



UNIVERSITY OF AMSTERDAM

Narcissistic leadership:

The influence on followers' psychological well-being through Leader Member Exchange (LMX) quality, and the moderating role of follower narcissism

Masterthesis by Samira Baars

University of Amsterdam

Department of Psychology

Supervisor: dr. Barbara Nevicka

Second reader: dr. Linda Muusses

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Abstract

Because of narcissists' instrumental, exploitative and empathy lacking nature of their interpersonal relationships, this study proposed a negative influence of narcissistic leaders on the psychological well-being (job satisfaction, job-related anxiety, job-related depression and emotional exhaustion) of their followers as a result of overall lower Leader Membership Exchange (LMX) quality. Based on literature it was furthermore proposed that the influence of leader narcissism on LMX quality would be dependent on the level of follower narcissism. The hypotheses were tested using survey data of leaders ($N = 95$) and their followers ($N = 168$). Results show how an interaction between leader and follower levels of narcissism could result in different follower outcomes. These outcomes were especially negative for low narcissistic followers managed by higher narcissistic leaders. When self-reported levels of leader narcissism were replaced by follower perceptions of leader narcissism, the relationships seemed to be strengthened. Follower perceptions of LMX quality mediated the relationship between follower perceptions of leader narcissism and follower psychological well-being. Strengths, limitations and practical implications of the study are discussed.

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1. Introduction

'Impossible is a word to be found only in the dictionary of fools.'

'If you wish to be a success in the world, promise everything, deliver nothing.'

'Power is my mistress. I have worked too hard at her conquest to allow anyone to take her away from me.'

Napoleon Bonaparte, 1769-1821

These words were spoken two centuries ago by one of the most influential leaders of our history, who is also described as a classic narcissist (Maccoby, 2000). Yet to this day, they sketch what mostly drives narcissistic leaders; power and glory rather than an empathic concern for their followers (Conger, 1997; Rosenthal & Pittinsky, 2006). Over the past decennia, narcissism has been increasingly linked with leadership in media and in literature. This link is not peculiar, since narcissism is characterized by feelings of grandiosity, uniqueness and craving for power, status and admiration (Rosenthal & Pittinsky, 2006). Consequently, the self-confidence of highly narcissistic individuals and their desire for glory and success seem to draw them to high profile jobs like leadership functions (Wallace & Baumeister, 2002). In the role of leader, competence and superiority can be demonstrated and validated in a social context (Wallace & Baumeister, 2002), since one can control others, is noticed and generally valued and obeyed by others. On stage of a social arena of followers, the grandiose self-views of narcissists can be enhanced and maintained (Morf & Rhodewalt, 2001; Nevicka, De Hoogh, Van Vianen, Beersma, & McIlwain, 2011).

Literature confirms that narcissistic persons tend to emerge as leaders. They show to become team leaders irrespective of their performance in a team (Nevicka et al., 2011a). In addition, the fact that highly narcissistic persons are initially often perceived as charming, outgoing and self-confident (Campbell, Hoffman, Campbell & Marchisio, 2011) might declare why they easily find their ways to top management positions. The confidence exhibited by

narcissists causes group members to perceive them as competent and effective (Brunell et al., 2008). Likewise, during personnel selection, interviewers tend to positively evaluate narcissistic persons because of their well-developed self-promotion skills (Paulhus, Westlake, Calvez & Harms, 2013). People might not expect that these seemingly favourable characteristics could suddenly turn to destructive dynamics that could impair the effective managing of followers, like an arrogant sense of entitlement or aggression in case of confrontation with criticism, opposition or failure (Campbell et al., 2011).

This brings us to an interesting contradiction in narcissistic leadership; while highly narcissistic persons frequently appear in leadership roles, their leadership is often associated with negative outcomes for themselves, their followers and their organizations (Brunell et al., 2008). For example, narcissistic leadership is linked with counterproductive work behaviours (Blair, Hoffman & Helland, 2008). On the other hand there are studies that reveal the positive effects of narcissism in leadership roles. For instance, narcissism is associated with higher levels of creativity in groups (Goncalo, Flynn & Kim, 2010).

These mixed findings concerning the effects of narcissistic leadership on organizational outcomes suggest that narcissism should not solely be perceived as good or bad but more as a trade-off that is positive for some contexts and outcomes and negative for others. Despite the fact that an extensive amount of studies have focused on gaining more insight in identifying these specific contexts and outcomes (for a review, see, e.g. Judge, Piccolo & Kosalka, 2009; Rosenthal & Pittinsky, 2006), little is known about follower outcomes. Given the importance of social context for narcissistic validation (Morf & Rhodewalt, 2001), it is critical to examine how narcissistic leaders affect those who work closely with them, namely their followers. Some studies indicate that narcissistic leadership might negatively affect followers' psychological well-being by its exploitative, unempathic character and association with unethical behaviour (Campbell et al., 2011). Psychological employee well-being is crucial for a healthy organization since it strongly correlates with productivity, thus profitability (Harter, Schmidt & Keyes, 2003). Reduced

psychological employee well-being negatively impacts the performance and survival of organizations by causing costs due to, for instance, absenteeism and turnover (Spector, 1997), lower job performance and lower organizational citizenship behaviour (Judge, Thoresen, Bono & Patton, 2001; Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Paine & Bachrach, 2000). Thus, given the importance of psychological employee well-being, the potential negative influence of narcissistic leadership and the frequent emergence of narcissistic individuals in leadership roles, understanding the relationship between narcissistic leadership and followers' psychological well-being is essential.

For these reasons, this study will explore the relationship between narcissistic leadership and followers' psychological well-being. Here we will propose that narcissistic leadership negatively affects psychological well-being via its negative impact on Leader Member Exchange (LMX), referring to the exchanges between the leader and follower (Dansereau, Graen & Haga, 1975; Graen & Cashman, 1975; Wayne, Shore & Liden, 1997). That is, we expect a negative impact of leader narcissism on social exchange in interpersonal relationships with followers, or LMX quality, which will subsequently result in lower psychological well-being. Moreover, we will examine if the LMX quality of the relationships between narcissistic leaders and their followers is dependent on followers' own narcissism. Based on literature, here we will examine two alternative hypotheses. The proposition of a positive influence of follower narcissism on the link between leader narcissism and LMX quality is based on a self-fulfilling prophecy (Merton, 1948), as a result of positive first impressions and on similarity-attraction theory (Byrne, 1971), which implies increased attraction between individuals in case of perceived similarities. On the other hand, a negative influence is proposed because follower narcissism could cause a perceived threat to the leadership position and to the maintenance of grandiose self-views of narcissistic leaders, as well as a potential struggle for power. These hypotheses will be further explained in the next section, which also includes the conceptual framework of the proposed model in Figure 2.

By exploring these propositions, this study adds to literature by investigating if, why and when narcissistic leadership affects followers' psychological well-being. This knowledge can

contribute to the ongoing debate that discusses if narcissistic leadership is desirable or not, under which conditions and given which outcomes. At a practical level, this knowledge can contribute to human resource management with regard to the management of narcissistic employees. For example, the findings could provide guidance for the recruitment and selection of leaders or for the job placement of narcissistic employees. Specifically, it might appear to be useful to place narcissistic persons in leadership roles with a strategic rather than an interpersonal accent, to implement development activities for narcissistic leaders that might enhance followers' psychological well-being or to carefully match followers with narcissistic leaders.

The following section will first explain narcissism and its link with leadership. Then, the construct of psychological well-being will be described. Next, the way in which narcissistic leadership can influence follower outcomes, specifically followers' psychological well-being, will be discussed. Subsequently, the role of LMX quality will be introduced as a proposed mediator of the relation between leader narcissism and follower well-being. Finally, this model will be extended by including follower narcissism as a proposed moderator of the relation between leader narcissism and LMX quality.

2. Theoretical Framework

2.1 Narcissism

To understand the link between narcissism and leadership, it is useful to review the origins, development and definition of the concept of narcissism (Rosenthal & Pittinsky, 2006). In Greek mythology, a story is told about a beautiful young man called Narcissus that is so utterly vain that he falls in love with his own self-reflection when he sees himself in the water (Judge, Lepine & Ridge, 2006). Resisting to separate himself from his reflection and consumed by his unfulfilled desire for contact and union with his beloved self, he finally dies (Hermans & Van Gilst, 1991). As the resemblance of his name in the definition suggests, the term narcissism is derived from this story and was first introduced by Ellis (1898) to describe a clinical condition of 'perverse self-

love'. Also, Freud (1931; 1950) used the term of narcissism to refer to a personality type that is characterized by 'outwardly unflappable strength, confidence, and sometimes arrogance' (Rosenthal & Pittinsky, 2006, p. 618). This arrogance however, is then noticed not to reflect actual qualities possessed by a narcissistic person (Horney, 1939). As described by Kohut (1966), narcissism becomes pathological when one is unable to integrate the idealized feelings of self with the reality of one's inadequacies, which results in excessive craving for recognition as a salve against these shortcomings.

Accordingly, narcissism is nowadays defined as a complex of relatively stable traits that involve self-love, a grandiose, yet fragile sense of self, a preoccupation with success and desire for admiration (Owens, Walker & Waldman, 2015; Campbell et al., 2011). In social-personality literature narcissism is often referred to as a trait, while in clinical psychology and psychiatric literature, narcissism is also considered as a personality disorder and is as such included in the Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders-IV (American Psychiatric Association (APA), 2000; Campbell et al., 2011). The narcissistic personality disorder is defined as a pervasive pattern that comprises 9 traits, which are in short, 1) a grandiose sense of self-importance, 2) a preoccupation with fantasies of unlimited success, power, brilliance, beauty or ideal love, 3) beliefs of being special and unique, 4) requiring excessive admiration, 5) high senses of entitlement, 6) interpersonal exploitation, 7) a lack of empathy, 8) envious feelings and 9) arrogance (APA, 2000). The criteria for the diagnosis are met when at least 5 of these traits impair or distress one in different contexts and negatively affect several areas of life. However, to be able to measure levels of narcissism in a non-clinical population, most social and organizational studies include subclinical levels of narcissism as well, addressing narcissism as dimensional and continuously distributed in the population instead of categorical (Foster & Campbell, 2007; Campbell et al., 2011).

2.2 Narcissism in leadership literature: Two sides

As stated earlier, narcissism is a strong predictor of leadership emergence (Maccoby, 2000; Nevicka et al., 2011a) because a) narcissists more often seek leadership roles, which support their grandiose and power-driven needs and visions (Glad, 2002) and b) they more easily ascend these roles because of their positive first impressions on others due to high levels of self-promotion, self-confidence and extraversion (Brunell et al., 2008; Grijalva, Harms, Newman, Gaddis & Fraley, 2015; Paulhus et al., 2013).

The way in which narcissistic leadership could affect organizational outcomes is paradoxical, since the same aspects of narcissism could be expected to result in either favourable or harmful effects. Because of their extravert personality, high confidence in their abilities, and aspirations for status, power and achievement, narcissists could be expected to possess several prototypical and beneficial leadership qualities. That is, these aspects might translate into charisma and grand vision (Brunell et al., 2008; Rosenthal & Pittinsky, 2006) a fierce drive to succeed (Galvin, Waldman & Balthazard, 2010), the ability to impress and convince an audience (Chatterjee & Hambrick, 2007; Goncalo et al., 2010) and to experience joy rather than apprehension with regard to challenging leadership assignments, since these could potentially demonstrate their superior competencies (Morf, Weir & Davidoff, 2000).

On the other hand, one could expect these exact same aspects of narcissism to negatively affect leadership performance, as they might result in behaviour that is excessively self-centred, manipulative, unempathic and exploitative towards others, aimed at pursuing power and superiority at all costs (Owens et al., 2015; Lubit, 2002). Moreover, these aspects might translate in a competitive and distrustful climate (Judge et al., 2006) and as such negatively affect the organizational culture (Aaltio-Marjosola & Lehtinen, 1998). Literature often refers to this duality as ‘the bright or dark side’ phenomenon of narcissistic leadership (Judge et al., 2009; Resick, Whitman, Weingarden & Hiller, 2009).

Indeed, the debate in literature that emerged as a result of these competing views reveals that narcissism predicts mixed findings of organizational outcomes. On the dark side of this debate, narcissism is linked with, for example, lower supervisor performance ratings (Blair et al., 2008), capricious and extreme decision making resulting in higher wins and higher losses, thus fluctuations in returns (Chatterjee & Hambrick, 2007), less organizational citizenship behaviour (Judge et al., 2006), providing benefits to the self at a long-term cost to others and the organization (Campbell, Bush, Brunell, Shelton, 2005), devaluation of others and difficulties working with them (Lubbit, 2002), unethical behaviour like white collar crime (Blickle, Schlegel, Fassbender & Klein, 2006) and unethical accounting (Amernic & Craig, 2010), a tendency to resist to advisers' suggestions, to take more than the share of the credit for success while blaming the failures on others (Gladwell, 2002) and failure to learn from mistakes (Campbell, Goodie & Foster, 2004). As such, narcissistic leadership is frequently referred to as destructive leadership (Maccoby, 2000; Rosenthal & Pittinsky, 2006; Sankowsky, 1995) and illustrated by extreme cases, like Adolf Hitler, Saddam Hussein and Joseph Stalin (Glad, 2002), figures from recent history that are also perceived as world's most dangerous tyrants.

On the bright side of this debate, studies describe positive outcomes of narcissistic leadership as espousing a bold vision that is essential to achieve social change (Galvin et al., 2010). The decisiveness and charisma of narcissistic leaders might in some situations be constructive or even necessary, like during societal crises characterized by instability and change (Campbell & Campbell, 2009; Post, 1986). Indeed, the influence of contextual uncertainty is demonstrated in a study that shows a tendency of individuals not only to choose narcissists more often as leaders, but also to evaluate them as more desirable as leaders in uncertain rather than certain contexts, even if the individuals are aware of the negative features of narcissists, like arrogance and exploitativeness (Nevicka, De Hoogh, Van Vianen & Ten Velden, 2013). The authors argue that narcissists are perceived as reducing uncertainty, and their negative features could even fortify their apparent strength and as such enhance their appeal as a leader (Nevicka et

al., 2013). In addition, Maccoby (2000) asserts that dynamic situations like today's hectic and chaotic world require 'productive narcissists'. As being charismatic grand visionaries, they can accomplish transformative innovation and inspire great numbers of followers rather than leaders that preserve a status quo by representing a solid and stable foundation (Maccoby, 2000). This is illustrated by the ability of narcissists to convince others more easily of the creativeness of their ideas due to their confidence, charisma and enthusiasm (Goncalo et al., 2010). Furthermore, a study that investigated data on U.S. presidents to assess specific presidential performance outcomes, associates leadership narcissism with allied behaviours and initiating legislation, enhanced public persuasiveness and improved crisis management and agenda setting (Watts et al., 2013).

In short, it seems that without narcissistic leadership, much harm, but also necessary decision making, innovation, change and crisis management would be avoided. However, narcissistic leaders cannot exert their effects without a social arena (Nevicka et al., 2011a) that includes followers who obey and admire them and whom they need for self-enhancement and self-validation to continuously reinforce their grandiose self-views (Morf & Rhodewalt, 2001).

Yet, only a relative small number of studies have focused on the effects of narcissistic leadership on followers. One of those studies shows that even if narcissistic leaders are perceived as effective by members of the group they lead, these leaders in fact negatively affect group performance by inhibiting information exchange between the members (Nevicka, ten Velden, de Hoogh & van Vianen, 2011). Positive follower outcomes are found when leaders are narcissistic yet humble. That is, leader narcissism predicted perceived leader effectiveness, follower job engagement and subjective and objective follower job performance, but only when the leader also expressed higher levels of humility (Owens et al., 2015).

Alternative leadership styles, like authentic, charismatic or transformational leadership, have extensively investigated follower attitudes, behaviour and outcomes like job commitment, job satisfaction and job engagement, employee well-being, feelings of trust and empowerment

(e.g. Avolio, Gardner, Walumbwa, Luthans & May, 2004; Conger, Kanungo & Menon, 2000; Ilies, Morgeson & Nahrgang, 2005; Walumbwa, Wang, Lawler & Shi, 2004). However, the range of follower outcomes included within studies on narcissistic leadership appears to be more limited, concerning mostly followers' performance or perceptions of the leader (e.g. Judge et al., 2006; Nevicka et al., 2011b; Owens et al., 2015; Paunonen, Lönnqvist, Verkasalo, Leikas & Nissinen, 2006). Hence, in assessing narcissistic leadership performance, the debate on the dark or bright phenomenon of narcissistic leadership has revealed little knowledge about the impact of narcissistic leadership on the job-related psychological outcomes of followers.

This void in literature is surprising, because the effectiveness of a leader substantially reflects the interpersonal relationships with followers that result in certain group performance (Padilla, Hogan & Kaiser, 2007), as leadership can be defined as 'the ability to influence, motivate and enable followers to contribute to the success of their organization' (House, Javidan, Hanges, Dorman, 2002, p. 7). Hence, leadership can be interpreted as a social influence process in which both leader and follower are included. As stated earlier, the organizational contribution of followers is highly dependent on their psychological well-being, since this construct strongly correlates with productivity and profitability – thus, organizational success (Harter et al., 2003). Consequently, exploring the link between narcissistic leadership and follower outcomes, specifically followers' psychological well-being, seems essential when assessing the effectiveness of narcissistic leadership.

2.3 Psychological well-being in organizational research

Psychological well-being is considered to be the core of mental health (Keyes, 2005). The construct can be defined as the effectiveness of an individual's psychological functioning (Wright, 2005), and is related to both work and personal life outcomes (Avey, Luthans, Smith & Palmer, 2010). In this view, psychological well-being refers to a global evaluation of the affective state of one's life as a whole, characterized by the presence of positive affect and the absence of negative

affect. Yet, to focus on the experience in the work context, studies within organizational research typically operationalize psychological well-being as a narrower construct, specifically focusing on job-related psychological well-being (Wright, Cropanzano & Bonett, 2007). Hence, in most studies within organizational research, psychological well-being refers to job-specific emotional states and attitudes and is as such the most frequently used indicator for job-related mental health (De Jonge & Schaufeli, 1998; Taris & Schreurs, 2009). For example, the oldest and most common operationalization of workplace 'happiness' is described to be job satisfaction (Wright, Cropanzano & Bonett, 2007).

Recently, more comprehensive conceptualizations of job-related well-being are adopted as well. Warr (1999) defines job-related well-being as 'people's feelings about themselves in relation to their job' (p. 393) and proposes a widely applied conceptualization of psychological well-being based on three dimensions: displeasure-pleasure, anxiety-contentment and depression-enthusiasm (Warr, 1990). Consequently, measurements of job-related psychological well-being often include job satisfaction (representing the displeasure-pleasure dimension), job-related anxiety (representing the anxiety-contentment dimension) and job-related depression or emotional exhaustion (representing the depression-enthusiasm dimension; for a review, see Häusser, Mojzisch, Niesel & Schulz-Hardt, 2010; Van der Doef & Maes 1999). A representation of these dimensions is shown in Figure 1, which furthermore shows that the dimensions are placed on axes that represent feelings of arousal and pleasure. For example, high levels of anxiety represent high arousal and low pleasure. Based on the three dimensions of Warr (1990), psychological well-being will be operationalized in this study as job satisfaction, job-related anxiety, job-related depression and emotional exhaustion to comprise all aspects.

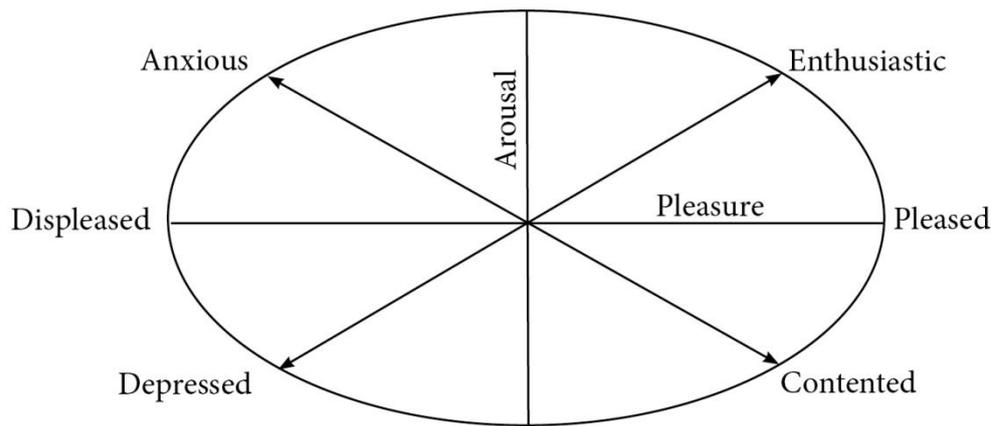


Figure 1. Warr's principal axes of psychological well-being (Warr, 1990).

The *happy-productive worker hypothesis*, also described as the 'holy grail' of management research, has been of scientific and organizational interest for many decades and is widely confirmed in literature (Cropanzano & Wright, 2001; Wright, Cropanzano & Bonett, 2007; Wright & Staw, 1999). This hypothesis suggests that happy workers, or workers with high levels of psychological well-being, are more productive than less happy workers. High levels of psychological well-being in organizations are reflected by employees who experience positive emotional states, like pleasure, satisfaction, joy, energy and comfort, and an absence of negative emotional states, like worry or sadness. As such, psychological employee well-being results in a happy, healthy and effective workforce (Harter et al., 2003). The construct is described not only to enhance job-related performance, but many more constructive work outcomes as the efficient application of work, creativity and retention, organizational citizenship behaviour and other business outcomes like business unit customer loyalty and lower absenteeism and turnover rates (Harter et al., 2003; Judge et al., 2001; Podsakoff et al., 2000; Spector, 1997; Wright & Bonett, 2007). On the other hand, reduced employee well-being will decrease these outcomes, resulting in for example absenteeism, turnover and lower task performance and commitment (Shirom, 1989).

In conclusion, the positive effect of psychological well-being for individuals as well as organizations is evident. Decreased levels of psychological well-being can be destructive for

organizations as these might significantly lower the productivity, profitability (Harter et al., 2003; Sauter, Lim & Murphy, 1996), thus the competitive advantage and performance and survival chances of organizations. Given the importance of the outcomes for organizations, stimulating and protecting employee well-being is not only desirable, but crucial for organizations. Thus, insights in factors that might increase or impair psychological employee well-being are valuable. Consequently, organizational research has not only focused on the consequences of psychological employee well-being, but also on its antecedents. For example, psychological employee well-being is described to be predicted by perceived organizational support through its effect on organizational commitment (Panaccio & Vandenberghe, 2009). Specifically, literature shows that social support and job autonomy impair psychological employee well-being in a curvilinear way; when the reported levels are very low or very high (De Jonge & Schaufeli, 1998). Furthermore, stressors as work-family conflict, role ambiguity and job insecurity can reduce employee well-being by causing stress (Dobrevá-Martinová, Villeneuve, Strickland & Matheson, 2002; Grant-Vallone & Donaldson, 2001; Siu, 2002; Witte, 1999).

In literature on antecedents of psychological well-being, leadership receives a great deal of attention as well (Skakon, Nielsen, Borg & Guzman, 2010). Leaders can play an important role in enhancing employee well-being (Van Dierendonck, Haynes, Borrill & Stride, 2004). A supportive leadership style shows to be beneficial to psychological well-being (Gilbreath & Benson, 2004; Moyle, 1998), for example by buffering the negative effects of stress on employees (Stordeur, D'hoore & Vandenberghe, 2001). Especially transformational leadership is extensively described to enhance employee well-being. This leadership style is described to create an environment that is characterized by stimulating employee self-efficacy and trust in the leader (Liu, Siu & Shi, 2010), perceptions of meaningful work, involvement and influence (Arnold, Turner, Barling, Kelloway & McKee, 2007; Nielsen, Randall, Yarker & Brenner, 2008) and by offering role clarity and opportunities for development (Nielsen et al., 2008). This is attributed to the fact that transformational leaders provide a clear vision, encourage employees to seek challenges and to

the coaching and mentoring of the employees (Nielsen et al., 2008). Next to transformational leadership style, other styles, as transactional, laissez-faire, facilitative are linked with employee psychological well-being as well (Skakon et al., 2010). However, as described before, the influence of narcissistic leadership on psychological well-being has yet to be investigated.

2.4 Narcissistic leadership and followers' psychological well-being

While leader behaviour characterized by creating trust, involvement, influence, confidence, recognition and providing feed-back and opportunity for development is described to be beneficial for employee well-being, the opposite could be expected for leaders with a less supportive leadership style. More controlling leadership styles characterized by undue pressure, lower communication quality, a lack of task clarification and a lack of supportive feedback could cause lower levels of employee well-being (Cartwright & Cooper, 1994). Considering narcissistic leadership in light of these theories, this leadership style could be proposed to negatively affect the psychological well-being of their followers. Indeed, scholars have expressed their concerns that narcissistic leadership could undermine the effective management of followers by causing harm to their psychological well-being (Campbell et al., 2011; Lubit, 2004; Sankowsky, 1995).

With regard to psychological follower well-being, potential positive effects of narcissism could be cautiously deduced from findings on the bright side of the debate in narcissistic literature. Even when they are perceived as arrogant or exploitative, narcissistic leaders might decrease feelings of uncertainty among their followers, especially in instable or uncertain contexts (Nevicka et al. 2013). They might motivate their followers by espousing a clear vision (Galvin et al., 2010), which could increase their motivation and commitment to the organizational goals. In turn, these feelings of certainty, commitment and motivation are important indicators of psychological employee well-being in terms of job satisfaction or stress (Harter et al., 2003; Luo, 1999; Panaccio & Vandenberghe, 2009). By inspiring and convincing a great number of followers (Goncalo et al., 2010; Maccoby, 2000), narcissistic leaders might furthermore increase feelings of

unity and belonging among their followers that might positively influence the well-being of their followers as well, since these feelings are often linked with general psychological well-being (Albanesi, Cicognani, Zani, 2007; Mellor, Stokes, Firth, Hayashi & Cummins, 2008; Van Ryzin, Gravely & Roseth, 2009).

However, based on literature that more specifically describes narcissism in the context of interpersonal relationships as well as literature that focuses on the relation between specific leadership behaviour and employee well-being, it could be proposed that the destructive side of narcissism might dominate the potential positive side when it comes to the influence on follower psychological well-being. For example, high narcissistic individuals are described to 'prioritize agency over communication' (Hepper, Hart & Sedikides, 2014, p.1). They are furthermore described to behave arrogantly and to dominate, devalue, envy, disrespect and exploit others as an attempt to seal over a rather fragile self-esteem (Lubit, 2002). According to *the dynamic self-regulatory processing model* (Morf & Rhodewalt, 2001), it is this fundamental unstable, fragile self-esteem that causes their destructive patterns in interpersonal relationships due to the resulting obsession to compensate for this with external self-validation that creates, maintains and enhances grandiose self-views. This chronic goal, that is sometimes even described as a costly and self-destructive addiction (Baumeister & Vohs, 2001), could cause the narcissist to interpret interpersonal relationships in terms of what they can mean to their public and private self-image (Thomaes, Bushman, Stegge & Olthof, 2008). This instrumental character of relationships that is based on utility clarifies the described inability of narcissists to form deeper connections and true caring bonds to other persons (Thomaes et al. 2008). Perceiving others solely by their benefits for their own gratitude and motivated to enhance their self-esteem at any cost, narcissistic leaders have a less empathic concern for their followers; they disregard other's perspectives and needs (APA, 2000). They are suggested to supersede the needs and interests of their followers in favour of their own (Rosenthal & Pittinsky, 2006), and to manipulate, exploit and take advantage of them (Sankowsky, 1995). Their interpersonal deficits are furthermore attributed to their relative

lack of empathy, defined as the tendency to vicariously experience another's perspectives or emotions (Hepper et al., 2014).

Based on these premises, narcissistic leaders could be expected to abuse their power by manipulating their relationships with followers for personal gain at the expense of followers' psychological well-being (Sankowsky, 1995), rather than to enhance this well-being by the previously described leadership behaviour as placing an emphasis on building trust, confidence, support and communication and the provision of developmental opportunities and constructive feedback. In fact, it could be suggested that narcissistic leaders would decrease the psychological well-being of followers by means of a lack of showing these well-being enhancing leadership behaviours by not investing in them or even impeding them because of ego-centric motives, as will be further explained in the next section.

Thus, because of the instrumental, exploitative and empathy lacking nature of narcissists' interpersonal relationships that implies a lack of psychological well-being enhancing leadership behaviours, the following is expected:

Hypothesis 1: Leader narcissism is negatively related to follower well-being.

In this section, it is argued that narcissistic leaders would lack well-being enhancing leadership behaviours due to deficits in their interpersonal relationships. These leadership behaviours are all examples of social exchange that could be referred to by the definition of LMX quality. In the next section, hypothesis 1 is therefore exemplified by arguing how this relationship is mediated by LMX quality.

2.5 Narcissistic leadership, LMX quality and followers' psychological well-being

The concept of LMX is introduced here as an explanatory variable for the negative influence of narcissistic leaders on follower well-being. LMX is referred to as the exchanges

between the employee and his or her leader or supervisor (Wayne et al., 1997). According to LMX theory, leaders and followers develop interpersonal relationships based on social exchange (Graen & Cashman, 1975). Within these relationships, ‘each party must offer something the other party sees as valuable and each party must see the exchange as reasonable equitable or fair’ (Graen & Scandura, 1987, p. 182). The amount of the exchanged resources can vary across leader-follower relationships and the greater the perceived value of the resources, the higher the LMX quality (Wayne et al., 1997). For example, in high-quality LMX relationships, followers provide leaders extra approval in the form of loyalty, esteem and trust (Basu & Green, 1995), and in return, leaders provide followers extra support, trust, information, feedback, access, opportunities or influence in decision making (Wayne & Ferris, 1990). Accordingly, followers in low-quality LMX relationships receive less social exchange in terms of feedback, trust, information, support or personal sensitivity from their supervisors (Liden & Graen, 1980; Wayne & Ferris, 1990).

Narcissistic leaders could be proposed to generally develop follower relationships with lower LMX quality because of several reasons. First, narcissistic leaders are described to provide less personal support, constructive feedback, sensitivity and trust – important commodities of social exchange – because of their lack of empathy and inability to form real interpersonal connections (Campbell et al., 2011; Hepper et al., 2014; Thomaes, Bushman, Stegge & Olthof, 2008). Second, they are expected to provide less information, opportunities and access to followers. Because of their dominant and authoritative character with a desire to control decision making, they are argued to take away decision making opportunities from others by decreasing interaction, communication and information exchange (Nevicka et al., 2011b). For the same reason, they might have difficulties sharing their power and influence (Ehrich, Ehrich & Knight, 2012) especially with persons of lower status like followers, since these persons might be devalued for being not as superior as themselves (Horton & Sedikides, 2009; LeNoir, 2013). Furthermore, since narcissistic leadership is associated with unethical behaviour (Amernic &

Craig, 2010; Blicke et al., 2006), and argued to result in a competitive and distrustful climate (Judge, LePine & Rich, 2006), it might decrease levels of exchanged trust and confidence in LMX relationships.

Thus, because leader narcissism might result in less social exchange, the following is expected:

Hypothesis 2: Leader narcissism is negatively related to LMX quality.

As suggested in the previous sections, leadership behaviour that provides more social exchange, for example by creating trust and providing follower support, a) is related to psychological employee well-being and b) implies the establishment of higher LMX quality relationships with followers. Accordingly, the relationship between LMX quality and psychological employee well-being is extensively demonstrated in literature. The positive influence of support on psychological employee well-being has been frequently demonstrated. For example, the *Job Demand-Control-Support Model* (Karasek, 1979) proposes that social support, received by the leader or coworkers, functions as a buffer for the negative effect of job stress on employees' psychological well-being (Karasek, Triantis & Chaudhry, 1982). In addition, studies show a positive relationship between supervisors' supportive behaviours and employee well-being in terms of decreased anxiety, depression and emotional exhaustion (Gant et al., 1993; Gilbreath & Benson, 2004; Moyle, 1998). Since leader support is one of the main characteristics of LMX quality in relationships (Wayne & Ferris, 1990), these findings indicate that more leader support indicates higher LMX quality and at such positively influences employee well-being. Furthermore, research shows that LMX quality is positively associated with job satisfaction and satisfaction with the supervisor (Mardanov, Heischmidt & Henso, 2008) and with minimized emotional exhaustion through increased socialization and decreased role stress (Thomas & Lankau, 2009). These findings suggest that LMX quality positively influences followers' psychological well-being.

Moreover, a direct positive relation between LMX quality and psychological employee well-being, measured with Warr's (1990) anxiety-contentment and depression-enthusiasm scale, has been found in literature as well (Epitropaki & Martin, 1999; Epitropaki & Martin, 2005; Hooper & Martin, 2008). Additionally, Sparr & Sonnentag (2008) find that higher LMX quality predicts higher well-being by resulting in lower levels of job depression and turnover intentions and increased job satisfaction. In short, a positive effect of LMX quality on psychological employee well-being is frequently demonstrated in literature.

Since we propose that leader narcissism negatively affects LMX quality and that LMX quality positively affects followers' psychological well-being, we expect the following:

Hypothesis 3: Leader narcissism is negatively related to followers' psychological well-being through its negative effect on LMX quality.

2.6 Follower narcissism and LMX quality

As described in the previous sections, leadership can influence followers and the relationships with followers. In accordance with the reciprocal nature of the leader-follower relationships, certain follower characteristics affect these influences as well. For example, the personality dimension neuroticism shows to moderate the relationship between leader behaviour and burnout (De Hoogh & Den Hartog, 2009). In addition, the influence of leadership on the LMX quality with specific followers depends on the personality of the follower (Nahrgang, Morgeson & Ilies, 2009). Furthermore, congruence in personality traits shows to be positively related to LMX quality (Bernerth, Armenakis, Feild, Giles & Walker, 2008). These findings indicate that follower personality might interact with the effects of leadership on LMX quality or followers' psychological well-being. Hence, it might be useful to explore whether the proposed negative influence of narcissistic leadership on followers' psychological well-being through lower LMX quality depends on the personality of the follower, specifically narcissism. Based on

literature, two alternative directions of the potential moderating influence of follower narcissism will be explained.

Lubit (2002) describes how narcissistic leaders might only trust a few chosen followers, who they cater for their loyalty and from whom they expect total devotion in return. With this selection of followers, these leaders might build exceptional relationships characterized by high levels of LMX quality. According to LMX theory, leaders establish different relationships with each follower they manage (Dansereau, Graen & Haga, 1975; Graen & Cashman, 1975; Graen & Scandura, 1987). The theory further suggests that this relationship is based on specific leader and follower characteristics (Graen & Cashman, 1975). Because of this reciprocal way of relationship development, McClane (1991) argues that it is not the characteristics of leaders and followers alone that determine the LMX quality; rather it is the compatibility of these characteristics. According to the theory of similarity-attraction (Byrne, 1971), this compatibility of characteristics results in interpersonal attraction when it represents similarities. That is, people are attracted to other people that are similar in, for example, demographics, activities, experiences, attitudes and personality characteristics (Byrne, Griffitt & Stefaniak, 1967; Byrne, 1971; Tsui & O'reilly, 1989). On the other hand, dissimilarity can increase the distance between people and lower interpersonal attraction (Rosenbaum, 1986).

The theory of similarity-attraction is confirmed in a voluminous body of literature, mainly conducted between 1971 and 1990 (Montoya & Horton, 2013) and also applied in studies that focus on leader-follower dyads. This research can be globally divided in studies that focus on either actual similarity on surface level, or on deep-level perceived similarity. Surface level similarity reflects similarity between individuals in overt, biological characteristics that are reflected in physical features, like age, sex and race/ethnicity. Deep-level similarity on the other hand can be defined as similarity between individuals with regard to their attitudes, beliefs, values or personality (Harrison, Price & Bell, 1998). For instance, similarity in race shows to positively influence the quality of mentor relationships, because it results in a relationship characterized by

more contact, liking and satisfaction (Ensher & Murphy, 1997). Additionally, followers who differ from their superiors in terms of gender are less liked and their performance is lower rated by their superior (Tsui & O'reilly, 1989). Differences in education and job tenure also result in lower liking and performance ratings of the superior, especially when follower education and job tenure is higher compared to the superior's (Tsui & O'reilly, 1989). These findings on surface level similarity confirm the relevance of the similarity-attraction theory in the context of leader-follower relationships.

Concerning deep-level similarity, Jackman and Johnson (2012) assert that empirical support for attraction as a result of leader-follower fit based on affect and personality is even more promising than empirical support for fit based on demographic factors. This indicates that similarity in narcissism levels between leaders and followers might create a vantage with regard to the development and quality of the LMX relationships. For example, research shows that when the need for power (the degree in which the individual desires to influence others) is similar between leader and follower, LMX quality is enhanced because leaders accord more negotiating latitude (e.g. allowing job changes or providing help with solving work-related problems) to these followers (McClane, 1991). In other words, matching levels of need for power between leader and follower result in higher LMX quality. Since one of the characteristics of narcissistic persons is a desire for power (APA, 2000; Rosenthal & Pittinsky, 2006), these results suggest that narcissistic leaders will develop higher LMX quality in relationships where follower narcissism is high. Perceived leader-follower dissimilarity in values and attitudes on the other hand, is associated with lower-quality relationships between leader and supervisor (Liden, Wayne & Stilwell, 1993), increased relationship conflict, lower performance ratings, and higher levels of abusive supervision (Tepper, Moss & Duffy, 2011).

Next to their need for power, narcissistic individuals are likely to be similar in many other values and attitudes that define narcissism (APA, 2000; Rosenthal & Pittinsky, 2006). Therefore, the applicability of the similarity-attraction theory in the context of leader-follower relationships

and the fact that similarities between leader and follower seem to increase LMX quality (Ensher & Murphy, 1997; McCrane, 1991), indicate that the similarities between narcissistic individuals will cause narcissistic leaders to like and be attracted to narcissistic followers and vice versa, resulting in higher LMX quality relationships.

Another mechanism that could cause higher LMX quality in the relationships between high narcissistic leaders and followers can occur through high levels of self-confidence and extraversion of high narcissistic persons (Brunell et al., 2008; Grijalva et al., 2015, Paulhus, et al., 2013). Phillips & Bedeian (1994) find that, next to attitudinal similarities with the leader, high levels of follower extraversion are positively related to LMX quality. The authors argue that extraverts tend to seek more interaction with their leaders and are more likely to negotiate for increased responsibility, which can both contribute to higher LMX quality. Also, the self-confidence and extraversion of narcissists results in positive first impressions amongst others as they are generally perceived as charming, competent and effective (Back, Schmukle & Egloff, 2010; Brunell et al., 2008; Campbell et al., 2011; Grijalva et al., 2015; Paulhus et al., 2013). In other words, narcissists tend to generate high expectations of themselves amongst other people. During the first few days of working together, leaders establish their expectations of followers (Liden et al., 1993). The study shows that these expressed expectations are related to LMX quality six months later. They suggest that a self-fulfilling prophecy, defined as expectations evoking confirmatory behavior (Merton, 1948), may account for this relationship because these high expectations might influence the behaviour of the leader towards the follower. For instance, leaders might translate their high expectations into the provision of challenging tasks, more feedback, time, attention, and support for these followers (Wayne et al., 1997). It could therefore be proposed that because of their positive first impression and creation of high expectations, high narcissistic followers develop leadership relationships with higher LMX quality.

Hence, because of similarities between narcissistic persons that will increase their attraction towards each other and furthermore the self-fulfilling influence of creating high expectations among leaders, we expect the following:

Hypothesis 4a: The negative relationship between leader narcissism and LMX quality is moderated by followers' narcissism, such that when followers' narcissism is high this relationship disappears or even becomes positive.

Next to this, literature provides arguments that point to an alternative hypothesis by suggesting that high follower narcissism could strengthen rather than weaken the negative relationship between leader narcissism and LMX quality. It could be proposed that the analogous tendencies of both narcissistic leader and follower to 'stand out', crave attention, admiration and recognition for their competencies and contributions (Goncalo et al., 2010), could result in potentially escalating competitiveness and a struggle for power, further enhancing the perceived threat. In this way, the high expectations that narcissistic followers might generate amongst their narcissistic leaders (Wayne et al., 1997) might backfire, because their leaders might feel as if their position as well as their feelings of grandiosity and uniqueness are threatened. When leaders perceive their position is threatened by one of their followers, they are described to minimize the potential threat with subtle tactics to decrease these followers' status and power, for example by restricting the amount of communication among their followers (Case & Maner, 2014). This was especially true for leaders high in dominance motivation, who attain and maintain their position through coercion, intimidation and selfish manipulation of group resources, a description that would fit in with the concept of narcissistic leadership based on literature (Brown & Zeigler-Hill, 2004; Nevicka et al., 2011b). Another way in which narcissistic leaders might minimize potential threat to their position could be to obstruct their followers from the provision of power-enhancing contributions to social exchange, since the provision of extra support, information,

access or influence in decision making (Wayne & Ferris, 1990) would only increase the threat. This protection strategy might especially apply for narcissistic leaders, since narcissistic individuals are described to be predisposed to perceive threats and more likely to react aggressively when confronted with them (Bushman and Baumeister, 1998; Judge et al., 2006), especially if their self-concept is threatened (Stucke & Sporer, 2002). This is attributed to the high but unstable self-esteem of high narcissistic individuals, which causes ego-threat to activate feelings of worthlessness. These feelings induce aggression towards the source of ego threat, in order to protect their grandiose self-image against the threat (Horvath & Morf, 2009). For example, narcissism is associated with increased aggressive responses following threatened self-esteem due to social rejection (Twenge & Campbell, 2003). Hence, when a narcissistic leader has to deal with the threat of high narcissistic followers, this might result in lower LMX-quality as a result of self-protection strategies.

This premise is furthermore illustrated in the study of Tsui and O'reilly (1989): demographic differences between follower and leader resulted in lower LMX quality for followers that were older, higher educated and who reported more job tenure. The authors argue that these relatively 'higher' demographics could be perceived as threatening, causing leaders to feel less psychological comfort in their role in terms of feelings of confidence and power. This might especially be the case for narcissistic leaders, since their feelings of confidence and power are crucial for their chronic goal of maintaining grandiose self-views (Morf & Rhodewalt, 2001). Narcissistic leaders might therefore feel uncomfortable when they feel their role is threatened by a narcissistic follower that obviously aims for the same level of power and status. The described inability of narcissistic leaders to tolerate people more talented than oneself (Lubis, 2002) supports this idea. Followers low on narcissism might generate lower expectations thus appear less threatening and more tolerable to the narcissistic leader.

Hence, because the presence of high levels of narcissism in both leader and follower could result in a struggle for power, and because narcissistic leaders might perceive high narcissistic

followers as a threat to their self-esteem and leadership position, resulting in self-protection strategies against these followers that will undermine the social exchange between them, the following alternative hypothesis might also be expected:

Hypothesis 4b: The negative relationship between narcissism and LMX is moderated by followers' narcissism, such that when followers' narcissism is high, this negative relationship becomes stronger.

Follower narcissism is proposed to moderate the relationship between leader narcissism and LMX quality, and leader narcissism is proposed to be related to follower well-being through LMX quality. Consequently, we expect that:

Hypothesis 5: The negative relationship between leader narcissism and follower well-being will be moderated by follower narcissism, such that when follower narcissism is high, this negative relationship could be either enhanced or decreased.

Finally, the full model (see Figure 2) is hypothesized as follows:

Hypothesis 6: LMX quality will mediate the moderating effect of follower narcissism on the relationship between leader narcissism and follower well-being.

Hepper, Hart, Meek, Cisek & Sedikides, 2014). Because of this suggested dichotomy and the potentially distinctive outcomes, we will exploratively analyse which dimension of narcissism (adaptive versus maladaptive) best explains the proposed relationships in the hypotheses.

Next to this, to be able to draw more grounded conclusions after analysing the data, the proposed underlying mechanisms of the moderating effect of follower narcissism will be exploratively incorporated in this study as well, by measuring indicators of perceived similarity, expectations, power struggle and threat to leader-esteem and position. Lastly, despite the fact that follower perceptions are of primary interest in this study concerning the assessment of LMX-quality, LMX quality perceptions of leaders will be measured as well to be able to make comparisons.

3. Method

3.1 Participants

In total, approximately 400 employees were approached during this study. The exact amount could not be given, since a snowball method was used to disperse the invitation for the study in order to reach more potential participants. The invitation included both a link for leaders as well as followers. This way, both leader and follower could participate first, after which the other individual of the dyad was also invited. As a result of the recruitment process, 110 leaders filled out the survey and evaluated at least one of their followers: 62 leaders participated first and 48 after one of their followers participated. Out of the 210 followers who received an invitation per e-mail after being evaluated by their leader, 120 (57%) completed the survey. In total, 195 followers filled out the survey and evaluated their leader: 75 followers participated first of whom 61 provided valid e-mail addresses of their leader. Out of the 61 leaders who received an

invitation, 48 (79%²) responded. As a result, the data comprised of 95 leaders and 168 followers. The average amount of participating followers per leader was 1.77 ($SD = .10$). For 16 followers who completed the questionnaire, the leader did not respond. Despite the fact that they could not form a dyad, their data was used for analyses that comprised variables at only the follower-level. Data of participants that did not contain valid e-mail addresses was excluded from analyses. Based on the numbers of leaders and followers that participated first, the completion rate could be estimated as being 31%.

The mean age across managers ($N = 95$; 45 men, 50 women) was 44.02 years ($SD = 11.97$) ranging from 20 to 66 years. Job tenure varied between 2 months and 32 years ($M = 70.58$, $SD = 80.21$) and span of control between 1 and 250 followers ($M = 26.22$, $SD = 39.91$). Of the managers, 78% was higher educated, i.e. a college or university degree. With regard to industries: 48% of the managers worked in the industry of (physical or mental) health care, 11% in business and personal services and 6% in education services; the remaining 35% worked in a broad variety of other industries. Two out of 95 leaders (.02%) reported to have a first language other than Dutch.

The mean age of followers ($N = 168$; 47 men, 121 women) was 39.47 years ($SD = 13.13$) ranging from 18 to 83 years. Follower job tenure varied between 2 months and 40 years ($M = 73.98$, $SD = 86.57$). The number of months that followers had worked with their leader varied from 1 month to 27 years ($M = 36.65$, $SD = 44.17$). The time followers had contact with their leader varied from 0 to 40 hours per week ($M = 7.71$, $SD = 9.577$). For most followers (63%), face to face communication was the most frequent used style to communicate with their leaders, followed by e-mail (21%), phone calling (6%), phone messaging (6%) and skype (4%). A percentage of 61% of followers was higher educated (college or university degree). The majority

² Some leaders and their followers participated in the study simultaneously. Therefore, some leaders participated first as well as second. This number might therefore be not perfectly accurate. However, no leader is included twice in the dataset.

(57%) of the followers reported to work in the physical or mental health care. The remaining followers reported to work in business and personal services (8%) and in the hotel, catering, sport or recreation industry (5%); the remaining 29% worked in a broad variety of other industries. Seven out of 168 followers (.04%) reported to have a first language other than Dutch.

3.2 Procedure

In this study, survey data was collected with self-report questionnaires using an online program (Qualtrics). Participants were recruited in several ways: a) by administrative responsibilities who were willing to participate and distributed the invitation within their organization, b) by collecting e-mail addresses of employees at different organizations and c) by approaching employees through the network of the researcher. This way, participants were leaders and followers from different organizations within a variety of industries. A general e-mail address was registered for this study. In the invitation e-mail that contained general information about the study, potential participants were asked to participate in the study by filling out either a survey designed for employees that manage followers in their function (the leader survey), or employees that are managed by a leader (the follower survey). The aim of the study was described as unspecific as possible, not mentioning narcissism: it was globally mentioned that the study would focus on the relation between leaders and their followers. To encourage participation, potential participants as well as approached organizations were offered the opportunity to receive feedback of the study results after conclusions were drawn. To further stimulate the collection of matching data from both leader and follower, six dyads could win €25,00 vouchers per person in a raffle at the end of the data collection. By providing financial incentives, the invitation would appeal not only to prosocial but also to more egoistic motives. Inclusion criteria were being an employee part of a leader-follower dyad and mastery of the Dutch language, since all questions were (translated) in Dutch.

Approving receivers clicked on the link that redirected to the online Qualtrics battery, which included an informed consent that had to be accepted to continue, survey instructions and

the questionnaires. The research design required using data of matching leader-follower dyads and the evaluation of each member of the dyad by the other member. The followers were asked to fill out questions about their leader. In case they had multiple leaders, they were asked to evaluate the one with whom they most frequently communicated. The leaders were asked to fill out up to ten first names of followers (less than ten if they managed fewer than ten followers) and subsequently to evaluate three of them. These three names were randomly selected by the program, to ensure that each follower had the same chance of being chosen. This way it was avoided that the selection of followers by leaders would be based on certain aspects, for example leaders' preferences for certain followers or relationships with higher LMX quality.

Participants were asked to provide e-mail addresses of themselves and the person(s) they evaluated at the end of the study. This way, the evaluated dyad members could be approached with an invitation to also participate and informed about which follower or leader they had to evaluate in their survey. The participants were assured that this personal information would be destroyed when the matching of data and raffle of vouchers would have been completed and would be used for no other purposes. Participants were furthermore assured of the confidentiality of their responses and it was emphasized that no one other than the researchers would have access to their personal results. For leaders, the survey started with demographical questions (controls), followed by scales measuring the independent variable (leader narcissism) and process variables (leader perceptions of LMX quality, similarity with the follower, leadership potential of the follower, follower promotability, and expectations of the follower). For followers, the survey also started with the controls, followed by scales measuring the independent variables (perceived leader narcissism and follower narcissism), dependent variables (job satisfaction, job-related anxiety, job-related depression, emotional exhaustion), process variables (follower perceptions of LMX quality, similarity with the leader, perceived sense of power, perceived leadership potential) and additional variables (leader effectiveness and turnover intentions). There was one moment of measurement for each participant.

3.3 Measures

To test our hypotheses, participants' narcissism was measured as the independent variable, and follower well-being, conceptualized as job satisfaction, job-related anxiety, job-related depression and emotional exhaustion as dependent variable. In addition, leader narcissism as perceived by followers was measured to be able to use as independent variable as well. To test our proposed underlying mechanisms, both follower and leader perceptions of LMX quality were measured. Exploratively, to test underlying mechanisms of hypotheses 4a and 4b, this study furthermore included 1) leader and follower perceptions of similarity, 2) follower leadership potential rated by followers themselves as well as their leaders, 3) leader perceptions of follower promotability, 4) initial expectations leaders had of their followers and 5) sense of power in interactions with the leader as perceived by followers. Of explorative interest was also perceived leader effectiveness by the follower and follower turnover intentions. Furthermore, ten potential control variables were measured in this study.

3.3.1 Independent variables

Leader and follower narcissism. Levels of leader and follower narcissism were measured using the Dutch version of the Narcissistic Personality Inventory (NPI; Raskin & Hall, 1979, 1981; Raskin & Terry, 1988). This is a self-report inventory that is designed to assess sub-clinical narcissism in normal populations. In social and personality psychology, it is the most frequently used instrument for measuring narcissism (Barelds & Dijkstra, 2010). Furthermore, the instrument is able to identify the adaptive and maladaptive components of narcissism (Hepper, Hart & Sedikides, 2014). The inventory consists of 40 items that can be answered as 'true' or 'false', in which 'true' is coded as '1', and 'false' is coded as '0'. Examples of items are: "I have a strong will to power" and "I will usually show off if I get the chance". Reliability of the scales was good; $\alpha = .83$ for the leader scale, $\alpha = .83$ for the follower scale.

Leader narcissism as perceived by followers. This measurement was mainly included in the study in case not enough leaders would agree to participate within the given amount of time for the data collection. This way, leader narcissism as perceived by followers could be used as a proxy measurement of leaders' self-reported narcissism. To assess the degree in which followers perceived their leaders as being narcissistic, a mirrored version of the NPI-16, which is a shortened version of the original NPI-40 (Ames, Rose & Anderson, 2006) was provided to the followers. In their article, Ames, Rose and Anderson (2006) demonstrate that the NPI-16 is a valid way to measure narcissism since it highly correlates ($r = .90$) with the NPI-40. In the measurement, 16 pairs of statements in a forced choice format were provided and followers were asked to choose the one they thought most accurately described their leader. Examples of the items are: "My leader likes to be the centre of attention" versus "My leader would prefer to blend in with the crowd", and "My leader insists upon getting the respect that is due him/her" versus "My leader usually gets the respect that he/she deserves"; the first option is narcissism congruent and coded as '1' while the second option is narcissism incongruent and coded as '0'. The scale had a good reliability ($\alpha = .82$).

3.3.2 Dependent variables

Followers job satisfaction. Follower job satisfaction was measured using one item measuring overall job satisfaction. A global index has shown to be an inclusive and valid measure of general job satisfaction (Wanous, Reichers & Hudy, 1997). Meta-analytic reviews suggest single-item job satisfaction measures to be favourable compared to the most commonly used job satisfaction questionnaire (the Job Descriptive Index (JDI)) since single-items show to significantly (.60-.72) correlate to JDI facets (Nagy, 2002). In addition, single-item measures may contain more face validity and may be more flexible in the application than multiple-item scales (Nagy, 2002). Therefore, job satisfaction was generally assessed with the item "I am satisfied with my present job" that could be answered on a 5-point likert scale, ranging from 'strongly disagree' (1) to 'fully

agree' (5) (De Jonge & Schaufeli, 1998). Because of the single-item measurement, Cronbach's α could not be given.

Follower job-related anxiety and depression. Follower job-related depression and anxiety will be measured using a Dutch version of the 12-item measurement developed by Warr (1990b), based on his affective well-being model (Warr, 1990b) measuring the anxiety-comfort and depression-enthusiasm axes. Participants can answer on a 6-points likert scale, ranging from 'never' (1) to 'all of the time' (6). Examples of the items are: "When you think of the last six months, how often did you feel miserable at work?" and "When you think of the last six months, how often did you feel worried at work?" Reliability of the scales was good; Cronbach's α for the anxiety scale was .83, just like the depression scale ($\alpha = .83$). Cronbach's α for the anxiety and depression scales taken together was .89.

Follower emotional exhaustion. Follower emotional exhaustion was measured by a subscale on emotional exhaustion of the Utrecht Burnout Scale (UBOS; Schaufeli & Van Dierendonck, 2001), the Dutch version of the Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI; Maslach, Jackson & Leiter, 1997), an instrument for assessing burnout. Emotional exhaustion is the dimension of burnout that is most similar to traditional burnout measurements (Schaufeli & Van Dierendonck, 2001). The subscale consists of five items with a 5-point likert scale ranging from 'never' (1) to 'always' (5). An example of an item is: "I feel mentally exhausted by my work." Reliability of the scale was good ($\alpha = .82$).

Aggregate measure of follower psychological well-being. In line with prior research (see, e.g., Häusser, Mojzisch, Niesel & Schulz-Hardt, 2010; Van der Doef & Maes, 1999), the psychological well-being of followers was operationalized as the aggregate of job satisfaction, job-related anxiety, job-related depression and emotional exhaustion. To create an overall score of follower

well-being, means of the individual indicator scales (job satisfaction, and the reversed means of job-related anxiety and depression and emotional exhaustion) were converted into z -scores in order to standardize their different likert scales. Subsequently, the total follower well-being scale was created by aggregating the means of the z -scores of all indicators. Reliability of all scales taken together was excellent ($\alpha = .91$).

3.3.3 Process variables

Leaders' and followers' perceived LMX-quality. To measure perceptions of LMX quality, a Dutch version of the the LMX-7 was used (Scandura & Graen, 1984, Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995). To accommodate the use with consistent anchors, the original scale (Scandura & Graen, 1984) was slightly adjusted by Liden, Wayne and Stilwell (1993). According to meta-analyses, the LMX-7 is the most commonly used instrument to measure perceived LMX quality by followers (Dulebohn, Bommer, Liden, Brouer & Ferris, 2012) and is described to have the soundest psychometric properties of LMX measurements (Gerstner & Day, 1997). The measurement consists of 7 items with a 5-point likert scale ranging from 'strongly disagree' (1) to 'strongly agree' (5). To be able to compare the LMX as evaluated by the follower to the LMX perceptions of the leader, items for leaders were mirrored in line with prior studies (Liden, Wayne & Stilwell, 1993). Item examples of the LMX-7 as provided to the followers are: "My supervisor understands my problems and needs" and "My supervisor recognizes my potential". Examples of the mirrored items as provided to the leaders are: "I think that I understand the problems and needs of this follower" and "I think that I recognize the potential of this follower." Reliability of the scale was good: Cronbach's α was .88 for the leader scale and .86 for the follower scale. The scales showed a small to medium correlation ($r = .28, p < .001$). Because the main interest of this study was LMX quality as perceived by followers, this scale was used in most of the analyses.

3.3.4 Additional process variables

To be able to exploratively assess the described underlying mechanisms of hypotheses 4a and 4b, additional measures were included in the study. To test if higher LMX quality relationships between high narcissistic leaders and followers (hypothesis 4a) could be attributed to attraction as a result of perceived similarity, leaders' and followers' perceptions of similarity in terms of values, attitudes and beliefs were assessed. To test if the generation of high expectations resulting in a self-fulfilling prophecy could explain the proposed higher LMX quality relationships between high narcissistic followers and high narcissistic leaders, the initial leader expectations of the follower were assessed.

To test if the proposed lower levels of LMX quality in relationships between high narcissistic followers and high narcissistic leaders (hypothesis 4b) could be a result of the narcissistic leaders' perceptions that their self-esteem or leadership position is threatened by a narcissistic follower, perceived threat is measured in a subtle way by assessing leaders' perceptions of the promotability and leadership potential of followers. To test if a potential power struggle between high narcissistic leaders and high narcissistic followers could result in lower LMX quality relationships between them, followers' perceptions of their own leadership potential as well as their ability to influence their leader was assessed as an indicator of a struggle for power.

Leaders' and followers' perceived similarity. Leader perceptions of similarity with followers was measured using Turban and Jones' (1988) three-item scale, e.g., "my subordinate and I are alike in a number of ways", in combination with three items added by Liden et al. (1993), e.g. "My subordinate and I analyse problems in a similar way". In line with the study of Liden, Wayne and Stilwell (1993), the items were measured using a 7-point likert scale ranging from 'strongly disagree'(1) to 'strongly agree' (7), and the sum of these six items created the measure. To assess follower perceptions of similarity with the leader, these items were mirrored and used in the same

way. An example of the scale measuring follower perceptions of similarity with the leader, is: “My superior and I analyze problems in a similar way”. Reliability of the scale was excellent; $\alpha = .94$ for the leader scale and $\alpha = .91$ for the follower scale. The scales showed a small to medium correlation ($r = .206, p = .008$)

Leader expectations of the follower. This variable was measured using two items designed for this study. These items were “When I first met this follower, I got the impression that he/she would be an outstanding employee” and “When I first met this follower, I got the impression that he/she would have a long and successful career in the organization” on a 5-point likert scale ranging from ‘strongly disagree’(1) to ‘strongly agree’ (5). Reliability of the scale was acceptable ($\alpha = .73$).

Leaders and follower perceptions of followers’ leadership potential. Five items that assessed perceived leader potential were designed for this study: “This follower would function well in a managerial position”, “This follower could do most of my tasks”, “If I was absent for a day, this follower could easily step in if needed”, “Doing my job would currently be out of de comfort zone of this follower” and “Please indicate when you think this follower would be ready to take on the function of a leader on a scale from 0-10 years.” Except for the last question, which was rated on a scale from 0 (0 years) to 10 (10 years), all questions were rated on a 7-point likert scale ranging from ‘strongly disagree’ (1) to ‘strongly agree’(7). To be able to compare perceptions of leadership potential, followers filled out a mirrored version of the questions. Reliability of the scale was good: $\alpha = .81$ for the leader scale and $\alpha = .82$ for the follower scale. The scales showed a medium to large correlation ($r = .33, p < .001$).

Leader perceptions of followers’ promotability. Leader perceptions of the promotability of followers were measured using two items designed for this study as an extra indicator of

perceived threat. The items were “This follower has a high potential to move up in the organization”, and “I would recommend this follower for a promotion”. The answers were filled out on a 7-point likert scale ranging from ‘strongly disagree’ (1) to ‘strongly agree’ (7). Reliability of the scale was excellent ($\alpha = .94$).

Followers’ sense of power in interactions with the leader. Followers’ perception of their ability to influence their leader was measured by ‘the General Sense of Power scale’ (Anderson, John & Keltner, 2012). An example of an item is “In my relationship with my leader, I can get him/her to listen to what I say” and “In my relationship with my leader, my ideas and opinions are often ignored (reversed).” The questions were rated on a 7-point likert scale ranging from ‘strongly disagree’ (1) to ‘strongly agree’ (7). Reliability of the scale was acceptable ($\alpha = .75$).

3.3.5 Additional dependent variables

To be able to exploratively assess the effect of narcissistic leadership more broadly, two additional variables were added to the survey: followers’ turnover intentions and followers’ perceptions of leader effectiveness.

Followers’ turnover intentions. To assess the intention to leave the job, a three-item scale was provided that was similar to previous studies (Jaros, 1997). Specifically, followers were asked to which extent they agreed on “this year, I’ll probably search for another job”, “I frequently think about quitting my job” and “I want to stop this job and search for another one”. The items were measured using a 7-point likert scale ranging from ‘strongly disagree’(1) to ‘strongly agree’ (7). Reliability of the scale was good ($\alpha = .86$).

Followers’ perceptions of leader effectiveness. Followers’ perceptions of leader effectiveness were measured using three items that were used in the study of De Hoogh, Den Hartog and Koopman (2005). These items were “To what extent is the overall functioning of the person you evaluate

satisfactory?”, “How capable is the person you are evaluating as a leader?” and “How effective is the person you are evaluating as a leader?” Followers could respond on a 5-point likert scale, ranging from ‘not at all’ (1) to ‘very much so’ (5). Reliability of the scale was good ($\alpha = .89$).

3.3.6 Control variables

To rule out confounds, ten potential controls were measured in this study: 1) leader and follower gender, 2) leader and follower age, 3) leader and follower first language, 4) leader and follower educational level, 5) job industry, 6) leader and follower job tenure, 7) follower tenure with supervisor, 8) leader span of control and, 9) communication frequency and 10) communication type. Age was included since narcissism has been found to decrease with age (Foster, Campbell & Twenge, 2003). First language was included to be able to check if respondents could reasonably understand and interpret the questions. Gender, age, educational level and job tenure are included because these factors could influence perceived similarity and LMX-quality (Tsui & O’reilly, 1989). Gender is furthermore included because males have been consistently found to be more narcissistic (Tschanz, Morf & Turner, 1998) and gender has been found to influence follower perceptions of narcissistic leaders (De Hoogh, Den Hartog, & Nevicka, 2013; Grivalja et al., 2014). Furthermore, tenure with the supervisor was measured because the positivity of the first impressions of narcissistic individuals might decrease over time (Back et al., 2010; Campbell, Bush, Brunell & Shelton, 2005; Campbell, Foster & Finkel, 2002; Paulhus, 1998). Then, span of control was included because it could weaken the ability of the leader to influence followers (Rubin, Munz & Bommer, 2005) and because it has been shown to influence followers’ perceptions of leadership (Gittell, 2001). Hours of contact per week are included because this factor might cause effects on follower-leader relationships as well. For example, infrequent contact implies more leader-follower distance (Schyns, Maslyn & Weibler, 2010) which might result in less LMX quality or less leader impact. Moreover, the positive impressions of narcissism are described to fade when people get to know each other better

(Campbell & Campbell, 2009). To specify the communication between leader and follower, followers were asked to rate face to face, e-mail, phone calling, phone messaging and skype from most frequent to least frequent communication type.

3.4 Analysis strategy

Because the follower data was nested within leaders and variables were thus measured at two separate levels (leader and follower level), the data should be considered as clustered in a hierarchical structure (Field, 2013). Consequently, independency of the observations in the data could not be assumed (Field, 2013), since the average correlation (intraclass correlation (ICC)) between variables of followers from the same leader would likely be higher than the average correlation between variables of followers from different leaders. Because of this, standard statistical tests would lead to biases in estimates of standard errors (Hox, 2000). Therefore, hierarchical linear modeling (HLM), or multilevel modeling, was used to test the hypotheses. By using multilevel models, variables from different levels can be analyzed simultaneously because dependencies are included. This way, multilevel modeling corrects the standard error associated with an estimate of the higher level effect, in this case the leader, which results in more accurate tests of significance (Krull & MacKinnon, 2001). Another advantage of this approach is the ability to examine cross-level interaction effects (Bryk & Raudenbush, 1987).

4. Results

4.1 Descriptive statistics

Once the leader and follower data was matched, reversed items were recoded and reliability of all scales was assessed. Reliability of the scales ranged from acceptable ($\alpha = .73$) to excellent ($\alpha = .94$). To decide which control variables should be included in the analyses, inter-correlations of the variables were examined. In line with prior research (Foster, Campbell & Twenge, 2003), leader age correlated negatively with leader narcissism ($r = -.37, p < .001$) as well as with follower

perceptions of leader narcissism ($r = -.17, p = .026$). Likewise, follower age correlated negatively with follower narcissism ($r = -.43, p < .001$). Leader gender correlated with follower perceptions of leader narcissism, suggesting that male leaders were perceived as more narcissistic by their followers ($r = -.15, p = .047$). Leader job tenure showed a negative correlation with leader narcissism ($r = -.22, p < .001$). Follower age was positively related to follower well-being ($r = .16, p = .036$). Follower perceptions of LMX quality were higher when their leaders were female ($r = .22, p = .003$) and when they reported less job tenure ($r = -.15, p = 0.049$). Based on these findings and the observation that leader and follower age were the only control variables showing at least a medium correlation ($r \geq .3$ or $-.3$; Cohen, 1988) with the independent or dependent variables in the model, leader age was added as a constant control variable in analyses that included leader narcissism as independent variable and follower age was controlled for in analyses that included follower narcissism as independent variable. The inclusion of other control variables was chosen based on their potential effects as described in existing literature. That is, the controls leader span of control, tenure with the leader and hours of contact per week between leader and follower were included individually in analyses that comprised follower psychological well-being, since these were described to potentially affect the strength of the influence of the leader on the follower (Back et al., 2010; Campbell et al., 2005; Campbell et al., 2002; Paulhus, 1998; Rubin et al., 2005; Schyns et al., 2010). Controls that could potentially influence followers' perceptions of their leaders or relationships with their leaders, namely follower and leader gender, age, educational level and job tenure (Tsui & O'reilly, 1998), follower tenure with the leader (Back et al., 2010; Campbell et al., 2005; Campbell et al., 2002; Paulhus, 1998), leader span of control (Gittell, 2001) and hours of contact per week (Campbell & Campbell, 2009; Schyns et al., 2010) were individually included in analyses that comprised follower perceptions of LMX quality. Means, standard deviations and intercorrelations for the variables of interest are presented in Table 1.

Table 1

Means (M), Standard Deviations (SD) and Intercorrelations Among Variables

	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	1.	2.	3.	4.	5.	6.	7.	8.	9.	10.	11.	12.	13.	14.	15.	16.	17.
<i>Leader Level:</i>																			
1. Age	43.73	12.19	-																
2. Narcissism	15.77	6.12	-.37**	.83															
3. LMX Quality	4.03	0.60	-.00	-.05	.88														
4. Similarity	4.36	1.17	.04	-.12	.55**	.94													
5. Promotability (of follower)	4.50	1.55	-.11	-.09	.57**	.66**	.94												
6. Leader Potential (of follower)	3.79	1.33	-.10	-.09	.39**	.52**	.68**	.81											
7. Expectations (of follower)	3.76	0.65	.07	-.03	.48**	.43**	.41**	.29**	.73										
<i>Follower Level:</i>																			
8. Age	39.47	13.13	.56**	-.28**	-.16*	-.17*	-.31**	-.13	.05	-									
9. Narcissism	13.92	6.19	-.28**	.17*	.12	.09	.20**	.05	-.09	-.42**	.83								
10. Perceived Leader Narcissism	6.17	3.87	-.17*	.33**	.06	-.06	-.03	.16*	.06	-.14	.24**	.82							
11. LMX Quality	3.87	0.54	.04	.02	.28**	.21**	.12	.14	.04	.03	-.02	-.16*	.86						
12. Similarity	4.43	1.11	-.015	.04	.17*	.21*	.13	.13	-.03	.05	.06	-.20*	.52**	.91					
13. Sense of Power	5.02	0.72	-.09	-.05	.23**	.20*	.31**	.28**	.02	-.07	.11	-.24**	.53**	.40**	.75				
14. Leader Effectiveness	3.95	0.69	.05	-.06	.21**	.17*	.11	.11	.03	.12	-.11	-.09	.56**	.47**	.36**	.89			
15. Leader Potential	4.16	1.31	-.21**	.00	.04	.16*	.29**	.33**	.03	-.14	.34**	.06	.07	.11	.19*	-.04	.82		
16. Turnover Intentions	2.42	1.50	-.32**	.19*	-.14	-.17*	-.07	-.04	-.10	-.23**	.07	.22**	-.27**	-.16*	-.13	-.22**	.20*	.86	
17. Well-Being	-0.01	0.78	.09	-.04	.13	.12	.22**	.18*	.00	.15*	-.03	-.17*	.40**	.32**	.33**	.29**	.06	-.52**	.91

Note: n = 210 for leader-level variables, n = 165-168 for follower-level variables. Cronbach's alpha's are reported in bold on the diagonal.

Well-being consists of job satisfaction, job-related anxiety, job-related depression and emotional exhaustion, all of which were standardized by z-scores to form the composite.

* $p < .05$ ** $p < .01$, two-tailed

4.2 Hypotheses testing

Prior to all multilevel model analyses, independent variables were centered and standardized by converting them into z -scores to encounter for multi-collinearity between predictor variables as well as to increase the stability of the model (Field, 2013). This step could furthermore help to address the interpretation of intercepts and the variance of random intercepts across groups (Hofmann & Gavin, 1998). Next, to be able to do simple slope analyses for the hypotheses concerning high versus low narcissism levels, high narcissism was calculated as 1SD above the mean and low narcissism as 1SD below the mean (Holmbeck, 2002).

Leader narcissism and follower well-being (Hypothesis 1)

Hypothesis 1, which proposed that leader narcissism would be negatively related to follower well-being, was tested using multilevel modeling following a step-by-step approach (Field, 2013; Hox, 2000). First, it was checked if variability in intercepts would significantly improve the model. The relationship between leader narcissism and follower well-being showed no significant variance in intercepts across followers, $\text{Var}(u_{0j}) = .05$, $\chi^2(1) = 0.62$, $p > .05$. Thus, the intercepts for the relationship between leader narcissism and follower well-being did not vary significantly across the leaders. Then, the effect of leader narcissism on follower well-being was explored, which showed to be not significant, $B = -.02$, $SE = .01$, $F(1, 90.71) = .14$, $p = .708$, 95% CI $[-.03, .02]$. Adding leader age as a control variable in the model did not improve the model, $\text{Var}(u_{0j}) = .05$, $\chi^2(1) = 1.02$, $p > .05$ and decreased the effect of leader narcissism on follower well-being, $B = -.00$, $SE = .01$, $F(1, 59.18) = 1.03$, $p = .989$, 95% CI $[-.02, .02]$.³ Thus, leader narcissism did not predict overall follower well-being.

To further explore hypothesis 1, the effect of leader narcissism on each of the separate indicators of well-being was checked. The relationship between leader narcissism and follower job satisfaction showed no significant variance in intercepts $\text{Var}(u_{0j}) = .01$, $\chi^2(1) = 0.09$, $p > .05$.

³ After controlling for leader span of control, tenure with the leader and hours of contact per week between leader and follower, the relationship between leader narcissism and follower well-being remained not significant ($p \geq .678$).

No relationship was found between leader narcissism and follower job satisfaction, $B = -.12$, $SE = .01$, $F(1, 76.97) = 2.26$, $p = .137^4$, 95% CI [-.04, .00]. Likewise, the relationship between leader narcissism and follower job-related anxiety showed no significant variance in intercepts $\text{Var}(u_{0i}) = .00$, $\chi^2(1) = .00$, and leader narcissism did not predict job-related anxiety, $B = .04$, $SE = .01$, $F(1, 167.00) = 0.55$, $p = .460$, 95% CI [-.01, .03]. The same applied for the relationship between leader narcissism and follower job-related depression, which showed no significant variance in intercepts, $\text{Var}(u_{0i}) = .00$, $\chi^2(1) = 0.00$, and showed to be not significant, $B = .01$, $SE = .00$, $F(1, 167) = 1.593$, $p = .209$, 95% CI [-.01, .03]. Then, the relationship between leader narcissism and follower emotional exhaustion was explored. No significant variance in intercept was shown $\text{Var}(u_{0i}) = .04$, $\chi^2(1) = 0.90$, $p > .05$. The effect of leader narcissism on follower emotional exhaustion showed to be significant in the negative direction, $B = -.11$, $SE = .01$, $F(1, 98.15) = 4.20$, $p = .043$, 95% CI [-.23, -.00], $r = .20$. However, after controlling for leader age, this effect showed to be only marginally significant, $B = -.11$, $SE = .01$, $F(1, 88.65) = 3.53$, $p = .064$, 95% CI [-.04, .00], $r = .19^5$. Therefore, hypothesis 1 was not confirmed.

Leader narcissism, follower well-being and the moderating effect of follower narcissism (Hypothesis 5)

Because hypothesis 5 proposed that the relationship between leader narcissism and follower well-being would be moderated by follower narcissism, follower narcissism was included in the model as a next step. The interaction of leader narcissism and follower narcissism on overall follower well-being appeared to be marginally significant, $B = .10$, $SE = .06$, $F(1, 166.95) = 2.80$, $p = .096$, 95% CI [-.02, .23], $r = .13$ and is shown in Figure 3. Further analyses of simple slopes revealed no significant effects for low follower narcissism, $B = -.13$, $SE = .09$, $t(125.03) =$

⁴ In the analyses on leader narcissism and job satisfaction, job-related anxiety and job-related depression, controlling for leader age, leader span of control, tenure with the leader and hours of contact per week between leader and follower did not significantly improved the model and results remained not significant ($p \geq .116$).

⁵ Controlling for tenure with the leader, leader span of control or hours of contact per week between leader and follower individually also resulted in a marginal relationship between leader narcissism and emotional exhaustion ($p \leq .067$).

-1,41, $p = .161$, 95% CI [-.31, .05], or high follower narcissism, $B = .08$, $SE = .09$, $t(149.32) = .87$, $p = .387$, 95% CI [-.10, .26]. The same applied for simple slope analyses for low leader narcissism $B = -.09$, $SE = .08$, $t(153.17) = -1,15$, $p = .252$, 95% CI [-.25, .07], and high leader narcissism, $B = .11$, $SE = .09$, $t(146.05) = 1.21$, $p = .227$, 95% CI [-.07, .29]. Also, when controlling for leader age, the marginal interaction effect disappeared⁶, $B = .10$, $SE = .06$, $F(1, 166.97) = 2.73$, $p = .100$, 95% CI [-.02, .22]. However, the figure shows a negative trend for low narcissistic followers, whereby higher narcissism of the leader is associated with their lower well-being.

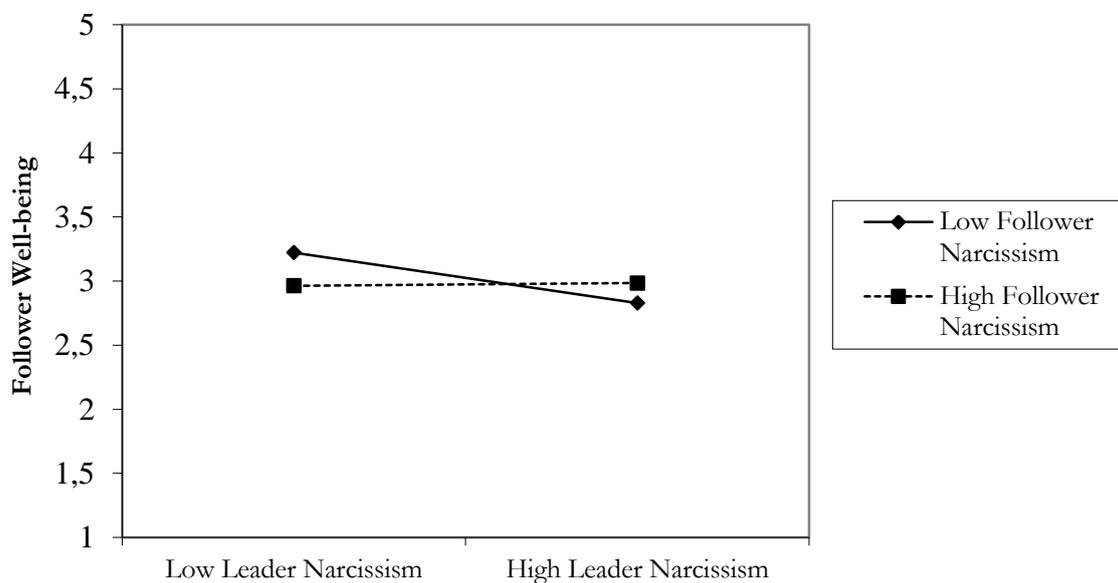


Figure 3. The interaction effect of leader narcissism and follower narcissism on follower well-being.⁷

After exploring the potential interaction effect between leader and follower narcissism on the separate indicators of well-being, the analyses showed a marginally significant effect on job satisfaction, $B = .14$, $SE = .08$, $F(1, 166.90) = 3.12$, $p = .079$, 95% CI [-.02, .29], $r = .14$. This

⁶ Controlling for follower age and tenure with the leader also resulted in the disappearance of the marginal interaction effect ($p \geq .110$). After controlling for leader span of control and hours of contact per week, the interaction effect remained marginally significant ($p = .056$ and $p = .090$ respectively).

⁷ In all analyses of interaction effects between leader narcissism and follower narcissism, high and low follower narcissism was calculated as $\pm 1SD$ from the mean.

marginally significant interaction effect is shown in Figure 4. When controlling for leader age, the interaction effect remained marginally significant⁸, $B = .14$, $SE = .08$, $F(1, 166.97) = 3.04$, $p = .083$, 95% CI $[-.02, .29]$, $r = .13$. Analyzing simple slopes revealed that leader narcissism was negatively related to job satisfaction when follower narcissism was low, $B = -.21$, $SE = .09$, $t(113.93) = -2.38$, $p = .019$, 95% CI $[-.39, -.04]$, $r = .20$, while the effect of leader narcissism on job satisfaction was non-significant when follower narcissism was high $B = .00$, $SE = .09$, $t(143.81) = .03$, $p = .976$, 95% CI $[-.17, .17]$.

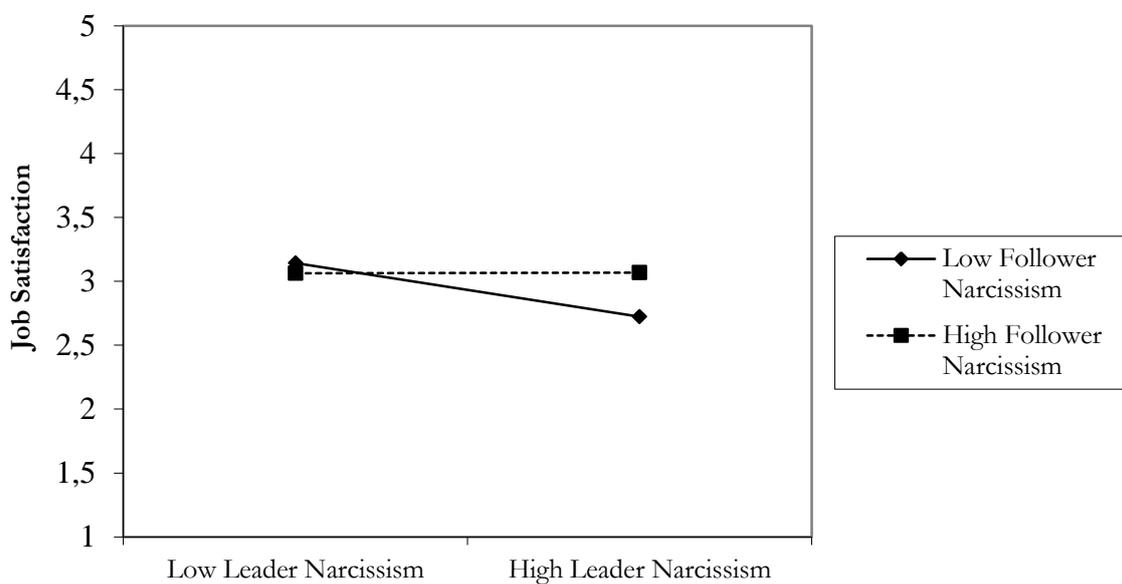


Figure 4. The interaction effect of leader narcissism and follower narcissism on follower job satisfaction.

Then, no interaction effect of leader and follower narcissism on job-related anxiety was shown⁹, $B = -.08$, $SE = .06$, $F(1, 167.00) = 2.07$, $p = .153$, 95% CI $[-.20, .03]$. There was a marginally significant interaction found between leader and follower narcissism on job-related

⁸ The interaction effect remained marginally significant after controlling for follower age ($p = .081$), leader span of control ($p = .079$) and tenure with the leader ($p = .087$). The marginally significant effect disappeared when controlled for hours of contact per week ($p = .125$).

⁹ This interaction effect remained not significant after controlling for leader age ($p = .155$), follower age ($p = .227$), tenure with leader ($p = .176$) and hours of contact ($p = .129$), and was marginally significant after controlling for leader span of control ($p = .061$).

depression, $B = -.09$, $SE = .05$, $F(1, 167) = 3.19$, $p = .076$, 95% CI $[-.19, .00]$, $r = .14$, shown in Figure 5. The interaction effect remained marginally significant after leader age was included as control variable¹⁰, $B = -.09$, $SE = .05$, $F(1, 167.00.97) = 3.13$, $p = .079$, 95% CI $[-.19, .01]$, $r = .14$. Simple slope analyses showed that the effect of leader narcissism on job-related depression was negative when follower narcissism was low $B = .15$, $SE = .07$, $t(167) = 2.15$, $p = .033$, 95% CI $[-.01, .30]$, $r = .16$, while the relation between leader narcissism and job-related depression was non-significant when follower narcissism was high $B = -.02$, $SE = .07$, $t(167) = -.33$, $p = .741$, 95% CI $[-.16, .12]$. The interaction between leader and follower narcissism on emotional exhaustion showed to be not significant¹¹, $B = -.01$, $SE = .05$, $F(1, 166.98) = 0.02$, $p = .897$, 95% CI $[-.11, .10]$.

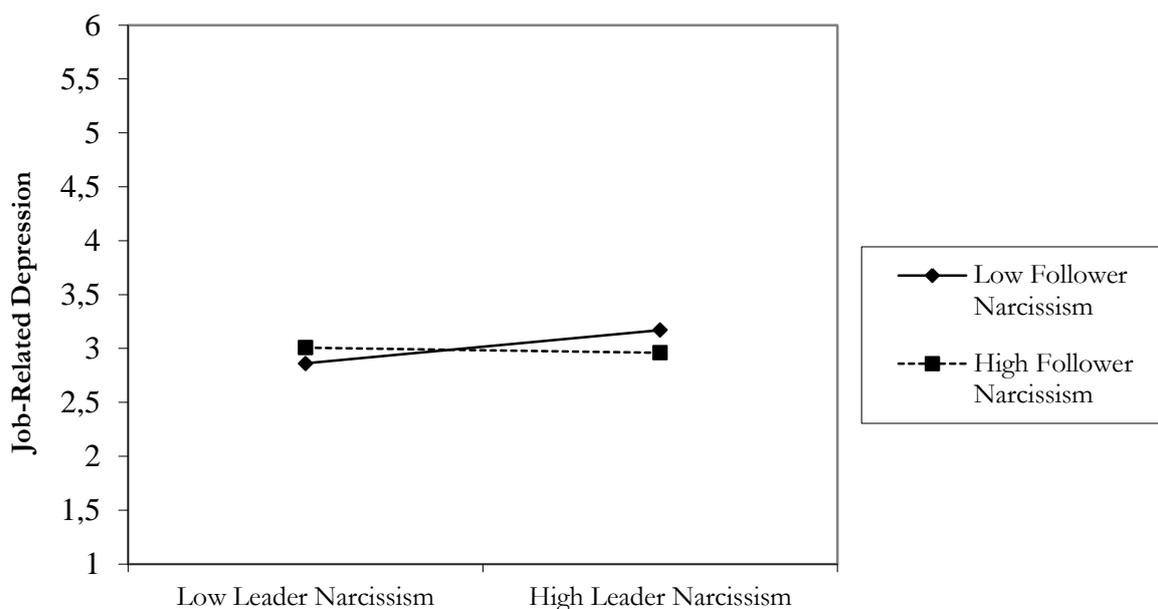


Figure 5. The marginally significant interaction effect of leader narcissism and follower narcissism on follower job-related depression.

¹⁰ The interaction effect remained marginally significant after controlling for tenure with the leader ($p = .082$), and disappeared after controlling for follower age ($p = .109$). The marginally significant effect became significant after controlling for leader span of control ($p = .050$) and hours of contact per week between leader and follower ($p = .048$).

¹¹ The interaction effect remained not significant after controlling for leader and follower age, leader span of control, tenure with the leader and hours of contact per week between leader and follower ($p \geq .648$).

Hence, exploration of hypothesis 5 suggests that leader narcissism results in lower follower well-being in terms of job satisfaction and job-related depression for low narcissistic followers. In other words, it seems that when followers are low narcissistic, they are less satisfied with their job and more depressed at work when they are managed by a high narcissistic leader. No significant effects were found for high narcissistic followers. Therefore, hypothesis 5 is not confirmed.

Leader narcissism and follower perceptions of LMX quality (Hypothesis 2 and 3)

Hypothesis 2 proposed that leader narcissism would be negatively related to LMX quality. Results of the multilevel model analysis showed that the relationship between leader narcissism and follower perceptions of LMX quality showed significant variance in intercepts across followers $\text{Var}(u_{0i}) = .10, \chi^2(1) = 11.85, p < .01$. Thus, the intercepts for the relationship between leader narcissism and follower perceptions of LMX quality varied significantly across the different leaders. The effect itself showed to be not significant, $B = .03, SE = .05, F(1, 101.50) = .44, p = .509, 95\% \text{ CI } [-.07, .13]$. Controlling for leader age did not improve the model, $\text{Var}(u_{0i}) = .10, \chi^2(1) = 0.59, p > .05$ and only slightly improved the effect, which remained not significant¹², $B = .04, SE = .05, F(1, 98.58) = .64, p = .425, 95\% \text{ CI } [-.06, .15]$. Furthermore, the relationship between leader narcissism and LMX quality was not significant when follower perceptions of LMX quality were exploratively replaced by leader perceptions of LMX quality, $B = -.04, SE =$

¹² As described before, other variables could potentially influence followers' perceptions of their leaders or relationships with their leaders, namely gender, age, educational level, follower and leader job tenure (Tsui & O'reilly, 1998), follower tenure with supervisor (Back et al., 2010; Campbell et al., 2005; Campbell et al., 2002; Paulhus, 1998), leader span of control (Gittell, 2001) and hours of contact per week (Schyns et al., 2010). After adding these variables as controls one by one, the relationship between leader narcissism and follower perceptions of LMX quality remained not significant ($p \geq .406$). It did appear that hours of contact per week showed an almost marginally significant interaction effect with leader narcissism on LMX quality, $B = .07, SE = .04, F(1, 164.07) = 2.61, p = .108, 95\% \text{ CI } [-.02, .15]$, suggesting that follower perceptions of LMX quality increased for higher narcissistic leaders when there was more frequent contact.

.05, $F(1, 94.05) = .57, p = .453$. Thus, hypothesis 2 was not confirmed. Because hypothesis 3 proposed that follower perceptions of LMX would mediate the relation between leader narcissism and follower well-being, hypothesis 3 was likewise not confirmed. That is, to meet the full criteria for mediation effects, hypothesis 1 and 2 had to be supported (Krull & MacKinnon, 2001).

Leader narcissism, LMX quality and the moderating effect of follower narcissism (Hypothesis 4a and 4b and 6)

The relationship between leader narcissism and follower perceptions of LMX quality was further explored to test hypothesis 4a and 4b, which proposed that the relationship between leader narcissism and follower perceptions of LMX quality would be moderated by followers' narcissism, such that when this was high, the negative relationship would disappear or become positive for hypothesis 4a, or would become stronger for hypothesis 4b. No significant interaction was found between leader and follower narcissism on follower perceptions of LMX quality, $B = .04, SE = .04, F(1, 157.18) = .92, p = .340, 95\% \text{ CI } [-.04, .12]$, neither on leader perceptions of LMX quality, $B = -.04, SE = .04, F(1, 165.92) = .79, p = .375, 95\% \text{ CI } [-.13, .05]$. Therefore, both hypothesis 4a and 4b could not be confirmed. When leader age was added as a control variable, the interaction effect remained not significant for follower perceptions of LMX quality, $B = .04, SE = .04, F(1, 159.00) = .11, p = .314, 95\% \text{ CI } [-.04, .12]$, as well as leader perceptions of LMX quality, $B = -.03, SE = .05, F(1, 166.81) = .31, p = .577, 95\% \text{ CI } [-.11, .06]$.¹³

Because the model showed no mediation (hypothesis 3) or moderation (hypothesis 4a and 4b) effect, hypothesis 6 that proposed the full moderated mediation model, could not be tested.

¹³ After including other control variables that were described to potentially influence followers' perceptions of their leaders or the relationships with their leader (gender, age, educational level, job tenure, follower tenure with supervisor, leader span of control and hours of contact per week), the interaction effect between leader and follower narcissism on follower perceptions of LMX quality remained not significant ($p \geq .237$).

4.3 Additional analyses¹⁴

Leader narcissism as perceived by followers and follower well-being

In the previous analyses, leader narcissism was included as the self-reported narcissism by leaders themselves. However, the study also included the perceptions of leader narcissism by followers could be used to test the same hypotheses by approaching leader narcissism from a follower perspective. Literature asserts that people might respond more strongly to *perceptions* of their environment rather than to its objective features (Lewin, 1995, in Tepper et al., 2011). Therefore, perceptions of narcissism by followers might provide useful additional insights about the influence of leader narcissism on followers. Because these analyses only comprised follower variables, the 16 followers whose leaders did not respond could be included as well. This slightly changed the descriptive statistics for the whole group of followers¹⁵. Follower perceptions of leader narcissism did not differ for leaders who did or leaders who did not respond after the follower participated first, $B = -1.20$, $SE = 1.29$, $F(1, 66) = .864$, $p = .356$, 95% CI [-3.78, 1.38]. On average, perceptions of leader narcissism were higher ($M = -.04$, $SE = .97$) compared to leaders' self-reported narcissism ($M = -.07$, $SE = .074$). This difference however was not

¹⁴ These additional analyses were performed to exploratively gain extra insights in the relationships between variables. Therefore, only leader age was included as a constant control variable in analyses that included leader narcissism as independent variable and follower age was controlled for in analyses that included follower narcissism as independent variable, since these showed at least moderate correlations with the dependent or independent variables (Cohen, 1988). Other controls were left out to enhance transparency.

¹⁵ When including the followers without matching leader data, the mean age of followers ($N = 184$; 54 men, 130 women) was 38.57 years ($SD = 13.12$) ranging from 18 to 83 years. Job tenure varied between 2 months and 40 years ($M = 69.91$, $SD = 84.09$). The number of months that followers had worked with their leader varied from 1 month to 27 years ($M = 35.35$, $SD = 43.06$). The time followers had contact with their leader varied from 0 to 40 hours per week ($M = 8.35$, $SD = 10.26$). For most followers (64%), face to face communication was the most frequent used style to communicate with their leaders, followed by e-mail (21%), phone calling (5%), phone messaging (5%) and skype (4%). A percentage of 62% of followers was higher educated (i.e. college or university degree). With regard to industries, 55% of the followers reported to work in the physical or mental health care, 9% in business and personal services and 6% in the hotel, catering, sport or recreation industry; the remaining 30% worked in a broad variety of other industries.

significant, -0.03 , $SE = .09$, $t(165) = -0.342$, $p = .733$, 95% CI $[-.200, .41]$. Since literature asserts that the way in which narcissists are perceived might differ over time or as a function of contact frequency (Back et al., 2010; Campbell et al., 2005; Campbell et al., 1998; Campbell & Campbell, 2009; Paulhus, 1998), relationship tenure as well as frequency of contact between leader and follower was assessed. This showed a marginally significant interaction effect between the source of leader narcissism ratings ('1' = self-reported, '2' = perceived by followers) and contact frequency between leader and follower on the difference between their ratings of narcissism, $B = -.14$, $SE = .07$, $F(1, 245.49) = 3.79$, $p = .053$, 95% CI $[-.28, .00]$. Simple slope analyses of the interaction effect showed that when leader narcissism was rated by the follower, the difference between follower perceptions of leader narcissism and actual self-reported leader narcissism was higher when their contact frequency was high, $B = 2.26$, $SE = .72$, $t(174.45) = 3.15$, $p = .002$, 95% CI $[.85, 3.68]$, $r = .23$, suggesting that followers overestimated the narcissism of the leader when they interacted more.

Then, the influence of perceived leader narcissism on follower well-being was analyzed. This relationship showed significant variance in intercepts across the followers $\text{Var}(u_{0j}) = -.13$, $\chi^2(1) = 34.13$, $p < .01$. Perceived leader narcissism was negatively related to overall follower well-being, $B = -.15$, $SE = .06$, $F(1, 172.53) = 6.87$, $p = .010$, 95% CI $[-.25, -.04]$, $r = .20$. After controlling for leader age, the effect decreased but remained significant, $B = -.13$, $SE = .06$, $F(1, 152.67) = 4.16$, $p = .043$, $r = .02^{16}$. The effect of perceived leader narcissism on follower well-being was further investigated by exploring the effect on the separate indicators of well-being.

The relationship between perceived leader narcissism and job satisfaction showed a significant variance in intercepts $\text{Var}(u_{0j}) = -.09$, $\chi^2(1) = 42.34$, $p < .01$, and perceived leader narcissism showed to be almost marginally related with job satisfaction, $B = -.09$, $SE = .06$, $F(1, 166.44) = 2.71$, $p = .101$, 95% CI $[-.21, .02]$, $r = .13$, but this relationship disappeared after

¹⁶ After including other controls that could potentially influence the effect of leader narcissism on follower well-being (leader span of control, tenure with the leader, hours of contact per week), the relationship remained significant ($p \leq .039$).

controlling for leader age $B = -.07$, $SE = .06$, $F(1, 148.58) = 1.40$, $p = .239$, 95% CI [-.19, .05], $r = .20$. Exploring the relationship between perceived leader narcissism and job-related anxiety showed that the intercepts of perceived leader narcissism varied significantly $\text{Var}(u_{0i}) = -.17$, $\chi^2(1) = 38.05$, $p < .01$. Furthermore, perceived leader narcissism showed to be positively related to job-related anxiety $B = .18$, $SE = .05$, $F(1, 182) = 12.40$, $p = .001$, 95% CI [.08, .29], $r = .25$. The effect remained significant after controlling for leader age $B = .16$, $SE = .06$, $F(1, 166) = 8.30$, $p = .004$, 95% CI [.05, .27], $r = .21$ ¹⁷. Then, the effect of perceived leader narcissism on job-related depression was examined and showed a significant variance in intercepts as well, $\text{Var}(u_{0i}) = -.07$, $\chi^2(1) = 37.67$, $p < .01$. The relationship itself was significant as well, $B = .10$, $SE = .05$, $F(1, 182) = 4.37$, $p = .038$, 95% CI [.01, .19], $r = .15$. However, after leader age was included as a control, the relationship disappeared¹⁸, $B = .06$, $SE = .05$, $F(1, 166) = 1.53$, $p = .218$, 95% CI [-.04, .16]. Subsequently, the effect of perceived leader narcissism on emotional exhaustion varied significantly between intercepts, $\text{Var}(u_{0i}) = -.06$, $\chi^2(1) = 45.77$, $p < .01$, but appeared not to be significant, $B = .08$, $SE = .05$, $F(1, 172.62) = 2.50$, $p = .116$, 95% CI [-.02, .18]¹⁹. After controlling for hours of contact, the relationship was marginally significant $B = .09$, $SE = .05$, $F(1, 175.89) = 3.04$, $p = .083$, 95% CI [-.01, .19], $r = .13$. In summary, perceived leader narcissism by followers was significantly related to overall follower well-being and this relation seems to be mainly explained by its effect on job-related anxiety. Hence, when considering leader narcissism as perceived by followers, hypothesis 1 is confirmed.

¹⁷ Also, after including leader span of control, tenure with the leader and hours of contact per week between leader and follower, the relationship remained significant ($p \leq .08$).

¹⁸ Likewise, after leader span of control was included the relationship became not significant ($p = .205$). After controlling for tenure with the leader and hours of contact per week, the relationship remained significant ($p = .048$ and $p = .021$ respectively).

¹⁹ After controlling for leader age, leader span of control and tenure with the leader, the relationship remained not significant ($p \geq .179$).

Further exploring the effects of perceived leader narcissism on overall follower well-being showed no significant interaction between perceived leader narcissism and follower well-being, $B = .09$, $SE = .06$, $F(1, 181.99) = 2.43$, $p = .121$, 95% CI $[-.02, .20]$. Perceptions of leader narcissism did show a significant interaction effect with follower narcissism on job satisfaction, $B = .15$, $SE = .06$, $F(1, 182.00) = 6.84$, $p = .010$, 95% CI $[.04, 2.26]$, $r = .19$.²⁰ Simple slope analyses of the interaction effect between perceived leader narcissism and follower narcissism on job satisfaction showed that the relationship was significantly negative when follower narcissism was low $B = -.25$, $SE = .08$, $t(182.00) = -3.11$, $p = .002$, 95% CI $[-.40, -.09]$, $r = .22$, and not significant when follower narcissism was high $B = .05$, $SE = .08$, $t(182.00) = .56$, $p = .555$, 95% CI $[-.11, .21]$. This interaction effect is shown in Figure 6.

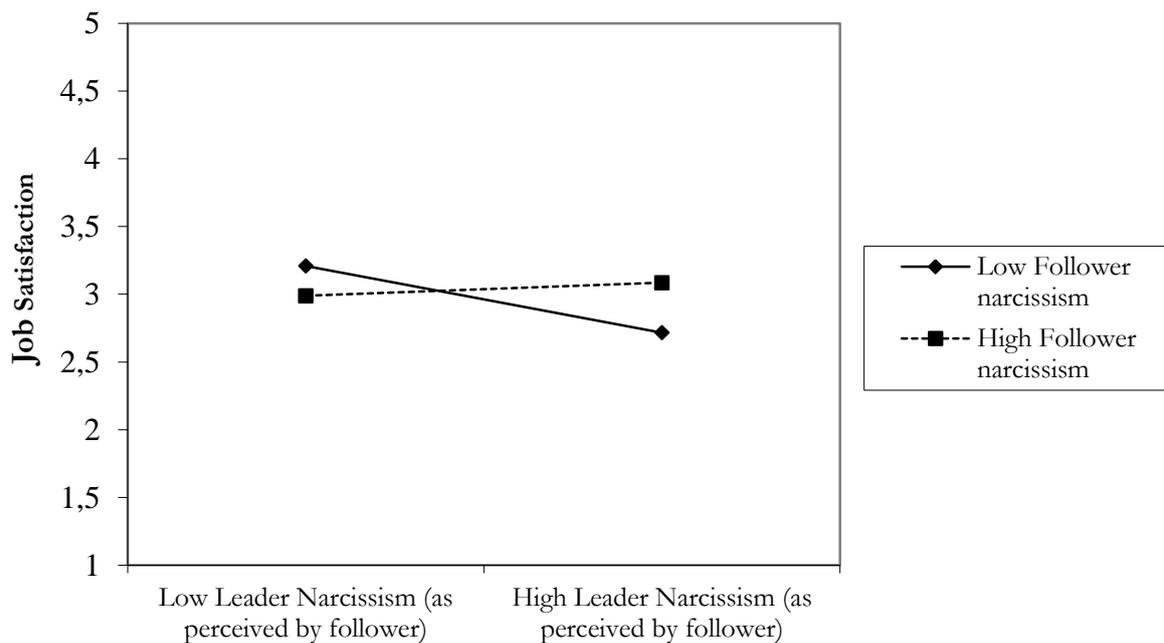


Figure 6. The interaction effect of perceived leader narcissism and follower narcissism on follower job satisfaction.

²⁰ After controlling for leader and follower age, the effect remained significant ($p = .019$ and $p = .017$ respectively).

Leader narcissism as perceived by followers did not show a significant interaction effect with follower narcissism on job-related anxiety, $B = .02$, $SE = .05$, $F(1, 182) = .11$, $p = .745$, 95% CI [-.12, .09], job-related depression, $B = -.07$, $SE = .05$, $F(1, 182) = 1.89$, $p = .171$, 95% CI [-.16, .03], or emotional exhaustion²¹, $B = -.01$, $SE = .05$, $F(1, 182.00) = 0.01$, $p = .909$, 95% CI [-.09, .11]. However, after controlling for leader age, there was an interaction effect between leader narcissism as perceived by follower and follower narcissism on job-related depression $B = -.12$, $SE = .05$, $F(1, 166) = 5.02$, $p = .026$, 95% CI [-.21, -.01], $r = .17$. Consequently, when controlled for leader age, analyzing simple slopes showed an effect between perceived leader narcissism and follower narcissism on job-related depression that was significantly positive when follower narcissism was low $B = .17$, $SE = .07$, $t(166) = 2.49$, $p = .014$, 95% CI [.04, .31], $r = .19$, while the relation between leader narcissism and job-related depression was non-significant when follower narcissism was high $B = -.06$, $SE = .08$, $t(166) = -.758$, $p = .450$, 95% CI [-.21, .09]. This interaction effect is shown in Figure 7.

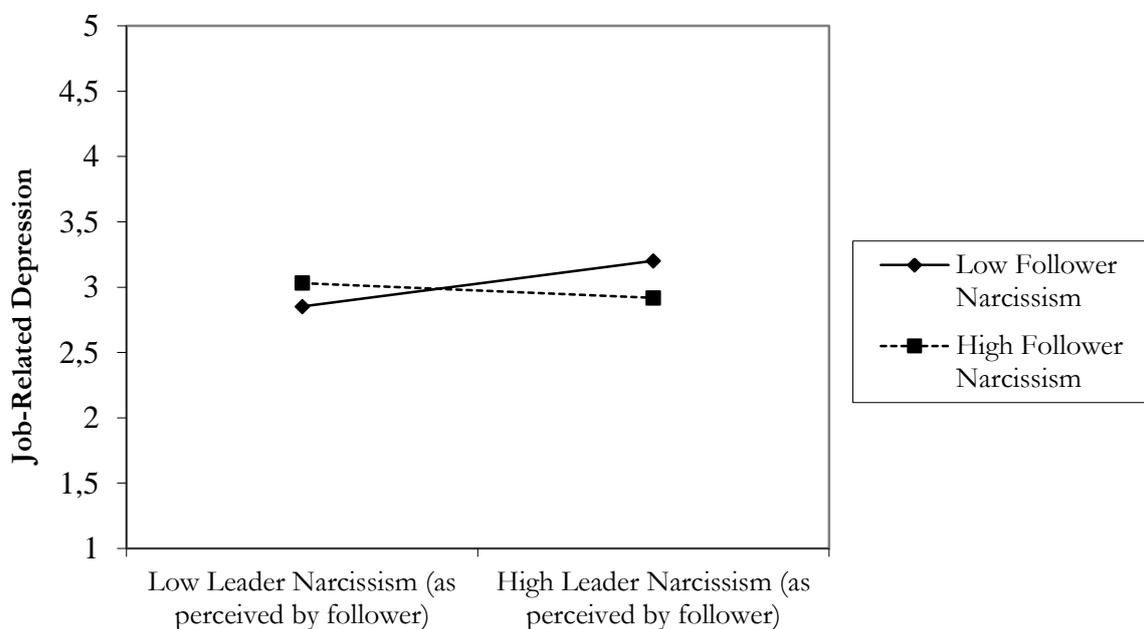


Figure 7. The interaction effect of perceived leader narcissism and follower narcissism on follower job-

²¹ The interactions between leader narcissism as perceived by the follower and follower narcissism on job-related anxiety and emotional exhaustion remained not significant after controlling for leader and follower age.

related depression when controlled for leader age.

Hence, exploring the interaction effect between leader narcissism as perceived by followers and follower narcissism, the findings are comparable with the interaction effects found between leader narcissism self-reported by leaders and follower narcissism on well-being and its indicators: they show a negative trend of the relationship between leader narcissism on job satisfaction and job-related depression when follower narcissism is low.

Leader narcissism as perceived by followers and follower perceptions of LMX quality

Then, the effect of perceived leader narcissism on follower perceptions of LMX quality was assessed, showing a significant variance in intercepts $\text{Var}(u_{0i}) = .10$, $\chi^2(1) = 41.64$, $p < .01$. Perceived leader narcissism furthermore showed a negatively significant relationship with LMX quality, $B = -.12$, $SE = .04$, $F(1, 181,90) = 9.04$, $p = .003$, 95% CI $[-.20, -.04]$, $r = .22$. After controlling for leader age, the relationship remained significant, $B = -.08$, $SE = .04$, $F(1, 165.02) = 3.62$, $p = .036$, 95% CI $[-.17, -.01]$, $r = .16$. No interaction between perceived leader narcissism and follower narcissism on LMX quality was showed²², $B = -.01$, $SE = .04$, $F(1, 178.31) = .037$, 95 % CI $[-.08, .07]$, $p = .847$. Hence, when considering leader narcissism as perceived by followers, hypothesis 2 was confirmed and hypothesis 4a and 4b were not confirmed.

Because perceived leader narcissism was negatively related to follower well-being as well as to LMX quality, the mediation effect of LMX quality in the relationship between perceived leader narcissism and well-being could be tested. To support the full mediation effect, four criteria had to be met (Krull & MacKinnon, 2001). First, the independent variable (perceived leader narcissism) should significantly predict the mediator (follower perceptions of LMX quality) as well as the dependent variable (follower well-being). As reported, these criteria were met. Third, the mediator (follower perceptions of LMX quality) should predict the dependent variable

²² This interaction effect remained not significant after controlling for leader and follower age.

(follower well-being) as well. This effect showed to be significant we well, $B = .58$, $SE = .05$, $F(1, 162.62) = 38.07$, $p < .001$, 95% CI [.39, .77], $r = .43$. Lastly, the effect between the independent (perceived leader narcissism) and dependent variable (follower well-being) should become non-significant when the mediator (follower perceptions of LMX quality) is added to the model as a predictor of the dependent variable. This last criteria is met as well, since adding follower perceptions of LMX quality in the model decreased the relationship between perceived leader narcissism on follower well-being from significant, $B = -.15$, $SE = .05$, $F(1, 172.53) = 6.87$, $p = .010$, 95% CI [-.25, -.04], $r = .00$ to non-significant $B = -.08$, $SE = 0.5$, $F(1, 173.87) = 2.22$, $p = .138$, 95% CI [-.18, .03]. Conducting a Sobel test confirmed the full mediation effect ($Z = -2.91$, $p = .004$). Hence, when considering leader narcissism as perceived by followers, the full mediation effect was supported, confirming hypothesis 3. This mediation effect is shown in Figure 8.

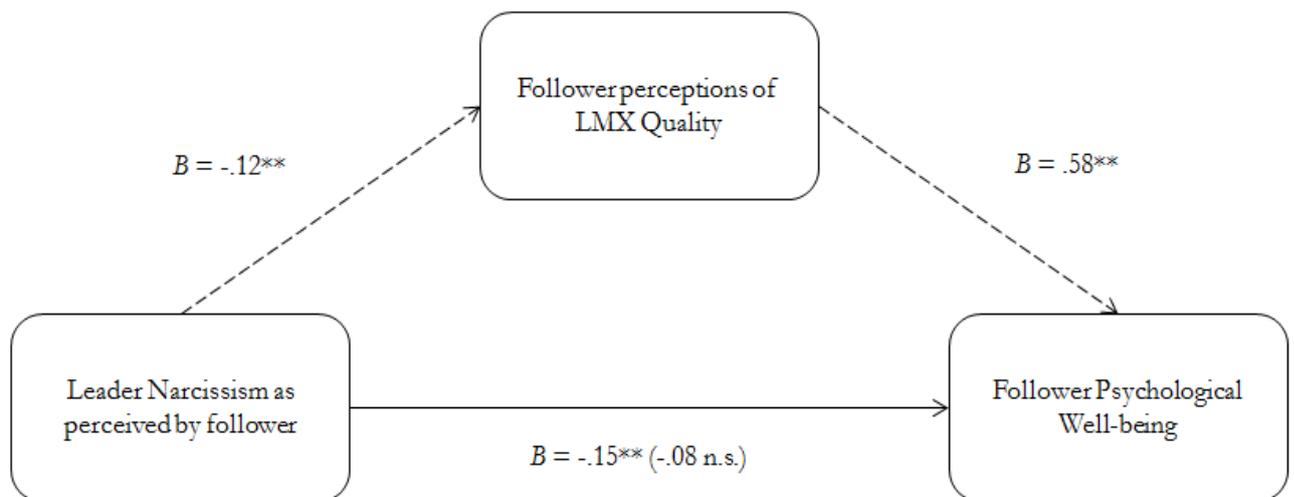


Figure 8. The mediation effect of follower perception of LMX quality on Leader Narcissism as perceived by follower and Follower Psychological Well-being, $**p \leq .01$.

Leader narcissism, leader effectiveness and turnover intentions

As an additional analysis, the effect of leader narcissism on perceived leader effectiveness by followers as well as their turnover intentions was explored to be able to gain further insight in the influence of leader narcissism on followers. The relationship between leader narcissism and

leader effectiveness showed significant variance in intercepts across followers $\text{Var}(u_{0i}) = .23, \chi^2(1) = 11.41, p < .01$. Leader effectiveness was not predicted by leader narcissism, $B = -0.3, SE = .07, F(1, 89.42) = .27, p = .605, 95\% \text{ CI} [-.17, .10]$. However, when follower narcissism was added as a moderator, there appeared to be a significant interaction effect on leader effectiveness²³, $B = .11, SE = .05, F(1, 149.31) = 4.39, p = .038, 95\% \text{ CI} [.01, .21], r = .13$, which is shown in Figure 9. Further analysis of simple slopes revealed that the relationship between leader narcissism and leader effectiveness was marginally significant in the negative direction when follower narcissism was low, $B = -.14, SE = .09, t(132.93) = -1.70, p = .092, 95\% \text{ CI} [-.31, .02], r = .07$, and not significant when follower narcissism was high $B = .07, SE = .05, t(149.06) = .88, p = .382, 95\% \text{ CI} [-.09, .23]$.

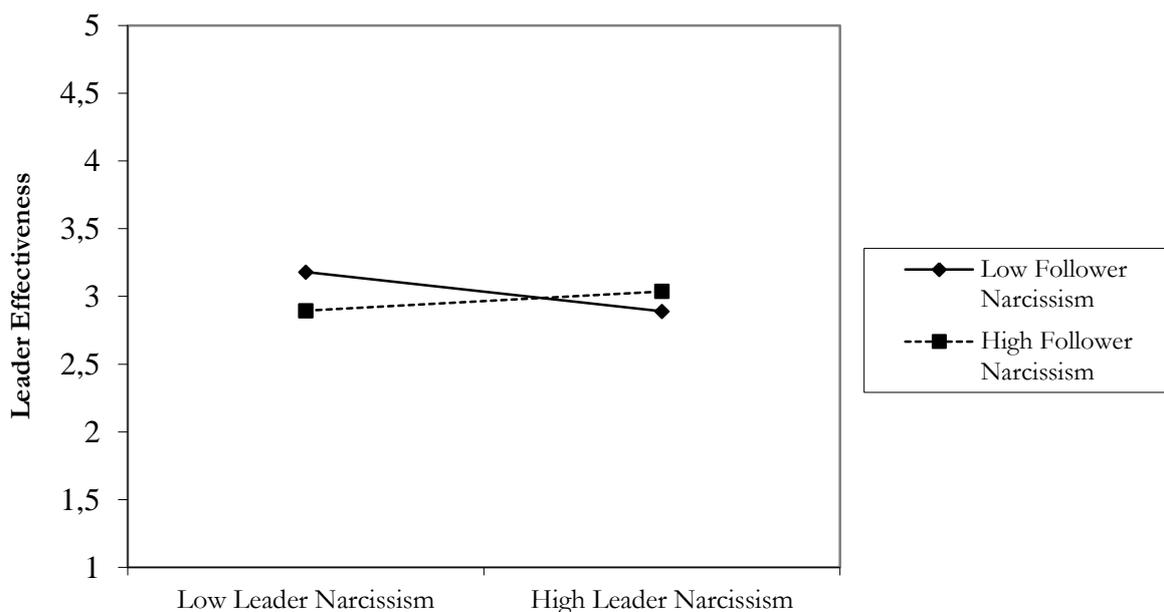


Figure 9. The interaction effect of leader narcissism and follower narcissism on follower perceptions of leader effectiveness.

The same analysis was performed to explore the effect of leader narcissism on follower turnover intentions. Likewise, the intercepts across followers varied significantly $\text{Var}(u_{0i}) = .74, \chi^2$

²³ The effect remained significant after controlling for leader and follower age.

(1) = 6.84, $p < .01$. The effect of leader narcissism on follower turnover intentions was marginally significant in a positive direction, $B = .24$, $SE = .14$, $F(1, 90.62) = 3.24$, $p = .075$, 95 % CI [-.03, 5.14], $r = .19$. Again, when follower narcissism was included in the model, a significant interaction effect between leader and follower narcissism appeared, $B = -.43$, $SE = .11$, $F(1, 151.36) = 15.37$, $p < .001$, 95 % CI [-.64, -.21], $r = .30$, shown in Figure 10. Likewise, simple slope analysis furthermore revealed that leader narcissism was related to higher follower turnover intentions when follower narcissism was low, $B = .70$, $SE = .18$, $t(133.90) = 3.92$, $p < .001$, 95 % CI [.35, 1.05], $r = .32$, and not when follower narcissism was high $B = -.15$, $SE = .17$, $t(149.57) = -.908$, $p = .366$, 95 % CI [-.49, .18].

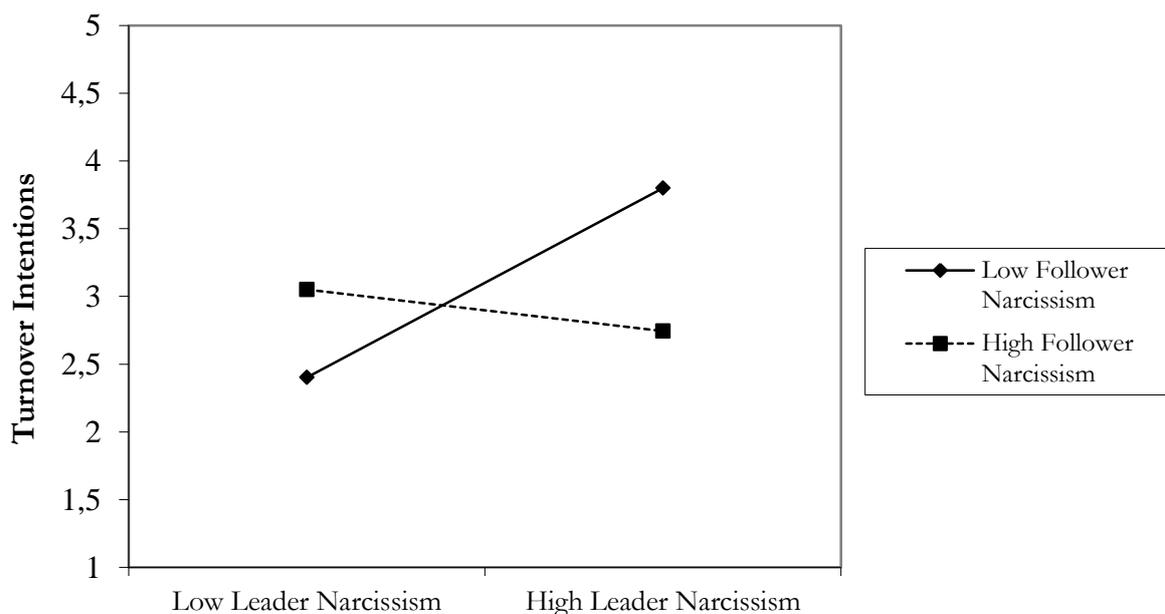


Figure 10. The interaction effect of leader narcissism and follower narcissism on follower turnover intentions.

These findings support the previous by indicating that low narcissistic followers are more negatively affected by leader narcissism than high narcissistic followers.

Dimensions of leader narcissism

Additional analyses were performed to solely test the influence of the maladaptive dimension of narcissism. This dimension is related to more harmful social consequences and poor psychological functioning (Barry et al., 2007, Emmons, 1984, 1987; Hepper et al., 2014; Hepper et al., 2014), as opposed to the adaptive dimension of narcissism, which is linked to more socially desirable outcomes (Barry et al., 2007; Sedikides et al., 2004). Hence, it could be assumed that the maladaptive component of narcissism would show a stronger negative effect on follower outcomes compared to general narcissism. However, multilevel model analyses showed that just like narcissism in general, the maladaptive component of narcissism was not significantly related to overall follower well-being, $B = .04$, $SE = .06$, $F(1, 86.98) = .315$, $p = .576$, 95 % CI [-.09, .16], or follower perceptions of LMX quality, $B = .03$, $SE = .05$, $F(1, 95.15) = .361$, $p = .549$, 95 % CI [-.07, .13]. Adding follower narcissism to the model did not result in a significant interaction effect between maladaptive leader narcissism and follower narcissism on follower perceptions of LMX quality, $B = .06$, $SE = .04$, $F(1, 149.22) = 1.20$, $p = .163$, 95 % CI [-.02, .14], or on leader perceptions of LMX quality, $B = -.00$, $SE = .05$, $F(1, 162.05) = .00$, $p = .982$, 95 % CI [-.09, .16]. However, it did result in the appearance of a significant interaction effect between maladaptive leader narcissism and follower narcissism on follower well-being, $B = .13$, $SE = .06$, $F(1, 165.43) = 4.58$, $p = .034$, 95 % CI [.01, .26], $r = .06$, shown in Figure 11. This time, simple slopes analyses showed that the relationship between maladaptive leader narcissism and follower well-being was not significant when follower narcissism was low, $B = -.10$, $SE = .09$, $t(132.71) = -1.10$, $p = .272$, 95 % CI [-.28, .08], and marginally significant in a positive direction when follower narcissism was high $B = .17$, $SE = .09$, $t(148.04) = 1.90$, $p = .060$, 95 % CI [-.01, .34], $r = .15$. Hence, solely focusing on the maladaptive component of narcissism did result in the appearance of a significant interaction effect between the maladaptive component of leader narcissism and follower narcissism on follower well-being, a direction that supports hypothesis 5.

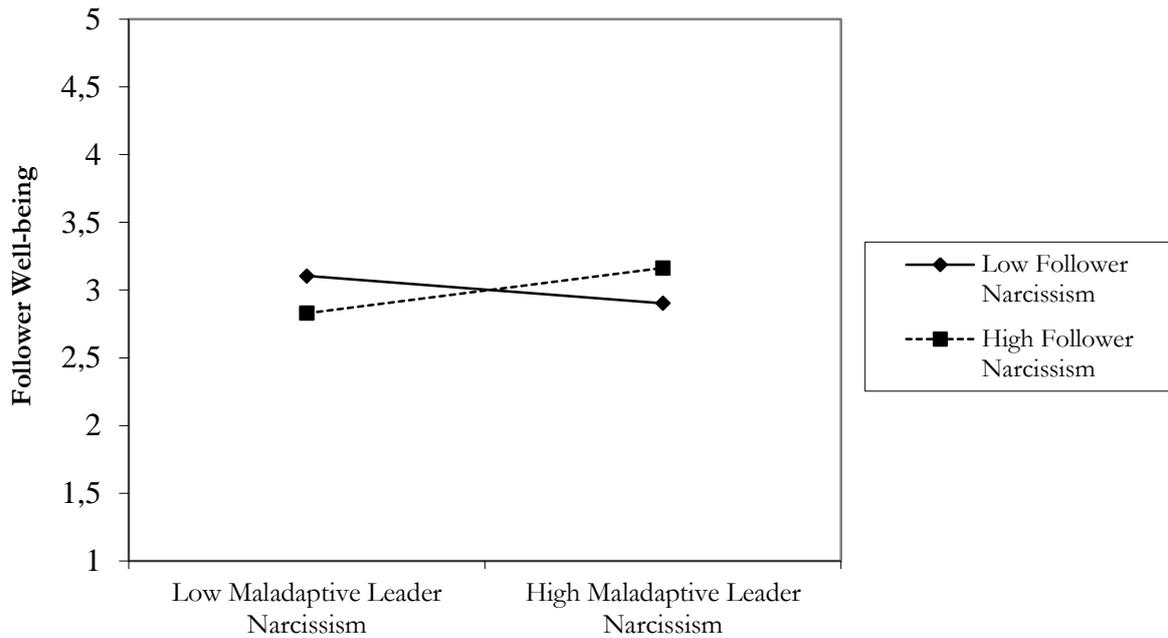


Figure 11. The interaction effect of maladaptive leader narcissism and follower narcissism on follower well-being.

It seems that when followers were high narcissistic, the maladaptive component of leader narcissism could positively influence follower well-being for high rather than low narcissistic followers. Hence, despite of the fact that the theoretical framework of hypothesis 4a and 4b concerned LMX quality instead of follower well-being, it could be stated that this direction fits better with hypothesis 4a rather than 4b. To test if underlying mechanisms of higher perceived similarity and higher expectations could indeed apply for the positive relationship between maladaptive narcissism and the psychological well-being of high narcissistic followers, their potential mediating effect was tested as well. However, the interaction effect between maladaptive narcissism and follower narcissism did not show a significant effect on leader perceptions of similarity, $B = -.06$, $SE = .09$, $F(1, 159.92) = .49$, $p = .484$, 95 % CI [-.23, .11], follower perceptions of similarity, $B = .12$, $SE = .09$, $F(1, 161.63) = 1.929$, $p = .167$, 95 % CI [-.05, .29], or leader expectations of the follower, $B = .07$, $SE = .05$, $F(1, 164.48) = 1.99$, $p = .160$, 95 % CI [-.03, .16]. Hence, there appeared to be no mediation effect, because the criteria of

mediated moderation were not met (Baron & Kenny, 1986).

The moderating effect of similarity, expectations, perceived threat and power struggle on the influence of leader narcissism on leader and follower perceptions of LMX quality

Similarity, expectations, perceived threat and power struggle were included in this study to be able to explain the moderation effect between follower and leader narcissism on the perceptions of LMX quality. This moderation effect however, was not confirmed. Despite this, it would be interesting to investigate if leader or follower perceptions of similarity, leader initial expectations of the follower, a perceived threat by the leader or a potential power struggle would influence the effect of leader narcissism on LMX quality, independent of follower narcissism. Therefore, all variables were included in the analyses as potential moderators for the effect of leader narcissism on LMX quality as perceived by followers or leaders. For leader perceptions of LMX quality, only leader perceptions of similarity (in terms of attitudes, values and beliefs), showed a marginally significant interaction effect with leader narcissism, $B = -.07$, $SE = .03$, $F(1, 200.44) = 3.673$, $p = .057$, 95% CI $[-.11, .00]$, $r = .13$. This effect is shown in Figure 12, and suggests that leaders overall reported higher LMX quality when they perceived their followers as more similar. However, it also shows that higher leader narcissism is associated with lower contributions to LMX quality when perceptions of similarity are high and with higher contributions to LMX quality when perceptions of similarity are low. Additional simple slope analyses showed that the relationship between leader narcissism and leader perceptions of LMX quality was not significant for high perceived similarity, $B = -.06$, $SE = .05$, $t(145.77) = -1.14$, $p = .258$, 95% CI $[-.16, .04]$, or low perceived similarity $B = .07$, $SE = .05$, $t(129.776) = 1.384$, $p = .169$, 95% CI $[-.03, .18]$. None of the variables significantly influenced the relationship between

leader narcissism and follower perceptions of LMX quality ($p \geq .243$ for all variables).

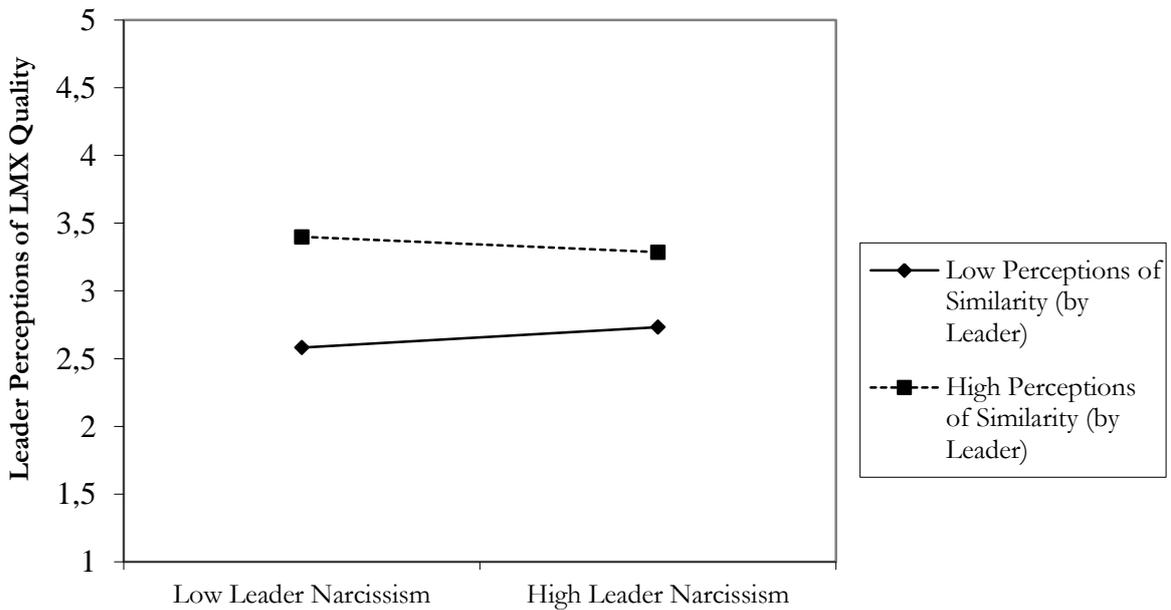


Figure 12. The interaction effect of maladaptive leader narcissism and follower narcissism on follower well-being.

Comparing leader perceptions of LMX quality to follower perceptions of LMX quality

LMX perceptions of leaders were included in this study to be able to compare the LMX quality perceptions of leaders with those of followers. On average, leaders' rated their contribution to the LMX quality ($M = 4.06, SE = .58$) significantly higher than their followers did ($M = 3.87, SE = .54$). This difference was $-.18, SE = .67, t(165) = -3.512, p = .001, 95\% CI [-.29, -.08], r = .26$. However, this difference in perceptions of LMX quality between leaders and followers was not significantly higher for high narcissistic leaders than for low narcissistic leaders, $B = .06, SE = .06, F(1, 166.28) = .986, p = .323, 95\% CI [-.06, .17]$, indicating that there is no evidence that high narcissistic leaders would overestimate their contribution to the LMX quality more than low narcissistic leaders.

5. Discussion

Despite that the bright side of the narcissistic leadership debate might indirectly provide support for a positive influence of narcissistic leaders on their followers, a negative or even destructive direct influence of narcissists on people in their surroundings is extensively described in literature. However, only few studies on narcissistic leadership included the effects on followers so far. Remarkably, its influence on the most important markers of a healthy and productive organization, psychological employee well-being, has never been investigated. Based on the nature of interpersonal relationships of narcissists, this study explored the proposed negative influence of narcissistic leadership on the psychological well-being of followers through its negative influence on LMX quality. Of particular interest was the influence of follower narcissism on this relationship. To be able to explore the proposed interaction effect of leader and follower narcissism on LMX quality, the mechanisms that could potentially explain this influence were exploratively included in this study as well.

Against the expectations, no relationship between leader narcissism and overall follower well-being was found. Even when additional analyses solely included the maladaptive component of leader narcissism, this relationship remained absent. A closer investigation of the separate indicators of well-being revealed a relationship between leader narcissism and emotional exhaustion, suggesting that leader narcissism could predict lower follower emotional exhaustion, in contradiction to the expectations. However, this effect could be partly explained by leader age, since it disappeared when the influence of leader age was taken into account.

The absence of the proposed relationship between leader narcissism and follower well-being could be attributed to several explanations. First, leader narcissism might not be as destructive to the psychological well-being of followers as proposed. For example, previously described potential positive influences of narcissistic leadership based on the bright side of the narcissistic leadership phenomenon might nullify the negative influence of the potentially harmful consequences of narcissistic leadership on the psychological well-being of followers. Another

explanation might be the fact that follower well-being is caused by many other predictors as well. As an illustration, Zapf, Dorman and Frese (1996) present fifteen different factors that could predict physical and mental health, under which critical life events, work-family conflict and individual resources as coping mechanisms. All these variables could exert their influence on follower psychological well-being, implying that leader influences to the well-being of employees might be relatively low. Furthermore, it could mean that the influence of leader narcissism on follower well-being could be explained by differences in the personality of followers (Bernerth et al., 2014), for which this study focused on follower narcissism.

Despite the absence of a direct relation between leader narcissism and overall follower well-being, the results showed that leader narcissism could influence the way in which their well-being was influenced by leader narcissism. While the expectations in this study focused on high narcissistic followers, the influence of leader narcissism on followers' psychological well-being seems to apply rather for followers low on narcissism. That is, the results showed a significant interaction effect between leader and follower narcissism on job satisfaction and job-related depression, which suggested that low narcissistic followers are less satisfied with their job and more depressed at work when they are managed by a high narcissistic leader, indicating less feelings of pleasure and higher feelings of displeasure and arousal according to Warr's axes (Warr, 1990). Likewise, additional analyses suggested that low followers reported higher turnover intentions when their leader was high narcissistic. In addition, these suggested that when levels of leader narcissism increased, leaders were rated as lower effective by low narcissistic followers.

Overall, low narcissistic followers reported more negative outcomes when they were managed by a more narcissistic leader. This finding could be explained by several mechanisms. While high narcissism is associated with higher levels of self-confidence or even arrogance, extraversion and charisma (see, e.g., Rosenthal & Pittinsky; Wallace & Baumeister, 2002), the opposite applies for low narcissism. Low narcissists might therefore be characterized by an overall lower self-esteem, referring to one's concepts and feelings about oneself (Mann, Hosman,

Schaalma & de Vries, 2004). In literature as well as daily life, self-esteem is frequently associated with happiness and health, and even described to be their most powerful predictor (Baumeister, Campbell, Krueger & Vohs, 2003; Mann et al., 2004, Trzesniewski et al., 2006). For example, therapeutic interventions and school programs often focus on protecting and boosting self-esteem, supporting the assumption that this might result in more success and happiness in one's life (Baumeister et al., 2003). At the same time, lower self-esteem is associated with lower psychological well-being. Studies focusing on self-esteem often propose a buffer hypothesis, suggesting that high self-esteem could mitigate the effects of harmful, threatening or stressful events (DeLongis, Folkman & Lazarus, 1988), and is as such described as a protective factor for mental health (Mann, et al., 2004). This could imply that because low narcissistic followers lack this self-esteem buffer, they are more sensitive for the potential harmful influences of high narcissistic leaders. For example, low self-esteem could more easily lead to depression under unfortunate circumstances (Baumeister et al., 2003). Hence, when low narcissistic persons are managed by a narcissistic leader, they might be more negatively affected, for example by the overwhelming self-centered, empathy lacking attitude or ruthless criticism of their leaders. As a consequence, the experience of less satisfaction in their job and more depressed feelings could apply specifically for low narcissistic followers. This buffer hypothesis could also explain why narcissistic followers not seem to be bothered by narcissistic leaders: their high levels of self-esteem form a buffer, protecting them against the influence of stressors, like the potential harmful influence of leader narcissism. This might declare why high narcissists fare better when managed by a narcissistic leader compared to low narcissistic individuals. According to the results, the outcomes of low narcissistic followers in terms of lower job satisfaction, higher job-related depression and turnover intentions and lower leader effectiveness evaluations, could not be explained by a lower quality of LMX in the relationships with their narcissistic leaders, as will be exemplified below.

No support was found for the influence of leader narcissism on LMX quality, irrespective

of if this was perceived by the follower or leader. Hence, the results showed no support for the proposed mediating effect of LMX quality on the relation between leader narcissism and follower well-being. Also, the expected interaction effect between leader and follower narcissism on LMX quality did not appear. Therefore, the proposed mechanisms that served as a basis for this interaction effect could be assumed not to result in higher or lower LMX quality for high narcissistic followers. In other words, the proposition that high narcissistic followers might establish higher LMX quality relationships with narcissistic leaders than low narcissistic followers, because the high initial expectations they generated could result in a self-fulfilling prophecy, or because their leaders perceive them as more similar, is not supported. Likewise, the proposition that high narcissistic followers might develop even lower LMX quality relationships with narcissistic leaders than low narcissistic followers because they might cause a struggle for power and leaders might perceive them as a threat to their self-esteem and leadership position, is not supported. Even when the influence of these underlying mechanisms on the relationship between leader narcissism and LMX quality was tested as a moderator, independent of follower narcissism, no support for their role on the establishment of LMX quality of relationships was found. In conclusion, the results in the study did not provide support for the hypothesized conceptual framework.

Only when the maladaptive component of narcissism was high, the interaction effect with leader narcissism seemed to apply for higher narcissistic followers, that is, high narcissistic followers showed to have overall higher follower well-being when their leaders reported relatively high levels of maladaptive narcissism. No support was found for the idea that this influence could be the result of increased perceptions of similarity among high maladaptive narcissistic leaders and high narcissistic followers, neither for the idea that it could be the result of higher expectations generated by high narcissistic followers. Hence, other mechanisms should account for the increased psychological well-being for high narcissistic followers. Theories describing a fit between ‘mirror hungry’ and ‘ideal’ hungry narcissists, stemming from developmental psychology

could be introduced here as a potential explanation (Popper, 2004). According to these theories, infants need ‘mirroring’ responses of the mother-figure as a baby, to develop healthy levels of self-love and sense of self-worth (Freud, 1986, in Popper, 2004). With these responses, by which the mother mirrors the child, the mother shows admiration and attention, allowing the child to feel special and valued. When children are rejected during this phase, for example by cold and unresponsive mothers, the ‘self’ can be injured, resulting in an insatiable craving for love and admiration (Post, 1986). This emerging narcissistic deprivation can result in two compensating strategies that are related to narcissistic leadership. The first is a ‘mirror hungry’ tendency to seek for followers that could function as a ‘mirror’ and that provide the admiration, attention and recognition that was so missing in the past (Popper, 2004). The second is an ‘ideal hungry’ tendency to obsessively seek a figure to admire (Popper, 2004), because they experience themselves only as worthwhile when they can relate to idealized figures. This idealized figure functions as an extension of the self, indirectly satisfying their own need for admiration, attention and recognition. Both strategies are insatiable and both are linked to narcissism (Post, 1993). In other words, the maladaptive narcissism of leaders could perfectly fit with ‘ideal hungry’ narcissistic followers who might admire the strength of narcissistic leader and might be even more impressed when this strength is fortified with maladaptive features as arrogance or exploitation. As a strong extension of the self, a leader high on maladaptive narcissism could enhance the self-esteem of these ‘ideal hungry’ narcissistic followers, and as such this fit could translate in higher levels of these followers’ psychological well-being (Baumeister et al., 2003; Mann et al., 2004, Trzesniewski et al., 2006).

Interestingly, additional analyses of leader narcissism measured as the perceptions of followers instead of the self-reported narcissism of leaders themselves, did support the expectations in this study to a great extent. Follower perceptions of leader narcissism were negatively related to their overall psychological well-being, and especially to its indicator job-related anxiety. This suggests that when followers perceive their leaders as more narcissistic, they

feel less happy and more anxious at their work. According to Warr's axes, this indicates that these followers might feel displeased and in an unpleasant way aroused (Warr, 1990). Further analyses showed an interaction effect between leader narcissism as perceived by followers and follower narcissism on follower well-being measured as job satisfaction: when low narcissistic followers perceived their leaders as higher narcissistic, their job satisfaction decreased. When leader age was taken into account, low follower narcissism was furthermore related to job-related depression, or feelings of displeasure and low arousal (Warr, 1990) when leader narcissism was high. Follower perceptions of their leaders' narcissism were furthermore negatively related to their perceptions of LMX quality of the relationship with their leader, suggesting that when followers perceived their leader as more narcissistic, they reported less contributions of their leader to the relationship. This negative relation did not appear to be influenced by followers' own levels of narcissism. This lower LMX quality furthermore showed to fully mediate the negative effect of follower perceptions of leader narcissism on follower psychological well-being.

These findings automatically raise the question why the results of follower perceptions of leader narcissism differ from the results where leader narcissism is considered as the self-reported ratings of narcissism, which is considered to properly reflect *actual* narcissism according to literature on narcissism. For this, we could present several potential explanations. One of them is already given, stating that people tend to react more strongly to their perceptions of their environment rather than to its objective features (Lewin, 1995, in Tepper et al., 2011). If this explanation applies, it suggests that the relationships found when leader narcissism is measured as follower perceptions provide a magnified reflection of the actual relationships between leader narcissism and its outcomes on followers. This would suggest that leader narcissism does negatively influence LMX quality in follower relationships by means of which it affects overall psychological follower well-being, especially in terms of increased feelings of anxiety at the job, even irrespective of the level of follower narcissism. It could furthermore be reasoned that objective features of the environment could exert their influence on the persons in it more

strongly when these persons are in fact aware of these specific features. For example, a narcissistic leader who is perceived more as confident rather than arrogant by its follower due to selective perception (Dearborn & Simon, 1958) might not impact this followers' psychological well-being in the same way as other followers. On the other hand, perception is a subjective phenomenon, dependent on many psychological influences, like our pre-knowledge and biases that could cause the differences between actual leader narcissism and perceptions of leader narcissism. Results implied that follower perceptions of leader narcissism were (not significantly) higher than self-reported levels of narcissism as well as that these perceptions were more over-estimated when followers had more frequent contact with their leaders. Since narcissism is generally perceived as a loaded, negative trait (Campbell, 2001), this supports the theory in that the more the follower got to know the narcissistic leader, the less positive the impression became (Campbell & Campbell, 2009).

Next to these explanations, externalizing behavior could potentially serve as an explanatory mechanism for some findings of leader narcissism as perceived by followers as well, for example its relation with job-satisfaction, job-related depression and LMX quality perceptions for especially low narcissistic followers. That is, low self-esteem is associated with higher externalizing behavior, referring to the degree in which a person attributes one's problems to others (Baumeister et al., 2003; Mann et al., 2004). Hence, the direction of the relationship between leader narcissism and job-related satisfaction, job-related depression, turnover intentions and evaluations of leader effectiveness for low narcissistic persons could be caused by their externalizing processes, in which the follower attributes his or her dissatisfaction incorrectly to their leader, reflected as lower LMX quality ratings and higher leader narcissism ratings. That is, narcissism is generally perceived as a loaded, negative trait (Campbell, 2001). In addition, the relationships between follower perceptions of leader narcissism could be an effect of an overall more negative response style. Lastly, it should be recognized that the relationship between higher leader narcissism ratings, lower LMX quality ratings and lower psychological well-being ratings

could in fact be a consequence of this lower well-being. That is, in the reciprocal process of relationship between leader and follower, negative feelings of followers could result in less beneficial leadership behavior. This process is also referred to as 'loss spiral' and demonstrated in a longitudinal study in which the causality of the relationship could be assessed (Van Dierendonck et al., 2004).

Overall, follower narcissism did seem to influence how followers are affected by their narcissistic leaders. Despite that our expectations focused on high rather than low follower narcissism, these findings provide useful insights in the way narcissistic leaders and followers might interact. This study adds to literature in several ways. First, it contributes to the dark and bright phenomenon of narcissistic leadership by extending the knowledge of the contexts and outcomes for which narcissistic leadership might be desirable or not, by examining if narcissistic leadership could be harmful in the context of interpersonal relationships with followers and given important follower outcomes. In doing so, this study furthermore extends the literature on the influence of narcissists on social relationships to the context of organizations and leadership. Next, it contributes to literature on psychological employee well-being, which is not only worthwhile because of the previously presented organizational benefits of well-being, but also because of the legitimate goal of fostering employees' health and happiness itself.

5.1 Strengths and limitations

By collecting the data from both follower and leader, this study was able to measure its variables at their most relevant source. This use of multi-source data could furthermore reduce common method bias. The inclusion of follower perceptions of leader narcissism provided useful additional insights in the direction of the relationship. By measuring many variables from a leader as well as a follower perspective, interesting comparisons between them could be made. Despite the careful considerations when this study was designed, several factors could be identified as limitations of this study. Considering the data collection, this study used sampling techniques that

could not assure the random selection of participants. That is, approached participants could voluntarily participate and were partly recruited through the network of the researcher. Hence, this could have resulted in a relatively low response rate and a less representative sample for employees. For example, this approach could have resulted in generally more altruistic, less narcissistic respondents, despite that more egocentrically motives to participate were stimulated with the voucher raffle. This could have resulted in the generally low narcissistic sample ($M = .15.77$ for leader narcissism, $M = .13.92$ for follower narcissism). Furthermore, approximately half of the respondents worked within the health care industry. This could potentially decrease the generalizability of the findings in this study to other industries. Then, despite the fact that followers were assured of the confidentiality of their responses, their anonymity could not be assured in this study. This was due to the fact that e-mail addresses were asked in order to approach the other person of the leader-follower dyad, and because of the fact that each person that participated secondly, had to be informed about which person they had to rate. Decreased feelings of anonymity might have resulted in more socially desirable responses. That is, both leader and follower had to rate *each other*. Then, because this study was cross-sectional, causality of the relationships could not be inferred. Lastly, the propositions of this study all focused on high narcissistic followers rather than low narcissistic followers. As a consequence, the mechanisms through which the low levels of narcissism of followers have influenced the outcomes remain unknown.

5.2 Future research

This study provides a broad basis of starting points for future researchers that would like to focus on the impact of narcissistic leadership on followers. In addition, the limitations of this study provide room for future research. Scholars intending to conduct comparable studies could specifically pay attention to improved data collection methods that ensure random sampling. For example, it would be useful to include questionnaires in compulsory routines of job-related

assessment in organizations. This way, a more representative sample of employees could be reached. Then, longitudinal research designs could make the inference of causality of the relationships possible. Moreover, future research could specifically focus on the influence of narcissistic leadership on followers characterized by less self-esteem and the mechanisms through which leader narcissism might negatively affect them, as well as the relationships between them. Next, other outcomes than LMX quality and follower well-being could be investigated as well. Since perceptions of deep-level similarity between leader and follower in terms of attitudes, values and beliefs shows to be for the most part not related to the influence of leader narcissism on LMX quality, it could be more useful to explore the influences of their surface-level similarity. Furthermore, future studies could focus on potential positive effects of leader narcissism on followers rather than the negative ones. This way, future literature could help extending the insights in the influence of leader narcissism on the ones who work most closely with them; their followers.

5.3 Practical implications

Results of this study suggest several practical implications for organizations, managers and their followers. First, organizations should be aware of the interaction between personality traits of managers and followers with regard to crucial follower outcomes. Since the results suggest that low narcissistic followers seem to suffer more when they are managed by a narcissistic leader, specific interventions could be implemented to prevent this from happening. For example, it could be useful to only place high confident followers at positions managed by leaders who show extremely high self-confidence levels. Alternatively, organizations could focus on providing trainings to enhance the self-esteem of their more insecure employees. That is, higher self-esteem is described to benefit overall well-being and could furthermore buffer the potential negative influence of their narcissistic leaders. Also, managers as well as their followers could be made more aware of the way in which their interaction in terms of personality could potentially affect

the way in which followers feel at their work. Managers could be trained to recognize lower levels of followers' psychological well-being and the way in which they could enhance this with specific leadership behaviors. Next to this, followers could be made aware of the possibility that their perceptions of their leaders and could influence the way they feel at their work, as well as the ways in which they could improve this, for example by investing in the reciprocal relationship between them and their leaders. This way, organizations, leaders and followers could all take their responsibility to enhance the happiness of the overall workforce that is so essential for the organizations' success.

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Appendix 1 – Leader Questionnaire in Dutch

Demographics

Vult u alstublieft eerst enkele algemene gegevens in:

1. Wat is uw leeftijd?
2. Wat is uw geslacht?
 - Man
 - Vrouw
3. Wat is uw moedertaal?
 - Nederlands
 - Overig, namelijk: _____
4. Wat is uw hoogst afgeronde opleiding?
 - Basisonderwijs
 - MAVO/VMBO/VBO/LBO
 - HAVO
 - VWO/Gymnasium
 - Middelbaar Beroepsonderwijs (MBO)
 - Hoger Beroepsonderwijs (HBO)
 - Wetenschappelijk onderwijs (WO)
5. In welke branche bent u werkzaam?
 - Gezondheidszorg (geestelijk/lichamelijk)
 - Zakelijke en persoonlijke dienstverlening
 - Vervoer
 - Onderwijs
 - Kunst, cultuur, amusement, media
 - Industrie
 - Horeca, catering, sport, recreatie
 - Detailhandel en ambachten
 - Bouwnijverheid
 - Agrosector
 - Overig, namelijk: _____
6. Hoeveel maanden bent u werkzaam in uw huidige functie?
7. Aan hoeveel medewerkers geeft u leiding?

Leader Narcissism (Raskin & Hall, 1979, 1981): Hieronder staan een aantal uitspraken over uzelf. Geef bij de volgende beweringen alstublieft aan welk antwoord ('waar' of 'niet waar') het meest op u van toepassing is. Probeer snel door de vragen heen te werken en het eerste antwoord te geven dat in u opkomt.

	Waar	Onwaar
1. Ik heb een aangeboren talent voor het beïnvloeden van mensen	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
2. Bescheidenheid past me niet	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
3. Ik zou bijna alles doen als ik ertoe uitgedaagd word	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
4. Ik omdat anderen me dat vaak vertellen	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
5. Als ik de wereld zou besturen zou het een veel betere plaats zijn	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
6. Ik kan me meestal overal uit kletsen	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
7. Ik wil graag in het middelpunt van de belangstelling staan	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
8. Ik zal succesvol zijn	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
9. Ik denk dat ik bijzonder ben	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
10. Ik zie mezelf als een goede leider	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
11. Ik ben assertief	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
12. Ik vind het fijn om zeggenschap over anderen te hebben	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
13. Ik vind het makkelijk om andere mensen naar mijn hand te zetten	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
14. Ik sta erop dat ik het respect krijg dat ik verdien	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
15. Ik laat mezelf graag zien	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
16. Anderen zijn een open boek voor me	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
17. Ik neem graag verantwoordelijkheid voor het nemen van beslissingen	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
18. Ik wil het gemaakt hebben in de ogen van de wereld	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
19. Ik kijk graag naar mezelf	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
20. Ik ben geneigd om op te scheppen als ik de kans krijg	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
21. Ik weet altijd precies wat ik doe	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
22. Ik vertrouw zelden op anderen om dingen gedaan te krijgen	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
23. Iedereen vindt het fijn om mijn verhalen te horen	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
24. Ik verwacht veel van anderen	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
25. Ik zal nooit tevreden zijn totdat ik alles krijg wat ik verdien	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
26. Ik krijg graag complimenten	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
27. Ik heb een sterk verlangen naar macht	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
28. Ik begin graag nieuwe trends en modes	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
29. Ik kijk graag naar mezelf in de spiegel	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
30. Ik vind het echt fijn om in de belangstelling te staan	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
31. Ik kan mijn leven leven op de manier die ik wil	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
32. Mensen zijn altijd geneigd om mijn gezag te erkennen	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
33. Ik zou het liefst een leider willen zijn	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
34. Ik word een succesvol persoon	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
35. Ik kan iedereen laten geloven wat ik wil	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
36. Ik ben een geboren leider	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
37. Ik zou willen dat iemand op een dag mijn biografie zou schrijven	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
38. Ik raak van streek als het mensen niet opvalt hoe ik eruit zie als ik uit ga in het openbaar	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
39. Ik ben tot meer in staat dan de meeste mensen	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
40. Ik ben een buitengewoon iemand	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

First names of 10 followers (3 of these were at randomly selected):

U heeft aangegeven leidinggevende te zijn. Wilt u alstublieft in de balkjes hieronder 10 (voor)namen invullen van de medewerkers aan wie u leiding geeft en van wie u een correct e-mail adres ter beschikking heeft? Voornamen volstaan. Ik vraag u dit, opdat u in de volgende sectie over drie van hen enkele vragen kunt beantwoorden. Indien u aan minder dan 10 medewerkers leiding geeft, vult u dan alstublieft zoveel mogelijk (voor)namen in.

Leader Perceptions of LMX Quality (Scandura & Graen, 1984):

U zult nu gevraagd worden om over in totaal drie van uw medewerkers vragen te beantwoorden. Alle onderstaande stellingen gaan over uw relatie met medewerker <voornaam>. Houdt u deze medewerker alstublieft in gedachte bij het invullen van de volgende vragen. In hoeverre bent u het met de volgende stellingen eens?

	Helemaal oneens 1	Oneens 2	Neutraal 3	Eens 4	Helemaal eens 5
1. Ik zou me voor deze medewerker persoonlijk inzetten om eventuele problemen in zijn/haar werk te verhelpen	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
2. Ik zou voor deze medewerker opkomen als hij/zij dat nodig heeft, zelfs als dat ten koste zou gaan van mijzelf	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
3. Ik ken de problemen en behoeften die deze medewerker heeft op het werk	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
4. Ik heb vertrouwen in de capaciteiten van deze medewerker binnen de organisatie	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
5. Ik heb zoveel vertrouwen in deze medewerker, dat ik zijn/haar beslissingen zou verdedigen als hij/zij afwezig is	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
6. Ik laat deze medewerker doorgaans weten hoe tevreden ik ben met hem/haar	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
7. De werkrelatie die ik heb met deze medewerker is te beschrijven als 'effectief'	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Leader perceptions of Similarity (Turban & Jones, 1988; Liden, Wayne & Stilwell, 1993):

Deze medewerker en ik...

	Helemaal oneens 1	Oneens 2	Enigszins oneens 3	Neutraal 4	Enigszins eens 5	Eens 6	Helemaal eens 7
8. ...lijken op elkaar qua perspectief, opvattingen en waarden	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
9. ...zien de dingen op vrijwel dezelfde manier	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
10. ...lijken op elkaar op meerdere gebieden	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
11. ...gaan op dezelfde manier met problemen om	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
12. ...denken vaak aan dezelfde oplossing voor een probleem	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
13. ...analyseren problemen op dezelfde manier	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Leader perceptions of followers' Promotability

	Helemaal oneens 1	Oneens 2	Enigszins oneens 3	Neutraal 4	Enigszins eens 5	Eens 6	Helemaal eens 7
14. Deze medewerker heeft een goede kans om hogerop te komen binnen de organisatie	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
15. Ik zou deze medewerker aanbevelen voor een promotie	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Leader perceptions of followers' Leadership Potential

	Helemaal oneens 1	Oneens 2	Enigszins oneens 3	Neutraal 4	Enigszins eens 5	Eens 6	Helemaal eens 7
16. Deze medewerker zou goed functioneren in een leidinggevende positie	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
17. Deze medewerker zou de meeste van mijn taken kunnen doen	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
18. Als ik een dag afwezig zou zijn, zou deze medewerker makkelijk voor mij kunnen invallen	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
19. Mijn taken zouden momenteel buiten de comfort zone van deze medewerker vallen	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
20. Uitgedrukt in 0-10 jaar, na hoeveel tijd denkt u dat deze medewerker klaar is voor een leidinggevende functie?							
<i>Aantal jaren aangeven op slider (afgerond op 1 decimaal):</i> 0 _____ 10							

Leader expectations of the follower

Toen ik deze medewerker net ontmoette, kreeg ik de indruk dat deze medewerker:

	Helemaal oneens 1	Oneens 2	Neutraal 3	Eens 4	Helemaal eens 5
21. een uitstekende medewerker zou zijn	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
22. een lange, succesvolle carrière binnen de organisatie zou krijgen	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Appendix 2 – Follower Questionnaire in Dutch

Demographics:

Vult u alstublieft eerst enkele algemene gegevens in:

1. Wat is uw leeftijd?

2. Wat is uw geslacht?

Man

Vrouw

3. Wat is uw moedertaal?

Nederlands

Overig, namelijk: _____

4. Wat is uw hoogst afgeronde opleiding?

Basisonderwijs

MAVO/VMBO/VBO/LBO

HAVO

VWO/Gymnasium

Middelbaar Beroepsonderwijs (MBO)

Hoger Beroepsonderwijs (HBO)

Wetenschappelijk onderwijs (WO)

5. In welke branche bent u werkzaam?

Gezondheidszorg (geestelijk/lichamelijk)

Zakelijke en persoonlijke dienstverlening

Vervoer

Onderwijs

Kunst, cultuur, amusement, media

Industrie

Horeca, catering, sport, recreatie

Detailhandel en ambachten

Bouwnijverheid

Agrosector

Overig, namelijk: _____

6. Hoeveel maanden bent u werkzaam in uw huidige functie?

7. Hoeveel maanden kent u uw leidinggevende in zijn/haar functie?

8. Hoeveel uur per week heeft u gemiddeld contact met uw leidinggevende (face to face of via overige communicatievormen)?

9. Welke vorm van communicatie heeft u meestal met uw leidinggevende?

Vult u alstublieft de juiste volgorde in bij onderstaande communicatievormen met 1 als meest

gebruikte communicatievorm met uw leidinggevende en 5 als minst gebruikte communicatievorm.

- _____ Face to face
 _____ Email
 _____ Telefoon
 _____ Sms (of via berichtgeving als Whatsapp)
 _____ Skype

Follower narcissism (Raskin & Hall, 1979, 1981):

See 'Leader narcissism' (same questionnaire used for both leader and follower)

Leader narcissism Perceptions of LMX Quality (Scandura & Graen, 1984):

De volgende stellingen gaan over de relatie met uw leidinggevende. Heeft u meerdere leidinggevers, kiest u dan de leidinggevende met wie u het meest contact heeft. In hoeverre bent u het met de stellingen eens?

	Helemaal oneens 1	Oneens 2	Neutraal 3	Eens 4	Helemaal eens 5
1. Mijn leidinggevende zal zich persoonlijk inzetten om eventuele problemen in mijn werk te verhelpen	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
2. Ik kan erop rekenen dat mijn leidinggevende voor me op zal komen als ik dat nodig heb, zelfs als dat ten koste zou gaan van zichzelf	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
3. Mijn leidinggevende kent mijn problemen en behoeften op het werk	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
4. Mijn leidinggevende heeft vertrouwen in mijn capaciteiten binnen de organisatie	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
5. Mijn leidinggevende heeft zoveel vertrouwen in mij, dat hij/zij mijn beslissingen zou verdedigen als ik afwezig ben	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
6. Ik ben doorgaans op de hoogte van hoe tevreden mijn leidinggevende met mij is	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
7. De werkrelatie die ik heb met mijn leidinggevende is te beschrijven als 'effectief'	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Follower perceptions of Similarity (Turban & Jones, 1988; Liden, Wayne & Stilwell, 1993):

Mijn leidinggevende en ik...

	Helemaal oneens 1	Oneens 2	Enigszins oneens 3	Neutraal 4	Enigszins eens 5	Eens 6	Helemaal eens 7
8. ...lijken op elkaar qua perspectief, opvattingen, en waarden.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
9. ...zien de dingen op vrijwel dezelfde manier	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
10. ...lijken op elkaar in meerdere gebieden	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
11. ...gaan op dezelfde manier met problemen om	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
12. ...denken vaak aan dezelfde oplossing voor een probleem	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
13. ...analyseren problemen op dezelfde manier	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Follower sense of power (Anderson, John & Keltner, 2012):

In hoeverre bent u het met de stellingen eens? In mijn relatie met mijn leidinggevende...

	Helemaal oneens 1	Oneens 2	Enigszins oneens 3	Neutraal 4	Enigszins eens 5	Eens 6	Helemaal eens 7
14. ... kan ik ervoor zorgen dat hij/zij luistert naar wat ik zeg	<input type="radio"/>						
15. ... doen mijn wensen er nauwelijks toe	<input type="radio"/>						
16. ... kan ik ervoor zorgen dat hij/zij doet wat ik wil	<input type="radio"/>						
17. ... heeft mijn visie weinig gewicht, zelfs als ik deze duidelijk uit	<input type="radio"/>						
18. ... heb ik veel zeggenschap	<input type="radio"/>						
19. ... worden mijn ideeën en meningen vaak genegeerd	<input type="radio"/>						
20. ... krijg ik mijn zin niet voor elkaar, zelfs als ik dit probeer	<input type="radio"/>						
21. ... maak ik de beslissingen als ik dat wil	<input type="radio"/>						

Follower perceptions of leader effectiveness (De Hoogh, Den Hartog & Koopman, 2005):

Hieronder vindt u 3 vragen over het functioneren van uw leidinggevende. Geef alstublieft per vraag aan welke antwoord het meest van toepassing is.

	Ze er slecht 1	Slecht 2	Redelijk 3	Goed 4	Ze er goed 5
22. In hoeverre voldoet uw leidinggevende op het werk in het algemeen?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
23. In hoeverre beschikt uw leidinggevende in de praktijk over leidinggevende kwaliteiten?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
24. In hoeverre beoordeelt u uw leidinggevende als een effectieve leidinggevende?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Follower perceptions of leadership potential:

In hoeverre bent u het eens met de volgende uitspraken?

	Helemaal oneens 1	Oneens 2	Enigszins oneens 3	Neutraal 4	Enigszins eens 5	Eens 6	Helemaal eens 7
1. Ik zou goed functioneren in een leidinggevende functie	<input type="radio"/>						
2. De meeste taken van mijn leidinggevende zou ik ook kunnen doen	<input type="radio"/>						
3. Als mijn leidinggevende een dag afwezig is zou ik indien nodig makkelijk voor hem/haar kunnen invallen	<input type="radio"/>						
4. Het werk van mijn leidinggevende doen zou momenteel buiten mijn comfort zone vallen	<input type="radio"/>						

20. Uitgedrukt in 0-10 jaar, na hoeveel tijd denkt u dat u klaar bent voor een leidinggevende functie?

Aantal jaren aangeven op slider (afgerond op 1 decimaal): 0 _____ 10

Job Satisfaction (De Jonge & Schaufeli, 1998):

De volgende uitspraken hebben betrekking op uw werk en hoe u zich daarbij voelt. Geef alstublieft per uitspraak aan hoe vaak deze op u van toepassing is. In hoeverre bent u het eens met de volgende uitspraak?

	Helemaal oneens 1	Oncens 2	Neutraal 3	Eens 4	Helemaal eens 5
Ik ben tevreden met mijn huidige baan	<input type="radio"/>				

Job-related Anxiety and Depression (Warr, 1990):

Als u denkt aan de laatste zes maanden op uw werk, hoe vaak voelde u zich dan:

	Helemaal nooit 1	Heel af en toe 2	Soms 3	Vrij regelmatig 4	Heel vaak 5	Altijd 6
1. Gespannen	<input type="radio"/>					
2. Opgewekt	<input type="radio"/>					
3. Bezorgd	<input type="radio"/>					
4. Kalm	<input type="radio"/>					
5. Sombor	<input type="radio"/>					
6. Ontspannen	<input type="radio"/>					
7. Enthousiast	<input type="radio"/>					
8. Tevreden	<input type="radio"/>					
9. Droevig	<input type="radio"/>					
10. Onrustig	<input type="radio"/>					
11. Optimistisch	<input type="radio"/>					
12. Gedeprimeerd	<input type="radio"/>					

Emotional Exhaustion (UBOS; Schaufeli & Van Dierendonck, 2001):

Wilt u aangeven hoe vaak iedere uitspraak op u van toepassing is?

	Helemaal nooit 1	Heel af en toe 2	Soms 3	Vrij regelmatig 4	Heel vaak of altijd 5
1. Ik voel me mentaal uitgeput door mijn werk	<input type="radio"/>				
2. Een hele dag werken vormt een zware belasting voor mij	<input type="radio"/>				
3. Ik voel me 'opgebrand' door mijn werk	<input type="radio"/>				
4. Aan het einde van een werkdag voel ik mij leeg	<input type="radio"/>				
5. Ik voel mij vermoeid als ik 's morgens op sta en er weer een werkdag voor mij ligt	<input type="radio"/>				

Follower Turnover Intentions (Jaros, 1997):*In hoeverre bent u het eens met de volgende uitspraken?*

	Helemaal oneens 1	Oneens 2	Enigszins oneens 3	Neutraal 4	Enigszins eens 5	Eens 6	Helemaal eens 7
1. Komend jaar ga ik waarschijnlijk een andere baan zoeken	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
2. Ik denk er vaak over om te stoppen met mijn baan	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
3. Ik wil stoppen met deze baan en een andere baan zoeken	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Follower perceptions of Leader Narcissism (NPI-16; Ames, Rose & Anderson, 2006):*De volgende stellingen hebben betrekking op uw leidinggevende. Geef alsublieft aan welke bewering u het best vindt passen. Mijn leidinggevende...*

	A	B
1. A...weet dat hij/zij goed is, omdat iedereen hem dat vertelt: B...wordt soms verlegen als hij/zij een compliment krijgt	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
2. A...staat graag in het middelpunt van de belangstelling: B...houdt ervan op te gaan in de menigte	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
3. A...denkt dat hij/zij speciaal is: B...denkt dat hij/zij niet beter of slechter dan anderen is	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
4. A...houdt ervan om zeggenschap over anderen te hebben: B...zou het niet erg vinden om door anderen geleid te worden	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
5. A...zet andere mensen gemakkelijk naar de hand: B...zou het niet goed vinden andere mensen naar de hand te zetten	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
6. A...staat erop het respect te krijgen dat hij/zij verdient: B...krijgt van nature het respect dat hij/zij verdient	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
7. A...is geneigd op te scheppen als hij/zij de kans krijgt: B...probeert niet op te scheppen	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
8. A...weet altijd precies wat hij/zij doet: B...geeft soms toe niet zeker te zijn van wat hij/zij doet	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
9. A...denkt dat iedereen graag zijn verhalen hoort: B...vertelt soms goede verhalen	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
10. A...verwacht veel van anderen: B...vindt het leuk dingen voor anderen te doen	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
11. A...vindt het fijn om in de belangstelling te staan: B...wordt ongemakkelijk als hij/zij het middelpunt van belangstelling is	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
12. A...wordt altijd erkend in zijn/haar gezag: B...vindt zijn/haar leidinggevende positie niet zo belangrijk	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
13. A...is ervan overtuigd een succesvol persoon worden: B...hoopt een succesvol persoon te worden	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
14. A...kan iedereen laten geloven wat hij/zij wil: B...laat mensen soms geloven wat hij/zij wil	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
15. A...denkt dat hij/zij tot meer in staat is dan de meeste mensen: B...denkt dat hij/zij veel van anderen kan leren	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
16. A...beschouwt zichzelf als een buitengewoon iemand: B...denkt dat hij/zij net zo is als andere mensen	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>