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Tiivistelmä <p>Väitöskirjassa tutkitaan esimiesten persoonallisuuden, työsuoriutumisen ja työuupumuksen välisiä yhteyksiä. Persoonallisuutta mitataan standardoidulla itsearviointimenetelmällä, (Work Personality Inventory, WOPI) ja tutkittavan omaan toimintaan sitoutuneella menetelmällä (Rorschach Comprehensive System, RCS). Tutkimukseen osallistui 96 esimiestä ja 203 alaista.</p> <p>Ensimmäisessä artikkelissa tutkittiin esimiehen ja alaisen persoonallisuuden yhteensopivuuden yhteyttä työuupumukseen ja esimiehen työsuoriutumiseen. Mitä erilaisemmat esimiehen ja alaisen persoonallisuudet olivat, sitä tyytyväisempiä alaiset olivat esimiehen työsuoriutumiseen.</p> <p>Toisessa artikkelissa tutkittiin todellisen persoonallisuuden ja toivotun persoonallisuuden välisen yhteensopivuuden välistä yhteyttä työuupumukseen ja työsuoriutumiseen. Tulokset tukivat yhteensopivuusteoriaa ja vahvistivat näkemyksen siitä, että mitä lähempänä esimiehen persoonallisuus on toivotunlaista persoonallisuutta, sitä vähemmän esimies koki työuupumusta ja sitä parempaa oli työsuoriutuminen.</p> <p>Kolmas artikkeli toi esiin mahdollisuuden, että RCS ennustaa esimiehen suoriutumista paremmin kuin itsearviointien pohjalta tehty ennustus. Useat RCS-muuttujat moderoivat esimiehen työn vaatimusten ja persoonallisuuden yhteensopivuuden ja esimiehen työsuoriutumisen välistä yhteyttä.</p> <p>Neljännessä artikkelissa tutkittiin, moderoiko työkokemusvuodet ja itsetunto narsistisuuden ja työsuoriutumisen välistä suhdetta. Tutkimuksen tulokset osoittivat, että narsistisen esimiehen työsuoriutumista oli arvioitu myönteisesti ainoastaan, koska esimies oli ollut tehtävässä vähän aikaa.</p> <p>Kokonaisuudessa tutkimuksen tulokset osoittavat, että yhteensopivuusteoria on tärkeä työsuoriutumisen ja työuupumuksen taustateoria.</p>		
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Abstract <p>This doctoral dissertation investigates the relationship between a leader's personality, work performance and burnout. Personality was measured by a standardized self-report questionnaire, the Work Personality Inventory (WOPI) and a performance-based assessment method, the Rorschach Comprehensive System (RCS). The research involved 96 leaders and 203 subordinates.</p> <p>The purpose of the first article was to determine if leader-subordinate congruence influences leaders' and subordinates' experience of burnout and the subordinate's satisfaction with the leader's work performance. Surprisingly, the greater the difference between the leaders' and subordinate's personalities, the more satisfied the subordinate was with the leader's performance.</p> <p>The second article sought to find if there is a significant association between the actual personality and the preferred personality that the job requires to the leader's performance and burnout symptoms. The results supported the PJ fit theory that the more similar the leader's personality is to the preferred profile that the job requires, the less the leader experiences burnout feelings and the better the leader's work performance.</p> <p>The third article proposes that the Rorschach Comprehensive System (RCS) will predict the leader's performance more accurately than when performance is predicted only with self-reported methods. Many of the RCS variables did moderate the relationship between the job-person (JP) fit and the leader's performance.</p> <p>The fourth article investigated the associations between the narcissistic leader and performance and the moderating effect of a leader's tenure and self-esteem. The moderating effect of a leader's tenure on the relationship between narcissism and leader performance was confirmed. The narcissistic leader's performance tends to be positively evaluated only because the leader has held the position for a very short period.</p> <p>Overall, the results of this study support the view that the fit theory is an important background theory when assessing leaders' performance and burnout.</p>		
Keywords Leadership, personality, performance, burnout, fit		

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Seinäjäki, March 2016

Hanna Peltokangas

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Abbreviations

WOPI	Work Personality Inventory
RCS	Rorschach Comprehensive System
PP fit	Person - person fit
PJ fit	Person - job fit

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1 INTRODUCTION

The effects that leaders have on organizational success have been widely recognized and researchers have studied them closely over the past hundred years. However, the research field is still missing a definition of what good leadership is or what it requires (Higgs & Rowland, 2000; Higgs, 2003). Moreover, it is still unclear why some leaders perform well while others fail.

However, some studies have found that the primary reason for leadership failure is personality (Bentz, 1985; Van Velsor & Leslie, 1995; Dotlich & Cairo, 2003). Personality has attracted attention in the leadership studies literature but existing studies have mainly concentrated on single traits, such as, conscientiousness. A single trait might predict performance in some areas but not others, and so this dissertation studies personality in relation to job and organization. The basic assumption in the theory of fit, and the main idea in this dissertation, is that people differ in their needs, abilities, and skills and so a person's job or organization must fit these individual characteristics (Van Vianen, 2005).

This dissertation takes a psychological perspective on leadership because leaders may behave irrationally, have personality problems or neuroses, and many unnoticed forces may affect their behavior. If we want to explain a leader's behavior rather than just describe it, his or her underlying mental activity, anxieties, personality, and defenses should be evaluated. For that purpose, this dissertation examines various assessment methods. It discusses leader-subordinate relationships, the fit between personality and job, leadership personality, and narcissism.

1.1 Research questions and objectives of the study

Leaders play a particularly important role in organizations, one that can be positive or negative. Despite a century of research, the psychological perspective on leadership is still an area that merits more investigation. The purpose of this thesis is to answer the question:

How does a leader's personality relate to performance, burnout, and fit theories?

The main aims of this study are to examine 1) the suitability of the fit theory of the personality assessment process; 2) fit theory's connections with burnout and performance; 3) a comparison of the self-assessment methods and the Rorschach Comprehensive System method; and 4) the association between leadership personality and performance.

In addition to fit theories, this dissertation examines the relationship between the leadership personality and work performance. Moreover, a leader's wellbeing also affects performance and the whole work community and so is studied here too.

The purpose of this dissertation is not just to describe the personality, but to provide methods that can be used when there is a need to understand and explain leaders' behaviors. This study examines not just the personality traits but also the motivational variables and underlying mental activity that have an effect on leaders' behavior.

1.1.1 The Conceptual Framework

Personality was measured by a standardized self-report questionnaire, the Work Personality Inventory (WOPI), and a performance-based assessment method, the Rorschach Comprehensive System (RCS). Fifty-two leaders from a global manufacturing organization, 44 leaders from a multitechnological applied research organization, and 203 subordinates within the two organizations participated in this research.

The first paper provided new information on the relatively new person-person fit (PP fit) theory. This research attempted to discover if leader-subordinate fit is associated with burnout among leaders and subordinates, and also subordinate satisfaction with a leader's performance.

The purpose of the second paper was to discover the relationship between person-job fit (PJ fit) and leader burnout. It suggested that there is a relationship between PJ fit and the subordinate satisfaction with a leader's job performance.

The third paper proposed that the Rorschach Comprehensive System (RCS) would predict a leader's performance more accurately than self-reported methods. More specifically, it examined whether the RCS variables had a moderating effect on the relationship between JP fit and a leader's performance.

The fourth paper investigated the relationship between a leader's narcissism and performance. More specifically, it examined whether tenure and self-esteem had a moderating effect on the relationship between the narcissism and leader performance.

The conceptual framework of the present study with the main constructs and the examined associations (in Studies I–IV) is illustrated in Figure 1.

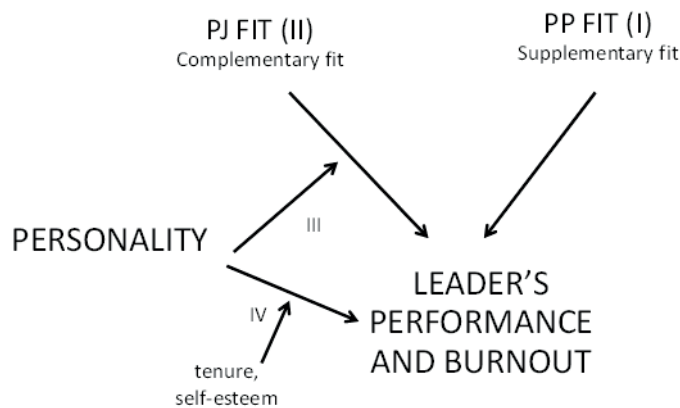


Figure 1. The conceptual framework of the study (studies I-IV)

1.2 Theory of fit

Models of fit or congruence have acquired a significant position in the field of industrial and organizational psychology and human resources management (Saks & Ashforth, 1997; Schneider, 2001). The theory of fit is often used in the employee selection context (Sekiguchi, 2004).

Originally, researchers did not differentiate between the various types of fit, but during the past 20 years, studies have increasingly focused on different forms of fit or congruence (Kristof-Brown, Zimmerman & Johnson, 2005). The literature has traditionally focused on person-environment fit (PE fit), which is defined as the match between a person and an environment (Kristof, 1996). There are three dimensions that help researchers to conceptualize PE fit and the sub-dimensions of PE fit. They are, complementary versus supplementary fit (complementary fit

subsumes need-supplies versus demands-abilities) and perceived versus actual fit (Kristof, 1996).

Firstly, according to Muchinsky and Monohan (1987) the sub-dimensions of fit are complementary fit and supplementary fit. The difference between those is how the environment is defined. Complementary fit occurs when an individual's characteristics match the demands of the environment (Muchinsky & Monohan, 1987). Supplementary fit occurs when the individual's characteristics are similar to other individuals in the environment (Muchinsky & Monohan, 1987).

Secondly, when conceptualized, the complementary fit literature has differentiated between needs-supplies and demands-abilities (Kristof, 1996). When the environment satisfies the individuals' needs, the needs-supplies fit occurs (Kristof, 1996). When the individual has the resources that meet the environment's demands, a demands-abilities fit is present (Kristof, 1996).

Thirdly, PE fit is divided into perceived (subjective) versus actual (objective) fit. Perceived fit means that the fit is defined by a direct assessment of compatibility (French, Rodgers & Cobb, 1974; Kristof, 1996). According to Kristof (1996), actual fit means that the fit is defined by an indirect assessment of compatibility. Over the years, the terms perceived or subjective fit and the terms actual or objective fit have often been used interchangeably (e.g., Cable & DeRue, 2002; Judge & Cable, 1997; Kristof, 1996). However, Kristof-Brown et al. (2005) distinguished these concepts. The term perceived fit should be used when the "individual makes a direct assessment of the compatibility between P and E." Subjective fit means that "fit is assessed indirectly through the comparison of P and E variables reported by the same person." The term objective fit should be used when "fit is calculated indirectly through the comparison of P and E variables as reported by different sources." (Kristof-Brown et al. 2005, pp. 291).

During the past two decades, researchers have found other sub-dimensions of PE fit (Kristof-Brown et al., 2005). The person-organization (PO) fit and person-job (PJ) fit are considered to be the most influential views in the employee selection literature (Sekiguchi, 2004). PO fit is defined as the match between a person and an organization (Kristof, 1996). PJ fit refers to the congruence between the abilities of a person and the demands of a job (Edwards, 1991; Kristof, 1996).

According to PJ fit theory, people differ in their needs, abilities, and skills and therefore the job needs to fit with these individual characteristics instead of organizations creating jobs individually that are ideal for that person (Van Vianen, 2005). PJ fit is mostly conceptualized in terms of complementary fit because the environment is described according to the job, not the individual.

Because this dissertation examines PJ fit based on job analysis, which consists of the job demands and the required resources that the individual needs to have in order to meet those demands, the perspective taken is the demands-abilities fit.

In 2000, Van Vianen suggested that there is another sub-dimension to PO fit, which has been termed the person–person (PP) fit. According to Van Vianen (2000), PP fit is the “match between characteristics of people” (p. 117) (e.g., coworkers, subordinates, and supervisors). Van Vianen (2000) states that the difference between PO and PP fit is that PO fit relates to culture whereas PP fit relates to the shared endorsement of culture. Supplementary fit occurs when an individual’s characteristics are similar to those of other individuals in the environment (Muchinsky & Monohan, 1987). A newcomer fits in an environment because there are employees who have similar characteristics to those of the newcomer. Therefore, supplementary fit is appropriate to PP fit theory (Muchinsky & Monohan, 1987; Schneider, Goldstein & Smith, 1995).

This dissertation examined the question of whether there is a fit or misfit between personality, job and organization. When considering earlier studies it has to be remembered that most have been nonquantitative, have not differentiated between various types of fit, have used strategies for measuring fit that varied widely, and have not focused on the personality level (Kristof-Brown, et al., 2005). Past studies have stressed the value-based PO fit because of the stability of the characteristics of individuals and organizations (Boxx, Odom & Dunn, 1991; Judge & Bretz, 1992; Posner, 1992; Vancouver, Millsap & Peters, 1994; Vancouver & Schmitt, 1991; Bretz, Ash & Dreher, 1989; Cable & Judge, 1994; Turban & Keon, 1993; Bowen, Ledford & Nathan, 1991). However, according to Ryan and Kristof-Brown (2003), the personality-based PO fit perhaps has an even stronger influence on an individual’s attitudes and behaviors. They suggest that personality is actually even more stable, more able to predict human behavior, and more visible to others than are values. Therefore, this study utilizes the personality perspective and focus to examine the association between fit and personality.

1.3 Leaders’ psychological qualities

Leaders are human beings with differing motives, attitudes, wishes, and anxieties. They have unconscious and sometimes contradictory motives that affect their behavior. In many cases, researchers have studied only the conscious mind and its very obvious perspectives since it is easier to understand. However, studies shows that two-thirds of leaders fail in their work (Hogan, 2007) and the

primary reason for failure is issues with personality functions (Bentz, 1985; Van Velsor & Leslie, 1995; Dotlich & Cairo, 2003). For example, according to Dotlich and Cairo (2003), CEOs fail because they behave in an illogical, idiosyncratic, or irrational way. One explanation for this kind of behavior is the stress that many top-level executives experience. Assessing a leader's personality is a complex process, particularly if the assessment seeks to explain behavior rather than simply describe it. Therefore, there is an evident need for studies of assessment processes and their associated methods.

1.3.1 Personality

Personality is a concept lacking a single, generally accepted definition. According to Allport's traditional view (1937, p.48) personality is "the dynamic organization within the individual of those psychophysical systems that determine his unique adjustments to his environment." One of the more well-known contemporary models is McAdams' view (McAdams, 1996; 2009) that form implies that personality information can be acquired on three levels: 1) dispositional traits; 2) characteristic adaptations (e.g., motives, goals, and values); and 3) integrative life stories.

The trait approach, especially the Big Five, has dominated personality research. The trait perspective and the Big Five methods have been criticized for being vulnerable to impression management (e.g., NEO Five Factor Inventory; Costa & McCrae, 1992); for measuring traits that are very easy to observe even in a stranger; and on the grounds that personality traits explain only a small part of human personality (McAdams, 1995). It has also been argued (by, e.g., Roberts & Wood, 2006) that personality traits can change at any age. The trait perspective, and especially the Big Five personality traits, typically have been said to represent level 1 in McAdams' classification (McAdams, 1995).

The concept of personality and its stability depends on what level of personality is depicted. It also can be assessed in a different level. Some assessment methods and processes seek to describe personality alone whereas others seek to explain both personality and behavior.

This dissertation examines personality mostly in the second level in the McAdams (1996, 2009) classification because the Work Personality Inventory (WOPI) approaches the construct of personality from a multifactorial angle (Nedeström & Niitamo, 2010). The WOPI was created by Petteri Niitamo, PhD and psychologist, in the early twenty-first century. Niitamo (2010) created WOPI specifically for work settings. The starting point for the inventory was five

competency areas that were supposed to cover all kinds of work and organizations (Niitamo, 2010). These competence areas are independent performance, leadership, cooperation, planning & problem solving, and viewing. Next, Niitamo (2010) defined the distinct regulators, that is, personality factors. Motives were the obvious driver for the goal-oriented competencies (independent performance, leadership, and cooperation). The main sources of motivation for the WOPI are Murray's taxonomy of human needs and the McClelland's subsequent motivation theory (Niitamo, 2010). In the job context, motivation refers to what the person wants to do and how he or she wants to do it. Thinking is defined as an individual's way of information processing (Niitamo, 2010). Dewey's conception of thinking has been important source for the planning & problem solving competencies. Attitudes are an individual's disposition toward things (Niitamo, 2010) and the attitudes are the driver for the viewing competencies. The final version of WOPI combines motivation (seven scales), thinking (four scales) and attitudes (three scales). The scales are achievement motivation (focused and competitive achievement); leadership motivation (leadership and inspiration); interaction motivation (sociability, empathy, and reliance); thinking (orientation, perception, thinking, and decision making); and attitudes (ambiguity-change, optimism, and self-reflection). The inventory comprises 224 items, with each of the 14 scales being measured by 14 items (Niitamo, 2010). Participants responded to the items on a dichotomous (true-false) scale (Niitamo, 2010).

The Rorschach Comprehensive System (RCS) is a performance-based assessment method that provides more individualized and complex information concerning thinking, emotional management, self-image, and interpersonal tendencies (Exner, 1993; 2003). The personality studied by WOPI concern more the visible side of personality (McAdams, 1995), whereas the RCS gives information concerning the internal structures and mechanisms that regulate, transform, or control impulses, emotions, and motives. Therefore, the RCS may provide explanations of why leaders sometimes behave irrationally or explain, for example, how leaders are able to maintain control under stress. The variables used in this study are explained on Table 1.

Table 1. RCS Variables, (Exner, 2000, 2003)

STRESS TOLERANCE	
D	The individual's tendency to become disorganized when facing stressful situations and the individual's tendency to act impulsively in stressful situations.
AdjD	The ability to maintain control under stress.
INTERPERSONAL PERCEPTION	
CDI	The individual's vulnerability to chronic interpersonal difficulties. High scores usually reflect a chaotic interpersonal history and a lack of sensitivity to the needs of others. CDI includes 11 variables and can yield scores of 0–5.
Fd	Food (Fd) responses typically indicate a dependency orientation. The value is expected to be zero. A value higher than zero suggests the behavior of the person reflects a higher level of dependency than is usual. People with one or more Fd responses tend to be naïve in their expectations concerning available support and interpersonal relations.
PHR	Poor human representation (PHR) responses usually indicate an interpersonal history dominated by difficulties and failures. People with many PHR responses are usually rejected by others.
GHR	Good human representation (GHR) responses indicate an interpersonal history that has been dominated by adaptive behavior.
COP	Cooperative movement (COP) responses indicate that the individual's interpersonal exchanges are positive. COP responses indicate an interest in cooperating with others.
INFORMATION PROCESSING	
Zf	Zf is the frequency of the numbers of responses to which the Z score has been assigned. Zf provides an estimation of the processing effort. Zf has a positive correlation with intelligence and a need for achievement (Exner, Viglione & Gillespie, 1984).
Zd	The Zd score provides an estimation of the efficiency of the scanning activity during processing operations. It may also provide information on the motivation to process effectively. The value of Zd is expected to be between +3.0 and -3.0. If the Zd value is under -3.0, the person neglects some critical cues in the stimulus field. This may lead to less effective behavior. If the Zd score is over +3.0, the person puts more effort into scanning activities than is necessary. This is usually a trait-like style because the person wants to avoid making mistakes. However, this style may indicate a person finds it difficult to make decisions.
COGNITIVE MEDIATION	
XA%	XA% gives direct information on data mediation. More specifically, the

	XA% indicates how likely the mediation activities are to yield behaviors that are appropriate to the situation. The lower the value, the more the subject is likely to struggle with mediation activities.
X-%	X-% indicates the frequency of the uncommon responses in the blot contours. A significant amount of negative answers usually indicates problems with cognitive functions, which may indicate psychological or neurological problems. X-% is expected to be less than 0.15. If X-% is over 0.25 there may be some mediational dysfunctions and inappropriate behavior is to be expected.
SELF-PERCEPTION	
Fr+rF	Reflections (Fr + rF) typically indicate narcissism-like personality features. Typically, people with this kind of personality tend to value themselves very highly. This does not automatically mean that there are pathological features in the personality, but it is possible. If Fr+rF is greater than zero, self-involvement tends to dominate perceptions. This feature typically has a strong influence on decision making and behavior.
EGOI	The Egocentricity Index reflects self-concern and self-esteem.
FD	FD responses indicate introspective behavior.
THE COMPLETE DESCRIPTION	
DEPI	The DEPI (depression) index includes 14 variables, scored from zero to seven.

Rorschach is one of the most widely used and scientifically researched performance-based assessment methods (Rorschach, 1921). The Rorschach and the Comprehensive System (RCS) (Exner, 1993; 2003) for administration and coding has been infrequently used, even though some researchers (see Viglione & Hilsenroth, 2001) argue that one would need some 50 other methods to replace the RCS. One reason for this may be that the reliability and validity of the Rorschach test was at one time seriously questioned. However, the situation has changed since John Exner developed the RCS and the subsequent publication of hundreds of studies (Meyer, 1997; 2000; 2001; 2002; Meyer, Finn, Eyde, Kubiszyn & Moreland, 1998; Erdberg & Shaffer, 1999; Viglione, 1999; Viglione & Hilsenroth, 2001; Weiner, 2001; Exner, 2003). If the Rorschach test is administered, coded, and interpreted according to Exner (1993; 2000; 2003) there will be equivalent reliability, and validity ratings for self-report measures have been established (Ganellen, 1996; 2001; Society for Personality Assessment, 2005). Secondly, some researchers still see that the RCS is a projective test and criticize it accordingly. It should be noted that the American Psychological Association stresses that the RCS is not an associative method but a performance-based personality test that focuses on perceptual, cognitive, and

decision-making tasks (Meyer et al., 1998). Thirdly, some argue that the RCS is a method created to arrive at a clinical diagnosis and should not be used for other purposes (Kottke et al., 2010). However, according to Weiner (1997) the RCS is a method that a researcher can use to gather information concerning personality states, traits, and motivations. These objectives are not dissimilar from other personality tests, such as the Sixteen Personality Factor Questionnaire (Cattell, Cattell & Cattell, 1993) and the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (Myers and McCalley, 1985), and in essence only the methodology differs. The use of the RCS has received some attention and generated discussion in the personnel selection context (Del Giudice, 2010a; 2010b), Kottke et al., 2010). Zacker (1997) suggests that the RCS may be a useful tool in pre-employment screening, while Ganellen (1994; 1996) suggests that it may improve the quality of pre-employment screening, especially when used in conjunction with self-reported measures. Prior research suggests the RCS is especially helpful when trying to predict how an individual will perform in unpredictable, unstructured, and unfamiliar situations (Dies, 1995; Finn, 1996). Several studies concerning clinical settings have supported the view that the RCS has the ability to predict future behavior (Exner, 1993; 2003; Hiller, Rosenthal, Bornstein, Berry & Brunell-Neuleib, 1999; Viglione, 1999; Smith et al., 2001). This may mean that, as part of a battery of tests, it may improve the effectiveness of personality screening procedures.

There are many studies that do confirm that personality predicts job performance (Barrick & Mount, 1991; Barrick, Mount & Judge, 2001; Hough, 1992; Hurtz & Donovan, 2000; Mount & Barric, 1995; Salgado 1997, 1998, 2002, 2003; Tett, Rothstein & Jackson, 1991). For example, Barrick, Mount and Judge (2001) conducted a second-order meta-analysis of 11 meta-analyses and studied the relationship between personality and performance. According to their findings, FFM traits predicted job performance with validity coefficient was up to 0.3. Hautala (2006) studied the issue using the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI) and found that subordinates stated that sensing personalities (concrete, fact-oriented), as measured with the MBTI, were more effective in using transformational leadership than intuitives (abstract, future-oriented persons). Leaders themselves thought that extraverted, intuitive, and perceiving preferences were more transformational than introverted, sensing, and judging leaders (Hautala 2006). However, these studies did not use the fit theory on the background theory, but focused on a single trait and most used Big Five tests.

One of the few studies on the personality fit perspective is that of Kristof-Brown, Barrick and Stevens (2005). This study suggested that people with high levels of extraversion feel more attraction to a team than do members who are introverted, and that the opposite also applies. However, the research measured

only the extravert versus introvert dimension, and the results suggested that actually the difference, rather than the similarity, was attractive to the team members. Another study that supports the personality level view is that of Kristof-Brown (2000), who studied what kinds of characteristics the assessors spontaneously associated with PJ and PO fit. 62 characteristics were placed into categories of knowledge, skills, and abilities (KSAs); values; personality traits; or other attributes. Most characteristics (n=30) referred to personality and only five referred to values. However, in both of these studies personality was measured through interviews and, therefore, these results cannot be compared directly to this study.

1.3.2 Narcissism

This dissertation focuses on the concept of narcissism. The connection between a leader's narcissism and performance has been a popular research topic. This may be because some researchers have studied leaders and noticed that many have been ascribed narcissistic characteristics (Deluga, 1997; Glad, 2002; Maccoby, 2000).

Havelock Ellis established the term narcissism in 1898 to describe the condition of perverse self-love. Later, Freud (1931, 1950) proposed that a narcissistic personality type is characterized by outwardly unflappable strength and confidence. Many more recent definitions of narcissism have followed, depicting narcissism as a personality disorder. For example, the definition of narcissism in the DSM IV (American Psychiatric Association, 1994, 2000) defines narcissism as including characteristics such as grandiosity, an exaggerated sense of self-importance, exploitation of others, lack of empathy, a sense of entitlement, self-centeredness, and feelings of superiority and vanity. Even though many researchers have followed these guidelines in their definitions, the definition of narcissism varies. Some researchers see narcissism as just an extreme form of self-confidence (Post, 1993, Baumeister, Campbell, Krueger, & Vohs, 2003; Campbell, 2001) and that all people are more or less narcissistic (Maccoby, 2000).

In this study, the definition of narcissism is based on Exner's work. The presence of reflection answers (Fr or rF) in the RCS data signifies a tendency to overvalue personal worth, which is considered a narcissistic feature that affects perceptions of and transactions with other people (Exner, 2003). According to Exner (2003), if a person achieves success or recognition, it reduces the likelihood that self-centeredness will lead to pathology or maladjustment. A failure to maintain high self-value very often leads to frustration and negativism. In such situations, the

person uses defense mechanisms such as rationalization, externalization, and denial—an approach that can lead to pathology and maladaptive behavior.

The traditional perspective on narcissism has been negative, reflecting the view that narcissism is a negative personal characteristic (Hogan, Raskin & Fazzini, 1990), one which may lead to unethical behavior (Maccoby, 2000; Rosenthal & Pittinsky, 2006; Hogan et al., 1990; Glad, 2002) because there is an association between the psychological needs of a narcissistic leader and his/her actions (Kets de Vries & Miller, 1997). Earlier studies also support the view that narcissistic leader will perform badly (Blair et al., 2008; Judge, La Pine & Rich, 2006; Hogan, Curphy & Hogan, 1994). Nevertheless, there is evidence that narcissism can be positively associated with performance (e.g. Deluga, 1997; Paunonen, Lönnqvist, Verkasalo, Leikas & Nissinen, 2006; Maccoby, 2000, 2004; Raskin, 1980). Chatterjee and Hambrick (2007) evaluated the narcissism of 111 CEOs over a 12-year period and found no difference in the performance of firms led by narcissistic leaders and those led by less self-aggrandizing leaders. However, they noticed that in the early years of a CEO's tenure the results in many companies were significantly positive with regard to company outcomes and that CEO narcissism was associated with large annual fluctuations in accounting returns. Therefore, it appears narcissism might lead either to good performance, if the leader has been in his/her position for a short period and has been able to make a good impression, or to poor performance, if he/she has been in place for a long time and the good first impression has evaporated.

1.4 Leadership

Stogdill (1974) defined the attributes of good leaders, leader's behaviors, and contingent theories. Firstly, according to Stogdill (1979), good leaders have certain characteristics or traits that make the difference between a leader and a subordinate. However, after hundreds of studies the conclusion has been that leaders are not fundamentally different from subordinates. Secondly, Michigan University and Ohio State University started to study leadership in the organizational context. According to the Ohio State University studies, the consideration and initiating structure are the main factors that produce good leadership behavior, whereas the Michigan University studies stressed the employee orientation and production orientation. Thirdly, the contingent theories proposed that the leadership variables are contingent on each other. Fiedler's contingency model (1967) is one of the most well-known models. The basic assumption in the model is that task-oriented leaders are at their best in a highly unfavorable or highly favorable situation, whereas relations-oriented

leaders are at their best in moderately favorable situations. Socio-independent leaders are in between task-oriented and relationship-oriented leaders, and are at their best in very favorable situations.

Even though Stogdill's (1974) theory has some relevance to this study, this study aims to combine the theory of leadership and theory of psychology. According to Bryman, Collinson, Grint, Jackson and Uhl-Bien (2011), the psychology discipline has contributed the most to leadership studies. Perhaps the job performance concept has received attention in leadership studies because of this connection; job performance is said to be the most important variable in the Industrial, Work and Organizational psychology area (Schmidt & Hunter, 1992). Since this dissertation examines the psychological perspective on leadership, job performance is involved. Moreover, the theory of fit suggests that if a person has a good fit with a job or organization, that person will not just produce positive performance but also experience less stress (Schneider, 1987). Therefore, the concept of burnout is involved in this study. Additionally, mental wellbeing is an important part of a leader's performance.

1.4.1 Leader performance

The concept of performance lacks an exact definition generally agreed on the research field. However, McCloy, Campbell, and Cudeck (1994) and Viswesvaran and Ones (2000) state that job performance means how resourcefully an individual takes action and contributes to the direction that the organization is heading. Performance can be measured by financial measures, e.g., profitability. These can be measured from the point of view of the government, the self, or subordinates. Here, the leaders' performance is defined by subordinates' views.

The Work Personality Inventory (WOPI) views competencies as consisting of training (knowledge), work experience (skill), giftedness (abilities), and personality factors (Niitamo, 2010). The basic assumption is that individuals turn their training, work experience, and giftedness into good performance when the person has the motivation and desire to perform. Naturally, the person cannot perform well without the right training, experience, and abilities, but the right motivation and attitude are also required.

The basic assumption in the theory of fit is that when a person feels that she/he fits, for example, a job or organization, there are psychological reactions to fit. These psychological reactions may be, for example, attitude or behavior (Schneider, 1987). Researchers have been interested in the association between fit and performance during the history of fit theory, but the results have been

contradictory, particularly concerning the leader–subordinate fit. Some studies show a positive correlation (Schein, 1985; Tsui & O’Reilly, 1989; Wexley et al., 1980; Hatfield & Huseman, 1982) while others show a negative correlation between leader–subordinate fit and job performance (Meglino, Ravlin & Adkins, 1989). PJ fit researchers have been more consistent and most studies support the view that PJ fit is associated with good performance. For example, Caldwell and O’Reilly (1990) found that managers’ performance was higher when their skills and abilities fit the profile required for the job. Edwards (1991) found in a review of the PJ fit literature that a high level of PJ fit has a positive association with performance. However, none of these studies focused on personality.

1.4.2 Leader burnout

The concept of burnout is under ongoing discussion among researchers (Rössler, Hengartner, Ajdacic-Gross, & Angst, 2013; Thalhammer & Paulitsch, 2014), but according to the traditional definition burnout has three dimensions: emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and a lack of accomplishment at work (Maslach & Jackson, 1986). Emotional exhaustion represents the basic stress component of the concept and refers the feeling of a lack of emotional resources. Depersonalization means that a person has a negative or cynical attitude to other people at work, and represents the interpersonal component of burnout. Lack of personal accomplishment at work refers to the feeling that the person’s competence and productivity is reduced and the sense of efficacy is lowered. The dimension of lack of personal accomplishment represents the self-evaluation component of burnout (Maslach, 1998).

This three-factor model has received empirical support during the past 30 years and because the other conceptualizations lack empirical support, this dissertation focuses on the traditional definition (Worley, Vassar, Wheeler & Barnes, 2008). In the early stages of burnout research, the studies mostly supported the view that burnout symptoms are associated with workplace factors. However, the role of individual differences has received more support recently since researchers have realized that people react to the same working environments differently (Alarcon, Eschleman, & Bowling, 2009; Gündel & Dammann, 2012; Schaufeli & Buunk, 2002; Swider & Zimmermann, 2010). Despite this, the role of personality has received very little attention in the burnout research field (Alarcon et al., 2009; Maslach, Schaufeli & Leiter, 2001; Swider & Zimmerman, 2010) and the associations between the theory of fit and burnout, even less.

Fit theory researchers have been mainly interested in the positive side of wellbeing at work, and burnout has received less attention. However, the theory

itself supports the view that burnout may have relevance to fit theory. According to Schneider (1987), people have psychological reactions to fit (i.e., attitudes or behaviors). The theory of ASA (Attraction – Selection – Attrition) has led scholars to assume that those who experience a fit may experience less stress and produce more positive work outcomes than those who experience a misfit. Bell (1990) also noted that incongruence is “psychological distress.” Furthermore, Meglino and Ravlin (1998) have suggested that experiencing fit could cause people to experience less stress. Researchers have been particularly interested in the correlation between PJ fit and job satisfaction, and many studies confirm this positive association (Kristof-Brown et al., 2005; Cable & Judge, 1996; O’Reilly, Chatman & Caldwell, 1991, Hall, Schneider & Nygren, 1970, Hollenbeck, 1989, Edwards, 1996, Lauver & Kristof-Brown, 2001; O’Reilly, 1977).

1.5 Research Methodology

1.5.1 Research strategy

This study represents normal science since it is based on prior research and knowledge (Barnes, 1991). The ontological assumption is realism, meaning that an objective reality exists. The research philosophy and epistemology is the positivism approach because this study focuses on objectivity, formulates hypotheses, and analyzes the data using quantitative methods (Ashkanasy, Broadfoot & Falkus, 2000; Xenikou & Furnham 1996; Saunders, Lewis & Thornhill, 2000). This study is empirical as personality, performance, and burnout were assessed using questionnaires. The methodological base is the nomothetic approach since the data is analyzed using quantitative methods and the purpose is to study general tendencies (Burrell & Morgan, 1979).

1.5.2 Sample

The data was collected from two companies in Finland in 2010 and 2011. One company was a global manufacturing organization (n=52 managers, n=203 subordinates) and the other was a multitechnological applied research organization (n=44 managers). The researcher was embedded in these organizations for a total of 10 months collecting data.

All but two lower and middle level leaders from the global manufacturing organization participated in this research. The participation percentage in the multitechnological applied research organization was 89%.

For each leader, between three and six subordinates were selected to evaluate the leader's performance using the WOPI 360 tool. The subordinates' names were arranged in alphabetical order and then every sixth employee was selected to report on the leader. In the global manufacturing organization, the subordinates (n=203) also made the WOPI test. Five nominated subordinates had either retired or were on long-term sick leave and were therefore replaced by the employees next on the list.

A total of 96 leaders participated in this research, so there were 96 person-job dyads. Among the whole group of managers, 80% were male and 20% female, and their mean age was 46.

1.5.3 Analysis

In all four papers, Pearson correlation analysis and hierarchical regression analyses via the SPSS program were the primary methods of analysis. The major goal in this study was to study the moderating effects (studies III, IV). The hierarchical regression analysis was the best method of analysis for this research purpose.

The issue with research based on fit theory has been that the majority of studies have been nonquantitative, have not differentiated among various types of fit, or have focused on single types of fit (Kristof-Brown et al., 2005). There are also several different ways to measure fit. In recent research, especially that investigating perceived fit, fit has often been measured simply by asking people to what extent they believe a fit exists. This kind of direct measurement has been criticized for confusing the independent effects of the person and the environment with their effects, and secondly because the data are based on human perceptions (Edwards, 1991; Caplan, 1987). Indirect fit has typically been measured by combining different measures into a single index (Edwards, 1994). However, the absolute value of difference scores and squared difference scores is only one option available to assess fit. This study focuses on objective fit because the sources of P and E variables have been established in a range of research and because the fit has been calculated indirectly (Kristof-Brown et al., 2005).

The congruence variables were initially derived by summing the single dimensions separately for leaders and subordinates (for example, focusing), and then the absolute difference between the score of the leaders and subordinates was calculated. After that step, the final sum dimensions were calculated by summing these single sum dimensions (for example, congruence of focusing + congruence of competition = congruence of achievement motives).

1.5.4 Reliability and Validity

1.5.4.1 WOPI

WOPI approaches the construct of personality from a multifactorial angle (Nederström and Niitamo, 2010) . WOPI is based on the psychology of motivation (7 scales), thinking (4 scales), and attitudes (3 scales). Participants responded to the items on a dichotomous (True–False) scale (Niitamo, 2010). The inventory comprises 224 items with each of 14 scales measured by 14 items (Niitamo, 2010). These 14 dimensions are arranged along the five general competencies at work (Niitamo, 2010). According to Nederström et al. (2010), the internal consistency median is $r = .77$ and retest reliability coefficient median is $r = .85$.

1.5.4.2 Rorschach Comprehensive System (RCS)

One of the most widely used and scientifically researched performance-based assessment methods is the Rorschach inkblot test (Rorschach, 1921). The Rorschach test can provide individualized and complex information concerning ways of thinking, emotional management, self-image, and interpersonal tendencies (Exner, 1993; 2003). There are ten inkblots in the test and five of them are black while another five contain at least some colored ink. The person being tested is asked to respond to the question “What might this be?” for each card (Exner, 1993; 2003). If the Rorschach test is administered, coded, and interpreted according to Exner (1993; 2000; 2003), equivalent reliability and validity ratings to self-report measures have been established (Ganellen, 1996; 2001; Society for Personality Assessment, 2005).

This dissertation involved 51 Rorschach protocols, all relating to managerial positions. According to Exner (1995), some 20% to 25% of all the protocols should be randomly selected by an independent professional. In this study, 20 randomly selected protocols were recoded by the clinician and researcher Tuula Ilonen. The intraclass correlations are presented in Table 2.

Table 2. Internal reliability: intraclass correlation coefficients

Variable	Intraclass coefficients (n = 20)	p
Dd	1	< .001
S	.98	< .001
DQo	.99	< .001
DQv	.95	< .001
Dets	.98	< .001
Non F	.97	< .001
FQo	.92	< .001
FQ-	.96	<.001
(2)	.99	<.001
Cont	.99	<.001
P	.95	<.001
Zf	.98	<.001
Sum6	.76	<.001
Sum6 & NoSum6	1	<.001
Other SpSc	.88	<.001
Other SpSc+OtherSpSc	.98	<.001
SpSc	.80	<.001
SpSc & NoSpSc	.98	< .001

1.5.4.3 Performance

There are many ways to measure performance. In this study, the leader's performance was measured with the WOPI360 tool (Niitamo, 2010) since also the performance concept in this study relies mainly to the perspective of Niitamo. The 360-degree feedback system is a common way to measure performance (Church & Bracken, 1997). WOPI360 is a multi-rater tool for the appraisal of competence resources and deficits (Niitamo, 2010). Concerning the competences, WOPI360 measures independent action, leadership, cooperation, and planning and problem solving (Nedeström & Niitamo, 2010). These competencies are divided into ten sub-scales: independent action is divided into focused and efficient action; leadership is divided into the directing, motivating, and resourcing of people and organizations; cooperation is divided into communicating, advising, and listening; and good planning and problem solving is divided into operative, practical, creative, and visionary planning. The leaders' behaviors were appraised using 45 standard questions answered on a 7-point Likert scale anchored with not at all descriptive (=0) and very descriptive (= 6).

In this study only one rater group (the manager's direct subordinates) was used, and ranged from three to six for each manager. The Cronbach's alpha value for the WOPI 360 tool in this study was 0.99.

1.5.4.4 Burnout

Burnout was measured using the Maslach Burnout Inventory–General Scales (MBI-GS) (Maslach, Jackson & Leiter, 1996). The current research used the Finnish version validated by Kalimo, Hakanen, and Toppinen-Tanner (2006). The MBI-GS consists of 16 items that are grouped and scored on a 7-point frequency rating scale anchored with never (= 0) and every day (= 6). Burnout, for instance, was evaluated by the item, “I feel emotionally drained from my work.”

1.6 Main results and conclusion

Figure 2 shows the main results and the correlations between the main variables of this dissertation.

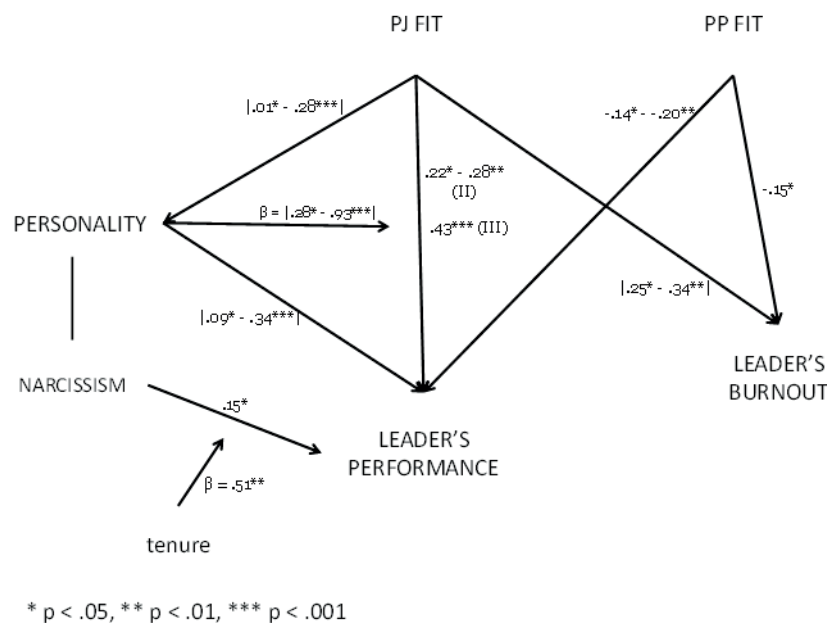


Figure 2. Main results (studies I-IV)

The result in this study did generally support the theory of fit. However, in contrast to what was assumed based on the earlier studies (Schneider, 1987; Van Vianen, 2000; Tsui & O'Reilly, 1989; Christiansen, Villanova, & Mikulay, 1997; Wexley et al, 1980; Hatfield & Huseman, 1982; Bell, 1990; Meglino & Ravlin, 1998; Meglino et al, 1989) there should be misfit instead of fit between the leaders' and subordinates' personalities. The more different the leader's and subordinate's personalities, the better the leader's performance was assessed to be. These results offer some support to the view that the demands of a leadership position are different from those of a subordinate position, and therefore it is natural that the personalities of a leader and subordinate are also different.

Therefore, in study II the leader's personality was compared with the demands of the leader's job. The results supported the PJ fit theory that the more similar a leader's personality is to the preferred profile, the less the leader experiences burnout feelings and the better the leader's work performance is (Caldwell & O'Reilly, 1990; Edward, 1991; Barrick & Mount, 1991; Barrick, et al., 2001; Hough, 1992; Hurtz & Donovan, 2000; Mount & Barrick, 1995; Salgado 1997, 1998, 2002, 2003; Tett, et al., 1991; Kristof, 1996; Kristof-Brown et al., 2005; Cable & Judge, 1996; O'Reilly et al., 1991; Hall, et al., 1970; Hollenbeck, 1989; Edwards, 1996; Lauver & Kristof-Brown, 2001; O'Reilly, 1977). Although a cause and effect relationship cannot be verified in the cross sectional study, based on the PJ fit theory and the earlier knowledge of the stability of personality, it can be assumed that if a leader's personality fits with the preferred profile there will be positive effects on the leader's work performance.

The results in the study I and study II also appear to offer some weak support to the suggestion that the bases for effective performance and burnout could be different. No dimension in either of these studies had a meaningful association to both burnout and leader performance. In study I, leadership motivation was the only motivation that had no significant correlation with leader performance, and the achievement, interaction, and thinking motivations had no significant correlation with leader burnout. In study II, performance was associated with the congruence of leadership, inspiration, perception, and ambiguity, whereas burnout was associated with the congruence of orientation, thinking, sociability, decision making, and optimism. One possible explanation for these results could be that the studies focused on job satisfaction from the negative point of view. It does not necessarily mean that people do not experience job satisfaction if they are not suffering from burnout, and vice versa.

In study II it was also noted that the thinking processes might have a meaningful role in job satisfaction. Burnout feelings and PJ fit had an unexpectedly positive

association with the congruence of orientation and thinking (Edward, 1991; Kristof-Brown et al., 2005; Cable and Judge, 1996; O'Reilly et al., 1991; Hall, et al., 1970; Hollenbeck, 1989; Edwards, 1996; Lauver & Kristof-Brown, 2001; O'Reilly, 1977). This means that the more the orientation and thinking motivations fit with expectations, the more the leader will suffer from burnout feelings. In study II, when the leaders made the preferred personality profiles from their subordinates, many felt that leaders have to see things widely and have the ability to see things at a more abstract level. Therefore, one possible explanation for this unexpected result could be that, from the job satisfaction point of view, it is preferable that the thinking process focus more on concrete issues.

The PP fit and JP fit theory were confirmed using the self-assessment method, WOPI. However, this dissertation investigated personality using the performance-based assessment tool, RCS, and compared the results with the self-assessment method. In general, the RCS method confirmed that leader performance had strong correlations with personality, as expected (Exner, 1993; Ganellen, 1994; 1996; Dies, 1995; Finn, 1996; Zacker, 1997; Hiller et al., 1999; Viglione, 1999; Del Giudice, 2010a; 2010b).

Leader performance was positively associated with stress tolerance variables. The better a leader's stress tolerance, the better the performance. It also seems that if the leader has an adaptive interpersonal history that has been positive, the performance is likely to be strong. It is interesting to note that only the positive variables among the interpersonal perception variables were associated with performance, whereas the variables that suggest some form of problem with interpersonal perceptions showed no correlation. The Zd variable correlated with performance and, therefore, the efficiency of the scanning activity during the processing operation is associated with leader performance. The result is as expected since the Zd variable has an effect on decision making (Exner, 2003). In contrast, the Zf variable did not correlate with leader performance, which was unexpected since the variable provides an estimation of processing effort and is associated with intelligence and a need for achievement Exner, et al., 1984). Cognitive mediation variables (XA% and X-%) had a connection with leader performance. The better the leader was able to yield to mediation activity behaviors appropriate to a situation, and the fewer uncommon responses in the blot contours, the better the performance. The depression index was also associated with performance. As expected, the less prone a leader was to feelings of depression, the better the performance (Güntert & Nascimento, 2000, Lyons, 2002, O'Roark, 2002). The narcissism-like feature of personality (Fr+rF) was the only variable from the self-perception variables to be correlated with

performance. Unexpectedly, the correlation was positive rather than negative. This means that the more narcissism-like features the leader possessed, the better the performance.

The moderating effect of self-perception variables on the relationship between JP fit and leader performance was confirmed through several variables. This means that even though there is a good fit between the ideal personality and the actual personality, the performance can still be poor if, for example, the leader lacks stress tolerance, has low self-esteem, or is suffering from feelings of depression. On the other hand, even when there is no fit, the performance may still be good if the leader has strong interpersonal skills or high self-esteem. These results show that the RCS is able to measure the underlying mental activity, possible personality problems, and many other out-of-awareness forces that have an effect on leader behavior. Moreover, the RCS is one of the rare methods that could show the stress tolerance level, which according to Dotlich and Cairo (2003) is one possible explanation for why leaders behave in illogical, idiosyncratic, or irrational ways.

It also has to be noted that because the RCS is an indirect way to measure personality, it is an especially important factor concerning the narcissism concept. Recently, narcissism has mainly been measured by using the Narcissistic Personality Inventory, or NPI (Ames, Rose & Anderson, 2006; Chen, Ferris, Kwan, Yan, Zhou & Hong, 2013; Nevicka, Hoogh, Van Vianen, Beersma & McIlwain, 2011). The NPI, however, does have its weaknesses, at least when it comes to those personality characteristics that involve patterns of overt behavior. It is also important to recall that most individuals are only moderately capable of self-assessing even the most stable personality traits because of self-enhancement, social desirability, and a lack of self-knowledge (Morgeson, Campion, Dipboye, Hollenbeck, Murphy, & Schmitt, 2007; John & Robins, 1993). This might be particularly important when evaluating narcissism, since there is evidence that narcissism is associated with overstating desirable behavior (Gosling, John, Craik, & Robins, 1998).

It was found in study III that the narcissism-like feature of personality ($Fr+rF$) had a positive correlation with performance, which means that the more narcissism present, the better the performance. Because of this unexpected result, the topic was investigated more deeply in study IV. The results in study IV suggested that narcissism was associated with work experience and self-esteem, as expected (Maccoby, 2000, Exner, 2003, Campbell, Goodie, & Foster, 2004, Robins & Beer, 2001, Emmons, 1984, Paulhus, 1998, Chen, Ferris, Kwan, Yan, Zhou & Hong, 2013, Rosenthal & Pittinsky, 2006, Chatterjee & Hambrick, 2007).

It seems that the more reflection answers a leader recorded, the higher the recorded level of self-esteem. Moreover, the more reflection answers the leaders recorded, the less time they had served in their current position. When only those leaders who recorded reflection answers and high self-esteem were studied, the results were similar to the narcissism variable but the associations were stronger. The more the leader exhibited signs of narcissism and the higher the self-esteem, the less experience the leader had in the current position and the better the performance.

Also, the moderating effect of a leader's tenure on the relationship between narcissism and leader performance was confirmed. This means that narcissistic leaders' performances might be good only because they had been in their positions for very short periods and had made good first impressions. On the other hand, a narcissistic leader might exhibit weak performance if he or she has been in position for a long time.

It should also be noted that although self-esteem did not moderate the relationship between narcissism and leader performance, it had very strong correlations, especially when only those leaders with reflection answers and high self-esteem were selected. Therefore, self-esteem may play an important role in explaining the differences between healthy narcissism and pathological narcissism.

1.6.1 Limitations

When generalizing these results, there are some limitations that should be noted. The study is cross sectional, making it impossible to draw any conclusions on the direction of causality. The two organizations that did participate in this study were very different (global manufacturing vs. multitechnological applied research). Therefore, it is possible that narcissism might have more beneficial or harmful effects in different environments, industries, countries, or cultures. There is a need for further studies taking these issues into consideration. While the sample size, 96 managers and 203 subordinates, is at a level that offers statistically significant results, it should also be noted that there might be some internal correlations since there were only 51 Rorschach protocols but 203 performance evaluations in studies III and IV. Moreover, it should also be noted that some variables were based on self-assessment. The weakness of self-assessment could lie in a socially desirable answering style or an unwillingness to answer some questions. On the other hand, the survey response rate was extremely encouraging, with only two leaders and five subordinates unable to

participate from the global manufacturing organization, and participation percentage in the multitechnological applied research organization was 89%.

1.6.2 Implications and Future Studies

The results of this study highlight some important theoretical implications. First, the results show that the theory of fit is an interesting and important background theory for the assessment process when trying to explain leader performance and burnout. The WOPI-based self-assessment fit did show good associations to both job performance and burnout. The results supported the theory that there should be a fit between a leader's personality and job demands. In contrast, the results show that there should be a misfit and not fit between the leader's and subordinate's personalities. The concept of misfit is an interesting approach and should be studied more carefully in the future. Secondly, this study provides input on leadership studies from the psychological perspective. Personality was not evaluated on the trait level alone but also on the levels of out-of-awareness forces and underlying mental activity that have an effect on leader behavior. In particular, the narcissism study had an interesting perspective, since it suggests that tenure and first impressions may explain a narcissistic leader's good performance. Moreover, the results seem to support the view that narcissism is a personality dimension, but not necessarily a pathological one. Personality and narcissism are very complex concepts that are very easily misunderstood and over simplified.

The results of this study offer also some practical implications. First, since PJ fit was confirmed, it should be taken into consideration in the early stage of recruitment for a proper job analysis. Moreover, the job analysis should take into consideration personality and not just KSAs. Secondly, there seem to be alternative methods to the Big Five and MBTI, which have dominated the personality research. Both the WOPI and the RCS seem to be strong alternatives. However, both methods need more empirical research in the assessment context and a study that connects them with the fit theory more thoroughly.

It is important to remember the recommendation about using multi-method tools, so no method should be used alone but as part of the method toolkit. The results of this study show the importance of multi-method tools in practice, since there were no correlations with the thinking process variables or the narcissism-like personality trait between the WOPI and RCS. Each method measures some aspect of personality that the others do not.

Perhaps the most important practical aspect is the suggestion that in the field of personality assessment, the RCS and self-report inventories complement each other and provide far more information when used together than is accessible when either test is used alone (Ganellen, 1996).

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The Leader–Subordinate Fit and Its Relationship to Performance and Burnout

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Abstract

The purpose of this article is to determine if leader-subordinate congruence influences leaders' and subordinates' experience of burnout and the subordinate's satisfaction with the leader's work performance. Surprisingly, the results supported neither attraction selection attrition nor person–person fit theory. However, according to the results, the greater the difference between the leader's and subordinate's personalities, the more satisfied the subordinate was with the leader's performance. The results indicate that this matter should be considered in the course of recruitment to ensure organizations do not become too homogenous. The results also appear to offer some weak support to the suggestion that the grounds for effective performance and job satisfaction could differ because the leader–subordinate fit did not correlate significantly to either the leader's or the subordinate's experience of burnout.

Keywords: person-person fit, leader, personality, performance, burnout

1. Introduction

Each year millions of people participate in a personal assessment process. The purpose of personal assessments is to provide information to help us to predict future performance and to evaluate a person's resources. These evaluations emphasize personality because a considerable body of research indicates that personal characteristics predict performance far better than for example professional, technical, or formal qualifications (Hunter & Hunter, 1984). However, in recent years research has mainly focused on individual test methods and their ability to predict performance rather than studying the background theories of recruitment.

Models of fit or congruence have acquired a significant position in the field of industrial and organizational psychology and human resources management (Saks & Ashforth, 1997; Schneider, 2001). The theory of fit is used particularly in the employee selection context (Sekiguchi, 2004). This study is particularly interested in the question of whether it is better that the personality traits of leaders and subordinates match or differ, and the effects of such a fit or misfit. The purpose of this research is to determine if the congruence of leader and subordinate have an effect on burnout among the leaders and the subordinates in an organization, and on the subordinate's satisfaction with the leader's performance. The theoretical framework is the person–environment (PE) fit model and this study focuses on those sub-dimensions of PE fit that could give us more information on the leader's recruitment choices. The aim is to find data that could be used in the decision-making process when building effective organizations.

1.1. The Theory of Fit

The background of fit theory can be found in Schneider's (1987) attraction–selection–attrition (ASA) framework. The framework suggests individuals seek out the situations they are attracted to. Then individuals choose to be part of this situation and remain if they are a good fit with the situation, or leave if they are not (Schneider, 1987). Because of this attraction, selection, and attrition process, a certain homogeneity in terms of personal characteristics (e.g., values and personality) will occur over the years in groups or organizations (Schneider, Goldstein, & Smith, 1995).

Although, Schneider's ASA theory has received support in empirical research (e.g., Schneider, Smith, Taylor, and Fleener, 1998), it has also been criticized.

According to ASA theory “the people make the place” (Schneider, 1987) whereas for example the group effects (Blau 1960; Merton & Kitt, 1950) and organization culture theories (Levinthal & March 1993; Schein, 1992) suggest that the group or an organization is more than the aggregate of attributes of its members. Therefore the ASA framework may be overly simplistic. However, there is some evidence that eventually organizations become very homogeneous because people have similar personal characteristics (Schneider et al., 1995; Schneider et al., 1998). For example Schneider, Smith, Taylor, and Fleenor (1998) report in their study that managers were more similar within organizations than across organizations or industries.

This kind of homogeneity in organizations may have both positive and negative consequences (Jackson, 1992; Richard, 2000; Staples & Zhao, 2006). According to one of the latest studies (Schneider, Kristof, Goldstein, & Smith, 1998), homogeneity has positive consequences, including higher levels of satisfaction, improved communication and cooperation, and fewer interpersonal conflicts. It has also been argued that in very homogeneous organizations, the decision making is very predictable and that it is difficult to adapt to the demands of the environment (Walsh & Holland, 1992).

Originally researchers did not differentiate between the various types of fit, but during the past 20 years, studies have increasingly focused on different forms of fit or congruence (Kristof-Brown, Zimmerman, & Johnson, 2005). The research has traditionally focused on PE fit, which is defined as the match between a person and the environment (Kristof, 1996). During these past two decades, researchers have found other sub-dimensions of PE fit. However the person–organization (PO) fit and person–job (PJ) fit, are considered to be the most influential views in employee selection studies (Sekiguchi, 2004). The concept of PO fit is defined as the match between a person and the organization (Kristof, 1996). PJ fit refers to the congruence between the abilities of a person and the demands of their job (Edwards, 1991).

The employee selection process has traditionally focused on achieving PJ fit (Sekiguchi, 2004). However there are many researchers (for example Behling, 1998; Borman & Motiwildo, 1993; Kristof, 1996; Montgomery, 1996) who feel that other types of fit, especially the PO fit, is becoming more important. Research suggests therefore that organizations should hire people who share their values and visions (Bowen, Ledford, & Nathan, 1991). Although PJ fit plays an important role in recruitment, the current research suggests that the PO fit should also be considered in employee selection practices.

In 2000, Van Vianen suggested that there is a new sub-dimension to PO fit, which has been termed the person–person (PP) fit. According to Van Vianen (2000) PP fit is the “match between characteristics of people” (p. 117)(i.e., coworkers, subordinates, and supervisors). Van Vianen (2000) states the difference between PO and PP fit to be that PO fit relates to culture whereas PP fit relates to the shared endorsement of culture. In this study the PP fit represents the fit between the leader’s personality and the personality of the subordinate that works for that leader.

In the early years of fit research, it was not always clear which form of fit was being studied. Muchinsky and Monohan (1987) seem to have been the first scholars to realize that there are different forms of fit. Their study (1987) notes the sub-dimensions of fit as either complementary fit or supplementary fit. The difference between complementary and supplementary fit may be found in how the environment is defined. Complementary fit occurs when an individual’s characteristics match the demands of their environment (Muchinsky and Monohan, 1987). Supplementary fit occurs when an individual’s characteristics are similar to other individuals in the environment (Muchinsky and Monohan, 1987). People joining an environment fit into it because they are joining coworkers who have similar characteristics to their own. Therefore, that view of supplementary fit is also grounded in PP fit theory (Muchinsky and Monohan, 1987; Schneider et al., 1995) and that is also why this study focuses on supplementary fit.

1.2 Earlier Studies

In the past, studies stressed the value-based PO fit because of the stability of the characteristics of individuals and organizations. Those earlier studies examined the congruence between individual and organizational values (Boxx, Odom, & Dunn, 1991; Judge & Bretz, 1992; Posner, 1992); goal congruence with organizational leaders (Vancouver, Millsap & Peters, 1994; Vancouver & Schmitt, 1991); congruence between individual preferences and organizational systems and structures (Bretz, Ash & Dreher, 1989; Cable & Judge, 1994; Turban & Keon, 1993); and the match between individual personality characteristics and organizational climate (Bowen, et al., 1991) for example.

According to Ryan and Kristof-Brown (2003), the personality-based PO fit perhaps has an even stronger influence on an individual's attitudes and behaviors. That research suggests that personality is actually even more stable, more able to predict human behavior, and more visible to others than values are. Therefore this study focuses on the personality perspective.

1.2.1 Leader–Subordinate Fit and Job Satisfaction

Based on the theory of ASA, Schneider (1987) implies in her research that people have psychological reactions to fit (i.e., an attitude or behavior). The theory has led scholars to assume that those who experience a fit with their working environment may experience less stress and produce more positive work outcomes than those who experience a misfit. Bell (1990) also noted that incongruence is “psychological distress.” Furthermore, Meglino and Ravlin (1998) have suggested that experiencing fit, could cause people to experience less stress.

There are a few studies that support this theory. For example, Meglino, Ravlin, and Adkins (1989) have studied supervisor's and subordinate's value congruence and found that value congruence between a superior and subordinate predicts the subordinate's job satisfaction and commitment.

1.2.2 Leader–Subordinate Fit and Work Performance

According to Schein (1985), leader–subordinate congruence has a positive correlation with the performance of the subordinate. There are a few other studies that have also found this kind of relationship (Tsui & O'Reilly, 1989; Wexley et al., 1980). Hatfield and Huseman (1982) have reported that the congruence between a leader's and their subordinate's communication style was related to satisfaction with supervision, among other things. However, there are also contrasting results. For example, Meglino et al. (1989) have found a negative correlation between leader–subordinate congruence and the subordinate's performance.

1.2.3 Studies of Personality

There are only a few studies that have focused either on PP fit (cf. Van Vianen, 2000; Christiansen, Villanova & Mikulay, 1997) and/or personality (Sekiguchi, 2004).

Van Vianen (2000) is naturally one of those who have been studying the PP fit, and she has found it to be related to organizational commitment and level of intention to quit. Furthermore, Christiansen et al. (1997) studied PP fit from the perspective of political compatibility. They suggest that the person's preferences for political influence processes were related to satisfaction with their coworkers, among other things. Despite these studies focusing on the PP fit perspective, they did not take into account the personality factor.

One of the few studies on the personality perspective is that of Kristof-Brown, Barrick and Stevens (2005). The study suggested that people with high levels of extraversion feel more attraction to a team than other members who are introverted and that the opposite also applies. However, the research measured only the extravert versus introvert dimension, and the results suggested that actually the difference rather than the similarity was attractive to the team members.

2. Research Problems

This research seeks to discover the relationship between leader–subordinate fit and burnout among both leaders and subordinates. The study also hypothesizes a relationship between leader–subordinate congruence and the subordinate's satisfaction with the leader's job performance. The investigation will supply information that will help to assess whether a fit or misfit between a leader's and their subordinate's personalities at work would be most productive. There are only a few studies that have focused on PP fit and measured personality, so this study will provide a wealth of new information about this field. Because there are so few studies addressing this area, and because the results to date have been conflicting, the current research will feature tests conducted on a two-tailed basis. The research problems addressed in this study are:

- Q1: Is leader–subordinate fit associated with leaders' performance scores?

Based on ASA theory, the PP fit theory and earlier studies, it is assumed in this study that the leader–subordinate fit is positively associated with the leaders performance scores (Schneider, 1987; Van Vianen, 2000; Tsui & O'Reilly, 1989; Christiansen, Villanova, & Mikulay, 1997; Wexley et al, 1980; Hatfield & Huseman, 1982).

- Q2: Is leader–subordinate fit associated with burnout in leaders?
- Q3: Is leader–subordinate fit associated with burnout in subordinates?

Based on ASA theory, the PP fit theory and earlier studies, it is assumed in this study that the leader–subordinate fit is associated with burnout affecting both leaders and subordinates (Schneider, 1987; Bell, 1990; Meglino & Ravlin, 1998; Meglino et al., 1989).

3. Methods

The issue with research based on fit theory has been that the majority of studies have been non-quantitative, have not differentiated between various types of fit, or have focused on single types of fit (Kristof-Brown et al., 2005). There are also several different ways to measure fit. In recent research, especially that investigating perceived fit, fit has often been measured simply by asking people to what extent they believe a fit exists. This kind of direct way to measure fit has been criticized for confusing the independent effects of the person and the environment with their effect, and secondly because the data are based on human perceptions (Edwards, 1991; Caplan, 1987). Indirect fit has typically been measured by combining different measures into a single index (Edwards, 1994). However, the absolute value of difference scores and squared difference scores is only one option available to assess fit. This study focuses on objective fit because the source of P and E variables has been established in a range of research and because the fit has been calculated indirectly (Kristof-Brown et al., 2005)

3.1. Participants

Data were collected from a global manufacturing organization in Finland during 2010–2011. The researcher was embedded in the organization for a total of 10 months collecting data. All but two lower and middle level leaders participated in this research. The subordinates' names were arranged in alphabetical order and then every sixth employee was selected to report on their leader. For each leader, between three and six subordinates evaluated that leader's performance with the work personality inventory 360 tool (WOPI360). Five chosen subordinates were unavailable because they were on long-term sick leave, so the next employees on the list replaced them. 52 leaders participated in this research and there were 203 leader–subordinate dyads.

Because of the firm's manufacturing background, 95 % of the participants were male and only 5 % female. The age curve was, however, evenly distributed. The mean age was 41 years, with 51 % being 40 years old or younger and 49% being older than 40.

3.2 Methods and Study Variables

First, internal consistencies were computed for the scales. Cronbach's alpha values were over the 0.7 point usually considered to be an acceptable value. In the case of leader job burnout, the alpha was 0.86, and for subordinates' job burnout it was 0.88, and for the WOPI360 tool it was 0.99. In contrast, all the sum dimensions concerning the congruence, recorded alpha coefficient values of less than 0.7. The internal consistencies were 0.45 for congruence of achievement motives; 0.61 for congruence of *leadership* motives; 0.40 for congruence of *interaction motives*; and 0.23 for congruence of *thinking*. The congruence variables were initially derived by summing the single dimensions separately for leaders and subordinates (for example focusing), and then the absolute difference between the score of the leaders and subordinates was calculated. Therefore the result was the leadership–subordinate congruence concerning a single dimension (in the example above, focusing). After that step, the final sum dimensions were calculated by summing these single sum dimensions (for example congruence of focusing + congruence of competition = congruence of achievement motives). In spite of the low alpha values they can be considered acceptable because it is acceptable for values of newly developed scales to be under 0.7 (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994).

Personality and fit. Personality was measured by a standardized self-report questionnaire WOPI360 (Niitamo, 2010; Nederström and Niitamo, 2010). WOPI360 is based on the psychology of motivation (7 scales), thinking (4 scales) and attitudes (3 scales). Participants responded to the items on a dichotomous (True–False) scale (Niitamo, 2010). The inventory comprises 224 items with each of 14 scales measured by 14 items (Niitamo, 2010). These 14 dimensions are arranged along the five general competencies at work (Niitamo, 2010).

The concept of personality traits occupies a dominant position in the research literature and especially the “Big Five” framework. However the theory of the Big Five has also attracted some criticism. For example, McAdams (1995) argues that the Big Five explains only a small part of human personality and the traits are very easy to observe even in a stranger. Therefore it is important to understand that the motives and ways of thinking that the WOPI360 measures are more like regulators of behavioral consistencies.

In this study, the items are examined at the level of dimension sums rather than the level of single dimensions. These dimension sums are *achievement motives*, *leadership motives*, *interaction motives*, *thinking motives*, and *attitudes*. The first four dimensions were studied and calculated using the data from primary single dimensions. The fifth dimension sum—*attitudes*— consists of three separate attitudes and therefore does not create any sum dimension. The absolute difference between the subordinate's and leader's personality factors was calculated for these four dimension sums.

Burnout. Burnout was measured with the Maslach Burnout Inventory – General Scales (MBI-GS) (Maslach et al, 1996). The current research used the Finnish version that has been validated by Kalimo, Hakanen, and Toppinen-Tanner (2006). The MBI-GS consists of 16 items that are grouped. Items were scored on a 7-point frequency rating scale anchored with *never* (= 0) and *every day* (= 6). Burnout for instance was evaluated by the item, "I feel emotionally drained from my work."

Leader's Performance. Leader's performance was measured with the WOPI360 tool (Niitamo, 2010). WOPI360 is a multi-rater tool for the appraisal of competence resources and deficits (Niitamo, 2010). The leader's behavior was appraised with 45 standard questions. Questions were answered on a 7-point Likert scale anchored with *not at all descriptive* (=0) and *very descriptive* (= 6). In this study only one rater group was used, the manager's direct subordinates, the number of which ranged from three to six for each manager.

3.3 Analysis

The data were analyzed using the SPSS 18.0 for Windows program. The associations between the leader-subordinate fit and leader's burnout, subordinate's burnout, and subordinate's satisfaction with the leader's performance were examined via the Pearson correlation.

4. Results

Table 1 presents the correlations found among the variables. As expected the leader-subordinate fit was associated with the leader's performance scores (Q1). However the correlation was not positive as expected but was in fact negative. The congruence of achievement ($r = -0.18, p < .05$), and thinking ($r = -0.14, p < .05$) were associated with the leader's performance. The bigger the difference between the subordinate's and the leader's congruence, the better the leader's performance was assessed to be. The highest correlation to the leader's performance was the interaction congruence ($r = -0.20, p < .01$). The greater the difference between the subordinate's and leader's motivations for interaction, the better the leader's performance was assessed to be. The congruence of leadership motivation had no significant correlation with the leader's performance.

In addition to leader-subordinate fit, the leader's ($r = -0.36, p < .01$) and subordinate's ($r = -0.28, p < .01$) burnout feelings associated with the leader's performance. The less the leader and subordinate experienced the feeling of burnout, the better the leader's performance was assessed to be.

The leader-subordinate fit was not significantly associated with either burnout among leaders (Q2) or among subordinates (Q3). The only significant correlation was between the leader-subordinate fit in leadership motivation and the leader's job satisfaction ($r = -0.15, p < .05$). The more similar the leader's and subordinate's leadership motivation was, the less likely the leader was to report experiencing burnout.

Table 1 here: Correlations between the leader-subordinate fit, burnout, and the leader's performance.

5. Discussion

The purpose of this research was to provide new information on the relatively new PP fit theory, and more specifically to discover if leader-subordinate fit is associated with burnout among leaders and subordinates, and also the subordinate's satisfaction with the leader's performance. ASA theory and the findings of earlier studies suggested that the study would find a similarity between leader's and subordinate's personalities to be associated with feelings of burnout among both leaders and subordinates, and would affect how the performance of the leaders was assessed.

The result did not generally support the ASA or PP fit theory that the more similar the supervisor is to the subordinate, the less they experience burnout, and the more the subordinate will be satisfied with the leader's work performance (Schneider, 1987; Van Vianen, 2000; Tsui & O'Reilly, 1989; Christiansen, Villanova, & Mikulay, 1997; Wexley et al, 1980; Hatfield & Huseman, 1982; Bell, 1990; Meglino & Ravlin, 1998; Meglino et al, 1989).

Instead, the results suggest that the more different the leader's and subordinate's personalities, the better the leader's performance is assessed to be. More specifically, congruence between a leader's and a subordinate's achievement motivation, interaction motivation, and thinking motivation was associated with positive leader performance. Based on these results it is likely that, at least in manufacturing organizations, having leaders and subordinates with personalities that are too similar may have a negative impact.

These results offer some support to the view that the demands of a leader position are different from those of a subordinate position, and therefore it is natural that the personalities of the leader and subordinate are also different. Earlier studies have largely focused on issues other than personality, for example, values (Boxx, Odom & Dunn, 1991; Judge & Bretz, 1992; Posner, 1992), organizational systems and structures (Bretz, Ash & Dreher, 1989; Cable & Judge, 1994; Turban & Keon, 1993), and organizational climate (Bowen, Ledford & Nathan, 1991). It seems the personality perspective may be a totally different thing. Ryan and Kristof-Brown (2003) suggest that this personality perspective should be the focus in PO fit research in the future, because actually personality is even more stable, able to predict human behavior, and more visible to others than values are. Although the cause and effect Relationship cannot be verified, based on the theory and the earlier knowledge of the stability of the personality, it can be assumed that there being differences between the leader's and subordinate's personalities does improve the leader's work performance.

The unexpected finding was that the leader-subordinate fit did not correlate significantly with burnout experienced by either leaders or subordinates (Schneider, 1987; Bell, 1990; Meglino & Ravlin, 1998; Meglino et al., 1989). The only significant correlation and the only result that supported the ASA and PP fit theory was the association between the leader's and subordinate's leadership motivation, and burnout experienced by leaders. The more similar the leader's and subordinate's leadership motivation, the less the leader experienced symptoms of burnout. One possible explanation for these results could be that this study was focusing on job satisfaction from the negative point of view. It does not necessarily mean that people do not experience job satisfaction if they are not suffering from burnout, and vice versa. The fact that almost all the participants (95%) were male may also have had an effect on the study's results.

The results also appear to offer some weak support to the suggestion that the basis for effective performance and job satisfaction could be different from each other. The leader-subordinate congruence did not have any associations with the subordinate's job satisfaction. In contrast, the more similar the leader's and subordinate's leadership motivation, the less the leader experienced burnout. This leadership motivation was the only motivation that had no significant correlation with the leader's performance and vice versa, the achievement, the interaction, and the thinking motivations did not have any significant correlation with the leader's job satisfaction. Moreover the motivation that did correlate with job satisfaction was negative, meaning that the similarity in personality between leader and subordinate produced a positive outcome. Congruence between leader and subordinate in contrast produced only negative outcomes in terms of assessed performance.

5.1 Limitations

When generalizing these results some limitations should be noted. The study is cross sectional so therefore does not support conclusions about the direction of causality. Moreover, 95% of the participants were male so these results should not be generalized to sectors where the gender balance among employees is more equal. It should also be noted that all the variables were based on self-assessment. Weaknesses of self-assessment can include it encouraging a socially desirable answering style or the respondent's being unwilling to answer some questions. For example, when measuring burnout, those who are suffering from severe burnout may protect themselves by reporting more minor symptoms of burnout than they actually feel. One important strength of this study is its sample size (N = 203), which makes its results statistically significant. Second, the survey response rate was extremely encouraging, with only two leaders and five subordinates unable to participate in the research.

5.2 Theoretical Implications and Future Studies

Surprisingly this research supported neither the ASA theory nor the PP fit theory (Schneider, 1987; Van Vianen, 2000). These results suggested that people may be more attracted to other things, for example organizational values or job tasks, than by personality and choose to stay in an organization for those reasons. Schneider's ASA theory has been criticized in the past on the grounds that it can be overly simplistic (Blau, 1960; Merton & Kitt, 1950; Levinthal & March, 1993; Schein, 1992).

According to the group effects (Blau 1960; Merton & Kitt, 1950) and organizational culture theories (Levinthal & March, 1993; Schein, 1992) the group or an organization is more than the aggregate of attributes of its members; whereas ASA theory suggests that “the people make the place” (Schneider, 1987). Another criticism of ASA theory revolves around its consequences, in that even if the attraction, selection, and attrition process ultimately produces homogeneity in personal characteristics (Schneider, Goldstein & Smith, 1995) it should not be concluded that such homogeneity will have only positive consequences (Walsh & Holland, 1992; Jackson, 1992; Richard, 2000; Staples & Zhao, 2006).

Overall, the theory of fit is still an interesting and important background theory for many human resource management processes, and particularly for the recruitment process. However, the results of research on the topic are inconsistent, and we cannot say anything for certain on the causality of these variables. Longitudinal studies would be required to confirm the cause and the effect relationship. Moreover because there has been some inconsistency in the results, there must be some variables which are either moderating or mediating these relationships.

Although the results were not as expected, they still indicate that PP fit does have a significant role to play in predicting leaders’ work performance, and therefore this issue should be considered in the recruitment process to ensure that organizations do not become too homogenous. These results suggest that if firms want to improve the performance of their leaders and the satisfaction of those leaders’ subordinates with the leaders’ job performance, they should ensure that there is some heterogeneity between the personalities of the leader and the subordinate. It is also likely that leaders face different demands in the performance of their roles than subordinates do, and therefore their personalities should be different.

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Table 1: Correlations between the Leader-Subordinate Fit, Burnout and the Leader's Performance

	1.	2.	3.	4.	5.	6.	7.
1. Burnout, employee	1						
2. Burnout, leader	0.13	1					
3. Leader's performance	-0.28	-0.36	1				
4. FIT achievement	-0.04	-0.06	-0.18	1			
5. FIT leadership	-0.04	-0.15	0.09	0.21	1		
6. FIT Interaction	-0.08	0.05	-0.20	0.12	0.10	1	
7. FIT Thinking	0.12	0.01	-0.14	-0.08	0.01	0.02	1

|0.14 – 0.18| significant at the 0.05 level, |0.20 – 0.36| significant at the 0.01 level

The Use of Personality Measures in Personnel Selection: The Person-Job Fit and Its Relationship to Leaders' Performance and Burnout

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HR Manager

Abstract

The purpose of this research was to find out if there is a significant association between the actual personality and the preferred personality that the job requires to the leader's performance and burnout symptoms. This study examines this problematic based on the person-job (PJ) fit theory. Survey data was collected from 95 leaders of a global manufacturing organization (n=52) and a multitechnological applied research organization (n=44). The result did support the PJ fit theory that the more similar the leader's personality is to the preferred profile that the job requires the less the leader's experience burnout feeling and the better the leader's work performance. The results also appear to give support to the suggestion that the grounds of an effective performance and burnout symptoms at leadership level could be different from each other. In this study there were no personality dimension which would have a meaningful association to both burnout and the leader's performance.

Keywords: burnout, leader, performance, person-job fit, personality

1. Introduction

The aim in the recruitment is to select the best possible applicant who has the capacities that are needed in the job and who will fit with the organization (Rynes & Gerhart, 1990). The most used theory in the employee selection context is perhaps the theory of fit (Sekiguchi, 2004). During the past century, models of fit or congruence have achieved a significant role in the field of industrial and organizational psychology and human resources management (Saks & Ashforth, 1997; Schneider, 1987, 2001; Holland, 1997; Kristof, 1996; Pervin, 1968; Ekehammer, 1974; Lewin, 1935; Murray, 1938; Parsons, 1909). The employee selection processes have especially focused on achieving person-job fit (Werbel & Gilliland, 1999) which is the congruence between the abilities of a person and the demands of a job (Edwards, 1991; Kristof, 1996). During the past decade or so several authors have recognized that the practitioner in the personnel selection and the scientific wings of discipline has divided and is moving more and more away from each other (e.g. Anderson, Herriot & Hodgkinson, 2001; Dunnette, 1990; Hodgkinson, Herriot & Anderson, 2001; Sackett, 1994). One example of this kind of a trend is that the American Uniform Guidelines on Employee Selection Procedures (1978), Harvey (1991) and Harvey and Wilson (2000) have recommended that the workers traits and abilities should be left out of the selection processes. According to them, the personal traits do not meet the requirements of verifiable and replicable job analysis data.

Typically in the PJ fit studies the job demands and the abilities include only education, experience and knowledge, skills and abilities (KSAs) (Caldwell & O'Reilly, 1990; Wilk & Sackett, 1996; Dawis & Lofquist, 1984; French, Caplan & Harrison, 1982). However, there are authors who argued the opposite (e.g. Raymark, Schmit & Guion, 1997; Peterson, Mumford, Borman, Jeanneret & Fleishman, 1999) and the practice seems to be the opposite also. According to the Piotrowski and Armstrong (2006), personality testing is popular in 20% of the major companies in the USA and during the past twenty years, psychological tests and assessment instruments have received more and more attention internationally (e.g. Gatewood & Felid, 1998; Ryan & Snackett, 1987). It is no surprise that the personality is stressed, because according to many researches the personal qualifications predict performance and job satisfaction sometimes even better than, for example, professional, technical or formal qualifications (Hunter & Hunter, 1984; Salgado, Anderson, Moscoso, Bertua, & De Fruyt, 2003; Barrick & Mount, 1991; Barrick, Mount & Judge, 2001; Hough, 1992; Hertz & Donovan, 2000; Mount & Barric, 1995; Salgado 1997, 1998, 2002, 2003; Tett, Rothstein & Jackson, 1991; Judge, Bono, Ilies & Gerhardt, 2002; Hunter, Schmidt, Rauschenberger & Jayne, 2001). The companies are using the personality testing part of their selection processes and the American Uniform Guidelines on Employee Selection Procedures (1978) is recommending that

the ground of personnel selection should be the job analysis based on PJ fit which is assessed by many kinds of selection tools.

At the moment the fit has been compared only in the organization or on the team/group level but not on the job level (Kristof-Brown, Zimmerman & Johnson, 2005). Therefore the purpose of this research is to find out if the congruence of personality and job does have an effect on a leader's burnout feelings and the subordinate's satisfaction to a leader's performance. The theoretical framework is the person-environment (PE) fit model and this study is focusing on PJ fit that could give us more information on the leader's recruitment's. The idea is to find data that we could use in decision-making processes in the future when we are searching for good and effective leaders and also to bring the practitioner in the personnel selection and the scientific wings closer and closer to each other.

2. Theory

2.1 The Theory of Fit

The research of fit has traditionally focused on PE fit which is defined as a match between the person and the environment (Kristof, 1996). During these past two decades the researchers have found other sub-dimensions of PE fit or congruence (Kristof-Brown et al., 2005). However the person-job (PJ) fit has traditionally considered being the most influential view in the employee selection studies (Sekiguchi, 2004). PJ fit refers to the congruence between the abilities of a person and the demands of a job (Edwards, 1991; Kristof, 1996).

PE fit is a complex and multidimensional concept and in the early years of fit researches it hasn't always been clear which form of fit has been studied. In these days there are usually three dimensions that help researchers to conceptualize PE fit and the sub-dimensions of PE fit. The dimensions are complementary versus supplementary fit, complementary fit subsumes need-supplies versus demands-abilities and perceived versus actual fit.

Apparently Muchinsky and Monohan (1987) have been the first ones to realize that there are different forms of fit. According to Muchinsky and Monohan (1987) the sub-dimensions of fit are either complementary fit or supplementary fit. The difference between the complementary fit and supplementary fit is how the environment is defined. Complementary fit occurs when the individual's characteristics match with the demands of the environment (Muchinsky and Monohan, 1987). Supplementary fit occurs when the individual's characteristics are similar to other individuals in the environment (Muchinsky and Monohan, 1987). According to the PJ fit theory, people differ in their needs, abilities, and skills and therefore the job needs to fit with these individual characteristics instead of organizations creating jobs individually that are ideal for that person (Van Vianen, 2005). PJ fit is mostly conceptualized of complementary fit because, like in this study also, the environment is described according to the job, not the people.

Secondly, when conceptualized, the complementary fit researches have differentiated needs-supplies versus demands-abilities distinction (Kristof, 1996). When the environment satisfies the individuals' needs, the needs-supplies fit occurs (Kristof, 1996). When the individual has the resources that meet the environmental demands, the demands-abilities fit occurs (Kristof, 1996). Because this research is measuring PJ fit based on job analysis, which consists of the job demands and the required resources that the individual needs to have in order to meet the demands, the perspective is the demands-abilities fit.

Thirdly the PE fit is divided to perceived (subjective) versus actual (objective) fit. Perceived fit means that the fit is defined by a direct assessment of compatibility (French, Rodgers, & Cobb, 1974; Kristof, 1996). According to Kristof (1996) the actual fit means that the fit is defined by indirectly assessment of compatibility. Over the years the terms of perceived or subjective fit and the terms of actual or objective fit have often been used interchangeably (e.g. Cable & DeRue, 2002; Judge & Cable, 1997; Kristof, 1996). However the Kristof-Brown et al. (2005) have distinguished these concepts. The term perceived fit should be used when the "individual makes a direct assessment of the compatibility between P and E". Subjective fit means that "fit is assessed indirectly through the comparison of P and E variables reported by the same person". The term objective fit should be used when "fit is calculated indirectly through the comparison of P and E variables as reported by different sources". (Kristof-Brown et al. 2005, pp. 291).

2.2 Earlier Studies

When comparing the earlier studies it has to be stressed out that most reviews have been nonquantitative, not differentiated between various types of fit and moreover the strategies for measuring fit have also varied widely (Kristof-Brown, et al., 2005).

Even though the job analysis based on PJ fit is a highly recommended view to employee selection process (e.g. Uniform Guidelines on Employee Selection Procedures (1978)) and even though the personal qualifications predicts the performance and personality tests are highly used in the selection processes, there are only a few studies that are focusing on this thematic. There are even fewer studies of PJ fit theory which have focused on personality because typically the job demands and the abilities include education, experience and knowledge, skills and abilities (KSAs) (Caldwell & O'Reilly, 1990; Wilk&Sackett, 1996; Dawis&Lofquist, 1984; French, Caplan& Harrison, 1982).

However, according to the Edwards' (1991) review of the PJ fit literature, the high level of PJ fit has positive outcomes, for example on job satisfaction, low job stress, motivation, performance, attendance and retention. Kristof-Brown et al. (2005) found out in their meta-analysis that JP fit had positive correlations with job satisfaction, organizational commitment and negative correlation with intent to quit. Also Cable and Judge (1996), O'Reilly, Chatman, & Caldwell (1991), Hall, Schneider, & Nygren, (1970), Hollenbeck (1989), Edwards (1996), Lauver & Kristof-Brown (2001) and O'Reilly (1977) have found similar results which supports the view that if the employees experience job fit they are satisfied with their work.

There are also a few studies which support the view that PJ fit is associated with good performance. For example Caldwell and O'Reilly (1990) found that managers' performance was higher when their skills and abilities fit the profile required for the job. Also Edwards' (1991) found out in the review of the PJ fit literature that the high level of PJ fit has positive association with performance.

Kristof-Brown (2000) studied what kinds of characteristics the assessors spontaneously associated with PJ and PO fit. 62 characteristics were put into categories of knowledge, skills, and abilities (KSAs), values, personality traits or other attributes. Most characteristics (n=30) referred to personality and only five referred to values. There are few studies which have examined the validity of personality measures as predictors in personnel selection. In these studies it has been found out that the personality predicts job performance (Barrick & Mount, 1991; Barrick, Mount & Judge, 2001; Hough, 1992; Hurtz & Donovan, 2000; Mount & Barric, 1995; Salgado 1997, 1998, 2002, 2003; Tett, et al., 1991) and job satisfaction (e.g. Judge, et al., 2002). However, neither one of these studies have used the fit theory on the background theory, only focusing on the single personality tests and most of them have used the Big Five tests.

There are a few studies made that have been arguing that the personality may be an important determinant of fit with specific jobs (Jackson, Peacock, & Smith, 1980; O'Reilly, 1977; Paunonen, Jackson, & Oberman, 1987). The personality has been measured mostly through interviews and therefore these results cannot be compared straightly to this study. There is still some evidence that some personality traits (e.g. conscientiousness and emotional stability) are associated with job performance (Barrick & Mount, 1991). There is also some proof that people who have certain personality traits are satisfied and successful in certain vocations (Assouline & Meir, 1987; Spokane, 1985).

3. Research Problems

The purpose of this research is to find out the relations between person – job fit and leader's job burnout. Moreover the study suggests that there are relations between the person – job congruence and the subordinate's satisfaction to the leader's job performance. This will give us more information in the future so that we will know should there be a fit between the job and the personality. There are only a few studies that have a focus on PJ fit and measured personality so this study will give us new information on this field. Because there are only a few studies which are concerning this area and because the results have been controversial, the tests will be made on two-tailed basis. The research problems of this study are:

- Q1: Is person-job fit associated with leader's performance scores?

Based on the person – job fit theory and earlier studies it is assumed in this study that the person – job fit is associated with the leaders performance scores (Caldwell and O'Reilly, 1990; Edward, 1991; Barrick & Mount, 1991; Barrick, et al., 2001; Hough, 1992; Hurtz & Donovan, 2000; Mount & Barrick, 1995; Salgado 1997, 1998, 2002, 2003; Tett, et al., 1991; Kristof, 1996)

- Q2: Is person – job fit associated with leader’s burnout?

Based on the person – job theory and earlier studies it is assumed in this study that the person – job fit is associated with the leader’s burnout (Edward, 1991; Kristof-Brown et al., 2005; Cable and Judge, 1996; O’Reilly et al., 1991; Hall, et al., 1970; Hollenbeck, 1989; Edwards, 1996; Lauver & Kristof-Brown, 2001; O’Reilly, 1977).

4. Methods

There are several different ways to measure fit (Kristof-Brown et al., 2005). In recent researches, the fit has often been measured simply by asking people what degree they believe a fit exists on, especially when studying perceived fit. This kind of a direct way to measure fit has been criticized for that it confounds the independent effects of the person and the environment with their effect and secondly the data is based on human perceptions (Edwards, 1991; Caplan, 1987). Indirect fit has been typically measured by combining different measures into a single index (Edwards, 1996). However, the value of difference scores and squared difference scores is one option to assess fit. In this study we are studying the objective fit because the source of P and E variables have been reported in different sources and because the fit has been calculated indirectly (Kristof-Brown, et al., 2005).

4.1 Participants

The data was collected from two companies in Finland during 2010-2011 and all the participants were in a managerial position. The other company was a global manufacturing organization (n = 52) and the other one was a multitechnological applied research organization (n = 44). All but two lower and middle level leaders from the global manufacturing organization did participate in this research. The participation percentage in the multitechnological applied research organization was 89%. 3 to 6 subordinates were selected for each leader who evaluated the leader’s performance by WOPI 360 tool. 5 subordinates were on long sick leave, so employees who were next on the list replaced them. Each job analyzes were made by the supervisor, who analyzed what kind of personality traits would be ideal in certain jobs. A total of 96 leaders participated in this research so therefore there were 96 person-job dyads. 80 % of the participants were male and 20 % were female. The mean age was 46 years.

4.2 Methods and Study Variables

First the internal consistencies were computed for the scales. Values of Cronbach’s alpha were over 0.7 (= usually considered to be an acceptable value) in the case of leader’s job burnout ($\alpha = 0,86$), and WOPI360 – tool ($\alpha = 0,99$) and then meet the criterion. Instead all the sum dimensions that were concerning the congruence, the alpha coefficient were less than 0,7. The internal consistencies were 0,45 for congruence of achievement motives, 0,61 for congruence of leadership motives, 0,40 for congruence of interaction motives and 0,23 for congruence of thinking. The congruence variables were made firstly by summing the single dimensions separately and the “ideal” person results that were evaluated by the supervisor (for example focusing) and then the difference between the leader’s score and the ideal personality score were calculated. After that the final sum dimensions were calculated by summing these single sum dimensions (for example congruence of focusing + congruence of competition = congruence of achievement motives). In spite of the low alpha values, they are considered acceptable because in newly developed scales the value may be under 0.7 (Nunnaly& Bernstein, 1994).

Personality and fit. Personality was measured by a standardized self-report questionnaire Work Personality Inventory (WOPI) (Niitamo, 2010; Nederström & Niitamo, 2010). WOPI is based on the psychology of motivation (7 scales), thinking (4 scales) and attitudes (3 scales). The items were responded on a dichotomous (True-False) scale (Niitamo, 2010). The inventory composes of 224 items with each 14 scales measured by 14 items (Niitamo, 2010). These 14 dimensions are arranged along the five general competencies at work (Niitamo, 2010). In this study the items are examined at the level of dimension sums rather than on the level of single dimensions. These dimension sums are Achievement motives, Leadership motives, Interaction motives, Thinking motives and Attitudes. The first four dimensions were studied and calculated using the data from the primary single dimensions. The fifth dimension sum, attitudes, consists of three separate attitudes and therefore does not create any sum dimension. The difference between the subordinate’s evaluated ideal personality and the leader’s personality factors were calculated for these four dimension sums.

Burnout. Job satisfaction was measured by the Maslach Burnout Inventory – General Scales (MBI-GS) (Maslach, Jackson, & Leiter, 1996). This study used the Finnish version which has been validated by Kalimo, Hakanen and Toppinen-Tanner (2006). The MBI-GS consists of 16 items that are grouped. Items were scored on

a 7-point frequency rating scale ranging from 0 (=never) to 6 (= every day). Burnout was evaluated, for example with the item "I feel emotionally drained from my work".

Leader's Performance. Leader's performance was measured by WOPI360 tool (Niitamo, 2010). WOPI360 is a multirater tool for appraising the competence resources and deficits (Niitamo, 2010). The leader's behavior was appraised with 45 standard questions. Questions were answered on a 0 (= not at all descriptive) to 6 (= very descriptive) Likert scale. This study used only one rater group, the manager's direct subordinates, the number of which ranged from 3 to 6 for each manager.

4.3 Analysis

The data was analyzed using the SPSS 18.0 for Windows – program. The associations between the person – job fit and the leader's burnout and the person – job fit to the leader's performance were examined by Pearson correlation.

5. Results

Table 1 presents the correlations among the variables. As expected, the person-job fit had some associations with the leader's performance scores (Q1). The difference between the preferred and the actual congruence of leadership ($r = 0.22$, $p < .05$), congruence of inspiration ($r = 0.22$, $p < .05$), congruence of perception ($r = 0.25$, $p < .05$), congruence of ambiguity ($r = 0.28$, $p < .01$) and the congruence of all the dimensions ($r = 0.26$, $p < .05$) were positively associated to the leader's performance. The more similar the preferred personality and the actual personality congruence, the better the leader's performance was. The congruence of other dimensions had no significant correlation to the leader's performance.

The person – job fit had also some associations to the leader's burnout (Q2). Unexpectedly the difference between the preferred and the actual congruence of orientation and thinking was positively related to the leader's burnout ($r = 0.34$, $r = 0.29$, $p < .01$). The more similar the preferred and the actual congruence, the more the leader's experienced burnout symptoms. Instead the difference between the preferred and the actual congruence of sociability ($r = -0.25$, $p < .05$), decision making ($r = -0.21$, $p < .05$) and optimism ($r = -0.32$, $p < .01$) was negatively related to the leader's burnout feelings. The smaller the difference between the preferred and the actual profile, the less the leader experienced burnout symptoms. The congruence of the other dimensions had no significant correlation to the leader's burnout feelings.

Table 1: Correlations between the Leader's Performance, Burnout and the Fit between the Actual Personality and the Ideal Job Demands

	1.	2.	3.	4.	5.	6.	7.	8.	9.	10.	11.	12.	13.	14.	15.	16.	17.
1. Performance	1																
2. Burnout	-0.08	1															
3. FIT Focusing	0.01	-0.03	1														
4. FIT Competition	0.13	-0.07	0.39	1													
5. FIT Leadership	0.22	-0.18	0.00	0.50	1												
6. FIT Inspiration	0.22	-0.11	0.04	0.50	0.64	1											
7. FIT Sociability	0.09	-0.25	-0.04	0.05	0.27	0.44	1										
8. FIT Empathy	0.16	-0.13	0.20	-0.02	-0.04	0.26	0.48	1									
9. FIT Reliance	0.07	0.01	0.10	-0.11	-0.25	0.03	0.28	0.41	1								
10. FIT Orientation	0.04	0.34	0.19	0.17	-0.09	0.18	0.17	0.33	0.10	1							
11. FIT Perception	0.25	-0.01	0.30	0.28	0.10	0.18	0.16	0.27	0.06	0.46	1						
12. FIT Thinking	-0.14	0.29	0.00	-0.17	-0.34	-0.08	0.02	0.21	0.17	0.46	0.04	1					
13. FIT Decision Making	0.05	-0.21	-0.49	0.16	0.31	0.32	0.12	-0.08	-0.30	-0.00	-0.13	-0.00	1				
14. FIT Ambiguity	0.28	-0.20	-0.32	0.02	0.24	0.22	0.29	0.07	-0.15	0.21	0.37	-0.06	0.41	1			
15. FIT Optimism	-0.01	-0.18	0.15	0.03	0.11	0.05	0.24	0.32	-0.01	-0.09	0.00	-0.27	-0.07	0.02	0.40	1	
16. FIT Self-Reflection	0.26	-0.19	0.26	0.54	0.53	0.71	0.63	0.55	0.15	0.48	0.52	0.08	0.26	0.44	0.50	0.32	1
17. FIT All dimensions																	

[0.21 – 0.26] significant at the 0.05 level, [0.27 – 0.64] significant at the 0.01 level

6. Discussion

The purpose of this research was to give new information about PJ fit theory and bring the practice and the science closer to each other. More specific, the purpose was to find out if there is a significant association between the preferred and the actual personality to the leader's performance and burnout symptoms. In this study it was expected to be based on the PJ fit theory and earlier studies that the similarity between the preferred and the actual personality is associated with the leader's job satisfaction and better performance.

The result did mostly support the PJ fit theory that the more similar the leader's personality is to the preferred profile, the less the leader experiences burnout feeling and the better the leader's work performance is (Caldwell and O'Reilly, 1990; Edward, 1991; Barrick & Mount, 1991; Barrick, et al., 2001; Hough, 1992; Hertz & Donovan, 2000; Mount & Barrick, 1995; Salgado 1997, 1998, 2002, 2003; Tett, et al., 1991; Kristof, 1996; Kristof-Brown et al., 2005; Cable and Judge, 1996; O'Reilly et al., 1991; Hall, et al., 1970; Hollenbeck, 1989; Edwards, 1996; Lauver & Kristof-Brown, 2001; O'Reilly, 1977). More specific, the congruence between the preferred and the actual motivation in leadership, inspiration, perception, ambiguity to change and the sum variable of all the dimensions were associated to the leader's performance. Based on these results it seems that the leadership, inspiration, perception and ambiguity motivations are the most important motivations when trying to find good leaders and at least these motivations in the selection process should match with the preferred motivation. Although the cause and the effect relationship cannot be verified, based on the PJ fit theory and the earlier knowledge of the stability of the personality, it can be assumed that if the leader's personality fits with the preferred profile it will have positive affect to the leader's work performance.

Unexpectedly, burnout feelings and PJ fit had a positive association with the congruence of orientation and thinking. It means that the more the orientation and thinking motivations fit with the expected, the more he/she will suffer from burnout feelings. However when comparing the preferred and the actual motivations in case of sociability, decision making or optimism, the congruence had negative correlation to burnout as expected (Edward, 1991; Kristof-Brown et al., 2005; Cable and Judge, 1996; O'Reilly et al., 1991; Hall, et al., 1970; Hollenbeck, 1989; Edwards, 1996; Lauver & Kristof-Brown, 2001; O'Reilly, 1977). The more similar the leader's actual profile is to the preferred profile, the less he/she experiences burnout feelings.

In this study, when the leader's made the preferred personality profiles from their subordinates, many felt that the leaders have to see things widely and have the ability to see things in a more abstract level. Therefore one possible explanation for this unexpected result could be that actually from the job satisfaction point of view it is more preferred that the thinking process focus more on concrete issues. However, this is just an idea that needs more careful research in the future. The results appear to give some weak support to the suggestion that the grounds of effective performance and job satisfaction at leadership level could be different from each other. In this study there were no dimension which would have a meaningful association to both burnout and the leader's performance.

6.1 Limitations

When generalizing these results there are some limitations which should be noted. The study is cross sectional so therefore we cannot make any conclusion about the direction of causality. Moreover 80% of the participants were male so these results represent mostly the situation in male leaders. It should also be noted that all the variables were based on self-assessment. The weakness of self-assessment could be the socially desirable answering style or the unwillingness to answer some questions. For example when measuring burnout, those who are suffering from severe burnout symptoms, may protect themselves by reporting less burnout symptoms than they actually feel. It should also be recognized that this study was focusing on the job satisfaction from a negative point of view. It does not necessarily mean that people do not feel job satisfaction if they are not suffering burnout symptoms and vice versa. An important strength of this study can be considered to be the response rate (93 %).

6.2 Theoretical Implications and Future Studies

As expected, this research supported the PJ fit theory (Kristof, 1996; Edwards, 1991). These results suggested that the more similar the leader's actual personality is to the ideal job or position, the better the performance is and the less he/she suffers from burnout feeling. The theory of PJ fit has been well studied in the past but the focus hasn't been on the personality level. The results of this study suggest that the personality is an important factor in the recruitment decisions. Therefore we need more studies from this area.

One important aspect in future studies is also the similarity or the differences between the job satisfaction and job performance. The results of this study appear to give some support to the view that the grounds of effective performance and job satisfaction at leadership level could be different from each other. This needs to be taken in to account in future studies. Overall the theory of fit is an interesting and important background theory for many human resources management processes, particularly for the recruitment process. However the longitudinal studies are needed to ensure the cause and the effect relationship. Moreover because there could be some variables which are either moderating or mediating for these relationships.

The results of this study indicate that the person-job fit does have a significant role concerning the leader's work performance and the leader's job satisfaction and therefore this matter should be considered in the recruitment so that the organizations would be able to select the very best leaders.

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Job–Person Fit and Leader’s Performance: The Moderating Effect of the Rorschach Comprehensive System Variables

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Abstract

Personality assessment is a complex process and there is an ongoing need for studies and for an improvement in the selection methods employed. Most assessment processes and methods focus on simply describing the personality, but at least on the leadership level, the need is to *understand and explain* behavior. Therefore this study suggests that the Rorschach Comprehensive System (RCS) will predict the leader’s performance more accurately than when performance is predicted only with self-reported personality methods. Furthermore, this study suggests that the RCS variables moderate the relationship between the preferred personality and the actual personality congruence or job–person (JP) fit and the leader’s performance, when the JP fit personality is measured by the self-reported assessment tool. Pearson correlations and stepwise hierarchical multiple regression analyses (n=203) confirmed several hypotheses and the results support the view that performance-based assessment method explains the personality more than the self-assessment based personality dimensions and should therefore be part of the personnel assessment process.

Keywords: Rorschach comprehensive system (RCS), Performance, Leader, Job–person fit.

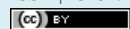
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1. Introduction

“Prediction is very difficult, especially about the future”

Nils Bohr, Nobel Prize for Physics in 1922

Organizations all over the world are willing to pay for assessments conducted by psychologists, particularly when the organization is seeking to recruit leaders. One reason for this might be that two thirds of leaders fail in their work (Hogan, 2007) and the primary reason for this are issues with personality functions (Bentz, 1985; Van Velsor and Leslie, 1995; Dotlich and Cairo, 2003). The decision to hire a new leader is based on estimation, likelihood, and incomplete information. Psychologists are trusted to increase the likelihood of successful decisions by evaluating how the leader will behave under stress or when outside of their comfort zone. However, assessing a leader’s personality is a complex process, particularly if the assessment seeks to explain leader behavior rather than simply describing. Therefore there is an evident need for studies of assessment processes and of the associated selection methods.

Psychologists first became concerned that people may not respond accurately to transparent items as long ago as the 1920s (Hartshorne and May, 1928) revealing that the interest in measures indirectly related to the construct they are intended to indicate is not a new thing. However, even if respondents answer the questions as honestly as they can, the self-report personality assessment methods are difficult for people. Most individuals—even those with the most stable personality traits—are only moderately capable of assessing their own behavior because of self-enhancement, social desirability, and lack of self-knowledge (John and Robins, 1993; Morgeson *et al.*, 2007).

It seems that the experts in this field want to understand the candidates at a deeper level and also they seem to need to explain the behavior and not just describe it. Kets de Vries (2006) wants to recognize “the inner theatre,” Pratch and Levinson (2002) “the personality structure,” and Hogan and Hogan (2001) “the dark side of the personality.” Prior studies support the view that the performance-based personality assessment methods may be the only way to acquire this kind of information (e.g., Levinson (1994)). The Rorschach inkblot test is one example of a performance-based assessment method that can provide more individualized and complex information concerning thinking, emotional management, self-image, and interpersonal tendencies (Exner, 1993; 2003).

The purpose of this article is to explore the potential uses of the Rorschach Comprehensive System (RCS) in the recruitment process. This study suggests that the RCS will predict the leader’s performance more accurately than if the performance is evaluated only on using self-reported personality methods. Furthermore this study suggests that the RCS variables moderate the relationship between the preferred personality and the actual personality congruence known as job–person (JP) fit and the leader’s performance, when the JP fit personality is measured with the self-reported assessment tool.

1.1. Personnel Selection

Equal Employment Opportunity Commission (1978) recommends that personnel selection should be conducted on the basis of a job analysis based on JP fit that is assessed by many different selection tools. There are several researchers who agree, that these three issues—job analysis, theory of fit, and the multi-method approach—lie at the core of personnel selection. Each test measures some aspect of personality that the others do not. Therefore the multi-method approach—combining different personnel assessment methods—is a widely used and recommended strategy for personnel assessment (Schmidt and Hunter, 1998; Schuler, 2006). Moreover, the multi-method approach can increase the validity of both the assessment process and the decision (Schmidt and Hunter, 1998; Cortina *et al.*, 2000).

1.2. Theory of Fit and Job Performance

The theory of fit is the most widely used theory in the employee selection context (Sekiguchi, 2004) and employee selection processes have particularly focused on achieving JP fit (Werbel and Gilliland, 1999; Sekiguchi, 2004), which is the congruence between the abilities of a person and the demands of a job (Edwards, 1991; Kristof, 1996). The studies support the view that if there is JP fit employees will be satisfied with their work, which will have positive repercussions (Hall *et al.*, 1970; O’Reilly, 1977; Hollenbeck, 1989; Caldwell and O’Reilly, 1990; Edwards, 1991; 1996; Cable and Judge, 1996; Lauer and Kristof-Brown, 2001; Kristof-Brown *et al.*, 2005).

In order to achieve the fit, employers must analyze what kind of demands the job places on the employee, and the personal abilities required to meet them. Accordingly, the main step at the beginning of the assessment process is to conduct a job analysis (Anderson and Wilson, 1997; Voskuil, 2005; Schuler, 2006). Traditionally, job analysis has highlighted only education, experience and knowledge, skills and abilities (KSAs) (French *et al.*, 1982; Dawis and Lofquist, 1984; Caldwell and O’Reilly, 1990; Wilk and Sackett, 1996) and neglected the personality. More recent studies have examined the validity of personality measures as predictors in personnel selection. These studies have found personality traits to predict job performance (Barrick and Mount, 1991; Tett *et al.*, 1991; Hough, 1992; Mount and Barrick, 1995; Salgado, 1997; 1998; 2002; 2003; Hurtz and Donovan, 2000; Barrick *et al.*, 2001). Moreover, some studies have argued that personality traits may be an important determinant of fit in the case of specific jobs (O’Reilly, 1977; Jackson *et al.*, 1980; Paunonen *et al.*, 1987). In addition, there is some evidence that those people with certain personality traits are satisfied and successful in certain vocations (Spokane, 1985; Assouline and Meir, 1987).

1.3. Personality and Personality Measurement

Personality is a concept lacking a single, approved definition or theory. One of the well-known models is the McAdams’ view (McAdams, 1996; 2009) that form implies that personality information can be acquired on three levels: 1) dispositional traits, 2) characteristic adaptations (e.g., motives, values), and 3) integrative life stories.

1.3.1. Work Personality Inventory, WOPI

The trait approach, especially the Big Five, has dominated personality research. The trait perspective and the Big Five methods have been criticized for being vulnerable to impression management (e.g., NEO Five Factor Inventory; Costa and McCrae (1992)); for measuring traits that are very easy to observe even in a stranger; and on the grounds that personality traits explain only a small part of human personality (McAdams, 1995). Therefore the self-evaluation method selected in this study is not a Big Five one but the Work Personality Inventory (WOPI), which approaches the construct of personality from a multifactorial angle (Nederström and Niitamo, 2010). WOPI measures motives, cognitive styles, and attitudes.

1.3.2. Rorschach Comprehensive System (RCS)

One of the most widely used and scientifically researched performance-based assessment methods is the Rorschach inkblot test (Rorschach, 1921). The Rorschach test can provide more individualized and complex information concerning ways of thinking, emotional management, self-image, and interpersonal tendencies (Exner, 1993; 2003). In the leadership concept, the Rorschach test could offer a method that could explain leader behavior rather than just describing it (Del Giudice (2010a).

The Rorschach and the Comprehensive System (= RCS) (Exner, 1993; 2003) for administration and coding has been infrequently used in the selection process, even though some researchers (see Viglione and Hilsenroth (2001)) argue that one would need some 50 other methods to replace the Rorschach process. One reason for the criticism may be that the reliability and validity of the Rorschach test was at one time seriously questioned. However, the situation has changed since John Exner developed the RCS and following the publication of hundreds of studies (Meyer, 1997; 2000; 2001; 2002; Meyer *et al.*, 1998; Erdberg and Shaffer, 1999; Viglione, 1999; Viglione and Hilsenroth, 2001; Weiner, 2001; Exner, 2003). If the Rorschach test is administered, coded, and interpreted according to Exner (1993; 2000; 2003) equivalent reliability, and validity ratings to self-report measures have been established (Ganellen, 1996; 2001; Society for Personality Assessment, 2005). Secondly, some researchers still see that the Rorschach is a projective test and criticize it accordingly. It should be noted that the American Psychological Association stresses that the RCS is not an associative method but a performance-based personality test that focuses on perceptual, cognitive, and decision-making tasks (Meyer *et al.*, 1998). Thirdly, some argue that the Rorschach is a method created to arrive at a clinical diagnosis and should not be used for other purposes (Kottke *et al.*, 2010). However, according to Weiner (1997) the RCS is a method that the researcher can be used to gather information concerning personality states, traits, and motivations. These objectives are not dissimilar from other personality tests, such as the Sixteen Personality Factor Questionnaire (Cattell *et al.*, 1993) or Myers Briggs Type Indicator (Myers and McCalley, 1985) and in essence only the methodology differs. One could also argue that clinical psychology is historically focused on assessing negative phenomena. However, this trend appears to be beginning to change in that field too (Peterson and Seligman, 2004).

1.4. RCS and Personnel Selection

During the past few years, the use of the RCS has received some attention and generated discussion in the personnel selection context. For example, Del Giudice (2010a; 2010b) and Kottke *et al.* (2010) have published some reviews on the topic. Zacker (1997) suggests that the RCS may be a useful tool in pre-employment screening, while Ganellen (1994; 1996) suggests that the Rorschach may improve the quality of pre-employment screening, and especially when used in the conjunction with self-reported measures. Güntert and Nascimento (2000) studied the role of the high DEPI index in the executive selection concept. The DEPI index is an interesting indicator because recent studies suggest that executives are under considerable stress, which leads to a tendency to distance themselves from their own feelings, which in turn can increase the risk of their becoming depressed (Lyons, 2002; O'Roark, 2002). However, the papers concerning personnel assessment and recruitment are mainly reviews and empirical research is rare.

Prior research suggests the Rorschach method is especially helpful when trying to evaluate how the individual will perform in unpredictable, unstructured, and unfamiliar situations (Dies, 1995; Finn, 1996). Several studies concerning clinical settings have supported the view that the Rorschach has the ability to predict future behavior (Exner, 1993; 2003; Hiller *et al.*, 1999; Viglione, 1999; Smith *et al.*, 2001). This may mean that if the Rorschach is part of a battery of tests, it may improve the effectiveness of personality screening procedures.

2. Research Problems

This study suggests first that RCS variables will explain a leader's performance. Second, this study argues that the RCS variables moderate the relationship between JP fit and the leader's performance. The purpose of this research is to offer new insights into the things that affect the leader's job performance. This study suggests that the RCS is a potentially very useful tool in the assessment process and that executive professionals should add it to their methods toolbox. The research problems addressed in this study are:

H1. Personality—as evaluated by both self-assessment methods and the RCS—is associated with job performance.

H2. The RCS variables moderate the relationship between the JP fit and the leader's performance.

The current research evaluates earlier studies (Exner, 1993; Ganellen, 1994; 1996; Dies, 1995; Finn, 1996; Zacker, 1997; Hiller *et al.*, 1999; Viglione, 1999; Del Giudice, 2010a; 2010b) and concludes that the JP fit and RCS variables will explain the leader's performance, and also moderate the relationship between the JP fit and the leader's performance. The RCS variables of personality may either lead to bad performance (even when there is a fit measured with the self-report methods) or lead to good performance (even when there is no fit based on the self-reported method). For example, even if a leader had a good fit in the job (based on the self-reported methods), the performance will not be good if he/she does not have the required stress tolerance level.

3. Methods

Data (n = 203) were collected in Finland from a global manufacturing organization during 2010–2011. All but two of the firm's lower and middle level leaders participated in this research. Towards each leader it was selected between three and six subordinates who evaluated the leader's performance with the WOPI 360 tool. Five nominated subordinates had either retired or were on long-term sick leave and were therefore replaced by the employees next on the list. The supervisor, who analyzed what kind of personality traits would be ideal in a certain job, conducted each job analysis. Among the whole group of participants, 80 % were male and 20 % female, and their mean age was 46.

3.1. Methods and Study Variables

First internal consistencies were computed for the scales. The Cronbach's alpha value for the WOPI 360 tool was 0.99, thus meeting the reliability criterion. In contrast the internal consistencies were 0.61 for the congruence of all dimensions. The congruence variable was constructed first by summing the single dimensions separately from the leaders' and the "ideal" person results that were evaluated by the supervisor, and then the absolute difference between the leader's score and the ideal personality score was calculated. Then the final sum dimension was calculated by summing these single sum dimensions. In spite of the low alpha values they are considered acceptable because newly developed scales may have values of under 0.7 (Nunnally and Bernstein, 1994).

The study involved 51 Rorschach protocols, all of them relating to managerial positions. According to Exner (1995) some 20% to 25% of all the protocols should be randomly selected by an independent professional. In this study, 20 randomly selected protocols were recoded by the clinician and researcher Tuula Ilonen. The intraclass correlations are presented in Table 1.

Table-1. Internal reliability: intraclass correlation coefficients

Variable	Intraclass coefficients (n = 20)	p
Dd	1	< .001
S	.98	< .001
DQo	.99	< .001
DQv	.95	< .001
Dets	.98	< .001
Non F	.97	< .001
FQo	.92	< .001
FQ-	.96	< .001
(2)	.99	< .001
Cont	.99	< .001
P	.95	< .001
Zf	.98	< .001
Sum6	.76	< .001
Sum6 & NoSum6	1	< .001
Other SpSc	.88	< .001
Other SpSc+OtherSpSc	.98	< .001
SpSc	.80	< .001
SpSc & NoSpSc	.98	< .001

- *Dependent variable (Performance)*: Leader's performance was measured by 203 subordinates with the WOPI 360 tool (Niitamo, 2010). WOPI 360 is a multi-rater tool for appraisal of competence resources and deficits (Niitamo, 2010).
- *Independent variable (JPFit)*: Personality was measured with a standardized self-report questionnaire, the Work Personality Inventory (WOPI) (Nederström and Niitamo, 2010; Niitamo, 2010).
- *The Moderating Variable(s)*: The personality was measured by the RCS (Exner, 1993; 2000; 2003).

Personality and fit. Personality was measured by a standardized self-report questionnaire, the Work Personality Inventory (WOPI) (Nederström and Niitamo, 2010; Niitamo, 2010). WOPI is based on the psychology of motivation (7 scales), thinking (4 scales) and attitudes (3 scales). The items were assessed on a dichotomous (True-False) scale (Niitamo, 2010). The inventory comprises 224 items, each with 14 scales measured by 14 items (Niitamo, 2010). These 14 dimensions are arranged along the five general competencies at work (Niitamo, 2010). In this study the items were examined at the level of the sum of dimensions rather than that of single dimensions. The dimension was studied and calculated using the data from primary single dimensions. The difference between the subordinate's evaluated ideal personality and leader's actual personality factors were calculated for the dimension sum (JPfit = ideal personality – actual personality). Personality was also measured by the Rorschach test, a personality assessment method. There are ten inkblots in the test and five of them are black while another five contain at least some colored ink. The person being tested is asked to respond to the question "What might this be?" for each card (Exner, 1993; 2003). The Rorschach and the Comprehensive System (Exner, 1993; 2000; 2003) has been proved to possess equivalent reliability and validity compared to self-report measures (Ganellen, 1996; 2001).

The test data falls into eight clusters and this study focuses on five of those and the variables that have received support in earlier studies, since it was not feasible to take all the variables from the RCS (Piotrowski and Rock, 1963; Porcelli and Meyer, 2002; Exner, 2003; Bornstein and Masling, 2005; De Villemor-Amaral, 2007). The clusters in this study are 1) stress tolerance (D, AdjD), 2) interpersonal perception (CDI, Fd, PHR, GHR, COP), 3) information processing (Zf, Zd), 4) cognitive mediation (XA%, X-%), and 5) self-perception (Fr+rF, EGOI, FD). Furthermore, the DEPI (depression) index was absorbed into this study since it has received support in earlier studies (Güntert and Nascimento, 2000). All the variables are included in Table 1.

Table-2. Variables, (Exner, 2000; 2003)

Stress Tolerance	
D	The individual's tendency to become disorganized when facing stressful situations and the individual's tendency to act impulsively in the stressful situations.
AdjD	The ability to maintain control under stress.
Interpersonal Perception	
CDI	The individual's vulnerability to chronic interpersonal difficulties. High scores usually reflect chaotic interpersonal history and a lack of sensitivity to the needs of others. CDI includes 11 variables and can yield scores of 0–5.
Fd	Food (<i>Fd</i>) responses typically indicates the dependency orientation. The value is expected to be zero. A value higher than zero suggests the behavior of the person reflects a higher level of dependency than is usual. People with one or more <i>Fd</i> responses tend to be naïve in their expectations concerning the support available and interpersonal relations.
PHR	Poor human representation (<i>PHR</i>) responses usually indicate an interpersonal history dominated by difficulties and failures. People with many PHR responses are usually rejected by others.
GHR	Good human representation (<i>GHR</i>) responses indicate an interpersonal history that has been dominated by adaptive behavior.
COP	Cooperative movement (<i>COP</i>) responses indicate that the interpersonal exchanges are positive. The COP responses indicate an interest in cooperating with others.
Information Processing	
Zf	<i>Zf</i> is the frequency of the numbers of responses to which the Z score has been assigned. The <i>Zf</i> gives an estimation of the processing effort. <i>Zf</i> has a positive correlation with intelligence and with the need for achievement (Exner <i>et al.</i> , 1984).
Zd	The <i>Zd</i> score gives an estimation of the efficiency of the scanning activity during processing operations. It may also give information on the motivation to process effectively. The value of <i>Zd</i> is expected to be between +3.0 and -3.0. If the <i>Zd</i> value is under -3.0, the person neglects some critical cues in the stimulus field. This may lead to less effective behavior. If the <i>Zd</i> score is over +3.0, the person puts more effort into scanning activities than is necessary. This is usually a trait-like style because the person wants to avoid making mistakes. However this style may indicate a person finds it difficult to make decisions.
Cognitive Mediation	
XA%	<i>XA%</i> gives direct information on data mediation. More specifically, the <i>XA%</i> indicates how well the mediation activities are to yield behaviors that are appropriate to the situation. The lower the value, the more the subject is likely to struggle with mediation activities.
X-%	<i>X-%</i> indicates the frequency of the uncommon responses in the blot contours. A significant amount of negative answers usually indicates problems with the cognitive dysfunction that can be related to psychological or neurological problems. The <i>X-%</i> is expected to be less than 0.15. If the <i>X-%</i> is over 0.25 there may be some mediational dysfunctions and inappropriate behavior is to be expected.
Self-Perception	
Fr+Rf	Reflections (<i>Fr + rF</i>) typically indicate the narcissism-like personality features. Typically people with this kind of personality tend to value themselves very highly. This does not automatically mean that there are some pathological features in the personality but in some cases it is possible. If the <i>Fr+rF</i> is greater than zero, self-involvement tends to dominate perceptions. This feature typically has a strong influence on decision making and behavior.
EGOI	The <i>Egocentricity Index</i> reflects self-concern and self-esteem.
FD	<i>FD</i> responses indicate introspective behavior.
The Complete Description	
DEPI	The <i>DEPI (depression) index</i> includes 14 variables and can attract scores from zero to seven.

Leader's Performance. Leader's performance was measured by the WOPI 360 tool (Niitamo, 2010). WOPI 360 is a multi-rater tool for the appraisal of competence resources and deficits (Niitamo, 2010). The leader's behavior was appraised with 45 standard questions. Questions were answered on a 0 (= not at all descriptive) to 6 (= very descriptive) Likert scale. In this study only one rater group was used, the manager's direct subordinates, the number of whom ranged from three to six for each manager.

3.2. Analysis

The data were analyzed with the SPSS 18.0 for Windows program. The associations between the JPfit, the leader's performance, and the RCS variables were examined by way of the Pearson correlation. The moderating models were tested with hierarchical regression analyses. A series of stepwise hierarchical multiple regression analyses were examined to test the interaction effect of RCS variables on the relationship between JP fit and leader's performance. The gender was entered in the first step of the analysis, the JP fit in the second step, the RCS variable in the third step, and the interaction term in the fourth step.

4. Results

The correlations between Job–Person Fit, Performance, and the RCS variables: Table 3 illustrates correlations among the variables. The JP fit had statistically meaningful positive associations with the leader's performance ($r = 0.43, p < .001$). The more similar the preferred personality and the actual personality congruence, the better the leader's performance was. The JP fit had a positive correlation with the stress tolerance variables (D, $r = 0.24, p < .01$; Adj D, $r = 0.28, p < .001$). It seems that the leaders with good fit with their work, also had high levels of stress tolerance. From the interpersonal perception variables, the CDI ($r = -0.23, p < .01$), Fd ($r = 0.20, p < .01$), and COP ($r = 0.22, p < .01$) were related to the JP fit. Leaders with a good fit on the personality level also seem to be interested

in cooperating with others, have fewer interpersonal difficulties, and to be sensitive to the needs of others. Among the interpersonal perception variables, the PHR ($r = .05, p > .05$) and GHR ($r = 0.10, p > 0.5$) showed no correlation to JP fit. Both variables concerning information processing were associated with JP fit (Zf, $r = 0.17, p < .05$; Zd, $r = .22, p < .01$). The closer the fit, the more effort the leader put into processing. Neither of the cognitive mediation variables (XA%, $r = 0.02, p > .05$; X-%, $r = 0.00, p > .05$) were associated with JP fit and only FD ($r = -.22, p < .01$) among the self-perception variables (Fr+rF, $r = -0.01, p > .05$; EGOI $r = 0.13, p > .05$) was associated with that same JP fit. DEPI had negative association ($r = -0.20, p > .01$) with JP fit. It seems that the leader with a good JP fit experiences fewer feelings of depression.

Leader performance was associated with the JP fit ($r = 0.43, p < .001$). The more similar the preferred personality and the actual personality congruence, the better the leader's performance was. Performance was also related to gender ($r = .15, p < .05$) and the subordinates were more pleased with the female leaders' performance than that of male leaders. The leaders' performance was associated with both stress tolerance variables (D, $r = 0.27, p < .001$; AdjD, $r = .30, p < .001$). The better a leader's stress tolerance, the better the performance was. Performance was associated with GHR ($r = .15, p < .05$) and COP ($r = .15, p < .05$) among the Internal Perception variables whereas there was no correlation with CDI ($r = -0.06, p > .05$), Fd ($r = 0.09, p > .05$) and PHR ($r = .11, p > .05$). If a leader had an adaptive interpersonal history and if the interpersonal exchanges were positive, the leader performance was also likely to be good. Among the information processing variables only Zd ($r = -0.22, p < .01$) was associated with performance. Therefore the efficiency of the scanning activity during the processing operation is associated with the leader's performance. The Zf ($r = 0.09, p > .05$) had no correlation with leader performance. From the cognitive mediation variables the XA% ($r = 0.15, p < .05$) and X-% ($r = -.23, p < .01$) showed a connection to the leader's performance. The result suggests that the better the leader is able to yield the mediational activities behaviors that are appropriate to the situation and the less the leader have the uncommon responses that in the blot contours the better the performance. The narcissism-like feature of personality (Fr + rF) was the only variable among the self-perception variables that was correlated with performance ($r = 0.15, p < .05$). The more narcissism-like features the leader demonstrated, the better the performance. The depression index was also associated with performance ($r = -.34, p < .01$). The less the leader experienced feelings of depression, the better the performance.

Table-3. Correlations between the leader's performance, burnout, and the fit between the actual personality and the ideal job demands.

Variables	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	16	17	18	19
1. Gender (1 = male, 2 = female)	1																	
2. FIT	.05	1																
3. Performance	.15*	.43***	1															
4. D	.15*	.24**	.27***	1														
5. AdjD	.13	.28***	.30***	.86	1													
6. CDI	.03	-.23**	-.06	-.44	-.44	1												
7. Fd	.15*	.20**	.09	.18	.16	-.05	1											
8. PHR	-.11	.05	.11	.12	.12	-.16	.10	1										
9. GHR	.25***	.10	.15*	.43	.43	-.25	.00	-.37	1									
10. COP	.16*	.22**	.15*	.22	.10	-.17	-.10	-.17	.40	1								
11. Zf	.06	.17*	.09	.23	.05	-.23	-.00	.52	.19	.27	1							
12. Zd	-.17*	.22**	-.22**	-.04	-.27	-.28	-.09	-.03	-.15	.14	.13	1						
13. XA%	.11	.02	.15*	.32	.40	-.29	-.03	-.29	.47	-.01	.01	-.22	1					
14. X-%	-.10	.00	-.23**	-.28	-.32	.24	.07	.26	-.42	.02	-.04	.24	-.96	1				
15. Fr+rF	.06	-.01	.15*	-.30	-.26	.16	-.15	-.12	-.07	.12	.15	.07	-.06	-.06	1			
16. EGOI	.04	.13	.09	-.12	-.06	.07	-.26	-.05	.05	.22	.01	.07	.20	-.23	.45	1		
17. FD	-.12	-.22**	-.03	-.03	-.06	-.21	.22	.21	.01	.07	.28	.08	-.03	.03	-.19	-.29	1	
18. DEPI	-.25***	-.20**	-.34**	.04	-.07	-.09	.03	.29	-.30	-.39	.10	.15	-.32	.30	-.25	-.58	.13	1

[0.21 – 0.26] significant at the 0.05 level, [0.27 – 0.64] significant at the 0.01 level
 $r = |.25-.96|, p < .001$
 $r = |.20-.24|, p < .01$
 $r = |.14-.19|, p < .05$

Job–Person fit and the association of the RCS variables with the leader's performance: regression analysis: To examine the hypothesis regarding the moderating effect of stress tolerance, interpersonal perception, information processing, cognitive mediation, self-perception and DEPI, 15 separate hierarchical multiple regression analyses were performed. The first step assessed the effect of gender on the dependent variables and the second step assessed the JP fit. In the third step, the predictor variables were entered, followed by the inclusion of the interaction terms in the fourth step. The results concerning the hierarchical regression analysis are to be found in Tables 4–9.

Stress Tolerance: The moderating effect of stress tolerance on the relationship between job–person fit and leader's performance was examined first. Table 4 shows that JP fit (D, $\beta = 0.35, p < .001$ and AdjD, $\beta = 0.31, p < .001$) has a significant impact on leader's performance, after controlling for gender. In addition, AdjD ($\beta = -0.28, p < .05$) had an impact on performance. The interaction terms D ($\beta = -0.35, p < .05$) and AdjD ($\beta = -0.53, p < .001$) with JP fit both show a significant effect on leader performance and in both cases added significant incremental variance at step 4. The interaction term model with D explained 25 % and with AdjD 29% in terms of leader performance.

Table-4. Hierarchical regression analysis predicting moderation of stress tolerance

Independent variables	D			Adj D		
	β	R ²	ΔR^2	β	R ²	ΔR^2
Step 1	.13*	.02*	.02*	.14*	.02*	.02*
Gender (1 = male, 2 = female)						
Step 2	.35***	.20***	.18***	.31***	.20***	.18***
FIT						
						Continue

Step 3	-.14	.23*	.03*	-.28*	.23**	.03**
D/AdjD						
Step 4	-.35*	.25*	.03*	-.53***	.29***	.06***
FIT × D/AdjD						

***p < .001, **p < .01, *p < .05
 β = standardized coefficient on the last step., ΔR² = R² Change

Interpersonal Perception: The moderating effect of interpersonal perception on the relationship between job–fit and the leader’s performance was confirmed for the variables Fd, PHR, and GHR. Table 5 shows that the coefficients were significant in Fd (β = -0.70, p < .001), PHR (β = -0.77, p < .001), and GHR (β = -0.36, p < .05). The model with Fd explained 33%, with PHR 28%, and with GHR 23% in terms of leader performance. For CDI and COP, the coefficient was not significant and did not add significant incremental variance either in step 3 or step 4.

Table-5. Hierarchical regression analysis predicting the moderation effect of interpersonal perception

Independent variables	CDI			Fd			PHR			GHR			COP		
	β	R ²	ΔR ²	β	R ²	ΔR ²	β	R ²	ΔR ²	β	R ²	ΔR ²	β	R ²	ΔR ²
Step 1	.13*	.02*	.02	.22***	.02*	.02*	.14*	.02*	.02*	.15*	.02*	.02*	.14*	.02*	.02*
Gender (1 = male, 2 = female)															
Step 2	.33	.20***	.18***	.57***	.20***	.18***	.67***	.20***	.18***	.63***	.20***	.18***	.44***	.20***	.18***
FIT															
Step 3	.07	.20	.00	-.63***	.20	.00	-.59**	.21	.01	-.20	.21	.01	-.02	.20	.00
CDI/Fd/PHR/GHR/COP															
Step 4	.12	.21	.00	-.70***	.33***	.13***	-.77***	.28***	.07***	-.36*	.23*	.02*	-.07	.21	.00
FIT × CDI/Fd/PHR/GHR/COP															

***p < .001, **p < .01, *p < .05
 β = standardized coefficient on the last step., ΔR² = R² Change

Information Processing: Table 6 illustrates that the Zd factor relates to performance (β = 0.70, p < .001). The Zd at Step 3 added significant incremental variance and the model explained 39 % of the leader’s performance. For Zf, the coefficient was not significant. The model did not add significant incremental variance in either step 3 or step 4.

Table-6. Hierarchical regression analysis predicting moderation of Information Processing

Independent variables	Zf			Zd		
	β	R ²	ΔR ²	β	R ²	ΔR ²
Step 1	.14*	.02*	.02*	.10	.02*	.02*
Gender (1 = male, 2 = female)						
Step 2	.55*	.20***	.18***	.52***	.20***	.18***
FIT						
Step 3	-.03	.20	.00	.30*	.30***	.09***
Zf/Zd						
Step 4	-.14	.20	.00	.70***	.39***	.09***
FIT × Zf/Zd						

***p < .001, **p < .01, *p < .05
 β = standardized coefficient on the last step., ΔR² = R² Change

Cognitive Mediation: Table 7 records how XA% and X-% at step 3 added significant incremental variance and the model explained 22% of the incremental variance in model XA% and 25% in the model X-%. The interaction terms at step 4 did not add significantly to the incremental variance and the cognitive mediators did not moderate the relationship between JP fit and leader performance.

Table-7. Hierarchical regression analysis predicting moderation of cognitive mediation

Independent Variables	XA%			X-%		
	β	R ²	ΔR ²	β	R ²	ΔR ²
Step 1				.11	.02*	.02*
Gender (1 = male, 2 = female)	.12	.02*	.02*			
Step 2	.30	.20***	.18***	.45***	.20***	.18***
FIT						
Step 3	.16	.22*	.02*	-.25	.25**	.05**
XA%/X-%						
Step 4	.13	.22	.00	-.04	.25	.00
FIT × XA%/ X-%						

***p < .001, **p < .01, *p < .05
 β = standardized coefficient on the last step., ΔR² = R² Change

Self-Perception: The moderating effect of self-perception variables on the relationship between JP fit and leader performance was confirmed by the variables Fr+rF and EGOI. Table 8 shows that only EGOI (β = -0.93, p < .001) has a significant impact on a leader’s performance. The interaction terms in Fr+rF and EGOI with JP fit show a significant effect on a leader’s performance and in both cases added significant incremental variance at step 4. The

interaction term model with Fr+rF explained 25 % and with EGOI y 28% of the leaders' performance. For FD, the coefficient was not significant and the model did not add significant incremental variance either in step 3 or step 4.

Table-8. Hierarchical regression analysis predicting moderation of self-perception

Independent Variables	Fr+rF			EGOI			FD		
	β	R ²	ΔR^2	β	R ²	ΔR^2	β	R ²	ΔR^2
Step 1	.16*	.02*	.02*	.12*	.02*	.02*	.14*	.02*	.02*
Gender (1 = male, 2 = female)									
Step 2	.52***	.20***	.18***	1.17***	.20***	.18***	.37***	.20***	.18***
FIT									
Step 3	-.15	.22*	.02*	-.56***	.20	.00	.31	.21	.01
Fr+rF/EGOI/FD									
Step 4	-.34*	.25*	.02*	-.93***	.28***	.07***	.27	.22	.01
FIT × Fr+rF /EGOI/FD									

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

β = standardized coefficient on the last step., $\Delta R^2 = R^2$ Change

DEPI: The moderating effect of DEPI on the relationship between JP fit and a leader's performance was confirmed (see Table 9). DEPI ($\beta = 0.66$, $p < .01$) and had a significant impact on leaders' performance and the interaction term with JP fit added significant incremental variance at step 4. The interaction term model with DEPI explained 28 % of a leader's performance.

Table-9. Hierarchical regression analysis predicting moderation of DEPI

Independent Variables	.DEPI		
	β	R ²	ΔR^2
Step 1	.12	.02*	.02*
Gender (1 = male, 2 = female)			
Step 2	-.06	.20***	.18***
FIT			
Step 3	.16	.26***	.05***
DEPI			
Step 4	.66**	.28**	.03**
FIT × DEPI			

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

β = standardized coefficient on the last step., $\Delta R^2 = R^2$ Change

5. Discussion

The present study conducted among leaders was designed to investigate the role of the RCS variables in the leaders' performance. More specifically this study examined whether the RCS variables had a moderating effect on the relationship between the JP fit and a leader's performance. Most of the hypotheses were supported by the results of a series of multiple hierarchical regression analyses.

Leader performance was associated with the JP fit. The more similar the preferred personality and the actual personality congruence the better the leader's performance. The leader's performance was positively associated with both stress tolerance variables. The better the leader's stress tolerance, the better the performance. Among the interpersonal perception variables, the GHR and COP were positively associated with performance. It seems that if the leader has an adaptive interpersonal history and if the interpersonal exchange has been positive, the performance as a leader is likely to be strong. It is interesting to note that only the positive variables among the interpersonal perception variables were associated with performance whereas the variables (CDI, Fd, and PHR) that suggest some form of problem with interpersonal perceptions showed no correlation. The Zd variable correlated with performance and therefore the efficiency of the scanning activity during the processing operation is associated with the leader's performance. The result is as expected since the Zd variable has an effect on the decision making. In contrast, the Zf variable did not correlate with leader performance, which was unexpected since the variable gives an estimation of the processing effort, and is associated with intelligence and with the need for achievement. Both cognitive mediation variables, XA% and X-%, had a connection with a leader's performance. The better the leader is able to yield the meditational activities behaviors that are appropriate to the situation, and the fewer uncommon responses in the blot contours, the better the performance. The narcissism-like feature of personality (Fr+rF) was the only variable from the self-perception variables that had a correlation with performance. Unexpectedly the correlation was positive rather than negative. This means that the more narcissism-like features the leader possessed, the better the performance. The depression index was also associated with performance. As expected, the less prone the leader is to feelings of depression, the better the ultimate performance.

The moderating effect of self-perception variables on the relationship between JP fit and leaders' performance was confirmed with the variables D, AdjD, Fd, Fr+rF, EGOI, PHR, GHR and DEPI. This means that even though there is a good fit between the ideal personality and the actual personality, the performance can still be poor if the leader does not have stress tolerance, has low self-esteem, or is suffering from feelings of depression. On the other hand, even when there is no fit, the performance may still be good, if the leader has strong interpersonal skills, or has high self-esteem.

5.1. Limitations

When generalizing these results there are some limitations that should be noted. The study is cross sectional, making it impossible to draw any conclusions on the direction of causality. Moreover, participants were mostly male, so these results best represent the situation prevalent in the manufacturing sector. It should also be noted that some variables were based on self-assessment. The weakness of self-assessment could lie in the socially desirable answering style or the unwillingness to answer some questions. The sample size ($N = 203$) is adequate to offer statistically significant results. However, it should also be noted that there might be some internal correlations since there were only 51 Rorschach protocols but 203 performance evaluations. The survey response rate was extremely encouraging, as only two leaders and five subordinates could not participate in the research.

5.2. Theoretical Implications and Future Studies

Overall the theory of fit is an interesting and important background theory for many human resources management processes, particularly for the recruitment process. It should also be noted that the WOPI-based JP fit was strongly associated with leaders' performance and the sum dimensions did explain some 18% of the variance at the second step alone. The trait approach, especially the Big Five, has dominated personality research, but WOPI and its multifactorial personality approach seem to be a strong alternative. Moreover, the results of the use of the RCS in the job assessment context are very promising. Based on this research, businesses might be wise to add the RCS method to their toolkits, and also to find the fit for deeper level personality features. However we cannot be certain about the causality of these variables. Longitudinal studies would be needed to clarify the cause and effect relationship.

It is also important to remember the recommendation about using multi-method tools, so the RCS method should never be used alone but as part of the method toolkit. While there were correlations between the Rorschach variables and the WOPI-based JP fit, there were no correlations with the thinking process variables or for example the narcissism-like personality trait. These are the variables that are extremely difficult for an individual to evaluate so this might also support the view from the multi-method evaluation that each test measures some aspect of personality that the others do not. Perhaps the most important aspect is the suggestion that in the field of recruitment, the Rorschach and self-report inventories complement each other and provide far more information when used together than is accessible when either test is used alone (Ganellen, 1996).

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Self-Esteem, Tenure, and Narcissistic Leader's Performance

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ABSTRACT

This study investigates the associations between the narcissistic leader and performance and the moderating effect of a leader's tenure and self-esteem. The hypothesis were studied with Pearson correlations and stepwise hierarchical multiple regression analyses (n=203). The moderating effect of leader's tenure on the relationship between narcissism and leader performance was confirmed. The narcissistic leader's performance tends to be positively evaluated only because the leader has held the position for a very short period. Self-esteem exhibited a very strong correlation to leader performance. The results support the view that narcissism is a personality dimension, albeit one that is not necessarily pathological. The results of this study suggest it would be wise to add Rorschach Comprehensive System (RCS) to the tools available in the personnel assessment situation.

Keywords: Leader, narcissism, performance, self-esteem, tenure.

JEL Codes: M51, M54.

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1.0 INTRODUCTION

The term narcissism is almost 120 years old but remains very topical. Some researchers (e.g., Twenge & Campbell, 2009) argue that the prevalence of narcissism has increased over the years and that might be one reason why the scholarly discussion on narcissism remains very active. The second reason might be that narcissism is a complex concept with many unresolved aspects, including the very definition of the concept; whether narcissism is an advantage or a disadvantage; whether there is good and bad narcissism; and whether it affects performance or not.

Researchers have been particularly interested in the connection between leadership and narcissism (e.g., Nevicka, De Hoog, Van Vianen, Beersma & Mcllwain, 2011) and some seem to think that a good performance and narcissism go hand in hand. However, researchers have reported contradictory results concerning the correlation between narcissism and performance. While some researchers (e.g., Raskin, 1980; Deluga, 1997; Maccoby, 2000, 2004) have found a narcissistic personality to have positive consequences, others have recorded negative consequences (e.g., Rosenthal & Pittinsky, 2006; Blair,

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Hoffman & Helland, 2008), and still others have found no association between narcissism and performance (e.g., Chatterjee & Hambrick, 2007; Brunell, Gentry, Campbell, Hoffman, Kuhnert, & DeMarree, 2008; John & Robins, 1994; Hogan, Curphy & Hogan, 1994).

From the organizational point of view, it is very difficult to select good leaders, for example, narcissists often make a very good first impression (Paulhus, 1998), but a narcissistic leader can prove costly for an organization because such leaders often become unpopular after a short period of time (Paulhus, 1998). The selection of a good leader is further complicated because even psychologists have very limited tools to evaluate traits like narcissism early in the personality assessment process. Recently, narcissism has mainly been measured by using the Narcissistic Personality Inventory, or NPI (Ames, Rose & Anderson, 2006; Chen, Ferris, Kwan, Yan, Zhou & Hong, 2013; Nevicka et al., 2011). The NPI, however, does have its weaknesses and at least when it comes to those personality characteristics that involve patterns of overt behavior. Kolar, Funder, and Colvin (1996) suggest that the accuracy is higher if ratings are submitted by others rather than self-reported measures used. It is also important to recall that most individuals are only moderately capable of self-assessing even the most stable personality traits because of self-enhancement, social desirability, and a lack of self-knowledge (Morgeson, Campion, Dipboye, Hollenbeck, Murphy, & Schmitt, 2007; John & Robins, 1993). This might be particularly important when evaluating narcissism, since there is evidence that narcissism is associated with overstating desirable behavior (Gosling, John, Craik, & Robins, 1998). Past studies support the view that the performance-based personality assessment methods, like the Rorschach Comprehensive System (RCS), may be the only reliable way to acquire this kind of information (e.g., Levinson, 1994).

The scholarly discussion on narcissism and leaders has focused primarily on the personality trait level and the argument has mainly addressed whether a narcissistic personality confers an advantage or a disadvantage. Therefore the purpose of this study is to outline the differences between aspects of the narcissism and also to suggest a way to measure narcissism that goes beyond the typical trait approach. This study suggests that the contradictory results concerning the correlation between narcissism and performance indicate that there might be some other important variables, like self-esteem and tenure, which moderate the relationship between narcissism and leader performance. The associations between the narcissistic leader and performance and the moderating effect of a leader's tenure and self-esteem is studied with Pearson correlations and stepwise hierarchical multiple regression analyses ($n=203$). This study suggests that because the accuracy of self-reported methods has been challenged, at least when evaluating narcissism in the recruitment process, the use of the RCS might potentially offer more reliable results.

1.01 NARCISSISM

Havelock Ellis established the term narcissism in 1898 to describe the condition of perverse self-love. Later Freud (1931, 1950) proposed that a narcissistic personality type is characterized by outwardly unflappable strength and confidence. Otto Kernberg (1967, 1989) and Heinz Kohut (1966) developed Freud's and also Horney's (1939) theories and proposed that narcissism is a personality disorder. However, Kohut (1966) proposed that there are pathological and healthy forms of narcissism. The healthy form of narcissism could produce positive behaviors such as humor and creativity. According to Kohut (1966) the pathological form exists when the individual cannot integrate the idealized beliefs with reality. Many definitions of narcissism have followed depicting narcissism as a personality disorder. For example, the definition of narcissism in DSM IV (American Psychiatric Association, 1994, 2000) defines narcissism as including characteristics like grandiosity, an exaggerated sense of self-importance, exploitation of others, lack of empathy, a sense of entitlement, self-centeredness and a feeling of superiority and vanity. Many researchers have followed these guidelines in their definitions. According to Judge, LePine and Rich (2006) narcissism reflects the extent to which a person seeks to maintain an unrealistically positive self-view. Morf and Rhodewalt (2001) point out that narcissistic people desire self-enhancement and this leads them to view themselves in an uncritically positive fashion. Therefore, narcissists tend to see themselves as highly intelligent and attractive. They also tend to overestimate

their attractiveness to others. According to Rosenthal and Pittinsky (2006), arrogance, self-absorption, self-love, entitlement, and hostility are features of the personality of a narcissistic individual.

However, the definition of narcissism varies. Some researchers see narcissism as just an extreme form of self-confidence (Post, 1993, Baumeister, Campbell, Krueger, & Vohs, 2003; Campbell, 2001) and that all people are more or less narcissistic (Maccoby, 2000). There are also different forms and frameworks for narcissism, such as productive narcissism (Maccoby, 2000, 2004), constructive narcissism (Kets de Vries & Miller, 1997), charismatic narcissism (Post, 1993) and reparative narcissism (Volkan & Itzkowitz, 1984).

In this study, the definition of narcissism will be based on Exner's work. The presence of reflection answers (Fr or rF) in the RCS data signifies a tendency to overvalue personal worth, which is considered a narcissistic feature that affects perceptions of and transactions with other people (Exner, 2003). According to Exner (2003), if a person achieves success or recognition, it reduces the likelihood that self-centeredness will lead to pathology or maladjustment. The failure to maintain high self-value very often leads to frustration and negativism. In such situations the person uses defense mechanisms like rationalization, externalization, and denial—an approach that can lead to pathology and maladaptive behavior. Exner (2003) also points out that the narcissism or the reflection answers are common in the groups that are normally labeled high success groups, like surgeons or the clergy, indicating that the presence of a narcissistic-like feature may not automatically signal pathology or maladjustment. On the other hand, Exner (1969) also found earlier that a reflection answer appeared in over 75% of the records of antisocial groups, whereas there were no reflection answers among the depressive group and only 3% in non-patient protocols.

2.0 PRIOR LITERATURE AND HYPOTHESIS

2.01 THE RORSCHACH COMPREHENSIVE SYSTEM (RCS)

The Rorschach Inkblot Method and the associated Comprehensive System, which is used for coding and interpretation (Exner, 2002), is a performance-based personality test (Meyer, Finn, Eyde, Kubiszyn, & Moreland, 1998; Kubiszyn, Meyer, Finn, Eyde, Kay & Moreland, 2000) that focuses on perceptual, cognitive, and decision-making tasks, so it is not the associative or projective method it was originally.

The Rorschach Inkblot Method and Comprehensive System have been criticized over the years (e.g., Garb, Wood, Lilienfeld, & Nezworski, 2005; Lilienfeld, Wood, & Garb, 2000; Wood, Nezworski, & Lilienfeld, 2003), but a considerable body of research confirms their validity, interrater reliability (Maccoby, 1997, 2004; Meyer, Mihura, & Smith, 2005), retest reliability (Grønnerød, 2003, 2006), construct validity (Hunsley & Bailey, 1999; Lilienfeld et al., 2000; Weiner, 1997), and clinical utility (Meyer & Archer, 2001; Viglione & Hilsenroth, 2001; Weiner, 2001). Many studies also confirm the contrast between the self-report instruments and performance-based test scores (Rorschach) (Archer & Krishnamurthy, 1993a, 1993b; Bornstein, 2002; Meyer, 1996; Viglione, 1996; Ganellen, 1996, 2001).

The method has also received support, with Hunsley & Bailey (1999) arguing, “the Rorschach has the dubious distinction of being, simultaneously, the most cherished and the most reviled of all psychological assessment tools” (p. 266). In addition, Viglione & Hilsenroth (2001) argued that one would need some 50 other methods to replace the Rorschach. It is also important to notice that many clinicians have continued to use Rorschach despite the criticism of it because it can reveal information that they cannot elicit from other assessment techniques (Weiner, 1999). However, as Weiner (1997) has pointed out, the RCS is a method that the researcher can use to gather information concerning personality states, traits and motivations. These objectives are not dissimilar to those of other personality tests such as the Sixteen Personality Factor Questionnaire (Cattell, Cattell, & Cattell, 1993), but the methodology is different.

Earlier studies suggest that the Rorschach test is especially helpful when trying to evaluate how the individual will perform in unpredictable, unstructured, and unfamiliar situations (Dies, 1995; Finn, 1996) and many studies support the view that the Rorschach has the ability to predict future behavior (e.g., Exner, 2003; Smith, Baity, Knowles & Hilsenroth, 2001; Viglione, 1999; Hiller, Rosenthal, Bornstein, Berry, & Brunell-Neuleib, 1999). Researchers suggest that RCS could be a suitable tool to aid personnel selection (Del Giudice, 2010; Kottke, Olson, & Schultz, 2010; Zacker, 1997; Ganellen, 1996; Güntert & Nascimento's, 2000; Hartmann & Grønnerød, 2009).

2.02 RORSCHACH AND NARCISSISM

John Exner (1995) started to create the narcissism measure in 1966 using 80 records from four groups of 20 subjects. The groups included homosexuals, diagnosed sociopaths or psychopaths, depressed inpatients, and a control group of college students. Exner found that reflection responses appeared very frequently in the groups of homosexuals and those diagnosed as sociopaths or psychopaths. Subsequently, Exner separated the reflection answers from the dimensional responses and created a specific score for those (Fr+rF). Exner found that reflection answers (or their absence) were very stable even after 18 months of treatment (Exner & Andronikof-Sanglade, 1992; Weiner & Exner, 1991).

Another interesting variable in the RCS is EGOI (Egocentricity Index). Some researchers have argued that the EGOI was the first index of narcissism (e.g., Hilsenroth, Hibbard, Nash, & Handler, 1993) but Exner himself denied that. The EGOI is more a measure of experienced self-esteem (Greenwald, 1990) than the narcissism index. Exner (1978, 2003) described the EGOI as an estimate of self-concern, self-attention, or self-esteem. Lower than average results usually indicate that the subject estimates his or her personal worth negatively (Exner, 2003), something associated with depression. An above average result indicates that the person might be more self-absorbed than most. A high EGOI value does not necessarily mean that a person has narcissistic characteristics, but the ideal is that a person has an egocentric balance and does not focus too much or too little on themselves (Exner, 2003).

2.03 NARCISSISM AND PERFORMANCE

Researchers have been very interested in the connection between a leader's narcissism and performance. However, many articles on the topic have been theoretical (e.g., Brown, 1997), and based on self-assessment methods, and have used different definitions of the concept of narcissism. As Rosenthal (2005) pointed out, it is a challenging task for the researcher to differentiate normal self-esteem and self-confidence from grandiosity, because most theories, research or methods do not do so.

Wallace and Baumeister (2002) suggested that narcissists will get high profile jobs because of their desire for glory and determination to demonstrate their competencies. Some researchers have studied leaders and noticed that many have been ascribed narcissistic characteristics (Deluga, 1997; Glad, 2002; Maccoby, 2000). According to Exner (2003) in the sample of 600 non-patient adults, reflection answers appeared in about 8% of the protocols. The proportion is usually higher among patient groups (Exner, 2001) and there are also some differences between occupations (Exner, 2003), for example, reflection answers appeared in 29% of the protocols of subjects in the clergy and 24% of the protocols of surgeons (Exner, 2003). Therefore, based on these earlier findings it is assumed that:

H1: There are more than the average 8% of the protocols where the reflection answers are over zero because the study group consists of leaders.

The traditional perspective on narcissism has been negative, reflecting the view that narcissism is a negative personal characteristic (Hogan, Raskin & Fazzini, 1990), one which may lead to unethical behavior (Maccoby, 2000; Rosenthal & Pittinsky, 2006) because there is an association between the psychological needs of a narcissistic leader and his/her actions (Kets de Vries & Miller, 1997). Narcissistic leaders may be willing to do anything to secure their leadership position, even if they are underqualified for it (Hogan, et al., 1990), and might for instance use manipulation and deception to establish their skills

(Glad, 2002). According to Blair, et al., (2008), narcissism is negatively associated with integrity and ratings of interpersonal performance. Judge, et al., (2006) also found that others view narcissistic leaders negatively. Narcissistic leaders are found to be over involved and abusive leaders (Hogan et al., 1994). They also take the credit for the successes and blame others for the failures (Hogan, et al., 1990). Therefore based on these earlier findings we could assume that narcissistic leaders would perform badly. Nevertheless, there is evidence that narcissism may have a positive association with performance. Deluga (1997) analyzed the personalities of presidents of the U.S.A and suggested that narcissistic entitlement and self-sufficiency is related to charismatic leadership and ratings of executive performance. Paunonen, et al., (2006) also found that the best-rated military leaders demonstrate high levels of egotism and self-esteem. Many positive features of narcissistic leaders have focused on their innovativeness, creativity and boldness (Maccoby, 2000, 2004; Raskin, 1980). Maccoby (2000, 2004) strongly defended narcissistic leaders and stressed that a hectic and chaotic world needs “productive narcissists” who are visionaries and innovators, and ready to change the world. Moreover, narcissistic leaders can be charmers who inspire people and gather devoted followers (Maccoby, 2000). Organizations face a difficult situation because naturally they need charismatic, innovative and bold leaders, but are aware that narcissistic leaders have a negative side too, as narcissistic leader can be hypersensitive to criticism, poor listeners, lacking empathy, unwilling or unable to mentor or be mentored, and intensely competitive (Maccoby, 2000). Based on these earlier contradictory findings it is assumed that:

H2: There is an association between narcissism and leader performance

Maccoby (2000, p.77) went on to assert that narcissistic leaders can spur positive outcomes if they have the self-knowledge to understand this part of their personality, in which case their visions and plans are likely to be based on reality, and went on to offer some advice to the narcissistic executive: “productive narcissists have perspective and are able to detach themselves and laugh at their irrational needs.... A sense of humor helps them maintain enough perspective and humility to keep on learning.”

Exner (2003) shared similar thoughts to Maccoby (2000) but pointed out the effect of self-esteem (EGOI) should be considered when analyzing narcissism. When reflection (Fr+rF) and high self-esteem (EGOI) are present in the same protocol, it indicates that the person tends to make favorable judgments concerning the self. Moreover this indicates that the narcissistic-type feature has a strong influence on the psychology of the person. The same research asserts that it is very rare to find a person who gave reflection answers who would register a below average score on the EGOI. However, if that happens, it can indicate problems with self-image and self-value. Many researchers have also found that narcissists have high levels of confidence (Campbell, Goodie, & Foster, 2004; Robins & Beer, 2001), self-esteem (Emmons, 1984) or self-efficacy (Watson, Sawrie, & Biderman, 1991). Based on the earlier studies it is assumed in this study that:

H3: Self-esteem (EGOI) is associated with narcissism (Fr+rF) and performance.

H4: Self-esteem (EGOI) moderates the association between narcissism (Fr+rF) and performance.

At their best, narcissistic leaders can be charmers who inspire people and gather devoted followers (Maccoby, 2000). Narcissistic people can make a very good first impression and are often selected for demanding positions, but the good first impression may not last as they come to be disliked by their colleagues after a relatively short period of time (Paulhus, 1998). Narcissists’ desire for self-enhancement means they can be prepared to take major actions to avoid situations threatening their self-image (Chen et al., 2013), which means they might be tempted to act unethically (Maccoby, 2000; Rosenthal & Pittinsky, 2006).

Chatterjee and Hambrick (2007) evaluated the narcissism of 111 CEOs over a 12-year period and found no difference in the performance of firms led by narcissistic leaders and those led by less self-aggrandizing leaders. However, they noticed that in the early years of a CEO’s tenure the results in many companies were significantly positive with regard to company outcomes and that CEOs’ narcissism had an association with large annual fluctuations in accounting returns. Thus it appears narcissism might lead either to good performance if the leader has been in his/her position for a short period and has been able

to make a good impression, or to poor performance if he/she has been in place for a long time and the good first impression has evaporated. Therefore based on the earlier findings the current research assumes that:

H5: Leader tenure is associated with leader performance.

H6: Leader tenure moderates the association between narcissism ($Fr+rF$) and performance.

3.0 METHODS

Data ($n = 203$) were collected in Finland during 2010–2011 from employees of a global manufacturing organization. All but two lower and middle level leaders participated in the research. For each leader ($n=51$) between three and six subordinates were randomly selected to evaluate the leader's performance using the WOPI 360 tool. Five subordinates had either retired or were on long-term sick leave, so those employees next on the list replaced them. 97 % of the leaders were male and 3 % were female. The mean age was 46 years.

3.01 METHODS AND STUDY VARIABLES

First the internal consistencies were computed for the scales. The value of Cronbach's alpha was 0.99 for the WOPI360 tool results comfortably exceeding the required criterion. The study involved 51 Rorschach protocols completed by people in a managerial position. According to John Exner (1995), some 20% to 25% of all protocols should be randomly selected to be recoded by an independent professional. In this study, 20 randomly selected protocols were recoded by the clinician and researcher Tuula Ilonen. The intraclass correlations can be found in Table 1 below.

Variable	Intraclass coefficients ($n = 20$)	p
Dd	1	< .001
S	.98	< .001
DQo	.99	< .001
DQv	.95	< .001
Dets	.98	< .001
Non F	.97	< .001
FQo	.92	< .001
FQ-	.96	<.001
(2)	.99	<.001
Cont	.99	<.001
P	.95	<.001
Zf	.98	<.001
Sum6	.76	<.001
Sum6 & NoSum6	1	<.001
Other SpSc	.88	<.001
Other SpSc+OtherSpSc	.98	<.001
SpSc	.80	<.001
SpSc & NoSpSc	.98	< .001

- *Dependent variable (Performance):* Leader performance was measured by 203 subordinates via the WOPI360 tool (Niitamo, 2010). WOPI360 is a multi-rater tool for appraisal of competence resources and deficits (Niitamo, 2010). Leader behavior was appraised via 45 standard questions. Questions were answered on a 6-point Likert scale anchored with *not at all descriptive* (0) and *very descriptive* (6). This study used only one rater group, the managers' direct subordinates, with between 3 and 6 rating each manager.

- *Independent variable (Narcissism):* Narcissism was measured with the RCS (Exner, 1993, 2000). There are ten inkblots in the test, five of them are black, and the other five contain at least some colored ink. The subject is asked to respond to the question "What might this be?" for each card (Exner,

1993). The test data falls into five clusters: 1) stress tolerance, 2) interpersonal perception, 3) information processing, 4) cognitive mediation, and 5) self-perception. This study focuses on the self-perception cluster and more specifically on the variables *Fr+rF* and *EGOI* (Exner, 2003). If the RCS is administered, coded, and interpreted according to Exner (2003) equivalent reliability, and validity ratings to self-report measures have been established (Society for Personality Assessment, 2005).

According to Exner (2003) when the reflection (*Fr+rF*) and high self-esteem (*EGOI*) are present in the same protocol, it indicates that the person tends to make favorable judgments with regard to the self, and that the narcissistic-like feature has a strong influence on the psychology of the person. Accordingly this study utilizes one variable (*Fr+rF* and *EGOI*) to isolate only those leaders who offered reflection answers and demonstrated high self-esteem.

- *Moderator variable (Self-Esteem and Leader Tenure)*: Self-esteem was measured with the RCS variable *EGOI* (Exner, 1993, 2000). Leader tenure was determined simply by asking, "How many years you have been in your current position?"

- *Control variables (Gender, Intelligence)*. Earlier studies propose that gender might have an effect on narcissism (e.g., Nevicka et al., 2011; Foster, Campbell & Twenge, 2003; Watson & Biderman, 1994) as might intelligence (e.g., Paulhus & Williams, 2002), which leads to those variables being controlled in this research. Intelligence was measured with the Wechsler Adult Intelligence Scale, Third Edition, WAIS-III (Wechsler, 1997). The battery can be used in full or in part (Taylor & Heaton, 2001). The current research utilizes only the *information* part that includes 28 questions on a range of information in Finnish culture.

First, descriptive analysis was conducted to establish how many protocols included reflection answers. The associations between narcissism, leader performance, self-esteem, and leader tenure were examined through Pearson correlation and with hierarchical regression analysis. A stepwise hierarchical multiple regression analysis tested the interaction effect of *EGOI* and leader tenure on the relationship between narcissism and leader performance. The gender and intelligence controls were implemented in the first step of the analysis, the one for narcissism in the second step, tenure or the *EGOI* in the third step, and the interaction variable in the fourth step.

4.0 RESULTS

The leaders had held their current positions for around three years (mean = 2.59, median = 3.0, Std.Deviation = 1.06). Most of the leaders had an average level of self-esteem (mean = 0.32, median = 0.32, Std.Deviation = 0.13). Most of the leaders' protocols (73%) included no reflection answers (mean = 0.55, median = 0.00, Std.Deviation = 1.00), and of those that did, 8% had one, 9% two, and 10% had three or more reflection answers. Therefore, 27% of the leaders surveyed had at least one reflection answer in their protocol, a figure above the average of 8%.

4.01 THE CORRELATIONS BETWEEN NARCISSISM, PERFORMANCE AND SELF-ESTEEM

Table 2 presents the correlations among the variables. Narcissism (*Fr+rF*) had a statistically meaningful negative association with work experience ($r = -0.29, p < .001$) and a positive association with self-esteem (*EGOI*) ($r = 0.45, p < .001$) and leader performance ($r = 0.15, p < .05$). The more reflection answers the leader's responses contained the less experience in the current position the leader had, and the higher the self-esteem (*EGOI*) and the better the performance. Narcissism had no correlation to either gender or intelligence. The variable *Fr+rF* and *EGOI* had a negative association with work experience ($r = -0.70, p < .001$) and a meaningful positive association with leader performance ($r = 0.79, p < .001$). The more the leader demonstrated narcissism and the higher the self-esteem, the less work experience the leader had and the better was the performance. The variable *Fr+rF* and *EGOI* had no association with intelligence. It proved impossible to calculate any correlation to gender as there was no female leader who recorded reflection answers and an above average *EGOI* rating.

Narcissistic leader performance ...

Performance was related to gender ($r = 0.15$, $p < .05$.) and the subordinates were more pleased with the female leaders' performance than with that of the male leaders. Performance had no meaningful association to tenure or intelligence.

Table 02: Correlations between the leader performance, narcissism and self-esteem

Variables	Mean	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. Gender (1 = male, 2 = female)	1,03	1						
2. Tenure	2,59	-.18**	1					
3. Intelligence	11,20	.19**	.06	1				
4. EGOI	0,32	.04	-.40***	-.53***	1			
5. Fr+rF	0,55	.06	-.29***	-.06	.45***	1		
6. Performance	4,03	.15*	-.04	.09	.09	.15*	1	
7. Fr+rF and EGOI	1,90	-	-.70***	.32	.53**	.99***	.79***	1

4.02 THE ASSOCIATION OF NARCISSISM, TENURE AND SELF-ESTEEM ASSOCIATION WITH LEADER PERFORMANCE: REGRESSION ANALYSIS

To examine the hypothesis on the effect of narcissism, self-esteem and tenure, hierarchical multiple regression analyses were performed. The first step assessed the control variables gender and intelligence. The predictor variables were entered in the second and third steps and the interaction variables in the last steps. The results concerning the hierarchical regression analysis are presented in Table 3.

The moderating effect of tenure on the relationship between narcissism and leader performance was examined first. Table 3 shows that narcissism ($\beta = 0.62$, $p < .001$) has a significant impact on leader performance, after controlling for gender and intelligence. In addition, tenure ($\beta = 0.20$, $p < .05$) had a significant impact on performance. The interaction term *tenure* ($\beta = -0.51$, $p < .01$) with narcissism had a significant effect on leader performance and added significant incremental variance at Step 4. The interaction term *model* explained 10% of leader performance. The moderating effect of self-esteem on the relationship between narcissism and leader performance was not confirmed. The coefficient was not significant and the model did not add significant incremental variance.

Table 3. Hierarchical regression analysis predicting performance of the narcissism model

Independent variables	Performance					
	Tenure			EGOI		
	β	R^2	ΔR^2	β	R^2	ΔR^2
Step 1		.02	.02		.02	.02
Gender	-.13			.13		
Intelligence	.07			.19		
Step 2		.05*	.02*		.05*	.02*
Fr+rF	.62***			-.34		
Step 3		.05	.00		.05	.01
Tenure / EGOI	.20*			.03		
Step 4		0.10***	.06**		.07	.02
Interaction	-.51**			.49		

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

β = standardized coefficient on the last step., $\Delta R^2 = R^2$ Change

5.0 DISCUSSION

The present study conducted among leaders was designed to investigate the association between narcissism and performance. More specifically this study examined whether tenure and self-esteem has a moderating effect on the relationship between the narcissism and leader performance. Most of the

hypotheses were supported by the results of correlations and a series of multiple hierarchical regression analyses.

For the purpose of this study it was assumed that there would be more reflection answers in the leaders' protocols than the average 8%. This hypothesis was confirmed because 27% of leaders had at least one reflection answer in their protocol.

Narcissism was positively associated with leader performance. This means that the more narcissism present, the better the leader's performance was. Narcissism was also associated with work experience and self-esteem. It seems that the more reflection answers the leader recorded, the higher was the recorded level of self-esteem. Moreover, the more reflection answers the leaders recorded, the less time they had served in their current position. When only those leaders who recorded reflection answers and high self-esteem were studied, the results were similar as with the narcissism variable but the associations were stronger. The more the leader exhibited signs of narcissism and the higher the self-esteem, the less experience the leader had in the current position and the better the performance was. Subordinates were more pleased with the performance of female leaders than with that of men. The moderating effect of a leader's tenure on the relationship between narcissism and leader performance was confirmed. This means that narcissistic leaders' performance might be good only because the leader has been in position for a very short period and had made a good first impression. On the other hand, the narcissistic leader might offer a weak performance if he or she has been in position for a long time.

It should also be noted that although self-esteem did not moderate the relationship between narcissism and leader performance, it had very strong correlations, especially when only those leaders with reflection answers and high self-esteem were selected. Therefore, self-esteem may play an important role in explaining the differences between healthy narcissism and pathological narcissism.

5.01 LIMITATIONS AND FUTURE STUDIES

When generalizing these results there are some limitations that should be noted. The study is cross-sectional and therefore we cannot draw conclusions about the direction of causality. Moreover, most of the participants were male, so these results best represent the situation in manufacturing industries, and it is possible that narcissism might have more beneficial or harmful effects in different environments, industries, countries, or cultures. Therefore, there is a need for further studies taking these issues into consideration. While the sample size ($N = 203$) is at a level that offers statistically significant results, it should also be noted that there might be some internal correlations since there were only 51 Rorschach protocols but 203 performance evaluations. On the other hand, the survey response rate was extremely encouraging, with only two leaders and five subordinates unable to participate in the study. It should also be noted that none of the variables used in this study were based on self-assessment.

5.02 CONCLUSION AND POLICY IMPLICATIONS

The results of this study highlight some important implications. First the results confirm that narcissism is a complex concept that is very easily misunderstood. Prior research on narcissism offers no consensus on whether it is a good or bad thing to have narcissistic leaders, or on whether narcissism and leadership go hand in hand. However, narcissism is defined in the literature in very different ways, and we cannot be certain researchers are always talking about the same thing. Some researchers clearly refer to just extensive self-confidence (e.g., Campbell, 2001) whereas others refer to a personality disorder (APA, 2000). Secondly this study suggests that above all narcissism and self-esteem are different concepts. Finally, the results seem to support the view that narcissism is a personality dimension, but not necessarily a pathological one.

The results of this study suggest it would be wise to add RCS to the tools available in the recruitment and personnel assessment situation. The time involved in using RCS (approximately 2–3 hours of work per candidate) is low compared to the personnel and economic advantage that organizations might receive by selecting better leaders and avoiding issues that affect performance. However, practitioners should exercise caution when analyzing reflection findings in the personnel assessment process. It is important to note that one or more reflection answer in the protocol does not imply that the subject is suffering from a narcissistic disorder or that the narcissism indicated is necessarily pathological. Practitioners should always favor multi-method tools, and consider using RCS as one such tool rather than as a standalone method.

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