

## Overshadowed Leadership: The Grey Areas of Leadership Malpractice

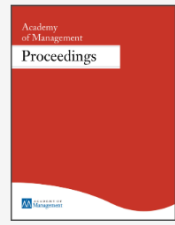

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### Abstract

In times of uncertainty and absence of resources leaders may cause harm to their subordinates. Although the empirical research focuses on abusive supervision, we propose a scale of an overshadowed leadership construct, which may inform future research on the grey areas of leadership malpractice. In six studies we investigate the viability and importance of this construct. We develop and test a new instrument to measure overshadowed leadership, test the equivalence between different countries, examine the connections of overshadowed leadership with other constructs in a nomological network, and demonstrate its predictive validity for outcomes. The current findings proposed a reduced scale to evaluate a new unethical leadership dimension which is well supported by robust theoretical models that open interesting lines of research for future studies. Therefore, theoretical and practical implications, as well as limitations and future research are discussed at the end of the paper.

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**Abstract:** In times of uncertainty and absence of resources leaders may cause harm to their subordinates. Although the empirical research focuses on abusive supervision, we propose a new construct, named overshadowed leadership, which is based on the Conservation of Resource and Rivalry theories may inform future research on the grey areas of destructive leadership. In six studies we investigate the viability and importance of this construct. We develop and test a new instrument to measure overshadowed leadership, test the equivalence between different countries, examine the connections of overshadowed leadership with other constructs in a nomological network, and demonstrate its predictive validity for outcomes. The current findings proposed a reduced scale to evaluate a new unethical leadership dimension which is well supported by robust theoretical models that open interesting lines of research for future studies. Therefore, theoretical, and practical implications, as well as limitations and future research are discussed at the end of the paper.

**Keywords:** Conservation of Resources, Rivalry theory, Unethical leadership, Scale development.



In light of current events, organizations and society are experiencing times of enormous instability, motivated by wars, economic problems and even recovery from a pandemic. Such phenomena have exacerbated the processes of surviving and maintaining resources in a battle against an increasingly competitive and challenging world. Leaders are also aware that their resources may be threatened by new talents, by more up-to-date knowledge driven by the advent of technological development and artificial intelligence. In reality, the phenomenon of fearing working with other employees whose talent might overshadow the role of leaders has always been a common problem in teams and, in particular, in leadership processes.

According to the APA dictionaries (APA, 2022), overshadowing is defined as "a decrease in conditioning with one conditioned stimulus because of the presence of another conditioned stimulus. Usually, a stronger stimulus will overshadow a weaker stimulus." In the cognitive psychology literature, Schooler and Engstler-Schooler (1990) prefer the term "overshadowing" because it characterizes a coexistent manner in which a stimulus (e.g., a resource) is perceived, retrieved, but later ignored (e.g., overshadowed), followed by a biased code (e.g., unethical fading/diminished by the supervisor). In other words, it includes situations where "multiple sources of information result in the apparent domination of one source over another" (Schooler and Engstler-Schooler, 1990, p. 63). Drawing on research that identifies unethical leadership behaviors, such as abusive supervision (e.g., Tepper, 2000; Tepper et al., 2017), this paper conceptualizes overshadow leadership from a behavioral perspective. The construct is defined from the follower's perception, and emphasis is on behavioral manifestations of the leader's motivations. While considerable research has focused on the dispositional and situational antecedents of unethical leadership (e.g., Babalola et al., 2023), these studies have overlooked the situational antecedents that explain why leaders may perceive their subordinates, even those who are not direct competitors, as threatening due to their exceptional competence.

We conceptualize overshadowed leadership as a reluctance to engage with highly skilled employees for fear of being overshadowed. The construct reflects the hesitance exhibited by supervisors to fully involve or empower employees who possess advanced skills or expertise due to their own apprehension about being outshined or rendered less influential within the organizational hierarchy. This reluctance may manifest in various forms, such as withholding opportunities for skill development or decision-making autonomy and reflects supervisors' concerns about preserving their authority and status within the workplace. This fear of being overshadowed can lead leaders to distance themselves from and even ostracize these individuals. In fact, the literature shows that about 34% of supervisors often ostracize their best employees because they feel that they are a threat to their position (Chang et al., 2021).

The “problem-center” literature or contextual theories of leadership (e.g., Osborn et al., 2002) do not explain how the existing resources perceived by the leader influence their unethical outcomes (c.f., Mitchell et al., 2023). With this in mind, the authors aim to bring the Conservation of Resources Theory (COR; Hobfoll, 1989) to the unethical leadership literature. For example, Halbesleben et al. (2014) discuss the resource-draining properties of destructive leadership behaviors such as abusive supervision, where followers attempt to reduce interactions with these leaders as a way of protecting from further resource loss. Leaders aim to gain or maintain psychological (e.g., self-actualization), material (e.g., money and other benefits), hierarchical (hierarchical position), and personal (e.g., high-status networking) resources to guarantee their self-preservation (Hobfoll et al., 2003). When they perceive that these resources are threatened, leaders may experience increased burnout, causing them to disengage from important daily tasks to maintain or retain their resources. Other studies have already examined abusive supervision from a COR perspective (e.g., self-regulation impairment; Tepper et al., 2017). However, overshadow leadership adds to the

existing literature by exploring the supervisors' perceptions of threats from high-talented subordinates and the psychological incentives for competition and dominance.

The current study also includes the theoretical assumptions of the rivalry theories (Kilduff et al., 2016). The theory conceptualizes a competitive relationship that increases the psychological incentives of competition regardless of individual goals. Organizations are very competitive arenas, where competition for scarce resources is very common.

Competitive relationships between supervisors and subordinates are very common, often resorting to unconscious processes that aim to guarantee the preservation of existing resources and the management of the few resources that still exist (e.g., a high hierarchical position). Supervisors may engage in competitive behaviors with their subordinates even in situations where cooperation would be more beneficial for the company. However, when in the presence of very talented subordinates, the motivation to acquire, retain, and protect resources supervisors engage in more defensive (and sometimes aggressive) behaviors to protect their resources. "Believing that stars can't shine without darkness", the main proposition of our perspective is that some supervisors may perceive their talented subordinates as a threat, rather than an important asset, to themselves and the company (Hampton and Francois, 2021). Accordingly, overshadow leaders may develop insecurity about their own position, self-esteem, and career, which subsequently turns into a leader that is motivated to relegate their most talented employees (Boekhorst et al., 2022).

In sum, our main goal is to develop a new construct of overshadow leadership that has relevant implications for the dynamics of leadership and organizational behavior. We aim to discuss the importance of overshadowed leadership as a new construct of destructive leadership and how it relates to other similar constructs (i.e., nomological network). To accomplish this, we're drawing upon a range of theoretical frameworks, including COR (Hobfoll, 1989) and rivalry theories (Kilduff et al., 2016). These conceptual frameworks

provide valuable insights into the psychological mechanisms underlying overshadowed leadership and its potential negative impact on individuals' outcomes, such as in-role and extra-role performance, well-being, as well as turnover intention.

### **CONSERVATION OF RESOURCES AND RIVALRY THEORIES IN THE LEADERSHIP LITERATURE**

The leadership literature uses the COR theory (Hobfoll, 1989) to explain that leadership plays an important role in providing and protecting resources to increase employees' commitment and work meaningfulness (Tabor et al., 2020). According to this theory, individuals strive to protect, maintain, and build their own resources because eustress (positive response to adversity) depends on whether they gain these assets and distress (i.e., negative response to adversities) on whether they lose them. The theory proposes that “individuals strive to obtain, retain, foster, and protect those things they centrally value” (Hobfoll et al., 2018, p. 104). For example, time and energy are different types of resources which people endeavor to obtain, retain, and conserve (Hobfoll et al., 2018). Accordingly, individuals are motivated to obtain more gains, particularly when they experience or anticipate difficult circumstances that may threaten them with future resource losses (Hobfoll and Shirom, 2000).

Therefore, in the current study, we posit that overshadowed leadership is when leaders may strive to protect and maintain their resources to a greater extent when they work with subordinates or other colleagues that might threaten their ego. In other words, to protect their resources, leaders will work with either people who do not challenge them, or will support them (e.g., with personal relationships). In the leadership context, the gain or loss of resources will affect leadership behavior, resulting in two possible outcomes: the leader increases or loses resources (Geibel et al., 2022). In fact, some leaders might be more concerned about increasing their resources (i.e., resource gain cycle), and develop different

strategies to avoid a resource-loss cycle. Previous studies suggest that reduced psychological resources are associated with a lack of transformational leadership, which by definition represents lower perceptions of i) individualized consideration, ii) inspirational motivation, iii) intellectual stimulation and iv) idealized influence (Byrne et al., 2014). Well-being is an important resource perceived by subordinates with transformational leaders (Geibel et al., 2022) and a depleted resource associated with lower levels of transformational leadership associated with higher levels of abusive supervision (Byrne et al., 2014).

As mentioned above, companies are often arenas of competition where workers compete for the same resources. However, competition and rivalry are different constructs. Competition refers to a context where individuals have different goals or fight for the same resources (Kilduff, 2014), whereas competition is very delimited in time, and rivalry involves a history that goes beyond a specific conflict (Xu et al., 2020). Rivalry exists in the employees' minds regardless of the availability of existing resources. According to the rivalry theory, an identifiable opponent usually has the same characteristics, and a history of similar performance, ranking, or recognition (Kilduff et al., 2010). Accordingly, employees, in general, are likely to identify some colleagues as their rivals. This rivalry appears as a motivational force to defeat a rival, adopting unethical behavior such as cheating, blackmailing, and sabotaging (Kilduff et al., 2016).

### **A MODEL OF OVERSHADOWED LEADERSHIP**

Abusive supervision is a well-known dark phenomenon (Babalola et al., 2022; Mitchell et al., 2023). However, until the darkness is reached to its fullest, there are many shades of grey. Tepper was visionary when describing abusive supervision, and she details typical abusive behavior (Tepper, 2000; Tepper et al., 2017). However, Tepper's work does not capture less intense forms of leaders' aggressive behavioral repertoire. As we can see in Table 1, the relationship between talented subordinates and supervisors is not always

captured by the traditional lens of abusive supervision. According to Fischer and Sitkin (2023), while abusive supervision centers on followers' perceived abuse, destructive leadership (subordinate subjective evaluation of leadership behavior and style) refers to systematic and repeated behavior focused solely on violating organizational interests. Unlike overshadowed leadership, which focuses on a person or group of people whose above-average abilities can threaten the leader's resources, destructive leadership's focus is on the organization. However, several other constructs explain other non-constructive leader behaviors (Mitchell et al., 2023). Among them, we can find abusive supervision, leader harmful behavior, leader social account with moral disengagement language, leader unethical behavior, leader lying, leader aggression, supervisor bullying, supervisor deviance, supervisor undermining, and supervisor workplace deviance. However, according to Tepper et al. (2017), supervisors "who toggle back and forth between hostile and supportive behavior create more uncertainty in the minds of subordinates and are therefore more resource-depleting than supervisors who are consistent in their hostility" (p. 135). Therefore, in the current study, we describe how overshadowed leadership can be differentiated from pseudo-transformational leadership, transformational leadership, and humble leadership.

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Insert Table 1 about here  
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Pseudo-transformational leaders are more focused on their self-interest, they have their own agenda, and are more interested in becoming idols (Barling et al., 2008). Leaders who fear being overshadowed by someone else do not intend to be an idol. These leaders intend to survive and maintain their resources, seek stability, and remain in their comfort zone. Transformational and pseudo-transformational leaders share the same ability to influence subordinates in visualizing and inspiring them toward future goals (Bass and Steidlmeier, 1999). In the case where they fear they will be overshadowed; leaders do not

intend to inspire or influence but rather to push aside those who can play their role better. However, transformational leaders tend to inspire their subordinates, emphasizing a bigger purpose of the collective good, whereas pseudo-transformational leaders use their capacity to inspire and communicate for their self-interested agendas. These leaders use very efficient rhetoric to motivate subordinates through deception and false promises (Barling et al., 2008). Overshadowed leaders are not so concerned with communicating and efficient rhetoric, but rather with developing good political skills and networking to ensure their good image among those who can guarantee them the obtained resources.

In contrast, humble leaders have a key personal trait that can facilitate the capacity to interact with subordinates and receive self-evaluative feedback (Owens et al., 2013). Leaders with this trait identify with and encourage all initiatives and positive behavior developed by their subordinates. This type of leader is able to learn and is open to receiving advice, ideas, and pertinent information from their subordinates (Leblanc et al., 2022). We conceptualize overshadowed leadership as leadership that can integrate leaders who show concern for others' opinions, care about giving and receiving feedback, and seek to develop their skills. However, these leaders fear being around individuals they perceive as more competent than they are. They also fear giving and receiving feedback from people who might threaten their position in the company (Kehoe and Bentley, 2021). In order to maintain their position of power and the resources obtained, leaders with these characteristics may develop unethical behavior and abusive supervision.

In general, there is little evidence of cross-cultural research about abusive supervision (c.f., Babalola et al., 2022), and we aim to fill this gap in the literature. Considering that the amount of aggression changes over time and differs across cultures (Bushman and Huesmann, 2010), we will also test cultural invariance across countries (Brazil and Portugal), which share the same language but have cultural differences. The literature

suggests relevant cultural differences between those two countries (Hofstede et al., 2010). Therefore, in line with previous studies considering cross-cultural differences in Brazil and Portugal (e.g., Souza et al., 2018), we included individualism–collectivism, masculinity–femininity, uncertainty avoidance, and indulgence–restraint dimensions as relevant cultural differences to study how measuring overshadowed leadership remains invariant across different countries and cultures.

### **HYPOTHESIZED OUTCOMES OF OVERSHADOWED LEADERSHIP**

This study also aims to develop a new construct of overshadowed leadership to measure unethical leadership and to assess divergent, convergent and predictive validity with other measures such as in-role and extra-role performances, turnover intention, and well-being.

#### **In-role and Extra-role Performance**

The literature has shown that when a leader shares power and allocates autonomy and responsibilities to their subordinates, as opposed to leaders having the agency over problems and decision making themselves only, this behavior is associated with positive outcomes such as in-role performance (Lee et al., 2018; Wang et al., 2023) and organizational citizenship behavior (Li et al., 2017; Wang et al., 2023). Moreover, there are also findings showing that the characteristics of transformational leaders are important for increased social interaction and that this is important for team performance (Geibel et al., 2022). As seen above, overshadowed leadership appears conceptually distinct but correlated with transformational leadership. It is expected that a leader who fears the threat of other potentially more talented employees, will not be very inspiring, will have difficulty in stimulating the subordinates' intellect, or will not consider the individual aspects of each worker. Leaders who do not share power or who are not very transformational, tend to have the same impact of overshadowed leaders who tend to develop behavior that impacts in-role

and extra-role performances. When subordinates observe that the leaders' concern is centered on rivalries with other colleagues or subordinates, by modeling or vicarious behavior (Denrell, 2003), they also tend to develop the same behavior patterns and avoid extra-role behavior. According to the arguments of the rivalry (Kilduff et al., 2010) and COR (Hobfoll, 1989) theories, when employees perceive that their leaders are not a valuable resource for which deserves an additional effort, they tend to produce less and decrease organizational citizenship behavior (i.e., extra-role performance). Thus, we hypothesize that

*H1: Overshadowed leadership is negatively and significantly correlated with a) in-role performance, and b) extra-role performance.*

### **Turnover intention**

The literature has no consensus on the relationship between perceptions of leadership behavior and turnover intention. For example, a study conducted by Amankwaa et al. (2022) found an absence of a significant correlation between transformational leadership and turnover. However, the COR theory (Hobfoll, 1989) applied to leadership studies explains that when employees find valuable resources, such as trusting the leader, and identifying with the leader, they tend to develop a conscientious effort to embed themselves in the company to acquire more resources and choose to stay to prevent future resource loss (Hobfoll et al., 2018). An interesting rationale developed by Lee et al. (2014) explains that according to the COR theory (Hobfoll, 1989), an inspiring leader or a leader people can trust, may be perceived as an important asset for which employees may develop efforts to stay in the organization. Contrarily, employees tend to find other options outside the organization when they perceive that leaders do not allow them to maintain and develop resources because they are more concerned about maintaining and retaining their own position of power and resources. Thus, we hypothesize that:

*H2: Overshadowed leadership is positively and significantly correlated with turnover intention*

## Well-being

Byrne et al. (2014) demonstrated that leaders with reduced psychological resources negatively impact their well-being. Another study suggested that leaderships' unethical behavior plays a more detrimental role (than ethical behavior) in explaining the explained variance of subordinates' well-being (Ahmad et al., 2020). These results take into account one of the assumptions of COR theory (Hobfoll, 1989) by reiterating the salience of resource loss over resource gain in explaining employee well-being (Ahmad et al., 2020). Similarly to other studies that have sought to test the impact of leadership profiles on a group of individuals, in this study, we will consider the multilevel approach (Ferreira, 2017) to assess how variance between different overshadowed leadership profiles impacts the well-being of different groups of teachers differently. Given that overshadowed leadership falls under the category of unethical leadership behavior, the perceived loss of resources due to a leader focused on retaining his or her own resources, leads to lower psychological well-being. According to the Leader Member Exchange theory (LMX), supervisors develop strong and different relationships with certain team members and do not treat each subordinate equally (Graen and Uhl-Bien, 1995). Considering the overshadowed leadership characteristics, there may be individuals with different attributes and competencies in a group which can determine leaders' greater or lesser perceived threat, and thus their proximity to their leaders as well. Therefore, we propose that overshadowed leadership may be determined by workers' individual perceptions (i.e., individual level), as opposed to a collective perspective (i.e., supervisory level), considering individual's abilities, since not all employees demonstrate the same work capacity.

Hence, we hypothesize that:

*H3: At different levels of analysis, perceived overshadowed leadership will be differently associated with well-being.*

Table 2 shows the six studies which enabled the development and validation of the new Overshadowed Leadership construct, following steps outlined in the survey measure development literature to build a scale, test the theoretical hypotheses proposed, empirically verify the nomological network, and confirm its utility predicting outcome variables.

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### **STUDY 1: ITEM DEVELOPMENT AND CONTENT VALIDITY**

In developing the measure, we followed the steps advocated in the psychometric literature (Hinkin, 1995, 1998) and best practices suggested by Crawford and Kelder (2019), specifically in the development of the construct of leadership measures. Therefore, the construct was specified before identifying the items to assess overshadowed leadership. Similar constructs of ostracism behavior (Chang et al., 2021), rivalry theory (Kilduff, 2014), and abusive behavior (Tepper, 2000; Tepper et al., 2017) were drawn upon to determine the effects of overshadowed leadership. Following the content validation guidelines suggested by Colquitt et al. (2019), seven Industrial-organizational psychology and human resources management / organizational behavior full-time faculty members from a public university in Lisbon were consulted to ensure the appropriateness and relevance of the initial 36 items. All experts were invited to rank the items using a seven-point scale ranging from 1 “not important” to 7 “very important”. Rates were asked to provide evaluation for *definitional correspondence* (i.e., the degree to which a scale’s items correspond to the construct’s definition), and *definitional distinctiveness* (i.e., the degree to which a scale’s items correspond more to the construct’s definition than to the definitions of other similar constructs of ostracism, abusive, and destructive leadership). All the items with an average score less than 5 or “somewhat important” in both criteria were removed from the study

(Brakus et al., 2009). As a result, 30 items remained for subsequent scale refinement and validation.

## **STUDY 2: FACTOR STRUCTURE**

### **Method**

Participants were invited to participate in an online assessment on a 5-point scale, ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). The link was sent by email to a convenience sample of employees from different institutions. The original scale (30 items) was applied to a sample of 255 participants (70% female) from various sectors of activity in Portugal, mainly from the social, health and education sectors. The mean age was 35 years (SD = 7.3), with a mean of 12.6 years of professional experience (SD = 7.8) and 8.3 years of seniority (SD = 6.6).

### **Results**

We conducted an exploratory factor analysis (EFA) using the protocol suggested when there are normality violation (maximum likelihood) with direct oblimin rotation (Tran, 2009), performed with IBM SPSS 26.0 software. The last EFA obtained an interpretable matrix, with a Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin good indicator (KMO=.926;  $\chi^2=1554.209$ ,  $df=45$ ). A combination of methods was used to determine the number of factors to retain (Fabrigar et al., 1999), including the Kaiser-Guttman method and scree plots test analysis. We removed items with loadings <.40, items with loads greater than .40 in two or more factors, or cross-loadings with less than .15 difference from the item's highest factor loading (Worthington and Whittaker, 2006). As a result of these procedures, 20 items were removed from the initial set of 30 items. The percentage of explained variance for the 10 items obtained (items 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 24 and 25), corresponding to a single factor was 59.19% (an eigenvalue of 5.92 was identified). This scale presented a Cronbach's alpha value of .92.

### STUDY 3. CROSS-CULTURAL INVARIANCE

#### Method

Following cross-cultural research (Fischer and Poortinga, 2018; Smith et al., 2013b), we collected data from two cultural groups: European and Latin-American Portuguese speaking individuals - in other words, from Portugal (N=100) and Brazil (N=289). In Portugal, the survey was answered by 56% of females, with an average age of 37.78 ( $SD=11.55$ ) years, and average seniority of 15,63 ( $SD = 11.29$ ) years, and 39.0% conducted human health and social support activities followed by 6.0% of finance and insurance and other sectors (55.0 %). In Brazil, the survey was answered mainly by females (69.8%), with an average age of 42.8 ( $SD = 9.39$ ) years, and average seniority of 16.4 ( $SD=9.02$ ) years, who predominantly execute service care activities (66.8%) followed by administrative roles (11.4%). The instrument was adapted into Brazilian-Portuguese changing chief for supervisor and other expressions that differ from the language's cultural specificities. Due to these cultural differences, three items from the original scale were deleted. Therefore, only seven items were administered in Study 3. We conducted a two-step analysis. The former was an EFA in a similar procedure as in Study 2. In the second step, a confirmatory factor analysis was conducted testing modification indices and invariance measures, applying a maximum likelihood estimator. To do so, we used R's statistical packages Lavaan and SEM tools (Hirschfeld and Von Brachel, 2014; Jorgensen et al., 2018; Lugtig and Hox, 2012; Milfont and Fischer, 2010; Rosseel, 2019; Smith et al., 2013a; Tomás et al., 2014).

#### Results

The factor structure of the items was tested with a two-step approach with two different samples, considering participants were from two different countries. Considering the results from Study 1, the single factor of overshadowed leadership was evaluated by

submitting the seven items to an EFA (Table 3). This analysis enabled a more parsimonious structure that was used to conduct a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) of the retained items.

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Data revealed that, although loading patterns presented slight differences from the countries, the factor structure and interpretations remained similar for each sample, while maintaining the same structure. We used the following fit indicators (e.g., Hu and Bentler, 1999): the chi-square ( $\chi^2$ ), comparative fit index ( $CFI \geq .96$ ), non-normed fit index ( $NNFI \geq .96$ ), standardized root-mean-square residual ( $SRMR \leq .08$ ) and the root-mean-square error of approximation ( $RMSEA \leq .06$ ). Fit measures of the CFA model ( $\chi^2/df = 8.66$ ,  $CFI = .92$ ,  $NNFI = .88$ ,  $NFI = .91$ ,  $RMSEA = .14$  [.12, .17],  $SRMR = .05$ ) can be considered adequate, although, modification indices suggested covariances between the positive items in both samples (items 5 and 7). Cross-cultural content analysis and covariances between items, and suggested that both items probably belong to another factor. Moreover, both items had their content inverted. In this sense, we decided to exclude both items, keeping only five with a factorial structure supporting a better fit model ( $\chi^2/df = 6.46$ ,  $CFI = .97$ ,  $NNFI = .94$ ,  $NFI = .97$ ,  $NNFI = .94$ ,  $RMSEA = .12$  [.08, .16],  $SRMR = .03$ ). Considering that previous studies mentioned the difficulty to use fixed cutoff points in RMSEA (Chen et al., 2008) and that this index is highly sensitive to the number of parameters (Brown, 2006), we considered that in general this model fit score should be cautiously interpreted. We tested the difference between models, and which presented better fit indices (ANOVA between models,  $\chi^2_{diff} = 88.88$ ;  $p < .01$ ). Omegas and ICC2 suggested adequate reliability scores (Koo and Li, 2016) for both samples.

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Table 4 shows a slight difference in invariance tests between both samples (Hirschfeld and Von Brachel, 2014). We studied measurement invariance to analyze construct validity across the subsamples from different countries that share the language but present a different culture (Portugal and Brazil). Therefore, a Multi-Group Confirmatory Factor Analysis (MGCFA) was developed to test the structural invariance of employees. In the current study, changes in the fit indices were used to compare nested values. According to the literature (Cheung and Rensvold, 1999), as the models became more restrictive (for a  $\Delta CFI < .01$ ), we expected that the data fit would not change considerably. A model with configural invariance was the initial model, where no constraint was imposed across samples. Configural invariance indicates that participants from different groups conceptualize the constructs in the same way (considered good if CFI is  $> .95$  as here). Constraining the metric and scalar scores to be equal in both groups caused a non-decrease in fit ( $\Delta CFI < .01$ ). When constraining the configural means invariance, the comparison between samples revealed that the variance changed considerably for all the studied fit indices (for example,  $\Delta CFI > .01$ ). However, the literature suggests that configural means or an error variance invariance test (i.e., compares if the same level of measurement error is present for each item between groups) is acceptable when CFI and RMSEA change is lower than .015 (Tomás et al., 2014), which partially supports the structural invariance of the scale.

#### **STUDY 4: DISCRIMINANT VALIDITY**

The purpose of Study 4 was to investigate discriminant and convergent validity of the overshadowed leadership scale by examining how this new measure relates to other theoretical relevant constructs in the leadership fields. Therefore, we expected that overshadowed leadership would be significantly correlated with, but at the same time discriminant from leadership-related constructs that have been associated with the leadership literature. Specifically, based on our arguments that overshadowed leadership promotes

unethical behavior, we assessed whether overshadowing was distinct from other measures that are not significantly related to unethical behavior but share some construct similarities with the presence and absence of abusive behavior (Tepper, 2000; Tepper et al., 2017).

## **Method**

**Sample and Procedures.** Sample 1 consisted of 383 working adults, 216 of whom were male ( $M_{age} 35.98$ ;  $SD = 10.54$ ) from different work fields. Participants had an average of 14.87 years of professional experience ( $SD = 10.15$ ) and 7.36 years of seniority ( $SD = 7.43$ ). Most of the participants had a bachelor (37.6%) and a master's degree (24.8%). Data was collected in Portugal with the Qualtrics platform (101 participants) and with Mturk in the United States (281 Americans) because if there are inverted items on the scale and yet it remains stable, this is a demonstration that the participants paid enough attention, and this is the case with our instruments because there are inverted items and therefore, we can use the data (Cheung et al., 2017). All participants were assured of anonymity.

Sample 2 consisted of 272 employees, 120 of whom were male (average age 35.59;  $SD = 10.18$ ) from different work fields. Participants had an average of 14.85 years of professional experience ( $SD = 9.92$ ) and 6.73 years of seniority ( $SD = 6.22$ ). Data was collected in Portugal with Qualtrics platform (32 participants) and in the United States with Mturk (186 Americans). All participants were assured that their identity would remain anonymous. We had 218 participants who completed the questionnaire in both samples 1 and 2.

Sample 3 aggregates 161 Brazilian workers, 63% of females, average age 35,65 ( $SD = 11.24$ ) from different fields. Of the 161, 62,1% worked in a big company (more than 100 employees). Data was collected in Brazil with the Forms platform. All participants were assured anonymity.

*Instruments. Humble Leadership.* We adopted the original nine-item scale developed by Owens et al. (Owens et al., 2013) to measure humble leadership. A sample item was “Our team leader actively seeks feedback, even if it is critical.” This scale was applied with sample 1 and presented a Cronbach’s alpha of .91.

*Transformational leadership.* Team members reported perceptions of their immediate supervisor's transformational leadership behavior by using the 7-item scale developed by Carless et al. (2000). A sample item included: “Our coach communicates a clear and positive vision of the future”. This scale was applied with sample 1 and presented a Cronbach’s alpha of .94.

*Overshadowed leadership.* We used the five-item original scale developed in previous studies that were described in the current paper. In order to avoid common method effects (Podsakoff et al., 2003), this scale was applied with sample 2 approximately 3 months later and presented a Cronbach’s alpha of .74. On Sample 3, the five-item version presented a Cronbach’s alpha of .88.

*Ostracism.* We applied a seven-item scale developed by Ferris et al. (2008), which presented a Cronbach’s alpha of .92. Example of an item is “Your leader ignored you at work”. This scale was applied to Sample 3.

*Intimidation.* We applied a five-item scale developed by Almeida et al. (2022). Cronbach’s alpha of .94. Example of one item is “Ridicules subordinates with low performance”. This scale was applied to Sample 3.

## **Results**

We conducted Confirmatory Factorial Analysis (CFA) with two independent samples to test convergent, and discriminant validity. An initial CFA including the scales measured in time 1 (humble and transformational leadership) and time 2 (overshadowed leadership)

revealed an adequate fit with  $\chi^2_{(186)} = 437.705$ ,  $\chi^2/df = 2.278$ , CFI = .952, TLI = .940, and RMSEA .054 [.05, .06]. However, one item from overshadowed leadership revealed a loading below .40 which suggested item deletion and subsequent re-analysis. This item was: “My direct boss implies with employees that they stand out in the company because of their merit”. Unfortunately, this occurred due to a bad translation/back-translation. After receiving feedback from participants, we found that the most accurate translation should be "pick on somebody", or "quarrels with". Therefore, the correct translation for future studies should be: “My boss usually quarrels with employees who stand out in the organization for their merit”. A new model was run and presented an adequate fit:  $\chi^2_{(167)} = 394.840$ ,  $\chi^2/df = 2.364$ , CFI = .954, TLI = .942, RMSEA .055 [.05, .06]. The four-item overshadowed leadership scale presented a new Cronbach’s alpha of .82. After fixing the error assigned to item translation, a new study was conducted on sample 3 with the original Overshadow Leadership five-item scale. The purpose of this analysis was also to provide empirical evidence that the conceptualization of Overshadow Leadership differs from abusive supervision, in particular, in the literature on ostracism and intimidation. Therefore, a three-factor structure CFA was conducted with sample 3.

Results shown in Table 5 provide evidence of construct reliability, convergent, and discriminant validity for overshadowed leadership compared with other similar but not related constructs (i.e., humble leadership, transformation leadership, ostracism, and intimidation). The composite reliability was equal to or higher than .80 (Hair et al., 2010), and the average variance extracted was higher than .50, which supports convergent validity. Additionally, findings suggested that the average variance extracted for overshadowed leadership was greater than the variance shared with the remaining constructs (Henseler et al., 2009). Discriminant validity was confirmed because the average shared variance score was below the average variance extracted score (Hair et al., 2010).

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Insert Table 5 about here  
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## STUDY 5: PREDICTIVE VALIDITY

### Method

***Samples and procedure.*** We used sample 2 described above in Study 4 to test predictive validity. To reduce common method variance, we collected overshadowed leadership at time 2 and in-role performance, OCB-I, and turnover intentions three months later (time 3, sample 3) to reduce common method bias (Podsakoff et al., 2003).

Sample 3 consisted of 172 employees (*Age*: 36.21; *SD* = 10.22) from different work fields. Participants had an average of 15.53 years of professional experience (*SD* = 10.18) and 6.42 years of seniority (*SD* = 5.39). Data was collected in Portugal with the Qualtrics platform and in the United States with Mturk (186 Americans). All participants were assured of anonymity. We have a final number of 216 participants in both samples 2 and 3, with 96 males, 76 females and 44 participants that did not report gender. Most were Americans (154 participants), with only 18 participants from Portugal.

***Instruments.*** *Overshadowed Leadership.* The same four-item scale used in the previous study.

*In-Role Performance.* In-role performance was measured with an adaptation of the organizational citizenship and in-role behavior scale (Williams and Anderson, 1991). Only four items were used, and the scale had statements such as “I performed the tasks that are expected”. The answers were collected using a seven-point Likert scale (1=strongly disagree and 7=strongly agree). This variable was part of wave three. Reliability Cronbach score was good ( $\alpha = .92$ ).

*OCB-I.* The scale chosen to assess organizational citizenship behavior toward others (OCB-I) was adapted from the same questionnaire as the variable in-role performance: the organizational citizenship and in-role behavior scale (Williams and Anderson, 1991). In this case, only five items were selected from the original scale, measured with a seven-point Likert scale (1=strongly disagree and 7=strongly agree). This scale was part of wave three, like the previous one. The scale presents good internal consistency, with a Cronbach's alpha of .89

*Turnover Intentions.* The turnover scale used in this study was developed by the University of Michigan (Lawler et al., 1975) and is part of the Michigan Organizational Assessment Package. There are three items in the questionnaire and the answers are measured with a five-point Likert scale (1=Totally Disagree and 5=Totally Agree). The scale contains items like "I thought about leaving my job" and integrated sample 3. The reliability was measured by Cronbach's alpha, and the scale revealed good internal consistency ( $\alpha=.94$ ).

## **Results**

Table 6 shows the inter-correlations among the four studied variables for these two samples.

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Insert Table 6 about here  
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Structural equation modelling using maximum likelihood estimation was performed to examine the relationship between overshadowed leadership and the three outcomes measured three months later: In-role performance, OCB-I, and turnover intention (Figure 1). The model showed acceptable fit ( $\chi^2_{(101)} = 276.999$ ,  $p < .001$ ;  $\chi^2/df = 2.743$ , CFI = .928, NNFI = 0.903, RMSEA = 0.06 [.05, .07]). Overshadowed leadership had a significant negative effect on In-role performance ( $\beta = -.37$ ,  $p < .01$ ) and OCB-I ( $\beta = -.34$ ,  $p < .01$ ). Contrarily to this,

overshadowed leadership revealed a significant positive effect on turnover intention ( $\beta = .56$ ,  $p < .01$ ). These results provide empirical evidence to support H1a, H1b and H2.

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Insert Figure 1 about here  
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## STUDY 6: MULTILEVEL AND PREDICTIVE VALIDITY

### Method

**Sample and procedures.** The research was submitted to the Brazilian national ethical committee (number: anonymized for reviewing purposes). The sample had 1,185 participants from elementary schools of the Educational Secretary of Federal District in Brazil. A criterion was to have more than 3 respondents for each school. The sample was made up of participants belonging to 171 different schools. The average number of participants per school was 10.02 (SD = 5.99), 81.0% of whom were female. The average age was 44.07 (SD = 7.91) years, with 7.84 (SD = 7.18) years working in the same school on average. 56.4% were married, and 16.1 were single. 71.2% were teachers, 12.2 were from support professionals (i.e., canteen staff, gatekeepers, cleaning clerks). From the 1,185 participants, 49.6% worked as primary school teachers, followed by 8.0% of language teachers (e.g., Arts, Portuguese, other languages, music etc.).

We collect data using online and paper and pencil forms. As adopted in the previous studies, also here an Informed Consent Form preceded both questionnaires. The researchers collected the paper and pencil forms in the school environment, and the online form was sent by e-mail directly to the internal mailing list.

**Instruments.** *Overshadowed Leadership.* The same was used in the previous study.

*Well-being.* We used a reduced version of Paschoal scale (Demo and Paschoal, 2016; Paschoal and Tamayo, 2008). The scale has 3 factors: Fulfilment, Positive affect, and

Negative affect. The original scale had 30 items, however in the current study we included the five items with the higher factor loadings, with the exception of the positive affect, where we opted to include only four items due to factor loading distance. The final scale included 14 items. The scale ranged between 1 and 5, where 1 corresponded to completely disagree and 5 to completely agree. Psychometric evidence suggested that the second-order factor analysis revealed adequate fit index ( $\chi^2/df = 5.71$ ; CFI = .97; TLI = .96; RMSEA = .06 [.06, .07]; SRMR = .05), with an adequate hierarchical omega of .76.

## **Results**

In order to test the multilevel hypothesis (H3), we tested the within and between school variance in the outcome variable. The  $-2\log$  likelihood value for the model with the random intercept was significantly smaller than the model without the random intercept, and the chi-square between the models was significant for General well-being.

We used the random coefficient regression model to test the cross-level. We tested two models, Model 1 examined the level 2 overshadowed leadership effect and Model 2 included the relation between the level 2 overshadowed leadership effect controlled by its individual level effects (Bliese, 2016) and general well-being. Table 7 shows that the individual level predicts significantly General well-being. Level 2 was not able to explain when we control the individual level. The ICC2 is a group-mean reliability and a value of .22 indicates that groups cannot be reliably differentiated in terms of average overshadowed leadership for this sample. Thus, the influence of overshadowed leadership on well-being, for this sample, is more related to how the individual worker perceives their leader, rather than what the shared perception of workers is regarding the latter. This result has a clear implication on workers and supports the fact that one overshadowed leadership characteristic is that individuals with different attributes and competencies are perceived as more or less threatening, as

overshadowed leaders may behave differently towards those workers who may be a threat to them and those who may not, and this variation may be evidence of this difference.

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Insert Table 7 about here  
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## **DISCUSSION**

Based on a sequence of six studies, we conceptualized overshadowed leadership as a unidimensional construct. Following an initial conceptualization and nomological analysis, we developed and validated a measure of overshadowed leadership where we provide empirical evidence suggesting relevant psychometric properties for future studies in the field. Our robust methodological approach revealed that overshadowed leadership occupies a significant conceptual and empirical space in the unethical leadership literature and is an important contribution to understanding how inadequate leadership behavior impacts employees. In the next sections, the theoretical and practical contributions, as well as the limitations and suggestions for future research are discussed.

### **Theoretical Implications**

Throughout six different studies comprising samples from different sources and countries, we provided at least three relevant contributions to the existing leadership and business ethics literature. Firstly, we proposed overshadowed leadership as an important unethical leadership response to perceived fear of loss of leadership and fear that other employees (peers or subordinates) constitute a threat to the achieved position of power. It is also a response to contexts where there is a perception of limited resources or a history of rivalry with other colleagues. We explicitly conceptualized overshadowed leadership within a unique and previously unexploited conceptual domain that fills an interesting gap in the leadership literature. Then, we developed our construct upon the COR theory (Hobfoll, 1989) and the leadership responses of the rivalry models (Kilduff et al., 2016); an integrative

construct that can explain a very specific profile of leader that presents insecurities reflected in the fear of being overshadowed by colleagues or even subordinates. Leaders with this profile are very focused on potential rivals, who according to the rivalry theory, may have very similar characteristics. This leadership profile seems to find support in the rivalry theory (Kilduff et al., 2010). This theory also states that rivalry exists when there is a perception of reduced resources (Kilduff et al., 2010). The COR theory finds in this leadership a bridge with the rivalry theory. That is, as these leaders identify their rivals, they seek to maintain their resources and spend energy to ward off potential threats to the loss of status and resources (Hobfoll and Shirom, 2000). In sum, we developed a leadership construct that seems to be well integrated into these two theories and demonstrates the important contribution of both COR and rivalry theory to explain the phenomenon of unethical leadership.

In the current study we found empirical evidence that supports measurement invariance for overshadowed leadership (metric and scalar invariance) across Portuguese and Brazilian samples. Despite the cultural differences between countries (c.f., Hofstede, 2010), the construct seems to have the same psychometric characteristics. However, some differences were found when we constrained the configural means variance, which could be attributed to some specificity of unethical behavior that are very sensitive to cultural dimensions (Bushman and Huesmann, 2010).

Moreover, by developing and validating a measure of overshadowed leadership based on best practice recommendations for scale development in organizational contexts (e.g., Hinkin, 1995, 1998), we formally conceptualized a new valuable construct. The study also provides nomological empirical evidence when revealing that the scale shows some discriminant validity against constructs that may share some similarity (e.g., ostracism or intimidation). For example, leadership appears as a factorially distinct construct from humble

and transformational leadership. Importantly, our measure of overshadowed leadership framed within the Rivalry theory (Kilduff et al., 2010) and more specifically in the COR (Hobfoll, 1989) theory, allowed us to empirically confirm the positive relationship between overshadowed leadership and turnover intention, and the negative relationship with in-role and extra-role performance, as well as with well-being. These contributions extend previous findings (Lee et al., 2018; Wang et al., 2023) and provide an important empirical contribution that opens avenues for future studies of research to our understanding of other relevant dimensions in unethical behavior leadership.

Another theoretical contribution lies in the relationship of the overshadowed leadership construct at level 2 with variables at the individual level. Considering that in the research sample there was not a homogeneous perception about the overshadowed profile of this leader (low ICC2), the current findings support the LMX theory assumptions which assumes that the leader behaves differently with different workers or rather, is perceived by individual workers to behave differently (Graen and Uhl-Bien, 1995). Furthermore, the relationship with individual variables, such as well-being, can be moderated or mediated by the ability of each employee, and therefore be perceived as a threat by the leader, whereas for those less skilled, the relationship does not exist. Another interpretation is that cohesive groups perceive the leader in the same way to protect themselves, whereas less cohesive groups could have perceptions with greater variation. These are questions that go beyond this paper's scope but are important opportunities to be further analyzed.

### **Practical Implications**

One important practical implication of the current findings is that companies must be cautious when identifying overshadowed leadership profiles in selection processes. In general, leadership selection processes emphasize hard skills. In this case, we reinforce the importance of using instruments in selection processes with the characteristics of this scale,

which have an emphasis on soft skills, making the latter more visible (Hurrell, 2016). In particular, organizations that have scarce resources to share or contexts that may be prone to the development of rivalries, should avoid this leadership profile.

The current study also emphasizes that overshadowed leaders have a negative impact on employees' in-role and extra-role performance, as well as on well-being and that there are also negative implications at the turnover intentions' levels. Therefore, one interesting strategy could be to work with overshadowed leaders who feel threatened by other collaborators, on the affective, behavioral, cognitive expression of their attitudes toward others and towards themselves (Bovey and Hede, 2001). As overshadowed leaders are afraid of losing the resources and status they have attained, it may be important to alert them to the negative impact their behavior has on their employees' performance as well as on its reputation in the market. By avoiding others because leaders feel they might be threatened in terms of work position, they may do harm to the greater good that is the organization itself and ultimately their future career, as such positive changes could boost their behavior and relationship with other employees.

Coaching or training leadership programs that allow feedback from different sources (i.e., shareholders, subordinates, colleagues, or customers) can help leaders become more aware of the impact of their behavior. During the program, by practicing specific positive leadership skills, leaders can be invited to contrast themselves with the vision that is shared by the people with whom they most frequently interact (Yuan et al., 2019). Overshadowed leaders can also benefit from workplace mindfulness training. Previous studies suggest the importance of mindful task management, self-care and self-reflection in developing important skills such as relating to others and adapting to change (Rupprecht et al., 2019). Additionally, performance appraisal instruments should consider feedback from people who directly interact with the leader (LePine et al., 2016) and include KPIs that closely monitor and

reduce overshadowed leadership by establishing clear disciplinary procedures for this type of destructive behavior.

### **Limitations and Future Research**

The current study is not without limitations. Firstly, when measuring the relationship between overshadowed leadership and outcome variables, we aimed to eliminate cross-sectional bias, and thus, collected measures at two different points in time. Nonetheless, conclusions should be cautiously interpreted regarding the relationship between independent and dependent variables. In order to address this limitation, future studies might adopt experimental or scenario studies to confirm causal patterns.

Secondly, this new scale and construct was developed and validated with samples of participants from Portugal and Brazil. In the translation to English one important item was not included (i.e., “My direct supervisor picks on employees that stand out in the company because of their merit”) and as mentioned before, future studies could replace the previous item with: “My supervisor usually quarrels with employees who stand out in the organization for their merit”. Therefore, it would be interesting to test cross-cultural factorial invariance in other languages and cultures. Furthermore, although the MTurk tool was used, which could represent a limitation, the stability of the measure, even with inverted items suggests that the result is robust and reliable (Cheung et al., 2017). In addition, despite the discriminant validity evidence for transformational, humble leadership, ostracism and intimidation constructs, future studies might study convergent and discriminant validity with other similar constructs such as people orientation, fairness, power sharing, concern for sustainability, ethical guidance, role clarification, and integrity (c.f. Kalshoven et al., 2011). Future studies should also consider exploitative leadership, which has “undermining development” as one of its facets (Schmid et al., 2019). Hence, we may conceptualize that limiting followers’ further developmental growth might be highly related to overshadowed leadership.

Moreover, since previous studies have suggested that supervisors who feel emotions of envy or shame tend to develop withdrawal or destructive behavior in order to protect their own status by hindering perceived star newcomers (Boekhorst et al., 2022), future studies might include emotions as possible moderator variable explaining the overshadowing effect studied in the current paper. In the current study, followers were asked to determine "why" leaders fear others' competence and tend to preserve their acquired resources, as opposed to asking them whether or not the behavior occurred. A different approach could be to study leaders' behavior and then determine the antecedents of this overshadowed leadership effect. The perpetrator predation model by Cortina (2017) could be helpful to further understand the nomological network associated with these leaders' behavior.

In conclusion, despite the above-mentioned limitations, this study can help advance a new avenue in the field of unethical leadership (c.f., Babalola et al., 2022). Overshadowed leadership was measured through a multi-method approach, suggesting discriminant validity with humble and transformational leadership and predictive validity with in-role, extra-role, and turnover intention. Moreover, at the individual (and not at the supervisory) level, multilevel analysis suggested that workers' perceptions of their supervisor with an overshadowed leadership profile, were negatively associated with well-being. Additionally, this study provides an interesting line of research by linking a new leadership construct with the well-known rivalry and COR theories.

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**TABLE 1****Dominant conceptualization of different leadership approaches**

	Abusive Leadership	Destructive Leadership	Overshadow Leadership
Supervisors engage in the sustained display of hostile verbal and nonverbal behaviors		X	X
Systematic and repeated behavior by a leader, that violates the legitimate interest of the organization	X		X
Focus in a specific profile of employees	X	X	
Leadership behavior			
Leadership style			
Behaviors with underlying intentions			
Subjective evaluation from subordinates			

*Note:* √ - Inclusion criteria, X – Exclusion criteria

**TABLE 2**

**A summary of six studies to investigate Overshadowed Leadership**

Study	Sample	Data Analyses	Results
1	7 experts in the field	Item appropriateness and relevance	30-item questionnaire
2	255 participants	Exploratory Factor Analyses	10-item unidimensional questionnaire
3	100 Portuguese and 289 Brazilian	Exploratory and Confirmatory Factor Analyses	7-item unidimensional questionnaire
4	433 participants	Convergent and Discriminant validity using Confirmatory Factor Analyses	Convergent and Discriminant validity confirmed
5	370 participants	Inter-correlations between Overshadowed Leadership; OCB- I; Turnover Intention; In-role Performance/	Confirmation of H1: Overshadowed leadership is negatively and significantly correlated with a) in-role performance, and b) extra-role performance.; H2:

			Structural Equation Modelling	Overshadowed leadership is positively and significantly correlated with turnover intention.
6	Multilevel and predictive validity	1,185 participants	Multilevel Analyses	Confirmation of H3: At different levels of analysis, perceived overshadowed leadership will be differently associated with well-being.

**TABLE 3****Exploratory and confirmatory factorial analyses with samples from Portugal and Brazil**

	EFA		CFA		ICC1	ICC2
	PT	BR	PT	BR		
1. My direct supervisor picks on employees that stand out in the company because of their merit.	.88	.75	.93	.75	.05	.91
2. My direct supervisor selects employees that don't challenge him/her.	.79	.67	.77	.66	.01	.70
3. My direct supervisor gets scared with his/her employees' skills.	.79	.83	.81	.87	.06	.92
4. My direct supervisor doesn't share information which he/she considers to threaten his/her power in the organization with subordinates.	.74	.76	.73	.78	.05	.92
5. My direct supervisor appreciates his/her employees' skills.	-.72	-.63				
6. My direct supervisor prefers working with employees that he/she has a personal relation instead of the more competent ones.	.72	.67	.69	.64	.01	.69
7. My direct supervisor seems to be aware of his/her own weaknesses.	-.61	-.61				
KMO (Kaiser Meyer Olkin)	.86	.86				
% of Explained Variance	56.68	50.15				
Omegas			.89	.86		

*Note:* PT = Portugal, BR = Brazil

**TABLE 4****Structural invariance of leadership shadow across samples**

Model	$\chi^2$ (diff)	DF (diff)	CFI (delta)	TLI (delta)	RMSEA (delta)	SRMR (delta)
Configural Invariance	38.94	10	.97	.94	.122	.031
Configural loading - metric invariance	(9.24)	(4)	(.01)	(.01)	(.01)	(.02)
Configural intercept - scalar invariance	(3.91)	(4)	(.00)	(.01)	(.01)	(.00)
Configural means	(14.40)	(1)	(.02)	(.01)	(.02)	(.04)

**TABLE 5****Covariances, convergent and discriminant validity among constructs**

	CR	AVE	MSV	1	2	3	4	5	6
<i>Samples 1 and 2 (n = 218)</i>									
1. Humble Leadership	.91	.53	.82	.73					
2. Overshadowed Leadership	.83	.56	.37	-.58	.75				
3. Transformational Leadership	.94	.69	.82	.91	-.61	.83			
<i>Sample 3 (n = 161)</i>									
4. Overshadowed Leadership	.88	.60	.40				.78		
5. Ostracism	.92	.62	.17				.41	.79	
6. Intimidation	.94	.76	.40				.63	.29	.87

*Note:* CR= Composite Reliability, AVE = Average Variance Extracted; MSV = Maximum Shared Squared Variance.

**TABLE 6****Means, standard-deviations, and correlations among variables**

	M	SD	1	2	3
1. Overshadowed	2.62	.88			
Leadership					
2. OCB- I	5.47	.97	-.18*		
3. Turnover	2.67	1.31	.33**	-.43*	
Intention					
4. In-role	6.09	.86	-.23**	.53**	-.29**
Performance					

Note: \* $p < .05$ ; \*\* $p < .01$

**TABLE 7**

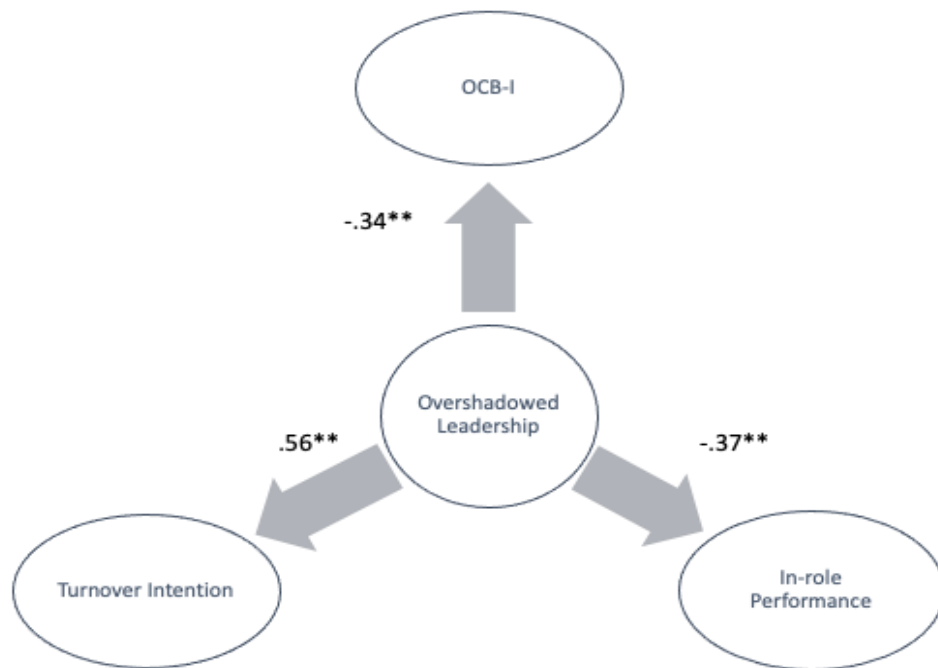
**Results of hierarchical linear model on the relationship between overshadowed leadership and well-being**

Variable	Null model			Model 1			Model 2		
	Estimate	SE	T	Estimate	SE	T	Estimate	SE	T
Intercept	3.46	.03	134.84***	3.89	.09	40.77***	3.89	.09	40.87***
Level 2				-.20	.04	-4.70***	-.04	.04	-.78 <sup>ns</sup>
Level 1							-.16	.02	-7.34***

*Note:* ICC1 = 0.04; ICC2 = 0.22; *r*WG mean = .86 (range from 0 to .99; median .77).

**FIGURE 1**

**Structural path estimates are the standardized parameter estimates**



*Note:* To simplify the presentation, the measurement model has been omitted, and the correlations among the exogenous variables are not shown.