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Examining the Effect of Expatriate Narcissism Levels on Cultural Adjustment and Global Leadership Effectiveness

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EXAMINING THE EFFECT OF EXPATRIATE NARCISSISM LEVELS ON
CULTURAL ADJUSTMENT AND GLOBAL LEADERSHIP EFFECTIVENESS

A Thesis
Presented to
The Faculty of the Department of Psychological Sciences
Western Kentucky University
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In Partial Fulfillment
Of the Requirements for the Degree
Master of Science

By
Emily Martin

May 2017

EXAMINING THE EFFECT OF EXPATRIATE NARCISSISM LEVELS ON
CULTURAL ADJUSTMENT AND GLOBAL LEADERSHIP EFFECTIVENESS

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12/1/16

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This thesis is dedicated to my parents, Michael and Becky Martin, for their continuous
love and support during my graduate career.

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The purpose of this study was to investigate the relationship between narcissism, cultural adjustment, and leadership of expatriates. Specifically, it was predicted that cultural adjustment would partially mediate the relationship between narcissism and self-perceptions of leadership effectiveness such that narcissism would be negatively related to cultural adjustment, and cultural adjustment would be positively related to self-perceptions of leadership effectiveness. It was also predicted that cultural adjustment would partially mediate the relationship between narcissism and LMX perceptions such that narcissism would be negatively related to cultural adjustment, and cultural adjustment would be positively related to LMX perceptions. Fifty-three participants completed an online survey through Qualtrics. Participants consisted of individuals who were teaching abroad for an extended period of time. Results indicated support for the mediating role of cultural adjustment in the relationship between narcissism and perceived leadership effectiveness, but not in the relationship between narcissism and LMX perceptions. Results also indicated positive correlations between narcissism and cultural adjustment. The implications and limitations of these findings are discussed, and multiple directions for future research are suggested.

Introduction

An increase in global business has resulted in a rise in the number of organizations sending employees abroad to complete assignments (Lee & Sukoco, 2010). In order to be competitive in the global market, organizations need employees to be successful during their assignments abroad, as failed assignments can be very costly to both organizations and employees. Research suggests that multinational organizations invest approximately one million dollars per employee per assignment (McNulty & Tharenou, 2005). Employees of organizations who are sent abroad to complete work assignments are called expatriates (Zhang, 2012). The number of expatriates worldwide is estimated to be around one million and is likely to increase in the future (Mercer, 2010). Expatriate success is dependent, in part, upon how well the expatriate adjusts to their new environment, including both the work and home contexts (Takeuchi, Yun, & Tesluck, 2002). Employees must find a balance between their new work requirements and responsibilities while also learning the norms and expectations of their new culture (Firth, Chen, Krikman, & Kim, 2014).

In recent decades there has been a great deal of research examining factors that impact the cross-cultural adjustment of expatriates. Much of the research has focused on work, organizational, and contextual factors that are linked to cross-cultural adjustment (Black & Mendenhall, 1990; Huang, Chi, & Lawler, 2005; Shaffer, Harrison, Gilley, 1999). Some of the previous research has touched on individual factors such as personality, but has mainly been limited to the Five Factor Model (e.g., Caligiuri, 2000; Huang, et al., 2005; Huff, Song, & Gresch, 2014). Although the Five Factor Model does cover a large portion of individual characteristics, there are other characteristics that

could be beneficial to examine in this context as well, such as narcissism. In previous research, narcissism has been linked to organizational constructs such as leadership (Grijalva & Harms, 2014), which is relevant in this context because expatriates are frequently sent abroad to manage a global assignment, and they often manage a group of employees to help complete that assignment. The management aspect of their assignment makes the expatriate a global leader, and, as such, it would be beneficial to investigate which characteristics affect an expatriate's adjustment, as well as their leadership effectiveness.

The remainder of the paper is structured as follows. The definition of and background research on expatriates will be provided, followed by a discussion of culture research, with an emphasis on the cultural adjustment of expatriates. Next, leadership in a global setting will be discussed. Lastly, personality as an antecedent to expatriate adjustment will be discussed, and as very little research has investigated the role of narcissism in the cross-cultural context, the current study will explore narcissism as a predictor of expatriate adjustment and leadership effectiveness.

Expatriates

Previous research has defined an expatriate assignment as an “employee’s time-limited move to a country beyond the borders of his or her home country, with the intent to return at the conclusion of the specified assignment” (Ritchie, Brantley, Pattie, Swanson, & Logsdon, 2015, p. 325). Other studies have described the concept as being more time-specific by saying an expatriate is an employee who is sent abroad by a firm to work for a year or more (McNulty & Tharenou, 2005). For the purpose of this study, an

expatriate will be defined as an individual who relocates to a new culture to work for an extended period of time.

Regardless of the definition used for expatriates, the increase in globalization requires that organizations find employees who are able to work effectively in a culturally diverse environment. For an expatriate to be successful and effective on an international assignment, they not only need to be competent in terms of global business, but also competent in how to interact with individuals from another culture on a global level (Zhang, 2012). Expatriates who are unable to interact successfully in a diverse global environment can be damaging to the organization's goals and operations in the culture in which they are working (Gregersen & Black, 1990).

Expatriates can be divided into two categories: organization-initiated expatriates and self-initiated expatriates (Froese & Peltokorpi, 2013). As the name suggests, organization-initiated expatriates are employees who are selected by the organization to relocate and work abroad on a foreign assignment. Self-initiated expatriates are individuals who decide on their own to relocate for work. Notably, the majority of research has focused on organization-initiated expatriates, and little research has been conducted using a self-initiated expatriate sample, even though 50-70% of expatriates around the globe are classified as self-initiated expatriates (Doherty, Dickman, & Mills, 2011).

With what little research has been done on self-initiated expatriates, one finding that stands out is that self-initiated expatriates differ from organization-initiated expatriates in terms of what motivates and drives their relocation (Doherty, et al., 2011; Inkson, Arthur, Pringle, & Barry, 1998; Richardson & Mallon, 2005; Richardson &

McKenna, 2003). Self-initiated expatriates tend to be motivated to work abroad by a desire for adventure and travel, whereas organization-initiated expatriates tend to be motivated by organizational goals and incentives (Inkson, et al., 1997; Richardson & Mallon, 2005). Other differences between the two types of expatriates are that self-initiated expatriates tend to be younger than organization-initiated expatriates and that self-initiated expatriates tend to stay for shorter periods of time (Suutari & Brewster, 2001). Research has also shown that self-initiated expatriates tend to have higher levels of cultural adjustment when compared to organization-initiated expatriates, but lower levels of job satisfaction (Biemann & Andresen, 2010; Froese & Peltokorpi, 2011, 2013; Peltokorpi & Froese, 2009). Regardless of whether they are self- or organization-initiated, all expatriates need to adjust well to their new environment in order to succeed and one key aspect in adjusting is understanding their new culture.

Culture

Culture Defined. Culture can be described as the “collective programming of the mind which distinguishes the members of one category of people from those of another” (Hofstede, 1984, p. 389). An individual’s culture is dependent upon the environment in which they live and work, and an individual’s cultural identity may be different across various aspects of their life, such as home versus work (Mao & Shen, 2015). Hofstede (1984, 1991) suggested that there are five dimensions that define a culture, and they include power distance, individualism, masculinity, uncertainty avoidance, and short-term versus long-term orientation. Each of the five dimensions will be explained further below.

Power distance can be defined by the amount of inequality an individual of lesser power feels when compared to their superior and how much of that inequality is normal for the individual's particular culture (Hofstede, 1984). Individuals who come from a culture with low power distance and are used to working in environments with power equality may have problems adjusting to a new environment where power distance is high. Examples of high power distance in the workplace can include a hierarchical organizational structure where the individuals on the bottom of the hierarchy almost never interact with individuals on the top of the hierarchy.

The second dimension of individualism is contrasted with collectivism (Hofstede, 1984). Members of cultures that are characterized as being individualistic tend to focus on their own interests and personal gain. The focus is on the issues and concerns of the self and immediate family. In contrast, members of cultures that are considered to be high in collectivism tend to form in-groups that include others besides those in their immediate family. When making decisions, members of collectivistic cultures consider how their decision will affect every member of the in-group. They are motivated not by individual gain, but rather how they can move forward as a group. An individual moving from an individualistic culture to a collectivistic culture may struggle with putting their own needs aside for others and vice versa.

Masculinity refers to how the culture views the differences in roles between men and women (Hofstede, 1984). Masculinity is on one end of a continuum, and femininity is on the other. Cultures high in masculinity have very contrasting social roles for men and women. Men are viewed as being more assertive and competitive, whereas women are seen to be more nurturing and caring toward others. More feminine cultures see social

roles as overlapping between the sexes. These cultures believe that a man or woman can take on the role of being strong and competitive or being weak and nurturing. Feminine cultures focus more on equality between the sexes.

Dimension four is uncertainty avoidance and is defined by the extent to which individuals react when there are circumstances that are unclear and unpredictable (Hofstede, 1984). Cultures that are considered to have strong levels of uncertainty avoidance seek out feelings of security and are intolerant to situations out of the ordinary. In contrast, cultures that are considered to have lower levels of uncertainty avoidance are accepting of personal risk and are more tolerant of unpredictable situations. An individual within a low uncertainty avoidance culture who is used to having a lot of structure and predictability in their job may struggle if their new environment holds a lot of ambiguity and vice versa.

The final dimension, long-term versus short-term orientation, refers to how much a culture is focused on the future (Hofstede, 1991). Individuals with a long-term cultural orientation are able to put current projects and issues aside, if necessary, to prepare for the future. Long-term oriented cultures value persistence and being able to adapt to changes. Conversely, individuals from short-term orientation cultures focus on the past and present and see them as being more important than the future. Short-term oriented cultures value tradition and get satisfaction from immediate gratification.

All five of these dimensions are what make cultures different from each other, and those differences can be found in the workplace as well. When expatriates make the move to their host culture, there may be discrepancies between what they are used to in their home culture and what they are experiencing in the host culture. In order for an

expatriate to be successful, they need to be able to adjust to these differences to be effective in their new environment.

Cultural Adjustment Theories. To better understand the different types of cross-cultural adjustment, Black and Stephens (1989) broke down cultural adjustment into three forms. Work adjustment refers to how the expatriate adjusts to their new job responsibilities and performance expectations. Interaction adjustment refers to communicating and socializing with individuals from the expatriate's host culture. General adjustment refers to aspects of everyday life such as housing, food, and shopping. It is possible that the expatriate will have no trouble adjusting in one aspect, but have difficulty in one of the others.

Research has also suggested that individuals who travel abroad develop their adjustment patterns within the first six months of their experience (Draine & Hall, 2000). Black and Mendenhall's (1991) U-curve theory describes the typical effect expatriates experience when traveling abroad. The curve begins with what is called the honeymoon stage and is experienced when the expatriate first arrives in the new culture. As the name suggests, the honeymoon stage is a time when the expatriate has a sense of euphoria and love for the observed differences in the new culture. Activities the expatriate may participate in during this stage are engaging in the customs and activities of the new culture, such as trying the traditional foods of the culture. The honeymoon stage lasts about two weeks for most individuals.

The next stage of the U-curve is the crisis or culture shock stage. During this stage, the expatriate begins to notice differences from their home culture, and those differences begin to cause them anxiety and stress. During this time, the expatriate may

begin to experience feelings of loneliness, homesickness, and depression. These feelings can result in the expatriate retreating from the daily activities in which they participated previously. If the expatriate is able to move out of the culture shock stage, they begin to move toward the third stage, which is the adjustment stage. In this stage, the expatriate accepts the differences between their host culture and their home culture and begins to enjoy experiencing those differences. It is important to note that the expatriate will likely never reach the level of euphoria they felt during the honeymoon stage. The time it takes for the expatriate to move from the culture shock stage to the adjustment stage varies due to differences in cultural location, the support provided in the work setting, and individual characteristics. However, the average time it takes for an individual to move through the full adjustment curve is about six months (Draine & Hall, 2000). Research has suggested there are several antecedents and outcomes of cultural adjustment.

Antecedents of Cultural Adjustment. Positive cultural adjustment is one of the key aspects to expatriate success (Caligiuri, 1997). Poor adjustment often leads to early termination of the assignment abroad, which is extremely costly to the organization (Kim & Slocum, 2008). Research on cross-cultural adjustment has noted many antecedents that have an effect on the expatriate's adjustment.

Cultural distance, which refers to how different the expatriate's host culture is from their home culture in terms of values and communication styles (Morosini, Shane, & Singh, 1998), is one predictor of cultural adjustment. There is an inverse relationship between cultural adjustment and cultural distance, meaning that the more cultural distance between the host culture and the expatriate's home culture, the poorer their cross-cultural adjustment (Black & Gregersen, 1991; Black & Stephens, 1989). An

example of two cultures that have high levels of cultural distance from one another would be the United States and China; the values and communication styles in the two cultures differ greatly.

The expatriate's cross-cultural self-efficacy upon arriving in their new culture is another very influential antecedent to their cross-cultural adjustment. Self-efficacy in the context of cross-cultural adjustment refers to the expatriate's confidence in themselves to overcome the obstacles that come with the adjustment process (Haslberger, 2005). An individual with a high level of self-efficacy will be less likely to give up when faced with obstacles during the adjustment process, as compared to someone with low self-efficacy (Haslberger, 2005). Thus, the withdrawal aspect of the culture shock stage of the U-curve theory will become less likely, and a positive adjustment experience will become more likely (Haslberger, 2005).

Social support or the presence of social networks is another antecedent in expatriate cross-cultural adjustment. A social network can be defined by the expatriate's support system at home or work, and may also include the expatriate's relationships with the host nationals of their new culture (Mao & Shen, 2015). Social networks are important to cross-cultural adjustment because often when the expatriate leaves their home culture for their host culture, they feel as if they are losing their friends and support system back home (Oberg, 1960). Research has shown that if the expatriate is able to create friendly relationships with host nationals or support systems at home or work, they are likely to adjust better than those who do not (Haslberger, 2005).

Research has also suggested that the personality of an expatriate can help predict their cross-cultural adjustment on an assignment abroad (Bhatti, Battour, Ismail, &

Sundram, 2013; Ramalu, Wei, & Rose, 2011) The Five Factor Model has been used in many cross-cultural adjustment and personality research studies. Conscientiousness, extraversion, openness to experience, emotional stability, and agreeableness have all been positively linked to cross-cultural adjustment (Bhatti, et al., 2013; Huff, et al., 2014; Swagler & Jome, 2005). Accurately predicting cultural adjustment is of critical importance to international organizations, especially considering the outcomes associated with high (or low) levels of cultural adjustment.

Outcomes of Cross-Cultural Adjustment. Research has suggested that cultural adjustment is positively related to relationships with the host nationals and host organizations (Ritchie et al., 2015). These relationships are critical to the expatriate's success with their assignment abroad because the expatriate is reliant on resources from the host culture to complete their assignment (Ritchie et al., 2015).

An expatriate's level of cross-cultural adjustment can also impact their levels of job satisfaction during their abroad assignment. How well an expatriate adjusts to their new work environment or new home environment can positively spill over into their job satisfaction (Takeuchi et al., 2002), and job satisfaction is one of the key aspects in having expatriates complete their assignment abroad (Takeuchi et al., 2002). Poor job satisfaction may lead to outcomes that cost the organization a lot of time and money, such as early termination of the assignment.

The cross-cultural adjustment of expatriates has also been linked to the expatriate's intentions of ending their assignment abroad prematurely. The more poorly the expatriate adjusts to their new culture, the more likely it is that he or she will prematurely terminate the assignment (Black, 1988; Caligiuri, 1997). It is estimated that

20 to 40 percent of expatriates leave their assignments early (Kim & Slocum, 2008), which costs the organization money, time, and potentially business relationships (Ritchie et al., 2015), as organizations must pick up the unfinished projects the expatriate left behind and begin to search for a replacement. In order to prevent costly negative outcomes associated with low levels of cultural adjustment, it is also important to understand how leaders, namely expatriate leaders, are viewed differently from one culture to the next by members of that culture.

Cross-Cultural Leadership

The organization for Global Leadership and Organizational Behavior Effectiveness (GLOBE) has defined leadership as “the ability of an individual to influence, motivate, and enable others to contribute toward the effectiveness and success of the organization of which they are members” (House, Javidan, Hanges, & Dorfman, 2002, p. 3). Cross-cultural literature has placed emphasis on the differences in preferred leadership styles between cultures (House et al., 2002). Expatriates who have the responsibility of leading projects need to understand how to work in a multicultural work group (Aritz & Walker, 2014). The success of the expatriate’s assignment is dependent upon their effectiveness as a leader in a global setting (Caligiuri & Tarique, 2012). Previous research has suggested that work groups that are heterogeneous in terms of culture have significant communication issues and trouble reaching their full potential (Earley & Gibson, 2002; Earley & Mosakoski, 2000; Jehn, Northcraft, & Neale, 1999; Ravlin, Thomas, & Ilsev, 2000). Expatriates as leaders face the challenge of resolving these communication issues so that their multicultural work group can reach their full potential.

A large portion of the research regarding differences in leadership styles between cultures has focused on Western versus Eastern cultures, and more specifically, the United States versus Asian cultures. Research has found that one of the main differences between cultures is what the followers look for and want in a leader (Aritz & Walker, 2014; Hui & Tan, 1996). For instance, research has suggested that Chinese employees want leaders who are benevolent, honest, trustworthy, and unbiased (Hui & Tan, 1996). Chinese leaders also tend to hold those same values and do not see independent thinking as a key characteristic needed by leaders (Hui & Tan, 1996). On the other hand, the workplace in the United States thrives off of competitiveness, toughness, and independence, and followers look for those aspects in their leaders (Aritz & Walker, 2014). US leaders also often expect subordinates to be able to work autonomously and contribute to the organization's goals through independent work (Aritz & Walker, 2014). Thus, this illustrates why it is sometimes difficult for expatriates to be effective leaders in an abroad environment where their followers value a leadership style different from their own. As such, the expatriate needs to understand the differences and be willing to adjust to the leadership values of their new culture in order to be successful.

One key aspect of leadership effectiveness is the relationship between the leader and the follower and how it impacts the organizational goals. Leader Member Exchange theory (LMX), originally introduced by Graen and Uhl-Bien (1995), is based around the development of those relationships and how they can differ from follower to follower (Liden, Sparrowe, & Wayne, 1997). The main idea behind the theory focuses on how the one-on-one exchanges between leader and follower develop and maintain the relationship (Wang, Law, Hackett, Wang, & Chen, 2005). Low LMX relationships between leader

and follower are characterized by exchanges that take place only according to the job description (Liden et al., 1997). Followers who fall under the category of low LMX relationship with their leader are considered to be in the out-group (Dansereau, Graen, & Haga, 1975). High LMX relationships are considered to be relational exchanges between leader and follower that go beyond the formal job description, and followers who fall into this category are considered to be part of the in-group (Dansereau et al., 1975; Liden et al., 1997;). Research suggests that high levels of LMX are positively related to followers' job performance, employment experiences, and organizational effectiveness (Deluga, 1998; Liden et al., 1997). Followers who observe high levels of leadership support should feel a need to give back by engaging in actions that benefit the organization (Ilies, Nahrgang, & Morgeson, 2007; Kamdar & Van Dyne, 2007). Similarly, leaders who see followers with strong effort and high performance should respond with equal actions (Bernerth, Armenakis, Feild, Giles, & Walker, 2008).

Personality characteristics have also often been investigated in leadership research. Similar to the cultural adjustment research, perceptions of leadership effectiveness have been linked to characteristics in the Five Factor Model (Judge, Bono, Ilies, & Gerhardt, 2002). Of the five personality traits, conscientiousness (Barrick & Mount, 1991; Judge et al., 2002), extraversion (Costa & McCrae, 1988; Judge et al., 2002), and openness to experience (Bass, 1990; Judge et al., 2002) have all been found to be positively linked to leadership effectiveness. Neuroticism has been inversely linked (Bass, 1990; Eysenck, 1990; Hogan, Curphy, & Hogan, 1994) and findings on agreeableness in relationship to leadership effectiveness have been mixed (Judge et al., 2002). In regard to the Five Factor Model and LMX theory, research has suggested that a

leader's levels of agreeableness and conscientiousness positively impacted followers' perceptions of their relationship with their leader (Bernerth, Armenakis, Feild, Giles, & Walker, 2007).

Another personality characteristic that has been researched often in the leadership literature is narcissism. GLOBE has identified personality characteristics of leaders that are universally disliked, such as egocentrism (Javidan, Dorfman, de Luque, & House, 2006). Egocentrism is defined as the "practice of talking about oneself excessively because of an undue sense of self-importance" (Merriam-Webster's online dictionary, n.d.). Egocentrism is very similar to narcissism in definition, which is "a grandiose preoccupation with one's own self-importance" (American Psychiatric Association, 2013, p. 645). However, the link between narcissism and leadership effectiveness is unclear, and future research is needed to better understand the relationship between these two constructs (Grijalva & Harms, 2014). Notably, as previous research has called for investigation of narcissism in cross-cultural contexts (Grijalva & Harms, 2014), narcissism will be considered in the current paper as a predictor of expatriate leadership effectiveness.

Narcissism

Although narcissism can occur on a clinical level, most individuals display a level of narcissism that exists on a continuum like many other personality characteristics (Grijalva & Harms, 2014). Much of the organizational research on narcissism focuses on the personality trait of narcissism rather than the personality disorder (Grijalva & Harms, 2014), so the research reviewed here is that which is focused on trait narcissism.

Narcissism has been linked to many outcomes in the workplace, including counterproductive workplace behaviors (CWBs) and exploitative behavior, such as lack of workplace integrity (Blair, Hoffman, & Helland, 2008; Grijalva & Harms, 2014; O'Boyle, Forsyth, Banks, & McDaniel, 2012). Also, individuals with high levels of narcissism often have trouble maintaining long-term relationships with the people with which they work (Campbell & Foster, 2002; Campbell, Foster, & Finkel, 2002; Paulhus, 1998). Notably, however, building long-term relationships with coworkers and followers is a key aspect of effective leadership (Liao & Chuang, 2007; Tourangeau, Cranley, Spence Laschinger, & Pachis, 2010). Narcissists tend to have trouble with this aspect because they often see interpersonal relationships as an opportunity for self-enhancement and are generally oblivious to others' feelings and opinions (Carroll, 1987; Grijalva & Harms, 2014; Watson, Grisham, Trotter, & Biderman, 1984). However, there have been mixed results regarding the link between leadership effectiveness and narcissism (Blair et al., 2008; Galvin, Waldman, & Balthazard, 2010).

Narcissists often display characteristics that are stereotypical of a good leader, such as high levels of extraversion, high self-esteem, and dominance (Ensari, Riggio, Christian, & Carlsaw, 2011; Judge et al., 2002). Narcissism has also been linked to a desire for leadership roles because narcissists long for power and status (Carroll, 1987; Hogan, Raskin, & Fazzini, 1990; Raskin & Novacek, 1991), and their charismatic nature often makes them attractive for organizational leadership roles (Back, Schmukle, & Egloff, 2010; Brunell et al., 2008; Nevicka, De Hoogh, Van Vianen, Beersma, & McIlwain, 2011). In additions, narcissists are very willing to speak highly of themselves, and as a result, they are often seen as more competent job applicants when compared to

others (Paulhus, Westlake, Calvez, & Harms, 2013). However, over time, narcissists' assertive nature can tend to take over what was previously seen as charismatic and attractive, resulting in dislike from their followers (Grijalva & Harms, 2014; Paulhus, 1998). Although there has been research conducted on narcissism and leadership, there is no previous research that has focused on narcissism and leadership in a cross-cultural context. Likewise, as there has been a call for research that investigates the impact of narcissism in cross-cultural settings (see e.g., Grijalva & Harms, 2014), the current study will examine narcissism as a predictor of cross-cultural adjustment and leadership effectiveness among expatriates.

The Current Study

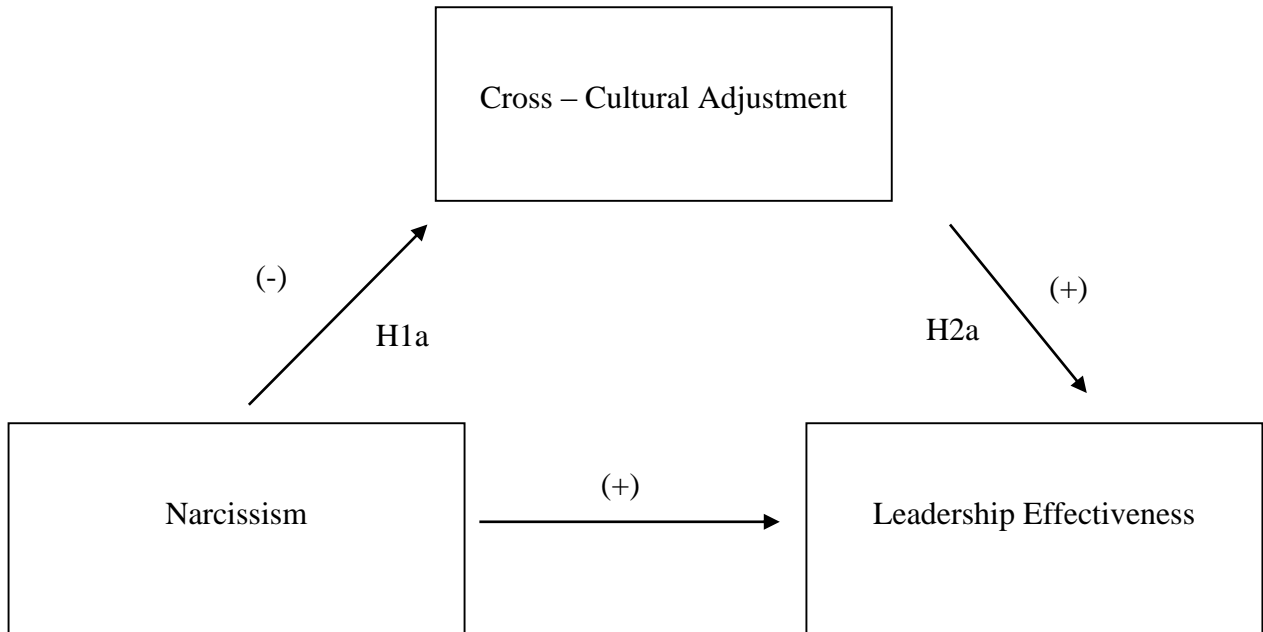
Due to an increase in globalization, research in the cross-cultural arena has focused on what predicts expatriate effectiveness. As mentioned previously, an expatriate's effectiveness is dependent upon their adjustment to their new culture (Takeuchi et al., 2002). Organizations often want expatriates who can be effective leaders on their assignments to help reach organizational goals. Previous research has linked cultural adjustment with personality characteristics from the Big Five, suggesting that there are characteristics of an expatriate that make them more likely to adjust to their new culture successfully (Bhatti et al., 2013; Huff et al., 2014; Swagler & Jome, 2005). However, the characteristic of narcissism has received little attention in previous research. Narcissists tend to see themselves as more capable than others when it comes to completing difficult tasks and tend to feel entitled when it comes to things they want (Grijalva & Harms, 2014). When entering a new culture, individuals with high levels of

narcissism may feel as though they do not need anyone's help adjusting to their new culture or feel as though they are entitled to everyone's help.

In order for an expatriate to be successful on their assignment abroad, they must be effective in their leadership position (Caligiuri & Tarique, 2012). Previous research has suggested that the link between narcissism and leadership is too mixed to draw conclusions about the nature of this relationship (Grijalva & Harms, 2014). Some research suggests that narcissists are often depicted as successful leaders because of their charisma and likelihood of making good first impressions (Grijalva & Harms, 2014). However, other research has suggested that over time, narcissists tend to be viewed by their followers as assertive and selfish (Grijalva & Harms, 2014). Yet, if given the chance to rate their own effectiveness, because of their strong belief in their ability and their confidence that they know more than others, narcissists would be likely to report that they are effective leaders even if they are not. Therefore, the current study will test the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 1: Expatriate cross-cultural adjustment will partially mediate the positive relationship between narcissism and self-perceptions of leadership effectiveness such that (a) narcissism will be negatively related to expatriate adjustment and (b) expatriate cross-cultural adjustment will be positively related to self-perceptions of leadership effectiveness (see Figure 1).

Figure 1. Model of the relationship between narcissism levels of expatriates and their perceived leadership effectiveness partially mediated by cultural adjustment levels.

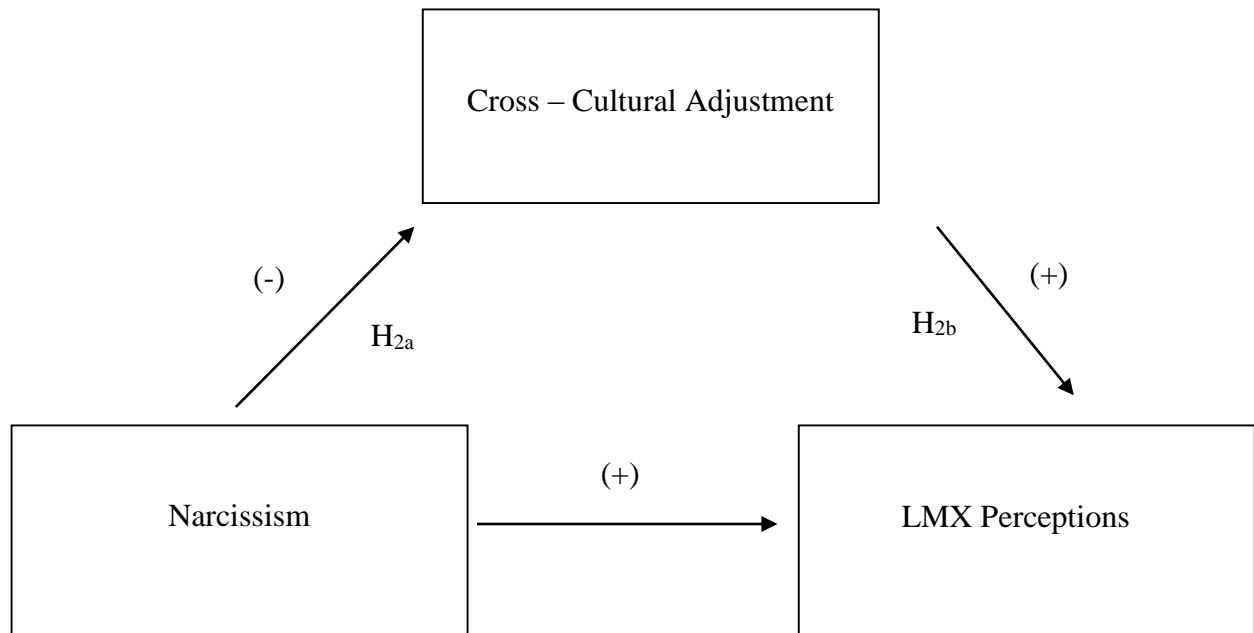


The second hypothesis in the current study is similar to the first, but instead of investigating leadership effectiveness, LMX perceptions will be examined. According to LMX theory, followers develop a unique relationship based on their social exchanges with their leader, and that relationship is commonly found to be positively related to job performance (Janssen & Van Yperen, 2004). Individuals with high narcissism levels may feel as though they have great relationships with their followers even if their followers do not share the same feeling (Grijalva & Harms, 2014). Therefore, the current study will also test the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 2: Expatriate cross-cultural adjustment will partially mediate the positive relationship between narcissism and LMX perceptions such that (a) narcissism will be negatively related to expatriate adjustment and (b) expatriate

cross-cultural adjustment will be positively related to LMX perceptions (see Figure 2).

Figure 2. Model of the relationship between narcissism levels of expatriates and their LMX perceptions partially mediated by cultural adjustment levels.



Previous research has not investigated the link between narcissism and cross-cultural adjustment; as a result, the current study will answer the following research question:

Research Question: Will expatriates' levels of narcissism have differing relationships with the three types of cross-cultural adjustment (i.e., general, work, and interactional adjustment)?

Method

Participants

Participants were a sample of 73 teachers working in abroad environments. However, 15 participants' data were excluded due to incompleteness of the study survey

and another five participants' data were also excluded for incorrectly answering the quality control question in the survey. The final sample size used in data analysis was 53 participants. Thirty of the participants were teachers from an English immersion school located in Bangkok, Thailand, all of which are originally from the United States. The remaining 33 participants were teachers from a number of Chinese immersion programs located in universities across the United States. All of the teachers from the Chinese sample were originally from China and proficient in English; however, each participant responded to an English proficiency questionnaire to assess their level of mastery with the English language.

The average age of the participants was 30.95 years ($SD = 10.07$), and 79% of participants were female. Of the participants who responded, 53% identified as Asian, 43% as White/Caucasian, 2% as Black, and 2% as Hawaiian/Pacific Islander. The average amount of time spent in their host culture was 9.94 months ($SD = 9.89$). Eighty percent of participants reported having traveled abroad before their current assignment, and 30% reported having working abroad prior to their current assignment.

A large amount of previous research has used samples that involve expatriates in leadership positions with adult subordinates or followers. The current study strayed from that typical sample and used a sample comprised of expatriates who are teachers working abroad and who had followers who were children and adolescents. Although, this situation appears significantly different from past research, teachers share many of the same job aspects of traditional leaders with adult followers (York-Barr & Duke, 2004). Teachers lead a group of individuals toward a shared goal, encourage team building, maintain group cohesiveness, and develop learning plans for followers (York-Barr &

Duke, 2004). Teachers are leaders in the classroom, and for the purpose of the current study, were considered leaders in the cross-cultural context.

Materials

The measures in the current study were administrated through a Qualtrics survey. The survey contained seven measures that assessed participants' demographic information, English proficiency, cultural adjustment, narcissism, Big Five personality characteristics, leadership effectiveness, and LMX perceptions. The measures were evaluated by a faculty member at Western Kentucky University who teaches Chinese language courses. This individual looked over each measure and reported that there were no foreseen issues with the Chinese sample understanding the measures being used. Each measure is explained in more detail below.

Demographic information. Demographic information gathered included sex, race, age, country of origin, length of current assignment, location of abroad assignment, and previous experience working abroad (see Appendix A).

English proficiency. English proficiency was measured using a four-item scale. Participants were asked to read a short paragraph written in English and then answered four items based on what they read (see Appendix B). This measure was used to ensure that the participants were proficient enough in English to complete the questionnaires. No participants from the Chinese sample failed the English proficiency questionnaire, so all data were used.

Cultural adjustment. The 14-item measure developed by Black and Stephens (1989) was used to assess the cross-cultural adjustment of expatriates (see Appendix C). The participants were asked to indicate how well they adjusted to their host culture on a

Likert scale ranging from 1 = very unadjusted to 5 = completely adjusted. The measure was separated into three subscales: general adjustment, interactional adjustment, and work adjustment. The general adjustment subscale had seven items pertaining to the expatriates' day-to-day adjustment, including housing and food (sample item: "living conditions in general"). The interactional adjustment subscale included four items that touched on the expatriates' adjustment to socializing with the host nationals (sample item: "interacting with host nationals on a day-to-day basis"). The work adjustment subscale had three items and measured adjustment in terms of aspects of the expatriates' job (sample item: "specific job responsibilities"). Overall scores of the complete measure and total scores for each subscale were calculated.

Narcissism. The participants' levels of narcissism were measured using the Narcissistic Personality Inventory (NPI) developed by Raskin and Terry (1988; see Appendix D). The NPI was developed to measure levels of narcissism in a normal population and included 40 items in a forced choice format. For each item, participants were instructed to choose the statement that best fits their personality. An example item was "I am more capable than other people" versus "There is a lot that I can learn from other people."

Five Factor personality characteristics. The Big Five Inventory (BFI), developed by John, Donahue, and Kentle (1991), was used to measure the participants' Big Five personality characteristics (see Appendix E). The measure included five subscales: extraversion (e.g., being talkative, energetic, and assertive), agreeableness (e.g., being sympathetic, kind, and affectionate), conscientiousness (e.g., being organized, thorough, and reliable), neuroticism (e.g., being tensed, moody, and anxious), and

openness to experience (e.g., having wide interests and being imaginative and insightful). Participants were instructed to answer how much they agreed with each statement in regard to their personality based on a five-point Likert scale, ranging from 1 = strongly disagree to 5 = strongly agree. The BFI was used in the current study to control for other personality characteristics that could be linked to cultural adjustment. The purpose of having this measure was to investigate if narcissism predicts cultural adjustment over and above the characteristics included in the BFI.

Leadership effectiveness. Participant leadership effectiveness was assessed using a self-report leadership effectiveness measure developed by Vecchio and Anderson (2009; see Appendix F). The measure included five items that measure perceived leadership effectiveness in one's current leadership position. Participants were instructed to answer how much they agree or disagree with an item in regard to their own leadership effectiveness. Items were answered on a five-point Likert scale, where 1 = strongly disagree and 5 = strongly agree. A sample item from the questionnaire is: "I am satisfied with the quality of leadership that I provide."

Leader-Member Exchange. The quality of the exchange between leaders and followers was measured using the LMX-MDM scale (Liden & Maslyn, 1998). The measure contained twelve items assessed on a five-point Likert scale ranging from 1 = strongly disagree to 5 = strongly agree (see Appendix G). The items were separated into four subscales, including, affect, loyalty, contribution, and professional respect. A sample item from this measure is "I feel as though my students like me very much as a person." The items were slightly modified from the original scale to fit the teacher-student relationship.

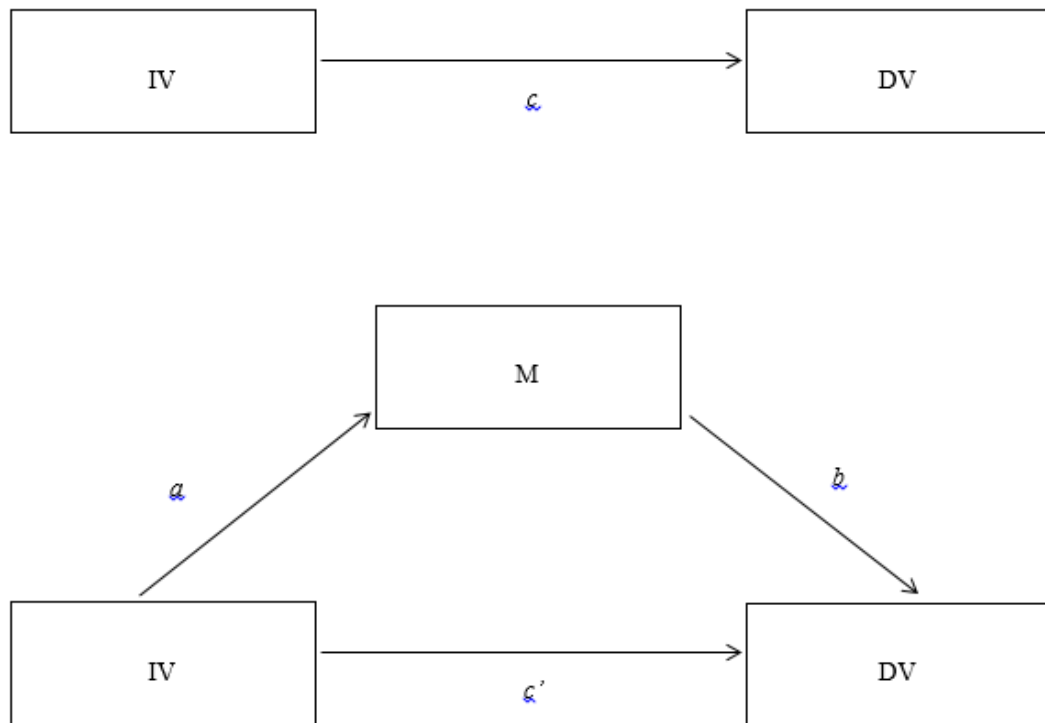
Procedure

Participants were sent the Qualtrics survey link via email from their supervisor. Participants were asked to read over the informed consent and proceeded to the survey if they agreed to participate. All of the participants' answers were kept confidential within the research team.

Results

In order to test Hypotheses 1 and 2, mediation analyses were conducted to test the significance of the indirect, direct, and total effects of the three variables. Following the Preacher and Hayes (2008) model, the current study used a bootstrapping method in which point estimates of the indirect, direct, and total effects were calculated from the mean of 10,000 estimates of the relationship. Mediation analyses were run that directly tested the significance of the indirect effect of the independent variable (IV) on the dependent variable (DV) through the mediator (M), while controlling for other IVs. The indirect effect was quantified as the product of the effects of the IV on the M (i.e., the a path) and the effect of the M on the DV (i.e., the b path), partialing out the effect of the IV (see Figure 3). Partial mediation occurs when the results of the mediation model indicate that the indirect and direct effects are significant. Full mediation occurs when the indirect effect is significant, but the direct effect is not.

Figure 3. Illustration of Simple Mediation

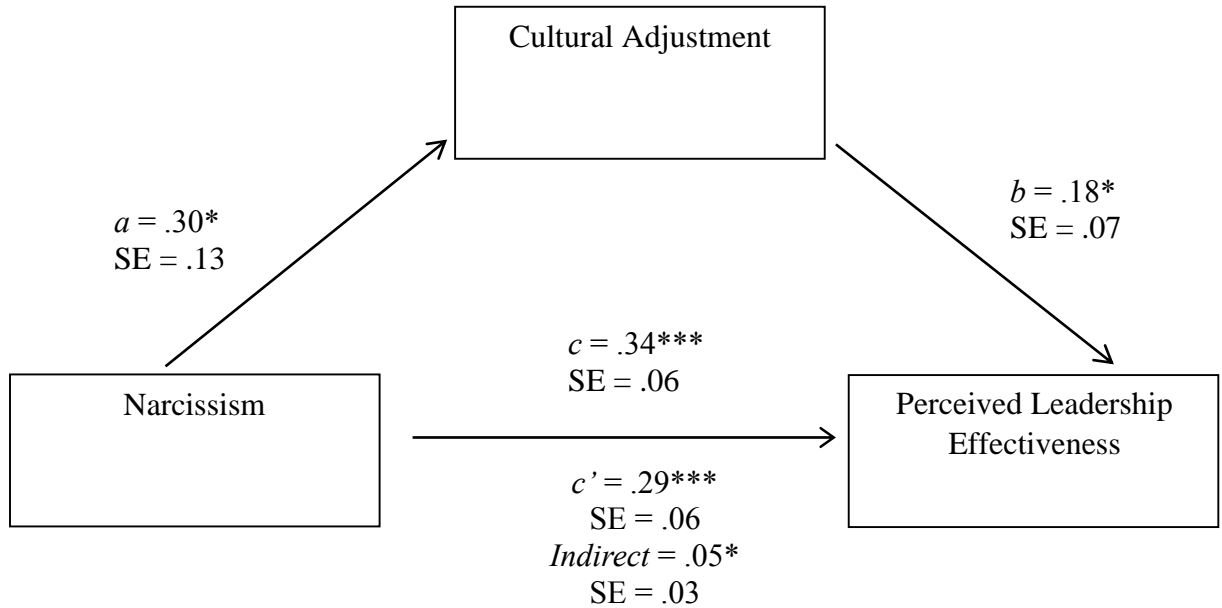


Hypothesis 1 predicted that cross-cultural adjustment would partially mediate the relationship between narcissism and perceived leadership effectiveness. The results of the mediation analysis partially supported this hypothesis (see Figure 4) If hypothesis 1a was predicted in the opposite direction, narcissism would have been a significant predictor of cultural adjustment, $b = .30$, $SE = .13$, $p < .05$. Cultural adjustment was a significant predictor of perceived leadership effectiveness, $b = .18$, $SE = .07$, $p < .05$, and narcissism had a direct effect on perceptions of leadership effectiveness, $b = .29$, $SE = .06$, $p < .001$. A significant indirect effect between the variables also emerged, $b = .05$, $SE = .03$, $p < .05$. Participant scores on the NPI scale were evenly distributed across the scale (see Table 1).

Hypothesis 2 predicted that cross-cultural adjustment would partially mediate the relationship between narcissism and LMX perceptions. The results of the mediation

analysis were not significant and did not support the predictions of Hypothesis 2 (see Figure 5).

Figure 4. Results of the relationship between narcissism levels of expatriates and their perceived leadership effectiveness partially mediated by cultural adjustment levels.

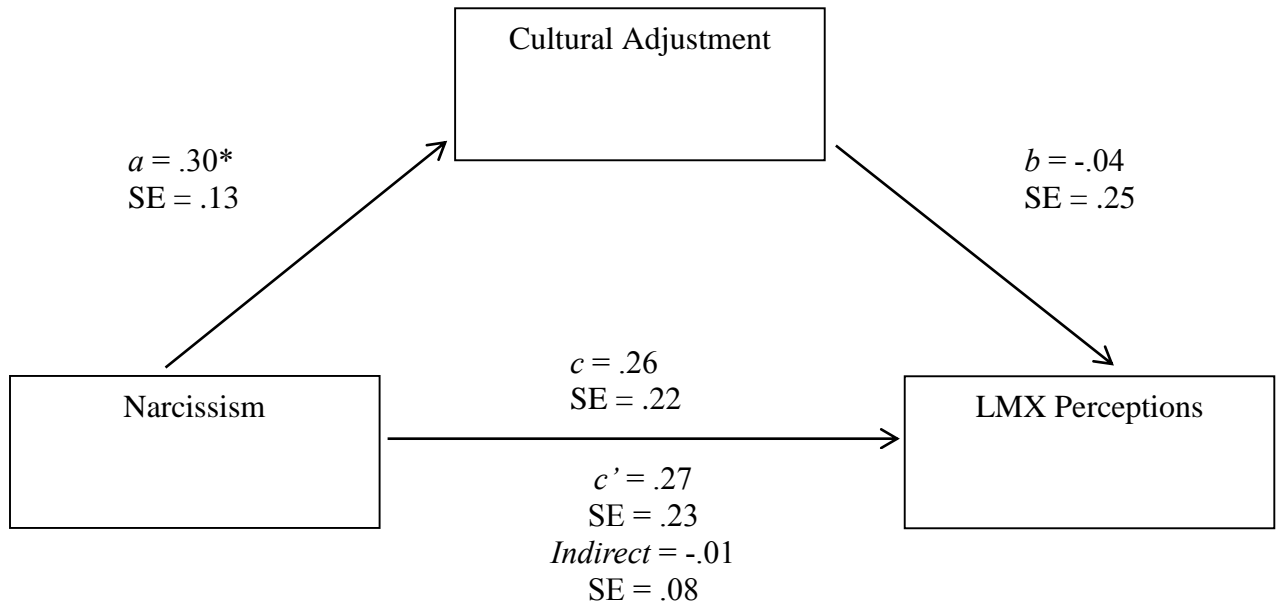


* $p < .05$, *** $p < .001$

Table 1
Descriptive Statistics of Variables

Variable	<i>N</i>	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	<i>SD</i>
General Adjustment	53	18	35	27.53	4.29
Social Adjustment	53	8	15	11.43	1.94
Work Adjustment	53	5	15	12.23	2.46
Overall Adjustment	53	35	65	51.59	6.94
Narcissism	48	3	30	14.06	6.91
Extraversion	48	18	38	26.65	4.41
Agreeableness	48	21	43	34.85	4.77
Conscientiousness	47	24	43	33.38	4.50
Neuroticism	48	11	34	21.48	5.65
Openness to Experience	47	27	35	36.47	4.21
Perceived Leadership Effectiveness	48	9	25	16.75	3.72
Perceived LMX	48	30	72	54.29	10.48

Figure 5. Results of the relationship between narcissism levels of expatriates and their LMX perceptions partially mediated by cultural adjustment levels



* $p < .05$

The research question of the current study stated, “Will expatriates’ levels of narcissism have differing relationships with the three types of cross-cultural adjustment (i.e., general, work, and interactional adjustment)?” To answer this research question, bivariate correlations were run between the variables (see Table 2). Results indicated that participants’ narcissism levels were related to their overall cultural adjustment, $r = .35$, $p < .05$. When broken down into the three different subscales of cultural adjustment, narcissism significantly predicted participants’ general adjustment, $r = .29$, $p < .05$, and work adjustment, $r = .35$, $p < .05$. However, there was no relationship between narcissism and the social adjustment subscale, $r = .01$, $p = .96$.

On an exploratory basis, a hierarchical regression was conducted to examine if narcissism predicted cultural adjustment over and above the Five-Factor model.

Table 2*Intercorrelations among All Variables*

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
1. General Adjustment	(.74)											
2. Social Adjustment	.41**	(.68)										
3. Work Adjustment	.50**	.30*	(.88)									
4. Overall Adjustment	.91**	.64**	.74**	(.83)								
5. Narcissism	.30*	.01	.35*	.31*	(.85)							
6. Extraversion	.30*	.11	.21	.29*	.54*	(.73)						
7. Agreeableness	.06	.21	.05	.11	-.32*	.04	(.77)					
8. Conscientiousness	.13	.09	.16	.16	.18	-.06	.31	(.72)				
9. Neuroticism	-.11	.20	-.16	-.07	-.01	-.17	-.32*	-.34*	(.85)			
10. Openness to Experience	.25	.20	.29*	.31*	.49**	.41**	-.03	-.11	.13	(.70)		
11. Perceived Leadership Effectiveness	.42**	.42**	.24	.41*	.62**	.41**	.07	.55**	-.13	.29	(.91)	
12. LMX Perceptions	-.12	-.12	.20	.03	.18	-.02	.19	.28	-.13	.20	.19	(.89)

Note. Scale reliability coefficients are presented in parentheses in the diagonal.

* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$

Results demonstrated that narcissism did not predict cultural adjustment of expatriates over and above the characteristics of the Five-Factor Model, $F(6,37) = 2.53$, $p = .87$, adj $R^2 = .13$ (see Table 3).

Table 3

Hierarchical Regression of Five Factor Model and Narcissism

Predictor	Adjusted R^2	ΔR^2	β
Step 1	.151*		
Extraversion			.532*
Agreeableness			.183
Conscientiousness			.310
Neuroticism			-.005
Openness to Experience			.223
Step 2	.129	.001	
Narcissism			.033

Note. * $p < .05$

Discussion

The current study indicates that an expatriate's level of narcissism may play a role in their cultural adjustment and perceptions of their effectiveness on their abroad assignment. Results of the mediation analysis suggests that cultural adjustment partially mediates the positive relationship between narcissism levels and perceived leadership effectiveness such that narcissism is positively related to overall cultural adjustment, which is then positively related to perceptions of leadership effectiveness. It was originally hypothesized that narcissism would be negatively related to overall cultural adjustment, but results indicated that these constructs are positively correlated. Perhaps this outcome is due to narcissism being related to a positive and inflated view of one's self and ability (Campbell, Goodie, & Foster, 2004). Participants who exhibited high

levels of narcissism may have been confident in their ability to adjust to their new culture. Future research is needs investigate this relationship further.

The second hypothesis was not supported, as cultural adjustment did not partially mediate the relationship between narcissism and LMX perceptions. It was originally hypothesized that narcissism would be positively related to both leadership variables. However, there was not a significant relationship between narcissism and LMX perceptions, whereas there was a positive relationship between narcissism and perceptions of leadership effectiveness. Perhaps this is due to the nature of the instruments used to measure these two variables. The instrument used to measure perceived leadership effectiveness asked participants about their own perceptions regarding their effectiveness as a leader in the classroom. Participants who displayed high levels of narcissism also displayed high levels of perceived effectiveness. Due to the higher levels of narcissism, these participants may perceive themselves as capable leaders because of their inflated views in themselves and their abilities. On the other hand, the instrument used to measure participant's LMX perceptions instructed them to report on their relationships with their students. Previous research has suggested that individuals with high levels of narcissism have trouble creating and maintaining relationships (Campbell & Foster, 2002; Campbell, Foster, & Finkel, 2002; Paulhus, 1998). This could explain why there was not a positive relationship between narcissism and LMX perceptions; however, future research is needed to investigate this relationship further.

The significant positive correlation between narcissism and cultural adjustment suggests that higher levels of narcissism can lead to better expatriate cultural adjustment in an abroad setting. More specifically, higher levels of narcissism were correlated with

higher levels of general and work adjustment. This again could be attributed to high levels of narcissism being linked to inflated views of one's self and one's ability. Interestingly, in the current study, narcissism was not related to the social aspect of cultural adjustment. This finding could also be attributed to the previous research that has suggested that individuals with high levels of narcissism have trouble creating and maintaining relationships over time (Campbell & Foster, 2002; Campbell, Foster, & Finkel, 2002; Paulhus, 1998). However, future research would be needed to investigate why this relationship is not negative.

Limitations and Future Research

As the current study had a small sample size (i.e., 53 participants), study all findings should be interpreted with caution. Whereas the sample was diverse in terms of age and geographic location, more participants are needed to draw any strong conclusions based off the results. The small sample size was due to a poor response rate to the online survey as well as a number of surveys that were started but left incomplete. Another limitation of the current study is that traditional expatriates were not used in the sample. Whereas teachers are argued to be leaders in the classroom, they may not share all of the same attributes as leader in other workplace settings. In addition, the current study measured LMX perceptions only from the leader's point of view. Perceptions of the relationship between the leader and the follower should also be taken from the follower's point of view. The current study was unable to do this due to the young age of the teacher's followers. Due to the small sample size, the current study was not able to investigate differences in narcissism levels between participants from different cultural backgrounds. As research has yet to determine if narcissism exists across cultures, the

current study was hoping to address this but was unsuccessful. Future research could investigate if there are differences in narcissism levels between participants from differing cultural backgrounds.

Conclusions and Implications

As previous research has not investigated the relationship between narcissism and expatriate cultural adjustment, the current study provided a preliminary look into the association between these constructs. Study findings suggest that narcissism may play a role in expatriate cultural adjustment and leader performance. However, due to study limitations, these findings should be interpreted with caution.

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APPENDIX A

Demographic Information

Age: _____

Gender: (please check one response) Male Female

Race: (please check all that apply)

Black/African American Native American Hispanic/Latino

Asian American White/Caucasian Hawaiian/Pacific Islander

Other (please specify): _____

Country of origin: _____

Country of current abroad assignment: _____

Length of time in current host culture: _____ (months)

Have you traveled abroad before? (Please check one response) Yes
No

If yes, how many times have you traveled abroad? _____

Have you ever worked abroad before? (Please check one response) Yes
No

If yes, How many times have you worked abroad? _____

APPENDIX B

English Proficiency

The next section is a reading comprehension check. Please read the paragraph and answer the following questions.

Billy and his twin sister, Anna, are from a small, American town. Their parents moved to America from Germany before the twins were born. The family owns a restaurant that serves authentic German food. Billy and Anna finish their secondary schooling and want to leave for university. However, their parents want them to stay and help with the restaurant, since they are both growing older and would like it to stay in the family. Anna and Billy both love their parents but also want to go off and see the world on their own. The family talks it over one night and they come to an agreement. Anna and Billy decided to go to a nearby university, so they can come home on the weekends and help in the restaurant.

1) Did the twins ever live in Germany? _____

2) Why did Billy and Anna’s parents want them to stay at home instead of going to a university to continue schooling?

3) What did Billy and Anna want to do after completing secondary schooling?

4) What was the solution Billy, Anna, and their parents agreed on?

APPENDIX C:

Cultural Adjustment Scale

Expatriate Adjustment:

Instructions: Below are a number of items regarding your host culture (the culture of the country in which you are currently working). Cultural adjustment can be defined the extent to which an individual can work effectively and live comfortably in a place that is new and unfamiliar to them. Using the response scale below, circle the number which best represents the extent to which **you feel adjusted or unadjusted with that item.**

	Completely				
	Completely		Unadjusted		
			Adjusted		
1. Living conditions in general:	1	2	3	4	5
2. Housing conditions:	1	2	3	4	5
3. Food:	1	2	3	4	5
4. Shopping:	1	2	3	4	5
5. Cost of living:	1	2	3	4	5
6. Entertainment/recreation facilities and opportunities:	1	2	3	4	5
7. Healthcare facilities:	1	2	3	4	5
8. Socializing with host nationals:	1	2	3	4	5
9. Interacting with host nationals on a day-to-day basis:	1	2	3	4	5
10. Interacting with host nationals outside of work:	1	2	3	4	5
11. Speaking with host nationals:	1	2	3	4	5
12. Specific job responsibilities:	1	2	3	4	5
13. Performance standards and expectations:	1	2	3	4	5
14. Supervisory responsibilities:	1	2	3	4	5

APPENDIX D:

Narcissistic Personality Inventory (NPI)

Instructions:

The measure consists of forty pairs of statements. For each pair you should select the one that you feel best reflects your personality:

1	A. I have a natural talent for influencing people.	B. I am not good at influencing people.
2	A. Modesty doesn't become me.	B. I am essentially a modest person.
3	A. I would do almost anything on a dare.	B. I tend to be a fairly cautious person.
4	A. When people compliment me I sometimes get embarrassed.	B. I know that I am good because everybody keeps telling me so.
5	A. The thought of ruling the world frightens the hell out of me.	B. If I ruled the world it would be a better place.
6	A. I can usually talk my way out of anything.	B. I try to accept the consequences of my behavior.
7	A. I prefer to blend in with the crowd.	B. I like to be the center of attention.
8	A. I will be a success.	B. I am not too concerned about success.
9	A. I am no better or worse than most people.	B. I think I am a special person.
10	A. I am not sure if I would make a good leader.	B. I see myself as a good leader.
11	A. I am assertive.	B. I wish I were more assertive.
12	A. I like to have authority over other people.	B. I don't mind following orders.
13	A. I find it easy to manipulate people.	B. I don't like it when I find myself manipulating people.
14	A. I insist upon getting the respect that is due me.	B. I usually get the respect that I deserve.

15	A. I don't particularly like to show off my body.	B. I like to show off my body.
16	A. I can read people like a book.	B. People are sometimes hard to understand.
17	A. If I feel competent I am willing to take responsibility for making decisions.	B. I like to take responsibility for making decisions.
18	A. I just want to be reasonably happy.	B. I want to amount to something in the eyes of the world.
19	A. My body is nothing special.	B. I like to look at my body.
20	A. I try not to be a show off.	B. I will usually show off if I get the chance.
21	A. I always know what I am doing.	B. Sometimes I am not sure of what I am doing.
22	A. I sometimes depend on people to get things done.	B. I rarely depend on anyone else to get things done.
23	A. Sometimes I tell good stories.	B. Everybody likes to hear my stories.
24	A. I expect a great deal from other people.	B. I like to do things for other people.
25	A. I will never be satisfied until I get all that I deserve.	B. I take my satisfactions as they come.
26	A. Compliments embarrass me.	B. I like to be complimented.
27	A. I have a strong will to power.	B. Power for its own sake doesn't interest me.
28	A. I don't care about new fads and fashions.	B. I like to start new fads and fashions.
29	A. I like to look at myself in the mirror.	B. I am not particularly interested in looking at myself in the mirror.
30	A. I really like to be the center of attention.	B. It makes me uncomfortable to be the center of attention.

31	A. I can live my life in any way I want to.	B. People can't always live their lives in terms of what they want.
32	A. Being an authority doesn't mean that much to me.	B. People always seem to recognize my authority.
33	A. I would prefer to be a leader.	B. It makes little difference to me whether I am a leader or not.
34	A. I am going to be a great person.	B. I hope I am going to be successful.
35	A. People sometimes believe what I tell them.	B. I can make anybody believe anything I want them to.
36	A. I am a born leader.	B. Leadership is a quality that takes a long time to develop.
37	A. I wish somebody would someday write my biography.	B. I don't like people to pry into my life for any reason.
38	A. I get upset when people don't notice how I look when I go out in public.	B. I don't mind blending into the crowd when I go out in public.
39	A. I am more capable than other people.	B. There is a lot that I can learn from other people.
40	A. I am much like everybody else.	B. I am an extraordinary person.

APPENDIX E

Big Five Inventory (BFI)

Instructions: Here are a number of characteristics that may or may not apply to you. Using the response scale below, circle the number which best represents the extent to which **you agree or disagree with that statement.**

I am someone who: Strongly	Strongly					
	Disagree					Agree
1. Is talkative	1	2	3	4	5	
2. Tends to find fault with others	1	2	3	4	5	
3. Does a thorough job	1	2	3	4	5	
4. Is depressed, blue	1	2	3	4	5	
5. Is original, comes up with new ideas	1	2	3	4	5	
6. Is reserved	1	2	3	4	5	
7. Is helpful and unselfish with others	1	2	3	4	5	
8. Can be somewhat careless	1	2	3	4	5	
9. Is relaxed, handles stress well	1	2	3	4	5	
10. Is curious about many different things	1	2	3	4	5	
11. Is full of energy	1	2	3	4	5	
12. Starts quarrels with others	1	2	3	4	5	
13. Is a reliable worker	1	2	3	4	5	
14. Can be tense	1	2	3	4	5	
15. Is ingenious, a deep thinker	1	2	3	4	5	
16. Generates a lot of enthusiasm	1	2	3	4	5	
17. Has a forgiving nature	1	2	3	4	5	
18. Tends to be disorganized	1	2	3	4	5	

19. Worries a lot	1	2	3	4	5
20. Has an active imagination	1	2	3	4	5
21. Tends to be quiet	1	2	3	4	5
22. Is generally trusting	1	2	3	4	5
23. Tends to be lazy	1	2	3	4	5
24. Is emotionally stable, not easily upset	1	2	3	4	5
25. Is inventive	1	2	3	4	5
26. Has an assertive personality	1	2	3	4	5
27. Can be cold and aloof	1	2	3	4	5
28. Perseveres until the task is finished	1	2	3	4	5
29. Can be moody	1	2	3	4	5
30. Values artistic, aesthetic experiences	1	2	3	4	5
31. Is sometimes shy, inhibited	1	2	3	4	5
32. Is considerate and kind to almost everyone	1	2	3	4	5
33. Does things efficiently	1	2	3	4	5
34. Remains calm in tense situations	1	2	3	4	5
35. Prefers work that is routine	1	2	3	4	5
36. Is outgoing, sociable	1	2	3	4	5
37. Is sometimes rude to others	1	2	3	4	5
38. Makes plans and follows through with them	1	2	3	4	5
39. Gets nervous easily	1	2	3	4	5

40. Likes to reflect, play with ideas	1	2	3	4	5
41. Has few artistic interests	1	2	3	4	5
42. Likes to cooperate with others	1	2	3	4	5
43. Is easily distracted	1	2	3	4	5
44. Is sophisticated in art, music, or literature	1	2	3	4	5

APPENDIX F

Leadership Effectiveness Measure

Instructions: This questionnaire contains items that ask you to describe yourself in your current leadership position. For each of the items, indicate the degree to which you think the item is true for you by circling one of the responses that appear below the item.

1. I am satisfied with the quality of leadership that I provide:

1	2	3	4	5
Never	Seldom	Sometimes	Often	Always

2. Overall, I provide very effective leadership:

1	2	3	4	5
Never	Seldom	Sometimes	Often	Always

3. I am an example of an ideal leader:

1	2	3	4	5
Never	Seldom	Sometimes	Often	Always

4. My leadership helps this organization to thrive:

1	2	3	4	5
Never	Seldom	Sometimes	Often	Always

5. I am the kind of leader that others should aspire to become:

1	2	3	4	5
Never	Seldom	Sometimes	Often	Always

APPENDIX G

Leader Member Exchange (LMX-MDM):

Instructions: This questionnaire contains items related to the relationship between you and your students. Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with each item by circling one of the responses that appear below each item.

1. I feel as though my students like me very much as a person.

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree or Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	2	3	4	5

2. I feel as though I am the kind of person my students would like to have as a friend.

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree or Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	2	3	4	5

3. I feel as though my students think I am a lot of fun to work with.

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree or Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	2	3	4	5

4. I feel as though my students would defend my work actions to a superior, even without complete knowledge of the issue in question.

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree or Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	2	3	4	5

5. I feel as though my students would come to my defense if I were “attacked” by others.

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree or Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	2	3	4	5

6. I feel as though my students would defend me to others in the organization if I made an honest mistake.

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree or Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	2	3	4	5

7. I do work for my students that goes beyond what is specified in my job description.

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree or Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	2	3	4	5

8. I am willing to apply extra efforts, beyond those normally required, to further the interests of my students.

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree or Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	2	3	4	5

9. I do not mind working my hardest for my supervisor.

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree or Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	2	3	4	5

10. I feel as though my students are impressed with my knowledge of my job.

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree or Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	2	3	4	5

11. I feel as though my students respect my knowledge of and competence on the job.

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree or Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	2	3	4	5

12. I feel as though my students admire my professional skills.

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree or Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	2	3	4	5