

THE INSTITUTIONALIZATION OF NARCISSISTIC LEADERSHIP THROUGH LEADER
ATTRACTION AND SELECTION PROCESSES

by

ELIZABETH LAUREN MONAHAN

(Under the Direction of Brian J. Hoffman)

ABSTRACT

This study uses Schneider's (1983; 1987) attraction, selection, attrition (ASA) theory as a framework to understand the mechanisms by which narcissists attain formal leadership positions. Specifically, we surveyed law enforcement officers who were participating in a promotion system and sought to determine if those scoring high on narcissism were more attracted to leadership positions and further, if they were more likely to be evaluated positively than those scoring lower on narcissism. Not consistent with expectations on the basis of attraction and selection processes, narcissism was unrelated to performance in interpersonal selection tasks, attraction to leadership positions and the proposed mediators. However, the current study showed support for the influence of agentic values and reduced concern for family on attraction to leadership roles. The underlying weak reliability, structural issues, and the non-significant effects of the narcissism measure suggest problems with the self-reported narcissism scale in the current study. The results of this study indicate that the selection environment may have influenced participants' response patterns on the self-report narcissism measure.

INDEX WORDS: Narcissism, Leader Selection, Leader Attraction, Promotion

THE INSTITUTIONALIZATION OF NARCISSISTIC LEADERSHIP THROUGH LEADER
ATTRACTION AND SELECTION PROCESSES

by

ELIZABETH LAUREN MONAHAN

M. S., University of Georgia, 2011

A Thesis Submitted to the Graduate Faculty of The University of Georgia in Partial Fulfillment
of the Requirements for the Degree

DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

ATHENS, GEORGIA

2014

© 2014

Elizabeth Lauren Monahan

All Rights Reserved.

THE INSTITUTIONALIZATION OF NARCISSISTIC LEADERSHIP THROUGH LEADER
ATTRACTION AND SELECTION PROCESSES

by

ELIZABETH LAUREN MONAHAN

Major Professor: Brian J. Hoffman

Committee: W. Keith Campbell
Karl Kuhnert

Electronic Version Approved:

Maureen Grasso
Dean of the Graduate School
The University of Georgia
December 2014

DEDICATION

To my family, who instilled in me the value of education and never allowed me to settle for less than my true potential. Next, I dedicate this work to my closest friends, Bekah, Charleen, Kerrin, and Lauren, who distracted me just enough to keep me sane and yet allowed me to remain productive through the stress of graduate school and the progress of my dissertation. Lastly, I dedicate my dissertation to my best friend and partner, Frederic Maurice Rushing, without whose constant support and encouragement this endeavor would not have been possible.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I would first like to thank my dissertation chair, Brian Hoffman, for providing me years of mentoring and feedback, during both this project and all of my others. Next I would like to acknowledge Charles Lance, for his continuous support and his confidence in my work and ability. Additionally, I would like to acknowledge my committee members, Karl Kuhnert and Keith Campbell, for offering suggestions, expanding and molding my ideas, and helping me produce the best product possible. Although it has been a long and rough journey, I have learned more than I could have ever imagined during this process.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

	Page
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS	v
LIST OF FIGURES	viii
LIST OF TABLES	ix
CHAPTER	
1 INTRODUCTION	1
2 LITURATURE REVIEW AND HYPOTHESES.....	5
Narcissism	5
Effectiveness of Narcissistic Leaders	6
Narcissism and Formal Leadership Roles	8
3 METHOD	27
Participants	27
Procedure	27
Measures.....	28
4 RESULTS	32
Internal Consistency and Factor Structure of Study Measures	32
Hypothesis Testing	35
5 DISCUSSION.....	50
Main Findings.....	50
Implications	53

Limitations.....	53
Directions for Future Research.....	55
Conclusions	55
REFERENCES	57
APPENDIX.....	72

LIST OF FIGURES

	Page
Figure 1: Hypothesized Attraction Model	24
Figure 2: Hypothesized Attraction Model with Direct Paths.....	25
Figure 3: Theoretical Selection Process.....	26
Figure 4: Structure Equation Model of Attraction.....	48
Figure 5: Structure Equation Model of Attraction (Direct Paths).....	49

LIST OF TABLES

	Page
Table 1: Correlations of NPI Items Retained.....	39
Table 2: Confirmatory Factor Analysis of Narcissism Scale.....	41
Table 3: Confirmatory Factor Analysis Standardized Pattern Loadings for the One-Factor NPI Model and Three-Factor NPI Model.....	42
Table 4: Factor Loadings from Exploratory Factor Analysis of Vales Scale.....	43
Table 5: Confirmatory Factor Analysis of Work Values Scale	44
Table 6: Correlations of Study Variables.....	45
Table 7: Interpersonal Exercise Performance and Narcissism	46
Table 8: Written Exercise Performance and Narcissism	47

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

"King Kong ain't got shit on me."

Denzel Washington, *Training Day*

In the 2001 film *Training Day*, Denzel Washington plays a corrupt commander of an elite Los Angeles Police Department narcotics task force and makes this declaration at the end of a work day in which he commits multiple felonies up to and including murder. In his Academy Award Winning portrayal, Denzel Washington depicts a dramatization of a topic of key concern to organizations: the potential for narcissists to obtain positions of power and the consequences for the organization (Amernic & Craig, 2010) their employees (Campbell, Hoffman, Campbell, & Marchisio, 2011; Lubit, 2002), and society (Twenge & Campbell, 2009) when they do.

In his seminal conceptualization of narcissism, Freud (1921) noted the close ties between narcissism and leadership. More than 80 years later, Brunell, Gentry, Campbell, Hoffman, Kuhnert, and DeMarree (2008) proposed that, "Narcissists have skills and qualities that are beneficial for becoming leaders but not necessarily beneficial for serving as effective leaders" (p. 1663) suggesting that their unethical (Blair, Hoffman, & Helland, 2008; Hoffman et al., 2013) and counterproductive (Judge, LePine, & Rich, 2006; O'Boyle, Forsyth, Banks & McDaniel, 2012) behaviors are associated with key deficits in the effective execution of the leadership role (Blair et al., 2008). Given high levels of interdependence associated with modern work (Wood, Hoffman, & Twenge, 2012) and on-going concerns with ethical behavior in organizations (Sims,

1992) as well as the potential consequences of unethical work behavior (Karpoff, Lee, & Martin, 2008), leader interpersonal skills and ethics have arguably taken heightened importance in modern organizations.

The propensity for narcissists to emerge as leaders is theorized frequently and organizational scholars have increasingly expressed concern over this possibility (Campbell et al., 2011; Freud, 1931). This emerging pattern of results is particularly troubling in light of documented evidence that, when narcissists actually do assume positions of power, they tend to be characterized by reduced effectiveness (O'Boyle et al., 2012). Indeed, preliminary research has shown that narcissists tend to emerge as leaders when they are faced with unstructured problem solving tasks and are evaluated as having higher potential to advance (Brunell et al., 2008). In one of the few studies to examine this phenomenon in a field setting, Furnham, Crump, and Ritchie (2013) found that narcissists tend to advance to higher levels of organizational hierarchies. Given the skill deficits associated with narcissism, the potential for narcissists to attain positions of power is salient threat to organizational effectiveness. Studies have begun to support the role of narcissism in leader emergence; however, the processes by which narcissists emerge in organizations remain unclear.

This study applies Schneider's attraction, selection, attrition (ASA) theory (1983; 1987) as an overarching framework, to describe multiple processes that occur during personnel selection which facilitate the emergence of narcissists to leadership roles. According to attraction and self-selection processes, narcissism is proposed to be associated with individual values oriented toward wealth, status, and power. Given that leadership roles are associated with status, power, and higher compensation, narcissists are proposed to be attracted to leadership roles. This attraction is proposed to be so strong as to make a narcissist more willing to relocate for a

promotion than a non-narcissist. Additionally, it is proposed here that narcissists, unlike their non-narcissistic counterparts, are less involved with their families and, as such, are more willing to relocate for a promotion. Narcissists' attraction to leadership roles is proposed to manifest during self-selection processes, such that narcissists are proposed to be more likely to accept an offer for a leadership position or reapply for promotion the following year if an offer is not made. Thus, these processes are proposed to result in a leadership pipeline with elevated levels of narcissism.

In the second set of processes, based on signaling theory (Anderson & Kilduff, 2009) and implicit leadership theory (ILT; Lord, Foti, & de Vader, 1984), narcissists are proposed to display behaviors that signal competence to assessors in a tool commonly used to select leaders, managerial Assessment Centers (ACs), and that more favorable evaluations on these tools facilitate their attainment of leadership positions. In other words, the second set of processes proposes that behavioral tendencies associated with narcissism results in their being viewed as a good fit for leadership positions (even among highly trained raters), resulting in organizational selection systems that reward narcissism.

Taken together, narcissism is related to the attainment of leadership because narcissists are attracted to leadership roles, they self-select into leadership roles, and are evaluated favorably during formal selection tasks for leadership roles. Figure 1 and Figure 2 present the attraction model, and Figure 3 presents the selection model. These hypotheses are tested in a sample of police officers participating in a high-stakes, multi-hurdle promotional assessment that includes a job knowledge test and an AC and is used to evaluate applicants for a promotion to various leadership roles. The association between narcissism and performance on these selection tasks

and the intentions to accept a promotion offer or reapply for promotion are used to draw inferences regarding the processes by which narcissists achieve positions of power.

The present study has the potential to make key advances to understanding the implications of narcissism for organizational leadership. Most broadly, examining the role of narcissism in an operational managerial selection system allows us to isolate the processes by which narcissists achieve positions of power in organizations. Determining whether narcissism is associated with advancement is particularly important in light of the demonstrated deleterious effects of narcissism (O'Boyle et al., 2012). Practically, this study will potentially inform management scientists of an unintended confound in a popular and expensive assessment tool and of the potential dangers of formal and informal organizational processes inadvertently promoting narcissists. Next, the current study extends past lab-based investigations by exploring these processes in an operational context in a field setting. Finally, this study advances theoretical understanding of narcissism and leadership by applying the ASA (Schneider, 1983, 1987; Schneider, Goldstein, & Smith, 1995) framework to factors that lead to emergence into leadership roles.

The theoretical overview is organized around four primary sections. First, narcissism and associated behavioral tendencies are described, with a focus on patterns of behaviors pertinent to selection to leadership positions. Second, in order to place the present study in context, evidence underlying the relationship between narcissism and the performance of leaders once they have achieved leadership roles are described. Finally, both attraction processes and formal selection systems will be discussed in turn as key mechanisms underlying narcissism's association with emergence to leadership positions.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW AND HYPOTHESES

Narcissism

Narcissists are often described as attention-seeking, overconfident, charming, extraverted individuals who are high in entitlement, but who lack true empathy and refuse to take criticism (Campbell et al., 2011). Narcissism is a trait characterized by dysfunctional interpersonal relationships (long-term), inflated self-views, and the use of self-regulation in a manner that negatively affects others (for a review, see Morf & Rhodewalt, 2001). According to Campbell et al., (2011), “It is useful to think of narcissism as containing three components: the self, interpersonal relationships and self-regulatory strategies” (p. 269).

The narcissistic self is characterized by personal feelings of entitlement (Campbell, Bonacci, Shelton, Exline, & Bushman, 2004) and uniqueness (Emmons, 1984), inflated views of personal intelligence and physical attractiveness (e.g. Gabriel, Critelli, & Ee, 1994), and a desire for dominance and power (Campbell, Rudich, & Sedikides, 2002). Not surprisingly then, narcissists tend to be more motivated by extrinsic rewards than intrinsic rewards (Kasser & Ryan, 1996).

Additionally, narcissism is associated with interpersonal relationship problems. These poor relationships can be attributed to the fact that narcissists display self-focus rather than other-focus (Emmons, 1987) and report a lesser need for intimacy than non-narcissists (Carroll, 1987). Narcissists often fail to acknowledge the effort and positive input provided by others (Campbell, Reeder, Sedikides, & Elliot, 2000; Farwell & Wohlwend-Lloyd, 1998; John & Robins, 1994) and

often play games with their relationship partners (Campbell, Foster, & Finkel, 2002) in addition to having infidelity issues (Miller, Widiger & Campbell, 2010).

Lastly, according to the Dynamic Self-Regulatory Model (Morf & Rhodewalt, 2001), the Agency Model (Campbell, Brunell, & Finkel, 2006) and the Contextual Reinforcement Model (Campbell & Campbell, 2009), narcissists use self-regulatory strategies in order to maintain their inflated self-views. Narcissists seek admiration and attention from others (Campbell, 1999; Morf & Rhodewalt, 2001; Rosenthal & Pittinsky, 2006) by bragging, showing-off, and behaving colorfully (i.e., dramatic, expressive, animated; Hogan & Hogan, 2001). When an opportunity exists for glory, narcissists tend to exert a greater effort than non-narcissists (Wallace & Baumeister, 2002). 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 et al., 2006). These two models, albeit 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.

Effectiveness of Narcissistic Leaders

Before articulating the processes by which narcissists emerge as leaders, it is first important to briefly acknowledge the association between narcissism and leader effectiveness. Although empirical research is rather limited, existing studies point to the potential for detrimental effects. Brunell et al. (2008) stated the selection of a narcissist to a position of leadership has the “potential to bring a host of problems to an organization” (p. 1674).

Supporting this, a recent meta-analysis concluded that narcissists have a tendency to ignore negative feedback, mistreat subordinates, and promote their own interests (O'Boyle et al., 2012).

Consistent with the inclusion of "consideration" behaviors in taxonomies of managerial and leadership performance (Bass, 1985; Borman & Brush, 1993), the maintenance of effective interpersonal relationships is considered to be a hallmark of effective leadership (Hoffman, Woehr, Maldegan-Youngjohn, & Lyons, 2011; Yukl, 2006). Notably, narcissism is associated with reduced relationship quality due to the narcissist's infatuation with the self and lack of empathy for others (Brown & Bosson, 2001; Watson, Grisham, Trotter, & Biderman, 1984). For instance, narcissists have been shown to suffer from relationship problems since they take credit for any success and blame failure on others around them (Campbell et al., 2000). Additionally, they think they are better than their partners (Campbell et al., 2002a) and have commitment issues such as remaining open to alternative dating partners while in a monogamous relationship (Campbell & Foster, 2002). Preliminary evidence supports a deleterious effect of narcissism on workplace relationships, including reduced interpersonal effectiveness (Blair et al. 2008; Judge et al., 2006) and exploitation (Khoo & Burch, 2008).

Moreover, narcissism is associated with ethical lapses and immoral behavior. Narcissists are self-involved and likely will refuse to help others, unless it in some way benefits the self. Narcissistic leaders engage in unethical and immoral behaviors in order to appear successful (Amernic & Craig, 2010; Duchon & Drake, 2009). For instance, Blair et al. (2008) found that narcissism is associated with reduced supervisor ratings of integrity and Hoffman et al. (2013) found that narcissism is associated with lower ratings of ethical leadership. A recent meta-analysis supports these suggestions with narcissism emerging as a key predictor of

counterproductive work behaviors and a particularly important predictor when the narcissist occupies a position of authority (O'Boyle et al., 2012).

Finally, because they overestimate their abilities and are unwilling to change course once they make a decision, narcissists often take unnecessary risks. They engage in risky behaviors in their private lives such as gambling, since they have a high approach motivation and a low avoidance motivation (Emmons, 1981; Foster, Misra, & Reidy, 2009; Foster & Trimm, 2008). In a work setting, a recent lab study showed that narcissists' risky behavior led to the depletion of organizational resources (Campbell et al, 2005). More specifically, when told that they were in charge of a forestry business, narcissists sought to compete with other forestry businesses to such an extent that they harvested timber at such a fast pace in the short term resulting in depletion of resources.

Narcissism and Formal Leadership Roles

Despite the frequently expressed concern over the proliferation of narcissists in leadership roles (e.g. Brunell et al., 2008; Rosenthal & Pittinsky, 2006), few studies have investigated the processes by which they secure power. This study applies Schneider's ASA framework (1983; 1987) to propose two overarching complimentary processes by which narcissists attain formal leadership roles: attraction and selection. According to ASA, individual personality, values, and goals are a primary determinant of people's attraction to occupations and organizations, and organizations select individuals perceived to be compatible with a given role. Consistent with the vocational interests literature (Holland, 1963), similar processes are proposed to operate during the process of selecting individuals into leadership roles. Specifically, because narcissists tend to value the work characteristics and benefits supplied by the leadership role, narcissism is proposed to be related to two indicators of attraction to leadership roles. In the

second set of ASA-based processes, we propose that ACs, a formal system used in selection and promotional settings, are associated with the display of characteristics commonly associated with leadership.

Attraction. The first overarching mechanism by which narcissism is proposed to be related to advancement is through their attraction and self-selection to leadership roles. According to ASA (Schneider, 1983; 1987) and vocational choice models (Holland, 1963), individuals are attracted to careers and organizations based on their interests and personality. Similarly, the organizational choice literature shows that individuals are attracted to environments that match their personality and those in which they can most readily obtain valued outcomes (Tom, 1971; Vroom, 1966). Attraction reflects an individual's desire to obtain a job based on the perceived congruence between the role requirements and individual needs, values, and personality. Based on attraction, individuals then self-select into roles that are consistent with their values, goals, and needs (e.g., Bretz & Judge, 1998). Leadership roles, which are characterized by power, status, and higher levels of compensation (Mintzberg, 1973; Yukl, 1989) should be attractive to individuals who value these work characteristics. Narcissists' attraction to jobs that fulfill these agentic values are proposed to result in self-selecting into leadership roles as indexed by their intent to accept a promotion offer and their intent to reapply for the same position the following year. We develop formal hypotheses below when discussing the mediating role of agentic values, family involvement, and willingness to relocate.

Selection. The selection of organizational leaders is widely studied in the management literature (Hoffman et al., 2011; Silzer & Church, 2009). A variety of measurement methods are employed in the selection of organizational leaders, including personality scales, intelligence tests, situational judgment tests, job knowledge tests, interviews, and ACs (Hollenbeck, 2009;

Smith & Howard, 2009). Based on past narcissism research, we propose that narcissism predicts more favorable evaluations on interpersonally-oriented selection tasks and, ultimately, more favorable promotion evaluations. That is, behaviors and traits displayed by narcissists in interpersonal settings will result in evaluators, even trained AC assessors, perceiving a favorable level of "fit" between narcissists and leadership roles. In the current study, police officers are participating in a multi-hurdle promotion system including written tasks (a job knowledge test and a Case Analysis exercise) and interpersonal tasks that require evaluators to score an interpersonal interaction (a Role Play and an Oral Presentation), allowing for an analysis of the progression of narcissists through a selection battery and a comparisons of performance on interpersonally-oriented tasks versus written tasks.

A key advantage of ACs and interviews relative to written measures is the ability to gauge interpersonal acumen by evaluating actual candidate behaviors (Wernimont & Campbell, 1968). Furthermore, past research supports the validity of these measures in predicting subsequent performance (Hoffman et al., under review). However, this study proposes that these tools will also result in narcissists receiving higher scores, reflecting a potential unrecognized threat to using interpersonally-oriented selection devices. Specifically, narcissism is proposed to be related to more positive evaluations on interpersonal selection measures (the oral presentation and the role play), because these situations are characterized by interpersonal interactions, over a relatively brief time interval that are evaluated using human observers.

Narcissists are proposed to excel in interpersonally-oriented exercises because these situations allow narcissists to display characteristics indicative of leadership. According to leader categorization theory (Lord, Foti, & Phillips, 1982), individuals are perceived as leaders when they display behaviors and characteristics prototypical of leaders, such as providing direction,

providing suggestions, confidently offering solutions to problems facing the group, and doing so with a typical high level of verbal skills (Lord et al., 1984). Notably, these leadership behaviors are also associated with narcissism. Indeed, narcissism is associated with characteristics shown to be predictive of leader emergence, such as assertiveness, extraversion, social skills, and others' perceptions of competence (at least in the short term; Judge, Bono, Ilies & Gerhardt, 2002; Smith & Foti, 1998). In short, interpersonally-oriented AC exercises inherently reflect leadership situations, and because narcissism is also associated with behaviors with high levels of cue validity for leadership prototypes, narcissists are expected to be perceived as leaders in interpersonally-oriented situations.

As discussed above, narcissism is also associated with characteristics that are anti-prototypical of leaders (e.g., tyranny and insensitivity; Offermann, Kennedy, & Wirtz, 1994). Although assessors are privy to elements of narcissism that are prototypical of leadership, such as providing direction and making suggestions, assessors would be less likely to observe more harmful behaviors given that assesseees are, to some extent, engaging in impression management. According to Campbell and Campbell's (2009) contextual reinforcement model of narcissism, narcissists excel in *emerging settings*, such as during relatively brief encounters or in the early stages of a relationship. This is proposed to occur because narcissists engage in behaviors that signal competence, interpersonal skills, and ultimately attributions of leadership in these settings. For example, given the associations between self-promotional influence tactics and interview performance (Higgins, Judge, & Ferris, 2003), narcissists' self-promoting behaviors would be expected to result in increased interview performance (Paulhus, Westlake, Calvez, & Harms, 2013; Schnure, 2010). Anderson and Kilduff (2009) found that a trait with close ties to narcissism, dominance, was associated with increased perceptions of interpersonal competence

and technical competence by peers in leaderless groups convened to solve math problems. Additionally, they found that perceptions of technical and interpersonal competence mediated the influence of dominance on leader emergence.

Although others may perceive these behaviors positively, for narcissists at least, this may be short-lived. “For those interacting with narcissists, the greatest benefits will be seen in the emerging zone, and the costs will be in the enduring zone” (Campbell & Campbell, 2009, p. 218). For example, when narcissists self-enhance, they may initially make a good impression but are subsequently disliked by their peers (Paulhus, 1998). Thus, with prolonged exposure, narcissism tends to be related to a host of adverse consequences, but because selection settings are short term and capture maximal performance, it is unlikely that the detrimental effects of narcissism will be observed during the course of the AC; instead, narcissists will exert behaviors prototypical of leaders and accordingly, be evaluated more favorably. Thus, we propose that, in the context of short-term personnel selection tasks, narcissism will be associated with more favorable evaluations of leadership performance.

Preliminary evidence examining selection tasks supports this suggestion. A few studies have examined narcissism and performance in tasks commonly used for selection, and these findings generally support this proposition. For instance, in two samples, Brunell et al. (2008) showed that narcissism was associated with peer evaluations of leader emergence following a leaderless group discussion and in a third sample, narcissism was associated with trained assessors' ratings of leader emergence in the leaderless group discussion portion of a developmental AC. In a study using a university sample, Nevicka, De Hoogh, Van Vianen, Beersma, and McIlwain (2011) found that narcissism was significantly related to leader emergence in an interactive team simulation task. Additionally, Schnure (2010) found that

narcissists participating in an interview intended to assess leadership potential were evaluated more favorably than non-narcissists by executive recruiters. In their student sample, Paulhus et al., (2013) found that when told to “impress the interviewer with your competence in the field of psychology,” narcissists successfully self-promoted and were perceived by the interviewers as superior to their non-narcissistic counterparts.

Although a useful first step, this line of inquiry has not directly investigated narcissism in the context of managerial selection or in operational settings. Instead, existing studies have used undergraduates as subjects, videotapes of interviewees, or individuals already holding senior-level management positions. Similarly, trained evaluators were only used in one of the samples, others have used "experienced" interviewers or peer raters. Similarly, these effects have typically been examined in a single task (e.g., a Leaderless Group Discussion or an interview), rather than in the context of a system with multiple tasks. Finally, none of these situations involved operational selection systems, potentially limiting the generalizability of these results. Thus, an initial goal of this study is to determine whether leader narcissism is associated with elevated performance in an operational selection context to determine whether formal selection measures inadvertently results in the selection and promotion of narcissists to leadership roles, which will be operationalized by the extent to which the assessors recommend the participants for promotion.

Hypothesis 1: Narcissism will be positively related to performance in the AC interpersonal exercises (i.e., Oral Presentation and Role Play).

On the other hand, written selection tasks (e.g., job knowledge tests, case analyses, and in-baskets) do not have an interpersonal component. Instead, the written tasks, such as job knowledge tests and the Case Analysis exercise are expected to depend on cognitive ability to a

greater extent than interpersonal acumen (Hoffman et al., under review; Schmidt & Hunter, 1993). Because past research has shown that narcissism is unrelated to ability-based measures, such as intelligence tests (Fontaine, Barker, Salekin, & Viding, 2008) and GPA (Westerman, Bergman, Bergman, & Daly, 2011), narcissism is not expected to be a predictor of performance in the job knowledge test and the Case Analysis exercise. The inclusion of the written exercise (i.e. Case Analysis) provided a useful non-interpersonal referent by which to gauge whether narcissism is related to performance on all selection tasks or just on interpersonal tasks, as hypothesized. Thus, as illustrated in Figure 3, the influence of narcissism on promotion tool performance is proposed to occur through the influence of narcissism on interpersonal tasks rather than the influence of narcissism in written tasks. Although promotion recommendation is proposed to be influenced by performance on all the selection tasks, narcissism is only expected to predict promotion through its influence on the interpersonal tasks. However, since the promotion tool is solely composed of the performance on these exercises, no hypothesis will be made about the relationship between performance in all exercises and overall AC performance.

Intent to accept or reapply. Next, narcissists are proposed to self-select into positions of power through their application behaviors. The first avenue is their likelihood to accept a promotion offer to a leadership role. The second mechanism by which narcissism is proposed to self-select is through their intent to reapply for a leadership role if they are unsuccessful in their application. The relationship between narcissism and intent to accept / reapply is proposed to be mediated by narcissists' (a) desire for wealth, (b) desire for status, (c) desire for power, (d) family involvement and (e) willingness to relocate. The desires for wealth, status, and power are collectively referred to as “values” or “agentic values”. The model depicting the relationships described above is presented in Figure 1 and Figure 2, with the only difference being that Figure

1 contains direct paths from narcissism to intent to accept promotion and narcissism and intent to reapply for promotion.

Desire for wealth. Wealth is “the central focus of earning an income” which is “a payment received by individuals, typically for goods or services sold” (Simpson, 2009; p. 525-526). Narcissism is theoretically and empirically associated with a desire for wealth (Kasser & Ryan, 1996) as well as the heightened desire for material possessions (Sedikides, Gregg, Cisek, & Hart, 2007). Narcissists have been shown to have high economic aspirations (i.e., having a high standard of living; Roberts & Robins, 2000). Given that promotion to leadership roles is commonly associated with increases in pay, narcissists’ value for wealth will partially mediate the relationship between narcissism and intent to accept a promotion offer and intent to reapply for the same promotion.

Desire for status. Status refers to differences in respect, prominence, and influence among individuals (Anderson, John, Keltner, & Kring, 2001). According to Vazire and Funder (2006), narcissists are on a “quest for the status and recognition they so intensely desire” (p. 154). Their desire for status is evident in their choice to maintain the best possible physical appearance, their desire to wear expensive / name brand clothes (Anderson et al., 2001), desire to associate with high status others (Campbell, 1999), and, in the present context, their desire to attain glory and show their competence in high visibility situations (Paulhus et al., in 2013; Wallace & Baumeister, 2002) such as leadership roles.

The leader position is proposed to be a specialized position in a group that, in organizational contexts, is formally recognized as having a higher status relative to other employees (Yukl, 1989) and is informally recognized as entailing a high level of competence (Barnard, 1938) that sets the leader apart from other group members through a specialized role in

the group (see Yukl, 1989). Indeed, the status associated with leadership roles is evident in the ‘Figurehead’ and ‘Spokesman’ roles from Mintzberg's (1973) classic taxonomy.

Desire for power. Power has been defined as “the ability to get things done the way one wants them to be done” (Salancik & Pfeffer, 1977; p. 4). Leadership roles are naturally associated with position power (DeWall, Baumeister, Mead, & Vohs, 2011), in that leaders are formally granted the authority to allocate resources (Mintzberg, 1973), assign employees' work, evaluate employee performance, and reward and punish employees. Narcissism is closely associated with the desire to have power and influence over others (Carroll, 1987; Joubert, 1998; Ng, Tam, & Shu, 2011; Campbell et al., 2002b; Morf & Rhodewalt, 2001). The association between narcissism and desire for power has explicitly been proposed, although not empirically tested, as a key variable that explains the emergence of narcissists to leadership roles (Kets de Vries, 2003). Their desire for positions of power is proposed to stem from the need to self-enhance or affirm their high self-esteem (Morf & Rhodewalt, 2001; Raskin, Novacek, & Hogan, 1991). This process is accomplished by exerting dominance and superiority over others (Carroll, 1987; Emmons, 1984; Raskin et al., 1991; Raskin & Terry, 1988). Given that leadership roles afford power to those occupying roles, and that narcissism is associated with striving for power, desire for power is proposed to mediate the relationship between narcissism and attraction to leadership roles.

Hypothesis 2: Narcissism will be positively related to agentic values (i.e. desire for wealth, status, and power).

Hypothesis 3: Desire of these values will be positively related to (a) intent to accept a promotion offer and (b) intent to reapply for the same promotion.

Hypothesis 4: Agentic values will mediate the relationship between narcissism and (a) intent to accept a promotion offer and (b) intent to reapply for the same promotion.

Willingness to relocate. In addition to the above discussed agentic values, it is proposed here that the intent to accept a promotion offer can further be explained. Within the current study's context, it is possible that a potential promotion offer would come with the stipulation of relocation. We propose here that there are two ways in which willingness to relocate can be explained. First, the desire for wealth, status, and power (i.e. agentic values) could be so strong that an individual would relocate for the potential for these values to be satisfied. Second, a reduced involvement with one's family may cause a person to be more willing to relocate for promotion.

Hypothesis 5: Willingness to relocate will be positively related to intent to accept a promotion offer.

Hypothesis 6: Agentic values will be positively related to willingness to relocate.

Family involvement. Family involvement is conceptualized as a psychological identification within the family context (Misra, Ghosh, & Kanungo, 1990). Research has shown that narcissists are more self-focused than non-narcissists (Raskin & Shaw, 1988). Therefore, it is expected that narcissists in particular would value a new work role that would allow for increases in wealth, status, and power, above the effect that accepting such a role would have on his/her family members. Because narcissists view power as more important than caring or having empathy for others (Campbell, Bosson, Goheen, Lakey, & Kernis, 2007; Campbell et al., 2002b), they will be less likely to view their family as important as non-narcissists.

Hypothesis 7: Narcissism will be negatively related to family involvement.

Changing jobs and relocating are stressors for employees and their families (Munton, 1990). Relocating, for example, is associated with stress due to losing existing social ties, the potential need for the spouse to find another job, and can impact children educationally and socially (Munton, 1990). Given the stress and practical constraints associated with relocating, not all individuals would be expected to accept a promotion offer. Consistent with this, work-family factors are a key consideration for employees when deciding whether to accept a job offer (Boswell, Roehling, LePine, & Moynihan, 2003) that requires relocation. Accordingly, although accepting a promotion offer has many advantages, such as increased wealth, status, and power, the involvement with the one's family is proposed here to negatively impact an individual's willingness to relocate.

Hypothesis 8: Family Involvement will be negatively related to willingness to relocate

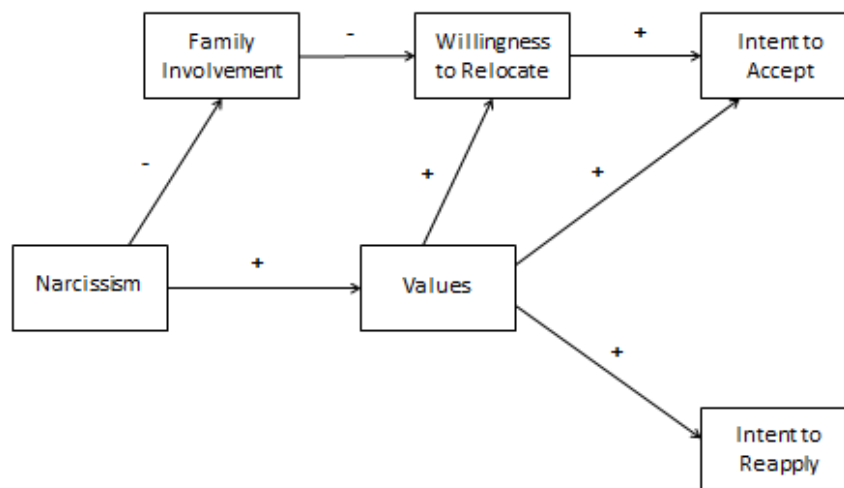


Figure 1
Hypothesized Attraction Model.

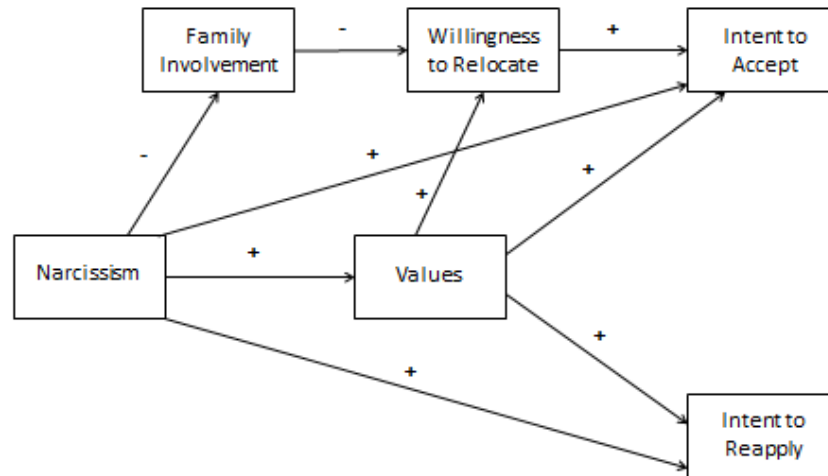


Figure 2
Hypothesized Attraction Model with Direct Paths.

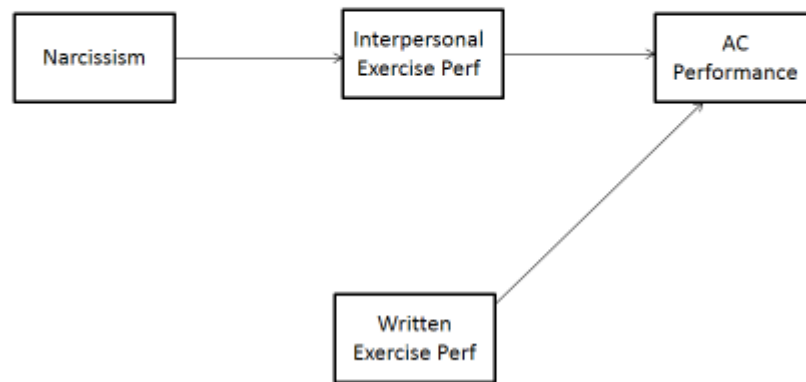


Figure 3
Theoretical Selection Process

CHAPTER 3

METHOD

Participants

Participants were law enforcement officers who applied for promotion in a southeastern state. Law enforcement officers self-nominated to participate for the possibility of promotion. There were four different ranks that participated in the study, although there was a small percentage that did not indicate which of the four ranks they belonged (5.4%). In order of rank (lowest to highest) the titles are Corporal (61.5%), Sergeant (19.3%), Sergeant First Class (9.4%), and Lieutenant (9.9%). The final sample for those completing the survey was $N=203$. Of those who responded to the demographic questions (98%), the majority were males (96.5%) between the ages of 25 and 57 (mean = 39.10; standard deviation = 7.44). Officers indicated education status in the following ways: high school diploma (59.5%), bachelor's degree (21.6%), master's degree (14.6%) and other or not answered (4.3%). Since the promotion procedure required a hurdle for some ranks, discussed below, the number of individuals completing the survey ($N=203$) differed from those who completed the survey and the AC ($N= 170$).

Procedure

All measures were completed via a paper and pencil survey. Officers were approached regarding participation in the study at the point of first contact. Given that the procedure differed depending on rank, the officers were approached in one of two ways about the study. The Corporal and Sergeant ranks had to pass a job knowledge test before participating in the AC, while the ranks Sergeant First Class and Lieutenant did not. Since the lower ranks (Corporal and

Sergeant) had to first take the job knowledge test, it was immediately after the test that officers were approached regarding the survey. The participating officers completed the survey while their job knowledge tests were being graded. For the Sergeant First Class and Lieutenant ranks, participating officers completed the survey when they were on-site for the AC. In both circumstances, it is worth noting that the participants were asked to complete the survey while on-site of a selection process. Participants were assured the answers to the survey items would not contribute to any promotion decisions.

With their informed consent, participants were administered the survey containing demographic questions and the measures of narcissism, family involvement, values, willingness to relocate, intent to accept, and intent to reapply (Appendix A and B). The sample was composed of participants from four different ACs (based on rank). As such, rank was collected as a control variable.

Measures

Narcissism. The Narcissistic Personality Inventory (NPI-40; Raskin & Terry, 1988) is the most popular measure of narcissism. The NPI is comprised of 40 forced choice items with two choices per item: a narcissistic response (coded 1; e.g. “I find it easy to manipulate people”) and a non-narcissistic response (coded 0; e.g. “I don’t like it when I find myself manipulating people”). Once completed, the responses are summed. Higher scores indicate higher levels of narcissism. Past research has supported the reliability and validity of the NPI. A list of all items can be found in Appendix A.

Assessment center. The AC included three exercises, and each exercise was evaluated by three trained assessors. Assessors were law enforcement officers, at least one rank higher

than the participants, and were unacquainted with the assesses. The assessors completed a six hour frame-of-reference training prior to rating the participants.

Oral presentation. Candidates were given a packet of information (including a relevant policy of the department) and told to present on the importance of the indicated policy. The candidates each were given 30 minutes to prepare. Once the 30 minutes elapsed, the candidates were taken to the room with the assessors. Each candidate was allotted 20 minutes to deliver their presentation uninterrupted, and at no time did they interact with assessors. The assessors evaluated the candidates on six dimensions in this exercise (perception, decisiveness, judgment, oral communication, leadership, and organization and planning).

Role play. Candidates were given a packet of information (including emails, memos, and newspaper clippings) and told they were to answer questions as a superior officer. Each candidate was given 30 minutes to prepare. Next, the candidate entered the room with the assessors, and was asked structured questions concerning the information. The questions were asked by one of the three assessors. Each question was allotted a particular response time (ranging from two to six minutes). After the last question was answered, the candidate was asked to leave. The assessors evaluated the candidates on six dimensions in this exercise (perception, decisiveness, judgment, oral communication, leadership, and organization and planning).

Case analysis. In the case analysis exercise, candidates were asked to write an essay concerning their past leadership behavior. All of the candidates participating in each AC completed this exercise at the same time as others in their rank. Candidates were given two hours to write the essay. Paper, pencils, and dictionaries were provided for the candidates. The assessors never came in face-to-face contact with the candidates in this exercise. The assessors

evaluated the candidates' written essay on four dimensions in this exercise (written communication, perception, judgment, and organization and planning).

Assessment Center performance. Following the AC, the exercise scores were compiled to derive a total score based on the importance weights assigned to exercises based on the job analysis conducted by the AC administrators. This total score is called the overall assessment center rating (OAR). Additionally, using the weights, total scores for each exercise were obtained in order to compare the interpersonal exercises (the average of the role play and oral presentation scores) against the non-interpersonal exercise (the case analysis).

Agentic Values. Agentic values were measured using 11 items either originally developed or adapted from the following: (a) Johnston, Bachman, and O'Malley (2006), (b) Ros, Schwartz, and Surkiss (1999), or (c) Steers and Braunstein (1976). The items were adapted for use in this survey. For instance, "Prestigious, highly valued work" from Ros et al. (1999) was changed to "A job that allows you to do highly valued work." Participants were asked to what extent they found these agentic values important on a Likert-type scale from 1 (*not important*) to 5 (*very important*).

Intent to accept promotion. Intent to accept a hypothetical promotion offer was measured using seven items developed specifically for this study. Participants were asked to rate their likelihood to accept the promotion offer using a Likert-type scale from 1 (*definitely would not accept the offer*) to 5 (*definitely would accept the offer*). A list of all items can be found in Appendix B.

Intent to reapply for promotion. Candidates were asked to what extent they would reapply for promotion if they were not offered the job. Like other job intention measures (i.e. intent to turnover), intent to reapply for promotion was measured with a single item. The use of

single item measures is acceptable when the underlying constructs are homogenous (Loo, 2002). Participants were asked to rate their intent to reapply for promotion using a Likert-type scale from 1 (*definitely would not reapply*) to 5 (*definitely would reapply*).

Willingness to relocate. Participants were asked to rate their willingness to relocate on a Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (*not willing*) to 5 (*very willing*). This scale consisted of 4-items developed for this study.

Family involvement. Family involvement was measured using a five-item measure adapted from Kanungo (1982). The five-item measure of family involvement was modified from the measure of Kanungo's work involvement measure by changing the referent from work to family. Participants were asked to describe the extent to which they agree with each item using a Likert-type scale from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 5 (*strongly agree*).

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS

Internal Consistency and Factor Structure of Study Measures

Coefficients alpha reliabilities were calculated to evaluate internal consistency of the measures. Then, the internal structure of each of the scales was evaluated using confirmatory factor analyses (CFA; Anderson & Gerbing, 1988; Lance & Vandenberg, 2002) performed in *Mplus* (Muthén & Muthén, 1998-2010). The fit of all CFA and structural equation models were evaluated using the following fit indices: (a) the chi-square goodness of fit test (χ^2), (b) the root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA; Steiger, 1990), (c) the standardized root mean square residual (SRMR; Bentler, 1995), (d) the comparative fit index (CFI; Bentler, 1990) and (e) the Tucker-Lewis index (TLI, Tucker & Lewis, 1973). RMSEA values less than .08 and SRMR values less than .10 indicate acceptable fit, while RMSEA values below .06 and SRMR values below .08 indicate good fit; CFI and TLI values greater than .90 indicate adequate fit, while values of .95 or above indicate good fit (Hu & Bentler, 1999; Lance & Vandenberg, 2002). We then examined whether factor loadings were statistically significant. If the factor loadings were not statistically significant and if fit was unacceptable, the scales were adjusted (and the reliability recalculated).

Narcissism. Although the internal consistency of the 40-item NPI measure was acceptable ($\alpha=.715$), this is potentially inflated by the number of items. The average inter-item correlations were weak and similar items were often completely uncorrelated. For example, the items “I see myself as a good leader” and “I am a born leader” were correlated at .001. Since

researchers have used a multitude of factor structures for the NPI, a variety of factor structures were tested to assess which would fit the sample best. The structures tested included one with seven factors (Raskin & Terry, 1988), one with four factors (Emmons, 1987), two with three factors (Ackerman et al., 2011; Kubarych, Deary, & Austin, 2004), and two with two factors (Corry, Merritt, Mrug, & Pamp, 2008; Kubarych et al., 2004).

In the current sample, the CFA of the narcissism scale was conducted using *Mplus* (Muthén & Muthén, 1998-2010) specifying a categorical response. In doing so, bivariate tables without zero cells are needed. In all of the factor structures tested, the resulting outputs indicated that a variety of items caused the bivariate cells to contain zeros. In order to eliminate the zero cells in the bivariate table, it is suggested that items be deleted from the scale (Muthén & Muthén, 2007). Since the different factor structures had different item issues, a 1-factor version was used to analyze the scale for item deletion. After removing those items creating the zero cells in the bivariate tables, factor loadings were examined. Next, those items with negative or nonsignificant factor loadings were removed. Table 1 lists the correlations of the resulting 23 items. These 23 items had a coefficient alpha reliability of .757, which is improved from the .715 of the starting 40 items. We categorized the resulting 23 items into three factors: leadership ($\alpha=.416$, $N=4$), manipulation ($\alpha=.398$, $N=4$), unique/special ($\alpha=.694$, $N=15$). A three-factor solution was tested along with a one-factor solution to compare which fit the data best. Using the chi-square difference test ($\Delta\chi^2(2) = 7.09$, $p < .05$), the three-factor solution provided the closest fit ($\chi^2(78) = 106.79$, $p < .01$, $CFI = .911$, $TLI = .922$; $RMSEA = .043$) in comparison to the one-factor solution ($\chi^2(80) = 113.88$, $p < .01$, $CFI = .907$, $TLI = .892$; $RMSEA = .047$). However, because the one factor solution showed an adequate fit to the data and given reliability issues with the three facets, we focus analyses on the overall score from the 23 item measures. Fit indices and factor

loadings for both the one-factor structure and the three-factor structure are reported in Table 2 and Table 3, respectively. Given the need to change the scale items, further analyses containing this scale should be interpreted with caution.

Agentic values. A one and three-factor structure of the wealth, power, and status items were compared. The one-factor structure did not fit the data well ($\chi^2(44) = 279.21$, $p < .01$, CFI=.688, TLI=.610; RMSEA=.162, SRMR=.104) and the three-factor structure was not proper. Specifically, there is a linear dependency among latent variables. In an attempt to improve fit, an exploratory factor analysis, using varimax oblique rotation, was conducted on the 11 items (Table 4). The results indicated that a two-factor structure would fit the data best. Using the results of the exploratory factor analysis, a CFA was conducted on the two-factor structure ($\chi^2(43) = 146.82$, $p < .01$, CFI=.862, TLI=.824; RMSEA=.109, SRMR=.077). The results of the CFAs of the various factor structures can be found in Table 5 along with the results of the chi-square difference test. Although the chi-square difference test revealed the two-factor structure fit the data best, the fit was still not acceptable. Additionally, there was no theoretical rationale for the distribution of the items to the factors. As such, the items were utilized in the model as a one-factor structure. The coefficient alpha for the 11 items on this measure was .85. Due to the poor fit of the factor structure to the data, resulting analyses should be interpreted cautiously.

Intent to accept. The seven items created to measure the candidates' intent to accept were tested as a one-factor model. The one-factor structure did not fit the data well ($\chi^2(14) = 181.93$, $p < .01$, CFI=.774, TLI=.661; RMSEA=.243, SRMR=.084). Although the factor structure results were less than satisfactory, the seven items had high internal consistency ($\alpha = .85$).

Willingness to relocate. The willingness to relocate scale contained four items. A one-factor model fit the data well ($\chi^2(2) = 5.91$, $p > .05$, CFI=.991, TLI=.972; RMSEA=.098, SRMR=.018). The scale was reliable as the coefficients alpha for the four items was .88.

Family involvement. The five items that composed the family involvement measure were tested as a one-factor structure. This one-factor structure fit the data well ($\chi^2(5) = 7.84$, $p > .05$, CFI=.994, TLI=.987; RMSEA=.053, SRMR=.027). Coefficient alpha for this scale was .78.

Hypothesis Testing

Mplus was used to compute composites of all model variables. The narcissism composite was a simple sum of all 23 items that were retained. The composites for agentic values, intent to accept, willingness to relocate, and family involvement were created by averaging the items on each respective scale. The interpersonal exercise performance composite was created by averaging candidate performance in the RP exercise and the OP exercise. The correlations between study variables are reported in Table 6.

Narcissism and selection. To determine if narcissists are more likely to be selected for leadership roles based on their performance in interpersonal AC exercises (Hypothesis 1), hierarchical regression was used. Since candidates of different ranks participated in different ACs, rank was controlled for in the analyses. To address if narcissism was positively related to performance in interpersonal AC exercises, interpersonal exercise performance was regressed onto narcissism, controlling for rank. The results (Table 7) indicated that narcissism was not related to performance in the interpersonal exercises ($\beta = -.096$ $p > .05$). Therefore, Hypothesis 1 was not supported. Next, written exercise performance was regressed onto narcissism, controlling for rank. Narcissism was unrelated to performance in the written exercise ($\beta = -.052$, p

> .05; Table 8). Finally, we regressed overall AC performance onto narcissism, controlling for rank, and found that narcissism was unrelated to overall AC performance ($\beta = -.127$, $p > .05$).

Narcissism and attraction. It was proposed here that narcissism would be associated with greater attraction to would-be leadership positions. To test this set of hypotheses, two models were used. The first (Figure 1) included direct paths from narcissism to intent to accept and narcissism and intent to reapply, while the second specified only indirect effects of narcissism on intent to accept and reapply (Figure 2). The model with direct paths from narcissism to intent to accept and intent to reapply fit the data slightly better ($\chi^2(5) = 10.63$, $p > .05$, CFI=.952, TLI=.857; RMSEA=.075, SRMR=.039; Figure 4) than the model without direct paths ($\chi^2(7) = 12.35$, $p < .05$, CFI=.955, TLI=.903; RMSEA=.061, SRMR=.043; Figure 5). However, a chi-square difference test was conducted and revealed that the model fit is not significantly different ($\Delta\chi^2(2) = 1.72$, $p > .05$), suggesting that narcissism does not have direct effects on intent to accept and reapply. In addition, paths from narcissism to intent to accept and reapply were non-significant and narcissism was not significantly correlated with either.

Value for wealth, status, and power. We next examined whether narcissism is associated with agentic values and whether these are associated with intent to accept a hypothetical promotion offer. Hypothesis 2 stated that narcissism would be positively related to agentic values. However, the structural model shows that the relationship between narcissism and agentic values was not significant ($\beta = -.02$, $p > .05$), thus Hypothesis 2 was rejected. Next, it was expected that desire for these agentic values would be positively related to both intent to accept (Hypothesis 3a) and intent to reapply (Hypothesis 3b). The structural model shows that both of these hypotheses were supported. Specifically, agentic values were positively related to intent to accept a promotion ($\beta = .18$, $p < .01$) and intent to reapply if a promotion was not offered

($\beta = .14, p < .05$). Together these findings reveal that those who highly value wealth, status, and power are not only more likely to accept a promotion offer, but also, more likely to reapply for the next promotion process.

Finally, it was also hypothesized that agentic values would mediate the relationship between narcissism and intent to accept (Hypothesis 4a) and intent to reapply (Hypothesis 4b). Neither Hypothesis 4a nor Hypothesis 4b was supported since the indirect relationships between narcissism and intent to accept ($\beta = .00, p > .05$) and narcissism and intent to reapply ($\beta = .00, p > .05$) were not significant. In sum, although narcissism was unrelated to agentic values, agentic values are associated with greater intention to accept a promotion or reapply for a promotion.

Centrality of family. The next set of hypotheses concerned the association between narcissism and centrality of family in self-selection to leadership roles. We expected that, because of decreased interest in family involvement, narcissism would be associated with an increased willingness to relocate to accept a leadership position. Willingness to relocate was hypothesized to be positively related to intent to accept (Hypothesis 5) and desire for agentic values was hypothesized to be positively related to willingness to accept (Hypothesis 6). Both Hypothesis 5 and Hypothesis 6 were supported as those who value wealth, status, and power are more willing to relocate ($\beta = .31, p < .01$), and those who are more willing to relocate are more likely to accept a promotion ($\beta = .52, p < .01$). It was expected that narcissism would be negatively related to family involvement (Hypothesis 7) and that family involvement would be negatively related to willingness to relocate (Hypothesis 8). Those who are highly involved with their family are less willing to relocate ($\beta = -.16, p < .05$), supporting Hypothesis 8. However, narcissism was unrelated ($\beta = -.02, p > .05$) to family involvement. This collection of results reveals that narcissism was unrelated to family involvement; however, lower levels of family

involvement and higher levels of value for wealth, status, and power are associated with an increased willingness to relocate and increased likelihood to accept a promotion.

Table 1
Correlations between NPI items retained

	1	2	3	6	7	9	10	12	14	16	17	20
1 – I really like to be the center of attention	1											
2 – I think I am a special person	.135	1										
3 – Everybody likes to hear my stories	.135	.086	1									
6 – I am going to be a great person	.214**	.229**	.150*	1								
7 – I can make anybody believe anything I want them to	.144*	.153*	.058	.198**	1							
9 – I like to be the center of attention	.602**	.120	.303**	.220**	.125	1						
10 – I am an extraordinary person	.096	.442**	.089	.214**	.177*	.241**	1					
12 – I find it easy to manipulate people	.097	.066	.091	.094	.153*	.113	.053	1				
14 – I know that I am good because everybody keeps telling me so	.155*	.189**	.086	.207**	.045	.178*	.115	.109	1			
16 – I am more capable than other people	.013	.147*	.119	.114	.147*	.033	.242**	.037	-.042	1		
17 – I have a natural talent for influencing people	.120	.087	.166*	.141*	.129	.147*	.118	.144*	.097	.099	1	
20 – If I ruled the world, it would be a better place	.154*	.167*	.088	.105	.084	.148*	.190**	.044	.152*	.135	.048	1
23 – I am assertive	.104	.050	.065	.084	-.002	.190**	.154*	-.092	.098	.058	.206**	.194**
25 – I like to show off my body	.189**	-.013	.006	.042	.044	.143*	.043	.014	-.012	.031	-.001	.119
26 – I can read people like a book	.176*	.055	.088	.045	.146*	.097	.097	.107	.200**	.077	.195**	.105
31 – I like to be complimented	.220**	.120	.065	.063	-.024	.217**	.057	.200**	.321**	-.002	.104	.008
32 – I have a strong will to power	.194**	.028	.101	.063	-.003	.222**	.141*	.197**	.201**	.105	.125	.075
34 – I like to look at myself in the mirror	.385**	.260**	.109	.191**	.085	.202**	.135	.104	.079	.125	.044	.067
36 – I can live my life in any way I want to	.124	.015	.079	.103	.047	.092	.033	.104	.168*	.105	.135	.047
37 – I would prefer to be a leader	.104	.178*	.049	.103	.103	.113	.097	-.021	.074	.021	.174*	.145*
38 – I wish someone one day would write my biography	.200**	.207**	.207**	.089	.098	.240**	.151*	.073	.025	.070	.084	.122
39 – I get upset when people don't notice how I look when I go out in public	.192**	-.021	.070	.123	.088	.208**	.102	.074	.058	.053	.051	.100
40 – I am a born leader	.166*	.199**	.113	.208**	.163*	.180*	.169*	.130	.206**	.195**	.211**	.204**

Note, *indicates $p < .01$; ** indicates $p < .001$

Table 1 (continued)*Correlations between NPI items retained*

	23	25	26	31	32	34	36	37	38	39	40
23 – I am assertive	1										
25 – I like to show off my body	.080	1									
26 – I can read people like a book	.173*	.058	1								
31 – I like to be complimented	.161*	.048	.049	1							
32 – I have a strong will to power	.135	.218**	.119	.158*	1						
34 – I like to look at myself in the mirror	.032	.276**	.138*	.180*	.087	1					
36 – I can live my life in any way I want to	.010	-.005	.152*	.097	.255**	-.016	1				
37 – I would prefer to be a leader	.193**	-.048	.145*	.145*	.006	.052	-.066	1			
38 – I wish someone one day would write my biography	.110	.222**	.097	.110	.108	.232**	.038	.113	1		
39 – I get upset when people don't notice how I look when I go out in public	.010	.143*	.004	.060	.081	.226**	.048	-.049	.270**	1	
40 – I am a born leader	.141*	.183**	.183**	.186**	.205**	.171*	.238**	.223**	.152*	.062	1

*Note, *indicates $p < .01$; ** indicates $p < .001$*

Table 2*Confirmatory Factor Analysis of Narcissism Scale*

Model	χ^2	df	CFI	TLI	RMSEA
3-Factor Model	106.79**	78	.911	.922	.043
1-Factor Model	113.88**	80	.907	.892	.047
Model Comparison	$\Delta\chi^2$	Δ df			
3 Factor vs. 1 Factor	7.09*	2			

Note, *indicates $p < .01$; ** indicates $p < .001$

Table 3*Confirmatory Factor Analysis Standardized Pattern Loadings for the One-Factor NPI Model and Three-Factor NPI Model*

Item	3-Factor			1-Factor
	Leadership	Unique/Special	Manipulation	
23	.427**			.373**
32	.519**			.459**
37	.428**			.366**
40	.714**			.608**
7		.449**		.346**
12		.516**		.388**
17		.668**		.488**
26		.525**		.392**
1			.813**	.803**
2			.558**	.544**
3			.433**	.426**
6			.530**	.518**
9			.891**	.881**
10			.579**	.569**
14			.516**	.509**
16			.355*	.353*
20			.407**	.400**
25			.398*	.391*
31			.489**	.481**
34			.588**	.573**
36			.301*	.304*
38			.541**	.530**
39			.557*	.542*

Note, *indicates $p < .01$; ** indicates $p < .001$; Leadership, Unique/Special, and Manipulation make up the 3-Factor model.

Table 4*Factor loadings from exploratory factor analysis of values scale*

Item	1	2
A job that provides you with a chance to earn a good deal of money	.255	.150
A job that offers a reasonably predictable, secure future	.673	-.209
A job that has high status and prestige	.212	.511
A job that most people look up to and respect	.574	.124
A job where the chances for advancement and promotion are good	.782	-.033
A job that allows you to do highly valued work	.516	.258
A job that puts me in a position of power	-.039	.761
A job where I have authority over others	.611	.227
A job that offers you the chance to be “in command” when working in a group	.165	.683
A job that offers you the chance to seek an active leadership role	-.088	.811
A job that offers you the chance to get ahead at	.605	.235

Note. EFA conducted with varimax oblique rotation in MPlus. $\chi^2 (34) = 86.06$, $p < .01$; CFI = .93, TLI = .89, RMSEA = .09, SRMR = .04).

Table 5*Confirmatory factor analysis of work values scale*

Model	Proper?	χ^2	Df	CFI	TLI	RMSEA	SRMR
3-Factor model	N	259.17**	42	.710	.612	.162	.104
2-Factor model	Y	146.82**	43	.862	.824	.109	.077
1-Factor model	Y	279.21**	44	.688	.610	.162	.104
Model Comparison		$\Delta\chi^2$	Δdf				
2 Factor vs 1 Factor		132.39**	1				

Note, ** indicates $p < .001$

Table 6
Correlations of Study Variables

Variable	N	MN	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
1. Narcissism	203	8.04	3.89												
2. NPI-40	203	14.57	4.58	.93**											
3. Interpersonal Exercises	170	5.80	.80	-.09	-.05										
4. Written Exercise	170	5.89	.93	-.05	-.06	.20**									
5. Values	203	3.72	.43	-.01	-.03	.00	-.03								
6. Accept	203	3.55	.72	.08	.08	-.08	-.07	.33**							
7. Reapply	203	4.50	.89	.06	.02	.00	.08	.14*	.17*						
8. Relocate	203	3.34	.91	.02	.04	-.10	-.08	.29**	.57**	.09					
9. Family Involvement	203	4.21	.68	-.02	-.03	-.03	.01	.07	-.13	.17*	-.14				
10. Rank	170	1.72	1.04	.01	-.02	.18*	.54**	-.12	-.03	.02	-.16*	-.05			
11. Age	167	39.52	7.44	-.01	-.03	.00	.27**	-.08	.01	-.20**	.01	-.12	.44**		
12. Sex	167	1.04	.20	.09	.07	.05	.15	.04	.04	.02	.00	.02	.08	.09	
13. Education	157	1.81	1.09	.06	.11	.00	.15	-.04	.02	.05	.07	-.09	.18*	.06	-.02

Note. * indicates $p < .05$, ** indicates $p < .01$; ME=Mean, SD=Standard Deviation; NPI-40=original 40 items, Narcissism=23 items; Rank: Corporal=1.00, Sergeant=2.00, Sergeant First Class=3.00, Lieutenant=4.00; Sex: Male=1.00 and Female=2.00; Education: High School Diploma=1.00, Bachelor Degree=2.00, Masters Degree=3.00.

Table 7
Interpersonal Exercise Performance and Narcissism

Variable	Step 1			Step 2		
	B	SE B	β	B	SE B	β
Rank	.134	.058	.175*	.135	.058	.176*
Narcissism				-.020	.015	-.096
<i>R</i>		.175			.200	
<i>R</i> ²		.031			.040	
F for ΔR^2		5.333*			3.477*	

Note. * indicates $p < .05$.

Table 8
Written Exercise Performance and Narcissism

Variable	Step 1			Step 2		
	B	SE B	β	B	SE B	β
Rank	.483	.057	.54**	.48	.058	.545**
Narcissism				-.01	.015	-.052
<i>R</i>		.544			.547	
<i>R</i> ²		.296			.299	
F for ΔR^2		70.626**			35.568**	

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

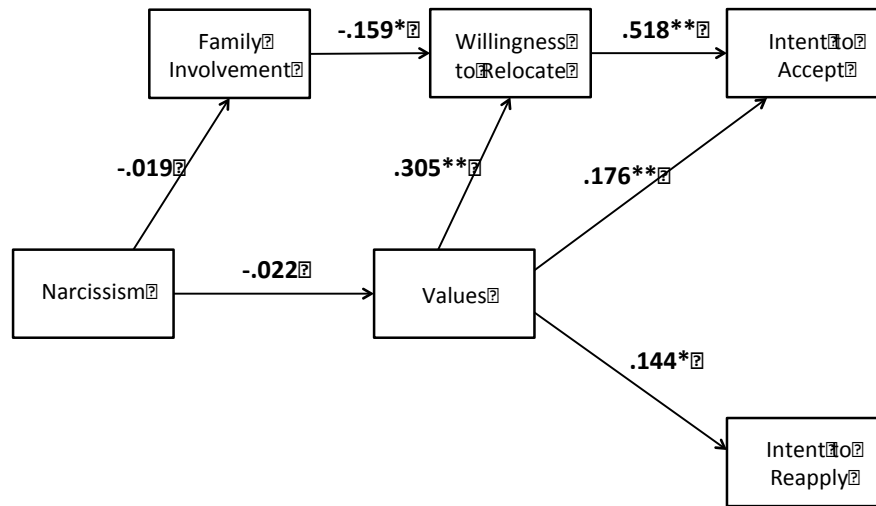


Figure 4

Structure equation model of attraction. Numbers represent structured paths.

Note. $^{*}p < .05$, $^{**}p < .01$

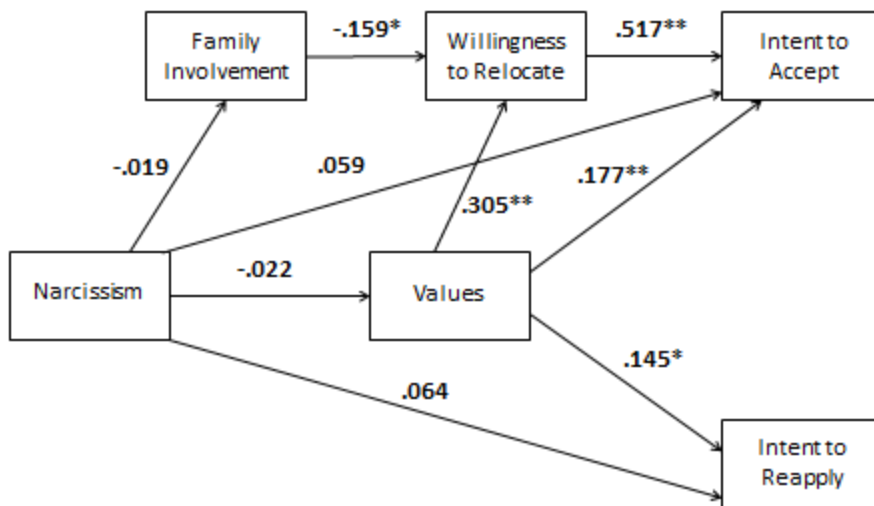


Figure 5

Structure equation model of attraction with direct paths. Numbers represent structured paths.

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

CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION

Hogan and Kaiser (2005) suggested that those with elevated levels of narcissism will experience faster promotion, and recent studies have begun to support the association between narcissism and the tendency to emerge as leaders in formal and informal settings (Brunell et al., 2008; Furnham et al., 2013; Nevicka et al., 2011; Schnure, 2010). Yet, in the present sample and in contrast to past studies, narcissism was unrelated to performance in interpersonal selection tasks, attraction to leadership positions, or proposed mediators. However, there was some support for the influence of agentic values and reduced concern for family on attraction to leadership roles. The uniformly non-significant effects for the narcissism measure, along with the weak reliability and structural issues, suggest problems with the self-reported NPI, potentially due to the selection context of this study. Implications for understanding what attracts people to leadership roles and for the measurement of narcissism are articulated.

Main Findings

The attraction processes, measured through a candidate's intent to accept and intent to reapply for promotion, were not supported as processes that result in the advancement of narcissists to leadership roles. This is contrary to what was expected based on past narcissism research. Specifically, narcissism has been linked with desire for wealth (Kasser & Ryan, 1996), status (e.g. Campbell, 1999), and power (Morf & Rhodewalt, 2001; Ng et al., 2011). However, in our sample, narcissism was unrelated to these agentic values and to attraction to leadership roles.

Although narcissism in this study did not correspond to expectations, other hypotheses were supported. Consistent with the ASA framework, the results suggest that individual values are a determinant of attraction to leadership roles (Schneider 1983; 1987). First, those who are less involved with their families were more willing to relocate and therefore more likely to accept a promotion offer. In addition, those who value wealth, status, and power were more willing to relocate, and therefore more likely to accept a promotion. Lastly, agentic values were associated with an increased likelihood to reapply for a promotion the following year. These findings suggest that those with agentic values will be more attracted to leadership roles. To the extent that the applicant pool for leadership roles has more agentic values on average, this trend will potentially be mirrored in those acquiring leadership roles. For instance, it is possible that managers will be particularly prone to work-family conflict, given the decreased emphasis on family seen from applicants. Similarly, recent research has argued that considerate leader behaviors are especially important to leader effectiveness (DeRue, Nahrgang, Wellman, & Humphrey, 2011). However, to the extent that applicants for managerial positions have higher levels of agentic values and lower levels of communal values, it is possible that they will be less likely to engage in critical consideration behaviors. In addition, to the extent that agentic values and emphasis placed on family differs across men and women, these value differences might help to explain differences continued disparity in the representation of women in upper-level leadership roles. Unfortunately, because of too few women in this sample, we were unable to test this possibility in the present study.

We also hypothesized that narcissists would be evaluated more favorably in interpersonal AC exercises. Although previous research has not directly examined the relationship between narcissism and performance in an operational selection setting, researchers have used similar

contexts to investigate the narcissism and performance relationship. Narcissism has been associated with higher evaluations in leaderless group discussion exercises (Brunell et al., 2008; Nevicka et al., 2011) and interviews (Paulhus et al., 2013; Schnure, 2010) in past studies. But, we did not observe similar effects for either the interpersonal or written exercises.

The non-significant relationships were surprising, given past studies showing relationships in other selection tasks. There are a few explanations. First, it could be that the present AC does not promote narcissists. Since research has traditionally linked narcissism with poor leadership performance and ineffective workplace relationships (Amernic & Craig, 2010; Blair et al., 2008; Duchon & Drake, 2009), it would be ideal if the AC was negatively associated with narcissism, but it is also important to note that this AC process did not result in promoting narcissists. Next, differences in the selection tasks used in past studies might explain differences in findings. Specifically, this AC is more structured than other ACs, by directly asking questions of assesses, and is more structured than selection tasks used in past narcissism research, such as leaderless group discussions (Brunell et al., 2008) or unstructured interviews (Schnure, 2010). By structuring the interaction, this AC might have reduced the potential for an assessee to receive high scores by dominating the interaction. Second, past studies on narcissism and performance on selection tasks did not take place in formal selection context. For instance, most research used student lab samples (e.g. Brunell et al., 2008; Paulhus et al., 2013) or procedures targeted at development rather than selection (e.g. Brunell et al., 2008; Schnure, 2010). As we note in limitations, this may have resulted in response distortion on the narcissism measure. This interpretation is consistent with the weak psychometric properties of the narcissism measure and the failure of the measure to correlate meaningfully with any of the other variables.

Implications

Despite the measurement issues with narcissism, the results of the current study hold important implications for both research and practice. First, our results provide support for the continued use of ACs in promotion procedures. Specifically, those scoring higher on narcissism are not necessarily evaluated more favorably than those scoring lower on narcissism.

Consequently, individuals scoring higher on narcissism are likely not going to be recommended for promotion over those scoring lower on narcissism, thus preventing the leadership pipeline from being predominately filled with narcissists.

Next, our findings suggest that the NPI may not be useful in selection settings. Although the participants were explicitly assured that their response to the narcissism measure would not be shared with their parent organization or the consulting firm administering the AC, their response is nevertheless a concern, given that the survey was administered during the process and on-site in a high-stakes selection. Concerns over response bias on self-reports of personality are well documented (e.g. Ones & Viswesvaran, 1998), and response bias would be a particular concern with a negatively valenced construct, such as the NPI.

Limitations

The conclusions drawn from the current study must be discussed in light of several limitations that provide directions for future research. First, our measure of narcissism was not consistent with previous literature. Specifically, no research-supported model fit the data. Additionally, many similarly written items on the narcissism scale were found to be unrelated to one another. Given this response pattern, nearly half of the 40 items of the NPI were dropped. As such, our measure of narcissism has not been validated.

Next, our results may have been limited by respondents' use of impression management tactics. In the current context, impression management would refer to the cautious answering of the questions measuring narcissism. Researchers have expressed concern regarding self-report personality measures and faking in selection settings (Ones & Viswesvaran, 1998). The concern appears warranted as research has shown that applicants produced invalid personality profiles during employment screening (Butcher, Morfit, Rouse, & Holden, 1997). This might explain the poor psychometric characteristics of the narcissism items, which are lower in social desirability than other items on the survey.

A key implication is that the NPI might not be useful in operational selection contexts. We are unaware of studies explicitly examining this question, but if future research confirms, it will be important to focus research attention on developing measures of narcissism that can detect narcissism in applied selection settings. Although some studies have used the Hogan Development Survey (HDS: Hogan & Hogan, 1997), the HDS has not been validated relative to traditional measure of narcissism and is not widely available to researchers.

Other aspects of our procedure also may have affected responses on the NPI. For instance, it is possible that fatigue may have influenced individuals' responses since the majority of participants completed an hour-long job knowledge test minutes before starting the survey. If this was the case, individuals may have responded randomly (i.e., not paying attention to the forced-choice NPI).

Another limitation of this study was that participants were all law enforcement officers from the same state. Additionally, the sample was nearly all male (96.5%). This specific sample makes it difficult to generalize our results to other populations.

Directions for Future Research

Based on the results of our study and the important discrepancies between our findings and previous research, more research is clearly needed addressing the emergence of narcissists to leadership roles. First, greater research attention is needed concerning the measurement of narcissism. Given the poor fit of the narcissism scale to our sample, and the differing fit it has in other samples, more research should be conducted to determine the most appropriate factor structure of the NPI. Both researchers and selection professionals have concerns that self-report personality measures are vulnerable to faking or response distortion (Rosse, Stecher, Miller, & Levin, 1998; White, Young, Hunter, & Rumsey, 2008). Faking of self-report measures of narcissism should be examined further and actions should be taken to reduce faking, if it exists. For instance, much research has been conducted to reduce faking on other self-report personality measures in selection contexts, such as limiting time for response and warning fakers that they are being monitored, (Komar, Komar, Robie, & Taggar, 2010; Fan et al., 2012). It would be interesting to build some of these innovations into the measurement of narcissism and other dark variables.

Finally, given the deleterious effect research has shown narcissists to have in leadership roles, researchers should continue to explore additional processes by which these individuals achieve these positions. For instance, it is possible that narcissists pursue promotional opportunities more persistently than non-narcissists. Additionally, it may be that narcissists more actively seek relationships that allow for upward mobility in their careers.

Conclusions

This is the first study, of which we are aware, that investigates potential mechanisms by which narcissists achieve positions of power in organizations. This study attempted to clarify the

relationship between narcissism and leader emergence by examining both the attraction and selection mechanisms during the promotion process. Given the poor functionality of our measure of narcissism, the relationship with other variables must be examined in light of this limitation. Although we found no relation between narcissism and performance in the selection procedure (selection) and narcissism and intent to accept or reapply (attraction), we found support for our other hypotheses. Specifically, attraction to the job/organization can be supported by the link between a high value for wealth, status, and power and intent to accept or reapply for a promotion. Lastly, family involvement and willingness to relocate also were important in determining the desire of an individual to accept a promotion offer. We hope that future research will continue to investigate the mechanisms by which narcissists achieve leadership positions in organizations.

REFERENCES

- Ackerman, R. A., Witt, E. A., Donnellan, M. B., Trzesniewski, K. H., Robins, R. W., & Kashy, D. A. (2011). What does the Narcissistic Personality really measure? *Assessment, 18*, 67-87. Doi: 10.1177/10731911110382845
- Amernic, J. H. & Craig, R. J. (2010). Accounting as a facilitator of extreme narcissism. *Journal of Business Ethics, 96*, 79-93. Doi: 10.1007/s10551-010-0450-0
- Anderson, J. C. & Gerbing, D. W. (1988). Structural equation modeling in practice: A review and recommended two-step approach. *Psychological Bulletin, 103*, p. 411-423. Doi: 10.1037/0033-2909.103.3.411
- Anderson, C., John, O. O., Keltner, D., & Kring, A. M. (2001). Who attains social status? Effects of personality and physical attractiveness in social groups. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 81*, 116-132. Doi: 10.1037/0022-3514.81.1.116
- Anderson, C. & Kilduff, G. J. (2009). Why do dominant personalities attain influence in face-to-face groups? The competence-signaling effects of trait dominance. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 96*, 491-503. Doi: 10.1037/a0014201
- Barnard, C. I. (1938). *The Functions of the Executive*. Cambridge: Harvard University Press.
- Bass, B. M. (1985). Leadership: Good, better, best. *Organizational Dynamics, 13*, 26-40. Doi: 10.1016/0090-2616(85)90028-2
- Bentler, P. M. (1990). Comparative fit indexes in structural models. *Psychological Bulletin, 107*, 238-246. doi: 10.1037/0033-2909.107.2.238

- Bentler, P. M. (1995). *EQS structural equations program manual*. Encino, CA: Multivariate Software.
- Blair, C. A., Hoffman, B. J., & Helland, K. R. (2008). Narcissism in organizations: A multisource appraisal reflects different perspectives. *Human Performance, 21*, 254-276. Doi: 10.1080/08959280802137705
- Borman, W. C. & Brush, D. H. (1993). More progress toward a taxonomy of managerial performance requirements. *Human Performance, 6*, 1-21. Doi: 10.1207/s15327043hup0601_1
- Boswell, W. R., Roehling, M. V., LePine, M. A., & Moynihan, L. M. (2003). Individual job choice decisions and the impact of job attributes and recruitment practices: A longitudinal field study. *Human Resource Management, 42*, 23-37. Doi: 10.1002/hrm.10062
- Bretz, R. D. & Judge, T. A. (1998). Realistic job previews: A test of the adverse self-selection hypothesis. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 83*, 330-337. Doi: 10.1037/00219010.83.2.330
- Brown, R. P. & Bosson, J. K. (2001). Narcissus meets Sisyphus: Self-love, self-loathing, and the never-ending pursuit of self-worth. *Psychological Inquiry, 12*, 210-213.
- Brunell, A. B., Gentry, W. A., Campbell, W. K., Hoffman, B. J., Kuhnert, K. W., & DeMarree, K. G. (2008). Leader emergence: The case of the narcissistic leader. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin, 34*, 1663-1676. Doi: 10.1177/0146167208324101
- Butcher, J. N., Morfitt, R. C., Rouse, S. V., & Holden, R. R. (1997). Reducing MMPI-2 defensiveness: The effect of specialized instructions on retest validity in a job applicant sample. *Journal of Personality and Assessment, 68*, 385-401. Doi: 0.1207/s15327752jpa6802_9

- Campbell, W. K. (1999). Narcissism and romantic attraction. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 77*, 1254-1270. Doi: 10.1037/0022-3514.77.6.1254
- Campbell, W. K., Bonacci, A. M., Shelton, J., Exline, J. J., & Bushman, B. J. (2004). Psychological entitlement: Interpersonal consequences and validation of a self-report measure. *Journal of Personality Assessment, 83*, 29-45. Doi: 10.1207/s15327752jpa8301_04
- Campbell, W. K., Bosson, J. K., Goheem, T. W., Lakey, C. E., & Kernis, M. H. (2007). Do narcissists dislike themselves 'deep down inside?' *Psychological Science, 18*, 227-229. Doi: 10.1111/j.1467-9280.2007.01880.x
- 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* (57-83). New York: Guilford Press.
- Campbell, W. K. & Campbell, S. M. (2009). On the self-regulatory dynamics created by the particular benefits and costs of narcissism: A contextual reinforcement model and examination of leadership. *Self and Identity, 8*, 214-232. Doi: 10.1080/15298860802505129
- Campbell, W. K. & Foster, C. A. (2002). Narcissism and commitment in romantic relationships: An investment model analysis. *Personality and Social Psychology, 28*, p. 484-495. Doi: 10.1177/0146167202287006
- Campbell, W. K., Foster, C. A., & Finkel, E. J. (2002). Does self-love lead to love for others? A story of narcissistic game playing. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 83*, 340-354. Doi: 10.1037/0022-3514.83.2.340

- Campbell, W. K., Hoffman, B. J., Campbell, S. M., & Marchisio, G. (2011). Narcissism in organizational contexts. *Human Resource Management Review*, *21*, 268-284. Doi: 10.1016/j.hrmr.2010.10.007
- 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. Doi: 10.1006/jrpe.2000.2282
- Campbell, W. K., Rudich, E. A., & 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. Doi: 10.1177/0146167202286007
- Carroll, L. (1987). A study of narcissism, affiliation, intimacy, and power motives among students in business administration. *Psychological Reports*, *61*, 355-358.
- Corry, N., Merritt, R. D., Mrug, S., & Pamp, B. (2008). The factor structure of the Narcissistic Personality Inventory. *Journal of Personality Assessment*, *90*, 593-600. Doi: 10.1080/00223890802388590
- 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*, *65* (7-52). Doi: 10.1111/j.1744-6570.2010.01201.x
- DeWall, C. N., Baumeister, R. F., Mead, N. L., & Vohs, K. D. (2011). How leaders self-regulate their task-performance: Evidence that power promotes diligence, depletion, and disdain. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *100*, 47-65. Doi: 10.1037/a0020932
- Duchon, D. & Drake, B. (2009). Organizational narcissism and virtuous behavior. *Journal of Business Ethics*, *85*, 301-308. Doi: 10.1007/s10551-008-9771-7

- Emmons, R. A. (1981). Relationship between narcissism and sensation seeking. *Psychological Reports, 48*, 247–250. Doi: 10.2466/pr0.1981.48.1.247
- Emmons, R. A. (1984). Factor analysis and construct validity of the narcissistic personality inventory. *Journal of Personality Assessment, 48*, 291-300. Doi: 10.1207/s15327752jpa4803_11
- Emmons, R. A. (1987). Narcissism: Theory and measurement. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 52*, 11–17. Doi: 10.1037/0022-3514.52.1.11
- Fan, J., Gao, D., Carroll, S. A., Lopez, F. J., Tian, T. S., & Meng, H. (2012). Testing the efficacy of a new procedure for reducing faking on personality tests within selection contexts. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 97*, 866-880. Doi: 10.1037/a0026655
- Farwell, L., & Wohlwend-Lloyd, R. (1998). Narcissistic processes: Optimistic expectations, favorable self-evaluations, and self-enhancing attributions. *Journal of Personality, 66*, 65-83. Doi: 10.1111/1467-6494.00003
- Fontaine, N., Barker, E. D., Salekin, R. T., & Viding, E. (2008). Dimensions of psychopathology and their relationships to cognitive functioning in children. *Adolescent Psychology, 37*, 690-696. Doi: 10.1080/15374410802148111
- Foster, J. D., Misra, T. A., & Reidy, D. E. (2009). Narcissists are approach-oriented toward their money and their friends. *Journal of Research in Personality, 43*, 764-769. Doi: 10.1016/j.jrp.2009.05.005
- Foster, J. D. & Trimm, R. F. IV (2008). On being eager and uninhibited: Narcissism and approach-avoidance motivation. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin, 34*, 1004-1017. Doi: 10.1177/0146167208316688

- Freud, S. (1921). Group psychology and the analysis of the ego. In J. Strachey (Ed. & Trans.),
The standard edition of the complete psychological works of Sigmund Freud, 24 vols.
(65-144). London: Hogarth.
- 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.
- Furnham, A., Crump, J., & Ritchie, W. (2013). What it takes: Ability, demographic and dark
side trait correlates of years to promotion. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 55,
952-956. Doi: 10.1016/j.paid.2013.07.469
- 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. Doi: 10.1111/j.1467
6494.1994.tb00798.x
- Higgins, C. A., Judge, T. A., & Ferris, G. R. (2003). Influence tactics and work outcomes: A
meta-analysis. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 24, 89-106. Doi: 10.1002/job.181
- Hoffman, B. J., LoPilato, A. C. Monahan, E. L., Lance, C. E., & Sutton, A. W., Kennedy, C. L.,
& Rowe, C. (under review). A meta-analysis of the validity of assessment center
exercises. *Journal of Applied Psychology*.
- Hoffman, B.J., Strang, S.E., Kuhnert, K.W., Campbell, W.K., Kennedy, C.L., & LoPilato, A.C.
(2013). Leader Narcissism and Ethical Context: Effects on Ethical Leadership and
Leader Effectiveness. *Journal of Leadership and Organizational Studies*.

- Hoffman, B. J., Woehr, D. J., Maldagen-Youngjohn, R., & Lyons, B. D. (2011). Great man or great myth? A quantitative review of the relationship between individual differences and leader effectiveness. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, 84, 347-381. Doi: 10.1348/096317909X485207
- Hogan, R., & Hogan, J. (1997). Hogan Development Survey Manual. Tulsa, OK: Hogan Assessment Systems.
- Hogan, R. & Hogan, J. (2001). Assessing leadership: A view from the dark side. *International Journal of Selection and Assessment*, 9, 40-51. Doi: 10.1111/1468-2389.00162
- Hogan, R. & Kaiser, R. B. (2005). What we know about leadership. *Review of General Psychology*, 9, 169-180. Doi: 10.1037/1089-2680.9.2.169
- Holland, J. L. (1963). Explorations of a theory of vocational choice and achievement: II. A four-year prediction study. *Psychological Reports*, 12, 547-594.
- Hollenbeck, G. P. (2009). Executive selection-What's right...and what's wrong. *Industrial and Organizational Psychology: Perspectives on Science and Practice*, 2, 130-143. Doi: 10.1111/j.1754-9434.2009.01122.x
- Hu, L., & Bentler, P. M. (1999). Cutoff criteria for fit indexes in covariance structure analysis: Conventional criteria versus new alternatives. *Structural Equation Modeling*, 6, 1-55.
- John, O. P. & Robins, R. W. (1994). Accuracy and bias in self-preception: Individual differences in self-enhancement and the role of narcissism. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 66, 206-219. Doi: 10.1037/0022-3514.66.1.206

- Johnston, L. D., Bachman, J. G., & O'Malley, P. M. (2006). Monitoring the future: A continuing study of the lifestyles and values of youth [Computer file]. Conducted by University of Michigan, Survey Research Center. 2nd ICPSR ed. Ann Arbor, MI: Inter-university Consortium for Political and Social Research.
- Joubert, C. E. (1998). Narcissism, need for power and social interest. *Psychological Reports, 82*, 701-702. Doi: 10.2466/pr0.1998.82.2.701
- Judge, T. A., Bono, J. E., Ilies, R., & Gerhardt, M. W. (2002). Personality and leadership: A qualitative and quantitative review. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 87*, 765-781. Doi: 10.1037/0021-9010.87.4.765
- 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. Doi: 10.1037/0021-9010.91.4.762
- Kanungo, R. N. (1982). Measurement of job and work involvement. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 67*, 341-349. Doi: 10.1037/0021-9010.67.3.341
- Karpoff, J. M., Lee, D. S., & Martin, G. S. (2008). The cost to firms of cooking the books. *Journal of Financial and Quantitative Analysis 43*, 581-611.
- Kasser, T. & Ryan, R. M. (1996). Further examining the American dream: Differential correlates of intrinsic and extrinsic goals. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin, 22*, 281-288. Doi: 10.1177/0146167296223006
- Kets de Vries, M. F. R. (2003). Doing an Alexander: Lessons on leadership by a master conqueror. *European Management Journal, 21* (3), p. 370-375.

- Khoo, H. S. & Burch, G. (2008). The 'dark side' of leadership personality and transformational leadership: An exploratory study. *Personality and Individual Differences, 44*, p.86-97.
Doi: 10.1016/j.paid.2007.07.018
- Komar, S., Komar, J. A., Robie, C., & Taggar, S. (2010). Speeding personality measures to reduce faking: A self-regulatory model. *Journal of Personnel Psychology, 9*, 126-137.
Doi: 10.1027/1866-5888/a000016
- Kubarych, T. S., Deary, I. J. & Austin, E. J. (2004). The Narcissistic Personality Inventory: Factor structure in a non-clinical sample. *Personality and Individual Differences, 36*, 857-872. Doi: 10.1016/S0191-8869(03)00158-2
- Lance, C. E. & Vandenberg, R. J. (2002). Confirmatory factor analysis. In F. Drasgow & N. Schmitt (Eds.), *Measuring and analyzing behavior in organizations: Advances in measurement and data analysis* (221-254). San Francisco, CA, US: Jossey-Bass.
- Loo, R. (2002). A caveat on using single-item versus multiple-item scales. *Journal of Managerial Psychology, 17*, 68 – 75.
- Lord, R. G., Foti, R. J., & de Vader, C. L. (1984). A test of leadership categorization theory: Internal structure, information processing, and leadership perceptions. *Organizational Behavior & Human Performance, 34*, 343-378. Doi: 10.1016/0030-5073(84)90043-6
- Lord, R. G., Foti, R. J., & Phillips, J. S. A theory of leadership categorization. In J. G. Hunt, U. Sekaran, & C. Schriesheim (Eds.), *Leadership: Beyond establishment views*. Carbondale, 111.: Southern Illinois University Press, 1982.
- Lubit, R. (2002). The long-term organizational impact of destructively narcissistic manager. *Academy of Management Executive, 16*, p. 127-138. Doi: 10.5465/AME.2002.6640218

- Miller J. D., Widiger, T. A., & Campbell W. K. (2010). Narcissistic personality disorder and the DSM-V. *Journal of Abnormal Psychology, 119*, p. 640-649. Doi: 10.1037/a0019529
- Mintzberg, H. (1973). *The nature of managerial work*. New York: Harper & Row.
- Misra, S., Ghosh, R., & Kanungo, R. N. (1990). Measurement of family involvement: A cross national study of managers. *Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology, 21*, 232-248. Doi: 10.1177/0022022190212006
- Morf, C. C., & Rhodewalt, F. (2001). Unraveling the paradoxes of narcissism: A dynamic self regulatory processing model. *Psychological Inquiry, 12*, 177–196. Doi: 10.1207/S15327965PLI1204_1
- Muthén, L. K. & Muthén, B. O. (1998-2010). *Mplus User's Guide*. Sixth Edition. Los Angeles, CA: Muthén & Muthén
- Muthén, L. K. & Muthén, B. O. (2007). Empty bivariate table web discussion. Retrieved January 20th, 2014, from <http://www.statmodel.com/discussion/messages/9/2496.html?1345652614>
- Munton, A. G. (1990). Job relocation, stress and the family. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 11*, 401-406. Doi: 10.1002/job.4030110507
- Nevicka, B., De Hoogh, A. H. B., Van Viannen, A. E. M., Beersma, B., & McIlwain, D. (2011). All I need is a stage to shine: Narcissists' leader emergence and performance. *The Leadership Quarterly, 22*, 910-925. Doi: 10.1016/j.leaqua.2011.07.011
- Ng, H. K. S., Tam, K. P., & Shu, T. M. (2011). The money attitude of covert and overt narcissists. *Personality and Individual Differences, 51*, 160-165. Doi: 10.1016/j.paid.2011.03.036

- O'Boyle, E. H., Forsyth, D. R., Banks, G. C., & McDaniel, M. A. (2012). A meta-analysis of the dark triad and work behavior: A social exchange perspective. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 97*, 557-579. DOI: 10.1037/a0025679
- Offermann, L. R., Kennedy, J. K., & Wirtz, P. W. (1994). Implicit leadership theories: Content, structure, and generalizability. *The Leadership Quarterly, 5*, 43-58. Doi: 10.1016/1048-9843(94)90005-1
- Ones, D. S. & Viswesvaran, C. (1998). The effects of social desirability and faking on personality and integrity assessment for personnel selection. *Human Performance, 11*, 245-269. Doi: 10.1207/s15327043hup1102&3_7
- Paulhus, D. L. (1998). Interpersonal and intrapsychic adaptiveness of trait self-enhancement: A mixed blessing? *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 74*, 1197-1208. Doi: 10.1037/0022-3514.74.5.1197
- Paulhus, D. L., Westlake, B. G., Calvez, S. S., & Harms, P. D. (2013). Self-presentation style in job interviews: The role of personality and culture. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology, 43*, 2042-2059.
- Raskin, R. N., Novacek, J., & Hogan, R. (1991). Narcissistic self-esteem management. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 60*, 911-918. Doi: 10.1037/0022-3514.60.6.911
- Raskin, R. & Shaw, R. (1988). Narcissism and the use of personal pronouns. *Journal of Personality, 56*, 393-404. Doi: 10.1111/j.1467-6494.1988.tb00892.x
- Raskin, R. & Terry, R. (1988). A principal-components analysis of the narcissistic personality inventory and further evidence of its construct-validity. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 54*, 890-902. Doi: 10.1037/0022-3514.54.5.890

- Roberts, B. W. & Robins, R. W. (2000). Broad dispositions, broad aspirations: The intersection of the Big Five dimensions and major life goals. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, 26, 1284–1296. Doi: 10.1177/0146167200262009
- Ros, M., Schwartz, S. H., & Surkiss, S. (1999). Basic individual values, work values, and the meaning of work. *Applied Psychology: An international review*, 48, 49-71. Doi: 10.1111/j.1464-0597.1999.tb00048.x
- Rosenthal, S. A. & Pittinsky, T. L. (2006). Narcissistic leadership. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 17, 617-633. Doi: 10.1016/j.leaqua.2006.10.005
- Rosse, J. G., Stecher, M. D., Miller, J. L., & Levin, R. A. (1998). The impact of response distortion on preemployment personality testing and hiring decisions. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 83, 634-644. Doi: 10.1037/0021-9010.83.4.634
- Salancik, G. R. & Pfeffer, J. (1977). Who gets power—and how they hold on to it: A strategic contingency model of power. *Organizational Dynamics*, 5, 2-21. doi: 10.1016/0090-2616(77)90028-6
- Schmidt, F. L. & Hunter, J. E. (1993). Tacit knowledge, practical intelligence, general mental ability, and job knowledge. *Current Directions in Psychological Science*, 2, 8-9. Doi: 10.1111/1467-8721.ep10770456
- Schneider, B. (1983). Interactional psychology and organizational behavior. In L. L. Cummings & B. M. Staw (Eds.), *Research in organizational behavior* (1-31). Greenwich, CT: JAI Press.
- Schneider B. (1987). The people make the place. *Personnel Psychology*, 40, 437-454. Doi: 10.1111/j.1744-6570.1987.tb00609.x

- Schneider, B., Goldstein, H. W., & Smith, D. B. (1995). The ASA framework: An update. *Personnel Psychology, 48*, 747-773. Doi: 10.1111/j.1744-6570.1995.tb01780.x
- Schnure, K. A. (2010). Narcissism levels and ratings of executive leadership potential. Paper presented at the 25th annual conference of the Society for Industrial and Organizational Psychology, Atlanta, GA.
- Sedikides, C., Gregg, A. P., Cisek, S., & Hart, C. M. (2007). The I that buys: Narcissists as consumers. *Journal of Consumer Psychology, 17*, 254-257. Doi: 10.1016/S10577408(07)70035-9
- Silzer, R. & Church, A. H. (2009). The pearls and perils of identifying potential. *Industrial and Organizational Psychology: Perspectives on Science and Practice, 2*, 377-412. Doi: 10.1111/j.1754-9434.2009.01163.x
- Simpson, B. P. (2009). Wealth and income inequality: An economic and ethical analysis. *Journal of Business Ethics, 89*, 525-538. Doi: 10.1007/s10551-008-0014-8
- Sims, R. R. (1992). The challenge of ethical behavior in organizations. *Journal of Business Ethics, 11*, 505-513. Doi:10.1007/BF00881442
- Smith, J. A. & Foti, R. J. (1998). A pattern approach to the study of leader emergence. *The Leadership Quarterly, 9*, 147-160. Doi: 10.1016/S1048-9843(98)90002-9
- Smith, A. B. & Howard, A. (2009). Executive selection as a strategic business decision. *Industrial and Organizational Psychology: Perspectives on Science and Practice, 2*, 144-150. Doi: 10.1111/j.1754-9434.2009.01123.x
- Steers, R. M. & Braunstein, D. N. (1976). A behaviorally-based measure of manifest needs in work settings. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 9*, 251-266. Doi: 10.1016/00018791(76)90083-X

- Steiger, J. H. (1990). Structural model evaluation and modification. *Multivariate Behavioral Research, 25*, 173-180. doi: 10.1207/s15327906mbr2502_4
- Tom V. R. (1971). The role of personality and organizational images in the recruiting process. *Organizational Behavior and Human Performance, 6*, 573-592. Doi: 10.1016/S0030-5073(71)80008-9
- Tucker, L. R., & Lewis, C. (1973). A reliability coefficient for maximum likelihood factor analysis. *Psychometrika, 38*, 1-10. Doi: 10.1007/BF02291170
- Twenge, J. M. & Campbell, W. K. (2009). *The narcissism epidemic: Living in the age of entitlement*. New York: Free Press.
- Vazire, S. & Funder, D. C. (2006). Impulsivity and the self-defeating behavior of narcissists. *Personality and Social Psychology Review, 10*, 154-165. Doi: 10.1207/s15327957pspr1002_4
- Vroom V. H. (1966). Organizational choice: A study of pre- and post-decision processes. *Organizational Behavior and Human Performance, 1*, 212-226. Doi: 10.1016/0030-5073(66)90013-4
- 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. Doi: 10.1037/0022-3514.82.5.819
- Watson, P. J., Grisham, S. O., Trotter, M. V., & Biderman, M. D. (1984). Narcissism and empathy: Validity evidence for the narcissistic personality inventory. *Journal of Personality Assessment, 48*, 301-305. Doi: 10.1207/s15327752jpa4803_12
- Wernimont, P. F. & Campbell, J. P. (1968). Signs, samples, and criteria. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 52*, 372-376. Doi: 10.1037/h0026244

- Westerman, J. W., Bergman, J. Z., Bergman, S. M., & Daly, J. P. (2012). Are universities creating millennial narcissistic employees? An empirical examination of narcissism in business students and its implications. *Journal of Management Education, 36*, p. 5-32. Doi: 10.1177/1052562911408097
- White, L. A., Young, M. C., Hunter, A. E., & Rumsey, M. G. (2008). Lessons learned in transitioning personality measures from research to operational settings. *Industrial and Organizational Psychology: Perspectives on Science and Practice, 1*, 291-295. Doi: 10.1111/j.1754-9434.2008.00049.x
- Wood, L. A., Hoffman, B.J., & Twenge, J (April, 2012). *The job characteristics: The times, they are a-changing*. Top poster accepted for presentation at the annual Society for Industrial and Organizational Psychology, San Diego, California.
- Yukl, G. (1989). Managerial leadership: A review of theory and research. *Journal of Management, 15*, 251-289. Doi: 10.1177/014920638901500207
- Yukl, G. (2006). Leadership in organizations, 6th ed. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice Hall.

APPENDIX

Narcissism*Retained NPI Items*

I have a natural talent for influencing people.
 I know that I am good because everybody keeps telling me so.
 If I ruled the world, it would be a better place.
 I like to be the center of attention.
 I think I am a special person.
 I am assertive.
 I find it easy to manipulate people.
 I like to show off my body.
 I can read people like a book.
 Everybody likes to hear my stories.
 I like to be complimented.
 I have a strong will to power.
 I like to look at myself in the mirror.
 I really like to be the center of attention.
 I can live my life in any way I want to.
 I would prefer to be a leader.
 I am going to be a great person.
 I can make anybody believe anything I want them to.
 I am a born leader.
 I wish someone one day would write my biography.
 I get upset when people don't notice how I look when I go in public.
 I am more capable than other people.
 I am an extraordinary person.

Dropped NPI Items

Modesty doesn't become me.
 I would do almost anything on a dare.
 I can usually talk my way out of anything.
 I will be a success.
 I see myself as a good leader.
 I like having authority over people.
 I insist upon getting the respect that is due me.
 I like to take responsibility for making decisions.
 I want to amount to something in the eyes of the world.
 I like to look at my body.
 I will usually show off if I get the chance.
 I always know what I am doing.
 I rarely depend on anyone else to get things done.
 I expect a great deal from other people.
 I will never be satisfied until I get all that I deserve.
 I like to start new fads and fashions.
 People always seem to recognize my authority.

APPENDIX (continued)

Family Involvement

To me, my family is only a small part of who I am.
 I am very much personally involved with my family.
 Most of my interests are centered around my family.
 Most of my personal life goals are family-oriented.
 I consider my family to be very central to my existence.

Willingness to relocate

How willing are you to relocate?
 If a promotion requires that you move to a different post, how willing are you to relocate?
 If a promotion required that you move to a less desirable city (than the one in which you currently reside), how willing are you to relocate?
 If a promotion required that you move to a more desirable city (than the one in which you currently reside), how willing are you to relocate?

Values***Desire for Wealth***

A job that provides you with a chance to earn a good deal of money
 A job that offers a reasonably predictable, secure future

Desire for Status

A job that has high status and prestige
 A job that most people look up to and respect
 A job where the chances for advancement and promotion are good
 A job that allows you to do highly valued work

Desire for Power

A job that puts me in a position of power
 A job where I have authority over others
 A job that offers you the chance to be “in command” when working in a group
 A job that offers you the chance to seek an active leadership role
 A job that offers you the chance to get ahead at work

Intent to Reapply for Promotion

If you were NOT offered a promotion would you reapply?

APPENDIX (continued)

Intent to Accept Promotion Offer

If you were offered a promotion, would you accept the offer?

If accepting a promotion offer meant moving to a new post in a city that is less desirable for you and your family, would you accept the offer?

If accepting a promotion offer meant moving to a new post in a city with less quality schools, would you accept the offer?

If accepting a promotion offer meant more responsibility but only a small raise in pay, would you accept the offer?

If accepting a promotion offer meant your hours worked per week would increase dramatically, would you accept the offer?

If accepting a promotion offer meant your schedule would be less desirable, would you accept the offer?

If accepting a promotion offer meant you would not know any of your coworkers, would you accept the offer?