- what like me	4 Mostly like me	5 Very much like me
Setbacks don't discourage me.					
New ideas and projects sometimes distract me from previous ones.					
I often set a goal but later choose to pursue a different one.					
I am a hard worker.					
I have difficulty maintaining my focus on projects that take more than a few months to complete.					
I finish whatever I begin.					
I am diligent.					
I have been obsessed with a certain idea or project for a short time but later lost interest.					

Appendix C: Scenario-based Survey

4. Demographics

Please provide some basic demographic information.

1. Gender

2. Age

3. What is your race/ethnicity?

4. What is the highest level of education that you have achieved?

5. What is your job function?

6. What is your industry?

7. What is the highest job level that you have achieved?

- 1 - Individual contributor (manage self)
- 2 - Team leader/supervisor (manage others)
- 3 - Senior Manager (manage other managers)
- 4 - Functional Manager (manage a function or group of specialists)
- 5 - Business Manager (manage multiple functions)
- 6 - Group Manager (manage multiple businesses)

8. How many times have you voluntarily left an organization in your career?

9. In general, how successful have the change efforts been that you have been involved with? Success is defined as a major overhaul of the organization resulting in long-term (i.e., sustained) change in the mission, strategy or culture.

Scale: 1 = *extremely unsuccessful* to 6 = *extremely successful*

10. In your view, what is the biggest reason for this?

Thank You!

Thank you very much for your time and participation! If you have any questions about this survey, feel free to contact the researcher at the below email address.

Data collection is ongoing through May 2011. If you would like a copy of the final report, or if you would like to receive feedback on your personal data, please contact the researcher. Feedback and reports will be provided once the data are collected and analyzed, which is estimated to be in June 2011.

Robert Morris

Doctoral Candidate
 Social-Organizational Psychology
 Teachers College, Columbia University
rbm2123@columbia.edu

Appendix D: Experience-based Survey

1.5 What were your opinions about leading this change effort and your organization prior to initiating any changes?

	Strongly Disagree	2	3	4	Neither agree nor disagree	6	7	8	Strongly Agree
This change is a good strategy for this organization.									
This change serves an important purpose.									
I believe in the value of this change.									
Things were fine without this change.									
I didn't plan to be in this organization much longer.									
I was actively looking for a new job.									
I was thinking about leaving this organization.									

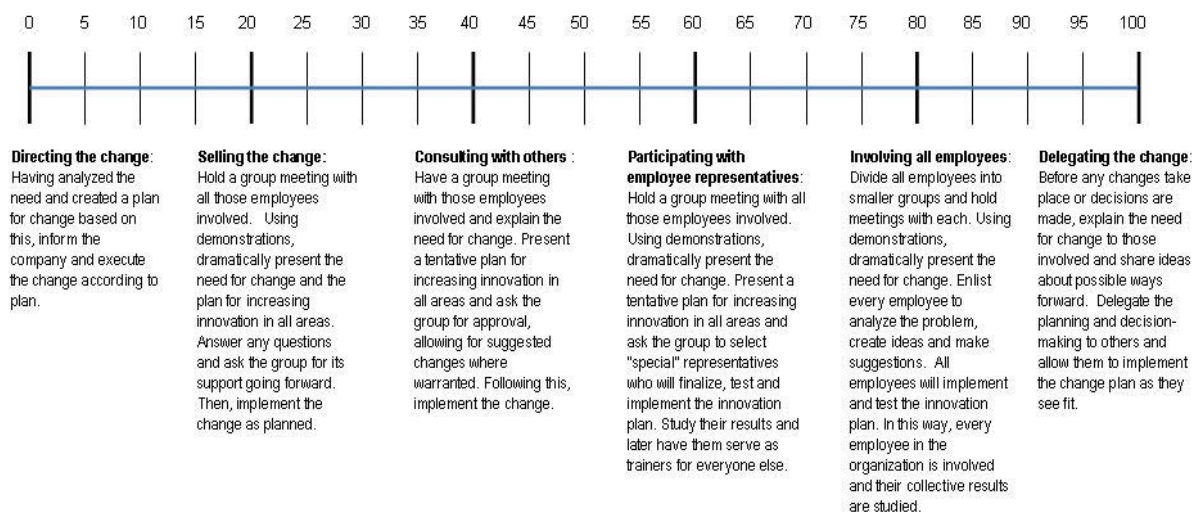
2. Launching Change

There are several alternatives from which to choose when deciding how to launch this change.

On a scale of 0-100, the continuum below displays your range of alternatives for launching the change. These range from directing the change (0) to delegating the planning and implementation of the change to others (100).

2.1 Select a number on the continuum that most closely represents the approach you will take in launching this change effort.

Your Approach (select a number from 1-100): _____



Appendix D: Experience-based Survey

Reacting to Change

Change initiatives are often met with varying degrees of support from the organization.

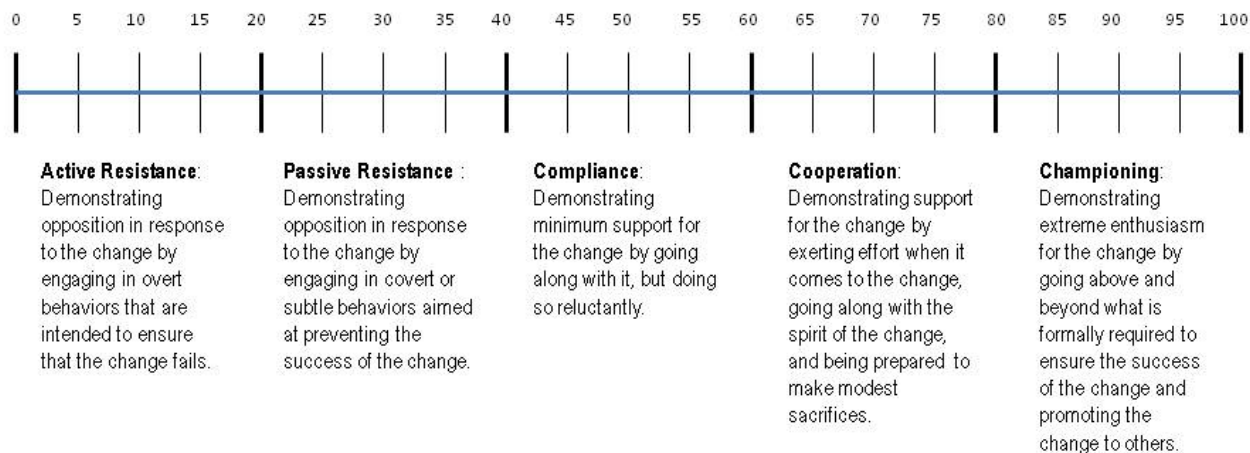
2.2 From your perspective, how have people reacted to the change? Please provide three examples of behavior that you have observed from your colleagues in the organization since launching the change:

- 1.
- 2.
- 3.

On a scale of 0-100, the continuum below displays a range of behavioral support for change. These range from people actively resisting the change (0) to championing it to others (100).

2.3 Select a number on the continuum that most closely represents the organization's overall reaction to the change initiative that you described.

Organization's Reaction (a number from 1-100): _____



Appendix D: Experience-based Survey

Personal Preferences- How accurately can you describe yourself?

The following sections ask you to describe yourself as accurately as possible. Consider the following as guidelines when answering the questions:

- Describe yourself as you see yourself at the present time, not as you wish to be in the future.
- Describe yourself as you are generally or typically, as compared to other persons you know of the same sex and of roughly the same age.

3.1. Please use this list of common human traits to describe yourself. For each trait below, please select the response that indicates how accurately the trait describes you.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Extremely Inaccurate	Very Inaccurate	Moderately Inaccurate	Slightly Inaccurate	Neither Inaccurate nor Accurate	Slightly Accurate	Moderately Accurate	Very Accurate	Extremely Accurate
___ Bashful	___ Energetic	___ Moody	___ Systematic					
___ Bold	___ Envious	___ Organized	___ Talkative					
___ Careless	___ Extraverted	___ Philosophical	___ Temperamental					
___ Cold	___ Fretful	___ Practical	___ Touchy					
___ Complex	___ Harsh	___ Quiet	___ Uncreative					
___ Cooperative	___ Imaginative	___ Relaxed	___ Unenvious					
___ Creative	___ Inefficient	___ Rude	___ Unintellectual					
___ Deep	___ Intellectual	___ Shy	___ Unsympathetic					
___ Disorganized	___ Jealous	___ Sloppy	___ Warm					
___ Efficient	___ Kind	___ Sympathetic	___ Withdrawn					

Appendix D: Experience-based Survey

3.2 The following statements concern your personal reactions to a number of situations. No two statements are exactly alike, so consider each carefully before answering. If a statement is *TRUE* or *MOSTLY TRUE*, select True. If a statement is *FALSE* or *NOT USUALLY TRUE* as applied to you, select False.

	True	False
I find it hard to imitate the behavior of other people.		
At parties and social gatherings, I do not attempt to do or say things that others will like.		
I can only argue for ideas which I already believe.		
I guess I put on a show to impress or entertain others.		
I would probably make a good actor.		
I can make impromptu speeches even on topics about which I have no information.		
In a group of people I am rarely the center of attention.		
In different situations and with different people, I often act like very different persons.		
I am not particularly good at making other people like me.		
I'm not always the person I appear to be.		
I would not change my opinions (or the way I do things) in order to please someone or win their favor.		
I have considered being an entertainer.		
I have never been good at games like charades or improvisational acting.		
I have trouble changing my behavior to suit different people and different situations.		
At a party, I let others keep the jokes and stories going.		
I feel a bit awkward in public and do not show up quite as well as I should.		
I can look someone in the eye and tell a lie with a straight face (if for a right end).		
I may deceive people by being friendly when I really dislike them.		
I am always willing to admit it when I make a mistake.		
There have been occasions when I felt like smashing things.		
I always try to practice what I preach.		
I never resent being asked to return a favor.		
At times, I have really insisted on having things my own way.		
I sometimes try to get even rather than to forgive and forget.		
I have never been annoyed when people expressed ideas very different from my own.		
There have been occasions when I took advantage of someone.		
I have never deliberately said something that hurt someone's feelings.		
I like to gossip at times.		

Appendix D: Experience-based Survey

3.3 Please respond to the following eight items. Indicate how accurately each statement describes you using the scale below. Be honest - there are no right or wrong answers!

- 1 Not at all like me
- 2 Not much like me
- 3 Somewhat like me
- 4 Mostly like me
- 5 Very much like me

	1 Not at all like me	2 Not much like me	3 Some- what like me	4 Mostly like me	5 Very much like me
Setbacks don't discourage me.					
New ideas and projects sometimes distract me from previous ones.					
I often set a goal but later choose to pursue a different one.					
I am a hard worker.					
I have difficulty maintaining my focus on projects that take more than a few months to complete.					
I finish whatever I begin.					
I am diligent.					
I have been obsessed with a certain idea or project for a short time but later lost interest.					

Appendix D: Experience-based Survey

4. Demographics

Please provide some basic demographic information.

1. Gender

2. Age

3. What is your race/ethnicity?

4. What is the highest level of education that you have achieved?

5. What is your job function?

6. What is your industry?

7. What is the highest job level that you have achieved?

- 1 - Individual contributor (manage self)
- 2 - Team leader/supervisor (manage others)
- 3 - Senior Manager (manage other managers)
- 4 - Functional Manager (manage a function or group of specialists)
- 5 - Business Manager (manage multiple functions)
- 6 - Group Manager (manage multiple businesses)

8. How many times have you voluntarily left an organization in your career?

9. In general, how successful have the change efforts been that you have been involved with? Success is defined as a major overhaul of the organization resulting in long-term (i.e., sustained) change in the mission, strategy or culture.

Scale: 1 = *extremely unsuccessful* to 6 = *extremely successful*

10. In your view, what is the biggest reason for this?

Thank You!

Thank you very much for your time and participation! If you have any questions about this survey, feel free to contact the researcher at the below email address.

Data collection is ongoing through May 2011. If you would like a copy of the final report, or if you would like to receive feedback on your personal data, please contact the researcher. Feedback and reports will be provided once the data are collected and analyzed, which is estimated to be in June 2011.

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