


# Leader Narcissism and Ethical Context: Effects on Ethical Leadership and Leader Effectiveness

Journal of Leadership & Organizational Studies  
20(1) 25–37  
© Baker College 2013  
Reprints and permission:  
sagepub.com/journalsPermissions.nav  
DOI: 10.1177/1548051812465891  
<http://jlo.sagepub.com>  


Brian J. Hoffman<sup>1</sup>, Sarah E. Strang<sup>1</sup>, Karl W. Kuhnert<sup>1</sup>, W. Keith Campbell<sup>1</sup>, Colby L. Kennedy<sup>1</sup>, and Alexander C. LoPilato<sup>1</sup>

## Abstract

The link between leader narcissism and follower perceptions of ethical leadership and leader effectiveness, including the potential moderating role of ethical context was investigated. Associations between narcissism and follower perceptions of both ethical and effective leadership were not significant. In highly ethical contexts, however, narcissistic leaders were perceived as ineffective and unethical. These results are interpreted in the context of the fit between leader personality and organizational ethical climate. Implications for research investigating the role that narcissism plays in leadership, as well as organizational responses to narcissistic leaders, are highlighted.

## Keywords

narcissism, ethical leadership, leader, leadership effectiveness

Over the past century, trait and behavioral approaches to leadership have played a prominent role in the effort to measure, predict, and understand leadership. Both approaches have enjoyed considerable support (DeRue, Nahrgang, Wellman, & Humphrey, 2011). Despite a century-long search for individual differences and behaviors associated with effective leadership, this research has typically focused on “positive” individual differences and leader behaviors. For instance, leader trait research suggests that intelligent, self-confident, dominant, and extraverted individuals are effective leaders (Bono & Judge, 2004; Hoffman, Woehr, Maldegan-Youngjohn, & Lyons, 2011; Lord, de Vader, & Alliger, 1986). Similarly, the role of leader behavior in effective leadership has been extensively examined under the auspices of structuring and consideration behaviors (Judge & Piccolo, 2004), and recently in the form of transformational and charismatic leadership (Bass, 1991).

However, amid the high-profile ethical scandals in American businesses over the past decade (Corporate Fraud Task Force, 2008), researchers have begun to consider the destructive potential of leadership (Judge, Piccolo, & Kosalka, 2009). In seeking to understand the potential adverse outcomes of leadership, researchers have turned their attention to traits with negative connotations and to the role of ethical behaviors in leadership. Of these traits, narcissism has particularly close ties with leadership (Judge et al., 2009). Yet despite conceptual evidence linking narcissism to leadership, the influence of narcissism on leader behaviors

and outcomes remains unclear (Campbell, Hoffman, Campbell, & Marchisio, 2011; Judge et al., 2009). For instance, whereas some research shows that narcissistic leaders are less effective (Blair, Hoffman, & Helland, 2008; Judge, LePine, & Rich, 2006), other research indicates that narcissistic leaders are actually more effective (Deluga, 1997); still other research has found no link between narcissism and leader effectiveness (Chatterjee & Hambrick, 2007; Judge et al., 2006; Resick, Whitman, Weingarden, & Hiller, 2009). According to Campbell et al. (2011), the inconsistent results in this area might be clarified by attention to (a) further accumulation of empirical findings, (b) a closer consideration of behavioral tendencies of narcissistic leaders, and (c) a search for situational moderators of the impact of narcissism on leader behaviors and effectiveness.

The present study responds to these deficiencies in the literature. First, we focused on a form of leader behavior with clear theoretical ties to narcissism, ethical leadership. Ethical practices in organizations have been the subject of substantial attention in recent years. In the leadership literature, this attention has manifested in the form of ethical leadership, a leader behavior construct that centers on

---

<sup>1</sup>University of Georgia, Athens, GA, USA

## Corresponding Author:

Brian J. Hoffman, Department of Psychology, University of Georgia, Athens, GA 30602-3013, USA  
Email: [hoffmanb@uga.edu](mailto:hoffmanb@uga.edu)

ethical and moral behaviors on the part of leaders (Treviño, Hartman, & Brown, 2000). Despite mounting data supporting the importance of ethical leadership to organizationally relevant outcomes (Brown, Treviño, & Harrison, 2005), very little research has sought to understand the individual difference antecedents of ethical leader behaviors.

Second, we compared the influence of narcissism on ethical leadership and a measure of overall effective leadership in order to determine if narcissism is differentially related to these criterion variables. In addition to accumulating additional empirical findings, these analyses will provide evidence as to the behavioral tendencies of narcissistic leaders, the individual difference antecedents of ethical leadership, and are consistent with the emerging trend in the leadership literature of building theory by establishing links between theoretically related leader traits and leader behavior (DeRue et al., 2011).

Third, we explored the role of ethical context in the relationships between narcissism and follower perceptions of ethical effective leadership. An exploration of the boundary conditions of the influence of narcissism on leadership has the potential to clarify previously reported inconsistent effects and, practically, can point to organizational strategies to minimize any adverse effects associated with narcissistic leaders.

## Narcissism

Narcissism is a trait characterized by inflated self-views, dysfunctional interpersonal intimacy, and a pattern of self-regulation that enhances the self at the expense of others (for a review, see Morf & Rhodewalt, 2001). As described by Campbell et al. (2011), narcissistic individuals are “(over) confident, extraverted, high in self-esteem, dominant, attention seeking, interpersonally skilled and charming, but also unwilling to take criticism, aggressive, high in psychological entitlement, lacking in true empathy, interpersonally exploitative and grandiose or even haughty” (p. 270). Narcissists’ inflated self-perceptions occur most frequently in agentic domains, such as status, power, and attractiveness. For example, narcissists believe themselves to be better than others in qualities such as intelligence and extraversion (Campbell, Bosson, Goheen, Lakey, & Kernis, 2007; Campbell, Rudich, & Sedikides, 2002; Gabriel, Critelli, & Ee, 1994), exaggerate their abilities and achievements (e.g., Farwell & Wohlwend-Lloyd, 1998; John & Robins, 1994), and base predictions of their future performance on falsely inflated expectations rather than their performance history. This leads them to be overconfident despite no evidence to support greater actual success (Campbell, Goodie, & Foster, 2004).

Theoretically, this pattern of narcissistic behavior in the interest of self-enhancement is best described by models that highlight the dynamic aspects of narcissistic self-regulation,

such as the Dynamic Self-Regulatory Model (Morf & Rhodewalt, 2001) or the Agency Model (Campbell, Brunell, & Finkel, 2006). These two models, with some difference in detail, describe the processes through which narcissistic individuals use their traits, relationships, and abilities to maintain esteem. Additionally, the contextual reinforcement model (Campbell & Campbell, 2009) focuses on the self-regulatory dynamics across time and situation, which has additional implications for research on narcissism and leadership.

There are three additional points to make regarding narcissism. First, in the present research we examined trait narcissism. This is a personality trait for which individuals fall along a continuum (Foster & Campbell, 2007). We use the term *narcissist* as a standard and convenient way of describing a high score on the scale. This is not meant to describe or imply a taxon. Second, trait narcissism is not the same as narcissistic personality disorder (NPD); we do not imply a pathological state of narcissism. More specifically, individuals with high scores on measures of trait narcissism do not necessarily have the psychiatric condition of NPD. However, research on trait narcissism does have important implications for understanding the pathological end of the narcissism spectrum (Miller, Gaughan, Pryor, Kamen, & Campbell, 2009). In other words, measures of trait narcissism predict many of the behaviors associated with NPD. Likewise, scores on the measure of trait narcissism used in our research correlate significantly with scores on clinical assessments of NPD. Finally, consistent with past empirical work on narcissism in the management literature (Blair et al., 2008; Judge et al., 2006) we focused on a grandiose form of narcissism. A vulnerable form is discussed elsewhere (Miller et al., 2011). The vulnerable form of narcissism is associated with low self-esteem, shyness, and depression and has thus not been as much of a concern in discussions of leadership.

## Narcissism and Leadership

The potential interplay between narcissism and leadership was pointed out in early conceptualizations of narcissism (Freud, 1931). As noted by Kets de Vries and Miller (1985),

Narcissistic personalities . . . are frequently encountered in top management positions. Indeed it is only expected many narcissistic people, with their need for power, prestige, glamour, eventually end up seeking leadership positions. Their sense of drama, their ability to manipulate others, their knack for establishing quick superficial relationships serves them well. (p. 32)

For instance, narcissists are likely to self-nominate for challenging tasks (Rosenthal & Pittinsky, 2006) and work harder when there is an opportunity for glory (Wallace &

Baumeister, 2002). Their certainty and confidence in decision making (Hogan, Raskin, & Fazzini, 1990), especially in the face of environmental uncertainty, may lead others to perceive them as inspirational (Rosenthal & Pittinsky, 2006). They are energetic (Raskin & Terry, 1988), extraverted (Oltmanns, Friedman, Fiedler, & Turkheimer, 2003; Paulhus & John, 1998), socially confident (Watson & Bideman, 1994), and entertaining (Paulhus, 1998). Notably, these characteristics have high levels of cue validity in cognitive representations of leaders (e.g., implicit leadership theories; Lord, Foti, & DeVader, 1984). In support of these suggestions, a growing body of research has linked narcissism to leader emergence. For instance, narcissists tend to emerge as leaders in leaderless group discussions (Brunell, Gentry, Campbell, Hoffman, & Kuhnert, 2008). Additionally, narcissists receive favorable evaluations from experienced interviewers in personnel selection interviews (Schnure, 2010).

Despite their tendency to emerge as leaders, there is reason to expect that narcissism is detrimental to effective leadership. Although narcissists are often well liked in the short term (Brunell, Campbell, Smith, & Krusemark, 2004; Oltmanns et al., 2003; Paulhus, 1998), liking dissipates over time (Campbell & Foster, 2002; Paulhus, 1998); this results in a pattern of frequent, short-term relationships with less emotional intimacy (Foster, Shrira, & Campbell, 2006). Narcissists' methods for gaining admiration and affirmation are self-defeating in the long-term because their tactics (e.g., low intimacy, self-aggrandizing, aggression, and derogation) undermine interpersonal relationships (Morf & Rhodewalt, 2001). These behaviors would be expected to erode a leader's ability to influence followers and thus, ultimately undermine effective leadership. In team settings, narcissists have been found to overestimate their own contributions, while dismissing the input of others (Campbell, Reeder, Sedikides, & Elliot, 2000; Farwell & Wohlwend-Lloyd, 1998; John & Robins, 1994). Similarly, narcissists are willing to derogate others in order to maintain self-esteem (Campbell et al., 2000). Accordingly, narcissists often have trouble maintaining close relationships. In addition, narcissists' overestimation of success and ability (Campbell et al., 2004; Farwell & Wohlwend-Lloyd, 1998; John & Robins, 1994) and an unwillingness to admit mistakes (Kets de Vries & Miller, 1985) may make them unlikely to recalibrate their methods or strategies to improve their effectiveness (Campbell et al., 2004).

Consistent with Judge et al. (2009), these observations are suggestive of both positive and negative relationships between narcissism and effective leadership. The conflicting theoretical analyses of this relationship are consistent with the discrepant empirical evidence. For instance, some researchers have found that narcissism is positively related to peers' perceptions (Judge et al., 2006; Paunonen, Lönnqvist, Verkasalo, Leikas, & Nissinen, 2006) and historical indicators

(Deluga, 1997) of effective leadership. On the other hand, others have documented negative relationships between narcissism and supervisor ratings of interpersonally oriented leader behaviors (Blair et al., 2008). Finally, other studies have reported that narcissism is not related to objective/organizational indicators of effectiveness (Chatterjee & Hambrick, 2004; Resick et al., 2009). Given these inconsistent empirical findings and conflicting conceptual predictions, we do not offer a formal "main effect" hypothesis, and instead formalize a research question:

*Research Question 1:* Is leader narcissism related to leader effectiveness?

A clearer understanding of the role of individual differences in leadership can be achieved by investigating the specific leader behavior correlates of individual differences (Campbell et al., 2011; DeRue et al., 2011). Unlike leader effectiveness research, empirical evidence clearly points to a negative relationship between narcissism and ethical leadership. Recent research (Brown et al., 2005; Treviño, Brown, & Hartman, 2003; Treviño et al., 2000) has conceptualized and developed an "ethical leadership" construct, defined as "the demonstration of normatively appropriate conduct through personal actions and interpersonal relationships, and the promotion of such conduct to followers through two-way communication, reinforcement, and decision-making" (Brown et al., 2005, p. 120). These leaders personally engage in moral behaviors and, in their roles as managers, actively influence followers to behave ethically.

Several correlates of narcissism suggest an association with reduced ethical leader behaviors. First, narcissists' lack of empathy and their willingness to exploit others for personal gain imply a reduced willingness to treat followers respectfully (Campbell et al., 2011). Second, according to Roberts (2007), narcissists seem to lack moral sensibility because of their constant preoccupation with the self. Narcissism interferes with ethical goals and visions such that, instead of working for the organization, narcissistic leaders "work for themselves" (Hornett & Fredricks, 2005). These associations are supported by empirical research. Specifically, narcissism has been implicated in studies of leader (lack-of-) integrity (Blair et al., 2008; Helland & Blair, 2005; Kets de Vries & Miller, 1985; Mumford, Connelly, Helton, Strange, & Osburn, 2001), and even white-collar crime (Blickle, Schlegel, Fassbender, & Klein, 2006). Finally, narcissism has been found to relate to counterproductive work behaviors (Judge et al., 2006; Penney, 2002; Penney & Spector, 2002), which share similarities with unethical leader behaviors. Despite these suggestive findings, previous research has not directly examined the influence of narcissism on ethical leadership. Based on precedent indirect evidence, we forwarded the following hypothesis:

*Hypothesis 1:* Narcissism is negatively related to ethical leadership.

## Ethical Context

As noted above, previous research has revealed inconsistent relationships between narcissism and leadership criterion measures. Although one explanation is the need for greater criterion specificity, another possibility is that important situational factors moderate the influence of narcissism on leadership. We hypothesized that ethical context, the degree to which organizational systems support ethical attitudes and behaviors among employees (Treviño, Butterfield, & McCabe, 1998), is a moderator of the influence of narcissism on ethical leadership and leader effectiveness. Although many conceptualizations of ethical context have been used, most empirical research has focused on ethical climate/culture (Treviño, 1990; Victor & Cullen, 1988); both these constructs broadly refer to ethical climate as “the prevailing perceptions of typical organizational practices and procedures that have ethical content,” and include “those aspects of work climate that determine what constitutes ethical behavior at work” (Victor & Cullen, 1988, p. 101). Existing research has substantiated the impact of ethical climate on a variety of organizationally relevant outcomes. For example, ethical climate has been found to have a positive impact on employee organizational commitment (Cullen, Praveen Parboteeah, & Victor, 2003), managers’ ethical decision making (Flannery & May, 2000), and a negative impact on managers’ willingness to lie (Ross & Robertson, 2000). We hypothesized two potential ways that ethical context might interact with narcissism in predicting ethical and effective leadership, one based on a buffering hypothesis and the second a fit hypothesis.

### Buffering Hypothesis

It is plausible that an ethical context buffers against the potentially detrimental behaviors associated with narcissistic individuals. In other words, a highly ethical context may represent a strong situation to prevent unethical or deviant behaviors. In strong situations, individual differences are expected to have minimal influence on behavior (Mischel & Patterson, 1976). Thus, an interaction where narcissism has a minimal impact on leadership effectiveness and ethical leadership in highly ethical contexts is possible. This interaction is the result of an ethical context, which serves as a deterrent to a narcissist’s unethical behaviors, and a weak ethical context where those same unethical behaviors continue unhindered.

Consistent with this prediction, there is recent evidence that the negative effects of narcissism on interpersonal commitment are reduced or even reversed when communal concerns (i.e., morality) are activated (Campbell et al., 2006;

Finkel, Campbell, Buffardi, Kumashiro, & Rusbult, 2009). That is, communal contexts have been shown to neutralize negative behaviors commonly associated with narcissism. Given the inherently interpersonal nature of leadership relationships, it is possible that these findings will extend to leadership settings, such that an ethical context buffers the influence of narcissism on ineffective and unethical behaviors. With no such buffering effect in the low ethical context, however, there should be a negative relationship between narcissism and effective and ethical leadership. That is, when an ethical context is not in place to keep narcissists from engaging in ineffective and counterproductive behavior, the negative effects of narcissism are expected to be more pronounced. This is a *buffering hypothesis*.

### Fit Hypothesis

On the other hand, the interaction could take a different form, based on the degree of supplementary fit (Kristof, 1996) between leader narcissism and ethical contexts. That is, it is possible that because of their documented tendency to engage in unethical behavior (Blair et al., 2008), narcissists fit better in less ethical contexts. Specifically, organizations reinforce core values through a variety of formal and informal mechanisms (e.g., attraction, selection, attrition), resulting in a relatively homogeneous and mutually reinforcing value system among organizational members (Schneider, 1987). A similar phenomenon has long been proposed in the context of leadership (Hollander, 1958). Individuals who conform to workgroup values and norms are expected to emerge as leaders and be evaluated more favorably by workgroup members (Giessner, Knippenberg, & Sleebos, 2009; Hoffman, Bynum, Piccolo, & Sutton, 2011; Hollander, 1958).

Thus, from the conformity and fit perspectives, in a climate that is permissive of unethical behaviors, narcissists’ counterproductive and unethical behavior will not be viewed as counternormative. Instead, in these contexts, narcissists actually fit in the culture and thus, organizational members will evaluate them more favorably. When corruption in an organization becomes normalized, unethical behaviors are potentially not even recognized as unethical by group members and may actually be formally and informally reinforced by the organization (Ashforth & Anand, 2003). Thus, in contrast to the buffering hypothesis that predicts a negative relationship between narcissism and leadership evaluations when an ethical climate is not present, the fit hypothesis proposes that when a climate is unethical, narcissism will be positively related to evaluations of ethical and effective leadership, because narcissists’ behaviors would be representative of group values and norms.

Conversely, in ethical contexts, narcissistic leaders would be expected to fit poorly. Specifically, counterproductive and unethical behaviors would be expected to be

especially salient in a highly ethical context, because they defy prevailing norms, and thus, result in extreme disapproval from organizational members in the form of lower evaluations of ethics and effectiveness. Deviating from core group is proposed to result in extreme disapproval from organizational members in the form of lower evaluations of ethics and effectiveness (Giessner et al., 2009; Hoffman, Bynum, et al., 2011). In contrast to the buffering hypothesis which proposed no relationship between narcissism and evaluations of leadership in highly ethical contexts, the supplementary fit hypothesis proposes a negative relationship in highly ethical contexts. In other words, ethical contexts do not prevent the ill-effects of leader narcissism; instead, ethical contexts increase the salience of narcissistic leader behaviors to group members because such behaviors would be viewed as particularly aberrant. From this perspective, failure to conform to organizational norms results in reduced evaluations of effective and ethical leadership.

Consider the following example: The narcissistic CEO of a large, unethical financial firm behaves unscrupulously. This leader's actions are seen as both effective and ethical (because they fit with the organizational norms). In contrast, imagine a similarly narcissistic leader is CEO of an ethical accounting firm. This leader's unethical behaviors are perceived as both ineffective and unethical (because they are incompatible with the firm norms). The result of these two hypotheses is a mixed prediction:

*Hypothesis 2:* Narcissism interacts with ethical context to predict leadership effectiveness and ethical leadership.

*Research Question 2:* Is this interaction more consistent with a buffering model or a fit model?

## Method

### Participants

Data for this study were collected using a sample of participants who volunteered to participate in social science research by registering for an online survey service called StudyResponse. StudyResponse is an academic, nonprofit research project founded for the purpose of providing access to research samples. More than 200 studies have been conducted using samples of StudyResponse participants (e.g., Dennis & Winston, 2003; Piccolo & Colquitt, 2006; Vodanovich, Wallace, & Kass, 2005).

Narcissism and ethical context were self-reported by manager respondents. The manager sample includes 43% females and 56% males with a mean age of 38.0 years ( $SD = 7.38$ ). Leader effectiveness and ethical leadership were reported by managers' direct reports. The subordinate sample includes 53% females and 47% males with a mean age of 36.5 years ( $SD = 10.49$ ). To achieve a complete case,

each manager questionnaire must have been matched to a minimum of two subordinate ratings.

### Procedure

A recruitment e-mail was sent to initial contacts for the manager sample, providing them with a brief description of the study, eligibility requirements, and confidentiality assurances. The 66-item manager questionnaire was estimated to take approximately 20 minutes to complete. A total of 778 managers were identified as meeting the study's criterion of supervising three or more direct reports. Of the 778 managers initially contacted, 233 completed the questionnaire.

In the recruitment e-mails, managers were requested to forward a follow-up recruitment e-mail, containing a link to the subordinate questionnaire, to a minimum of three direct reports. Subordinates were provided with a URL link to the online subordinate questionnaire. Subordinate respondents were asked to enter the identification number belonging to their manager, allowing subordinate responses to be matched to manager responses anonymously. A total of 168 subordinates completed the follow-up survey. However, 165 surveys from the original sample of managers corresponded to fewer than two matched subordinate responses. These responses did not qualify as "complete cases" and were excluded from analyses. Accordingly, we retained 68 complete cases (mean number of subordinate ratings per manager = 2.54,  $SD = 0.84$ ).

To justify aggregating follower responses to the unit level, we calculated  $r_{wg}$  (James, Demaree, & Wolf, 1984) for follower ratings of ethical and effective leadership. For leader effectiveness, the mean  $r_{wg}$  was .93 and the median was .95. These results support the aggregation of follower perceptions of leader behaviors (e.g., Bliese, Halverson, & Schriesheim, 2002).

### Measures

Narcissism and ethical context were measured using manager ratings, and ethical leadership and effective leadership were measured using follower ratings.

**Narcissism.** Narcissism was measured using the 40-item Narcissistic Personality Inventory (NPI; Raskin & Terry, 1988). The NPI is a forced-choice measure: each item presents the respondent with a pair of statements (e.g., "I am much like everyone else" vs. "I am an extraordinary person"), and the respondent is forced to select the statement most relevant to himself/herself. Higher scores are indicative of higher levels of narcissism. Consistent with past management research (Brunell et al., 2008; Judge et al., 2006), we conceptualized narcissism as a unidimensional construct.

**Ethical context.** The ethical context of the organization was measured using Victor and Cullen's (1988) Ethical Climate Questionnaire (ECQ). This 26-item instrument asks

**Table 1.** Study Variable Correlations and Descriptives ( $N = 68$ )

	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6
1. Age (L)	38.00	7.38	—					
2. Time known manager(S)	3.54	1.27	.41**	—				
3. Ethical context (L)	91.53	9.78	.15	.08	.72			
4. Narcissism (L)	13.88	6.65	-.27*	-.01	-.12	.88		
5. Ethical leadership (S)	34.75	9.36	-.05	.25*	.08	-.15	.91	
6. Leader effectiveness (S)	13.52	4.39	-.08	.19	.06	-.14	.85**	.87

Note. L = reported by leader; S = reported by subordinate. Coefficient alphas are reported on the diagonal.

\* $p < .05$  (two-tailed). \*\* $p < .01$  (two-tailed).

participants to evaluate the climate of their organization by indicating the degree to which they agree with statements describing their organization on a 6-point Likert-type scale where 0 equals *strongly disagree* and 5 equals *strongly agree*. A sample item is “Successful people in my organization go by the book.”

**Leader effectiveness.** Perceptions of leader effectiveness were measured using the four-item leader effectiveness subscale from the Multifactor Leader Questionnaire 5× (Avolio & Bass, 2004). Items are rated on a 5-point Likert-type scale where 1 equals *strongly disagree* and 5 equals *strongly agree*. A sample item is “My immediate supervisor/manager is effective in meeting my job-related needs.”

**Ethical leadership.** Ethical leadership was measured using the 10-item Ethical Leadership Scale (Brown et al., 2005). Items were rated on a 5-point Likert-type ranging from 1 = *strongly disagree* to 5 = *strongly agree*. A sample item is “My immediate supervisor/manager makes fair and balanced decisions.” The psychometric soundness of this scale has been previously substantiated (Brown et al., 2005).

### Confirmatory Factor Analysis

To ensure the structure of the measures, we conducted a confirmatory factor analysis using LISREL 8.5 (Jöreskog & Sörbom, 1996). Because of sample size constraints and the relatively large number of items, we were unable to investigate the structure of the measures using individual items as manifest indicators. Accordingly, an item composites approach was taken wherein individual items were combined to form fewer composites prior to the analyses. To form the composites, items were randomly chosen from each scale and summed. For the NPI, eight composites consisting of five items were developed. For the ECQ, three composites of six items and one composite of four items were formed. For the Ethical Leadership Scale, two composites of three items and one composite of four items were formed. Because leader effectiveness was only measured with four items, item composites were not formed, and the items were used as manifest indicators. The resulting composites were

subsequently input as manifest indicators for the confirmatory factor analysis. A four-factor solution was modeled that parameterized a factor corresponding to each of the four constructs. This solution displayed a very close fit to the data,  $\chi^2(146) = 158.22$ ; root mean square error of approximation = .04, Tucker–Lewis index = .99, comparative fit index = .99) and was adopted for subsequent analyses.

### Results

Correlations among study variables, means, standard deviations, and coefficients alpha reliabilities are presented in Table 1. We estimated the coefficients alpha to be .88 for the NPI, .72 for the ECQ, .87 for the leader effectiveness scale of the Multifactor Leader Questionnaire, and .91 for the Ethical Leadership Scale. Consistent with past research (Foster, Campbell, & Twenge, 2003), narcissism was significantly related to age ( $r = -.27, p = .03$ ) suggesting the need to control for manager age in analyses involving narcissism. Next, the length of the relationship between subordinate and manager was correlated with subordinate ratings of ethical leadership ( $r = .25, p = .04$ ), suggesting the need to control for time known in analyses involving ethical leadership. Subordinate ratings of leader effectiveness and ethical leadership correlated substantially ( $r = .85, p < .001$ ), consistent with previous research (Brown et al., 2005).

Multiple regression analysis was used to test narcissism as a predictor of effective leadership (Research Question 1) and ethical leadership (Hypothesis 1). Leader effectiveness was first regressed on manager age to control for the effect of age on narcissism. When narcissism was entered subsequently, this model did not significantly fit the data,  $F(2, 65) = 1.16, p = .32, R^2 = .035$  (see Table 2), and narcissism did not have a significant effect on leader effectiveness ( $\beta = -.17, p = .18$ ). In response to Research Question 1, narcissism was not significantly associated with subordinate ratings of leader effectiveness.

A multiple regression analysis was used to build a model for predicting ethical leadership (Hypothesis 1). Time

**Table 2.** Summary of Hierarchical Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting Leader Effectiveness (*N* = 68)

Variable	Model 1			Model 2			Model 3			Model 4		
	B	SE B	β	B	SE B	β	B	SE B	β	B	SE B	β
Age (L)	-.076	.075	-.128									
Narcissism (L)	-.114	.083	-.173									
R <sup>2</sup> (F)	.035 (1.162)											
Age (L)	-.019	.018	-.082	-.019	.019	-.128	-.020	.019	-.136	-.009	.018	-.061
Narcissism (L)				-.029	.021	-.173	-.028	.021	-.168	-.037	.020	-.227
Ethical context (L)							.007	.014	.060	.000	.013	.003
Narcissism × context										-.007	.002	-.360*
R <sup>2</sup> (F for change in R <sup>2</sup> )	.007 (0.445)			.035 (1.162)			.038 (0.842)			.155 (2.885*)		

Note. L = reported by leader; S = reported by subordinate.  
\**p* < .05. \*\**p* < .01.

**Table 3.** Summary of Hierarchical Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting Ethical Leadership (*N* = 68)

Variable	Model 1			Model 2			Model 3			Model 4		
	B	SE B	β	B	SE B	β	B	SE B	β	B	SE B	β
Time known manager (S)	2.574	.948	.349**									
Age (L)	-.311	.169	-.245									
Narcissism (L)	-.292	.171	-.208									
R <sup>2</sup> (F)	.129 (3.165*)											
Time known manager (S)	.239	.096	.324*	.257	.095	.349**	.256	.095	.347**	.187	.097	.254
Age (L)	-.023	.016	-.179	-.031	.017	-.245	-.032	.017	-.253	-.019	.018	-.153
Narcissism (L)				-.029	.017	-.208	-.028	.017	-.202	-.033	.017	-.238
Ethical context (L)							.006	.011	.065	.002	.011	.023
Narcissism × context										-.005	.002	-.283*
R <sup>2</sup> (F for change in R <sup>2</sup> )	.090 (3.203*)			.129 (3.165*)			.133 (2.423)			.199 (3.071*)		

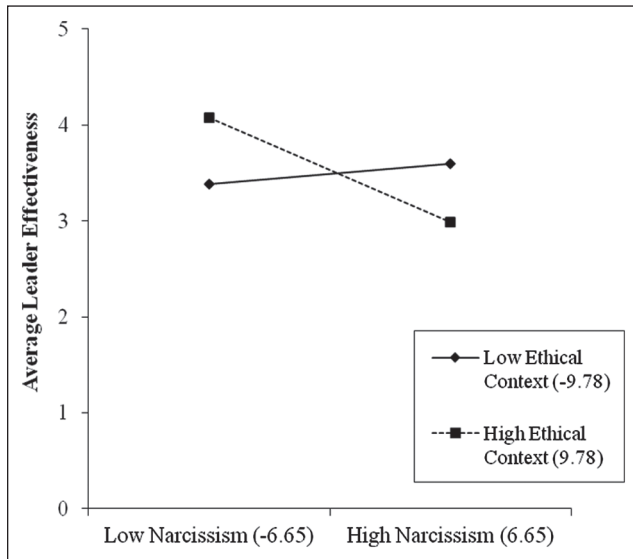
Note. L = reported by leader; S = reported by subordinate.  
\**p* < .05. \*\**p* < .01.

known, manager age, and narcissism were entered as predictors of ethical leadership. This model significantly fit the data,  $F(3, 64) = 3.165, p = .03, R^2 = .129$ ; see Table 3. However, narcissism did not have a statistically significant relationship with ethical leadership ( $\beta = -.208, p = .09$ ). Thus, Hypothesis 1 was rejected.

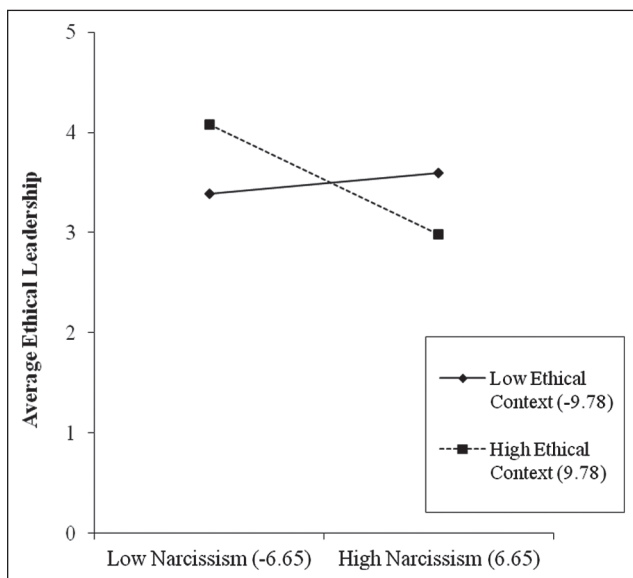
To test the second hypothesis and answer the second research question, we used moderated multiple regression to examine the interaction between narcissism and ethical context in predicting ethical leadership and effective leadership. We began by testing the outcome variable of leadership effectiveness. Next, we centered narcissism and ethical context, and created a variable corresponding to their interaction. Consistent with Hypothesis 2, the addition of the interaction term significantly increased the fit of the model to the data,  $F(4, 63) = 2.885, p = .03, R^2 = .155$ . The interaction is illustrated in Figure 1, where the relationship between narcissism and leader effectiveness is plotted for low and

high ethical context. To determine the nature of the interaction, we calculated simple slopes. In highly ethical contexts (one standard deviation above the mean) narcissism was negatively related to leadership effectiveness ( $\beta = -.650, p = .002$ ). However, narcissism was positively and nonsignificantly related to leadership effectiveness in low ethical contexts ( $\beta = .196, p = .234$ ).

We next examined the interaction between narcissism and ethical context in predicting ethical leadership. Consistent with Hypothesis 2, the interaction between narcissism and ethical context explained significant incremental variance in ethical leadership beyond the main effects,  $F(5, 62) = 3.071, p = .02, R^2 = .199$ . This suggests that ethical context moderates the relationship between narcissism and ethical leadership. Again, we calculated and tested the simple slopes to determine the nature of the interaction. Narcissism was negatively related to ethical leadership in highly ethical contexts ( $\beta = -.571, p = .006$ ). However, in low ethical



**Figure 1.** Subordinate perceptions of leader effectiveness as a function of manager narcissism and manager-reported ethical context (moderated model of leadership effectiveness)



**Figure 2.** Subordinate perceptions of ethical leadership as a function of manager narcissism and manager-reported ethical context (moderated model of ethical leadership)

contexts, narcissism was positively but nonsignificantly related to ethical leadership ( $\beta = .095, p = .555$ ). The interaction is illustrated in Figure 2, where the relationship between narcissism and ethical leadership is plotted for low and high ethical contexts.

## Discussion

Corresponding with an increasing focus on the dark side of leadership, research on the role of narcissism in leadership

has exponentially increased in recent years (Campbell et al., 2011). This study contributes to this emerging trend in the literature by clarifying the role of narcissism in predicting leadership effectiveness and ethical leadership. In doing so, we provide among the first direct examinations of the role of an individual difference in predicting ethical leadership behaviors. Results revealed negative and nonsignificant relationship between narcissism and both effective and ethical leadership. Although the type of criterion variable was not supported as a boundary condition, this study advances leadership theory by supporting ethical climate as a moderator of the influence of narcissism on leadership. Specifically, these results support a fit hypothesis, such that narcissists show a misfit in an ethical context, resulting in reduced evaluations of ethical and effective leadership.

## Main Findings and Implications

We first sought to examine the main effect of narcissism on both effective and ethical leadership. Although we did not offer a hypothesis for the influence of narcissism on leader effectiveness, we expected that narcissists would be particularly unlikely to engage in ethical leadership. Both relationships, however, were negative and nonsignificant. Thus, it does not appear that theoretically aligning the criterion variable resulted in enhanced prediction. Consistent with the observations of Cronshaw and Lord (1987), raters in this sample did not distinguish between leadership criterion variables, and this precluded the detection of differential effects. Given this lack of differentiation, we discuss the findings of both ethical and effective leadership simultaneously.

The general pattern of weak negative effects of narcissism on leadership is consistent with previous studies that used coworkers' ratings of leader behaviors as a criterion (Blair et al., 2008; Judge et al., 2006). That is, narcissism tends to negatively but weakly relate to leadership outcomes when coworkers' ratings of leader behaviors are used. One possible reason for the weak magnitude of the main effect is that different aspects of narcissism have oppositional relationships with leadership criteria (cf. Judge et al., 2009). For example, narcissists tend to emerge as leaders in unstructured settings (Brunell et al., 2008) and display many prototypical leadership characteristics, such as confidence (Campbell et al., 2011), self-nomination (Rosenthal & Pittinsky, 2006), risk taking (Campbell et al., 2004) and glory-seeking behaviors (Wallace & Baumeister, 2002). It is possible that these characteristics and behaviors contribute to a positive effect on subordinate perceptions of leadership. Conversely, narcissism has been associated with derogation of others (John & Robins, 1994; Morf & Rhodewalt, 2001), counterproductive work behaviors (Judge et al., 2006; Penney, 2002; Penney & Spector, 2002), overestimation of success and ability (Campbell et al., 2004; Farwell & Wohlwend-Lloyd, 1998; John & Robins, 1994), and unwillingness to admit faults (Kets de Vries & Miller, 1985).



Furthermore, narcissists have difficulty maintaining close interpersonal relationships (John & Robins, 1994; Morf & Rhodewalt, 2001), which are crucial for effective leadership (Gerstner & Day, 1997; Judge, Piccolo, & Ilies, 2004). These conflicting qualities of narcissists may simultaneously attract and repel coworkers and thus attenuate the effects of narcissism on leadership ratings.

It is important to note that the relationship between narcissism and follower ratings of ethical and effective leadership were nonsignificant. It is likely that a lack of statistical power precluded detection of a significant relationship, particularly given the modest effect size. However, the magnitude of effects is in the range of the associations revealed in past research (cf. Blair et al., 2008; Judge et al., 2006). More generally, the magnitude of effects was slightly weaker than the uncorrected values reported for five-factor model constructs predicting leadership in field settings in the meta-analysis by Judge, Bono, Ilies, and Gerhardt (2002). Thus, the magnitude of results is consistent with the modest influence of discrete personality constructs on behavioral criteria in past research.

Little empirical or theoretical attention has been devoted to understanding the boundary conditions of narcissism's effect on leadership outcomes. Our findings advance this literature by identifying ethical context as a moderator of the influence of narcissism on follower perceptions of leadership. Results indicate that the negative effect of narcissism on followers' ratings of leadership increases as the organization's climate becomes more ethical. That is, when the organizational climate demands ethical behavior, narcissists are perceived as less ethical and less effective. In contrast, in less ethical contexts, the adverse consequences of leader narcissism on follower perceptions of leadership were reduced. Specifically, in less ethical contexts, narcissism manifested a positive but nonsignificant relationship with follower ratings of ethical and effective leadership.

We proposed two competing patterns of the interaction, one based on a buffering hypothesis and the second based on a fit hypothesis. Based on the interaction effects reported, the moderation effect was more consistent with the fit hypothesis. That is, instead of buffering the influence of narcissism on leadership, a highly ethical context seems to unfavorably accentuate narcissistic leaders. We interpret these findings as evidence that, in highly ethical climates, narcissistic leaders' behavior deviates from organizational norms, becomes more salient to followers, and results in lower ratings of ethical and effective leadership. In other words, narcissistic leaders do not fit in a highly ethical climate and thus, they are evaluated as less effective. On the other hand, in less ethical contexts, narcissistic behaviors do not deviate from cultural norms and thus, may even have a positive impact on others' evaluations of leadership. In a climate where corruption has become normalized, unethical behaviors are not recognized as such

and may even be endorsed by organizational members and eventually, formal processes (Ashforth & Anand, 2003). Thus, in contrast to the buffering hypothesis, ethical climates do not prevent the ill-effects of narcissistic leaders; instead, narcissistic behaviors become more salient in ethical contexts.

However, it is important to remember that the present criterion reflects follower perceptions of ethical and effective leadership which Kaiser, Hogan, and Craig (2008) referred to as an approval-based measure of leadership. We believe it would be a mistake to interpret these findings as evidence that a narcissist in an unethical context reflects a good combination for an organization. Instead, it is likely that in contexts that do not reinforce ethics, narcissistic leader behaviors are simply viewed as permissible. However, this is a potentially dangerous combination for organizations. Without a highly ethical climate to help identify unethical leader behaviors, it is possible that these leaders could do great harm to organizations. Unfortunately, the approval-based measure of effectiveness and the cross-sectional design did not allow us to investigate this possibility. Accordingly, we encourage future research to incorporate alternative criterion variables, collected from different sources and using longitudinal designs.

In terms of implications for organizations, these findings point to the importance of reinforcing an ethical context and to the importance of leader selection. Specifically, in order to ensure that narcissistic leaders do not thrive in organizations, it is important to maintain an ethical context. If the context is ethical, unethical, or interpersonally ineffective behaviors will likely be more salient and evaluated more negatively by coworkers. Thus, it is unlikely that narcissists will be successful in advancing in a highly ethical context. On the other hand, when narcissistic leaders are inserted in organizations with unethical contexts, the result is a perfect storm that reinforces narcissists' unethical behaviors and potentially promotes narcissistic leaders. Thus, in unethical contexts, narcissistic leaders are potentially particularly dangerous, because their behavior goes unnoticed. For practitioners, these findings suggest that by cultivating an ethical context in the organization, narcissistic leaders may experience person-organization misfit, encouraging them to leave the organization. In light of the recent scandals around ethics and integrity (Corporate Fraud Task Force, 2008), these results suggest that it behooves organizations to cultivate an ethical context that may thwart the positive perceptions of narcissistic qualities. Still, it is likely that narcissists exhibit unethical and ineffective behaviors regardless of the ethical context, meaning that an ethical context does not necessarily prevent narcissistic from behaving ineffectively and unethically. Thus, the implementation of management selection systems that specifically target precursors of unethical behaviors is an equally important strategy to preventing unethical behaviors on the part of organizational leaders.

### Limitations and Directions for Future Research

The implications of this study must be viewed in light of a few limitations. The small sample size used in this study is likely to have limited power to detect a significant effect. We encourage additional research to explore the moderating role of ethical context on the relationship between narcissism and ethical leadership.

The use of follower ratings of ethical and effective leadership is another limitation. Although follower leadership ratings are a commonly used outcome in leadership research (Kaiser et al., 2008), future research should include objective measures of leader effectiveness, such as financial gain, number of sales, and customer or employee retention. Objective measures may reveal different consequences of narcissism relative to perceptual measures. Future research should also consider the overlap between narcissism and other popular ethical/moral measures, such as ethical decision making (Ashkanasy, Windsor, & Treviño, 2006; Greenberg, 2002; Treviño & Youngblood, 1990; Weber, 1990), moral reasoning (Lovisky, Treviño, & Jacobs, 2007; Rest, 1979), and abusive supervision (Tepper, 2007).

Finally, the cross-sectional design prohibits understanding of the long-term effects of narcissism on leadership. That is, the relationship between narcissistic behaviors and leadership perceptions may change over time in a way that is not captured in the present study. Accordingly, future research using longitudinal designs is needed.

### Conclusions

This study clarifies the relationship between narcissism and leadership by examining the type of leadership criterion and ethical context as boundary conditions of this relationship. Narcissism was negatively but nonsignificantly correlated with ethical and effective leadership. However, in highly ethical contexts, these deleterious effects of narcissism on ethical and effective leadership become more pronounced. On the other hand, narcissism was unrelated to perceptions of ethical and effective leadership when their organizational climate is unethical. Together, these findings suggest that ethical climate does not prevent narcissistic behaviors; it simply makes them more salient to other group members. Researchers should consider the compound impact of narcissism and ethical context on leadership outcomes, and organizations should cultivate ethical climates to avoid the advancement of narcissistic leaders.

### Acknowledgement

This manuscript is based on Sarah E. Strang's dissertation from the University of Georgia.

### Declaration of Conflicting Interests

The authors declared no potential conflicts of interest with respect to the research, authorship, and/or publication of this article.

### Funding

The authors received no financial support for the research, authorship, and/or publication of this article.

### References

- Ashforth, B. E., & Anand, V. (2003). The normalization of corruption in organizations. *Research in Organizational Behavior*, 25, 1-52.
- Ashkanasy, N. M., Windsor, C. A., & Treviño, L. K. (2006). Bad apples in bad barrels revisited: Personal factors and organizational rewards as determinants of managerial ethical decision-making. *Business Ethics Quarterly*, 16, 449-474.
- Avolio, B., & Bass, B. (2004). *Multifactor leadership questionnaire sampler set: Manual, forms, and scoring key*. Menlo Park, CA: Mind Garden.
- Bass, B. (1991). From transactional to transformational leadership: Learning to share the vision. *Organizational Dynamics*, 18, 19-31.
- Blair, C. A., Hoffman, B. J., & Helland, K. R. (2008). Narcissism in organizations: A multi-source appraisal reflects different perspectives. *Human Performance*, 21, 254-276.
- Blickle, G., Schlegel, A., Fassbender, P., & Klein, U. (2006). Some personality correlates of business white-collar crime. *Applied Psychology: An International Review*, 55, 220-233.
- Bliese, P. D., Halverson, R. R., & Schriesheim, C. A. (2002). Benchmarking multilevel methods in leadership: The articles, the models, the data set. *Leadership Quarterly*, 13, 3-46.
- Bono, J. E., & Judge, T. A. (2004). Personality and transformational and transactional leadership: A meta-analysis. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 89, 901-910.
- Brown, M. E., Treviño, L. K., & Harrison, D. A. (2005). Ethical leadership: A social learning perspective for construct development and testing. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, 97, 117-134.
- Brunell, A. B., Campbell, W. K., Smith, L., & Krusemark, E. A. (2004, January). *Why do people date narcissists? A narrative study*. Poster session presented at the annual meeting of the Society for Personality and Social Psychology, Austin, TX.
- Brunell, A. B., Gentry, W. A., Campbell, W. K., Hoffman, B. J., & Kuhnert, K. W. (2008). Leader emergence: The case of the narcissistic leader. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, 34, 1663-1676.
- Campbell, W. K., Bosson, J. K., Goheen, T. W., Lakey, C. E., & Kernis, M. H. (2007). Do narcissists dislike themselves "deep down inside"? *Psychological Science*, 18, 227-229.
- Campbell, W. K., Brunell, A. B., & Finkel, E. J. (2006). Narcissism, interpersonal self-regulation, and romantic relationships: An agency model approach. In K. D. Vohs & E. J. Finkel

- (Eds.), *Self and relationships: Connecting intrapersonal and interpersonal processes* (pp. 57-83). New York, NY: Guilford Press.
- Campbell, W. K., & Campbell, S. M. (2009). On the self-regulatory dynamics created by the peculiar benefits and costs of narcissism: A contextual reinforcement model and examination of leadership. *Self and Identity, 8*, 214-232.
- Campbell, W. K., & Foster, C. A. (2002). Narcissism and commitment in romantic relationships: An investment model analysis. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin, 28*, 484-495.
- Campbell, W. K., Goodie, A. S., & Foster, J. D. (2004). Narcissism, confidence, and risk attitude. *Journal of Behavioral Decision Making, 17*, 297-311.
- Campbell, W. K., Hoffman, B. J., Campbell, S., & Marchisio, G. (2011). Narcissism in organizational contexts. *Human Resource Management Review, 21*, 268-284.
- Campbell, W. K., Reeder, G. D., Sedikides, C., & Elliot, A. J. (2000). Narcissism and comparative self-enhancement strategies. *Journal of Research in Personality, 34*, 329-347.
- Campbell, W. K., Rudich, E., & Sedikides, C. (2002). Narcissism, self-esteem, and the positivity of self-views: Two portraits of self-love. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin, 28*, 358-368.
- Chatterjee, A., & Hambrick, D. C. (2007). It's all about me: Narcissistic chief executive officers and their effects on company strategy and performance. *Administrative Science Quarterly, 52*, 351-386.
- Corporate Fraud Task Force. (2008). *Corporate Fraud Task Force Report to the President*. Retrieved from <http://www.justice.gov/archive/dag/cftf/corporate-fraud2008.pdf>
- Cronshaw, S. F., & Lord, R. G. (1987). Effects of categorization, attribution, and encoding processes on leadership perceptions. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 72*, 97-106. doi:10.1037/0021-9010.72.1.97
- Cullen, J. B., Praveen Parboteeah, K. K., & Victor, B. (2003). The effects of ethical climates on organizational commitment: A two-study analysis. *Journal of Business Ethics, 46*, 127-141.
- Deluga, R. J. (1997). Relationship among American presidential charismatic leadership, narcissism, and rated performance. *Leadership Quarterly, 8*, 49-65.
- Dennis, R., & Winston, B. E. (2003). A factor analysis of Page and Wong's servant leadership instrument. *Leadership & Organization Development Journal, 24*, 455-459.
- DeRue, D. S., Nahrgang, J. D., Wellman, N., & Humphrey, S. E. (2011). Trait and behavioral theories of leadership: An integration and meta-analytic test of their relative validity. *Personnel Psychology, 64*, 7-52.
- Farwell, L., & Wohlwend-Lloyd, R. (1998). Narcissistic processes: Optimistic expectations, favorable self-evaluations, and self-enhancing attributions. *Journal of Personality, 66*, 65-83.
- Finkel, E. J., Campbell, W. K., Buffardi, L. E., Kumashiro, M., & Rusbult, C. E. (2009). The metamorphosis of Narcissus: Communal activation promotes relationship commitment among narcissists. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin, 35*, 1271-1284.
- Flannery, B. L., & May, D. R. (2000). Environmental ethical decision-making in the U.S. metal-finishing industry. *Academy of Management Journal, 43*, 642-662.
- Foster, J. D., & Campbell, W. K. (2007). Are there such things as "narcissists" in social psychology? A taxometric analysis of the Narcissistic Personality Inventory. *Personality and Individual Differences, 43*, 1321-1332.
- Foster, J. D., Campbell, W. K., & Twenge, J. M. (2003). Individual differences in narcissism: Inflated self-views across the lifespan and around the world. *Journal of Research in Personality, 37*, 469-486.
- Foster, J. D., Shriram, I., & Campbell, W. K. (2006). Theoretical models of narcissism, sexuality, and relationship commitment. *Journal of Social and Personal Relationships, 23*, 367-386.
- Freud, S. (1931). Libidinal types. In J. Strachey (Ed. and Trans.), *Standard edition of the psychological works of Sigmund Freud* (Vol. 21, pp. 215-220). London, England: Hogarth Press.
- Gabriel, M. T., Critelli, J. W., & Ee, J. S. (1994). Narcissistic illusions in self-evaluations of intelligence and attractiveness. *Journal of Personality, 62*, 143-155.
- Gerstner, C. R., & Day, D. V. (1997). Meta-analytic review of leader-member exchange theory: Correlates and construct issues. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 82*, 827-844. doi:10.1037/0021-9010.82.6.827
- Giessner, S. R., Knippenberg, D., & Sleebos, E. (2009). License to fail? How leader group prototypicality moderates the effects of leader performance on perceptions of leadership effectiveness. *Leadership Quarterly, 20*, 434-451.
- Greenberg, J. (2002). Who stole the money, and when? Individual and situational determinants of employee theft. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes, 89*, 985-1003.
- Helland, K. R., & Blair, C. A. (2005, April). *Leaders behaving badly: The relationship between narcissism and unethical leadership*. Interactive poster session presented at the 20th annual conference of the Society for Industrial and Organizational Psychology, Los Angeles, CA.
- Hoffman, B. J., Bynum, B., Piccolo, R., & Sutton, A. W. (2011). Person-organization value congruence: How transformational leaders influence group effectiveness. *Academy of Management Journal, 54*, 779-796.
- Hoffman, B. J., Woehr, D. J., Maldegan-Youngjohn, R., & Lyons, B. D. (2011). Great man or great myth? A meta-analysis of the relationship between traits and leader effectiveness. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology, 84*, 347-381.
- Hogan, R., Raskin, R., & Fazzini, D. (1990). The dark side of charisma. In K. E. Clark & M. B. Clark (Eds.), *Measures of leadership* (pp. 343-354). West Orange, NJ: Leadership Library of America.
- Hollander, E. P. (1958). Conformity, status, and idiosyncrasy credit. *Psychological Review, 65*, 117-127.
- Hornett, A., & Fredricks, S. (2005). An empirical and theoretical exploration of disconnections between leadership and ethics.

- Journal of Business Ethics*, 59, 233-246. doi:10.1007/s10551-004-8205-4
- James, L. R., Demaree, R. J., & Wolf, G. (1984). Estimating within-group interrater reliability with and without response bias. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 69, 85-98.
- John, O. P., & Robins, R. W. (1994). Accuracy and bias in self-perception: Individual differences in self-enhancement and the role of narcissism. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 66, 206-219.
- Jöreskog, K. G., & Sörbom, D. (1996). *LISREL 8.5: User's reference guide*. Chicago, IL: Scientific Software.
- Judge, T. A., Bono, J. E., Ilies, R., & Gerhardt, M. (2002). Personality and leadership: A qualitative and quantitative review. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 87, 765-780.
- Judge, T. A., LePine, J. A., & Rich, B. L. (2006). Loving yourself abundantly: Relationship of the narcissistic personality to self and other perceptions of workplace deviance, leadership, and task and contextual performance. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 91, 762-776.
- Judge, T. A., & Piccolo, R. (2004). Transformational and transactional leadership: A meta-analytic test of their relative validity. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 89, 755-768.
- Judge, T. A., Piccolo, R. F., & Ilies, R. (2004). The forgotten ones? A re-examination of consideration, initiating structure, and leadership effectiveness. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 89, 36-51.
- Judge, T. A., Piccolo, R. F., & Kosalka, T. (2009). The bright and dark sides of leader traits: A review and theoretical extension of the leader trait paradigm. *Leadership Quarterly*, 20, 855-875.
- Kaiser, R. B., Hogan, R., & Craig, S. B. (2008). Leadership and the fate of organizations. *American Psychologist*, 63, 96-110.
- Kets, de, Vries, M. R., & Miller, D. (1985). Narcissism and leadership: An object relations perspective. *Human Relations*, 38, 583-601.
- Kristof, A. L. (1996). Person-organization fit: An integrative review of its conceptualizations, measurement, and implications. *Personnel Psychology*, 49, 1-49.
- Lord, R. G., de Vader, C. L., & Alliger, G. M. (1986). A meta-analysis of the relation between personality traits and leadership perceptions: An application of validity generalization procedures. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 71, 402-410.
- Lord, R. G., Foti, R. J., & DeVader, C. L. (1984). A test of leadership categorization theory: Internal structure, information processing, and leadership perceptions. *Organizational Behavior and Human Performance*, 34, 343-378.
- Lovisky, G. E., Treviño, L. K., & Jacobs, R. R. (2007). Assessing managers' ethical decision-making: An objective measure of managerial moral judgment. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 73, 263-285.
- Miller, J. D., Gaughan, E. T., Pryor, L. R., Kamen, C., & Campbell, W. K. (2009). Is research using the Narcissistic Personality Inventory relevant for understanding narcissistic personality disorder? *Journal of Research in Personality*, 43, 482-488.
- Miller, J. D., Hoffman, B. J., Gaughan, E. T., Gentile, B., Maples, J., & Campbell, W. K. (2011). Grandiose and vulnerable narcissism: A nomological network analysis. *Journal of Personality*, 79, 1013-1042.
- Mischel, W., & Patterson, C. J. (1976). Substantive and structural elements of effective plans for self-control. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 34, 942-950. doi:10.1037/0022-3514.34.5.942
- Morf, C. C., & Rhodewalt, F. (2001). Unraveling the paradoxes of narcissism: A dynamic self-regulatory processing model. *Psychological Inquiry*, 12, 177-196.
- Mumford, M. D., Connelly, M. S., Helton, W. B., Strange, J. M., & Osburn, H. K. (2001). On the construct validity of integrity tests: Individual and situational factors as predictors of test performance. *International Journal of Selection and Assessment*, 9, 240-257.
- Oltmanns, T. F., Friedman, J. N. W., Fiedler, E. R., & Turkheimer, E. (2003). Perceptions of people with personality disorders based on thin slices of behavior. *Journal of Research in Personality*, 38, 216-239.
- Paulhus, D. L. (1998). Interpersonal and intrapsychic adaptiveness of trait self-enhancement: A mixed blessing? *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 74, 1197-1208.
- Paulhus, D. L., & John, O. P. (1998). Egoistic and moralistic biases in self-perception: The interplay of self-deceptive styles with basic traits and motives. *Journal of Personality*, 66, 1025-1060.
- Paunonen, S. V., Lönnqvist, J. E., Verkasalo, M., Leikas, S., & Nissinen, V. (2006). Narcissism and emergent leadership in military cadets. *Leadership Quarterly*, 17, 475-486.
- Penney, L. (2002). *Workplace incivility and counterproductive workplace behavior (CWB): What is the relationship and does personality play a role?* (Unpublished doctoral dissertation). University of South Florida, Tampa.
- Penney, L. M., & Spector, P. E. (2002). Narcissism and counterproductive work behavior. Do bigger egos mean bigger problems? *International Journal of Selection and Assessment*, 10, 126-134.
- Piccolo, R. F., & Colquitt, J. A. (2006). Transformational leadership and job behaviors: The mediating role of core job characteristics. *Academy of Management Journal*, 49, 327-340.
- Raskin, R. N., & Terry, H. (1988). A principle components analysis of the Narcissistic Personality Inventory and further evidence of its construct validity. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 54, 890-902.
- Resick, C. J., Whitman, D. S., Weingarden, S. M., & Hiller, N. J. (2009). The bright-side and the dark-side of CEO personality: Examining core self-evaluations, narcissism, transformational leadership, and strategic influence. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 94, 1365-1381. doi:10.1037/a0016238
- Rest, J. R. (1979). *Development in judging moral issues*. Minneapolis: University of Minnesota Press.
- Roberts, J. (2007). Corporate governance and the ethics of narcissism. *Business Ethics Quarterly*, 11, 109-127.

- Rosenthal, S. A., & Pittinsky, T. L. (2006). Narcissistic leadership. *Leadership Quarterly*, *17*, 617-633.
- Ross, W. T., & Robertson, D. C. (2000). Lying: The impact of decision context. *Business Ethics Quarterly*, *10*, 409-440.
- Schneider, B. (1987). The people make the place. *Personnel Psychology*, *40*, 437-453.
- Schnure, K. A. (2010, April). *Narcissism levels and ratings of executive leadership potential*. Paper session presented at the 25th annual conference of the Society for Industrial and Organizational Psychology, Atlanta, GA.
- Tepper, B. J. (2007). Abusive supervision in work organizations: Review, synthesis, and research agenda. *Journal of Management*, *33*, 261-289.
- Treviño, L. K. (1990). A cultural perspective on changing organizational ethics. In R. Woodman & Passmore (Eds.), *Research in organizational change and development* (pp. 195-230). Greenwich, CT: JAI Press.
- Treviño, L. K., Brown, M. E., & Hartman, L. P. (2003). A qualitative investigation of perceived executive ethical leadership: Perceptions from inside and outside the executive suite. *Human Relations*, *55*, 5-37.
- Treviño, L. K., Butterfield, K. D., & McCabe, D. L. (1998). The ethical context in organizations: Influences on employee attitudes and behaviors. *Business Ethics Quarterly*, *8*, 447-476.
- Treviño, L. K., Hartman, L. P., & Brown, M. E. (2000). Moral person and moral manager: How executives develop a reputation for ethical leadership. *California Management Review*, *42*, 128-142.
- Treviño, L. K., & Youngblood, S. A. (1990). Bad apples in bad barrels: A causal analysis of ethical decision-making behavior. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *75*, 378-385.
- Victor, B., & Cullen, J. B. (1988). The organizational bases of ethical work climates. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, *33*, 101-125.
- Vodanovich, S. J., Wallace, J. C., & Kass, S. J. (2005). A confirmatory approach to the factor structure of the Boredom Proneness Scale: Evidence for a two-factor short form. *Journal of Personality Assessment*, *85*, 295-303.
- Wallace, H. M., & Baumeister, R. F. (2002). The performance of narcissists rises and falls with perceived opportunity for glory. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *82*, 819-834.
- Watson, P. J., & Biderman, M. D. (1994). Narcissistic traits scale: Validity evidence and sex differences in narcissism. *Personality and Individual Differences*, *16*, 501-504.
- Weber, J. (1990). Managers' moral reasoning: Assessing their responses to three moral dilemmas. *Human Relations*, *43*, 687-702.

## Bios

**Brian J. Hoffman** is a professor in the Industrial-Organizational Program at the University of Georgia. He earned his Ph.D. from the University of Tennessee, Knoxville. His research and practice focuses on the prediction, evaluation, and development of effective leadership.

**Sarah E. Strang** is a practitioner of Industrial-Organizational Psychology, guiding and executing talent management strategies in global organizations. She earned her doctorate from the University of Georgia, where she studied leadership development and personality with Dr. Karl Kuhnert.

**Karl W. Kuhnert** is the Program Chair of the University of Georgia's Industrial-Organizational Psychology Program. He earned his doctorate from Kansas State University. His research and practice focuses on leadership over the life course and the role of personality in leader development.

**W. Keith Campbell** is Head of the Psychology Department at the University of Georgia and a professor in the Behavioral and Brain Sciences and Industrial-Organizational Psychology Programs. He earned his doctorate from the University of North Carolina. His research explores narcissism across life domains and over time.

**Colby L. Kennedy** is a doctoral student in the Industrial-Organizational Psychology Program at the University of Georgia. Her research interests include employee deviance and abnormal personality.

**Alexander C. LoPilato** is a third year doctoral student in Industrial-Organizational Psychology at the University of Georgia. His research focuses the methodological and substantive implications of performance consistency across time and contexts.