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THE INFLUENCE OF NETWORK BUILDING ON THE INNOVATIVE WORK BEHAVIOUR OF SELF-MONITORING INDIVIDUALS: INTEGRATING PERSONALITY AND SOCIAL CAPITAL PERSPECTIVES

MOHAMED NASAJ* and SULafa BADI†

*Faculty of Business & Law
The British University in Dubai (BUiD)
Dubai, United Arab Emirates*

**2016156113@student.buid.ac.ae*

†sulafa.badi@buid.ac.ae; s.badi@ucl.ac.uk

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Network building ability is an important skill that has positive implications for individuals' innovative work behaviour. Although high self-monitors are capable of building strategic relationships, little is known about how this capability helps these individuals innovate in service organisations, particularly generating, promoting and realising innovative ideas. We proposed that network building ability may act as an important mediator through which self-monitoring links to innovative work behaviour. Using structural equation modelling to analyse 417 completed questionnaires from employees in the United Arab Emirates service sector, we found that high self-monitors were more likely to have high network building abilities, which in turn help support their innovative work behaviour. The evidence suggests that network building ability fully mediates the relationship between self-monitoring and idea generation and idea promotion, while partially mediating the relationship between self-monitoring and idea realisation. We discuss the theoretical contributions and managerial implications of the study.

Keywords: Network building ability; self-monitoring personality; innovation; service organisations.

†Corresponding author.

Introduction

Likened to chameleons, enigmatic lizards who can change their colour to fit an array of environments, high self-monitors are known to be more capable than others of adjusting their behaviour according to the expected norms in different social situations (Snyder and Gangestad, 1986). Studies of self-monitoring personality have emphasised the propensity of self-monitors to adhere to socially acceptable representations of self. These individuals can re-shape their behaviour continuously to achieve a favourable impression according to the social setting they are presented with by imitating others' behaviour and adapting to socially acceptable norms. How such personality is capable of innovating is, hence, less clear given the plethora of evidence that positions novelty and non-adherence to common practices at the core of innovation (e.g., Rogers, 2003; Burns and Stalker, 1961). Innovative individuals are known to be 'outside of the box' thinkers and have a strong preference to veer away from standard methods (Skinner and Drake, 2003). The question is then of how self-monitors who adapt and imitate others are capable of being innovative. The importance of self-monitors' innovative work behaviour is mostly driven by the dynamic and changing environment facing 21st century organisations (Wu and Nguyen, 2019). In a rapidly evolving world, organisations should act as arenas for creativity and innovation to ensure their survival, effectiveness and continuous competitiveness in their markets (Oldham and Cummings, 1996; Omachonu and Einspruch, 2010). Organisations, hence, need creative employees who can develop new ideas, products and processes and can pursue their implementation in practice (Van de Ven, 1986; Scott and Bruce, 1994).

Determining which employees are more likely to be innovative has pre-occupied organisational scholars for decades and continues to be an area of significant enquiry. Two distinct perspectives are identifiable in the extant literature that explains the mechanisms by which some individuals may outperform their peers in innovation: a behavioural perspective and a social deterministic perspective. Indeed, there is an on-going debate on whether individual creativity and innovation are best explained by individual differences or social determinism. First, psychologists were intrigued by how individual differences may explain innovation behaviour in organisations. Several studies have attempted to establish a relationship between an individual's personality and their creativity and innovation (Raja and Johns, 2010; George and Zhou, 2001; Madjar, 2008; Woods *et al.*, 2017), linking traits such as conscientiousness and openness to experience to novel pursuits in organisations (Raja and Johns, 2010; George and Zhou, 2001; Madjar, 2008). Despite the plethora of studies that have explored personality and how it relates to innovation, no study has explained how high self-monitors (i.e., those

with high abilities to monitor, control and adjust their behaviour in response to situational cues in different social settings; Snyder, 1974; Snyder and Gangestad, 1986) can develop innovation.

The social network perspective is the second theoretical lens on innovative work behaviour in organisations (e.g., McFadyen and Cannella, 2004; Obstfeld, 2005; Perry-Smith, 2006; Zhou *et al.*, 2009). Social psychologists have been pre-occupied with how social structures and their functioning may affect innovation and hence have attempted to relate individuals' innovation involvement to several characteristics of the social structures within which they are embedded, such as the number and strength of their exchange relationships (McFadyen *et al.*, 2009; Schweisfurth and Raasch, 2015), the density of their social networks (Obstfeld, 2005; Perry-Smith, 2006; Zhou *et al.*, 2009) and the availability of brokerage opportunities through their unique position in the network structure (Burt, 2004). However, promoting this standpoint, network scholars have fundamentally ignored individual differences and the probability of these differences explaining innovative work behaviour.

Noting the above arguments, psychologists believe the roots of human behaviours are the inner force in a human being or their personality traits. In contrast, sociologists see individuals as social creatures that usually adjust and adapt their behaviours based on the situation and their social environment (Snyder and Deaux, 2012). Hence, similar phenomena have been examined by both sociologists and psychologists from opposing theoretical views (Tracy *et al.*, 2009). Although these two perspectives initiate their analysis from different points, they frequently find themselves on mutual grounds (Snyder and Deaux, 2012). Therefore, there is a growing scholarly impetus to contribute to a co-evolutionary perspective that interprets behaviours from both psychological and sociological stances (Snyder and Deaux, 2012; Anderson *et al.*, 2014; Tasselli *et al.*, 2015; Fang *et al.*, 2015; Baer *et al.*, 2015; Landis, 2016). To attend to this psychological-sociological chasm, this study develops a novel integrative model to explain how individuals innovate in organisations by combining the two theoretical domains of individual differences (i.e., personality) and social capital (i.e., network building ability). The study focuses on self-monitoring personality (Snyder and Gangestad, 1986) in social networking contexts and proposes network building ability as a mediator between self-monitoring personality and innovative work behaviours. The two research questions that underpin the study are:

What is the relationship between self-monitoring and innovation, and does network building ability act as a mediating mechanism of influence?

We hypothesise that high self-monitors are more likely to have high network building abilities, which in turn help them build the necessary relationships and

social ties to support their innovation efforts. By developing a conceptual model to answer the above questions, the objectives of this study are as follows:

- (1) To deepen our understanding of the mechanisms by which high self-monitors manage to innovate in service organisations. Although self-monitors are well known for their capacity to build strategic relationships (Mehra *et al.*, 2001; Mehra and Schenkel, 2008; Sasovova *et al.*, 2010), little is known about how this capacity relates to innovative work behaviour.
- (2) To combine the two theoretical domains of individual differences (i.e., personality) and social capital (i.e., network building ability) to offer a fine-grained understanding of the avenues by which innovation occurs in organisations.
- (3) Finally, while many studies have considered an individual's innovative work behaviour as a single construct (Scott and Bruce, 1994; Yuan and Woodman, 2010), our study considers innovative behaviour as a multi-faceted three-dimensional construct that involves idea generation, idea promotion and idea realisation (Janssen, 2000; Niu, 2014; Wisse *et al.*, 2015). This approach provides additional insight into the mechanisms involved across the multiple and discontinuous activities leading to innovation in service organisations.

Our argument proceeds as follows. The next section presents a literature review on self-monitoring personality, service innovation, innovative work behaviour and network building ability. The section concludes with the building of a conceptual model and a set of hypotheses linking self-monitoring to innovative work behaviours through network building ability. The third section provides information on our research design and discusses issues related to data collection and measurements, including details of the structural equation modelling (SEM) used to analyse 417 responses from employees in the United Arab Emirates service sector. In the fourth section, we discuss the results of our analysis and the final section outlines the study's theoretical and managerial implications and offers direction for future research.

Conceptual Underpinnings

Self-monitoring personality

Personality is defined as 'the sum total of ways in which an individual reacts to and interacts with others' (Robbins and Judge, 2015 p. 175). Personality is often represented by the measurable traits a person displays, which describes the

‘enduring characteristics of an individual’s behaviour’ (Robbins and Judge, 2015, p. 177). For example, one can describe a person as timid, forgetful, helpful, optimistic or courageous. There was an early debate among psychologists on whether personality is determined by nature or nurture, but the widely held view currently is that personality is the result of both heredity (i.e., our genes) and environmental factors (our culture, family, friends and social conditioning) (Robbins and Judge, 2015). An individual’s personality is widely used as a reliable predictor of their behaviour (e.g., Mathai and Haridas, 2014) and their job performance (e.g., Lin *et al.*, 2014).

Introduced in the 1970s by Snyder (1974), self-monitoring describes people’s extent of self-observation and self-control of their expressive behaviours and self-presentation in social settings. With extreme sensitivity to situational cues that indicate which self-representations are appropriate or inappropriate, high self-monitors can (a) expressively represent and communicate their true emotions, (b) conceal their true emotions if they are socially undesirable and (c) accurately communicate an emotional state that is not necessarily consistent with their true emotions but is the most appropriate to the social situation (Snyder, 1974). Described as workplace ‘chameleons’ (Mehra and Schenkel, 2008) and as ‘good actors’ (Sasovova *et al.*, 2010), high self-monitoring individuals continuously amend their behaviour to suit the social situation they are experiencing. They know how to conceal their emotions in public when appropriate (Friedman and Miller-Herringer, 1991), are highly image-conscious and often seek distinctive social recognition (Snyder, 1974). In a social setting, a high self-monitor will ask oneself ‘Who does this situation want me to be and how can I be that person?’ (Snyder, 1974 in Kilduff and Day, 1994). In contrast, ‘true-to-themselves’ (Mehra and Schenkel, 2008) low self-monitors are known to express their true emotions, follow their own beliefs and values, are not necessarily concerned with the social situation and have limited regard to the views placed upon them by others (Snyder, 1974; Barrick *et al.*, 2005). A low self-monitor experiencing a particular social situation will be concerned with the question: ‘who am I and how can I be me in this situation?’ (Snyder, 1979 in Kilduff and Day, 1994).

Self-monitoring is widely presented in the extant literature as a personality trait (Lennox and Wolfe, 1984; Snyder and Gangestad, 1986); however, several scholars contend that self-monitoring should, instead, be considered an individual skill (Schleicher and Day, 2002). In this study, we take the view of Snyder and colleagues and consider self-monitoring a persistent feature of an individual’s personality that accurately predicts and explains their behaviour. A high self-monitoring personality was found to offer an individual many positive outcomes in the workplace, such as higher career mobility and swift cross-company promotions (Kilduff and Day, 1994), brokerage opportunities (Sasovova *et al.*, 2010),

leadership emergence in groups (Ellis, 1988), effective cross-cultural adjustment (Harrison *et al.*, 1996), less stress and high effectiveness in emotional regulation tasks (Bono and Vey, 2007) and superior performance (Deeter-Schmelz and Ramsey, 2010). However, how these individuals innovate remains unknown.

Service innovation

The concept of innovation was defined by Rogers (2003) as 'an idea, practice, or object that is perceived as new by an individual or another unit of adaption' (p. 12). Innovation involves the introduction of new products, processes, services and methods (Burns and Stalker, 1961). Traditionally, innovation is typified as either incremental with gradual minor changes or radical, involving completely new approaches (Burns and Stalker, 1961, Abernathy and Clark, 1985). A distinction could be made between the concepts of innovation and creativity. Anderson *et al.* (2014) refer to the idea generation stage of innovation as the creativity stage, with innovation being an all-encompassing concept that not only involves the creation of new ideas, but also their implementation in practice. Other scholars believe that such a distinction is laborious, and in fact, creativity is equally evident during the implementation stages; hence, innovation and creativity are best viewed as intertwined and difficult to separate (Paulus, 2002).

A service is an activity that creates value for both a customer and a service provider. This value creation process often involves interaction between a service provider and a customer, either face-to-face or through technology (Bitner *et al.*, 2008). While goods (i.e., products) are tangible, their production precedes consumption and often involves low customer contact. Services, however, are intangible; their production and consumption are simultaneous and often involve high customer contact (Slack *et al.*, 2010). Recently, the literature on service innovation has increased. Studies such as those of Sebastiani and Paiola (2010) and Gallouj (2002) have explored the role of employees' behaviours on service innovation in organisations. Other studies, like those of Barras (1990) and Laukkanen *et al.* (2007), have underlined the effect of technological advancements on service innovation. The customers are often seen as the centre of service innovation with their needs and expectations acting as sources of innovative ideas and products (De *et al.*, 2007; Sundbo and Gallouj, 2000). Hence, interaction with customers is pivotal to service innovation (Sundbo and Gallouj, 2000). Service innovation often seeks to satisfy customers by attending to their unfulfilled needs, attracting new customers or creating new markets (Forsman, 2011; Miles *et al.*, 2006). This view, however, has been criticised by some scholars who argue that following the customer's needs too closely may restrict radical innovations that introduce breakthrough improvements in products and services or reveal new or

even unknown needs of customers (Slater and Narver, 1998). Notwithstanding, service innovation contributes significantly to an organisation's success and market competitiveness (Komaladewi *et al.*, 2012), and given the humanistic nature of services and the difficulty of separating the service from its delivery process (Danaher and Mattsson, 1994; Bitner *et al.*, 2008), individuals' innovative work behaviour in the service sector is central to an organisation's service innovation outcomes.

Innovative work behaviour

An individual's innovative work behaviour is defined as behaviour that aims to develop novel and improved approaches to existing products, processes and practices (Anderson *et al.*, 2014). Janssen, (2000) defines an individual innovative behaviour as the 'intentional creation, introduction and application of new ideas within a work role, group or organization in order to benefit role performance, the group, or the organization' (Janssen, 2000, p. 288). An individual's innovative work behaviour is seen as a discontinuous and iterative process with three distinct stages: idea generation, idea promotion and idea realisation (Janssen, 2000; Scott and Bruce, 1994). According to Janssen (2000), in the idea generation stage, innovative individuals will recognise a problem and become involved in the creation of new ideas and the generation of novel solutions. In the idea promotion stage, those individuals attempt to cultivate support for their innovative ideas and secure the necessary approvals across the organisation. Finally, the idea is transformed into useful and applicable solutions, during the idea realisation stage in which new and innovative ideas are systematically introduced, applied and evaluated in practice (Janssen, 2000). Therefore, innovative work behaviour is conceptualised as a discontinuous set of activities with individuals participating in any of these tasks at any given time (Scott and Bruce, 1994). These activities are also seen as discretionary actions by the individuals involved and are not essentially part of their job expectations or related to their formal appraisal and reward processes (Organ, 1990).

Empirically, innovative work behaviour is often measured in scholarly work as a single variable that either combines the behaviour across the three stages or assumes a focus on only one stage (Scott and Bruce, 1994). For example, George and Zhou (2001), Madjar (2008) and Raja and Johns (2010) examined the relationship between the personality of employees and their creativity. However, some scholars, for example, Anderson *et al.* (2014), argue that this unification does not help offer a more nuanced understanding of the complex nature of innovative work behaviour in organisations. Indeed, given the distinctly different behaviours involved in each of the three stages, there are recent calls for innovative work

behaviour to be studied as a multi-faceted three-dimensional construct that involves idea generation, idea promotion and idea realisation (Niu, 2014; Wisse *et al.*, 2015; Woods *et al.*, 2017). This approach is taken in this study. The study attempts to establish the relationship between self-monitoring personalities and the three distinct innovative work behaviours of idea generation, promotion and realisation (Janssen, 2000) to build a fine-grained understanding of how self-monitoring personalities may affect innovation in organisations.

Network building ability

Network building ability is considered a substantial political skill that assists an individual in developing coalitions and establishing connections with people of influence and power in their organisations and society (Ferris *et al.*, 2005). Individuals with high network building ability can cultivate a large network of influential and supportive relationships that enable them to achieve their goals and reach their objectives (Ferris *et al.*, 2005).

A foundational concept closely linked to the espoused outcome of network building ability is social capital, defined by (Lin, 1999) as 'resources embedded in a social structure that is accessed and/or mobilized in purposive actions' (p. 35). Social capital is characterised by three features: the embeddedness of resources in an individual's network of relationships, the opportunities offered through accessing such social resources and the benefits that accrue from the mobilisation and use of these resources. These social resources could be monetary, informational or sentimental in the form of emotional support. Lin *et al.* (2001) assume human agency by which a focal individual instrumentally and purposefully builds relationships that allow them access to valuable resources. Through network building, the individual configures their network structures to add value to their work performance by gaining access to information, acquiring influence or effectively implementing change (Coleman, 1988; Zhou *et al.*, 2009; Burt, 2009). Indeed, studies have shown that social capital can afford an individual a plethora of privileges, such as leadership (Brass, 2001; Balkundi and Kilduff, 2006), career success (Seibert *et al.*, 2001, Zhao and Yiu, 2018), improved performance (Moran, 2005; Shah *et al.*, 2018) and creativity (Chen *et al.*, 2008; Merlo *et al.*, 2006). Hence, network building is a key ability to achieve these favourable outcomes.

What type of social capital is best to support an individual's innovative work behaviour? This idea was explored by Perry-Smith and Mannucci (2017). According to their work, the social needs of innovators change across the different phases of the 'idea journey'. During the idea generation phase, the cognitive flexibility needed by individuals to recombine diverse knowledge into novel ideas is largely enabled by weak social network ties (Granovetter, 1983).

Those non-frequent acquaintances and friends-of-friends bring desperate and non-redundant information and knowledge needed to spur creativity [Perry-Smith and Mannucci \(2017\)](#). In the idea promotion stage, [Perry-Smith and Mannucci \(2017\)](#) underline the role of a network rich in structural holes ([Burt, 1992](#)) to support the championing of the new idea and to cultivate influence and legitimacy. The final stage, idea implementation, requires shared understanding and vision among organisational members. This task could be successfully supported by innovators being embedded in a dense well-connected network ([Coleman, 1988](#)) while also benefitting from external ties outside the team ([Tortoriello and Krackhardt, 2010](#)). Hence, according to [Perry-Smith and Mannucci \(2017\)](#), the social network needs of innovative individuals often change across the innovation cycle, and a paradox may seemingly exist by which ties that have worked to support innovation at one stage may hinder it in another stage. Ultimately, as [Perry-Smith and Mannucci \(2017\)](#) postulate, innovators of ideas successfully navigate the innovation cycle by resolving this paradox through activating different parts of their social networks at different stages. This social transitioning requires innovators with the ability to continually change their interpretations and shift their focus across the different innovation phases ([Perry-Smith and Mannucci, 2017](#)).

Developing the Conceptual Framework

Following [Janssen \(2000\)](#), innovative work behaviour is conceptualised in this study as a multi-faceted construct involving three distinct behaviours: idea generation, idea promotion and idea realisation. In the first stage of innovation, the individual develops new ideas and novel solutions in response to problems encountered as part of their work, inconsistencies, incoherencies or new trends emerging in the work environment ([Drucker, 1985](#)). For example, a call centre employee may develop an idea for a customer support system that swiftly deals with customer complaints. During the early idea generation phase, generators of new ideas need cognitive flexibility and divergent thinking to skilfully merge an array of knowledge into a new successful combination ([Perry-Smith and Mannucci, 2017](#); [De Vet and de Dreu, 2007](#)). In their information gathering, research has shown that innovators tend to favour information that allows for divergent thinking ([Kirton and de Ciantis, 1986](#)). They pursue information that represents the diverse view of other people rather than facts and figures ([McKinnel and Jacobson, 1993](#)). While this interest in other's people opinion aligns with the personality characteristics of self-monitors ([Gangestad and Snyder, 2000](#); [Snyder, 1974](#)), an experimental study by [De Vet and de Dreu \(2007\)](#) has found that self-monitoring has a negative relationship with creativity ([De et al., 2007](#)).

Despite widely held views on the benefits of brainstorming in groups for idea generation, De Vet and de Dreu (2007) identified that 'thinking aloud' in a brainstorming session may restrict creativity. The negative effects of the presence of others on creative ideation were observed more profoundly for individuals with high sensitivity to others' expectations of them and low ability to adapt to these expectations. Hence, self-monitors' pre-occupation with conformity and meeting others' expectations (Snyder, 1974) may hinder their creative thought (De Vet and de Dreu, 2007).

We propose that the ability to build social network relationships may mediate the relationship between a high self-monitoring score and innovation generation. Examining the social network drivers of innovation, Perry-Smith and Mannucci (2017) argue that the generators of new ideas could be socially supported by weak network ties (i.e., casual and infrequent relationships) that bring together diverse viewpoints and perspectives. Studies of high self-monitors have found that these individuals can build strategic social relationships that may work to their advantage in terms of innovative work behaviour. Mehra *et al.* (2001) and Mehra and Schenkel (2008) found that high self-monitors often occupy central and boundary-spanning positions in their organisation's social network. High self-monitors were also found to enjoy brokerage positions in networks rich in structural holes (Burt, 1992): the voids among disconnected clusters. Burt (2004) argues a strong link between an individual spanning the structural holes between groups and their ability to generate new ideas. Burt (2004) highlights the homogeneity of ideas and opinions in densely connected networks. Individuals spanning those networks, however, are more exposed to heterogeneous ideas and diverse points of view. Those occupying structural holes were also found to be better positioned to benefit from external knowledge on innovation generation (Tortoriello, 2015); being embedded in a large network of social relationships will provide the individual with access to a large pool of information, advice and support. This embeddedness, in turn, may increase their capacity to develop new ideas (Baer *et al.*, 2015). In a longitudinal study examining friendship ties in a radiology department in the Netherlands, Sasovova *et al.* (2010) found that high self-monitors are more likely to forge new friendships than low self-monitors, particularly with relative strangers, and hence often occupy new bridging positions among their social ties as their networks grow in size. Wang *et al.*'s (2015) study concurs with (Sasovova *et al.*'s (2010): high self-monitors were more likely to develop close relationships with a diverse range of co-workers as well as their supervisors. Therefore, high self-monitors are often embedded in open, sparse networks rich in structural holes. Thus, this embeddedness may result in innovation advantages as numerous studies have underlined the effect of bridging disconnected others on an individual's

innovative work behaviour (Burt, 2004; Hemphälä and Magnusson, 2012; Tortoriello, 2015). Therefore, we formulated the following hypothesis:

H1: *Network building ability will mediate the relationship between a high self-monitoring score and idea generation; high self-monitors with high network building ability will generate more ideas than high self-monitors with low network building abilities.*

Idea promotion is the next innovative work behaviour in which the individual champions the idea through socialising and building a supporting coalition in favour of their novel venture. For instance, a call centre employee who developed an idea for a novel customer support system will try at this stage to sell the idea of the new system to company executives and attempt to convince them of the originality and potential of the idea. This individual cultivates potential allies and sponsors with the power needed to push the idea forward within the organisation (Kanter, 1988). This stage also involves securing money, time expertise and political support, and while promoting their ideas, champions must articulate convincing arguments of the ideas' benefits to the organisation (Perry-Smith and Mannucci, 2017). Promoting novel ideas is by no means an easy task, given their high probability of being rejected due to perceived uncertainty and the risks involved. Perry-Smith and Mannucci (2017) argue that championing a new idea requires influential individuals who are capable of protecting ideas from negative critics, smoothing the path to their endorsement and convincing key decision-makers to allocate the necessary resources for implementation. Promoters of creative ideas also need to be perceived by decision-makers as legitimate and competent which signal their ability to secure successful implementation (Cattani and Ferriani, 2008). In studies by Caldwell and Burger (1997) and Douglas and Gardner (2004), self-monitors were found to be influential individuals and use a variety of social influence strategies in the workplace, including rational persuasion and soft influence tactics. High self-monitors are also known to speak with greater facility than low self-monitors and could engage in conversation on almost any topic with little preparation (Dabbs *et al.*, 1980).

However, self-monitors' pre-occupation with social prestige and image may work against them. High self-monitors' status-enhancing motives (Gangestad and Snyder, 2000) and their pursuit of admiration may cause them to be risk-averse, fearing the uncertainty and unknown consequences of innovation. Being rejected or frowned upon should their innovative idea prove unsuccessful is perhaps a risk that self-monitors may not be prepared to take. Indeed, according to Day *et al.* (2002) and Rank *et al.* (2009), high self-monitors are likely to abandon their innovative efforts too early if they are faced with resistance to change, as opposed to low self-monitors who are more likely to persist in the face of challenges due to

their consistent behaviour across social situations as well as their little regard for image and status.

We argue that the ability to build social network relationships may mediate the relationship between a high self-monitoring score and innovation promotion. Examining the social network elements that are beneficial for an individual's idea promotion, Perry-Smith and Mannucci (2017), argue the importance of networks rich in structural holes (Burt, 1992), a feature of the networks within which high self-monitors were found to be embedded (Wang *et al.*, 2015; Sasovova *et al.*, 2010). Being in a brokering position (i.e., spanning structural holes) is seen to increase an individual's legitimacy, a prerequisite for idea championing. The strength of the tie between an individual and members of their social network is also seen to be important in idea promotion (Perry-Smith and Mannucci, 2017). Strong ties characterised by frequency, reciprocity and emotional closeness may support an innovation promoter by facilitating the exchange of favours and mutual support from their network of contacts (Kanter, 1988). In a study by Flynn *et al.* (2006), self-monitors were found to be effective in managing their exchange relations and they often achieve status by helping others and knowing who helps whom. We can thus predict that high self-monitors can socialise more easily and build enduring relationships in support of their innovation championing efforts. We present the following hypothesis:

H2: *Network building ability will mediate the relationship between a high self-monitoring score and idea promotion; high self-monitors with high network building ability will promote more ideas than high self-monitors with low network building abilities.*

The third innovative work behaviour is idea realisation. For example, a call centre employee who received approval from company executives for a new customer support system he or she has championed will work at this stage to implement the new system through the production of a model, prototype or a service offering that can be introduced in practice within the work environment or the market. While these activities could be performed by a single individual, complex innovations may require the efforts of a large team with multiple knowledge and skills to be realised (Kanter, 1988). Hence, innovation implementers often mobilise their social networks and embedded resources to implement innovation. According to Perry-Smith and Mannucci (2017), network closure (Coleman, 1988) and external ties outside the team (Tortoriello and Krackhardt, 2010) are best to support idea implementation. First, closed networks, those with fewer structural holes, reduce uncertainty (Coleman *et al.*, 1966), increase information sharing (Uzzi and Spiro, 2005) and promote social obligations for collaborative behaviour to achieve common goals (Lingo and O'Mahony, 2010). External contacts outside the

organisation were also found to be important for successful innovation implementation because they support idea diffusion across different groups and facilitate the idea's understanding and acceptance (Uzzi and Spiro, 2005; Tortoriello and Krackhardt, 2010).

We posit that the ability to build social network relationships may mediate the relationship between a high self-monitoring score and innovation realisation. In an early study by Caldwell and O'Reilly (1982a), high self-monitors were found to have superior performance than low self-monitors in boundary-spanning roles which require individuals to interact with groups with differing social norms. This effectiveness was due to high self-monitors' sensitivity to social cues and their ability to adapt their behaviour to fit the situation (Caldwell and O'Reilly, 1982b). In a study by Fang and Shaw (2009), high self-monitors were found to mobilise their social capital to achieve their objectives. (Mehra *et al.*, 2001) also found that high self-monitors are more effective in accessing the resources available in their social networks to achieve better work performance. We can thus predict that high self-monitors can capitalise on their social network relationships in support of their innovation realisation efforts. Based on these arguments, we proposed the following

H3: *Network building ability will mediate the relationship between a high self-monitoring score and idea realisation; high self-monitors with high network building ability will realise more innovative ideas than high self-monitors with low network building abilities.*

Based on the above arguments, a conceptual framework was developed and is presented in Fig. 1. The model combines the psychological concept of

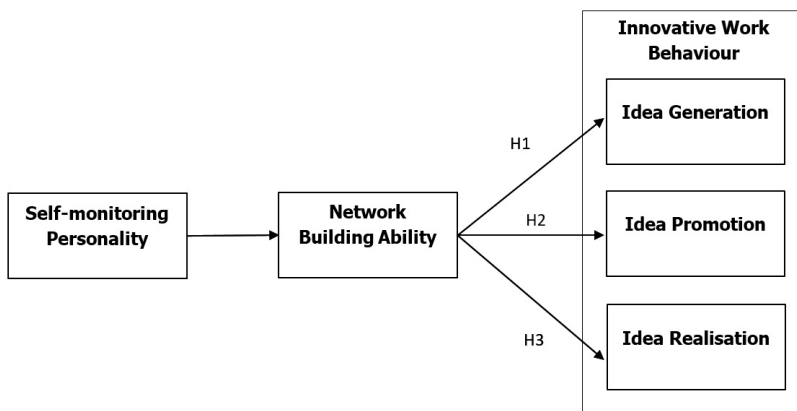


Fig. 1. Conceptual framework.

self-monitoring personality and the social-psychological concept of network building ability to explain the innovative work behaviour of individuals in service organisations. The approach taken to collect data to test the conceptual framework and hypotheses is explained in the next section.

Method

A positivist research philosophy was adopted in this study. Positivist researchers are largely objective, prefer to work with factual data and separate themselves from the subjects of the research (Saunders *et al.*, 2016). A deductive approach was pursued in which a set of hypotheses were developed from existing theories, presented in the previous section, and then tested empirically through statistical analysis. The quantitative method utilised a self-reporting survey questionnaire to collect the data, which was then analysed using statistical methods (Bryman and Bell, 2015). SEM was adopted to test the study hypotheses. SEM is used in empirical studies to examine the conceptual models by testing hypotheses of causal influences (Snoj *et al.*, 2004). Using SEM offers several advantages such as the inclusion of latent variables into the analysis and the ability to study the correlated independents, measurement error and multiple latent independent variables (Byrne, 2001); furthermore, SEM captures the interactions among the dependent and independent variables (Hair *et al.*, 2010).

Procedure and respondents

The influence of network building ability on the self-monitoring–innovation relationship was examined in a sample of employees in service organisations in the United Arab Emirates (UAE). To ensure the generalisability of the findings, employees were randomly selected from a wide range of service organisations operating in the UAE. Two organisations were selected from each of the following sub-sectors: banking, health care, education, telecommunication and hotels. Ten organisations in total were approached to take part in the study. With the help of a Human Resource (HR) manager in each organisation, an online survey questionnaire was distributed to employees. A random sampling technique was followed to choose the participants to reduce the likelihood of bias in the collected data (Kothari, 2004). The questionnaire was developed using an online survey administration tool (<https://www.surveymonkey.com/>) and was sent through email to participants with a cover page introducing the study. Response to the questionnaire was voluntary, and respondents were assured of their anonymity and the

confidentiality of their responses. Of the distributed questionnaires, 530 were returned with 417 completed usable questionnaires.

Measures

The research depended on primary data obtained through the survey. All the variables used in testing the hypotheses were acquired from former literature, and hence, the variables scales' validity and reliability were tested and proven to be valid and reliable. All the variables were measured by a 5-point Likert scale survey, and the answers followed the agreement rating type suggested by [Saunders et al. \(2016\)](#): strongly agree, agree, neutral, disagree and strongly disagree.

Individual innovative behaviours were measured using [Janssen \(2000\)](#) nine-item self-evaluated survey measured on a 5-point Likert scale. The exact questions are presented in Appendix A. [Janssen \(2000\)](#) operationalisation of an individual's organisational behaviour was considered more suitable for this study as opposed to the well-known scale of [Scott and Bruce \(1994\)](#). Scott and Bruce's (1994) six-item scale measures an individual's innovative behaviour as a single construct, whereas [Janssen's \(2000\)](#) scale utilises three items to measure each of the three innovative work behaviours of idea generation, idea promotion and idea realisation. Adopting [Janssen's \(2000\)](#) multi-dimensional construct attends to scholarly calls to investigate the multiple dimensions of innovative work behaviours rather than considering innovation as a single-dimensional construct ([Niu, 2014](#); [Wisse et al., 2015](#); [Woods et al., 2017](#); [Purba and Paundra, 2018](#); [Rodrigues and Rebelo, 2019](#)). Also, [Janssen \(2000\)](#) noted the importance of employees' self-evaluation of their innovative behaviour rather than peers' or managers' evaluation. Employees will have more information about their daily work activity than their managers or colleagues; hence, they will be more accurate. According to [Janssen \(2000\)](#), when managers are asked to evaluate the innovativeness of their employees, they may neglect aspects of innovation since they will only evaluate the behaviours that left a lasting impression on them since innovative behaviour is sensitive to individual characteristics.

Network building ability was measured through Ferris *et al.*'s (2005) and [Thompson \(2005\)](#) self-rated, six-item 5-point Likert scale. Details on the items are provided in Appendix A.

Self-monitoring personality was measured through Snyder and Gangestad's (1986) 18-item scale, this scale is a revised scale of the original 25 items introduced by [Snyder \(1974\)](#), in which they debated that the revised scale was more reliable than the original 25-item scale. A minor change from their version of true and false answers was implemented, and the research used a 5-point Likert scale instead of the true and false version since a meta-analysis on self-monitoring at

work completed by (Day *et al.*, 2002) stated that the 5-point Likert scale format was more reliable than the original true–false scoring format. Item details are provided in Appendix A.

Control variables, such as gender, age, years of experience and educational background, were also utilised.

Data analysis

This research aims to test the mediation role of network building ability on the relationship between self-monitoring personality and individual innovative behaviour. Hence, a group of standard statistical tests that help validate the research hypotheses was conducted using SPSS 23.0 and AMOS 23.0 programs. The research participants' profile was created by analysing the control variables in the survey. Table 1 summarises the participants' profile.

Table 1. Participants' profile summary.

Variable	Item	Frequency	Percentage
Sex	Male	162	38.85%
	Female	255	61.15%
Age	18–25	55	13.2%
	26–33	132	31.7%
	34–41	167	40.0%
	42–49	43	10.3%
	< 50	20	4.8%
	> 1	27	6.5%
Experience	1–3	42	10.1%
	4–6	52	12.5%
	7–10	86	20.6%
	< 10	210	50.4%
	> 10	27	6.5%
Education	High school	44	10.6%
	Diploma	45	10.8%
	Bachelor	193	46.3%
	Master	116	27.8%
	Doctorate	19	4.6%
Industry	Banking	136	32.6%
	Education	86	20.6%
	Hospitality	66	15.8%
	Telecommunication	61	14.6%
	Healthcare	68	16.3%
Position	Agent/officer	108	25.9%
	Lower management	88	21.1%
	Middle management	166	39.8%
	Top management	55	13.2%

This research has three constructs that represent the dimensions of innovative behaviours; each has three items. In addition to the self-monitoring construct with an 18-item scale, the last construct is network building with six items. Hence, we had five constructs and 33 items in the survey. Construct reliability and validity tests were conducted first to ensure that we had a good model fit, so we could test the relationships among the constructs using SEM.

Results

Reliability tests

To test the reliability of the research questionnaire, Cronbach's alpha test was used, and the cut-off value of 0.7 (Mallery and George, 2003) was adopted as an acceptable value. The results are presented in Table 2.

Two more reliability tests were conducted. The first, the Kaiser–Meyer–Olkin (KMO) test, measures sample adequacy. For the KMO test, the closer the value to 1.0, the more reliable the scale, whereas a value less than 0.50 indicates that the scale is not reliable (Morgan *et al.*, 2004). The results indicate that (KMO = 0.940) the scale is reliable. The third test is the Bartlett test of sphericity, which examines the occurrence of correlations; the significance of this test refers to reliable scales (Hair *et al.*, 2010). The test results were significant at a 99% confidence level. In summary, the three conducted reliability tests demonstrated that this study's scales are reliable and factor analysis is appropriate for these data.

Common method bias test

The effect of the common method bias (CMB) test is lately attracting attention from academic business researchers (Bagozzi, 2011; Lance *et al.*, 2010; Williams *et al.*, 2010), who agree that researchers must report on common method biases in self-report survey research (Fuller *et al.*, 2016; Chang *et al.*, 2010). Hence, Harman's one-factor common bias method (Podsakoff and Organ, 1986;

Table 2. Constructs reliability tests.

The variables	Number of items	Cronbach's alpha
Self-monitoring personality	18	0.968
Network building ability	6	0.895
Innovation: idea generation	3	0.882
Innovation: idea promotion	3	0.757
Innovation: idea realisation	3	0.741

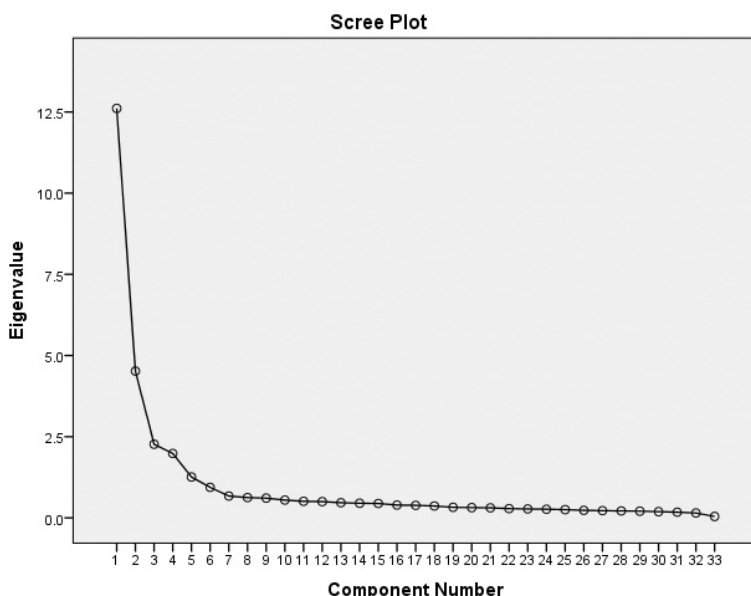


Fig. 2. Scree plot diagram.

Podsakoff *et al.*, 2003) was tested since it is commonly used (Fuller *et al.*, 2016). The results of this test demonstrate that the single factor explains only 38% of the collected data, which is less than 50%. Therefore, we do not have a common bias in the research data (Podsakoff and Organ, 1986; Podsakoff *et al.*, 2003).

Exploratory factor analysis

To validate the constructs used in the research questionnaire, factor analysis was performed. Exploratory factor analysis (EFA) was completed using the principal component analysis as the extraction method, and for the rotation method, varimax rotations were used. The scree plot diagram (Fig. 2) illustrates that we had five latent variables that have eigenvalues of more than 1. That result matches the number of constructs in this research.

Besides, the results indicate that all items were loaded on their constructs and have acceptable values EFA, as per Field (2013) recommendation: items with a loading value of more than 0.45 should be interpreted. Test results are provided in Table 3.

Confirmatory factor analysis

The second factor analysis is confirmatory factor analysis (CFA). The AMOS program was used for this analysis. Models are usually described with chi-square

Table 3. Exploratory factor analysis.

Rotated component matrix					
	Component				
	1	2	3	4	5
SMP01R	0.816				
SMP02R	0.839				
SMP03R	0.769				
SMP04	0.807				
SMP05	0.820				
SMP06	0.816				
SMP07	0.744				
SMP08	0.852				
SMP09	0.725				
SMP10	0.774				
SMP11	0.785				
SMP12	0.735				
SMP13	0.766				
SMP14	0.822				
SMP15	0.807				
SMP16	0.814				
SMP17	0.846				
SMP18	0.801				
IBIG01			0.937		
IBIG02			0.940		
IBIG03			0.722		
IBIP04				0.677	
IBIP05				0.717	
IBIP06				0.785	
IBIR07					0.677
IBIR08					0.786
IBIR09					0.768
NBA01		0.789			
NBA02		0.822			
NBA03		0.714			
NBA04		0.863			
NBA05		0.651			
NBA06		0.792			

values, degrees of freedom and probability levels. Based on the AMOS analysis, the results of the CFA models are illustrated in Table 4.

Since the degree of freedom is (479) greater than 1, the model is over-identified. Chi-square by itself commonly is not an adequate indicator, especially for large

Table 4. CFA model fit results (default model).

Minimum	Achieved
Chi-square	1239.160
Degree of freedom	479
Probability level	0.000

samples since with any inferential procedure robust, reliable parameter estimates are necessary. Most likely, having a large sample will result in large chi-square values, which create statistical significance. Hence, additional indices of model fit were examined. The results of the CFA model fit are illustrated in Table 5.

Based on the above CFA results, we had a good model fit, so we created SEM to test the research hypotheses.

Hypotheses testing

The structural equation model is represented in Fig. 3.

To evaluate the model fit of the SEM models, four indicators were considered: minimum discrepancy divided by its degrees of freedom (CMIN/DF), Tucker–Lewis index (TLI), comparative fit index (CFI) and root mean square of approximation (RMSEA). The accepted results of the CMIN/DF ratio are 2.0–3.0 (Schreiber *et al.*, 2006). The ratio for this study (CMIN/DF = 2.713) was acceptable to demonstrate a good model fit. The measures of fit for the IFI and CFI were assessed in the context of minimum cut-off values of 0.9 (Marsh *et al.*, 2004). The results show that both TLI (0.913) and CFI (0.920) have acceptable results to confirm the model fit. The measures of RMSEA were evaluated, and the result was

Table 5. The results of the CFA model fit.

Fit indices	Model value	Accepted value	Reference
χ^2/df	2.578	$\chi^2/\text{df} \leq 2$	Schreiber <i>et al.</i> (2006)
		$\chi^2/\text{df} \leq 5$	Lomax and Schumacker (2004)
RMR	0.075	$\text{RMR} \leq 0.05$	Steiger (2007)
		$\text{RMR} \leq 0.08$	Browne and Cudeck (1993)
CFI	0.927	> 0.90	Byrne (2010)
TLI	0.919	> 0.90	Marsh <i>et al.</i> (2004)
IFI	0.927	> 0.90	Bentler (2007), Byrne (2001)
RMSEA	0.062	< 0.08	Browne and Cudeck (1993), Steiger (2007)

Innovative Work Behaviour of Self-Monitoring Individuals

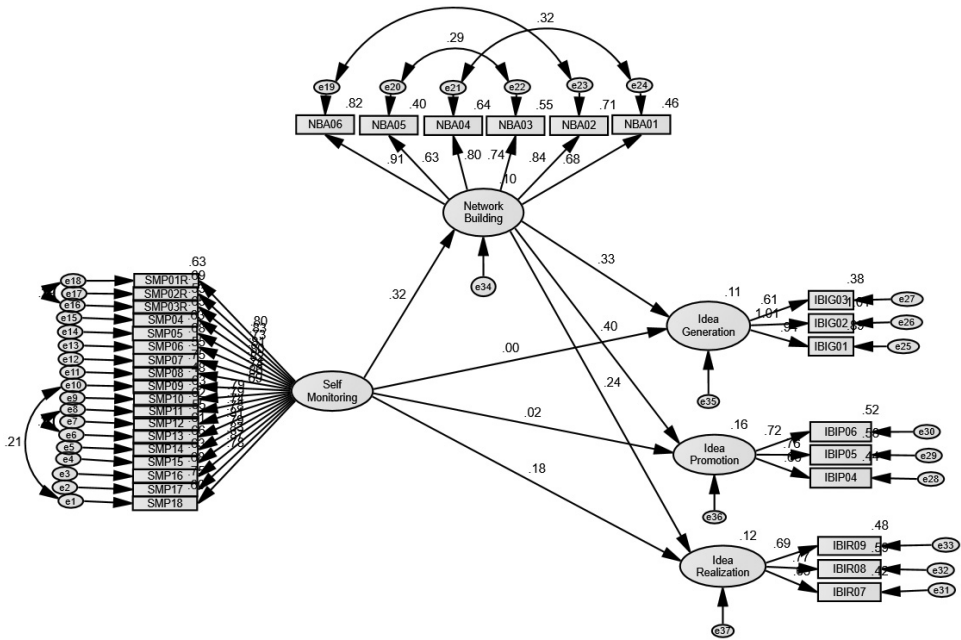


Fig. 3. Structural equation model.

0.064, which is acceptable to demonstrate good model fit (MacCallum *et al.*, 1996).

Based on the previous indicators of model fit, we had a good fit for the research model and could test the research hypotheses. Table 6 presents the SEM results.

As Table 6 illustrates, there is a significant relationship between self-monitoring and network building ability (P -value = 0.000) at a 99% confidence level. In addition, network building has a significant relationship with the three innovative work behaviours, namely, idea generation (P -value = 0.000), idea promotion (P -value = 0.000) and idea realisation (P -value = 0.000) at 99%

Table 6. SEM tests results.

		Estimate	SE	CR	P
Network_Building	← Self_Monitoring	0.293	0.047	6.274	***
Idea_Generation	← Network_Building	0.258	0.039	6.555	***
Idea_Promotion	← Network_Building	0.218	0.034	6.369	***
Idea_Realisation	← Network_Building	0.119	0.029	4.051	***
Idea_Generation	← Self_Monitoring	-0.002	0.035	-0.054	0.957
Idea_Promotion	← Self_Monitoring	0.010	0.029	0.333	0.739
Idea_Realisation	← Self_Monitoring	0.079	0.026	2.986	0.003

confidence level. Whereas self-monitoring has only one significant relation with idea realisation behaviours (P -value = 0.003) at a 99% confidence level, and no significant relations have been found between self-monitoring and idea promotion behaviours (P -value = 0.739) nor idea generation behaviours (P -value = 0.957). Based on these results, we found that H1, H2 and H3 are all supported.

Discussion

The first question in this study sought to determine the relationship between self-monitoring and innovation. We consider innovative behaviour as a multi-faceted three-dimensional construct that involves idea generation, idea promotion and idea realisation. This multi-faceted approach answers recent calls by scholars such as Anderson *et al.* (2014), Niu (2014), Wisse *et al.* (2015) and Woods *et al.* (2017). Based on the distinctly different behaviours involved in each of the three stages, the study found different types of relationships between self-monitoring and the innovative work behaviour constructs. Particularly, the study found that there is no direct significant relationship between self-monitoring and the idea generation stage. This finding agrees with the work of De Vet and de Dreu (2007), which showed a negative relationship between self-monitoring and creativity in 'thinking aloud' brainstorming sessions. Self-monitors' pre-occupation with conformity and meeting others' expectations have negatively impacted their creative thought (De Vet and de Dreu, 2007). This current study also found that there is no direct significant relationship between self-monitoring and idea promotion. High self-monitors lack the inner force (personality) to promote novel ideas. This finding concurs with those of Day *et al.* (2002) and Rank *et al.* (2009), which found that high self-monitors are likely to abandon their innovative efforts too early for fear of being rejected or ridiculed. This pre-occupation with the self-image may dampen high-self monitors enthusiasm to vigorously promote their innovative ideas. Finally, the findings indicated a significant direct positive relationship between self-monitoring and the idea realisation stage. In other words, from a self-monitoring perspective, innovative work behaviour only relates to idea realisation and not the first two stages of innovation. This is an interesting result of several possible explanations. High self-monitors may view idea realisation as a less-risky endeavour, given that the idea has already been endorsed and received the necessary approvals. They may also view innovation implementation as an image-enhancing effort, especially if the impact of the innovation will be felt widely across the organisation. Given the high visibility of innovation implementation, self-monitors may perceive their actions to be favourably appraised by their colleagues and managers and, hence, help in the cultivation of a positive impression of them.

The second question in this research was the role of network building ability as a mediating mechanism of influence in the self-monitoring–innovation relationship. While the social network characteristics of self-monitoring personalities have been investigated in literature from different aspects, such as network types, size, betweenness and centrality (Mehra *et al.*, 2001; Toegel *et al.*, 2007; Oh and Kilduff, 2008; Fang and Shaw, 2009; Sasovova *et al.*, 2010), however, this study attempts to evaluate the self-monitoring individual's ability to build networks and create their own social capital. The results of our SEM model exhibit a significant positive relationship between self-mentoring and network building ability. High self-monitoring individuals are more thoughtful of social and interpersonal cues, enjoy high control of their expressions and effectively manage their behaviours in terms of situational appropriateness (Gangestad and Snyder, 2000). These attributes will facilitate the process of making new friends and expanding their network. This finding agrees with Fang *et al.*'s (2011) research on newcomers and the way they build their social capital. Newcomers, based on their level of self-monitoring personality, will build and mobilise their social capital. This finding is also in line with Mehra *et al.* (2001), who found a significant relationship between self-monitoring and network size. The same idea has been presented by Sasovova *et al.* (2010) since they argued that high self-monitors were more likely than low self-monitors to develop friendships with people outside their existing friends, in addition to people in different functions over time.

Finally, and most interestingly, based on the SEM, we found that network building fully mediates the relationship between self-monitoring and idea generation and between self-monitoring and idea promotion, whereas network building partially mediates the relationship between self-monitoring and idea realisation. Hence, the networking dimension can be an instrumental factor that may enable self-monitoring individuals to generate and promote new ideas. In other words, self-monitoring individuals may innovate through building networks that compensate for the lack of their inner force (personality) in generating and promoting novel ideas. This finding corroborates the idea of Tasselli and Kilduff (2018) that individuals' success can be achieved if the individuals can match their personality attributes to the network opportunities available. This finding expands the work of Janssen (2000), Fang and Shaw (2009) and Fang *et al.* (2011), who referred to the relationship between people's level of self-monitoring and their ability to mobilise social capital to achieve their objectives. Our findings also support the work of Mehra *et al.* (2001) since they found that high self-monitors have more ability and motivation to pursue and use the resources available and accessible in their social networks to achieve better work performance.

Conclusions and Managerial Implications

This study aimed to answer these questions: What is the relationship between self-monitoring and innovation, and does network building ability act as a mediating mechanism of influence? Based on the analysis of 417 responses in the United Arab Emirates service sector, the results have shown that high self-monitors can innovate if they possess high network building ability that helps them generate, promote and realise innovation in their organisations. The evidence suggests that network building ability fully mediates the relationship between self-monitoring and idea generation, as well as idea promotion, and partially mediates the relationship between self-monitoring and idea realisation. Overall, these results indicate that, while self-monitoring may relate directly to idea realisation, it is only through network building ability that self-monitors can create and promote new ideas. Hence, network building ability is an instrumental skill that enables self-monitoring individuals to innovate in service organisations.

Our work makes three significant contributions to existing knowledge. First, the study contributes to the self-monitoring literature by underlining a significant direct positive relationship between self-monitoring and the idea realisation stage of innovation. Self-monitors are idea implementers capable of introducing new products, processes or services into the market and their work environments. Secondly, strengthening the psychological-sociological co-evolutionary perspective, our model combines the two theoretical domains of individual behaviour (i.e., personality) and social capital (i.e., network building ability). The model is novel and contributes to a nuanced understanding of the avenues by which innovation occurs in organisations. Finally, while most research in this area has tended to consider an individual's innovative behaviour as a single construct (Scott and Bruce, 1994; Yuan and Woodman, 2010), this study has successfully managed to examine the phenomenon across the three key innovation behaviours of idea generation, idea promotion and idea realisation (Janssen, 2000; Niu, 2014; Wisse *et al.*, 2015). Thus, the study has enhanced our understanding of the mechanisms involved across the multiple and discontinuous activities that support innovation in service organisations.

The findings also have several important implications for managers and leaders wishing to increase innovative work behaviour in their service organisations. Human resource management (HRM) recruitment practices, such as personality testing (either self-report or observer ratings; see Connolly *et al.* (2007), could be used to identify and adequately support self-monitors, particularly in organisations with a high innovation culture (Edgar *et al.*, 2014). Armed with knowledge about the personality profiles of their workforce, organisational managers and leaders are advised to allocate employees with high-self monitoring personality to innovation

implementation teams to capitalise on their inherent effectiveness in idea realisation. In addition, recognising the significant impact of network building ability, managers and leaders should place a strong emphasis on building social capital, supported by HRM practices such as socialisation, team building, participation and engagement. A healthy workplace social environment will enable those with high-self monitoring personalities to have access to social resources (information, knowledge, support and mutual understanding) and will improve their capacity to creatively respond to work-based problems by generating and promoting innovative ideas. Furthermore, those who identify themselves as high self-monitors, and as part of their *self*-improvement strategy, should proactively and intentionally build networks to gain access to good ideas and cultivate social ties to support their innovation promotion.

The study's findings are subject to at least three limitations. First, the cross-sectional nature of the data may leave areas for assumptions regarding causality among the variables. Hence, a longitudinal study on self-monitoring behaviour across the three stages of innovation is necessary to further validate the conclusions. Secondly, using a self-reporting survey to collect data, although defended by (Janssen, 2000), may still allow for common bias. Thirdly, the study focuses on only one personality variable, leaving the effect of other personality variables unstudied. This limitation allows future research to consider different personality variables, such as the big five or single-dimensioned personality (Goldberg, 1990; McCrae and John, 1992), ultimately advancing our understanding of the psychological-sociological co-evolutionary perspective of personality traits and social capital. This study is an early step on the road towards bridging the psychological-sociological chasm through studies that test the mediation or moderation role of social science variables over personality or other psychological variables to explain a magnitude of contemporary work behaviour in organisations.

Appendix A

Table A.1.

Construct	Measurement items	Source
Innovative work behaviour	Nine items measured on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (never) to 5 (always) (1) Creating new ideas for difficult issues (2) Searching out new working methods, techniques or instruments (3) Generating original solutions for problems	Janssen (2000)

Table A.1. (Continued)

Construct	Measurement items	Source
Network building	(4) Mobilizing support for innovative ideas	Ferris <i>et al.</i> (2005); Thompson (2005)
	(5) Acquiring approval for innovative ideas	
	(6) Making important organisational members enthusiastic for innovative ideas	
	(7) Transforming innovative ideas into useful applications	
	(8) Introducing innovative ideas into the work environment in a systematic way	
	(9) Evaluating the utility of innovative ideas	
	Six items measured on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (very strongly disagree) to 5 (very strongly agree)	
	(1) I spend a lot of time and effort at work networking with others	
	(2) I am good at building relationships with influential people at work	
	(3) I have developed a large network of colleagues and associates at work whom I can call on for support when I really need to get things done	
Self-monitoring personality	(4) At work, I know a lot of important people and I am well connected	Snyder and Gangestad (1986); Day <i>et al.</i> (2002)
	(5) I spend a lot of time at work developing connections with others	
	(6) I am good at using my connections and network to make things happen at work	
	Eighteen items measured on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (to a very little extent) to 5 (to a very large extent)	
	(1) I find it hard to imitate the behaviour of other people	
	(2) At parties and social gatherings, I do not attempt to do or say things that others will like	
	(3) I can only argue for ideas which I already believe	
	(4) I can make impromptu speeches even on topics about which I have almost no information	
	(5) I guess I put on a show to impress or entertain others	
	(6) I would probably make a good actor	
	(7) In a group of people, I am rarely the centre of attention	
	(8) In different situations and with different people, I often act like very different persons	
	(9) I am not particularly good at making other people like me	

Table A.1. (Continued)

Construct	Measurement items	Source
	(10) I'm not always the person I appear to be	
	(11) I would not change my opinions (or the way I do things) in order to please someone or win their favour	
	(12) I have considered being an entertainer	
	(13) I have never been good at games like charades or improvisational acting	
	(14) I have trouble changing my behaviour to suit different people and different situations	
	(15) At a party I let others keep the jokes and stories going	
	(16) I feel a bit awkward in public and do not show up quite as well as I should	
	(17) I can look anyone in the eye and tells a lie with a straight face (if for a right end)	
	(18) I may deceive people by being friendly when I really dislike them	

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