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The relationship between leader composure and career derailment potential, and the moderating effect of race

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The Relationship between Leader Composure and Career Derailment Potential, and the Moderating Effect of Race

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Abstract

African Americans are underrepresented in leadership positions in the United States. The relationship between leader composure and leader career derailment potential was assessed in the present study to determine if the relationship was stronger for African Americans than for Whites. Conservation of Resources Theory was utilized as a theoretical lens suggesting that composure is a resource for leaders that would be valuable in lessening career derailment potential. Assuming racial microaggressions are present in the workplace, and such microaggression could create added emotional labor for African Americans above that which Whites experience, it was hypothesized that leader race would moderate the relationship between leader composure and leader career derailment potential. An archival 360-degree multisource data set was utilized in a moderated multiple regression. Leader race was not statistically significantly related to leader career derailment potential while leader composure was. A statistically significant interaction between leader race and leader composure in predicting boss-rated leader career derailment potential existed when peers were rating leader composure, but not when direct reports were rating leader composure. However, the relationship was stronger for Whites than African Americans; under low composure, African American leader career derailment potential was lower than Whites, but the reverse was true under high composure. The present multivariate study is the first to demonstrate the inverse relationship between leader composure and leader career derailment potential as well as the moderating effect of leader race. The results suggest that African Americans reaching leadership positions may be highly qualified and may depend on composure as a resource.

The Relationship between Leader Composure and Career Derailment Potential, and the Moderating Effect of Race

Chapter 1: Introduction

Racial minorities are less likely than Whites to hold leadership positions in work organizations (Chen, 2020; Elliott & Smith, 2001; Frankel, 2015; Kay & Gorman, 2012; Smith, 2002). African American individuals make up 13% of the United States population but account for only 3.2% of all executive or senior leadership positions (Roepe, 2021), and less than 1% of Fortune 500 CEO positions (Wahba, 2020). Persons of color are underrepresented in many different organizational capacities in the United States including community college presidents (Hines, 2021) and healthcare executives (Livingston, 2018). The problem this paper addresses is the racial inequity of those holding leadership positions in the United States.

One possible reason for the problem of underrepresentation of African Americans in leadership roles is an increased risk of career derailment. While many capable leaders are expected to successfully advance within organizations, some inevitably stall out. Derailment is experienced when a leader "who was expected to go higher in the organization and who was judged to have the ability to do so is fired, demoted, or plateaued below expected levels of achievement" (Lombardo & McCauley, 1988, p. 1). This study examines how derailment may be a contributing factor in underrepresentation of African Americans in leadership positions.

The literature is intertwined with viewpoints of what goes right to result in career progression and what goes wrong to cause derailment. Leaders who succeeded were better at getting along, dealing with mistakes, solving problems, and maintaining

composure under stress (McCall & Lombardo, 1983a). Four dominant derailment themes include interpersonal relationship problems, business objectives not being met, inability to build and lead teams, and inability to adapt to change (Leslie & Van Velsor, 1996). When comparing mid to upper-level managers who were either successful in career advancement or who derailed, the two groups differed in managerial skills, personality factors (including composure) and leadership of others (Lombardo et al., 1988). Excitability (displaying outbursts and emotional volatility) is considered a dimension of managerial incompetence (Hogan & Hogan, 2001) and is expected to relate positively to derailment. For example, derailed executives in the US were found to be moody, volatile, and unable to maintain composure under stress (McCall & Lombardo, 1983a).

One factor important to career success and may be similarly expected to be important to avoiding derailment is a leader's ability to maintain composure. Composure refers to a state where one remains calm and self-assured and maintains an organized reaction to stressful situations (Motowidlo et al., 1986). In relational communication, such as in a work setting, composure is having a level of poise that is separate from one's involvement and arousal (Burgoon & Hale, 1987). Constructs with a negative connotation that may indicate a lack of composure include excitability, moodiness, and volatility under pressure (Hogan & Hogan, 2001; McCall & Lombardo, 1983a). While existing research has focused on examining the effects of composure on positive career outcomes (e.g., career success, promotion), derailment research has thus far focused on examining the effects of negatively oriented constructs possibly representing a lack of composure. However, research has yet to assess directly whether composure relates negatively to derailment or derailment potential.

Composure may be particularly important for avoiding derailment among African Americans. They face challenges that test composure which their White counterparts are less likely to experience. Social unrest in the United States in the early 2020's has brought a renewed focus on racism at the national and institutional levels (Powell & Menendian, 2021). Experiencing racial indignities, slights, and insults (collectively termed racial microaggressions) are likely to cause an emotional response in persons experiencing the receiving end of the aggression (Wang et al., 2011). Yet, in the work environment, display rules exist which establish how a person is to behave while at work (Mann, 2007). "People of color carry the burden of having to choose between tacitly participating in their marginalization or actively resisting racist ideologies with the possible consequence of institutional alienation, exclusion, or official reprimand" (Evans & Moore, 2015, p 452). This creates a dissonance; racial microaggressions stimulate a natural internal emotional response while a desire exists to conform to the external expectations of behaviors associated with the job – one feels upset but tries to remain composed to be seen in a positive light, in part, to avoid career derailment. The degree to which this dissonance is managed can be expressed in the degree of composure (Mann, 2007).

Maintaining composure in the face of microaggressions can be accomplished through the process of emotion regulation. Emotion regulation theory is seen as a self-regulation process where an individual chooses an emotion regulation strategy for achieving how the person feels, thinks and desires to act (Gross, 2015). One such strategy is expressive suppression, which is the ongoing effort to inhibit one's emotion-expressive behavior (Gross, 2015). This can occur for all types of job stresses such as meeting

deadlines, making strategic decisions, dealing with differences of opinion, etc. Racial microaggressions are additional stressors experienced by African Americans inside and outside of work that may take up resources that otherwise could be used to deal with task-related job stressors important to avoiding derailment.

This study draws on Conservation of Resources Theory (COR) to suggest that composure plays an important role in avoiding derailment among African Americans in leadership positions. COR proposes that "people strive to retain, protect, and build resources and that what is threatening to them is the potential or actual loss of the valued resources…resources are defined as those objects, personal characteristics, conditions, or energies that are valued by the individual" (Hobfoll, 1989, p 516). One's resources have important implications for career-related outcomes, and Whites tend to have greater access than African Americans to important resources like social capital (Parks-Yancy, 2006). Social capital is the goodwill available to individuals that stem from social relations and manifest in information, influence, and solidarity (Adler & Kwon, 2002). Minorities, including African Americans, have been found to lack access to personal and professional networks during the hiring process, especially in invitations for a second interview (Peterson et al., 2000). Minorities (African Americans, Hispanics, and Asian Americans) in middle-management positions also have been found to have fewer relationships with upper-level managers resulting in lower returns in career advancement (Ibarra, 1995). Taken together, we may expect that African Americans have fewer social capital resources (i.e., professional networks, relationships, and support) to rely upon as they navigate stressors encountered during the career development process and therefore may depend more on human capital resources, such as composure. In addition to social

capital, human capital is the individual's capacity of cognitive (e.g.: knowledge, skills and abilities), non-cognitive (e.g.: personality), and situationally induced constructs (e.g.: motivation and attitude), and physical characteristics (Ployhart et al., 2014).The human capital resource of composure is scarcely mentioned in the derailment literature while other knowledge, skills and abilities, personality traits, and attitudes have received far more attention (Gentry et al., 2009: Lombardo et al., 1988; Morrison et al., 1987; Shipper & Dillard, 2000: Stawiski et al., 2015; Williams et al., 2013). Except for a single quantitative study using a univariate analysis to compare mean scores of boss ratings on leaders after confirmatory factor analysis (Lombardo et al., 1988), research directly implicating composure as being associated with derailment is noticeably absent. This provides an opportunity for the present study to contribute to a better understanding of composure as a predictor of career derailment potential using empirical methods and whether race is a moderating factor.

The purpose of this study was to test whether a leader's race moderates the relationship between workplace leader composure and leader career derailment potential. Taking emotion regulation together with COR, the present study suggests that when confronted with racial microaggressions in the workplace, African Americans in leadership positions can employ emotion regulation processes to suppress expressive behavior that might not fit the display rules in the work environment for the purpose of being seen as composed, an affective display other individuals see as valuable to career progression. COR can help to explain why persons of color would strive to regulate emotions and maintain composure in the midst of racial microaggressions, while the theory on emotion regulation would explain how the regulation occurs. Thus, in addition

to assessing the effects of leader race and leader composure on leader derailment potential, the key research question posed here was “how does leader race influence the relationship between workplace leader composure and leader career derailment potential?” More specifically, “does leader composure have a stronger influence on leader career derailment potential among African American leaders as compared to White leaders?”

A quantitative, multivariate method will be employed to address the question. The data analyzed was collected by a third party between 2019 and 2021 using a multi-source rating instrument as part of leadership development consulting work conducted across multiple organizations in the United States. The database consists of multisource responses to items from the Benchmarks® instrument developed by the *Center for Creative Leadership* (2018b) measuring leader composure and leader career derailment potential. The 36-item career derailment potential scale has been shown to “differentiate promotable managers from non-promotable managers” (Lyness & Judiesch, 2008, p. 793). Data were for 2,693 “target” leaders from across the United States who sought 360-degree leadership development feedback. Data utilized in this study include leader self-reported race, direct report-rated and peer-rated leader composure, and boss-rated leader career derailment potential scores. As White leaders were heavily overrepresented in the dataset, a procedure for propensity score matching was conducted to condition observed, baseline characteristic data and achieve balance of covariates between matched White and African American leaders (Thoemmes & Kim, 2011). Hierarchical linear regression was be employed to test two series of models that differed only in whether direct report or peer ratings of leader composure where utilized. Both sets of models regressed boss-

rated leader career derailment potential on leader self-reported race (Model 1), direct report-rated/peer-rated leader composure (Model 2), and the interaction of leader race and direct report-rated/peer-rated leader composure (Model 3).

The first contribution of this study relates to the testing of the main effect of leader composure. Findings regarding this effect are important because they demonstrate how leader composure, through its behavioral expression in the workplace, benefits career progression by lessening leader career derailment potential. Composure was implicated as a critical feature in the early qualitative research on derailment. Many studies since have quantitatively examined the effects of constructs adjacent to composure with regard to various career success outcomes. However, the only quantitative empirical evidence directly examining composure's relationship to career derailment was conducted approximately 35 years ago using a simple univariate t-test. The present study provides evidence replicate of past findings using far more sophisticated and contemporary research methods, which reaffirm the often-assumed importance of composure to leader career derailment.

The second contribution of this study relates to the testing of the main effect of leader race on boss-rated leader career derailment potential. Given the evidence of racial inequality in top leadership positions, one may expect racial differences in career derailment potential among leaders similar to those observed regarding career advancement outcomes. Findings demonstrating non-significant racial differences in leader career derailment potential are important as they raise further questions over why racial inequities are observed at higher levels of organizational hierarchies.

Third, findings showed that the moderating effect of leader self-reported race on the relationship between leader composure and boss-rated leader career derailment potential differed based on whether direct report or peer ratings of leader composure were used. Specifically, leader self-reported race moderated the negative relationship between leader composure and boss-rated leader career derailment potential when peers were rating leader composure, but not when direct reports were rating leader composure. It has been found that ratings differences by group can be role-related (Borman, 1991) and rater groups evaluate aspects of the target leader most relevant to themselves (Bozeman, 1997). In the case of the present study, direct reports see the target leader from the perspective of superior whereas peers view the leader on an equal level suggesting power differences may also have an effect. Direct reports interactions with leaders are generally within the chain of command while peers are outside of the formal chain of command with less constraints and possibly more expression of emotion.

Lastly, findings showing the nature of the significant interaction observed using peer-rated leader composure provides important insights into role of leader race in moderating the relationship between leader composure and leader career derailment potential. The significant effect showed that, in the situation of low composure, African Americans are rated as having lower career derailment potential than Whites. Conversely, in the situation of high composure, African Americans are rated as having higher career derailment potential. These findings may be explained by a combination of differential selection bias (see Eagly et al., 1995), which relates to the differential qualifications of Whites and African Americans who attain leadership opportunities, and the presence of racial bias in evaluations of leader career derailment potential.

The observation of this interaction effect brings about some interesting questions regarding composure and career derailment potential and the role of race in that relationship. While we know composure is important to lessening career derailment, we do not know how other leadership dimensions might co-influence career derailment. Further development of the Conservation of Resources Theory has suggested that significant events, such as job loss or demotion, are often the consequence of a series of events over time (Hobfoll et al., 2018) that include ongoing gain and loss of resources and realignment of available resources to compensate for failing ones. This suggests an interrelationship of resources that travel together in packs or caravans for the individual. An interplay of resources could be underlying the interaction caused by race and composure.

There are practical implications stemming from the present study. Organizational leaders who are perceived as displaying behaviors consistent with composure are likely to be seen as being low in career derailment potential. Should leaders be perceived as being low composure, they should examine first any potential problems with: remaining calm when crisis occurs in the workplace; contributing to problem solving; complaining less; taking ownership for one's own mistakes; and, remaining constructive/positive when things don't go one's way. Also, since interpersonal relationships and being too narrow in their functional orientation are two career derailment dimensions most strongly related to composure, examining one's own strengths and weaknesses through seeking feedback on these topics from those around them may lead to meaningful opportunities for change. In addition, investment in composure resources may be critical to gaining social capital resources within the professional network. That is, leaders demonstrating composure in

the leader role may gain the respect, support, and trust from direct reports, peers, and superiors. These resources, in turn, can be invested to overcome future difficult experiences that lead to derailment. Leaders who are perceived as being high in composure can likely take advantage of any social capital resources they have built up to assist in lessening career derailment potential. Furthermore, bosses should work to eliminate racial biases when examining subordinate leaders in career derailment potential. Leaders seeking to minimize career derailment potential would be well served to examine their own levels of composure when faced with challenges associate with adapting to change, accomplishment of assigned objectives, and leading teams.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

Racial minorities are less likely than Whites to hold leadership positions in work organizations (Chen, 2020; Elliott & Smith, 2001; Frankel, 2015; Kay & Gorman, 2012; Smith, 2002). African Americans represent 13% of the United States population but account for only 8% of employees in professional roles and 3.2% of all executive/senior leadership positions (Roepe, 2021). Less than 1% of Fortune 500 CEO positions are held by African Americans, representing a decline from just a few years prior (Wahba, 2020). Among Fortune 100 companies, African Americans make up 3% of CEO positions, 1% of CFO positions and 4% of "profit and loss" leadership roles (Larcker & Tayan, 2020). African Americans who have made it to entry "C-suite" positions generally are in roles that typically have no access to achieving the top position (Chen, 2020). Equal Employment Opportunity Commission's (EEOC) data reveals that of companies with over 100 employees, African Americans hold only 3% of the executive or senior role positions (Chen, 2020). Utilizing a unique approach to EEOC data, the percentage of

employees in management and professional positions has been measured using the "executive parity index" developed by the Ascend Foundation. Where executive parity equals 1.0, African American men are at 0.63 while African American women are at 0.30, indicating that African Americans fill a far smaller portion of leadership roles than do Whites (Gee, 2018). In an examination of the US Department of State, the Government Accountability Office reported that from 2002 to 2018 the promotion odds between GS-11 to GS-15 general schedule pay scales (middle management) were 19.4% to 29.3% lower for racial and ethnic minorities than Whites in both the civil and foreign service (US Government Accountability Office, 2020).

Persons of color are underrepresented in many different non-governmental, non-profit organizational capacities in the United States including healthcare executives (Livingston, 2018) and community college presidents (Hines, 2021). Also related to higher education, a study of African American law school faculty identified barriers to tenure that were obvious (visible) and others that were hard to detect (invisible) as there were direct and subtle actions and omissions hindering professional development (Essien, 2003). Beyond faculty, college athletic program coaches were found prone to be awarded positions attached to "bottom-up ascription" in which the leadership role was over subordinate work groups of the same race/ethnicity, thereby limiting African American coach career progression (Cook & Glass, 2013). Ascription also was found in other industries and with Latino minorities (Elliott & Smith, 2001).

Since the time of the Civil Rights movement in the United States, many companies and government agencies have instituted diversity management programs within their organizations to create more equal opportunity (Frankel, 2015), but many

efforts have demonstrated limited success (Kay & Gorman, 2012). Ideas explaining this phenomenon have been widely written about, including the shortage of human and social capital for African Americans as compared to Whites. Human capital represents the individual capacities that differ across people (e.g.: knowledge, personality, attitudes, and physical characteristics) (Ployhart et al., 2014). The present study considered composure to be a form of human capital. A general concern exists over African Americans' lack of access to human capital development opportunities (Brocato, 2017), which can disadvantage African Americans in career-related outcomes.

Even when African Americans demonstrate equivalent levels of human capital, they often remain at a disadvantage. African Americans with similar education levels and experience as Whites are less likely to be promoted (Baldi & McBrier, 1997). Furthermore, it has been identified through interviews of Fortune 500 CEOs that the higher reputation of the education institutions one attends is more important for African Americans than Whites when in pursuit of jobs and promotions into leadership positions (Harper, 2018). The tendency for African Americans to be chosen for jobs not located in promotion ladders and the need for more educational degrees on their resumes as compared to White counterparts partially explains the lower likelihood of African Americans being promoted (Baldi & McBrier, 1997). Biases create expectations of African Americans to accrue more work experience, job-specific experience and years with their current employer to sufficiently prove capabilities for promotion (Smith, 2005).

Social capital is the goodwill available to individuals that stem from social relations and manifest in information, influence, and solidarity (Adler & Kwon, 2002).

Social capital, an aspect of social structures, benefits an individual by creating value through facilitating actions for the individual (Coleman, 1990). From a social capital perspective, African American Fortune 500 executives have clearly articulated the importance of mentorships in the development of their careers; this suggests the lack of mentor relationships may be holding African Americans back from promotional opportunities (Harper, 2018). Research has shown that African American managers report having fewer strong-tie members in their occupational social circles resulting in less psychosocial support in their work life leading to fewer opportunities to develop valuable network ties (James, 2000). Furthermore, many companies fill jobs through referral networks that recommend candidates (Mouw, 2002); these networks tend to be homophilic, recommending associates of their own race (McPherson et al, 2001).

Taken together, it is clear that African Americans do not enjoy the same career success as their White counterparts. The literature suggests that this may be due to African Americans lacking access to resources and opportunities, being subject to overly critical evaluations of their qualifications, or both. In sum, much is known about why African Americans do not receive opportunities to advance their careers. However, far less is known about why African Americans who receive opportunities to advance sometimes derail from a continued upward trajectory. Research is needed regarding the latter to more fully understand the racial disparity that exists in top leadership positions in organizations.

The present research focused on African American leaders. In times recent to this study within the United States much attention had been given to the challenges experienced by African Americans through social movements such a Black Lives Matter,

making the study of African American differences timely. Additionally, not all minorities face the same challenges. Specifically, there are great differences between African American and members of other racial minority groups in representation in C-Suite positions (Larker and Tayan, 2020), which is primary to the study of issues such as career advancement and derailment. Thus, the present research focused on "African American-White" leader differences.

Career Success: Advancement and Derailment

Career success is the accumulated work and psychological outcomes resulting from one's work experiences (Seibert & Kraimer, 2001). It can be examined from an objective or subjective perspective. Objective measures would be observable such as the number of promotions attained, job title, or salary level. Subjective measures would be intrinsic to the individual, such as job satisfaction.

Career advancement is defined as promotion to jobs at higher levels within the organization which have a larger scope of duties and responsibilities (Hall, 2002). Promotion has been measured through objective indictors such as title, salary, and level of responsibility (Hall, 2002). In an evaluation of financial firms, African Americans were found less likely to be promoted than Whites even with similar tenure, performance ratings and positions (Elvira & Zatzick, 2002). Drawing from national data, Baldi and McBrier (1997) show that African Americans are less likely to be promoted than Whites even as African American presence increases in a firm. Examining promotions within a multinational Fortune 500 company, African Americans were rated as having less promotion potential than Whites (Landau, 1995). However, a meta-analysis showed that race was not a statistically significant predictor of promotion (Ng et al., 2005). Using the

colloquial term of "up or out" to represent promotion or departure from an organization, a five-year review of a large law firm demonstrated that same-gender superiors, but not same race, enhanced career mobility for the subordinate leader (McGinn & Milkman, 2012). With few exceptions, the literature points to lower promotion rates for African Americans as compared to Whites.

Another line of research seeks to understand why some highly regarded leaders, who have had success, fail to achieve their career potential (Leslie & Van Velsor, 1996). This is where career derailment potential departs from career advancement; the leader has advanced, but then becomes stalled. More specifically, career derailment is experienced when a leader "who was expected to go higher in the organization and who was judged to have the ability to do so is fired, demoted, or plateaued below expected levels of achievement" (Lombardo & McCauley, 1988, p. 1). The aspect of disappointing results compared to expectations is what separates derailment from other career-centered constructs such as poor performance, lack of promotion, or involuntary turnover. In derailment, the halted progression is not voluntary and leads to being either stuck at one level, experience a loss of duties and responsibilities, or being let go from the organization. Career derailment potential partially overlaps the construct of career advancement in that career derailment represents a phenomenon in which the leader has advanced to a leadership role but becomes stalled in further career advancement success.

The study of career derailment is important because it can shed light on challenging organizational topics such as managerial effectiveness, turnover, lost opportunity and diversity. First, leader derailment is often recognized when leaders reach a managerial level at which they are not able to be effective. Managerial effectiveness is

important to organizational success and staff morale, as ineffective management is likely to fall short of attainment of organizational goals and ends up producing low morale (Gentry & Shanock, 2008). Second, leader derailment sometimes directly entails a leader being fired. Leadership turnover is expensive and can contribute to lost intellectual capital, disengagement, and missed business objectives (Gentry et al, 2009; Hogan et al., 2011). Third, persons identified as having high potential are expected to have the capacities to develop knowledge and skills seen as highly valuable to the organization. Failing to develop these individuals to reach their full potential is a lost opportunity to gain competitive advantage when human resources are the most valuable asset organizations have (Barney & Wright, 1998) and can be detrimental to the self-esteem of the leader. Finally, career derailment experienced by minority leaders works against organizational goals of diversity, equity and inclusion. Workforce diversity has emerged as a key strategic value in organizations as it benefits the businesses' reputation, better enables maintaining a highly competent workforce and generates more innovative ideas (Mor Barak, 2016). Diversity has also been found to improve organizational performance (Richard et al., 2013). Inclusive teams yield more creative ideas that appeal to a broader base of customers, thus opening up new markets and driving better performance (Shandwick, 2019). In essence, diversity provokes thought, making organizations more creative and hardworking (Philips, 2014). This would suggest there is value in minimizing career derailment potential of minorities.

However, the literature examining differences between African Americans and Whites in the "career derailment potential" construct is essentially nonexistent. That which does exist focuses on racial disparities in positive indicators of career success. For

example, Landau (1995) observed career advancement decision makers' promotion potential assessments of minority candidates were influenced by biases and stereotypes, reducing African American candidates' chances of achieving senior leadership positions and creating a phenomenon known as the "glass ceiling" effect. A possible explanation for this finding is rooted in ingroup and outgroup biases. Decision makers tend to evaluate those similar to them more positively than those different from them and, as described above, the vast majority of top-level decision makers across sectors are White. Consistent with this, a study of a large, international law firm found that junior partners of underrepresented minorities were more likely experience career mobility when they had same-race superiors (McGinn & Milkman, 2012). These findings suggest that having African American leaders in top leadership positions may provide a pathway to breaking the glass ceiling. However, African American leader derailment contributes to fewer of these opportunities. Thus, research is needed that extends current evidence regarding racial disparities in positive indicators of career success to consider negatively-valenced forms of career success, such as career derailment potential, that have important practical implications.

This paper attempts to fill the gap in the literature on career derailment as a contributing factor of the underrepresentation of African Americans in leadership positions. With proportionately fewer promotions and more limited access to human and social capital, it is hypothesized that African American leaders, compared to White leaders, receive higher boss ratings of career derailment potential. Boss ratings of leader career derailment potential are used in this study as bosses are influential in the career success of subordinate leaders. Therefore, the first hypothesis of this study is as follows:

Hypothesis 1: African American leaders are rated higher than White leaders in leader career derailment potential by bosses.

Early Research on Factors Influencing Career Success and Derailment

Derailment studies began with identifying why leaders were promoted or derailed by conducting interviews of bosses who made career advancement decisions on their subordinates. All of these leaders were considered bright, socially skilled, as having potential and as having achievements already on their resumes, and were ambitious and willing to sacrifice (Bentz, 1985; McCall & Lombardo, 1983a). However, there were clear reasons as to why some derailed. One study identified failures related to insufficient business skills, inability to deal with complexity, reactiveness, being too tactically focused, letting emotions cloud judgement, being slow to learn, demonstrating an overriding personality defect, being unable to delegate or build a team, and being unable to maintain a network (Bentz, 1985). In a separate study, executives who succeeded had more diverse accomplishments, handled stress with composure and mistakes with grace, involved others in problem solving, and had the ability to get along with different types of people (McCall & Lombardo, 1983a). Conversely, the same study found that derailed executives failed to specify business problems, were insensitive, cold, aloof and arrogant, overly ambitious, unable to think strategically, betrayed the trust of others, failed to delegate and staff effectively, could not adapt to a new boss with a different style, and were overly dependent upon a mentor. These findings from male executives were later verified to be largely applicable to women also (Morrison et al., 1987). As shown in the studies above, composure can be seen as a characteristic associated with career direction - “handled stress with composure” is a success factor, while “allowing emotions to cloud

judgement" can be associated with failure. These qualitative studies acknowledge that composure is a characteristic that bosses brought forth in partial explanation of leader success versus derailment. Table 1 summarizes these success and flaw characteristics differentiated by whether they represent human or social capital characteristics or, in the context of COR introduced later, human and social capital *resources*.

The next stage of evolution in derailment was one in which studies were conducted to create, verify, and utilize survey instruments to measure behaviors associated with success or derailment (see Hogan & Hogan, 2001; Lombardo et al., 1988; McCauley & Lombardo, 1990; Shipper & Dillard, 2000). The use of these instruments grew more sophisticated moving from simple, self-measures to multi-rater correlations and predictions. This next section of literature review provides an overview of empirical studies that examined variables associated with derailment.

Predictors of Derailment

Much of the work in career derailment has looked to identify what differentiates a successful leader (i.e., one who continues being promoted) from a derailed leader. Certain leader characteristics are desirable for career advancement while others are not. In like fashion to the findings of the earlier qualitative work noted above, the following quantitative studies can also be differentiated into human and social capital leader characteristics important to success and derailment. The reason for this distinction here is to demonstrate that leaders have resources available to them which are valuable to prevent derailment and to establish the consideration of composure as a resource that lessens career derailment potential. Similarly, some scholars have examined this topic from the perspective of task and contextual performance and found that task performance

depends upon human capital skills, whereas contextual performance depends upon social capital skills which can either inhibit or facilitate task activities (Hogan & Hogan, 2009). The following literature review will examine predictors of career derailment through the lens of social and human capital resources which will be beneficial when using the theoretical lens of COR later.

Literature on social capital resources leading to derailment. There has been a considerable amount of literature studying leader social capital attributes associated with derailment. As social exchange is a critical part of leadership, such as in leader-member exchange and team building, having social capital creates value for the leader (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1985). Verifying the qualitative findings mentioned earlier, good interpersonal relationships, shaping staff for success, securing key advocates, and aligning with higher management all were found to be associated with minimizing career derailment (Morrison et al., 1987), as was success in leading others (Lombardo et al, 1988). Using Myers-Briggs personality types, personality characteristics capturing interpersonal behavioral tendencies were found to be associated with career derailment potential as perceived by those persons surrounding the leader (direct reports, peers, and bosses) (Gentry et al., 2007). Those having the lowest derailment potential tended to possess Myers-Briggs personality types of "sensing" and "feeling" —that is, sympathetic, friendly, and warm – making for social capital. Those with highest derailment ratings tended to be those that focused on frameworks, systems, and logic, making them seem less socially oriented.

Relationships with superiors and direct reports is another key factor in avoiding career derailment. For example, positive working relationships with more senior leaders

has been associated with lower derailment (Morrison et al., 1987). Additionally, a correlation was found between the quality of a leader's relationship with upper management and putting subordinates at ease, which in turn lessened ratings of career derailment potential (Gentry & Shanock, 2008). From this correlation, it was postulated that through social exchange theory, leaders who had good relationships with upper management would feel obligated to treat others well and put them at ease. Thus, career derailment ratings were impacted by the leader's social behaviors with bosses. Finally, ineffective social behaviors, such as not being adaptable to many different types of people and ordering people around rather than working with others to get them on board, have been shown to be positively related to leader career derailment (Bono et al., 2017). In the same study, gender was found to have a moderating effect such that ineffective interpersonal behaviors were more damaging to women than men, when the behaviors were present.

Social support is another important factor to avoiding derailment. For example, coworker support was found to be negatively related to behaviors that predict career derailment (Gentry et al., 2019). Social support (coworker in this case) is seen as an interpersonal resource that leaders draw upon to enhance performance and cope with stress (Terry, 1993). With age as a moderating variable, for older leaders, the relationship between coworker support and behaviors that predict derailment was negative and significant; that is, among older managers, those that reported greater coworker support were rated as having fewer behaviors predicting derailment (Gentry et al, 2019).

The social capital factors described above represent some of the most studied and empirically supported in the literature on derailment. To summarize, positive social

capital behaviors are important to reducing career derailment potential. Leaders with personality types that are sensing and feeling have better working relationships with bosses and direct reports, and stronger social support networks resulting in lower derailment potential.

Literature on human capital resources leading to derailment. The scholarly literature also contains studies considering human capital resources as predictors of derailment. The present study considers composure as a human capital resource, part of one's knowledge, skills, and abilities (Ployhart et al, 2014). Following qualitative interviews that have drawn out composure being important to career success, the following review examines empirical evidence.

Experienced executives who had taken on risks and developed an achievement track record, and those with ambition who were tough, decisive and demanding were found to have lower chances of derailment (Morrison, et al., 1987). Higher self-rated and other-rated "willingness to improve" were found to be related to lower career derailment potential (Gentry et al., 2009). The more the leaders were willing to improve, and the more others perceived them that way, the less likely it was for bosses to perceive them to be high in career derailment potential. Comparing successful to derailed leaders, those who derailed were more likely to lack the ability to think through complex or strategic issues, deal with ambiguity or be savvy to political issues (Lombardo et al., 1988). Leaders who remained too focused on their specific role and were unable to see a broader organizational perspective had a tendency toward derailment (Stawiski et al., 2015). When leaders overestimated their own abilities in goal setting, planning and organizing work, or keeping track of details, they were found to be more apt to derail (Shipper &

Dillard, 2000). Self-defeating behaviors (e.g., procrastination, suspiciousness, defensiveness, worrying, rigidity, hostility, and perfectionism) also have been linked to leader derailment (Williams et al., 2013).

A wide range of personality traits have been shown to be associated with leader derailment, with composure being either directly or indirectly implicated in the personality trait constructs studied. For example, conducting a series of separate univariate tests, lacking integrity, composure, drive, and sensitivity have been shown to be positively related to derailment (Lombardo, et al., 1988). Research also has shown that certain personality disorders, or "dysfunctional dispositions", were associated with managerial incompetence and derailment, such as being excitable, skeptical, cautious, reserved, leisurely, bold, mischievous, colorful (dramatic), imaginative (in unusual ways), diligent (perfectionistic), and dutiful (reliant on others for support, reluctant to take independent action) (Hogan & Hogan, 2001). These authors argue that all dysfunctional dispositions can be captured in three categories of disorders – the tendency to blow up, the tendency to show off, and the tendency to conform when under pressure. The "tendency to blow up" may suggest a lack of composure. Leaders who would "move against people" when advancing their careers saw this short-term strength turn into a long-term weakness from the perspective of derailment (Carson et al., 2012). Other strengths to weaknesses findings were: boldness turned from courage and confidence to the inability to admit mistakes and feeling entitled; the tendency to take risks and seek excitement turned to lying, defiance and exploiting others; being colorful, animated, and desiring attention became impulsiveness and managing by crisis; and, finally, out of the box thinking became erratic decision making. Of these long-term weaknesses, multiple

may be symptomatic of a lack of composure. While it has been shown that subclinical personality traits are important in determining responsiveness to leadership development, some suggest that, overtime, negative traits become inversely related to leader development (Harms et al, 2011). The traits considered positive earlier in careers, when taken to the extreme, transitioned into dark-side characteristics, working against leadership competence and hastening derailment.

The review above demonstrates that a range of human capital resources have been empirically linked to career derailment. The review also demonstrates that the human capital resource of composure is scarcely mentioned in the derailment literature while other knowledge, skills and abilities, personality traits, and attitudes have received far more attention. With the exception of a single quantitative study using univariate analysis to compare mean scores of boss ratings on leaders after confirmatory factor analysis (Lombardo, et al., 1988), research directly implicating composure as being associated with derailment is noticeably absent. This provides an opportunity for the present study to contribute to a better understanding of composure as a predictor of career derailment potential and whether race is a moderating factor using empirical means. In the following section, COR theory is introduced to better understand why composure may be a valuable resource to lessening career derailment potential.

Theoretical Framework: The Conservation of Resources Theory

The basis of the Conservation of Resources Theory is that individuals seek to obtain, keep and protect those things that they value, leading to the understanding that stress is experienced when there is the potential and/or actual loss of resources (Hobfoll, 2001). Structure has been developed for the theory through several principles and

corollaries which are articulated in Table 2 (Hobfoll et al., 2018). COR was proposed as an alternative to the stress appraisal model and to bridge gaps between the then various viewpoints of stress as a phenomenon (Hobfoll, 1989). The stress appraisal model concerned an individual's evaluation of an event as being stressful or not, and the subsequent cognitive process of deciding how to cope. COR goes further to explain what people do when confronted or not confronted with stress and why they do it. Thus, it stems from human psychology, the study of mind and behavior, and is a motivational theory explaining why people behave the way they do. Individuals are motivated to protect resources they have and to acquire new ones (Halbesleben et al., 2014).

Resources can be defined as "those objects, personal characteristics, conditions, or energies that are valued by the individual or that serve as a means for attainment of these objects, personal characteristics, conditions, or energies" (Hobfoll, 1989, p. 516). It is possible for these resources to be depleted and replenished. Depletion may threaten one's status, economic stability or self-esteem (Hobfoll, 1989). These resources are of practical value but also have symbolic value as they help define who people are (Brown & Andrews, 1986). Hobfoll (1989) further explains his definition: "object resources" (e.g., home) are valued because of their physical nature; "personal characteristics" (e.g., traits, skills) are valued as they can aid in stress resistance; "condition resources" (e.g., marriage, tenure, seniority) are valued to the extent they are sought after; and "energy resources" (e.g., time, money, knowledge) have intrinsic value due to their ability to aid in the acquisition of other kinds of resources. While social capital resources are examples of conditions, composure and other human capital resources are examples of personal characteristics.

COR has been utilized to understand the relationships between a wide range of resources with a similarly wide range of organizational behavior outcomes. For example, several studies have utilized COR to explain potential antecedents to employee burnout (see Halbesleben & Buckley, 2004; Westman et al., 2004). Other examples of the use of COR include explaining conscientiousness and emotional stability personality characteristics as resources that reduce psychological strain (Halbesleben et al., 2009: Perry et al., 2007; Zellars, et al., 2006), problem solving as a resource linked to workplace fatigue (Schmitt et al., 2012), and professional skills as resources positively related to work engagement under demanding work conditions (Hakanen et al., 2005). One study on leader career derailment that utilized COR as a theoretical lens found that age moderated the relationship between coworker support and derailment such that for older leaders, those who expressed having greater coworker support displayed fewer behaviors predicting derailment (Gentry et al., 2019).

As no studies have been identified on composure that use COR as the theoretical lens, the present study seeks to explain how COR provides for leader composure to be a resource related to leader career derailment potential. Negative outcomes like career derailment can occur from a failure to protect and gain key resources and/or lose key resources needed as one's career advances through increasingly complex and demanding leadership roles in the organization. Importantly, resources come in many forms and the relevance of any specific resource varies by context. Resources likely most critical in the context of career advancement and derailment are those evidence-based social and human capital resources described in the prior sections. The focus of this study is specifically on the human capital resource of composure, which is proposed to inversely relate to career

derailment potential as well as to the gain, protection, and loss of other key resources related to derailment. Leader composure is proposed to be inversely proportional to leader career derailment potential.

A particularly salient COR principle to the present study is Principle 2, which states that resources must be invested to protect against resource loss, recover from losses, and gain resources. In the present study it is proposed that strong composure may be a particularly important resource for leaders to have at their investment disposal (Hobfoll, et al., 2018). Demonstrating composure may earn leaders additional resources necessary to avoid derailment, such as the respect and trust of direct reports and social capital among those at higher or highly influential positions in the organization. Corollary 1 is also particularly salient to the present study – those with greater resources are less vulnerable to resource loss and more capable of gain while individuals who lack resources are more vulnerable to resource loss and less capable of resource gain (Hobfoll, et al., 2018). Failing to demonstrate composure can have deleterious effects on leaders' ability to gain important resources from direct report, peers, or superiors. Leaders with strong composure are better positioned to gain more resources, and leaders with weak composure more likely to lose other resources (COR Corollary 1).

Supporting this study's proposal of composure being important for leaders is its presence within different leadership models. Controlling emotions and remaining composed when under stress is likely more challenging the higher up one goes in the organization due to higher stress activities. One domain within leadership competency models includes human capital resources (Hogan & Warrenfeltz, 2003; Leslie & Palmisano, 2014). Within these resources is the ability to control emotions and be

emotionally stable (Hogan & Kaiser, 2005), which is a related construct to composure Additionally, the leadership presence framework considers handling pressure and displaying composure in stressful situations as characteristic of leadership presence; leaders with high leadership presence control the tendency to respond with knee-jerk reactions when faced with stressful situations (Kerns, 2019). It comes as no surprise that composure would be a valued resource in minimizing ratings of career derailment potential. A leader with composure would demonstrate leadership competency and leadership presence noticeable to the leader's boss, lessening derailment potential.

For the present study, to assess leader composure, data from two groups of raters were utilized, direct reports of the target leader and the target leader's peers. Leader behavior has been shown to change in the presence of different groups (Borman, 1997). Certain rater groups may have different knowledge of leader behavior at their disposal or may have a higher chance of noticing certain behaviors (Funder, 2012). Direct report raters are direct recipients of leader behaviors due to the supervision leaders provide to them (Vergauwe, et al., 2022). Thus, direct reports' perspective is usually based on interactions within the formal chain of command, in which the leader has more formal power than the direct reports. Peers are just that, individuals at the same organizational level, meaning there is often no formal power differential between peers. Moreover, peer relationships often exist outside of the formal chain of command. Peers can bounce ideas off one another to apply with direct reports (Day, 2000). Direct reports may have more exposure to leader behavior, but many of those behaviors may be constrained by formal leader role expectations. In contrast, peers may have less exposure to leader behavior, but there may be greater opportunity to observe a wider diversity of behaviors, as behaviors

may not be as constrained by formal leader role expectations. The nature of differences across rater levels provides utility in giving feedback for leader development (Hassan & Rohrbaugh, 2009). Therefore, the present study utilizes these two groups to obtain a more comprehensive assessment of leader composure. As mentioned prior to presenting Hypothesis 1, boss ratings of leader career derailment potential were used in this study as bosses make determinations regarding promotion or derailment of subordinate leaders. See Figure 1 for a graphical depiction of variables and raters. Thus, hypotheses regarding the relationship between leader composure and leader career derailment potential are as follows:

> *Hypothesis 2a:* Leader composure will be negatively related to leader career derailment potential such that higher direct report-rated leader composure will be associated with lower boss-rated leader career derailment potential.
>
> *Hypothesis 2b:* Leader composure will be negatively related to leader career derailment potential such that higher peer-rated leader composure will be associated with lower boss-rated leader career derailment potential.

Race as a Moderating Variable

COR principles and corollaries can also be applied to understanding the moderating effect of leader race on the relationship between leader composure and career derailment potential. First, African Americans often lack access to the resources available to Whites (James, 2000) and therefore will be more vulnerable to resource loss and have fewer opportunities for resource gain (Corollary 1). Biases and stereotypes on the part of decision makers reduce African Americans chances of achieving senior leader positions (Landau, 1995) and reduce opportunities for resource gain. Second, consistent with

Principle 4, African American resources become stretched or exhausted because of higher levels of emotional labor than Whites stemming from racial indignities, slights and insults - collectively termed racial microaggressions (Evans & Moore, 2015). Racial indignities cause an emotional response, yet in the workplace there are display rules that establish how a person is to behave in the work setting – together causing a dissonance between feelings and emotional display (Mann, 2007). There is the potential for racial microaggressions to cause a visible, active reaction to the racial dynamics even at the risk of being alienated within the organization (Evans & Moore, 2015). Racial microaggressions have a detrimental influence on the well-being of African Americans (Solorzano et al., 2001). The microaggressions can stimulate feelings of resentment, fear, anger, avoidance, contempt, and apprehension (Andradi, 2013).

Composure may be a particularly important resource among African American leaders to avoiding derailment for at least two reasons. First, African Americans often have fewer occupational oriented social resources (James, 2000) and as a result may depend more heavily upon human capital resources. It has been demonstrated that African Americans have fewer workplace networks and mentors than do Whites (James, 2000; McPherson et al, 2001), indicating a limit on social capital resources. Composure, as a human capital resource, may be of great importance to African Americans. Consistent with the resource investment-gain aspect of COR Principle 2, investment of composure resources may be critical to gaining social capital resources within the professional network. That is, African American leaders demonstrating composure in the leader role are provided an opportunity reduce the resource deficit through gaining the

respect, support, and trust from direct reports, peers, and superiors. These resources, in turn, can be invested to overcome future difficult experiences that lead to derailment.

Second, composure, via emotion regulation, also becomes important to avoiding resource loss in the face of racial microaggressions that are uniquely faced by African American leaders and other leaders of color. Emotion regulation is a process to influence which emotions one has, when one has them, and how one experiences or expresses the emotion (Gross, 1998). Emotion regulation utilizes the activation of a goal to influence an emotion trajectory (Gross et al., 2011). Emotion regulation theory is seen as a self-regulation process where an individual chooses an emotion regulation strategy for achieving a consequence of how the person feels, thinks and acts (Gross, 2015). One such strategy is response modulation which alters the emotional response once the emotion is developed; one form of modulation is expressive suppression, which is the ongoing effort to inhibit one's emotion-expressive behavior (Gross, 2015). Should an African American leader experience a racial microaggression, it would likely stimulate an emotion, such as anger. However, the display rules of the workplace would not be supportive of such an emotional display. The leader may decide to suppress the expression of their emotion to preserve composure resources in order to advance in their career. Using COR, preserving or growing the resource of composure would help to minimize career derailment potential for the leader.

Taken together, there is sufficient reason to suggest that race will moderate the relationship between composure and career derailment potential. Specifically, it is hypothesized here that composure will have a stronger effect on derailment potential among African American leaders than among White leaders:

Hypothesis 3a: Leader self-reported race will moderate the relationship between direct report-rated leader composure and boss-rated leader career derailment potential, such that the leader composure-derailment potential relationship will be stronger for African American leaders.

Hypothesis 3b: Leader self-reported race will moderate the relationship between peer-rated leader composure and boss-rated leader career derailment potential, such that the leader composure-derailment potential relationship will be stronger for African American leaders.

Chapter 3: Method

Description of Study Data

An archival multi-source data set of 35,436 observations of 2,693 practicing leaders from across the United States was used for this research. Leader data were collected by the *Center for Creative Leadership* using the Benchmarks® multisource rating instrument (Center for Creative Leadership, 2018b) as part of leadership development processes in multiple U.S. organizations between 2019 and 2021. The Benchmarks® instrument provides leaders with 360-degree feedback for leader development purposes. Various scholars have performed three reviews in the *Mental Measurements Yearbook* (Buros Institute, 2021), of the Benchmarks® instrument, reporting statistical results for reliability and validity, and have found it to meet the minimum accepted psychometric standards. Also important to this study, the *Yearbook* noted a high degree of measurement equivalence has been reported for Caucasian Americans and African Americans (Center for Creative Leadership, 1997).

In addition to their own survey results, target leaders can see comparative data and develop a sense for where their results fall in comparison to a database norm. The tool is also useful in team development where workgroup profiles can be created. As a development tool, Benchmarks® is often used as part of a larger training initiative. Target leaders in the present study completed the instrument and requested certain others associated with their occupational role in the work setting to complete the instrument for the purpose of receiving blinded feedback.

The tool is divided into two sections and their subsections. The first section is leadership competencies of which "composure" is one of 16 competencies. The second section addresses problems that can stall a career (career derailment potential) and has five subsections: problems with interpersonal relationships; difficulty building and leading a team; difficulty changing or adapting; failure to meet business objectives; and too narrow of a functional orientation.

Once the instrument is completed by the selected raters consisting of the 360-degree team, a feedback report is generated by the consulting firm. A gap analysis is presented showing the difference in scoring between "self" and the "other" raters. These comparisons form the basis of where the target leader would prioritize areas of focus for their leadership development.

Data Preparation

Several steps were taken to prepare the data for analyses. First, data for leaders self-reporting a race other than African American, Black, Caucasian or White were removed, and the racial categories of "Black" and "African American" were combined, as were the categories of "Caucasian" and "White".

Second, the data was separated into three rater data sets including direct report, peer and boss. This was necessary in order to perform hypothesis testing requiring data on direct report ratings on leader composure and peer ratings on leader composure. Only bosses would be utilized for leader career derailment potential ratings. The separation of data also enabled data restructuring necessary to carry out the statistical procedures. Following Gentry, et al., (2015), the data was reduced such that target leaders had at least two direct reports and at least two peers. Data showed that leaders had up to 27 different direct report ratings and up to 22 different peer ratings. Needing a minimum of one boss-rater, target leaders without any boss rating were eliminated from the dataset. The data set included leader composure and career derailment potential from another source, "superiors", who did not identify as the leaders' "bosses". It was not clear in what ways ratings from superiors would be useful beyond the inclusion of boss ratings or whether they had as relevant of observations as leaders' bosses. Thus, superior-rated data was removed.

Third, erroneous data entries existed for target leaders and those cases were eliminated. These included negative age or zero values. While demographic data such as leader age was not used in hypothesis testing, it was utilized as part of the propensity score matching analyses to identify the final samples (described below). Thus, data on all variables were examined for clear data entry errors and removed.

Fourth, missing data on the composure and career derailment items was present. Missing data issues on these items were handled using multiple imputation methodology (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2013). The multiple imputation procedure in *IBM SPSS*

Statistics, version 28 produced five imputations and the average across these five imputations was used for testing.

Fifth, after completing the aforementioned data preparation steps, leader data from the segregated boss-rating data set was matched back to leader data in the direct report-rating data set and, separately, to leader data in the peer-rating data set. This was done because of the relatively small sample size of African American leaders with valid data following the aforementioned data preparation procedures. Some of these remaining African American leaders with two or more direct report raters did not have two or more peer raters, or vice versa. By included all leaders with two or more direct report raters and one boss rater in one data set and all leaders with two or more peer raters and one boss rater in another data set, the size of the subsample of African American leaders was maximized. This was not a concern with the much larger subsample of White leaders in the final data set.

Propensity score matching. The data management steps taken above resulted in the race variable having a significant imbalance between the number of African Americans to Whites, direct reports (African Americans $N = 168$; Whites $N = 1708$) and peers (African Americans $N = 193$; Whites $N = 1849$). As race was the moderating variable for the study, an imbalance would affect the robustness of equal variance assumption and statistical power of the hypothesis testing (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013). This study was not randomized and comparisons between groups could have been misleading if a mechanism was not instituted to create a balance in characteristics of those being compared (Rosenbaum & Rubin, 1983). While propensity score matching is utilized in experimental designs to group treated and control units to make direct

comparisons more meaningful, in cases such as the present study where observational (nonrandomized) data is to be analyzed, propensity score matching can be utilized to reduce or eliminate the effects of confounding when comparing two groups (Austin, 2011). The present study is not randomized, thus propensity score matching can be used as a balancing score based upon the distribution of observed baseline covariates between African American and White participants. The aim of conditioning via a propensity score is obtain a balance in the covariates to create a situation similar to that of an experiment, but without a control and experimental grouping (Thoemmes & Kim, 2011).

To assure proper statistical balance of African Americans and Whites, propensity score matching was conducted (Rosenbaum & Rubin, 1983) on each dataset (direct report, peer and boss) to create a balancing score utilizing the covariates of age, gender, organization level and organizational sector. These were all the variables available to serve as controls. Controlling for age is important as age may be confounded with composure as it has been found to moderate other variables associated with career derailment potential (Gentry et al., 2019). Controlling for gender and organizational level are important as they have been shown to bias managerial outcomes (Lyness & Heilman, 2006; Judge et al., 1995). Controlling for organizational level and sector allows for additional control over the types of relevant knowledge and skills that may be required and contribute to boss evaluations of career derailment potential at a given level or within a given field, strengthening the propensity score. Operational definitions of each of these variables are provided below in the Measures section.

The propensity score matching procedure was conducted using *IBM SPSS Statistics version 28* with *Python Essentials PSM* and *Fuzzy* extensions installed.

Utilizing drop down commands under “data”, “propensity score matching”, “race” was selected as the group indicator and the predictors entered were the covariates. The match tolerance was set to 0.20. Under the options tab “sampling without replacement” was selected as was “maximize execution performance”. The software then performed a logistical regression forming the propensity score for each case that meet the match tolerance. This procedure was performed on all three data sets. These data sets were sorted ascending participant ID number. For each of the direct report and peer data sets, under the drop down command “data”, the “merge file”, “add variables” commands were used to merge the boss ratings of career derailment potential with the direct report and peer composure ratings based upon the “one to one merge on key variable” and “sort files by key values before merging” options with the key variable being the participant ID number. As a result of these procedures, two new data sets were created containing all the needed variables for hypothesis testing of the direct report and peer ratings of leader composure and the boss ratings of career derailment potential with a balance of African American and White leaders.

The propensity score (estimated through logistical regression) is the “treatment status” (race) regressed on observed baseline characteristics (covariates) (Austin, 2011a). The procedure followed was to match pairs of African American and White leaders without replacement using caliper matching with widths of 0.2 of the pooled standard deviation of the logit of the propensity score (Austin, 2011b). The quality of the matches were assessed and accepted using Cohen’s *d* less than 0.10 (Austin, 2009), (direct report $t = -4.38$, $p < .001$, $d = .08$; peer $t = -6.37$, $p < .001$. $d = .09$; boss $t = -5.62$, $p < .001$, $d = .09$). Cohen’s *d* tests whether the propensity scores have been adequately specified and

measures the difference in means in units of the pooled standard deviation between the two treatment statuses. These results show that the difference in means was small, indicting the matching process had good results. The boss ratings were then merged into both the direct report and peer data sets utilizing the target leader number as the matching variable. Of note here is that the steps taken in data preparation and propensity score matching produced data sets of different sizes for direct reports, peers, and bosses. The boss ratings on career derailment potential needed to be merged into the direct report-rated composure and peer-rated composure data sets by target leader; this step also changed the sizes of the data sets needed for hypothesis testing. These resultant numbers of participants by data set meeting the criteria for hypothesis testing are provided below.

Participants

The original data set provided by the *Center for Creative Leadership* contained multi-source data including 35,436 observations of 2,693 practicing leaders from across the United States. The data sets represent secondary data with no participant-identifying information. Thus, this was not considered human subjects research by the applicable Institutional Review Board (IRB), which verified that no IRB approval was required.

After data cleaning, propensity score matching and merging of boss ratings into the direct report and peer data sets, the resultant number of target leaders changed by data set. The final count for the direct report-rated composure and boss-rated career derailment potential was 697 observations on 148 matched target leaders (African American $n = 74$, White $n = 74$), while the peer-rated composure and boss-rated career derailment potential participant count was 738 observations on 180 matched target leaders (African American $n = 90$, White $n = 90$).

For the direct report data set, the target leaders were of various levels within the organization: top (6.1%); executive (25.0%); upper-middle (35.8%); middle (30.4%); first level (2.0%); and not relevant (0.7%). These leaders were from the business sector (66.2%), the government (3.4%), and non-profits (30.4%). Ages ranged from 25 to 62 years. The gender of the target leaders was female (45.3%), male (52.7%), and unspecified (2.0%).

For the peer data set the target leaders were of various levels within the organization: top (5.6%); executive (23.9%); upper-middle (34.4%); middle (30.0%); first level (3.3%); hourly (0.6%) and not relevant (2.2%). These leaders were from the business sector (67.2%), the government (4.4%), and non-profits (28.3%). Ages ranged from 24 to 61 years. The gender of the target leaders was female (49.4%), male (49.4%), and unspecified (1.1%).

Measures

Race. Target leaders self-reported race. There were 18 different races reported in the original data set received. For the purposes of this study, target leaders self-reporting race as African American, Black, Caucasian, and White were utilized. African American and Black were combined as African American, and Caucasian and White were combined as White. White served as the reference group and African American served as the compare group (coded White = 0, African American = 1). Race served as the dichotomous moderating variable.

Composure. The instrument contained four items measuring leader composure. The scale for composure is publicly available on the *Center for Creative Leadership* website (Leslie & McCauley, 2017) and is provided in Table 3. An example of a

composure item is “remains calm when crises occur.” Participants completing the instrument responded to composure items using a 5-point Likert Scale with 1 = to a very little extent to 5 = to a very great extent.

Cronbach’s Alpha measures the degree of internal consistency of a multiple item survey and is a reliability measure assessing the extent that items in a scale measure the same underlying dimension (Bandalos, 2018). In the case of this study, Cronbach’s Alpha was calculated on composure for direct report ratings and peer ratings. The composure subscale consisted of four items for both direct reports ($\alpha = .84$) and peers ($\alpha = .87$), both considered to be good reliability (Bandalos, 2018). These results are consistent with prior studies (see Center for Creative Leadership, 2018b; Braddy, et al., 2020; Gentry et al., 2019).

This study examines ratings from multiple raters on multiple targets and includes aggregated ratings hypotheses testing. As such, it is important to have strong rater agreement to justify trusting the average opinion of the group and to be sufficiently different from chance agreement. Interrater agreement (IRA) measures the interchangeability between raters and the equivalence of the ratings in terms of their absolute value (LeBreton & Senter, 2008). When multiple targets are assessed, the index $r_{wg(j)}$ is used to measure interrater agreement (LeBreton & Senter, 2008). Additionally, understanding the equivalence of relative rankings between raters gives confidence that aggregation of group means is reliable. Interrater reliability can be assessed by intraclass correlation coefficients (ICC) (LeBreton & Senter, 2008). ICC(1) demonstrates the amount of variance in a variable that is attributed to group membership and is interpreted as an effect size, whereas ICC(2) indicates how reliable the aggregate group mean across

group members distinguishes between groups (LeBreton & Senter, 2008). To assess interrater agreement and interrater reliability an Excel tool (Biemann et al., 2012) was utilized.

The upper and lower bounds of interrater agreement for the direct report data set were identified by comparing the study data to what would be expected in a uniform distribution of equal chance, $r_{wg(j)}$ =.87, F = 2.08, p < .001, to a slightly skewed distribution $r_{wg(j)}$ = .68, F = 2.08, p < .001 based upon ratings being biased in positive scores for direct reports (Biemann et al., 2012). The average within-group agreement statistic is most likely between .68 and .87. These ranges are within moderate (.51 to .70) to strong agreement (.71 to .90) (LeBreton & Senter, 2008).

For the direct report data set, ICC(1) = .21, F = 2.08, p < .001 and ICC (2) = .52, F = 2.08, p < .001. These ICCs suggest appreciable between leader differences to aggregate rating based upon criteria used in previous studies (Gentry, et al., 2015; Gregusas & Robie, 1998; Van Velsor & Leslie, 1991). The ICCs were also similar to other studies published using multi-source data (Sadri et al., 2011). Taken together, the interrater agreement and interrater reliability provides sufficient justification to aggregate ratings for hypothesis testing.

The upper and lower bounds of interrater agreement for the peer data set were identified by comparing the study data to what would be expected in a uniform distribution of equal chance, $r_{wg(j)}$ =.89, F = 2.34, p < .001, to a slightly skewed distribution $r_{wg(j)}$ = .64, F = 2.34, p < .001, based upon ratings being biased in positive scores for peers (Biemann et al., 2012). The average within-group agreement statistic is

most likely between .64 and .89. These ranges are within moderate (.51 to .70) to strong agreement (.71 to .90) (LeBreton & Senter, 2008).

For the peer data set, ICC(1) = .25, $F = 2.34$, $p < .001$ and ICC (2) = .57, $F = 2.34$, $p < .001$. These ICCs suggest appreciable between leader differences to aggregate rating based upon criteria used in previous studies (Gentry et al., 2015; Gregusas & Robie, 1998; Van Velsor & Leslie, 1991). The ICCs were also similar to other studies published using multi-source data (Sadri et al., 2011). Taken together, the interrater agreement and interrater reliability provides sufficient justification to aggregate ratings for hypothesis testing.

Career derailment potential. The instrument contained 36 items measuring leader career derailment potential. The scale for career derailment potential is publicly available on the *Center for Creative Leadership* website (Leslie & McCauley, 2017) and is provided in Table 3. An example of a career derailment potential item is "is not ready for more responsibility." Participants completing the instrument responded to composure items using a 5-point Likert Scale with 1 = strongly disagree to 5 = strongly agree.

In the case of this study, Cronbach's Alpha was calculated on career derailment potential for boss ratings for each of the two data sets, direct reports and peers, as the target leaders, and therefore boss ratings, were not the same between the two data sets. The career derailment subscale consisted of 36 items for both data sets of direct reports ($\alpha = .97$) and peers ($\alpha = .97$) and are considered excellent reliability (Bandalos, 2018). These results are consistent with prior studies (see Center for Creative Leadership, 2018b; Braddy et al., 2020; Gentry et al., 2019).

The 36 items composing career derailment potential are further categorized into five problems that can stall a career (Center for creative Leadership, 2018b). The first category is "problems with interpersonal relationships" with eight items and is defined as difficulties in developing good working relationships with others. Cronbach's alpha for this category was direct report (α = .95) and peer (α = .95). The second category is "difficulty building and leading a team" with seven items and is defined as difficulties in selecting, developing, and motivating a team. Cronbach's alpha for this category was direct report (α = .93) and peer (α = .96). The third category is "difficulty changing or adapting" with 10 items and is defined as resistant to change, learning from mistakes, and developing. Cronbach's alpha for this category was direct report (α = .95) and peer (α = .95). The fourth category is "failure to meet business objectives" with six items and is defined as difficulties in following up on promises and completing a job. Cronbach's alpha for this category was direct report (α = .92) and peer (α = .94). The last category is "too narrow a functional orientation" with 5 items and is defined as lacks depth to manage outside of one's current function. Cronbach's alpha for this category was direct report (α = .87) and peer (α = .93).

Covariates. The archival data provided to the researcher was limited. There were few covariates available for use and only included the following characteristics of the target leader: age, gender, organizational level, and organizational sector. "Age" was the leader self-reported age in years. "Gender" was the leader self-reported identified gender and the response options were male, female, nonbinary, other, or unspecified. "Organizational level" was the leader self-reported position level within the organization and the response options were top, executive, upper-middle, middle, first-level, hourly,

and not relevant in my situation. “Organizational sector” was the leader self-reported generalized category of the leader’s organization. There were six organizational sector options for the target leader to select from including business, for-profit/commercial business, government, non-profit/non-government, private non-profit, and public. The variable “organizational sector” was made more parsimonious by coding categories with the words business or public sector in the title as “Business”, categories with nonprofit in the title as “Nonprofit”, and categories with the word government in the title as “Government”. The use of these covariates was explained above in propensity score matching under data preparation; as the covariates were used in propensity score matching, it was unnecessary to utilize covariates in the hierarchical regression.

Analytical Strategy

Confirmatory Factor Analyses. Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) is driven by the theoretical relationships among the observed and unobserved variables (Schreiber et al., 2006). In the present study, the unobserved, latent variables are leader composure and leader career derailment potential. The observed values are the survey items pertaining to composure and career derailment potential.

The specification of models of composure were the same for direct report-rated and peer-rated composure data sets. The one-factor model for composure included all four items under composure in Table 3 of the *Benchmarks*® scale utilizing direct report-rated leader composure and peer-rated leader composure. The specification of models of career derailment potential consisted of one-factor and five-factor models. The one-factor model for career derailment potential included all 36 items under career derailment in Table 3 of the *Benchmarks*® scale utilizing boss-rated leader career derailment potential.

The five-factor model segregated the 36 items into their respective subdimensions according to Benchmarks® (Center for Creative Leadership, 2018b). The five factors included the following: problems with interpersonal relationships (eight items), difficulty building or leading a team (seven items), difficulty changing or adapting (10 items), failure to meet business objectives (six items), and too narrow a functional orientation (five items).

Hypothesis testing utilized item-level scores from merged data sets: the merged data set of direct report ratings of leader composure with boss ratings of leader career leader derailment potential; and the merged data set of peer ratings of leader composure with boss ratings of leader career leader derailment potential. The data were from ratings utilizing a 5-point Likert scale, as described earlier. Prior to the CFA analysis, the data were evaluated for outliers and normality of errors by considering the assumptions analysis utilized in hypothesis testing; the same conclusions were accepted here.

CFAs were performed to determine if the one-factor latent variable model of composure for direct report ratings on the four leader composure items and peer ratings on the four leader composure items met fit requirements. Additionally, CFAs were performed on boss ratings of leader career derailment potential items from both of the direct report and peer matched data sets using a one-factor latent variable model of career derailment potential. And finally, CFAs were performed on boss ratings of leader career derailment potential items from both of the direct report and peer data sets using a five-factor latent variable model of career derailment potential based upon the five subdimensions of career derailment potential. These models were based on prior evidence and theory bearing on the leader competencies and problems that stall a career (Center for

Creative Leadership, 2018b; Lombardo et al., 1988). The indicators were scale items from field data provided to the researcher by the *Center for Creative Leadership* in their use of *Benchmarks® for Managers* (McCauley & Lombardo, 1990), using a five-point Likert scale and were tested using *Jamovi v. 2.2.5 Solid* software.

In each CFA, items were specified to load onto their respective factors. Latent factors were allowed to freely correlate (Hu, et al., 2011). The chi-square test of model fit and two fit indices were used to evaluate the model fit to the data. The chi-square tests examines whether there is a significant difference between the observed covariance matrix and the model implied covariance matrix. A significant finding would indicate less than excellent fit. The indices were: Tucker-Lewis index (TLI) and standardized root mean square residual (SRMR), consistent with the recommendation of Hu and Bentler (1999) to include the maximum likelihood based SRMR and supplementing it with one of several goodness of fit models. In the present study, TLI was chosen as it compensates for model complexity, needed for the 5 factor, 36 item model. Used together, these indices provide a more conservative and reliable evaluation of the solution. Acceptable model fit indices scores of SRMR $\leq .08$ and TLI $\geq .95$ have been suggested (Hu & Bentler, 1999). However, more recently, scholars have argued not to overgeneralize these cut off values (Marsh et al., 2004); that these cutoffs for fit indices are more arbitrary and instead posit that “ideally” the chi-square statistic should exhibit a non-significant result and the fit indices TLI should be high values and SRMR should be low values (Credé & Harms, 2015). Additionally, variation in power for a study can be impacted by items per factor and sample size; higher number of items and smaller sample size decrease power (French & Finch, 2006).

To summarize the results in Table 4 no model achieved excellent fit, as would be indicated by a non-significant chi-square. Despite recommendations that excellent fit is demonstrated through a non-significant chi-square value, failure to achieve a non-significant chi-square is very common in practice. Utilizing goodness of fit indices, the one factor composure models demonstrated acceptable fit, with SRMR below the recommended threshold and TLI values approached the stringent threshold recommended by Hu and Bentler (1999). The career derailment potential models showed mixed fit results. TLI values were far lower than the recommended threshold for demonstrating acceptable fit, while SRMR did indicate acceptable fit. Importantly, the career derailment potential models were more complex and sizable models (more factors and more indicators per factor). As model size and complexity increase, the required minimum sample size must be larger (Koran, 2020). The career derailment potential models likely suffered from low power due to the large number of items in the factor analysis and relatively small sample sizes of under 200 boss respondents. Small sample sizes have been known to demonstrate this type of result (Crede & Harms, 2015; Hu & Bentler, 1999; Marsh et al., 2004). As Benchmarks® is a well-established instrument and has met statistical standards (Buros Institute, 2021), and as scholars have advised to utilize interpretive flexibility (Marsh et al., 2004), these results are deemed acceptable in the present research. As a final note, the five-factor model performed better than the one-factor model giving some support for examination of the subdimensions of career derailment potential.

Statistical Testing. For hypothesis testing, a sequential (hierarchical), moderated multiple regression was used with a sequence of variable entry specified by the

researcher (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013) utilizing *IBM SPSS Statistics, v. 28*. A moderated multiple regression model was used with boss-rated leader career derailment potential as the dependent variable, leader composure as rated by direct reports and peers (in two separate procedures), as an independent variable, and a dichotomous variable, leader race, as the moderator variable. Moderated multiple regression has been recognized as an appropriate technique to assess the presence of a moderator variable (Aguinis, 2004). This type of statistical analysis allowed for testing for the significance of the main effect variables' relationship with the dependent variable. The interaction term in moderated multiple regression reveals whether the moderating variable influences the relationship between the independent variable and the dependent variable – in the present study, how the relationship between leader composure and leader career derailment potential is different for different values of leader race.

This type of regression enables entry of variables in steps so as to determine the amount of variation explained in the dependent variable by each variable entered in each subsequent step of the hierarchical regression. Each subsequent entry looked to evaluate the additional variance explained (ΔR^2) in the dependent variable by the addition of the new independent variable and the statistical significance will be determined by the *F*-values and *p*-values (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013). For individual predictor values the slope (*b*) value and corresponding *t*-values and *p*-values were assessed to understand how the independent variable changes the dependent variable. The order of variables to be regressed upon by boss-rated career derailment potential scores were: the main effects for leader race (Model 1); centered direct report-rated (peer-rated) leader composure scores (Model 2); and the interaction of self-reported leader race and direct report-rated (peer-

rated) leader composure scores (Model 3). In Model 3, the present study looked to determine whether a moderator effect existed, and if it did, how the relationship between the independent and dependent variables were different for different values of leader race, the difference between African American and White leaders. The variable composure was centered prior to creating the interaction term. Table 5 presents the model building strategy and corresponding hypothesis testing approach. Model 1 tested Hypothesis 1, utilizing both data sets. The regression was run first with direct reports as the raters for composure (to address H2a and H3a), and a second time with peers as the raters for composure (to address H2b and H3b). In moderated multiple regression, at each step of the sequence of model testing, the ΔR^2 statistic was examined for statistical significance which indicates if the added variables in the model explains any additional variance in the dependent variable. A statistically significant slope coefficient, the *b*-slope statistic, indicates for each unit change in the newly added variable, how much of a change can be expected in the dependent variable.

Regression Assumptions Testing. Hypothesis testing began with the review of the hierarchical regression assumptions. For the direct report data set, all assumptions were met. For the peer data set, issues were identified. Outlier cases were reviewed using case-wise diagnostics (two outlier cases found), studentized deleted residuals (one outlier case found), leverage points and influential points (one outlier case found), including Cook's distance (no cases). After examination of the data, no reason could be found to eliminate the outliers, so the procedures were performed with the data maintained in the data set. Testing of the assumption of homoscedasticity resulted in a cone formation of the scatter plot of the unstandardized predicted value plotted against the studentized

residuals indicating the possibility of heteroscedasticity. Figure 2 is a graph of this scatterplot, demonstrating the cone shape. Normality of errors was also a potential concern visualizing the PP plots. Figure 3 portrays the histogram of the composure standardized residuals which shows a moderate positive skew. Skewness refers to the lack of symmetry in the data distribution and transformations attempt to reduce the level of skewness (Gonzalez-Blanks, et al., 2020). Tabachnick and Fidell (2013) recommend considering transformations in all skewed situations. In the present study, the peer data set was positively skewed for the dependent variable, and should be handled with either a square root or log transformation (Fidell & Tabachnick, 2003). To further evaluate these assumptions, regressions were performed utilizing multiple transformations (square root, log, weighted least squares) of boss-rated leader career derailment potential. These multiple transformations attempted to resolve perceived violations of assumptions however none of them meaningfully improved the results. Therefore, the original regression was utilized for ease of interpretability (Fidell & Tabachnick, 2003).

Chapter 4: Results

Descriptive Statistics

The means and correlations of the variables in the direct report data set were assessed and are shown in Table 6. Using a 5-point Likert scale, direct report-raters generally rated target leaders high in composure, $M = 4.37$, while bosses rated target leaders low in career derailment potential, $M = 1.44$. Correlation measures the strength and direction of a linear association between variables (Cohen, 2013). There was a statistically significant, small (Cohen, 1988) negative correlation between boss-rated

derailment and direct report-rated composure, $r(146) = -.212$, $p = .01$. The correlation between race and derailment was not significant.

The means and correlations of the variables in the peer data set were assessed and are shown in Table 7. Using a 5-point Likert scale, peer-raters generally rated target leaders high in composure, $M = 4.23$, while bosses rated target leaders low in career derailment potential, $M = 1.47$. There was a statistically significant, moderate (Cohen, 1988) negative correlation between boss-rated derailment and peer-rated composure, $r(178) = -.350$, $p = .01$. There was a statistically significant, small (Cohen, 1988) positive correlation between race and peer-rated composure, $r(178) = .157$, $p = .05$.

In addition to the separate direct report and peer correlation assessments described immediately above, the datasets were merged on the target leader identifier so as to enable the correlation calculations on composure, and separately on career derailment potential, for direct reports, peers and bosses ($n = 72$). See Table 8 for the means, standard deviations and correlations for leader composure and derailment, respectively.

In the combined data set of direct report, peer and boss, using a 5-point Likert scale, direct report, peer and boss-raters generally rated target leaders high in composure, $M = 4.37$, 4.30, and 4.31 respectively. There was a statistically significant, moderate (Cohen, 1988) positive correlation between direct report and peer composure ratings, $r(69) = .352$, $p = .01$. There was a statistically significant, moderate (Cohen, 1988) positive correlation between peer and boss composure ratings, $r(69) = .355$, $p = .01$. Direct report and boss composure ratings were not significantly correlated.

In the combined data set of direct report, peer and boss, using a 5-point Likert scale, direct report, peer and boss-raters generally rated target leaders low in career

derailment potential, M = 1.45, 1.45, and 1.41 respectively. There was a statistically significant, small (Cohen, 1988) positive correlation between peer and boss career derailment potential ratings, $r(69) = .299$, $p = .05$. Direct report and peer, and direct report and boss career derailment potential ratings were not significantly correlated.

The correlations of the combined data set demonstrate that the rater groups do not necessarily agree in their rating of leaders. Observing different raters on the same leader is, essentially, a test-retest reliability of ratings on the same construct across sources. This justifies having separate raters on leader composure and supports the rationale of utilizing different raters for leader composure and leader career derailment potential to avoid common method bias.

Hypothesis Test Results by Data Set

Direct report data set. Hierarchical regression was employed to assess the effect of direct report-rated leader composure on boss-rated leader career derailment potential, and the moderating effect of leader self-reported race. As propensity score matching had been completed in previous steps utilizing control variables available in the data set, no control variables were employed in the regression model.

The first model included only the main effect of leader self-reported race and was not statistically significant in explaining variance in boss-rated leader career derailment potential, $R^2 < .01$, $F(1, 146) = .58$, $p = .450$. This indicates that the mean difference between White and African American leaders in boss-rated leader career derailment potential was not statistically significantly different from zero. The coefficients for the main effect of leader self-reported race are in Table 9. Hypothesis 1 is not supported in the data set containing direct report-rated composure scores as the mean ratings of boss-

rated career derailment potential for African American leaders is lower than Whites (the opposite of what was hypothesized) and the difference is not statistically significant.

The second model, including the main effect for leader self-reported race and the main effect for direct report-rated leader composure scores, was statistically significant, adding 4% of variance explained in boss-rated leader career derailment potential scores, ΔR^2 =.04, $\Delta F(1, 145) = 6.53$, $p = .012$. The model performance results including leader self-reported race and direct report-rated leader composure scores were, $R^2 = .05$, $F(2, 145) = 3.56$, $p = .031$. Leader self-reported race remained not statistically significant in model 2. The main effect of direct report-rated leader composure scores (centered) was statistically significant. Holding leader race constant, a one unit increase in direct report-rated leader composure scores resulted in a decrease of .20 units of boss-rated leader career derailment potential scores. The coefficients for all model 2 predictors, including the main effect of direct report-rated leader composure scores, can be found in Table 9. Hypothesis 2a is supported which proposed that leader composure would be negatively related to leader career derailment potential such that higher direct report-rated leader composure scores would be associated with lower boss-rated leader career derailment potential scores.

The third model including the main effect for leader self-reported race, the main effect for direct report-rated leader composure scores and the interaction between leader self-reported race and direct report-rated leader composure scores was not statistically significant in explaining incremental variance in boss-rated leader career derailment potential, $\Delta R^2 < .01$, $\Delta F(1, 144) = .047$, $p = .828$. The full regression of leader self-reported race, direct report-rated leader composure scores and their interaction predicting

boss-rated leader career derailment potential as a whole was not statistically significant, $R^2 = .05$, $F(3, 144) = 2.39$, $p = .073$. None of the predictors in model 3 showed statistically significant effects. The coefficients for all model 3 predictors, including the interaction between leader race and composure scores, can be found in Table 9. Hypothesis 3a is not supported which proposed that leader self-reported race would moderate the relationship between direct report-rated leader composure scores and boss-rated leader career derailment potential scores, such that the leader composure-derailment potential relationship will be stronger for African American leaders.

Peer data set. Hierarchical regression was employed to assess the effect of peer-rated leader composure scores on boss-rated leader career derailment potential scores, and the moderating effect of leader self-reported race. As propensity score matching had been completed in previous steps utilizing control variables available in the data set, no control variables were employed in the regression model.

The first model included only the main effect of leader self-reported race and was not statistically significant in explaining variance in boss-rated leader career derailment potential scores, $R^2 < .01$, $F(1, 178) = .225$, $p = .636$. This indicates that the mean difference between White and African American leaders in boss-rated leader career derailment potential scores was not statistically significantly different from zero. The coefficients for the main effect of leader self-reported race can be found in Table 10. Hypothesis 1 is not supported in second data set tested (the data set containing peer-rated composure scores) as the mean ratings boss-rated career derailment potential scores of African American leaders is lower than Whites (the opposite of what was hypothesized), although the difference is not statistically significant.

The second model, including the main effect for leader self-reported race and the main effect for peer-reported leader composure scores was statistically significant, adding 12% of variance explained in boss-rated leader career derailment potential scores, ΔR^2 =.12, $\Delta F(1, 177) = 24.51$, $p < .001$. The model performance results including leader self-reported race and peer-rated leader composure scores were, $R^2 = .12$, $F(2, 177) = 12.38$, $p < .001$. Leader self-reported race remained not statistically significant in model 2. The main effect of peer-rated leader composure scores (centered) was statistically significant. Holding leader race constant, a one unit increase in peer-rated leader composure scores resulted in a decrease of .37 units of boss-rated leader career derailment potential scores. The coefficients for all model 2 predictors, including the main effect of peer-rated leader composure scores, can be found in Table 10. Hypothesis 2b is supported.

The third model including the main effect for leader self-reported race, the main effect for peer-rated leader composure scores and the interaction between leader self-reported race and peer-rated leader composure scores and was statistically significant and added 2% of variance explained in boss-rated leader career derailment potential scores, $\Delta R^2 = .02$, $\Delta F(1, 176) = 3.10$, $p = .048$. The full regression of leader self-reported race, peer-rated leader composure scores and their interaction predicting boss-rated leader career derailment potential scores as a whole was statistically significant and explained 14% of variance in boss-rated leader career derailment potential scores, $R^2 = .14$, $F(3, 176) = 9.72$, $p < .001$. The main effect of leader self-reported race was not statistically significant. The main effect of peer-rated leader composure scores remained statistically significant (negative). The interaction term was statistically significant (see Figure 4).

Hypothesis 3b stated that leader-reported race would moderate the relationship between peer-rated leader composure scores and boss-rated leader career derailment potential scores such that the composure-derailment relationship would be stronger for African American leaders than White leaders. While the interaction was statistically significant, it was in the opposite direction than hypothesized. That is, the composure-derailment relationship is weaker for African American leaders than for White leaders, not stronger (as hypothesized). Thus, Hypothesis 3b is not supported. The coefficients for all model 3 predictors, including the interaction, can be found in Table 10.

In summary, the results of the present study found Hypothesis 1, that boss-rated career derailment potential scores differed between African American and White leaders, was not supported. Support was found for Hypothesis 2a and 2b, there was an inverse relationship between leader composure scores as rated by both direct reports and peers, and boss-rated career derailment potential scores. Results regarding Hypothesis 3 were mixed. Hypothesis 3a was not supported, leader self-reported race did not moderate the relationship between direct report-rated leader composure scores and boss-rated career derailment potential scores. Testing of Hypothesis 3b demonstrated a statistically significant result, but in the opposite direction than was hypothesized. Leader self-reported race moderated the relationship between peer-rated leader composure scores and boss-rated career derailment potential scores such that the relationship was weaker for African Americans than for Whites.

Post-Hoc Analysis

The present study examined career derailment as a composite of all Section 2 Benchmarks® items, “Problems that Stall a Career”; these scale items make up the scale

for the construct of career derailment potential. However, the Benchmarks® scale for career derailment potential contains 5 subdimensions: problems with interpersonal relations; difficulty building and leading a team; difficulty changing and adapting; failure to meet business objectives; and, too narrow a functional orientation (Center for Creative Leadership, 2018b).

This study was designed to examine career derailment items in Benchmarks® from the consolidated perspective. There was interest to probe further into the subdimensions of career derailment potential to understand if composure and the moderating effect of race was be related differently to individual subdimensions. A deeper analysis might reveal subtleties within the construct of career derailment that could be profitable to theory and practice. As such, a post-hoc analysis was performed in which each of the five subdimensions was regressed upon leader race, leader composure (centered) and their interaction for both the direct report and peer data sets separately. The same procedure and process was used in post-hoc analysis as was done in the hypothesis testing above. However, as 5 regressions were run for each of direct report and peer data sets, a Bonferroni adjustment was made to correct for inflated Type I error (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013); new $\alpha = .05/5 = .01$.

Direct report data set. The assumptions for the direct report data set were met. Hierarchical regression was employed to assess the effect of direct report-rated leader composure scores on boss-rated leader career derailment potential scores, and the moderating effect of leader self-reported-race. As propensity score matching had been completed in previous steps utilizing control variables available in the data set, no control variables were employed in the regression model.

Problems with interpersonal relationships subdimension. The first model included only the main effect of leader self-reported race and was not statistically significant in explaining variance in boss-rated leader career derailment potential scores, $R^2 < .01$, $F(1, 146) = .86$, $p = .355$. This indicates that the mean difference between White and African American leaders in boss-rated leader career derailment potential scores was not statistically significantly different from zero. The coefficients for the main effect of leader self-reported race are in Table 11.

The second model, including the main effect for leader self-reported race and the main effect for direct report-rated leader composure scores, was statistically significant, adding 5% of variance explained in boss-rated leader career derailment potential scores, $\Delta R^2 = .05$, $\Delta F(1, 145) = 7.10$, $p = .009$. The model performance results including leader self-reported race and direct report-rated leader composure scores were, $R^2 = .05$, $F(2, 145) = 4.00$, $p = .020$. Leader self-reported race remained not statistically significant in model 2. The main effect of direct report-rated leader composure scores (centered) in model 2 was statistically significant. Holding leader race constant, a one unit increase in direct report-rated leader composure scores resulted in a decrease of .22 units of boss-rated leader career derailment potential scores. The coefficients for all model 2 predictors, including the main effect of direct report-rated leader composure scores, can be found in Table 11.

The third model including the main effect for leader self-reported race, the main effect for direct report-rated leader composure scores and the interaction between leader self-reported race and direct report-rated leader composure scores was not statistically significant in explaining incremental variance in boss-rated leader career derailment

potential scores, $\Delta R^2 < .01$, $\Delta F(1, 144) = .66$, $p = .417$. The full regression of leader self-reported race, direct report-rated leader composure scores and their interaction predicting boss-rated leader career derailment potential scores as a whole was not statistically significant, $R^2 = .06$, $F(3, 144) = 2.89$, $p = .038$. None of the predictors in model 3 showed statistically significant effects. The coefficients for all model 3 predictors, including the interaction between leader race and composure scores, can be found in Table 11.

Difficulty building or leading a team subdimension. The first model included only the main effect of leader self-reported race and was not statistically significant in explaining variance in boss-rated leader career derailment potential scores, $R^2 < .02$, $F(1, 146) = 2.53$, $p = .114$. This indicates that the mean difference between White and African American leaders in boss-rated leader career derailment potential scores was not statistically significantly different from zero. The coefficients for the main effect of leader self-reported race are in Table 12.

The second model, including the main effect for leader self-reported race and the main effect for direct report-rated leader composure scores, was not statistically significant and did not add any additional variance explained in boss-rated leader career derailment potential scores, $\Delta R^2 = .04$, $\Delta F(1, 145) = 6.69$, $p = .011$. The model performance results including leader self-reported race and direct report-rated leader composure scores were, $R^2 = .06$, $F(2, 145) = 4.66$, $p = .011$. Leader self-reported race remained not statistically significant in model 2. The main effect of direct report-rated leader composure scores (centered) in model 2 was not statistically significant. The

coefficients for all model 2 predictors, including the main effect of direct report-rated leader composure scores, can be found in Table 12.

The third model including the main effect for leader self-reported race, the main effect for direct report-rated leader composure scores and the interaction between leader self-reported race and direct report-rated leader composure scores was not statistically significant in explaining incremental variance in boss-rated leader career derailment potential scores, $\Delta R^2 < .01$, $\Delta F(1, 144) = .89$, $p = .347$. The full regression of leader self-reported race, direct report-rated leader composure scores and their interaction predicting boss-rated leader career derailment potential scores as a whole was not statistically significant, $R^2 = .07$, $F(3, 144) = 3.40$, $p = .020$. None of the predictors in model 3 showed statistically significant effects. The coefficients for all model 3 predictors, including the interaction between leader race and composure scores, can be found in Table 12.

Difficulty changing or adapting subdimension. The first model included only the main effect of leader self-reported race and was not statistically significant in explaining variance in boss-rated leader career derailment potential scores, $R^2 < -.01$, $F(1, 146) = .15$, $p = .697$. This indicates that the mean difference between White and African American leaders in boss-rated leader career derailment potential scores was not statistically significantly different from zero. The coefficients for the main effect of leader self-reported race are in Table 13.

The second model, including the main effect for leader self-reported race and the main effect for direct report-rated leader composure scores, was statistically significant, adding 5% of variance explained in boss-rated leader career derailment potential scores,

ΔR^2 =.05, $\Delta F(1, 145) = 7.86$, $p = .006$. The model performance results including leader self-reported race and direct report-rated leader composure scores were, $R^2 = .05$, $F(2, 145) = 4.01$, $p = .020$. Leader self-reported race remained not statistically significant in model 2. The main effect of direct report-rated leader composure scores (centered) in model 2 was statistically significant. Holding leader race constant, a one unit increase in direct report-rated leader composure scores resulted in a decrease of .24 units of boss-rated leader career derailment potential scores. The coefficients for all model 2 predictors, including the main effect of direct report-rated leader composure scores, can be found in Table 13.

The third model including the main effect for leader self-reported race, the main effect for direct report-rated leader composure scores and the interaction between leader self-reported race and direct report-rated leader composure scores was not statistically significant in explaining incremental variance in boss-rated leader career derailment potential scores, $\Delta R^2 < .01$, $\Delta F(1, 144) = .15$, $p = .901$. The full regression of leader self-reported race, direct report-rated leader composure scores and their interaction predicting boss-rated leader career derailment potential scores as a whole was not statistically significant, $R^2 = .05$, $F(3, 144) = 2.66$, $p = .050$. None of the predictors in model 3 showed statistically significant effects. The coefficients for all model 3 predictors, including the interaction between leader race and composure scores, can be found in Table 13.

Failure to meet business objectives subdimension. The first model included only the main effect of leader self-reported race and was not statistically significant in explaining variance in boss-rated leader career derailment potential scores, $R^2 < -.01$, $F(1,$

146) = .03, p = .855. This indicates that the mean difference between White and African American leaders in boss-rated leader career derailment potential scores was not statistically significantly different from zero. The coefficients for the main effect of leader self-reported race are in Table 14.

The second model, including the main effect for leader self-reported race and the main effect for direct report-rated leader composure scores, was not statistically significant and did not add any additional variance explained in boss-rated leader career derailment potential scores, ΔR^2 = .02, $\Delta F(1, 145) = 2.62$, p = .108. The model performance results including leader self-reported race and direct report-rated leader composure scores were, R^2 = .02, $F(2, 145) = 1.33$, p = .269. Leader self-reported race remained not statistically significant in model 2. The main effect of direct report-rated leader composure scores (centered) in model 2 was not statistically significant. The coefficients for all model 2 predictors, including the main effect of direct report-rated leader composure scores, can be found in Table 14.

The third model including the main effect for leader self-reported race, the main effect for direct report-rated leader composure scores and the interaction between leader self-reported race and direct report-rated leader composure scores was not statistically significant in explaining incremental variance in boss-rated leader career derailment potential scores, $\Delta R^2 < .01$, $\Delta F(1, 144) = .17$, p = .681. The full regression of leader self-reported race, direct report-rated leader composure scores and their interaction predicting boss-rated leader career derailment potential scores as a whole was not statistically significant, R^2 = -.02, $F(3, 144) = .94$, p = .425. None of the predictors in model 3 showed statistically significant effects. The coefficients for all model 3 predictors,

including the interaction between leader race and composure scores, can be found in Table 14.

Too narrow a functional orientation subdimension. The first model included only the main effect of leader self-reported race and was not statistically significant in explaining variance in boss-rated leader career derailment potential scores, $R^2 < .01$, $F(1, 146) = .13$, $p = .722$. This indicates that the mean difference between White and African American leaders in boss-rated leader career derailment potential scores was not statistically significantly different from zero. The coefficients for the main effect of leader self-reported race are in Table 15.

The second model, including the main effect for leader self-reported race and the main effect for direct report-rated leader composure scores, was not statistically significant and did not add any additional variance explained in boss-rated leader career derailment potential scores, $\Delta R^2 < .01$, $\Delta F(1, 145) = .40$, $p = .531$. The model performance results including leader self-reported race and direct report-rated leader composure scores were, $R^2 < .01$, $F(2, 145) = 2.61$, $p = .771$. Leader self-reported race remained not statistically significant in model 2. The main effect of direct report-rated leader composure scores (centered) in model 2 was not statistically significant. The coefficients for all model 2 predictors, including the main effect of direct report-rated leader composure scores, can be found in Table 15.

The third model including the main effect for leader self-reported race, the main effect for direct report-rated leader composure scores and the interaction between leader self-reported race and direct report-rated leader composure scores was not statistically significant in explaining incremental variance in boss-rated leader career derailment

potential scores, $\Delta R^2 < .01$, $\Delta F(1, 144) = .52$, $p = .471$. The full regression of leader self-reported race, direct report-rated leader composure scores and their interaction predicting boss-rated leader career derailment potential scores as a whole was not statistically significant, $R^2 < .01$, $F(3, 144) = .35$, $p = .791$. None of the predictors in model 3 showed statistically significant effects. The coefficients for all model 3 predictors, including the interaction between leader race and composure scores, can be found in Table 15.

Peer data set. The assumptions testing found a small number of outliers. These were closely examined (as explained above in the assumptions testing of the main regressions), and with no strong reason to remove them, they were left in the data. There were also possible issues with heteroscedasticity and normality of errors. A log transformation, a square root transformation and a weighted least squares transformation were performed but did not completely resolve the concern of heteroscedasticity or non-normality of errors. As regression is robust to violations of normality, the analysis was run and interpreted in its original form; hierarchical regression was employed to assess the effect of peer-rated leader composure on boss-rated leader career derailment potential, and the moderating effect of leader self-reported-race. As propensity score matching had been completed in previous steps utilizing control variables available in the data set, no control variables were employed in the regression model.

Problems with interpersonal relationships subdimension. The first model included only the main effect of leader self-reported race and was not statistically significant in explaining variance in boss-rated leader career derailment potential scores, $R^2 < .01$, $F(1, 178) = .36$, $p = .548$. This indicates that the mean difference between White and African American leaders in boss-rated leader career derailment potential scores was

not statistically significantly different from zero. The coefficients for the main effect of leader self-reported race are in Table 16.

The second model, including the main effect for leader self-reported race and the main effect for peer-rated leader composure scores, was statistically significant, adding 15% of variance explained in boss-rated leader career derailment potential scores, ΔR^2 =.15, $\Delta F(1, 177) = 30.29$, $p < .001$. The model performance results including leader self-reported race and peer-rated leader composure scores were, $R^2 = .15$, $F(2, 177) = 15.36$, $p < .001$. Leader self-reported race remained not statistically significant in model 2. The main effect of peer-rated leader composure scores (centered) in model 2 was statistically significant. Holding leader race constant, a one unit increase in peer-rated leader composure scores resulted in a decrease of .44 units of boss-rated leader career derailment potential scores. The coefficients for all model 2 predictors, including the main effect of peer-rated leader composure scores, can be found in Table 16.

The third model including the main effect for leader self-reported race, the main effect for peer-rated leader composure scores and the interaction between leader self-reported race and peer-rated leader composure scores was not statistically significant in explaining incremental variance in boss-rated leader career derailment potential scores, $\Delta R^2 < .01$, $\Delta F(1, 176) = 1.79$, $p = .183$. The full regression of leader self-reported race, peer-rated leader composure scores and their interaction predicting boss-rated leader career derailment potential scores as a whole was statistically significant, $R^2 = .16$, $F(3, 176) = 10.88$, $p < .001$. The only predictor in model 3 that showed statistically significant effects was peer-rated leader composure scores. The coefficients for all model 3

predictors, including the interaction between leader race and composure scores, can be found in Table 16.

Difficulty building or leading a team subdimension. The first model included only the main effect of leader self-reported race and was not statistically significant in explaining variance in boss-rated leader career derailment potential scores, $R^2 < .01$, $F(1, 178) = .36$, $p = .400$. This indicates that the mean difference between White and African American leaders in boss-rated leader career derailment potential scores was not statistically significantly different from zero. The coefficients for the main effect of leader self-reported race are in Table 17.

The second model, including the main effect for leader self-reported race and the main effect for peer-rated leader composure scores, was statistically significant, adding 6% of variance explained in boss-rated leader career derailment potential scores, $\Delta R^2 =.06$, $\Delta F(1, 177) = 11.20$, $p < .001$. The model performance results including leader self-reported race and peer-rated leader composure scores were, $R^2 = .06$, $F(2, 177) = 5.98$, $p = .003$. Leader self-reported race remained not statistically significant in model 2. The main effect of peer-rated leader composure scores (centered) in model 2 was statistically significant. Holding leader race constant, a one unit increase in peer-rated leader composure scores resulted in a decrease of .29 units of boss-rated leader career derailment potential scores. The coefficients for all model 2 predictors, including the main effect of peer-rated leader composure scores, can be found in Table 17.

The third model including the main effect for leader self-reported race, the main effect for peer-rated leader composure scores and the interaction between leader self-reported race and peer-rated leader composure scores was not statistically significant in

explaining incremental variance in boss-rated leader career derailment potential scores, $\Delta R^2 < .02$, $\Delta F(1, 176) = 3.27$, $p = .072$. The full regression of leader self-reported race, peer-rated leader composure scores and their interaction predicting boss-rated leader career derailment potential scores as a whole was statistically significant, $R^2 = .08$, $F(3, 176) = 5.13$, $p = .002$. The only predictor in model 3 that showed statistically significant effects was peer-rated leader composure scores. The coefficients for all model 3 predictors, including the interaction between leader race and composure scores, can be found in Table 17.

Difficulty changing or adapting subdimension. The first model included only the main effect of leader self-reported race and was not statistically significant in explaining variance in boss-rated leader career derailment potential scores, $R^2 < .01$, $F(1, 178) = .29$, $p = .593$. This indicates that the mean difference between White and African American leaders in boss-rated leader career derailment potential scores was not statistically significantly different from zero. The coefficients for the main effect of leader self-reported race are in Table 18.

The second model, including the main effect for leader self-reported race and the main effect for peer-rated leader composure scores, was statistically significant, adding 11% of variance explained in boss-rated leader career derailment potential scores, $\Delta R^2 = .11$, $\Delta F(1, 177) = 22.90$, $p < .001$. The model performance results including leader self-reported race and peer-rated leader composure scores were, $R^2 = .11$, $F(2, 177) = 11.61$, $p < .001$. Leader self-reported race remained not statistically significant in model 2. The main effect of peer-rated leader composure scores (centered) in model 2 was statistically significant. Holding leader race constant, a one unit increase in peer-rated leader

composure scores resulted in a decrease of .38 units of boss-rated leader career derailment potential scores. The coefficients for all model 2 predictors, including the main effect of peer-rated leader composure scores, can be found in Table 18.

The third model including the main effect for leader self-reported race, the main effect for peer-rated leader composure scores and the interaction between leader self-reported race and peer-rated leader composure scores was not statistically significant in explaining incremental variance in boss-rated leader career derailment potential scores, $\Delta R^2 < .02$, $\Delta F(1, 176) = 3.37$, $p = .068$. The full regression of leader self-reported race, peer-rated leader composure scores and their interaction predicting boss-rated leader career derailment potential scores as a whole was statistically significant, $R^2 = .12$, $F(3, 176) = 8.97$, $p < .001$. The only predictor in model 3 that showed statistically significant effects was peer-rated leader composure scores. The coefficients for all model 3 predictors, including the interaction between leader race and composure scores, can be found in Table 18.

Failure to meet business objectives subdimension. The first model included only the main effect of leader self-reported race and was not statistically significant in explaining variance in boss-rated leader career derailment potential scores, $R^2 < .001$, $F(1, 178) = .01$, $p = .942$. This indicates that the mean difference between White and African American leaders in boss-rated leader career derailment potential scores was not statistically significantly different from zero. The coefficients for the main effect of leader self-reported race are in Table 19.

The second model, including the main effect for leader self-reported race and the main effect for peer-rated leader composure scores, was statistically significant, adding

7% of variance explained in boss-rated leader career derailment potential scores, ΔR^2 =.07, $\Delta F(1, 177) = 12.98$, $p < .001$. The model performance results including leader self-reported race and peer-rated leader composure scores were, $R^2 = .07$, $F(2, 177) = 6.49$, $p = .002$. Leader self-reported race remained not statistically significant in model 2. The main effect of peer-rated leader composure scores (centered) in model 2 was statistically significant. Holding leader race constant, a one unit increase in peer-rated leader composure scores resulted in a decrease of .31 units of boss-rated leader career derailment potential scores. The coefficients for all model 2 predictors, including the main effect of peer-rated leader composure scores, can be found in Table 19.

The third model including the main effect for leader self-reported race, the main effect for peer-rated leader composure scores and the interaction between leader self-reported race and peer-rated leader composure scores was not statistically significant in explaining incremental variance in boss-rated leader career derailment potential scores, $\Delta R^2 < .02$, $\Delta F(1, 176) = 3.46$, $p = .065$. The full regression of leader self-reported race, peer-rated leader composure scores and their interaction predicting boss-rated leader career derailment potential scores as a whole was statistically significant, $R^2 = .09$, $F(3, 176) = 5.54$, $p = .001$. The only predictor in model 3 that showed statistically significant effects was peer-rated leader composure scores. The coefficients for all model 3 predictors, including the interaction between leader race and composure scores, can be found in Table 19.

Too narrow a functional orientation subdimension. The first model included only the main effect of leader self-reported race and was not statistically significant in explaining variance in boss-rated leader career derailment potential scores, $R^2 < .001$,

$F(1, 178) = .02$, $p = .893$. This indicates that the mean difference between White and African American leaders in boss-rated leader career derailment potential scores was not statistically significantly different from zero. The coefficients for the main effect of leader self-reported race are in Table 20.

The second model, including the main effect for leader self-reported race and the main effect for peer-rated leader composure scores, was statistically significant, adding 10% of variance explained in boss-rated leader career derailment potential scores, $\Delta R^2 = .10$, $\Delta F(1, 177) = 18.51$, $p < .001$. The model performance results including leader self-reported race and peer-rated leader composure scores were, $R^2 = .10$, $F(2, 177) = 9.27$, $p < .001$. Leader self-reported race remained not statistically significant in model 2. The main effect of peer-rated leader composure scores (centered) in model 2 was statistically significant. Holding leader race constant, a one unit increase in peer-rated leader composure scores resulted in a decrease of .44 units of boss-rated leader career derailment potential scores. The coefficients for all model 2 predictors, including the main effect of peer-rated leader composure scores, can be found in Table 20.

The third model including the main effect for leader self-reported race, the main effect for peer-rated leader composure scores and the interaction between leader self-reported race and peer-rated leader composure scores was not statistically significant in explaining incremental variance in boss-rated leader career derailment potential scores, $\Delta R^2 < .02$, $\Delta F(1, 176) = 3.90$, $p = .050$. The full regression of leader self-reported race, peer-rated leader composure scores and their interaction predicting boss-rated leader career derailment potential scores as a whole was statistically significant, $R^2 = 12$, $F(3, 176) = 7.58$, $p < .001$. The only predictor in model 3 that showed statistically significant

effects was peer-rated leader composure scores. The coefficients for all model 3 predictors, including the interaction between leader race and composure scores, can be found in Table 20.

Chapter 5: Discussion

This study identified the problem of underrepresentation of African Americans in leadership positions within organizations in the United States. Career derailment was considered as a potential important reason for this underrepresentation. Career derailment potential is uniquely about individuals who have reached the leadership level, are expected to go further, but fail to progress beyond their current position (Lombardo & McCauley, 1988). Little research has addressed what happens to African American individuals once they reach leadership positions in terms of lack of continued advancement. To better understand the issue of underrepresentation, the present study tested whether African Americans had lower career derailment potential as rated by their boss.

This study also examined the effect of composure on leader career derailment potential. Early qualitative research on career success identified composure as an important factor. Subsequent quantitative research has examined interrelations between various constructs adjacent to composure and career success outcomes, including derailment. However, with the exception of a single quantitative study using a univariate analysis to compare mean scores of boss ratings of leader composure between successful and derailed leaders (Lombardo et al., 1988), research directly implicating composure as being associated with derailment is noticeably absent.

The present study used COR to explain the potential importance of leader composure with regard to leader career derailment potential. COR's (Hobfoll, 1989) main tenant is that people strive to retain, protect, and build resource caches to protect from the threat or actual loss of other resources. A particularly salient COR principle to the present study is Principle 2, which states that resources must be invested to protect against resource loss, recover from losses, and gain resources. In the present study it has been proposed that strong composure may be a particularly important resource for leaders to have at their investment disposal. Demonstrating composure may earn leaders additional resources necessary to avoid derailment, such as the respect and trust of direct reports and social capital among those at higher or highly influential positions in the organization. Corollary 1 is also particularly salient to the present study – those with greater resources are less vulnerable to resource loss and more capable of gain while individuals who lack resources are more vulnerable to resource loss and less capable of resource gain. Failing to demonstrate composure can have deleterious effects on leaders' ability to gain important resources from direct report, peers, or superiors. Leaders with strong composure are better positioned to gain more resources, and leaders with weak composure more likely to lose other resources.

Composure is a human capital resource potentially valuable to African American leaders. Having fewer overall social and human capital resources at their disposal (Ibarra, 1995; Parkes-Yancy, 2006; Peterson et al., 2000), African American leaders may value workplace composure more in their pursuit of career advancement. Moreover, African American leaders are believed to experience racial microaggressions in the workplace that cause increased emotional labor beyond that which Whites experience (Evans &

Moore, 2015). Increased emotional labor can test the ability to remain composed when under stress. Given this, composure is a potentially critical resource for African American leaders to gaining and protecting resources and, ultimately, for protecting African American leaders from career derailment. However, prior research has not examined the interaction between race and composure in predicting career derailment potential. This gap was addressed in the literature review in the present study.

Main Effect of Leader Composure

In both data sets of this study (direct report-raters of composure and peer-raters of composure), the main effect of leader composure showed a statistically significant relationship with boss-rated leader career derailment potential, supporting Hypotheses 2a and 2b. These results are important because they demonstrate how leader composure, through its behavioral expression in the workplace, benefits career progression by lessening leader career derailment potential. The literature is scarce in this regard (e.g., Hogan & Hogan, 2001; Lombardo et al., 1988). The post-hoc analyses testing derailment subdimensions resulted in similar findings, except that only two of the five subdimensions showed statistical significance with direct reports rating leader composure while all five did with peer ratings of leaders.

These results are important from a theoretical perspective as they substantiate the early qualitative findings on the studies on the role of composure in successful and failed leaders (Lombardo & McCauley 1988; McCall & Lombardo, 1983a and 1983b) and go beyond the one quantitative study on composure (Lombardo, et al., 1988) in which a series of univariate analyses compared mean scores of boss ratings of successful and failed leaders in conjunction with a confirmatory factor analysis of the scale used in the

study. The present study is the first to empirically demonstrate that leader composure is statistically significantly related to leader career derailment potential in that higher composure is related to lower career derailment potential. Remaining calm while under stress is seen as a characteristic favorable to career progression. This is consistent with other studies on related constructs such as career success, promotion, and emotional stability (Harper, 2018; Hogan & Kaiser, 2005; Seibert & Kraimer, 2001). COR explains the relationship between leader composure and career derailment potential; leaders who acquire and retain the human capital resource of composure are better suited to influence lower boss ratings on career derailment potential, thereby achieving a goal of not being stalled in their career. Further substantiating this in the present study, and suggesting a universal leadership application, is that target leaders were from various leadership levels including top executives, middle management, and supervisors. However, what remains unknown is whether composure is an important resource unto itself or has the effect of assisting in other resource protection and gains. It has been suggested that resources travel together in “caravans" and influence one another (Hobfoll, 2011), making it possible that composure connects in some ways with other resources.

Main Effect of Leader Race

In both data sets of this study, the main effect of leader race was not statistically significant and did not explain variance in boss-rated leader career derailment potential. The mean ratings on career derailment were actually lower for African Americans (opposite of Hypothesis 1), although the difference was not statistically significant. This indicates that race unto itself is not a significant predictor of career derailment potential. The post-hoc analyses testing derailment subdimensions resulted in similar findings.

Three explanations for this result are presented here. First, African Americans in leadership positions may have worked hard to prove themselves in an environment of unequal expectations, developed sufficient resources during their career development, and/or experienced differential selection bias, which represents racial biases limiting the number of African Americans obtaining leadership positions but also results in those who are promoted being highly qualified for leadership positions. Thus, although statistically non-significant, the lower overall career derailment potential mean score for African American leaders, relative to White leaders, may be a consequence of African American leaders being more qualified as a function of this differential selection bias (Davis, 2018; Eagly & Carli, 2003; Eagly, et al., 1995; Gamble, 2011; Robinson, 2012).

Second, sampling bias may be present and may take two forms. First, target leaders, as well as raters, are from organizations that have pursued leadership development possibly resulting in a positive human resources culture with more diversity, equity and inclusion practices. While we do not know if the sample represents the overall population of organizations or not, self-selection of organizations seeking out leadership development opportunities may have led to a restriction in range of the leaders providing data for this study and, subsequently, the non-significant differences that were observed. Second, target leaders may have assertively stepped forward or volunteered for the 360-degree survey. These leaders may possess a proactive self-development mindset, different from the general leader population. This form of self-selection may have biased the sample in that leaders proactively seeking improvement tend to be effective leaders and less likely to derail, regardless of their race. Nonetheless, this too may have resulted in a restriction in range of the leaders providing data for this study and, subsequently, the non-

significant differences that were observed. With data available only from organizations active in leadership development and/or only from assertive leaders who volunteer to undergo leadership development it is plausible that the non-significant differences were, in part, due to the sampling bias and restriction of range associated with these data and may not be presentative of true differences.

Third, the human resource selection and performance appraisal literatures show that there tends to be more racial bias in the selection process than in the performance appraisal process. This is because relatively less is known about job candidates in the selection process. With less information available to decision makers, racial stereotypes have a stronger effect. More is known about organizational members who have been inside the organization undergoing performance assessment; appraisers have more information about the individual being assessed, resulting in a lesser effect of stereotype biases (Dean et al., 2008). In the present study, bosses may have rich information on performance of their subordinate leaders and as a result, racial bias has less of an effect, leading to no difference between African Americans and Whites in career derailment potential.

The Moderating Effect of Race on the Composure/Derailment Relationship

Leader self-reported race moderated the negative relationship between leader composure and boss-rated leader career derailment potential when peers were rating leader composure (Hypothesis 3b), but not when direct reports were rating leader composure (Hypothesis 3a). The relationship was stronger for Whites, which was the opposite of what was hypothesized. Figure 4 provides the graphical representation of the regression lines for the dichotomous moderator variable leader self-reported race when

peer-rated leader composure is low and high, representing the lines of best fit equation distinguishing the slopes of the linear relationships for both races.

Leader composure differences by rater. Scholars have asserted that differences in ratings between rater groups contain valuable information because of the opportunities the groups have to observe the target leader's performance (Bozeman, 1997). Ratings provided by different groups can be role related (Borman, 1991). Rater groups likely evaluate aspects of the leader most relevant to themselves (Bozeman, 1997). This could explain the differences between the direct report and peer data sets in the moderator analyses performed in the present study. Direct report raters see the ratee from the perspective of being their leader, while peers see the ratee as equals. As subordinates, direct reports look to their superior as their leader, seeking direction and resources for the job at hand, and motivation, among other things. They want to see their boss as calm when under pressure. Whereas peers experience the same types of leadership stressors and may share experiences and methods of handling difficult situations between one another, and express emotion to each other regarding the same. Additionally, direct reports' perspectives are usually based upon interactions within the formal chain of command while peers have no formal power differential with the targeted leader relieving constraints of interactions found in a formal leader/subordinate relationship. Therefore, the differences in leader composure ratings by group can relate differently to boss-rated leader career derailment potential.

Leader race moderating the relationship between leader composure/ derailment. Turning to the interaction in the peer data set as demonstrated in Figure 4, in the situation of low composure, African Americans are rated as having lower career

derailment potential than Whites. A possible explanation may be found in differential selection bias in that the African Americans reaching their leadership positions were likely more qualified leaders, on average, as compared to White leaders who may not have had to overcome earlier challenges. African American leaders may have faced racial bias earlier in their careers and had proven themselves at lower organizational levels and in earlier leadership roles by overcoming such adversities and by developing valuable skills sets more substantially than Whites, making them more qualified than their counterparts. This has been articulated in gender studies (Eagly & Carli, 2003; Eagly et al., 1995). Similarly, in examinations of underrepresentation of African American women in leadership positions within academia, African American women were found to have worked harder and to have done more to prove their worth in an environment of unequal expectations for African American women (Gamble, 2011; Robinson, 2012). Interviews of established African American women leaders in for-profit mid to large-sized U.S. companies found that these leaders had to visibly work much harder than their White counterparts to receive the same acknowledgements (Davis, 2018).

In addition, African Americans often have fewer occupational oriented social capital resources (James, 2000) and as a result may depend more heavily upon human capital resources. Composure, as a human capital resource, may be of great importance to African Americans. Consistent with the resource investment-gain aspect of COR Principle 2, investment of composure resources may be critical to gaining social capital resources within the professional network. That is, African American leaders demonstrating composure in the leader role are provided an opportunity reduce the resource deficit through gaining the respect, support, and trust from direct reports, peers,

and superiors. These resources, in turn, can be invested to overcome future difficult experiences that lead to derailment, thus explaining the lower career derailment potential scores when under low composure.

In situations of high composure, African Americans are rated as having higher career derailment potential than Whites. African Americans and Whites in the present study have attained leadership positions and demonstrated characteristics worthy of leadership - an "all else being equal" scenario, where both African Americans and Whites are rated as having high composure (see Figure 4). Yet African Americans are rated higher than Whites in career derailment potential. This can be explained by racial bias against African Americans and is consistent with the literature (Baldi & McBrier, 1997; Elvira & Zatzick, 2002; Smith, 2005). Racial bias and stereotyping were also proposed to be the reasoning behind a study finding of African Americans having lower promotion potential than Whites (Landau, 1995).

Another explanation of Whites having lower career derailment potential when composure is high may be that as Whites generally have more social capital, their total resources become stronger; the composure resource and other resources such as social capital combine to lower career derailment. It may be possible too that composure activates social capital resources that Whites possess more of. Social capital engagement may be stronger for leaders who remain calm when under stress over leaders who have uncontrolled emotions; social capital may have a stronger effect when composure is high.

Study Implications

When considering the results of the present study, a number of theoretical and practical implications can be identified. The two main theoretical implications pertain to

the relationship between composure and career derailment potential, and the manner in which individuals may utilize resources in lessening career derailment potential. First, a number of qualitative studies have identified composure and related constructs' relationship to career success, promotion, and career derailment (Lombardo & McCauley 1988; McCall & Lombardo, 1983a and 1983b). One univariate quantitative study has been identified linking composure to career derailment potential (Lombardo et al., 1988). The present study adds to the understanding of how composure relates to career derailment potential from a multivariate perspective, helping to partially explain the role of leader race in this relationship. There is strong evidence to say that composure plays a role for leaders at various levels of the organization.

Second, the interaction of leader self-reported race and peer-rated leader composure reveals the complex nature of how composure has different implications for African American compared to Whites. When composure is low, African Americans may benefit from higher qualifications they have earned earlier in their career. When composure is high, African Americans may not have sufficient other resources to score as low as Whites in career derailment potential. The present study utilizes the lens of Conservation of Resources Theory to better understand how leaders may utilize the resource of composure in the development of their careers. It is clear that composure is an important resource in lessening career derailment potential. Considering caravans of resources and the potential interplay of resources, it is possible that composure activates other resources valuable to career success thus lower career derailment potential. This may be the case for White leaders when their composure is high, it may activate other resources more commonly held by Whites. Expansion of the Conservation of Resources

Theory has suggested that significant events, such as job loss or demotion, are often the consequence of a series of events over time that include ongoing gain and loss of resources and realignment of available resources to compensate for failing ones (Hobfoll et al., 2018).

There are practical implications stemming from the present study. First, there is a significant relationship between both direct report-rated leader composure and peer-rated leader composure and boss-rated leader career derailment potential. Organizational leaders who are perceived as displaying behaviors consistent with composure are likely to be seen as being low in career derailment potential. Following Benchmarks®, leaders who seek to advance in their career and avoid becoming derailed would likely benefit from having self-awareness of those behaviors associated with composure including: remaining calm when crisis occurs in the workplace; contributing to problem solving; complaining less; taking ownership for one's own mistakes; and, remaining constructive/positive when things don't go one's way. Leaders who want to be seen as low in career derailment potential would do well to seek leadership development opportunities by better understanding how those around them perceive their composure in the workplace, especially those perceptions in the eyes of their peers.

Second, from the subdimensions of the derailment perspective, should leaders be perceived as being low in composure, they could examine potential problems with interpersonal relationships and being too narrow in their functional orientation as these two dimensions are most strongly related to composure of the subdimensions studied. Also, important would be examining one's ability to adapt to change, working hard to assure accomplishment of assigned business objectives, and improving leadership skills

in leading and building teams. Leaders seeking to minimize boss-rated career derailment potential would be advised to examine their own leadership strengths and weakness associated with these dimensions and increase their self-awareness of how they manage emotions surrounding these functions. Consulting with peers would likely more effective than with subordinates as peer composure ratings are more strongly tied to boss perceptions of career derailment potential. Organizational leaders can help to lower career derailment of their leadership teams through providing leader development opportunities that include peer composure feedback to target leaders.

Third, as race was not statistically tied to career derailment potential, racial biases in these situations may be low. Bosses who are evaluating leaders for promotion have experience with the target leader having worked with them, perhaps minimizing any role of existing biases. This is in contrast to the new employee selection literature where raters may have little to no experience with the candidate allowing racial biases to play a stronger role. This points to the importance of relationships between leader and follower and the value to having personal interactions that can diminish biases based on stereotypes.

Limitations and Future Direction

Limitations. While a significant effort was made to design a robust analysis of the data obtained for the present study, there are multiple limitations that must be acknowledged. The data for the present study was not from randomly selected participants. As is often true with field data, researchers have to create a best study design understanding the limitations of the data set. Data from leaders and organizations engaged in leader development are likely a small subset of the larger population of

leaders and organizations. Compared to their counterparts not seeking self-development, African Americans seeking leadership development may be better at developing resources such as composure as they receive higher quality feedback useful in self-development. And bosses in organizations engaged in leadership development may be less biased than bosses in organizations not promoting leadership development. Organizations looking to develop its leaders may have stronger components of diversity, equity and inclusion. As such, this study's conclusions should be cautiously extended to the broader population of leaders and organizations. Furthermore, the data did not represent a normal distribution as the Likert scale data was skewed due to the nature of the item construction. While regression is robust to events on non-normality, pushing the limits of the normality of errors and homoscedasticity assumptions may be subject the study to Type I errors whereby the null hypothesis is rejected when it may be true, a "false positive". It is possible a difference was observed when there actually was no statistical difference.

The present study was a cross-sectional study. It would be beneficial to have longitudinal research be performed on this subject so as to better understand change over time and identify trends in resources over stages of career development. This is especially important considering resource caravans that realign resources over time.

The present study did not measure microaggression, emotional labor or emotion regulation. It is not known if the target African Americans in the study experienced microaggression or had to respond to emotional labor. The assumption was made of their existence due to significant amounts of literature demonstrating the prevalence. Furthermore, the present study did not measure social capital resources or human capital

resources other than composure. It is possible that target African American leaders in the study had levels of resources similar to White counterparts. Yet while these are uncertainties, it seems practical that leaders who are composed are likely to progress in their careers more so than those who are overly emotional, negative, complaining, or hot-headed leaders.

The study data was collected, in part, during the early days of the Black Lives Matter movement, creating a contextual factor different from previous timeframes. Increased awareness of social injustices could possibly have had an effect on the raters, leaders and organizations within this study. Raters may have scored the instrument differently with this in mind.

As noted earlier, the original dataset for this study was heavily weighted toward White targeted leaders. If the development and historical use of the Benchmarks® instrument had possibly been mainly associated with White leaders, it raises question as to whether the conceptualization and operationalization of composure and career derailment potential within the instrument is understood differently for African American from Whites.

Future directions. The present study not only has contributed to the literature but has also brought forth several interesting subjects that might merit additional research. First, COR was utilized to explain that the acquisition and retention of composure by leaders resulting in lower boss ratings of career derailment potential. Composure is an important resource unto itself, but what is not known is whether composure has an effect upon other resources – does it protect loss of other resources or help in the gain of

resources? Is it functioning differently between African Americans and Whites because of a difference in other resources gained by these groups?

Leaders in the present study are from organizations participating in leadership development, and the leaders themselves may have been given the opportunity to volunteer to participate. Organizations active in development may have created a culture that is more diverse has more equity and inclusion making them unique. Individuals seeking development maybe more likely to have qualities that minimize career derailment potential. Both of these circumstances are likely not representative of the overall population. Future studies that utilize random samples of organizations and leaders may present interesting findings useful to expanding knowledge about the underrepresentation of African Americans in leadership positions and about how race may moderate the relationship between composure and derailment.

Conclusions

Leader self-reported race was not related to boss-rated career derailment potential. While African American leaders are underrepresented in leadership roles in the United States, it would appear that in organizations undergoing leadership development activities African Americans bring with them sufficient social and human capital resources that bosses rate them no differently than Whites in career derailment potential, or possibly these leaders take special interest in their own leadership development making them more prepared for leadership positions. As compared to leaders selection processes, leader appraisal processes may have fewer racial bias influences as bosses have first-hand experience with the leader being evaluated for promotion. Direct report-rated and peer-rated composure was related to boss-rated career derailment potential. Leaders who are

seen as composed by subordinates and peers have lower career derailment potential as seen by bosses. This was found to be true at various levels of leadership, not held exclusively by top management. Composure is a resource valuable to minimizing career derailment; the present study substantiates previous qualitative findings and supports a previous univariate analysis on composure and its relationship to failed leaders. A moderating effect for leader self-reported race was found in the relationship between peer-rated leader composure and boss-rated career derailment potential. For leaders rated as having low composure, African Americans were found to have lower career derailment ratings. This may be due to African Americans reaching leadership positions are highly qualified and or they use composure to gain other resources. For leaders rated as high in composure, African Americans were found to have higher career derailment ratings. This may be due to racial biases of the raters or possibly Whites having more resrouces. When seeking leadership development feedback with the intention to minimize career derailment potential, leaders should value feedback from peers on their composure as this is statistically related to boss perceptions of career derailment potential.

Appendix A: Tables

Table 1
Qualitative Findings – Characteristics of Successful and Failed Leaders

Social Capital	Human Capital
Success Attributes	
Socially skilled	Bright
Demonstrated achievements	Ambitious
Diversity of achievements	Willing to sacrifice
Involved others in problem solving	Handled stress with composure
Able to get along with different people	Handled mistakes with grace
Flaws	
Unable to delegate	Insufficient business skills
Unable to build a team	Inability to deal with complexity
Unable to maintain a network	Reactive and tactically focused, not strategic
Betrayed trust	Emotions cloud judgement
Failed to staff effectively	Slow to learn
Unable to adapt to a boss of new style	Insensitive, cold, aloof, arrogant
Overly dependent on one mentor	Overly ambitious
	Demonstrated an overriding personality defect

Note: Adapted from "A View From the Top: A Thirty Year Perspective on Research Devoted to Discovery, Description, and Prediction of Executive Behavior," by V. J. Bentz, 1985, Paper presented at the *93rd Annual Convention of the American Psychological Association*; and "Off the Track: Why and How Successful Executives Get Derailed, (Technical Report No. 21)," by M. W. McCall, M. W. and M. M. Lombardo, 1983a, *Center for Creative Leadership*.

Table 2

Conservation of Resources Theory Principles and Corollaries

Principles and Corollaries
Principles
1. Resource loss is disproportionately more salient than resource gain.
2. People must invest resources in order to protect against resource loss, recover from losses, and gain resources.
3. Resource gain increases in salience in the context of resource loss. That is, when resource loss circumstances are high, resource gains become more important—they gain in value.
4. When people's resources are outstretched or exhausted, they enter a defensive mode to preserve the self which is often defensive, aggressive, and may become irrational.
Corollaries
1. Those with greater resources are less vulnerable to resource loss and more capable of resource gain. Conversely, individuals and organizations who lack resources are more vulnerable to resource loss and less capable of resource gain.
2. Because resource loss is more powerful than resource gain, and because stress occurs when resources are lost, at each iteration of the stress spiral individuals and organizations have fewer resources to offset resource loss, and these loss spirals gain in momentum as well as magnitude.
3. Because resource gain is both of less magnitude and slower than resource loss, resource gain spirals tend to be weak and develop slowly.

Note: Adapted from "Conservation of resources in the organizational context: The reality of resources and their consequences," by S. E. Hobfoll, J. Halbesleben, J. P. Neveu, & M. Westman, 2018, *Annual Review of Organizational Psychology and Organizational Behavior.*

Table 3
Items Within Scale for Benchmarks® Composure and Derailment

Composure

1. Does not become hostile or moody when things are not going his/her way.
2. Does not blame others or situations for his/her mistakes.
3. Contributes more to solving organizational problems than to complaining.
4. Remains calm when crises occur.

Career Derailment

1. Would not be able to manage in a different department.
2. Neglects necessary work to concentrate on high-profile work.
3. A promotion would be beyond their current level of competence.
4. Is not ready for more responsibility.
5. Resists learning from his/her mistakes.
6. Cannot adapt to a new boss with a more participative management style.
7. Has not adapted to the culture of the organization.
8. Is arrogant (e.g., devalues the contribution of others).
9. Doesn't understand how other departments function in the organization.
10. Is not adaptable to many different types of people.
11. Could not handle management outside of current function.
12. Is unprofessional about his/her disagreement with upper management.
13. Is dictatorial in his/her approach.
14. Has an unresolved interpersonal conflict with boss.
15. Makes direct reports or peers feel stupid or unintelligent.
16. Does not use feedback to make necessary changes in his/her behaviors.
17. Is reluctant to share decision making with others.
18. Does not resolve conflict among direct reports.
19. Has left a trail of bruised people.
20. Is overwhelmed by complex tasks.
21. Hires people with good technical skills but poor ability to work with others.
22. Is emotionally volatile and unpredictable.
23. Does not motivate team members to do the best for the team.
24. Has not adapted to the management culture.
25. Adopts a bullying style under stress.
26. Does not handle pressure well.
27. May have exceeded his or her current level of competence.
28. Selects people for a team who don't work well together.
29. Over-estimates his/her own abilities.
30. Is not good at building a team.
31. Has difficulty meeting the expectations of his/her current position.
32. Is self-promoting without the results to support it.
33. Can't make the mental transition from technical manager to general manager.
34. Does not help individuals understand how their work fits goals of the organization.
35. Orders people around rather than working to get them on board.
36. Fails to encourage and involve team members.

Table 4
Results of Confirmatory Factor Analyses

	χ^2	*df*	TLI	SRMR
DR Composure	8.87*	2	.935	.025
Peer Composure	10.20**	2	.942	.020
DR Boss CDP 1 Factor	1847.00***	594	.704	.073
DR Boss CDP 5 Factor	1441.00***	584	.794	.073
Peer Boss CDP 1 Factor	2161.00***	594	.693	.078
Peer Boss CDP 5 Factor	1589.00***	584	.800	.072

Note. DR stands for Direct Report; CDP stands for Career Derailment Potential.
* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, ***$p < .001$

Table 5
Hypothesis Testing and Model Building Strategy

		Regression Procedure		
	DV	Model 1 Main Effect	Model 2 Main Effects	Model 3 Interaction
Study 1 DR	CDP	Race (H1)	Add Composure (H2a)	Race + Composure + Composure*Race (H3a)
Study 2 Peer	CDP	Race (H1)	Add Composure (H2b)	Race + Composure + Composure*Race (H3b)

Note. DR stands for Direct Report; CDP stands for Career Derailment Potential.

Table 6

Means, Standard Deviations and Correlations of Variables, DR

Measure	*M*	*SD*	1	2	3
1.DR composure	4.37	.43			
2.Race	.50	.50	.09		
3.Boss derailment	1.44	.40	-.21**	-.06	

Note. DR stands for Direct Report.

n = 148; **. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Table 7

Means, Standard Deviations and Correlations of Variables, Peer

Measure	*M*	*SD*	1	2	3
1.Peer composure	4.23	.50			
2.Race	.50	.50	.16*		
3.Boss derailment	1.47	.52	-.35**	-.04	

n = 180; Correlation is significant at the *0.05 level, **0.01 level (2-tailed).

Table 8

Means, Standard Deviations and Correlations of Variables, Combined Data Set

Variable	*M*	*SD*	1	2	3	4	5
1. DR Composure	4.37	.44					
2. DR Derailment	1.45	.43	-.66***				
3. Peer Composure	4.30	.42	.35**	-.14			
4. Peer Derailment	1.45	.39	-.31**	.22	-.78***		
5. Boss Composure	4.31	.57	.09	.04	.36**	-.24*	
6. Boss Derailment	1.41	.41	-.22	.21	-.18	.30*	-.48***

Note. DR stands for direct report.

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

Table 9

Hierarchical Regression Coefficients, Direct Report Data

	Model 1			Model 2			Model 3		
	b	*SE*	*t*	*b*	*SE*	*t*	*b*	*SE*	*t*
Intercept	1.47	.05	31.23**	1.46	.05	31.58**	1.46	.05	31.41**
Race	-.05	.07	-.76	-.04	.07	-.54	-.04	.07	-.54
Composure				-.20	.08	-2.56*	-.18	.12	-1.52
Interaction							-.03	.16	-.22

*p <.05, **p < .001

Table 10
Hierarchical Regression Coefficients, Peer Data

	Model 1			Model 2			Model 3		
	b	*SE*	*t*	*b*	*SE*	*t*	*b*	*SE*	*t*
Intercept	1.49	.06	27.06**	1.46	.05	28.05**	1.45	.05	28.02**
Race	-.04	.08	-.47	.02	.07	.28	.01	.07	.20
Composure				-.37	.08	-4.95**	-.49	.09	-5.18**
Interaction							.31	.15	1.99*

*p <.05, **p < .001

Table 11

Regression Coefficients, Direct Report Data on Subdimension Problems with Interpersonal Relationships

	Model 1			Model 2			Model 3		
	b	*SE*	*t*	*b*	*SE*	*t*	*b*	*SE*	*t*
Intercept	1.38	.05	26.69**	1.37	.05	27.02**	1.38	.05	26.97**
Race	-.07	.07	-.93	-.05	.07	-.70	-.05	.07	-.71
Composure				-.22	.08	-2.66*	-.15	.13	-1.15
Interaction							-.14	.17	-.81

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

Table 12

Regression Coefficients, Direct Report Data on Subdimension Difficulty Building Leading Teams

	Model 1			Model 2			Model 3		
	b	*SE*	*t*	*b*	*SE*	*t*	*b*	*SE*	*t*
Intercept	1.58	.06	28.00**	1.58	.06	28.31**	1.57	.06	28.29**
Race	-.13	.08	-1.60	-.11	.08	-1.38	-.11	.08	-1.39
Composure				-.24	.09	-2.59	-.14	.14	-1.00
Interaction							-.18	.19	-.94

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

Table 13

Regression Coefficients, Direct Report Data on Subdimension Difficulty Changing and Adapting

	Model 1			Model 2			Model 3		
	b	*SE*	*t*	*b*	*SE*	*t*	*b*	*SE*	*t*
Intercept	1.42	.05	27.25**	1.41	.05	27.64**	1.41	.05	27.49**
Race	-.03	.07	-.39	-.01	.07	-.14	-.01	.07	-.14
Composure				-.24	.08	-2.80*	-.22	.13	-1.76
Interaction							-.02	.17	-.24

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

Table 14

Regression Coefficients, Direct Report Data on Subdimension Failure to Reach Business Objectives

	Model 1			Model 2			Model 3		
	b	*SE*	*t*	*b*	*SE*	*t*	*b*	*SE*	*t*
Intercept	1.38	.05	25.63**	1.37	.05	25.67**	1.37	.05	25.49**
Race	.14	.08	.18	.03	.08	.33	.03	.08	.34
Composure				-.14	.09	-1.62	-.19	.13	-1.38
Interaction							.07	.18	.41

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

Table 15

Regression Coefficients, Direct Report Data on Subdimension Too Narrow a Functional Orientation

	Model 1			Model 2			Model 3		
	b	*SE*	*t*	*b*	*SE*	*t*	*b*	*SE*	*t*
Intercept	1.68	.07	23.10**	1.68	.07	22.96**	1.68	.07	22.81**
Race	-.04	.10	-.36	-.03	.10	-.30	-.03	.10	-.29
Composure				-.08	.12	-.63	-.18	.18	-.96
Interaction							.18	.25	.72

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

Table 16

Regression Coefficients, Peer Data on Subdimension Problems with Interpersonal Relationships

	Model 1			Model 2			Model 3		
	b	*SE*	*t*	*b*	*SE*	*t*	*b*	*SE*	*t*
Intercept	1.41	.06	23.81**	1.37	.06	24.92**	1.37	.06	24.78**
Race	-.05	.08	-.60	.02	.08	.22	.01	.08	.16
Composure				-.44	.08	-5.50**	-.52	.10	-5.20**
Interaction							.22	.16	1.34

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

Table 17

Regression Coefficients, Peer Data on Subdimension Difficulty Building Leading Teams

	Model 1			Model 2			Model 3		
	b	*SE*	*t*	*b*	*SE*	*t*	*b*	*SE*	*t*
Intercept	1.58	.06	25.38**	1.56	.06	25.56**	1.55	.06	25.48**
Race	-.07	.09	-.84	-.03	.09	-.33	-.04	.09	-.41
Composure				-.29	.09	-3.35**	-.41	.11	-3.78**
Interaction							.33	.18	1.81

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

Table 18

Regression Coefficients, Peer Data on Subdimension Difficulty Changing and Adapting

	Model 1			Model 2			Model 3		
	b	*SE*	*t*	*b*	*SE*	*t*	*b*	*SE*	*t*
Intercept	1.46	.06	25.19**	1.43	.06	25.99**	1.42	.06	25.91**
Race	-.04	.08	-.54	.02	.08	.19	.01	.08	.11
Composure				-.38	.08	-4.79**	-.49	.10	-4.94**
Interaction							.01	.16	1.83

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

Table 19

Regression Coefficients, Peer Data on Subdimension Failure to Reach Business Objectives

	Model 1			Model 2			Model 3		
	b	*SE*	*t*	*b*	*SE*	*t*	*b*	*SE*	*t*
Intercept	1.44	.06	23.45**	1.41	.06	23.67**	1.40	.06	23.59**
Race	-.01	.09	-.07	.04	.09	.49	.04	.08	.41
Composure				-.31	.09	-3.60**	-.43	.11	-4.01**
Interaction							.33	.18	1.86

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

Table 20

Regression Coefficients, Peer Data on Subdimension Too Narrow a Functional Orientation

	Model 1			Model 2			Model 3		
	b	*SE*	*t*	*b*	*SE*	*t*	*b*	*SE*	*t*
Intercept	1.63	.07	22.26**	1.60	.07	22.70**	1.58	.07	22.64**
Race	.01	.10	.14	.08	.10	.81	.07	.10	.74
Composure				-.44	.10	-4.30**	-.59	.13	-4.65**
Interaction							.41	.21	1.98

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

Appendix B: Figures

Figure 1
Depiction of Variables by Rater

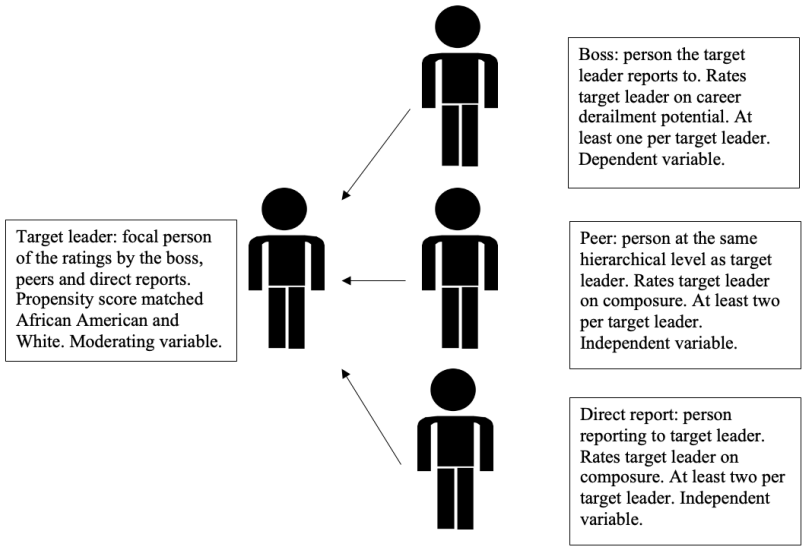


Figure 2
Regression Scatterplot Peer Data Set

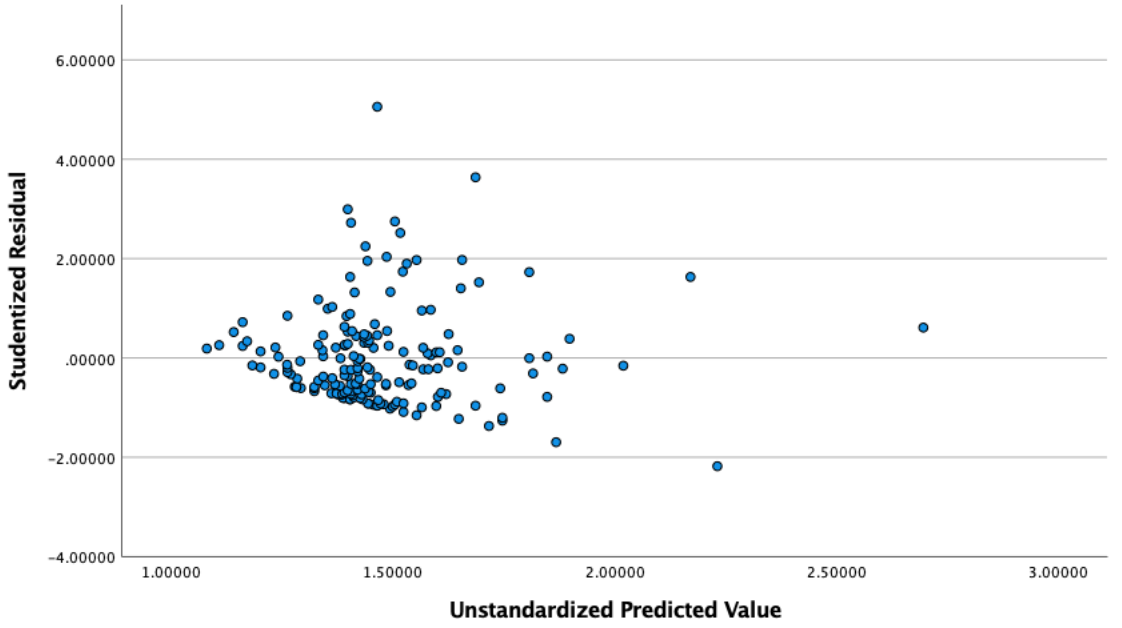


Figure 3
Histogram of Peer Dataset

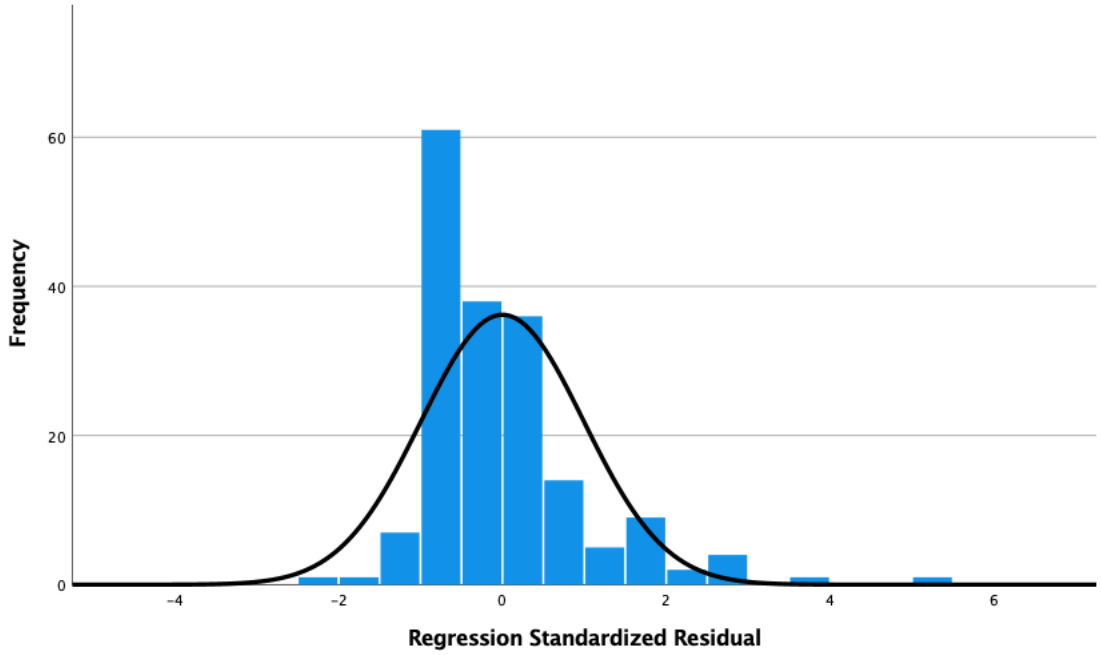
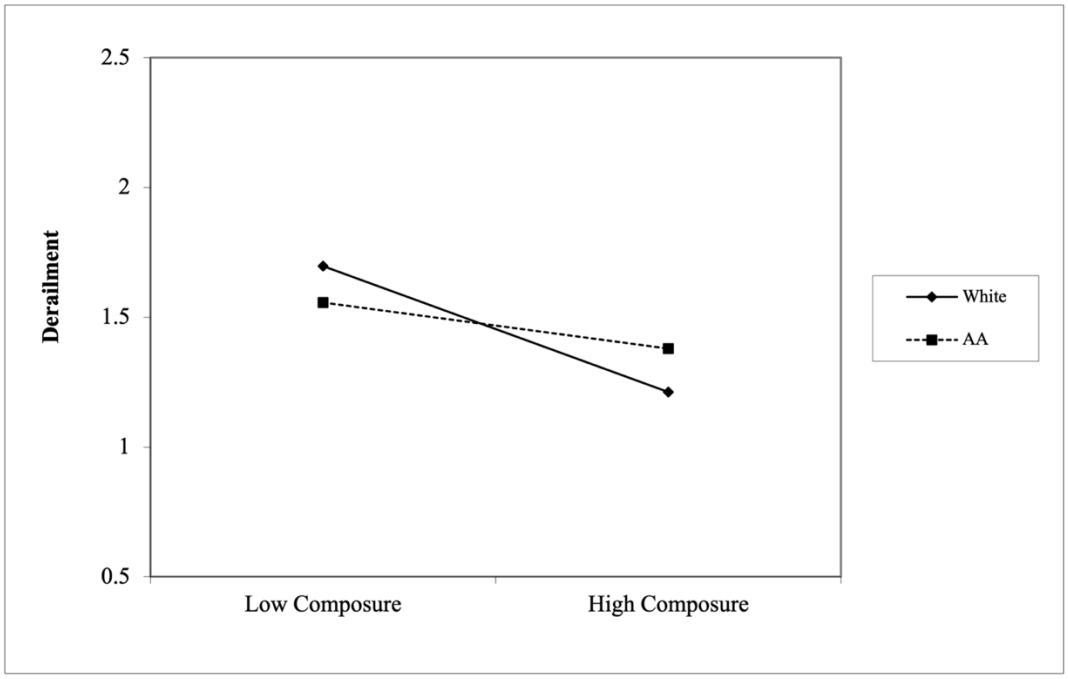


Figure 4
Two-Way Linear Interaction



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