

INTEGRATIVE CONCEPTUAL REVIEW

An Integrative Conceptual Review of Multiperspectival Frameworks in Personality Research and a Roadmap for Extended Applications in Organizational Psychology

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Multiperspectival frameworks, such as the social relations model, socioanalytic theory, the realistic accuracy model, the self–other knowledge asymmetry model, and the trait-reputation-identity model, have advanced understanding of personality over the last 40 years. Due to a resurgence of interest in multiperspectival research on personality and other constructs in organizational psychology, we conducted an integrative conceptual review of these specific multirater frameworks and their application in work settings. Our review identifies similarities and differences in these frameworks and suggests that they collectively represent an invaluable resource for personality researchers and the broader field of organizational psychology. Through our review, we distinguish multiperspectival frameworks from similar approaches (e.g., multirater designs), track the evolution of these frameworks, and leverage current applications of these frameworks to craft a future research agenda. Our review serves as a roadmap to help scholars apply multiperspectival logic more thoroughly and systematically in personality research and beyond. We close with a discussion of practical implications.

Keywords: multiperspectival, multirater, personality, judgment

Defining what constitutes a trait (R. Hogan, 1996) and soliciting accurate judgments of traits (Funder, 1995) are widely held goals in personality research, and efforts to accomplish these goals led to frameworks that help scholars measure and interpret single traits from different perspectives (Kenny, 1991). Collectively, these *multiperspectival frameworks* constitute a group of related models that apply monotrait, multirater designs to enhance accuracy in personality judgment (Funder, 1995; Kenny & La Voie, 1984), advance logic

about the observability of traits (Vazire, 2010), and explicate the conceptual meaning of variance in personality judgments across raters or groups of raters (McAbee & Connelly, 2016; R. Hogan, 1996).¹ These frameworks have evolved over the last 4 decades, and recent developments have sparked renewed interest in extending their application in personality research (Connelly et al., 2022; Holmes et al., 2021) and beyond (e.g., Blickle et al., 2018; Vergauwe et al., 2022). To support this renewed interest, we conducted an integrative review of multiperspectival frameworks and call for further application of these approaches in organizational psychology.

Multiperspectival frameworks, such as the social relations model (SRM; Kenny & La Voie, 1984), socioanalytic theory (R. Hogan, 1996), the realistic accuracy model (RAM; Funder, 1995), the self–other knowledge asymmetry model (Vazire, 2010), and the trait-reputation-identity (TRI) model (McAbee & Connelly, 2016), illustrate that novel insights can be obtained by (a) capturing psychological data from multiple raters with unique perspectives and (b) understanding why the raters' scores converge or diverge. Multiperspectival frameworks are a specific subset of multirater data collection approaches. Broadly speaking, multirater techniques that are not considered multiperspectival treat the variance across informants' perceptions (e.g., self vs. other, follower vs. leader) as sources of error (e.g., measurement error, method variance), which scholars often attempt to mitigate through aggregation techniques that emphasize shared variance. Conversely, multiperspectival

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¹ Our definition is meant to organize efforts both within personality and beyond. Thus, “personality” can be replaced by any variable relevant to scholars interested in applying a multiperspectival framework, granted that it can be studied across perspectives.

frameworks seek to bring the differences across raters to the forefront. Multiperspective frameworks position variance across sources as theoretically meaningful and perhaps indicative of different constructs (e.g., identity, reputation; R. Hogan & Blickle, 2013). Ultimately, these goals and the resulting methodological choices are intended to yield more accurate measures and richer theoretical interpretation of the underlying constructs.

We couch the core of this review in the multiperspective research on personality, but we believe this review can be a timely and premier resource for future multiperspective research on other constructs and theoretical domains. We begin with a conceptual introduction of multiperspective frameworks and establish what they are, what they are not, and what they have contributed to organizational psychology—particularly in personality research. We then provide a review that illustrates the theoretical bases and evolution of these frameworks, as well as their application and how they shape our understanding of personality, leading to the most recent developments and a summary of insights derived from newer models and approaches. We conclude with a cross-domain (i.e., organizational psychology, strategic management) commentary on trends and limitations, and we offer seven opportunities for future research.

This review provides three primary contributions to the literature. First, we provide the first integrative review of multiperspective frameworks applied to personality. Although there are reviews focused on multitrait personality research (e.g., Connelly & Ones, 2010), multiperspective frameworks are unique in their explicit focus on improving accuracy (Funder, 1995; Kenny & La Voie, 1984) and understanding the variance in personality judgments—either due to the trait being measured or factors related to the rater (McAbee & Connelly, 2016; Vazire, 2010). We consider the theoretical and methodological implications of the predominant multiperspective frameworks, and we organize these frameworks to move research forward. The second contribution, relatedly, is to discuss the evolution of multiperspective research to position these frameworks for further integration in organizational psychology. Contributions to the logic and evolution of multiperspective frameworks can be traced to several research topics. Thus, we begin with a broad lens to explore the origins and theory behind multiperspective frameworks and their application, focusing on personality research as an exemplar theoretical domain and topic area where multiperspective frameworks are being applied. Finally, we leverage extant work to craft a roadmap for future research—particularly in organizational settings. We present a decision tree to help future scholars decide when and which multiperspective frameworks are warranted. We further discuss current applications of multiperspective frameworks, areas where they could be applied, considering the challenges of using them, and close with a discussion of practical implications that need attention. In short, we dedicate substantial space to encourage expanded and more rigorous usage of multiperspective frameworks across the field of organizational psychology.

Multiperspective Frameworks in Personality Research: An Organizing Review

Although predominantly operationalized as an intrapsychic construct, theorists have long contended that personality is a multifaceted construct that can emerge from social interaction. Personality is not simply a taxonomy of attributes occupying introspective psychological space (cf. Allport, 1937; Katz & Kahn,

1966; Mead, 1913). For example, self-ratings of personality can exhibit well-known social desirability biases, individuals may hold false beliefs about their personalities (i.e., self-deception), and they sometimes display personality traits to others that do not represent their true selves (i.e., impression management; Holmes et al., 2021; Sackett et al., 2017). Extrapolating this point, fully understanding personality and its impact in the workplace requires broader conceptualization (and measurement). Extending the conventional monoperspective approaches to studying personality (e.g., self-report or other report), approaches integrating multiperspective logic have created a wave of progress in the personality domain.

To identify the key advances that multiperspective frameworks have brought to personality research and beyond, we begin our review by defining what constitutes a multiperspective approach and how this approach leverages multitrait designs for conceptual or theoretical reasons. We then shift to discuss the recent evolution of multiperspective frameworks, beginning with a broad lens and then narrowing the focus to five multiperspective frameworks in personality research. We acknowledge that several key developments in understanding the complex effects of psychological variables emerging from multiple perspectives can be traced to areas outside of personality research (e.g., multisource performance appraisals and educational assessment). However, due to concerns with article length and conceptual focus, we do not review these literatures in depth but instead refer readers to relevant sources when needed.

Scope and Methods: Multiperspective Frameworks in Personality Research

We conducted a systematic, multistage literature search to cast a net wide enough to capture research that has fallen outside the primary organizational psychology journals. Based on initial feedback from reviewers, we broadened our search to incorporate work published after a seminal piece by Kenny and La Voie (1984) on the SRM, the earliest iteration of modern multiperspective approaches we discuss in this review. In June 2023, we used Web of Science to search for articles from nearly 100 journals, as suggested by our review team. We searched the abstracts for key terms like *multi-perspective* and *multi-source*, *personality*, and specific personality traits (e.g., Big 5 and Dark Triad traits), and thirty forms of personality measurement (e.g., *self-report*, *other report*, *content analysis*, and *unobtrusive measures*).

Our initial search yielded over 3,300 articles. Following other recent reviews (e.g., Antons et al., 2019; Hannigan et al., 2019), we used machine learning to screen this large number of abstracts more efficiently. We could not rely on a simple keyword search exclusively because many combinations of abstract features were required to determine inclusion (e.g., many multitrait studies do not use multiperspective logic). Thus, we trained a random forest (RF) binary classification model to predict whether each abstract should be included, using 475 hand-coded abstracts to train the model and assess its accuracy (with an 80–20 train-test split). We identified the most common topics in our corpus of abstracts using bidirectional encoder representations from transformers topic modeling and used both topic probabilities and keyword indicators as features, giving us both general and more specific predictors to train the RF model. The final model had an accuracy of 88.4%. Because the model produced a ranked list of abstracts by predicted probability of inclusion, we could examine the most relevant articles and double-check those just below the threshold for inclusion.

Initially, 182 articles meeting an inclusion probability of 50% were separated from the others. We included articles that (a) studied one or more personality traits, (b) used monotrait multisource data, and (c) considered the theoretical meaning of data collected from different sources. The four authors examined these articles independently by hand to determine whether to include them. In addition, to ensure that the algorithm for inclusion probability was effective, one author reviewed lower probability articles and identified another 340 that were published in journals that Web of Science identifies as *Business* or *Management* outlets. Using the same inclusion criteria, the four authors examined these articles as well. Finally, two authors reviewed the coding to ensure consistent application of the inclusion criteria. The algorithm demonstrated particular effectiveness, as only 7% of the hand-sorted articles were retained. This left us with 64 articles to be reviewed and potentially included in the review. All these articles focus on work and organizations. However, we also discuss influential articles from related disciplines (e.g., general, clinical, or educational psychology) that provide additional insights into the justification and application of multiperspective frameworks. Further, the author team continued to scan the literature for newly published papers throughout the writing and revision process.

What Is (Not) Multiperspective? Five Recent Streams of Multiperspective Frameworks Research and Their Application to Workplace Personality Research

Early in the review process, it became clear that we needed to distinguish multiperspective frameworks from similar terminology commonly used in organizational psychology—particularly in personality research. For instance, multitrait and multisource, which have been used (often interchangeably) to describe data collection approaches, should be distinguished from multiperspective frameworks. Studies employing multitrait (or multisource) designs commonly seek to accomplish a select set of goals: (a) compare predictive validity of self-reports versus other reports (Connelly & Ones, 2010; Oh et al., 2011), (b) minimize error (McCrae & Mottus, 2019), and (c) seek consensus in measurement (Kenny et al., 1994). By collecting data from multiple raters, researchers can identify variance attributable to rater effects (Hoffman et al., 2010), reduce common method bias (Podsakoff et al., 2003), and enhance reliability by obtaining consensus and attributing remaining variance to error (Kenny, 1991). Most studies have used multitrait data for these psychometric and error-mitigating purposes. That is, most multitrait research either uses one measure to validate another, thereby assuming that one perspective represents the true score (e.g., Bourdage et al., 2020) or aggregates multiple measures into a single measure to reduce “error” and improve reliability (e.g., Hirschmüller et al., 2015).

However, multiperspective frameworks occupy a specific realm of the multitrait research space. As our definition above suggests, these frameworks can be applied to explain more complex theoretical questions about the structure and effects of constructs assessed from different vantage points (Connelly et al., 2022). Key questions include (a) the extent to which a psychological variable is observable from different perspectives (Vazire, 2010), (b) how to treat the unique variance between source and dimension effects (i.e., as error vs. meaningful; Hoffman & Woehr, 2009; Kenny, 1994), (c) the theoretical meaning of observed variance across raters, and (d) whether different measures of the same trait might represent different constructs entirely (e.g., identity vs. reputation vs. trait; R. Hogan,

1996; McAbee & Connelly, 2016). The critical methodological characteristic is the purposeful measurement of personality from different raters (Kenny & La Voie, 1984; McAbee & Connelly, 2016). Simply put, all studies employing a multiperspective framework employ a monotrait, multitrait design where data on a single trait are collected from multiple raters (e.g., round robin or triangulation techniques) that are purposefully chosen for their unique perspective relative to the target and trait. Failing to obtain personality measures from multiple raters that represent different perspectives prevents the full application of these frameworks. To further illustrate the distinction of multiperspective frameworks from the broader multitrait space, consider Figure 1.

Figure 1 is a simple extension of the Johari’s window, on which the self–other knowledge asymmetry and TRI models are largely founded. In this model, employees and supervisors are two potential sources of data (i.e., raters), producing four combinations of self-ratings and other ratings. The two “Xs” depict combinations that do not constitute a multiperspective approach. Each “X” condition fails to measure a single trait from multiple raters, which violates the monotrait, multitrait principle fundamental to multiperspective approaches (McAbee & Connelly, 2016). The other two combinations, marked with “√s,” constitute potential applications of multiperspective frameworks. We consider these potential applications because simply obtaining ratings on the same construct from different raters alone is not sufficient either. Indeed, researchers would need to collect and analyze the data with the intention of accomplishing one of the four goals described above. Relatedly, the practice of aggregating self-ratings and other ratings to create a single measure (e.g., Burns & Christiansen, 2011) is inconsistent with a multiperspective approach because the unique variance of the different raters is discarded, producing a single measure of the focal trait.

Consider scenarios beyond those depicted in Figure 1. If scholars were studying the accuracy of metaperceptions (i.e., how I think others see me) of conscientiousness, they could measure metaperceived conscientiousness (e.g., self-reported perception of others’ perception) and actual perceptions of knowledgeable others (e.g., supervisors, followers, or coworkers) through other reports (cf. Carlson, Vazire, & Furr, 2011). In another example, researchers might be interested in how identity-based and reputation-based construals of personality interact to influence performance ratings. In this case, employee-level self-reports of personality would be collected along with supervisor

Figure 1
Illustration of Combinations That Represent Potential Multiperspective Study

		Supervisor Ratings	
		Employee Humility	Supervisor Humility
Employee Ratings	Employee Humility	√	X
	Supervisor Humility	X	√

Note. Employee/supervisor ratings denote source of data. Inner labels (e.g., employee humility, supervisor humility) illustrate two frames of reference for measurement. Cross-table combinations reflect potential interactions between self-ratings and other ratings of either employee or supervisor humility. “√” indicates combinations appropriate for the application of multiperspective frameworks. “X” indicates combinations that fail to meet the criteria for multiperspective study.

Table 1*Summary Table of Multiperspectival Frameworks Applied in Personality Research*

Multiperspectival framework	Key cited work	Conceptual tenet	Methodological tenet
Social relations model (SRM)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Kenny and La Voie (1984) • Malloy and Kenny (1986)^a 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Personality (or any social psychological phenomenon) can be studied in dyadic relationships as disposition, situation, or interaction. • SRM simultaneously considers the actor, partner, and relationship effects of constructs (e.g., personality). 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Partitioning variance across actor, partner, and relationship. • Aggregation of measurement across time, behaviors, and informants.
Realistic accuracy model	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Funder (1995)^a • Funder (1999) • Letzring et al. (2006) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Shifts focus from error in personality judgments (other ratings, specifically) to accuracy. • Personality describes “real” attributes, and accuracy in personality judgment is a joint product of the characteristics and actions of a target and the judge’s observations and perspective. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Requires multifaceted, multitarget data collection to apply full model. • Data collection may include self-report, other report, and behavioral observations.
Socioanalytic theory	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • R. Hogan (1996)^a • R. Hogan and Blickle (2018) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Personality is a socially laden construct. To understand it fully, one must capture perspectives of the observer and the actor. • Distinguishes between identity (i.e., self-representation) and reputation. Personality both influences and is influenced by goals in social interaction (e.g., get along—get ahead). 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Understanding motives tied to personality requires measurement from target and observer. • Differences/similarity in judgment have meaningful implications for outcomes related to personality.
Self-other asymmetry model	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Vazire (2010)^a • Beer and Vazire (2017) • Solomon and Vazire (2016)^b 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Advances accuracy models by assessing asymmetry in accuracy. • Perspective matters for certain personality traits. Others are better equipped to produce an accurate judgment on some traits (evaluative), while self-reports are better on others (low observability). • For some traits, both self-judgments and other judgments are equally effective (extraversion). 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Choice of self-reported versus other-reported measurement should be made while considering the trait characteristics (e.g., identity, reputation, observability, and evaluativeness). • Moderators should be considered (e.g., familiarity).
Trait-reputation-identity model (TRI)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • McAbee and Connelly (2016)^a • Connelly et al. (2022) • Vergauwe et al. (2022)^b 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Personality consists of underlying traits, self-perceived identity, and other judgments—reputation. • Unique variance attributable to trait (covariance), identity (self-report), and reputation (other report) is meaningful. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Trait, identity, and reputation modeled as simultaneous formative (reflective) higher order factors contributing unique variance to criteria. • Analyses can use unique variance to theoretically explore effects of asymmetry rather than simply acknowledge it.

^a Indicates our recommended source for scholars interested in a given multiperspectival framework. ^b Indicates example extensions or new application of a given multiperspectival framework (e.g., [Vergauwe et al., 2022](#), apply the TRI framework to perceptions of leadership—leadership area-reputation-identity model).

ratings of that employee’s personality. Supervisor ratings of performance would then be regressed on those predictors and an interaction term. Thus, the application of monotrait, multitrait frameworks (i.e., multiperspectival) positions researchers to answer questions that other study designs could not.

In the next section, we discuss each five of the most common multiperspectival frameworks in more detail. [Table 1](#) provides a summary table of each framework, including its core tenets and key publications that outline its purpose and logic.

Multiperspectival Frameworks: Renewed Attention to Social Relationships in Personality Judgment

The motivations driving the development of the first frameworks discussed in this review mirrored work conducted in organizational psychology (e.g., assessment center (AC), performance appraisal; [Hoffman et al., 2012](#); [Woehr & Arthur, 2003](#)) and educational

psychology (e.g., self-fulfilling prophecy; [Jussim, 1989](#)) that sought to leverage multitrait data for consensus and enhanced perceptions of accuracy in judgment (e.g., [Gaugler & Thornton, 1989](#); [D. E. Smith, 1986](#)). This research largely focused on how to improve accuracy—commonly meaning reducing error—through a variety of means (e.g., training, increasing the number of raters). During this period, personality research, at large, was at a crossroads ([Sackett et al., 2017](#)), and emerging frameworks like the SRM ([Kenny & La Voie, 1984](#)) and socioanalytic theory ([R. Hogan, 1996](#); [R. Hogan et al., 1985](#)) were early indicators of a rejuvenated interest in advancing personality theory. These frameworks helped change the narrative by highlighting sociopsychological aspects of individual differences. Later, [Funder’s \(1995\)](#) RAM extended these frameworks by identifying more specific factors that shape accuracy in personality judgment. Below, we briefly review each of these frameworks, ultimately moving on to the most recent developments in the line of research.

SRM

Kenny and La Voie (1984) introduced the SRM to partition variance in personality judgments into components determined by the actor, the rater, and their relationship. From their perspective, doing so was a necessary first step in explaining what mechanisms were creating the variance in the first place. Essentially, the SRM explains how perceptions and behaviors in dyads form through the confluence of actor, partner, and relationship effects (Kenny, 1994). The SRM brought the dynamic nature of social relationships to the forefront, challenging the status quo of studying personality from a single perspective. Though the idea was not novel, the SRM was innovative because it focused attention on dyads, highlighted interdependencies among raters, and offered a feasible method for examining these phenomena (e.g., round-robin design, Kenny & La Voie, 1984). In essence, SRM researchers championed techniques to capture variance in social phenomena attributed to a focal individual (i.e., target effect), a second person engaged with that individual in a dyadic relationship (i.e., perceiver effect), and aspects of the relationship itself (i.e., relationship effect; Back & Kenny, 2010). In this way, the SRM provided an early framework for understanding the theoretical implications of studying personality from different perspectives.

The SRM has since been applied in a variety of settings (Back & Kenny, 2010). Specific to organizational psychology, de Vries (2010) illustrated the insights that SRM can offer in work settings. He argued that individuals low in honesty–humility are less likely to reveal this trait to others. Consistent with this argument, de Vries found little self–other agreement on this trait. Further, he argued that the difficulty of observing this trait might lead individuals to use their own (i.e., self-perceived) honesty–humility as a guide when rating the honesty–humility of others (Ashton & Lee, 2005). In support, de Vries found that a person’s self-ratings on this trait were positively correlated with (a) that person’s ratings of others and (b) others’ ratings of that person. This study suggests that individuals’ self-views affect their views of others and that individuals may project their self-views onto others. Research using SRM in nonwork settings has provided similarly nuanced insights about other personality traits, such as agreeableness (Graziano & Tobin, 2002) and neuroticism (Brunson et al., 2016). Likewise, SRM researchers have found evidence that the nature of interpersonal interactions (e.g., face-to-face vs. virtual) might affect the convergence or divergence of personality ratings across raters (Markey & Wells, 2002).

Socioanalytic Theory

Emerging around the same time, socioanalytic theory (R. Hogan et al., 1985) also brought the “socially constructed” aspects of individual attributes—namely personality—to the forefront. Offered as a broad theory of personality, socioanalytic theory bridged traditional personality theory, with its evolutionary and intrapsychic focus, with insights from social psychology. The theory promoted one of the first formal intimations of personality as both an internal and an external concept.

The key elements of socioanalytic theory are identity and reputation. Identity refers to how a person wants to be seen by others. Reputation refers to how other people perceive and evaluate that person. (R. Hogan & Blicke, 2013, p. 61)

As denoted in this excerpt, socioanalytic theory suggests that personality serves a social purpose and that measures of personality reflect the intricacies of self-presentation and social status (e.g., the desire to get along or get ahead). The implication was critical for personality measurement, which to this point largely had depended on self-reports, and the more novel study of personality judgment. Socioanalytic theory posits that personality self-reports and other reports measure strategically contrived self-presentations (i.e., how I want others to perceive me or how I want to be) and others’ perceptions of these self-presentations (i.e., how others perceive me), respectively. Thus, socioanalytic theory (like the SRM) not only challenges the notion that psychological variables like personality should be studied solely as intrapsychic concepts but also pushes for multiperspective methodology to capture the unique variance attributable to others’ viewpoints and to aspects of the relationship (J. Hogan & Holland, 2003).

Socioanalytic theory expanded understanding of workplace outcomes by encouraging multirater measures of personality. Its application in research suggests that other ratings (i.e., reputation) of personality can explain job performance (Mount et al., 1994; Oh et al., 2011; Small & Diefendorff, 2006), leadership (Colbert et al., 2012), and workplace deviance (Klumper et al., 2015) beyond self-ratings (i.e., identity) alone. Extending this work, scholars also have examined identity–reputation convergence. For instance, McLarty et al. (2022) used polynomial regression with response surface modeling to examine how combinations of Dark Triad (i.e., Machiavellianism, narcissism, psychopathy) identities and reputations impact organizational citizenship behaviors (OCBs). They found that higher Dark Triad scores on both self-reports and other reports were related to lower supervisor-rated OCBs, relative to employees who scored either low on both reports or high on one but low on the other. Bernerth et al. (2022) similarly investigated leader narcissism, again conceptualized as identity or reputation. They found that group collective effort and performance were lowest when leaders’ reputational narcissism (i.e., follower ratings) exceeded their identity-based narcissism (i.e., self-ratings). Together, this research illustrates the added value of capturing personality judgments from multiple raters. It also suggests that the judgments of different raters might capture different constructs that, in turn, affect workplace outcomes in different ways.

RAM

Like the SRM and socioanalytic theory, Funder’s (1995) RAM sought to bridge the traditional focus on trait personality with the social psychological goal of studying factors that impact judgment of personality. Chiefly, the RAM focused on how personality judgments formed and how to achieve accuracy based on three indicators: self–other agreement, other–other agreement, and behavioral prediction (Funder, 2012). The RAM also complemented earlier multiperspective frameworks by explicating a process to reduce error and produce more accurate personality judgments. To this end, the RAM espoused a formulaic expression of accuracy based on the interaction of four conditions: the (a) relevance of behavioral cues, (b) extent to which such cues are observable, (c) extent to which they are detectable, and (d) different ways they are utilized (see Funder, 1995).

The RAM was closely related to work in organizational psychology that focused on improving the accuracy—and ultimately the validity—of organizational tools based on subjective judgments (e.g., performance evaluation, selection suitability). For instance, research on interviews and job performance demonstrates insights that the RAM can reveal about workplace phenomena. [Barrick et al. \(2000\)](#) found lower correlations between self-ratings and interviewer ratings of job applicants' conscientiousness and emotional stability, two traits demonstrated to be important to job performance ([Barrick & Mount, 1991](#)), suggesting that applicants might manage their presentations of these (and perhaps other) traits in interviews (see also [Castro & Gramzow, 2015](#); [Van Iddekinge et al., 2005](#)). Similarly, [Blackman \(2002\)](#) found that telephone interviews produced lower self-interviewer and peer-interviewer agreement on the Big 5 than face-to-face interviews did, presumably because the latter provide more opportunities to observe, detect, and utilize nonverbal behavioral cues. In addition, across three meta-analyses, [Connelly and Ones \(2010\)](#) found that other reports on the Big 5 predict job performance more accurately than self-reports do. They also found that closer relationships with targets help raters score hard-to-observe traits like emotional stability. In this regard, [Powell and Bourdage \(2016\)](#) examined the efficacy of training raters on [Funder's \(1995\)](#) four conditions, finding that training on the fourth condition was most important and that training efficacy varied across traits. Extending Funder's model, they also found that raters higher in dispositional intelligence (i.e., "knowledge about personality and how it is revealed in behavior," p. 195) were more accurate at judging the Big 5 as a whole and that raters higher in emotionality (i.e., "sentimentality and sensitivity," p. 195) were more accurate at judging the individual traits.

Despite the evidence that different sources can reveal different information about the nature and effects of personality constructs, much of the research using the above frameworks (especially in nonwork settings) emphasized consensus and accuracy of personality judgments. Often, agreement has been equated with accuracy. However, the next two multiperspective frameworks to emerge focus more explicitly on asymmetry and divergence and, thus, shed additional light on the conceptual meanings of lack of agreement.

Self-Other Knowledge Asymmetry

Drawing on the insights of earlier frameworks, two new frameworks have emerged in the last 15 years. Multiperspective research in organizational psychology accelerated during this period as the new frameworks focused renewed attention on the theoretical meanings of differences in personality judgments across raters. [Vazire \(2010\)](#) introduced the self-other knowledge asymmetry (SOKA) model to explain why personality judgments often differ across raters. Using the Johari window ([Luft & Ingham, 1955](#)) to illustrate the potential for knowledge asymmetry, the SOKA model provided several key advances to the study of personality judgment asymmetry. First, although earlier frameworks acknowledged that self-reports and other reports of personality could differ, the SOKA model narrowed this discussion by explaining how "informational and motivational constraints" ([Vazire, 2010](#), p. 384) shape key aspects of [Funder's \(1995\)](#) self-perceptual versus other perceptual processes. Such constraints help to explain why differences in perception occur. Individuals might have blind spots when they rate others because differences in perspective alter the information

available. And differences in motivation can distort individuals' own self-perceptions, their diligence in detecting behavioral cues from others, and their interpretation of that information. As such, the SOKA model suggests that "a complete picture of what a person is like requires both the person's own perspective and the perspective of others" ([Vazire & Carlson, 2011](#), p. 104). Second, as implied in the SRM ([Kenney, 1994](#)), the various types of relationships individuals have with knowledgeable others (e.g., zero acquaintance vs. coworker) shape the degree of asymmetry across raters. Effectively, sometimes we are better positioned to know things about ourselves—sometimes we are not. Furthermore, some raters are better positioned and motivated to know and use certain information than others. Thus, a common goal in SOKA applications has been to determine "who knows what about a person" ([Vazire, 2010](#), p. 281).

Differences in perspective and motivation are critical to personality research—particularly when considering work-related outcomes ([N. Li et al., 2014](#)). Perspective affects informational constraints and depends on a rater's relationship to the target of judgment, status relative to the target, and other factors. Motivation depends on factors that shape individuals' desires to see themselves and others more critically, favorably, or accurately ([Vazire, 2010](#)). Each factor impacts judgments of the self and others. For example, arguing that self-reported entitlement (as a facet of narcissism) is more relevant to predicting self-reported attitudes, which are a matter of personal perspective, [Miller and Gallagher \(2016\)](#) found that self-reported entitlement related negatively to self-reported job satisfaction. Conversely, supervisor-reported entitlement related negatively to supervisor-reported measures of subordinates' helping behaviors (but self-reported entitlement did not). Similarly, arguing that individuals are motivated to conceal information about less desirable traits in self-reports, [Fehn and Schütz \(2021\)](#) found that follower reports of leaders' narcissistic rivalry and admiration were better predictors of followers' work experiences, such as perceived supervisor support. Further underscoring the importance of knowledge asymmetry, [Heimann et al. \(2022\)](#) argued that openness and agreeableness are more observable than conscientiousness on certain AC tasks that have limited duration. In turn, they found that AC-based ratings on openness and agreeableness explained variance in supervisor-rated job performance beyond the variance explained by self-ratings and other ratings, but AC ratings did not explain additional variance over self-rated conscientiousness.

Beyond organizational psychology, SOKA has been applied in research investigating which aspects of traits are more observable in behavior ([Beer & Vazire, 2017](#)), the concepts of meta-insight (i.e., how I think others see me; [Carlson, Vazire, & Furr, 2011](#)), identity accuracy ([Solomon & Vazire, 2016](#)), and better-than-average effects (i.e., individuals' tendencies to overestimate desirable personality traits and abilities in self-report compared with other ratings; [Zell et al., 2020](#)). Collectively, the work both within organizational psychology and beyond demonstrates the potential value of identifying who knows what about a person.

TRI

The TRI model, the latest multiperspective framework to emerge in the literature, delves further into asymmetries among self-ratings and other ratings ([McAbee & Connelly, 2016](#)). Building on the SOKA model, socioanalytic theory, and the push and pull of accuracy versus error as a focus of personality research and theory,

the authors championed the personality trait as a reflexive latent construct comprising first-order indicators that, in turn, create the formative lower order constructs of identity and reputation. Specifically, the TRI model suggests that convergence of self-ratings and other ratings may indicate the presence of a first-order trait, self-knowledge that is not shared by others may indicate identity, and others' knowledge that is unknown to the self may indicate reputation. The TRI model advocates separating the unique variance in personality ratings across these three conceptual arcs of personality. Earlier multiperspective frameworks had intimated the unique effects of identity-based and reputation-based measures through study design or formulaic expression. However, the TRI model integrates such insights to define and measure traits, identity, and reputation more rigorously.

For example, Connelly et al. (2022) conceptualized (a) identity as unique variance in self-reports not shared by other raters and (b) reputation as unique variance in other reports not shared by self-reports. They found that reputation measures of agreeableness and conscientiousness were strong predictors of job performance and two indicators of OCBs, whereas the identity variables generally were not. They concluded that the underlying affective or cognitive patterns associated with various personality dimensions can shape individuals' work-related behaviors even when the individuals do not perceive (or report) these underlying patterns in themselves. Moreover, illustrating the TRI's value as a methodological tool, Lämmle et al. (2021) found that reputations may exhibit dark halo effects in which raters use similar information to score others on related but distinct personality traits, such as Machiavellianism and psychopathy. Such halo effects were less pronounced in self-ratings. Similarly, examining the Big 5, Beer and Watson (2008) found that such halo effects have more pronounced impacts on ratings of others than on ratings of the self.

Further, echoing a call we make later in the review, early evidence suggests that the TRI (and other frameworks) are applicable to constructs other than personality, including political will (Blickle et al., 2018) and leadership (Vergauwe et al., 2022). Ultimately, the SOKA and TRI models helped reinvigorate multiperspective research—particularly in organizational contexts—both by providing new frameworks to study personality and by focusing renewed attention on older frameworks like the SRM, socioanalytic theory, and the RAM.

Current Applications, Existing Limitations, and Future Research Directions

As applications of multiperspective frameworks increase, it is important to note both limitations and opportunities for expanded applications. We begin by revisiting a long-held discussion in personality research—when to use self-measures or other measures of personality or both.

To Go Multiperspective (or Not)

There are many opportunities to not only expand the use of multiperspective frameworks but also to take more complete advantage of the corresponding methodological and analytical benefits (Connelly et al., 2022). Thus, to motivate scholars to consider multiperspective frameworks when designing research studies, we offer our first research direction.

Future Research Direction 1: Leverage the logic of multiperspective frameworks to determine when their application is necessary and preferred over other approaches (e.g., single source; multirater, multitrait).

A central tenet of multiperspective frameworks is the utility of capturing self-ratings and other ratings simultaneously, whether the goal is to leverage multiple raters for accuracy or to understand convergence/divergence. However, as previously discussed, simply acquiring multirater data does not constitute application of multiperspective logic. Thus, the first determination to be made is whether multiperspective frameworks are applicable and, if applicable, which frameworks help explain the phenomena being studied. Figure 2 lays out a decision tree to help scholars determine (a) whether their research question can be answered through a multiperspective lens and (b) which framework to use.

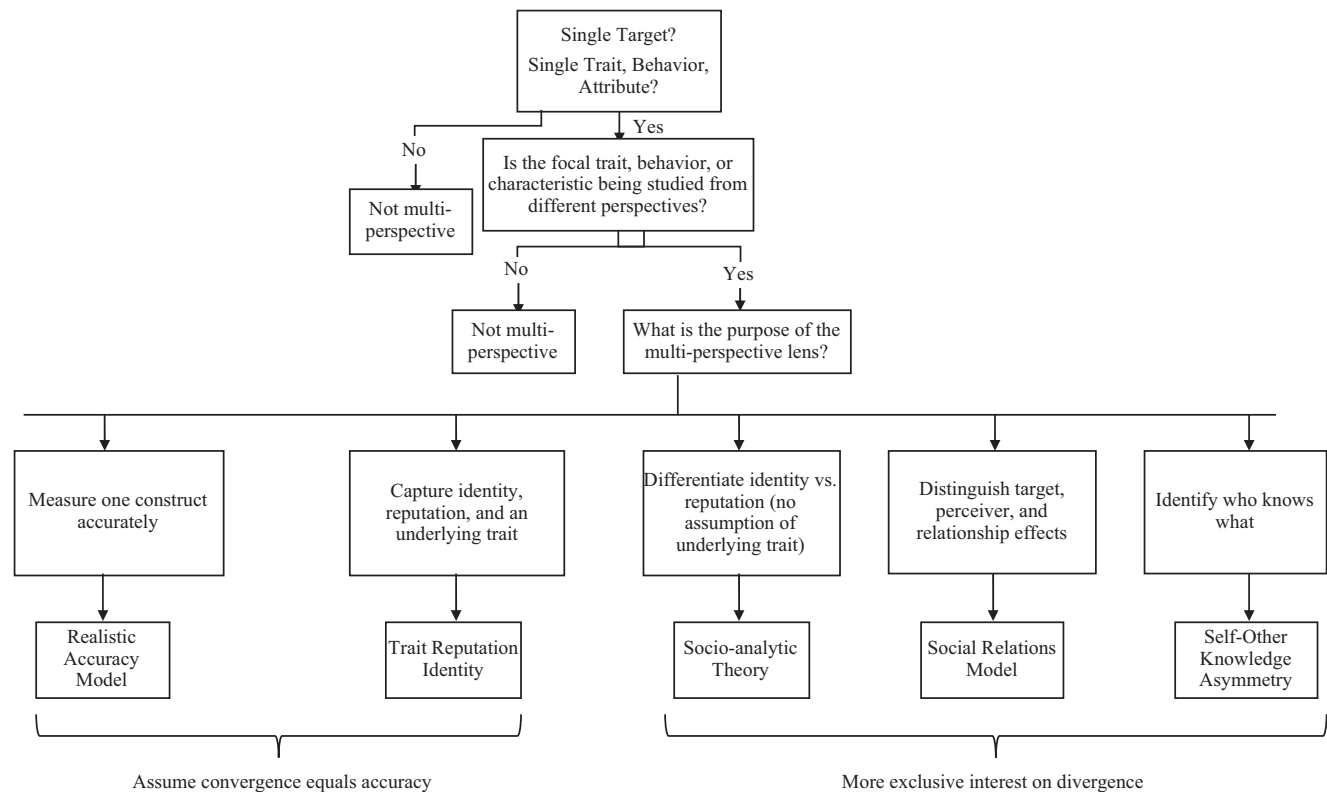
We provide this decision tree to assist in determining when and why the different multiperspective frameworks might be appropriate. For instance, scholars might be interested in adding nuance to previously supported findings. Take, for example, prior research showing that leader humility relates positively to subordinate trust (Morris et al., 2005). A multiperspective approach could provide additional nuance and richer insights into this relationship. In a monotrait, multirater scenario, research questions might examine the convergence or divergence of self-reported and employee-reported leader humility. If employees view their leaders as less humble than the leaders view themselves, subordinate trust might be less likely to emerge. In fact, this situation might undermine leader–follower relationship quality. Simply generalizing earlier findings without assessing accuracy and considering the different perceptions of humility could lead to oversimplified assertions or misguided beliefs that influence theory and practice.

Although we contend that extant literature has missed several opportunities to apply multiperspective frameworks, we acknowledge that not all research questions require multirater (or even monotrait) examination. Nonetheless, researchers who collect data from multiple raters to alleviate common method bias (Podsakoff et al., 2003) or to analyze a broader set of sources should at least consider if multiperspective frameworks could be leveraged to add nuance to both the methodological rigor of their studies and perhaps deepen their conceptual contributions.

Leverage Perspective-Based Conceptualizations of Personality

Researchers often have employed multirater designs without addressing the possibility that changing the data source could capture different aspects of a construct or perhaps change the construct that is measured. This issue is evident in socioanalytic theory's and the TRI's distinctions between identity and reputation (R. Hogan & Blickle, 2013; McAbee & Connelly, 2016). Ultimately, multiperspective approaches enable new ways of theorizing about single concepts measured from different perspectives. Namely, different measurement techniques might tap into unique conceptual spaces because different information is detected by different sources (Vazire, 2010). Thus, our second future research direction calls for richer theory and conceptualization of variables that are studied through a multiperspective lens.

Figure 2
Decision Tree to Determine Appropriateness of Multiperspective Frameworks



Future Research Direction 2: Clarify the conceptual ambiguity resulting from prior applications of multirater methodology through two pathways: (a) define judgment-based constructs that are unique when measured from different perspectives, and (b) further explicate why agreement/divergence occurs across rating sources.

Currently, there are inconsistencies in the labeling of personality constructs that are measured in different ways (e.g., trait, identity, reputation, metaperception). Multiperspective frameworks offer both methodological and theoretical tools to clarify these inconsistencies. Likewise, scholars continue to debate the meaning of personality as well as its intrapsychic (e.g., Konstabel, 2019) and sociorelational (e.g., Costello & Srivastava, 2021; Tett & Burnett, 2003) conceptualizations. The basic tenets of multiperspective frameworks add to this debate by defining personality based on the viewpoints of different audiences.

For example, socioanalytic theory defines personality as a stable core that affects what individuals do, how they think, and how they react to external stimuli (R. Hogan, 1996). It also suggests that personality can be treated as externally construed patterns of observed behavior derived from others' assessments (R. Hogan et al., 1985). Thus, personality can be defined in terms of one's self-construal on trait-related characteristics (i.e., identity) and in terms of observed patterns in social interaction (i.e., reputation). These definitions are further embedded in the TRI model's latent factor structure of traits, which comprised identity and reputation subfacets (McAbee & Connelly, 2016). Similarly, the SRM suggests that

personality can be decomposed into a person's view of the self, a person's view of others, others' views of the self, and perhaps the self's views of others' views (i.e., metaperception; Kenny, 1994; Reno & Kenny, 1992). Applying similar logic, Bing et al. (2007) argued that self-ratings capture explicit cognition that individuals are conscious of and aware of (not implicit cognition, which is more subconscious). Relatedly, Den Hartog and Belschak (2012) argued that others see qualities in individuals that they do not see in themselves or consciously display to others.

The TRI further argues that the shared variance between measures of identity and reputation is indicative of higher order conceptualizations of a focal trait (McAbee & Connelly, 2016). This view differs from prior research that has at times used self-other comparisons or combinations to form constructs (e.g., self-awareness; Atwater & Yammarino, 1992; Fletcher & Baldry, 2000). The labeling of the underlying construct clearly is important to theoretical explanations and the interpretation of empirical results. Indeed, Connelly et al. (2022) found that the trait factor, which represented the convergence of self-ratings and other ratings and most closely aligned with the overarching conceptualization of personality, was less informative than identity and reputation in predicting job performance, OCBs, and even academic performance.

Additionally, multiperspective frameworks offer theoretical reasons for why self-reported personality traits and other-reported traits vary in the first place, which is important to understand for two reasons. First, if the divergence across perspectives is truly meaningful, it is likely that some sources have information about traits that others do not. SOKA applications, for instance, illuminate

which traits are more detectable by which perspectives (Vazire, 2010). For example, extraversion often exhibits greater self–other agreement in the workplace because its behavioral cues (e.g., sociableness and gregariousness) are more detectable in passing conversations. Conversely, neuroticism tends to elicit less agreement because its behavioral cues (e.g., depression and anxiety) frequently are less detectable (Barrick et al., 2000; Oh et al., 2011). Moreover, friends who have richer information to judge neuroticism and other hidden traits might exhibit bias because they often are more motivated to view or score their friends favorably on certain traits (Körner & Schütz, 2023). Likewise, some individual differences might shape self–other agreement on other traits. Although narcissists might be motivated to conceal information that would reveal their narcissism to others, Grijalva and Zhang (2016) meta-analysis shows that narcissists' self-reported scores on socially desirable traits like conscientiousness are positively biased relative to other reports on these same traits. Relatedly, Carlson, Vazire, and Oltmanns (2011) reported that narcissists are aware that their coworkers may view them less positively than they view themselves. Such asymmetries in information can lead to variance in personality judgments not only across self-ratings and other ratings but also across sources who know an individual in different contexts (Carlson & Furr, 2009; e.g., friends vs. coworkers).

Thus, the second reason to understand why ratings differ is that variance in judgments of personality (or any other attribute, ability, or behavior) across raters could be attributable to contextual factors (e.g., relationship, frame of reference [FOR]). In other words, a set of factors that have little to do with construct validity could influence observed (dis)similarity in ratings. Multiperspective frameworks can inform these discussions as well. For instance, the RAM and SOKA models suggest that different observers not only have access to different information but also have different motivations that influence how they use that information (Vazire & Carlson, 2010). Further, Funder's (1995) RAM formula suggests that judgments reflect the behavioral cues that are detected and perceived to be relevant and that they are evaluated within the wider context. As a result, some trait-based cues are more salient to certain sources in certain contexts. Similarly, applications of the SRM assume such differences are predominantly due to perceiver and relationship effects (Kenny & La Voie, 1984).² Consistent with these arguments, recent research has identified the effects of information asymmetry on the judgment process. For instance, Heimann et al. (2022) found that AC ratings were better suited to measure more observable personality traits (e.g., extraversion), and conventional self-report personality inventories were better at capturing internal traits that are difficult to detect in brief interactions (i.e., conscientiousness). Along these lines, Hoffman et al. (2015) identified different types of AC exercises that are more likely to reveal some traits than others.

Multiperspective research also suggests that two raters with different FORs might see the same behavioral cues through different value-based or contextual lenses (Funder, 2006). Extant discussions of FOR personality measures mostly focus on reducing error, often at the item-level of measures (e.g., Hunthausen et al., 2003; Lievens et al., 2008; Pathki et al., 2022), reducing biases in job analysis or selection (Aguinis et al., 2009), or enriching predictive power for future research (Bing et al., 2004). Integrating FOR with multiperspective research may allow scholars to parse the unique variance in judgment directly attributable to a judge's motives or values, their organizational position or status, or the contexts in

which they form judgments. For example, consider research about the impacts of personality on outcomes that cut across the work and family domains. Scholars could examine such questions with contextualized measures of personality at work for coworkers versus a familial frame for partners. Assuming the partners are not also employees, they possess a different FOR when judging the target's personality. Integrating FOR scales could help to maximize consistency and distinguish different raters' views of personality-related tendencies based on the context of their interactions with a focal individual. Such approaches could advance the literatures on work–life balance, conservation of resources, and related topics.

Integrating Multiperspective Frameworks With Personality Change Research

To date, multiperspective research is largely static, cross-sectional, and focused on individual-level effects. However, we see the potential for these approaches to advance understanding of intraindividual variability in personality across situations and over time. Although personality generally has been viewed as a stable characteristic, research on mean-level change (e.g., Roberts et al., 2006; Tasselli et al., 2018), personality strength (e.g., Dalal et al., 2015; Green et al., 2019), and context (e.g., Judge & Zapata, 2015; Tett & Burnett, 2003) has demonstrated variability in personality. Recent evidence also suggests that short- and long-term interventions might change personality (Tasselli et al., 2018). For example, Li et al. (2021) took a dynamic role-based perspective and found that conscientiousness increased during transitions from the role of employee to leader. Further, drawing on the Cybernetic Big Five Theory, Wu et al. (2020) analyzed 9 years of longitudinal data and showed that chronic job insecurity was associated with a small increase in neuroticism yet a small decrease in agreeableness and conscientiousness. Given this research, we believe that multiperspective frameworks could offer novel approaches for studying personality change from the viewpoints of different observers. Therefore, our next future research direction calls for applications of multiperspective frameworks in longitudinal research on personality stability and change.

Future Research Direction 3: Application of multiperspective frameworks in the study of personality change and stability.

Most research on personality change uses self-report personality ratings—with recent efforts using informant ratings for comparison (see Costa et al., 2019). We encourage additional integration of multiperspective frameworks in this literature. The few multiperspective applications thus far focus on variations in state-based expressions of personality across situations. Using experience sampling, for example, Abrahams et al. (2023) found that within-person variability in self-reported states related positively to self-reported job performance for most Big 5 variables, suggesting that employees believe that expressing different personality states is helpful. Lievens et al. (2018) found a similar result using situational judgment tests to measure personality traits. Along these lines, Abrahams et al. (2021) examined self-reports and other reports of

² Evidence does exist challenging the assertion that observer variance of a target is predominantly due to perceiver and relationship effects (cf. de Vries, 2010).

state expression across situations. They concluded that because personality traits are difficult to change in the short term, interventions should try to modify individuals' interpretations of situations to elicit more favorable state expressions. Because judgments of personality change could vary both across raters and within the same raters over time, multiperspective frameworks could inform the literature on personality change by highlighting mechanisms that are likely to influence personality changes and how such changes are viewed by different observers. SOKA, for instance, implies that certain traits are better observed statically and over time by certain informants (Vazire & Carlson, 2011).

Accordingly, we identify three areas for future research. First, future research on personality change should consider the optimal source of the other informant (e.g., supervisor, coworker, or subordinate). This view is consistent with our second direction for future research, but requires further theorizing about time. For example, it may take supervisors—as opposed to coworkers—longer to gather information about personality changes in employees if supervisors interact less with the employees or when employees are more motivated to project a certain image to supervisors. If a trait observability varies across raters, we can assume that perceptions of change will likely vary as well. A researcher who wishes to observe others' perceptions about a newcomer's state agreeableness change in daily teamwork may be better served by measuring the perceptions of coworkers. Importantly, a priori descriptions of the unique information learned from each informant over time should be explained (i.e., what cues are unique raters expected to detect).

Second, multiperspective frameworks could help clarify the rate, frequency, and form of personality stability and change. For example, Kenny's (1991) weighted average model predicted that impressions of openness to experience fluctuated vastly across situations, whereas impressions of extraversion were most stable. Moreover, research suggests that narcissists are initially considered popular, but they make fewer friends over time, which suggests that others' views of narcissists could change from context to context or that persistent patterns of behavior displayed by narcissists become less attractive to observers over time (Czarna et al., 2016; Nevicka et al., 2018). In this regard, justifying a particular time interval to capture events (e.g., daily, weekly, or monthly) could improve personality science. Too often, researchers make decisions owing to data availability without offering clear explanations, hindering knowledge accumulation by making it more difficult to compare findings using different designs (Costa et al., 2019). Moreover, we need to understand the trajectories through which personalities change, including linear, curvilinear (Beal & Weiss, 2003), or more complex patterns (McClean et al., 2019). Different traits may change in different ways, and informants may vary in their abilities to detect these changes as individuals age and mature (Rohrer et al., 2018).

Last, and related to a more contextual study of personality, others' ratings of a target's personality may vary across situations when the person perceives or presents themselves differently across situations (R. Hogan, 1996). With few exceptions, studies applying multiperspective frameworks have found that consistency of self-other agreement over time depends on the targets, traits, contexts, and perceivers investigated. For example, Hirschmüller et al. (2015) found that unacquainted perceivers (i.e., zero acquaintance) agreed with targets' self-rated neuroticism but only when the situation was highly relevant to that trait—akin to arguments made in trait

activation theory (Tett & Burnett, 2003). Borkenau et al. (2004) found that the validity of video-based ratings of openness to experience increased with the inclusion of additional videotaped behavior episodes, but only up to a point beyond which the videos provided marginally less novel and useful information. Because few studies using multiperspective frameworks incorporate time explicitly, our understanding of how, when, and why different ratings converge or diverge remains incomplete. Integrating longitudinal designs into multiperspective research could advance understanding of fluctuations in personality judgments across contexts (e.g., FOR or tenure of relationships).

Moving Beyond the Big 5: Multiperspective Frameworks and Other Traits

As discussed earlier, multiperspective frameworks can be applied to study any target variable that is used to form judgments (Kenny & La Voie, 1984). Thus, we call for more research broadening multiperspective research to traits and individual differences outside of the predominant models of personality (e.g., Big 5), and research applying these frameworks in ways that challenge conventional, mostly linear, relationships found in earlier research.

Future Research Direction 4: Expand application of multiperspective frameworks to uncover new insights on the mechanisms connecting personality judgments and other individual differences to important workplace outcomes.

For instance, recent multiperspective work has shed new light on a variety of traits (e.g., honesty-humility, narcissism) with critical implications in the workplace. Individuals can be unaware that they exhibit certain traits, be more lenient when scoring themselves on some traits, or seek to manipulate the impressions of others (Bing et al., 2011; Shaw & Choi, 2022). As we have discussed, the RAM and SOKA models contend that the observability and detectability of traits influence others' judgments about them. Socioanalytic theory and the TRI model further explain that inner-held beliefs and outward expressions of those beliefs are driven by sociointeractional motives (R. Hogan, 1996). For example, Shaffer et al. (2015) found that higher self-monitoring weakened self-other agreement for agreeableness, but lower self-monitoring weakened such agreement for conscientiousness. They also found that the indirect effect of self-rated agreeableness on OCBs through other-related agreeableness (conscientiousness) was weaker for those higher (lower) in self-monitoring. Interestingly, this pattern suggests that agreeableness and self-monitoring might work together to help people create favorable impressions, but a lack of conscientiousness might undermine attempts to self-monitor.

Thielmann et al. (2017) found that honesty-humility, when measured through self-reports and informant ratings, had different effects on the level of dishonesty observed in games. Applying the SOKA model, the authors contended that dishonesty is hidden from others (by definition), meaning that individuals who are dishonest are better able to conceal their honesty-humility scores from others, undermining the validity of other-report scores. Conversely, Thielmann, Hilbig, et al. (2023) found that self-reported honesty-humility related negatively to dishonest behavior, regardless of whether lying would benefit themselves or someone who is needy. Probing self-ratings and other ratings on honesty-humility further,

Thielmann, Rau, et al. (2023) used SRM and RAM logic to show that individuals use their own self-perceptions as a cue when rating difficult-to-observe, value-laden traits like honesty–humility in others, and this effect holds when correcting for the general tendency of raters to score others positively or negatively. Here, the authors leveraged multiperspective logic to give meaning to variance that is often attributed to social desirability biases or the disposition to view others (un-)favorably.

Another potential application of multiperspective frameworks involves determining how socially undesirable traits differ in their manifestations and impacts. Indeed, whereas some scholars have argued that social desirability creates bias and raises concerns about faking, others believe that these concerns are overstated (e.g., König et al., 2015; Ones et al., 1996). Using other ratings in lieu of self-reports might not remove faking if it exists because observers might have motives to fake their ratings on certain traits and in certain contexts too (König et al., 2017). However, using both and applying multiperspective analysis for accuracy or determining sources of discrepancy (i.e., attributing meaning to the variance) could advance our understanding of what drives faking behavior (e.g., lack of self-awareness, deviant motives, other personality traits) and possibly advance practice (more on this later).

Researchers have argued that the three Dark Triad traits—narcissism, Machiavellianism, and (subclinical) psychopathy—are difficult for others to detect because these traits evoke behavioral tendencies such as deception and manipulation (O’Boyle et al., 2012). However, applying the TRI model, Lämmle et al. (2021) found that narcissism was easiest to detect, perhaps because displays of grandiosity, self-focus, and other facets of narcissism can be seen more easily by others over time and across situations. Multiperspective research might challenge other long-standing assumptions about these traits as well. For example, prior research suggests that the Dark Triad share a common core characterized by callousness and a lack of empathy (Jones & Figueredo, 2013). Bagozzi et al. (2013) used magnetic resonance imaging scans to assess this assumption empirically. They found that self-reported Machiavellians showed more (not less) activity in areas of the brain that process others’ emotions, suggesting that Machiavellians might be more (not less) empathetic. Manipulation is a common behavioral cue of Machiavellianism, and the authors speculated that empathy helps individuals manipulate others more effectively.

Last, multirater approaches can provide new insights into nonlinear effects of personalities. Recent research has evoked too-much-of-a-good-thing or just-enough-of-a-bad-thing logic (e.g., M. B. Smith et al., 2018) and contextual theories that emphasize various contingencies that shape the influence of personality (e.g., Theory of Purposeful Work Behavior; Barrick et al., 2013). These approaches explain “how much” of a trait could be desired or needed from the point of view of different observers or across considering FORs. Prior research has demonstrated that certain traits, when observed in the extreme, yield diminishing returns on some work-related outcomes (e.g., Carter et al., 2014). Although most of this research continues to use self-reported data only, multiperspective frameworks could identify differences in these effects across identity-based, reputation-based, and other conceptualizations of personality.

Consider evidence suggesting that certain traits are more relevant for certain jobs than others (e.g., Frieder et al., 2018). If there are optimal levels of certain traits for specific jobs, someone scoring in

the extremes might be overlooked in selection or promotion decisions. Beyond the legal ramifications of using multiperspective frameworks in personnel decisions, we lack evidence that other ratings and self-ratings show similar nonlinear patterns of effects. At the least, evidence demonstrating that such patterns hold across raters would be valuable.

Apply Multiperspective Frameworks to Improve Personality Measurement for Difficult-to-Reach Organizational Populations

The personalities of executives and entrepreneurs play an important role in organizations (Hambrick, 2007; Hambrick & Mason, 1984). At the apex of their firms, these individuals affect the jobs, attitudes, emotions, behaviors, and experiences of nearly all employees. They are also the prominent decision makers who shape firms’ cultures, policies, strategies, and performance. However, getting access to executives, let alone having them complete a personality inventory, is a feat (Cycyota & Harrison, 2006). Although studying executives and entrepreneurs with multiperspective approaches might be difficult, scholars have studied these individuals’ personalities in a surprising variety of ways, suggesting that the tools for implementing multiperspective approaches are already in place. For example, there are studies using self-reports of top managers’ personalities and related traits (e.g., Peterson et al., 2009; Pryor et al., 2019; Nadkarni & Herrmann, 2010), employee ratings of CEO personality (e.g., Giberson et al., 2009; O’Reilly et al., 2014), and top management team member ratings of CEO leadership styles purported to be influenced by personality (Colbert et al., 2014; Judge & Bono, 2000). Beyond self-ratings and subordinate ratings, researchers have gathered personality ratings through proxies derived from content and textual analyses of founders’ crowdfunding pitches (Anglin et al., 2018), CEOs’ letters to shareholders, interviews, speeches, and press releases (Gamache et al., 2015; Harrison et al., 2019; Nadkarni & Chen, 2014), or news articles (Resick et al., 2009), videometric analyses in which third parties code personality based on video footage (Petrenko et al., 2019; Recendes et al., 2022), and many other unobtrusive measures (for reviews, see Hill et al., 2014; Spangler et al., 2012). Given the need to rely on multiple alternative measures, we contend that applying multiperspective frameworks to this literature would benefit several areas of theoretical development.

Future Research Direction 5: Integrate multiperspective frameworks into research on difficult-to-reach populations (e.g., executives and entrepreneurs).

We present three areas where a multiperspective approach to the study of executives and entrepreneurs could advance theory. First, multiperspective approaches are well-suited to extend stakeholder theory. The premise of this theory is that top managers must manage the interests of multiple stakeholders—such as employees, customers, and investors—to do their jobs effectively (Freeman, 1984). Understanding how these different stakeholders view CEO personality might be critical for understanding their willingness to support the CEO and firm (Harrison et al., 2020). Multiperspective approaches can queue scholars into the need to tailor personality measures to capture the perceptions of the stakeholders or audiences

most relevant to the theory. For example, [Petrenko et al. \(2016\)](#) and [Ridge and Ingram \(2017\)](#) were interested in investors' responses to CEOs' traits and behaviors. In turn, they relied on measures that captured investors' perceptions of CEO humility and modesty, respectively, rather than alternative measures that could have been used. Relatedly, the upper echelons ([Wang et al., 2016](#); [O'Reilly et al., 2014](#)) and entrepreneurship literatures ([Shepherd et al., 2015, 2021](#)) suggest that executives' and founders' personalities affect the values, behaviors, and choices that are expected, rewarded, and punished throughout the firm, thereby shaping the firm's overall goals, strategies, and culture. Thus, understanding how employees view these individuals' personalities might be important to understanding how such leaders manage this key group of stakeholders.

Second, multiperspective research might inform agency theory. This theory seeks to explain and mitigate top managers' opportunism, which refers to deceitful or malicious behavior that is against owners' interests ([Ghoshal & Moran, 1996](#); [Eisenhardt, 1989](#)). Prior literature suggests that top managers might score higher on dark personality traits ([Paulhus & Williams, 2002](#)), which also boost the propensity for opportunism, including illegal activity ([Amernic & Craig, 2013](#); [Rijsenbilt & Commandeur, 2013](#)). Although top managers have incentives to conceal dark traits, they often become more apparent to observers who interact more with individuals over time ([Campbell et al., 2011](#); [Nevicka et al., 2018](#); [Palmer et al., 2020](#)).

Top managers are often tasked with projecting a more favorable impression to owners and other investors, especially earlier in their tenures. However, these impressions might not be shared by internal audiences who have less power. This issue is important because most extant measures of top managers' less desirable personality traits reflect the perceptions of no one in particular (e.g., photo size in annual reports, house size, or CEO-top management team pay gaps; [Chatterjee & Hambrick, 2007](#); [Cragun et al., 2020](#)) or reflect the perspectives of external audiences who spend little or no time with the executives or entrepreneurs ([Anglin et al., 2018](#); [Recendes et al., 2022](#); [Resick et al., 2009](#)). If leaders display different traits to powerful external constituencies, it might be necessary to capture the perceptions of internal audiences too. Such measures may be more accurate reflections of executives' potential for destructive or abusive leadership that harms employees, reduces their motivation and commitment, and so on ([Palmer et al., 2020](#)). Conversely, perhaps individuals who display more consistent personality traits to different audiences have more integrity and are less prone to engage in opportunism or unethical behavior.

Third, multiperspective approaches can inform entrepreneurship theory on imprinting and venture emergence. Imprinting refers to the process whereby founders establish firm's initial attributes, which often persist long after the founders depart ([Marquis & Tilcsik, 2013](#)). Multiperspective approaches are appropriate in this context because imprinting is an inherently social process, depends on how founders view themselves (i.e., identity), how stakeholders such as employees view them (i.e., reputation), and possibly the convergence or divergence of these viewpoints. The literature on imprinting suggests that founders' personalities and self-perceptions affect the visions, goals, and values they establish for their firms ([Pittino et al., 2017](#)). Employees, suppliers, customers, and other stakeholders' perceptions of these factors, in turn, affect their willingness to do business with the firm ([Holmes et al., 2022](#)). Likewise, founders' personalities influence their initial hiring, structural, and strategic decisions ([Kimberly, 1979](#)), and these

decisions also depend on input and knowledge obtained from key partners, mentors, and previous coworkers with whom the founders are connected ([Hsu & Lim, 2014](#)). In short, firms' initial attributes are outcomes of many interactions involving founders and others in their immediate communities or broader networks ([Bacq et al., 2022](#); [Clough et al., 2019](#)). These initial conditions have long-term impacts because firms resist change ([Hannan & Freeman, 1987](#)), and the status quo impacts the future changes that are made ([Carroll, 1993](#)).

Personality Judgment Based on Secondary Data and Nonhuman "Raters"

To date, multiperspective scholars have largely focused on judgments formed by individuals—predominantly through primary data collection techniques (e.g., surveying). However, advances in technology are opening the door to new questions that multiperspective scholars should consider. For instance, these questions include what information from social media converges with validated personality measures, how observation/interaction-based exercises influence the reputation-forming process, and how accurate and valid artificial intelligence (AI) judgments of personality are (compared to human raters). Considering the rate at which this technology is being developed and applied in practice, we see an immediate need for multiperspective frameworks to be integrated into this research.

Future Research Direction 6: Broaden research on personality judgment to alternative information sources, including nonhuman raters.

The discussion on alternatives to traditional paper-and-pencil measures of personality (e.g., surveys) is not new ([Sackett et al., 2017](#)). Scholars have suggested that personality-related information can be derived from personal attributes such as physical appearance ([Naumann et al., 2009](#); [Vazire et al., 2008](#); [Walker & Vetter, 2016](#)) and clothing ([Hester & Hehman, 2023](#)). More specific to a work context, scholars have argued that certain aspects of applicant personality can be detected through commonly applied selection tools, such as resumés ([Cole et al., 2005](#)), in-person structured interviews ([Barrick et al., 2000](#); [Van Iddekinge et al., 2005](#)), and ACs ([Heimann et al., 2022](#); [Hoffman et al., 2015](#)). Collectively, this research has complemented many of the foundational arguments in multiperspective logic (e.g., certain traits are more/less detectable by others). Nonetheless, new data sources and the use of both human and nonhuman rating techniques have extended the application of multirater methodology.

Indeed, we have conventionally assumed that humans are doing the rating. However, "who" is doing the judging is now changing to include "what" is doing the judging in the wake of computer-based tools and advancements in AI (e.g., [Fan et al., 2023](#); [Phan & Rauthmann, 2021](#)). Additionally, personality judgments formed from information such as social media posts ([Roulin & Levashina, 2019](#); [Van de Ven et al., 2017](#)), video-recorded interviews ([Hickman et al., 2022](#)), and even email addresses ([Back et al., 2008](#)) are being studied. Essentially, every piece of data that are available online and attached to a target could potentially be used, with or without evidence for validity, to form judgments of personality and other attributes.

From a multiperspective angle, we see two major opportunities for researchers. First, more attention is needed to establish the validity of these novel approaches for operationalizing personality. Although these efforts have begun (e.g., [Eichstaedt et al., 2021](#); [Koutsoumpis et al., 2022](#); [Park et al., 2015](#)), opportunities abound to discern the appropriateness and efficacy of AI and other computing algorithms as valid raters of personality. Several AI techniques show initial evidence of convergence with self-reported measures, despite concerns that early forms of this technology cannot discriminate adequately between traits ([Phan & Rauthmann, 2021](#)). Many of these techniques have not undergone rigorous psychometric development and use overgeneralized or duplicated algorithms to map different traits. Recent efforts to build predictive models from the facet level are offering support for machine learning as a valid source of personality measurement ([Fan et al., 2023](#)). Further research is needed to assess the benefits of these novel techniques in multimethod approaches to measuring personality.

In addition to AI-based ratings, managers themselves admittedly examine online information to make global judgments on applicant fit with job-related selection criteria ([Van Iddekinge et al., 2016](#); [Zhang et al., 2020](#)). Because evidence already exists to support the validity of other ratings of personality ([Oh et al., 2011](#)), the bigger concern with online information is what it captures and whether it is appropriate for inferring selection-related information about applicants. Although they did not assess the validity of using social media for measuring personality, [Van Iddekinge et al. \(2016\)](#) and [Zhang et al. \(2020\)](#) identified a critical consideration that is relevant to multiperspective logic. Online platforms serve various contextual and social purposes that might be unrelated to job performance. In other words, a lot of information on social media profiles might be unrelated to potential job performance.

Online platforms like LinkedIn, which focus more directly on work, should be expected to provide information that is more closely related to applicant suitability. Indeed, assessments of LinkedIn profiles have demonstrated that they are viable information sources for discerning some personality traits (e.g., extraversion and conscientiousness; [Roulin & Levashina, 2019](#); [Van de Ven et al., 2017](#)). Although global assessments based on more general social media sites may be less helpful, research suggests that text-based posts, such as those made on X (formerly Twitter), can provide information to judge agreeableness and neuroticism accurately ([Qiu et al., 2012](#)). Collectively, we see opportunities to apply multiperspective logic to inform our understanding of the information in online data sources, how measures based on this information compare to self-ratings and other ratings of personality (and other attributes), and the extent to which these ratings demonstrate predictive validity with work outcomes (e.g., performance, retention).

Integrating Multiperspective Frameworks in Organizational Psychology Beyond Personality

Other variables, processes, and phenomena that can be studied from different perspectives are all potential targets for multiperspective research. However, multiperspective frameworks have been used less frequently outside the personality literature (e.g., [Blickle et al., 2018](#); [Vergauwe et al., 2022](#)). Thus, our final direction for future research is to expand the application of multiperspective frameworks beyond personality judgments.

Future Research Direction 7: Expand application of multiperspective frameworks to constructs other than personality.

Researchers have a set of tools to make multirater research more feasible and impactful outside the context of personality. [Vergauwe et al. \(2022\)](#), for instance, extended the TRI model to the leadership area with the leadership-arena-reputation-identity model. Following the logic of [McAbee and Connelly \(2016\)](#), [Vergauwe et al. \(2022\)](#) found unique variance attributed to self-rated versus other-rated leadership styles (e.g., coaching, authoritarian, and participative). The results gave further credence to limiting the practice of aggregating ratings across groups (e.g., peers vs. supervisors vs. subordinates). Again, the point is that people occupying different roles relative to a target are likely to perceive different aspects of a focal variable.

In addition to leadership, consider the application of multiperspective frameworks to the study of relationships in organizations. The similarities in methodology between multiperspective frameworks, namely the SRM and SOKA, and social network analysis create a natural opportunity for integration. Long-standing research streams, such as leader–follower relationships, and more recent literature on multiplex relationships (e.g., coworker and friend; [Methot & Cole, 2023](#)) shed light on phenomena that could be studied through multiperspective frames. For instance, recent work on leader–member exchange differentiation ([Buengeler et al., 2021](#)) and relational misperceptions ([Byron & Landis, 2020](#)) illustrates that individuals within a relationship might hold different views about the quality or other aspects of that relationship. Multiperspective approaches could identify additional antecedents that lead to divergent perceptions of relationship quality (e.g., different interpretations of social interactions) as well as the outcomes (e.g., advice seeking and trust) that result from discrepant judgments.

Finally, there are opportunities to incorporate multiperspective frameworks into the study of intrateam dynamics and interteam processes. Applying these frameworks to understand team member personality would appear to be an appropriate entry point, given the long tradition of studying personality in teams (e.g., team composition; [Bell et al., 2018](#)). Extant literature largely aggregates individual-level traits and attributes to assess how the mean levels of those variables impact team outcomes. A more nuanced and critical assessment of intrateam dynamics might involve multiperspective investigations of team member reputations or initial judgments formed from observable information. For instance, prior research has tied traits like extraversion to perceived influence early in team life cycles. Other traits like openness (and cognitive ability) predict influence in later stages ([Deuling et al., 2011](#)). Indeed, the general prescription is that most deep-level aspects of diversity (e.g., personality and abilities) matter more in later stages ([Mathieu et al., 2014](#)). We contend that multiperspective approach is needed to validate this conclusion because a person's influence is likely to depend on how other team members view them. At the team level, collective team attributes have been shown to impact interteam dynamics (e.g., collaboration, conflict; [Mathieu et al., 2017](#)). Studying the self-reported team identities compared with team reputation reported by other teams could inform research on interteam dynamics. As organizations continue to move toward multiteam systems ([Davison et al., 2012](#)), understanding both intra- and interteam implications of team member attributes and

interactive processes will likely require innovative approaches like those proposed in multiperspective frameworks.

Practical Implications

We close by discussing the practical implications that influence, and should be influenced by, multiperspective research. The richness of the data collected is one reason we see so much value in this research. However, there are two critical issues to consider—utility and legality. First, although multirater data can be valuable, they can be expensive and difficult to obtain in practice (Mathieu et al., 2017). Further, the bandwidth fidelity of multiperspective frameworks is heavily tilted toward issues related to fidelity. Indeed, the very monotrait nature of multiperspective frameworks points to this. It is unlikely that organizations would be able to justify the use of long psychometrically valid scales, seeking self-reports from every applicant and commensurate scales from three to four relevant others (e.g., prior coworkers, supervisors). The cost would likely be prohibitive. However, newer online measures have the potential to supplement more traditional self-reports and other reports. Further, even if multiperspective approaches are less useful in some scenarios, they may retain their utility in others. Indeed, multirater assessment is commonplace in 360° feedback (DeNisi & Kluger, 2000), AC ratings (cf. Woehr & Arthur, 2003), and performance appraisal (Hoffman et al., 2012; Lawler, 1967).

Second, we have concerns about the lack of evidence supporting the legal use of multirater data in covered business practices. Currently, there are limited applications of multirater methods used in practices like selection and promotion, but these are commonly accompanied with thorough FOR training and need to be clearly tied to job requirements through job or work analysis, as in the case of selection-based ACs (Hoffman et al., 2015; Rupp et al., 2015) and structured interviews (Campion et al., 1997). Without such training, the use of multiple raters opens decision-making processes to rater effects that could result in discrimination. Such rater-based biases could lead to violation of the Civil Rights Act (1964) or any of the other subsequent employment laws prohibiting discrimination based on protected group membership. Additionally, sourcing information from others could creep into other areas of legal uncertainty. For instance, information privacy laws (e.g., the Fair Credit Reporting Act, 2023) apply to background checks, and that logic could conceivably be applied to forms of multirater data collection that involve the use of sensitive information.

Ultimately, we do not want readers to allow our cautionary tones about practice to overshadow our enthusiasm for expanding the application of multiperspective frameworks in organizational psychology research. Indeed, our concern is reserved for using multirater techniques for those covered business practices entrenched in employment law, such as personnel selection (Van Iddekinge et al., 2023). For development purposes, however, multirater, and more specifically, multiperspective frameworks, could hold significant value. Practitioners would benefit from considering some critical questions about 360° feedback outlined by Nowack and Mashihi (2012), as well as Foster et al.'s (2022) guidance about various conceptualizations of multiperspective measurement of personality in training and development more broadly. These authors outline important considerations for using multirater techniques and illustrate the added value of considering multiple perspectives for developmental activities.

Conclusion

Through this integrative conceptual review, we sought to synthesize the use, contributions, and potential of multiperspective frameworks in personality research. Multiperspective frameworks are relevant not only to personality but also to the broader organizational psychology audience. Although we highlighted frameworks focused on advancing personality research, we found that several streams of research applicable to multirater assessments could benefit from fully integrating multiperspective approaches. Therefore, we see great potential for further integration of multiperspective frameworks across the discipline.

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