

The Effect of Leader and Follower Personality on Work
Processes - Analysing the Influence of Humility and
Narcissism

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Declaration of Co-Authorship

Chapter 2: Implicit humility and trust in leader: A dual pathway model via perceived humble leadership and abusive supervision

The text of this chapter comes from joint work with Erik Dietl (University of Hohenheim).

ABSTRACT

In this article, we investigate the role of implicit humility in leadership. Based on the humility measurement paradox - humble people do not indicate their humbleness when asked directly and vice versa – we hypothesise that implicit leader humility predicts humble leadership behaviour, abusive supervision and trust in leader, above and beyond explicit (i.e., self-reported) leader humility. Further, we propose that humble leadership behaviour and abusive supervision both mediate the positive relations between implicit leader humility and trust in leader. To assess leaders' implicit humility, we developed an Implicit Association Test (IAT) of humility. Results from a multi-source multi-wave field study with 250 leader-follower dyads supported our hypotheses. In addition, we present a solution for the humility measurement paradox by constructing an indirect measure of humility. We discuss implications for leadership and humility research and practice.

Keywords: Humility, Implicit personality, Trust in leader, Perceived leader humility, Abusive supervision

Chapter 3: Is follower narcissism always toxic? The role of leaders' implicit followership theories and follower promotion focus

The text of this chapter comes from joint work with Erik Dietl (University of Hohenheim). I performed the majority of the work on this paper.

ABSTRACT

Organisational researchers are increasingly interested in investigating the influence of narcissism on the workplace. Drawing on recent research that distinguishes two dimensions of narcissism and their different underlying motivational dynamics, we hypothesised that follower empowerment, and in turn voice, are differentially influenced by the two narcissism facets admiration and rivalry. In particular, we expected that followers' narcissistic admiration is positively related to voice via empowerment, whereas rivalry is negatively related to voice via empowerment. Moreover, we investigated two moderators of the relationship between narcissistic rivalry and empowerment - leaders' implicit followership theories (IFTs) and follower promotion focus. We argue that both a leader's positive IFTs and a high follower promotion focus buffer the negative effect of followers' narcissistic rivalry on empowerment, and in turn voice (i.e., first-stage moderated mediations). We found support for our predictions in a multi-wave field study using data from 268 leader-follower dyads from a broad range of organisations. Theoretical and practical implications are explored.

Keywords: Narcissism, Empowerment, Voice behaviour, Implicit followership theories, Promotion focus

Chapter 4: Sink or swim? Heterogeneous effects of followers' and leaders' narcissistic facets on relationship conflict

The text of this chapter is my own work.

ABSTRACT

I draw on the Narcissistic Admiration and Rivalry Concept (NARC) that disentangles two facets of narcissism and expect both facets of narcissism to predict relationship conflict differently. Follower narcissistic rivalry is expected to positively predict relationship conflict and subsequently organizational citizenship behavior (OCB), whereas follower narcissistic admiration does not influence relationship conflict and OCB. Moreover, based on the Narcissistic Leaders and Dominance Complementarity Model of Grijalva and Harms (2014), I suggest that leader and follower narcissistic rivalry interact in the prediction of relationship conflict. I expect that leader narcissistic rivalry strengthens the effect of follower narcissistic rivalry on relationship conflict. These hypotheses are supported in a multi-wave field study drawing on a sample of 104 follower-leader dyads. Theoretical and practical implications are discussed.

Keywords: Narcissism, Relationship conflict, Organizational citizenship behavior

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Chapter 1

Introduction

In recent years, crises, business scandals, executives that insisted on their bonuses and the popularity of Donald Trump have dominated the headlines. The financial crisis of 2007 and 2008 had an impact on economies around the world (Ivashina & Scharfstein, 2010). It has been partially blamed on remuneration policies such as incentive structures in financial institutions (P. Gregg, Jewell, & Tonks, 2012). In this context, executives were charged with insisting on their bonuses despite their poor performance. Moreover, organisations dismissed a tall number of employees (Giersberg, 2008), leading to a stressed working climate which puts a strain on relationships at work. This is especially serious because relationships and interactions at work become more important due to changes in organisational structures and cultures. In 2015, the FIFA corruption crisis became public. Several officials of football's world governing body have been arrested and they were blamed for bribery, fraud and money laundering (BBC, 2015). At the moment, Donald Trump is continuously making the headlines due to his behaviour and statements, thereby creating astonishment, mystification and anger. Though, besides these negative incidents, some positive occasions occurred. The father of a critically ill son worked in a company in Berlin. He asked for taking unpaid holidays. However, some of his colleagues donated their long hours so that he could stay with his son while getting his normal salary (Köppe, 2018).

All of these incidents have raised questions about the behaviour and personality of CEOs, other individuals in leading positions and extraordinary colleagues. Why do FIFA officials practice money laundering? Why do managers insist on their bonuses even if the financial situation is hard and their performance was bad? There are several causes that could answer these questions. In the following I present three important reasons: the globalisation and the increased pressure to perform, the pursuit of money and power, and specific

human personality characteristics. The globalisation and the pursuit of money and power are, however, beyond the scope of this dissertation. Instead, I focus on personality characteristics that play a crucial role. The behaviour of managers, who insisted on their bonuses despite their poor performance begged many questions. The managers were blamed for being self-centred, unhumble and immoral. In the last months, members of the public and scientific community have been discussing about Donald Trump's mental health state. They are convinced that the president of the USA is an extreme narcissist and some scientists and psychiatrist even declare that he suffers from a narcissistic personality disorder (Lozada, 2017; Wolff, 2018). These incidents have increased the public and academic interest in personality traits such as narcissism, humility and morality (Ou et al., 2014; Owens, Wallace, & Waldman, 2015; Pincus & Lukowitsky, 2010; Qureshi, Ashfaq, Hassan, & Imdadullah, 2015; Reina, Zhang, & Peterson, 2014; Rogoza, Wyszynska, Maćkiewicz, & Ciecuch, 2016). However, one question remains: Why did the colleagues in Berlin help the father to their economic disadvantage? One way to address this question is to focus on personality characteristics that promote such a voluntary positive behaviour.

Having depicted this anecdotal evidence about positive and negative behaviour at work, I now consider this topic in a more structural way and put it in an academic framework, the toxic triangle, to classify the following chapters into a comprehensive model.

The toxic triangle

The toxic triangle¹ (Padilla, Hogan, & Kaiser, 2007) of destructive leadership is used to analyse how destructive leadership arises. According to Schyns and Schilling (2013, p. 141) destructive leadership is "a process in which over a longer period of time the activities, experiences and/or relationships of an individual or the members of a group are repeatedly influenced by their supervisor in a way that is perceived as hostile and/or obstructive". Padilla et al. (2007) state that there are three components that play a part in the development of destructive leadership: the destructive leader, the susceptible followers and facilitating environmental conditions (see Figure 1.1).

Previous research has mainly focused on the environmental conditions to figure out situations that trigger the development of destructive leadership, e.g., conflicts (Martinko,

¹The following section is mainly based on the German published article by Helfrich and Steidle (2017). This article is theoretical and derives practical implications.

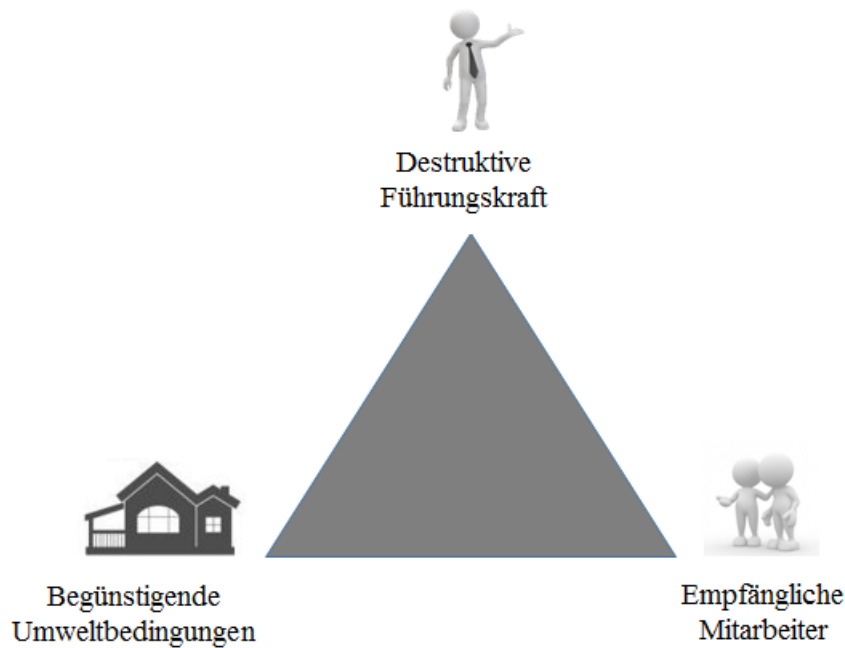


Figure 1.1. The toxic triangle (adapted to Padilla et al., 2007).

Harvey, Brees, & Mackey, 2013) or perceived injustice (Tepper, Duffy, Henle, & Lambert, 2006). However, the influence of leaders and followers and their personality should not be underestimated. In this connection, recent studies suggest that the personality traits of the so called *dark triad* release destructive leadership (Krasikova, Green, & LeBreton, 2013; Mathieu, Neumann, Hare, & Babiak, 2014). These personality traits encompass machiavellianism, narcissism and psychopathy (Spain, Harms, & LeBreton, 2014), all of which are attributed to Donald Trump (Geher, 2016). As an example, a leader with high expressions of machiavellianism, narcissism and psychopathy is incompatible, lacking empathy and hostile in interpersonal relationships (Furnham, Richards, & Paulhus, 2013). Such a behaviour is similar to the description of destructive leadership behaviour and will be perceived as hostile and cumbersome by the followers (Helfrich & Steidle, 2017). Besides the important role of personality characteristics, the inspection of the toxic triangle reveals another crucial aspect: Leader and follower characteristics interact. Several researchers investigated why some followers are not able or just do not want to resist destructive leaders. Einarsen, Aasland, and Skogstad (2007) state that such followers need a feeling of security, group membership and predictability in an uncertain environment. Therefore, they do not resist a destructive leader; instead, they are susceptible and predisposed to destructive leader behaviour.

Based on these aspects, I consider two components of the toxic triangle in this thesis - the leader and the follower - and also focus on their interaction. In the following chapters, I consider different objects of research. To guide the discussion, I examine the personality of leaders, followers or both and investigate their relationship and how follower performance is affected. In Chapter 2, I concentrate on the leader and focus on humility as a personality characteristic. The leader-follower interaction is assessed by the leadership styles. Chapter 3 deals with the followers' role and considers the influence of narcissism. Moreover, follower voice as one form of performance is measured. In Chapter 4, I jointly consider the influence of leaders' and followers' narcissism on relationship conflict, which is an indicator of the leader-follower interaction. Furthermore, organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) is assessed, which is another indicator of performance.

1.1 Classification of humility and narcissism

In the following section, I focus on two personality traits that represent a major topic of this dissertation - humility and narcissism. I integrate the two personality characteristics in an extended form of the circumplex model of personality. Moreover, I present the two constructs in light of their roots and definitions and consider measurement aspects. To close this section, I reflect on earlier trends in psychological research and arrange the research presented in this thesis.

Circumplex model of personality

When looking at previous research of personality traits, some authors (e.g. Goldberg, 1981) illustrated the need for a taxonomy of personality traits. As a result, two forms of taxonomic models have arisen: the factor structure of the Big Five (Costa & McCrae, 1992; Goldberg, 1990) and the circumplex model. The circumplex model characterises traits in a two-dimensional factor space (Hofstee, De Raad, & Goldberg, 1992). Several circumplex models have been provided (Peabody & Goldberg, 1989; Wiggins, 1982). In 1992, Hofstee et al. developed a model that integrates the Big Five and circumplex models. This model is called the Abridged Big Five Dimensional Circumplex (AB5C). The advantage of this integration is that the consistent five broad dimensions of the Big Five can be used, as well

as an unequivocal interpretation of trait clusters can be conducted (Hofstee et al., 1992).² In the AB5C, traits are characterised by their factor loadings on two of the five factors of the Big Five model. Hofstee et al. (1992) first considered more than 500 trait terms to develop their model. However, they reduced the number of trait terms based on factor loadings to get their final model. The resulting model includes ten circumplexes generated by taking two factors as a basis respectively.

Figure 1.2 presents one of these circumplex models that is based on the factors extraversion and agreeableness. The rectangles plotted in the model show that the traits humility and narcissism are included in this circumplex. Humility is clearly described by the adjectives *humble* and *modest*. Narcissism correlates with dominance (Bradlee & Emmons, 1992) and is thus characterised by the adjectives *dominant*, *opinionated*, *domineering*, *boastful* and *forceful*. The circumplex model also reveals that humility and narcissism are located opposite to each other; therefore, they are *antagonistic personality traits*.

Humility

Humility has rich historical roots and is an important characteristic in theology and philosophy (Owens, 2009; Rowatt, Ottenbreit, Nesselrode, & Cunningham, 2002; Tangney, 2000). It is a crucial principle in many major world religions such as Christianity, Islam and Hinduism because humility incorporates the appreciation of knowledge and guidance beyond the self (Owens, 2009). In philosophy, humility plays a central role when discussing about morality (Grenberg, 2005). Today, researchers state that humility is a complex construct (e.g. Morris, Brotheridge, & Urbanski, 2005). Therefore, there is no general definition of humility and authors conceptualise humility in different ways. This might also be the reason that humility is an understudied virtue in positive psychology (D. E. Davis, Worthington, & Hook, 2010). According to Peters, Rowatt, and Johnson (2011), humility is "a characteristic and enduring way of being more humble, modest, respectful, and open-minded than arrogant, self-centred, or conceited". These authors add that humility does not simply represent the absence of negative qualities but also the presence of positive qualities (see also Tangney, 2002). Other definitions of humility refer to an individual's view of himself. In this regard, humble people are said to have an accurate view of themselves (Rowatt

²For more information about the interpretation of the Big Five factors, respective factor loadings and emerging ambiguity, see Hofstee et al. (1992).

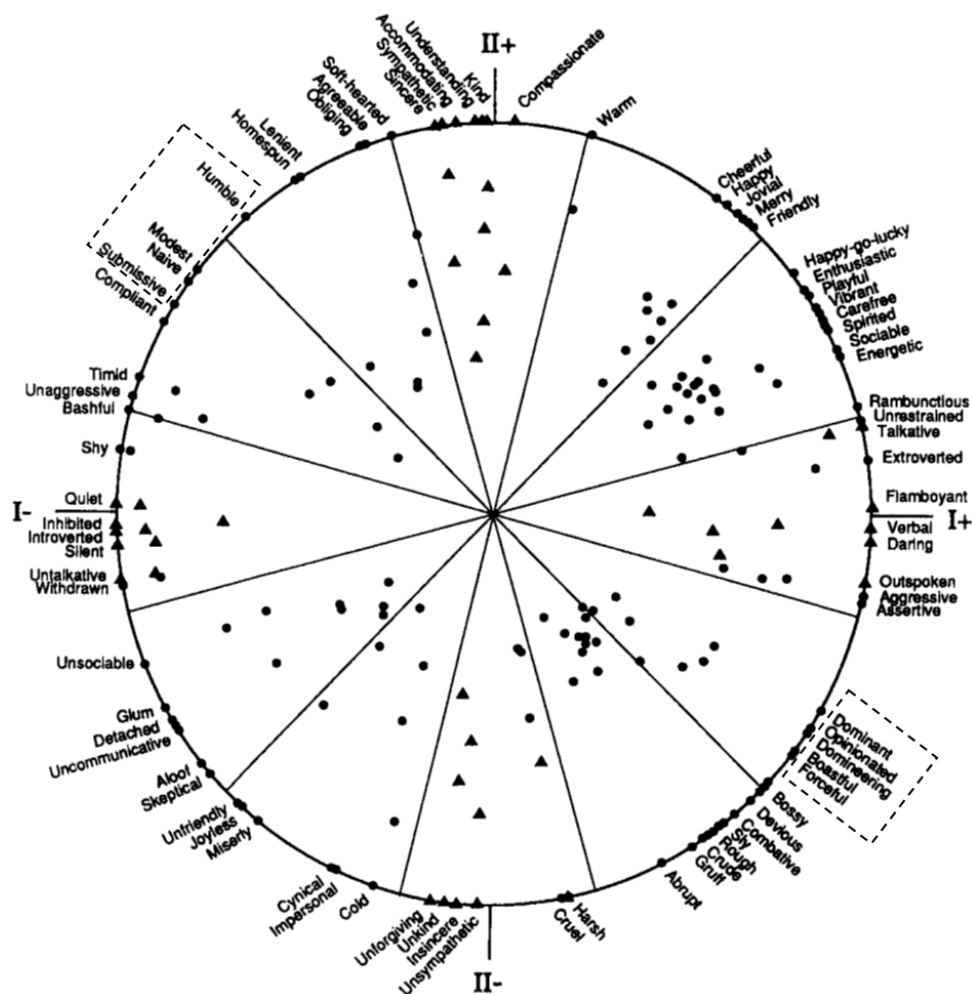


Figure 1.2. Circumplex model of the factors I and II (Hofstee et al., 1992).

Note. The factors I and II represent the factors extraversion and agreeableness of the Big Five model.

et al., 2002; Tangney, 2000, 2002). Another way of defining humility is offered by Peterson and Seligman (2004). The authors argue that humility and modesty are similar and thus they consider the two characteristics as a combined character strength. As humility has gained growing attention in leadership research (Morris et al., 2005; Nielsen, Marrone, & Slay, 2010), several authors defined humble leadership behaviour or introduced the concept of perceived leader humility to underline an interpersonal aspect of humility (Ou et al., 2014; Owens, Johnson, & Mitchell, 2013). Chapter 2 deals with leaders' humility and tackles the topic in more detail.

Besides this lack of clarity relating to the definition of humility, another question is how to measure humility. Researchers have still not agreed on a suitable way to assess humility. This could be another factor that hinders the scientific study of humility (D. E. Davis

et al., 2010). Self-reports do not seem to be appropriate to assess humility. Humble people may not indicate their humility in a self-report questionnaire, simply because they are humble. Instead, unhumble people may brag and state that they are humble. This is known as the humility paradox (D. E. Davis et al., 2011; Owens et al., 2013; Rowatt et al., 2006). The paradox also goes with the hypothesis that to the degree that an individual is truly humble, it will more modestly report its own humility on self-report measures (D. E. Davis et al., 2010).

Although there are several concerns about using self-reports to assess humility, some questionnaires have been created. The strongest self-report measure is the HEXACO-PI (Lee & Ashton, 2004) that includes the Honesty-Humility subscale to measure humility. The Honesty-Humility factor in turn includes the facets sincerity, fairness, greed-avoidance and modesty. This factor is the sixth factor of the HEXACO model besides five other factors that are also included in the Big Five model. However, the HEXACO-PI with the Honesty-Humility factor has demonstrated incremental validity and therefore outperforms questionnaires based on the Big Five model (Ashton & Lee, 2007). Another possibility to measure humility is the use of implicit measures, e.g. Implicit Association Tests (IAT; Greenwald, McGhee, & Schwartz, 1998; Powers, Nam, Rowatt, & Hill, 2007; Rowatt et al., 2006, see also Chapter 2). Implicit measures are useful to overcome socially desirable responding or impression management (e.g. D. E. Davis et al., 2011).

Narcissism

Narcissism dates back to the Roman story of Narcissus, the son of the river god. He saw his own reflection in a pool of water and fell in love with it. When he tried to get as close as possible to the face in the water, he tumbled into it and drowned (Ovid, 43 B.C.-17 A.D.). Later on, narcissism has been treated as a psychological construct (Freud, 1957; Kernberg, 1985) and first identified as a personality disorder (Akhtar & Thomson, 1982; Pincus & Lukowitsky, 2010). According to the Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders (DSM-IV, American Psychiatric Association, 2013), the essential feature of this disorder is "a pervasive pattern of grandiosity (in fantasy or behavior), need for admiration, and lack of empathy, beginning by early adulthood and present in a variety of contexts". Individuals suffering from this disorder have a grandiose sense of self-importance and tend to exaggerate their talents and accomplishments (American Psychiatric Association, 2013).

In recent years, the construct of "normal" narcissism emerged which has been classified as a personality trait (e.g. Paulhus & Williams, 2002; Pincus & Lukowitsky, 2010; Raskin & Hall, 1979). Narcissism as a personality trait is distinguishable by perceived grandiosity, a sense of personal superiority, dominance and a desire for attention (Back et al., 2013; Morf & Rhodewalt, 2001; Paulhus & Williams, 2002). In this context, the characteristic form of narcissism as a personality trait in the general population is *grandiose narcissism*; instead, when referring to pathological narcissism as a narcissistic personality disorder, scientists additionally talk about *vulnerable narcissism* (Back et al., 2013; Cain, Pincus, & Ansell, 2008; Miller et al., 2011). This dissertation focuses on grandiose narcissism as a personality trait and does not consider the narcissistic personality disorder. Narcissism as a personality trait is continuous (e.g., Leckelt, Küfner, Nestler, & Back, 2015), but for ease of presentation, I refer to those individuals with relatively high scores on narcissism when talking about narcissists.

Recent research suggests that narcissism is multidimensional (Corry, Merritt, Mrug, & Pamp, 2008; Grijalva, Harms, Newman, Gaddis, & Fraley, 2015; Kubarych, Deary, & Austin, 2004; Raskin & Terry, 1988). Therefore, researchers recommend investigating narcissism at the facet level and not only considering the global level. Consequently, several facet models of narcissism have been suggested. One categorization of narcissism is the differentiation between *overt* and *covert* narcissism (Hendin & Cheek, 1997; Wink, 1991). Overt narcissism is defined by boisterous, vain, self-aggrandizing and interpersonally exploitative characteristics (Hendin & Cheek, 1997). On the contrary, covert narcissism is characterised by self-focused attention and hypersensitivity (Besser & Priel, 2009; Hendin & Cheek, 1997; Wink, 1991). However, this categorization is criticised because it only differentiates between *modes* of the expression of narcissism (Pincus & Lukowitsky, 2010). Ackerman et al. (2011) found support for a three-factor model of narcissism including the dimensions *Leadership/Authority*, *Grandiose Exhibitionism* and *Entitlement/Exploitativeness*. The first dimension is linked to adaptive outcomes such as reduced impulsive anti-sociality whereas the other dimensions are linked to maladaptive outcomes such as counterproductive school behaviour or machiavellianism (Ackerman et al., 2011).³

Recently, Back et al. (2013) introduced the Narcissistic Admiration and Rivalry Concept (NARC) that differentiates between two facets of narcissism: admiration and rivalry.

³For more information about facet models of narcissism, see (Emmons, 1984, 1987).

As can be seen in Figure 1.3, the model proposes that narcissists try to achieve their overarching goal of maintaining a grandiose self, but follow two different paths in doing so that differ in cognitive, affective-motivational, and behavioural processes (Back et al., 2013). Narcissistic admiration is characterised by striving for uniqueness (affective-motivational), grandiose fantasies (cognitive), and charmingness (behavioural). Narcissistic rivalry can be described by striving for supremacy (affective-motivational), devaluation of others (cognitive), and aggressiveness (behavioural). The advantage of the NARC is that the underlying motivational dynamics of the two facets are considered. Based on these underlying motivational processes, the model predicts the following behavioural dynamics that result in different social interaction outcomes. The structure of the NARC has been validated in a set of seven studies (Back et al., 2013). Additionally, the two facets have been shown to heterogeneously predict other outcomes in different areas of research (Fatfouta, Gerlach, Schröder-Abé, & Merkl, 2015; Lange, Crusius, & Hagemeyer, 2016; Leckelt et al., 2015).

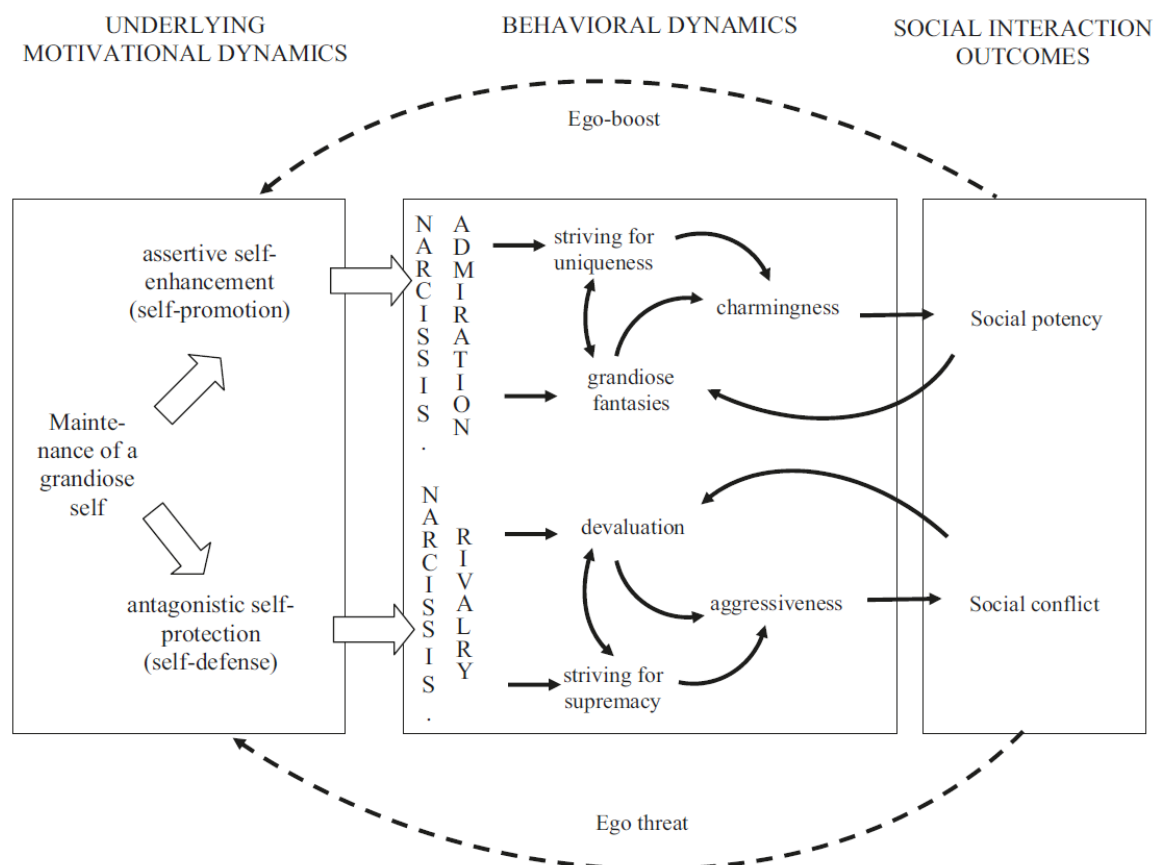


Figure 1.3. The Narcissistic Admiration and Rivalry Concept (NARC; Back et al., 2013).

In psychological research, narcissism is usually measured via self-report questionnaires in non-clinical (often student) samples. In the past, there have been other methods that claimed to assess narcissism, e.g., projective tests such as the Thematic Apperception Test and the Rorschach test (Harder, 1979; Urist, 1977). Subsequently, narcissism has been measured by a Narcissistic Personality Disorder Scale included in the Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory (MMPI; Ashby, Lee, & Duke, 1979; Hathaway & McKinley, 1951). Nowadays, the Narcissistic Personality Inventory by Raskin and Hall (1979) is the most frequently used measure of narcissism (Pincus & Lukowitsky, 2010). This measure consists of forced-choice items designed to measure narcissism as a personality trait. However, the factor structure of the NPI is unstable. Different authors have found structure solutions with three, four and seven factors (Corry et al., 2008; Emmons, 1987; Kubarych et al., 2004; Raskin & Terry, 1988). Recently, based on the NARC, Back et al. (2013) developed the Narcissistic Admiration and Rivalry Questionnaire (NARQ) to assess the two narcissistic facets admiration and rivalry. A study by Leckelt et al. (2017) recently found support for the factor structure using a convenience and a representative sample with more than 16,000 participants in total.

Trends in psychological research

The classification of narcissism and humility into the circumplex model indicates that by analysing these personality characteristics of leaders and followers, I do not consider "good" and "bad" personality characteristics only, but exact antagonists. Moreover, by investigating *both* traits, I also combine previous trends in psychological research: In 2000, Seligman and Csikszentmihalyi (2014) established a framework for a science of the so called *positive psychology* that is based on pioneering work by Deci and Ryan (1985), Erikson (1950) and Maslow (1954). The aim of positive psychology is to spur a change in the focus of psychological research from investigating bad things in life to concentrating on positive aspects such as happiness, well-being, satisfaction, positive emotions or forgiveness, more generally, strengths and virtues (Seligman & Csikszentmihalyi, 2014; Seligman, Steen, Park, & Peterson, 2005; Sheldon & King, 2001). As one typical virtue, humility also plays an important role in positive psychology (Tangney, 2002).

While the development of positive psychology has been attracting many supporters, another trend in research appeared shortly after which focuses on negative aspects of per-

sonality. This trend has been initiated by Paulhus and Williams (2002) who came up with the concept of the *dark triad*, a constellation of three "dark" personality traits - machiavellianism, narcissism and psychopathy. These traits describe personalities which are aversive but still within the normal range of functioning (Furnham et al., 2013). They are intercorrelated but conceptually distinct (Furnham et al., 2013; Paulhus & Williams, 2002). Machiavellianism includes manipulation, cynicism and little moral doubts (Christie & Geis, 1970). Narcissism incorporates a grandiose self and expectations of entitlement (Raskin & Hall, 1979) and psychopathy is characterised by antisocial behaviour, emotional cold, lacking sensation of guilt and impulsive non-conformity (Hare, 1985, see also Helfrich and Steidle (2017)).

In this dissertation, I focus on humility *and* narcissism, thereby integrating aspects of both positive psychology and the dark triad research. By investigating narcissism, I examine one of the dark triad traits (Paulhus & Williams, 2002). Humility is a classic virtue and thus "has a well-deserved place in positive psychology" (Tangney, 2002, p. 417).

1.2 Leader and follower interaction

As seen in the toxic triangle (Padilla et al., 2007), leaders and followers play an important role in leadership processes. Leaders have to plan and organise, develop, delegate, solve problems, control, motivate, inform, reward and support. In doing so, they intentionally exert influence on their followers in order to fulfil organisational tasks and goals (Wegge & Rosenstiel, 2004). Consequently, leaders hold powerful positions and have the ability to shape and affect organisational decisions (Bauer, Erdogan, Liden, & Wayne, 2006). In early leadership research, power-influence approaches of leadership have been paramount. According to these approaches, leadership effectiveness is dependent on the amount of power and types of power a leader possesses (Yukl, 1989). Later on, behaviour and trait approaches appeared that emphasised the relationship between a leader's behaviour and effectiveness and personal attributes of the leader (Berman & Miner, 1985; Fleishman & Harris, 1962; Yukl, 1989). Thereafter, situational theories of leadership arose that considered several factors such as the nature of the work, attributes of followers and characteristics of the external environment (Yukl, 1989). One of these situational theories is the leader-member exchange (LMX) model of leadership, introduced by Dansereau, Graen, and Haga in 1975. Their

approach stood out from older leadership models that included two assumptions: First, all followers that report to the same leader are homogeneous in their perceptions, interpretations and reactions. Second, a leader behaves in the same manner towards each of his followers (Dansereau et al., 1975). Dansereau et al. (1975) argue that the vertical exchange that takes place between a leader and follower is a key aspect in leadership. Therefore, LMX theory states that leadership processes are effective when leaders and followers develop dyadic relationships and gain access to the benefits of these relationships (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1991). This theory is relationship-based, focuses on reciprocal social exchanges (Wang, Law, Hackett, Wang, & Chen, 2005) and drops the homogeneous assumption.

Today, dyadic relationships between leaders and followers are more important than the classic view of the powerful leader and the subordinate follower. This is also reflected in leadership research as leadership theories increasingly focus on the relationship between leaders and follower and the transformation of followers (Bass, 1990; Judge & Piccolo, 2004; Yukl, 1989). Organisations have to be flexible and fast due to increasing competitive conditions (Cummings & Worley, 2013) that are partially caused by globalisation. As a consequence, organisations have new features such as flat hierarchies, self-organising teams, lateral communication and empowered followers (Hales, 2002). Cummings and Worley (2013, p. 516) label this organisational design *organic design* in comparison to *mechanistic designs* that have been prevalent in organisations for more than a century. Nowadays, followers have a higher responsibility and the relationship with the leader can be described as a partnership (Baker, 2007; Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1991).

Due to these changes in organisational structures and the growing importance of leader-follower relationships, it is necessary to investigate how leaders and followers interact. This is underpinned by several authors who state that the interaction is the main aspect that influences work processes (Baker, 2007; Erdogan, Liden, & Kraimer, 2006; Howell & Shamir, 2005; Ilies, Morgeson, & Nahrgang, 2005). Therefore, I do not only consider leaders and followers separately but also focus on their interaction. In this context, I look at perceived leadership behaviour (Chapter 2) and relationship conflict (Chapter 4) as two forms of leader-follower interaction.

1.3 Extra-role behaviour

In the context of the globalisation, the pressure for greater efficiency and performance has reinforced the research interest in follower performance. The latter is typically classified into in-role behaviour (or task performance) and extra-role behaviour (or contextual performance; Van Dyne & LePine, 1998). Task performance is "a function of knowledge, skills, abilities and motivation directed at role-prescribed behavior, such as formal job responsibilities" (Ang et al., 2007, p. 342). Extra-role behaviour instead is positive and discretionary, not specified as in-role descriptions, not rewarded by formal reward systems and not punished when the job incumbent does not exhibit this type of behaviour (Van Dyne & LePine, 1998). Extra-role behaviour supports task performance by improving a social and psychological work environment (Wang et al., 2005). Examples of extra-role behaviour are helping co-workers, speaking out to stop unethical behaviour or making innovative suggestions for change (Van Dyne & LePine, 1998).

Over the last 50 years, the conception of work performance has changed. In the past, researchers focused on jobs and their fixed tasks. Today, a broader understanding of the work context and performance in the dynamic organisational environment is necessary (Griffin, Neal, & Parker, 2007; Ilgen & Hollenbeck, 1991) because of fundamental changes in the IT sector and organisational culture, e.g., the emergence of the start-up culture. Therefore, strict hierarchical structures and individualised jobs that have been present in the past have changed into autonomous team-based work structures that make individual initiative and cooperation more important (Ilgen & Pulakos, 1999; LePine, Erez, & Johnson, 2002). Due to the dynamic environments, it is not possible to specify all desired follower behaviour. Thus, leaders especially value extra-role behaviour (Van Dyne & LePine, 1998). Consequently, researchers' and managers' interest in extra-role behaviour has been increasing (Borman & Motowidlo, 1993; LePine et al., 2002; LePine, Hanson, Borman, & Motowidlo, 2000; Organ & Ryan, 1995).

Due to the digitalisation, improved information systems and control mechanisms (Piccoli, Powell, & Ives, 2004), the bigger part of task performance can be controlled. Improved technologies allow to control work processes that are virtual and organisations can derive employee performance from data assessing customer satisfaction (Ittner & Larcker, 2003). Besides this digital form of control, task performance can also be monitored by behaviour control (Piccoli et al., 2004). According to Kirsch (1997), behaviour control refers to spe-

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cific articulated rules and procedures, that, if followed, result in desired outcomes. In this context, followers' task performance can be evaluated in the light of these rules and procedures. Conversely, extra-role behaviour cannot be controlled by information systems and control mechanisms. There are no specified rules concerning this kind of behaviour because it is voluntary and not part of the formal job requirements (e.g., G. Murphy, Athanasou, & King, 2002).

Extra-role behaviour becomes more and more important in the changing work environment. As it cannot be monitored via information systems, it is the leaders' task to motivate employees to perform such behaviour. Thus, it is necessary to investigate how leaders can influence their followers in order to enhance extra-role behaviour.

Chapter 2

Implicit humility and trust in leader: A dual pathway model via perceived humble leadership and abusive supervision

2.1 Introduction

Scandals in business including various illegal acts, inappropriate accounting and executives that insist on the payment of their bonuses despite poor organisational performance (Giroux, 2008) have raised questions about our contemporary leader's humility and trust in leadership. Indeed, a crisis of confidence concerning trust in leaders and their humility has emerged. Nowadays, relationships in organisations have become increasingly flat and followers are responsible for autonomous decision-making (Burke, Sims, Lazzara, & Salas, 2007). Therefore, trust among followers is becoming a steadily more important concept in organisations. Moreover, trust in leader is paramount for making organisations' functioning smooth (e.g., Kramer, 1999). At the same time humility has gained growing attention as a desirable personality characteristic for a leader (e.g., Mayo, 2017; Morris et al., 2005; Nielsen et al., 2010). Personality characteristics such as dominance and extraversion that have been associated with the prototype of a leader in the past (e.g., Judge, Bono, Ilies, & Gerhardt, 2002; Mann, 1959) are not considered to be most important anymore. Moreover, the increasing unpredictability and unknowability organisations face (Weick, 2001) requires leaders to be humbler and less overconfident. Ou et al. (2014) defined humble leadership behaviour as a willingness to seek accurate selfknowledge, the appreciation of others as being like oneself and being less self-focused and more engaged in self-transcendent pursuits.

Similarly, Owens et al. (2013) introduced the concept of *perceived leader humility* which refers to humble interpersonal leadership behaviour. Recently, scholars have started to investigate the impact of leader humility. For example, perceived leader humility has been linked to various positive organisational outcomes such as increased follower performance, job engagement, job satisfaction, and less voluntary turnover (Ou et al., 2014; Owens & Hekman, 2016; Owens et al., 2013). Nevertheless, antecedents of perceived leader behaviour have not been investigated yet.

Given the favourable effects of humility on organisational outcomes (e.g., Collins, 2001) researchers have suggested examining individual differences that promote the expression of perceived humble leader behaviour (Kachorek et al., 2004; Morris et al., 2005; Owens, 2009; Owens & Hekman, 2012; Peterson & Seligman, 2004). However, the lack of empirical investigation hinders the theoretical understanding of the construct. In addition, it is difficult to take practical measures to foster humble leadership behaviour in the organisational context. Therefore, we examine antecedents of perceived leader behaviour and investigate the influence of a leader's trait humility.

When investigating humility in leadership, an easy attempt to find out whether a leader is humble or not is to simply ask him or her (e.g., by using self-report measures). Nevertheless, the measurement of individual differences in humility via self-report faces some challenges. One fundamental problem is the paradox that occurs when humility is self-reported (Owens et al., 2013): Individuals with a high level of humility might not indicate that they are humble when asked explicitly, whereas individuals with a low level of humility (i.e., hubris) might indicate that they are humble. Therefore, Tangney (2002) argued that humility is a personality trait, which is inaccessible to self-reports. One possibility to avoid this problem is the use of indirect measures to assess humility, e.g., via an Implicit Association Test (IAT; Greenwald, Nosek, & Banaji, 2003). Therefore, we developed a Humility IAT to assess implicit humility. Indirect measures are designed to assess implicit, or unconscious, aspects of personality, whereas direct measures are supposed to directly measure explicit (e.g., conscious) self-perceptions of personality (Bing, LeBreton, Davison, Migetz, & James, 2007; De Cuyper et al., 2017). Several studies found that indirect measures (e.g., IAT) predicted specific behaviour beyond direct measures (e.g., self-reports; Back, Schmukle, & Egloff, 2009; Perugini & Leone, 2009; Rowatt et al., 2006).

Bearing in mind the humility measurement paradox, we suggest that implicit humility

better predicts leadership behaviour and organisational outcomes than explicit variables of humility. Drawing on DeRue, Nahrgang, Wellman, and Humphrey (2011), who argue that leader traits predict effectiveness via leader behaviour, we assume that implicit humility predicts trust in leader via two leadership styles: We propose that implicit humility positively predicts perceived leader humility and negatively predicts abusive supervision beyond explicit humility. Taken together, we expect that the relationship between implicit humility and trust in leader is mediated by perceived leader humility and abusive supervision.

Our research makes several contributions: First, we developed an indirect measure of humility. By doing so, we offer a solution for the paradox that occurs when humility is measured via self-report (Owens et al., 2013). As self-reports of one's own humility may be oxymoronic (Tangney, 2002), we indirectly measure implicit humility and thereby circumvent resulting threats to the construct validity of self-reported explicit humility. In addition, we extend past work on the assessment of humility (Nielsen et al., 2010; Rowatt et al., 2006; Tangney, 2002) by developing an IAT of humility based on the interpersonal aspects of humility (Ou et al., 2014; Owens et al., 2013). Second, we investigate implicit humility as antecedent of perceived leader humility and contribute to the growing literature of humble leadership, which to date has mostly focused on its consequences (e.g., Owens et al., 2013, 2015). To our knowledge, we are the first to examine antecedents of perceived leader humility. Thus, we expand the theoretical knowledge of perceived leader humility and help understand why some leaders show humble leader behaviour while others do not. Third, we examine implicit humility as antecedent of abusive supervision. Thus, we complement the research on supervisor-level antecedents of abusive leader behaviour and respond to calls for an increased focus on personality characteristics causing abusive leader behaviour (Martinko et al., 2013; Tepper, 2007). Moreover, investigating implicit antecedents of abusive supervision by using indirect measures may be of particular relevance as indirect measures can predict specific behaviour beyond direct measures (Perugini & Leone, 2009; Rowatt et al., 2006). Last, we consider multiple processes through which implicit humility affects trust in leader by integrating two mediators in our research model, thereby responding to recent calls to take alternative channels of influence into account (Fischer, Dietz, & Antonakis, 2016). Doing so, we counteract the specious mediator problem that occurs when mediators other than the one described in the model are left out (Fischer et al., 2016).

2.2 Theory

2.2.1 The concept of humility

The concept of humility has a rich background in theology and philosophy (Emmons, 2000; Rowatt et al., 2002; Tangney, 2000). It is an important concept in many religions and considered a virtue in most philosophical treatments (Emmons, 2000; Exline & Geyer, 2004). Nowadays, scientists suggest that humility is a complex construct (e.g., Morris et al., 2005) making it difficult to reach a consensus about the definition of humility (Owens et al., 2013). Richards (1992) explains that humility can be understood as accurate assessment of one's abilities and keeping those assessments in perspective. Humble individuals thus neither hold grandiose nor self-deprecating views of themselves. Instead, they have a realistic understanding of who they are (Nielsen et al., 2010). Due to the similarity between humility and modesty, Peterson and Seligman (2004) view the two characteristics as a combined character strength. They understand humility as a positive, stable and enduring trait. Recently, scholars started to investigate humility in the organisational context (Ou et al., 2014; Owens et al., 2013). They focused their definition of humility on expressed humble behaviour and typically examined how others perceive this behaviour (see also Owens & Hekman, 2012, 2016). Ou et al. (2014) adopted a self-experience framework to define humility and proposed that individuals find out who they are through seeing the self in relation to the world and to others and experiencing the self by what one does. Owens et al. (2013) outline in their definition that humility includes (a) a manifested willingness to view oneself accurately, (b) a displayed appreciation of others' strengths and contributions, and (c) teachability. Ou et al. (2014) add that humility entails three more dimensions, namely low self-focus, self-transcendent pursuit and transcendent self-concept.

Lately, there is an emerging consensus concerning those dimensions of humility (Oc, Bashshur, Daniels, Greguras, & Diefendorff, 2015). Therefore, we follow the reflections of Ou et al. (2014) and Owens et al. (2013) to define humility. Nevertheless, we also consider humility from the personality trait perspective and therefore investigate a person's individual trait humility.

2.2.2 Measuring humility

The easiest way to gain information about a person's humility is to simply ask him or her about it. Such direct measures, e.g., self-reports or interviews, are commonly used to assess explicit personality. Instead, indirect measures such as the IAT (Greenwald et al., 2003), can be used to measure implicit personality (Back et al., 2009). Existing self-report measures assess humility along with honesty (i.e., honesty-humility; Lee & Ashton, 2004) and modesty (Costa & McCrae, 1992; Peterson & Seligman, 2004). Although those self-report measures are widely used to assess humility, there are serious challenges when measuring this construct in this way: Self-reports of humility may contain varying amounts of social desirability (de Vries, Zettler, & Hilbig, 2014), thus confounding what these scales measure and what they are supposed to measure. Closely linked to this, narcissists sometimes create the appearance of humility to hide their arrogance (American Psychiatric Association, 2013; Owens, Rowatt, & Wilkins, 2011). Given that humility involves forgetting the self (Tangney, 2000) and not regarding oneself as more special than one is (N. Park, Peterson, & Seligman, 2004), a genuinely humble person will not focus on his or her humble qualities or *report* them (Owens et al., 2013). Tangney (2002) also stated "humility may represent a rare personality construct that is simply unamenable to direct self-report methods" (p. 415). Based on the aforementioned aspects, a paradox arises (D. E. Davis et al., 2010; Owens et al., 2013): Individuals with high levels of humility might not indicate that they are humble when asked explicitly, whereas individuals with low levels might indicate that they are. Therefore, we suggest that it is important to differentiate between explicit and implicit humility, and to develop alternatives to self-report measures of humility.

Implicit and explicit humility.

Several scholars argued that personality consists of both explicit and implicit elements (Back et al., 2009; Johnson, Tolentino, Rodopman, & Cho, 2010). Explicit personality comprises conscious information processing, while implicit personality involves automatic and non-conscious information processing. Scholars suggest that the conscious reflective processes include the perception and categorization of situations and the deliberate realisation of behavioural options. They describe the non-conscious impulsive information processes as situational cues that are automatically processed and that these processes can lead to automatic spontaneous performed actions (Back et al., 2009; Strack & Deutsch, 2004). Because of the humility measurement paradox, we believe that differentiating between *implicit*

and *explicit humility* is important. Consistent with prior research, we argue that a genuinely humble person who truly forgets the self (Myers, 1995) and does not focus on his or her humble qualities (Rowatt et al., 2006) will have a pronounced implicit humility. This person is unconsciously respectful of others and modest (Powers et al., 2007). Conversely, we believe that persons with a pronounced explicit humility deliberately assign a high importance to humility. These individuals consciously consider humility to be a virtue and evaluate humble traits (e.g., down-to-earth, modest) as important (Elliott, 2010). Implicit humility is similar to its explicit counterpart, but more affective rather than cognitive, and its nature is rather non-conscious.

With regard to the humility measurement paradox, we suggest that indirectly measured (implicit) humility may be better suited to assess humility than self-reported (explicit) humility. Perugini and Leone (2009) showed that an implicit moral self-concept - a trait that is strongly linked to humility (Emmons, 2000) - uniquely predicted individuals cheating behaviour and faithfully reporting of an outcome implying negative consequences. However, explicit morality did not predict cheating behaviour. Based on these results, we propose that implicit humility will have incremental validity in predicting behaviour beyond explicit humility. Specifically, we argue that implicit humility predicts positive and negative leader behaviour above and beyond explicit humility.

2.2.3 Implicit humility and perceived leader humility

Many scholars emphasised that humility is compatible with strong and effective leadership promoting good relationships between leaders and followers, thereby fostering positive work outcomes (Friedman & Langbert, 2000; Nielsen et al., 2010; Owens & Hekman, 2012). Morris et al. (2005) argue that humility is the driving force for leaders who exercise humble leadership behaviour. Initial research on leader humility describes *perceived leader humility* as an interpersonal leadership behaviour that emerges in social contexts (see descriptions above; Ou et al., 2014; Owens et al., 2013).

Most research to date has investigated positive consequences of perceived leader humility such as increased follower performance, job engagement, job satisfaction, and less voluntary turnover (Ou et al., 2014; Owens & Hekman, 2016; Owens et al., 2013). Given the benefits of perceived leader humility, researchers have suggested to investigate individual differences such as self-esteem, emotional awareness and morality, which should

promote the expression of humility (Morris et al., 2005; Owens, 2009; Owens & Hekman, 2012; Peterson & Seligman, 2004). Yet, the examination of antecedents of perceived leader humility remained at a theoretical stage, and we are not aware of any study that empirically investigated its antecedents. Therefore, we focused on implicit humility as an important personality characteristic in the prediction of perceived leader humility.

We defined trait (implicit and explicit) humility in line with recent research (Ou et al., 2014; Owens et al., 2013), which emphasised the interpersonal aspect of humility and which usually measured perceived leadership humility via follower ratings. Therefore, the definitions of trait humility and perceived leader humility are overlapping. Due to the aforementioned measurement problem of explicit (or self-rated) humility, we propose that, in particular, implicit humility will be positively related to perceived leader humility, but not explicit humility. For example, as humble people are willing to strive for accurate self-knowledge and are open to feedback (Chancellor & Lyubomirsky, 2013; Tangney, 2002), a leader's implicit humility should result in follower perceptions of humility. Moreover, we expect that an implicit humble leader would value the opinions and perspectives of others (Ou et al., 2014; Tangney, 2000), thereby increasing perceived leader humility. Per definition, implicit humility embraces a low self-focus (Ou et al., 2014), which we expect to be related to perceived leader humility. Rowatt et al. (2006) explain that a humble person does not focus on his or her humble qualities and is unconsciously respectful of others and modest in his or her own appearance. Further, humble people also accept that something is greater than the self (Ou et al., 2014). These aspects of implicit humility can be linked to the facets self-transcendent pursuit and transcendent self-concept of perceived leader humility (Ou et al., 2014). In support of our reasoning, trait and behavioural theories of leadership (DeRue et al., 2011; Judge et al., 2002) found that leader personality (e.g., Big 5) influences corresponding (perceived) leader behaviour. Moreover, theoretical accounts and research show that indirect and direct measures of similar individual characteristics each tap unique sources of variance and predict distinct behaviour (Asendorpf, Banse, & Mücke, 2002; Back et al., 2009; Dietl, Meurs, & Blickle, 2017; Greenwald, Poehlman, Uhlmann, & Banaji, 2009). This underpins our idea that implicit humility will predict perceived leader humility beyond explicit humility. For example, Rowatt et al. (2006) found that implicit humility was positively related to actual course grades, an indicator of one's willingness to learn, and negatively related to narcissism. Taken together, we hypothesise:

Hypothesis 1: Implicit humility positively predicts perceived leader humility above and beyond explicit humility.

2.2.4 Implicit humility, perceived leader humility and trust

Trust is paramount to the functioning of organisations (Kramer, 1999; McGregor, 1967). Followers having high levels of trust in their leader exert bigger effort to work on their tasks and are more likely to engage in organizational citizenship behavior (OCB; Burke et al., 2007; Organ, Podsakoff, & MacKenzie, 2005). Mayer, Davis, and Schoorman (1995, p. 712) define trust as "the willingness of a party to be vulnerable to the actions of another party based on the expectation that the other will perform a particular action important to the trustor, irrespective of the ability to monitor or control that other party". The current study focuses on trust in leader. This concept reflects followers' belief that the leader will not engage in harmful behaviour toward them (Gambetta, 1988). Research demonstrated that trust in leader is linked to positive consequences such as organisational performance, team performance, OCB and job satisfaction (J. H. Davis, Schoorman, Mayer, & Tan, 2000; Dirks, 2000; Dirks & Ferrin, 2002).

Previous studies found that positive leadership behaviour facilitates the development of trust in leader (Dirks & Ferrin, 2002; Engelbrecht, Heine, & Mahembe, 2015; Ng & Feldman, 2015). For example, a meta-analysis identified transformational leadership and participative decision making as antecedents of trust in leader (Dirks & Ferrin, 2002). This is consistent with research indicating that leader benevolence expressed via positive leader behaviour is an antecedent of trust in leader (Burke et al., 2007).

We believe that, in particular, perceived leader humility should strongly predict trust in leader. There are apparent similarities between the six behaviour components of perceived leader humility (Ou et al., 2014; Owens et al., 2013) and the three components of trust described by Mayer et al. (1995) – ability, integrity and benevolence. Humble leaders are open to feedback, want to learn from their followers and are not self-focused. This behaviour should indicate their ability to lead and elicit higher levels of trust in leader. In addition, they do not react defensively when others criticise them and appreciate their followers' strengths and contributions, signaling their benevolence. In support, scholars argue that leaders gain trust from their followers by valuing their opinions, showing respect for them, and by understanding their individual strengths and weaknesses (Conger, Kanungo,

& Menon, 2000; P. M. Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Moorman, & Fetter, 1990). Moreover, leaders with a self-transcendent pursuit are aware that something is greater than they are which protects them from inordinate ego (Peterson & Seligman, 2004). Based on these arguments and *Hypothesis 1* we hypothesise:

Hypothesis 2: Perceived leader humility mediates the positive relationship between implicit humility and trust in leader.

Consistent with the leader trait paradigm (DeRue et al., 2011) – suggesting that leader traits predict leadership effectiveness – we propose that trait implicit humility predicts trust in leader beyond explicit humility. In support, implicit humility predicted forgiveness (Powers et al., 2007) which in turn has been linked to trust in leader (Basford, Offermann, & Behrend, 2014). Moreover, Weick (2001, p. 105) stated that admitting, "I don't know" is a sign of strength and fosters trust in leader. Building on these arguments, we argue:

Hypothesis 3: Implicit humility positively predicts trust in leader above and beyond explicit humility.

2.2.5 Implicit humility and abusive supervision

Scholars have called not only to investigate positive leadership behaviour but also destructive leader behaviour (Krasikova et al., 2013). Following this vein, we focus on abusive supervision, which is defined as subordinates' perceptions of the extent to which "supervisors engage in the sustained display of hostile verbal and non-verbal behaviour, excluding physical contact" (Tepper, 2000, p. 178). Ample research has examined the negative ramifications of abusive supervision such as decreased employee performance and well-being (Mitchell & Ambrose, 2007; Schyns & Schilling, 2013; Tepper, Moss, & Duffy, 2011). However, much less is known about leader traits as antecedents of abusive supervision (Martinko et al., 2013; Y. Zhang & Bednall, 2016). Previous research identified some leader traits such as machiavellianism, honesty-humility, agreeableness, and emotional intelligence which are related to abusive supervision (Breevaart & de Vries, 2017; Kiazad, Restubog, Zagenczyk, Kiewitz, & Tang, 2010; Y. Zhang & Bednall, 2016). To the best of our knowledge, there is no study investigating implicit humility as antecedent of abusive supervision. We propose that implicit humility negatively predicts abusive supervision. We believe that humility and arrogance are opposite personality traits and argue that low implicit humility corresponds to high implicit arrogance. The latter should lead to abusive

behaviour such as putting persons down in front of others or making a fool of others. In support of our logic, Rowatt et al. (2006) developed a Humility-Arrogance IAT to measure implicit humility relative to arrogance among students. Humility and arrogance are seen as opposite personality traits (A. P. Gregg, Mahadevan, & Sedikides, 2017) and are therefore suitable to make up the two opposing categories of an IAT. Rowatt et al. (2006) argued that individuals with high implicit humility should associate humility-related concepts with the self more quickly than arrogant-related concepts. Thus, a person with low implicit humility associates arrogant-related concepts with the self more quickly than humility-related concepts. Following Weiss (1973), who argues that there is a continuum ranging from humility to arrogance, this person should possess a relatively high implicit arrogance. And, research on arrogant leaders indicated that an inflated self-view is related to abusive behaviour (Johnson, Venus, Lanaj, Mao, & Chang, 2012). Moreover, an implicit moral self-concept predicted unethical behaviour (i.e., cheating) over and above explicit morality (Perugini & Leone, 2009). Based on the similarity between a moral self and humility (Emmons, 2000), we expect that low implicit humility predicts a form of unethical behaviour, namely abusive supervision. Based on this reasoning, we suggest that:

Hypothesis 4: Implicit humility negatively predicts abusive supervision above and beyond explicit humility.

2.2.6 Implicit humility, abusive supervision and trust

Consistent with past research, we argue that abusive supervision diminishes trust in leader. According to Nyhan and Marlowe (1997, p. 615) trust is the "level of confidence that one individual has in another to act in a fair, ethical, and predictable manner". In contrast, abusive leaders regularly display hostile verbal and non-verbal behaviour (Tepper, 2000). Bies and Tripp (1996) suggested different actions that violate trust, one of them was abusive authority. Moreover, Vogel et al. (2015) argued that especially in the western culture, abusive supervision is perceived as less fair, suggesting that abusive leaders are less trustworthy. In support, research found a negative relationship between abusive supervision and trust in leader (Duffy & Ferrier, 2003; Vogel et al., 2015). Integrating these findings with *Hypothesis 4*, we propose that:

Hypothesis 5: Abusive supervision mediates the positive relationship between implicit humility and trust in leader.

Before we tested our hypotheses in the main study, we ran a pilot study to validate our indirect measure of implicit humility (Humility IAT). We tested its reliability, and investigated the convergent and discriminant validity of the Humility IAT by comparing the implicit scores with explicit measures of humility. In the main study, we tested our hypotheses and examined relations between implicit humility, perceived leader humility, abusive supervision and trust in leader above and beyond explicit humility.

2.3 Pilot study

In accordance with previous research (Greenwald et al., 2009), we expected a low correlation between the implicit and explicit measure of humility. This would indicate that implicit and explicit humility differ from each other, and point to the discriminant validity of the Humility IAT. To test if the attributes used in the Humility IAT correspond to our definition of humility (Ou et al., 2014), participants rated their leaders on these attributes and in addition on an established scale of leader humility (Ou et al., 2014). We expected a high correlation between these two measures of perceived leader humility. This would provide empirical evidence on the convergent validity of the attributes used in the IAT.

2.3.1 Method

Participants and Procedure.

A diverse sample of employees from a broad range of organisations was recruited via invitation from an online panel provider.¹ 92 employees participated in the study in exchange for monetary compensation of 2 euros. 12 participants were eliminated due to missing data and two participants were excluded because of IAT disqualification criteria.² The final sample consisted of 78 participants (50 male, $M_{\text{age}} = 38.46$, $SD = 9.81$). All participants worked full-time and 41.88 hours per week on average. Participants first answered demographic variables and then rated their leaders' humble behaviour. Then, after rating their own explicit humility they were forwarded to the IAT conducted with Inquisit 4 (2015).

¹The panel provider used was Respondi AG (see also <http://www.respondi.com>).

²Following Greenwald et al. (2003), we decided a priori to use as disqualification criteria all response latencies with error rates of 30% or above (2 participants) or IAT protocols for whom more than 10% of trials have latency less than 300 milliseconds (no participant).

Measures.

Explicit humility. Participants provided self-ratings for the 10 adjectives (humble, willing to learn, appreciative, respectful, down-to-earth, arrogant, ignorant, pejorative, boastful, condescending), which we also used in the Humility IAT. We used a 5-point Likert-scale (1: *strongly disagree* – 5: *strongly agree*; $\alpha = .80$).

Implicit humility. The IAT (Greenwald et al., 1998) is a commonly used and generally accepted method for capturing implicit personality (Back et al., 2009). Leaders completed an IAT on humility (Humility IAT) to measure implicit humility. The IAT is a computer-based task requiring participants to assign rapidly target stimuli to categories using a computer keyboard. Target and attribute stimuli and the task sequence are displayed in Table 2.1. The target stimuli were presented from the *Me* (I, my, mine, me, self) and *Other* (their, other, them, you, your) categories. The attribute stimuli were presented from the *Humble* (humble, willing to learn, appreciative, respectful, down-to-earth) and *Arrogant* (arrogant, ignorant, pejorative, boastful, condescending) categories. We aligned the selected attribute stimuli of the IAT with our definition of humility that is similar to that of Ou et al. (2014). The IAT procedure comprised five blocks. The blocks 3 and 5 each consisted of 80 critical trials, and each other block of 20 trials. In the critical trials, participants categorized items into two combined categories, each including the attribute and the target concept assigned to the same key. For example, in block 5, items related to *Me* and *Arrogant* required a response on the left key, whereas items related to *Other* and *Humble* required a response on the right key. We scored the IAT using the improved scoring algorithm (so-called D1 measure; Greenwald et al., 2003). The scoring algorithm represents the mean reaction time difference between the two critical blocks 3 and 5 (initial combined task vs. reversed combined task; see Table 2.1) in individual effect size units. The higher the IAT score – the strength of association between humility related adjectives and the self – the higher is the estimated implicit humility. We estimated the reliability by separating the IAT into three sections ($\alpha = .80$; Cunningham, Preacher, & Banaji, 2001).

Perceived leader humility. Followers rated their leaders' humble behaviour on the 19-item other-report scale of Ou et al. (2014), using a 6-point Likert-scale (1: *strongly disagree* – 6: *strongly agree*; $\alpha = .91$). This scale captures the dimensions of willingness to view oneself accurately ("This person acknowledges when others have more knowledge and skills than him- or herself"), appreciation of others' strengths and contributions ("This per-

son often compliments others on their strengths"), teachability ("This person is open to the ideas of others"), self-transcendent pursuit ("This person has a sense of personal mission in life"), transcendent self-concept ("This person believes that not everything is under his/her control ") and low self-focus ("This person keeps a low profile"). In addition, followers assessed their leaders' humble behaviour with the same 10 adjectives used for the explicit humility self-report (humble, willing to learn, appreciative, respectful, down-to-earth, arrogant, ignorant, pejorative, boastful, condescending). We employed a 5-point Likert-scale (1: *strongly disagree* - 5: *strongly agree*; $\alpha = .90$).

Table 2.1

Humility IAT: Task Sequence and Categories.

Block	No. of trials	Task	Response key assignment	
			Left key	Right key
1	20	Attribute discrimination	Me	Other
2	20	Target discrimination	Humble	Arrogant
3	80	Initial combined task	Humble or Me	Arrogant or Other
4	20	Reversed target discrimination	Arrogant	Humble
5	80	Reversed combined task	Arrogant or Me	Humble or Other

Note. Items used for categories: "Me": I, me, my, self; "Other": other, they, them, their; "Humble": humble, willing to learn, appreciative, respectful, down-to-earth; "Arrogant": arrogant, ignorant, pejorative, boastful, condescending. The original German stimuli can be obtained from the authors.

2.3.2 Results and discussion

Table 2.2 shows descriptive statistics, correlations, and reliabilities. The IAT displayed good internal consistency. As expected, participants' implicit humility and explicit humility were statistically independent from each other ($r = .14$, $p = .23$). The size of the correlation is consistent with the implicit-explicit correlations for personality traits (average $r = .17$, Greenwald et al., 2009). The low correlation points to the discriminant validity of the implicit measure. In addition, it suggests that the IAT measures individual differences in implicit humility that are not accessible through explicit self-ratings of humility. Finally, we found a high correlation between the two measures assessing perceived leader humility, Ou et al.'s (2014) scale and followers' ratings on the 10 adjectives from the Humility IAT

2.4. MAIN STUDY

($r = .78, p < .001$). This suggests that the adjectives used in the Humility IAT correspond to our definition of humility.

Table 2.2

Descriptive Statistics, Correlations, and Reliabilities

Variables	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	1	2	3	4
1. Explicit humility (adjectives, self)	4.01	0.49	.80			
2. Perceived leader humility (adjectives)	3.55	0.74	.12	.90		
3. Perceived leader humility (Ou et al., 2014)	3.78	0.74	-.10	.78**	.91	
4. Implicit humility (self)	0.58	0.35	.14	-.11	-.17	.78

Note. $N = 78$ employees. The numbers in bold on the diagonal are reliability coefficients. Implicit humility was measured by the Humility IAT.

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

2.4 Main study

We tested our hypotheses in the main study. Leaders provided self-ratings of explicit humility and were administered the Humility IAT. Followers reported their leaders' abusive supervision and humble behaviour at time 1. At time 2, followers indicated their trust in leader.

2.4.1 Method

Participants and Procedure.

To test our hypotheses, we conducted a field study using multi-source and multi-wave data. We recruited a diverse sample³ of German leaders and followers from a broad range of organisations and occupational backgrounds. Upon agreement, leaders received an e-mail including a link to an online survey. After completing self-report scales (assessing explicit humility and explicit modesty), leaders were asked to provide the email address of one of their followers, before leaders were forwarded to the Humility IAT. Leaders should report

³The current study was part of a greater data collection effort. The sample was also used in another study. However, the other study addresses a different research question and uses a different theoretical framework. In addition, there is no variable overlap in the two studies.

the email of the follower whose surname is the second in the alphabetic order of all his/her followers. This procedure was designed to ensure that the leaders' choice of followers would be unaffected by their expectations of favourable evaluations. After finishing the IAT leaders reported their demographics. Subsequently, followers were invited to complete the first questionnaire (assessing perceived leader humility and abusive supervision). After four days, followers were asked to complete a second questionnaire (assessing trust in leader). We used generated identification codes to match leaders' and followers' questionnaires.

Of the invited leaders, 569 started the online questionnaire and 364 leaders provided complete data (64.0 % completion rate). Of 400 followers who started the survey at time 1, 375 completed it (93.8% completion rate). Of 348 followers who started the questionnaire at time 2, 330 followers finished it (94.8% completion rate). In total, we matched 286 leader-follower dyads. We eliminated 12 leaders using the same IAT disqualification criteria as in the pilot study and one leader who was identified as an outlier in the IAT score.⁴

Further, we removed data of 23 leaders because they indicated their own email addresses instead of their followers' or sent the follower invitation emails to their family members or friends. The final sample consisted of 250 matched leader-follower dyads. 27.6% of the leaders were female and the leaders' average age was 46.87 years ($SD = 9.92$). 55.6% of the followers were female and the followers' average age was 37.42 years ($SD = 10.73$). The majority of leaders worked in the automotive industry (15.2%), but leaders were also employed in industries such as commerce (8.0%), engineering (6.0%), civil service (5.6%), electrical industry (5.6%) and healthcare (4.4%).

Measures.

Implicit humility. To measure implicit humility, leaders completed the same Humility IAT as in the pilot study. We estimated the reliability of the Humility IAT by separating the IAT into three test sections (Cunningham et al., 2001). The internal consistency was $\alpha = .75$.

Explicit humility. Leaders provided self-ratings for the same 10 adjectives from the Humility IAT used in the pilot study ($\alpha = .80$). We also used another indicator of explicit humility: Leaders assessed their modesty with six modesty/humility items from the 240-item VIA Survey (items 21, 45, 93, 117, 141, 165; Peterson & Park, 2009; Peterson &

⁴We eliminated one participant whose IAT score was outside Tukey's outer fences (Tukey's range test; Tukey, 1977). We calculated the lower fence by subtracting 1.5 times the interquartile range from the first quartile, and for the upper fence, we added 1.5 times the interquartile range to the third quartile.

Seligman, 2004) using a 5-point rating scale (1: *strongly disagree* – 5: *strongly agree*; $\alpha = .78$). A sample item was "I do not like to stand out in a crowd".

Perceived leader humility. Followers reported their leaders' humble behaviour on the 19-item other-report scale developed by Ou et al. (2014), which we used in the pilot study ($\alpha = .89$).

Abusive supervision. Followers completed the 15 items of Tepper's (2000) abusive supervision measure using a 5-point scale (1: *never* – 5: *very often*; $\alpha = .84$) to indicate the frequency with which their leaders perform behaviour such as "puts me down in front of others" or "reminds me of my past mistakes and failures".

Trust in leader. Followers reported their trust in leader on four items of the German Workplace Trust Survey (G-WTS; Lehmann-Willenbrock & Kauffeld, 2010) that is derived from the Workplace Trust Survey (WTS; Ferres, 2002). We used a 6-point Likert scale (1: *strongly disagree* – 6: *strongly agree*; $\alpha = .84$). A sample item was "My supervisor trusts his/her employees to work without excessive supervision".

Analytic strategy.

We conducted a two-step procedure to test our hypotheses (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988). We first conducted confirmatory factor analyses to assess the fit of the measurement model and then the hypothesised relations in the latent variable model using a structural equation model. We used two error correction strategies to adjust for measurement error. We combined items into parcels, and then used a latent structural equation model instead of manifest path analysis (Cheung & Lau, 2008; Cole & Preacher, 2014). Latent variable models can be advantageous in reducing variance caused by measurement error in IAT research (Cunningham et al., 2001), and they provide unbiased estimates of mediation effects (Cheung & Lau, 2008). Before testing the fit of the measurement model, we reduced the number of indicators and combined items into parcels. Parceled data have higher reliability, higher communality and implicate a lower likelihood of distributional violations than item-level data. Moreover, parcels lead to reductions in different sources of sampling error (Little, Cunningham, Shahar, & Widaman, 2002; MacCallum, Widaman, Zhang, & Hong, 1999). To create parcels, we used the domain-representative approach for our multidimensional construct (Little et al., 2002; Williams & O'Boyle, 2008) perceived leader humility (3 parcels). For our unidimensional constructs, abusive supervision (4 parcels), explicit humility (3 parcels) and explicit modesty (3 parcels), we used the item-to-construct balance

approach (Williams & O'Boyle, 2008). Further, we divided the Humility IAT into three parcels, following previous research (Cunningham, Nezlek, & Banaji, 2004; Cunningham et al., 2001). In addition, we used the four items assessing trust in leader as indicators. We tested our hypotheses in a latent structural equation model with Mplus 7 (Muthén & Muthén, 2007) using maximum-likelihood estimation. We used a bootstrapping procedure with 5000 draws to determine the significance of indirect effects (Preacher & Hayes, 2008). To evaluate the strengths of the mediation effects, we used Lau and Cheung's (2012) procedure that compares specific indirect effects in complex latent variable models. To assess model fit, we followed L. Hu and Bentler (1999): Values of .95 or higher for comparative fit index (CFI), .06 or lower for root-mean-square error of approximation (RMSEA) and .08 or lower for standardized root-mean-square residual (SRMR) indicate good model fit.

2.4.2 Results

Descriptive statistics and correlations among observed variables are reported in Table 2.3. Our hypothesised six-factor measurement model demonstrated good fit [$\chi^2(155, N = 250) = 210.30, p = .002, CFI = .98, RMSEA = .04, SRMR = .05$], with significant factor loadings for all items. This six-factor model (implicit humility, explicit humility, explicit modesty, perceived leader humility, abusive supervision, trust in leader) yielded a significant improvement in χ^2 over more parsimonious models, in which we combined two factors of the same source (leader or follower) respectively: implicit humility and explicit humility ($\Delta\chi^2(5) = 181.84, p < .001$); implicit humility and explicit modesty ($\Delta\chi^2(5) = 231.07, p < .001$); explicit humility and explicit modesty ($\Delta\chi^2(5) = 88.86, p < .001$); abusive supervision and trust in leader ($\Delta\chi^2(5) = 314.16, p < .001$); abusive supervision and perceived leader humility ($\Delta\chi^2(5) = 345.45, p < .001$); trust in leader and perceived leader humility ($\Delta\chi^2(5) = 460.92, p < .001$).

We tested the latent structural equation model presented in Figure 2.1 where the relation between implicit humility and trust in leader is mediated by perceived leader humility and abusive supervision. For presentation ease, we do not present the indicator variables of the latent factors, the residual covariances, nor the control variables explicit humility and explicit modesty. Besides implicit humility, explicit modesty and explicit humility were included as exogenous antecedents of perceived leader humility, abusive supervision and trust in leader (see correlations in Table 2.4). All three exogenous variables (explicit modesty,

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Table 2.3

Descriptive Statistics, Correlations, and Reliabilities

Variables	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. L. Explicit humility	4.22	0.40	.72						
2. L. Explicit modesty	3.49	0.63	.32**	.78					
3. L. Implicit humility (IAT)	0.50	0.36	.01	.04	.75				
4. F. Perceived leader humility	4.48	0.61	-.01	.02	.13*	.89			
5. F. Abusive supervision	1.33	0.37	.00	.02	-.13*	-.43**	.84		
6. F. Trust in leader	5.19	0.75	-.03	.01	.19**	.40**	-.42**	.84	

Note. $N = 250$ followers and their leaders. "F" indicates followers' ratings, "L" indicates leaders' ratings. IAT = Implicit Association Test measuring implicit humility. The numbers in bold on the diagonal are reliability coefficients.

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

explicit humility and implicit humility) were set free to correlate as well as the latent variables of perceived leader humility and abusive supervision. Based on previous leadership research (Bass, Avolio, Jung, & Berson, 2003), we expected perceived leader humility and abusive supervision to be negatively correlated.

Table 2.4

Correlations with Endogenous Factors

	Perceived leader humility	Abusive supervision	Trust in leader
Implicit humility (IAT)	.16*	-.17*	.23*
Explicit humility	-.02	.03	-.03
Explicit modesty	.03	.01	.03

Note. $N = 250$ followers and their leaders. IAT = Implicit Association Test measuring implicit humility.

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

Supporting *Hypothesis 1*, implicit humility incrementally predicted trust in leader beyond explicit humility and explicit modesty ($\beta = 0.23$, $p = .002$). We calculated this direct effect by testing the latent structural equation model presented in Figure 2.1 but leaving out perceived leader humility and abusive supervision. Implicit humility was positively related to perceived leader humility ($\beta = 0.16$, $p = .036$) above and beyond explicit humility and modesty, thus supporting *Hypothesis 2*. As expected, perceived leader humility ($\beta = 0.26$, p

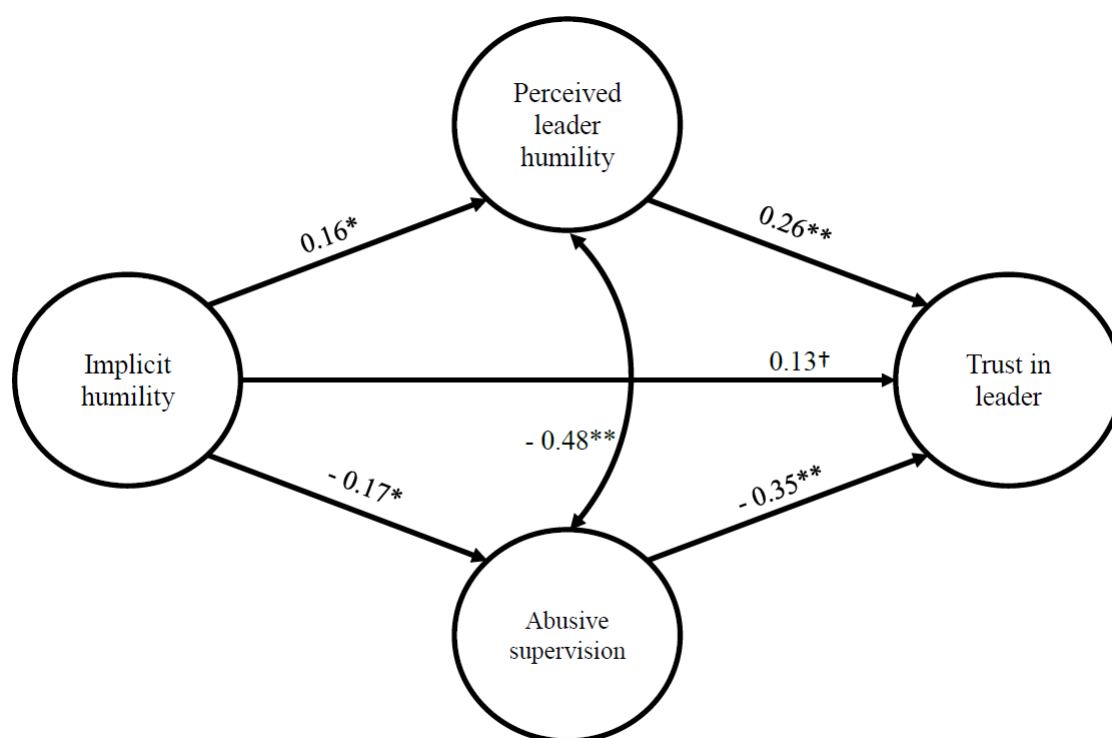


Figure 2.1. Results of the latent mediation model of implicit humility predicting trust in leader.

Note. All coefficients are standardized estimates. Explicit modesty and explicit humility were included as predictors in the prediction of perceived leader humility, abusive supervision and trust in leader. $N = 250$, ** $p < .01$, * $p < .05$, † $p < .10$.

< .001) positively predicted trust in leader, while abusive supervision predicted it negatively ($\beta = -0.35$, $p < .001$). In support of *Hypothesis 3*, suggesting that perceived leader humility mediates the positive relationship between implicit humility and trust in leader, the indirect effect of implicit humility on trust through perceived leader humility was significant (indirect effect = 0.07, $SE = .04$, 95% CI [0.01, 0.19]). As predicted in *Hypothesis 4*, implicit humility negatively predicted abusive supervision ($\beta = -0.17$, $p = .026$) above and beyond explicit humility and explicit modesty. *Hypothesis 5* suggested that abusive supervision mediated the negative relationship between implicit humility and trust in leader. We found a significant indirect effect of 0.10, $SE = .06$ (95% CI [0.01, 0.25]), supporting *Hypothesis 5*.⁵ Both indirect effects did not significantly differ from each other (95% CI [-0.18, 0.07]).

⁵We identified followers' negative affectivity as potential variable confounding perceptions of perceived leader humility and abusive supervision. Trait negative affectivity represents the predisposition to experience aversive emotional states (Watson & Clark, 1984), and in line with the victimization theory perspective (Tepper et al., 2006), follower negative affectivity relates to abusive supervision. In addition, negative affectivity may influence the perception of social interactions at work, including leader behaviour (Lakey & Cassady, 1990). Therefore, we repeated our analyses controlling for followers' negative affectivity, that we assessed

2.5 Discussion

We examined the influence of leaders' implicit humility – compared to explicit humility – on humble leadership behaviour, abusive supervision and trust in leader. As expected, implicit humility predicted the leadership behaviour and trust in leader, whereas explicit humility did not. Moreover, humble leadership behaviour and abusive supervision both mediated the positive relationship between implicit humility and trust in leader. By developing an indirect measure of humility to assess implicit humility, we present a solution for the humility paradox. Our dual path mediation model suggests a number of theoretical and practical implications that we discuss below.

2.5.1 Theoretical implications

Our results provide new insights to the literature on humility. First, by developing the Humility IAT to measure implicit humility, we present a possible solution for the humility measurement paradox that occurs when humility is measured via direct methods. The indirect assessment of implicit humility circumvents resulting threats to construct validity that arise when humility is measured directly, e.g., via self-reports. Second, we showed that implicit humility incrementally predicted leadership behaviour and trust in leader above and beyond explicit humility, which lends empirical support to Tangney (2002) who argued that humility is inaccessible to self-reports. Also, other scholars argued that internally driven or genuine humility is more important for behaviour prediction than explicit self-reported humility (Owens et al., 2013; Rowatt et al., 2006). Our data suggest that implicit humility might assess internally driven or genuine humility, which subsequently shapes a leader's behaviour. Interestingly, explicit humility did not predict any of the study variables. We believe the humility measurement paradox to be the underlying reason for these non-significant findings. According to the paradox, humble people do not indicate their humbleness when asked directly. Thus, genuinely humble leaders are perceived as humble by their followers but do not indicate that they are humble in self-reports. Third, we respond to a recent call emphasising that research should advance the implicit assessment of personality (Sackett, Lievens, Van Iddekinge, & Kuncel, 2017).

with four items of the Positive and Negative Affect Schedule (PANAS; Watson, Clark, & Tellegen, 1988, $\alpha = .67$). Controlling for followers' negative affectivity did not change the pattern of our results or the support for our hypotheses.

Importantly, our research suggests that implicit humility is an antecedent of perceived leader humility and abusive supervision, thereby contributing to these literatures. The literature of humble leadership has mainly focused on its outcomes, and to our knowledge, antecedents have not been examined yet. An improved theoretical understanding of the construct of humble leadership can help to promote such leader behaviour by developing implicit humility in leaders or selecting such leaders. By investigating implicit humility as antecedent of abusive supervision, we respond to calls for an increased focus on personality traits that predict abusive leader behaviour (Martinko et al., 2013). Therefore, our focus on implicit humility as a dispositional antecedent helps to understand the sources of abusive supervision and diminish the expression of such leader behaviour.

While investigating the relationship between implicit humility and trust in leader, we considered two mediator variables in our model – perceived leader humility and abusive supervision –, thereby taking multiple channels of influence into account. This is important because mono-mediator reasoning can lead to the specious mediator problem (Fischer et al., 2016). These are mediator variables that appear to mediate a relationship but they do not depict a true (causal) process. The empirical support for our two psychological pathways underpins the importance of leadership behaviour as perceived by the follower. In addition, we found that the strength of the two mediational paths did not differ. Taken together, implicit humility triggered both humble and abusive leader behaviour, which in turn contributed equally to the formation of trust in leader.

2.5.2 Practical implications

We showed that leaders' implicit humility predicted both perceived leader humility and abusive supervision. This result could be used to promote perceived leader humility in organisations. Making leaders aware that their self-view of humility – measured via self-report – does not correspond with their implicit humility – measured with the Humility IAT – could potentially provide them with the possibility to gain self-insight, realise this contradiction and rethink their self-view of humility. Consequently, leaders might try to more carefully reflect their decisions and their behaviour towards their followers. In addition, increased implicit humility can help to avoid abusive supervision. Leaders with a low implicit humility were more often perceived as abusive than leaders with a high implicit humility. Therefore, assessing leaders' implicit humility in personnel selection procedures

could be potentially useful and might be one among many ways to diminish the occurrence of abusive leader behaviour.

2.5.3 Limitations and future research

Although our research has several theoretical and practical implications, some limitations need to be addressed. Our non-experimental design challenges our capacity to draw causal inferences (even though previous theory supports our model, e.g., DeRue et al. (2011)). We suggested that implicit humility predicted trust in leader via perceived leader humility and abusive supervision. To test our assumptions, we first measured implicit leader humility (time 1), let then followers evaluate their leaders' behaviour at time 2 and assessed their trust in leader at time 3. However, the proposed causal associations have not been experimentally tested. It is possible that followers who have great faith in their leaders, evaluate their leaders' behaviour more positively, i.e., they perceive less abusive supervision and experience more perceived leader humility. Therefore, future research should use experimental designs to infer causality. Moreover, our sample consisted of leaders and followers from diverse organisations. This helped to increase the generalisability of our findings, but we were not able to control for extraneous factors that could have influenced our results. Therefore, future studies should control for these variables and should test more directly factors, e.g., organisational variables such as type of industry or organisational values (Owens & Hekman, 2012), that could moderate the observed relationships. For example, humble leader behaviour might be even more appreciated in companies with flat hierarchies. However, followers of companies with strict hierarchies who favour prototypical dominant leaders will probably not respond positively to perceived leader humility. As a result, trust in leader will not be increased by humble leadership behaviour in these organisations.

Although we examined how implicit and explicit humility relate to perceived leader humility, we only explored these individual differences as antecedents of perceived leader humility. Therefore, future research should continue to examine other personality traits that may predict perceived leader humility. We suggest that personality traits such as morality or spirituality may influence the expression of perceived leader humility. Leaders with high (implicit) moral standards might also be open to feedback and appreciate others' strengths, thereby increasing perceived leader humility.

2.5.4 Conclusion

Humility as a personality trait has often been measured via self-report. However, this direct assessment poses many problems, in particular because of the humility measurement paradox. Keeping this in mind, we developed a Humility IAT to indirectly assess implicit humility. We tested the idea and found that implicit humility predicted trust in leader via perceived leader humility and abusive supervision above and beyond explicit (i.e., self-reported) humility. Our study furthers theory on humility, its assessment and its predictive validity of leadership behaviour. We present a solution for the humility measurement paradox and hope to stimulate further studies on implicit and explicit humility and its effects on leadership and organisational outcomes.

Chapter 2 focused on leader humility and investigated the interaction between leader and follower by letting followers evaluate their leaders' leadership behaviour. By measuring leader humility with an Implicit Association Test (IAT), a solution has been presented to solve the humility measurement paradox. The findings also showed the importance of differentiating between implicit and explicit humility. Implicit humility predicted humble leadership behaviour, abusive supervision and trust in leader, whereas explicit humility did not. As described in the introduction, socially desirable responding or impression management might have caused these results. The findings indicate that a leader's personality directly affects the leader-follower interaction assessed by perceived leadership behaviour and subsequently trust in leader. Leaders that are truly humble, meaning that they have a high implicit humility, are *perceived* as humble and they are trusted. Consequently, they are not perceived as abusive. In the past, personality traits such as extraversion and dominance have been considered as characteristics of a prototypical effective and emergent leader (e.g., Judge et al., 2002). Chapter 2 shows that humility, that is opposed to dominance (see Figure 1.2), has become an important leader trait. This could illustrate a longing for managers that are humble and not self-centered in contrast to the managers who insisted on their bonuses and did not show any humility.

This chapter mainly focused on leader personality. To address the follower as important component of the toxic triangle, the following Chapter 3 focuses on follower personality and investigates how follower narcissism influences empowerment and subsequently voice as one form of extra-role behaviour. Empowerment reflects a follower's intrinsic task motivation that is dependent on how a follower perceives his or her task in light of meaning, competence, self-determination and impact (Spreitzer, 1995). Besides investigating the influence of follower narcissism on empowerment and voice, Chapter 3 also focuses on moderating variables by examining how follower narcissism and a leader's implicit follower-ship theories collude and how follower narcissism and promotion focus interact.



Chapter 3

Is follower narcissism always toxic? The role of leaders' implicit followership theories and follower promotion focus

3.1 Introduction

By definition, narcissism consists of inflated self-views and delusions of grandeur that create a longing for self-promotion and attention-seeking behaviour (O'Boyle, Forsyth, Banks, & McDaniel, 2012). It has become one of the most fascinating topics in academic psychology. Accordingly, organisational researchers are increasingly interested in investigating the influence of narcissism on the workplace (e.g., Grijalva & Harms, 2014; Grijalva et al., 2015; Judge, LePine, & Rich, 2006). Narcissism appears to be related to opposite processes and distinct underlying motivational dynamics leading to various consequences: On the one hand, narcissists are highly motivated to approach desirable outcomes (Foster & Trimm IV, 2008), and their self-assuredness can equip them with enormous energy, which consequently fascinates others. Contrariwise, the narcissist's motivation to protect his/her self from losing its grandiosity, which often triggers a devaluation of others and revenge, may hold back their progress and quench people (Back et al., 2013).

There is quite some research on leader narcissism (Chatterjee & Hambrick, 2007; Hoffman et al., 2013) and to a lesser extent on follower narcissism at work (Campbell, Hoffman, Campbell, & Marchisio, 2011). Follower narcissism has been associated with counterproductive work behaviour, job performance and job satisfaction (Judge et al., 2006; Penney & Spector, 2002; Soyer, Rovenpor, & Kopelman, 1999). Nevertheless, the research on follower narcissism has produced ambiguous findings that strengthen the interest in the question whether narcissism is negative or positive for organisational functioning (Camp-

bell et al., 2011; Grijalva et al., 2015). Judge et al. (2006) found that employee's narcissism negatively correlated with job performance. However, narcissism was unrelated to job performance in another study (Soyer et al., 1999). Additionally, Mathieu (2013) found a negative relationship between follower narcissism and job satisfaction, whereas another study found no association (Jonason, Wee, & Li, 2015). Besides these mixed findings, which hamper our understanding of workplace narcissism, very little research has examined the motivational mechanisms through which narcissism influences performance outcomes.

We believe that there are two related reasons for the mixed and contradictory findings: First, narcissism is a multidimensional construct and not unidimensional as previously assumed (e.g., Hoffman et al., 2013; Raskin & Terry, 1988; Reina et al., 2014). Second, individual and contextual moderators have been ignored in the analysis of narcissism–work outcomes relationships (Campbell et al., 2011). To explain the previous mixed findings and to take the multidimensionality of narcissism into account, the present study draws on the Narcissistic Admiration and Rivalry Concept (NARC; Back et al., 2013), which disentangles two facets of narcissism: narcissistic admiration and narcissistic rivalry. The two dimensions serve the main goal of maintaining a grandiose self, but do so by different means: rivalry by means of self-defense to prevent social failure and admiration by means of self-promotion. The differentiation of the underlying motivational processes is one of the key characteristics of the model. Therefore, building on the different underlying motivational dynamics of the two narcissism facets, we argue that narcissistic admiration and narcissistic rivalry differently influence follower empowerment, a motivational construct. We expect that narcissistic admiration is positively related to empowerment, whereas narcissistic rivalry has a negative effect. Spreitzer (1995) describes empowerment as an "increased intrinsic task motivation manifested in a set of four cognitions reflecting an individual's orientation to his or her work role: meaning, competence, self-determination and impact".

Apart from the expectation that the facets of narcissism influence empowerment, we suggest that empowerment will lead to increased voice, which has been anecdotally linked to narcissism in the past (Nadler, 2012). For example, narcissists such as Napoléon Bonaparte or Steve Jobs were able to inspire people with their passion and shape the future with creative ideas, which can be seen as an expression of voice (Zhou & George, 2001). Voice behaviour is a form of extra-role behaviour and describes the expression of constructive challenge intended to improve rather than to criticise (Van Dyne & LePine, 1998). There-

fore, we expect the facets of narcissism to influence voice via empowerment. In today's competitive business, follower voice is critical to performance because organisations need innovation and quick responses in the fast changing market (Liu, Zhu, & Yang, 2010; Morrison & Phelps, 1999).

In response to lacking research investigating moderators of workplace narcissism and the proposition of the NARC, that situational cues can trigger the expression of narcissistic rivalry (Back et al., 2013), we integrate two moderating variables focusing on followers' work context and personality: We examine leaders' implicit followership theories (IFTs) as an important contextual moderator, because implicit theories directly affect leaders – their perceptions, evaluations, and actions – representing one of the most powerful contextual factors influencing workplace processes. We draw on trait activation theory (Tett & Burnett, 2003), which argues that personality traits are expressed in response to situational cues that are trait-relevant (Tett & Guterman, 2000). We propose that leaders with different IFTs can create situations promoting or preventing the occurrence of followers' narcissistic behaviour by offering distinct trait-relevant situational cues. Hence, we believe that leaders with positive IFTs are able to buffer the negative effect of narcissistic rivalry on empowerment. This is in line with Back et al. (2013, p. 1016) who state that narcissistic rivalry is "thought to be chronically activated but can additionally be prompted by situational cues".

Besides IFTs, we also focus on follower characteristics that may moderate the negative effects of narcissistic rivalry, namely follower promotion focus. We rely on Regulatory Focus Theory (RFT, Higgins, 1997) to delineate the self-regulatory process that buffers the detrimental antagonistic consequences triggered by narcissistic rivalry. Individuals with a high promotion focus – a motivational construct (Scholer & Higgins, 2008) – have the tendency to approach desired goals related to ideals, growth or advancement, and notice and recall information and emotions of success (Gino & Margolis, 2011; Stam, van Knippenberg, & Wisse, 2010; C. Wu, McMullen, Neubert, & Yi, 2008). We argue that these tendencies oriented toward positive emotions attenuate the negative effects of narcissistic rivalry.

Taken together, we propose that narcissistic admiration has positive effects, whereas narcissistic rivalry has negative effects on voice via empowerment. In addition, both follower promotion focus and leaders' positive IFTs (leaders' followership prototype) buffer the negative influence of narcissistic rivalry, thereby suggesting that the negative indirect

effect of narcissistic rivalry on voice via empowerment is conditional on followers' promotion focus and leaders' positive IFTs (see Figure 3.1 for the hypothesised model).

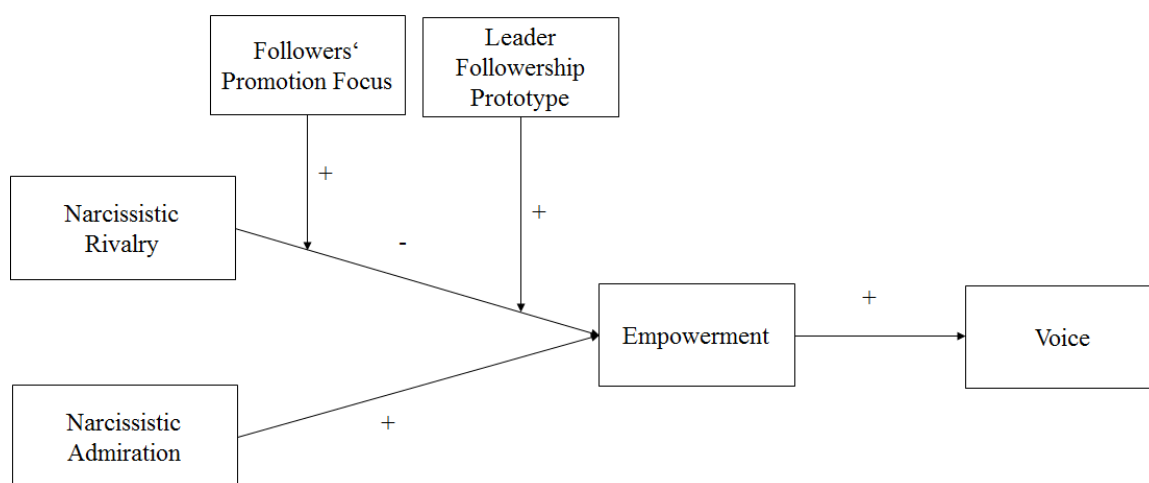


Figure 3.1. Overall theoretical model.

We test our model in a three-wave study of 268 leader-follower dyads. Our research makes several contributions. First, by drawing on the NARC (Back et al., 2013) and differentiating two facets of narcissism, we consider different underlying motivational dynamics of narcissism and offer an explanation for the mixed findings of past research on the narcissism-work outcomes relationships that did not take the multidimensionality of narcissism into account. Second, by investigating the two facets we explore bright and dark sides of narcissism in organisational research. This is in line with Judge, Piccolo, and Kosalka (2009, p. 863) who argued "all traits have bright and dark sides, and carry with them evolutionary paradoxes that are often not imagined until revealed". Third, we identify two boundary conditions for the narcissistic rivalry-empowerment relation by investigating leaders' IFTs and follower promotion focus. In doing so, we extend the NARC model. Back et al. (2013) state there are situational cues that moderate the expression of narcissistic rivalry. We extend their work by specifying two moderating variables. This leads to a novel understanding about how follower narcissism interacts with other variables and yields insight about when narcissistic rivalry may be less detrimental. Fourth, we draw on two theories – the NARC model (Back et al., 2013) and trait activation theory (Tett & Burnett, 2003) – to shed light on the impact of follower narcissism on the workplace. Thus, we provide a comprehensive model including follower and leader characteristics. Fifth, by examining

empowerment as a mediator we reveal one so far overlooked mechanism through which narcissism influences voice behaviour.

3.2 Theory

3.2.1 Narcissism in organisational research

Clinical psychologists first identified narcissism as a personality disorder (Kernberg, 1985; Pincus & Lukowitsky, 2010). These days, personality psychologists view milder forms of narcissism as a personality trait (Carpenter, 2012; Lee & Ashton, 2005; Paulhus & Williams, 2002). This non-clinical type of narcissism includes a complex of personality traits and processes comprising a grandiose yet fragile sense of self, concern for success and demands for admiration (Ames, Rose, & Anderson, 2006). Narcissists react to self-esteem threats with feelings of rage, shame and humiliation (Bushman & Baumeister, 1998). In this article, we refer to narcissism as a personality trait that is present in the non-clinical population.

3.2.2 Narcissistic admiration and narcissistic rivalry

Back et al. (2013) introduced the Narcissistic Admiration and Rivalry Concept (NARC) that differentiates between two facets of narcissism: narcissistic admiration (assertive self-enhancement) and narcissistic rivalry (antagonistic self-protection). The two facets are related but far from interchangeable. The NARC suggests that persons differ not only in their general tendency to maintain a grandiose self (and thus in their expression of narcissism) but also in the strength with which they activate self-enhancement and self-protection to do so (Back et al., 2013). Narcissistic admiration consists of three intertwined domains: striving for uniqueness, grandiose fantasies, and charmingness. The activation of narcissistic self-promotion leads to the optimistic pursuit of one's uniqueness and ideas about one's own grandiosity. This promotes self-assured and dominant behaviour that may result in desired social outcomes such as success, admiration and social status. These positive social interaction outcomes are assumed to be accompanied by an ego boost and should reinforce the narcissist's actual grandiose self.

Narcissistic rivalry consists of striving for supremacy, devaluation of others, and ag-

gressiveness. The activation of narcissistic self-defence leads to a motivation to reinstate and defend one's own superior status, especially when there is a comparison with perceived social rivals (Back et al., 2013). The resulting narcissist's devaluing thoughts about others lead to hostile and socially insensitive behaviour such as revenge that causes negative social outcomes (e.g., rejection and criticism). These negative social outcomes should be perceived as threat to one's ego and therefore strengthen self-protection processes.

3.2.3 Narcissistic admiration and empowerment

We suggest that the two facets of narcissism differently predict follower work outcomes. Empowerment refers to "increased intrinsic task motivation manifested in a set of four cognitions reflecting an individual's orientation to his or her work role: meaning, competence, self-determination and impact" (Spreitzer, 1995). One of the NARQ model's main characteristics is the examination of the underlying motivational dynamics – assertive self-enhancement and antagonistic self-protection. These motivational determinants trigger the expression of narcissistic admiration and narcissistic rivalry and following behavioural consequences. Because of the importance of motivational processes in the NARQ model and given the fact that empowerment is a motivational construct (Conger & Kanungo, 1988; Spreitzer, 1995), we believe that the two facets of narcissism will have a direct impact on empowerment. We expect follower narcissistic admiration to have a positive effect on follower empowerment. Narcissistic admiration promotes self-assured behaviour that results in desired outcomes such as admiration and praise (Back et al., 2013), which can be considered as performance feedback and rewards. Spreitzer (1995) showed that rewards have a positive relationship with empowerment by recognizing and reinforcing personal competencies. This supports our idea that narcissistic admiration enhances empowerment. Moreover, the elevated self-esteem associated with narcissistic admiration should promote the narcissist's perception of having good qualities or much to be proud of (Ferris, Lian, Brown, & Morrison, 2015). This is in line with research showing that people with high self-esteem evaluate their performance more positively (Bono & Colbert, 2005; Vasta & Brockner, 1979). The narcissist's positive self-perceptions in turn might foster the cognitions describing empowerment, especially competence and impact. Closely linked to that, the narcissist's subjective monitoring of the correspondence between the desired grandiose and actually perceived self should result in a perceived fit (Back et al., 2013). This fit in

turn should be accompanied by positive emotions (e.g., pride, Tracy & Robins, 2004) that should have a direct impact on followers' empowerment (X. Hu & Kaplan, 2015). Furthermore, we expect that this feeling of grandiosity should give the narcissist a feeling of grandeur reinforcing the impact facet of empowerment. Last of all, the self-enhancement aspect of narcissistic admiration corresponds to a desire for success (Baumeister, Tice, & Hutton, 1989). We believe that this desire for success as well as the narcissist's pursuit of one's uniqueness (Back et al., 2013) should positively influence the narcissist's motivation and sense of having choice and regulating actions (Deci, Connell, & Ryan, 1989) what we suggest to strengthen the self-determination facet of empowerment. Based on our reasoning we hypothesize:

Hypothesis 1: Narcissistic admiration will be positively related to empowerment.

3.2.4 Narcissistic rivalry and empowerment

In contrast, we expect follower narcissistic rivalry to have a negative influence on empowerment. The activation of self-protection processes and the resulting negative emotions linked with narcissistic rivalry lead to a perceived ego threat. Different authors conceptualize ego threat as a real or perceived challenge to an individual's self-esteem (Kinderman, Prince, Waller, & Peters, 2003; McManus, Waller, & Chadwick, 1996; C. Meyer, Waller, & Watson, 2000). As self-esteem is positively related to empowerment (Spreitzer, 1995) - especially competence and impact - a threatened self-esteem caused by narcissistic rivalry should weaken these two empowerment facets. Therefore, the ego threat reducing self-esteem should negatively affect empowerment. Moreover, ego threat undermines a person's sense of personal control (Leary, Terry, Batts Allen, & Tate, 2009). This reduced sense of personal control should have a detrimental effect on empowerment which "reflects a personal sense of control in the workplace" (Mishra & Spreitzer, 1998, p. 577). More precisely, threats undermine autonomy (Deci & Ryan, 2000) and thus should negatively affect one core dimension of empowerment, namely self-determination. Another line of reasoning refers to the narcissist's subjective monitoring of the correspondence between the desired grandiose self and the actually perceived self that should result in a perceived misfit (Back et al., 2013). This misfit should be accompanied by negative emotions (e.g., shame, Tracy & Robins, 2004) which in turn should strengthen a negative view, not only of others (Back et al., 2013), but also of the work. We therefore believe that this negative view

might negatively affect the impact and meaning facet of empowerment. Taken together we hypothesise:

Hypothesis 2: Narcissistic rivalry will be negatively related to empowerment.

3.2.5 Narcissistic admiration, narcissistic rivalry, empowerment and voice

Defined as a form of performance that includes making constructive suggestions to change (Van Dyne & LePine, 1998), voice is a behaviour intended to improve the organisational functioning (Morrison, 2011). Most research has focused on personality traits, demographic variables, and the role of leadership as antecedents of voice behaviour (Detert & Burris, 2007; Liu et al., 2010; Maynes & Podsakoff, 2014; Morrison, 2011; Tangirala & Ramanujam, 2008; Van Dyne & LePine, 1998). Motivational constructs such as empowerment have been only scarcely investigated as antecedent of voice in the organisational context. Voice behaviour includes speaking up and encouraging others to get involved in issues affecting the working group (Van Dyne & LePine, 1998). We suggest that empowerment positively influences follower voice because employees have to be adequately motivated to speak up, because voice is an extra-role behaviour (Van Dyne & LePine, 1998) that is not part of the formal job description. Empowered followers believe that their work has meaning and impact, which strengthens the followers' motivation to get involved in decision making and negotiating with their leader. The self-determination facet of empowerment represents a follower's sense of having choice in regulating actions (Deci et al., 1989; Spreitzer, 1995), thus promoting his sense of personal control (Spreitzer, 1995). The latter gives followers autonomy in deciding when and how to speak up what in turn should positively benefit their voice behaviour. In support of our considerations, Miles, Borman, Spector, and Fox (2002) argued that perceptions of control enhance the likelihood of organizational citizenship behavior (OCB), which is just like voice an extra-role behaviour. The competence facet of empowerment should strengthen the followers' voice self-efficacy – followers' self-assurance about their personal capability to speak up at work (McAllister, Kamdar, Morrison, & Turban, 2007; Tangirala, Kamdar, Venkataramani, & Parke, 2013) – that in turn promotes follower voice behaviour.

Consistent with the above-mentioned ideas, empowerment had a positive influence on voice behaviour among frontline service employees working in the hospitality industry

(Raub & Robert, 2013). Integrating these arguments with *Hypotheses 1* and *2*, we suggest:

Hypothesis 3: Empowerment mediates the positive relation between narcissistic admiration and voice.

Hypothesis 4: Empowerment mediates the negative relation between narcissistic rivalry and voice.

3.2.6 Implicit Followership Theories and narcissistic rivalry

Individuals naturally categorize other individuals relying on their "naïve" theories and automatically process social information (Engle & Lord, 1997) in order to relieve cognition (Sy, 2010). Research has shown that individuals categorize other persons based on salient cues such as gender or social roles such as the middle class (Koenig & Eagly, 2014). With regard to leaders and followers, leaders categorize followers based on their social role and hereby rely on their implicit theories of followers. Sy (2010, p. 74) defined implicit followership theories (IFTs) as an "individual's personal assumptions about the traits and behavior that characterise followers". IFTs can be represented by the Followership Prototype and Antiprototype, which describe positive and negative IFTs, respectively (Sy, 2010). A leader's Followership Prototype (LFP) reflects positively valenced attributes such as hardworking, excited and loyal (Sy, 2010). IFTs operate automatically (Bodenhausen & Macrae, 1998) and might influence leaders' and followers' cognitions, affect and behaviour (Macrae & Bodenhausen, 2000). In support, studies showed that performance differences between followers might largely stem from leaders' perceptions of followers and subsequent social interaction with them (Goodwin, Wofford, & Boyd, 2000; Wofford & Goodwin, 1994). In addition, scholars argued and found that followers have the tendency to meet the expectations leaders have of them (Eden, 1992; Whiteley, Sy, & Johnson, 2012).

Research has shown that the effects of narcissism on work outcomes can depend on moderating factors (De Hoogh, Den Hartog, & Nevicka, 2015; Nevicka, De Hoogh, Van Vianen, Beersma, & McIlwain, 2011). We focus on IFTs as a moderating variable due to the following reasons: Back et al. (2013) argued that negative feedback represents a situational cue that might foster the expression of narcissistic rivalry. In the organisational context, followers get feedback from their leaders. As IFTs influence leaders' cognitions, affect and behaviour (Macrae & Bodenhausen, 2000), we believe that leaders with low LFP may provide negative feedback to the narcissistic follower which in turn strengthens his

or her expression of narcissistic rivalry. Instead, we propose that leaders with strong LFP may buffer the negative effect of narcissistic rivalry on empowerment. Doing so, we draw on trait activation theory (Tett & Burnett, 2003) suggesting that traits will be expressed differently depending on trait-relevant situational cues. Leaders with low LFP (i.e., who think that their followers are in general not hardworking, productive, reliable, and loyal) might inadvertently create situations that narcissistic followers perceive as being offensive, and lacking in admiration or appreciation for their effort. Therefore, among leaders with low LFP, followers' narcissistic rivalry will be activated - resulting in the feeling of being threatened - and the occurrence of negative emotions. This idea is supported by the NARC model which suggests that narcissistic rivalry is chronically activated but can also be fostered by situational cues (Back et al., 2013). In contrast, leaders with strong LFP might behave in a way towards followers that indirectly expresses their positive IFTs resulting in a benevolent treatment of their followers (Sy, 2010). Consequently, the narcissistic follower will not feel offended. Instead, the leader's positive image of his/her followers and positive treatment will satisfy the narcissistic followers' personal need to feel admired and valued. This should reduce the ego threat and negative emotions, which are triggered by narcissistic rivalry. Therefore, we hypothesise that strong LFPs attenuate the negative effects of narcissistic rivalry on empowerment:

Hypothesis 5: Leader Followership Prototype (LFP) moderates the negative relationship between followers' narcissistic rivalry and empowerment such that the relationship will be weaker for leaders with strong LFP.

3.2.7 Promotion focus and narcissistic rivalry

According to Regulatory Focus Theory (RFT, Higgins, 1997), self-regulation via a promotion focus is characterised by a sensitivity to positive outcomes and striving for ideals by advancement and accomplishment. (Higgins, 1997; Lanaj, Chang, & Johnson, 2012; Langens, 2007). Morf and Rhodewalt (2001) argued that "applying the regulatory focus framework and paradigms to the study of narcissism may potentially shed more light on how narcissists interact with and experience their worlds". Following this vein, we investigated how followers' promotion focus interacts with follower narcissistic rivalry to predict empowerment.

We propose that a strong follower promotion focus will mitigate the negative influence

of narcissistic rivalry on empowerment. Individuals with a promotion focus pursue goals that are associated with ideals and growth (Higgins, 1997). Therefore, one characteristic of promotion focus is the motivation to achieve desired end-states (Henker, Sonnentag, & Unger, 2015). We suggest that this motivation might ameliorate the negative influence of narcissistic rivalry and the associated ego threat on empowerment. The ego threat causes a frightening fear of failure and negative emotions (Back et al., 2013), thus negatively influencing intrinsic motivation and empowerment. In contrast, the motivation to achieve desired outcomes is linked to recalling information and emotions associated with benefits of success (Neubert, Kacmar, Carlson, Chonko, & Roberts, 2008). We argue that the consequences of ego threat can be tempered by these positive cognitions. This is supported by studies showing that reflecting on one's strengths (Steele, 1988) can attenuate the effects of ego threat and improve performance (Schmeichel & Vohs, 2009; Sherman et al., 2013). We believe that recalling information of success and positive outcomes is similar to reflecting strengths. Moreover, the motivation to achieve desired outcomes results in actions toward promoting these goals (Higgins, Roney, Crowe, & Hymes, 1994; Neubert et al., 2008), and this might reduce the self-protection processes triggered by narcissistic rivalry. Based on this reasoning, we hypothesise:

Hypothesis 6: Followers' promotion focus moderates the negative relationship between followers' narcissistic rivalry and empowerment such that the relationship will be weaker for followers with strong promotion focus.

Hypotheses 3 and 4 suggest empowerment to mediate the relationships of narcissistic admiration and narcissistic rivalry with voice. Moreover, *Hypotheses 5 and 6* state that Leader Followership Prototype and followers' promotion focus moderate the negative association between narcissistic rivalry and voice. These hypothesised relations are reflected in our overall theoretical model depicted in Figure 3.1. Integrating *Hypotheses 3 and 4* with *Hypotheses 5 and 6*, we propose the following moderated mediation hypotheses (Edwards & Lambert, 2007; Preacher, Rucker, & Hayes, 2007):

Hypothesis 7: There is a conditional indirect effect of narcissistic rivalry on voice such that the mediated effect of narcissistic rivalry on voice through empowerment is conditional on LFP. The indirect effect is weaker for leaders with strong LFP.

Hypothesis 8: There is a conditional indirect effect of narcissistic rivalry on voice such that the mediated effect of narcissistic rivalry on voice through empowerment is conditional

on followers' promotion focus. The indirect effect is weaker for followers with a strong promotion focus.

3.3 Method

3.3.1 Participants and procedure

To test our hypotheses, we conducted a multi-wave field study using multisource data to minimize common source/common method concerns.¹ As part of their thesis requirement, twelve psychology students recruited leaders and followers for this study. They recruited online a diverse sample of German leaders and followers from a broad range of organisations. Participation was voluntary and confidential. Moreover, neither leaders nor followers received information about the evaluations of the respective other. Upon agreement, leaders received an e-mail including a short description of the study and the link to an online survey. After assessing their IFTs, leaders were asked to select the follower whose surname is the second in the alphabetic order of all his/her followers. The purpose of this procedure was to encourage an unbiased choice of followers, unaffected by any possible desires of the leaders for favourable employees. Leaders then evaluated the voice behaviour of the chosen follower and reported their demographics. Subsequently, followers automatically received an e-mail including a link to the first online questionnaire (assessing narcissistic admiration, narcissistic rivalry and promotion focus). Four days after finishing the first survey, followers received another email and were asked to fill out the second online-questionnaire (assessing empowerment). In order to match leaders' and followers' questionnaires, we used generated identification codes.

Of 554 leaders contacted, 358 completed leader surveys (completion rate 64.6%). Of 386 invited followers, 365 finished the first follower survey (completion rate 94.6%). Of the 336 followers who participated in the second questionnaire, 321 completed the survey (completion rate 95.5%). We matched 286 leader-follower dyads. Data of 18 leaders were removed because they reported their own email addresses instead of indicating their followers' addresses or sent the invitation emails to their peers or friends. As a result, the final sample consisted of 268 matched leader-follower dyads. 26.5% of the leaders were female and the

¹The current study was part of a greater data collection effort. The sample was also used in another study. However, the other study addresses a different research question and uses a different theoretical framework. In addition, there is no variable overlap in the two studies.

leaders' average age was 46.89 years ($SD = 9.83$). 55.6% of the followers were female and the followers' average age was 37.28 years ($SD = 10.70$). The majority of leaders and followers worked in the automotive industry (16.0%), but leaders were also employed in industries such as commerce (7.8%), electrical industry (6.3%), engineering (6.0%), civil service (5.2%), and healthcare (4.5%).

3.3.2 Measures

Narcissism. Followers completed the 18-item Narcissistic Admiration and Rivalry Questionnaire (Back et al., 2013) to assess narcissistic admiration and narcissistic rivalry. We used a 6-point Likert scale (1: *strongly disagree* – 6: *strongly agree*; admiration: $\alpha = .86$; rivalry: $\alpha = .89$). Sample items were "I show others how special I am", "Being a very special person gives me a lot of strength", "I deserve to be seen as a great personality" (admiration) and "I secretly take pleasure in the failure of my rivals", "Most people won't achieve anything", "I react annoyed if another person steals the show from me" (rivalry).

Leaders' Followership Prototype (LFP). To measure LFP we used six items of Sy's (2010) IFT Scale representing the dimensions industry (hardworking, productive, goes above and beyond) and good citizen (loyal, reliable, team player). Leaders indicated on a ten-point scale how characteristic each item was for followers in their group ($\alpha = .83$). We decided to let leaders think of the followers in their group and not of followers in general, as recommended by previous research (Epitropaki, Sy, Martin, Tram-Quon, & Topakas, 2013).

Promotion focus. Followers assessed their promotion focus using the nine-item Work Regulatory Focus Scale (Neubert et al., 2008). We used a 5-point Likert scale (1: *strongly disagree* – 5: *strongly agree*; $\alpha = .87$). A sample item was "I focus on accomplishing job tasks that will further my advancement".

Empowerment. Followers indicated their psychological empowerment using Spreitzer's (1995) 12-item scale. We used a 7-point Likert scale (1: *strongly disagree* – 7: *strongly agree*; $\alpha = .90$). A sample item was "The work I do is very important to me".

Voice. Leaders evaluated follower voice behaviour on three items from Van Dyne and LePine's (1998) measure using a 7-point Likert scale (1: *strongly disagree* – 7: *strongly agree*; $\alpha = .82$). The items were: This particular follower ... (1) develops and makes recommendations concerning issues that affect this work group, (2) communicates his/her

opinions about work issues to others in this group even if his/her opinion is different and others in the group disagree with him/her, and (3) speaks up in this group with ideas for new projects or changes in procedures.

3.4 Results

3.4.1 Test of main effects and mediation hypotheses

Narcissistic admiration was positively ($r = .15, p = .01; B = .30, p < .001$) and narcissistic rivalry negatively ($r = -.15, p = .02; B = -.29, p < .001$) associated with empowerment in correlation (Table 3.1) and regression analyses (Table 3.2, Model 1), thereby supporting *Hypothesis 1* and *Hypothesis 2*. Further, empowerment was positively related to voice ($r = .19, p = .002$; Table 3.1). To test the *mediation hypotheses 3* and *4*, we applied a bootstrapping procedure with 5000 draws to calculate indirect effects (Hayes, 2013; Preacher & Hayes, 2008). In support of *Hypothesis 3*, suggesting that empowerment mediates the positive relation between narcissistic admiration and voice, the indirect effect of narcissistic admiration on voice through empowerment was significant (indirect effect = .06, $SE = .03$, 95% CI [.01, .13], Table 3.2, Model 1 & Model 9). Furthermore, consistent with *Hypothesis 4* empowerment mediated the negative relation between narcissistic rivalry and voice (indirect effect = -.06, $SE = .03$, 95% CI [-.12, -.01]).

Table 3.1

Descriptive Statistics, Correlations, and Reliabilities

Variables	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	1	2	3	4	5	6
1. F. Narcissistic rivalry	2.19	0.86	.89					
2. F. Narcissistic admiration	3.11	0.84	.56**	.86				
3. F. Empowerment	5.77	0.75	-.15*	.15*	.91			
4. L. LFP	7.75	1.10	.06	.15*	.16**	.83		
5. F. Promotion focus	3.15	0.74	.33**	.55**	.11†	.16*	.87	
6. L. Voice	5.84	0.84	-.03	.06	.19**	.26**	.09	.83

Note. $N = 268$ followers and their leaders. "F" indicates followers' ratings, "L" indicates leaders' ratings. LFP = Leaders' Followership Prototype. The numbers in bold on the diagonal are reliability coefficients.

** $p < .01$, * $p < .05$, † $p < .10$.

Table 3.2

Hierarchical Regressions on Empowerment and Voice

Variable	Empowerment									Voice	
	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3	Model 4	Model 5	Model 6	Model 7	Model 8	Model 9		
Narc Riv	-.29** (.06)	-.29** (.06)	-.29** (.06)	-.29** (.06)	-.35** (.06)	-.29** (.06)	-.32** (.06)	-.08 (.07)	-.03 (.08)		
Narc Adm	.30** (.06)	.28** (.06)	.27** (.06)	.28** (.07)	.28** (.07)	.27** (.07)	.25** (.07)	.11 (.07)	.05 (.08)		
LFP		.09* (.04)	.09* (.04)			.09* (.04)	.08* (.04)				
Narc Riv x LFP			.13** (.05)				.11* (.05)				
ProF				.05 (.07)	.10 (.07)	.04 (.07)	.07 (.07)				
Narc Riv x ProF					.18* (.07)		.12 (.08)				.20** (.07)
Empowerment											
R^2	.10**	.12**	.14**	.10**	.12**	.12**	.15**	.01	.04*		
ΔR^2		.02*	.03**	.00	.02*	.00	.03**		.03**		

Note. $N = 268$ followers and their leaders. Narc Riv = Narcissistic rivalry; Narc Adm = Narcissistic admiration; LFP = Leaders' Followership Prototype; ProF = Followers' Promotion focus. Values are unstandardized regression coefficients; standard error estimates are in parentheses. All lower-order terms used in interactions were centered prior to analysis.

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

3.4.2 Test of moderations and moderated mediations

In our study, LFP and followers' promotion focus have (marginal) significant bivariate relationships with empowerment. Therefore, we used mean-centering and only considered one moderator per model to reduce the problem of multicollinearity (Cohen, Cohen, West, & Aiken, 2013). Moreover, the statistical power for detecting interactions is reduced compared to the power of detecting first-order effects (Cohen et al., 2013). Consistent with previous research (Kluemper, McLarty, & Bing, 2015), we tested the moderators separately. Doing so prevented from diminishing statistical power.

Hypothesis 5 stated that LFP moderates the negative relationship between narcissistic rivalry and empowerment such that the relation will be weaker for leaders with strong LFP. As presented in Table 3.2 (Model 3), the interaction was significant ($B = .13, p = .006$, 2.6 % additional variance explained). Next, we calculated simple effects at high and low levels of LFP (+/- 1 *SD* around the mean). Consistent with *Hypothesis 5*, among leaders with low LFP, followers' narcissistic rivalry was more strongly negatively related to empowerment ($B = -.43, p < .001$) than for those leaders with strong LFP ($B = -.14, p = .07$; see Figure 3.2). A strong LFP buffers the negative effects of narcissistic rivalry on empowerment, such that the negative relation is (weaker and) rendered marginally significant.

Hypothesis 6 posited that followers' promotion focus moderates the negative relationship between followers' narcissistic rivalry and empowerment such that the relationship will be weaker for followers with strong promotion focus. Table 3.2 (Model 5) shows that the interaction was significant ($B = .18, p = .01$, 2.2 % additional variance explained). We then estimated simple effects at high and low levels of follower promotion focus (+/- 1 *SD* around the mean). In line with *Hypothesis 6*, among followers with strong promotion focus, followers' narcissistic rivalry was less strongly negatively related to empowerment ($B = -.21, p = .003$) than for those followers with low promotion focus ($B = -.48, p < .001$; see Figure 3.3). A strong promotion focus buffers the negative influence of narcissistic rivalry on empowerment, such that the negative influence becomes weaker. As depicted in Table 3.2 (Model 7), an omnibus model including the two interaction terms simultaneously showed that only the interaction between narcissistic rivalry and LFP remained significant ($B = .11, p = .04$) and predicted empowerment. Thus, considering LFP and followers' promotion focus simultaneously does not significantly influence the impact of LFP on the relationship between narcissistic rivalry and empowerment but it weakens the influence of

followers' promotion focus on this relation.

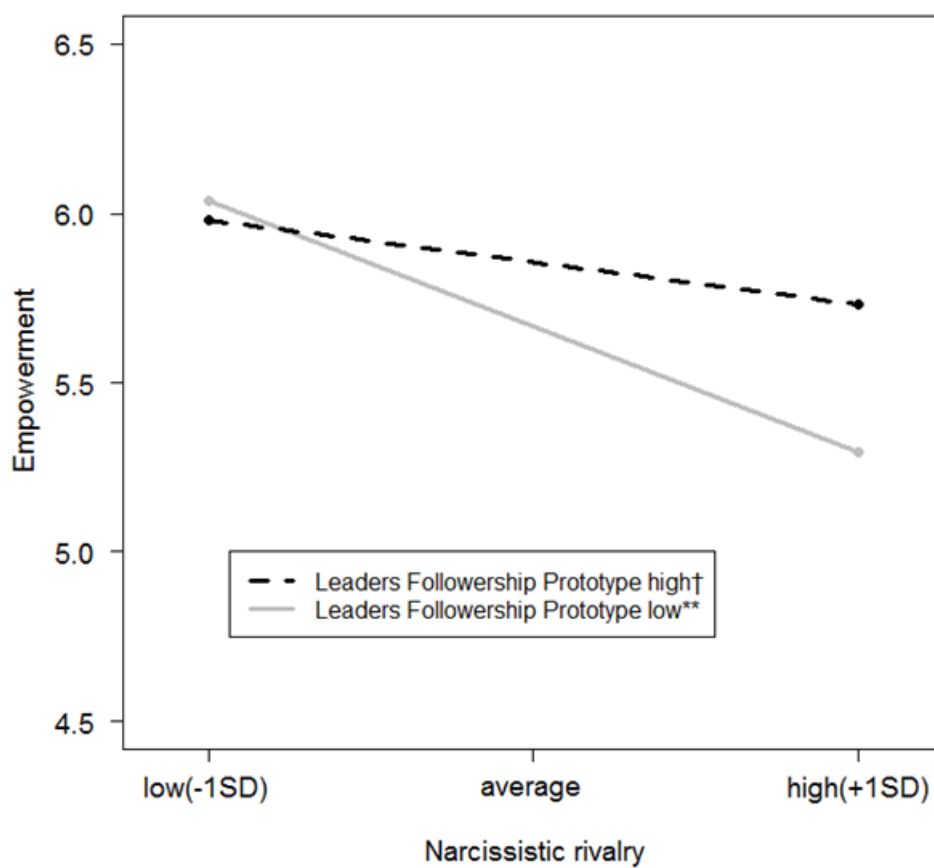


Figure 3.2. Empowerment regressed on narcissistic rivalry and moderated by leaders' followership prototype (Table 3.2, Model 3)

Note. $N = 268$ followers and their leaders.

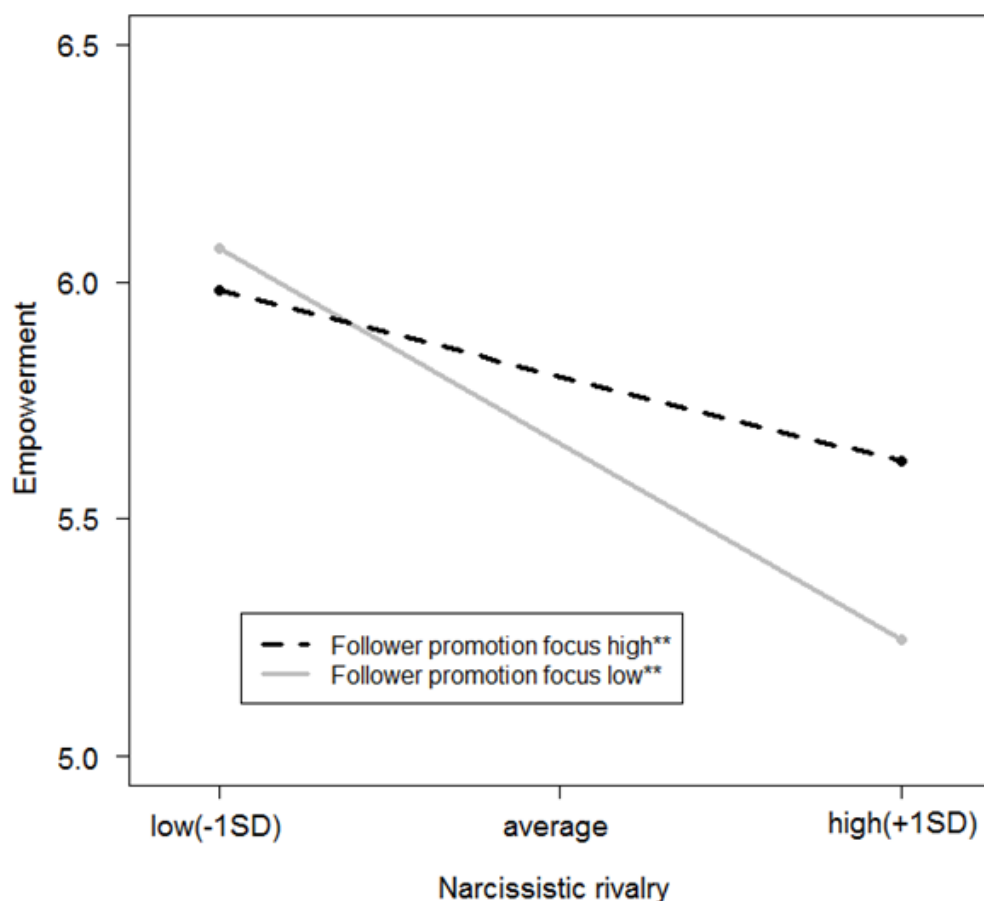


Figure 3.3. Empowerment regressed on narcissistic rivalry and moderated by followers' promotion focus (Table 3.2, Model 5)

Note. $N = 268$ followers and their leaders.

To test the *moderated mediation hypotheses 7 and 8*, we used model 7 of Hayes's (2013) PROCESS macro. *Hypothesis 7* stated that empowerment mediates the interaction effect of narcissistic rivalry and LFP on voice. We compared the conditional indirect effect of narcissistic rivalry on voice through empowerment at one *SD* above the mean (indirect effect = $-.03$, $SE = .02$, 95% CI $[-.09, -.003]$, Table 3.2, Model 3 & Model 9) and one *SD* below the mean of LFP (indirect effect = $-.09$, $SE = .04$, 95% CI $[-.18, -.02]$). Further, the index of moderated mediation was positive and the confidence interval did not include zero (index = $.03$, $SE = .01$, 95% CI $[.004, .07]$). The results indicate that the indirect effect of narcissistic rivalry on voice through empowerment was weaker for leaders with strong LFP than for those with poorer LFP.

To test *Hypothesis 8*, suggesting that the mediated effect of narcissistic rivalry on voice through empowerment is conditional on followers' promotion focus, we compared

the conditional indirect effect at one *SD* above the mean (indirect effect = $-.04$, $SE = .02$, 95% CI $[-.10, -.01]$, Table 3.2, Model 5 & Model 9) and one *SD* below the mean (indirect effect = $-.09$, $SE = .04$, 95% CI $[-.19, -.02]$) of followers' promotion focus. Moreover, the index of moderated mediation was positive and significant (index = $.04$, $SE = .02$, 95% CI $[.01, .09]$). The findings demonstrate that the indirect effect of narcissistic rivalry on voice through empowerment was weaker for followers with a strong promotion focus.

Exploratory analyses.

Although, we did not hypothesise that the positive relationship between narcissistic admiration and empowerment is moderated by LFP and/or follower promotion focus, we explored these possibilities. Both interactions were not significant ($B = .03$, $p = .69$ for follower promotion focus; $B = .02$, $p = .70$ for LFP), suggesting that our moderators are not relevant for followers' narcissistic admiration.

3.5 Discussion

We examined two facets of follower narcissism in a moderated mediation model predicting follower voice behaviour. As expected, we found narcissistic rivalry to be negatively and narcissistic admiration to be positively related to empowerment, which in turn affected follower voice. Moreover, the negative relationship between narcissistic rivalry and empowerment was weaker when leaders had positive IFTs or when followers' promotion focus was strong. Our results show that the two dimensions of narcissism differentially influence voice via empowerment. In addition, the detrimental effects of narcissistic rivalry can be buffered.

3.5.1 Theoretical implications

Our findings provide new insights to the literature of narcissism at work, which has mostly focused on leader narcissism. By differentiating two facets of narcissism and considering underlying motivational processes, we showed that the relationship between follower narcissism and work outcomes is not as simple as the positive or negative effects proposed by previous research (Penney & Spector, 2002; Soyer et al., 1999). Following up on this line, we demonstrated that narcissistic rivalry negatively and narcissistic admiration positively predicted empowerment and in turn voice behaviour, thereby supporting the idea that

narcissism can have a bright and a dark side (Back et al., 2013; Campbell et al., 2011). These findings may help to resolve previous inconsistent results of follower narcissism and its effect on organisational outcomes (Jonason et al., 2015; Judge et al., 2006; Mathieu, 2013; Soyer et al., 1999), which are likely due to neglected consideration about the dimensionality of narcissism and its motivational dynamics.

We examined an individual and a contextual moderator, thereby addressing calls by various scholars for research examining boundary conditions (Campbell et al., 2011; Johns, 2006; Nevicka, De Hoogh, et al., 2011). Moreover, we enhance Back et al.'s (2013) NARC model because we specify individual as well as contextual characteristics that influence the expression of narcissistic rivalry. We found that positive IFTs and follower promotion focus attenuate the negative effects of narcissistic rivalry on empowerment. Therefore, we call attention to implicit theories and follower characteristics as critical boundary conditions affecting narcissistic rivalry's negative impact. Considering these two moderators can explain, in part, previous mixed findings on the effect of follower narcissism on workplace outcomes (Jonason et al., 2015; Judge et al., 2006; Soyer et al., 1999).

We investigated follower narcissism, follower promotion focus and IFTs together, thereby integrating the NARC model (Back et al., 2013) and trait activation theory (Tett & Burnett, 2003) to understand the interplay of follower and leader characteristics in the prediction of follower motivation and performance. Thus, we respond to calls to take a more holistic perspective in the examination of leadership by integrating followers as a focal element (Avolio, Walumbwa, & Weber, 2009; Sy, 2010). Furthermore, prior organisational research has been criticised for not theorizing and examining how personality characteristics may work together (Barrick, Mount, & Li, 2013). We took up this point and investigated how follower narcissistic rivalry and promotion focus jointly influence follower empowerment.

We examined how LFP and follower promotion focus moderate the negative relationship between narcissistic rivalry and empowerment. Both interactions had significant effects on empowerment. However, when we tested an omnibus model including both interaction terms simultaneously, only the interaction between narcissistic rivalry and LFP remained significant, suggesting that LFP was the primary factor affecting the narcissistic rivalry-empowerment relationship. These results point to the importance of considering leadership as a social process involving leaders and followers. Initial leadership research

focused on leader characteristics and behaviour, whereas recent research better addresses the interaction between leader and follower (e.g., Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995). Our results fit in the current state of research emphasising the bilateral relationship.

3.5.2 Practical implications

Our research provides practical implications for personnel selection and personnel development. Our results showed that narcissistic rivalry negatively influenced work outcomes. Therefore, organisations should not select followers who score high on narcissistic rivalry. However, we showed that followers' narcissistic rivalry did not always lead to negative work outcomes because moderating factors influenced this relationship. Leaders' treatment of followers may attenuate harmful effects of narcissistic rivalry as well as other personality characteristics such as follower promotion focus. For these reasons, when selecting followers, one should not consider follower characteristics in isolation. The interaction between leader and follower characteristics is the core issue that affects work processes (Erdogan et al., 2006; Howell & Shamir, 2005). Therefore, in personnel selection, the characteristics of followers should be considered in light of the leader's characteristics. We showed that leaders' IFTs affect followers' narcissism and can soften its detrimental effects. For this reason, we recommend organisations to raise the awareness and importance of implicit theories to help their leaders realise their IFTs and consciously consider potential behavioural consequences.

3.5.3 Limitations and future research

Besides the theoretical and practical implications of the present research, there are several limitations to be addressed. One concern arises from the time of measurement of voice behaviour. In our model (Figure 3.1), we suggested empowerment to predict follower voice behaviour indicated by leaders. Nevertheless, we let leaders rate the follower's voice behaviour prior to assessing followers' empowerment (see also Venkataramani & Tangirala, 2010), thus raising the question of reverse causality. It is possible that there is a bidirectionality in this relationship; followers who engage in voice behaviour could be more motivated and consequently get empowered. However, this concern is lowered by the fact that consistent results emerged showing that empowerment influences voice behaviour (Kwak, 2012;

C. K. Park, 2016). Nevertheless, future research should seek to replicate this relationship by considering the assumed chronological order and longitudinally examine the suggested association. Moreover, experimental research is necessary to conclusively establish causality in the reported relationship.

In addition, we found that leaders' IFTs buffered the negative effect of narcissistic rivalry on empowerment. Nevertheless, we did not investigate the process of how these theories affect followers. IFTs may determine leaders' performance expectations of followers (Sy, 2010) which could influence followers' performance. This raises the question of how these performance expectations are reflected in leader behaviour. We suggest that leaders with positive performance expectations express them by acknowledging followers' contributions and including followers in decision-making. We recommend future research to examine underlying processes to explain how IFTs affect followers and their performance.

The study sample consisted of leaders and followers from diverse German organisations. Thereby, we tried to improve the study's generalisability to many industry sectors. This is important because industries have been shown to vary in their values and norms (Owens et al., 2015) which can influence leaders' receptiveness to voice behaviour or their IFTs. Our findings indicate that potential industrial cultural differences did not affect our hypothesised model. However, although our diverse sample helped to increase the generalisability of our results, it was not possible to control for extraneous factors that might have confounded the study results. Moreover, because the current study utilised a sample of German leaders and followers, the extent to which cultural differences played a role in influencing the results is not clear. Therefore, future studies should investigate whether our findings are generalisable across cultural contexts.

We examined how narcissistic rivalry and narcissistic admiration relate to empowerment. Future research could also explore if the two narcissism facets differentially affect other work outcomes, so that narcissistic rivalry negatively and narcissistic admiration positively influences these outcomes. Empowerment is a motivational construct (Spreitzer, 1995), and in addition, it might be interesting to investigate affective or cognitive work outcomes such as job satisfaction or cognition-based trust.

In our study, we drew on the framework of Back et al. (2013) because we aimed to take the multidimensionality of narcissism into account. This framework has been originally introduced in the context of social psychology. We took up this model and applied it to the

work and organisational context. Our results showed that the narcissism facets of the model can help explain previous mixed findings. However, future research should continue to test the model's applicability to other areas of organisational psychology (e.g., leadership).

3.5.4 Conclusion

In conclusion, some researchers found follower narcissism to be detrimental to organisational outcomes (Judge et al., 2006; Mathieu, 2013). However, other studies suggested the possibility of narcissism having positive effects (Chatterjee & Hambrick, 2007; Nevicka, De Hoogh, et al., 2011). We tested the idea that narcissism is a multidimensional construct that can have positive and negative effects in the work context and that the negative effects can be tempered by leader and follower characteristics. Our examination of follower narcissistic rivalry and narcissistic admiration furthers theory on follower narcissism and might account for mixed findings in the past. We hope that this research promotes future work on follower narcissism.

Chapter 3 concentrated on follower narcissism and examined its influence of empowerment, which in turn affected follower voice behaviour. Follower narcissism was split into two facets of narcissism, follower narcissistic rivalry and narcissistic admiration. Both facets differently predicted empowerment and voice, thus showing that the influence of narcissism on work outcomes is complex and not simply positive or negative. The fact, that the facets had opposite effects on the outcomes suggests that narcissism is multidimensional (e.g., Emmons, 1987; Grijalva et al., 2015). This is also in line with Kubarych et al. (2004) and Corry et al. (2008), who found support for factor structures of the NPI with more than one factor. The results of this chapter also showed that follower narcissism interacts with other personality traits in the prediction of empowerment. Follower promotion focus has been shown to attenuate the negative effect of narcissistic rivalry on empowerment. Leaders' implicit followership theories also softened this negative relationship, indicating the crucial role of the leader.

This chapter as well as Chapter 2 focused on leader *or* follower personality. Motivated by the findings in Chapter 3, Chapter 4 deals with a joint inspection by examining how leader and follower narcissism interact. Moreover, the leader-follower relationship is considered by measuring relationship conflict, a variable that reflects how leaders and followers get along with each other. Building on the results of Chapter 3 that suggest that narcissism is multidimensional, the following chapter also relies on the model by Back et al. (2013) that distinguishes narcissistic admiration from narcissistic rivalry. As a further form of extra-role behaviour, the following chapter focuses on organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) that encompasses individual contributions in the work context that go beyond requirements prescribed in the job description (Organ, 1988; Organ & Ryan, 1995).



Chapter 4

Sink or swim? Heterogeneous effects of followers' and leaders' narcissistic facets on relationship conflict

4.1 Introduction

The financial crisis, self-interested executives that insisted on their bonuses and the popularity of Donald Trump have increased the public interest in narcissism. On top of that, narcissism has become an increasingly popular topic in academic psychology. Organisational researchers have started to investigate the influence of narcissism in the work context (Grijalva & Harms, 2014; Grijalva et al., 2015; Judge et al., 2006, 2009; Nevicka, De Hoogh, et al., 2011; Nevicka, Ten Velden, De Hoogh, & Van Vianen, 2011; O'Boyle et al., 2012). By definition, narcissism comprises an inflated view of the self, fantasies of control, success and admiration, and a tendency for self-promotion and attention-seeking behaviour (Kernberg, 1989; Morf & Rhodewalt, 2001; O'Boyle et al., 2012). These characteristics entail cognitive, affective-motivational and behavioural processes such as a lack of empathy and dominant as well as aggressive behaviour (Back et al., 2013). Such processes negatively affect social interactions and carry the potential to relationship conflict. As social interactions between leaders and followers are frequent in the workplace, it is worth investigating which role narcissism plays in this interaction and how it influences relationship conflict. Therefore, I analyse how narcissistic leaders and narcissistic followers interact with each other and how relationship conflict is affected. Moreover, I differentiate between facets of narcissism, as I expect heterogeneous effects for the prediction of relationship conflict in such a way that specific combinations of leaders' and followers' narcissistic facets differently influence relationship conflict.

Not only do leaders and followers interact frequently - thus building a relationship - disturbances of this relationship like conflicts have severe consequences for the work behaviour (De Dreu, 2008). Conflict requires time and other resources that employees cannot use to perform their tasks. KPMG performed a study in 2009 to estimate the costs of conflict in companies (KPMG, 2009). The results showed that there are different categories of conflict costs, e.g., costs caused by fluctuation, counterproductive work behaviour or deficiencies in project work. With regard to conflict costs due to deficiencies in project work and canceled projects, approximately 50% of the respondents indicated that the costs exceeded 50.000€ per year. Besides these losses of performance, conflict is stressful for the people involved and can lead to psychosomatic complaints and burnout (De Dreu, 2008). As a consequence, conflict is associated with decreased team working efficiency and lower organisational productivity (Alper, Tjosvold, & Law, 2000; Jehn & Mannix, 2001), thus damaging the organisational functioning. These negative outcomes underline the necessity to understand antecedents of conflict in order to be able to reduce it.

Researchers have investigated many consequences of leader and follower narcissism at work. Narcissism has been linked to several work outcomes, e.g., leader effectiveness, task performance, job satisfaction, counterproductive work behaviour and organizational citizenship behavior (OCB; Blair, Hoffman, & Helland, 2008; Bruk-Lee, Khoury, Nixon, Goh, & Spector, 2009; Grijalva & Harms, 2014; Grijalva et al., 2015; Judge et al., 2006; Mathieu, 2013; Meurs, Fox, Kessler, & Spector, 2013; O'Boyle et al., 2012; Penney & Spector, 2002; Soyer et al., 1999). Due to an increased emphasis on the association between ambiguous or negative personality traits and destructive workplace behaviour (e.g., J. Wu & Lebreton, 2011), some studies investigate how narcissism affects relationship conflict (Lange et al., 2016; Moeller, Crocker, & Bushman, 2009). But all papers discussed here focus on narcissistic leaders *or* narcissistic followers. However, considering leader and follower personality simultaneously is necessary in order to understand their mutual behaviour in social interactions. This is underpinned by several studies showing that the interaction between leader and follower characteristics is the core issue that affects work processes (Erdogan et al., 2006; Howell & Shamir, 2005).

The present study analyses the interaction between narcissistic leaders *and* narcissistic followers and its consequences for relationship conflict, whilst considering the multidimensionality of narcissism. I draw on the Narcissistic Admiration and Rivalry Concept (NARC;

Back et al., 2013), which disentangles two facets of narcissism: narcissistic admiration and narcissistic rivalry.¹ The two dimensions serve the common goal of maintaining a grandiose self, but do so by different means: rivalry by means of self-defense to prevent social failure and admiration by means of self-promotion (Back et al., 2013). As a consequence, the behavioural processes and subsequent social interaction outcomes differ between the two facets (Back et al., 2013). Therefore, I suggest that the two facets predict relationship conflict differently: Follower narcissistic rivalry is expected to be positively related to conflict, whereas follower narcissistic admiration should have no effect.

Furthermore, I suggest an interaction effect between narcissistic followers and narcissistic leaders, thereby relying on the Narcissistic Leaders and Dominance Complementarity Model (DCM) of Grijalva and Harms (2014). This model examines how characteristics of narcissistic leaders interact with characteristics of their followers and how leadership effectiveness is affected. According to the DCM, submissive followers work more harmoniously with dominant and narcissistic leaders than dominant followers. Based on this complementarity and my suggestion that follower narcissistic *rivalry* positively predicts relationship conflict, I expect *leader narcissistic rivalry* to reinforce this relationship. This consideration is underlined by Grijalva and Harms (2014, p. 120-121) who suggest that "pairing two individuals with narcissistic tendencies would be more likely to result in conflict and an inability to compromise or reconcile their positions". *Leader narcissistic admiration*, however, should not moderate this relationship between follower narcissistic rivalry and relationship conflict. Thus, I also expect heterogeneous effects as a function of the *leaders'* narcissistic facets.

Interpersonal conflict damages employees' job performance (Jehn & Mannix, 2001; Spector & Jex, 1998). The latter typically considers employees' task-based and in-role behaviour (Kisamore, Liguori, Muldoon, & Jawahar, 2014). However, there has been an increasing interest in performance-related behaviour that is *not* part of employees' tasks and responsibilities as formulated in their job description. One aspect of this is OCB (Organ, 1988, 1997). OCB refers to a discretionary behaviour that is beneficial for an organisation, which is not explicitly recognized by the formal reward system (Organ, 1988) and thus not

¹Narcissism has been considered to be one-dimensional for some time (Judge et al., 2006; Mathieu, 2013; Penney & Spector, 2002; Wisse, Barelds, & Rietzschel, 2015) but recently, several researchers have suggested investigating narcissism at the facet level and not only at the global level for validity reasons (e.g., Corry et al., 2008; Kubarych et al., 2004). As a consequence, recent studies applied models consisting of several narcissism facets (Aghaz, Atashgah, & Zoghypour, 2014; Back et al., 2013; Lange et al., 2016; Weiser, 2015).

part of the formal job requirement. Due to increasing competition from international organisations, growing employee autonomy and flattened organisational hierarchy, employee performance like OCB that exceeds expectations is becoming more important to effective organisational functioning (P. M. Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Paine, & Bachrach, 2000). Thus, it is important to concentrate on antecedents of OCB to investigate which influencing factors promote or prevent it. In this paper, the focus is on one specific antecedent: I expect relationship conflict not only to affect task-based job performance as seen in previous studies (Amason, 1996; Jehn, Northcraft, & Neale, 1999), but also follower OCB and thus a form of extra-role behaviour. Miles et al. (2002) found a positive correlation between relationship conflict and follower OCB. In another study, relationship conflict had a negative relationship with OCB (Judge et al., 2006). The relation between these two variables is thus ambiguous in the literature, but I expect that relationship conflict negatively predicts follower OCB because the negative emotions caused by conflict should not promote a follower's helping behaviour.

I test my hypotheses in a three-wave study of 104 leader-follower dyads. Lange et al. (2016) investigated how narcissistic admiration and rivalry relate to relationship conflict in a student sample. To test the relationships in the work context, the study presented here examines this relationship relying on leader and follower data. This paper makes several contributions to the literature: First, the research presented here provides new insights into narcissism by investigating leader and follower narcissism jointly. Past literature focused on leader *or* follower narcissism separately but did not examine how narcissistic leaders and followers interact. Second, by differentiating between narcissistic rivalry and narcissistic admiration, I find different effects of the facets for predicting conflict. This shows that the correlation between narcissism and relationship conflict is more complex than the simple negative or positive effects between narcissism and work outcomes found in previous studies (e.g., Jonason, Slomski, & Partyka, 2012; Penney & Spector, 2002). Thus, previous studies might suffer from omitted variable bias because narcissism has not been correctly modeled, which leads to biased estimates. Third, the present study re-examines the association between narcissism and OCB by considering *facets* of narcissism and examining relationship conflict as a mediator. In previous studies, there were no or negative relationships between narcissism and OCB (e.g., Judge et al., 2006; Qureshi et al., 2015; Yildiz & Öncer, 2012). However, these authors used an overall measure of narcissism and did not

differentiate between facets of narcissism, thus suffering from the aforementioned omitted variable bias. Fourth, the panel study at hand uses several points in time of measurement and ratings from different sources. This reduces common method bias and improves on the weaknesses of previous studies that examined the association between relationship conflict and OCB using cross-sectional data and self-reports (e.g., Miles et al., 2002).

4.2 Theory

4.2.1 The roots of narcissism

The concept of narcissism refers to the Roman story of Narcissus who fell in love with his own reflection in a pond and drowned whilst trying to get as close as possible to it. Later, Freud (1957) incorporated the term narcissism in his theory of psychoanalysis to describe individuals, who are vain and self-loving because the relation between their libido and ego is unsound. In academic research, narcissism has been defined first as a personality disorder (Akhtar & Thomson, 1982; Kernberg, 1985). Today, psychologists view moderate expressions of narcissism to be evidence of a personality trait (Back et al., 2013; Emmons, 1984; Foster & Campbell, 2007; Lee & Ashton, 2005; Paulhus & Williams, 2002; Raskin & Terry, 1988). Narcissism as personality trait is characterised by perceived grandiosity, a sense of personal superiority, dominance and a desire for attention (Ames et al., 2006; Bogart, Benotsch, & Pavlovic, 2004; Campbell, Goodie, & Foster, 2004; Morf & Rhodewalt, 2001; Rauthmann & Kolar, 2013). This self-perception has a far-reaching effect on narcissists' social behaviour. Thus, when confronted with criticism, narcissists react with aggressive and hostile behaviour (Vazire & Funder, 2006). Furthermore, they lack empathy and thus are exploitative (Brunell et al., 2008).

4.2.2 Narcissistic admiration and narcissistic rivalry

In 2013, Back et al. introduced the Narcissistic Admiration and Rivalry Concept (NARC) that disentangles two distinct dimensions of narcissism - narcissistic admiration (assertive self-enhancement) and narcissistic rivalry (antagonistic self-protection). The two dimensions are positively related to each other but far from interchangeable because their underlying motivational dynamics are distinct (Back et al., 2013; Leckelt et al., 2015). According

to the NARC, individuals differ in their general goal to maintain a grandiose self and therefore in their expression of narcissism. To achieve this goal, they are also distinct in their activation of self-enhancement and self-protection (Wurst et al., 2017).

Narcissistic admiration integrates three intertwined narcissistic domains: striving for uniqueness, grandiose fantasies, and charmingness (Back et al., 2013). The activation of narcissistic self-enhancement is followed by the optimistic pursuit of one's uniqueness and imaginations about one's own grandiosity. This in turn leads to self-assured and expressive behaviour that is valued by other individuals in form of social status, praise or success. These desired outcomes reinforce the narcissist's grandiose self (Leckelt et al., 2017). Instead, narcissistic rivalry encompasses the domains of striving for supremacy, devaluation of others, and aggressiveness. The activation of narcissistic self-protection provokes a motivation to defend one's own superior status, especially when the narcissist perceives social rivals (Back et al., 2013). As a consequence, the narcissist develops insensitive and devaluing thoughts about others leading to hostile behaviour such as aggressiveness. In the following, the narcissist is met with negative social reactions such as rejection, unpopularity and criticism (Back et al., 2013).

The two-dimensional model of the NARC has been validated in a set of seven studies where both facets differently predicted several outcomes such as aggressiveness or maintaining close relationships (Back et al., 2013). Moreover, the NARC has been successfully applied to several other areas of research. For example, increasing and decreasing effects of the two narcissistic dimensions helped understand the decline of narcissists' popularity over time (Leckelt et al., 2015). Other studies showed that the two facets of narcissism differently predict malicious and benign envy (Lange et al., 2016) as well as revenge and avoidance (Fatfouta et al., 2015). A large-scale study with a convenience sample of almost 12.000 participants and a representative sample of more than 4000 participants recently supported the factor structure of the two narcissistic facets using a short version of the Narcissistic Admiration and Rivalry Questionnaire (NARQ-S, Leckelt et al., 2017).

4.2.3 Follower narcissistic admiration, follower narcissistic rivalry and relationship conflict

Based on the distinct motivational dynamics that underly narcissistic rivalry and narcissistic admiration and subsequent social behaviour, I suggest that the two narcissism facets

differentially predict relationship conflict at work. Relationship conflict describes a consciousness of relationship incompatibilities and integrates affective elements such as the feeling of tension, annoyance and frustration (Jehn & Mannix, 2001) as well as behavioural elements such as bullying, getting into arguments with coworkers and unpleasant treatment by coworkers and supervisors (Miles et al., 2002; Wornham, 2003). Due to the considerations described in the following, I expect follower narcissistic rivalry to be positively related to relationship conflict, whereas I suggest that follower narcissistic admiration has no effect on conflict.

Narcissistic rivalry entails insensitive and devaluing thoughts about others leading to hostile and aggressive behaviour (Wurst et al., 2017). This is underlined by a study that examined the effects of rivalry in a social dilemma. The results showed that rivalry has a clearly negative effect on the disposition and attitude towards others (Brandts, Riedl, & Van Winden, 2009). Hostile and aggressive behaviour is accompanied by negative social outcomes such as rejection. The perception of these outcomes should reinforce the intention to defend one's own status, thus boosting aggressiveness (Back et al., 2013) - akin to a negative spiral. Aggressive and socially insensitive behaviour can include arguments and unpleasant treatment towards coworkers and supervisors. This should create conditions that strengthen relationship conflict. Equally, devaluation of others leading to negative social feedback (Ackerman et al., 2011) should also foster potential conflict. In support of that, devaluation of others has been shown to lead to conflict in close relationships with coworkers (Back et al., 2013; Paulhus, 1998). Moreover, the negative social feedback leads to a perceived misfit between the narcissist's desired grandiose self and the perceived self. This misfit is accompanied by negative emotions which should also boost irritability and consequently relationship conflict. Based on these arguments, I formulate:

Hypothesis 1: Follower narcissistic rivalry is positively related to relationship conflict with the leader.

Narcissistic admiration includes thoughts about one's own grandiosity leading to self-assured behaviour (Back et al., 2013). This behaviour in turn is positively perceived by others making the narcissist feel proud. This experience gives rise to positive emotions that decrease potential conflict which integrates negative affective states such as annoyance and tension (Jehn & Mannix, 2001). The positive feedback given by others does not lead to relationship incompatibilities between the narcissist and coworkers or supervisors. Instead,

the narcissist is focused on the pursuit of his or her uniqueness and is concerned with imaginations about his or her own grandiosity. All in all, the narcissist does not feel threatened so that there is no reason to get in trouble and create relationship conflict. Consequently, I expect that:

Hypothesis 2: Follower narcissistic admiration is not related to relationship conflict with the leader.

4.2.4 Follower and leader narcissistic rivalry

As indicated by the leader-member exchange approach that acknowledges the role of followers in leadership processes (Graen, 1976; Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995), both leaders and followers determine the quality of their relationship. This supports the idea that leader and follower personality have to be considered jointly when predicting organisational outcomes. The Narcissistic Leaders and Dominance Complementarity Model (DCM; Grijalva & Harms, 2014) puts this idea into practice and makes assumptions about how leader and employee characteristics act together. The model is based on the relationship complementarity theory that examines "ways in which the interactional behavior of pairs of people may fit together and influence each other" (Sadler, Ethier, & Woody, 2011, p. 123). In this context, research has shown that complementary relationships result in more productive outcomes (e.g., Grant, Gino, & Hofmann, 2011) and that opposite levels of dominance lead to satisfying relationships (Dryer & Horowitz, 1997). Carson (1969) stated that dominance attracts submission. Instead, dominant persons who interacted with other dominant persons developed a disproportionate hostility (Shechtman & Horowitz, 2006). Moreover, Grant et al. (2011) showed that dominant leaders did not enhance group performance when the subordinates were also dominant and proactive. Relying on these findings and relationship complementarity theory, the DCM specifically focuses on the interaction between dominant followers and narcissistic leaders. As dominance and narcissism are positively related to each other (Bradlee & Emmons, 1992; Raskin & Terry, 1988), the DCM argues that submissive followers work more harmoniously with narcissistic (dominant) leaders and that their relationship is more satisfying (Grijalva & Harms, 2014). Conversely, this indicates that narcissistic leaders should not have satisfying relationships with their followers when they also have high levels of narcissism. Applying this idea to the facets of the NARC and relying on *Hypothesis 1*, I suggest the following interaction effect: If followers and leaders

are both high on narcissistic rivalry, relationship conflict is likely to be more severe, thus representing a moderation effect. This line of thought is underpinned by a study that showed that narcissistic rivalry is related to power-dominance values (Rogoza et al., 2016). Power values in turn relate to self- and other-rated behaviour (Bardi & Schwartz, 2003). Consequently, two narcissists high on rivalry - the leader and the follower - are on bad terms. Follower narcissistic rivalry includes devaluation of others leading to aggressive behaviour. A narcissistic leader high on rivalry also develops insensitive and devaluing thoughts about others which enhances hostile and aggressive behaviour. Consequently, when they meet each other, conflict is likely to occur because their mutual hostile behaviour fosters relationship incompatibilities, annoyance and tension. Therefore, I suggest:

Hypothesis 3: Leader narcissistic rivalry moderates the positive relationship between follower narcissistic rivalry and relationship conflict such that the association will be stronger for leaders high on narcissistic rivalry.

4.2.5 Relationship conflict and follower OCB

As a form of extra-role behaviour, OCB is defined as behaviour that contributes to "the maintenance and enhancement of the social and psychological context that supports task performance" (Organ, 1997, p. 91). Exemplary behaviour includes organisational support, personal initiative taking and loyalty (N. P. Podsakoff, Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Maynes, & Spoelma, 2014). A common categorization of OCB is the one introduced by Williams and Anderson (1991). They argue that OCB can be described by a two-factor model dividing OCB into the categories of organizational citizenship behavior that benefits individuals (OCBI) and organizational citizenship behavior that benefits the organisation (OCBO). OCBI includes behavioural aspects such as helping others who have been absent (Williams & Anderson, 1991) and are therefore observable by the leader. Instead, OCBO encompasses behavioural aspects that benefit the organisation in general, e.g., adhering to informal rules (Williams & Anderson, 1991). According to Miles et al. (2002) and Spector and Fox (2002), positive emotions play a role in the expression of OCB. Positive emotions induce approach tendencies and these tendencies in turn should foster OCB that represents pro-social behaviour intended to help (Spector & Fox, 2002). However, relationship conflict is linked to negative emotions (Bell & Song, 2005; Spector & Jex, 1998). A follower who is already angry and annoyed due to relationship conflict will probably perceive a situation in

such a manner that it induces even more negative emotion (Miles et al., 2002). This increasingly negative emotional state does not promote the follower's approach tendency; instead, it should promote the follower's avoidance tendency (Spector & Fox, 2002). Consequently, the follower will not engage in helping behaviour or organisational support, thus decreasing OCB. To be more specific, I suggest that relationship conflict especially hinders OCBI. An employee who has poor relationships with the leader will not engage in helping behaviour because enjoying reciprocation from the leader will be unlikely. This idea is underpinned by researchers who found stronger associations between leader-member exchange and OCBI than for leader-member exchange and OCBO (Ilies, Nahrgang, & Morgeson, 2007). One reason for this finding could be the leader's capability to foster the development of OCBI through relationship building (Lavelle, Rupp, & Brockner, 2007).

Previous studies that investigated the relationship between relationship conflict and OCB found ambiguous results: In one study, relationship conflict had a positive relationship with OCB (Miles et al., 2002). The authors argue that employees who experience higher levels of conflict view such situations of conflict as providing the opportunity to overcome these situations and showing behaviour that is not part of the formal job requirements, e.g., OCB. However, this study used a cross-sectional design and only employees self-rated their conflict and OCB, thereby running into danger of common method variance. Another study using a sample of followers and leaders and several points in time of measurement found a negative relationship between the two variables (Kisamore et al., 2014). Due to the considerations described above, I expect a negative relationship between relationship conflict and follower OCBI. Including *Hypothesis 1* I suggest that:

Hypothesis 4: Relationship conflict mediates the negative relationship between follower narcissistic rivalry and follower OCBI.

Hypothesis 3 suggests leader narcissistic rivalry to moderate the positive association between follower narcissistic rivalry and relationship conflict. *Hypothesis 4* states that relationship conflict mediates the relationship between follower narcissistic rivalry and follower OCBI. These expected associations are represented in my overall theoretical model illustrated in Figure 4.1. Integrating these two hypotheses, I suggest the following moderated mediation hypothesis (Edwards & Lambert, 2007; Preacher et al., 2007):

Hypothesis 5: There is a conditional indirect effect of follower narcissistic rivalry on follower OCBI such that the mediated effect of follower narcissistic rivalry on follower

OCBI through relationship conflict is conditional on leader narcissistic rivalry. The indirect effect is stronger for leaders high on narcissistic rivalry.

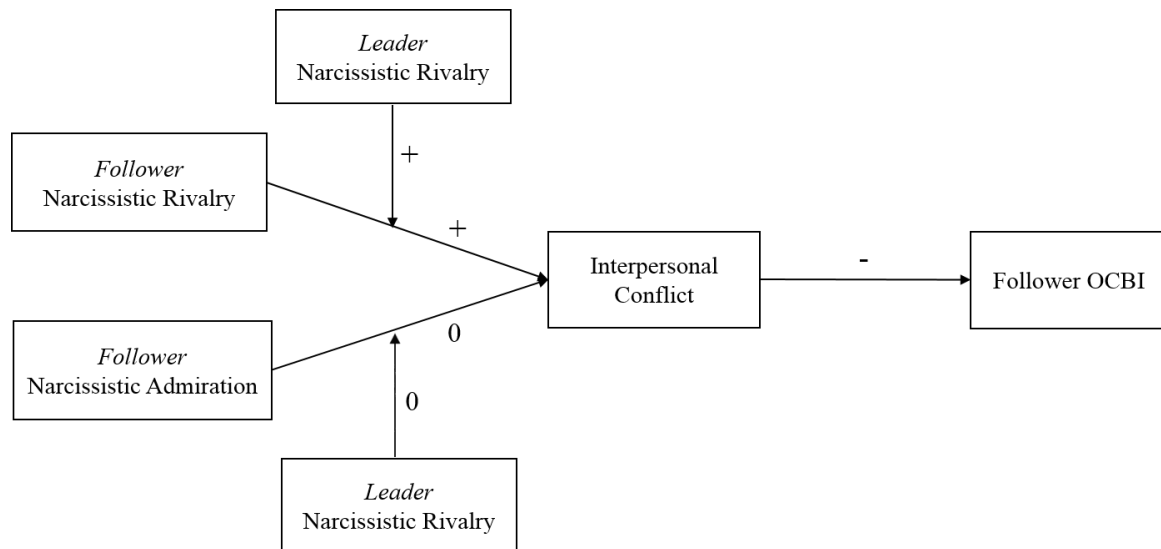


Figure 4.1. Overall theoretical model.

Note. OCBI = Organizational Citizenship Behavior directed towards Individuals.

4.3 Method

4.3.1 Participants and procedure

To test the hypotheses, I conducted a multi-wave field study with multisource data. This should reduce common method bias. 19 students recruited followers and leaders for the study as part of their seminar or lecture requirements. A diverse sample of German followers and leaders working in a broad range of organisations were recruited online. Table 4.3 in Appendix A shows the represented industries and occupations of the participants. Participants took part in the study voluntarily and had the possibility to obtain central study results as well as their individual profile of social skills after the end of the study. In order to ensure anonymity, neither followers nor leaders received information about the survey responses of the respective other.

The students first invited participants to take part in the study via e-mail. After followers agreed to participate, students sent invitation emails to the followers who then received

an e-mail including a description of the study and the link to the first online survey. Followers reported their demographics and then assessed their narcissistic rivalry and admiration. At the end of the first survey, followers were asked to specify their email address in order to be sent the second questionnaire. A week later, they automatically received an email including a link to the second survey. After measuring perceived relationship conflict with their respective leader, followers were asked to indicate their leader's email address. Subsequently, leaders received an email including a link to an online survey assessing their narcissistic rivalry and admiration and follower organizational citizenship behavior towards individuals (OCBI). I used generated identification codes to match followers' and leaders' questionnaires.

Of 193 followers who started the first online survey, 174 followers completed it (completion rate 90.2%). Of the 162 followers who participated in the second survey, 150 finished the survey (completion rate 92.6%). Of 126 leaders who participated in the leader survey, 120 completed the questionnaire (completion rate 95.2%). 13 participants were removed from the sample because they either evaluated another colleague instead of their leader when completing the questionnaire, they were leaders themselves and evaluated one of their followers or they indicated their own e-mail addresses instead of their leaders' e-mail addresses. Subsequently, I matched 107 follower-leader dyads. Three more dyads were eliminated from the data set because the followers' and/or leaders' values on follower narcissistic rivalry, leader narcissistic rivalry and/or relationship conflict differed by three times the standard deviation or more from the respective variable mean.² Thereupon, the final study sample consisted of 104 dyads of followers and their leaders. 54.81% of the followers were female and the followers' average age was 37.45 years ($SD = 12.78$). 25.00% of the leaders were female and the leaders' average age was 46.38 years ($SD = 10.66$). Most of the followers and leaders worked in the following industries: automotive industry (14.4%), commerce (7.7%), public services (7.7%) and medical sector (5.8%, see Table 4.3).

²Two of these participants also did not answer a control question ("Please choose the second response option from the left.") correctly, indicating that their response behaviour is random. This assumption is supported by the fact that these participants often showed no variance in their response behaviour on different scales, even though some items were inverted.

4.3.2 Measures

Follower Narcissism. Followers completed the German 18-item Narcissistic Admiration and Rivalry Questionnaire (Back et al., 2013) to measure narcissistic admiration and narcissistic rivalry. A 6-point Likert scale was used (1: *strongly disagree* – 6: *strongly agree*; admiration: $\alpha = .88$; rivalry: $\alpha = .81$). Sample items were "I am great", "Being a very special person gives me a lot of strength", "I enjoy my successes very much" (admiration) and "Most people are somehow losers", "Most people won't achieve anything", "I react annoyed if another person steals the show from me" (rivalry).

Leader Narcissism. Leaders completed the same German 18-item Narcissistic Admiration and Rivalry Questionnaire (Back et al., 2013) to assess narcissistic admiration and narcissistic rivalry with the 6-point Likert scale (1: *strongly disagree* – 6: *strongly agree*; admiration: $\alpha = .88$; rivalry: $\alpha = .83$).

Interpersonal conflict. Followers responded to three items by Jehn and Mannix (2001) to assess their relationship conflict with their leaders. The English items were translated into German by the author and retranslated into English by an English native speaker. A 5-point scale (1: *never/none* – 5: *almost always/very much*, $\alpha = .79$) was used. The items were "How much relationship tension is there between you and this employee?", "How often do you and this employee get angry while working?" and "How much emotional conflict is there between you and this employee?".

Follower OCBI. Leaders evaluated followers' OCBI using eight items (Lee & Allen, 2002). The English items were translated into German by the author and re-translated into English by an English native speaker. Leaders indicated on a 7-point scale (1: *never* – 7: *always*, $\alpha = .86$) how often their respective follower showed the particular behaviour. Sample items are "This follower gives up time to help others who have work or nonwork problems" and "This follower goes out of the way to make newer employees feel welcome in the work group."

4.4 Results

4.4.1 Test of main effects and moderation

Follower narcissistic admiration and rivalry are positively correlated (Table 4.1). Thus, I performed multiple regression analyses to estimate each facet's unique relation with the criterion variable (see also Back et al., 2013) and regressed interpersonal conflict on both facets simultaneously. Table 4.2 (Model 1) presents the regression coefficients. Narcissistic rivalry positively predicts relationship conflict ($B = .22, p < .05$), whereas narcissistic admiration does not show any association ($B = .06, p = .43$). Thus, *Hypothesis 1* and *Hypothesis 2* are supported.

Hypothesis 3 states that leader narcissistic rivalry moderates the positive relationship between follower narcissistic rivalry and relationship conflict such that the relation will be stronger for leaders high on narcissistic rivalry. As leader narcissistic rivalry and leader narcissistic admiration also have a significant bivariate correlation (see Table 4.1), leader narcissistic admiration served as a control variable in the moderation analysis. Furthermore, I used mean centering because of its beneficial effect for testing interactions in regression models (Little, Card, Bovaird, Preacher, & Crandall, 2007). As presented in Table 4.2 (Model 3), the interaction between leader and follower narcissistic rivalry is significant ($B = .33, p < .05$, 4.7% additional variance explained). Then, I calculated simple effects at high and low levels of leader narcissistic rivalry ($\pm 1 SD$ around the mean). Consistent with *Hypothesis 3*, among leaders high on narcissistic rivalry, follower narcissistic rivalry is more strongly related to relationship conflict ($B = .48, p = .002$) than for those leaders low on narcissistic rivalry ($B = .08, p = .49$; see Figure 4.2). Leaders high on narcissistic rivalry strengthen the positive association between follower narcissistic rivalry and relationship conflict.

To strengthen the robustness of the interaction effect, I compared the conditional means of relationship conflict for leaders high vs. low on narcissistic rivalry under the condition that follower narcissistic rivalry is high vs. low (see Figure 4.2). The conditional means of relationship conflict under the condition that follower narcissistic rivalry is *high* significantly differ from each other ($t = -7.10, df = 103, p < .001$). The conditional means of relationship conflict under the condition that follower narcissistic rivalry is *low* also significantly differ from each other ($t = 2.35, df = 103, p < .05$).

Table 4.1

Descriptive Statistics, Correlations, and Reliabilities

Variables	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	1	2	3	4	5	6
1. F. Follower Narc Rivalry	2.14	0.69	.81					
2. F. Follower Narc Admiration	3.22	0.85	.52**	.88				
3. L. Leader Narc Rivalry	2.03	0.62	-.15	-.04	.83			
4. L. Leader Narc Admiration	3.03	0.80	-.13	.02	.63**	.88		
5. F. Relationship Conflict	1.80	0.60	.30**	.22*	-.04	-.11	.79	
6. L. Follower OCBI	5.35	0.88	-.31**	-.23*	-.21*	-.16	-.28**	.86

Notes. *N* = 104 followers and their leaders. "F" indicates followers' ratings, "L" indicates leaders' ratings. Narc = Narcissistic, OCBI = Organizational Citizenship Behavior directed towards Individuals. The numbers in bold on the diagonal are reliability coefficients.

***p* < .01, **p* < .05.

4.4.2 Test of mediation and moderated mediation

Hypothesis 4 states that relationship conflict mediates the relationship between follower narcissistic rivalry and follower OCBI. To test this mediation hypothesis, I applied bootstrapping with 5000 draws to determine the significance of the indirect effects (Hayes, 2013; Preacher & Hayes, 2008). Follower narcissistic admiration was included in the mediation analysis to assess the unique contribution of narcissistic rivalry in the prediction of relationship conflict and follower OCBI. Supporting *Hypothesis 4*, the indirect effect of follower narcissistic rivalry on follower OCBI through relationship conflict is significant and the confidence interval did not include zero (indirect effect = -.07, *SE* = .05, 95% CI [-.21, -.00], Table 4.2, Model 1 & Model 5).

Hypothesis 5 states that relationship conflict mediates the interaction effect of leader and follower narcissistic rivalry on follower OCBI. To test this moderated mediation hypothesis, I used model 7 of Hayes' (2013) PROCESS macro. Again, leader narcissistic admiration served as control variable. I compared the conditional indirect effect of follower narcissistic rivalry on follower OCBI through relationship conflict at one *SD* above the mean (indirect effect = -.16, *SE* = .09, 95% CI [-.38, -.02], Table 4.2, Model 3 & Model 5) and one *SD* below the mean of leader narcissistic rivalry (indirect effect = -.03, *SE* = .04, 95% CI [-.14, .04]). Additionally, the index of moderated mediation is negative (index = -.11, *SE* = .07, 95% CI [-.28, -.01]). These results indicate that the indirect effect of follower narcissistic rivalry on follower OCBI through relationship conflict is stronger for leaders high on

4.4. RESULTS

narcissistic rivalry than for those low on narcissistic rivalry.

Table 4.2

Hierarchical Regressions on Relationship Conflict and Follower OCBI

Variable	Relationship Conflict			Follower OCBI	
	<i>Model 1</i>	<i>Model 2</i>	<i>Model 3</i>	<i>Model 4</i>	<i>Model 5</i>
Follower Narc Riv	.22* (.10)	.21* (.10)	.28** (.10)	-.32* (.14)	-.26† (.14)
Follower Narc Adm	.06 (.08)	.07 (.08)	.05 (.08)	-.11 (.11)	-.09 (.11)
Leader Narc Riv		.08 (.12)	.11 (.12)		
Leader Narc Adm		-.10 (.09)	-.12 (.09)		
Follower Riv x Leader Riv			.33* (.14)		
Relationship Conflict					-.30* (.14)
R^2	.10**	.11*	.15**	.10**	.14**
ΔR^2		.01	.05*		.04*

Notes. $N = 104$ followers and their leaders. Narc Riv = Narcissistic Rivalry; Narc Adm = Narcissistic Admiration; OCBI = Organizational Citizenship Behavior directed towards Individuals. Values are unstandardized regression coefficients; standard error estimates are in parentheses. All lower-order terms used in interactions were centered prior to analysis.

** $p < .01$, * $p < .05$, † $p < .10$.

4.4.3 Robustness checks

In order to rule out that the simple interaction between narcissistic leaders and followers per se strengthens relationship conflict, I conducted additional analyses. I tested three more interactions between the followers' and leaders' narcissistic facets and examined their effect on relationship conflict. The interaction between follower narcissistic rivalry and leader narcissistic admiration is not significant ($B = .13$, $p = .19$). Equally, the interactions between follower narcissistic admiration and leader narcissistic admiration on the one hand and follower narcissistic admiration and leader narcissistic rivalry on the other hand are not significant ($B = .06$, $p = .53$; $B = .09$, $p = .44$).

To hedge against any concerns that gender might play a role in dyadic relationships and influences relationship conflict (Boneva, Kraut, & Frohlich, 2001; Wood, 2000), I included leader's and follower's sex and their interaction in the analyses. Across all specifications,

the coefficients were insignificant and the main effects remained virtually unchanged.³

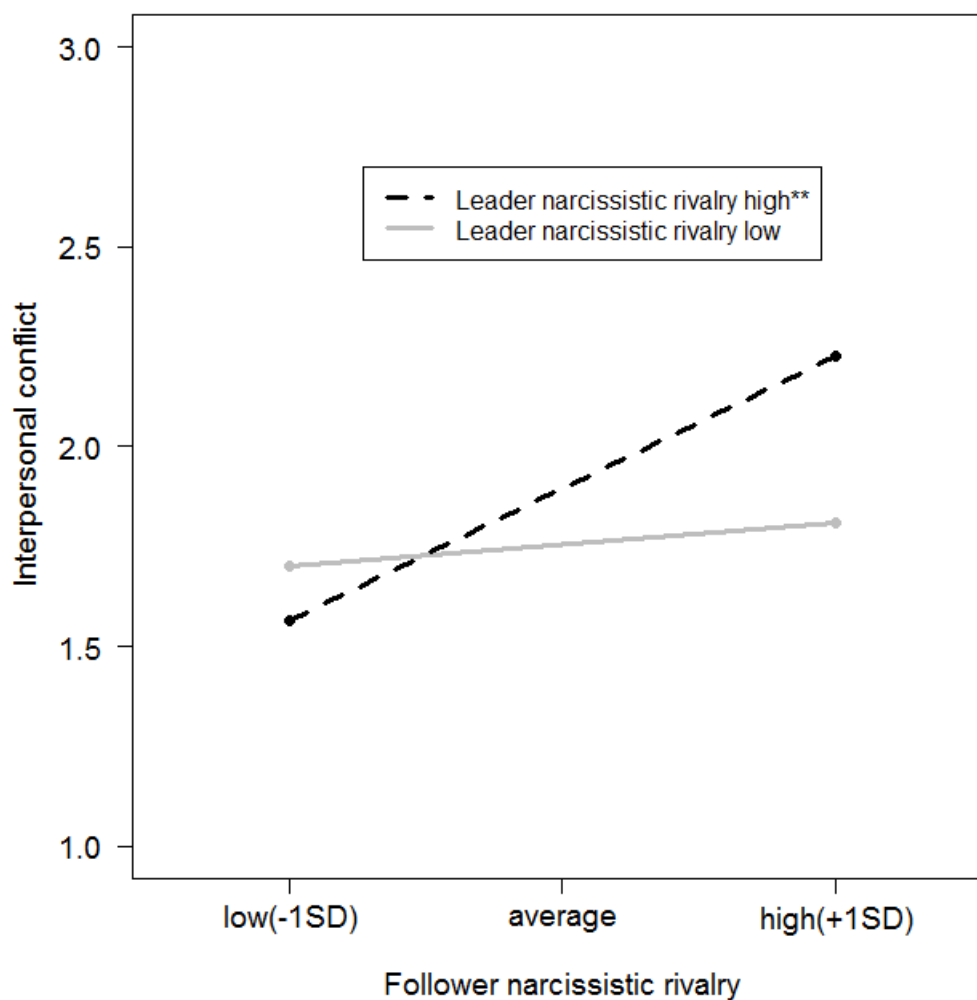


Figure 4.2. Relationship conflict regressed on follower narcissistic rivalry and moderated by leader narcissistic rivalry (Table 4.2, Model 3).

4.5 Discussion

This study investigates how follower narcissistic rivalry and admiration are associated with relationship conflict and OCBI. As expected, follower narcissistic rivalry positively predicts relationship conflict which in turn negatively affects OCBI, whereas follower narcissistic admiration does not have an effect on relationship conflict and subsequently fol-

³The results can be obtained from the author upon request.

lower OCBI. Moreover, follower and leader narcissistic rivalry interact in the prediction of relationship conflict. If both are high on narcissistic rivalry, conflict is more severe. These results show that differentiating between narcissistic rivalry and narcissistic admiration is necessary to find unbiased effects for predicting relationship conflict and OCBI.

4.5.1 Theoretical implications

The study contributes to the narcissism literature in two important ways: First, the findings suggest that follower narcissism is not simply good *or* bad as suggested by previous studies that found either positive *or* negative effects of narcissism in the work context (Judge et al., 2006; Mathieu, 2013; Penney & Spector, 2002). In this study, only one facet of follower narcissism - narcissistic rivalry - was associated with a negative outcome, relationship conflict. This indicates that especially narcissists who strive for supremacy and devalue others (Back et al., 2013) come into conflict with their supervisors at work more often, presumably due to their insensitive and hostile behaviour towards them. Instead, followers high on narcissistic admiration, who are longing for uniqueness and have grandiose fantasies (Back et al., 2013) do not pick a fight with their supervisors (see Table 4.2). Second, narcissistic followers bumping into narcissistic leaders is not problematic per se. Again, the narcissistic facets play a role in such a way that only one combination of follower and leader narcissism is toxic: only if both follower and leader are high on narcissistic rivalry, relationship conflict is getting more severe. The two narcissists "sink" together if they are both high on narcissistic rivalry, but can "swim" side by side if they are not both high on this facet, e.g., when one of them is high on narcissistic rivalry but the other one is high on admiration (see 4.4.3). These results are in line with the DCM by Grijalva and Harms (2014), who state that bringing two narcissists together could result in conflict. The findings outlined here precisely specify which types of narcissists do not get along with each other as well as which do.

Table 4.2 (Model 5) indicates that relationship conflict mediates the relationship between follower narcissistic rivalry and follower OCBI for the most part. This suggests that narcissism, more specifically narcissistic rivalry, only has a small direct effect on OCBI. Instead, a narcissistic follower who gets in conflict with the supervisor should be annoyed and consequently not feel the need to help others. This mediation effect might also point to other indirect effects of narcissism on performance that were not considered in previous

studies investigating this relationship (e.g., Judge et al., 2006; Qureshi et al., 2015; Yildiz & Öncer, 2012).

Followers indicated their relationship conflict with their supervisor using three items by Jehn and Mannix (2001). As there might be concerns that followers perceive relationship conflict with their supervisor in a different way from the supervisor, the supervisors themselves also indicated their relationship conflict with the respective follower on the same items. The correlation between the two ratings of relationship conflict was $r = .30$ ($p = .002$), thus showing that the perception of the followers and leaders coincide. This underpins the validity of the relationship conflict measure. Consequently, computing the analyses described in Chapter 4.4 using the relationship conflict items evaluated by the supervisors leads to the same qualitative and similar quantitative results.

4.5.2 Practical implications

The results of the study provide implications for selection and team creation. Follower narcissistic rivalry has been shown to increase relationship conflict. Thus, an organisation should be careful when selecting followers who score high on this narcissistic facet. In the selection process, the characteristics of the follower's supervisor should also be considered. If both the follower and the supervisor are high on narcissistic rivalry, relationship conflict is likely to become more severe. Thus, pairing followers and leaders with high levels of narcissistic rivalry should be avoided. The study by KPMG (2009) shows that conflict at work is extremely expensive. To avoid the conflict costs, it might be worth spending more time in the preparation and implementation of the selection process. This could prohibit that employees high on narcissistic rivalry are chosen. Moreover, the leader's expression on narcissistic rivalry could be assessed, too, in order to identify proper or "toxic" matches of followers and leaders.

4.5.3 Limitations and future research

Although the study provides several theoretical contributions and practical implications, there are limitations that have to be kept in mind. One concern is the omitted variable problem. Relationship conflict has been found to be a mediating variable in the relationship between follower narcissistic rivalry and OCB. There might be other mediators that have

not been considered. For instance, it is possible that a follower high on narcissistic rivalry develops devaluing thoughts about others in response to ego threat. Instead of concentrating on work, the follower might engross his or her negative thoughts and thus be distracted from working. In other words, cogitating could be another variable that mediates the relationship between narcissistic rivalry and performance. Moreover, there might be other work-related variables that are influenced by the interaction between leader and follower narcissistic rivalry. It is conceivable that the leader treats the follower in an unfair manner or that the follower shows rude, aggressive or counterproductive work behaviour when they both do not get along with each other. Therefore, it might be worth investigating other outcomes in order to assess the negative consequences of pairing two narcissists high on rivalry. Future studies should examine other potential mediators and outcomes to shed light on the relationship between narcissistic rivalry and performance outcomes such as OCBI. In this context, considering motivational dynamics linked to narcissistic admiration and rivalry might be important as the paper at hand showed heterogeneous effects between narcissistic rivalry and admiration.

The sample of the study is composed of followers and leaders from different German organisations. This could improve the generalisability across different industrial sectors. However, Table 4.3 shows that some industry sectors (e.g., the automotive industry, public services or commerce) are proportionally more strongly represented in the sample than other sectors.⁴ This might limit the generalisability across sectors. Aside from this, the diversity of the sectors causes another problem: it hinders the control for extraneous variables that might have influenced the findings. In a large-scale study with more than 5500 participants, Furnham, Hyde, and Trickey (2014) showed that the expression of dark personality traits differs between the private and the public sector and between different industries such as finance, insurance and emergency services. It would have been interesting to test if the results of the study differ between industries and analyse the data for the industries separately. However, the sample sizes of the subsamples were too small to reasonably interpret the results (see also Table 4.3). Future studies could examine prospective industry effects and test if the findings of this study hold across sectors.

Several points in time of measurement and ratings of two different sources were used to avoid weaknesses of cross-sectional research designs and the problem of common-

⁴However, the distribution of the industrial sectors in the sample corresponds to the distribution found in the German population (Statistisches Bundesamt, 2017).

method bias. Despite these improvements, definitely establishing a causal ordering of the research model is not possible. According to Figure 4.1, follower narcissism influences relationship conflict. Manipulating personality in order to establish causality is not practicable (see also Ferris et al., 2013). However, the research model is in line with the dominant view holding that personality influences behaviour (e.g., Asendorpf et al., 2002; Back et al., 2009; Chamorro-Premuzic & Furnham, 2003). The model further assumes that relationship conflict predicts follower performance, that is to say follower OCBI. Thus, relationship conflict was measured before OCBI was assessed. To further reduce common-method bias, the supervisor evaluated the follower's OCBI. Nevertheless, it is necessary to conduct longitudinal studies in order to find causal relationships. Future research should seek to replicate this relationship by performing long term studies and use more sophisticated methods.

4.5.4 Conclusion

This paper provides new insights into the effect of narcissism on relationship conflict and performance. Follower narcissistic rivalry has a positive correlation with relationship conflict that in turn affects follower OCBI, whereas follower narcissistic admiration has no effect. Furthermore, leader narcissistic rivalry strengthens the relationship between follower narcissistic rivalry and relationship conflict. These findings show that follower narcissism is not good *or* bad but different narcissistic facets heterogeneously predict conflict and follower performance. Moreover, the results demonstrate that narcissistic followers and leaders can "swim" next to each other if they are not both high on narcissistic rivalry. If they are, however, they "sink" together as a consequence of the conflict between them.

4.A Appendix A

Table 4.3

Overview of the Industries

	Frequency	%	Cumulative %
Automotive industry	15	14.4	14.4
Public services	9	8.7	23.1
Commerce	8	7.7	30.8
Medical sector	6	5.8	36.6
Consulting	5	4.8	41.4
Insurance	5	4.8	46.2
Machine building industry	5	4.8	51
Banking	4	3.8	54.8
Computer industry	4	3.8	58.6
Electrical industry	4	3.8	62.4
Financial and tax advice	4	3.8	66.2
Construction	4	3.8	70
Services (unspecified)	4	3.8	73.8
Non-profit organisations	4	3.8	77.6
Academia and research institutions	3	2.9	80.5
Consumer goods industry	3	2.9	83.4
Media and communication	2	1.9	85.3
Law	2	1.9	87.2
Textile	2	1.9	89.1
Advertising / PR	2	1.9	91
Energy and supply	1	1.0	92
Food industry	1	1.0	93
Telecommunication	1	1.0	94
Traffic, transport and tourism	1	1.0	95
Other	5	4.8	100

Note. $N = 104$ followers and their leaders.

Chapter 5

Discussion

5.1 Summary

The dissertation at hand aimed at analysing the influence of leader and follower personality on the leader-follower interaction in the work context and followers' extra-role behaviour. By investigating humility and narcissism, I intended to examine antagonistic personality characteristics and perform a comprehensive analysis by integrating personality traits that represent important aspects in different psychological research trends. Humility is a fundamental virtue in positive psychology (Snyder & McCullough, 2000), whereas narcissism is one of the three personality traits of the dark triad in the homonymous research (Paulhus & Williams, 2002). I investigated the leader-follower interaction by looking at perceived leadership styles and relationship conflict, thus combining a variety of variables. Moreover, followers' voice and organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) were examined as two forms of extra-role behaviour, which is gaining increased interest due to dynamic environments and changes in organisational structures (Ilgen & Pulakos, 1999; Van Dyne & LePine, 1998).

The results of Chapter 2 indicate that it is the leader's *true* (implicit) humility that affects perceived leader behaviour. Implicit humility, measured by the proposed Implicit Association Test (IAT), predicted perceived humble leadership, abusive supervision and also followers' trust in leader. Moreover, humble leadership and abusive supervision mediated the positive relationship between leader implicit humility and trust in leader. However, explicit humility, assessed by a self-rating, did not predict any of these variables. On the one hand, these findings show that measurement aspects are of critical importance when

assessing personality characteristics such as humility that might be prone to socially desirable responding. Therefore, the use of an IAT of humility might present a solution to the humility measurement paradox (e.g., Owens et al., 2013) by avoiding problems associated with the use of explicit measures of humility. On the other hand, the results suggest that genuine humility is a valuable personality trait of a leader. If present, the followers perceive the leader as trustworthy, humble and non-abusive. This is in line with Morris et al. (2005) who state that today's organisational functioning benefits from humble leaders.

After investigating the role of leader humility in Chapter 2, Chapter 3 mainly focused on the follower's role and narcissism as the antagonist of humility. The analysis of follower narcissism reveals that a sophisticated point of view is necessary when investigating the influence of follower narcissism on work outcomes. Follower narcissistic rivalry negatively affected empowerment and in turn voice, whereas narcissistic admiration had a positive effect. Moreover, two moderating variables, leaders' implicit followership theories and follower promotion focus, appeared as buffers and attenuated the negative effect of narcissistic rivalry on empowerment. These results put previous ambiguous findings regarding the relationship between follower narcissism and work outcomes (Judge et al., 2006; Penney & Spector, 2002; Soyer et al., 1999) into context that suffered from a lack of differentiation between narcissistic facets. Moreover, the heterogeneous results for the narcissistic facets imply that narcissism should not be considered globally. Instead, the differentiation of facets seems reasonable to identify both negative and positive effects of narcissism that are present.

Chapter 3 focused on follower narcissism only, leaving the question open what might happen if both leaders *and* followers are high on narcissism. This question was addressed by the research depicted in Chapter 4 that deals with the interaction of narcissistic followers and leaders, thereby again differentiating between the facets of narcissistic rivalry and admiration. The results show that follower narcissistic rivalry positively predicted relationship conflict between the leader and follower and subsequently had a negative impact on OCBI. By contrast, narcissistic admiration did not lead to conflict and OCBI. The Narcissistic Leaders and Dominance Complementarity Model (DCM; Grijalva & Harms, 2014) argues that submissive followers are on good terms with narcissistic (dominant) leaders. Based on this complementarity, I argued that narcissistic followers should not get along with their narcissistic leaders when both of them are high on narcissistic rivalry. This hy-

pothesis found strong support in the data. Only if the leader and follower were both high on narcissistic rivalry, relationship conflict was enhanced. Other combinations of leaders' and followers' narcissistic facets, however, did not intensify interpersonal difficulties.

5.2 Theoretical implications and extensions

5.2.1 Holistic examination of the variables

In order to get a comprehensive picture of the variables considered in the preceding chapters, they can be classified along one axis going from destructive to proactive behaviour in the workplace. The antagonistic personality traits humility and narcissism examined in the Chapters 2, 3 and 4 can be included as two poles in a widespread schema depicted in Figure 5.1. *Proactive behaviour* relates to self-initiated and future-oriented action with the aim of changing and improving the situation or oneself (Parker, Williams, & Turner, 2006; Unsworth & Parker, 2003). Instead, *destructive behaviour* can be defined as any form of negative behaviour including counterproductive work behaviour (CWB; Schyns & Schilling, 2013). CWB encompasses many domains, such as theft and related behaviour, misuse of information and inappropriate verbal and physical actions (Sackett, 2002).

Chapter 2 focused on leader's humility and the leader-follower interaction was measured by the leadership behaviour perceived by the follower, humble leadership and abusive supervision. As the personality trait considered in this chapter was humility, the interaction variables are placed in the upper part of the figure. Humble leadership behaviour is a proactive behaviour. Owens et al. (2013) state that humble leaders want to see themselves accurately, appreciate others' strengths and contributions and are open to be taught by their followers. These behavioural aspects are in line with proactive behaviour as humble leaders aim at improving themselves by seeing him- or herself more accurately, learning from others and improving the situation by appreciating followers' strengths so that they perform the behaviour more often in the future (see also operant conditioning theory; Skinner, 1963). On the left side of the schema, abusive supervision (Tepper, 2000) is classified as destructive behaviour (see Figure 5.1). Schyns and Schilling (2013) argue that there are several conceptualizations of destructive leadership, where one of them is abusive supervision, thus pointing to the destructive character of this leadership style. As abusive supervision is characterised by the display of hostile verbal and non-verbal behaviour (Tepper, 2000),

5.2. THEORETICAL IMPLICATIONS AND EXTENSIONS

this definition is in line with destructive behaviour that includes inappropriate verbal actions (Sackett, 2002). Trust in leader was assessed as an outcome of humble leadership (positive association) and abusive supervision (negative association). However, this variable cannot be classified as a behaviour; instead, it has affective and cognitive components (Dirks & Ferrin, 2002). Nevertheless, trust in leader has been considered as a *consequence* of proactive (humble leadership) and destructive (abusive supervision) behaviour and is therefore marked as an outcome.

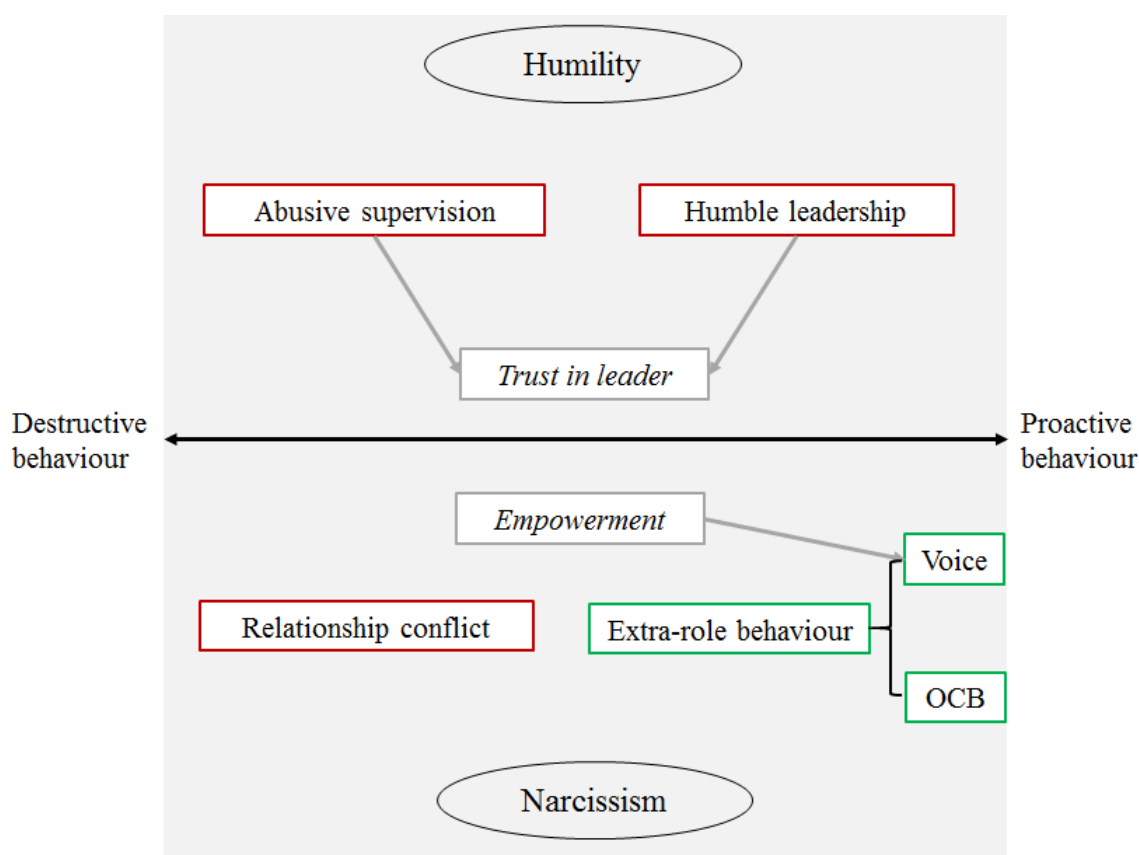


Figure 5.1. Holistic integration of the relevant variables.

Note. Variables representing the leader-follower interaction are Abusive supervision, Humble leadership and Relationship conflict. Variables of extra-role behaviour are Voice and OCB. Variables that do not reflect behaviour are printed in italic.

Follower narcissism and its effect on empowerment and voice behaviour was the topic of Chapter 3. Voice behaviour includes making constructive suggestions to change (Van Dyne & LePine, 1998) and is aimed at improving the organisational functioning (Morrison, 2011). Voice therefore represents a proactive behaviour as it is future-oriented and intended to change and improve the situation (see also Parker et al., 2006). Empowerment,

however, is defined as an intrinsic task motivation. An individual is said to be intrinsically motivated to perform a behaviour when it is not externally rewarded but only performed for the pleasure it provides (Deci, 1971; Sarrazin, Vallerand, Guillet, Pelletier, & Cury, 2002). Motivation cannot be directly observed, but the resulting behaviour. In Chapter 3, empowerment predicted follower voice which is an observable proactive behaviour. Therefore, empowerment cannot be classified as a proactive or destructive behaviour but *as an antecedent* of proactive behaviour.

Chapter 4 dealt with follower and leader narcissism and their interaction was assessed by measuring relationship conflict. Conflict at work is costly, takes time and is stressful for the parties involved. Consequently, the team working efficiency is decreased, thus damaging the organisational productivity (Alper et al., 2000). Due to these severe consequences, relationship conflict can be regarded as a form of destructive behaviour. Moreover, relationship conflict often encompasses behaviour such as bullying, unpleasant treatment of co-workers and supervisors and arguments (Miles et al., 2002; Wornham, 2003). This behaviour is in line with Sackett's (2002) definition of destructive behaviour because inappropriate verbal actions include arguing and verbally harassing co-workers. Due to the focus of narcissism in this chapter, relationship conflict is positioned in the lower left quadrant (see Figure 5.1). Besides this, followers' OCB has also been assessed in the research presented in Chapter 4. OCB can be defined as a behaviour contributing to "the maintenance and enhancement of the social and psychological context that supports task performance" (Organ, 1997, p. 91). This kind of behaviour is proactive and therefore located at the right side of the schema. Enhancing the social and psychological context corresponds to changing and improving the situation. Moreover, supporting task performance could be classified as a future-oriented behaviour as an organisation's typical objective is to improve organisational efficiency what can be achieved, in turn, by improving task performance.

To sum up, Figure 5.1 encompasses five variables that can be classified as either destructive or proactive behaviour. Three variables represent measures of the leader-follower interaction - abusive supervision, humble leadership and relationship conflict. Follower voice and OCB both display types of proactive behaviour and represent forms of extra-role behaviour. Trust in leader and empowerment cannot be classified as behaviour, because they either predict or are a consequence of behaviour.

5.2.2 Leader-follower fit

Chapter 2 and Chapter 3 focused on the leader's *or* the follower's personality. To establish a connection, Chapter 4 focused on both personalities. The results revealed that if leaders and followers are both high on narcissistic rivalry, their relationship conflict is strengthened. This finding begs the question which types of leaders and followers can work together. One approach to address this question is to consider literature on the person-supervisor fit (PS Fit; e.g., Astakhova, 2016; Kim & Kim, 2013; Van Vianen, Shen, & Chuang, 2011; J. Zhang, Ling, Zhang, & Xie, 2015), which represents one type of person-environment fit (Kristof-Brown, Zimmerman, & Johnson, 2005). In this case, the supervisor's characteristics are seen as the environment and the person is the follower. Schuh (2016) argues that the fit between the supervisor and the person (i.e., the follower) plays an important role for efficient cooperation. PS Fit research investigates, to which degree the supervisor's and follower's characteristics, attitudes and behaviour correspond to each other and if they are compatible (Kristof-Brown et al., 2005); roughly speaking, if the supervisor and the follower are on the same wavelength (Schuh, 2016).

Two types of PS Fit can be distinguished from each other: the so called *supplementary fit* and the *complementary fit* (Muchinsky & Monahan, 1987). Supplementary fit exists if the supervisor and the follower are similar relating to central characteristics such as values and attitudes (Muchinsky & Monahan, 1987; Schuh, 2016). On the contrary, complementary fit exists if a supervisor's and follower's strengths and weaknesses balance (Schuh, 2016) or if the followers' characteristics complement those of the supervisor (Kristof-Brown et al., 2005; Muchinsky & Monahan, 1987). This might be the case if a unorganised leader, who has to participate in many meetings, is supported by an organised follower who keeps track of the leader's appointments. The two types of PS Fit also remind us of two sayings reflected in everyday speech: "*Birds of a feather flock together*" (supplementary fit) and "*Opposites attract*" (complementary fit).

Research examining the leader-follower fit mostly focused on the supplementary fit. Several authors found that similarity between a leader and follower with regard to personality, values and attitudes enhanced interpersonal communication, performance, job satisfaction, affective commitment and relationship quality (Bauer & Green, 1996; Byza, Dörr, Schuh, & Maier, 2017; Phillips & Bedeian, 1994; Schaubroeck & Lam, 2002; Turban &

Jones, 1988).¹ Research on complementary fit is rather scarce. One study investigated the fit between leader consideration and initiating structure *needed* by the follower and *received* on job satisfaction, trust in supervisor and affective commitment (Lambert, Tepper, Carr, Holt, & Barelka, 2012).

Chapter 4 revealed that if leaders and followers are both high on narcissistic rivalry, relationship conflict is strengthened. However, other combinations of leaders' and followers' narcissistic facets did not show negative effects. Leader narcissistic admiration and follower narcissistic rivalry (and vice versa) did not increase relationship conflict. These results could point to the idea of Carson (1969) who stated that sometimes, personality *dissimilarities* can be preferable. The similarity of leaders and followers in terms of narcissistic rivalry (supplementary fit) had negative effects on their relationship because conflict increased. Instead, the dissimilarity of leaders' and followers' narcissistic facets did not lead to conflict. This form of complementary fit could be interpreted as an advantageous *misfit* preventing negative consequences. However, the results of Chapter 4 also showed that the combination of leader narcissistic admiration and follower narcissistic admiration did not strengthen conflict either, although the leader's and follower's narcissistic facets were identical. At first, this finding seems contrary to the results presented above. Nevertheless, narcissistic admiration and narcissistic rivalry differ in their valence: According to Back et al. (2013, p. 1031) "admiration seems to represent the bright side of narcissism, whereas rivalry seems to represent its dark side". This supports the idea that a complementarity fit, a misfit of personality, is beneficial for negative, "dark" traits, whereas a supplementary fit is advantageous for positive, "bright" traits. This idea is in line with the results above. When narcissistic rivalry as a "dark" trait is included in a combination, a misfit has less negative effects than a supplementary fit. Therefore, the combination of leaders and followers' that are both high on narcissistic rivalry causes conflict. Instead, if leaders and followers are high on narcissistic admiration and narcissistic rivalry respectively, relationship conflict is not increased. Moreover, when leaders and followers are both high on narcissistic admiration, a "bright" trait, this combination does at least not lead to a negative outcome, i.e. relationship conflict.

These considerations match findings from the literature. Schaubroeck and Lam (2002) examined the similarity of leaders' and followers' personality and found positive effects on

¹The comprehensive meta-analysis by Kristof-Brown et al. (2005) can be recommended to get further information.

work outcomes when the personalities corresponded to each other. The authors covered four personality characteristics in their study, where all of them are positive. Negative or "dark" traits have not been considered. These results are therefore in line with my assumption that a similarity of personality characteristics is beneficial for positive traits. Further evidence for the idea can be derived from Bauer and Green (1996) who investigated the consequences of similarity between a leader's and follower's positive affectivity and found positive effects. In terms of negative traits, one study showed that mutually aggressive dyads of classmates displayed twice as much total aggression as randomly selected dyads (Coie et al., 1999). This result also supports the idea, because for negative traits such as aggression, a misfit is suggested to be more advantageous. Building on these results and pursuing the idea one step further, one could argue that the combination of humble leaders and humble followers should also lead to positive outcomes such as an efficient communication and performance because humility is a positive trait. The work in Chapter 2 only focused on the leader's humble qualities but did not consider the follower's humility. Future research could tie in with this consideration and investigate leaders' and followers' humility jointly.

5.2.3 Classification of the antecedents of extra-role behaviour

This dissertation focused on extra-role behaviour as an outcome of processes at the workplace. Follower empowerment and relationship conflict predicted two forms of extra-role behaviour, follower voice and OCB. One might question *why* these two variables influenced the followers' extra-role behaviour and if there are any commonalities of empowerment and relationship conflict. Several studies investigated antecedents of extra-role behaviour: MacKenzie, Podsakoff, and Ahearne (1998) found followers' job satisfaction and organisational commitment to increase extra-role performance. Organisational commitment reflects an employee's attitude towards the organisation (Van Knippenberg & Sleebos, 2006). This result is in line with Organ and Ryan (1995), who showed in their meta-analytic review that job attitudes such as job satisfaction, perceived fairness, organisational commitment, leader support and trait conscientiousness predict OCB. Another meta-analysis identified the same variables as antecedents of OCB (LePine et al., 2002). Other authors found yet another predictor of OCB in their meta-analytic review, leader-member exchange (Ilies et al., 2007).

The antecedents of extra-role behaviour can be classified in two broad categories. Per-

ceived fairness, leader support and leader-member exchange all describe the relationship between a follower and a leader, or more specifically, the follower's *perception* of this relationship. Job satisfaction and organisational commitment that is related to job satisfaction and influenced by work experiences (J. P. Meyer, Stanley, Herscovitch, & Topolnytsky, 2002) are concerned with the job characteristics and the *perception* of one's work experiences.² In my view, empowerment and relationship conflict can be categorised in one of the two categories labelled "perception of the leader-follower relationship" and "perception of the own work". Empowerment manifests in the four cognitions meaning, competence, self-determination and impact. A follower therefore feels empowered if the work's goal falls into place and corresponds to individual values, and if the follower believes that by performing the work, further strategic, administrative and operating outcomes can be influenced (Spreitzer, 1995). Due to this definition, empowerment can be classified into the "perception of the own work" category. Relationship conflict clearly is a sign of the leader-follower relationship quality. Conflicts can arise when a follower does not feel supported by the leader, not appreciated for the work performed or not treated in a fair manner. Thus, relationship conflict falls into the "perception of the leader-follower relationship" category.

Based on these considerations, future research ideas can be derived. If empowerment and relationship conflict both are among the two categories of antecedents predicting extra-role behaviour, they should also be able to predict other forms of extra-role behaviour than voice and OCB, e.g., creativity or cooperation. Creativity refers to the generation of new and useful ideas or problem solutions (Amabile, Barsade, Mueller, & Staw, 2005). Amabile et al. (2005) showed that positive affect increases creativity. Another study examined team factors as antecedents of creative ideas and showed that social cohesion and follower identity predict creativity (Im, Montoya, & Workman, 2013). As relationship conflict is associated with negative emotions and might also reduce the perception of social cohesion, a negative association between relationship conflict and creativity could be suggested.

5.3 Practical implications

The results presented in this dissertation and preceding considerations in this chapter suggest several practical implications. The personality of leaders and followers influences

²Trait conscientiousness does not fit into one of these categories. As it is the only personality characteristic that seems to predict extra-role behaviour, I exclude it at this point.

leadership behaviour, motivational constructs, performance and leader-follower relationship. It is therefore reasonable to assess job applicants' personality traits in personnel selection in order to make assumptions about their future work behaviour. That is why many organisations use personality questionnaires to evaluate the applicants' suitability for positions across many levels in organisations (Rothstein & Goffin, 2006). Many organisations apply surveys including measures of the Big Five personality traits. However, some authors argue that literature examining the relationship between the Big Five traits and job performance produced only small correlations, showing that the Big Five might be poor predictors of job performance (K. R. Murphy & Dzieweczynski, 2005). These authors state that one reason for it is the poor quality of personality measures. This is underpinned by the fact that self-ratings may be prone to response biases such as social desirability or impression management that encompasses efforts by an actor to create, keep, protect, or modify an image held by a target audience (Bolino, Kacmar, Turnley, & Gilstrap, 2008; Bozeman & Kacmar, 1997; Ellingson, Smith, & Sackett, 2001; Li & Bagger, 2006; Stöber, 2001).

Based on the findings of Chapters 2, 3 and 4, I suggest not only assessing the Big Five personality traits of job applicants but also humility and narcissism. As seen in Chapter 2, implicit leader humility, measured by a humility IAT, predicted humble leadership and abusive supervision whereas explicit humility did not. The reason for this result might be the humility measurement paradox but also biases caused by social desirable responding and impression management. Therefore, using an implicit measure such as the IAT might present a solution to these measurement problems. However, additional validation studies should be conducted before using the IAT in personnel selection procedures. The facets of follower narcissism have been shown to have positive, negative or null effects on different work processes and outcomes such as empowerment, relationship conflict or extra-role behaviour. Assessing the two facets of narcissism might thus be fruitful to derive expectations about future follower behaviour. Narcissistic rivalry negatively affected these outcomes, whereas narcissistic admiration had positive or null effects. Consequently, when hiring followers that are high on narcissism, narcissistic facets should be considered and followers high on narcissistic rivalry should be treated with caution. Moreover, Chapter 4 revealed that the interaction of followers' and leaders' narcissistic rivalry strengthens relationship conflict. This finding suggests that assessing the job applicant's *and* the leader's narcissism jointly in the process of personnel selection could be useful to make conclusions about

their supplementary or complementary fit. If both are high on narcissistic rivalry and thus present a toxic combination, one should carefully rethink the decision about bringing them together into one team. Possible consequences such as relationship conflict are pricey and stressful, hence it might be worth spending more effort and money in personnel selection processes to avoid future costs. In terms of response biases, several studies investigated the relationship between narcissism and social desirable responding and found no associations (Auerbach, 1984; Barry, Lui, Lee-Rowland, & Moran, 2017; Brunell et al., 2008; Raskin, Novacek, & Hogan, 1991). This indicates that this form of response bias does not seem to be problematic when assessing narcissism.

Besides personnel selection, practical implications for other areas of human resources unfold. If toxic combinations of leader and follower narcissistic rivalry exist, detrimental effects could be damped by specific training and developing procedures. Morf and Rhodewalt (2001) state that narcissists view others as inferior, have little empathy and are insensitive. As a consequence, the narcissists' attempts of self-regulation often fail. This results in counterproductive behaviour that others perceive as being paradoxical (Morf & Rhodewalt, 2001), which in turn could lead to relationship conflicts. To avoid this, self-regulation trainings (e.g., Berkman, 2016; Tang et al., 2007) could help the narcissist to improve its self-regulation processes that promote favourable behaviour. Another possibility consists of supporting competences that help keeping the negative consequences of narcissism in check (Helfrich & Steidle, 2017), for example by training emotional regulation or relaxation in order to reduce distress and promote positive affective states.

5.4 Final conclusion

Humility and narcissism are two antagonistic personality traits with rich historical backgrounds, justifying their important role in religion, mythology and philosophy. Nowadays, they are considered as critical personality traits in the work context. The interest in these two constructs has been increasing in the past few years because of managers' questionable behaviour pattern and the appearance of Donald Trump. Consequently, researchers have been investigating the effect of leaders' and followers' humility and narcissism on work processes to infer theoretical and practical implications. The thesis at hand ties in with this topic and considered leaders' and followers' humility, as well as narcissism - a

bright and a dark trait - , whilst also investigating the leader-follower interaction. In doing so, I included two components of the toxic triangle and their interaction in this dissertation.

Humility and narcissism affected numerous work processes and outcomes including measures of the leader-follower interaction and follower performance. When investigating the influence of humility, one should carefully consider measurement aspects in order to assess *true* humility, for example by implementing an IAT. With narcissism in mind, this construct cannot be merely classified as *good* or *bad*, because different facets have heterogeneous effects on work outcomes. In this context, leader *and* follower characteristics should also be considered jointly to avoid toxic combinations of leaders' and followers' narcissistic facets. I hope that the presented findings stimulate further research interest in humility and narcissism to amplify knowledge about their effects in the work context.

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Declaration

I herewith declare that I have completed this doctoral thesis alone and without any further help other than indicated in the declaration of co-authorship. I have used the sources listed in the bibliography and only those sources in writing my dissertation. All information taken from these sources has been referenced accordingly.