

Perfectionism in Leadership: Exploring the link between Leader Self-Esteem,
Leader Self-Efficacy, Leader Narcissism and Perfectionism

By

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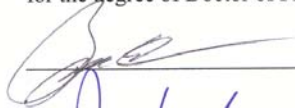
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**PERFECTIONISM IN LEADERSHIP: EXPLORING THE LINK BETWEEN LEADER
SELF-ESTEEM, LEADER SELF-EFFICACY, LEADER NARCISSISM AND
PERFECTIONISM IN LEADERSHIP**


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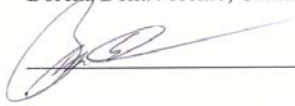
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Abstract

Perfectionism in leadership is hypothesized to be a result of low self-esteem, low self-efficacy and a high level of narcissism with its underlying elements of need for power as a result of humiliation. This exploratory study seeks to determine a clear link between a leader's self-esteem and perfectionism, a leader's self-efficacy and perfectionism and a leader's narcissism and perfectionism. More specifically, the relationship between how a leader feels about himself/herself, feels about his/her capabilities and if leadership fills a need for power in the leader as a result of humiliation. Through stepwise multiple regression, the results of the 1965 Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale, the 2001 Chen, Gully & Eden New General Self-Efficacy Scale, the 1988 Raskin & Terry Narcissistic Personality Inventory, and the 1990 Frost Multidimensional Perfectionism Scale, this is administered to students enrolled in an applied doctoral program offered through a Christian university in southeastern section of the United States. The regression analysis indicates that leader perfectionism correlates positively with leader self-esteem and negatively with leader self- efficacy and leader narcissism. Leader perfectionism also correlates negatively with age. These results key to the development of new training opportunities in leadership that will benefit both leader and follower.

Chapter 1 - Introduction

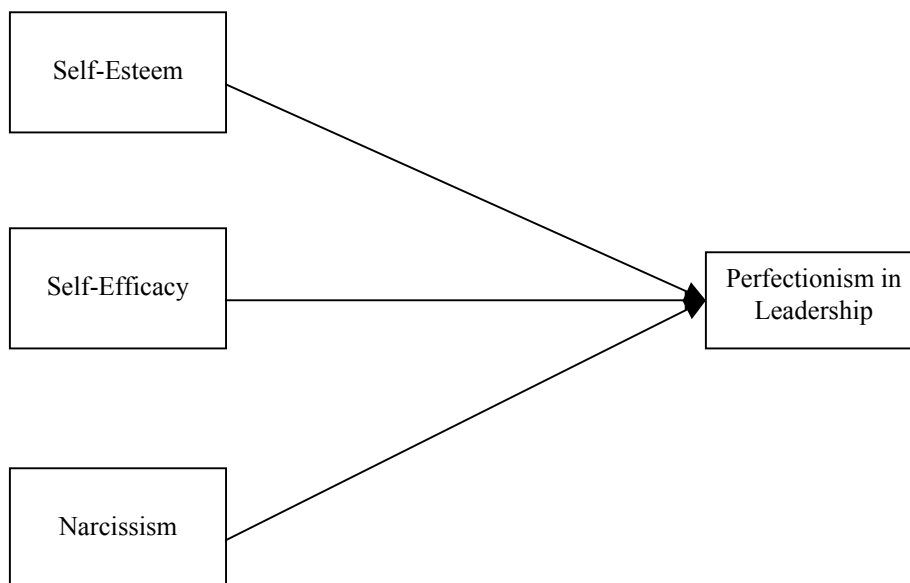
One of the most under researched areas in leadership literature today is the leader self-concept and the need to be perfect in words, actions, and deeds. The leader self-concept includes how a leader values himself/herself or his/her self-esteem (McKay & Fanning, 1992), how he/she feels about his/her capabilities or self-efficacy (Bandura, 1986), and the leader's need for power that is found inherent in narcissism (Branden, 1992). Understanding the motive of a leader answers the broad question of "Why do leaders do what they do?" with, to, and for followers. It helps us understand certain behaviors such as: (a) maladaptive perfectionism (Flett & Hewitt, 2002), (b) an overwhelming concern for mistakes made by the leader and by others, (c) doubts about actions of the leader and others that manifest in the form of control, fear, and coercion. It is uncertain what need that maladaptive perfectionism, as opposed to adaptive perfectionism such as being punctual, doing the right thing and continuous improvement, serves in leaders.

Understanding this relationship however allows us to better train future leaders by knowing what need the process of leadership serves for the leader. Is leadership satisfying a need caused by low self-esteem or low self-efficacy? Is it a need for power caused by humiliation by an authority figure? Whether the need is to supply the leader with a sense of self-worth, overcome a lack of confidence in their capabilities or simply give the leader the opportunity to reverse the humiliation they suffered in either their personal or professional life, the question still remains unanswered.

Scope of Study

Throughout the literature however, only Slaney, Rice & Ashby (2002) propose that only low self-esteem leads to perfectionism. No further research proves or disproves this relationship. Unfortunately, the leadership literature does not link self-efficacy and narcissism to perfectionism in leadership either. This exploratory study looks at the link between leader self-esteem, leader self-efficacy, and narcissistic behavior as these constructs apply to the striving for flawlessness or perfectionism. For the purpose of this study, the null hypothesis is that self-esteem, self-efficacy, and narcissism have no link to perfectionism. It is further hypothesized that: a) perfectionism is a result of low self-esteem, b) perfectionism is a result of low self-efficacy, and c) perfectionism is a result of a need for power as a direct response to humiliation by an authority figure in a superior/subordinate relationship. A causal model of the relationships in this study are shown in Figure 1 below:

Figure 1



Definitions

Leadership – Goleman, Boyatzis & McKee (2002) say, “Leadership is distributed. It resides not solely in the individual at the top, but in every person at every level who, in one way or another, acts as a leader to a group of followers” (p. xiv).

Perfectionism – The setting of high, unreachable goals for self and others. A maladaptive evaluation reflecting concerns over mistakes, doubts about actions, parental criticism and expectations. Flett & Hewitt (2002) offer 21 different forms of perfectionism that include concern over mistakes, doubts about actions, parental criticism, parental perfectionism, self-oriented perfectionism, other-oriented perfectionism and socially prescribed perfectionism.

Self-Esteem – The Penguin Dictionary of Psychology defines self-esteem as the degree to which one values oneself. Though the term esteem implies value or high worth, the combination of the self and esteem refers to the full spectrum of esteem from high to low. Branden (1992) defines self-esteem as individual self-worth or the valuing of the self.

Self-Efficacy – The Penguin Dictionary of Psychology defines self-efficacy as “Bandura’s term for an individual’s sense of their abilities, of their capacity to deal with the particular sets of conditions that life has put before them.” Bandura (1997) defines self-efficacy as, “[The] belief in one’s power to produce given levels of attainment.... includes both affirmation of capability and the strength of that belief” (p. 382).

Narcissism – The Penguin Dictionary of Psychology defines narcissism, from a psychoanalytic perspective, as exaggerated self-love with three derivatives or sub

definitions. Primary narcissism is found in the early stage of development when the libido is over invested in the self or the body or the ego itself. The primary stage of narcissism is considered normal but is considered neurosis if it continues into adulthood. In adulthood, primary narcissism is characterized by the love of the self that precedes and/or precludes love of others. The withdrawal of the libido from objects and persons and the investing of it in oneself characterize secondary narcissism. Narcissistic neurosis is an excessive love of the self with the impossibility of love for anyone else.

Narcissistic Personality Disorder (NPD). – The Penguin Dictionary of Psychology defines NPD, from a non-psychoanalytic perspective, as the exaggerated sense of self-importance, a tendency to overvalue one’s actual accomplishments, an exhibitionistic need for attention and admiration, a preoccupation with fantasies of success, wealth, power, esteem or ideal love, and inappropriate emotional reactions to the criticisms of others. NPD is formerly known as Narcissistic Neurosis. The Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders – IV (DSM) says that people with NPD have “a lifelong pattern of grandiosity (in behavior and fantasy), thirst for admiration, and lack of empathy” (p. 485). People with NPD feel unusually special and entitled to favorable treatment. They are preoccupied with their own beauty, power, brilliance, or unlimited success. The DSM says that while NPD is based on grandiose attitudes, people suffering with NPD have fragile self-esteem and often feel unworthy. Even in times of great success, people with NPD will exploit others for personal goals, lack empathy for others feelings or needs, act arrogantly or haughty and believe that others are envious of them.

Variables

One of the primary concerns of a perfectionist is the fear of failure (Carter-Scott, 1989; Hewitt & Flett, 1991; McKay & Fanning 1992; Basco, 1999; Mallinger & DeWyze, 1999; Curman, 1999). Basco (1999) tells us that perfectionists link performance with self-esteem and that failure makes the perfectionist feel worthless. Making mistakes takes on a completely new meaning for the perfectionist since mistakes to someone with low self-esteem equates the whole person as being bad rather than a good person performing badly. Making mistakes causes low self-esteem as a result of an inner voice that criticizes every action, every move, and every thought (McKay & Fanning, 1992). The inner voice picks up where perfect parents and perfect leaders, those that feel they can do no wrong, leave off. The inner voice replaces the criticism, the correction and humiliation imposed by perfect parents and perfect leaders onto their children and their followers that binds otherwise successful children and successful employees into an arena of self-doubt and indecision. Perfectionism is a result of making mistakes, not being able to accept the mistakes that are made and the inner voice concluding that making a mistake makes the overall whole person and not just the mistake being bad behavior. Yet perfectionism takes on many forms. Hewitt & Flett (1991) and Flett & Hewitt (2002) list three categories of perfectionism from their research: a) self-oriented perfectionism or what leaders do to themselves, b) other-oriented perfectionism or what leaders do to others and, c) socially prescribed perfectionism or what society or the environment a leader chooses to lead in imposes on them.

A perfectionist believes that he/she must do a task better than anyone else because he/she believes perfectionism can be attained (Basco, 1999). But this belief is beyond Bandura's (1986) concept of self-efficacy or "beliefs in one's capabilities" (p. 3). Perfectionists fear that if people will not accept them for who they are, then they might accept them for what they do. Therefore, everything they do must be perfect to increase the possibility of acceptance (Mallinger & DeWyze, 1992; Curnan, 1999). Since perfectionism is a result of not fully understanding what your capabilities are, which leads to an inability to cope with societal events given the lack of understanding of those capabilities, it is hypothesized that low self-efficacy leads to perfectionism. When a leader does not know what he/she is capable of doing and what they are not capable of doing, both leader and follower will suffer. They will suffer from never trying something new, never stepping outside of their comfort zone, and never falling on their face in failure having to pick themselves up and start again. Unfortunately, the literature does not link self-efficacy and perfectionism.

Perfectionists fantasize outcomes that benefit mainly themselves and believe that if the right people see their efforts, the perfectionist will then get what he/she desires (Basco, 1999). Once a perfectionist envisions an outcome, they are driven to obtain it through overwork, excessive control, orderliness and all-or-nothing thinking (Mallinger & DeWyze, 1992). The task-at-hand then becomes all about the perfectionist and completing the task in a narcissistic, self-centered manner. When a leader disregards the thoughts, feelings and emotions of those around him/her, that leader is serving his/her own selfish needs and thus not leading effectively. Both leader and follower will then

suffer for never developing a relationship that transcends the normal lines. None of the literature looks at the relationship between narcissism and perfectionism.

Theoretical Support

Bandura's (1986) social cognitive theory, formerly the social learning theory, proposes that a person's behavior is based on personal factors, behavior, and the environment that surrounds them. It suggests that most behavior is learned behavior and that humans can predict outcomes of their behavior before the behavior is performed. There are three elements to this theory that apply to this study: a) person and behavior, b) environment and person, and c) behavior and environment. The person-behavior linkage considers the thoughts, emotions, and self-perceptions of the individual that give shape and direction to the behavior. The environment-person linkage includes human expectations, beliefs, and cognitive competencies defined and refined by social and physical structures in the environment. The behavior-environment linkage posits that a person's behavior determines what aspects of the environment they are subject to and the environment then modifies the resulting behavior. The construct of Bandura's (1986) triadic reciprocal is bi-directional and coincidentally, aligns with the construct of perfectionism of self-other-social proposed by Flett & Hewitt (2002).

Method

The participants for this study are doctoral students and their peers enrolled in an applied doctoral program in a Judeo-Christian university and other leaders in various organizations including for profit, not-for-profit, church and Para-church organizations.

Each participant is a leader as defined by Goleman, Boyatzis & McKee's (2002) (See Definition Section).

In an effort to effectively determine the relationship between leader self-esteem, leader self-efficacy and leader narcissism and perfectionism in leadership, this study will use four validated scales designed to measure the same variables in different settings. The 1965 Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale, the 2001 Chen, Gully & Eden Self-Efficacy Scale, the 1988 Raskin & Terry Narcissistic Personality Inventory and 1990 Frost Multidimensional Perfectionism Scale.

Rosenberg's Self Esteem Scale

Rosenberg's (1965) Self-Esteem scale has been used in over 4,000 studies on self-esteem. Originally designed to measure self-esteem in adolescents, Rosenberg's 10-item scale remains the best indicator of implicit self-esteem and is being used to compare how leaders feel about themselves and how they respond to questions about perfectionism.

Chen, Gully & Eden's New General Self-Efficacy Scale

Chen, Gully & Eden's (2001) eight-point New General Self-Efficacy Scale (NGSE) looks at predicted self-efficacy in a variety of contexts and tasks. The NGSE diverges from the Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale and the 1983 Sherer & Adams Self-Efficacy Scale by effectively predicting specific self-efficacy.

Raskin & Terry Narcissistic Personality Inventory

Raskin & Terry (1988) Narcissistic Personality Inventory (NPI) was designed to examine narcissism in non-clinical populations in seven areas found to be related to narcissism: Authority, Self-sufficiency, Superiority, Exhibitionism, Exploitativeness,

Vanity and Entitlement. The definition for narcissism used for the development of the NPI came from third edition of the Diagnostic and Statistical Manual, Third Edition (DSM-III).

Frost Multidimensional Perfectionism Scale

The 1990 Frost Multidimensional Perfectionism Scale (MPS) was designed to look at six areas considered to be related to perfectionism. The MPS is used in determining the nature of perfectionism through Concern Over Mistakes, Personal Standards, Parental Expectations, Parental Criticisms, Doubts About Actions, and Organization.

Each leader will take the SET, NGSE, NPI, and the MPS. The results will be reviewed and compared against the hypotheses to determine if there is a link between the independent variables and the dependent variable.

Chapter 2 – Literature Review

Perfectionism or the setting of high, unreachable standards for self and others, according to Pacht (1984), is a widespread and debilitating problem. He says that perfectionism leads to a number of physical and psychological problems such as abdominal pain, alcoholism, anorexia, depression, obsessive-compulsive personality disorder, Type A coronary-prone behavior, and writer's block (p. 450) among others. Other researchers such as Burns (1980) have tied perfectionism to suicide and migraine headaches. Unfortunately, there are few studies on this extremely debilitating problem and there are no studies focused solely on this problem in organizational leadership literature. This study seeks to link leader self-esteem, leader self-efficacy and leader narcissism to perfectionism in leadership through the use of existing scales and takes a closer look at this phenomenon in the leader follower dyad. A review of the literature, though not exhaustive, shows the need for this study.

Hurka (1993) shows us that perfectionism can be traced as far back as the moral philosophy of Aristotle who said, "Perfectionism is the essence of human nature" and argued there are three areas of perfection in everyone's lives: physical, theoretical and practical. The practicality of perfectionism in leadership looks at the leader and how it affects others. Goleman, Boyatzis & McKee (2002) say there are many leaders in an organization and that leadership should be distributed across all levels of the hierarchy. Anyone that leads a group of people no matter how small or how large that group may be, is considered a leader. How great these leaders become is up to the individual since, "Great leadership works through emotions" (p. 3). Perfectionism in leadership develops

out of a desire to do the right thing through discipline, drive and motivation. It is a result of knowing what the right thing to do is and then doing it. Yet perfectionism can be overdone through control, manipulation and domination. But where does leader perfectionism come from? What is the root cause of perfectionism in leaders?

Researchers have identified a relationship between self-esteem and perfectionism in adolescents (Bull, 1997), perfectionism and achievement (Storinelli, 1997), and perfectionism, God image, religious coping style, and vocational burnout in Christian clergy (Corrigan, 1997). They have looked at the relationship between the causes and consequences of perfectionism and procrastination (Busko, 1998), the role of parental narcissism and depression in predicting adolescent empathy, narcissism, self-esteem, pleasing others and peer conflict (Horne, 1998), and dietary restraint and perfectionism (Morgan, 1998). Researchers have also developed mediational tests to measure the relationship between perfectionism and procrastination (Wernicke, 1999). Sinden (1999) looked at musical performance anxiety and the contribution of perfectionism, coping style, self-efficacy and self-esteem while Mosur-Golob (2000) looked at two distinct forms of narcissistic personality disorder in Goethe's writing's. Sukenick (2001) looked at the relationship between narcissism and self-esteem in adolescent female models and the role of perceived parental narcissism while Blanchard (2001) looked at the extremes of narcissism and self-esteem and the differential experience and expression of anger and use of conflict tactics in male batterers. Hughes, Ginnett & Curphy (1993) say, "...some leadership researchers have focused on personality, physical traits, or behavior of the leader; others have studied the relationship between leaders and followers; still others

have studied how aspects of the situation affect the ways leaders act” (p. 41). Their definition of leadership states that leadership is, “The process of influencing an organized group toward accomplishing its goals” and “...is a social influence process shared among all members of a group” (p. 43). No one however has looked at the relationship between self-esteem, self-efficacy and perfectionism as it applies to leadership.

Perfectionism

Basco (2000) says there are two general categories of perfectionism and people fall into one of these two groups. The first group struggles with the idea that they are simply not good enough and that they or their actions never seem to measure up. Though they may appear to be successful, deep down they are somehow flawed, ugly, stupid or unwanted. These inwardly focused perfectionists are afraid to make mistakes and risk humiliation. Their primary concern is what other people think about them. The second category of perfectionists are outwardly focused or better known as people who are frustrated with the way other people do their job, either at home or in the workplace. These perfectionists feel that the people around them neither care about doing a good job nor do they take pride in performance. It is particularly hard for these types of perfectionists when their children, co-workers or spouses reflect poorly on them. Outwardly focused perfectionists cause tension and conflict in their relationships with others and add an extra burden to their own lives. Unfortunately, most people have characteristics of both types of perfectionism (p. xii).

Curnan (1999) further defines Basco’s two types of perfectionism into nine variety’s and states that any variety of perfectionism, whether it is the fear of being

vulnerable, inferior, having a poor body image, change, unworthiness, missing something, being wrong, lacking or of losing control, includes the underlying fear that the injury that causes the need for perfectionism will be repeated. The fear of being vulnerable to others is considered arrogance. The fear of being inferior to others is the dread of inadequacy or self-deprecation. The fear of a poor body image is called “image vanity” (p. 40). The fear of change is called stubbornness. The fear of unworthiness (low self-esteem) is called martyrdom. The fear of missing something is called impatience. The fear of being wrong is called righteousness. The fear of lack is known as greed-envy and the fear of losing control is called self-destruction. The relationships between perfectionism and self-esteem, self-efficacy and narcissism are key to understanding why leaders lead the way that they do. The level of self-esteem, self-efficacy and narcissism in a leader dictates the amount of healthy excellence or perfectionism that they pursue.

For many leaders, perfectionism brings life’s most desired rewards through outcomes, achievements and processes. In general, people have four basic desires, goals or preferences of ego satisfaction, goal or accomplishment satisfaction, love and approval satisfaction and safety satisfaction (Ellis, 2002). In satisfying these desires, goals and preferences, some leaders pursue a healthy form of excellence while others settle for nothing less than perfection in day-to-day activities, including relationships.

Perfectionism overlaps with control by leaving no room for criticism to the point of obsessive-compulsive behavior rooted primarily in the need to feel secure (Mallinger & DeWyze, 1992). When the obsessive need for perfectionism through striving to control events, people or both, overshadow a leader’s professional life and emotional stability,

this "...excessive striving to be perfect will invariably lead to disillusionment, heartache and self-hatred" (Ellis, 1957, p. 89). A healthy pursuit of excellence differs from the obsessive-compulsive personality disorder, sometimes the obsessive-compulsive disorder, of perfectionism by the level at which a leader pursues excellence.

Griessman (1994) says, "If you take on unmanageable tasks, treat smallish projects like they are destined for the Louvre, jump the hurdles as you would the high jump, you will fail and failure will injure your self-confidence and hurt your reputation" (p. 95). When perfectionists gain their self-esteem or self-worth from how well they do in the office, at home or on the sports field, then making mistakes will cause them to feel worthless (Basco, p. 85). Basco further states that the failure to be perfect causes a leader to see themselves as not good enough and to believe that if they try a little harder then things will work the way they want them to, in this case without error or chance of reproach. Anything less than perfection makes leaders feel they are flawed in some way causing hopelessness and depression (p. 86) since they can longer feel good about themselves nor can they rely on their own capabilities to perform to their high standards. The motive for these high expectations is not a healthy pursuit of excellence but according to Basco (1999), the fear of failure. This fear of failure humiliates perfectionists in front of others and humiliation, according to Lowen (1985), is the root cause of narcissism. This study looks at the relationships between self-esteem, self-efficacy, narcissism and perfectionism as it relates to those in leadership roles or, "anyone who influences other people" (Goleman, Boyatzis & McKee, 2002).

The relationship between perfectionism and self-esteem is evident in a leaders arrogance or the fear of being vulnerable. Leaders afflicted with perfectionism in the form of arrogance want to be accepted for who they are but because of their arrogance, often miss out on an intimate relationship because people respond to the arrogance rather than the real person (Curnan, 1999). The perfectionist leader has high, and some might say unreasonable standards (Carter-Scott, 1989) for performance, both for themselves and those that they lead. Perfectionism in leadership is a bi-directional construct that takes into account the leader, the behavior and the environment that the leader is leading in. Bandura's (1986) "triadic reciprocal" found in his social cognitive theory (SCT) explains the relationships between a person, their environment and their behavior as bi-directional and uniquely dependent on each other. Hewitt & Flett (1991) propose three constructs and 21 clinical terms and definitions of perfectionism. They say that perfectionism is self-oriented, other-oriented, or socially prescribed. Self-oriented perfectionism is a high personal standard with the intention of achieving perfection. It is what leaders do to themselves by way of motivation to achieve perfection. Other-oriented perfectionism is the exceedingly high standards leaders have for followers and equates with environment-person construct of SCT through human expectations, beliefs, and cognitive abilities within the confines of society. Socially prescribed perfectionism is the perceived unrealistically high standards being imposed on someone by the environment that surrounds them. This construct aligns with the third construct of SCT since the environment determines the level of perfectionism.

Flett, Hewitt, Oliver & Macdonald (2002) say one concern of narcissistic perfectionism is developed through overly positive evaluations by parents. They say that narcissistic perfectionists not only strive for perfection but feel that they are quite capable of attaining it. They also say that while parents are important in the development of perfectionism in children, "...it is important to take into account the role of other people in the child's environment (i.e., peers and teachers) as well as societal and cultural factors that promote perfectionism" (p. 107). On this basis, perfectionism falls under Bandura's social cognitive theory construct.

As a result of the perfectionism construct proposed by Hewitt & Flett (1991) and Flett & Hewitt (2002) and Bandura's (1986) triadic reciprocal construct inherent in the social cognitive theory, it is hypothesized that perfectionism is a by-product of low self-esteem, low self-efficacy and a high need for power as a direct response to humiliation by an authority figure in a superior/subordinate relationship.

Self-Esteem

Self-esteem comes from valuing ourselves, making intelligent choices and maintaining a strong sense of what Branden (1992) calls, "The dual pillars of self-esteem, self-efficacy and self-respect" (p.). Branden says, "Self-esteem is a powerful human need. It is a basic human need that makes an essential contribution to the life process...it has survival value" (p. 9). Self-esteem is "...the reputation we get with ourselves" (p. 87). James (1890) was the first to attempt to define self-esteem by comparing himself to others in a chosen field. When no one else could match his understanding or knowledge of a subject, then his self-esteem was satisfied. If a colleague surpasses his expertise, his

self-esteem is devastated. James narrowed his definition of self-esteem to a single formula: $\text{Self-esteem} = \text{Success/Pretensions}$ (As cited in Branden, 1992). Branden concludes that this formula forces a person such as James to surround himself with inferior people and that his self-esteem is then at their mercy. He says this formula is “a prescription for anxiety” (p. xii) rather than a formula for good self-esteem. He further states that this formula can protect a person’s self-esteem by either increasing the successes or decreasing the pretensions. An example is the person who aspires to nothing, either character or work, and achieves it has the same level of self-esteem as someone of high accomplishment and achievement (p. xiv).

Contrary to James’ (1890) definition of self-esteem, Coopersmith (1981) as cited in Branden (1993) defines self-esteem as. “...a personal judgment of worthiness that is expressed in the attitudes the individual holds toward himself” (p. xv). Branden defines self-esteem as: “a) Confidence to think and to cope with the challenges of life, and b) confidence in our right to be happy, the feeling of being worthy, deserving, entitled to assert our needs and wants and...enjoy the fruits of our efforts” (p. 8). He says our psychological growth is “stunted” when we lack self-esteem. He further states that positive self-esteem is the “immune systems of consciousness” (p. 9) allowing regeneration through strength and resistance.

McKay & Fanning (1992) say that everyone has doubts about his or her worth (p. 25). They say that everyone also has a, “large inner list of rules and values that regulate behavior” (p. 24) and these rules and values add structure and order in life and control dangerous behavior by creating an ethical framework of what is morally proper and what

is immoral. When we violate those rules and values we lose our sense of worthiness and self-esteem. These values are a result of parental socialization and their efforts to instruct the child on the behaviors that are acceptable and those that are dangerous, morally wrong, annoying or unlovable. Unacceptability of “bad” behavior yields immediate withdrawal of parental support while acceptable behavior is rewarded with hugs, attention and acclamations of acceptance. Since parental withdrawal for a prolonged period of time will result in the death of a child, children who experience the feeling of being bad equate being bad with death since being bad “carries with it the terrible risk of losing support” (p. 18) of parents or other authority figures. Loss of support then means the whole person is not worthy of redemption and is thus not worthy of being loved or even living.

The inner critic plays an important role in regulating acceptable behavior and unacceptable behavior. It also helps the self to feel better by comparing behavior to others and setting high standards of perfectionism that are out of reach and difficult to attain. With the inner critic constantly seeking perfection and only on the rare occasion realizing it, the self continues to feel inadequate recycling the low self-esteem over and over again. Each time a critical self-statement is made, similar to that of a parent, there is a sense of reinforcement and closeness with the parent. “By identifying with their point of view, you may paradoxically feel safer, more accepted and more loved” (p. 25). This sense of closeness or belonging increases emotional security and reinforces the inner critic that will later increase reliance on the inner critic when parents are not around. The

inner voice also drives people to achieve and failure to achieve increases the criticism and when achievement occurs, the inner critic is quieted.

In the first three to four years of a child's life, the type of parental instruction determines the amount of self-esteem a child starts out with and lays the foundation for success or failures in later life by allowing for unencumbered development and the acceptance of the self or the building of defense barriers in an effort to limit judgments of inferiority and thus self-rejection (McKay & Fanning, 1992, p. 2). This rejection of the self is based on the holistic view that bad behavior makes the person bad as opposed to bad behavior simply being bad behavior. Bandura's (1986) bi-directional triadic reciprocal applies to this dilemma since self-esteem is a result of the environment/behavior/person triad. Based on the effects of the environment/behavior/person, McKay & Fanning (1992) state problems with self-esteem fall into two categories, situational and characterological.

According to McKay & Fanning (1992), low self-esteem that appears in some circumstances rather than others is called situational self-esteem. An example of situational self-esteem is someone who is confident in specific areas such as a hobby or being a parent but expects to fail in some area such as giving a speech or presentation to the Board of Directors. Low self-esteem that is situational can be resolved through cognitive measures that focus on cognitive distortions since the source of the low self-esteem is not global rejection of self rather a lack of confidence in a certain area. Characterological self-esteem goes beyond the spotty, situational definition by embracing the global rejection of the self and the feeling of total worthlessness as a person. In

characterological self-esteem, the inner voice or critic is a negative reinforcing aspect of the persons makeup. It criticizes the self for making mistakes and accuses the self of being stupid, inadequate or simply worthless. “Everyone has a critical inner voice. But people with low self-esteem tend to have a more vicious and vocal pathological critic” (p.15). If a parent’s style of instruction is harsh, then the inner critic will be harsh as well since the inner critic picks up where the parent leaves off.

McKay & Fanning (1992) offer four reasons for listening to the inner critic. They say that everyone needs to feel, (a) secure and unafraid, (b) effective and competent in the world, (c) accepted by parents and significant others, and (d) a sense of worth and “OKness” in most situations. They say that people with adequate self-esteem confront those issues in life that frighten them and solve problems instead of worrying about them. They also find ways for people to respond positively towards them instead of waiting for problems to pass. People with low self-esteem are robbed of their confidence to handle situations effectively. They feel they are not able to cope with stress, anxiety, interpersonal problems, and risky situations as well as someone else so they limit their exposure to failure, helplessness, and anxiety. The inner voice reinforces their negative outlook and thus releases the fear, relieves the hopelessness and reduces the anxiety. Though the inner voice is destroying the persons confidence, it also confirms the fact that a person with low self-esteem already knows, they are worthless and unable to succeed. Negative reinforcement can only occur when there is either psychological pain or physical pain. Behavior that limits or stops the pain is then reinforced and will continue whenever pain is experienced in the future (p. 21).

Early feelings of not measuring up or “not-OK feelings” (McKay & Fanning, 1992) are centered around five factors as a young child. They are:

1. The degree to which issues of taste, personal needs, safety, or good judgment were mislabeled as moral imperatives.
2. The degree to which parents failed to differentiate between behavior and identity.
3. The frequency of forbidding gestures (i.e., “bad behaviors”).
4. The consistency of forbidding gestures.
5. The frequency that forbidding gestures were tied to parental anger or withdrawal.

When parents make a child feel morally wrong for bad behavior that is a matter of taste, poor judgment or poor performance, they are laying the foundation for low self-esteem. Words such as selfish, stupid, lazy or dumb maybe soon forgotten but the sense of wrongness endures indefinitely (McKay & Fanning, 1992). When the inner critic picks up where parents leave off, it screams these words and others that remind the self who they really are (Basco, 1998). A child who hears how bad he or she is for riding his or her bicycle in the street will have less self-esteem than one who hears a stern warning about the dangers of riding their bike in the street. Parents who distinguish between bad behavior and the “goodness of the child” (p. 19) raise children who feel good about themselves and whose inner voice is much more calm. Low self-esteem is a result of the frequency of negative reinforcement from parents and eventually the inner critic. After

many times of hearing “you are bad for doing...” a child starts to believe that they are truly bad.

Low self-esteem is also a result of inconsistent or mixed messages about behavior. Parents who chastise on some occasions while allowing the same behavior at other times confuse children and any randomness of parental attacks based on situation will result in the child feeling they are bad rather than seeing the behavior as bad. Parental anger and withdrawal have an enormous effect on a child’s feeling of worthlessness. As stated earlier, parental rejection or withdrawal can mean certain death to children. Low self-esteem causes people to anticipate outcomes such as rejection, defeat or failure in order to minimize the impact when rejection, defeat and failure ultimately occur.

Because of the effects low self-esteem have on the self, it is hypothesized that low self-esteem in leaders leads to perfectionism in their leadership as a result of the inner critic reminding them that they are not fit for leadership role and that they will fail, are stupid, undeserving or simply unworthy to lead. The inner critic will set high standards for performance in an effort to drive the self into perfection.

Self-Efficacy

A leader’s perceived abilities and capabilities to lead and cope with the surrounding environment are defined by Bandura (1986) as “self-efficacy.” He says, “...efficacy involves a generative capability in which cognitive, social and behavioral subskills must be organized into integrative courses of action to serve innumerable purposes” (p. 391). He differentiates between possessing the skills to perform effectively

and actually performing effectively under pressure and emphasizes that perceived self-efficacy is a judgment while accolades and social recognition received from the efficacious behavior is an outcome expectation. The difference between the judgment and the outcome expectation is critical in the understanding of the concept of self-efficacy. Bandura clearly defines the two by saying, “An outcome is the consequence of an act, not the act itself....An act must be defined by the criteria that state what it is” (pp. 391-392). An act has a start and a successful finish rather than a failure because failure, according to Bandura, is an incomplete act. The outcome then is a result and the efficacious technique is a means of producing an outcome.

Bandura (1977) developed the social learning theory, now called the social cognitive theory, posited on the idea that learning occurs through observation of other people and modeling their behavior. Bandura sees the imitation of behavior as the key to learning in leader-follower relationships and stress management since followers will look to their leaders for acceptable norms of behavior. Followers are more likely to pattern their responses after their supervisors in an effort to fit into the culture of the situation than to stand on their own outside of the established norms. Central to Bandura’s social cognitive theory is the concept of self-efficacy or an individual’s beliefs and expectancies about their abilities to perform a specific task effectively. People with high levels of self-efficacy believe they have the ability to complete the task, are able to put forth the effort needed and confident that they can overcome any obstacles to their successful completion of the task. The reverse is also true, people with low self-efficacy will quit trying prematurely with the possibility of failure because they do not believe they can

successfully negotiate the task terrain. This dichotomy, according to Bandura, is based on four sources, a) performance accomplishments, b) vicarious experience, c) verbal persuasion, and d) emotional arousal. Each must be unpacked in an effort to understand the tenets of the social learning theory and lay the foundation for the link between addiction and perfectionism in leadership.

Bandura (1977) states, “Performance accomplishments provide the most dependable source of efficacy expectations because they are based on one’s own personal experiences” (p. 81). Many successes tend to raise mastery expectations while continuous failures lower them and repeated failures at the early stages of the course of events will secure a low level of mastery expectations. But if strong efficacy expectations are developed early on in the course of events, then the negativity of failure will be minimal. Later, Bandura says, failures that are overcome by concerted effort will strengthen mastery expectations. The modes of induction for performance accomplishments are, a) participant modeling, b) performance desensitization, c) performance exposure, and d) self-instructed performance (p. 80). There are also vicarious forms of learning that leaders use in their leadership.

Bandura (1977) says, “Many expectations are derived from vicarious experience” (p. 81) like watching others perform a difficult or threatening task with no adverse effects. By watching a stuntman perform a difficult stunt and walk away from it, the observer will conclude that they too will succeed if they intensify and persist in their efforts. It is here that perfectionism in leadership, a learned behavior, has the potential to become maladaptive based on the amount of intensity and persistence a leader uses. In

light of the social learning aspect of leadership, it is hypothesized that leaders with low self-efficacy will show a higher instance of perfectionism than a leader who has a high level of self-efficacy.

Narcissism

Narcissism is a personality disorder that exchanges the real self with the imagined self to the point that others are left out of the human equation. Based on the Greek myth of Narcissus and Echo, Narcissism is a term coined by Sigmund Freud in 1914 to describe one type of pathology in the human psyche. According to Seton- Williams (2001), the myth states that Narcissus, the son of Cephissus and Lirioppe, loved to hunt alone in the woods. One day a wiseman named Tiresias, prophesied to Lirioppe that Narcissus would survive to manhood if “he never recognizes his true self” (p. 79).

Though Narcissus had many qualities, he did not have many friends. He also did not like to be touched by anyone. When Echo, the wood nymph, fell in love with him, he rejected her physical advancements and later she pined away and died. One day when Narcissus was out hunting from early morning he came upon a spring. Being very thirsty, he knelt down by the spring for a drink. In the clear water, he saw for the first time his reflection and immediately fell in love with what he saw, thus fulfilling the prophesy of Tiresias.

The more he looked at his reflection the prettier it became. His romantic attraction kept him by the spring staring at his own reflection. He later died for lack of nourishment.

The Narcissus flower grows near the waters edge to this day looking at its reflection in the water as a reminder of the Greek myth (Seton-Williams, 1993).

Lowen (1985) says that narcissism is a double-edged sword with one edge being the individual and the other edge being cultural. At the individual level, narcissism lacks the respect for the self, including a sense of worthiness and understanding of one's limitations based on their abilities. He says that individual narcissism "lacks self-expression, self possession, integrity and dignity" (p. ix). The body then is an instrument of the narcissists' mind and is subject to whatever that mind can conceive. He says, "Although the body can function efficiently as an instrument, perform like a machine, or impress one as a statue, it then lacks 'life' (p. 8). It is the lacking life that the body loses the most since, according to Lowen, it is the feeling of being alive that allows for the true experience of the self.

McClelland (1975) says that the need for power satisfies a psychological need for individuals in two realms: personal and social. Leaders who have a high need for power seek positions of influence to either satisfy a very personal but selfish and undisciplined drive for control while others seek to satisfy a higher, more emotionally intelligent, organizational goal that sometimes includes great personal sacrifice. The leader seeking personal power is not concerned about the group or organizational outcomes, only those that benefit or support his/her self-centered desires. The narcissistic leader would be considered more interested personal power rather than the overall good of the organization.

On the cultural level, Lowen (1985) suggests that the ever-important image or the image that the narcissist wants to project to everyone they come in contact with typically lacks the human values that are now void in our postmodern society. Values such as

concern for the environment, the quality of life or for other human beings are not important to the narcissist on any level. He emphasizes that the pursuit of material possessions, wealth, power pits men against women, employee against employer and community member against the community. He summarizes by saying, “When wealth occupies a higher position than wisdom, when notoriety is admired more than dignity, when success is more important than self-respect, the culture itself overvalues “image” and must be regarded as narcissistic” (p. ix).

Lowen (1985) tells us that narcissists are special people who are above the law, incapable of loving others. Yet, he says that the myth of Narcissus shows a form of punishment for the inability to love others (p. 26). Freud (1914; 1931) says that narcissism is the attachment of libido to the self and thus a narcissist loves himself or herself. They are grandiose in their thinking, extremely sensitive to criticism, exploitative and always seeking admiration (American Psychiatric Association, 1994). Campbell (1991) lists three interrelated behaviors found in narcissists as: (a) inflated self-concept, (b) poor interpersonal relationships, and (c) related patterns of self-regulation. Lowen (1985) states that narcissism is a personality disorder that causes narcissists to act without feeling by striving for power and control. Their concern is about the image they portray and the protection of the self at all costs. Though the self is protected, the self is not accepted and, “Without self-acceptance, there is no self-love” (p. 31).

Researchers such as Mahler (1968), Miller (1981) and Lowen (1985) agree that all children are inherently narcissistic. Mahler said, “The infant’s inner sensations from the core of the self. They appear to remain the central, the crystallization point of the

‘feeling of self’ around which a ‘sense of identity’ will become established” (p. 11).

Miller (1981) says that, “Every child has a narcissistic need to be noticed, understood, taken seriously, and respected by his mother” (p. 32). She defines a mother in this sense as anyone that is in the nurturing role for the child. Miller goes on to say that the child needs to have the mother figure at his or her disposal and “...must be able to use her and to be mirrored by her.... provided that the mother is really looking at the unique, small, helpless being and not projecting her own introjects... her own expectations, fears and plans for the child” (p. 32). She says that if the mother was projecting her own predicaments onto the child and not simply reflecting back the baby’s image, the child would not have the need narcissistic reflection and thus spend the rest of its life looking for the mirror in vain. This, according to Miller, is a result of a mother or mother figure who was herself emotionally insecure and who depended on her child acting a certain way for her own narcissistic supply. This emotional insecurity is often hidden behind a veil of totalitarian or at the very least authoritarian control of all activities both public and private. The child’s intuition allows him or her to respond to the parents needs and thus occupy that “special” role that garnered love, affection and support and averted inevitable death both emotionally and sometimes physically. Other patterns of narcissism, according to Lowen (1985), come in the form of denial, drive for power and desire to control.

Lowen (1985) shows that some people deny their feelings and strive to be superior, invulnerable, and powerful. The difference between those that deny their feelings and those that accept their hurts lies in childhood experiences. Children who suffer from a significant blow or several blows to their self-esteem are scarred for the rest

of their lives. Lowen says these scars shape their personalities. “This injury entails humiliation, specifically the experience of being powerless while another person enjoys the exercise of power and control over one” (p. 76). Clinicians have called this type of scarring a narcissistic injury. However, Lowen (1985) suggests there is more power and control associated with narcissism than other researchers. He feels that narcissism is rooted in humiliation as a child and that from the point of humiliation, the child’s seeks more and more power in an effort to be able to humiliate his/her humiliator.

C. Hill (personal communication, April 22, 2002) relates a story of a father who seeks to teach his son a lesson about wetting the bed. The son, having had problems with bed wetting for several years, seemed to have outgrown his problem to the parent’s satisfaction. The parents decided to allow the son to have friends over one weekend as a reward for his grown up behavior only to find out the that first night with all of his friends, the son experienced another episode of bed wetting. Being embarrassed, the son hid the sheets from his friends and from his parents but his mother found them and shared the recurrence with his father. The father, determined to put and end to his son’s bed wetting, decided to confront his son the next morning at the breakfast table in front of his friends. The lesson turned into a time of humiliation and embarrassment for the son. The son then seeks to control the events that surround him and if possible, the people that surround him in order to protect himself from further humiliation. Lowen (1985) says, “Control serves the same function as power – it protects them from possible humiliation” (p. 77).

Lowen (1985) says, “To be subject to another person’s power is a humiliating experience” (p. 85). The resulting and very insulting experience is only reversed when the humiliated person gains more power over the person that humiliated them.

Submitting to the domination, according to Lowen, covers a deep hate and there can be no love between the powerful and the powerless. Kets de Vries (1999) says that through transference, the organizational setting is place where the authoritarian parental role is replaced by leader/lead or employer/employee relationship that takes on the power form often associated with family relationships. If the narcissistic needs of a child are not satisfied at an early age, then that need continues into adulthood and those unmet needs are sought in the workplace in either a covert or overt form.

Researchers such as Kernberg (1975; 1986) and Kohut (1977) suggest that narcissism is a result of parental insensitivity resulting in either defensive grandiosity (Kernberg, 1977) or the prevention of a child’s grandiosity from turning into healthy self-esteem (Kohut, 1977). Kernberg postulates that narcissism is a defense mechanism developed in childhood to over compensate for loss or abandonment by caretakers in the first three years of life. He says that this broken relationship carries into adulthood and hinders all close relationships thereafter through an inflated self-image. Underlying the inflated self-image is the fear of abandonment. The inflated self-image protects the inner self from feeling abandoned again. Kohut (1977) postulates a different form of narcissism. He says that narcissism starts in childhood in two forms: mirroring and idealization.

According to Kohut (1977), mirroring is validation of the child through parental love and affection and idealization is a child's belief that the parent is perfect and does nothing wrong. Kohut felt this heightened the child's narcissism by first increasing the value of the mentoring and increasing the child's self-worth since the godlike person that he/she is mirroring is associated with the child. Both mirroring and idealization would fade away as the child outgrew these needs. If these needs go unmet to adulthood, the adult child will then seek to meet these needs in adult interpersonal relationships while being defensive and maintaining an inflated self-image. Kernberg (1963) says that narcissists "admire some hero or outstanding individual" in the form of hero worship and truly experience being a part of that outstanding person as a part of themselves. The narcissist identifies with winners and yet if the outstanding person or winners reject them, revert to character assassination of some form of devaluing the former idol. Narcissists stand in the shadows of the success of these outstanding winners in an effort to distance himself or herself from being labeled a loser or something less than the outstanding person. While admiring the winner, the narcissist harbors envy, and is prone to turn admiration into hatred if the outstanding person ever hints at the narcissists' insignificance in the bigger picture.

Lasch (1979) says narcissism is a result of the erosion of everyday competence that has caused a dependence on governments, corporations, and other entities for their narcissistic supply. They need others to validate their self-esteem and have a hard time standing alone in their individuality once the family ties are cut. The world is a mirror and the narcissist looks for their identity in the world. Once they do not find it, the

narcissistic cycle repeats itself. He says that, “People with narcissistic personalities...play a conspicuous part in contemporary society, often rising to positions of prominence” (p. 231). This includes business, government and entertainment. Lasch says our, “Modern capitalistic society not only elevates narcissists to prominence, it elicits and reinforces narcissistic traits in everyone” (p. 232). When applied to leadership, narcissism is a part of the leaders make-up in that their desire to succeed takes precedence over the desire to serve. Based on the self centered nature of narcissism, it is hypothesized that a leaders self-centered need for power leads to high levels of perfectionism in his or her leadership.

Conclusion

Throughout the organizational leadership literature, researchers have touched on the debilitating and extremely dangerous effects of perfectionism but few have focused their research on the leader-follower dyad. This study seeks to link leader self-esteem, self-efficacy and narcissism to perfectionism in their duties as a leader. Through the use of validated scales and multiple regression, this study will create future opportunities for further research on intervention possibilities for leaders with low self-esteem, low self-efficacy and high levels of narcissism in an effort to make the workplace better for all involved.

Chapter 3 – Method

This exploratory study looks at the relationship between leader self-esteem, leader self-efficacy and leader narcissism as they apply to perfectionism in leadership. Through the use of multiple regression applied to results of the data collected will serve to prove the following hypotheses: (a) H0 - there is no link between leader self-esteem, leader self-efficacy and leader narcissism, and perfectionism in leadership, (b) H1 - low self-esteem in leaders leads to higher levels of perfectionism in leaders, (c) H2 - low self-efficacy in leaders lead to higher levels of perfectionism in leaders and, (d) H3 - high levels of narcissism in leaders lead to higher levels of perfectionism in leaders. These hypotheses will be tested using the following validated scales: The 1965 Rosenberg Self Esteem Scale; The 2001 Chen, Gully & Eden's New General Self-Efficacy Scale; The 1988 Raskin & Terry Narcissistic Personality Inventory and The 1990 Frost Multidimensional Perfectionism Scale. The scales and the procedures for this study are outlined below.

Hypotheses Testing

Leader Perfectionism will be measured by the 1990 Frost Multidimensional Perfectionism Scale (MPS) and compared to the remaining scales as mentioned above through multiple regression using Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) Version 10. The Frost, et al, MPS is a 35-item instrument that is broken down into six areas related to perfectionism. According to Frost, et al, the number of questions in each scale and each scales alpha score are as follows: Concern over Mistakes – nine questions

– alpha score = .88, Personal Standards - seven questions – alphas score = .83, Parental Expectations – five questions – alpha score = .84, Parental criticisms – four questions – alpha score = .84, Doubts about actions – four questions – alpha score = .77, and Organization – six questions – alpha score = .93. Each scale can be taken individually and any individual scale can be eliminated given the nature of the study. For the purposes of this study, two scales will not be administered: Parental Expectations and Parental Criticisms will not be used in measuring leader narcissism. The total number of questions used to measure these hypotheses will be 89.

Null Hypothesis – H0

There is no link between leader self-esteem, leader self-efficacy and leader narcissism and perfectionism in leadership.

Hypothesis 1 – H1

Low self-esteem in leaders leads to higher levels of perfectionism in leaders will be tested using the 1965 Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale. This 10-item scale generally has high reliability with test-retest correlations typically in the range of .82 to .88, and Cronbach's alpha for various samples are in the range of .77 to .88. This scale will look at leader self-esteem as a leader sees himself/herself.

Hypothesis 2 - H2

Low self-efficacy in leaders lead to higher levels of perfectionism in leaders will be tested using the 2001 Chen, Gully and Eden Self-Efficacy Scale. This eight-point scale has high content validity and is substantially more consistent with the general self-efficacy measures than other scales. On three occasions, the alpha scores were .87, .88

and .85. Test-retest reliability of NGSE were .65, .66 and .62. This scale will be used to test the unidimensional nature of leader self-efficacy.

Hypothesis 3- H3

High levels of narcissism in leaders lead to higher levels of perfectionism in leaders. This 40-point scale has seven NPI components with overall significant diversity yet interdependent constructs that make up the concept of narcissism as described by the DSM-III. Collectively, the seven scales fall between .50 and .73 on the Guttman lambda 3 indicator of internal consistency measure and have an overall standard deviation of 6.66 as reported by Raskin & Terry (1988). These scales will be used to measure leader narcissistic behavior.

Participants

To explore the hypotheses in this study, participants targeted are leaders in organizations including church, Para-church, for-profit and not-for-profit employing between 100 and 100,000 people. The target participants for this study are students registered in an applied doctoral program at a small, Judeo-Christian University, who are employed full-time and have leadership responsibilities for other employees in their organization. Each participant was asked to complete the questionnaire and give it to one other leader in his or her organization as defined by Goleman, Boyatzis & McKee (2002). Each participant has at least one direct report with a majority (50% or more) having three or more direct reports.

Data Collection

The scales for the 1965 Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale, the 2001 Chen, Gully & Eden New General Self-Efficacy Scale, the 1988 Raskin & Terry Narcissistic Personality Inventory, and the 1990 Frost Multidimensional Perfectionism Scale were cumulated into one questionnaire for a total of 93 questions. Five additional open-ended questions were added to these scales in an effort to gather personal responses to the concept of perfectionism in leadership. Each scale was pasted into an Excel spreadsheet and coded as a Master Copy. A second worksheet was added and the final questionnaire was developed in 11 sections of 10 questions each labeled Section 1 through Section 11. Sections 1 through 9 are a combination of one question from the Rosenberg Scale, one question from the 2001 Chen, et. al., scale, and one question from the Frost scale. Each section was built by taking one question from the Rosenberg scale, one question from the Chen, et. al. scale and one question from the Frost scale. The questionnaire sections were divided between the self-esteem, self-efficacy and perfectionism scales (i.e., Section 1,3,5,6,8) and the narcissism scales (Section 2, 4, 7, 9) until there were no further questions in any of the scales left. Sections 10 and 11 were added for Personal Feedback and Demographic Information. The scoring range for the Rosenberg scale, the Chen, et. al. Scale, and the Frost scale each scale is a 5-point Likert scale. The scoring range for the 1988 Terry & Raskin Narcissistic Personality Inventory is fixed answer and could not be included with the three previous scales. One question from the Perfectionism Scale was coded as a fixed answer and added to Section 9. The name of the questionnaire was Perfectionism in Leadership.

SurveySuites, an online survey delivery system located at http://intercom.virginia.edu/cgi-bin/cgiwrap/intercom/SurveySuite/ss_wizard.pl, was contracted to send, receive, and tally the responses to the Perfectionism In Leadership questionnaire for a fee of \$49.99 for a one-year period. The step-by-step process to setup the questionnaire is built into the software and allows for changes throughout the building process. The title of the survey, the number of sections, survey subtitle, descriptive text and color scheme must be selected before the system allows further input. Contact information such as name, address, phone, fax, and email will also be included in the questionnaire. The number of questions in the survey can be changed at anytime with the addition of other sections, but the preliminary number of questions must be entered to move to the next area of development. Each question in each section must be edited for type of question, the full text of the question itself and whether the question should appear in bold, italics or underlined. There is a section to add a category of “Not Applicable” or “N/A” that will appear under the question on the survey.

Each question was cut from the Excel spreadsheet and pasted into the Perfectionism in Leadership template and checked for spelling and grammar. A test sample of five respondents was used to assure system success both in sending, receiving and tabulating responses. The test responses were not used as part for the overall response tally.

Actual survey announcements were sent via electronic mail to the target participants as referenced above requesting their participation and feedback to the proposed questions by pasting complete email addresses into the window used for the

announcement of the survey in SurveySuites. The announcement email requested that each participant ask another leader in their organization to offer feedback to the survey to increase the amount of responses to this study. A total of 153 announcements were sent to potential participants requesting their feedback with an anticipated response rate of 50-60%.

A total of 129 responses were received of which only 127 were completed in total. SurveySuites tallied all responses received and displayed them in spreadsheet format for online review. They also give the option to download the results in spreadsheet format for further statistical analysis. The tallied responses were downloaded into an Excel spreadsheet for preliminary statistical evaluation.

Statistical Evaluation

Responses to the questionnaire were tallied by the Survey Suites system and downloaded as an Excel spreadsheet for further analysis. Measurement ranges for each scale were calculated and are shown in Table 1 below.

Table 1: Statistical Measurement Scales & Actual Ranges

	<u>Rosenberg</u>	<u>Chen</u>	<u>Raskin & Terry</u>	<u>Frost</u>
Scale	1 to 5	1 to 5	1 to 2	1 to 5
Actual	10 to 50	8 to 40	40 to 80	35 to 175

Demographics information such as Gender, Age, Organization Type, and Direct Reports were converted into numeric values according to the number of categories available for response. The categories used for Gender are male and female; for Age are 25-34, 35-44, 45-54, and Over 55. The categories for Organization Type are church, Para church, for-

profit, and not-for-profit. The categories used for Direct Reports are 1 to 5, 6 to 10, 11-15, 16 to 20, and Over 20. The categories are summarized in Table 2 below.

Table 2: Categories for Demographic Information

<u>Gender</u>	<u>Age</u>	<u>Organization Type</u>	<u>Direct Reports</u>
Male	25 to 35	Church	1 to 5
Female	36 to 45	Para Church	6 to 10
	46 to 55	For Profit	11 to 15
	Over 55	Not for profit	16 to 20
			Over 20

Totals for the responses to the Rosenberg, Chen, Raskin & Terry, and Frost scales were calculated in Excel by adding the numeric values in the scale multiplied by the number of available responses (i.e., 5-point Likert scale = 5; Yes/No =2). The Rosenberg scale with ten items, the Chen scale with eight items and Frost scale with 35 items used the 5-point Likert scale ranging from Strongly Agree to Strongly Disagree. The Raskin & Terry scale with 40 items used the Yes/No response sequence. The results were loaded into the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences Version 10 for further analysis.

Using SPSS Version 10 for further statistical analysis, the statistical method of multiple regression yielding a linear equation of $y = x_1 + x_2 + x_3$, that allows for the prediction of the criterion variable, in this case the independent variable of perfectionism based on the performance of the predictor variables, in this case the dependent variables of leader self-esteem, self-efficacy and narcissism. The dependent variable of

perfectionism is signified by the letter y and is measured by the 1990 Frost Multidimensional Perfectionism scale. The Rosenberg Self- Esteem scale measures the independent variable of leader self-esteem or x_1 . The Chen, Gully & Eden Self-efficacy scale measured the independent variable leader self-efficacy or x_2 , and the Raskin & Terry Narcissistic Personality Inventory measured the independent variable leader narcissism or x_3 . Regression analysis proved there is a relationship between leader self-esteem and perfectionism, leader self-esteem and perfectionism, leader narcissism and perfectionism and age and perfectionism. The results are detailed in Chapter 4.

Chapter 4 - Results

The regression results show that relationships exist between leader self-esteem and perfectionism in leadership; leader self-efficacy and perfectionism in leadership; and leader narcissism and perfectionism in leadership but these relationships do not support the hypotheses in total. Following a review of the responses and the demographics, each hypothesis will be reviewed individually.

Table 1 shows that 129 responses were received of which 127 were fully completed and useable. 86 responses came from males and 41 came from females in four age categories: (a) 16 responses came from males and 7 responses came from females in the 25-35 age group; (b) 26 responses came from males and 14 responses came from females in the 36-45 age group; (c) 27 responses came from males and 15 responses came from females in the 46-55 age group; and (d) 17 responses came from males and 5 responses came from females in the over 55 age group.

	<u>25-35</u>	<u>36-45</u>	<u>46-55</u>	<u>Over 55</u>
Male	16	26	27	17
Female	7	14	15	5

Of the 86 responses from males, 24 work in a church organization, 6 work in a Para church organization, 40 work in a for-profit organization and 16 work in a not-for-profit organization. Of the 41 responses from females, 6 are from church organizations, 4 are from Para church organizations, 16 are from for-profit organizations and 15 are from not-for profit organizations. Of the responses from the males, 39 have 1-5 direct reports;

22 have 6-10 direct reports; 9 have 11-15 direct reports; 3 have 16-20 reports and 13 have over 20 reports. Of the responses from the females, 24 have 1-5 direct reports; 7 have 6-10 direct reports; 1 has 11-15 direct reports; 4 have 16-20 direct reports, and 5 have over 20 direct reports. This data is presented in Table 2 and 3 below.

Table 2: Gender and Organization Type

	<u>Church</u>	<u>Para Church</u>	<u>For Profit</u>	<u>Not For Profit</u>
Male	24	6	40	16
Female	6	4	16	15

Table 3: Gender and Number of Direct Reports

	<u>1-5</u>	<u>6-10</u>	<u>11-15</u>	<u>16-20</u>	<u>Over 20</u>
Male	39	22	9	3	20
Female	24	7	1	4	5

Table 4 shows the mean and standard deviations for: (a) Rosenberg's Self-Esteem scale with a mean of 30.8 and a standard deviation of 3.61; (b) Chen, Gully and Eden's New General Self-Efficacy Scale with a mean of 33.4 and a standard deviation of 3.86; (c) Terry & Raskin's Narcissistic Personality Inventory with a mean of 99 and a standard deviation of 5.47; and the Frost, Lahart, Martin and Rosenblate Multidimensional Perfectionism Scale with mean of 99 and a standard deviation of 14.07. See Table 4 below.

Table 4: Instruments' Means and Standard Deviation

	Mean	Standard Deviation
Self-Esteem Scale	30.8	3.61
Self-Efficacy Scale	33.4	3.86
Narcissistic Personality Inventory	99	5.47
Multidimensional Perfectionism Scale	99	14.07

Through stepwise multiple regression the potential relationship between the four independent variables of self-esteem, self-efficacy and narcissism in leaders and their desire for perfectionism through the setting of high, unreachable standards on themselves, others and as a result of the environment they work in. The regression equation for this study is Perfectionism (P) = Self-Esteem (SE) + Self-Efficacy (SF) + Narcissism (N). The R squared value or the goodness-of-fit measure of a linear model, combines both forward selection and backward elimination and begins with a selection of a predictor variable, in this case self-esteem, which explains the most variance in perfectionism. The R squared value is the proportion of variation in the dependent variable explained by the regression model with values ranging from 0 to 1.

Stepwise multiple regression reports only the predictor variables that add statistically to the dependent variable. In this study, the regression analysis returned three models and the related predictor variables. The best model in this study is Model 3 listing self-esteem, narcissism and age as the significant predictor variables with an R squared value of .188 and coefficients of .32, -.24, and -.20 respectively. The remaining models are as follows: (a) Model 1 lists self-esteem with an R squared value of .150 and coefficients of .30 and -.25 respectively; and (b) Model 2 lists self-esteem and narcissism

with an R squared value of .150 and coefficients of .30 and -.25 respectively. See Table 5 below. Positive numbers will represent positive correlations between the independent variables and the dependent variable. Negative numbers will represent negative correlations between the independent and dependent variables. Small values indicate that the model does not fit the data well. The correlation between the study variables is displayed in Table 6 below.

Table 5: Model Summary with Predictor Variables and R Squared Values

	<u>Predictor Variable</u>	<u>R Squared Value</u>	<u>Coefficients</u>
Model 1	Self Esteem	0.087	0.30
Model 2	Self-Esteem Narcissism	0.15	0.30 -0.25
Model 3	Self-Esteem Narcissism Age	0.188	0.32 -0.24 -0.20

Table 6: Pearson's Correlations of the Study Variables

	<u>Self-Esteem</u> <u>(SE)</u>	<u>Perfectionism</u> <u>(P)</u>	<u>Self-Efficacy</u> <u>(SF)</u>	<u>Narcissism</u> <u>(N)</u>	<u>Age</u> <u>(A)</u>
SE	1.00	*0.29	*-0.14	-0.02	*0.09
P	*0.29	1.00	*-0.06	*-0.24	*-0.18
SF	*-0.14	*-0.06	1.00	*-0.35	*0.11
N	-0.02	*-0.24	*-0.35	1.00	*0.05
A	*0.09	*-0.18	*0.11	*0.05	1.00

* significant at .05 level

H0: There is no link between perfectionism in leadership and leader self-esteem, leader self-efficacy and leader narcissism.

The results of stepwise multiple regression indicate there is a link between leader self-esteem, leader self-efficacy, leader narcissism and perfectionism in leadership. On the basis of the identified relationships, the null hypothesis is rejected.

H1: Low self-esteem in leaders leads to perfectionism

The results of the regression analysis shows a clear link between leader self-esteem and perfectionism in leadership and is the strongest link to perfectionism between the independent variables and the dependent variable. Table 5 lists a positive correlation between leader self-esteem and perfectionism in leadership. This relationship means that when leader self-esteem increases then perfectionism increases. As self-esteem decreases, perfectionism in leadership decreases. Since the hypothesis states low self-esteem leads to perfectionism, this hypothesis is rejected.

H2: Low self-efficacy in leaders lead to perfectionism

The results of the regression analysis show a negative correlation between leader self-efficacy and perfectionism in leadership. This relationship means that when leader self-efficacy decreases perfectionism in leadership increases. Since the hypothesis states, “Low self-efficacy leads to perfectionism in leadership” this hypothesis is accepted.

H3: Narcissism in leaders leads to perfectionism

The results of the regression analysis show a negative correlation between leader narcissism and perfectionism in leadership. This relationship means that when leader narcissism increases perfectionism in leadership decreases. Since the hypothesis states, “Narcissism leads to perfectionism in leaders” this hypothesis is rejected.

Chapter 5 - Discussion

The results of this study list self-esteem, self-esteem and narcissism, and self-esteem and age as predictor variables having a definitive relationship with perfectionism in leadership. This section reviews and discusses each variable separately.

Self-Esteem in Leaders

The relationship between self-esteem and perfectionism is supported by the data and is greatest predictor of perfectionism in this study. According to the results of the regression, self-esteem correlates positively with perfectionism so when self-esteem goes up perfectionism goes up and when self-esteem goes down perfectionism goes down. While this data refutes the hypothesis, it does show a significant relationship between the two variables. These findings are significant in our understanding of perfectionism in leadership. While it was hypothesized that low self-esteem would produce high, unreachable standards for both the leader and those that he/she leads, the data proves that leaders with high self-esteem tend to impose high, unreachable standards on themselves and those that follow them. We can reconcile this by saying that leaders with low self-esteem do not value themselves so they most likely will not value those that they lead. However, leaders with a high sense of self worth tend to set high, unreachable standards for themselves and others to possibly motivate higher levels of performance. This is an area for further research and is beyond the scope of this study.

Since self-esteem and perfectionism are developed at an early age, leaders with high levels of self-esteem have had good relationships with parents and other authority figures. They have learned to build successful relationships by watching others build

successful relationships. They have also learned how to deal well with negative issues such as rejection and learned the difference between a leader as a person being bad and bad leader behavior. Leaders with high self-esteem do not second-guess their decisions and do not fear retribution if they make a wrong decision. Leaders who value themselves learn to forgive themselves and others, but more importantly don't always put themselves last. Leaders who value themselves and others know how to celebrate the little victories as well as the big ones.

Most importantly, leaders with high self-esteem set limits and protect themselves. While these limits may be high by other people's standards, leaders model self-esteem to those around them by taking care of their own basic needs. When leaders go too far with setting the limits or protecting themselves and others to the point of affecting their mental and/or physical state, and the mental and/or physical state of his/her followers, that perfectionism in leadership turns maladaptive. This is beyond the scope of this exploratory study.

Self-Efficacy in leaders

The data shows that the relationship between perfectionism and leader self-efficacy is negatively correlated meaning that when leader self-efficacy increases perfectionism in leadership decreases, and vice versa. Since self-efficacy relates more to a leader's capabilities rather than how a leader values himself/herself and their ability to successfully handle problems that occur, a leaders lack of understanding of his/her capabilities will increase the need to control his/her own actions and the actions of followers.

An example would be a leader who is computer inept but doesn't want anyone to know, especially those above the leader since understanding technology is key to longevity, and seeks a computer savvy follower to cover the leaders inability to adapt. The leader then can submit to the computer savvy follower or the leader can try to control the actions of the follower. Submission would affect self-esteem if the leader has low self-esteem, but, as we found out in the previous section, high self-esteem would cause an ineffacious leader to set high, unreachable standards for the computer savvy follower. Standards that, due to the lack of understanding of computers, is unreasonable for anyone to adhere to let alone someone with marketable skills such as computer knowledge. The only other option for the ineffacious leader is to collaborate with the knowledgeable follower since the leader's success in areas that include computers depends on the relationship between the leader and the follower. Given the marketable skills, the follower can find another venue to operate in but the leader may not find another leadership position as easily.

Narcissism in Leadership

The data shows a clear relationship between narcissism and perfectionism in leadership but it is negatively correlated. In other words, when narcissism increases, perfectionism in leadership decreases. This means that even if a follower is humiliated by an authority figure, the drive for more power in an effort to get revenge by humiliating the humiliator does not lead to the setting of high, unreachable standards or perfectionism. The need for power creates an inverse relationship by shifting the attention from the self to doing whatever it takes to gain more power than the humiliator

in an effort to get revenge. The narcissistic injury suffered by the humiliated person can only be removed by a situational reversal and while a humiliated follower can submit to authority, love will be lacking in the leader/follower relationship. In followers who have been humiliated, the quest for power compensates for fear, for helplessness and for the feeling of shame left when he/she was first humiliated.

Leaders who focus on winning at all costs subscribe to Aristotle's concept of the end justifying the means. While it is assumed that if a hard charging, narcissistic leader with a "win at all costs" mentality, who drives himself/herself as hard as he/she drives others to win or to be on top at all costs would lead to perfectionism in an effort to control events and leave nothing to chance, this study proves otherwise. Most behavior that causes injury to the self and others falls in to the category of the denial of the true feelings. It is only when this type of behavior takes its toll on the leader and the lead both physically, mentally and emotionally and is used to gratify a leader's for personal gain in position and status does the winning at all costs become perfectionism. This study shows that the need for power and the denial of the self under the narcissistic umbrella do not contribute to perfectionism in leadership.

Additional Findings

Age was reported as a significant factor in the study and one that adds to the findings. Age is positively correlated with self-esteem, self-efficacy, and narcissism but negatively correlated with perfectionism. This relationship means that as leaders get older, self-esteem increases, self-efficacy increases, and narcissism increases but perfectionism decreases. Increasing self-esteem with age would result from a leader's

acceptance of himself/herself and the acceptance of the situations a leader is faced with in life. Increasing self-efficacy with age would be a result of education, understanding, and repetition. Increasing narcissism with age maybe a result of shifting priorities in the life of the leader who may possibly be faced with college tuition, retirement or another career ending event, focuses more on that event than the process of leadership. This is an area for further study.

The decrease of perfectionism with age, however, shows an important relationship in perfectionism and maturity. If the setting of high, unreachable standards decreases with age, then age as a factor means that older leaders will accept less than perfect results in the process of leadership. It also means that there is a channel between perfect and not good enough that exists and older leaders will accept results within that channel. If leader behavior is anything less than controlling then results within the channel of acceptance are sufficient and both leader and follower will benefit from the experience. However, for leaders who insist on perfection in each cycle of the leadership process, maturity is obviously lacking. Maturity in the leadership process is a result of a leader valuing himself/herself, understanding his/her limitations of capabilities, and focusing on others rather the needs of the self. Perfection then fades away with maturity.

Future Research

The findings of this study show that leader self-esteem is positively correlated with perfectionism in leadership, but leader self-efficacy and leader narcissism are negatively correlated with perfectionism in leadership. Further research would look at the types of perfectionism considered normal or adaptive versus neurotic or maladaptive

and correlate self-esteem, self-efficacy, and narcissism with either adaptive or maladaptive perfectionism for a better understanding of the phenomena of perfectionism in leadership. More attention should be placed on population and industry as well as tenure in the position to get a better understanding of where perfectionism in leadership comes from.

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Appendix 1

Perfectionism in Leadership Questionnaire

An Exploratory Study

This questionnaire is designed to measure leader self-esteem, leader self-efficacy and leader narcissism as it applies to perfectionism in leadership. Your anonymous responses to the following questions will help this exploratory study determine the relationship between these variables. Your identity is not needed nor is it requested when completing this questionnaire. The results of this questionnaire are intended for the study of the relationships discussed above and not for clinical intervention.

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1. Section 1

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We would like to ask to what extent you would agree or disagree with the following statements. Please indicate your level of agreement using the following 5-point Likert scale.

1.1. I feel that I am person of worth, at least on an equal plane with others.

Strongly
Disagree

1

2

3

4

Strongly
Agree

5

1.2. I will be able to achieve most of the goals that I have set for myself.

Strongly
Disagree

Strongly
Agree

1 2 3 4 5

1.3. It is important that I be thoroughly competent in everything that I do.

Strongly
Disagree

Strongly
Agree

1 2 3 4 5

1.4. I take a positive attitude toward myself.

Strongly
Disagree

Strongly
Agree

1 2 3 4 5

1.5. When facing difficult tasks, I am certain that I will accomplish them.

Strongly
Disagree

Strongly
Agree

1 2 3 4 5

1.6. I feel that I have a number of good qualities.

Strongly
Disagree

Strongly
Agree

1 2 3 4 5

1.7. Organization is very important to me.

Strongly
Disagree

Strongly
Agree

1 2 3 4 5

1.8. I will be able to successfully overcome my challenges.

Strongly
Disagree

Strongly
Agree

1

2

3

4

5

1.9. I have extremely high goals.

Strongly
Disagree

Strongly
Agree

1

2

3

4

5

1.10. If I do not do well all the time, people will not respect me.

Strongly
Disagree

Strongly
Agree

1

2

3

4

5

2. Section 2

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We would like to ask if you agree or disagree with the following statements. Please indicate whether you agree or disagree with these statements by clicking either "Yes" or "No."

2.1. I have a natural talent for influencing people.

Yes

No

2.2. Modesty doesn't become me.

Yes No

2.3. I would do almost anything on dare.

Yes No

2.4. I know that I am good because everyone keeps telling me so.

Yes No

2.5. If I ruled the world it would be a much better place.

Yes No

2.6. I can usually talk my way out of anything.

Yes No

2.7. I like to be the center of attention.

Yes No

2.8. I will be a success.

Yes No

2.9. I think I am a special person.

Yes No

2.10. I see myself as a good leader.

Yes

No

3. Section 3

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[\[Section 8\]](#) [\[Section 9\]](#) [\[Section 10\]](#) [\[Demographics\]](#) [\[Submit\]](#)

We would like to ask to what extent you would agree or disagree with the following statements. Please indicate your level of agreement using the following 5-point Likert scale.

3.1. I am neat person.

Strongly
Disagree

Strongly
Agree

1

2

3

4

5

3.2. On the whole, I am satisfied with myself.

Strongly
Disagree

Strongly
Agree

1

2

3

4

5

3.3. In general, I think that I can obtain outcomes that are important to me.

Strongly
Disagree

Strongly
Agree

1

2

3

4

5

3.4. Neatness is very important to me.

Strongly
Disagree

Strongly
Agree

1 2 3 4 5

3.5. The fewer mistakes I make, the more people will like me.

Strongly
Disagree

Strongly
Agree

1 2 3 4 5

3.6. I believe that I can succeed at any endeavor to which I set my mind.

Strongly
Disagree

Strongly
Agree

1 2 3 4 5

3.7. I am able to do things as well as most people.

Strongly
Disagree

Strongly
Agree

1 2 3 4 5

3.8. Compared to other people, I can do most tasks very well.

Strongly
Disagree

Strongly
Agree

1 2 3 4 5

3.9. If I do not set the highest standards for myself, I am likely to end up a second rate person.

Strongly
Disagree

1

2

3

4

Strongly
Agree

5

3.10. I try to be a neat person.

Strongly
Disagree

1

2

3

4

Strongly
Agree

5

3.11. I never felt I could meet my parents' standards.

Strongly
Disagree

1

2

3

4

Strongly
Agree

5

4. Section 4

[\[Top\]](#) [\[Section 1\]](#) [\[Section 2\]](#) [\[Section 3\]](#) [\[Section 4\]](#) [\[Section 5\]](#) [\[Section 6\]](#) [\[Section 7\]](#)
[\[Section 8\]](#) [\[Section 9\]](#) [\[Section 10\]](#) [\[Demographics\]](#) [\[Submit\]](#)

We would like to ask if you agree or disagree with the following statements. Please indicate whether you agree or disagree with these statements by clicking either "Yes" or "No."

4.1. I am assertive.

Yes

No

4.2. I like to have authority over other people.

Yes

No

4.3. I find it easy to manipulate people.

Yes

No

4.4. I insist upon getting the respect that is due me.

Yes

No

4.5. I like to display my body.

Yes

No

4.6. I can read people like a book.

Yes

No

4.7. I like to take responsibility for making decisions.

Yes

No

4.8. I want to amount to something in the eyes of the world.

Yes

No

4.9. I like to look at my body.

Yes

No

4.10. I am apt to show off if I get the chance.

Yes

No

5. Section 5

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[\[Section 8\]](#) [\[Section 9\]](#) [\[Section 10\]](#) [\[Demographics\]](#) [\[Submit\]](#)

We would like to ask to what extent you would agree or disagree with the following statements. Please indicate your level of agreement using the following 5-point Likert scale.

5.1. Even when things are tough, I can perform quite well.

Strongly
Disagree

1

2

3

4

Strongly
Agree

5

5.2. I am very good at focusing my efforts on attaining a goal.

Strongly
Disagree

1

2

3

4

Strongly
Agree

5

5.3. If I fail partly, it is as bad as being a complete failure.

Strongly
Disagree

1

2

3

4

Strongly
Agree

5

5.4. Only outstanding performance is good enough in my family.

Strongly
Disagree

Strongly
Agree

1 2 3 4 5

5.5. My parents set very high standards for me.

Strongly
Disagree

Strongly
Agree

1 2 3 4 5

5.6. People will probably think less of me if I make a mistake.

Strongly
Disagree

Strongly
Agree

1 2 3 4 5

5.7. As a child, I was punished for not doing things perfectly.

Strongly
Disagree

Strongly
Agree

1 2 3 4 5

5.8. I wish I could have more respect for myself.

Strongly
Disagree

Strongly
Agree

1 2 3 4 5

5.9. My parents never tried to understand my mistakes.

Strongly
Disagree

Strongly
Agree

1 2 3 4 5

5.10. I certainly feel useless at times.

Strongly
Disagree

Strongly
Agree

1

2

3

4

5

5.11. I tend to get behind in my work because I repeat things over and over.

Strongly
Disagree

Strongly
Agree

1

2

3

4

5

6. Section 6

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We would like to ask to what extent you would agree or disagree with the following statements. Please indicate your level of agreement using the following 5-point Likert scale.

6.1. At times I think I am no good at all.

Strongly
Disagree

Strongly
Agree

1

2

3

4

5

6.2. I try to be an organized person.

Strongly
Disagree

Strongly
Agree

1

2

3

4

5

6.3. All in all, I am inclined to feel that I am a failure.

Strongly
Disagree

1

2

3

4

Strongly
Agree

5

6.4. If I fail at work/school, I am a failure as a person.

Strongly
Disagree

1

2

3

4

Strongly
Agree

5

6.5. I am confident that I can perform effectively in many different tasks.

Strongly
Disagree

1

2

3

4

Strongly
Agree

5

6.6. I should be upset if I make a mistake.

Strongly
Disagree

1

2

3

4

Strongly
Agree

5

6.7. I feel I do not have much to be proud of.

Strongly
Disagree

1

2

3

4

Strongly
Agree

5

6.8. My parents wanted me to be the best at everything.

Strongly
Disagree

1

2

3

4

Strongly
Agree

5

1 2 3 4 5

6.9. I set higher goals than most people.

Strongly
Disagree

Strongly
Agree

1 2 3 4 5

6.10. If someone does a task at work/school better than I, then I feel like I failed the whole task.

Strongly
Disagree

Strongly
Agree

1 2 3 4 5

7. Section 7

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We would like to ask to what extent you would agree or disagree with the following statements. Please indicate your level of agreement using the following 5-point Likert scale.

7.1. I always know what I am doing.

Yes No

7.2. I rarely depend on anyone else to get things done.

Yes No

7.3. Everybody likes to hear my stories.

Yes No

7.4. I expect a great deal from other people.

Yes No

7.5. I will never be satisfied until I get all that I deserve.

Yes No

7.6. I like to be complimented.

Yes No

7.7. I have a strong will to power.

Yes No

7.8. I like to start new fads or fashions.

Yes No

7.9. I like to look at myself in the mirror.

Yes No

7.10. I really like to be the center of attention.

Yes

No

8. Section 8

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We would like to ask to what extent you would agree or disagree with the following statements. Please indicate your level of agreement using the following 5-point Likert scale.

8.1. Even when I do something very carefully, I often feel that it is not quite right.

Strongly
Disagree

1

2

3

4

Strongly
Agree

5

8.2. I hate being less than best at things.

Strongly
Disagree

1

2

3

4

Strongly
Agree

5

8.3. My parents have expected excellence from me.

Strongly
Disagree

1

2

3

4

Strongly
Agree

5

8.4. I never felt I could meet my parents' expectations.

Strongly
Disagree

1

2

3

4

Strongly
Agree

5

1 2 3 4 5

8.5. **If I do not do as well as people, it means that I am an inferior human being**

Strongly
Disagree

Strongly
Agree

1 2 3 4 5

8.6. **Other people seem to accept lower standards from themselves than I do.**

Strongly
Disagree

Strongly
Agree

1 2 3 4 5

8.7. **My parents have always had higher expectations for my future than I have.**

Strongly
Disagree

Strongly
Agree

1 2 3 4 5

8.8. **I usually have doubts about the simple everyday things.**

Strongly
Disagree

Strongly
Agree

1 2 3 4 5

8.9. **I expect higher performance in daily tasks than most people.**

Strongly
Disagree

Strongly
Agree

1 2 3 4 5

8.10. **I am an organized person.**

Strongly
Disagree

Strongly
Agree

1 2 3 4 5

9. Section 9

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We would like to ask if you agree or disagree with the following statements. Please indicate whether you agree or disagree with these statements by clicking either "Yes" or "No."

9.1. **People always seem to recognize my authority.**

Yes No

9.2. **I would prefer to be a leader.**

Yes No

9.3. **I am going to be a great person.**

Yes No

9.4. **I can make anyone believe anything I want them to.**

Yes No

9.5. I am a born leader.

Yes

No

9.6. I wish somebody would someday write my biography.

Yes

No

9.7. I get upset when people don't notice how I look when I go out in public.

Yes

No

9.8. I am more capable than most people.

Yes

No

9.9. I am an extraordinary person.

Yes

No

9.10. I can live my life any way I want to.

Yes

No

9.11. It takes me a long time to do something "right."

Yes

No

10. Personal Feedback

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We would like ask you about your perfectionistic tendencies. Please answer the following open-ended questions as they apply to you as a leader.

10.1. How do you describe perfectionism as it applies to your leadership activities?

10.2. Perfectionism in leadership is defined as what leaders do to themselves, what leaders do to others (followers) and what the environment does to the leader. Briefly explain which of the three forms of perfectionism you have encountered in your leadership activities:

11. Demographics

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We would like to ask you some demographic questions.

11.1. Are you:

11.2. What age range are you in:

11.3. What type of industry do you work in:

11.4. How many direct reports are you responsible for:

11.5. Please describe the type of work you do:

Submit Survey Responses

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