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Implications of Psychopathy for the Workplace: Menace, Miracle, or Both?

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B.A., Vanderbilt University, 2010

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## Abstract

### Implications of Psychopathy for the Workplace: Menace, Miracle, or Both?

By Sarah Francis Smith

The implications of psychopathy for the workplace remain poorly understood (Babiak & Hare, 2006; Smith & Lilienfeld, 2013). Although most investigators have focused on maladaptive correlates (e.g., Boddy, 2011), scattered research suggests that psychopathy is associated with some adaptive leadership behaviors in business settings (Babiak, Neumann, & Hare, 2010). In this paper, I examine the adaptive and maladaptive implications of psychopathy and its subcomponents, including boldness, disinhibition, and meanness, for workplace behavior. Community participants (N = 312) completed the Psychopathic Personality Inventory-Revised (PPI-R; Lilienfeld & Widows, 2005), Triarchic Psychopathy Measure (TriPM; Patrick, 2010), Levenson Self-Report Psychopathy Scale (LSRP; Levenson, Kiehl, Fitzpatrick, 1995), a self-report measure of counterproductive workplace behavior (CWB; Bennett & Robinson, 2000), the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire, Form 6-S (MLQ-6S; Avolio & Bass, 1992), and a measure of leadership activities. Boldness was positively associated with engagement in leadership activities and adaptive leadership styles (e.g., transformational and transactional leadership) and non-significantly associated with counterproductive workplace behaviors and passive leadership styles (e.g., Laissez Faire leadership). In contrast, disinhibition and meanness were unassociated with leadership activities but negatively associated with adaptive leadership styles. Disinhibition and meanness were positively associated with CWB but non-significantly associated with passive leadership styles. These findings indicate a differential pattern of workplace correlates for psychopathy's components. More importantly, the results suggest that strong statements regarding the supposed toxic influence of psychopathic traits in business settings should be tempered. At least some components of psychopathy (e.g., boldness) appear to be related to adaptive workplace correlates.

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## Introduction

In a 2002 keynote address to the Canadian Police Association, pioneering psychopathy researcher Robert Hare (2002) stated that “Not all psychopaths are in prison. Some are in the board room.” Psychopathic personality, or psychopathy, is a mental disorder characterized by superficial charm, manipulateness, a pervasive lack of empathy and guilt masked by apparent normalcy. The recognition that psychopathy extends to the workplace and the rest of the business world is not new (e.g., Cleckley, 1941). However, in the wake of recent social and economic catastrophes (e.g., Enron, the housing market crash, bailouts, Wall Street criminals), the elusive workplace psychopath has re-entered the limelight. Western society has confronted Ponzi schemes, internet fraud, embezzlement, insider trading, corruption, and malfeasance; and workplace psychopathy is increasingly viewed as a prime culprit.

More broadly, researchers and social commentators alike have become interested in the implications of psychopathy for the workplace (e.g., Babiak & Hare, 2006). Recent studies suggest that business executives possess personality traits presumably related to the affective and interpersonal components of psychopathy (i.e. histrionic and narcissistic personality traits) at levels equal to or higher than forensic and psychiatric samples (Board & Fritzon, 2005). At the same time, these executives show significantly *lower* rates of traits associated with antisocial personality disorder, such as physical aggression, lack of remorse, and irresponsibility. Psychopathy overlaps moderately with antisocial personality disorder (Hare, 2003). Thus, the findings of lower rates of antisocial personality traits in executives cast doubt on strong claims that psychopathy is responsible for organizational destruction.

As the subject of several successful books (Babiak & Hare, 2006; Boddy, 2011; Clarke, 2005), business psychopaths are often referred to in extreme or even sensational terms, such as “snakes in suits,” “corporate destroyers,” or “monsters.” Almost without exception, psychopaths are assumed to routinely wreak havoc in the workplace, engaging in dishonesty, verbal aggression, and crime, and pitting employees against each other. The problems ostensibly posed by psychopathy in the workplace have been discussed widely in popular publications; however, this theoretically and pragmatically important issue has been the subject of relatively little systematic research. The question may provide crucial information for employee selection and monitoring and theoretically may help us to understand the potentially differential manifestations, both adaptive and maladaptive, of psychopathy across settings.

*Business Psychopathy: Clinical Lore*

Until fairly recently, business psychopathy was mainly the substance of clinical lore. However, speculation regarding psychopathy in the workplace has existed for some time, some of which sharply contrasts with the recent media frenzy touting toxic bosses who are purportedly destructive to subordinates and companies alike.

In fact, one of the first major authors to describe psychopathy systematically, Hervey Cleckley (1941), wrote of a *successful* business psychopath in his classic book, “The Mask of Sanity.” In his case history, ‘The Psychopath as a Business Man,’ he described a prosperous businessman who displayed pronounced psychopathic personality features, including marital infidelity, callousness, wild drinking sprees, and risk-taking. At the same time, Cleckley observed that he exhibited a number of successful features, noting that “except for his periodic sprees, he works industriously”

and that “he has contributed foresight and ability to the business” (p. 193). More recently, Lykken (1995) wrote of a psychopathic client who harnessed his superficial charm to launch a successful company in the building trade while partaking in numerous extramarital affairs (one with his business partner’s wife) and fathering illegitimate children. In contrast to Cleckley’s (1941) and Lykken’s (1995) writings, Babiak (1995) described a slightly more menacing instance of business psychopathy in a widely influential case study. From this individual, Babiak speculated that an organizational climate of chaotic transition, which affords stimulation and excitement, may be attractive and conducive to allowing psychopathic individuals to achieve success. He further hypothesized that the tendency of psychopaths to manipulate and deceive others may predispose to their rise in the ranks of corporations.

The literature is also replete with theoretical expositions on workplace psychopathy. Some authors suggest that psychopaths who are attracted to the glamour of the business world may appear to outsiders as ideal leaders, concealing their dark side with poise and charm (e.g., Boddy, 2006; Furnham, 2007). Others go further in claiming that the business world is a virtual magnet for psychopathy, suggesting that the base rate of psychopathy in the upper ranks of corporations may be as high as 3% compared with 1% in the general population (Boddy, Ladyshewsky, & Galvin, 2010). Overall, the clinical lore surrounding psychopathy in the workplace imparts the story of ruthless bullies who rise to the top echelons of organizations, lying in wait to destroy not only companies and lives, but also economies (Boddy, 2005, 2006; Boddy et al. 2010). These maladaptive outcomes may be more tied to components of psychopathy such as disinhibition (e.g., lack of behavioral constraints) and meanness (e.g., lack of empathy

and disdain for others). However, some components of psychopathy such as boldness (e.g., charm, fearlessness, stress immunity) may be related to positive outcomes in the workplace such as leadership effectiveness. Nevertheless, strong claims regarding business psychopathy remain premature given the paucity of empirical corroboration.

### *Psychopathy: Competing Conceptualizations*

There are several competing conceptualizations of psychopathy. In one of the first systematic clinical descriptions of psychopathy, Cleckley (1941) delineated 16 features he believed to be characteristic of the condition. These features include superficial charm, lack of anxiety, absence of psychotic/neurotic symptoms, egocentricity, lack of remorse or empathy, incapacity for love or close relationships, poor impulse control, irresponsibility, and unmotivated antisocial deviance. McCord and McCord (1964) described the condition in more sinister terms, emphasizing the psychopath as violent, manipulative, and cold. They considered “lovelessness” and “guiltlessness” to be the crux of the disorder. More recently, psychopathy has been conceptualized using an oblique two dimensional model derived from factor analyses of widely used psychopathy measures (Benning et al., 2003, Harpur, Hare, & Hakstian, 1989). In this model, Factor 1 consists largely of the affective and interpersonal traits of psychopathy, such as guiltlessness, lack of empathy, grandiosity, egocentricity, and superficial charm, whereas Factor 2 consists largely of such traits as impulsivity, irresponsibility, and a lack of behavioral controls (Hare, 1991/2003).

Other researchers have conjectured that psychopathy is a configuration of largely separable attributes. These conjectures have been supported by some psychometric data (e.g., Lilienfeld & Fowler, 2006) although this support varies depending on the inventory

of psychopathy used. Nevertheless, findings that the two major higher-order factors of the Psychopathic Personality Inventory-Revised (PPI-R; Lilienfeld & Widows, 2005, see description below) are largely orthogonal (e.g., Benning et al., 2003) suggests that the construct of psychopathy may be a configuration of traits, that, when experienced together, are maladaptive.

### *Successful Psychopathy*

Despite the widely held view that psychopathy is invariably maladaptive, some researchers have argued that some of its component traits can be adaptive in certain settings, including the business world (Dutton, 2012; Lilienfeld, 1994; Lykken, 1995). Cleckley (1941) delineated several features of psychopathy that are often associated with positive adjustment (e.g., superficial charm, apparent verbal intelligence, lack of psychotic/neurotic symptoms, and low rates of suicide). Later, a number of authors proposed that psychopathy can sometimes manifest itself in successful, or at least, subclinical presentations (Lykken, 1982; Sutker & Alain, 1983; Widom, 1977), perhaps predisposing to adaptive functioning in such occupations as law enforcement, military combat, politics, high-contact sports, and entertainment (Skeem, Polaschek, Patrick, & Lilienfeld, 2011).

The controversial construct of successful psychopathy (Lilienfeld, 1998; Widom, 1977) can be understood within one of three competing models: *subclinical manifestation*, *moderated expression*, and a *dual process perspective* (Hall & Benning, 2006). The subclinical model suggests a mild expression of the disorder in which less severely affected individuals exhibit fewer social transgressions, but the core personality features are the same as in more severely affected individuals. In contrast, in the

moderated expression model, both successful and unsuccessful psychopathy stem from the same etiology, but moderating factors, such as intelligence, impulse control, socialization, and socioeconomic status, influence the expression of the disorder. Finally, the dual process model proposes that the interpersonal and affective components of psychopathy (e.g., guiltlessness, lack of empathy, superficial charm, grandiosity) are distinct from the antisocial deviant components (e.g., impulsivity, irresponsibility) (Fowles & Dindo, 2009). In this latter model, psychopathy is conceptualized as a hybrid condition comprising an amalgam of traits, such as fearlessness, grandiosity, and charm that may predispose to either or both maladaptive and adaptive behaviors, depending on as yet unknown personality and situational moderating variables (Hall & Benning, 2006).

Nevertheless, with a few exceptions (e.g., Patrick, Edens, Poythress, Lilienfeld, & Benning, 2006), relatively little systematic research regarding successful psychopathy exists. As a consequence, most of the theorizing regarding this presumed condition is based on speculation and clinical lore. Despite this limitation, a number of researchers have found that individuals in community settings display marked psychopathic traits (Belmore & Quinsey, 1994; Widom, 1977). Furthermore, studies suggest that psychopathic individuals in the community, in contrast to those in prisons, exhibit the interpersonal and affective traits of psychopathy more than the behavioral components (DeMatteo, Heilbrun, & Marczyk, 2006).

#### *Psychopathy: The Triarchic Model*

Patrick, Fowles, and Krueger (2009) reviewed varied and often confusing efforts throughout history to describe psychopathy, arriving at three reoccurring themes. They emphasized the utility of conceptualizing psychopathy in terms of three core phenotypic

constructs: disinhibition, boldness, and meanness. Their “triarchic model” of psychopathy can serve as an organizing framework for differing conceptions of psychopathy, including those relevant to the workplace. *Disinhibition* is a predisposition toward deficits in impulse control. Individuals with high levels of this trait are characterized by a lack of planfulness and foresight, impaired affect regulation, failure to delay gratification, and behavioral restraint deficits (Patrick et al., 2009). Behaviorally, disinhibition manifests itself as irresponsibility, untrustworthiness, impulsivity, alienation and distrust of others, and aggressive behavior (Krueger, Markon, Patrick, Benning, & Kramer, 2007). *Boldness* refers to an ability to remain calm in threatening situations. Individuals high on trait boldness recover quickly from stressful life events, are self-assured, persuasive, socially efficacious, fearless, and accepting of unfamiliar or dangerous situations (Patrick et al., 2009). Interpersonally, boldness is characterized by dominance, reduced stress reactivity, and interpersonal thrill seeking (Benning et al., 2003). Finally, *meanness* is marked by a lack of empathy and attachment, disdain towards others, and rebelliousness. Mean individuals strategically exploit others and gain empowerment through their cruelty. They are arrogant, aggressively competitive, and defiant. They may verbally or physically abuse others, lack close personal relationships, or seek stimulation through their destructiveness.

In summary, the triarchic model provides a helpful framework for the conceptualization of psychopathy, especially in the business world. Some authors have conjectured that such traits as boldness may sometimes be adaptive in business settings, perhaps predisposing to leadership success (Lilienfeld, Waldman, Watts, Landfield, Rubenzer, & Faschingbauer, 2012; Patrick et al., 2009), whereas traits such as

disinhibition and especially meanness may be related to maladaptive behavior in business settings, including workplace aggression and conflict. Importantly, because the triarchic model posits that psychopathy is a configuration of conceptually and empirically separable traits, it implies that studies of the relation between global psychopathy, as operationalized by total scores on psychopathy measures, and workplace performance may obscure the differential relations between psychopathy subcomponents and business success or failure (cf., O'Boyle, Forsyth, Banks, & McDaniel, 2012).

### Psychopathy and Maladaptive Workplace Correlates

With much of the media attention surrounding psychopathy in the workplace stemming from the assumption that psychopathic individuals promote organizational destruction and irresponsibility through aggressive tactics and deviant behavior (e.g., Clarke, 2005), the relatively limited research on the topic focuses primarily on the maladaptive implications of psychopathy for the workplace. Perhaps due to this narrow focus of research on workplace psychopathy, this assumption has attained the status of a truism in some quarters, but has been investigated only relatively recently.

### *Psychopathy and Ethical Decision Making*

Because ethical decision making bears important implications for counterproductive and illegal behavior in the business world, understanding the nature of psychopathy and how its subcomponents (e.g., dishonesty, manipulateness) may predict ethical decision-making could shed light on the potential negative implications of psychopathic personality traits for workplace settings. Several researchers have become interested in this relationship between psychopathy and ethical decision making.



Driven by the assumption that psychopathy is related to unethical decision making in the workplace, Stevens, Deuling, and Armenakis (2011) predicted that global levels of psychopathy would be positively associated with unethical decision making and that this relationship would be mediated by moral disengagement (e.g., an ability to distance oneself from one's moral standards through the use of justification mechanisms). A sample of 272 undergraduates received four ethical scenarios involving a range of typical organizational dilemmas (e.g., cutting corners in production, failing to disclose errors in financial reports) and were asked to indicate their willingness to engage in the unethical behavior presented in the scenario. Following each scenario, participants rated their agreement with eight justifications for the action in the scenario, each of which assessed a different strategy of moral disengagement. Participants also completed the Self Report Psychopathy-III scale (SRP-III; Paulhus et al., in press). Psychopathy was significantly and positively associated with self-reported willingness to engage in unethical behaviors, and this relation was mediated by moral disengagement.

Heinze, Allen, Magal, and Ritzler (2010) examined the associations among psychopathy, Machiavellianism, and cognitive moral development in a sample of 92 MBA students. Machiavellianism, which is characterized by the tendency to deceive and manipulate others for personal gain, was measured using the MACH-IV (Christie & Geis, 1970). Cognitive moral development, as conceptualized by Kohlberg (1964), was measured by the Defining Issues Test-2 (DIT-2; Rest, Narvaez, Bebeau, & Thoma, 1999), which asks participants to respond to five hypothetical moral dilemmas. The authors hypothesized that psychopathy would be negatively associated with cognitive moral development and positively associated with a subjectivist ethical attitude (e.g., use

of personal values/perspective rather than universal moral principles for ethical appraisals). As predicted, total psychopathy scores were negatively associated with cognitive moral development and positively associated with subjectivist ethical attitudes. Furthermore, psychopathy predicted low cognitive moral development better than did a measure of Machiavellianism. However, the association between psychopathy and low cognitive moral development appeared to be driven largely by the PPI Machiavellian Egocentricity subscale which is characterized by a tendency to look out for individual interests above others, but not other subscales. These findings suggest that certain components of psychopathy (i.e., Machiavellian Egocentricity), but not others, may be associated with low levels of moral development. Thus, exclusive reliance on global measures of psychopathy to detect low levels of moral reasoning may be inadvisable.

#### *Psychopathy, Aggression, and Organizational Climate*

In a study on negotiation strategies, Jonason, Slomski, and Partyka (2012) found that psychopathy is related to the use of interpersonally negative tactics of negotiation. The authors sought to examine negotiation tactics utilized by individuals with high levels of personality traits in the dark triad. The dark triad is a constellation of theoretically distinct (albeit empirically overlapping) personality constructs (i.e. psychopathy, narcissism, and Machiavellianism) that are often construed as interpersonally maladaptive. Narcissistic personality is marked by grandiosity, a sense of entitlement, and a lack of empathy. Individuals with high levels of Machiavellianism disregard the importance of morality and utilize craft and dishonesty in an effort to pursue power. The authors administered the “Dirty Dozen” measure (Jonason & Webster, 2010) , which consists of 4 items assessing each dark triad trait. The sample, consisting of 419

employed individuals, 277 psychology students, and 142 volunteers from the U.S. and Canada, also received a series of single items assessing the frequency of their engagement in various manipulation tactics. Results indicated that the use of hard tactics (e.g., threats of appeal or punishment, manipulation of a person or situation) was positively associated with psychopathy scores. Overall, the findings suggest that individuals with high scores on dark triad traits, including psychopathy, tend to use aggressive tactics of social influence.

Additional research has further corroborated the relationship between psychopathy and aggressive behavior in the workplace. Boddy (2011) examined the associations between psychopathy and aggressive behavior such as bullying, public criticism and harsh treatment of employees, rudeness, coercion, dangerous working conditions, and violation of human rights or employment laws. Data were collected from 346 white collar employees in Australia using the Psychopathy Measure- Management Research Version (PM-MR V; Boddy et al., 2010), which requires participants to rate their current and past managers on a number of statements designed to assess psychopathic personality traits. Results suggested that the presence of a psychopathic manager in the workplace was associated with a greater frequency of aggressive behavior in the workplace. For example, when corporate psychopathy (as ascertained by a cut-off score) was present in a corporation, 93.7% of employees reported unfavorable treatment of others in the workplace compared with 54.7% of employees who reported such behavior when corporate psychopathy was absent. From these results, Boddy concluded that corporate psychopaths accounted for only 1% of the workplace population, but 26% of aggressive workplace behavior.

Boddy and colleagues have also examined the ostensible systemic effects of business psychopathy, investigating associations between the presence of psychopathy, organizational climate, and perceived social responsibility. Boddy et al. (2010) investigated the relationship by specifically examining employee perceptions of corporate social responsibility (e.g., conducting environmentally friendly business, conducting business in ways to benefit local community) and commitment to employees (e.g., acknowledging good work, showing appreciation for, and rewarding employees). Psychopathy was assessed using identical methodology to the aforementioned study. In addition, participants were asked to respond to a series of statements regarding the social responsibility of corporations. Results indicated that the presence of psychopathic managers (as determined by a cutoff score) in the workplace was associated with a significant decrease in respondents' perceived social responsibility of a corporation and that corporation's commitment to its employees.

Although Boddy's studies are among the first to examine the implications of psychopathy in the workplace, his research is marked by several methodological limitations. Specifically, the research relies on unvalidated questionnaires asking respondents to report on psychopathic traits of previous and current managers. At the same time, respondents must report on the management practices of those individuals and the relevant corporation. Despite the convenience of this method, it is subject to mono-method and rater biases (see Donaldson & Grant-Vallone, 2002). For example, if respondents hold a particularly negative view of their bosses, they may also rate their bosses and corporations in a negative light as a result of a negative halo or "pitchfork" effect (Koenig & Jaswal, 2011). In addition, respondents with high levels of negative

emotionality, a higher-order trait often tied to criticality and cynicism (Watson & Clark, 1984), may be prone to rating both their bosses and their corporations negatively, leading to spurious correlations between perceived employer psychopathy and perceived organizational outcomes.

### *Psychopathy and Counterproductive Workplace Behavior*

Because psychopathy is positively associated with antisocial behavior, its implications for deviant behavior in the workplace are immense. In an attempt to integrate the disparate literature on personality and workplace deviance, O'Boyle et al. (2012) conducted a meta-analysis examining the relationships among dark triad personality traits, job performance, and counterproductive workplace behavior (CWB), operationalized as activities destructive to organizations (e.g., employee theft, absenteeism, bullying of co-workers). Because performance evaluations depend on how well one works with others, psychopathy was predicted to be negatively associated with ratings of job performance. Furthermore, because psychopathy is associated with impulsivity and criminal activity, the authors predicted that it would be positively associated with CWB.

The meta-analysis included 68 studies ( $n = 10,227$ ) examining the relationship between psychopathy and job performance and 27 studies ( $n = 6,058$ ) examining the relationship between psychopathy and CWB. The studies used a wide range of psychopathy indicators, including the Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory Psychopathic Deviate scale (MMPI Pd), California Psychological Inventory Socialization scale (CPI So), Psychopathic Personality Inventory (PPI), and the Psychopathy Checklist-Revised (PCL-R). Indicators of job performance consisted of either observer-reports

(e.g., peer, supervisor, or subordinate ratings) or self-report measures of presumably objective information (e.g., sales for the quarter). CWB was measured using self-report scales (e.g., Bennett & Robinson, 2000) or workplace disciplinary records (e.g., number of complaints filed against employee, unexcused absences from work).

The results partially supported the authors' hypotheses. Psychopathy was significantly and negatively associated with job performance, and significantly and positively associated with CWB. However, the effect sizes were very small in magnitude ( $r_c = -.07$ ;  $r_c = .07$ , respectively), suggesting that psychopathy may be less associated with workplace misbehavior and deviance than often believed. One potential criticism of this meta-analysis is the inclusion of a wide variety of indicators of job performance and CWB. However, the effect sizes for both relations were homogeneous ( $I^2 = 6.3$ ; 76.8, respectively).

Despite this homogeneity, the authors analyzed the role of two theoretically-predicted moderators (i.e., authority and in-group collectivism) in accounting for the relations among psychopathy, job performance, and CWB. Specifically, the authors predicted that in jobs that afforded authority (e.g., management positions), the relationship between psychopathy and CWB would be significantly weakened given that individuals who rise to leadership positions have presumably learned to mask the negative behavioral correlates of their psychopathic traits. The data supported this hypothesis. Furthermore, the authors predicted that in organizations with high levels of in-group collectivism, CWB would be tolerated less, so that the relationships between psychopathy and both job performance and CWB would be amplified. This hypothesis was based on the fact that organizations high on in-group collectivism presumably

emphasize loyalty and cohesiveness, thus any infractions against the organization would stand out. However, this hypothesis was not supported.

The O'Boyle et al. (2012) meta-analysis provides valuable information regarding the behavioral implications of psychopathy for the workplace. Nevertheless, many or most of the studies included in their meta-analysis are marked by several limitations. First, many of these investigations relied largely on psychopathy measures (e.g., MMPI Pd scale, CPI So scale) that are almost exclusively indicators of Factor 2 psychopathy traits, or general antisocial behavior (see Harpur et al., 1989). Thus, the finding that general measures of antisocial behavior correlate positively with specific types of antisocial behavior in the workplace (e.g., CWB) is arguably at least partially tautological given the best predictor of future behavior is typically past behavior. Second, because a number of external criteria in the meta-analysis were based on self-report, the psychopathy-CWB associations may have been inflated by shared method covariance. Third, the authors examined only global levels of psychopathy, and did not report associations for different psychopathy factors. Factors 1 and 2 of the PCL-R and PPI exhibit differing correlates and behavioral implications; in particular, Factor 2 traits tend to be more closely tied than Factor 1 traits to physical and sexual aggression (Leistico, Salekin, DeCoster, & Rogers, 2008). In addition, because PPI-I (Fearless Dominance) has been linked to adaptive interpersonal behaviors in some studies (Lilienfeld et al., 2012), it may be associated with superior performance in at least some jobs.

#### Psychopathy and Leadership Theory

Though maladaptive correlates have been the focus of research on workplace psychopathy to date, the examination of adaptive correlates, especially leadership,

warrant attention. The influence of dispositional variables on leadership is controversial. In 1948, Stogdill published a critical review on the inconsistencies across studies in the literature on traits most relevant to leadership. Following this review, the research on trait models waned and is generally not well regarded by leadership theorists (Bass, 1990; Zaccaro, Foti, & Kenny, 1991). However, a number of researchers continue to emphasize the importance and utility of personality-based approaches to leadership (House, Shane, & Herold, 1996; Howell, 1988; Spangler, House, & Palrecha, 2001). Some suggest that personality profiles may lend to the early identification of leadership potential (House, Spangler, & Woycke, 1991). Personality traits such as surgency, similar to the agentic components of extraversion including dominance, assertiveness, and sociability, are positively associated with leader effectiveness (Stogdill, 1974). Some authors (Furnham, 2007; Gudmundsson & Southey, 2012) in the field of psychopathy have speculated that individuals with psychopathic traits such as charisma and interpersonal dominance may make, or at least superficially present as, effective managers and leaders. In fact, meta-analyses and qualitative reviews have identified dominance as a personality trait relevant to leader emergence (Bass, 1990; Lord, De Vader, & Alliger, 1986; Mann, 1959). At the same time, many authors have suggested that psychopathic individuals are often destructive leaders in the long-term (Babiak & Hare, 2006; Furnham, 2007; Gudmundsson & Southey, 2011). As noted earlier, some researchers (e.g., Boddy et al., 2010) have further conjectured that psychopaths exist disproportionately among higher levels of management.

Several models of leadership may elucidate the potential implications of psychopathy for adaptive leadership outcomes. The charismatic model of leadership in



particular bears implications for the interpersonal components of psychopathy. Charisma has been described as an interpersonal magnetism, which elicits both respect and obeisance from followers (House, 1977; Landy & Conte, 2010). Yukl (2006) described charismatic leaders as confident, visionary, skillful at impression management, power-hungry, and skilled at appealing to similar motives in followers (e.g., need for power, achievement, and affiliation). On the basis of this interpersonal appeal, leaders form an emotional connection with followers, garnering affection and admiration. They are often seen as courageous and self-confident by others (Antonakis & House, 2002). Certain components of psychopathy such as boldness may be expressed as charisma in leadership situations (e.g., Patrick et al., 2009).

Burns (1978) built on charismatic leadership theory to describe two varieties of leader-follower interactions: transactional and transformational. Transactional leadership involves an interchange between leaders and followers of items of value (e.g., bonuses, time off). More typical of management than leadership, transactional leaders set and monitor goals to ensure that desired outcomes are achieved, focusing on control and contracts with followers (Antonakis & House, 2002). In contrast, transformational leadership involves a unique relationship between leader and followers whereby each party “transforms” the other by appealing to societal motives, such as justice and peace (Burns, 1978). Key components of transformational leadership are vision, risk-taking, and charisma (Antonakis & House, 2002). Elaborating on Burns (1978), Bass (1985) argued that transactional leadership serves as a precursor to transformational leadership, and that effective leaders display both styles to a certain degree.

Bass and Avolio (1994) described a full range theory of leadership encompassing transactional, transformational, and passive leadership styles. Further developing the concept of transformational leadership, the authors described four strategies typically utilized by these types of leaders: idealized influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration (Bass & Avolio, 1994; Bass & Avolio, 1995; Bass & Avolio, 1997). Idealized influence refers to both follower-attributed and behavioral charisma exhibited by the leader. Leaders drawing on idealized influence exhibit power, confidence, and a sense of mission to their followers (Bass & Avolio, 1997). Inspirational motivation, also related to charisma, refers to how leaders inspire and motivate their followers, involving the articulation of vision, enthusiasm, and optimism to followers (Bass, 1977). Intellectual stimulation refers to the tendency for transformational leaders to encourage followers to question assumptions and create innovative solutions to problems. Finally, individualized consideration refers to the extent to which leaders provide individualized support and attention to followers. Strategies such as inspirational motivation and idealized influence may be particularly relevant to the interpersonal components of psychopathy, such as self-promotion and charm.

Psychopathy may bear two-fold implications for leadership, predisposing to both adaptive and maladaptive outcomes. Bass and Avolio (1994) also described passive, or laissez faire leadership, to indicate a relative absence of leadership behavior. Such individuals avoid decision making and fail to take strong positions. This type of leadership is particularly ineffective (Bass, 1998) and may be relevant to the behavioral components of psychopathy such as disinhibition.

An examination of what Hogan and Hogan (1997) referred to as the “dark side of leadership” may further elucidate the implications of both adaptive and maladaptive components of psychopathy for leadership. The dark side of leadership refers to who people *truly* are at work, once good social skills and impression management have gotten them through the door. Hogan and Hogan (2001) identified several dark side characteristics modeled after DSM-IV personality disorders that are potentially related to managerial incompetency. The antisocial personality disorder characteristic identified by Hogan and Hogan (2001) termed *mischievousness* comprises excessive risk taking, manipulativeness, exploitativeness, and deceit. Although traits such as willingness to take risks and charm may be strengths in the short term, they may incur such long-term adverse outcomes as lying, rule breaking, defying authority, and exploiting others (Hogan & Kaiser, 2005). Also potentially related to psychopathy is Hogan and Hogan’s (2001) dark side characteristic modeled after narcissistic personality disorder, termed *boldness*. Hogan and Hogan’s (2001) boldness bears similarities (e.g., self-confidence and sociability) to the Patrick et al. (2009) conceptualization of psychopathic boldness. However, the Hogan and Hogan (2001) conceptualization seems to entail a more pathological level of self-confidence to the point of an excessive sense of entitlement and superiority over others. The authors speculated that in the short-term, individuals with high levels of this characteristic may be courageous or charismatic; however, their long-term inability to admit mistakes and sense of entitlement may lead to poor leadership outcomes (Hogan & Kaiser, 2005).

To address the paucity of research on workplace psychopathy, Babiak, Neumann, & Hare’s (2010) study marks one of the first examinations of the relationship between

psychopathy and leadership. Using a sample of 203 corporate personnel nominated by their companies to participate in management development curricula, the authors examined the prevalence and job performance correlates of psychopathy in a sample of corporations around the world. Participants were administered the PCL-R and scores were converted into PCL: SV equivalents to compare the corporate sample with community samples. Performance appraisal data and general personnel records (e.g., resumes, original applications, absenteeism records, awards) were obtained for each participant. A subset of the sample ( $n = 140$ ) came from companies with 360° observer-report performance feedback, which was included in the analyses. These 360° assessments included such items as “makes effective presentations,” “writes well,” and “treats others with respect” (p. 180). The authors grouped the 360° assessment items into six management competency categories: communication skills, creativity/innovation, leadership skills, management style, strategic thinking, and team player.

Findings revealed that the corporate sample contained more participants with high psychopathy scores, as operationalized by a standard cut-off score on the PCL-R, than a comparable community sample. Notably, most participants with high psychopathy scores held high-ranking executive positions within their companies (e.g., vice-president, supervisor, director). Additionally, 360° assessments and performance appraisals revealed that high psychopathy scorers (on both dimensions) were perceived as poor team players and lacking in management skills, and they received poor performance appraisals from their immediate bosses. Somewhat surprisingly, however, they were also viewed as successful communicators, strategic thinkers, and creative or innovative individuals. These potentially important results raise the possibility that psychopathy may be a

double-edged sword, fostering both the maladaptive and adaptive leadership behaviors in the workplace. Particular strengths of this study include the use of a well-validated psychopathy measure and 360° ratings. Nevertheless, the results of the study must be interpreted in light of the fact that the sole PCL-R interviewer in the study may not have been blind to some of the outcome information, including data that may have contributed to the 360° ratings.

Although much of the speculation regarding psychopathy and leadership has focused on toxic bosses, Lilienfeld et al. (2012) found support for a link between certain psychopathic traits and effective leadership in the U.S. presidents. They acquired ratings on the personality traits of 42 U.S. presidents, up to George W. Bush, from 121 presidential expert historians. The raters evaluated the personality traits of their target presidents using the NEO Personality Inventory-Revised, a well-validated questionnaire that assesses the five major dimensions of personality of the five factor model (Neuroticism, Extraversion, Openness to Experience, Agreeableness, and Conscientiousness) (Costa & McCrae, 1992). From these ratings, the authors used empirically-derived equations to estimate PPI-I (Fearless Dominance) and PPI-II (Self-Centered Impulsivity), which map roughly onto Patrick et al.'s (2009) constructs of boldness and disinhibition. The authors hypothesized that given its ties to charm, social potency, and adaptive risk-taking, Fearless Dominance would be positively related to overall presidential performance.

This hypothesis was supported by findings that PPI-I was related to superior presidential performance, leadership, crisis management, agenda-setting, communication skills, and persuasiveness, all rated by independent historians in large presidential surveys. To date,

these are the first results to suggest that certain components of psychopathy, namely fearless dominance or boldness, are related to superior leadership in political settings. In contrast, PPI-II was positively associated with several maladaptive outcomes, including Congressional impeachment resolutions, tolerating unethical behavior in subordinates, and negative character (a composite measure of unethical behavior). Nevertheless, and contrary to prediction, PPI-II was not negatively associated with overall presidential performance. These findings raise the possibility that certain components of psychopathy are tied to positive leadership outcomes, whereas others are tied to negative leadership outcomes. Considering the potential overlap between the corporate and political arenas, it will be important to extend these findings to the business world.

Westerlaken and Woods (2013) examined the association between psychopathic personality traits and the Full Range Leadership Model (Avolio & Bass, 1991) in 300 undergraduate and postgraduate management students. This nine factor model comprises components of transformational, transactional, and passive leadership styles mentioned earlier. Because of its association with a lack of planfulness and failure to accept responsibility, the authors hypothesized that self-report psychopathy, as measured by the Self Report Psychopathy Scale III-R12 (SRP III-R12; Williams, Paulhus, & Hare, 2007), a variant of the SRP, would correlate with passive leadership styles. Transformational, transactional, and passive leadership styles were measured using the self-report Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (Bass & Avolio, 1995). Global levels of psychopathy correlated negatively with global transformational leadership and the transformational leadership subscale Individualized Consideration, which measures the tendency to treat followers as unique individuals. The SRP-III-R12 subscale of callous

affect was also negatively correlated with global transformational leadership and two transformational leadership subscales, namely, Individualized Consideration and Inspirational Motivation, which measures the articulation of a compelling vision. This subscale was also negatively correlated with the Contingent Reward component of transactional leadership, which assesses the extent to which managers provide rewards based on employee's successes. The SRP-III-R12 subscales of interpersonal manipulation and criminal tendencies were also negatively associated with Individualized Consideration and global transformational leadership. Finally, as predicted, all four SRP-II-R12 subscales were positively associated with a passive leadership style.

Overall, the results indicated that individuals with high levels of psychopathy are less likely to engage in behaviors consistent with transformational and transactional leadership styles. However, the study is marked by several limitations, especially mono-operation bias given the use of self-report measures of both psychopathy and leadership. This reliance on self-reported leadership may be problematic in that people are often limited in their ability to gauge their own leadership ability (Harris & Schaubroeck, 1988; Mabe & West, 1982).

### Hypotheses

Because of the differential pattern of correlates seen for its subcomponents (Hare, 2003), I expect psychopathy to have twofold implications for workplace relevant behavior. I predict that the interpersonal/affective features of psychopathy (e.g., Fearless Dominance/Boldness) will be positively associated with adaptive features. More specifically, I predict that Fearless Dominance/Boldness will correlate positively with past engagement in leadership-relevant activities, and adaptive leadership styles (i.e.,

transformational and transactional leadership). I predict that Fearless Dominance/Boldness will be largely uncorrelated with maladaptive outcomes such as counterproductive workplace behavior and negatively associated with passive leadership styles. In contrast, I predict that features of psychopathy such as Self-Centered Impulsivity/Disinhibition and Coldheartedness/Meanness will be negatively associated with adaptive outcomes such as engagement in leadership activities and adaptive leadership styles. Furthermore, I predict these features will be positively associated with negative outcomes such as engagement in counterproductive workplace behavior and passive leadership styles. Finally, I predict that significant interactions between psychopathy's subcomponents (e.g, Fearless Dominance and Self-Centered Impulsivity) will emerge in predicting both counterproductive workplace behavior and leadership.

## Method

### *Participants*

Participants were North American members of the online community ( $N = 312$ ) ranging from 18 to 73 years of age with a mean of 33.96 ( $SD = 11.66$ ). The sample was primarily female (58.3%) with a racial breakdown as follows: Caucasian (73.3%), African American (7.9%), Asian (6.5%), Hispanic (2.9%), Biracial (2.5%), American Indian (1.9%), Middle Eastern (.6%), Native Hawaiian (.5%), and Other (.4%).

### *Procedure*

Data were collected from participants using Amazon's Mechanical Turk (M-Turk) system, a widely used system allowing secure, rapid, and inexpensive data collection over the internet. With a user base of approximately 100,000 individuals, M-



Turk hosts surveys posted by researchers to be voluntarily completed by workers for monetary compensation. M-Turk samples are more representative of the U.S. populations than undergraduate samples, significantly more diverse than undergraduate samples, and meet acceptable psychometric standards (Buhrmester, Kwang, & Gosling, 2011; Simons & Chabris, 2012). Participants were administered the following questionnaires online using M-Turk and were compensated three dollars for their participation.

### *Measures*

#### Measures of Psychopathy

*Psychopathic Personality Inventory-Revised* (PPI-R; Lilienfeld & Widows, 2005).

The PPI-R is a 154 item self-report inventory designed to assess the personality traits, attitudes, and dispositions associated with psychopathy rather than overt antisocial behaviors. Items are answered on a 1-4 Likert-type scale. The measure consists of eight factor-analytically derived lower-order scales (i.e., Social Influence, Fearlessness, Stress Immunity, Rebellious Nonconformity, Blame Externalization, Carefree Nonplanfulness, Machiavellian Egocentricity, and Coldheartedness). These scales coalesce into two largely independent higher-order factors, PPI-I (Fearless Dominance) and PPI-II (Self-Centered Impulsivity) (Benning et al., 2003; but see Neumann, Malterer, & Newman, 2008 for an alternative factor structure). The eighth subscale, Coldheartedness, does not load highly on either PPI higher-order factor. PPI-R total scores are positively associated with peer and interviewer ratings of Cleckley psychopathy and measures of antisocial personality disorder. PPI-R demonstrates good construct validity with total scores showing negative correlations with self-reported fear, anxiety, and empathy, and positive associations with indices of antisocial, narcissistic, and histrionic traits (Lilienfeld &

Widows, 2005). In the present sample, Cronbach's alphas for the PPI-R subscales were high (*Social Influence*,  $\alpha = .90$ ; *Fearlessness*,  $\alpha = .88$ ; *Stress Immunity*,  $\alpha = .91$ ; *Rebellious Nonconformity*,  $\alpha = .87$ ; *Blame Externalization*,  $\alpha = .91$ ; *Carefree Nonplanfulness*,  $\alpha = .85$ ; *Machiavellian Egocentricity*,  $\alpha = .86$ ; and *Coldheartedness*,  $\alpha = .85$ ).

The PPI-R also includes three validity scales designed to detect biased or inconsistent responding. The Deviant Responding Scale consists of 10 items aimed at detecting malingering, careless responding, or difficulties in reading comprehension. The Variable Response Inconsistency Scale consists of the sum of the absolute differences between 40 item pairs, measuring a respondent's proclivity to respond inconsistently to items with similar content. In this sample, nine participants with scores of 50 and above on the Variable Response Inconsistency Scale or scores of 25 and above on the Deviant Responding Scale were excluded from analyses. Finally, the PPI Unlikely Virtues Scales consists of items designed to detect socially desirable responding (e.g., "On major holidays, I never eat more than I should") and was used as a covariate in subsidiary analyses.

*Triarchic Psychopathy Measure* (TriPM; Patrick, 2010). The TriPM is a 58 item self-report measure designed to assess the triarchic conceptualization (Patrick, Fowles, & Krueger, 2009) of psychopathy described earlier. Items are answered on a 1-4 Likert type scale. The measure consists of three scales assessing each of the components of the triarchic model of psychopathy (i.e., Boldness, Disinhibition, Meanness). The Boldness scale (19 items) is a newly constructed scale designed to roughly assess the PPI-R construct of Fearless Dominance (Patrick, 2010). The Disinhibition (20 items) and

Meanness (19 items) scales are derived from the Externalizing Spectrum Inventory (ESI; Krueger, Markon, Patrick, Benning, & Kramer, 2007) and roughly map onto the PPI-R constructs of Self-Centered Impulsivity and Coldheartedness, respectively (Patrick, 2010). Despite being a relatively new inventory, the TriPM demonstrates construct validity. The Boldness scale is positively associated with the interpersonal facet (e.g. charm, grandiosity, manipulateness) of the PCL-R and the Fearless Dominance component of the PPI-R (Patrick, 2010; Sellbom & Phillips, 2012; Stanley, Wygant, & Sellbom, 2012). The Disinhibition scale is positively associated with the lifestyle facet (e.g., impulsivity, irresponsibility) of the PCL-R (Patrick, 2010), and with PPI-R Self Centered Impulsivity (Sellbom & Phillips, 2012; Stanley, Wygant, & Sellbom, 2012). Finally, scores on the Meanness scale are positively associated with callous aggression, the affective facet (e.g., shallow affect, lack of remorse) of the PCL-R (Patrick, 2010), and PPI-R Coldheartedness (Sellbom & Phillips, 2012). In this sample, Cronbach's alphas for the TriPM subscales were high (*Boldness*,  $\alpha = .88$ ; *Disinhibition*,  $\alpha = .89$ ; *Meanness*,  $\alpha = .92$ ).

*Levenson Self-Report Psychopathy Scale (LSRP; Levenson, Kiehl, & Fitzpatrick, 1995).* The LSRP is a 26 item self-report measure modeled largely after the PCL-R. The measure consists of two scales; one assessing primary psychopathy and the other secondary psychopathy (see Karpman, 1941, for a detailed description of the primary-secondary psychopathy distinction). The Primary Scale of the LSRP is designed to assess “a selfish, uncaring, and manipulative posture towards others” (p.152). Conversely, the Secondary Scale aims to measure “impulsivity and a self-defeating lifestyle” (p. 152) and a disposition toward antisocial and criminal behavior. The LSRP scales show promising

construct validity. For example, the Primary Scale correlates negatively with five factor model (FFM) agreeableness, whereas the Secondary Scale correlates negatively with FFM agreeableness and conscientiousness, but positively with neuroticism (Lynam, Whiteside, & Jones, 1999). However, the Levenson Primary Scale has been criticized (e.g., Lilienfeld & Fowler, 2006) for appearing to operate largely as a measure of secondary psychopathy; for example, in several studies this scale has correlated just as highly, if not more highly, with measures of antisocial behavior than the Levenson Secondary Scale (e.g., McHoskey, Worzel, & Szyarto, 1998). More recently, Poythress et al. (2010) showed the Levenson Primary Scale demonstrates poor discriminant validity as it correlates significantly more highly with Factor 2 of the PCL-R than Factor 1 of the PCL-R, which the Levenson Primary Scale is intended to map onto. In this sample, Cronbach's alphas for the two LSRP subscales were high (*Levenson Primary Scale*,  $\alpha = .91$ ; *Levenson Secondary Scale*,  $\alpha = .81$ ).

#### Measures of Leadership

*Leadership Activities Scale (LAS)*. The LAS is a 13 item self-report measure derived in part from the Adolescent Leadership Activities scale (Mumford, O'Connor, Clifton, Connelly, & Zaccaro, 1993) and designed to assess past engagement in leadership behavior. The scale asks respondents to indicate the frequency of which they have engaged in a variety of behavior (e.g., ran for political office, held a formal leadership position at work, and was active in clubs, political groups, or PTAs). Participants responded on a 0-5 scale with 0 indicating never and 5 indicating engagement in an activity 5 or more times. In this sample, Cronbach's alpha for the LAS was .81.

*Multifactor Leadership Scale, Form 6-S* (MLQ-6S; Bass & Avolio, 1992). The MLQ-6S, a shortened form of the MLQ, is a 21 item self-report measure designed to assess Bass and Avolio's (1994) full range theory of leadership. The measure consists of seven theoretically constructed subscales assessing transformational, transactional, and passive leadership styles. Four subscales (i.e., Idealized Influence, Inspirational Motivation, Intellectual Stimulation, and Individualized Consideration) measure transformational leadership. Two subscales (i.e., Contingent Reward and Management by Exception) measure transactional leadership. Finally, one subscale (i.e., Laissez-Faire) measures passive leadership styles. In this sample, Cronbach's alphas for the MLQ subscales were as follows: *Idealized Influence*,  $\alpha = .79$ ; *Inspirational Motivation*,  $\alpha = .66$ ; *Intellectual Stimulation*,  $\alpha = .77$ ; *Individualized Consideration*,  $\alpha = .65$ ; *Contingent Reward*,  $\alpha = .73$ ; *Management by Exception*,  $\alpha = .40$ ; *Laissez-Faire*,  $\alpha = .56$ .

The measure has been criticized for an inconsistent factor structure and a lack of discriminant validity (e.g., high inter-correlations among transformational scales) (Hunt, 1999; Yukl, 1999). However, the MLQ remains widely used and is arguably the best validated (Antonakis & House, 2002) measure of the full range leadership model. Global levels of transformational and transactional leadership (as measured by the MLQ) correlate positively with leader effectiveness (e.g., motivation and performance of followers) (Howell & Avolio, 1993; Bass, Avolio, & Goodheim, 1987), whereas passive leadership correlates negatively with leader effectiveness and follower satisfaction (Dumdum, Lowe, & Avolio, 1992). Furthermore, some authors suggest (e.g., Antonakis, 2001, Baron & Kenny, 1986) that moderators may account for the inconsistent factor structure of the MLQ across studies. For example, Antonakis, Avolio, and

Sivasubramaniam (2003) found the MLQ factor structure to be invariant with samples from homogeneous contexts. Examples of homogenous samples used in these studies include only male or only female samples, leaders from high risk environments where employee safety is of concern vs. low risk working environments, and leader hierarchical levels (e.g., project managers vs. CEOs). When homogenous samples are pooled together to form more heterogeneous contexts, the factor structure of the MLQ is less consistent. Findings such as these may suggest that the factor structure of the MLQ is universal and context sensitive at the same time (Antonakis & House, 2002).

#### Measures of Counterproductive Workplace Behavior

*Workplace Deviance Scale* (Bennett & Robinson, 2000). The Workplace Deviance scale is a 24 item theoretically derived measure assessing self-reported levels of counterproductive workplace behavior (CWB). Factor analyses of the measure reveal a two-factor structure (Bennett & Robinson, 2000). The first factor assesses organizational deviance, viz., CWB that directly harms an organization (e.g., absenteeism, stealing office supplies). The second factor assesses interpersonal deviance, viz., CWB directed towards co-workers (e.g., insulting or bullying co-workers). The measure demonstrates good convergent validity. For example, the interpersonal deviance scale is positively associated with theoretically relevant constructs such as frustration, perceived injustice, and Machiavellianism. The organizational deviance scale is also positively associated with perceived injustice as well as other measures of antagonistic workplace behavior (Bennett & Robinson, 2000). Furthermore, the differential patterns of correlates for organizational and interpersonal deviance suggest the two subscales provide some evidence for discriminant validity of the subscales. In this sample, Cronbach's alphas for

the CWB scales were high (*Interpersonal Deviance*,  $\alpha = .85$ ; *Organizational Deviance*,  $\alpha = .85$ ).

## Results

Table 1 presents descriptive statistics for the primary measures and subscales in the study. Sample mean scores on PPI-R total and PPI-R Self-Centered Impulsivity did not differ markedly from established community norms (Lilienfeld & Widows, 2005). However, sample mean scores on PPI-R Fearless Dominance were slightly lower than community norms. Table 2 presents the inter-correlations among the psychopathy measures. Consistent with previous literature (Benning et al., 2003), PPI-R Fearless Dominance and PPI-R Self-Centered Impulsivity were not significantly associated. PPI-R Fearless Dominance was significantly positively correlated with LSRP 1 and significantly negatively correlated with LSRP 2. As expected, PPI-R Fearless Dominance was highly and significantly positively associated with TriPM Boldness. In contrast, PPI-R Fearless Dominance was not significantly associated with TriPM Disinhibition but was significantly negatively associated with TriPM Meanness. PPI-R Self-Centered Impulsivity was highly and significantly positively correlated with TriPM Disinhibition, LSRP total scores, LSRP 1, and LSRP 2.

Table 3 presents the inter-correlations among the leadership measures and the counterproductive workplace behavior (CWB) inventory. Interpersonal and organizational CWB were highly positively correlated. Total CWB and organizational CWB were also significantly negatively correlated with the MLQ transformational composite. Past engagement in leadership activities (LAS) was significantly positively associated with the MLQ transformational and transactional composites. The MLQ

transformational and transactional composites significantly positively correlated with each other and were non-significantly associated with MLQ Laissez Faire leadership.

### *Psychopathy and Counterproductive Workplace Behavior*

#### Main Analyses

Table 4 presents the zero-order correlations among the psychopathy measures and self-reported counterproductive workplace behavior (CWB). My hypotheses were partially supported. As predicted, Fearless Dominance and Boldness (as measured by the PPI-R and TriPM, respectively) were non-significantly associated with total self-reported engagement in CWB. PPI-R Fearless Dominance and TriPM Boldness were also non-significantly associated with organizational or interpersonal CWB. As expected, PPI-R Self-Centered Impulsivity, TriPM Disinhibition, PPI-R Coldheartedness, and TriPM Meanness were each highly and positively associated with all forms of CWB. LSRP Total, LSRP 1, and LSRP 2 scores were also positively associated with all forms of CWB. In sum, Fearless Dominance/Boldness was generally non-significantly associated with CWB whereas other components of psychopathy (e.g., Self-Centered Impulsivity/Disinhibition) were positively associated with CWB.

Hierarchical regression analyses were used to examine the interaction between Fearless Dominance and Self-Centered Impulsivity in relation to CWB. Fearless Dominance and Self-Centered Impulsivity were centered on the mean and entered in the first step of a regression model to control for the main effects of Fearless Dominance and Self-Centered Impulsivity. In the second step of the regression model, a partialled product term (created by multiplying the mean-centered variables of Fearless Dominance and Self-Centered Impulsivity) was used to represent the interaction between the two



PPI-R factors. Results indicated that the interaction between Fearless Dominance and Self-Centered Impulsivity explained a significant increase in the variance of CWB above and beyond Fearless Dominance and Self-Centered Impulsivity alone ( $\Delta R^2 = .01$ ,  $F(1, 287) = 4.11$ ,  $p < .05$ ). To decompose this interaction, a median split separating participants by high and low scores on Fearless Dominance was conducted. Two simple linear regressions were used to examine the differing relationship of Self-Centered Impulsivity with CWB dependent on high or low levels of Fearless Dominance. For low levels of Fearless Dominance, Self-Centered Impulsivity was positively related to CWB ( $R^2 = .25$ ,  $\beta = .24$ ,  $p < .001$ ). However, for high levels of Fearless Dominance, the relation between Self-Centered Impulsivity and CWB remained positive but was stronger in magnitude ( $R^2 = .36$ ,  $\beta = .40$ ,  $p < .001$ ; see Figure 1).

#### Exploratory Analyses

Exploratory analyses were conducted to examine the relation among the PPI-R subscales and CWB. Table 5 presents the zero-order correlations among the PPI-R subscales and CWB. PPI-R Machiavellian Egocentricity, PPI-R Fearlessness, PPI-R Rebellious Nonconformity, PPI-R Carefree Nonplanfulness, and PPI-R Blame Externalization were significantly positively associated with total CWB, interpersonal CWB, and organizational CWB. In contrast, PPI-R Stress Immunity was significantly negatively associated with total CWB and organizational CWB.

Nine hierarchical regression analyses were used to explore potential interactions between gender and components of psychopathy in predicting CWB. In the first analysis, PPI-R Self-Centered Impulsivity and gender were centered on their respective means and entered in the first step of a regression model to control for the main effects of gender and

Self-Centered Impulsivity. In the second step of the regression model, a partialled product term (created by multiplying the mean-centered variables of gender and Self-Centered Impulsivity) was used to represent the interaction between the two variables. Results indicated that the interaction between gender and Self-Centered Impulsivity explained a significant increase in the variance of interpersonal CWB above and beyond gender and Self-Centered Impulsivity alone ( $\Delta R^2 = .01$ ,  $F(1, 284) = 4.23$ ,  $p < .05$ ). To decompose this interaction, two simple linear regressions were conducted to examine the differing relationship of Self-Centered Impulsivity with interpersonal CWB based on gender. In females, Self-Centered Impulsivity was positively related to interpersonal CWB ( $R^2 = .20$ ,  $\beta = .08$ ,  $p < .001$ ). For males, the relation between Self-Centered Impulsivity and interpersonal CWB remained positive but was stronger ( $R^2 = .22$ ,  $\beta = .13$ ,  $p < .001$ ; see Figure 2). Analyses examining the interaction between gender and other components of psychopathy (i.e., Fearless Dominance and Coldheartedness) and other forms of CWB (i.e., total CWB and organizational CWB) were non-significant and are thus not reported here. Given the large number of exploratory regressions conducted, this lone positive result should therefore be interpreted with caution pending replication.

### *Psychopathy and Leadership*

#### Main Analyses

Table 6 presents the zero-order correlations among the psychopathy measures and self-reported engagement in past leadership behaviors as measured by the LAS. As predicted, PPI-R Fearless Dominance and TriPM Boldness were positively associated with the LAS. In contrast, PPI-R Self Centered Impulsivity and TriPM Disinhibition were non-significantly associated with the LAS. PPI-R Coldheartedness and TriPM Meanness

were non-significantly associated with the LAS. Furthermore, LSRP total scores and LSRP 1 scores were also non-significantly associated with the LAS. In contrast, LSRP 2 was significantly negatively associated with the LAS.

Table 7 presents the zero-order correlations among the PPI-R higher-order factors and the MLQ subscales. PPI-R Fearless Dominance was positively associated with the MLQ subscales of Idealized Influence, Inspirational Motivation, Individualized Consideration, and Intellectual Consideration. These MLQ subscales were combined to create a composite scale measuring transformational leadership. PPI-R Fearless Dominance was positively associated with composite transformational leadership scores (see Table 8). As predicted, PPI-R Fearless Dominance was positively associated with the MLQ Contingent Reward subscale and the MLQ Management by Exception subscale. These two MLQ subscales were also combined to form a composite scale measuring transactional leadership. PPI-R Fearless Dominance was significantly positively associated with the transactional leadership composite (see Table 8). Consistent with hypotheses, PPI-R Fearless Dominance was non-significantly associated with MLQ Laissez Faire leadership.

Also consistent with hypotheses, PPI-R Self Centered Impulsivity was negatively associated with MLQ Idealized Influence, Inspirational Motivation, and Individualized Consideration. PPI-R Self Centered Impulsivity was non-significantly associated with Intellectual Stimulation and was significantly and negatively associated with composite transformational leadership scores. PPI-R Self-Centered Impulsivity was significantly and negatively associated with the MLQ Contingent Reward and Management by Exception subscales, and the transactional leadership composite. Contrary to hypotheses,

PPI-R Self Centered Impulsivity was not significantly associated with MLQ Laissez Faire leadership. PPI-R Coldheartedness was significantly negatively associated with MLQ Idealized Influence, Inspirational Motivation, Individualized Consideration, composite transformational leadership scores and composite transactional leadership. PPI-R Coldheartedness was not significantly associated with MLQ Intellectual Stimulation or Laissez Faire leadership.

Table 9 presents the zero-order correlations among the TriPM factors and the MLQ subscales. As predicted, TriPM Boldness was significantly positively associated with MLQ Idealized Influence, Inspirational Motivation, Individualized Consideration, and Intellectual Stimulation. TriPM Boldness was also significantly positively associated with composite transformational leadership scores (see Table 10). Also consistent with hypotheses, TriPM Boldness was significantly positively associated with the MLQ Management by Exception and Contingent Rewards subscales and the transactional leadership composite (see Table 10). TriPM Boldness was significantly negatively correlated with MLQ Laissez Faire leadership. TriPM Disinhibition and Meanness were significantly and negatively associated with MLQ Idealized Influence, Inspirational Motivation, and Individualized Consideration. The two TriPM scales were not significantly associated with MLQ Intellectual Stimulation and were significantly and negatively associated with composite transformational and transactional leadership scores. These two TriPM scales were significantly negatively associated with MLQ Management by Exception and non-significantly associated with MLQ Laissez Faire leadership. In sum, these results suggest that the Fearless Dominance/Boldness components of psychopathy are positively associated with adaptive leadership correlates

whereas Self-Centered Impulsivity/Disinhibition and Coldheartedness/Meanness are negatively associated with these correlates.

Table 11 presents the zero-order correlations among the LSRP and its factors and the MLQ subscales. LSRP total scores, LSRP 1, and LSRP 2 were all significantly negatively associated with MLQ Idealized Influence and Individualized Consideration. LSRP total scores and LSRP 2 were significantly and negatively correlated with MLQ Inspirational Motivation, whereas the correlation with LSRP 1 was non-significant. The LSRP and its factors were not significantly associated with MLQ Intellectual Stimulation but were significantly negatively associated with composite transformational leadership scores (see Table 12). LSRP total scores and LSRP 2 were significantly negatively associated with MLQ Contingent Reward and Management by Exception and the transactional leadership composite (see Table 12). LSRP 1 was not significantly associated with these MLQ subscales. LSRP total and LSRP 1 scores were non-significantly associated with MLQ Laissez Faire leadership whereas LSRP 2 was significantly positively associated with this subscale. In sum, the LSRP and its subcomponents were generally negatively associated with adaptive leadership correlates and one component (LSRP 2) was positively associated with maladaptive correlates.

Hierarchical regression analyses were used to examine the potential interactions between Fearless Dominance and Self-Centered Impulsivity for composite levels of transformational leadership, transactional leadership, passive leadership (i.e., MLQ Laissez Faire subscale), and past leadership activities (i.e., LAS). For each of these analyses, product terms (using mean centered PPI-R variables Fearless Dominance and Self-Centered Impulsivity) were entered into the second step of the hierarchical

regression model after controlling for the main effects of Fearless Dominance and Self-Centered Impulsivity. The interaction terms were non-significant for all of these analyses.

#### Exploratory Analyses

Exploratory analyses were conducted to examine the relations among PPI-R subscales and the various indicators of leadership. Table 13 presents the zero-order correlations among the PPI-R subscales, past engagement in leadership activities (LAS), and MLQ composite scores. PPI-R Social Influence and PPI-R Stress Immunity were significantly and positively associated with past engagement in leadership activities, transformational leadership, and transactional leadership. PPI-R Fearlessness was also significantly positively associated with past engagement in leadership activities. PPI-R Carefree Nonplanfulness was significantly negatively associated with past engagement in leadership activities, transformational leadership, and transactional leadership. PPI-R Machiavellian Egocentricity and PPI-R Blame Externalization were also significantly negatively associated with transformational leadership. PPI-R Social Influence was significantly negatively associated with MLQ Laissez Faire leadership, whereas PPI-R Rebellious Nonconformity was significantly positively associated with MLQ Laissez Faire leadership.

Hierarchical regression analyses were used to explore potential interactions between gender and components of psychopathy in predicting indicators of leadership. In the first analysis, PPI-R Fearless Dominance and gender were centered on their respective means and entered in the first step of a regression model to control for the main effects of gender and Fearless Dominance. In the second step of the regression model, a partialled product term (created by multiplying the mean-centered variables of

gender and Fearless Dominance) was used to represent the interaction between the two variables. Results indicated that the interaction between gender and Fearless Dominance explained a significant increase in the variance of past engagement in leadership behaviors (LAS) above and beyond gender and Fearless Dominance alone ( $\Delta R^2 = .01$ ,  $\Delta F(1, 297) = 4.30$ ,  $p < .05$ ). To decompose this interaction, two simple linear regressions were conducted to examine the differing relation of Fearless Dominance with past engagement in leadership activities (LAS) based on gender. In males, Fearless Dominance was positively related to past engagement in leadership activities ( $R^2 = .08$ ,  $\beta = .10$ ,  $p < .05$ ). For females, the relation between Fearless Dominance and past engagement in leadership activities was also positive but stronger ( $R^2 = .15$ ,  $\beta = .20$ ,  $p < .001$ ; see Figure 3).

In a second analysis, PPI-R Self-Centered Impulsivity and gender were centered on their respective means and entered in the first step of a regression model to control for the main effects of gender and Self-Centered Impulsivity. In the second step of the model, a partial product term (created by multiplying the mean-centered variables of gender and Self-Centered Impulsivity) was used to represent the interaction between the two variables. Results indicated that the interaction between gender and Self-Centered Impulsivity explained a significant increase in MLQ Laissez Faire leadership above and beyond gender and Self-Centered Impulsivity alone ( $\Delta R^2 = .02$ ,  $\Delta F(1, 289) = 4.85$ ,  $p < .05$ ). To decompose this interaction, two simple linear regressions were conducted to examine the differing relation between Self-Centered Impulsivity with MLQ Laissez Faire leadership based on gender. In males, Self-Centered Impulsivity was not significantly associated with MLQ Laissez Faire leadership ( $R^2 = .01$ ,  $\beta = -.01$ , ns).

However, in females, Self-Centered Impulsivity was significantly positively associated with MLQ Laissez Faire leadership ( $R^2 = .03$ ,  $\beta = .02$ ,  $p < .05$ , see Figure 4). Analyses examining the interaction between gender and other components of psychopathy and the other components of leadership were non-significant and hence are not reported here. Again, given the large number of exploratory regressions conducted, these positive results should be interpreted with caution pending replication. In general, the overall relations among psychopathy, counterproductive workplace behavior, and leadership did not vary drastically across gender.

### Discussion

In this study, I sought to elucidate the relations among psychopathy and workplace relevant behaviors, such as leadership and counterproductive workplace behavior (CWB). In light of findings suggesting that components of psychopathy (e.g., Fearless Dominance/Boldness, Self-Centered Impulsivity/Disinhibition, and Coldheartedness/Meanness) show differential patterns of correlations (Hare, 2003), I hypothesized that the Fearless Dominance/Boldness component of psychopathy would be associated with adaptive workplace behaviors but that the Self-Centered Impulsivity/Disinhibition and Coldheartedness/Meanness components of psychopathy would be associated with maladaptive behaviors.

Overall, the findings of this study offer broad support for the hypothesis that psychopathy has dual implications, both adaptive and maladaptive, for workplace behavior. First the boldness component displayed non-significant and near-zero associations with total engagement in CWB and organizational CWB. The construct was non-significantly associated with interpersonal CWB, although this relationship was in



the positive direction. The boldness component of psychopathy also displayed several adaptive correlates that are relevant to the workplace. Not only was boldness unrelated to maladaptive workplace behaviors, the construct was related to positive behaviors, such as past engagement in leadership activities and adaptive leadership styles (e.g., transformational and transactional leadership). These findings are especially relevant in light of recent media and scholarly attention suggesting that psychopaths in the workplace are “monsters” or “organizational destroyers” (Clarke, 2005; Boddy, 2011) and suggest that such proclamations may be overstatements.

Although proclamations regarding the toxicity of psychopathy in the workplace may be exaggerated, they may not be entirely unfounded. In contrast to the apparent adaptive features of boldness, other components of psychopathy such as disinhibition and meanness (as measured by the PPI-R and TriPM) are associated with negative workplace behaviors. In this study, the two constructs were significantly associated with CWB. Furthermore, the constructs of disinhibition and meanness were negatively associated with adaptive workplace behaviors, such as transformational and transactional leadership styles. These findings are pragmatically important to the extent that they provide information relevant to employee selection and monitoring. However, they are also theoretically important in their implications for the potentially differential manifestations, both adaptive and maladaptive, of psychopathy. Furthermore, they are consistent with evidence pointing towards the multidimensionality of psychopathy, at least at a lower-order level.

The differential associations among boldness, disinhibition, and adaptive leadership styles such as transformational and transactional leadership are particularly

relevant to the workplace. In the construction of the Full Range Theory of Leadership, Bass (1998) hypothesized that transformational and transactional leadership would be predictive of leadership effectiveness. In contrast, passive leadership styles (e.g., Laissez Faire) would be predictive of leadership ineffectiveness. In this study, boldness (as measure by the PPI-R and TriPM) was non-significantly associated with passive leadership. Furthermore, substantial and consistent evidence suggests that transformational and transactional leadership predict leader performance (Bass, Avolio, Jung, & Berson, 2002; Barling, Weber, & Kelloway, 1996; Lowe, Kroeck, & Sivasubramaniam, 1996; Özaralli, 2003).

Several exploratory analyses were also informative. Most PPI-R subscales were positively associated with counterproductive workplace behavior (CWB). But perhaps most interesting were the PPI-R subscales that were negligibly or negatively associated with CWB. Although PPI-R Social Influence was minimally associated with CWB, PPI-R Stress Immunity was negatively associated with these maladaptive workplace outcomes. These findings suggest that certain components of psychopathy, specifically, Stress Immunity, could serve as protective factors against destructive workplace behaviors. This finding is consistent with literature suggesting that PPI-R Stress Immunity is a marker of low levels of negative emotionality (Lilienfeld & Perna, 2001), which itself is positively associated with externalizing behaviors (Krueger, Caspi, & Moffitt, 2000). PPI-R Stress Immunity and Social Influence also emerged as strong predictors of adaptive workplace behaviors, such as past engagement in leadership activities and adaptive leadership styles (e.g., transformational, transactional). Both of these scales are linked to low anxiety, specifically low social anxiety in the case of Social

Influence (Lilienfeld & Andrews, 1996). Anxiety, particularly a fear of embarrassment or failure, could make some individuals reluctant to lead. Perhaps most interesting are the findings the PPI-R Fearlessness was positively associated with both CWB and past engagement in leadership behavior. This finding suggests fearlessness acts as a double-edged sword, simultaneously predisposing towards both positive and negative leadership behaviors (see also Lykken, 1995).

Exploratory analyses revealed interactions between gender and components of psychopathy for predicting both leadership and CWB. For example, of particular interest is the finding that the relation between PPI-R Fearless Dominance and past engagement in leadership activities was more pronounced in females than in males. High levels of Fearless Dominance are less normative in women than in men (Lilienfeld & Widows, 2005); women who display particularly high levels of the trait may stand out as being more assertive. Furthermore, recent popular writings suggest that assertiveness may be essential for women to rise to the top of leadership ranks (Sandberg, 2013). Findings in this study also suggest a stronger relationship between Self-Centered Impulsivity and interpersonal CWB in males as compared with females. This finding may reflect the general tendency of males to externalize more so than women (Gaub & Carlson, 1997). Nevertheless, these interactions must be interpreted with caution pending replication, especially in light of previous research casting doubt on the replicability of findings suggesting that psychopathy is expressed differentially in males and females (Cale & Lilienfeld, 2002; Miller, Watts, & Jones, 2011).

### *Limitations*

The results of the present study must be interpreted in light of several limitations, each of which provides promising directions for future research on workplace psychopathy. Perhaps the most important is the exclusive reliance on self-report indices of psychopathy, counterproductive workplace behavior, and leadership. Shortcomings of the self-report assessment of psychopathy include potential dishonesty, which is often considered a hallmark feature of the condition (Hare, 1991/2003, Lilienfeld & Fowler, 2006). Because of this limitation, the validity of self-report responses by psychopathic individuals may be compromised. Thus, it is worth noting that subsidiary analyses not reported in this paper controlling for the PPI-R Unlikely Virtues scales (an indicator of social desirability response biases) minimally alter the results of the study. The slight positive association between Fearless Dominance and interpersonal CWB and total CWB increased in magnitude, reaching significance; however, the change itself is likely not significant. For other components of psychopathy, such as Self-Centered Impulsivity or Disinhibition, the negative associations with some indicators of adaptive leadership failed to reach significance. Interestingly, measures of these constructs become significantly or marginally significantly positively associated with passive leadership after controlling for Unlikely Virtues. Again, the magnitude of these changes are not large and likely non-significant. However, although informative, these results should be interpreted with caution especially in light of the notorious sample specificity of such analyses. Furthermore, these analyses may entail statistical overcontrol. For one, controlling for social desirability, which is associated with low neuroticism and high agreeableness (One, Viswesvaran, & Reiss, 1996; Pauls & Stemmler, 2003), removes many of the

adaptive features of boldness. For example, it may remove variance accounted for by self-esteem, which in itself may be a large component of constructs such as boldness.

In addition to dishonesty, psychopathy is often marked by a lack of insight (Cleckley, 1976). Thus, individuals high on psychopathic traits may not understand how others perceive them. Nevertheless, self- and other-reported indicators of psychopathy tend to be moderately to highly correlated (Miller, Jones, & Lynam, 2011). This issue is particularly relevant considering the use of self-report indicators of both psychopathy and leadership styles in the present study. Measures such as the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) presumably require a modicum of meta-cognitive insight into one's own personality and relationships with followers. Indeed, self-reported indicators of leadership lack convergence with reports of peers (Harris & Schaubroeck, 1988; Mabe & West, 1982). Despite this limitation, the findings of this study are strengthened by the inclusion of the Leadership Activities Scale. Because this measure inquires about relatively objective behaviors (e.g., holding a leadership position), it ostensibly requires minimal insight.

Findings that components of psychopathy, namely, boldness, are related to adaptive behaviors raise questions about the role of this construct in the condition of psychopathy. Some authors have criticized the validity of the PPI-R Fearless Dominance construct in particular (Gaughan et al., 2009; Miller, Gaughan, & Pryor, 2008). Specifically, the fact that Fearless Dominance correlates negligibly with other components of psychopathy (e.g., Self-Centered Impulsivity) and is not consistently associated with other known correlates of psychopathy (e.g., violence) may call into question the relevance of Fearless Dominance or boldness to psychopathy (Miller &

Lynam, 2012). Nevertheless, Fearless Dominance is consistent with extensive historical and empirical literature alluding to “two faces” (p. 328) of psychopathy: one primarily maladaptive (e.g., Self-Centered Impulsivity, Disinhibition) and one primarily adaptive (e.g., Fearless Dominance, Boldness) (Lilienfeld et al., 2012).

Furthermore, some might question the novelty of findings that Fearless Dominance, a construct tapping charm, confidence, and willingness to take risks, is related to charismatic, adaptive leadership styles. However, Fearless Dominance is also associated with largely maladaptive constructs such as narcissism, sensation seeking, and some forms of antisocial behavior (Lilienfeld et al., 2012). Furthermore, in this sample, Fearless Dominance bore at least some negative implications, in that high levels of the trait potentiated the positive association between Self-Centered Impulsivity and some forms of counterproductive workplace behavior. Thus, to some extent, Fearless Dominance may act as a double-edged sword in the workplace.

Other limitations of the present study include the use of a relatively novel system for data collection, namely, Amazon’s Mechanical Turk system. Though the system has been used increasingly for its ease of rapid data collection, the validity of data gathered using M-Turk requires further investigation. Nevertheless, preliminary research on the validity of M-Turk data is promising, suggesting that M-Turk participants produce high quality data (Buhrmester, Kwang, & Gosling, 2011). The psychometric properties of the measures used in the present study confirm these suggestions. Cronbach’s alphas for subscales of the measures were high and intra-correlations among subscales on the PPI-R were consistent with those of previous literature.

### *Future Directions*

The results of the present study offer several fruitful directions for future research. First and foremost, future studies should address the limitation of self-report indices of leadership. One potentially productive method of leadership measurement is the use of implicit measures, such as conditional reasoning tests, which are presented to participants as inductive reasoning problems. In actuality, these measures are designed to identify patterns of reasoning associated with leadership and leadership styles (James & LeBreton, 2012). The indirect nature of measurement may help to protect against impression management and other response biases. Furthermore, the use of *both* self- and observer-report measures may further elucidate the behavioral implications of psychopathy for the workplace. Additionally, peer reports of leadership performance should allow the examination of impression management tactics that may be associated with psychopathy and related traits (e.g., narcissism). Although observer ratings of job performance can be helpful indicators of leadership style and effectiveness, a full understanding of the practical implications of psychopathy for both leadership and counterproductive workplace behavior also requires an examination of objective performance criteria, such as promotions, bonuses, firings, disciplinary problems, and sales.

Although the present study drew on a diverse community sample, future research should be conducted on industry samples. Examination of such samples will permit the measurement of objective workplace performance indicators mentioned previously. Moreover, different cultural influences may moderate the implications of psychopathy for the workplace. For example, in more individualistic cultures where personal achievement

and independence are valued, employees with psychopathic traits such as boldness may be highly valued for their charisma and vision. Alternatively, in more collectivistic cultures where cooperation and interdependence are emphasized, boldness may be viewed negatively. Indeed, O'Boyle et al. (2012) hypothesized that workplaces high on collectivism, in their emphasis on group loyalty and cohesiveness, would be less tolerant of psychopathic traits. Though this hypothesis was not supported in their study, future research should draw on samples across cultures to provide a more thorough picture of the implications of workplace psychopathy.

In sum, the present study offers preliminary evidence that the boldness component of psychopathy is associated with adaptive leadership styles. Presumably, these findings suggest that individuals high on boldness tend to make better leaders in many settings. Yet the question of why this is the case remains unresolved. As a consequence, the examination of mediators of the relations between boldness and leadership will be important. For example, courageousness or the willingness to take judicious risks may make for better leadership. Alternatively, individuals with high scores on boldness, through charisma and social potency, may inspire more confidence and vision for the future. Similarly, these individuals may demonstrate an appropriate use of assertiveness with employees. Future research should also examine the potential curvilinearity of the relationships between psychopathy's components and workplace relevant outcomes. For example, small doses of meanness could instill just the proper amount of respect from followers to get the job done. However, anything more than a dash of meanness may result in the toxic work environment for which psychopathy is perhaps erroneously notorious.



Finally, the multidimensional assessment of psychopathy is crucial for a more nuanced understanding of this construct in the workplace. As is evident in the present study, the components of psychopathy display differential correlates, some of which (e.g., PPI-R Fearless Dominance, TriPM Boldness) may be related to largely adaptive workplace outcomes and others of which (e.g., PPI-R Self-Centered Impulsivity, TriPM Disinhibition) may be related to largely maladaptive workplace outcomes. Perhaps equally important is the continued examination of both adaptive and maladaptive features of psychopathy. If researchers continue to examine maladaptive criteria alone, they may overlook the potentially adaptive manifestations of workplace psychopath.

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**Table 1**  
*Mean Levels of Measures and Measure Subscales*

<b>Measure</b>	<b>Mean (SD)</b>
<b>PPI-R Total</b>	275.15 (38.29)
<b>PPI-R Fearless Dominance</b>	106.15 (21.57)
<b>PPI-R Self Centered Impulsivity</b>	137.12 (26.40)
<b>TriPM Boldness</b>	46.95 (9.81)
<b>TriPM Disinhibition</b>	63.87 (9.85)
<b>TriPM Meanness</b>	63.40 (10.08)
<b>LSRP Total</b>	48.29 (13.20)
<b>LSRP 1</b>	29.02 (9.24)
<b>LSRP 2</b>	19.26 (5.52)
<b>CWB Total</b>	33.67 (13.70)
<b>CWB Interpersonal Deviance</b>	11.12 (5.49)
<b>CWB Organizational Deviance</b>	22.56 (9.29)
<b>MLQ Transformational Leadership</b>	40.18 (8.41)
<b>MLQ Idealized Influence</b>	10.57 (2.54)
<b>MLQ Inspirational Motivation</b>	9.68 (2.45)
<b>MLQ Individualized Consideration</b>	10.04 (2.51)
<b>MLQ Intellectual Stimulation</b>	9.89 (2.59)
<b>MLQ Transactional Leadership</b>	19.85 (4.31)
<b>MLQ Contingent Reward</b>	9.09 (2.85)
<b>MLQ Management by Exception</b>	10.75 (2.05)
<b>MLQ Laissez-Faire</b>	9.04 (2.33)

*Note.* PPI-R = Psychopathic Personality Inventory- Revised; TriPM = Triarchic Psychopathy Measure; LSRP = Levenson Self-Report Psychopathy; CWB = Counterproductive Workplace Behavior; MLQ = Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire. Due to missing data, sample size for each measure ranges from 277-301.

**Table 2**  
*Correlations among Psychopathy Measures and Higher Order Factors Used in Study*

Measure	1.	2.	3.	4.	5.	6.	7.	8.	9.
1. PPI-R Total	--	.63***	.76***	.60***	.59***	.45***	.43***	.54***	.70***
2. PPI-R Fearless Dominance		--	.01	.05	.16**	-.15**	.85***	-.08	-.19**
3. PPI-R Self-Centered Impulsivity			--	.68***	.55***	.71***	-.15**	.77***	.66***
4. LSRP Total				--	.94***	.82***	-.07	.61***	.74***
5. LSRP 1					--	.57***	.08	.47***	.73***
6. LSRP 2						--	-.30***	.66***	.54***
7. TriPM Boldness							--	-.23***	.10
8. TriPM Disinhibition								--	.60***
9. TriPM Meanness									--

*Note.* \* =  $p < .05$ ; \*\* =  $p < .01$ ; \*\*\* =  $p < .001$ . PPI-R = Psychopathic Personality Inventory- Revised; TriPM = Triarchic Psychopathy Measure; LSRP = Levenson Self-Report Psychopathy. Due to missing data, sample size varies from  $N = 269 - 301$  depending on the analysis.

**Table 3**  
*Correlations among Leadership Measures and Counterproductive Workplace Behavior (CWB)*

Measure/Scale	1.	2.	3.	4.	5.	6.	7.
1. CWB Total	--	.88***	.96***	.05	-.12*	-.06	.00
2. CWB Interpersonal		--	.72***	.06	-.07	-.02	.06
3. CWB Organizational			--	.04	-.14*	-.08	.02
4. LAS				--	.40***	.33***	-.17**
5. MLQ Transformational					--	.70***	-.09
6. MLQ Transactional						--	.01
7. MLQ Laissez Faire							--

*Note.* \* =  $p < .05$ ; \*\* =  $p < .01$ ; \*\*\* =  $p < .001$ . MLQ = Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire; LAS = Leadership Activities Scale. CWB = Counterproductive Workplace Behavior; Due to missing data, sample size varies from  $N = 288 - 293$  depending on the analysis.

**Table 4**  
*Correlations of Psychopathy Measures with Counterproductive Workplace Behavior (CWB)*

<b>Measure</b>	<b>CWB Total</b>	<b>CWB Interpersonal</b>	<b>CWB Organizational</b>
<b>PPI-R Fearless Dominance</b>	.05	.11	.01
<b>PPI-R Self-Centered Impulsivity</b>	.55***	.48***	.27***
<b>PPI-R Coldheartedness</b>	.32***	.35***	.34***
<b>TriPM Boldness</b>	.07	.00	-.11
<b>TriPM Disinhibition</b>	.47***	.38***	.49***
<b>TriPM Meanness</b>	.50***	.53***	.43***
<b>LSRP Total</b>	.49***	.50***	.47***
<b>LSRP 1</b>	.46***	.45***	.42***
<b>LSRP 2</b>	.41***	.35***	.42***

*Note.* \* =  $p < .05$ ; \*\* =  $p < .01$ ; \*\*\* =  $p < .001$ . PPI-R = Psychopathic Personality Inventory- Revised; TriPM = Triarchic Psychopathy Measure; LSRP = Levenson Self-Report Psychopathy. Due to missing data, sample size varies from  $N = 274$ -291 by analysis.

**Table 5**  
*Correlations Among PPI-R Subscales and Counterproductive Workplace Behavior (CWB)*

<b>Measure/Subscale</b>	<b>CWB Total</b>	<b>CWB Interpersonal</b>	<b>CWB Organizational</b>
<b>PPI-R Machiavellian Egocentricity</b>	.59***	.47***	.59***
<b>PPI-R Social Potency</b>	.02	.07	-.02
<b>PPI-R Fearlessness</b>	.28***	.26***	.26***
<b>PPI-R Rebellious Nonconformity</b>	.34***	.24***	.36***
<b>PPI-R Stress Immunity</b>	-.18**	-.07	-.23***
<b>PPI-R Carefree Nonplanfulness</b>	.46***	.38***	.45***
<b>PPI-R Blame Externalization</b>	.30***	.32***	.25***

*Note.* \* =  $p < .05$ ; \*\* =  $p < .01$ ; \*\*\* =  $p < .001$ .  $N = 288$ ; PPI-R = Psychopathic Personality Inventory- Revised; CWB = Counterproductive Workplace Behavior.

**Table 6**  
*Correlations of Psychopathy Measures with Leadership Activities Scale (LAS)*

<b>Measure</b>	<b>Leadership Activities Scale</b>
<b>PPI-R Fearless Dominance</b>	.31***
<b>PPI-R Self Centered Impulsivity</b>	.00
<b>PPI-R Coldheartedness</b>	.02
<b>TriPM Boldness</b>	.37***
<b>TriPM Disinhibition</b>	-.11
<b>TriPM Meanness</b>	.00
<b>LSRP Total</b>	-.07
<b>LSRP 1</b>	-.01
<b>LSRP 2</b>	-.15**

*Note.* \* =  $p < .05$ ; \*\* =  $p < .01$ ; \*\*\* =  $p < .001$ . PPI-R = Psychopathic Personality Inventory- Revised; TriPM = Triarchic Psychopathy Measure; LSRP = Levenson Self-Report Psychopathy. Due to missing data, sample size varies from 280-304 by analysis.

**Table 7**  
*Correlations of PPI-R Factors with MLQ Subscales*

Measure	Idealized Influence	Inspirational Motivation	Individualized Consideration	Intellectual Stimulation	Contingent Reward	Management By Exception	Laissez Faire
<b>PPI-R Fearless Dominance</b>	.43***	.41***	.31***	.33***	.32***	.16**	-.10
<b>PPI-R Self Centered Impulsivity</b>	-.39***	-.23 ***	-.27***	.01	-.12*	-.19**	.09
<b>PPI-R Coldheartedness</b>	-.17**	-.20**	-.28***	-.08	-.11	-.17**	-.01

*Note.* \* =  $p < .05$ ; \*\* =  $p < .01$ ; \*\*\* =  $p < .001$ .  $N = 296$ ; PPI-R = Psychopathic Personality Inventory-Revised; MLQ = Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire

**Table 8**  
*Correlations Among PPI-R Factors and MLQ Composite Scores*

<b>Measure</b>	<b>Transformational Composite</b>	<b>Transactional Composite</b>
<b>PPI-R Fearless Dominance</b>	.45***	.29***
<b>PPI-R Self-Centered Impulsivity</b>	-.26***	-.16**
<b>PPI-R Coldheartedness</b>	-.22***	-.15*

*Note.* \* =  $p < .05$ ; \*\* =  $p < .01$ ; \*\*\* =  $p < .001$ .  $N = 296$ ; PPI-R = Psychopathic Personality Inventory- Revised; MLQ = Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire



**Table 9**  
*Correlations Among TriPM Factors with MLQ Subscales*

<b>Measure</b>	<b>Idealized Influence</b>	<b>Inspirational Motivation</b>	<b>Individualized Consideration</b>	<b>Intellectual Stimulation</b>	<b>Contingent Reward</b>	<b>Management By Exception</b>	<b>Laissez Faire</b>
<b>TriPM Boldness</b>	.51***	.43***	.36***	.37***	.33***	.16**	-.18**
<b>TriPM Disinhibition</b>	-.32***	-.23***	-.24***	-.02	-.08	-.12*	.10
<b>TriPM Meanness</b>	-.25***	-.20**	-.26***	-.03	-.09	-.17**	-.03

*Note.* \* =  $p < .05$ ; \*\* =  $p < .01$ ; \*\*\* =  $p < .001$ .  $N = 287$ ; TriPM = Triarchic Psychopathy Measure; MLQ = Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire

**Table 10**  
*Correlations Among TriPM Factors and MLQ Composite Scores*

<b>Measure</b>	<b>Transformational Composite</b>	<b>Transactional Composite</b>
<b>TriPM Boldness</b>	.50***	.29***
<b>TriPM Disinhibition</b>	-.24***	-.12*
<b>TriPM Meanness</b>	-.22***	-.14*

*Note.* \* =  $p < .05$ ; \*\* =  $p < .01$ ; \*\*\* =  $p < .001$ .  $N = 287$ ; TriPM = Triarchic Personality Inventory; MLQ = Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire

**Table 11**  
*Correlations Among LSRP Factors and the MLQ Subscales*

Measure	Idealized Influence	Inspirational Motivation	Individualized Consideration	Intellectual Stimulation	Contingent Reward	Management By Exception	Laissez Faire
<b>LSRP</b>	-.28***	-.20***	-.30***	-.02	-.12*	-.14*	.09
<b>LSRP 1</b>	-.16**	-.11	-.23***	.03	-.04	-.11	.05
<b>LSRP 2</b>	-.41***	-.30***	-.33***	-.09	-.21***	-.16**	.14*

*Note.* \* =  $p < .05$ ; \*\* =  $p < .01$ ; \*\*\* =  $p < .001$ .  $N = 295$ ; LSRP = Levenson Self-Report Psychopathy; MLQ = Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire.

**Table 12**  
*Correlations Among LSRP Factors and MLQ Composite Scores*

<b>Measure</b>	<b>Transformational Composite</b>	<b>Transactional Composite</b>
<b>LSRP</b>	-.24***	-.15*
<b>LSRP 1</b>	-.14*	-.08
<b>LSRP 2</b>	-.34***	-.22***

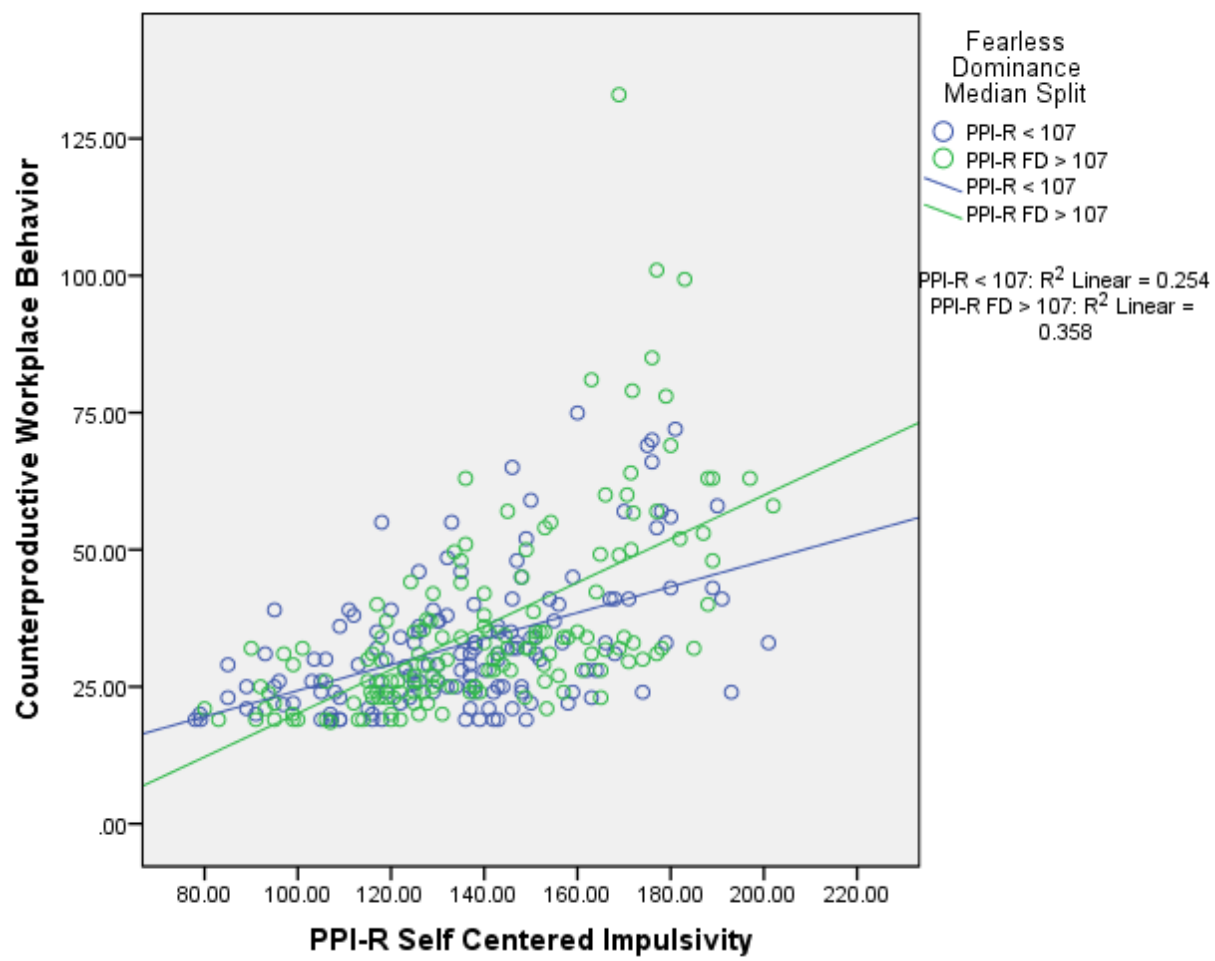
*Note.* \* =  $p < .05$ ; \*\* =  $p < .01$ ; \*\*\* =  $p < .001$ .  $N = 295$ ; LSRP = Levenson Self-Report Psychopathy; MLQ = Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire

**Table 13**  
*Correlations Among PPI-R Subscales and Leadership Measures*

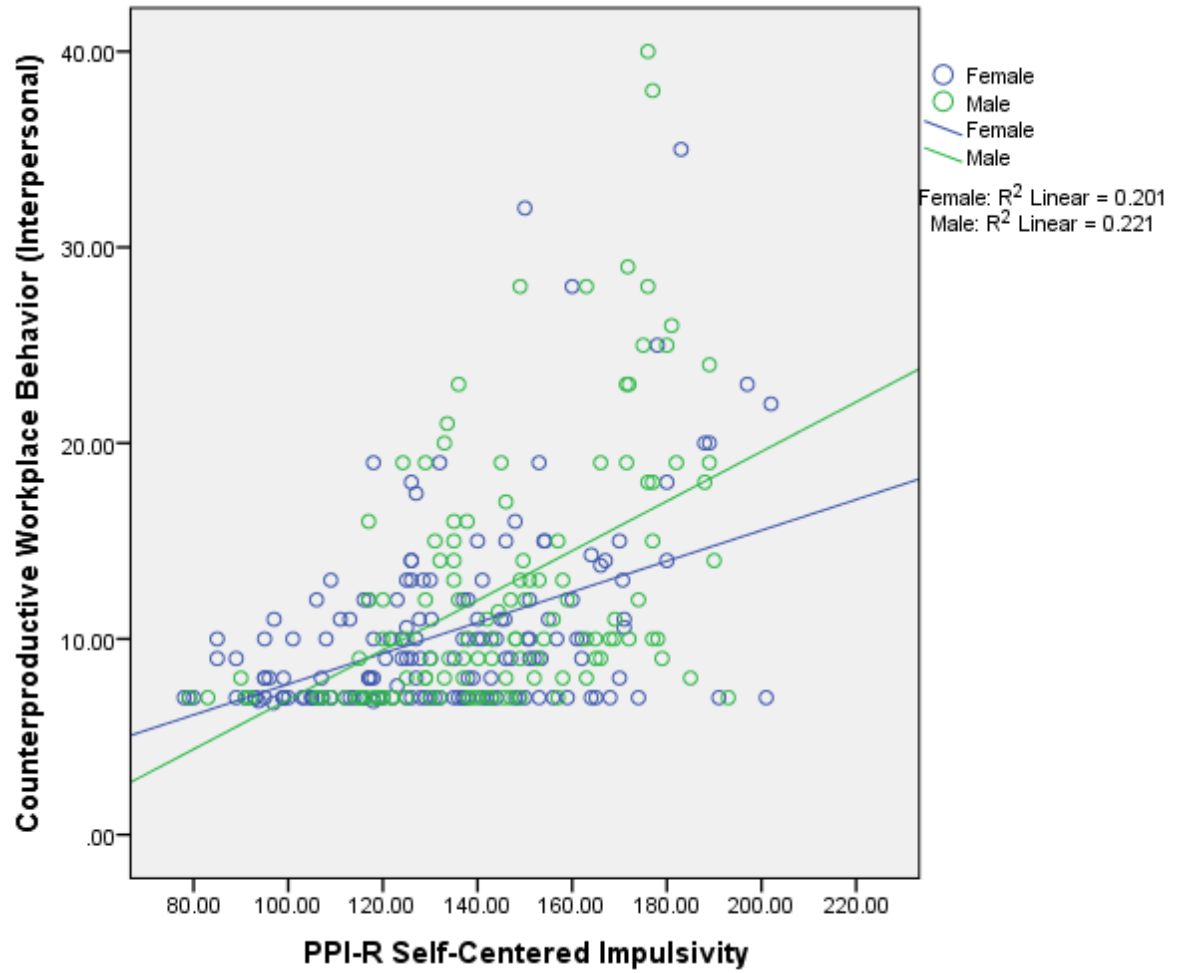
Measure/Subscale	LAS	MLQ Transformational	MLQ Transactional	MLQ Laissez Faire
<b>PPI-R Machiavellian Egocentricity</b>	.05	-.19**	-.09	.02
<b>PPI-R Social Potency</b>	.32***	.55***	.34***	-.12*
<b>PPI-R Fearlessness</b>	.18**	.06	.07	-.01
<b>PPI-R Rebellious Nonconformity</b>	.08	-.02	-.03	.18**
<b>PPI-R Stress Immunity</b>	.23***	.37***	.23***	-.08
<b>PPI-R Carefree Nonplanfulness</b>	-.15*	-.42***	-.27***	.03
<b>PPI-R Blame Externalization</b>	-.08	-.19**	-.12	.05

*Note.* \* =  $p < .05$ ; \*\* =  $p < .01$ ; \*\*\* =  $p < .001$ . PPI-R = Psychopathic Personality Inventory-Revised; LAS = Leadership Activities Scale; MLQ = Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire. Due to missing data  $N$  ranges from 293-301 depending on the analysis conducted.

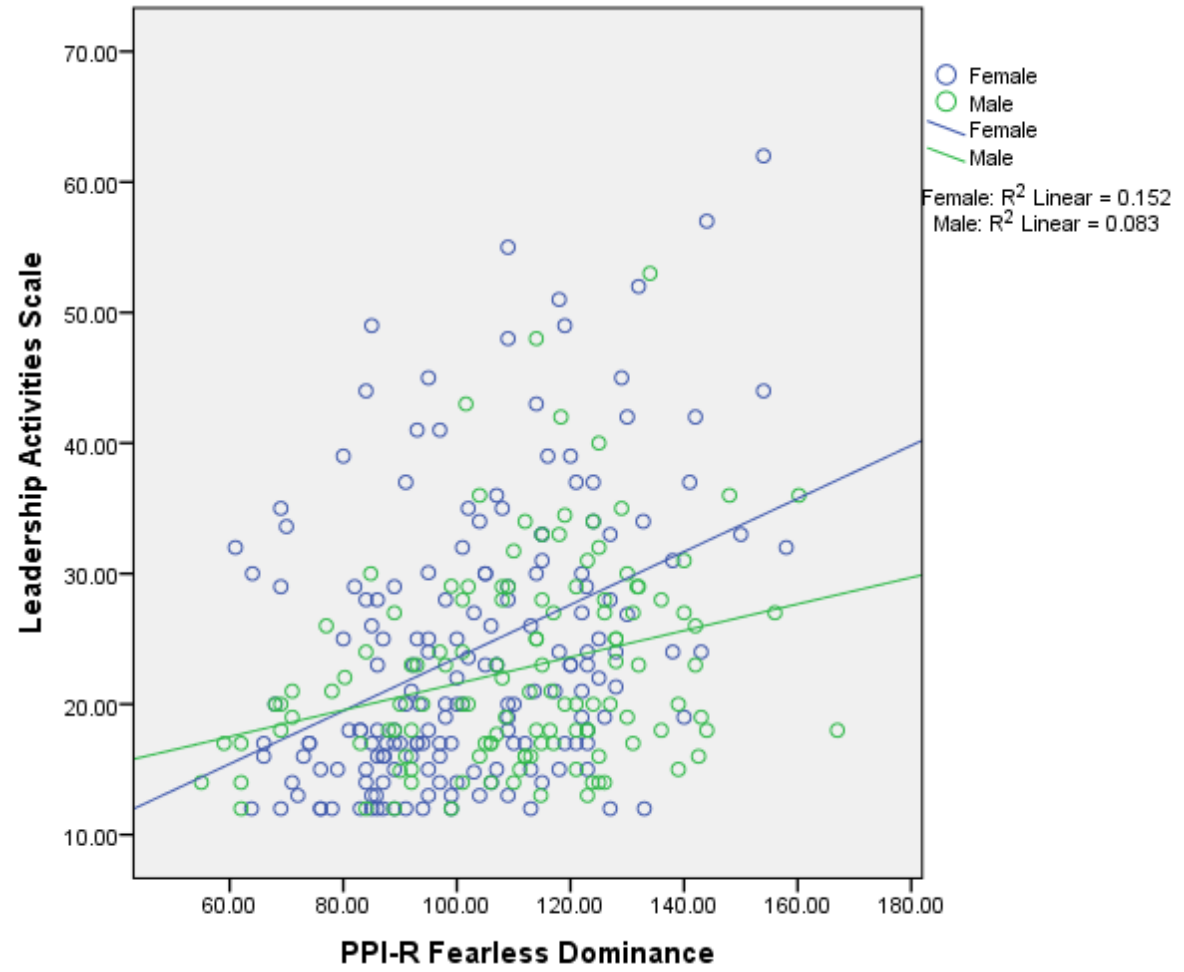
**Figure 1**  
*Interaction of Self-Centered Impulsivity and Fearless Dominance for CWB*



**Figure 2**  
*Interaction of Gender and Self-Centered Impulsivity for Interpersonal CWB*



**Figure 3**  
*Interaction of Fearless Dominance and Gender for the Leadership Activities Scale (LAS)*





**Figure 4**  
*Interaction of Gender and Self-Centered Impulsivity for MLQ Laissez Faire Leadership*

