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Leader narcissism and subordinate embeddedness: The moderating roles of moral attentiveness and behavioral integrity

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# Leader narcissism and subordinate embeddedness

## The moderating roles of moral attentiveness and behavioral integrity

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### Abstract

**Purpose** – The purpose of this paper is to examine the relationship between leader narcissism (LN) and subordinate embeddedness as well as to test the moderating roles of moral attentiveness (MA) and behavioral integrity (BI) on that very relationship.

**Design/methodology/approach** – Data were collected from 19 five-star hotels in Turkey. The sample included 1,613 employees along with their first-line managers. The moderating roles of MA and BI on the LN and subordinate embeddedness relationship were tested using the moderated hierarchical regression analysis.

**Findings** – The moderated hierarchical regression analysis results revealed that there was a significant negative relationship between LN and subordinate embeddedness. In addition, this very relation was weaker when both MA and BI were higher than when they were lower.

**Practical implications** – This study showed that employee perception of LN decreased employee's job embeddedness (JE). The study findings point out the importance of reinforcing an ethical context as well as the importance of leader selection. Specifically, in order to ensure that narcissistic leaders do not thrive in organizations, it is significant to maintain an ethical context. Whether the context is ethical, unethical, or interpersonally ineffective, behaviors will likely be more salient and evaluated more negatively by coworkers. On the other hand, when narcissistic leaders are inserted in organizations with unethical contexts, the result is a perfect storm that reinforces narcissists' unethical behaviors and potentially promotes narcissistic leaders. Still, it is likely that narcissists exhibit unethical and ineffective behaviors regardless of the ethical context, meaning that an ethical context does not necessarily prevent narcissistic leaders from behaving ineffectively and unethically. Thus, the implementation of management selection geared toward targeting precursors of unethical behaviors is an equally vital strategy to prevent unethical behaviors on the part of organizational leaders.

**Originality/value** – The study provides new insights into the influence that LN may have on subordinate JE and the moderating roles of MA and BI in the link between LN and JE. The paper also offers a practical assistance to employees in the hospitality industry and their leaders interested in building trust and increasing leader-subordinate relationship and JE.

**Keywords** Behavioural integrity, Leader narcissism, Moral attentiveness, Subordinate embeddedness

**Paper type** Research paper

Narcissism is an increasingly popular topic in organizational research, as evidenced by several recent articles in top organizational behavior journals (e.g. Galvin *et al.*, 2010; Grijalva and Harms, 2014; Harms *et al.*, 2011; O'Boyle *et al.*, 2012). These research works have documented the importance of narcissism by establishing its relation to workplace outcomes. For example, substantial evidence shows that narcissists tend to emerge as leaders and do occupy positions of power such as CEOs and presidents (Grijalva and Harms, 2014). Furthermore, narcissism has been linked to workplace deviance and various specific unethical and exploitative behaviors such as tendencies to cheat, a lack of workplace integrity, and even white-collar crime (Blair *et al.*, 2008; O'Boyle *et al.*, 2012). When followers



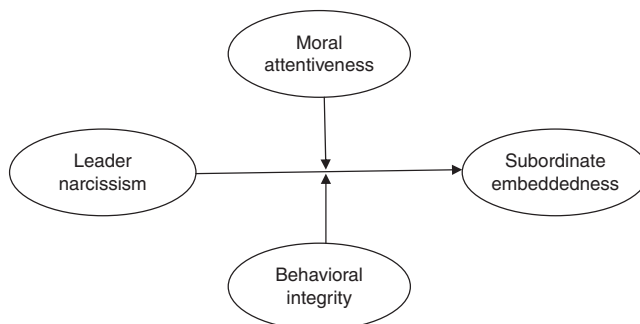
perceive their leaders to be unethical, they are more likely to experience psychological strain, pressure and depression in the workplace, as well as develop negative follower attitudes such as cynicism, turnover intention, low job satisfaction, and commitment (Gino and Ariely, 2012; Hoyt *et al.*, 2013). In the past decade, studies conducted on management have focused on examining the role of narcissistic leadership and its impact on followers' attitudes and behaviors such as organizational citizenship behaviors (Campbell *et al.*, 2006), counterproductive work behaviors (Campbell and Foster, 2002), and task performance (Soyer *et al.*, 1999). Yet, to date, no study, to our knowledge, has contributed to an understanding of how narcissistic leadership is related to job embeddedness (JE), despite the fact that leadership is one of the most influential predictors of followers' JE (Harris *et al.*, 2011); thus, the first goal of this study is to address this very untapped issue.

The supervisor-subordinate relationship influences a myriad of important organizational outcomes. This is the case since leaders are more than just managers of work-related information and behavior – they also guide, support, and inspire their subordinates (Cable and Judge, 2003; Falbe and Yukl, 1992). Indeed, subordinates perceive supervisors as their most immediate organizational representatives, and use exchange quality as an indicant of organizational acceptance (Collins *et al.*, 2012). As such, quality relations with supervisors contribute to embedding employees into their jobs (Harris *et al.*, 2011; Lee *et al.*, 2004).

Job embeddedness is a construct that represents the degree to which employees are embedded in their job or organization (Harris *et al.*, 2011). It affects important outcomes well beyond general employee work attitudes (Holtom and Inderrieden, 2006) like employee turnover intentions, actual turnover, and job performance (Lee *et al.*, 2004; Mitchell *et al.*, 2001).

Several studies have found that leaders' behavior affects employees' JE. Mitchell *et al.* (2001) and Harris *et al.* (2011) investigated the effect of leader-employee exchange on employee's JE. Findings indicated that high quality of leader-employee exchange made a statistically significant contribution to employee JE.

The second goal of this study is to examine the moderating effects of moral attentiveness (MA) and behavioral integrity (BI) on the relationship between leader narcissism (LN) and employees' JE in the hospitality industry. This study makes several contributions to literature. First, it is a response to the call for more research on individual differences variables that may serve as moderators, buffers, or even antidotes to JE and its effects (Harris *et al.*, 2011). Second, given that leadership is central to most models of JE (Harris *et al.*, 2011), it is important to examine the direct and moderating effects of organizational factors in a single study. Therefore, the pursuit of the identification of the major individual differences variables leading to employees' high JE may give us some concrete ideas in terms of possible remedies for both employees and organizations in the hospitality industry. Figure 1 summarizes the theoretical model that guided this study.



**Figure 1.**  
Hypothesized model

This study was completed in the hospitality industry because, starting from 2002, this very sector in Turkey underwent restructuring exercises to make it more innovative, competitive, and cost efficient. Since effective leadership is viewed as a key factor in attracting, motivating, and maintaining employees in organizations undergoing change and transformation, we expected that the conditions in this industry provided an ideal test of the relationship between leadership and JE.

## 1. Literature review and hypotheses

### 1.1 *Leader narcissism and subordinate embeddedness*

Several correlates of LN suggest an association with reduced employee JE. First, Penney and Spector (2002) found that leader's narcissistic personality was positively related to deviant behaviors. In fact, since narcissists are coercive (Baumeister *et al.*, 2002), and may be motivated to derogate others (Morf and Rhodewalt, 2001), one would expect narcissists to be more predisposed to engage in behaviors that ultimately harm the organization and its members. Second, research suggests that narcissists are likely to engage in aggressive behavior, especially when their self-concept is threatened (Stucke and Sporer, 2002). Bushman and Baumeister (1998) found that narcissists were more likely to engage in aggressive behavior because they are hypervigilant to perceived threats. Narcissists may be predisposed to engage in aggressive and other deviant behavior because they are prompted to see their work environment in negative, threatening ways. Moreover, Soyer *et al.* (1999) found that narcissists were more comfortable with ethically questionable workplace behaviors, suggesting that narcissists are less bound to organizational rules of propriety. Finally, narcissistic leader's personality traits such as grandiosity, arrogance, fragile self-esteem, and hostility are all likely to lead to lower level of leader-follower relationship (Blair *et al.*, 2008).

To fully understand the negative consequences of LN, it is useful to consider the psychological components that underlie narcissists' behavior. An exploratory list of the (highly interrelated) psychological underpinnings of narcissistic leaders might include arrogance, hypersensitivity and anger, lack of empathy, and paranoia (Rosenthal and Pittinsky, 2006). Narcissistic arrogance is the behavior that is often the most evident to others (American Psychiatric Association, 2000) and is clearly associated with difficulties in interpersonal relationships (Ronnigstam, 2005). Since, narcissists often draw on feelings of superiority to overcome a sense of inferiority, in situations where this grandiosity itself is threatened, they are likely to react with extreme hypersensitivity and anger (Horowitz and Arthur, 1988). Narcissistic leaders may be "intensely, hostile as an exaggerated response to an insult" and feel completely justified committing horrific atrocities in response (Horowitz and Arthur, 1988, p. 136). Moreover, narcissistic leaders lack empathy. They are, more likely than others, to make decisions guided by an idiosyncratic, self-centered view and to ignore advice that conflicts with this view. Finally, narcissistic leaders are paranoiac (Glad, 2002). They are "apt to create enemies where there had been none" (Glad, 2002, p. 30).

Scholars suggest that narcissistic leadership shapes follower behaviors through social exchange processes (Meurs *et al.*, 2013). Social exchange theory proposes that the norms of reciprocity or perceived obligation to return favors undergird many social relationships (Blau, 1964). According to social exchange theory, when followers perceive a leader as caring and concerned for their well-being, they feel obliged to reciprocate that leader's support. On the contrary, when a leader treats an employee with arrogance, hypersensitivity and anger or lack of empathy, the latter sees the exchange relationship as imbalanced or exploited. This leads to psychological strain affecting his/her work attitudes (e.g. O'Boyle *et al.*, 2012) and enhances retaliatory behavior (e.g. deviance, Meurs *et al.*, 2013; reduced work effort, Harris *et al.*, 2007). Building on these ideas, Meurs *et al.* (2013) and Harris *et al.* (2011) suggested that narcissistic leaders engender feelings of distrust and injustice in their followers, and create an organizational environment where followers are more likely to

reciprocate with detrimental organizational outcomes including increased emotional exhaustion and decreased organizational commitment and embeddedness.

Moreover, researchers have used self-resources principles to explain consequences of abusive and narcissistic leadership (Thau and Mitchell, 2010). In particular, theorists argue that narcissistic leadership drains employees of self-resources (e.g. attention, will-power, and esteem) that are needed to maintain appropriate behavior (e.g. Ferguson *et al.*, 2009). Consequently, the act of being victimized or threatened by a narcissist leader impairs or marginalizes employees' self-resources (Thau and Mitchell, 2010). When self-regulatory resources are impaired, victims (employees) experience more psychological strain, have low trust (in their leader), are unable to maintain appropriate attitudes such as job satisfaction, commitment, and embeddedness, and engage, instead, in deviant behavior (Palanski and Yammarino, 2009; Thau and Mitchell, 2010).

Similarly, the impact of LN on employee's JE can be explained by means of the conservation of resources (COR) theory (Hobfoll, 1989), which states that resources are valuable to employees and that the accumulation, protection, and allocation of these resources motivate employee behaviors. These resources can take the form of condition resources (e.g. status in the organization), personal resources (e.g. self-esteem), energy resources (e.g. money or time), and object resources (e.g. material assets). COR theory suggests that individuals want to gain, conserve, and protect their valued resources. Furthermore, although resource abundance is associated with positive outcomes, negative outcomes can occur such as perception of inadequate resources, threat of losing resources, or insufficient resources gain in return for the resources spent (Hobfoll, 1989). Drawing on COR, we suggest that LN reduces employee embeddedness by lowering employees' trust in leaders and enhancing their psychological strain. As noted by Brown *et al.* (2005), employees generally perceive their leader as a role model and, via a broad range of leader member interactions, develop an ethical perspective toward their leader and the organization. As such, under the supervision of a narcissistic leader, employees have less access to psychological resources, especially interpersonal trust (Dirks and Ferrin, 2002; Hobfoll, 1989). In such an environment, they are less likely to express their inner feelings with creating an undesirable image in the workplace interaction (Hochschild, 1983). Subsequently, employees are more likely to engage in deviant behavior which leads to low job satisfaction, commitment, and embeddedness (Crossley *et al.*, 2007). Moreover, leaders with narcissistic personality prefer to use abusive supervision (Hogan *et al.*, 1994; Rosenthal and Pittinsky, 2006). It refers to hostile, verbal, and nonverbal behaviors directed toward employees and involves use of public denigration, undermining, and explosive outbursts toward employees (Tepper, 2007). As an interpersonal stressor, abusive supervision threatens the employee's resources, for example, social support (Hobfoll, 1989). COR defines stress as a "reaction to the environment in which there is: (i) the threat of a net loss of resources; (ii) the net loss of resources; and (iii) a lack of resource gain following the investment of resources" (Hobfoll, 1989, p. 516). Individuals find the potential or actual loss of valued resources to be most threatening. Following the preceding conceptualization of abusive supervision of a narcissistic leader as a stressor, we predict that the LN will trigger the psychological strain of employees, which, in turn, will be behaviorally manifested in reduced performance, satisfaction, and embeddedness (Rosenthal and Pittinsky, 2006). Thus, we present the following hypothesis:

*H1.* Leader narcissism is negatively related to JE.

### *1.2 The moderating roles of MA and BI*

Interpersonal differences in attention toward moral cues are captured by the concept of MA. The construct of MA is a recent addition to the social psychological literature. It is defined as the "extent to which an individual chronically perceives and considers morality and moral elements in his or her experiences" (Reynolds, 2008, p. 1028). Drawing from social

cognitive theory on attention (Fiske and Taylor, 1991), Reynolds (2008) argued that MA involves: a perceptual aspect in which information is automatically colored as it is encountered; and a more intentional reflective aspect by which the individual uses morality to reflect on and examine past experiences. A chronically accessible framework of morality thus makes the individual attentive to the moral aspects of life in both perception and reflection.

Moral cues are more likely to be detected by those high in MA, to the extent that highly morally attentive people risk overestimation of the frequency of moral or immoral behavior (Tversky and Kahneman, 1973). Therefore, responses of those high in MA will be more likely based on the observed morality (e.g. ethical leadership) of a situation. In contrast, those low in MA will consider issues to be amoral (in contrast to moral or immoral) more often (Tenbrunsel and Smith-Crowe, 2008).

Although MA generally motivates moral awareness and moral behavior (Reynolds, 2008), it does not imply that the person always behaves in a moral way. Rather, it constitutes a difference in perceiving stimuli that makes those high in MA more cognizant of the moral content or consequences of incoming information, and, thereby, influences their evaluations of their own behavior or the behavior of others (Reynolds, 2008). The translation of the perception of moral cues into actual moral behavior is influenced by factors such as moral development (Kohlberg, 1981), moral identity (Aquino and Reed, 2002), or situational cues (Barnett and Vaicys, 2000; Epley and Caruso, 2004; Giessner and Van Quaquebeke, 2010; Martin and Cullen, 2006; Rai and Fiske, 2012). Furthermore, the decision to display moral or immoral behavior also depends on the moral cues that are perceived. Whereas moral cues in the behavior of others are suggested to evoke feelings of contentment, and result in moral reciprocation, the perception of immoral cues in the behavior of others may lead to feelings of frustration and unjust treatment. Highly moral attentive followers generally prefer moral behavior because that corresponds with their perception of what is “the right thing to do” (Reynolds, 2008). However, at times, they may feel that the behavior they observe in others, especially their leaders, represents a severe transgression of moral rules. Counterproductive behavior, such as sabotaging the progress of projects by working less hard, can be used instrumentally, as a signal to the leader that moral transgressions will have negative consequences. Thus, occasional immoral behavior in response to unethical leadership might serve to restore the moral balance in the relationship, or act as a mere signal to leaders that unethical behavior has negative consequences for them or for the organization.

High MA causes followers to automatically perceive and interpret their leader’s behavior in terms of morality, and therefore be more sensitive to ethicality of leader’s behavior or its outcomes. Thus, followers high in MA are more likely to question the ethicality of their leaders in comparison to followers low in MA. They are likely to perceive the behaviors of their leaders with narcissistic personality as unethical. The lack of empathy and a propensity to exploit others in an effort to achieve personal gains associated with narcissism are closely aligned with the theoretical underpinnings of unethical leadership. In addition, according to Roberts (2001), narcissists, in particular, seem to lack moral sensibility due to their constant preoccupation with the self. Narcissism, researchers argue, gets in the way of ethical goals and visions in such a way that instead of “working for the company,” narcissistic leaders “work for themselves” (Hornett and Fredericks, 2005).

As a result of the increased attention to the ethical or unethical behavior of their leaders, followers high in MA will be more likely to use their leader’s behavior as a model for their own moral behavior. In addition, they will perceive a violation of moral norms as a violation of the relationship they have with the leader. In contrast, followers low in MA will use other criteria to evaluate their relationship with the leader and will, therefore, experience violations of moral norms less as a breach in the relationship. Moreover, whereas leaders motivate identification with the collective or organization, especially to followers high in MA, low ethical leaders, such as narcissistic leaders, motivate an individualistic attitude.

Finally, followers low in MA do not evaluate or perceive their environment in terms of morality, and, thus, are much less sensitive to the moral influence of low or high ethical leaders.

We expect that followers high in MA will react more strongly to ethical cues from the leader because of their increased sensitivity. Therefore, they will be more affected by high or low ethical leaders and will show a stronger response in terms of moral behavior compared to followers low in MA. Because leaders serve as representatives for their organization, the latter becomes the logical target for retaliation when followers perceive their leaders as unethical. Followers high in MA will react strongly and firmly to low ethical leadership in such ways that high levels of organizational deviance, turnover and low commitment will occur leading to organizational embeddedness. Accordingly, we propose that:

*H2.* Follower's MA moderates the negative relationship between LN and follower's embeddedness in such a way that the relationship is weaker when MA is high than when it is low.

Behavioral integrity can be defined as "the perceived pattern of alignment between an actor's words and deeds" (Simons, 2002, p. 19). Previous research on BI has posited strong theoretical links to trust. For example, Simons (2002) examined the theoretical links between BI and trust, with the key point being that a leader's high BI may provide followers with a sense of certainty regarding the actions that the leader will take. With this sense of certainty, a follower is more likely to trust the leader. Simons *et al.* (2007) have also provided some initial empirical evidence supporting the idea that BI may lead to trust. Based on Simons' reasoning and initial evidence, Palanski and Yammarino (2009) proposed that leader BI has a positive impact on follower trust in the leader.

Behavioral integrity is an important component of ethical leadership (Dineen *et al.*, 2006; Simons *et al.*, 2007). Leader BI is positively associated with follower satisfaction with the leader and organizational commitment (Palanski and Yammarino, 2009; Simons *et al.*, 2007), as well as organizational citizenship behaviors (Dineen *et al.*, 2006). Moreover, followers who perceive high BI within their leader are more willing to offer criticism (Simons *et al.*, 2007), which, when done constructively, usually aids creative problem solving (Shalley and Gilson, 2004). Palanski and Yammarino (2007) suggested that, as a virtue, perceived leader integrity is likely to foster subordinate achievements. Similarly, we suggest that followers of high integrity leaders will be best able to understand and forecast supportive leader behaviors (e.g. a leader high in BI who touts the importance of failure on the path to success will not punish a follower who fails in an attempt to succeed). This leader predictability can be expected to foster risk-taking creative behaviors among subordinates.

We believe that the effects of LN on employees' JE can be better understood by considering the concept of BI. According to Simons (2008), BI is an important driver of employee JE for two reasons. First, by following up on promises, high BI leaders send a clear message to followers that trust in the leaders is warranted. Second, in consistently conveying the same values through words and actions, the leader clearly and unequivocally communicates what he or she truly values in work-related behavior, thus presenting the basis of personal and social identification of the follower with the leader. The combination of direct and sincere communication of values and follow-up on promises and behavioral consequences of these value-statements will lead the follower to identify with the leader (Grojean *et al.*, 2004). Therefore, it is expected that perceptions of leader BI will increase employees' identification with the leader and the organization. This, in turn, will lead to high level of JE and neutralize the detrimental effects of LN on employees' embeddedness. Accordingly, we propose that:

*H3.* Behavioral integrity moderates the negative relationship between LN and employees' embeddedness in such a way that the relationship is weaker when BI is high than when it is low.



## 2. Methods

### 2.1 Participants and procedure

The sample of this study included 1,613 employees along with their first-line managers from 19 five-star hotels in Turkey. These hotels were randomly selected from a list of all 485 five-star hotels in the country (The Ministry of Culture and Tourism, 2015).

A cluster random-sampling method was used to select the sample. In this sampling method, first, all the five-star hotels in Turkey were stratified into seven strata according to their geographic regions. Then, hotels in each stratum were proportionally selected by a cluster random sampling; employees working at the selected hotels comprised the study sample.

This study was completed between June and August 2015. A research team consisting of seven research assistants visited the hotels in this study and received approvals from the heads of department and senior management staff to distribute the questionnaires through the human resource department. Participants were told that the study was designed to collect information on the LN and subordinate embeddedness in the hospitality workforce. They were given confidential assurances and were told that participation was voluntary. The questionnaires were collected immediately. Each questionnaire was coded with a researcher-assigned identification number in order to match each employee's responses with his/her immediate superiors' (first-line managers) evaluations.

Employees, wishing to participate in this study, completed the MA, BI and JE scales (69-116 employees per hotel, totaling 1,900). Missing data reduced the sample size to 1,613. Those employees' first-line managers completed the LN scale (three to six first-line managers per hotel, totaling 96). First-line manager reports of LN were used instead of employee reports in order to avoid same-source bias. In total, 47 percent of employees were female with an average age of 24.23 years. Employees' average organizational tenure was 2.03 years. Moreover, 81 percent of first-line managers were male with an average age of 36.33 years while their organizational tenure was 4.03 years. The response rate of the study turned out to be 84.90 percent. Potential nonresponse bias was assessed by conducting a multivariate analysis of variance test on demographic variables such as gender, age, and organizational tenure. No significant differences were found between respondents and non-respondents indicating minimal, if any, non-response bias in the sample based on these factors.

### 2.2 Measures

*Leader narcissism.* We assessed LN by using the narcissistic personality inventory (NPI; Raskin and Terry, 1988;  $\alpha = 0.89$ ). This is a 40-item scale. Example items included "I am a born leader," and "I am more capable than other people." Items were rated on a five-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (disagree very much) to 5 (agree very much). Higher scores on the NPI represent higher levels of narcissism. Cronbach's  $\alpha$  for this scale in the study was 0.89.

*Job embeddedness.* It was measured using the 23-item embeddedness scale developed by Mitchell *et al.* (2001). It consists of three subscales, links to organization (sample items: "How long have you been in your present position?" "How many coworkers do you interact with regularly?"), fit to organization (sample item: "My coworkers are similar to me"), and organization-related sacrifice (sample item: "I would sacrifice a lot if I left this job"). The link items were measured on an open-ended numerical scale (e.g. years, number of coworkers); the fit and sacrifice items were scored on a five-point Likert type scale ranging from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (5). Prior to combining items into subscales (links, fit, and sacrifice) and embeddedness scores, item scores were standardized. Higher scores indicated higher levels of embeddedness. Cronbach's  $\alpha$  for this scale turned out to be 0.83.

*Moral attentiveness.* We measured MA using the ten-item self-report scale developed by Reynolds (2008). Example items are "I regularly think about the ethical implications of my

decisions.” and “I frequently encounter ethical situations.” (1 = disagree strongly, 7 = agree strongly). A Cronbach’s  $\alpha$  of 0.93 was obtained for this measure.

*Leader BI.* It was measured with eight-item BI scale developed by Simons *et al.* (2007). Sample items include, “If (manager) promises something, it will happen” and “There is a match between (manager’s) words and actions.” All items are measured on a five-point scale ranging from (1) “strongly disagree” to (5) “strongly agree.” The Cronbach’s  $\alpha$  for this measure turned out to be 0.86.

*Control variables.* We controlled for age, gender, and organizational tenure in regression analyses as previous research had found them to correlate with JE (Mitchell *et al.*, 2001). Age and tenure were measured in years whereas gender was measured as a dichotomous variable coded as 1 for male and 0 for female.

### 3. Results

A confirmatory factor analysis using AMOS 20.0 on the four constructs of MA, BI, LN, and JE were performed to measure the internal consistency reliability, convergent validity, and discriminant validity of the constructs in the proposed model. Results (Table I) revealed that the composite reliability (CR) of each construct ranged from 0.86 to 0.94, exceeding the 0.60 CR threshold value, and giving evidence of internal consistency reliability (Bagozzi and Yi, 1989). Meanwhile, the average variance extracted (AVE) of all constructs ranged from 0.63 to 0.72, exceeding the 0.50 AVE threshold value (Bagozzi and Yi, 1989). Thus, the convergent validity was acceptable. Moreover, the estimated intercorrelations among all constructs were less than the square roots of the AVE in each construct. This provides preliminary support for discriminant validity (Hair *et al.*, 2006).

Table II presents the fit indexes of the proposed model in the confirmatory factor analysis. As shown in Table II, the results of the proposed four-factor structure (LN, JE, MA, and BI) demonstrated good fit with the data ( $\chi^2$  (2,448.76,  $n$  = 1,613)/df(1,177) = 2.08, CFI = 0.96, RMSEA = 0.03). Against this baseline four-factor model, we tested three alternative models: Model 1 was a three-factor model with MA merged with LN to form a single factor; Model 2 was another three-factor model with MA merged with BI to form a single factor; and Model 3 was a two-factor model, with LN merged with MA and BI to form

Variables	CR	AVE	Cronbach’s $\alpha$
Leader narcissism	0.91	0.63	0.89
Job embeddedness	0.86	0.69	0.83
Moral attentiveness	0.94	0.66	0.93
Leader behavioral integrity	0.89	0.72	0.86

**Table I.**  
Coefficients for the four-factor measurement model

**Notes:** CR, composite reliability; AVE, average variance extracted

Model	Factors	$\chi^2$	df	RMSEA	CFI	TFI
Null		10,008.12	1,198			
Baseline	Four factors	2,448.76	1,177	0.03	0.96	0.96
<i>Alternatives</i>						
Model 1	Three factors: LN and JE were combined into one factor	4,582.44	1,183	0.10	0.88	0.85
Model 2	Three factors: JE and MA were combined into one factor	4,619.99	1,183	0.11	0.80	0.78
Model 3	Two factors: LN, JE, and MA were combined into one factor	8,013.96	1,190	0.13	0.70	0.76

**Table II.**  
Comparison of measurement models

**Notes:** LN, leader narcissism; JE, job embeddedness; MA, moral attentiveness; BI, behavioral integrity

a single factor. As shown in Table II, the fit indices support the proposed four-factor model, providing evidence for the construct distinctiveness between LN, MA, BI, and JE.

Table III shows the means, standard deviations, and correlations for the study variables. Hypotheses were tested with moderated hierarchical regression analysis, according to the procedure delineated in Cohen and Cohen (1983). The significance of interaction effects was assessed after controlling all main effects. In the models, gender, age, and job tenure were entered first as control variables; LN, the predictor variable, was entered in the second step; the moderator variables (i.e. MA and BI) were entered in the third step; and, finally, the interaction terms were entered in the fourth step. In order to avoid multicollinearity problems, the predictor and moderator variables were centered and the standardized scores were used in the regression analysis (Aiken and West, 1991).

Test of the first hypothesis revealed a significant positive path coefficient for the impact of the LN on subordinate JE ( $\beta = -0.32, p < 0.001$ ) supporting *H1* (Table IV).

To test *H2* and *H3*, a standardized cross-product interaction construct was computed for each moderator (MA  $\times$  LN and BI  $\times$  LN) and included in the model as is usual in regression analysis (Aiken and West, 1991). The results show that both MA and BI moderated that impact of LN on JE, supporting *H2* and *H3*. The moderated hierarchical regression analysis

**Table III.**  
Means, standard deviations and correlations among variables<sup>a</sup>

Variables	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6
1. Age	24.23	1.10						
2. Gender	0.53	0.47	0.09					
3. Job tenure	2.03	0.19	0.15*	0.06				
4. Leader narcissism	3.06	0.69	-0.09	0.03	-0.07			
5. Follower moral attentiveness	3.20	0.91	0.05	0.02	0.03	-0.23**		
6. Leader behavioral integrity	3.19	0.99	0.08	0.03	0.07	-0.33***	0.32***	
7. Follower job embeddedness	3.23	0.66	0.03	-0.09	0.05	-0.35***	0.33***	0.30***

Notes: <sup>a</sup>*n* = 1,613. \**p* < 0.05; \*\**p* < 0.01; \*\*\**p* < 0.001

**Table IV.**  
Results of hierarchical moderated regression analysis for moral attentiveness and behavioral integrity on job embeddedness<sup>a</sup>

Steps and predictor variables	Models Job embeddedness $\beta$			
	1	2	3	4
<i>Step 1</i>				
Age	0.03	0.03	0.02	0.01
Gender	-0.07	-0.04	-0.03	-0.02
Job tenure	0.04	0.03	0.03	0.02
<i>Step 2</i>				
Leader narcissism (LN)		-0.32***	-0.30***	-0.27**
<i>Step 3</i>				
Follower moral attentiveness (FMA)			0.31***	0.25**
Leader behavioral integrity (LBI)			0.28**	0.23**
<i>Step 4</i>				
LN $\times$ FMA				0.24**
LN $\times$ LBI				0.21**
<i>R</i> <sup>2</sup>	0.09	0.35	0.41	0.45
Change in <i>R</i> <sup>2</sup>		0.26	0.06	0.04
<i>F</i>	0.92	2.99**	3.35***	4.69***

Notes: <sup>a</sup>*n* = 1,613. \**p* < 0.05; \*\**p* < 0.01; \*\*\**p* < 0.001

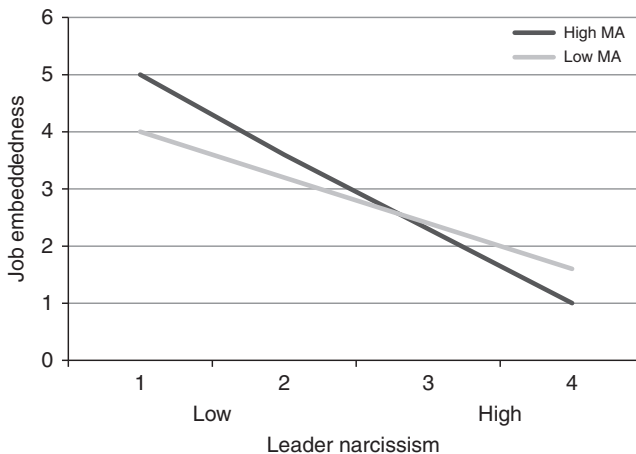
revealed a significant path coefficient for each interaction variable regressed on subordinate JE ( $\beta = 0.24, p < 0.01$  for MA and  $\beta = 0.21, p < 0.01$  for BI).

Figures 2 and 3 graphically show the interactional LN – subordinate JE relationship as moderated by MA and BI, for which high and low levels are depicted as one standard deviation above and below the mean, respectively.

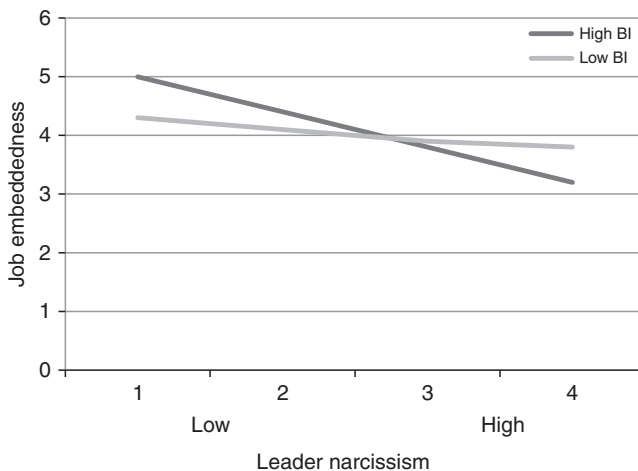
As predicted, when employees had high levels of MA, the relationship between LN and employees' JE was weaker. Similarly, it was found that leader's BI weakened the negative relationship between LN and JE. As exhibited in Figure 3, the negative relationship between LN and JE was less pronounced when employee's perception of leader BI was high.

#### 4. Discussion

The results of this study revealed that both MA and BI moderated the negative relationship between LN and subordinate JE. These findings are consistent with previous research works suggesting that MA (Reynolds, 2008; Roberts, 2001) and BI (Simons, 2008; Palanski



**Figure 2.**  
Interactive effects of  
leader narcissism and  
moral attentiveness  
(MA) on job  
embeddedness



**Figure 3.**  
Interactive effects of  
leader narcissism and  
behavioral integrity  
(BI) on job  
embeddedness

and Yammarino, 2009; Simons *et al.*, 2007) have moderating effects. In this study, LN was negatively and significantly associated with employee's JE. Narcissism has been shown to predict conflict, aggression, and bullying within organizations (Campbell *et al.*, 2011). In terms of conflict, narcissism predicts lower levels of accommodation in relationships. That is, narcissistic individuals are more likely to respond to partner negative behaviors in ways that are destructive rather than constructive for the relationship (Campbell and Foster, 2002). Moreover, narcissism also predicts lower levels of forgiveness in close relationships (Exline *et al.*, 2004) as well as aggression and violence against individuals (e.g. Bushman and Baumeister, 1998) and groups (Gaertner *et al.*, 2008). Furthermore, based on the social-personality psychology research – which shows that narcissism is negatively related to: agreeableness; the willingness to alter self-enhancing behaviors in close relationships; commitment and related positively to interpersonal exploitativeness (Campbell *et al.*, 2006) – it seems reasonable that narcissism would be negatively associated with organizational citizenship behaviors, job satisfaction, and JE.

On the other hand, both MA and BI were positively and significantly associated with employee's JE. Employees, who are predisposed to MA or who chronically perceive and consider morality and moral elements in their experiences, will likely pay close attention to the words, actions, and character traits of their leader. These employees are likely to perceive the behaviors of their leaders with narcissistic personality as unethical. The lack of empathy and a propensity to exploit others in an effort to achieve personal gains associated with narcissism are closely aligned with the theoretical underpinnings of unethical leadership. In addition, according to Roberts (2001), narcissists, in particular, seem to lack moral sensibility due to their constant preoccupation with the self. Although employees high in MA will have a strong preference for moral behavior, they may resort to immoral behavior after assessing the moral imbalance, as a means of retaliation or as a signal to their leader. For example, employees may punish their leader's lack of ethical behavior by intentionally working slower or taking longer breaks. In other words, their identification with the organization and the leader, as well as their organizational commitment and embeddedness levels may decrease.

#### 4.1 Managerial implications

This study has important implications for hospitality management. The results highlight the importance of LN as it is negatively related to employee JE. Narcissistic leaders are prone to exploit others (Khoo and Burch, 2008), have lower quality relationships (Blair *et al.*, 2008), overvalue the potential gains from risky behavior (Foster and Trimm, 2008), and take short cuts or behave in unethical ways (Blair *et al.*, 2008; Judge *et al.*, 2006). In terms of implications for organizations, these findings point to the importance of reinforcing an ethical context as well as the importance of leader selection. Specifically, in order to ensure that narcissistic leaders do not thrive in organizations, it is important to maintain an ethical context. Moreover, when narcissistic leaders are inserted in organizations with unethical contexts, the result is a perfect storm that reinforces narcissists' unethical behaviors. Thus, in unethical contexts, narcissistic leaders are potentially particularly dangerous, because their behavior goes unnoticed. For practitioners, by cultivating an ethical context in the organization, narcissistic leaders may experience person-organization misfit, encouraging them to quit the organization. Moreover, the implementation of management selection systems that specifically target precursors of unethical behaviors is an equally important strategy to prevent unethical behaviors on the part of organizational leaders.

On the other hand, the positive relationship between the moderating variables in this study (MA and leader integrity) and employees' JE reinforces previous findings (Reynolds, 2008; Roberts, 2001; Simons, 2008; Palanski and Yammarino, 2009; Simons *et al.*, 2007). The results of this study indicated that leader BI was a significant predictor of

employees' JE. Behavioral integrity of leaders is critical to fostering trust in organizations, leader-employees relationships and, hence, JE. Considering the benefits of leader integrity in increasing employee embeddedness, organizations should try to foster leader integrity throughout the hierarchy. For example, organizations can seek to select, recruit, and promote high integrity managers by adding integrity as a criterion in the appraisal system. Organizations should also try to improve leader integrity through training programs. It is especially important for hotel CEOs to create a culture of integrity and honesty in their organizations to encourage this very behavior. A culture of integrity, rather than a compliance-oriented organizational culture, encourages employees not only to take risks and give opinions (Verhezen, 2010), but also to be more willing to propose new and useful ideas by creating trust in leaders and increasing JE.

Similarly, the results of this study place an emphasis on the importance of follower MA as it is positively related to employee JE. Organizations need to be aware that there are differences in the extent to which their employees observe their environment and co-workers through a moral lens. Although some will be driven by their chronic MA (Reynolds, 2008), and may even overestimate the extent to which moral issues are present in the workplace (Tversky and Kahneman, 1973), others who lack such an internal moral lens may not pick up on moral cues in the work environment at all. Ultimately, to create an ethical and moral workplace, organizations may need to promote an ethical vision that is strong enough to keep every member of the organization on board and alert.

Moral attentiveness can be enhanced by organizational reward and control systems (Whitaker and Godwin, 2013). These systems can signal what is valued in organizations, and research has shown that although individuals may initially comply with norms for strategic self-presentation, over time, such norms can cause identity changes that can impact the individual's sense of responsibility to take moral action (e.g. Tice, 1992). If not properly aligned with moral action, however, such reward systems may create a negative pressure to comply with unethical actions (Jones and Ryan, 1998).

Through social learning where successful moral performance is achieved, individuals will not only build greater MA but also the confidence to enact similar approaches to address future ethical challenges (Reynolds, 2008). Ethical role models can also reinforce employees' efficacy to act morally over time (Reynolds, 2008). This may be one mechanism explaining how ethical leadership can diffuse to others throughout an organization (Mayer *et al.*, 2009). Furthermore, training programs have recently shown some success in developing MA through teaching behavior routines (i.e. scripts) that individuals can use when facing threats (e.g. Reynolds, 2008; Osswald *et al.*, 2009). Finally, Walker and Henning (2004) suggest that moral exemplars can have a moral attention effect on others such that observers come to believe they, too, have the courage to successfully meet similar threats.

#### 4.2 Potential limitations and conclusion

The study has several limitations that could be the focus of future research topics. First, demographic factors might have affected the results. To illustrate, most of the participants were relatively young (under 26 years old age) with job tenure under three years. Moreover, most of the observations in the sample chosen came from males genderwise, which would strongly open a debate of whether similar results would be obtained if gender composition was different. Second, this study is cross-sectional thus limiting one's interpretation of causal mechanisms. Employing a longitudinal design would have provided us with an opportunity to examine not only LN effect on employees' JE but also whether employees' JE impacts improved perceptions of their relationships with the leaders (higher levels of leader-member exchanges). Third, individual-level factors that increase individual JE should also be considered (Mitchell *et al.*, 2001). Prior research has identified a number of antecedents to JE. For example, personality variables such as

conscientiousness, extraversion, and agreeableness have demonstrated a strong, positive relationship with on-the-JE (Giosan *et al.*, 2005). Furthermore, both perceived supervisor support and perceived organizational support have been demonstrated to positively predict levels of JE (Giosan *et al.*, 2005). Finally, the idea of trajectories for JE has not yet been examined (Liu *et al.*, 2012) and could be researched. Whether you see yourself as increasing or decreasing in embeddedness likely influences your decision to stay or leave in an organization. Adding to this idea are future estimates of embeddedness. In other words, not only past assessments of embeddedness but also anticipations of future levels of embeddedness do matter. Specifically, do people project themselves as being more or less embedded in the future? How do these projections affect current turnover behavior?

Despite these potential limitations, this study contributes to the research on LN and employee JE by showing that perceived MA and BI are relevant individual difference variables in determining the importance of narcissistic personality to employee JE relationships. The results in the study support the argument that JE is socially constructed and, therefore, studies of employees' embeddedness in relation to antecedents should recognize the interpersonal context. It is expected that the results of this study would inspire future researchers to consider other interpersonal variables in models of LN and JE such as social support (Leiter and Maslach, 1988), trust (Mayer *et al.*, 2009), self-disclosure (Sorensen, 1989), etc.

In conclusion, hospitality organizations must differentiate their services and products through the development and implementation of programs and processes of quality improvement in order to increase performance and gain competitive advantages. The delivery of high quality services and experiences is a critical success factor to hospitality organizations. Employees' JE, satisfaction, service quality, customer satisfaction, and high quality hospitality experiences are relevant constructs, all of them related to the understanding of the role leaders are to perform in competitive organizations. At the heart of these endeavors is a strong belief that currently employee embeddedness, commitment, and satisfaction influence tomorrow's customer well-being, satisfaction, and commitment and, ultimately, the organization's profit and growth.

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### Further reading

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- Liden, R.C., Sparrowe, R.T. and Wayne, S.J. (1997), "Leader-member exchange theory: the past and potential for the future", in Ferris, G.R. (Ed.), *Research in Personnel and Human Resource Management*, JAI, Greenwich, CT, pp. 47-119.

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1. FalcãoPedro Fontes, Pedro Fontes Falcão, SaraivaManuel, Manuel Saraiva, SantosEduardo, Eduardo Santos, CunhaMiguel Pina e, Miguel Pina e Cunha. Big Five personality traits in simulated negotiation settings. *EuroMed Journal of Business*, ahead of print. [[Abstract](#)] [[Full Text](#)] [[PDF](#)]