

Narcissistic Organizational Identification and Employee CWB, In-role Performance and OCBS

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Abstract

Drawing on social exchange theory and the theory of reasoned action, this study examines the process linking supervisor narcissistic organizational identification and employee counterproductive work behavior (CWB), in-role performance and extra-role performance (OCB-S, organizational citizen behavior to supervisor) via mediating role of abusive supervision and desire for control and moderating role of relational self-concept, regulatory emotional self-efficacy, and employee ingratiation. Using survey data from 282 employees and their supervisors in entrepreneurial firms in China, we found that, as anticipated, abusive supervision and desire for control mediated the relationship between supervisor narcissistic organizational identification and CWB, in-role performance and OCB-S and relational self-concept moderated the link between supervisor narcissistic organizational identification and abusive supervision, regulatory emotional self-efficacy moderated the link between abusive supervision and CWB, in-role performance and OCB-S moderated the link between supervisor narcissistic organizational identification and supervisor desire for control, and employee ingratiation moderated the link between supervisor desire for control and CWB, in-role performance and OCB-S. Further, relational self-concept, regulatory emotional self-efficacy, employee ingratiation moderated the indirect effect of supervisor narcissistic organizational identification and CWB, in-role performance and OCB-S via abusive supervision and supervisor desire for control.

Keywords

Narcissistic Organizational Identification; Abusive Supervision; Relational Self-concept; Regulatory Emotional Self-efficacy (RESE); Employee Ingratiation; Desire for Control; CWB; In-role Performance; OCB-S.

1. Introduction

1.1 Research Background

Identification is considered significant to the organization, the impact of organizational identification on the outcomes of organizational members and the organization itself has long been recognized (e.g. Brown, 1969; Hall and Schneider, 1972; Rotondi, 1975a; O'Reilly and Chatman, 1986). Organizational identification is defined as a perceived oneness with an organization and the experience of the organization's successes and failures as one's own. While many scholars have found that personal identification is associated with helpful effects, others have found it harmful. (Ashforth, B. E., Schinoff, B. S., & Rogers, K. M., 2016)

In contrast to conventional conceptualizations of organizational identification, where the individual sees the organization as core to the definition of self, "narcissistic organizational identification," is a

form of organizational identification that features the individual's tendency to see his/her identity as core to the definition of the organization. (Galvin, B. M., Lange, D., & Ashforth, B. E., 2015)

The contemporary organizations are overwhelmed with masses of subordinates and supervisors with a myriad of identifications. Some are more dependent on the organization or profession, while some are more self-centered and self-admired. Each type of identification exercise different behaviors and performance in different context. Similarly, narcissistic organizational identification may or may not exercise more in-role performance and extra role behavior, or employee counterproductive work behavior (CWB).

The theory of reasoned action (Fishbein & Ajzan, 1975) argues that these personalities exercise behaviors and performances based on their specific intentions and hidden motives. For example, narcissist exhibit negative relationship with extra role performance (Campbell et al., 2011). However, due to employee relational self-concept, regulatory emotional self-efficacy (RESE) and employee ingratiation motive, they may exercise positive relationship with extra role behavior.

Research on undesirable management behaviors suggests that these behaviors have a detrimental impact on employee attitudes (e.g., job satisfaction; organizational commitment) and employee behaviors (e.g., organizational deviance and organizational citizenship behaviors; a full review see Tepper, 2007). So this study aimed to investigate the mediating role of abusive supervision and supervisor desire for control on the relationships between narcissistic organizational identification and in-role performance, employee counterproductive work behavior (CWB) and organizational citizenship behavior.

Organizational citizenship behaviors are continuously receiving attention in conceptual, empirical and meta-analysis studies (Organ, Podsakoff, & MacKenzie, 2006). Organizational Citizenship Behavior (OCB) could be denoted as a discretionary extra role work behavior of the personnel, that is, not associated with the formal reward or compensation system of an organization (Chaitanya & Tripathi, 2001).

According to previous researches, OCB has its two dimensions; OCB-Organizational and OCB-Interpersonal. OCB-O consist of behaviors that are in benefit of the overall organization (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Paine, & Bachrach, 2000), organizational obedience (Graham, 1991a), abide by the rules, regulations and procedures of the organization (Borman & Motowidlo, 1993), civic Virtue, Courtesy, Conscientiousness, Sportsmanship (Chaitanya & Tripathi, 2001). Similarly, OCB-I consists of behaviors that directly benefit particular individual or a group of individuals and through this means add value to the organization indirectly (William & Anderson, 1991) (for example, helping co-workers who are absent from job due to unavoidable reasons, taking your personal interest in other employees). It includes dimensions as helping coworkers (George & Jones, 1997; George & Brief, 1992), Helping and Cooperating with others (Borman & Motowidlo, 1993), Interpersonal Facilitation (Scotter & Motowidlo, 1996).

Consistent with former classification of OCB, in this paper, I suppose OCB-S, which includes dimensions as subordinates voluntarily helping and cooperating with their supervisors, as the predicting extra role behavior of narcissistic organizational identification.

In another sphere, a recent review of the relationship between narcissism and CWB reported the key results: narcissism is the dominant predictor of CWB among the dark triad personality traits (O'Boyle, Forsyth, Banks, & McDaniel, 2012). CWB refers to voluntary behaviors that violate significant organizational norms and threaten the well-being of the organization or its members (e.g. theft, poor attendance, sharing an organization's confidential information, or withholding effort; Bennett & Robinson, 2000; Sackett & DeVore, 2001).

An ongoing discussion in the literature and arguments has been made suggesting both a negative and a positive relationship (House & Howell, 1992; Rosenthal & Pittinsky, 2006). Such counter balancing effects may be due to both positive and negative mediation processes. Therefore, I explore the mediating role of two aspects of leader behavior: (a) abusive supervision, and (b) supervisor desire for control.

The present study aims at predicting extra role (OCB-S) & in-role performance, CWB and its antecedents ---narcissistic organizational identification through mediating effect of abusive supervision and supervisor desire for control and moderating impact of relational self-concept, regulatory emotional self-efficacy (RESE) and employee ingratiation.

1.2 Research problems

First, this study focused on finding out relationship of employee CWB, in-role and extra role performance through abusive supervision and supervisor desire for control. However, very low work has been done in predicting narcissistic organizational identification and employee CWB, in-role and extra role performance OCB-S.

Second, the present study also aims at finding out the relationship of narcissistic organizational identification with employee CWB, in-role and extra role performance. Narcissistic organizational identification is very less discussed in researches while finding out its relationship with employee CWB, in-role and extra role performance.

Narcissism at a workplace may be healthy or unhealthy. Healthy narcissism includes promoting the interpersonal world, self-conscious as well as the sense of control and power (Yildiz & Öncer, 2012). Healthy narcissism can be helpful in increasing the organizational performance (Godkin & Allcorn, 2009). Such individuals possess intellectual giftedness combined with impressive fantasies and a high self-investment can exercise a successful academic, professional or creative accomplishment. According to Godkin and Alcon (2009), talented narcissist can also interpret tasks and events as opportunities and demonstrate their superiority. They are often highly successful in business; such situations reward those who can manipulate others (Yildiz & Öncer, 2012). So I suppose supervisors with narcissistic organizational identification presents strong desire for control which will be a positive factor to subordinates in-role and extra-role performance and be negative to workplace deviance.

According to social exchange theory and the theory of reasoned action, present study will take narcissistic organizational identification as an independent variable for concluding the research and will strive to find out its relationship with in-role and extra role performance and employee counterproductive work behavior through mediating effect of supervisor abusive supervision and desire for control and moderating effect of relational self-concept, regulatory emotional self-efficacy (RESE) and employee ingratiation.

1.3 Research objectives

The main objective of this research is to highlight the impact of narcissistic organizational identification on in-role & extra role performance and workplace deviance. The objectives of the study include nine parts: (1) the main relationship between narcissistic organizational identification and abusive supervision, (2) the mediating role of abusive supervision in the relationship between narcissistic organizational identification and employee work outcomes (CWB; In-role performance and OCB-S), (3) the moderation effect of relational self-concept on the relationship between narcissistic organizational identification and abusive supervision, (4) the moderation effect of regulatory emotional self-efficacy (RESE) on the relationships between abusive supervision and employee work outcomes (CWB; In-role performance and OCB-S), (5) the mediating role of desire for control in the relationship between narcissistic organizational identification and employee work outcomes (CWB; In-role performance; OCB-S), (6), the moderation effect of employee ingratiation on the relationships between desire for control and employee work outcomes (CWB; In-role performance; OCB-S), (7) the moderating indirect effect of relational self-concept in the indirect effect of narcissistic organizational identification on work outcomes via abusive supervision, (8) the moderating indirect effect of regulatory emotional self-efficacy (RESE) in the indirect effect of narcissistic organizational identification on work outcomes via abusive supervision, (9) the moderating indirect effect of employee ingratiation in the indirect effect of narcissistic organizational identification on work outcomes via desire for control.

These relationships are schematically represented in Figure 1.

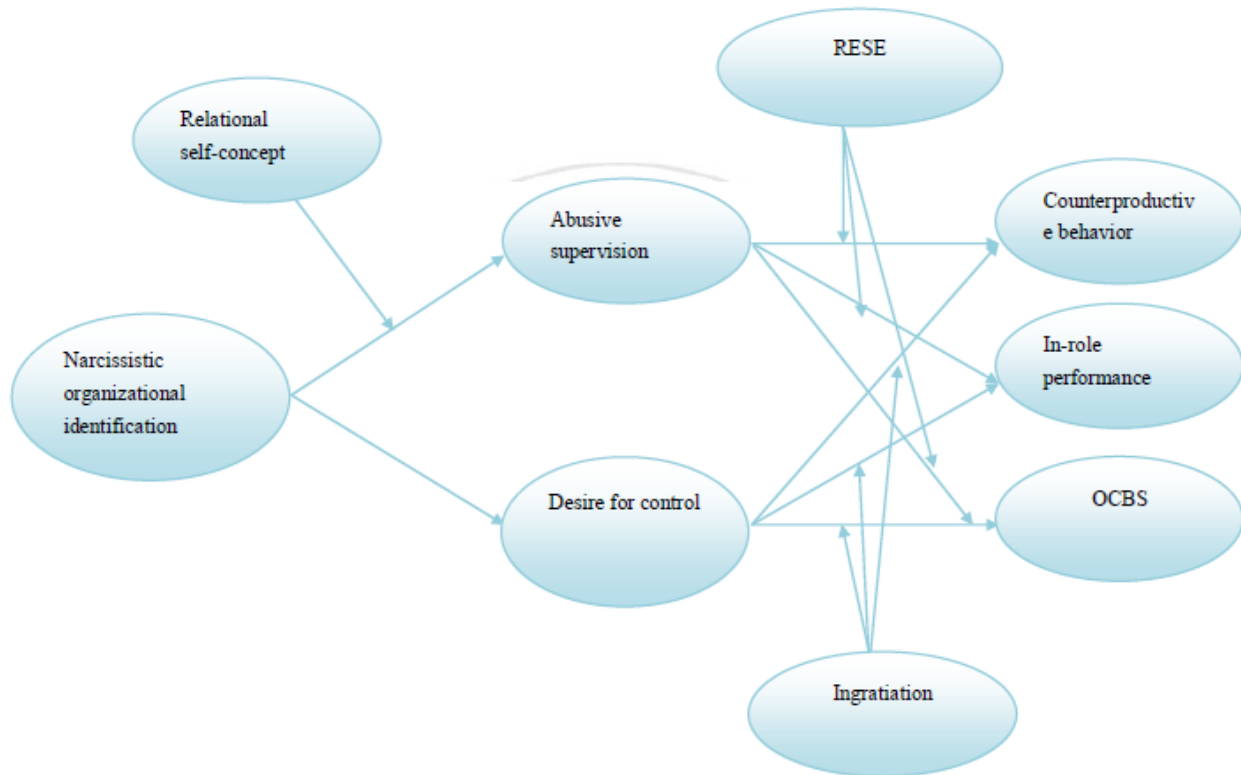


Figure 1. Research Model

1.4 Research significance

Though researchers have investigated factors that could affect employee work outcomes---CWB, in-role performance and OCB-S (see review); few researches have investigated the relationship between narcissistic organizational identification and in-role, extra role behavior and workplace deviance, and the different mediators and moderators behind.

Some such as narcissist have hidden agendas of exercising such behaviors as in role & extra role behavior. In reality, they usually do not exercise these behaviors, but due to some of their motives, such as relational self-concept, regulatory emotional self-efficacy (RESE) and employee ingratiation, they may exercise it. So, the present study tends to address this issue by highlighting the moderating role of relational self-concept, regulatory emotional self-efficacy (RESE) and employee ingratiation in the relationship of narcissistic organizational identification and employee work outcomes---CWB, in-role performance and OCB-S.

This study has investigated how organizational practices may motivate employee work outcomes. To begin with, this study takes narcissistic organizational identification as the antecedent variables and the abusive supervision and supervisor desire for control as mediators, to explore the effect on employee work outcomes.

Theory and findings on identification and conventional organizational identification has described how high identification leads a supervisor to pro-organizational behaviors (Qureshi, Saif Ullah, et al., 2015), however, given over identification, behaviors that are intended as pro-organizational can be extreme and actually counterproductive. In contrast, I describe how narcissistic organizational identification—in which the self is central to the identity overlap between self and organization — leads the supervisor to serve the organization by serving the self. Narcissistic identification can therefore provide insight into an important paradox—namely, why some individuals with high organizational identification may be highly motivated to more desire for control and engage in

behaviors that promote their organizations' successes while simultaneously seeming to abusive supervision through behaviors that appear to exploit the organization on behalf of the self.

A further contribution of this study is its description of how employee relational self-concept, regulatory emotional self-efficacy (RESE) and ingratiation can influence the relationship between narcissistic organizational identification and employ CWB, in-role performance and OCB-S. Theory and empirical findings in the organizational identification literature have identified high narcissistic organizational identification, in combination with features of the organization that are theoretically relevant to individuals at the top of the organizational hierarchy (including a sense of control and influence over the organization, a sense of psychological ownership of the organization, a sense that the organization is regarded highly by others, and a sense that others identify one in terms of the organization), can lead to a form of organizational identification whereby the overlap of organization and individual identity is dominated by the individual's identity (Qureshi, Saif Ullah, et al., 2015).

According to The theory of reasoned action, positive behaviors result in positive outcomes such as desire for control exercise more OCB and in role performance. But this research also focuses that negative behavior such as abusive supervision may also lessen the employee negative behaviors for employee relational self-concept, regulatory emotional self-efficacy (RESE) and ingratiation purposes.

Then, reviewing literature and research on OCB gives me the opportunity to work on this construct and to link psychological and human resource view into one phenomenon.

So, present study will take narcissistic organizational identification and desire for control as an independent variable for concluding the research and will strive to find out its relationship with in-role and extra role performance through moderating impact of relational self-concept, regulatory emotional self-efficacy (RESE) and employee ingratiation.

The effect of the moderated mediation reported is very interesting, but was limited by the number of primary studies available to. Therefore, present study is among the first empirical studies to examine the mechanism, through which narcissistic organizational identification affect employee work outcomes.

In addition, there is still lack of empirical research on the relationship of narcissistic organizational identification and employee work outcomes both in domestic and foreign research field, the paper enriches the research content of the field of the previous research. It can be considered a complement to the blank authored.

1.5 Research procedure

This study consists of introduction, literature review and research hypothesis, research methods, results, discussion, and references, Appendix, concluding totally seven parts.

The first chapter is the introduction, mainly explaining the research background and problems, research purpose and significance and research process.

The second chapter is the literature review, mainly including the previous research done by the past scholars on narcissistic organizational identification; abusive supervision; relational self-concept; regulatory emotional self-efficacy (RESE); employee ingratiation; desire for control; CWB; in-role performance; OCB-S. Specify each research variable, nine variables reviewed is the theoretical foundation of this study.

The research hypothesis is based on the existing literature on narcissistic organizational identification; abusive supervision; relational self-concept; regulatory emotional self-efficacy (RESE); employee ingratiation; desire for control; CWB; in-role performance; OCB-S, according to theories of related papers to infer the hypothesis.

The third chapter is research methods. Research methods include the research questionnaire design, questionnaires distribution at three times, and measures of each variable, including narcissistic organizational identification; abusive supervision; relational self-concept; regulatory emotional self-

efficacy (RESE); employee ingratiation; desire for control; CWB; in-role performance; OCB-S and control variables.

Fourth, there is a detailed description of the use of Mplus for data analysis in the part of results according to the results of narcissistic organizational identification; abusive supervision; relational self-concept; regulatory emotional self-efficacy (RESE); employee ingratiation; desire for control; CWB; in-role performance; OCB-S.

Based on the effective data of four variables, factor analysis, coefficient analysis and regression are conducted, then verify assumptions and finally draw a conclusion.

The fifth chapter is discussion. This chapter focuses on the results of in-depth study, summarizes main conclusion and finally points out the shortcomings of this research and then a slice of suggestions for future research directions.

2. Literature review and hypotheses

2.1 Narcissistic organizational identification and abusive supervision

“Narcissistic organizational identification,” in contrast to conventional conceptualizations of organizational identification where the individual sees the organization as core to the definition of self, is defined as a form of organizational identification that features the individual’s tendency to see his/her identity as core to the definition of the organization. (Galvin, B. M., Lange, D., & Ashforth, B. E., 2015)

The narcissistic organizational identification is indicated by items such as, “When someone criticizes my department, it is a personal insult because he/she is criticizing me”; “I am more interested in what others think about me than what they think about my department”; “When I talk about my department, I usually say I rather than we or they”; “I deserve credit for the successes of my department”; “When someone praises my department, he/she is complimenting me and my accomplishments”; “If a story in the media criticized me, it would also be a criticism of my department”.

In terms of the antecedents of abusive supervision, most existing research has focused on the supervisor-level factors, such as supervisors' own experience of abusive supervision from higher-level managers (Mawritz, Mayer, Hoobler, Wayne, & Marinova, 2012), perceptions of injustice (Aryee, Chen, Sun, & Debrah, 2007), workplace stress (Burton, Hoobler, & Scheuer, 2012), history of family undermining (Kiewitz, Restubog, Zagencyk, Scott, Garcia, & Tang, 2012), emotional intelligence (Ding, Tian, Yang, & Gong, 2012), and perceived deep level dissimilarity with subordinates (Tepper, Moss, & Duff y, 2011).

However, Wang and Jiang (2014) found employee narcissism, representing a set of traits that are motivated by the desire to establish and maintain the grandiose self-image (McCullough, Emmons, Kilpatrick, & Mooney, 2003), is also associated with subordinates' perceptions of abusive supervision. According to the dynamic self-regulatory processing model (Morf & Rhodewalt, 2001), narcissists are likely to use self-regulatory strategies to maintain their self-construal or self-image, including interpersonal and intrapersonal strategies. Narcissistic subordinates continuously engage in pursuing high relational self-concept (Crocker & Park, 2004). Furthermore, they exert substantial interpersonal efforts to avoid what they perceive as unjust or hostile behavior when interacting with supervisors (Morf & Rhodewalt, 2001). Similarly, supervisors with higher narcissistic organizational identification experience threats to the ego more easily, which stimulates aggressive to abusive supervision (Baumeister, Bushman, & Campbell, 2000). It has also been found that it is difficult for narcissistic people to forgive mistreatment or negative feedback from others (Exline, Baumeister, Bushman, Campbell, & Finkel, 2004), and therefore they would tend to behave in aggressive ways and leads to abusive supervision (Mitchell & Ambrose, 2007).

Following from the preceding discussion, I put forward:

Hypothesis 1: Narcissistic organizational identification will be positively related to abusive supervision.

2.2 The mediating role of abusive supervision

Abusive supervision has been defined as nonphysical hostile actions that a manager takes at the expense of a subordinate (Tepper, Henle, Lambert, Giacalone, & Duffy, 2008). Examples of abusive supervision include lying, rudeness, ridicule, invasion of privacy, and inappropriate expressions of anger.

Not surprisingly, empirical evidence has shown abusive supervision to have a significant impact on a multitude of important individual as well as organizational outcomes. Quite a few of the troubling outcomes for abused employees include problem drinking (Bamberger & Bacharach, 2006), psychological distress (Yagil, 2006), supervisor-directed aggression (Dupre, Inness, Connelly, Barling, & Hopton, 2006) and family directed aggression (Hoobler & Brass, 2006). In addition, abusive supervision has been shown to be related to multiple outcomes detrimental to organizations including, organizational deviance (Tepper, Henle, Lambert, Giacalone, & Duffy, 2008; Thau, Bennett, Mitchell, & Marrs, 2008), low job satisfaction (Tepper, Duffy, Hoobler, & Ensley, 2004), decreased organizational citizenship behaviors (Zellars, Tepper, & Duffy, 2002), and increased intentions to quit (Tepper, 2000), it has also been suggested that the power differential between supervisors and subordinates is likely to moderate the behavioral responses of employees who face abusive supervision (Zellars, Tepper, & Duffy, 2002).

Abusive supervision, as a type of interpersonal mistreatment from direct supervisors toward subordinates, has received growing attention in leadership research. Both the antecedents and the consequences of abusive supervision have been studied well in the last decade (see e.g., Tepper, 2007; Martinko, Harvey, Brees, & Mackey, 2013 for a review). However, the role of narcissistic organizational identification related to abusive supervision is still unclear.

Previous research has shown that mistreated employees develop the need to retaliate against their abuser (Skarlicki & Folger, 1997). And it has been found that abusive supervision is an important influential factor in subordinates' organizational behaviors (e.g., Zellars, Tepper, & Duffy, 2002; Mitchell & Ambrose, 2007), job-related attitudes (e.g., Tepper, 2000; Tepper, Carr, Breaux, Geider, Hu, & Hua, 2009), psychological well-being, and even family well-being (e.g., Wu & Hu, 2009; Carlson, Ferguson, Hunter, & Whitten, 2012).

Deviant behavior at work represents one of the most relevant emerging criticalities in organizations worldwide (Chappell and Di Martino 2006). In the literature, it has been labeled in different ways, e.g., deviance, organizational aggression, mobbing/ bullying, unethical behavior, misconduct, delinquency, retaliation, revenge, violence, and emotional abuse. Despite the specificity of the different definitions provided, all operationalizations share a common emphasis on the actual or potential harmful and detrimental effects of such behaviors on both the organization and its members (Giacalone and Greenberg 1997; Spector and Fox 2005).

In this study, I focus my attention on counterproductive work behavior (CWB), Counterproductive work behaviors (CWB) refer to a broad spectrum of deliberately carried out unethical, illegal, or otherwise undesirable employee conduct, and mitigating the damages caused by CWBs, especially those targeting the supervisor.

Several researches have examined the different factors that could help to understand the process leading to CWB, Previous studies on CWB focused on different situations or conditions that are, at least potentially, mighty stressors such as organizational constraints, unmanaged conflicts, work overload, and lack of autonomy and support (Chen and Spector 1992; Fox and Spector 1999; Fox et al. 2001; Miles et al. 2002; Peters and O'Connor 1980; Spector et al. 1988). Chen and Spector (1992) demonstrated that feelings of anger and frustration predicted various forms of CWB such as sabotage, abuse, and absenteeism.

In trying to understand the antecedents of CWB, researchers have studied personality traits and situational stressors, as well as the relationships between them (Berry, Ones, & Sackett, 2007). Specifically, One situational stressor that has been associated with CWB is abusive supervision (Mitchell & Ambrose, 2007; Thau, Bennett, Mitchell, & Marrs, 2009; Sulea, Coralia, Fine, Saul,

Fischmann, Gabriel, Sava, Florin A., & Dumitru, Catalina. 2013; Wei, F., & Si, S., 2013; .Eschleman, K. J., & Bowling, N. A., 2014; An, F., & Wang, B., 2016).

Drawing on social exchange theory, both empirical and theoretical evidence suggests that employees may respond to abusive supervision with equally destructive behaviors such as organizational deviance (Thau, Bennett, Mitchell, & Marrs, 2008; Tepper, Henle, Lambert, Giacalone, & Duffy, 2008). Considering that abusive supervision may cause employees to feel helpless, frustrated, and alienated (Ashforth, 1994), it is perhaps not surprising that some individuals will respond by retaliating against the company in the form of CWB (BrukLee & Spector, 2006; Lian, Ferris, & Brown, 2012). In fact, it has been noted that the mere perception of abuse (as opposed to necessarily reported incidents, for example) may be sufficient to prompt CWB (Marcus & Schuler, 2004).

Hypothesis 2a: Abusive supervision will mediate the relationship between narcissistic organizational identification and employee CWB.

In-role behaviors are the necessary or the expected performance dimension for the execution of the basic job duties or core take behavior (Zhu, 2013).

Katz and Kahn (1978) defined in-role performance as behaviors that are defined and prescribed as the part of employee's job as well as also recognized by the firm's formal compensation system. Williams and Anderson (1991) defined the in-role behavior as the behaviors that are associated with the completion of the responsible work. It is the behavior that is associated with formal reward system of the organization. It may include dimensions as effectively completing the assigned tasks, fulfilling the core responsibilities mentioned in job description, performing the tasks expected from employee, engaging in activities the affects performance evaluation and meeting the required performance for particular job (Qureshi, S. U., Ashfaq, J., ul Hassan, M., & Imdadullah, M. (2015). Performance criterion of measuring in-role performance are generally grouped into four major categories: quantity measures, quality measures, ratings, and document handling, such as records concerning safety, tardiness or absences (Ghiselli & Brown, 1955). Qureshi, S. U., Ashfaq, J., ul Hassan, M., & Imdadullah, M. (2015) examined the relationship between narcissist and in-role performance.

Early evidence points to abused subordinates experiencing greater psychological distress, job and life dissatisfaction, and intentions to quit their jobs, as compared to non-abused colleagues (Keashly et al, 1994).

According to Ashforth (1997), abusive workplace behavior, which he operationalized as petty tyranny, was positively related to frustration, stress, reactance, helplessness, and work alienation, and negatively related to work performance, leader endorsement and work unit cohesiveness. Keashly, Irott, and McLean (1994) established, not surprisingly, that employees who experienced abusive supervision also experienced less job satisfaction. Research in organizational-based self-esteem demonstrated that feelings of self-worth are influenced by how people feel they have been treated (e.g., McAllister and Bigley, 2002). An individual's temporary feelings of self-worth will be negatively related to abusive supervision (Burton, J. P., & Hoobler, J. M. (2006).

Hypothesis 2b: Abusive supervision will mediate the relationship between narcissistic organizational identification and employee in-role performance.

OCBs were first described by Organ (1988) as behaviors that are important to the organization's performance, but not part of the employee's official job duties. The fact that OCBs are discretionary behaviors that are not a part of an employee's required tasks makes them an attractive tool for employees to use both to reciprocate for positive treatment and to withhold in response to negative treatment.

Judge et al. (2006) argued that narcissist significantly and negatively related to OCB under supervisor's ratings. However, this relationship was found positive with OCB when self-rating technique was used. In addition to the Judge et al. (2006) findings, Blair et al. (2008) also found negative relationship between narcissism and relationships-oriented behavior of the employees so indirectly supporting these relationships found by earlier researchers, given that interpersonal

facilitation is often include as a dimension of citizen ship behavior. Zellars, Tepper, and Duffy (2002) tested the impact of abusive supervision on OCBs and found a significant negative relationship between the two variables. This relationship was also moderated by the individual's definition of OCBs as extra-role behavior, such that the relationship between abusive supervision and OCBs was stronger when the employee defined OCBs as behaviors that were beyond the scope of their job responsibilities. Qureshi, S. U., Ashfaq, J., ul Hassan, M., & Imdadullah, M. (2015) examined the relationship between narcissist and OCB-I, OCB-O.

Consistent with former classification of OCB, in this paper, I suppose OCB-S, which includes dimensions as subordinates voluntarily helping and cooperating with their supervisors, as the predicting extra role behavior of narcissistic organizational identification through abusive supervision. Based on these theoretical arguments and empirical evidence, the following hypothesis is offered:

Hypothesis 2c: Abusive supervision will mediate the relationship between narcissistic organizational identification and employee OCB-S.

This study furthers the understanding of the relationship between narcissistic organizational identification and abusive supervision by examining the potential moderating variable --- employee relational self-concept.

2.3 The moderating role of relational self-concept

Self-concept refers to how people define themselves, and has profound effects on the way they feel, think, and behave (Markus & Wurf, 1987). Researchers have distinguished among three levels of self-concept: the collective, relational, and individual self-concepts.

The Relational Self-Concept Scale was designed by Schott, G. R., & Bellin (2001), who put forward the concept of relational self-concept, which includes "If a friend was having a personal problem, I would help him/her even if it meant sacrificing my time or money", "I value friends who are caring, empathic individuals" "It is important to me that I uphold my commitments to significant people in my life", "Caring deeply about another person such as a close friend or relative is important to me", "Knowing that a close other acknowledges and values the role that I play in their life makes me feel like a worthwhile person (Schott, G. R., & Bellin, W., 2001).

Despite the recognition that self-concept plays a significant role in scholastic achievement (Francis, 1994), the continued use of psychometric instruments that lack ecological validity means that the nature and utility of the relationship forged between psychology and the context of management remains unclear.

Self-concept is comprised of a personal identity, encompassing idiosyncratic characteristics such as abilities and interests, and a social identity, encompassing salient group classifications (Tajfel and Turner, 1985). Individuals tend to classify themselves and others into various social groups, such as organizational membership, gender, and age cohort. Classification enables individuals to order the social environment and locate themselves and others within it (Schott, G. R., & Bellin, W., 2001). Self-concept research (Oyserman, Gant, & Ager, 1995) has been questioned by researchers who seek more emphasis on the impact of the social context on what is self defining (Taylor & Dube, 1986; Turner, Hogg, Oakes, Reicher, & Wetherell, 1987; Turner, Oakes, Haslam, & McGarty, 1994). As Gergen (1994a) notes, "at present we possess a staggering vocabulary for characterizing individual selves but stand virtually mute in the discourse of relatedness"(p. 214).

"Relational" refers to the way the self has definition and meaning through the context of other people (Stein & Markus, 1994). Bakhurst and Sypnowich (1995) state: We are beings situated in a cultural environment. with other such beings. We are things which think, to be sure, but our intellectual powers are nurtured and sustained in that cultural environment and derive their character from it. We are beings who live and act in consort with others and whose lives are structured by our ties to each other. (p. 4). The term relational self-concept, on the other hand, is used to describe a dynamic mental structure that assists individual functioning by mediating and regulating interpersonal behaviors and processes. A relational concept of the self, therefore, aims to represent individuals not as "bounded

entities leading separate lives on independent trajectories" (Gergen, 1994a, p. 212), but as beings whose self-image is "better understood as depending on ongoing feedback from within the context of relationships" (Seligman & Shanok, 1995, p.543). The relational self is achieved by assimilating with significant others (i.e., the relational self contains those aspects of the self-concept that are shared with relationship partners and define the person's role or position within significant relationships). The relational self is based on personalized bonds of attachment. Such bonds include parent-child relationships, friendships, and romantic relationships as well as specific role relationships such as teacher-student or clinician-client. This form of self-representation relies on the process of reflected appraisal and is associated with the motive of protecting or enhancing the significant other and maintaining the relation-ship itself (Brewer & Gardner, 1996; see also Hazan & Shaver, 1994; Reis & Shaver, 1988).

As mentioned earlier, Hwang, P. C., Han, M. C., & Chiu, S. F. (2015) defined relational self-concept as to the extent to which people conceptualize themselves in terms of specific others that are important to them. At this level, individuals are driven by the welfare of the specific other, and appropriate role behaviors regarding a specific person determines self-worth (Johnson et al., 2010). In the work setting, people with high relational self-concept are focused on relationship development and maintenance, which are accomplished by internalizing the values and goals of their vertical and horizontal dyadic partners (supervisor and team co-worker) (Johnson et al., 2006). Drawing on regulatory focus frameworks, individuals high in relational self-concept are typically motivated to promote their partners' benefits and maintain high-quality relationships with them at work.

The strength of different levels of self-concept (individual, relational, and collective) each uniquely interact with a relevant variable to predict person-referenced outcomes (e.g., pay, promotion), dyad-referenced outcomes (e.g., organizational citizenship behaviors directed toward specific individuals, and supervisor satisfaction), and system-referenced outcomes (e.g., organizational citizenship behaviors directed toward the organization in general), respectively (Johnson et al., 2006).

While we expect abusive supervision to have universally deleterious outcomes for targets, these effects may be particularly pronounced for specific individuals (Schott, G. R., & Bellin, W., 2001). Theoretical work on the psychology of the self-concept posits that the one of sources of information by which humans come to view and evaluate themselves is self-perceptions, which means observations of and attributions for our own behavior as a source of self-evaluative information) (Gecas, 1982). Other sources, as an example, reflected appraisals---reactions of others to us through which we learn self-relevant information) or social comparisons---comparing ourselves to others in order to generate self-evaluative information) (Gecas, 1982) are relatively relational. I suppose different individuals with high or low scores of relational self-concept response differently to abusive supervision.

Although hostile interpersonal treatments could lead to victims' retaliation, such as workplace deviance, referring to "voluntary behavior that violates significant organizational norms and in so doing threatens the well-being of an organization, its members, or both" (Robinson & Bennett, 1995, p. 556), and both empirical and theoretical evidence suggests that employees may respond to abusive supervision with equally destructive behaviors such as organizational deviance (Thau, Bennett, Mitchell, & Marrs, 2008; Tepper, Henle, Lambert, Giacalone, & Duffy, 2008), it is recognized that subordinates with diverse characteristics react to abusive supervision in different ways (Bamberger, 2006; Mitchell & Ambrose, 2007).

Chinese tend to value sociability and smooth-functioning relationships. When they encounter a dysfunctional relationship, such as an abusive supervision, from a supervisor with narcissistic organizational identification, it is particularly detrimental to their self-concept (Burton, J. P., & Hoobler, J. M., 2006). For those who rely on reflected appraisals, self-concept tends to develop from a supervisor's expression of liking, approval, competence, and worth. When a supervisor instead exhibits antisocial behavior toward a subordinate, some may engage self-evaluative information from sources other than his/her supervisor, but some are more likely to experience decrements in self-

concept given that his/her supervisor is the designated organizational source of performance appraisal and the embodiment of organizational authority.

Similarly, relational self-concept may strengthen or weaken the relationship between narcissistic organizational identification and abusive supervision. Compared with employees with high scores of relational self-concept, which probably weaken the positive relationship between narcissistic organizational identification and abusive supervision, when subordinate with low scores of relational self-concept experience an abusive relationship at work—from the very person who they seek an organizationally sanctioned appraisal from, their supervisor—it is, metaphorically, a chink in their armor, the abused individual may ask herself: “Why am I not respected in the workplace? Do I have a right to my position and status?” In sum, it could be that relational self-concept is damaged at a greater rate because their self-perceptions legitimate stereotypes of him/herself as less essential members of the workforce (Haslanger, 1996). Then, the relationship between narcissistic organizational identification and abusive supervision is stronger, and more damaging, for those who seemingly have more to lose in a supervisor-subordinate relationship when it comes to low relational self-concept.

Thus, the following hypothesis is offered:

Hypothesis 3: Relational self-concept will moderate the relationship between narcissistic organizational identification and abusive supervision such that the positive relationship is stronger for employees with low relational self-concept than for those with high relational self-concept.

2.4 The moderating role of regulatory emotional self-efficacy

Regulatory emotional self-efficacy (RESE) refers to the beliefs people have about whether or not they are capable of managing their emotions (Bandura, Caprara, Barbaranelli, Gerbino, & Pastorelli, 2003; Caprara et al., 2008). Individuals are active agents whose capacities for self-regulation allow them a vast degree of control over their experiences and life course (Bandura, 2001). It has two components: self-efficacy in managing negative affect, which refers to individuals’ ability to ameliorate negative emotional states when involved in frustrating events, and their ability to avoid being overcome by negative emotions, such as anger, sadness, and guilt; and self-efficacy in expressing positive affect, which involves individuals’ ability to experience or express positive emotions, such as happiness and pride (Dou, K., etc., 2016). Individuals with weak RESE have difficulty dealing with their negative emotions when distressed, leading them to experience worse depression (Bandura et al., 2003).

The regulatory emotional self-efficacy (RESE) scale was developed to assess perceived self-efficacy in managing 2 different negative affects: despondency-distress (DES) and anger-irritation (ANG) such as “How well can you keep from getting dejected when you are lonely?”, “How well can you reduce your upset when you don’t get the appreciation you feel you deserve?” and in expressing positive (POS) affect such as “How well can you express joy when good things happen to you?”, “How well can you feel gratified over achieving what you set out to do?” (Caprara, Giunta, Eisenberg, et al., 2008)

Following the common distinction between positive and negative affect (Russell & Carroll, 1999; Watson & Tellegen, 1985), the importance for adjustment of distinct self-efficacy beliefs in overruling or modulating the expression of negative affect and impulsivity, and to appropriately experience and express positive affect, especially in difficult situations, has been considered (Bandura et al., 2003; Caprara, 2002).

In fact, in the face of provocative circumstances and stressors, individuals who cannot sufficiently modulate their strong negative emotions may externalize negative feelings inappropriately (Eisenberg et al., 2001), such as anger and irritation (Olson, Schilling, & Bates, 1999), or may be overwhelmed by fear, anxiety, or depression (Flett, Blankstein, & Obertinsky, 1996). In contrast, experiencing positive affect can enhance cognitive functioning, buffer the perturbing effects of aversive experiences, facilitate adaptive coping (Folkman & Moskowitz, 2000), and lead to rewarding and enriching social exchanges and experiences (Fredrickson & Joiner, 2002).

Despite these potential positive effects, however, expressing affection, liking, and joyfulness indiscriminately across all of the contexts can elicit negative reactions from others (Shiota, Campos, Keltner, & Hertenstein, 2004). Although being effectively able and feeling competent are conceptually distinct, researchers have found that self-efficacy beliefs can be proxy indicators of effective performance (Bandura, 1997, for a review).

Fadel K. Matta, H. Tugba Erol-Korkmaz, Russell E. Johnson, & Pinar Biçaksiz (2014) found that employees' tendencies to engage in particular emotion regulation strategies may be fruitful for understanding the processes through which significant work events influence negative emotional reactions and those reactions influence behavior. For example, emotion regulation strategies may be used to reduce the negative emotional reactions that are elicited by daily work events, replacing them with positive (or at least less negative) emotions. Similarly, emotion regulation strategies may lessen the likelihood that negative emotional responses culminate in destructive behaviors such as CWB.

Therefore, one can expect that regulatory emotional self-efficacy, through contributing to effective emotion regulation, may serve as a proxy of it. We can suppose that individuals differ widely in how well they manage their emotional experiences of everyday life, not only because they differ effectively in skills but also because they differ in their perceived capabilities to regulate their emotions (Caprara GV, Di Giunta L, Eisenberg N, et al, 2008).

In the interpersonal transactions of everyday life, individuals in workplace may encounter a variety of emotional events. There is a big difference in regulating own emotions. Regulatory emotional self-efficacy will directly or indirectly affect the social and psychological functions of the employee, and then work outcomes. Regulatory emotional self-efficacy is also affected by a multitude of environmental factors, among which abusive supervision is an important factor. Caprara, Gerbino, Paciello, Di Giunta, and Pastorelli (2010) examined strong RESE was not only negatively associated with their current levels of depression, but also that RESE predicted their depression 4 years later. Having strong RESE would reduce depressive symptoms by enhancing their Core self-evaluation (Dou, K., etc., 2016).

While employees with low regulatory emotional self-efficacy in the long-term environment of abusive supervision, whose needs for self-efficacy, self-achievement cannot be met, will feel a sense of unworthiness and incapable of themselves, thus would probably lead to low self-efficacy, and then in-role performance and OCB-S.

Although hostile interpersonal treatments could lead to victims' retaliation, such as workplace deviance, referring to "voluntary behavior that violates significant organizational norms and in so doing threatens the well-being of an organization, its members, or both" (Robinson & Bennett, 1995, p. 556), and both empirical and theoretical evidence suggests that employees may respond to abusive supervision with equally destructive behaviors such as organizational deviance (Thau, Bennett, Mitchell, & Marrs, 2008; Tepper, Henle, Lambert, Giacalone, & Duffy, 2008), it is recognized that subordinates with diverse characteristics react to abusive supervision in different ways (Bamberger, 2006; Mitchell & Ambrose, 2007).

Meanwhile, social exchange theory (e.g., Blau, 1964) is often useful in interpreting the behavioral and attitudinal consequences of abusive supervision. Social exchange theory posits that individuals strive to maintain equitable exchanges of resources (both economic and social) with their organizations. Social exchange theory would suggest that both tangible and intangible resources that the employee experiences is important. Vandenberghe & Tremblay (2008) represents a significant outlay of intangible resources to the employee. Using the social exchange theory lens to consider abusive supervision suggests that experiencing abusive supervision would decrease the level of intangible resources that the individual receives from their organization. Therefore, individuals develop the need to reciprocate their organizations or retaliate against their organization when they receive inadequate resources or poor treatment, for example, abusive supervision. Thus, it appears that high RESE of the employee, represents his/her high EI, will diminish the employee's willingness to retaliate in response to abusive supervision.

Similarly, the effect of abusive supervision on the employee's willingness to perform in-role performance may be diminished by employee regulatory emotional self-efficacy.

If an employee experiences abusive supervision, but with strong RESE, then they having a stronger level of regulating their negative emotions than would an individual who is experiencing abusive supervision with low regulatory emotional self-efficacy (RESE). No matter what leading style the supervisor is, the individual with strong regulatory emotional self-efficacy (RESE), therefore, should experience less of a need to retaliate for the abusive supervision they experience and perform their tasks as their planned as the individual who is experiencing both abusive supervision and low regulatory emotional self-efficacy (RESE).

In fact, it is unlikely even if possible that those individuals can effectively handle their affect if they do not believe themselves capable. In addition, individuals' feelings of regulatory self-efficacy are of importance in their own right because they likely contribute to individuals' psychological well-being and comfort with their emotions (Dou, K., et al., 2016). On the basis of this reasoning, I develop an instrument to assess self-efficacy in regard to emotional regulation in managing negative affect in response to adversities or frustrating events such as abusive supervision.

Additional theoretical statements about regulatory emotional self-efficacy (RESE) may also lend support to the notion that employees with stronger RESE will be more willing to withhold OCB-S in response to abusive supervision.

Some other instruments are also available for the assessment of individual differences shaping the relations between subjective experience of emotions and behavior, in particular, externalizing behavior (Caprara GV, Di Giunta L, Eisenberg N, et al, 2008).

2.5 Narcissistic organizational identification and desire for control

According to Burger (1992), individuals can vary in their motive to control events that happen in their environment and the desire to control events over their life is tantamount to acting in a volitional way. This is then an individual trait, quite stable in time that may influence motivation as well as close variables such as the perception of control (Skinner, Wellborn, & Connell, 1990). According to Burger, people high in desire for control are highly motivated to make their own decisions, take on leadership roles in group settings, and react strongly if they perceive that their control is threatened (Burger, 1990). People's attempts to control their environment are made in order to be at the origin of their actions (DeCharms, 1968). However, desire for control differs from the Locus of Control (Rotter, 1966), which is internal or external according to the bipolar evaluation individuals make of what happens to them, and from the Perceived Locus of Causality (Ryan & Connell, 1989), which refers to the degree to which people believe to be responsible for their own behavior.

Developed by Burger, J. M., & Cooper, H. M. (1979), I revised the items of the measure to "I prefer to have a lot of control over what I do and when I do it when working with employees", "Typically, I like to be in charge when dealing with work", "I enjoy being able to influence decisions with employees during work", "I enjoy having control over work decisions", and "When working with employees, I want influence over decisions".

The desire for control has been shown to be related to psychological need satisfaction and autonomous motivation. Brouillard, Lapierre, and Alain (1999) have shown that the desire for control was significantly related to autonomy, competence, and relatedness need satisfaction. In an unpublished study (cited in Burger, 1992, p. 95), Burger showed a significant positive correlation between desire for control and autonomy orientation and a negative correlation between desire for control and impersonal orientation. Similar correlations were reported by Thompson (1990). In addition, Legrain, Paquet, D'Arripe Longueville, and Philippe (2011) have shown that novice athletes with a high desire for control, when paired with a low desire for control tutor (i.e., coach), are intrinsically motivated. In the same context, the concept of adaptive perfectionism (Frost, Heimberg, Holt, Mattia, & Neubauer, 1993), which is closed to the desire for control in the way that it entails a self-oriented tendency to set high personal standards and achievement strivings (Longbottom, Grove, & Dimmock,

2012; Miquelon, Vallerand, Grouzet, & Cardinal, 2005; Stoeber & Eismann, 2007). Finally, Muller, Palekic, Beck and Wanninger (2006) have shown that conscientiousness, which is strongly linked to desire for control (Burger, 1992). Bains (1983) states, a motive can be strong enough as to influence and distort the way individuals perceive events in their world. This predisposition to prefer control may then lead them to forms of motivation, the locus of causality being perceived as internal (Deci & Ryan, 1985, 2000). In addition, desire for control and perception of control has been found relevant to predict psychological well-being and happiness (Brouillard et al., 1999; Garant & Alain, 1995).

In trying to make sense of this range of findings and explain how leader narcissism could yield positive effects in some instances, leadership scholars have emphasized that since narcissism is a complex of traits and processes, some of narcissism's properties could yield productive or positive results in a leadership role, such as confidence, vision boldness, a fierce drive to succeed, and a strong desire to lead (Deluga, 1997; Galvin et al., 2010; Khoo & Burch, 2008).

As mentioned earlier, Supervisor with narcissistic organizational identification will see the world from a self-centered perspective, see themselves as superior to others, and have a strong drive for personal success, power, and glory (Maccoby, 2004; Paulhus & Williams, 2002; Rosenthal & Pittinsky, 2006). Further, they view themselves as extremely intelligent, special, and unique, and tend to be exploitative and arrogant (Campbell, Rudich, & Sedikides, 2002; Judge, LePine, & Rich, 2006; Raskin & Terry, 1988). Narcissists have high levels of confidence, optimism, and enjoy holding authority over others (John & Robins, 1994; Raskin & Terry, 1988).

2.6 The mediating role of desire for control

Research has found this trait, termed desire for control, as an antecedent, to be related to a wide variety of relevant behaviors. For example, individual differences in desire for control have been tied to gambling behavior (Burger, 1986; Burger & Smith, 1985), depression (Burger, 1984; Burger & Arkin, 1980), speech patterns (Dembroski, MacDougall, & Musante, 1984), health-related behaviors (Smith, B. S. Wallston, K. A. Wallston, Forsberg, & King, 1984), the perception of crowding (Burger, Oakman, & Bullard, 1983), and achievement behavior (Burger, 1985).

Burger proposed that individuals with high desire for control, as a mediator, will make attributions for success and failure in a manner that has been found to produce higher levels of achievement motivation in future achievement settings. Specifically, as described by Weiner et al. (1971), when people make internal attributions for their successes (e.g., "I am good at this" and "I tried hard") or external and unstable attributions for failures (e.g., "Unexpected distractions kept me from studying" and "I was unlucky"), they should maintain high levels of motivation to succeed at similar tasks in the future.

The opposite pattern of attributions (e.g., attributing one's successes to luck or one's failures to poor ability) will not facilitate achievement motivation on future tasks. Due to their strong need to see themselves as in control, people with high desire for control are more likely than people with low desire for control to attribute their successes to themselves and their failures to external and/or unstable causes. These attributions thus help to maintain higher levels of motivation and, subsequently, higher levels of achievement.

Therefore, in order to maintain their high levels of achievement, supervisors with narcissistic organizational identification will pay more attention to screening employees and focus more on monitoring, controlling, and evaluating behavior in a rigid manner. With priority placed on carefully screening and selecting employees so that individuals with the right skills and values are hired and promoted. Under supervisors' high desire of control, the norms of behavior such as cheat theft, covert acts and purposefully failing to follow instructions or doing work incorrectly (Spector et al. 2006) will be attenuate. I argue that the rewards available under strict adherence to rules and regulations are likely to work well with the supervisor with narcissistic organizational identification and the culture of the team will become more collective and cohesive. It is supported by the meta-analysis performed by O'Boyle et al. (2012) in which the strong positive relationship found between narcissism and counterproductive work behaviors ($r=0.35$) is indeed weaker in organizations with in-group

collectivist cultures that emphasized duty, loyalty, and cohesiveness among workers (Young, S. Mark, Du, F., Dworkis, K. K., & Olsen, K. J., 2016)

Young, Du, Dworkis & Olsen (2016) also noted that in some corporations like Facebook, Amazon, Google, Yahoo!, and Apple, have cultures in which narcissistic personalities are more likely to flourish. In many cases, narcissistic leaders who understand what it takes to succeed in modern competitive environments lead such organizations. According to Casserly (2012), approximately 90 percent of all of today's major companies value cultural fit over skill sets. The match of fit and cultural congruence among employees can reduce counterproductive work behaviors.

As described by Burger (1985), high desire for control people may interpret task failure as a challenge to their perception of control and mastery. The high desire for control subjects in the two present studies may have experienced a type of reactance effect to the perceived threat to their feelings of control. As described by J. W. Brehm (J. W. Brehm, 1966; S. S. Brehm & J. W. Brehm, 1981), a threat to one's perception of freedom and control often is met with an increased motivation to reestablish one's sense of control. In Burger's experiment (Burger, 1987), the high desire for control subjects, for whom the need to feel in control is strong, thus seemed to have had a strong reaction to the challenge to their control posed by the failure and therefore worked harder and performed better. Rather, the high desire for control subjects appeared to be the ones who change their attributions as a function of task outcome. One explanation for this finding is that, as suggested by Burger (1985), high desire for control individuals, more than low desire for control individuals, are motivated to see themselves in control and therefore distort their perceptions of causality to satisfy this need.

As noted above, narcissists are risk takers (Foster et al. 2011; Foster and Trimm 2008). When given the opportunity, supervisors with narcissistic organizational identification are likely to set ambitious standards for themselves to satisfy their need for achievement (Kohut 2011). Because highly challenging goals may also serve as external validation to reinforce the need for self-enhancement for supervisors with narcissistic organizational identification, in the setting of performance standards, supervisors with narcissistic organizational identification are likely to choose and desire relatively higher standards. Standards can be set on a participative basis with subordinates and superiors working together, or can be assigned in an authoritarian manner. Standards are commonly formalized in a performance contract or budget. Previous research has indicated that targets should be tight but attainable (Merchant and Manzoni 1989). Consequently, before a performance period starts, standard or target setting begins, supervisors with narcissistic organizational identification make standards exist at all levels of an organization and can include specific work goals, budgets, team goals, or other types of performance-related tasks. Therefore, it is of great benefit for the employees to accomplish their in-role performance.

An ongoing discussion in the literature and arguments has been made suggesting both a negative and a positive relationship (House & Howell, 1992; Rosenthal & Pittinsky, 2006). Such counter balancing effects may be due to both positive and negative mediation processes. Apart from abusive supervision, I suppose the positive mediating role of leader behavior: supervisor desire for control.

Low desire for control subjects showed a slight tendency to perform better following a perceived success, whereas high desire for control subjects tended to perform better following a perceived failure. Instead, high desire for control led to an increase in performance on tasks (Burger, 1987). Successful outcomes should be attributed to internal sources.

Another possibility is that high desire for control people are more sensitive to attributional information. Because they are more likely than low desire for control people to attend to facilitating and inhibiting causes, they may be more likely to alter their attributions for success and failure in a somewhat accurate manner. This interpretation is consistent with findings by Burger and Hemans in which high desire for control subjects were likely to engage in more active attributional searches following their performances than did low desire for control subjects (Burger, 1985), they may have found the positive feedback more reinforcing and thus perhaps more motivating, which again gives greater confidence to subordinates to assist their supervisors more spontaneously.

Because of the superiority dimension of narcissistic organizational identification, such leaders are likely to see their greatness and ability as key to their organizations success, They will tend to see themselves as playing a somewhat heroic role and thus devote heart and soul to organizations (Raskin & Terry, 1988). Their confidence and ability will make believe the potential benefits for the followers and stakeholders (Raskin & Terry, 1988). In addition, narcissists tend to see themselves as highly self-sufficient and independently decision-making (Campbell et al., 2002; Raskin & Terry, 1988).

When they have a desire to use their abilities to be influential on decision-making and control over what they do when they work with employees, to garner attention and admiration and achieve glory (Wallace & Baumeister, 2002). This desire for control will also be aggressive in the way that they pursue goals that are aligned with their self-image of greatness (Raskin, Novacek, & Hogan, 1991). Supervisors with narcissistic organizational identification tend to lack fear or hesitancy as they remain focused on overcoming trials or issues that an organization may face. Moreover, they may be prone towards “fantasies of unlimited success” (Sankowsky, 1995, p. 64). These narcissistic tendencies are likely to result in an extreme confidence and perceived ability that may, to some extent, enable such leaders to inspire confidence and attract others through the desire for control. Therefore, supervisors with narcissistic organizational identification may be associated with OCB-S positively, thus accounting for supervisor desire for control. Desire for control is vital to the espousing of an inspirational vision that will generate subordinates' confidence, motivation, admiration for the leader, and emotional appeal (Conger & Kanungo, 1987; Shamir et al., 1993).

2.7 The moderated mediation effect of employee ingratiation

Political behavior is as endemic to an organization as planning and organizing (Schein, 1977).

Ingratiation, a political process to seek one's own self-interest, may be detrimental to an organization if it becomes excessive. Traditionally, ingratiation has been viewed as a set of individually-initiated behaviors. Ingratiation behaviors are everyday occurrences that frequently have impact on the effectiveness of the organization. Understanding why individuals use ingratiation tactics is important for understanding individuals' behavior in the organizational setting. To date, however, research on ingratiation has been minimal.

In this study, I argue that ingratiation behavior is not necessarily detrimental to the organization. It is only when ingratiation tactics are excessive (i.e., when they negatively affect the functioning of the organization) that there is need for concern. In fact, it may be argued that moderate levels of ingratiation behavior are beneficial to the organization in that it may be a form of social glue that builds cohesive work groups in the absence of true compatibility.

Ingratiation behavior, then, is viewed as the result of the interaction of individual and situational factors. The following individual and situational factors are proposed as relevant to the understanding of ingratiation. Three individual factors were selected for consideration: Machiavellianism, locus of control, and work task uniqueness. As for locus of control, individuals differ in their beliefs regarding their success/failure (Rotter, 1966).

Therefore, internals, the individuals who believe that their efforts can affect the outcomes that come to them, actively attempt to influence others. Because those in higher formal organization positions are those who typically control the outcomes that are sought, internals tend to use whichever upward influence means produces the desired results. Ingratiation is an upward influence process proposed to be a likely component used by internals to obtain their personal objectives.

Although leadership style typically is thought of as an individual variable, the style of the leader of a task unit is a situational influence on the subordinates in that unit. Autocratic and democratic styles are two that have been used to describe the various philosophies for dealing with employees (Lewin, Lippitt, & White, 1939; Rosenbaum & Rosenbaum, 1971).

Supervisors with narcissistic organizational identification and desire for control see subordinates as incapable of self-control and preferring to be given specific directions rather than responsibility for a task. These managers perceive subordinate behavior as externally motivated.

In the workplace, due to high position and power held by supervisors, supervisors with narcissistic organizational identification are eager to receive positive evaluations from others to maintain their grandiose self-image which is suppressing the subordinates' opportunities to use their creative abilities in order to distinguish themselves and thus is encouraging the use of ingratiation. In this case, when subordinates lack skill uniqueness, it is proposed that they will seek influence with their superior through ingratiation.

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