Psychopathic traits in managers: Implications for employees' motivation, performance, and well-being at work

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Abstract

Psychopathy is a form of personality pathology that has captured the attention of researchers for decades. Yet, it is only recently that researchers have become interested in looking at psychopathy in the organisational context, amongst those in managerial or other formal leadership positions. This thesis examined the impact of perceived manager psychopathy, using the triarchic model (i.e., boldness, meanness, and disinhibition), on employees' motivation, performance, and well-being. Drawing on Self-Determination Theory (SDT), we proposed mechanisms by which these psychopathic traits in managers affect employees' work-related outcomes, and sought to establish whether boldness, rather than meanness and disinhibition, can be adaptive and provide advantages to employees and organisations. We collected data using a three-wave longitudinal online survey with New Zealand employees reporting directly to a manager. The data that was collected is presented in this thesis in three related studies.

Study 1 (n = 505) examined the influence of perceived manager boldness, meanness, and disinhibition on employee amotivation with manager autonomy support as a mediator. Simple mediation analysis showed that autonomy support was indeed a significant mediator of the relationships.

Study 2 (n = 246) investigated the effect of perceived manager boldness, meanness, and disinhibition, on employee job performance. Both manager autonomy support and employee autonomous motivation were included as mediators. Through serial mediation analysis, this study found that perceived manager boldness, meanness, and disinhibition predicted employee job performance via both mediators in a sequence.

Study 3 (n = 125) examined the influence of perceived manager boldness, meanness, and disinhibition, on employee engagement and burnout with satisfaction and / or frustration of employees' basic psychological needs (autonomy, competence, and relatedness) as mediators. Multiple mediation analysis showed that perceived manager boldness predicted employee engagement and burnout through autonomy satisfaction. Perceived manager meanness and disinhibition predicted employee work engagement through both autonomy and relatedness satisfaction, and employee burnout through both autonomy satisfaction and relatedness frustration.

Together, the three studies comprising this thesis extend literature on the implications of psychopathy in organisations, particularly amongst those in leadership positions, by identifying the underlying mechanisms driving the relationships between employees' perception of boldness, meanness, and disinhibition in their manager, and their own motivation, performance, and well-being. Overall, this thesis demonstrates that boldness in managers leads employees to be more motivated, in addition to productive and psychologically well, when working; meanness and disinhibition in managers have the opposite effect.

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Note to reader:

The research that is described in this thesis is my own work. However, it was overseen by both my chief and secondary supervisor, from whom I received much guidance and direction. To reflect this fact, I use the word “we” rather than “I” throughout this thesis. The word “we” is also used throughout this thesis to refer to what is / is not currently known in the wider research community.

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Chapter 1

Introduction and Overview

Psychopathy has been studied for decades (Moreira, 2014). Owing to its roots in clinical literature and practice (Furtner et al., 2017), psychopathy is often described as a personality disorder (Durand & Lobbestael), which arises from an underlying pathology or deficit in interpersonal style, affect, and behavioural functioning (Hall et al., 2014). Individuals scoring high on psychopathy have little fear, are resistant to stress, and come across as self-confident (LeBreton et al., 2006). They are often perceived as manipulative, callous, and remorseless, tend to lack foresight, and are impulsive (LeBreton et al., 2006).

Despite having been identified as one of the most frequently studied personality disorders (Miller & Lynam, 2015), psychopathy is not recognised as a discrete category in the most recent edition of the Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders (DSM-V; American Psychiatric Association, 2013). Nonetheless, the vast majority of researchers continue to use diagnostic cut scores to categorise individuals as either ‘psychopathic’ or ‘non-psychopathic’. Considering that only 1% of individuals are said to meet the criteria for clinical levels of psychopathy (Hare, 2003), a large portion of the population has been overlooked in research on this topic (Steinert et al., 2017).

To date, research has mostly focused on the presence of psychopathy in criminal populations (Smith & Lilienfeld, 2013), particularly those recruited from prisons (Persson & Lilienfeld, 2019). Although psychopathy is commonly associated with aggression, violence, antisocial behaviour, and criminality (Steinert et al., 2017), it does not purely exist amongst those who engage in antisocial or criminal acts (Palmen et al., 2020). Rather, it is distributed in the general population (Watson et

al., 2017). All individuals, including those who live and work in the community, therefore exhibit psychopathic traits, but to varying degrees (Drislane et al., 2014; Patrick & Drislane, 2015).

Psychopathic traits can be thought of as lying on a continuum (Durand, 2018), with clinical expressions evident at one end, and subclinical expressions at the other (Drislane et al., 2014). In recognising that the presentation and severity of these traits differ across individuals (Lilienfeld et al., 2015), how psychopathy manifests can look very different (Steinert et al., 2021), depending on the context in question (Palmen et al., 2020).

Whilst psychopathy can be studied in a wide variety of contexts (Miller & Lynam, 2015), it is only recently that researchers have begun to consider its effects in organisations. One reason for the dearth of studies on psychopathy in organisations (Chiaburu et al., 2013; Schütte et al., 2018) is due to their being reluctant to allow for its examination (McKee et al., 2017). Another is the lack of suitable measures for its assessment (Babiak & Hare, 2006; Mathieu et al., 2014). Research on psychopathy in organisations therefore remains relatively new (Mathieu, 2021), and warrants further attention (Schütte et al., 2018).

Psychopathy is often referred to as being exclusively maladaptive (Khan et al., 2019), as the combination of its traits are known to cause harm to individuals who possess them as well as those they interact with (Forth et al., 2021). In organisations however, some traits are argued to be adaptive (Howe et al., 2014), and may provide advantages to individuals when it comes to job interviews and gaining promotions (Smith & Lilienfeld, 2013). Yet, the potential adaptivity of psychopathy in organisations is rarely considered (Preston et al., 2021). For this

reason, we do not yet have a clear understanding of what psychopathy looks like in organisations (Neo et al., 2018), or the implications it has (Oyewunmi et al., 2018).

More attention is needed to address psychopathy in populations where its adaptive traits may be especially pronounced (Persson & Lilienfeld, 2019). Because they enable favourable impressions (Babiak et al., 2010), certain traits may be mistaken for attractive leadership competencies (Babiak & Hare, 2006), and help individuals ascend to leadership positions (Lilienfeld et al., 2015). In line with this notion, numerous researchers have claimed that individuals who exhibit more psychopathic traits are over-represented in managerial, or other formal leadership, positions in organisations (e.g., Hurst et al., 2017; Palmer et al., 2020; Smith & Lilienfeld, 2013; Spencer & Byrne, 2016).

There is a burgeoning body of research on psychopathy amongst individuals who occupy said positions (ten Brinke et al., 2018). However, this research has mostly relied on global psychopathy scores (Landay et al., 2019) to understand incompetent management or bad leadership, and its negative effects on a range of outcomes (e.g., Mathieu & Babiak, 2015). Given that psychopathy comprises both adaptive and maladaptive traits, studies of this kind have hindered our ability to discern whether some traits provide benefits to employees and organisations (Czarna & Zajas, 2020), and restrict the potential for others to be damaging (Stevens et al., 2012).

Although research on psychopathy amongst leadership is undoubtedly important (Palmen et al., 2020), studies investigating its implications on organisational outcomes are limited (Johnson et al., 2015). This thesis therefore responds to the call to consider how manager psychopathy affects indicators of organisational success (Mathieu et al., 2014). To fully capture the effects of

psychopathy in organisations, observations of both its adaptive and maladaptive traits is imperative (Smith & Lilienfeld, 2013). Whilst there is controversy surrounding the specific set of traits that make up psychopathy (Drislane et al., 2014), and these traits differ somewhat across models (Miller et al., 2016), they are united in the triarchic model (Patrick et al., 2009) as boldness, meanness, and disinhibition. Of these traits, only boldness has the potential to be adaptive; meanness and disinhibition are maladaptive (Lilienfeld et al., 2012).

Managers play a key role in helping organisations to reach their goals and be successful (Mathieu, 2021). The success of an organisation largely depends on the motivation, performance, and well-being of its employees (Pinder, 2014). Because they have direct contact with employees, which impacts their work experiences (Shuck et al., 2018), managers are in a position where they can help shape employees' motivation (Forner et al., 2020). How they behave and interact with their employees also significantly impacts their performance and well-being (Inceoglu et al., 2018).

Although researchers have begun to investigate the implications of manager psychopathy for employees' motivation, performance, and well-being, no study has drawn on Self-Determination Theory (SDT; Deci & Ryan, 2000) to explain 'how' managers exhibiting psychopathic traits exert their influence on these work outcomes. The overarching goal of this thesis is therefore to address this evident research gap. We propose that SDT is well suited to achieving this goal for two main reasons. First, SDT provides guidance on factors in the work environment, including leadership and the interpersonal relations one has, that facilitate optimal motivation. Second, SDT explains the motivational processes that lead to enhanced performance and well-being (Deci et al., 2017).

Research Aims and Questions

This thesis has three major aims, which are to:

(1) Evaluate whether employees' perception of boldness, meanness, and disinhibition in their manager affect their own motivation, performance, and well-being,

(2) Identify the factors that explain the associations between perceived boldness, meanness, and disinhibition in managers and employees' motivation, performance, and well-being, and

(3) Establish the extent to which boldness, meanness, and disinhibition in managers are mal/adaptive.

These aims formed the basis of our research questions, which are:

(1) Do employees' perception of boldness, meanness, and disinhibition in their manager affect their own motivation, performance, and well-being?

(2) How does perceived boldness, meanness, and disinhibition in managers affect employees' motivation, performance, and well-being?

(3) Can boldness in managers be adaptive?

The remainder of this chapter briefly describes the origins and development of psychopathy, and the ways in which it has been assessed, before outlining the triarchic model. We highlight the triarchic model as a way of organising alternative approaches to psychopathy and clarifying the traits that are included in extant measures. The emerging body of research investigating psychopathy in the organisational context is then outlined. In this section, we focus on studies that have examined psychopathy in relation to employee work-related outcomes, specifically motivation, performance, and well-being. We then explain SDT as our theoretical

framework and provide rationale for including SDT variables as mediators in each of our studies. Finally, a summary of the organisation of this thesis is given.

Psychopathy

Descriptions of psychopathy date back to the 1800's (Hare, 1991) and have therefore existed for hundreds of years (Miller & Lynam, 2015). Despite this fact, researchers continue to struggle to define psychopathy (Steinert et al., 2021). Having no agreed upon definition (Hollebeek et al., 2022) likely stems from controversy regarding the way in which psychopathy has been conceptualised and therefore assessed (Patrick, 2022). In addition to disagreement about whether antisocial or criminal behaviour should be included in the definition of psychopathy (Skeem & Cooke, 2010), researchers disagree on whether psychopathy is taxonomic or dimensional in nature (Sanz-García et al., 2021). Researchers also disagree on the structure of psychopathy (Stevens et al., 2012), and its central traits (Donnellan & Burt, 2016; Drislane et al., 2014; Steinert et al., 2017). The next section provides a brief overview of historic and contemporary conceptualisations and assessments of psychopathy and how a new model can help to address some of the long-standing issues of contention.

Historic Conceptualisations

Psychopathy was first described in the early 1800s as manie sans délire or "insanity without delirium" (Pinel ,1806). Other early descriptions viewed psychopathy in terms of "moral depravity" (Rush, 1812) and "moral insanity" (Prichard, 1835). However, it was not until 1941 that a formalised conceptualisation of psychopathy was produced. In his seminal book, The Mask of Sanity, Hervey Cleckley (1976) published a set of criteria to identify 'psychopaths'. The criteria were based on his observations of individuals in a psychiatric inpatient facility (Patrick et al., 2009), who

initially appeared as psychologically stable, but later revealed their underlying pathology (Lilienfeld et al., 2016). Included were positive adjustment features (e.g., superficial charm and good intelligence, absence of delusions or irrationality, low anxiety, and disinclination toward suicide), which concealed emotional deficits (e.g., untruthfulness and insincerity, lack of remorse and shame, egocentricity and shallow interpersonal relations, and deficient insight), and behavioural regulation problems (e.g., unreliability, impulsive antisocial behaviour, failure to learn from experience, inability to follow a life plan, and recklessness when intoxicated; Patrick, 2006). Cleckley did not consider psychopaths as being overly hostile or aggressive, or include antagonism, cruelty, or violence as necessary criteria (Skeem et al., 2011). Nonetheless, his contemporaries variously emphasised these features in their descriptions of psychopathy in criminals (e.g., Lindner, 1944; McCord & McCord, 1964; Robins, 1966).

Contemporary Conceptualisations

Most contemporary conceptualisations of psychopathy have built on Cleckley's observations (Stevens et al., 2012), with Robert Hare's being the most influential and widely known. Hare refined and expanded Cleckley's criteria in his development of the first Psychopathy Checklist (PCL; Hare, 1980). Its most recent revision, the Psychopathy Checklist-Revised (PCL-R; Hare, 2003), operationalises Hare's conceptualisation and is often mistaken for the psychopathy construct itself (Sellbom et al., 2022). This assessment was designed for specific use in adult criminals (Patrick et al., 2009), and displays a correlated, two-factor structure that can be further partitioned into four facets (Hare, 2003). Factor 1 is split into interpersonal (e.g., glibness/superficial charm, conning/manipulative) and affective (e.g., lack of remorse or guilt, callous/lack of empathy) facets, and Factor 2 is split

into lifestyle (e.g., impulsivity, irresponsibility) and antisocial (e.g., poor behavioural control, criminal versatility) facets (Hare, 2003). Diverging from Cleckley, Hare's conceptualisation and associated assessment include very few positive adjustment features (Patrick et al., 2012), and instead place greater emphasis on criminal attitudes and behaviours (Patrick & Drislane, 2015). High scores on the PCL-R are associated with a lack of empathy and social connectedness, impulsiveness and aggressive behaviour, and persistent violent offending.

Debate also exists regarding the categorical definition that is produced by the PCL-R. After a lengthy interview and reviewing file information related to institutionalisation (Miller & Lynam, 2012), professionals trained in administering the PCL-R (Watson et al., 2017) can refer to a cut-off score to categorise individuals as 'psychopathic' or 'non-psychopathic' (Wilson & McCarthy, 2011). Whilst using a cut-off score is prevalent practice, it is problematic, with evidence suggesting that psychopathy is not taxonomic (Edens et al., 2006; Guay et al., 2007; Marcus et al., 2004).

Given that individuals who exhibit many features of psychopathy, but do not have a criminal record, are able to avoid institutionalisation (Stevens et al., 2012), a large part of the population has been neglected when psychopathy has been examined in this way (Steinert et al., 2017). Whilst research remains heavily focused on psychopathy in adult criminals (Garofalo et al., 2022), researchers have started to consider psychopathy as continuously varying (Falkenbach et al., 2021), and dimensionally pronounced (Palmen et al., 2020). This has enabled research on psychopathy to be extended to include those in the general population (Palmen et al., 2020), who live and work within the community (Hall & Benning, 2006).

As the PCL-R refers extensively to criminal attitudes and behaviours (Patrick & Drislane, 2015), for instance violation of parole (Palmen et al., 2020), it is limited for use in forensic settings (Skeem et al., 2011). A variety of self-report measures for use in non-criminal populations have therefore been developed. However, their development, structure, and the traits they include, differ (Miller & Lynam, 2015). Most view psychopathy as per Hare's conceptualisation and are thus derivatives of the PCL-R. These measures tend to demonstrate a similar structure (Miller & Lynam, 2012), with factors / facets that are substantially correlated. For example, both the Self-Report Psychopathy Scale (SRP-III; Paulhus et al., 2015) and the Levenson Self-Report Psychopathy Scale (LSRP; Levenson et al., 1995) display a two-factor structure (Smith & Lilienfeld, 2013; Watson et al., 2017). However, the LSRP was designed for use in non-institutionalised samples, and therefore considers fewer deviant attitudes and behaviours (Smith & Lilienfeld, 2013).

One exception is the conceptualisation offered by the Psychopathic Personality Inventory (PPI; Lilienfeld & Andrews, 1996), and its revised version (PPI-R; Lilienfeld & Widows, 2005). The PPI-R focuses more closely on the traits that Cleckley identified (Polaschek, 2015), rather than their behavioural manifestation (Patrick et al., 2009). In contrast to Hare's conceptualisation and associated assessment, the PPI-R was designed for use in non-criminal populations (Patrick et al., 2009), and does not explicitly assess criminal behaviour (Bowes et al., 2019; Smith & Lilienfeld, 2013). Although the PPI-R also comprises two factors (Benning et al., 2003), they are not interchangeable with those of the PCL-R, or its derivatives. Indeed, the two factors emerge as uncorrelated (Patrick et al., 2009), and are thus largely independent (Polaschek, 2015). The fearless dominance factor reflects low anxiety, deficient fear, and social dominance, whereas the self-centred impulsivity

factor reflects impulsivity, oppositionality, alienation, and aggressive exploitativeness (Patrick et al., 2012). Coldheartedness reflects callous unemotionality (Patrick et al., 2012), and does not load onto either factor. However, it is sometimes considered as a scale on its own (Smith & Lilienfeld, 2013).

Triarchic Model of Psychopathy

From the brief foregoing review, it is evident that psychopathy has been defined, conceptualised, and assessed in a multitude of ways (Smith & Lilienfeld, 2013). Despite agreement about the inclusion of features related to interpersonal antagonism and impulsivity, the inclusion of positive adjustment features to psychopathy, polarises opinions (Sleep et al., 2019). To integrate the differing conceptualisations and approaches to assessment, Patrick et al., (2009) developed the triarchic model. This model considers fundamental themes in both historic and contemporary descriptions of psychopathy (Patrick & Drislane, 2015), and is therefore useful for understanding competing conceptualisations (Polaschek, 2015), as well as similarities and differences across existing assessments (Drislane et al., 2014).

According to the triarchic model, psychopathy can be defined in terms of three separable, albeit interrelated, phenotypic traits: boldness, meanness, and disinhibition (Patrick, 2022). Whilst the triarchic traits can be understood and assessed separately (Patrick et al., 2009), due to their having different underlying etiology, it is their specific combination that explains varying expressions of psychopathy (Patrick et al., 2012). Boldness evinces small positive correlations with meanness, and small negative correlations with disinhibition, whereas meanness evinces moderate to large correlations with disinhibition (e.g., Crego & Widiger, 2015; Drislane et al., 2014). Because boldness is negligibly correlated with the other

two traits, a configural approach to psychopathy is required (Lilienfeld et al., 2016). That is, psychopathy refers to a configuration of traits which are psychopathological only when they manifest in combination to a high degree. Whereas Cleckley viewed psychopathy as boldness and disinhibition (Patrick, 2018), criminally oriented conceptualisations view psychopathy as meanness together with disinhibition (Sleep et al., 2019). We describe each of these traits next, and how different conceptualisations of psychopathy and their associated assessments have varied in the degree to which they are emphasised.

Boldness

Boldness corresponds to fearlessness (Bertoldi et al., 2023) and is linked to diminished responsiveness of core defensive systems in the brain (Patrick et al., 2009). As a function of fearless temperament, those with elevated levels of boldness do not exhibit normal reactions when presented with aversive stimuli (Patrick et al., 2012). Boldness therefore manifests as the ability to remain calm in, and recover quickly from, stressful situations, and to be socially efficacious, self-assured, and tolerant of unfamiliarity (Patrick et al., 2009). In addition to having little fear, individuals who are bold appear emotionally resilient, socially dominant, assertive, and venturesome (Sellbom et al., 2022). Boldness is emphasised in Cleckley's conceptualisation of psychopathy, through features such as superficial charm and low anxiety (Patrick et al., 2012), but is not largely included in contemporary conceptualisations of psychopathy. Although boldness is captured to a slight degree by features in the interpersonal facet of the PCL-R (Patrick et al., 2009), it does not figure prominently in this assessment, or its derivatives (Drislane et al., 2014). For example, there is no representation of boldness or other adaptive features associated with psychopathy, in the LSRP (Lilienfeld et al., 2016). In contrast, the

fearless dominance factor of the PPI-R assesses boldness directly (Hall et al., 2014). Due to their large correlation (Patrick et al., 2019; Patton et al., 2018), researchers have suggested that boldness and fearless dominance are similar constructs (Drislane et al., 2014) and can even be used interchangeably (Lilienfeld et al., 2016).

Meanness

Meanness reflects dysfunction in neural systems that underlie empathetic concern and social affiliation (Patrick et al., 2012). It is believed to arise from impairments in conscience development as a result of low fear and negative exchanges related to weak restraint (Lynam, 1996). Meanness is expressed through a lack of affiliation, callousness, deficient empathy, exploitativeness, and aggressive manipulation (Patrick et al., 2009). Hence, those who exhibit high meanness do not have close relations, lack emotion, exploit others, and are purposefully aggressive and manipulative (Sellbom et al., 2022). Meanness is emphasised in criminally oriented conceptualisations of psychopathy, through deficient affect features. In addition, meanness is indexed in Factor 1 of the PCL-R, particularly the affective facet (Hall et al., 2014; Patrick et al., 2012), and to some extent in the PPI-R, through its Machiavellian Egocentricity and Coldheartedness scales (Hall et al., 2014).

Disinhibition

Disinhibition corresponds to stimulation seeking (Bertoldi et al., 2023) and is linked to impairments in functioning in regions of the brain crucial to behavioural control and regulating affect (Patrick & Drislane, 2015). In general, disinhibition is assocaited with proneness to externalising problems (Brislin et al., 2019). Disinhibition therefore manifests as a failure to plan, difficulty regulating emotions, weak behavioural restraint, and needing instant gratification (Patrick et al., 2009). Individuals who are disinhibited get bored easily, and are impulsive, irresponsible,

distrusting, non-planful, and not inclined to delay gratification (Sellbom et al., 2022). Disinhibition is highlighted in Cleckley's conceptualisation of psychopathy and criminally oriented conceptualisations. It is also captured by Factor 2 of the PCL-R, particularly the features in the lifestyle facet (Hall et al., 2014), as well as features in the self-centred impulsivity factor of the PPI-R (Hall et al., 2014; Patton et al., 2018; Smith & Lilienfeld, 2013).

Relevance of Boldness to Psychopathy

The different conceptualisations of psychopathy similarly highlight disinhibition but differ in their inclusion of boldness versus meanness. Hence, only those who score highly on disinhibition together with boldness and / or meanness would be recognised as meeting the criteria for psychopathy (Patrick et al., 2009; 2012; Patrick & Drislane, 2015). Because psychopathy is mostly conceptualised in criminally oriented terms, and meanness and disinhibition reference the callous, cruel, and impulsive side of psychopathy, it is consistently these traits that are emphasised. The relevance of boldness to psychopathy is therefore most controversial (Crowe et al., 2021).

The main argument against the relevance of boldness stems from disagreements about whether psychopathy should be defined as exclusively associated with maladaptive outcomes (Skeem et al., 2011). Indeed, boldness may be a marker of positive adjustment (Miller & Lynam, 2012), due to its association with attributes that reduce the likelihood of engaging in antisocial behaviour and severe violence (Gatner et al., 2016), which are viewed by many as outcomes of psychopathy. For example, there is evidence to show that boldness evinces small to null correlations with antisocial behaviour and violence (Donellan & Burt, 2016).

Whilst personality pathology is defined in terms of maladjustment (Hare & Neumann, 2008), nowhere is it specified that boldness alone should be maladaptive (Lilienfeld et al., 2012). In fact, boldness is unlikely to be pathological on its own, but may be when paired with other traits, especially disinhibition (Sellbom et al., 2022). We want to point out that psychopathy can encompass both adaptive and maladaptive traits, yet still present overall as maladaptive. Although boldness is often neglected in research (Polaschek, 2015), recent meta-analytic work shows that it is equally relevant to psychopathy when assessed using non-PCL-R based measures (Lilienfeld et al., 2016). Hence, it is likely to be particularly relevant to the conceptualisation and assessment of psychopathy in non-criminal populations (Patrick et al., 2009).

Advantages of the Triarchic Model of Psychopathy

The triarchic model of psychopathy offers several advantages over other conceptualisations. First, it collectively describes the range of features that are central to psychopathy (Ruchensky & Donnellan, 2017). Second, it does not depend on the presence of criminal behaviour or categorise individuals as ‘psychopathic’ or ‘non-psychopathic’. Instead, the triarchic model treats psychopathy as being made up of continuously varying traits that can interact to reflect different behavioural expressions (Sellbom & Drislane, 2021). It is for this reason that the triarchic model can be applied to psychopathy research in multiple contexts. In addition, because the triarchic model is construct-based, it is not associated with a specific assessment approach (Hall et al., 2014). Items from existing measures can therefore be rearranged to form boldness, meanness, and disinhibition scales (Hyatt et al., 2022). Hence, study findings can be compared even if different psychopathy measures have been used (Hicks & Drislane, 2018).

Assessing the Triarchic Traits

Due to disagreements about the centrality and importance of the traits that make up psychopathy (Miller et al., 2016), many measures exist (Drislane et al., 2014). Whilst there are measures that index each of the triarchic traits (Sica et al., 2021), they do so to varying degrees and in different ways (Drislane et al., 2014). For example, some blend items indicative of boldness, meanness, and disinhibition together in their scales (Patrick & Drislane, 2015). Considering that boldness is the only trait that is potentially adaptive (Polaschek, 2015), this has made interpreting study findings difficult. Unlike the Triarchic Psychopathy Measure (TriPM; Patrick, 2010), which directly operationalises boldness, meanness, and disinhibition, most measures index meanness and disinhibition more so than boldness (Drislane et al., 2014). Most studies examining psychopathy from the perspective of the triarchic model have therefore utilised this measure (Patrick & Drislane, 2015).

Triarchic Psychopathy Measure

The three scales of the TriPM were designed as brief measures of broad factors from two multi-scale inventories. The boldness scale was developed to index the general factor of the Boldness Inventory (BI; Patrick et al., 2019) and the meanness and disinhibition scales are based on different scales in the Externalising Spectrum Inventory (ESI; Krueger et al., 2007), which assesses traits and behaviours associated with externalising psychopathology (Drislane et al., 2014). Specifically, meanness comprises items from scales that define the callous-aggression factor, and disinhibition comprises items from scales that load onto the general disinhibitory proneness factor (Venables & Patrick, 2012). The three scales comprising the TriPM thus represent facets in two domains: fear-fearless dominance and externalising psychopathology (Somma et al., 2018).

The TriPM has been translated into several foreign languages (Patrick & Drislane, 2015), and contains 58 items which are completed via self-report. Even though a total score can be computed by adding all items together, the TriPM was developed to operationalise disinhibition, meanness, and boldness as distinct variables (Drislane et al., 2014). The separate use of its scales is recommended (Somma et al., 2018), and there is evidence of adequate fit for a three-factor model (Latzman et al., 2020; Paiva et al., 2020; Patrick et al., 2020; Somma et al., 2018).

Triarchic Psychopathy Measure (Work)

Although the development of self-report measures has seen a rise in studies examining psychopathy in organisations (Smith & Lilienfeld, 2013), many include items pertaining to antisocial and / or criminal behaviour and may therefore be inappropriate to use (Mathieu & Babiak, 2016). One of the reasons for the dearth of studies examining psychopathy in the organisational context has therefore been the absence of a suitable measure (Babiak & Hare, 2006; Mathieu et al., 2014). Considering that those with more psychopathic traits are said to be pronounced in managerial and other leadership positions, and the use of self-report measures would not accurately indicate how traits manifest interpersonally and behaviourally (Kelley et al., 2018), other-report psychopathy measures, for specific use in organisational contexts, have been developed. Examples are the Business-Scan 360 (B-Scan 360; Babiak & Hare, 2015) and the Psychopathy Measure—Management Research Version (PM-MR V; Boddy et al., 2010), which are both based on Hare's conceptualisation of psychopathy. The B-Scan 360 displays a similar structural model to the PCL-R (Mathieu et al., 2013), but the PM-MR V is modelled only after Factor 1 (Smith & Lilienfeld, 2013). The triarchic traits are thus not indexed to the same degree or directly operationalised within these measures.

For research to move forward, a new psychopathy measure for use in the organisational context is needed (Landay et al., 2019), which is brief but includes a balanced representation of traits (Muris et al., 2017). Acknowledging that no such measure exists, the author and chief supervisor, along with other colleagues (Sutton et al. 2020), developed a brief work-specific measure, formulated from items in the TriPM. The Triarchic Psychopathy Measure (Work); (TriPM[Work]; Sutton et al., 2020) consists of both self- and other-report versions and the full paper describing its development is included as Appendix D. The self-report version requires managers to rate their own boldness, meanness, and disinhibition, whereas the other-report version requires employees to rate their manager's boldness, meanness, and disinhibition.

We chose to operationalise boldness, meanness, and disinhibition in this thesis using the other-report version of the TriPM(Work). With most studies on psychopathy having relied on self-report assessments (Muris et al., 2017), other reports have rarely been used (Sellbom et al., 2022). Yet individuals with psychopathic traits may not realise the full extent of their behaviour on others (Sellbom et al., 2022). This measure was also chosen because it does not require specialist training and is not time intensive. On the contrary, it is easy to administer and time-efficient, containing only 21 items. Moreover, it does not rely on criminal behaviour and includes adaptive features, which encompass boldness.

Psychopathy and Work-related Outcomes

The disagreement surrounding psychopathy affects our understanding of its implications (Polaschek, 2015). Because most studies examining psychopathy in the organisational context have relied on measures that produce global psychopathy scores or have not reported factor / facet scores (Landay et al., 2019), and different

conceptualisations vary in the degree to which they emphasise boldness, meanness, and disinhibition (Garofalo et al., 2019), drawing relations between these traits and work-related outcomes is difficult (Steinert et al., 2017). What we mean is that many of the findings relating to psychopathy in the organisational context apply only to specific psychopathic traits, usually meanness and disinhibition. As the range of behavioural manifestations have not been exhibited, conflicting findings may be the result of different measures for assessing psychopathy (Drislane et al., 2014). This next section concentrates on the implications of psychopathy for work-related outcomes, reviewing prior research on psychopathy and employee amotivation, performance, and well-being at work. These work outcomes are the biggest concern for managers, as organisations are constantly looking for ways to improve employees' motivation, performance, and well-being. Managers are thus, responsible for dealing with employees' lack of motivation, promoting performance, and ensuring high well-being.

Amotivation

Amotivation is a lack of intention and desire to enact behaviour (Gagné & Deci, 2005). Amotivation results when employees lack interest or cannot see the value in their work activities, or when they do not feel effective (Rigby & Ryan, 2018). Because employees who are amotivated have no desire to enact behaviour (Gagné et al., 2019), they find reasons to invest effort into activities at work, difficult (Kanat-Maymon et al., 2020). Behaviour is therefore enacted for unknown reasons, or not at all (Legault et al., 2006), which presents as a significant problem for organisations when tasks need to be completed (Slemp et al., 2018). Amotivation is also linked to lower job performance (Shin & Hur, 2019), job effort, vitality (Gagné et al., 2015), and work engagement, as well as higher burnout (Howard et al., 2016), work stress

and illness symptoms (Nie et al., 2015). In addition, amotivation is associated with lower job satisfaction (Howard et al., 2016), and affective commitment, as well as higher turnover intentions (Gagné et al., 2015).

Psychopathy in managers has been associated with amotivation in employees (Mathieu & Babiak, 2015). Specifically, employees who rated their manager as higher on psychopathy were more amotivated. In addition, manager psychopathy has been found to negatively relate to employees feeling motivated to deliver more than they are expected (Mathieu et al., 2015), and to employees not giving full effort or being less productive than they could be (Mathieu & Babiak, 2015).

Job Performance

Job performance refers to the combined value of employees' actions and behaviours, which contribute to organisational success (Motowidlo et al., 1997). If employees do not perform their jobs, the goals of the organisation cannot be achieved. Indeed, job performance is associated with the earnings of organisations, as well as their productivity and longevity (Johnson, 2003; Motowildo et al., 1997). As job performance not only affects how organisations function, but also their bottom-line (Campbell, 1990), it is often considered as the most valued work-related outcome (Tims et al., 2014).

Researchers usually distinguish in-role behaviour, or task performance, from extra-role behaviour, or contextual performance (Elsouk et al., 2021). In-role behaviours are listed in job descriptions (Williams & Anderson, 1991), and are performed to complete required tasks (Noblet et al., 2012). They are formally recognised and rewarded (Borman & Motowidlo, 1993). On the contrary, because extra-role behaviours are discretionary (Motowidlo & Van Scotter, 1994), they are not

listed in job descriptions, but are helpful and benefit organisations (Noblet et al., 2012).

Researchers have typically looked at job performance in subjective or objective ways. Subjective performance is based on one's evaluations of their own job performance, that of a co-worker, or that of the organisation that they work for (Nielsen et al., 2017). Hence, subjective performance can be self-reported or rated by others the employee works with (e.g., manager). Objective performance differs wherein job performance is based on objective indicators (Nielsen et al., 2017), for instance productivity, sales performance, and financial profits (Paré & Tremblay, 2007). As interpersonal relationships with others at work can influence subjective job performance (Nielsen et al., 2017), we focused on in-role performance of this kind.

Employees who lack motivation may not work at optimal performance (Mathieu, 2021), and there is evidence to suggest that manager psychopathy negatively influences employees' job performance (Parameswaran & Elsawy, 2022). Another study found disinhibition and meanness in managers to be negatively associated with employees' job performance (Sutton et al., 2020). That is, employees with managers who are more disinhibited and mean, reported lower job performance at work (Sutton et al., 2020). However, employees with bolder managers reported greater performance (Sutton et al., 2020).

Work-related Well-being

Employees' well-being is also fundamental to organisational success (O'Donoghue et al., 2016), having been associated with increased productivity and performance (Hewett et al., 2018), and customer satisfaction (Sharma et al., 2016). Protecting employee well-being is therefore essential (Nielsen & Taris, 2019) and should be a priority for managers (Peng et al., 2010). Although well-being can be

assessed generally, we concentrated on work-related well-being, specifically work engagement and burnout. This is because it is more sensitive to factors in the working environment (Schaufeli et al., 2011), which includes managers' interpersonal behaviour.

Work engagement, on its own, is not sufficient to explain employee wellbeing. Researchers have suggested that considering indicators of diminished well-being, such as burnout, is also important (Upadyaya et al., 2016). Both work engagement and burnout are influenced by employees' interaction with their work (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2010; Schaufeli & Taris, 2005). Work engagement is described as a positive attitude to work tasks (Bailey et al.,2017), and is characterised by vigour, dedication, and absorption (Schaufeli et al., 2002). Employees who are engaged tend to have more energy and mental resilience, continue in their work when it is challenging, and want to give more (vigour). They also become so immersed in their work that they feel challenged, but enthusiastic and proud at the same time (dedication), and feel that time passes them by quickly (absorption; Bakker et al., 2008). Work engagement is related to satisfaction (Bakker & Albrecht, 2018), better performance, and organisational commitment (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2014).

Burnout is "a prolonged response to chronic emotional and interpersonal stressors on the job, and is defined by the three dimensions of exhaustion, cynicism, and inefficacy" (Maslach et al., 2001, p.397). Such stressors include, for example, a lack of available resources to meet the demands of one's job and persistent interpersonal conflicts (Maslach & Leiter, 2016). Employees who experience burnout not only feel overextended, or unable to put in any more effort (exhaustion), but often have a negative and distant attitude and responses towards others (cynicism) and feel less able to perform tasks and achieve at work (inefficacy; Maslach et al., 2001).

In addition to a loss of emotional energy, burnout therefore implies a negative assessment of others and the self (Maslach et al., 2001). Burnout has detrimental consequences, and is related to reduced productivity (Maslach et al., 2001), as well as absenteeism (Bekker et al., 2005), and turnover intention (Leiter & Maslach, 2009).

Caring about the well-being of others is something individuals with psychopathic traits may struggle with (Schilbach et al., 2020), and this has been confirmed in previous research. Mathieu et al., (2014) found manager psychopathy to be negatively related to employees' psychological well-being and job satisfaction in two samples. Leader psychopathy is also positively associated with employees' depression (Tokarev et al., 2017), and employees reporting to managers higher on psychopathy have been found to be more depressed angry, anxious, bored, and discouraged, as well as less calm and content, at work (Boddy, 2014). Other research found that psychopathy in managers was positively related to, and predicted, greater emotional exhaustion in employees (Basar, 2020). A study by Volmer et al., (2016) also shows psychopathy scores in managers to positively relate to employees' emotional exhaustion. However, psychopathy did not predict employees' exhaustion. Moreover, Oyewunmi et al., (2018) found a positive relation between manager psychopathy and burnout, plus all its dimensions. Meanness and disinhibition in managers were found to be associated with reduced work engagement and greater burnout in employees (Sutton et al., 2020). On the contrary, employees with bolder managers indicated that they were more engaged in their work and had fewer symptoms of burnout (Sutton et al., 2020).

There appears to be no clear role of psychopathy in management, with inconsistent and contradictory results evident in the literature (Furtner et al., 2017).

We suggest that part of the reason for this is due to the lack of understanding of the mechanisms affecting work outcomes. By utilising SDT, we attempt to determine how psychopathic traits in managers influence the extent to which they support employees' autonomy and provide employees with opportunities to satisfy their basic psychological needs, thereby influencing motivation, and ultimately, performance and well-being. We therefore now turn to a discussion of SDT.

Self-Determination Theory

Self-Determination Theory (SDT; Deci & Ryan, 2000) is a broad theory of motivation that has been applied in several different contexts, including organisations (Deci et al., 2017; Olafsen et al., 2018). Motivation energises, directs, and sustains behaviour (Pinder, 1998). What sets SDT apart from other theories of motivation is that it considers more than just the amount of motivation that individuals experience (Rigby & Ryan, 2018). Notably, SDT distinguishes different types of motivation, which range from more autonomous to more controlled (Ronen & Donia, 2020). Understanding the different types of motivation employees can experience, and factors that facilitate their development, is critical, as motivation affects performance and well-being (Olafsen et al., 2018). Whereas autonomous motivation leads to greater performance and well-being (Deci et al., 2017), controlled motivation reduces performance and well-being (Gagné & Deci, 2005). We turn now to describe these different types of motivation.

SDT and Motivation

SDT distinguishes amotivation from autonomous and controlled types of motivation. Unlike amotivation, these types of motivation are intentional, and describe the reasons individuals regulate their effort (Parker et al., 2021). Autonomous motivation refers to behaviour that is enacted due to experiences of

volition and choice (Slemp et al. 2018). Controlled motivation refers to behaviour that is enacted due to experiences of pressure, be it internal of external (Fernet et al., 2012). These two types of motivation can be distinguished from one another based on the degree to which behaviour is considered as self-endorsed (Jungert et al., 2018), or 'internalised' (Gagné & Deci, 2005).

Employees who experience autonomous types of motivation engage in activities at work because they find them enjoyable or interesting (intrinsic motivation), or because they consider them to be meaningful or important (identified regulation; Manganelli et al., 2018). Despite the fact that work activities are not always enjoyable or interesting (Cerasoli et al., 2016), employees can still be autonomously motivated if they internalise their value (Zhang et al., 2016). On the contrary, employees who experience controlled types of motivation engage in activities at work to maintain self-worth or avoid feelings of shame and guilt (introjected regulation), or to obtain rewards or avoid punishment (external regulation; Manganelli et al., 2018). With controlled motivation, behaviour is only somewhat self-endorsed or internalised, or not at all (Slemp et al., 2018).

Autonomous motivation is more optimal than controlled (Shuck et al., 2018). To illustrate, autonomous motivation is associated with increased job performance (Reizer et al., 2019; Trépanier et al., 2015) and work engagement (Kanat-Maymon et al., 2017; Van den Broeck et al., 2013), and less emotional exhaustion (Van den Broeck et al., 2013) and burnout (Kanat-Maymon et al., 2017; Van den Broeck et al., 2013). Autonomous motivation is also related to increased job satisfaction (Gillet et al., 2012; Kanat-Maymon et al., 2017) and organisational commitment (Kanat-Maymon et al., 2017), and reduced turnover intention (Gillet et al., 2012). Thus,

researchers have often focused on ways to foster this specific type of motivation, and prevent controlled motivation (Jungert et al., 2018).

Basic Psychological Needs and Motivation

SDT provides guidance on how to facilitate more autonomous types of motivation (Rigby & Ryan, 2018). According to SDT, the type of motivation individuals experience is influenced by three innate and universal basic psychological needs: autonomy, competence, and relatedness (Deci & Ryan, 2000). Although individuals do not differ in the degree to which they possess (Cerasoli et al., 2016), or value (Lian et al., 2012), these needs, they differ in the degree to which they can satisfy them (Greguras & Diefendorff, 2009). Notably, it is their satisfaction that is necessary for internalisation (Slemp et al., 2020), and thus, autonomous motivation (Chiniara & Bentein, 2016). The need for autonomy refers to feeling volitional and experiencing behaviour as self-endorsed, whereas the need for competence refers to being able to demonstrate abilities and achieve desired outcomes (Trépanier et al., 2019). The need for relatedness concerns having meaningful relationships with others (Trépanier et al., 2019).

Of the basic psychological needs, autonomy is theorised to play the most important role (Gagné & Deci, 2005; Ryan & Deci, 2017). This is because autonomy is necessary to enact behaviours through which the other needs can be satisfied. In other words, it is the degree to which autonomy is satisfied that facilitates internalisation; satisfying the needs for competence and relatedness alone is not enough (Gagné & Deci, 2005). Autonomy is therefore considered most essential to experiencing basic psychological need satisfaction (Wickramasinghe & Wickramasinghe, 2017).

Employees experience autonomy satisfaction when they can make choices, express their ideas, and have a say in how to approach activities (Forner et al., 2020). Moreover, they experience competence satisfaction when they can utilise their skills, feel confident in their abilities, and complete tasks to a high standard, and relatedness satisfaction when they feel included and are able to establish meaningful relationships with their co-workers (Forner et al., 2020). Understanding factors that lead to the satisfaction of these needs in the work environment is therefore important (Gabriel et al., 2014).

Autonomy Support and Motivation

Work environments that are supportive of basic psychological needs facilitate their satisfaction (Slemp et al., 2018). Because supports of these needs are largely influenced by the interpersonal style managers use (Deci et al., 2017), research on need supportive styles has grown (Vansteenkiste et al., 2020), and demonstrated that autonomy support is most central (Deci et al., 2017). Those who are autonomy supportive are typically also supportive of, and attentive to, the needs for competence and relatedness (Vansteenkiste et al., 2020). Thus, when employees can volitionally engage in activities, they should also feel able to successfully carry out tasks and appreciated by others, and more fully internalise their work experiences (Trépanier et al., 2015) and be autonomously motivated (Costa et al., 2015). Many studies on factors at work that might affect motivation have thus focused on employees' perceptions of their manger as autonomy supportive (Deci et al., 2017).

Because employees are encouraged to make their own choices and put effort into activities when they are supported in their autonomy (Rigby & Ryan, 2018), autonomy support should not only facilitate more motivation (i.e., less amotivation) in

employees (Gagné et al., 2015; Nie et al., 2015), but also the internalisation process (Oostlander et al., 2013). Hence, autonomy support should be negatively associated with amotivation (Slemp et al., 2018), and positively associated with more autonomous types of motivation (Gagné et al., 2015; Ryan & Deci, 2017). Studies have shown support for the negative relationship between autonomy support and amotivation (Gagné et al., 2015; Nie et al., 2015; Slemp et al., 2018), and the positive relationship between autonomy support and autonomous motivation.

Motivation and Job Performance

Employees' motivation affects their job performance (Pinder, 2011). Managers are therefore concerned with supporting the motivation of their employees to improve their performance (Imran et al., 2014). Substantial research has been devoted to factors in the work environment which facilitate optimal types of motivation and therefore better job performance (Cerasoli et al., 2014). When looking at job performance, research has mainly focused on the influence of autonomous motivation, without examining controlled motivation (e.g., Tadić Vujčić et al., 2017). Employees who are autonomously motivated should have internalised behaviours and values, and therefore perform better (Reizer et al., 2019). That is, when employees feel that they can freely carry out required tasks, they accomplish them better (Trépanier et al., 2015). Autonomous motivation is associated with increased job performance (Reizer et al., 2019; Trépanier et al., 2015; Zhang et al., 2016). Another study by Shuck et al., (2018) indicates that autonomous motivation is associated with intentions to try hard and perform well, not to mention help others at work.

Whilst considerable attention has been given to autonomy support (Parfyonova et al., 2019), researchers have focused mostly on its outcomes,

including how autonomy support affects different types of motivation (Slemp et al., 2018). Although the outcomes of autonomy support are well-documented, few studies have considered factors that contribute to adopting an autonomy supportive interpersonal style (Gillet et al., 2013), including personality traits (Matosic et al., 2017; Slemp et al., 2018). Given that autonomy support can satisfy basic psychological needs and increase autonomous motivation (Gagné et al., 2019), research needs to be conducted to identify factors that prompt managers to adopt this interpersonal style (Kanat-Maymon & Reizer, 2017).

To the best of our knowledge, no study has considered if psychopathic traits in managers influence whether they behave in ways that support their employees' autonomy, and subsequently affect their employees' motivation and / or performance. Given that psychopathy has been found to influence employees' amotivation and performance at work, the first two studies in this thesis address these research gaps. In Study 1, we propose that boldness in managers will be positively, and disinhibition and meanness in managers will be negatively, related to autonomy support, which in turn will be negatively related to employees' amotivation. In Study 2, we propose that boldness in managers will positively, and meanness and disinhibition in managers will negatively, predict autonomy support. In turn, autonomy support will be positively related to employees' autonomous motivation, which will be subsequently positively related to employees' job performance.

Study 1 and 2 Overview

Autonomy support is an interpersonal style (Kanat-Maymon et al., 2017) that managers use when carrying out their responsibilities and interacting with their employees (Baard et al., 2004). Managers who are autonomy supportive refrain from using sanctions and external rewards to motivate employees' behaviour. Instead,

they offer opportunities for choice and input, encourage self-initiation, provide necessary information, and try to understand their perspectives (Slemp et al., 2018).

Individuals higher on psychopathy see their work environment as competitive (Jonason et al., 2015) Competition can impact how one interacts with others and result in behaviour that is coercive and exploitative (Serenko & Choo, 2020). Individuals higher on psychopathy are described as manipulative and have been found to influence others' feelings and behaviours for their own benefit (Hyde et al., 2020). Rather than explaining why certain behaviours need to be enacted or changed, these individuals make others feel guilty or reassure them to go along with what they say (Hyde et al., 2020). In line with this notion, they may also resort to different types of coercion (Ekizler & Bolelli, 2020), to ensure that they comply with their requests. For example, they may keep their distance from, or purposefully exclude, others, or threaten them with salary cuts, demotions, or laying off. If employees are manipulated to engage in tasks, they lose the desire to put in the effort to do so (Cerasoli et al., 2016), which may explain why employees reporting to managers higher on psychopathy are more amotivated. Behaviours are not perceived as autonomous when their initiation is coerced or pressured (Cerasoli et al., 2016). Hence, they may feel forced to think, feel, and behave in certain ways, which is a threat to autonomy. This has been confirmed, with research showing that psychopathy is associated with lowered autonomy support as well as psychological control (Li et al., 2020).

Individuals higher on psychopathy may also find understanding how others feel, difficult (Schilbach et al., 2020). Understanding others is necessary for providing choice and rationales that are meaningful to them, and is thus, necessary for supporting the need for autonomy (Reeve & Cheon, 2016). Autonomy supportive

managers ensure that they provide rationale when tasks need to be completed, so that their employees are able to understand their meaning or value (Slemp et al., 2018). Moreover, psychopathy is linked to behaviours that reflect aggressive interpersonal actions and a lack of concern for others (Khan et al., 2019), including expressing frustration, rejecting others' opinions, and criticising suggestions (Baysinger et al., 2014), not to mention knowledge sabotage behaviour (Serenko & Choo, 2020). The latter suggests that those higher on psychopathy are likely to purposefully conceal information from employees, or provide them with incorrect information (Serenko, 2020).

The ability to work alongside, and communicate with, others, are deemed essential to support needs (Langdon et al., 2017). Boldness is associated with better communication skills and persuasiveness (Lilienfeld et al., 2012). Boldness is also associated with servant leadership (Sutton et al., 2020), which is oriented to the needs of employees (van Dierendonck et al., 2014). Servant leaders are concerned for others within the organisation (Eva et al., 2019) and place importance of identifying others' needs through open interaction and communication (Sendjaya et al., 2020). In addition, boldness is linked to adaptive leadership, whereas disinhibition and meanness have the opposite effect (Neo et al., 2018).

Meanness and disinhibition are negatively related to consideration (Blickle et al., 2018), which refers to the degree to which manager behaviour shows appreciation and support, and demonstrates concern and respect for subordinates (Bass, 1990). Behaviours include liaising with others before decisions are made, interacting in a friendly and approachable way, and treating others fairly (Gilbert & Kelloway, 2014). Meanness and disinhibition are also related to a desire to control or dominate others (Fanti et al., 2016), and negatively related to perspective-taking

(Sleep et al., 2019). Being able to consider others' perspectives is essential for managers to identify their employees' interests and values and is central to supporting their needs. Managers who are autonomy supportive consider their employees' perspectives, for instance by asking how requests were received (Kanat-Maymon et al., 2018). Employees reporting to managers who do not take their perspectives into account are not likely to experience volition, feel competent, or feel connected to them, as their manager may pressure them rather than seeing things from their point of view (Schultz et al., 2015).

Based on the above findings, we therefore propose that managers who are bolder are perceived by their employees as more autonomy supportive. Consequently, their employees should experience lower levels of amotivation, and higher levels of autonomous motivation and thus, better job performance. On the other hand, managers who are meaner and more disinhibited may be perceived by their employees as less autonomy supportive. Thus, their employees should experience higher levels of amotivation, and lower levels of autonomous motivation and thus, perform worse.

Basic Psychological Need Satisfaction and Frustration

Low basic psychological need satisfaction is not the same as basic psychological need frustration (Vansteenkiste & Ryan, 2013). Indeed, basic psychological need satisfaction and frustration are distinct psychological experiences (Costa et al., 2015). Basic psychological need frustration has been described as a more intense and threatening experience (Vansteenkiste et al., 2020), which occurs when individuals believe that their needs for autonomy, competence, and relatedness are being actively obstructed (Bartholomew et al., 2014). The need for autonomy is frustrated when feeling pressured, and the need for competence is

frustrated by doubts about one's ability (Chen et al., 2015). The need for relatedness is frustrated when feeling excluded and lonely (Chen et al., 2015).

Unlike basic psychological need satisfaction, the frustration of autonomy, competence, and relatedness, hinders internalisation (Guntert, 2014; Van den Broeck et al., 2016), and leads to negative outcomes (Trépanier et al., 2019), including diminished well-being (Bartholomew et al., 2011b). Focusing solely on basic psychological need satisfaction—or the lack thereof—may therefore be insufficient to explain how factors in the work environment influence basic psychological needs (Vansteenkiste & Ryan, 2013). To fully capture the effects of basic psychological needs, it is important to consider both their satisfaction and frustration (Van den Broeck et al., 2016).

Basic Psychological Need Satisfaction, Frustration, and Well-being

Basic psychological need satisfaction and frustration differentially affect outcomes (Huyghebaert et al., 2017). The satisfaction of needs have been found to be less effective in explaining negative outcomes, compared to positive ones (Van den Broeck et al., 2016). Whereas basic psychological need satisfaction mainly affects positive aspects of well-being, the frustration of these same needs mainly affects negative aspects of well-being (Chen et al., 2015). For instance, the frustration of these needs better predicted exhaustion over and above their satisfaction (Bartholomew et al., 2011).

Satisfaction of needs is necessary for individuals to thrive and fully invest themselves in their work tasks, and studies have shown that autonomy, competence, and relatedness satisfaction are each associated with work engagement (Gillet et al., 2019; Marescaux et al., 2013; Trépanier et al., 2013; Wang et al., 2018). There is also evidence to show that these needs are associated with lower burnout (Trépanier

et al., 2013). Overall basic psychological need frustration has also been shown to relate to greater burnout (Cuevas et al., 2015; Huyghebaert et al., 2018). Autonomy, competence, and relatedness frustration are each associated with burnout (Bartholomew et al., 2014; Trépanier et al., 2019).

Although basic psychological need frustration extends beyond a lack of need satisfaction (Ebersold et al., 2019), it has received little attention in the organisational context (Bartholomew et al., 2014). While past research has highlighted how factors in the work environment satisfy employees' basic psychological needs and affect well-being, few have considered these outcomes in relation to negative aspects (Trépanier et al., 2013). The frustration of these needs should be considered in the development of diminished well-being (Costa et al., 2015).

We also know relatively little about the antecedents of basic psychological need satisfaction and frustration in organisations (Trépanier et al., 2015). Moreover, few studies have included both determinants and outcomes of basic psychological need satisfaction and frustration in the organisational context (Gillet et al., 2012). In Study 3, therefore, we followed recommendations to examine the impact of manager behaviour on need satisfaction and frustration (Graves & Luciano, 2013), and how basic psychological need frustration predicts negative work outcomes (Deci et al., 2017), specifically burnout. Whilst scores of the three basic psychological needs are often aggregated to represent general basic psychological need satisfaction and frustration, we followed recommendations to examine the effects of each basic psychological need, separately (Huyghebaert et al., 2018; Van den Broeck et al., 2016).

Study 3 Overview

In addition to being satisfied, basic psychological needs can be frustrated (Chen et al., 2015). Instead of feeling volitional, effective, or appreciated by others at work, employees who experience basic psychological need frustration are likely to feel coerced, incompetent, and rejected (Trépanier et al., 2016). As an example, employees may experience low relatedness satisfaction when they feel unable to establish or maintain a meaningful relationship with their manager, due to having different interests. Alternatively, they may experience relatedness frustration when they do not feel appreciated by their manager, due to being purposefully excluded from a group and rejected by them.

Individuals higher on psychopathy are said to engage in self-centred behaviour (Perri, 2013). There is evidence to support this claim, whereby managers higher on psychopathy prioritise their own interests and display more self-serving behaviours (Barelds et al., 2018). Individuals higher on psychopathy are also said to have little concern for others' needs (Turnipseed & VandeWaa, 2020), including their subordinates (Erkutlu & Chafra, 2019), and one study has shown that employees reporting to managers higher on psychopathy experience less autonomy in relation to their work (Boddy & Taplin, 2021). As autonomy is necessary to satisfy the needs for competence and relatedness, employees reporting to mangers higher on psychopathy are not likely to experience basic psychological need satisfaction.

Psychopathy is negatively related to interactive values (Coelho et al., 2021), which are important for establishing and maintaining interpersonal relationships (Gouveia et al., 2014). To no surprise, those higher on psychopathy have poor quality (Paleczek et al., 2018), or negative interpersonal (Nguyen et al., 2021), relationships. Psychopathy is also linked to low-quality exchanges (Lyons et al.,

2019), with studies showing that psychopathy in managers is related to rudeness and disregard towards employees (Lata & Chaudhary, 2020), and increased work conflict (Boddy, 2014). Employees who are confronted with conflicting relationships at work may not only feel unrelated to others, but also rejected (Trépanier et al., 2015).

Psychopathy is also associated with indirect aggression (Davis & Vaillancourt, 2022), and has been shown to manifest as bullying behaviour (Tokarev et al., 2017), or repeated demeaning or destructive behaviour towards other employees (Rai & Agarwal, 2018). Bullying is often carried out to maintain power and control (Dierickx, 2004), and is often expressed through intimidation, belittlement, and social exclusion (Hutchinson et al., 2010). Those who bully also closely monitor employees' work, refrain from sharing important information, and provide unmanageable workloads (Goodboy et al., 2020).

In addition, psychopathy is associated with an abusive management style (Lyons et al., 2019; Mathieu & Babiak, 2016), whereby hostile behaviours are enacted towards employees (Tepper, 2000). Experiencing abuse indicates to the employee that they are less valued, which may explain their being excluded (Bai et al., 2021). When employees are abused, they begin to question their self-worth (Jian et al., 2012), and may doubt their value and contributions to the team, as well as their ability to fulfil job requirements (Tepper et al., 2011). However, other research indicates that it is only disinhibition and meanness that are positively associated with abusive supervision; boldness is negatively associated (Sutton et al., 2020). In contrast to research showing that psychopathy is negatively associated with transformational and transactional leadership, and positively with laissez-faire (Mathieu & Babiak, 2015), boldness has been found to negatively relate to passive

leadership, with meanness and disinhibition evincing positive relations (Neo et al., 2018).

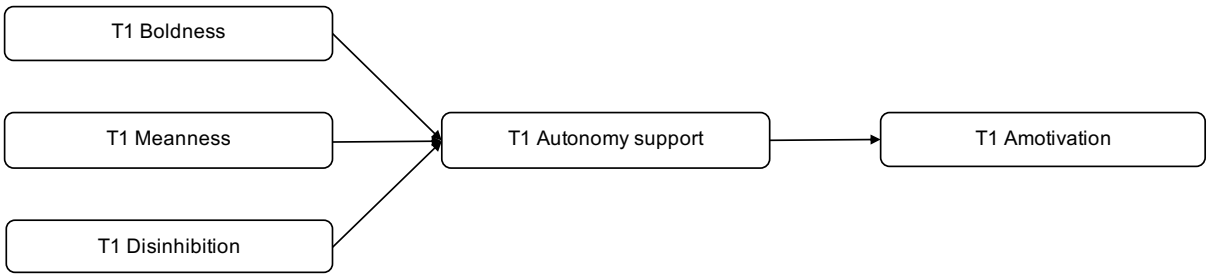
Based on these findings, it is therefore possible that managers who are bolder are more likely to satisfy employees' basic psychological needs. Consequently, their employees should experience greater work engagement and reduced burnout. On the other hand, managers who are meaner and more disinhibited may be less likely to satisfy employees' basic psychological needs, leading them to experience reduced work engagement and greater burnout. Indeed, they may even frustrate these needs, leading to burnout.

Summary Diagrams of Studies and Associated Hypotheses

Figures 1, 2, and 3 provide summary diagrams of the studies in this thesis and the specific hypotheses that were evaluated. Study 1 examines the influence of perceived manager boldness, meanness, and disinhibition on employee amotivation, and whether manager autonomy support acts as a mediator. This study addresses hypotheses 1, 2, and 3.

Figure 1

Summary diagram of manager boldness, meanness, and disinhibition as predictors of employee amotivation, mediated by autonomy support.



Hypothesis 1: Autonomy support will mediate the relationship between manager boldness and employee amotivation, such that managers higher on boldness will be perceived by their employees as more autonomy supportive, which in turn will predict lower amotivation.

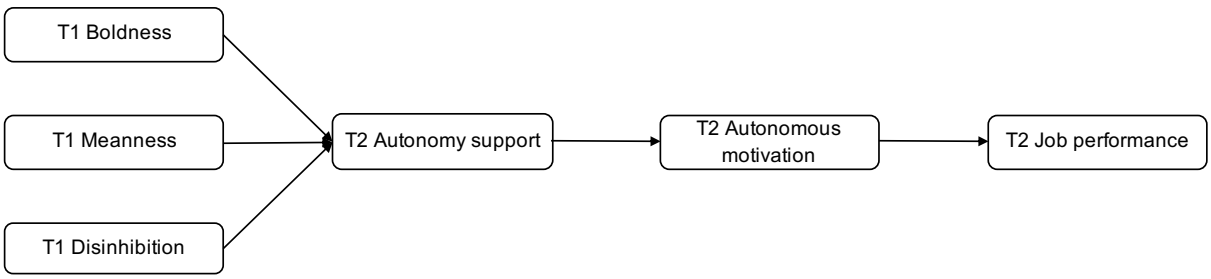
Hypothesis 2: Autonomy support will mediate the relationship between manager meanness and employee amotivation, such that managers higher on meanness will be perceived by their employees as less autonomy supportive, which in turn will predict higher amotivation.

Hypothesis 3: Autonomy support will mediate the relationship between manager disinhibition and employee amotivation, such that managers higher on disinhibition will be perceived by their employees as less autonomy supportive, which in turn will predict higher amotivation.

Study 2 investigates the effect of perceived manager boldness, meanness, and disinhibition on employee job performance, and whether manager autonomy support and employee autonomous motivation, in serial, act as mediators. This study tests hypotheses 4, 5, and 6.

Figure 2

Summary diagram of manager boldness, meanness, and disinhibition as predictors of employee job performance, mediated by autonomy support and employee autonomous motivation.



Hypothesis 4. Manager autonomy support and employee autonomous motivation will sequentially mediate the relationship between manager boldness and employee job performance, such that managers higher on boldness will be perceived by their employees as more autonomy supportive, which in turn will predict higher autonomous motivation and subsequently, better job performance.

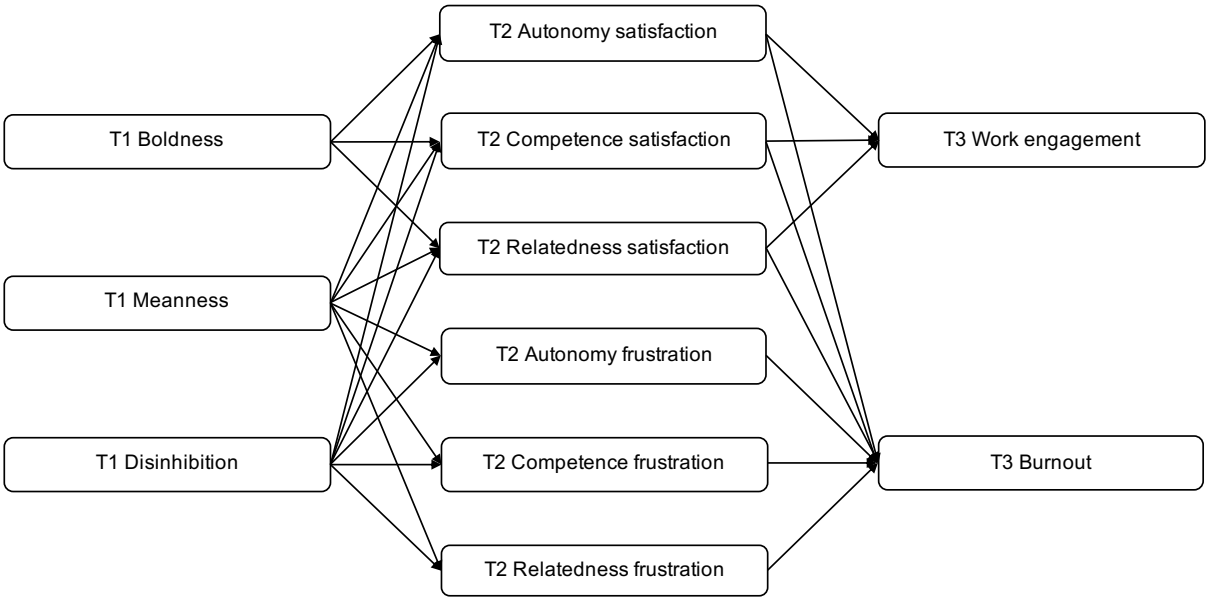
Hypothesis 5. Manager autonomy support and employee autonomous motivation will sequentially mediate the relationship between manager meanness and employee job performance, such that managers higher on meanness will be perceived by their employees as less autonomy supportive, which in turn will predict lower autonomous motivation and subsequently, worse performance.

Hypothesis 6. Manager autonomy support and employee autonomous motivation will sequentially mediate the relationship between manager disinhibition and employee job performance, such that managers higher on disinhibition will be perceived by their employees as less autonomy supportive, which in turn will predict lower autonomous motivation and subsequently, worse performance.

Finally, Study 3 examines the influence of perceived manager boldness, meanness, and disinhibition on employee well-being, in terms of work engagement and burnout, and whether employee autonomy, competence, and relatedness satisfaction and / or frustration act as mediators. This study addresses hypotheses 7, 8, 9, 10, 11, and 12.

Figure 3

Summary diagram of manager boldness, meanness, and disinhibition as predictors of employee work engagement and burnout, mediated by autonomy, competence, and relatedness need satisfaction and/or frustration.



Hypothesis 7. Employee autonomy, competence, and relatedness need satisfaction will mediate the relationship between manager boldness and employee work engagement, such that managers higher on boldness will better satisfy these basic psychological needs, which in turn will predict higher work engagement.

Hypothesis 8. Employee autonomy, competence, and relatedness need satisfaction will mediate the relationship between manager meanness and employee work engagement, such that managers higher on meanness will satisfy these basic psychological needs to a lesser degree, which in turn will predict lower work engagement.

Hypothesis 9. Employee autonomy, competence, and relatedness need satisfaction will mediate the relationship between manager disinhibition and

employee work engagement, such that managers higher on disinhibition will satisfy these basic psychological needs to a lesser degree, which in turn will predict lower work engagement.

Hypothesis 10. Employee autonomy, competence, and relatedness need satisfaction will mediate the relationship between manager boldness and employee burnout, such that managers higher on boldness will better satisfy these basic psychological needs, which in turn will predict lower burnout.

Hypothesis 11. Employee autonomy, competence, and relatedness need satisfaction, and autonomy, competence, and relatedness need frustration, will mediate the relationship between manager meanness and employee burnout, such that managers higher on meanness will be less likely to satisfy, and more likely to frustrate, these basic psychological needs, which in turn will predict higher burnout.

Hypothesis 12. Employee autonomy, competence, and relatedness need satisfaction, and autonomy, competence, and relatedness need frustration, will mediate the relationship between manager disinhibition and employee burnout, such that managers higher on disinhibition will be less likely to satisfy, and more likely to frustrate, these basic psychological needs, which in turn will predict higher burnout.

Thesis Organisation

Chapter 1 has introduced the research topic, rationale, aims, and questions, and provided a review of relevant literature on psychopathy and SDT. Chapter 2 presents the general method used in our research, outlining the research design, participants and resulting samples, procedure, measures, and plan for data analysis. Chapter 3 describes the results of the research. The theoretical and practical

significance of these results are then discussed in Chapter 4, followed by the limitations inherent in our research, and future research suggestions. To conclude, we summarise our research and its overall contribution.

Chapter 2

Method

This chapter describes the general method used in the research. First, the research design is outlined. A description of the participants and resulting subsamples is then given, followed by the research procedure, m easures, and data analytic plan.

Research Design

This research took on board recommendations to use a longitudinal design when examining psychopathy in the work context (Smith & Lilienfeld, 2013). Specifically, we adopted a three-wave longitudinal survey design to investigate the effects of perceived boldness, meanness, and disinhibition in managers on various employee outcomes: motivation, performance, and well-being. Although the same survey, with all measures, was completed at each time point, Table 1 summarises only the independent variables, mediator variables, dependent variables, and covariates that were assessed at Time 1 (T1), Time 2 (T2), and Time 3 (T3) to inform Study 1, 2, and 3.

The independent variables included employees' perception of psychopathic traits in their direct manager, measured at T1. Three variables, derived from the triarchic model of psychopathy (Patrick et al., 2009), were used to measure these traits: boldness (social dominance and low stress reactivity), meanness (lacking empathy, aggressiveness, and selfish exploitativeness), and disinhibition (deficient impulse control; Latzman et al., 2020).

Mediator variables included employees' perception of autonomy support (an interpersonal style that acknowledges employees' perspectives, affords choice, provides rationales for tasks where choice is constrained, and encourages self-

initiation; Kanat-Maymon et al., 2017; Slemp et al., 2018) from their direct manager, measured at T1 and T2. Mediator variables also included employees' autonomous motivation (behaviour that is enacted with a sense of volition and choice; Slemp et al., 2018), and the satisfaction and frustration of their basic psychological needs for autonomy (feeling volitional and experiencing behaviour as self-endorsed), competence (effectively expressing abilities and achieving desired outcomes), and relatedness (having meaningful relationships with others; Trépanier et al., 2019), measured at T2.

The dependent variables included employees' perception of their own amotivation (a lack of intention and desire to enact behaviour; Gagné & Deci, 2005), measured at T1, and job performance (actions and behaviours that are necessary to complete tasks; Williams & Anderson, 1991), measured at T2. In addition, dependent variables included the core elements of work engagement and burnout, measured at T3. For work engagement, this included vigour (dedicating effort at work and persisting when difficulties arise) and dedication (being so involved in, and feeling enthusiastic about, work; Schaufeli et al., 2002). For burnout, this included emotional exhaustion (feeling unable to give any more of oneself) and cynicism (having a negative and distant attitude and response toward others; Maslach et al., 2001).

Lastly, covariates were included to control for their potential effects on the dependent variables. Covariates included employees' age and gender, measured at T1, and the percentage of time spent working remotely (working in a location away from one's central office; Allen et al., 2015), measured at all three time points (i.e., T1, T2, and T3).

Table 1

Variables measured at Time 1 (T1), Time 2 (T2), and Time 3 (T3).

Variables	Time 1 (T1)	Time 2 (T2)	Time 3 (T3)
Independent variables			
Psychopathy			
Boldness	✓		
Meanness	✓		
Disinhibition	✓		
Mediators			
Autonomy support	✓	✓	
Autonomous motivation		✓	
Basic psychological need satisfaction			
Autonomy satisfaction		✓	
Competence satisfaction		✓	
Relatedness satisfaction		✓	
Basic psychological need frustration			
Autonomy frustration		✓	
Competence frustration		✓	
Relatedness frustration		✓	
Dependent variables			
Amotivation	✓		
Job performance		✓	
Well-being			
Work engagement			✓
Burnout			✓
Covariates			
Age	✓		
Gender	✓		
Remote work	✓	✓	✓

Participants

Using working samples is critical to providing a more accurate understanding of how psychopathic traits manifest at work, and the implications they have (Smith & Lilienfeld, 2013). Participants were employees working across various industry sectors in New Zealand. Eligible participants were working full-time (i.e., at least 30 hours per week) and reported directly to a manager. Participants completed an

online survey at three different time points, approximately six weeks apart, between May and August 2020.

To determine the minimum sample size necessary to detect meaningful effects at each time point, we conducted a priori power analysis using the statistical software G*Power 3.1. Assuming power at 0.80, medium effect size at 0.15, and probability level of 0.05, we calculated a minimum sample size of 85 for Study 1, 92 for Study 2, and 114 for Study 3. Due to potential attrition and data cleaning, we collected additional responses at each time point.

Participants who completed the survey at T1 are referred to as Sample 1, whereas those who completed the survey at both T1 and T2, and T1, T2, and T3, are referred to as Sample 2 and Sample 3, respectively. We note here that participants who completed the survey at T2 and / or T3 are subsamples of those who completed the survey at T1. Each of the three samples is described below (see also Table 2, Appendix A).

Sample 1

In total, 630 participants completed the online survey at T1 (May 2020, Covid-19 Lockdown Alert Level 3). Of these participants, 31 were excluded for failing to meet the eligibility criteria, leaving a sample size of 599. After data cleaning (described later), the final T1 sample consisted of 505 participants. Participant age ranged from 18 to 67 (M = 40.09, SD = 11.55). Most participants identified as female (58.61%; 40.79% identified as male) and reported directly to a male manager (55.25%; 44.16% reported directly to a female manager). One participant preferred not to disclose their manager's gender. Participants had been working in their job for a mean of 5.97 years (SD = 6.51) and had been reporting to their direct manager for a mean of 3.37 years (SD = 3.86). Participants worked a mean of 39.43 hours per

week (*SD* = 4.89) and spent a mean of 16.34 hours (*SD* = 18.22) working away from their usual workplace. Hence, participants spent a mean of 41.52% (*SD* = 45.95) of their week working remotely. Regarding industry sector, 14.46% of participants worked in Professional, Scientific, Technical, Administrative and Support Services, 14.06% in Education and Training, 13.86% in Health Care and Social Assistance, 12.08% in Retail Trade and Accommodation, 6.93% in Manufacturing, 6.14% in Public Administrative and Safety, 5.74% in Arts, Recreation and Other Services, and 26.33% in Other. Hereafter, 'Other' reflects the grouping of industry sectors with less than 5% individual representation.

Sample 2

Of the 505 participants who completed the online survey at T1, 282 completed the online survey at T2 (June 2020, Covid-19 Lockdown Alert Level 1). Of these participants, seven were excluded for failing to meet the eligibility criteria, leaving a sample size of 275. Following data cleaning (described later), the final matched T1-T2 sample consisted of 246 participants. Participant age ranged from 19 to 67 (*M* = 42.48, *SD* = 10.98). Again, most participants identified as female (53.25%; 45.53% identified as male) and reported directly to a male manager (62.20%; 36.59% reported to a female manager). One participant preferred not to disclose their manager's gender. Participants had been working in their job for a mean of 6.94 years (*SD* = 7.17) and had been reporting to their direct manager for a mean of 3.99 years (*SD* = 4.25). Similarly to T1, participants worked a mean of 39.60 hours per week (*SD* = 4.03) but spent less time working away from their usual workplace (*M* = 10.03 hours, *SD* = 15.00). Participants therefore spent a mean of 24.83% (*SD* = 36.65) of their week working remotely. Regarding industry sector, 15.85% of participants worked in Professional, Scientific, Technical, Administrative and Support

Services, 14.23% in each of Education and Training and Health Care and Social Assistance sectors, 9.76% in Retail Trade and Accommodation, 8.13% in Public Administrative and Safety, 7.72% in Manufacturing, 5.69% in Arts, Recreation and Other Services, and 24.40% in Other.

Sample 3

Of the 246 participants who completed the online survey at T1 and T2, 152 completed the online survey at T3 (July / August 2020, Covid-19 Lockdown Alert Level 1). Of these participants, seven were excluded for failing to meet the eligibility criteria, leaving a sample size of 145. After data cleaning (described later), the final matched T1-T2-T3 sample consisted of 125 participants. Participant age ranged from 22 to 66 (M = 44.21, SD = 10.61). Most participants identified as male (52.80%; 46.40% identified as female). One participant (0.80%) identified their gender as 'other'. Most participants reported directly to a male manager (65.60%; 32.80% reported to a female manager). One participant (0.80%) reported to a manager of 'other' gender. Participants had been working in their job for a mean of 8.46 years (SD = 7.96) and had been reporting to their direct manager for a mean of 4.53 years (SD = 4.06). Participants worked a mean of 40.22 hours per week (SD = 5.99) and spent a mean of 7.09 hours (SD = 12.02) working away from their usual workplace. Hence, participants spent a mean of 17.66% (SD = 29.70) of their week working remotely. Regarding industry sector, 15.20% of participants worked in Health Care and Social Assistance, 14.40% in Education and Training, 12.80% in Professional, Scientific, Technical, Administrative and Support Services, 8.80% in Manufacturing, 7.20% in each of Wholesale Trade and Information Media and Telecommunications sectors, 6.40% in each of Retail Trade and Accommodation, Public Administrative and Safety, and Arts, Recreation and Other Services sectors, and 15.20% in Other.

Similarities and Differences Between Samples

Similarities and differences exist in the demographic and work characteristics of Sample 1, 2, and 3. In contrast to Sample 1 and 2, which included mostly female participants, Sample 3 included mostly male participants. In all three samples however, participants mostly reported to a male manager. Participant age, tenure in job, and tenure with manager increased across each sample. Whilst the hours participants worked per week remained fairly consistent in each sample, the hours worked per week away from one's usual workplace decreased. Finally, participants in each sample mostly worked in three specific industries: 1) Professional, Scientific, Technical, Administration, and Support Services, 2) Education and Training, and 3) Health Care and Social Assistance.

Procedure

All procedures in this research were approved by the Human Research Ethics Committee (HREC) of the Faculty of Arts and Social Sciences at the University of Waikato (HREC 2020#16).

Organisations tend to be reluctant to allow for the assessment of psychopathy (Babiak et al., 2010), which has made conducting research on this topic in the organisational context, difficult (Mathieu & Babiak, 2016). Participants in this research were therefore recruited through a research panel, which is a sample of individuals who have agreed to complete surveys in exchange for small monetary compensation. As others have indicated (e.g., Spurk et al., 2016; Volmer et al., 2016), data obtained from online panels is of high quality (Kubicek et al., 2014; Ng & Feldman, 2010). Panel members matching the profile requested by the researchers (i.e., employees working across various industry sectors in New Zealand) were sent an email invitation containing a URL link to the online survey by an allocated project

manager. The online survey was hosted by Qualtrics and took approximately 15 minutes to complete.

Prior to beginning the online survey, participants were required to read an information sheet (see Appendix B) explaining the research and its requirements. The eligibility criteria for participating in the research was clearly outlined. Participants were made aware that their survey responses would remain anonymous, and of their right to withdraw from the research at any point prior to their responses being submitted. Participants clicked a checkbox to indicate whether they had read and understood the information sheet and were ready to participate in the research. Those who indicated that they had read the information sheet and were ready to begin their participation in the research were allowed to start answering survey questions; those who indicated otherwise were automatically screened out.

The researchers instructed the panel survey project manager to collect approximately 500 survey responses at T1, 250 survey responses at T2, and 125 survey responses at T3. These quotas were based on our a priori power analysis (previously described), which indicated that a minimum sample size of 114 was required to detect meaningful effects at the final data collection time point (i.e., T3). We worked backwards to calculate the necessary sample size needed for T2 followed by T1, given expected attrition and data cleaning requirements.

Once roughly 10% of the suggested T1 quota was obtained, data collection was paused. Checks were then carried out to ensure that the completion status of respondents was being recorded correctly, and to identify whether participants' personal identification numbers and survey responses were showing up in the data file as expected. Following approval from the researchers, the project manager carried out the full launch of the online survey.

Participants who completed the online survey at T1 were re-sent an invitation to complete the same online survey at T2. Similarly, participants who completed the online survey at T2 were invited to complete the online survey again at T3. Participants' personal identification numbers were used to match survey responses at each time point. A list of participants' personal identification numbers was sent to the project manager after survey completion at each time point, so that they could be compensated.

Measures

Participants provided demographic and work-related information and rated their direct manager's boldness, meanness, disinhibition, and autonomy support. In addition, participants rated their own motivation, basic psychological need satisfaction and frustration, job performance, work engagement, and burnout. The relevant measures are subsequently described.

Demographic Variables and Work Characteristics

Demographic and work-related variables were measured to describe the participating sample at each time point. Manager gender and employee gender, age, tenure in job, tenure working with manager, hours working per week, and hours working per week away from one's usual workplace were assessed with single items. The number of hours spent working away from one's usual workplace was converted to percentage of time spent working remotely. Percentage of time spent working remotely was assessed because participants may have been working from locations other than their typical offices or production facilities due to Covid-19 restrictions. Industry sector was also assessed with a single item, using the Australian and New Zealand Standard Industrial Classification (ANZSIC) groupings.

Boldness, Meanness, and Disinhibition

The other-report version of the Triarchic Psychopathy Measure (Work); (TriPM[Work]; Sutton et al., 2020) was used to assess employees' perception of boldness, meanness, and disinhibition in their manager. This measure was chosen because it is work-specific and directly assesses the manifestation of these psychopathic traits in managers. This version of the TriPM(Work) contains 21 items, capturing boldness, meanness, and disinhibition with 7 items each. Responses to each item are rated as 1 (false), 2 (somewhat false), 3 (somewhat true), or 4 (true). Example items are "My manager is well-equipped to deal with stress" (boldness), "My manager doesn't have much sympathy for people" (meanness), and "My manager has had problems at work because he/she was irresponsible" (disinhibition). This measure has shown good internal reliability in previous research, with Cronbach's alpha for boldness, meanness, and disinhibition being 0.86, 0.94, and 0.90, respectively (Sutton et al., 2020).

Autonomy Support

Employees' perception of their manager's autonomy support was assessed using the short, 6-item version of the Work Climate Questionnaire (WQC; Baard et al., 2004). Employees were instructed to respond to each item by indicating how they feel about their encounters with their manager at work on a scale from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree). An example item is "I feel that my manager provides me with choices and options". Previous research suggests that this measure is internally reliable, reporting a Cronbach's alpha of 0.95 (Olafsen et al., 2018).

Motivation

Three subscales from the Multidimensional Work Motivation Scale (MWMS; Gagné et al., 2015) were used to assess employees' motivation: amotivation,

intrinsic motivation, and identified regulation. The amotivation, intrinsic motivation, and identified regulation subscales each contain 3 items. Employees were asked to indicate why they put effort into their job, using a scale from 1 (not at all) to 7 (completely). Example items are “I do little because I don’t think this work is worth putting efforts into” (amotivation), “Because I have fun doing my job” (intrinsic motivation), and “Because I personally consider it important to put efforts in this job” (identified regulation). In line with previous research (e.g., Olafsen et al., 2018), we used intrinsic motivation and identified regulation scores to make a composite score for autonomous motivation. This measure has shown good internal reliability in previous research, with Cronbach’s alpha for amotivation being 0.84 (Lion & Burch, 2018), and Cronbach’s alpha for autonomous motivation ranging from 0.89 to 0.92 (Olafsen et al., 2018).

Basic Psychological Need Satisfaction

Basic psychological need satisfaction was assessed using the Work-related Basic Need Satisfaction (W-BNS; Van den Broeck et al., 2010) scale. This measure contains 16 items, with 6 items each assessing autonomy and relatedness satisfaction, and 4 items assessing competence satisfaction. Employees answered the items by reflecting on their experiences at work. Items are rated on a scale from 1 (totally disagree) to 5 (totally agree). Example items are “I feel free to do my job the way I think it could best be done” (autonomy), “I really master tasks at my job” (competence), and “At work, I feel part of a group” (relatedness). Previous research suggests that this measure is internally reliable, reporting a Cronbach’s alpha of 0.85 for autonomy satisfaction, 0.89 for competence satisfaction, and 0.89 for relatedness satisfaction (Goodboy et al., 2020).

Basic Psychological Need Frustration

An adapted version of the Psychological Need Thwarting Scale (PNTS; Bartholomew et al., 2011a, b) was used to assess frustration of the needs for autonomy, competence, and relatedness, with 4 items each. Because the original PNTS is used in sport, we changed the stem from “In my sport…” to “In my work…” and adjusted items slightly so that they fit the work context. To illustrate, “I feel prevented from making choices with regard to the way I train” was changed to “I feel prevented from making choices with regard to the way I work”. Other researchers have also used adapted versions of this scale (e.g., Bartholomew et al., 2014; Costa et al., 2015). Bartholomew et al., (2014) for example, changed the stem to fit the work context of physical education teachers (i.e., “In my PE classes…”), and adjusted items to reflect the potential frustration of basic psychological needs in the teaching context. Employees were instructed to respond to the items using a scale from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree). Example items are “I feel pushed to behave in certain ways” (autonomy), “There are occasions where I feel incompetent because others impose unrealistic expectations upon me” (competence), and “I feel I am rejected by those around me” (relatedness). This measure has shown good internal reliability in previous research, with Cronbach’s alphas for autonomy frustration, competence frustration, and relatedness frustration being 0.90, 0.85, and 0.89, respectively (Bartholomew et al., 2014).

Job Performance

Job performance was measured using the in-role behaviour scale of a measure developed by Williams and Anderson (1991). This scale consists of 7 items. The wording of items was slightly altered so that employees reported their own job performance, rather than having their manager rate their job performance.

For instance, “Adequately completes assigned duties” was changed to “I adequately complete assigned duties”. Other studies have also altered item wording to enable self-reports of job performance using this scale (e.g., Vega et al., 2015). Responses are rated on a scale from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree). Previous research suggests that this measure is internally reliable, reporting a Cronbach’s alpha ranging from 0.80 to 0.88 (Vega et al., 2015).

Work Engagement

The core elements of work engagement (vigour and dedication; Schaufeli & Bakker, 2010) were assessed using the short version of the Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (UWES; Schaufeli et al., 2006). As in other research (e.g., Delanoeije & Verbruggen, 2020; García-Sierra et al., 2016), absorption was not assessed. This is because, when compared to vigour and dedication, absorption plays a divergent role (Salanova et al., 2003), and may be better conceived of as an outcome of work engagement (González-Romá et al., 2006). Vigour and dedication were measured with 3 items each. Responses are rated on a scale from 0 (never) to 6 (always (every day)). Example items are “At my work, I feel bursting with energy” (vigour) and “I am enthusiastic about my job” (dedication). Because of the strong correlations between elements, it is recommended that a composite score be used (Schaufeli et al., 2006; Schaufeli & Bakker, 2010). Like other researchers (e.g., Trépanier et al., 2013), we combined vigour and dedication scores to make a composite work engagement score. This measure has shown good internal reliability in previous research, with Cronbach’s alpha of 0.78 for vigour and 0.81 for dedication (Gillet et al., 2019).

Burnout

With permission from the copyright holder, the Maslach Burnout Inventory—General Survey (MBI—GS; Schaufeli et al., 1996) was used to assess the core elements of burnout: emotional exhaustion and cynicism (Schaufeli & Taris, 2005; Schaufeli et al., 2017). The MBI—GS is the dominant measure for assessing burnout (Maslach et al., 2001). Rather than assessing emotional exhaustion, cynicism, and professional efficacy, other researchers have also only assessed emotional exhaustion and cynicism (e.g., García-Sierra et al., 2016; Trépanier et al., 2013, 2019). This is because there is evidence to suggest that inefficacy plays a different role to emotional exhaustion and cynicism (e.g., Schaufeli & Salanova, 2007), and may be a consequence of burnout (Schaufeli & De Witte, 2017). Emotional exhaustion and cynicism are each measured with 5 items. Employees were instructed to respond to items by deciding how often each item applied to their job, using a scale from 0 (never) to 6 (every day). Example items are “I feel emotionally drained from my work” (emotional exhaustion) and “I doubt the significance of my work” (cynicism). In line with previous research (e.g., Trépanier et al., 2013, 2019), we used emotional exhaustion and cynicism scores to create a composite score for burnout. Previous research suggests that this measure is internally reliable, with Cronbach’s alpha of 0.92 and 0.85 for emotional exhaustion and cynicism, respectively (Trépanier et al., 2019).

Covariates

We controlled for the possible effects of three covariates, by adding them as predictors of the dependent variables. Age (years) and gender (0 = male, 1 = female) were included as covariates in all mediation models given their association with basic psychological needs (Van den Broeck et al., 2016), which are known to

influence the outcomes of interest in our studies: motivation, job performance, and work-related well-being. We also controlled for the percentage of time spent working remotely, which can affect motivation (Hill et al., 2003), job performance (Golden & Gajendran, 2019), work engagement (Masuda et al., 2017), and burnout (Sardeshmukh et al., 2012).

Data Analysis Plan

The data analysis included data cleaning, confirmatory factor analysis, descriptive statistics, correlations, and testing of hypotheses using different types of mediation analysis.

Data Cleaning

Data collected at each time point was exported from the research software Qualtrics into IBM Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS; version 25) to be analysed. First, frequencies were examined to detect the presence of data errors and missing values. We dealt with low-quality responses by removing cases with more than 5% missing data (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007) and a survey response time faster than 50% of the median time (Greszki et al., 2014). Potential outliers, or values that largely differ from the rest of the data, were then detected and removed, as they can negatively affect the results of statistical tests (Field, 2018). We used Mahalanobis Distance to detect multivariate outliers. Mahalanobis Distance was estimated for each case and compared to a chi-square distribution with the same degrees of freedom as the number of predictors (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013) in the summary diagrams of each study. To establish the cut-off point, we used the critical value of chi-square at a conservative alpha of $p < .001$. The specific data cleaning procedures for Study 1, 2, and 3 are outlined next.

Study 1. In total, 599 eligible participants completed the online survey at T1. First, we identified whether any participants had more than 5% missing data. Item non-response did not exceed 5% for participants with missing data. Thus, no participants were deleted. The median survey response time was then computed (i.e., 803 seconds). Participants with a response time faster than 50% of the median time (i.e., faster than 401.5 seconds) were then removed (n = 84), leaving a sample size of 515. Ten further participants were removed, based on a Mahalanobis Distance probability less than p < 001. After data cleaning, the final T1 sample size was therefore 505.

Study 2. A total of 275 eligible participants completed the online survey at T2. Because this study examined the impact of manager boldness, meanness, and disinhibition on employee job performance over time, we removed participants who did not report directly to the same manager at T2 as at T1. Participants who had been working for their direct manager for less than 6 weeks (n = 4) were therefore removed, leaving a sample size of 271. Next, we determined whether participants had more than 5% missing data. Like Study 1, no participants met this threshold. We then calculated the median survey response time (i.e., 785 seconds). Eighteen participants with a response time faster than 50% of the median time (i.e., 392.5 seconds) were subsequently removed, reducing the sample size to 253. Two further participants were removed based on a Mahalanobis Distance probability less than p < .001, leaving a sample size of 251. Finally, the T1 and T2 data were merged using participants' personal identification numbers, and participants who did not complete the online survey at both time points (n = 5) were removed. Following data cleaning, the final matched T1-T2 sample size was therefore 246.

Study 3. In total, 145 eligible participants completed the online survey at T3. No participants had been working for their direct manager for less than 12 weeks, which indicates that all remaining participants reported to the same manager across the three time points. Five participants had more than 5% missing data and were thus removed, leaving a sample size of 140. The median survey response time was then computed (i.e., 780.5 seconds), and participants with a response time faster than 50% of the median time (i.e., 390.25 seconds) were removed (n = 15). No participants were removed based on a Mahalanobis Distance probability less than $p < .001$. The T1, T2, and T3 data were then merged to create a dataset in which participants completed the online survey at all three time points. After data cleaning, the final matched T1-T2-T3 sample size was therefore 125.

Confirmatory Factor Analysis

Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) was carried out in JASP (version 0.13.1) computer software. All CFA were run using Maximum Likelihood estimation. To evaluate goodness of fit, we examined the chi-square test (χ^2), normed χ^2, comparative fit index (CFI), root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA), and standardised root mean square residual (SRMR). Although the chi-square test is commonly used to determine the model's goodness of fit when $p < .05$, this is not recommended for large datasets, as it is sensitive to sample size and tends to be overpowered (Hu & Bentler, 1998). Thus, whilst we report this value for transparency, it is not interpreted. CFI values above 0.90, RMSEA values below 0.06, and SRMR values below 0.08 were considered to indicate good model fit (Hooper et al., 2008; Hu & Bentler, 1998).

One of the main functions of CFA is to examine model fit and the distinctiveness of variables, to show how well they reflect constructs (Hair et al.,

2010). CFA was therefore only conducted for measures comprising more than one scale and was not carried out for the 6-item version of the WQC, the amotivation subscale of the MWMS, or the in-role behaviour subscale of the measure developed by Williams and Anderson (1991).

The only multi-scale measure that was excepted from CFA is the TriPM(Work). In Chapter 1, we explained that the TriPM(Work) is made up of items extracted from the Triarchic Psychopathy Measure (TriPM; Patrick, 2010). Because the TriPM scales themselves were developed to index general factors from larger multi-scale measures (Patrick et al., 2020), in the domains of fear / fearless dominance and externalising psychopathology, they contain only a selection of items which serve as indicators of boldness, meanness, and disinhibition (Somma et al., 2018). Conducting internal analyses to determine the structure of the TriPM (and thus TriPM[Work]), and reformulating its scales to better represent the factors that emerge, would thus not be informative (Somma et al., 2018). Moreover, as boldness, meanness, and disinhibition correlate to varying degrees (Patrick et al., 2009), when subjected to CFA, items within these scales may cross-load onto more than one factor. In effect, “removing items that cross-load onto multiple factors within a single scale by definition eliminates items that operate to bind that scale together” (Patrick et al., 2020, p.4).

CFA was conducted for the autonomous motivation subscale of the MWMS, as well as the W-BNS scale, the PNTS, the vigour and dedication subscales of the short version of the UWES, and the emotional exhaustion and cynicism subscales of the MBI—GS. The results of the CFAs are reported in Chapter 3.

Descriptive Statistics

Descriptive statistics, including the mean, standard deviation, skew, kurtosis, and internal reliability were then computed for each scale. Variables with a skew value between -3 and 3, and a kurtosis value between -8 and 8, were considered acceptable (Kline, 2010). Variables with a Cronbach's alpha greater than .70 were considered to have acceptable internal reliability (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994). Pearson product-moment correlation coefficients were then calculated for all variables in each study. According to Cohen (1988), r = .10 represents small effect sizes, r = .30 represents medium effect sizes, and r = .50 represents large effect sizes. Descriptive statistics results are reported in Chapter 3.

Regression Assumptions

Statistical assumptions for the planned analyses were then checked. Normality was checked by looking at histograms and Probability-Probability (P-P) plots, as well as skewness and kurtosis statistics. Homoscedasticity was checked through visual inspection of the scatterplot, and independence was checked using the Durbin-Watson test. Multicollinearity was checked by first calculating Pearson product-moment correlations. Next, for variables that correlated above r > .80, variance inflation factors (VIF) and tolerance statistics were examined. If the largest VIF is greater than 10, or the tolerance is below 0.10, then the multicollinearity is problematic (Bowerman & O'Connell, 1990; Myers, 1990). The results of the regression assumptions are reported in Chapter 3.

Mediation Analysis

Mediation analysis was conducted using the PROCESS macro (version 3.5) for SPSS. Since the PROCESS macro does not allow for multiple predictors, and psychopathy is conceptualised in this research as comprising three separable

traits—boldness, meanness, and disinhibition—we tested the influence of boldness, meanness, and disinhibition in different mediation models. All mediation models were tested using 5000 bootstrap samples. Bootstrapping is “a non-parametric resampling procedure… that involves repeatedly sampling from the data set and estimating the indirect effects in each resampled data set” (Preacher & Hayes, 2008, p.880). Repeating this process thousands of times enables an approximation of the sampling distribution to be generated, which is used to establish confidence intervals for the indirect effect. We considered indirect effects to be significant when the 95% confidence interval (CI) did not include zero (Hayes, 2018). The specific mediation models that were tested in each study will now be described. The mediation analyses results are reported in Chapter 3.

Study 1. To determine whether manager autonomy support mediates the relationship between perceived manager boldness, meanness, and disinhibition, and employee amotivation, we tested three simple mediation models (PROCESS model 4). We entered T1 boldness, meanness, or disinhibition as the independent variable (*X*), T1 autonomy support as the mediator (*M*), and T1 amotivation as the dependent variable (*Y*). Figures 4, 5, and 6 illustrate the mediation analyses that were conducted to test Hypotheses 1, 2, and 3, respectively.

Figure 4

Model of manager boldness as a predictor of employee amotivation, mediated by autonomy support.

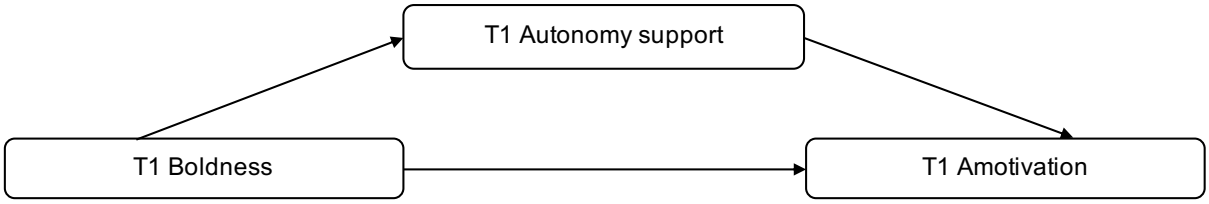


Figure 5

Model of manager meanness as a predictor of employee amotivation, mediated by autonomy support.

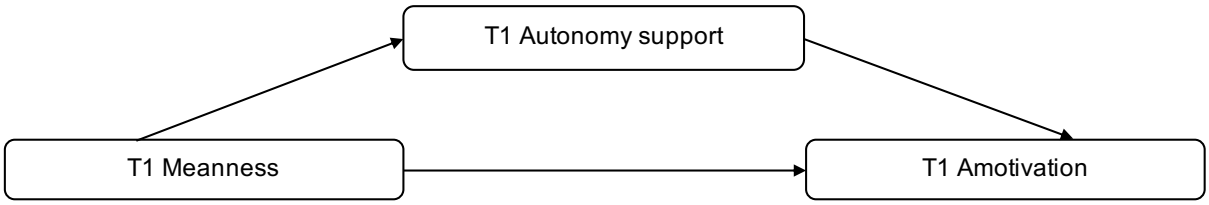
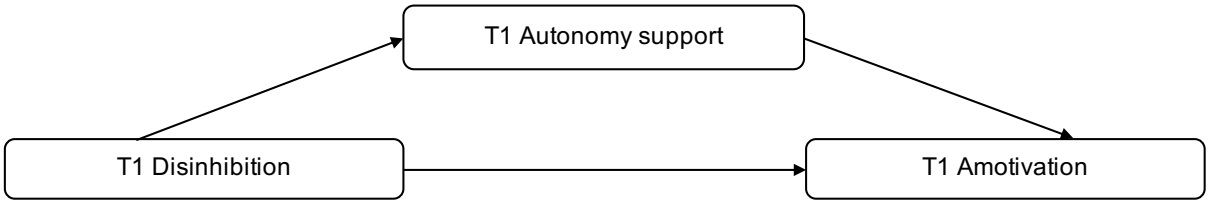


Figure 6

Model of manager disinhibition as a predictor of employee amotivation, mediated by autonomy support.



Study 2. To examine whether manager autonomy support and employee autonomous motivation mediate the relationship between perceived manager boldness, meanness, and disinhibition, and employee job performance, we tested three serial mediation models (PROCESS model 6). PROCESS model 6 enables the effect of the independent variable on the dependent variable to be tested through two mediator variables in a sequence. This model "assumes a causal chain linking the mediators, with a specified direction of causal flow" (Hayes, 2013, p.14). After entering T1 boldness, meanness, or disinhibition as the independent variable (*X*), T2 autonomy support (M_1) and T2 autonomous motivation (M_2) were entered as mediators, and T2 job performance was entered as the dependent variable (*Y*). The

figures displayed next (i.e., Figure 7, 8, and 9) show the mediation analyses that were conducted to test Hypotheses 4, 5, and 6, in that order.

Figure 7

Model of manager boldness as a predictor of employee job performance, mediated by autonomy support and employee autonomous motivation.

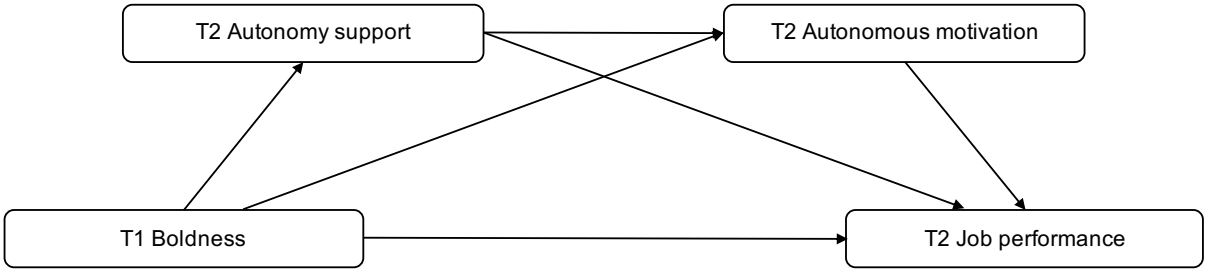


Figure 8

Model of manager meanness as a predictor of employee job performance, mediated by autonomy support and employee autonomous motivation.

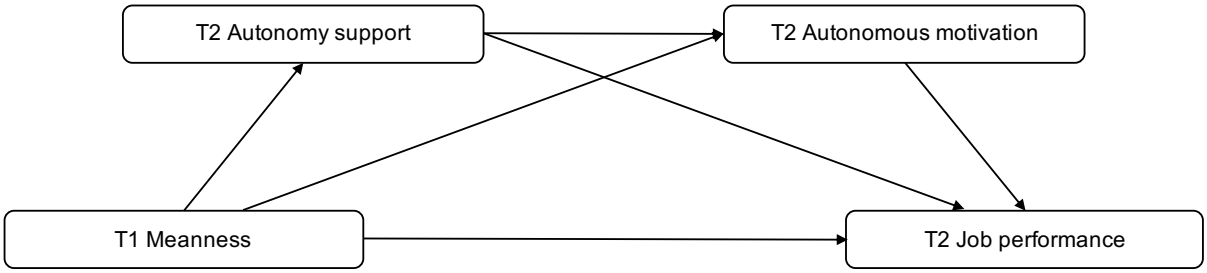
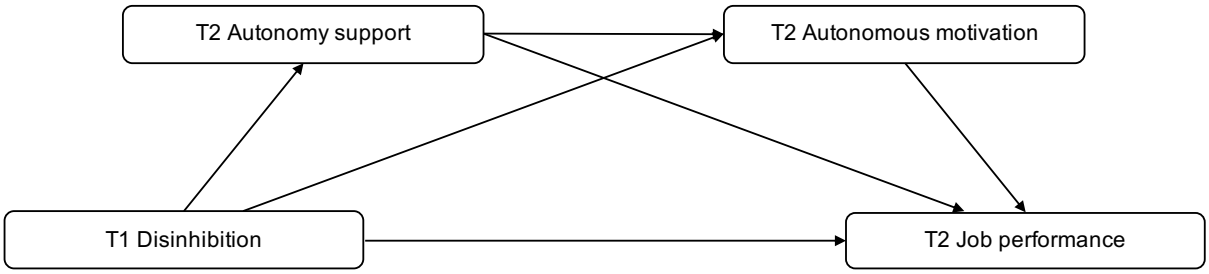


Figure 9

Model of manager disinhibition as a predictor of employee job performance, mediated by autonomy support and employee autonomous motivation.



Study 3. To determine whether employee autonomy, competence, and relatedness satisfaction mediate the relationship between perceived manager boldness, meanness, and disinhibition and employee work engagement, we tested three multiple mediation models (PROCESS model 4). We entered T1 boldness, meanness, or disinhibition as the independent variable (*X*), T2 autonomy satisfaction (M_1), competence satisfaction (M_2), and relatedness satisfaction (M_3) as the mediators, and T3 work engagement as the dependent variable (*X*). Figures 10, 11, and 12 illustrate the mediation analyses that were conducted to test Hypotheses 7, 8, and 9, respectively.

Figure 10

Model of manager boldness as a predictor of employee work engagement, mediated by autonomy, competence, and relatedness satisfaction.

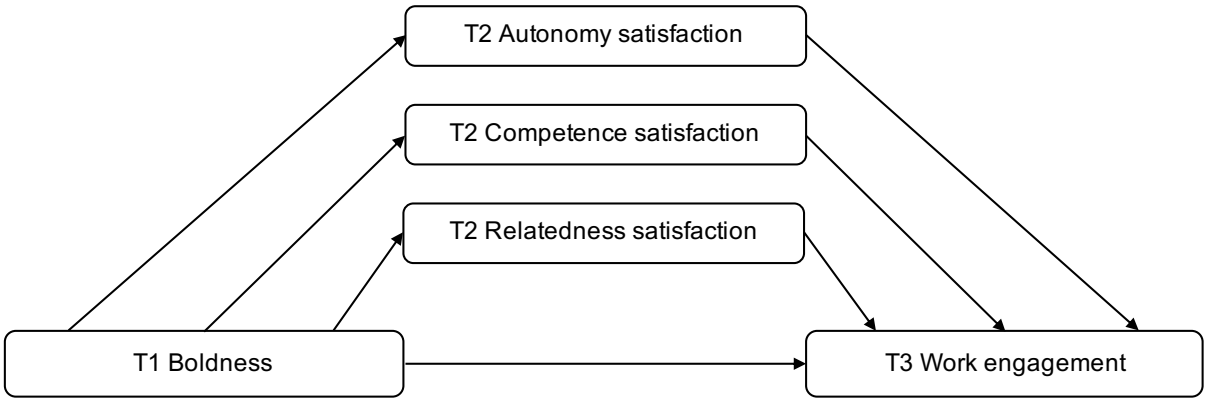


Figure 11

Model of manager meanness as a predictor of employee work engagement, mediated by autonomy, competence, and relatedness satisfaction.

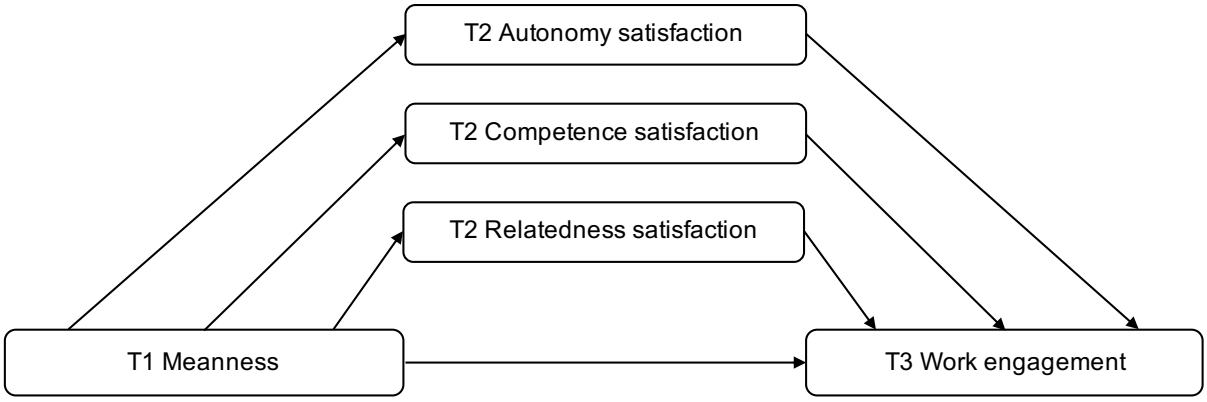
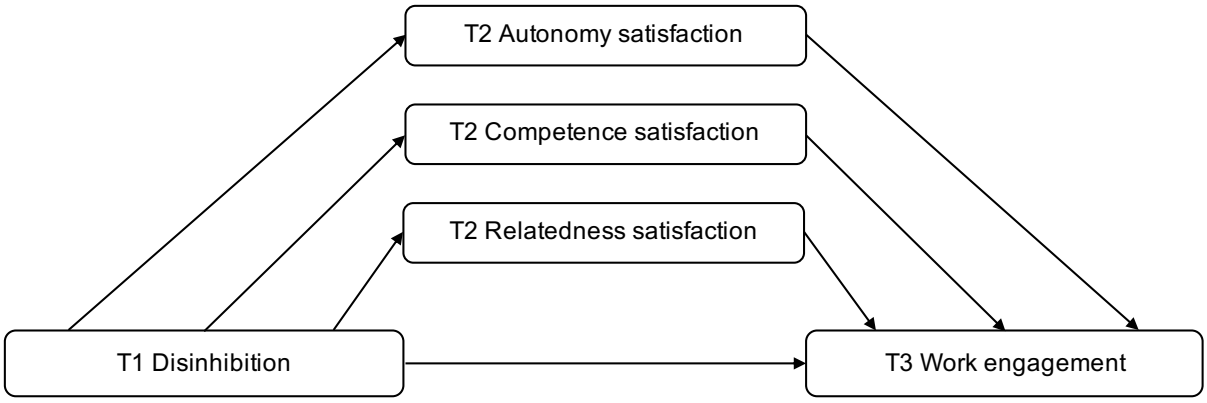


Figure 12

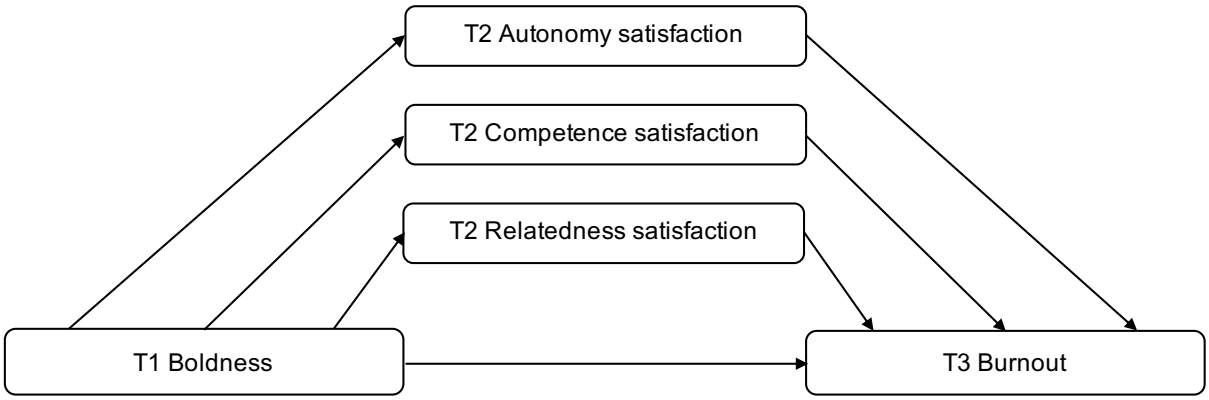
Model of manager disinhibition as a predictor of employee work engagement, mediated by autonomy, competence, and relatedness satisfaction.



A similar multiple mediation model was tested to determine whether employee autonomy, competence, and relatedness satisfaction mediate the relationship between manager boldness and employee burnout. Here, we entered T1 boldness as the independent variable (*X*), T2 autonomy satisfaction (M_1), competence satisfaction (M_2), and relatedness satisfaction (M_3) as the mediators, and T3 burnout as the dependent variable (*X*). Figure 13 displays the mediation analysis that was conducted to test Hypothesis 10.

Figure 13

Model of manager boldness as a predictor of employee burnout, mediated by autonomy, competence, and relatedness satisfaction.



In addition, two multiple mediation models were tested to determine whether employee autonomy, competence, and relatedness satisfaction and / or frustration mediate the relationship between perceived manager meanness and disinhibition, and employee burnout. We entered T1 manager meanness or disinhibition as the independent variable (*X*), T2 autonomy satisfaction (M_1), competence satisfaction (M_2), relatedness satisfaction (M_3), autonomy frustration (M_4), competence frustration (M_5), and relatedness frustration (M_6) as the mediators, and T3 burnout as the dependent variable (*Y*). In total, this study assessed 6 multiple mediation models. Figures 14 and 15 illustrate the mediation analyses that were conducted to test Hypotheses 11 and 12, respectively.

Figure 14

Model of manager meanness as a predictor of employee burnout, mediated by autonomy, competence, and relatedness satisfaction, and autonomy, competence, and relatedness frustration.

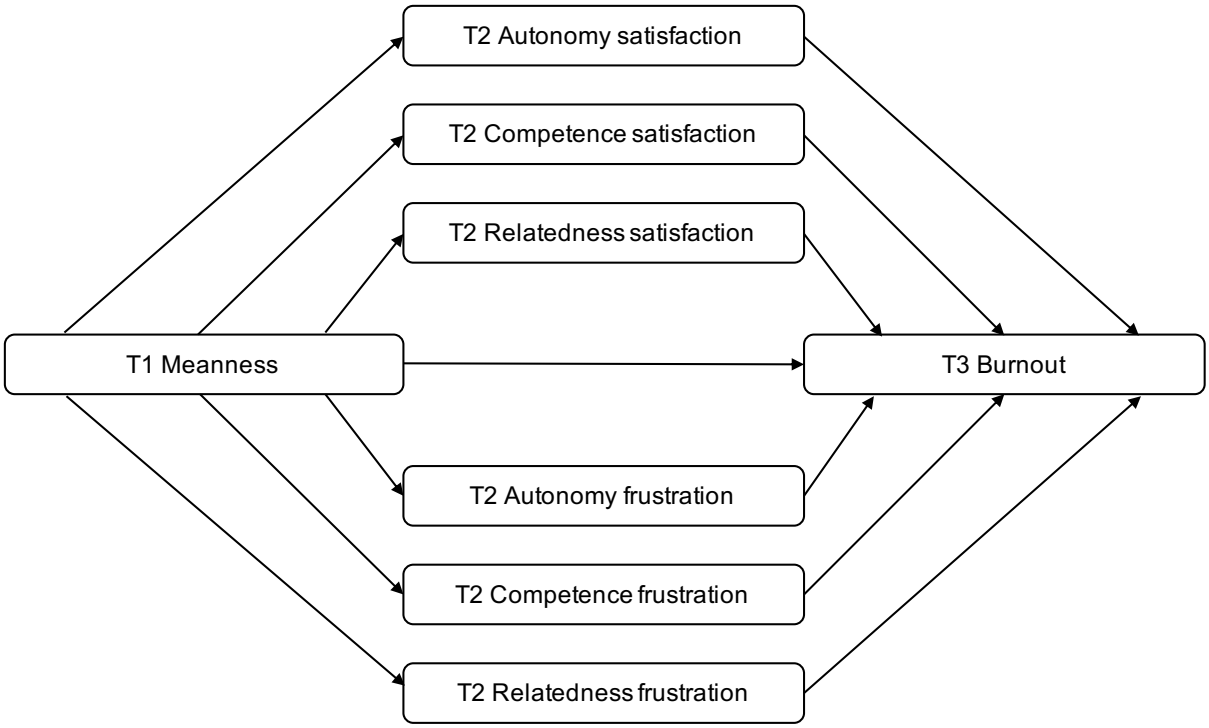
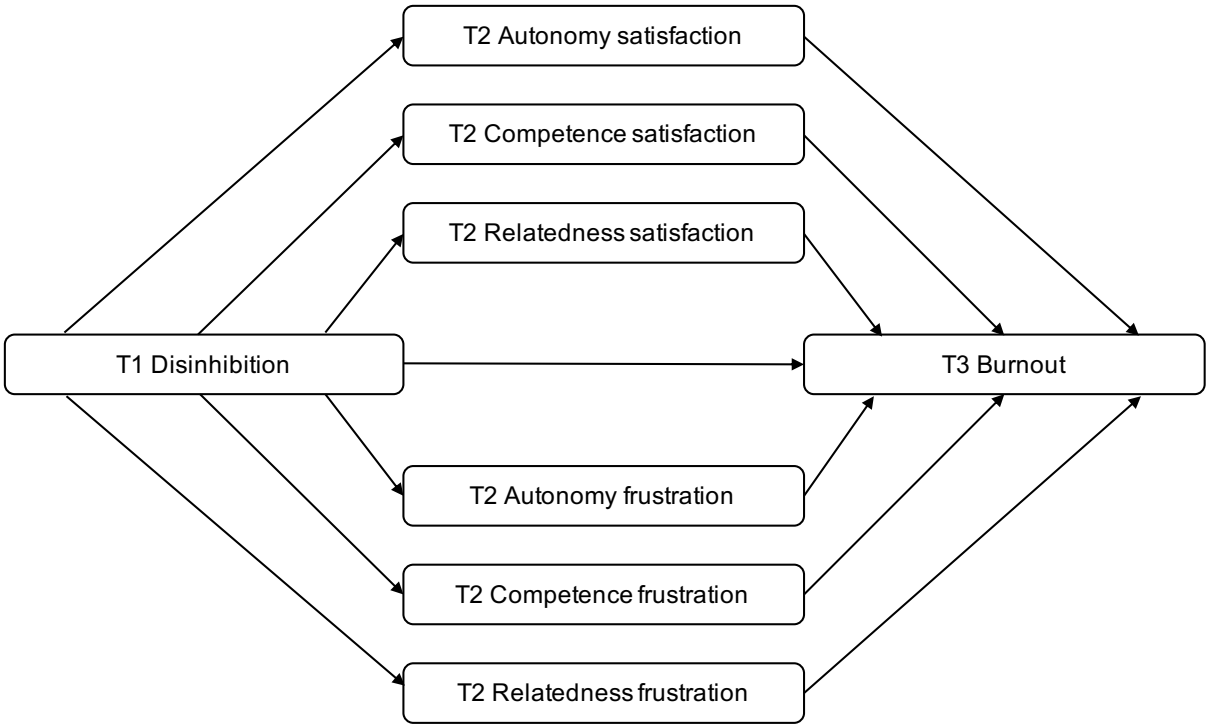


Figure 15

Model of manager disinhibition as a predictor of employee burnout, mediated by autonomy, competence, and relatedness satisfaction, and autonomy, competence, and relatedness frustration.



This chapter outlined the method that was used in the research, including the research design, the participants and how they were recruited, the resulting samples, completed measures, and how the data was analysed. The results of the three studies (i.e., Study, 1, 2, and 3) are presented in Chapter 3.

Chapter 3

Results

This chapter describes the results of Study 1, followed by Study 2 and Study 3. Except for Study 1, where confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was not conducted, the results for each study are presented in the following order: CFA, descriptive statistics, regression assumptions, correlations, and mediation analysis.

Study 1

Study 1 examined the influence of perceived manager boldness, meanness, and disinhibition on employee amotivation, and whether manager autonomy support acted as a mediator. This study addressed hypotheses 1, 2, and 3.

Descriptive Statistics

The mean, standard deviation, skew, kurtosis, and internal reliability of key variables are presented in Table 3. As shown, skewness and kurtosis values are not problematic, and all measures are reliable (Cronbach's alpha ranged from .84 to .94).

Correlations

Correlations between variables were examined using the Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient (r) and are presented in Table 3. Boldness was negatively correlated with meanness ($r = -.68$, $p < .01$) and disinhibition ($r = -.75$, $p < .01$), and meanness was positively correlated with disinhibition ($r = .81$, $p < .01$). As expected, boldness was positively ($r = .69$, $p < .01$), and meanness ($r = -.65$, $p < .01$) and disinhibition ($r = -.57$, $p < .01$) were negatively, correlated with autonomy support. Moreover, autonomy support was negatively correlated with amotivation ($r = -.39$, $p < .01$).

Regression Assumptions

Regression diagnostics met the model assumptions. Normality was confirmed through the histogram and Probability-Probability (P-P) plot, and homoscedasticity was confirmed through visual inspection of the scatterplot. The Durbin-Watson test yielded a value of 2.12, indicating low autocorrelation. Because meanness and disinhibition correlated above $r > .80$ ($r = .81$, $p < .01$), we checked for multicollinearity using variance inflation factor (VIF) and tolerance statistics. Recall from Chapter 2 that VIF values greater than 10, and tolerance values lower than .10, may indicate multicollinearity (Bowerman & O'Connell, 1990; Myers, 1990). Inspections of VIF and tolerance indicated that there were no problems with multicollinearity among meanness and disinhibition. Specifically, no VIF value exceeded 10 (ranged from 2.18 to 3.85), and tolerance values were all above .10 (ranged from .26 to .46). We note here that because the psychopathic traits were not included in a single regression equation, correlations at this level do not present as an issue for subsequent analysis.

Table 3

Mean, standard deviation, skew, kurtosis, and correlations among psychopathic traits, autonomy support, and amotivation (n = 505).

	Mean	SD	Skew	Kurtosis	1.	2.	3.	4.	5.
1. T1 Boldness	3.07	.60	-.58	.08	(.84)				
2. T1 Meaness	1.84	.74	.70	-.10	-.68**	(.91)			
3. T1 Disinhibition	1.69	.64	.88	.20	-.75**	.81**	(.88)		
4. T1 Autonomy support	5.27	1.40	-1.05	.50	.69**	-.65**	-.57**	(.94)	
5. T1 Amotivation	1.81	1.07	1.43	1.65	-.37**	.40**	.44**	-.39**	(.80)

Note. SD = standard deivation, T1 = Time 1. Cronbach's alpha is presented in parentheses.
** $p < 0.01$. (2-tailed).

Mediation Analysis

Three separate simple mediation models were analysed to test Hypotheses 1, 2, and 3. A summary of each of the hypotheses is presented before reporting mediation results.

> Hypothesis 1: Autonomy support will mediate the relationship between manager boldness and employee amotivation, such that managers higher on boldness will be perceived by their employees as more autonomy supportive, which in turn will predict lower amotivation.

Model 1 (Figure 4) predicted that manager autonomy support would mediate the relationship between perceived manager boldness and employee amotivation. The overall model explained 21.63% of the variance in amotivation; $F(5, 474) = 26.16$, $p < .001$. Regarding covariates, age ($b = -.02$, $p < .001$), gender ($b = -.23$, $p < .05$), and percentage of time spent working remotely ($b = .002$, $p < .05$) had significant effects on amotivation. The indirect effect from boldness through autonomy support to amotivation was significant and negative ($b = -.35$, 95% CI [-.5110, -.1776]). Boldness was positively related to autonomy support, which in turn, was negatively related to amotivation. The direct effect between boldness and amotivation remained significant ($b = -.30$, $p < .01$) when autonomy support was added as a mediator, indicating that the relationship between boldness and amotivation is partially mediated by autonomy support. Hypothesis 1 is therefore supported.

> Hypothesis 2: Autonomy support will mediate the relationship between manager meanness and employee amotivation, such that managers higher on meanness will be perceived by their employees as less autonomy supportive, which in turn will predict higher amotivation.

Model 2 (Figure 5) predicted that the relationship between perceived manager meanness and employee amotivation would be mediated by manager autonomy support. The overall model explained 22.97% of the variance in amotivation; $F(5, 474) = 28.27$, $p < .001$. Age ($b = -.02$, $p < .001$), gender ($b = -.22$, $p < .05$), and percentage of time spent working remotely ($b = .002$, $p < .05$) all significantly affected amotivation. There was a significant and positive indirect effect of meanness on amotivation through autonomy support ($b = .24$, 95% CI [.1076, .3745]). Meanness was negatively related to autonomy support, which in turn, was negatively related to amotivation. After the indirect effect was included, the direct effect remained significant ($b = .32$, $p < .001$), suggesting that autonomy support partially mediates the relationship between meanness and amotivation. Thus, hypothesis 2 is supported.

> Hypothesis 3: Autonomy support will mediate the relationship between manager disinhibition and employee amotivation, such that managers higher on disinhibition will be perceived by their employees as less autonomy supportive, which in turn will predict higher amotivation.

Finally, Model 3 (Figure 6) predicted that manager autonomy support would mediate the relationship between perceived manager disinhibition and employee amotivation. The overall model explained 25.12% of the variance in amotivation; $F(5, 474) = 31.79$, $p < .001$. Regarding covariates, age ($b = -.01$, $p < .001$), gender ($b = -.18$, $p < .05$), and percentage of time spent working remotely ($b = .002$, $p < .05$) had significant effects on amotivation. The indirect effect from disinhibition through autonomy support to amotivation was significant and positive ($b = .23$, 95% CI [.1120, .3630]). Disinhibition was negatively related to autonomy support, which in turn, was negatively related to amotivation. The direct effect between disinhibition

and amotivation remained significant (b = .47, p < .001) when autonomy support was added as a mediator, indicating that the relationship between disinhibition and amotivation is partially mediated by autonomy support. Hypothesis 3 is therefore supported.

Study 2

Study 2 investigated the effect of perceived manager boldness, meanness, and disinhibition on employee job performance, and whether manager autonomy support and employee autonomous motivation, in sequence, acted as mediators. This study tested hypotheses 4, 5, and 6.

Confirmatory Factor Analysis

We conducted CFA on the autonomous motivation subscale of the Multidimensional Work Motivation Scale (MWMS; Gagné et al., 2015) to confirm the factorial independence of the intrinsic motivation and identified regulation scales. The two-factor structure fit the data (χ^2 = 69.093, df = 8, p < 0.001, χ^2/df = 8.637, CFI = 0.957, RMSEA = 0.177, 90% CI for RMSEA = [0.140, 0.217), SRMR = 0.049), apart from the RMSEA index, which exceeds the criterion. Although the RMSEA value is indicative of poor fit, RMSEA has been shown to over-reject model fit when factor loadings are large (McNeish et al., 2018), which was the case here. The misfit according to RMSEA may therefore be misleading. The standardised item loadings were all significant and above .4 (item loadings ranged from .86 to .95 on intrinsic motivation, and .87 to .92 on identified regulation). We can therefore conclude that the autonomous motivation subscale of the MWMS measures two factors as expected.

Descriptive Statistics

The mean, standard deviation, skew, kurtosis, and internal reliability of key variables are presented in Table 4. As shown, skewness and kurtosis values are not problematic, and all measures are internally reliable (Cronbach's alpha ranged from .80 to .95).

Correlations

Correlations are presented in Table 4. We note here that because we used a different subsample of participants (i.e., employees who completed the online survey at both Time 1 and Time 2), the correlations between perceived manager boldness, meanness, and disinhibition differ from those already reported in Study 1. Nonetheless, the general pattern remains the same: boldness was negatively correlated with meanness (r = -.66, p < .01) and disinhibition (r = -.77, p < .01), and meanness was positively correlated with disinhibition (r = .79, p < .01). Boldness was also positively correlated with autonomy support (r = .51, p < .01), whereas meanness (r = -.45, p < .01) and disinhibition (r = -.42, p < .01) were negatively correlated. In addition, autonomy support was positively correlated with autonomous motivation (r = .38, p < .01), and autonomous motivation was positively correlated with job performance (r = .33, p < .01).

Regression Assumptions

Preliminary analyses revealed no violation of regression diagnostic tests. Normality was confirmed through the histogram and P-P plot and homoscedasticity was confirmed through inspection of the scatterplot. The Durbin-Watson test yielded a value of 1.98, indicating low autocorrelation. No variables were correlated above r > .80. Thus, VIF and tolerance statistics were not calculated.

Mediation Analysis

To test Hypotheses 4, 5, and 6, three separate serial mediation models were analysed. As in Study 1, we provide a summary of each of the hypotheses before reporting the results of the mediation analysis.

> Hypothesis 4. Manager autonomy support and employee autonomous motivation will sequentially mediate the relationship between manager boldness and employee job performance, such that managers higher on boldness will be perceived by their employees as more autonomy supportive, which in turn will predict higher autonomous motivation and subsequently, better job performance.

Model 1 (Figure 7) predicted that manager autonomy support and employee autonomous motivation would sequentially mediate the relationship between perceived manager boldness and employee job performance. The overall model explained 15.05% of the variance in job performance, $F(6, 228) = 6.73$, $p < .001$. Of the covariates, only age ($b = .01$, $p < .05$) had a significant effect on job performance; gender ($b = .14$, $p = .16$) and percentage of time spent working remotely ($b = -.001$, $p = .39$) did not. Although the indirect effect from boldness through autonomy support, $b = -.03$, 95% CI [-.1516, .0918], and from boldness through autonomous motivation, $b = .03$, 95% CI [-.0250, 1088], to job performance was not significant, the overall indirect effect through both mediating variables to job performance was significant, $b = .08$, 95% CI [.0347, .1295]. The overall indirect effect was positive. Boldness was a positive predictor of autonomy support. Autonomy support in turn, was positively related to autonomous motivation, which was subsequently positively related to job performance. The direct effect between boldness and job performance was also significant, $b = .23$, $p < .05$. Because the

pathway from boldness to job performance remained significant when both mediators were included in the model, partial mediation is occurring. Hypothesis 4 is therefore supported.

> Hypothesis 5. Manager autonomy support and employee autonomous motivation will sequentially mediate the relationship between manager meanness and employee job performance, such that managers higher on meanness will be perceived by their employees as less autonomy supportive, which in turn will predict lower autonomous motivation and subsequently, worse performance.

Model 2 (Figure 8) predicted that the relationship between perceived manager meanness and employee job performance would be mediated by manager autonomy support and employee autonomous motivation in serial. The overall model explained 17.57% of the variance in job performance, $F(6, 228) = 8.10$, $p < .001$. Age ($b = .01$, $p = .07$), gender ($b = .13$, $p = .19$), and percentage of time spent working remotely ($b = -.001$, $p = .57$) did not have significant effects on job performance. Neither the indirect effect from meanness through autonomy support, $b = .04$, 95% CI [-.0487, .1307], or from meanness through autonomous motivation, $b = 0$, 95% CI [-.0613, .0453], to job performance was significant. The overall indirect effect through both mediating variables, however, was significant, $b = -.06$, 95% CI [-.1044, -.0299]. The overall indirect effect was negative. Meanness was a negative predictor of autonomy support. Autonomy support in turn, was positively related to autonomous motivation, which was subsequently positively related to job performance. Due to the significant direct pathway from meanness to job performance, $b = -.27$. $p < .001$, there is partial mediation occurring. Thus, hypothesis 5 is supported.

Hypothesis 6. Manager autonomy support and employee autonomous motivation will sequentially mediate the relationship between manager disinhibition and employee job performance, such that managers higher on disinhibition will be perceived by their employees as less autonomy supportive, which in turn will predict lower autonomous motivation and subsequently, worse performance.

Model 3 (Figure 9) predicted that manager autonomy support and employee autonomous motivation would sequentially mediate the relationship between perceived manager disinhibition and employee job performance. The overall model explained 19.62% of the variance in job performance, $F(6, 228) = 9.28$, $p < .001$. Again, age ($b = .01$, $p = .09$), gender ($b = .09$, $p = .38$), and percentage of time spent working remotely ($b = -.001$, $p = .64$) did not have significant effects on job performance. Although the indirect effect from disinhibition through autonomy support, $b = .05$, 95% CI [-.0370, .1535], and from disinhibition through autonomous motivation, $b = 0$, 95% CI [-.0712, .0476], to job performance was not significant, the overall indirect effect through both mediating variables to job performance was significant, $b = -.07$, 95% CI [-.1193, -.0337]. The overall indirect effect was negative. Disinhibition was a negative predictor of autonomy support. Autonomy support in turn, was positively related to autonomous motivation, which was subsequently positively related to job performance. The direct effect between disinhibition and job performance was also significant, $b = -.38$, $p < .001$. As the pathway from disinhibition to job performance remained significant with the inclusion of both mediators in the model, partial mediation is occurring. Hypothesis 6 is therefore supported.

Table 4

Mean, standard deviation, skew, kurtosis, and correlations among psychopathic traits, autonomy support, autonomous motivation, and job performance (n = 246).

	Mean	SD	Skew	Kurtosis	1.	2.	3.	4.	5.	6.
1. T1 Boldness	3.12	.57	-.60	.25	(.83)					
2. T1 Meaness	1.79	.73	.94	.31	-.66**	(.92)				
3. T1 Disinhibition	1.63	.61	1.00	.40	-.77**	.79**	(.88)			
4. T2 Autonomy support	5.43	1.26	-1.19	1.50	.51**	-.45**	-.42**	(.95)		
5. T2 Autonomous motivation	4.92	1.43	-.46	-.33	.27**	-.22**	-.20**	.38**	(.93)	
6. T2 Job performance	6.02	.82	-1.04	.97	.22**	-.27**	-.32**	.15*	.33**	(.80)

Note. SD = standard deviation, T1 = Time 1, T2 = Time 2. Cronbach's alpha is presented in parentheses.
* $p < 0.05$; ** $p < 0.01$. (2-tailed).

Study 3

Study 3 examined the influence of perceived manager boldness, meanness, and disinhibition on employee well-being, in terms of work engagement and burnout, and whether employee autonomy, competence, and relatedness satisfaction and / or frustration acted as mediators. This study addressed hypotheses 7, 8, 9, 10, 11, and 12.

Confirmatory Factor Analysis

CFA was conducted to evaluate the underlying factor structure of the Work-related Basic Need Satisfaction (W-BNS; Van den Broeck et al., 2010) scale, the adapted version of the Psychological Need Thwarting Scale (PNTS; Bartholomew et al., 2011a, b), the vigour and dedication subscales of the short version of the Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (UWES; Schaufeli et al., 2006), and the emotional exhaustion and cynicism subscales of the Maslach Burnout Inventory—General Survey (MBI—GS; Schaufeli et al., 1996).

First, we conducted CFA to verify the factorial independence of the autonomy, competence, and relatedness satisfaction scales of the W-BNS. The three-factor structure did not meet the commonly accepted criteria for model fit (χ^2 = 200.852, *df* = 101, $p < 0.001$, χ^2/df = 1.989, CFI = 0.886, RMSEA = 0.090, 90% CI for RMSEA = [0.072, 0.108], SRMR = 0.084). However, the standardised item loadings were all significant and above .4 (item loadings ranged from .42 to .72 on autonomy satisfaction, from .70 to .96 on competence satisfaction, and from .50 to .80 on relatedness satisfaction). We re-ran the CFA to compare the three-factor model with a one-factor model, examining overall basic psychological need satisfaction. The one-factor model evinced poorer fit (χ^2 = 537.016, *df* = 104, $p < .001$, χ^2/df = 5.164, CFI = 0.506, RMSEA = 0.185, 90% CI for RMSEA = [0.169, 0.200], SRMR = 0.184).

In addition, 9 of the 16 standardised item loadings were not significant, loading below .4 (item loadings ranged from .12 to .37). It was therefore concluded that the three-factor, rather than one-factor, model be used.

CFA was then carried out to evaluate the underlying factor structure of the PNTS. This measure comprises autonomy, competence, and relatedness frustration subscales. The three-factor structure fit the data (χ^2 = 81.840, *df* = 51, $p < 0.01$, χ^2/df = 1.604, CFI = 0.974, RMSEA = 0.070, 90% CI for RMSEA = [0.040, 0.098], SRMR = 0.039), apart from the RMSEA index, which was outside of the acceptable range. As previously described, RMSEA has been shown to over-reject model fit when factor loadings are large (McNeish et al., 2018), which applies here. The standardised item loadings were all significant and above .40 (item loadings ranged from .76 to .87 on autonomy frustration, from .84 to .94 on competence frustration, and from .63 to .94 on relatedness frustration). We can therefore conclude that the PNTS measures three factors.

Next, we conducted CFA for two subscales from the short version of the UWES: vigour and dedication. The two-factor structure fit the data (χ^2 = 29.878, *df* = 8, $p < 0.01$, χ^2/df = 3.73, CFI = 0.970, RMSEA = 0.148, 90% CI for RMSEA = [0.094, 0.206], SRMR = 0.044), except for the RMSEA index, which exceeds the criterion. Again, we repeat here that the RMSEA can over-reject model fit when factor loadings are large (McNeish et al., 2018). The standardised item loadings were all significant and above .40 (item loadings ranged from .73 to .94 on vigour, and from .83 to .96 on dedication). It was therefore concluded that the two-factor model be used.

Finally, CFA was carried out for two subscales from the MBI—GS: emotional exhaustion and cynicism. The two-factor structure fit the data (χ^2 = 140.348, *df* = 34,

$p < 0.01$, $\chi^2/df = 4.128$, CFI = 0.926, RMSEA = 0.161, 90% CI for RMSEA = [0.134, 0.189], SRMR = 0.055, apart from the RMSEA index, which exceeds the criterion. However, we reiterate here that RMSEA can be overly strict. The standardised item loadings were all significant and above .40 (item loadings ranged from .88 to .96 on exhaustion, and from .71 to .99 on cynicism). We can therefore conclude that the MBI—GS measures emotional exhaustion and cynicism as two factors.

Descriptive Statistics

The mean, standard deviation, skew, kurtosis, and internal consistency of key variables are presented in Table 5. As shown, skewness and kurtosis values are not problematic, and all measures are reliable (Cronbach's alpha ranged from .74 to .95).

Correlations

Correlations between variables were examined using the Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient (*r*) and are presented in Table 5. Again, we note that the correlations between perceived manager boldness, meanness, and disinhibition are not the same as those reported in the previous studies (i.e., Study 1 and Study 2), because we used a different subsample of participants (i.e., employees who completed the online survey at Time 1, Time 2, and Time 3). Like the previous studies, however, boldness was negatively correlated with meanness ($r = -.67$, $p < .01$) and disinhibition ($r = -.79$, $p < .01$), and meanness was positively correlated with disinhibition ($r = .80$, $p < .01$). Boldness was also positively correlated with autonomy satisfaction and relatedness satisfaction ($r = .36$, $p < .01$, $r = .21$, $p < .05$, respectively), whereas meanness ($r = -.40$, $p < .01$, $r = -.25$, $p < .01$, respectively) and disinhibition ($r = -.37$, $p < .01$, $r = -.20$, $p < .05$, respectively) were negatively correlated with autonomy satisfaction and relatedness satisfaction. Boldness ($r = .14$,

p = .13), meanness (r = -.14, p = .11), and disinhibition (r = -.15, p = .11) did not significantly correlate with competence satisfaction. Meanness and disinhibition were positively correlated with autonomy frustration (r = .43, p < .01, r = .37, p < .01, respectively), competence frustration (r = .50, p < .01, r = .49, p < .01, respectively), and relatedness frustration (r = .43, p < .01, r = .40, p < .01, respectively). Furthermore, autonomy satisfaction (r = .47, p < .01), competence satisfaction (r = .28, p < .01), and relatedness satisfaction (r = .41, p < .01) were positively correlated with work engagement. Autonomy satisfaction (r = -.54, p < .01) and relatedness satisfaction (r = -.32, p < .01) were also negatively correlated with burnout, whereas competence satisfaction (r = -.13, p = .15) was not significantly related. Finally, autonomy frustration (r = .54, p < .01), competence frustration (r = .46, p < .01), and relatedness frustration (r = .50, p < .01) were positively correlated with burnout.

Regression Assumptions

Regression diagnostic tests met the model assumptions. Normality was confirmed through inspection of the histogram and P-P plot and homoscedasticity was confirmed through visual inspection of the scatterplot. The Durbin-Watson test yielded a value of 2.25 for work engagement and 2.05 for burnout, indicating low autocorrelation. No variables were correlated above p < .80. Thus, as in Study 2, VIF and tolerance statistics were not calculated.

Table 5

Mean, standard deviation, skew, kurtosis, and correlations among psychopathic traits, basic psychological need satisfaction, basic psychological need frustration, work engagement, and burnout (n = 125).

	Mean	SD	Skew	Kurtosis	1.	2.	3.	4.	5.	6.	7.	8.	9.	10.	11.
1. T1 Boldness	3.08	.61	-.77	.65	(.84)										
2. T1 Meaness	1.89	.76	.75	-.06	-.67**	(.92)									
3. T1 Disinhibition	1.66	.65	.96	.18	-.79**	.80**	(.89)								
4. T2 Autonomy satisfaction	3.30	.68	.13	-.29	.36**	-.40**	-.37**	(0.74)							
5. T2 Competence satisfaction	4.24	.65	-.73	.28	.14	-.14	-.15	.33**	(0.89)						
6. T2 Relatedness satisfaction	3.60	.83	-.25	-.70	.21*	-.25**	-.20*	.47**	.29**	(.84)					
7. T2 Autonomy frustration	3.97	1.42	-.18	-.40	-.36**	.43**	.37**	-.71**	-.23*	-.44**	(.89)				
8. T2 Competence frustration	3.39	1.64	.15	-1.00	-.39**	.50**	.49**	-.55**	-.30**	-.46**	.69**	(.93)			
9. T2 Relatedness frustration	2.84	1.36	.43	-.67	-.40**	.43**	.40**	-.48**	-.21*	-.60**	.64**	.71**	(.87)		
10. T3 Work engagement	3.88	1.26	-.52	.17	.16	-.13	-.13	.47**	.28**	.41**	-.31**	-.23**	-.24**	(.94)	
11. T3 Burnout	2.52	1.57	.46	-.63	-.34**	.38**	.37**	-.54**	-.13	-.32**	.54**	.46**	.50**	-.46**	(.95)

Note. SD = standard deviation, T1 = Time 1, T2 = Time 2, T3 = Time 3. Cronbach's alpha is presented in parentheses.
* $p < 0.05$; ** $p < 0.01$. (2-tailed).

Mediation Analysis

Six separate multiple mediation models were analysed to test Hypotheses 7, 8, 9, 10, 11, and 12. The first three models consider the relationship between perceived manager boldness, meanness, and disinhibition, and employee work engagement; the remaining three models focus on the influence of perceived manager boldness, meanness, and disinhibition, on employee burnout. A summary of each of the hypotheses is presented before reporting mediation results.

> Hypothesis 7. Employee autonomy, competence, and relatedness need satisfaction will mediate the relationship between manager boldness and employee work engagement, such that managers higher on boldness will better satisfy these basic psychological needs, which in turn will predict higher work engagement.

Model 1 (Figure 10) predicted that employee autonomy, competence, and relatedness satisfaction would each mediate the relationship between perceived manager boldness and employee work engagement. The overall model explained 27.03% of the variance in work engagement, $F(8, 106) = 4.91$, $p < .001$. Age ($b = .01$, $p = .44$), gender ($b = -.25$, $p = .23$), and percentage of time spent working remotely ($b = .0002$, $p = .96$) did not have significant effects on work engagement. The indirect effect from boldness through autonomy satisfaction was significant and positive ($b = .23$, 95% CI [.0766, .4106]). Boldness was a positive predictor of autonomy satisfaction, which in turn, positively predicted work engagement. The indirect effect through competence satisfaction ($b = .02$, 95% CI [-.0434, .1082]) and relatedness satisfaction ($b = .08$, 95% CI [-.0013, .2226]) was not significant. Because the direct effect between boldness and work engagement was not

significant (*b* = .09, *p* = .62), full mediation is occurring for autonomy satisfaction. Hypothesis 7 is therefore partially supported.

Hypothesis 8. Employee autonomy, competence, and relatedness need satisfaction will mediate the relationship between manager meanness and employee work engagement, such that managers higher on meanness will satisfy these basic psychological needs to a lesser degree, which in turn will predict lower work engagement.

Model 2 (Figure 11) predicted that employee autonomy, competence, and relatedness satisfaction would each mediate the relationship between perceived manager meanness and employee work engagement. The overall model explained 26.90% of the variance in work engagement, $F(8, 106) = 4.88$, $p < .001$. Neither age (*b* = .01, *p* = .47), gender (*b* = -.24, *p* = .26), or percentage of time spent working remotely (*b* = .0005, *p* = .91) significantly affected work engagement. The indirect effect from meanness through autonomy satisfaction (*b* = -.24, 95% CI [-.4022, -.0892]), and from meanness through relatedness satisfaction (*b* = -.10, 95% CI [-.2400, -.0059]), was significant and negative. Meanness was a negative predictor of autonomy and relatedness satisfaction. Autonomy and relatedness satisfaction in turn, positively predicted work engagement. The indirect effect through competence satisfaction was not significant, (*b* = -.02, 95% CI [-.1011, .0325]). Because the direct effect between meanness and work engagement was not significant (*b* = .04, *p* = .81), full mediation is occurring. Thus, hypothesis 8 is partially supported.

Hypothesis 9. Employee autonomy, competence, and relatedness need satisfaction will mediate the relationship between manager disinhibition and employee work engagement, such that managers higher on disinhibition will

satisfy these basic psychological needs to a lesser degree, which in turn will predict lower work engagement.

Model 3 (Figure 12) predicted that employee autonomy, competence, and relatedness satisfaction would each mediate the relationship between perceived manager disinhibition and employee work engagement. The overall model explained 26.86% of the variance in work engagement, $F(8, 106) = 4.87$, $p < .001$. Age (b = .01. p = .47), gender (b = -.25, p = .25), and percentage of time spent working remotely (b = .0003, p = .94) did not have significant effects on work engagement. The indirect effect from disinhibition through autonomy satisfaction (b = -.26, 95% CI [-.4512, -.0845]), and from disinhibition through relatedness satisfaction (b = -.09, 95% CI [-.2380, -.0013]), was significant and negative. Disinhibition was a negative predictor of autonomy and relatedness satisfaction, which in turn, positively predicted work engagement. The indirect effect through competence satisfaction was not significant, (b = -.02, 95% CI [-.1107, .0449]). Because the direct effect between disinhibition and work engagement was not significant (b = -.01, p = .95), full mediation is occurring. Hypothesis 9 is therefore partially supported.

Hypothesis 10. Employee autonomy, competence, and relatedness need satisfaction will mediate the relationship between manager boldness and employee burnout, such that managers higher on boldness will better satisfy these basic psychological needs, which in turn will predict lower burnout.

Model 4 (Figure 13) predicted that employee autonomy, competence, and relatedness satisfaction would each mediate the relationship between perceived manager boldness and employee burnout. The overall model explained 39.39% of the variance in burnout, $F(8, 106) = 8.61$, $p < .001$. Of the covariates, only age (b = -.04, $p < .01$) had a significant effect on burnout; gender (b = .24, p = .33) and

percentage of time spent working remotely (*b* = -.0005, *p* = .91) did not. The indirect effect from boldness through autonomy satisfaction was significant and negative (*b* = -.38, 95% CI [-.6288, -.1844]). Boldness was a positive predictor of autonomy satisfaction, which in turn, negatively predicted burnout. The indirect effect through competence satisfaction (*b* = .05, 95% CI [-.0332, .1713]) and relatedness satisfaction (*b* = -.04, 95% CI [-.1532, .0511]) was not significant. The direct effect between boldness and burnout was significant (*b* = .54, *p* < .05). As the pathway from boldness to burnout remained significant when the mediators were included in the model, partial mediation is occurring. Thus, hypothesis 10 is partially supported.

> Hypothesis 11. Employee autonomy, competence, and relatedness need satisfaction, and autonomy, competence, and relatedness need frustration, will mediate the relationship between manager meanness and employee burnout, such that managers higher on meanness will be less likely to satisfy, and more likely to frustrate, these basic psychological needs, which in turn will predict higher burnout.

Model 5 (Figure 14) predicted that employee autonomy, competence, and relatedness satisfaction, and autonomy, competence, and relatedness frustration, would each mediate the relationship between perceived manager meanness and employee burnout. The overall model explained 46.72% of the variance in burnout $F(11, 103) = 8.21$, $p < .001$. Regarding covariates, only age (*b* = -.04, *p* < .01) significantly affected burnout; gender (*b* = .20, *p* = .40) and percentage of time spent working remotely (*b* = -.001, *p* = .78) did not. The indirect effect from meanness through autonomy satisfaction was significant and positive (*b* = .24, 95% CI [.0469, .5061]). Meanness was a negative predictor of autonomy satisfaction, which in turn, negatively predicted burnout. The indirect effect from meanness through

competence (*b* = -.03, 95% CI [-.1252, .0263]) and relatedness satisfaction (*b* = -.05, 95% CI [-.1880, .0497]) was not significant. The indirect effect from meanness through autonomy (*b* = .18, 95% CI [-.1365, .5182]) and competence (*b* = -.16, 95% CI [-.4508, .1002]) frustration was also not significant. However, the indirect from meanness through relatedness frustration was significant and positive (*b* = .30, 95% CI [.0582, .6098]). Meanness was a positive predictor of relatedness frustration, which in turn, positively predicted burnout. The direct effect between meanness and burnout was significant (*b* = .38, *p* < .05). As the pathway from meanness to burnout remained significant when the mediators were included in the model, partial mediation is occurring. Hypothesis 11 is therefore partially supported.

> Hypothesis 12. Employee autonomy, competence, and relatedness need satisfaction, and autonomy, competence, and relatedness need frustration, will mediate the relationship between manager disinhibition and employee burnout, such that managers higher on disinhibition will be less likely to satisfy, and more likely to frustrate, these basic psychological needs, which in turn will predict higher burnout.

Finally, Model 6 (Figure 15) predicted that employee autonomy, competence, and relatedness satisfaction, and autonomy, competence, and relatedness frustration, would each mediate the relationship between perceived manager disinhibition and employee burnout. The overall model explained 46.30% of the variance in burnout *F*(11, 103) = 8.07, *p* < .001. Of the covariates, only age (*b* = -.04, *p* < .01) had a significant effect on burnout; gender (*b* = .24, *p* = .32) and percentage of time spent working remotely (*b* = -.0008, *p* = .86) did not. The indirect effect from disinhibition through autonomy satisfaction was significant and positive (*b* = .27, 95% CI [.0531, .5602]). Disinhibition was a negative predictor of autonomy satisfaction,

which in turn, negatively predicted burnout. The indirect effect from disinhibition through competence (*b* = -.04, 95% CI [-.1526, .0331]) and relatedness satisfaction (*b* = -.04, 95% CI [-.1822, .0577]) was not significant. The indirect effect from disinhibition through autonomy (*b* = .21, 95% CI [-.1166, .6059]) and competence (*b* = -.19, 95% CI [-.5469, .1120]) frustration was also not significant. However, the indirect from disinhibition through relatedness frustration was significant and positive (*b* = .34, 95% CI [.0524, .6848]). Disinhibition was a positive predictor of relatedness frustration, which in turn, positively predicted burnout. Because the direct effect between disinhibition and burnout was not significant (*b* = .40, *p* = .07), full mediation is occurring. Thus, hypothesis 12 is partially supported.

This chapter presented the results of Study 1, 2, and 3. The next chapter interprets the results of each study and discusses the most important findings with reference to prior research in the psychopathy and SDT literatures.

Chapter 4

Discussion

Individuals with psychopathic traits can be found in all organisations (Chiaburu et al., 2013; Turnipseed & VandeWaa, 2020), but may be especially prevalent in management positions (Sanz-García et al., 2021; Smith & Lilienfeld, 2013). Although elevated levels of certain traits can be harmful, for managers themselves and those they interact with, some traits that are characteristic of psychopathy have been shown to be associated with adaptive interpersonal interactions as well as enhanced employee outcomes (e.g., Sutton et al., 2020). To better understand how these traits manifest in managers, and the implications they have for employees' motivation, performance, and well-being at work, we therefore relied on a model of psychopathy that not only includes representation of potentially adaptive traits but separates these out from those that are maladaptive. Although these traits differ somewhat across conceptualisations, they are united in the triarchic model as boldness, meanness, and disinhibition. Ultimately, this thesis aimed to: (1) evaluate whether employees' perception of boldness, meanness, and disinhibition in their manager affect their own motivation, performance, and well-being, (2) identify the factors that explain the associations between perceived boldness, meanness, and disinhibition in managers and employees' motivation, performance, and well-being, and (3) establish the extent to which boldness, meanness and disinhibition in managers are mal/adaptive. Recall that, to achieve these aims, we incorporated Self-Determination Theory (SDT) as a framework and conducted three interrelated studies.

This chapter discusses the overall results of the studies with reference to findings in the psychopathy and SDT literatures. Before doing so, we provide context

by considering whether employees' perception of boldness, meanness, and disinhibition in their manager are consistent with prior research. The implications of our findings for research and practice are then outlined, followed by the limitations of the studies. Bearing the limitations in mind, we provide several recommendations for future research.

Employee Ratings of Boldness, Meanness, and Disinhibition in Managers

Most studies assessing psychopathy from the perspective of the triarchic model have used the Triarchic Psychopathy Measure (TriPM; Patrick, 2010). However, this measure is completed via self-report and cannot be used to evaluate how managers are perceived by their employees. To assess employees' perception of psychopathic traits in their manager, we therefore relied on the other-report version of a newly developed measure which allows for the direct assessment of boldness, meanness, and disinhibition in the organisational context: the Triarchic Psychopathy Measure (Work); (TriPM[Work]; Sutton et al., 2020). Although the TriPM(Work) contains items that are extracted from the TriPM, and uses the same response scale, it is much briefer. We therefore note that because the range of scores on each of the TriPM(Work)'s scales are not directly comparable with the TriPM, we can only consider whether boldness, meanness, and disinhibition scores resemble those in studies that have also used this measure. To our knowledge, only one other study (Sutton et al., 2020) has utilised the other-report version of the TriPM(Work) to assess boldness, meanness, and disinhibition in managers.

Using Study 1 participants, we compared perceived manager boldness, meanness, and disinhibition scores with those presented in Sutton et al., (2020). In their sample of New Zealand managers, Sutton et al., (2020) reported similar means and standard deviations for perceived boldness (M = 2.92; SD = 0.66), meanness (M

= 1.85; *SD* = 0.80), and disinhibition (*M* = 1.70; *SD* = 0.70) to ours (see Table 3). In addition, we reviewed whether boldness, meanness, and disinhibition scores correspond with those found in a separate sample of New Zealand managers, who completed the self-report version of the TriPM(Work) to assess their own boldness, meanness, and disinhibition. Similar means and standard deviations for boldness (*M* = 2.93; *SD* = 0.46), meanness (*M* = 1.96; *SD* = 0.61), and disinhibition (*M* = 1.73; *SD* = 0.69) were also found in this sample. Thus, the TriPM(Work) scale scores appear to be consistent across studies of managers working in New Zealand, and suggest that managers are not only typically perceived as, but also self-report being, highest on boldness, followed by meanness and disinhibition.

Implications of Perceived Boldness, Meanness, and Disinhibition in Managers

In this thesis, we tested whether employees' perception of boldness, meanness, and disinhibition in their manager affect their own motivation, performance, and well-being at work, and relied on SDT as a framework to identify potential factors that might explain these relationships. Below, we discuss the results of the three studies that were conducted.

Study 1 examined the influence of perceived boldness, meanness, and disinhibition in managers on employees' amotivation, and whether autonomy support from managers acted as a mediator. The results showed that boldness, meanness, and disinhibition each predicted amotivation directly, as well as indirectly, through autonomy support. Whereas previous research found employees reporting to managers with elevated levels of psychopathy to be more amotivated at work (Mathieu & Babiak, 2015), our findings suggest that some traits characteristic of psychopathy in managers have the opposite effect on employees' intention and desire to enact behaviour. Notably, the findings illustrate that employees reporting to

managers higher on boldness are more motivated (i.e., less amotivated); employees reporting to managers higher on meanness and disinhibition are more amotivated. As expected, boldness was positively, and meanness and disinhibition were negatively, related to autonomy support, which in turn, was negatively related to amotivation. One reason why employees reporting to bolder, but not meaner or more disinhibited, managers are more motivated at work is because their manager interacts with them using an autonomy supportive style. In other words, their manager is more likely to acknowledge their perspective, to provide them with options and choice, to explain why tasks and activities need to be completed when choice is constrained, and to encourage self-initiation (Kanat-Maymon et al., 2017; Slemp et al., 2018). According to the findings, the opposite can be said for employees reporting to managers who are meaner or more disinhibited.

Considering that amotivation addresses only the lack of motivation (Fernet et al., 2012), from the findings of Study 1 alone, we cannot infer whether employees reporting to bolder, meaner, or more disinhibited managers, experience motivation that is more autonomous versus controlled. However, as bolder managers appear to be more autonomy supportive, their employees are likely to be provided with opportunities to make their own choices and willingly engage in work tasks and activities. In theory, they should therefore experience more autonomous types of motivation. Because we found meaner and more disinhibited managers to be less autonomy supportive, employees reporting to these managers may feel pressured to engage in tasks and activities and therefore experience less autonomous types of motivation. We tested these propositions next.

In Study 2, we evaluated the influence of perceived boldness, meanness, and disinhibition in managers on employees' job performance, and whether autonomy

support from managers and employees' autonomous motivation, acted as serial mediators. In addition to predicting employees' job performance directly, our results showed that perceived boldness, meanness, and disinhibition each predicted employees' job performance indirectly, through autonomy support and autonomous motivation. In contrast to prior research, which found manager psychopathy to negatively influence employees' job performance (Parameswaran & Elsawy, 2022), our findings demonstrate that boldness has a positive influence on employees' job performance; meanness and disinhibition have a negative influence. Whereas Sutton et al., (2020) reported boldness, meanness, and disinhibition in managers to relate to employees' job performance, none of these psychopathic traits predicted job performance four weeks later. Our findings indicate that one plausible reason is because the motivational processes that can impact employees' ability to perform required tasks at work, were not considered.

Expanding on the findings of Study 1, boldness positively, and meanness and disinhibition negatively, predicted autonomy support. In turn, autonomy support was positively related to autonomous motivation, which was positively related to job performance. These findings confirm that managers who are bolder, but not meaner or more disinhibited, interact with their employees using a style that is more autonomy supportive. It is for this reason that employees reporting to bolder managers are motivated to accomplish tasks, as they either find them interesting or have internalised their value, and thus perform better. Conversely, managers who are meaner and more disinhibited appear to interact with their employees using a less autonomy supportive style. The lack of volition and choice experienced by employees reporting to meaner or more disinhibited managers seems to restrict them from feeling responsible for their behaviour, which may cause them to feel that

their tasks are less aligned with their own interests and values. Rather than performing tasks because they are interesting, or because they understand their value, it is possible that these employees only feel obligated to do so.

Managers who are more autonomy supportive provide their employees with opportunities to satisfy their basic psychological needs (Gillet et al., 2012). Because Study 1 and Study 2 demonstrate that bolder managers are more autonomy supportive, and their employees are more autonomously motivated, employees reporting to these managers should experience basic psychological need satisfaction. Although low autonomy support does not necessarily correspond to being controlled (Kanat-Maymon et al., 2018), being controlled does hinder autonomy and undermine autonomous types of motivation (Kanat-Maymon et al., 2017). Indeed, managers who are meaner and more disinhibited may interact with their employees using a more controlling, as opposed to autonomy supportive, style. Managers who utilise such a style are unlikely to explain why activities need to be completed and instead pressure employees to comply with their requests, for instance by using guilt and shame induction and / or threats of punishment (Kanat-Maymon et al., 2018). When employees feel they are controlled, they are not likely to experience basic psychological need satisfaction and may even experience basic psychological need frustration (Zhang et al., 2019). These propositions were tested in the next study.

Study 3 examined the influence of perceived boldness, meanness, and disinhibition in managers on employees' well-being, specifically work engagement and burnout, and whether the satisfaction and / or frustration of employees' needs for autonomy, competence, and relatedness acted as mediators. The results showed that boldness, meanness, and disinhibition did not predict work engagement directly,

which largely aligns with research by Sutton et al., (2020). Although Sutton et al., (2020) found meanness in managers to influence whether employees had more energy and were more involved in, and enthusiastic about, their work, our results showed that boldness, meanness, and disinhibition each predicted work engagement indirectly, through autonomy and / or relatedness satisfaction. Boldness positively predicted both autonomy and relatedness satisfaction, yet only autonomy satisfaction subsequently positively predicted work engagement. Meanness and disinhibition negatively predicted autonomy and relatedness satisfaction, which in turn, positively predicted work engagement. Of these two mediators, autonomy satisfaction was the strongest. These findings suggest that employees reporting to managers who are bolder are more engaged because they can make choices, express their ideas, and have input into how to complete tasks. In contrast, those reporting to managers who are meaner and more disinhibited seem to be less engaged because they have fewer opportunities to make choices at work, and to establish and maintain meaningful relationships.

The results of Study 3 also showed that boldness and meanness predicted burnout directly, as well as indirectly, whereas disinhibition predicted burnout only indirectly. Burnout refers to how individuals respond to the work environment (Maslach et al., 2001). Previous research examining the influence of manager psychopathy on employees' burnout has been inconsistent. To illustrate, Basar (2020) found psychopathy in managers to influence employees' burnout, but Volmer et al., (2016) did not. In addition, Sutton et al., (2020) reported that only meanness in managers influenced whether employees feel exhausted and mentally withdraw from their work. Our findings demonstrate that whether or not employees' basic psychological needs are satisfied / frustrated may be key to explaining these

inconsistencies. Specifically, boldness predicted burnout through autonomy satisfaction. Although boldness positively predicted both autonomy and relatedness satisfaction, only autonomy satisfaction subsequently negatively predicted burnout. On the contrary, meanness and disinhibition predicted burnout through autonomy satisfaction and relatedness frustration. Whilst meanness and disinhibition negatively predicted autonomy and relatedness satisfaction, and positively predicted autonomy, competence, and relatedness frustration, only autonomy satisfaction negatively, and relatedness frustration positively, predicted burnout. Of these two mediators, relatedness frustration was the strongest.

The study findings once again indicate that, unlike bolder managers, employees reporting to meaner and more disinhibited managers have fewer opportunities to make choices at work, which explains why they experience more symptoms of burnout. In addition, our findings indicate that these employees experience more symptoms of burnout because their manager not only deprives them of opportunities to experience enjoyable interactions, but actively prevents them from forming close relationships with their co-workers. It is therefore possible that bolder managers have higher-quality relationships with their employees, which would explain why they are given more responsibility and choice (Gilbert & Kelloway, 2014). The opposite may also apply, whereby meaner and more disinhibited managers have lower-quality relationship with their employees. This could explain why employees are less likely identify with these managers, and to endorse requested behaviours (Graves & Luciano, 2013).

Interestingly, we did not find perceived boldness, meanness, and disinhibition, to significantly relate to competence satisfaction. Thus, competence satisfaction did not aid in explaining employees' work engagement or burnout. For employees to

experience competence satisfaction, they need to be able to complete tasks effectively and to a high standard (Forner et al., 2020). Thus, competence satisfaction may rely more on employees feeling confident that they have the necessary knowledge, skills, and abilities to complete their allocated tasks, rather than how they interact with factors in the work environment (Chianiara & Bentein, 2016), including their manager. Related to this point, managers may play less of a role in satisfying employees' need for competence, as employees are expected to be able to perform tasks, and achieve desired outcomes, regardless of how their manager treats them.

Overall, the three studies comprising this thesis reveal that employees' perception of boldness, meanness, and disinhibition in their manager affect their own motivation, performance, and well-being at work. The findings also show that SDT is well suited to explain the mechanisms through which these psychopathic traits in managers impact said work-related outcomes. Our findings carry significant implications for theory and practice, and we now turn to a discussion of these.

Theoretical Implications

As this thesis examined relationships between manager boldness, meanness, and disinhibition, and employees' motivation, performance, and well-being at work, and drew on SDT as a framework to propose mechanisms to explain these relationships, our findings contribute to both the psychopathy and SDT literatures. The theoretical implications for psychopathy are described first, followed by the implications for SDT.

Implications for Psychopathy

This thesis makes several contributions towards the understanding of psychopathy in the organisational context. In this thesis, we conceptualised, and

assessed, psychopathy using the triarchic model. In all three studies, we found evidence to suggest that some psychopathic traits, at least in managers, are adaptive. Specifically, boldness in managers was associated with more optimal motivation, and better performance and well-being, in employees. In contrast, meanness and disinhibition were associated with less optimal motivation, and poorer performance and well-being. Our findings therefore highlight one of the major advantages of the triarchic model, which is that it provides insight into the potential adaptiveness of psychopathy (Hurst et al., 2017; Neo et al., 2018). Because we found managers to be highest on boldness, relative to meanness and disinhibition, we reinforce what has already been said: the triarchic model may be apt for examining psychopathy in the organisational context (Blickle et al., 2018). Alternatively, it could be that psychopathy is not as prevalent in organisations as researchers have suggested, which may explain why boldness is more evident. Recall that psychopathy is considered as disinhibition together with meanness and / or boldness.

The opposing relations we found for boldness, compared to meanness and disinhibition, further justify the separate examination of psychopathic traits (Lilienfeld et al., 2015). Indeed, they also highlight another implication, which is that assessing psychopathy using global scores is not advisable, especially amongst leadership in organisations, where its adaptive traits may be especially pronounced. Researchers have already emphasised how assessing psychopathy in this way may be misleading and conceal divergent relations (e.g., Hyatt et al., 2020; Kranefeld & Blickle, 2021), and our results confirmed this.

The pattern of results we found for boldness may add to the longstanding debate on its relevance (e.g., Lilienfeld et al., 2012; Miller & Lynam, 2012). As

described in Chapter 1, disagreement persists about whether features of positive adjustment, which encompass boldness, are necessary for understanding psychopathy (Miller & Lynam, 2015). Whilst it is possible that managers who are bolder may mask their 'darker' side, for instance with charm and charisma (Babiak & Hare, 2006), researchers have suggested that boldness may be associated with adaptive outcomes at moderate, but not high, levels (Lilienfeld et al., 2012). Moreover, researchers have suggested that individuals who are bolder may present (even if superficially) as effective managers (Smith & Lilienfeld, 2013).

It is therefore possible that managers who are bolder simply have better developed self-presentation skills (Palmen et al., 2020). Alternatively, employees may perceive boldness in managers in a positive light due to 'Halo' effects (Thorndike, 1920), which are common response biases in research using survey designs (Hetland et al., 2011). Halo effects can impact impressions of others when positive features or traits (e.g., confidence) generalise to all aspects of the individual, counteracting any negative ones (Leuthesser et al., 1995).

In addition, this thesis sheds light on the specific mechanisms through which perceived boldness, meanness, and disinhibition in managers influence employees' motivation, performance, and well-being at work. These mechanisms help to explain the impact of psychopathic traits in managers on employees' work outcomes and are discussed in further detail in the next section.

Implications for SDT

This thesis also makes several contributions towards the understanding of SDT in the organisational context. SDT proposes that motivation depends on the extent to which factors in the environment, including autonomy support, influence the satisfaction of basic psychological needs (Ebersold et al., 2019). As well as

understanding the outcomes of autonomy support, it is therefore important to understand its potential antecedents (Matosic et al., 2017). As stated in Chapter 1, researchers have recommended looking at factors that might lead to adopting an autonomy supportive style (e.g., Kanat-Maymon & Reizer, 2017), including personality traits (Slemp et al., 2018). In this thesis, we found psychopathic traits to relate to autonomy support, both in cross-sectional and longitudinal analysis. In Study 1, we found boldness, meanness, and disinhibition in managers to relate to autonomy support and subsequently, employees' amotivation. In Study 2, we found boldness, meanness, and disinhibition in managers to predict autonomy support six weeks later and subsequently, employees' autonomous motivation and job performance. From these two studies, it is evident that psychopathic traits in managers influence whether they interact with their employees using an autonomy supportive style. Because they affect the expression of autonomy supportive behaviour, boldness, meanness, and disinhibition can be considered as antecedents.

Although the importance of factors in the environment for the satisfaction of basic psychological needs have typically been emphasised in SDT, factors that frustrate these needs have largely been ignored (Trépanier et al., 2013). We therefore followed recommendations to consider factors that frustrate employees' basic psychological needs, and how such affect work-related outcomes (Deci et al., 2017). In addition to contributing to the understanding of antecedents of basic psychological need satisfaction in the organisational context, Study 3 provides evidence of the antecedents to basic psychological need satisfaction and frustration (Trépanier et al., 2015), which have received little attention in organisations (Trépanier et al., 2016). In this study, we found perceived boldness in managers to

predict greater autonomy and relatedness satisfaction for employees. On the other hand, perceived meanness and disinhibition in managers led employees to experience lowered autonomy and relatedness satisfaction, and greater autonomy, competence, and relatedness frustration.

The findings of Study 3 also highlight the relevance of distinguishing between the three basic psychological needs and analysing their unique contribution to work-related well-being. This is because the satisfaction / frustration of autonomy, competence, and relatedness were differential mediators to explain how psychopathic traits in managers influence employees' work engagement and burnout. In contrast to studies using composite basic psychological need satisfaction (e.g., Liu et al., 2020), or frustration (e.g., Huyghebaert et al., 2018; Trépanier et al., 2015) scores, we followed recommendations to analyse the independent contribution of the satisfaction (e.g., Van den Broeck et al., 2016) and frustration (e.g., Huyghebaert et al., 2018) of each basic psychological need. Whereas only autonomy satisfaction emerged as a significant mediator in the relationship between manager boldness and employee work engagement, both autonomy and relatedness satisfaction explained the relationship between manager meanness and disinhibition, and employee work engagement. Recall that, of these, autonomy was the strongest mediator. Moreover, autonomy satisfaction was the only mediator in the relationship between manager boldness and employee burnout, whereas both autonomy satisfaction and relatedness frustration explained the relationship between manager meanness and disinhibition, and employee burnout. Therefore, the findings of Study 3 suggest that satisfaction of the need for autonomy is most important for work engagement and burnout. Yet, the frustration of relatedness is more prominent in explaining burnout.

Finally, the findings of Study 3 showed that assessing low basic psychological need satisfaction only is not enough to explain diminished well-being (Huyghebaert et al., 2018). Whereas some researchers (e.g., Vander Elst et al., 2012) have equated low basic psychological need satisfaction with basic psychological need frustration, our findings demonstrate that doing so would not accurately represent employees' psychological experiences at work. As relatedness frustration was a stronger mediator than autonomy satisfaction in the relationship between perceived meanness and disinhibition in managers, and employees' burnout, we highlight the value of considering basic psychological need frustration beyond the contribution of basic psychological need satisfaction, to understand the development of burnout in employees.

Practical Implications

Beyond its theoretical relevance, this thesis also has practical implications. Firstly, our findings indicate that it is necessary for organisations to consider the degree to which individuals exhibit psychopathic traits when filling management positions. Whereas boldness in managers ultimately appears to be beneficial for employees' motivation, performance, and well-being, meanness and disinhibition are detrimental. Whilst we advocate for boldness in managers, if organisations want to reduce the risk of employees experiencing a lack of motivation at work, not to mention poor performance and diminished well-being, it is critical that individuals who possess more characteristics associated with meanness and disinhibition are prevented from attaining management positions. To ensure that they are not initially hired or promoted into positions of this kind, organisations should invest in revising their selection processes to include the assessment of psychopathic traits. This is

especially important, as assessing psychopathic traits is not commonplace when making selection decisions (Mathieu et al., 2015).

Identifying psychopathic traits in the selection process may be difficult without proper assessment (Khan et al., 2019), as the number, variety, and intensity of psychopathic traits individuals can present with, differs (Cheang & Appelbaum, 2015). As we outlined in Chapter 1, many psychopathy measures are limited for practical use in the organisational context. Because we have provided further evidence that scores on the TriPM(Work) are related to important work outcomes, incorporating this brief, work-specific measure into the selection process could prove useful. We suggest that this measure be used for individuals applying for management positions, who score highest on the initial interview. Although using the other-report version of the TriPM(Work) to obtain ratings of boldness, meanness, and disinhibition may not be feasible when internal candidates are applying for low-level management positions, given that they may not previously have had direct reports, this measure could be used for internal candidates applying for promotions to move into middle or senior management positions. External candidates applying for management positions could complete the self-report version of the TriPM(Work).

If they have already gained entry into the organisation, one of the only ways to identify managers higher on meanness and disinhibition, may be through performance appraisal. Yet, performance appraisals in management are often ineffectively carried out, if they even exist (Mathieu, 2021). Moreover, organisations that do conduct performance appraisals tend to focus only on task-oriented goals (Mathieu, 2021). As well as evaluating managers' ability to complete specific tasks and achieve their objectives, we recommend organisations to include people-oriented goals in the performance appraisal criteria. Based on our findings,

managers could be evaluated on whether they are supportive of employees' autonomy, and whether they provide their employees with opportunities to satisfy their basic psychological needs, particularly autonomy and relatedness. If managers' performance depends, in part, on these criteria, those higher on meanness and disinhibition will not likely gain promotions into more senior management positions.

In addition to manager's own evaluations, and those of their superior, we therefore recommend organisations to consider employees' evaluations of their manager in the performance appraisal process. The reason being is that employees directly experience their manager's interpersonal behaviour, whereas superiors evaluate their effectiveness (Van Vugt et al., 2008). If discrepancies in evaluations eventuate, superiors should discuss these with managers, to help them understand how they are perceived by their employees and consequently, adjust how they behave and interact. It is important to note that employees can be supported in discussions with their manager, on how they would like to be managed (e.g., to be more autonomy supportive; Slemp et al., 2015). However, there is a possibility that managers higher on meanness and disinhibition may not respond well to feedback, and even retaliate, if the way they behave is questioned. For this reason, it is critical that superiors provide feedback which shows the difference between current and desired behaviour, and that the anonymity of employees providing feedback is protected.

Because managers occupy formal leadership positions, employees look to them for cues on how to behave (Boddy & Taplin, 2016). In addition to imitating desired behaviours, undesirable behaviours may also be repeated (Bai et al., 2021). Given that we found meanness and disinhibition in managers to be associated with lowered autonomy support, and lowered satisfaction / frustration of employees' basic

psychological needs, addressing the way in which managers who are meaner and more disinhibited behave and interact with their employees is important. Despite traits usually being considered innate (Schütte et al., 2018) and relatively stable across time (Deol & Schermer, 2021), new research suggests that they have the potential to change (e.g., Bleidorn et al., 2019). In viewing psychopathy from the triarchic model perspective, meanness and disinhibition could be 'treatable'. To mitigate the detrimental effects of managers who exhibit higher levels of these traits, organisations could consider intervention opportunities to target existing managers' meanness and disinhibition.

In addition, organisations could encourage existing managers to be more autonomy supportive. Autonomy support is an interpersonal style that can be learned and developed through training (e.g., Hardré & Reeve, 2009). Providing managers higher on meanness and disinhibition with training so that they can refine their interpersonal skills to be more supportive of employees' autonomy would therefore be beneficial. As an example, training of this kind could cover how to recognise and acknowledge employees' needs, consider their perspectives, and encourage choice and initiative taking. For this training to be effective, it is essential that those in charge of coaching or developing managers, are themselves aware of the best ways to support employees' autonomy (Kanat-Maymon et al., 2017).

Finally, as adequate support from management is normally achieved through formal policies and procedures, organisations should introduce these if they do not already exist. Our findings emphasise the need for organisations to have an internal code of conduct in place, outlining behavioural expectation and boundaries at work, as well as clear procedures to deal with inappropriate behaviour. For instance, such could include behaviour by managers that subjects employees to feel pressured or

coerced to behave in certain ways, or to feel excluded and rejected. Considering that employees cannot simply stop interacting with their manager when it is part of their job (Palmer et al., 2020), organisations could also consider creating a disciplinary committee to deal with complaints against managers. If disciplinary processes are not made transparent, it is possible that existing managers who are meaner and more disinhibited may continue to operate in organisations without appropriate consequences.

Limitations and Future Research Suggestions

Despite offering notable contributions to the literature on psychopathy and SDT, our research is marked by several limitations, which should be taken into consideration when interpreting study findings. In addition to highlighting limitations, this section outlines opportunities for future research to address the limitations and build upon our study findings.

First, although the samples were large and heterogenous, comprising employees working across various industry sectors in New Zealand, caution should be taken when generalising the study findings to working samples from other countries. We extend such caution as it is possible that psychopathic traits in managers may have less of an influence on employees if their culture values compliance with demands or requests from authority (Kaiser et al., 2015). To establish if variations exist in the way employees interpret these traits in their manager, future research could use samples from different countries and evaluate cultural factors.

Second, because data was collected via an online panel of self-selecting participants, heightened rates of invalid responding may have been apparent (Arditte et al., 2016). However, we accounted for this kind of responding when carrying out

data cleaning (e.g., by removing cases with more than 5% missing data, and by removing ‘speeders’). To mitigate this limitation in the future, attention check questions could be incorporated into the online survey.

Third, our results are constrained to employees’ subjective assessments of their manager’s psychopathic traits and behaviours, and their own experiences at work. Data collected in this way is adequate for understanding respondents’ perceptions and experiences (Peyton et al., 2019) but may also be tainted by common-method bias. Although obtaining data from only one source can overestimate or underestimate the relationship between variables (Podsakoff et al., 2012), this is a typical limitation in research looking at psychopathy from the triarchic model (Gatner et al., 2016). Even though the effects of common-method bias may be misrepresented (Brannick et al., 2010), we tried to minimise its potential by temporally separating the assessment of the independent and dependent variables (Podsakoff et al., 2012) in our mediation models. For example, we included a six-week interval between the assessment of managers’ psychopathic traits and employees’ job performance in Study 2, and a 12-week interval between the assessment of managers’ psychopathic traits and employees’ well-being in Study 3.

In addition to collecting data from employees, data could be collected from other sources. Not only would this reduce the likelihood of common-method bias and improve the robustness of our results, but it would add to the few studies (e.g., Babiak et al., 2010; Blickle et al., 2018) that have implemented a multi-source design when examining psychopathy in the organisational context. For instance, researchers could utilise both the self- and other-report versions of the TriPM(Work) to compare manager’s own ratings of boldness, meanness, and disinhibition, with ratings from multiple randomly selected employees who report directly to them. This

would allow for shared perceptions of these psychopathic traits in managers to be linked to employees', and potentially teams', motivation, performance, and well-being.

A fourth limitation concerns the time intervals in this research. The independent and dependent variables in Study 1 were assessed at a single time point and prevent us from drawing conclusions about predictive relationships between managers' psychopathic traits and employees' amotivation. As well as replicating this study using a longitudinal design, future research could lengthen the time between survey completions in Study 2 and Study 3, to determine if the effects we found are lasting or only temporary. Although the time interval we used is longer than other three-wave studies applying SDT in the organisational context (e.g., Wang et al., 2018), it was still relatively short.

Further limitations concern the measures utilised in this thesis. Like many other studies using an autonomous categorisation of motivation, in Study 2 we did not account for the differential functioning of intrinsic motivation and identified regulation (Nie et al., 2015). Due to the possibility that intrinsic motivation is better suited to predicting performance on tasks that employees find interesting and enjoyable, and identified regulation is better suited to predicting performance on tasks that require discipline or group efforts (Gagné & Deci, 2005), researchers could assess autonomous motivation through its two distinct types in future. This would help to provide a more nuanced understanding of the relationship between psychopathic traits in managers and employees' job performance. Future research could also look at more objective measures of job performance, such as sales, bonuses, or promotions (Smith & Lilienfeld, 2013).

Moreover, in both Study 2 and 3, we did not assess satisfaction of basic psychological needs and motivation types in the mediation models tested, despite the presumed importance of basic psychological need satisfaction for autonomous motivation (Deci & Ryan, 2000; Gagné & Deci, 2005). However, this approach is in line with most SDT studies, which have included either basic psychological need satisfaction or motivation in their theoretical models (Olafsen et al., 2018). Because few studies have examined the motivational processes by looking at both basic psychological needs and motivation (Deci et al., 2017), we propose that future research could examine basic psychological need satisfaction and autonomous types of motivation as process variables to examine the influence of psychopathic traits in managers on employees' performance and well-being.

In addition, whilst addressing boldness, meanness and disinhibition as independent variables was essential to the design of this research, there are associated limitations. The correlations we found between perceived meanness and disinhibition were large. This is not entirely surprising, given that the meanness and disinhibition scales of the TriPM (and thus TriPM[Work]) derive from the same measure and are both indicators of externalising psychopathology (Somma et al., 2018). With only a moderate correlation expected between meanness and disinhibition, the large correlations we found raises concerns as to whether the TriPM(Work) can distinguish between supposedly separable traits. However, as we described in Chapter 3, the size of the correlations between meanness and disinhibition did not present signs of multicollinearity.

Finally, boldness, meanness, and disinhibition individually do not constitute 'psychopathy'. Although examining the individual contributions of psychopathic traits has been recognised as a necessary first step to understanding its implications

(Vergauwe et al., 2021), it is the combination of these traits that explain different behavioural expressions (Patrick, 2022). Whilst boldness in managers appears to be advantageous for employees' motivation, performance, and well-being at work, it is plausible that boldness together with higher meanness and / or disinhibition scores may not be adaptive (Drislane et al., 2014). Like Neo et al., (2018) we encourage future research to expand on our findings and examine different combinations of psychopathic traits. Specifically, researchers could test for interactions involving boldness (Patrick & Drislane, 2015). Testing such interactive effects would respond to the criticism that it is important not to focus on boldness in isolation of meanness and disinhibition (Crego & Widiger, 2015), and may improve our understanding of whether boldness is associated with maladaptive outcomes. Future research could thus test for psychopathy 'profiles' in managers, using a person-centred approach (Vergauwe et al., 2021). Because person-centred research typically requires a larger sample size than could be obtained, this was not an option for this thesis.

Additional Future Research Suggestions

In addition to highlighting future research suggestions based on the limitations inherent in our research, it is important to outline additional future research suggestions which stem from the study findings.

The opposite of an autonomy supportive interpersonal style is a controlling style (Gilbert & Kelloway, 2014). Because Study 1 and Study 2 showed perceived meanness and disinhibition in managers to relate to lower autonomy support, we encourage future research to examine whether managers higher on meanness and disinhibition exhibit a more controlling style when interacting with their employees. Managers who interact with their employees using this style place constraints on their behaviour and coerce or pressure them to produce specific outcomes. This

research could therefore also consider whether employees experience basic psychological need frustration and / or controlled types of motivation as a result. Not only would research of this kind address the lack of studies on whether individuals with psychopathic traits control those around them (Palmen et al., 2021), but the lack of studies on the controlling style (Kanat-Maymon et al., 2017) and behaviours that frustrate basic psychological needs (Slemp et al., 2018).

In addition, as few studies have investigated how the detrimental effects of psychopathy can be mitigated in organisations (Webster & Smith, 2019), it may pay to look at factors that buffer the impact of manager meanness and disinhibition on employees' motivation, performance, and well-being at work. We encourage future research to examine plausible moderating variables affecting these relationships, such as those that enable employees to satisfy their basic psychological needs. Other factors in the work environment that may affect basic psychological need satisfaction, but were not considered in our research, include the way one's job is designed and the compensation one receives (Manganelli et al., 2018).

Conclusion

In conclusion, the three studies in this thesis build upon on a small, but emerging, body of research concerning the implications of psychopathy amongst those in formal leadership positions in organisations, specifically managers. Using different types of mediation analysis, this thesis demonstrates that managers who are perceived by their employees as bolder, rather than meaner or more disinhibited, not only facilitate more optimal types of motivation in their employees, but also enhance their capacity to perform and experience increased well-being. By drawing on SDT as our framework, we provide a strong theoretical basis for how boldness, meanness, and disinhibition in managers influence these employee work-related

outcomes. Together, the thesis findings provide useful insights for organisations to consider. Most importantly, if organisations want a workforce that is more optimally motivated, productive, and psychologically well, they need to be mindful of psychopathic traits when selecting individuals for management positions. In addition, they need to ensure that existing managers are not only supportive of employees' basic psychological needs but take specific action to provide them with opportunities to satisfy these needs, particularly autonomy and relatedness. Ultimately, this thesis informs what organisations could focus on in terms of managers, to promote their success. Whilst there is still much to be done to advance our understanding of psychopathy in organisations, this thesis serves as a base for future research investigating the implications of perceived boldness, meanness, and disinhibition in managers, in further detail.

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Appendix A

Table 2

Demographic and work characteristics of Sample 1 (n = 505), Sample 2 (n = 246), and Sample 3 (n = 125).

Characteristic	Sample 1		Sample 2		Sample 3	
	n	*%*	*n*	*%*	*n*	*%*
Gender						
Male	206	40.79	112	45.53	66	52.80
Female	296	58.61	131	53.25	58	46.40
Other	0	0	0	0	1	0.80
Prefer not to say	0	0	1	0.41	0	0
Manager gender						
Male	279	55.25	153	62.20	82	65.60
Female	223	44.16	90	36.59	41	32.80
Other	0	0	0	0	1	0.80
Prefer not to say	1	0.20	1	0.41	0	0
Industry sector						
Agriculture, Forestry and Fishing	7	1.39	4	1.63	4	3.20
Mining	2	0.40	0	0	0	0
Manufacturing	35	6.93	19	7.72	11	8.80
Electricity, Gas, Water and Waste Services	12	2.38	4	1.63	3	2.40
Construction	25	4.95	11	4.47	4	3.20
Wholesale Trade	23	4.55	11	4.47	9	7.20
Retail Trade and Accommodation	61	12.08	24	9.76	8	6.40
Transport, Postal, and Warehousing	23	4.55	11	4.47	4	3.20
Information, Media and Telecommunications	20	3.96	9	3.66	9	7.20
Financial and Insurance Services	18	3.56	10	4.07	4	3.20
Rental, Hiring and Real Estate Services	3	0.59	0	0	0	0
Professional, Scientific, Technical, Administration and Support Services	73	14.46	39	15.85	16	12.80
Public Administration and Safety	31	6.14	20	8.13	8	6.40
Education and Training	71	14.06	35	14.23	18	14.40
Health Care and Social Assistance	70	13.86	35	14.23	19	15.20
Arts, Recreation and Other Services	29	5.74	14	5.69	8	6.40
	Mean	*SD*	*Mean*	*SD*	*Mean*	*SD*
Age (years)	40.09	11.55	42.48	10.98	44.21	10.61
Tenure in job (years)	5.97	6.51	6.94	7.17	8.46	7.96
Tenure with manager (years)	3.37	3.86	3.99	4.25	4.53	4.06
Hours working per week	39.43	4.89	39.60	4.03	40.22	5.99
Hours working per week away from usual workplace	16.34	18.22	10.03	15.00	7.09	12.02

Note. SD = standard deviation.

Appendix B

Information Sheet

My name is Madeleine Stapleton. I am a PhD student at the University of Waikato located in Hamilton, New Zealand. I am conducting research in order to find out how managers may support employees' autonomy, motivation, and optimal functioning at work.

In order to collect the data for my research, I have created an online survey that requires completion at three different time points, each six weeks apart. The survey takes approximately 15 minutes to complete. You are welcome to withdraw from the research at any point prior to submitting your survey responses. As survey responses are anonymous, once they have been submitted, they cannot be traced back to you or removed from the data file. Should you decide to complete the survey, you will be giving consent for your data to be used in this research.

The survey will ask you for demographic information as well as information regarding your manager's traits and how supportive they are. The survey will also ask for information about your motivation, performance, and well-being at work. The information that is collected will be stored on two external hard drives by Anna Sutton, the chief supervisor of this research, and myself. The external hard drives will remain in locked cabinets in each of our offices at the University of Waikato for 5 years. Only my supervisors and I will have access to this data.

If you have any questions about the research, or you would like to receive a summary of the research findings, please contact me, or my chief supervisor, via the respective email address below.

Email:

Madeleine Stapleton: mbs12@students.waikato.ac.nz

Anna Sutton: anna.sutton@waikato.ac.nz

This research has been approved by the Human Research Ethics Committee of the Faculty of Arts and Social Sciences. Any questions about the ethical conduct of this research may be sent to the Secretary of the Committee, email alpss-ethics@waikato.ac.nz, post address, Division of Arts, Law, Psychology, and Social Sciences, University of Waikato, Te Whare Wananga o Waikato, Private Bag 3105, Hamilton 3240.

Appendix C

Online Survey

I have read the information provided and I am ready to begin my participation in Madeleine Stapleton's research.

- ○ Yes
- ○ No

Q1 What is your age?

Q2 What is your gender?

- ○ Male
- ○ Female
- ○ Other (please specify)
- ○ Prefer not to say

Q3 What is your manager's gender?

- ○ Male
- ○ Female
- ○ Other (please specify)
- ○ Prefer not to say

Q4 How long have you been working in your current job (years)?

Q5 How long have you been working for your current manager (years)?

Q6 How many hours per week do you currently work?

Q7 How many hours per week do you currently work away from your usual workplace?

Q8 Which industry sector do you work in?

- ○ Agriculture, Forestry and Fishing
- ○ Mining
- ○ Manufacturing
- ○ Electricity, Gas, Water and Waste Services
- ○ Construction

- ○ Wholesale Trade
- ○ Retail Trade and Accommodation
- ○ Transport, Postal and Warehousing
- ○ Information Media and Telecommunications
- ○ Financial and Insurance Services
- ○ Rental, Hiring and Real Estate Services
- ○ Professional, Scientific, Technical, Administrative and Support Services
- ○ Public Administration and Safety
- ○ Education and Training
- ○ Health Care and Social Assistance
- ○ Arts, Recreation and Other Services

Q9 For each of the following statements, please indicate the degree to which you think the item is true for your manager.

	False	Somewhat false	Somewhat true	True
My manager is well-equipped to deal with stress.	○	○	○	○
My manager's impulsive decisions have caused problems with his/her loved ones.	○	○	○	○
My manager gets scared easily.	○	○	○	○
My manager has missed work without bothering to call in.	○	○	○	○
My manager is a born leader.	○	○	○	○

My manager jumps into things without thinking.	○	○	○	○
My manager has a hard time making things turn out the way he/she wants.	○	○	○	○
It doesn't bother my manager to see someone else in pain.	○	○	○	○
My manager functions well in new situations, even when unprepared.	○	○	○	○
My manager enjoys pushing people around sometimes.	○	○	○	○
My manager taunts people just to stir things up.	○	○	○	○
My manager doesn't see any point in worrying if what he/she does hurts someone else.	○	○	○	○
My manager doesn't have much sympathy for people.	○	○	○	○
My manager gets in trouble for not considering the	○	○	○	○

consequences of his/her actions.				
My manager doesn't care much if what he/she does hurts others.	○	○	○	○
My manager has lost a friend because of irresponsible things he/she has done.	○	○	○	○
My manager doesn't stack up well against most others.	○	○	○	○
People have told my manager they are concerned about his/her lack of self-control.	○	○	○	○
It doesn't bother my manager when people around him/her are hurting.	○	○	○	○
My manager has had problems at work because he/she was irresponsible.	○	○	○	○
My manager is not very good at influencing people.	○	○	○	○

Q10 The following statements are related to your experience with your manager. Please indicate how you have felt about your encounters with your manager.

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Slightly disagree	Neutral	Slightly agree	Agree	Strongly agree
I feel that my manager provides me choices and options.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
I feel understood by my manager.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
My manager conveyed confidence in my ability to do well at my job.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
My manager encouraged me to ask questions.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
My manager listens to how I would like to do things.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
My manager tries to understand how I see things before suggesting a new way to do things.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○

Q11 Please read the following statements and indicate why you put efforts into your current job.

	Not at all	Very little	A little	Moderately	Strongly	Very strongly	Completely
I don't, because I really feel that I'm wasting my time at work.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
I do little because I don't think this work is worth putting efforts into.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
I don't know why I'm doing this job, it's pointless work.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Because I personally consider it important to put efforts in this job.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Because putting efforts in this job aligns with my personal values.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Because putting efforts in this job has personal significance to me.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○

Because I have fun doing my job.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Because what I do in my work is exciting.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Because the work I do is interesting.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○

Q12 The following statements aim to tap your personal experiences at work. Please indicate the extent to which you agree with these statements.

	Totally disagree	Slightly disagree	Neutral	Slightly agree	Totally agree
I feel like I can be myself at my job.	○	○	○	○	○
At work, I often feel like I have to follow other people's commands.	○	○	○	○	○
If I could choose, I would do things at work differently.	○	○	○	○	○
The tasks I have to do at work are in line with what I really want to do.	○	○	○	○	○
I feel free to do my job the way I think it could	○	○	○	○	○

best be done.					
In my job, I feel forced to do things I do not want to do.	○	○	○	○	○
I really master my tasks at my job.	○	○	○	○	○
I feel competent at my job.	○	○	○	○	○
I am good at the things I do in my job.	○	○	○	○	○
I have the feeling that I can even accomplish the most difficult tasks at work.	○	○	○	○	○
I don't really feel connected with other people at my job.	○	○	○	○	○
At work, I feel part of a group.	○	○	○	○	○
I don't really mix with other people at my job.	○	○	○	○	○
At work, I can talk with people about things that really	○	○	○	○	○

matter to me.							
I often feel alone when I am with my colleagues.	○	○	○	○	○		
Some people I work with are close friends of mine.	○	○	○	○	○		

Q13 Please consider your general experiences at work and indicate the extent to which you agree with each statement.

In my work...

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Slightly disagree	Neutral	Slightly agree	Agree	Strongly agree
I feel prevented from making choices with regard to the way I work.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
I feel pushed to behave in certain ways.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
I feel obliged to follow work decisions made for me.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
I feel under pressure to agree with the work I am provided.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○

There are occasions where I feel incompetent because others impose unrealistic expectations upon me.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
There are times when I am told things that make me feel incompetent.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
There are situations where I am made to feel inadequate.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
I feel inadequate because I am not given opportunities to fulfil my potential.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
I feel I am rejected by those around me.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
I feel others can be dismissive of me.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
I feel other people dislike me.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
I feel some of the employees	○	○	○	○	○	○	○

around me are envious when I achieve success.

Q14 The following statements are about how you feel at work. Please read each statement and decide if you ever feel this way about your job.

	Never	Almost never (A few times a year)	Rarely (Once a month or less)	Sometimes (A few times a month)	Often (Once a week)	Very often (A few times a week)	Always (Every day)
At my work, I feel bursting with energy.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
At my job, I feel strong and vigourous.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
I am enthusiastic about my job.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
My job inspires me.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
When I get up in the morning, I feel like going to work.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
I am proud of the work that I do.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○

Q15 The following statements are about how you feel at work. Please read each statement and decide if you ever feel this way about your job.

	Never	A few times a year or less	Once a month or less	A few times a month	Once a week	A few times a week	Every day
I feel emotionally drained from my work.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
I doubt the significance of my work.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○

Note: Only sample items specified for the MBI-GS can be included in theses.

Q16 Please indicate the extent to which you ag with the following statements regarding your performance at work.

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Slightly disagree	Neutral	Slightly agree	Agree	Strongly agree
I adequately complete assigned duties.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
I fulfil the responsibilities specified in my job description.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
I perform tasks that are expected of me.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
I meet the formal performance requirements of my job.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○

I engage in activities that will directly affect my performance evaluation.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
I neglect aspects of my job that I am obligated to perform.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
I fail to perform essential duties.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○

I have completed the survey and I am ready to submit my responses. As I have not provided any identifying information, I understand that once I submit my responses, they cannot be removed from the data file.

○ Yes

○ No

Thank-you for taking the time to participate in this research and complete the questionnaire. You will be sent an invitation to complete the next stage of this research in approximately 6 weeks' time. If you experience any discomfort from participating in this research, please seek appropriate support. Below is a link to Lifeline's website, and ways to get in contact with a trained counsellor.

Website: https://www.lifeline.org.nz
Call: 0800 543 354
Text: 'Help' to 4357

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Appendix D

MDPI

Article

Can Psychopathy Be Adaptive at Work? Development and Application of a Work Focused Self- and Other-Report Measure of the Triarchic Psychopathy Model

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Abstract: Psychopathy may have both adaptive and maladaptive effects at work but research into workplace psychopathy is constrained by the lack of short, work-relevant measures that can be used for both self- and other-report. We adapt the Triarchic Psychopathy Measure (TriPM) for this purpose and distinguish the (mal)adaptive effects of psychopathy at work in two time-lagged survey samples. Sample 1 consisted of managers reporting their psychopathic traits and work outcomes (well-being, engagement, burnout and job performance). Sample 2 reported on their managers' psychopathic traits and leadership styles (servant and abusive supervision) and their own work outcomes. The TriPM (Work) is a reliable, valid, 21-item measure of triarchic psychopathy at work with self- and other-report forms. Using this measure, we demonstrate that the triarchic model's boldness trait is related to servant leadership and predicts improved well-being and performance while meanness and disinhibition are related to abusive supervision and predict increased burnout.

Keywords: psychopathy; triarchic model; wellbeing; JD-R; leadership

1. Introduction

"Psychopath" is a term used by the layperson to refer to a wide range of people, from intractable criminals to businesspeople who prioritise profits over morality, but the underlying concern is that psychopaths cause harm to others [1]. It is this concern that psychopaths are harming workers, their organisations and even the economy and the planet that is behind the recent upsurge in interest in the so-called "corporate psychopath", who displays many of the traits of psychopathy but not the level of antisocial or law-breaking behaviour that would result in a criminal record [2]. This criminal behaviour was one of the hallmarks of early definitions of psychopathy, but more recently psychopathy has been defined as a pathological condition consisting of enduring deviant behaviour in combination with emotional detachment [3].

While there remains debate in the literature over how to conceptualise psychopathy, the triarchic model is particularly relevant for use in community samples as it avoids assessment of criminal behaviour and evaluates a combination of three traits: boldness, meanness and disinhibition [4]. The recognition that psychopathy involves deviant but not necessarily criminal behaviour has led to the suggestion that some people are able to use their psychopathic traits adaptively in the workplace [5]. In the triarchic model, boldness might represent the adaptive elements of psychopathy while meanness and disinhibition are more maladaptive [5]. However, distinguishing these adaptive and maladaptive effects of psychopathy at work is currently hindered by the lack of an occupationally relevant measure

of psychopathy. In this paper, therefore, we develop a measure of psychopathy at work based on the triarchic model of psychopathy, with equivalent self- and other-report versions, and demonstrate its utility in distinguishing between the adaptive and maladaptive effects of psychopathic traits at work.

1.1. Psychopathy at Work

The concept of psychopathy originated in the clinical and forensic literature but interest in its prevalence and impact in the workplace has grown quickly. It was recognised that traits associated with psychopathy could potentially be successful in the workplace for several reasons. First, some aspects of psychopathy, such as charm and confidence, are beneficial in the social environment of work [6]. Second, leaders who are fearless and bold can be advantageous both for their followers and the organisation [7]. Third, there are certain occupations where some of the traits associated with psychopathy, such as fearlessness and low reactivity to stress could be extremely beneficial, such as in the military or police [8].

The complex effects of psychopathy are reflected in the conflicting findings of research on work outcomes too. For example, while overall job performance decreases with higher levels of psychopathy, there are positive associations with specific elements of performance such as communication and creativity [9]. In addition, there is evidence that senior managers report significant levels of psychopathy [10], a strong indication that psychopathic traits are in some way adaptive in the workplace, at the very least in helping individuals gain promotion.

In attempting to understand the complexity of psychopathy at work, one of the earliest case studies distinguished between primary and secondary psychopathy, suggesting that "corporate" psychopathy included the primary callous emotional traits but not the anti-social or criminal tendencies of secondary psychopathy [2,6]. Nevertheless, while there is broad consensus on the multi-dimensionality of the psychopathy construct, the number of dimensions and the centrality of each to the construct are still under debate [5].

The triarchic model of psychopathy was developed in an effort to clarify and reconcile these differing conceptions of psychopathy in the literature [11]. It models psychopathy in terms of three distinguishable traits: boldness (indexing confidence, social assertiveness, emotional resilience and fearlessness), meanness (measuring a lack of empathy and capacity for affiliation, as well as contempt for others and a tendency to exploit or be cruel towards them) and disinhibition (including impulsivity and lack of restraint along with hostility and mistrust towards others) [4]. Each of the three traits makes distinct contributions to externalizing psychopathy [12], and the model is particularly appropriate for use in workplace samples as it enables psychopathic traits to be measured as continuous dimensions in the normal population.

The boldness trait may be particularly relevant for understanding the adaptive effects of psychopathy, while the maladaptive and harmful effects of psychopathy are likely to be more strongly related to the meanness and disinhibition traits [5,13]. Boldness, for example, is associated with higher social status and better personality functioning while disinhibition is related to lower status, and both meanness and disinhibition are related to poorer personality functioning [14].

Because boldness may relate to potentially adaptive behaviours [11], some researchers have disputed the relevance of this trait to psychopathy. However, a recent meta-analytic review confirmed that the three triarchic constructs are of equal relevance [15]. Assessing psychopathy with measures that index all three constructs to the same degree is therefore essential, as failing to do so would provide an incomplete picture of how psychopathy manifests [13]. It is surprising then that many studies in the organisational literature have typically utilised measures that report a total psychopathy score or have not reported findings related to each psychopathy factor [16], and this may indicate a need for an organisationally relevant measure of psychopathic traits. There is consensus that psychopathy is an underlying factor in deviant interpersonal behaviours that cause distress for co-workers [17], and there have been several and repeated calls for measures of psychopathy suitable for use in organisational settings [18,19].

The most commonly used measure of psychopathy is the Psychopathy Checklist (PCL) and its various revisions and adaptations [1], which assess psychopathy on interpersonal, affective, lifestyle and antisocial dimensions. The most significant of these adaptations in workplace settings is the B-Scan 360 [18], which assesses the conceptually similar dimensions of Manipulative/Unethical, Callous/Insensitive, Unreliable/Unfocused and Intimidating/Aggressive. The B-Scan is planned as a 360-degree instrument, although to date only the other-rating version has been presented and does not evaluate the boldness element of psychopathy adequately. Another widely used measure of psychopathy, the PPI-R (Psychopathic Personality Inventory-Revised), is a self-report measure developed specifically for community samples and includes subscales to capture the adaptive features of psychopathy such as stress immunity [20]. This measure, however, is fairly long, consisting of 154 items and does not have an equivalent other-report version.

Not only is the triarchic model bringing unity to the psychopathy literature [16] but its associated measure (the 58 item Triarchic Psychopathy Measure (TriPM) [21]) has the advantage that it focuses on the behavioural indicators of multidimensional psychopathy models and specifically includes the experiential aspects of psychopathy [5]. It indexes the three traits of boldness, meanness and disinhibition to the same degree and is appropriate for use with a general population rather than forensic or clinical applications. This makes it particularly suitable for self-report as well as other (non-expert) report.

The ability to gauge psychopathy in terms of self-reported traits and as other-perceived traits will enable multi-level organisational research, allowing the investigation of both the within-person effects of psychopathy and the impact of perceived psychopathic traits on co-workers. In this paper, therefore, we develop the TriPM (Work): a short, work-focused measure of psychopathy based on the triarchic model that can be used for both self- and other-report.

Using this measure, we test the proposition that boldness represents a predominantly adaptive domain of psychopathy while meanness and disinhibition capture the more maladaptive domains. We do this in three ways. First, we test the relationship between managers' psychopathic traits and their leadership styles, as reported by subordinates. Second, we test the within-person effects of psychopathic traits on individuals' work-related outcomes, such as well-being and performance; and third, we test the effects of managers' perceived psychopathic traits on their subordinates' work-related outcomes.

1.2. Psychopathy and Leadership Styles

Psychopathy in leaders is of particular concern given the potential of those in power to have significant negative influence on their followers and the ease with which decision-makers may "mistake psychopathic traits for specific leadership traits" [9] and promote more psychopathic individuals to leadership positions. There are many theories and models of leadership, and in order to distinguish the adaptive and maladaptive effects of psychopathy at work, we focus here on two leadership styles which represent contrasting approaches to leading others. Servant leadership is an other-oriented, beneficial style that has been shown to have incremental predictive validity over other beneficial forms of leadership such as ethical or transformational [22]. Abusive supervision, as an active form of destructive leadership, provides a distinct contrast and has strong negative effects on employee well-being and performance [23].

Servant leadership has a focus on prioritizing followers' needs and demonstrating a concern for the wider organisation and community [24]. The relationship between psychopathy and servant leadership has not yet been addressed, but we would expect the traits of meanness and disinhibition, with their disregard of others, to be negatively related to servant leadership. We also suggest that boldness represents a trait essential to effective leadership and can manifest in an adaptive way at work and therefore would be positively related to this effective leadership style.

Abusive supervision is a distinctly contrasting leadership style that includes sustained, "hostile verbal and nonverbal behaviours, excluding physical contact" [25] by supervisors towards their subordinates. Recent research with employees working for a non-profit organisation who reported

on their supervisors, demonstrated a positive relationship between psychopathy (using the B-Scan 360) and abusive supervision [26]. While findings such as these indicate some relationships between psychopathy and abusive supervision, research on the constituent dimensions of the triarchic model has not yet been conducted. We argue here that boldness is an adaptive and positive trait for a leader and will therefore be negatively associated with abusive supervision. In contrast, meanness and disinhibition, which index hostility towards others and a greater likelihood of engaging in abusive behaviour, respectively, are expected to be positively associated with abusive supervision.

1.3. Effects of Psychopathy at Work

Psychopathy is known to have both within- and between-person effects on employee well-being (including burnout and engagement) and job performance, but research findings so far show some inconsistencies. The triarchic model may provide insight into these contradictory findings, as the majority of occupationally based research uses overall measures of psychopathy rather than distinguishing between the effects of different psychopathic traits. We propose that the Job Demands-Resources (JD-R) model [27] can be used to explain the differential effects of the triarchic traits on these outcomes.

1.3.1. Within-Person Effects

Research is starting to demonstrate that higher levels of psychopathy are associated with worse within-person well-being. For example, undergraduate students' self-reported psychopathy was associated with lower levels of life satisfaction and happiness, as well as decreased environmental mastery, personal growth, positive relations with others, purpose in life and self-acceptance [28]. Similarly, Love and Holder [29] found psychopathy to be negatively related to life satisfaction, happiness and positive affect but positively related to both negative affect and depression. These findings reflect the somewhat contradictory nature of psychopathy [20]: despite psychopathy being defined as involving emotional detachment, higher levels of psychopathy are also associated with increased negative emotionality. The triarchic model captures this contradiction in the disinhibition trait [7].

Employee well-being is often operationalised in terms of burnout and engagement [30]. Burnout has been defined as a "prolonged response to chronic emotional and interpersonal stressors on the job, and is defined by the three dimensions of exhaustion, cynicism, and inefficacy" [31]. Although burnout is considered to be a consequence of stressors, it is also affected by individual characteristics such as psychopathic traits: Employees working full-time who self-reported higher levels of psychopathy also experienced greater emotional exhaustion [32]. Work engagement, on the other hand, refers to "a positive, fulfilling, work-related state of mind that is characterised by vigour, dedication, and absorption" [33]. Engagement is considered the positive antithesis to burnout [31], so while there is not, to the authors' knowledge, any research directly investigating the effect of psychopathy on work engagement, we would expect that lower overall levels of psychopathy are related to higher engagement.

Meta-analysis has shown a negative relationship between overall psychopathy and job performance, although the effect size was small [34]. Employees with higher psychopathy scores are perceived to be poor team players and to lack management skills but are also seen as creative, innovative and good at communicating and thinking strategically [9], indicating that this overall relationship may be dependent on the constituent traits of psychopathy. For example, one study found that fearless dominance in US presidents, as rated by experts, was associated with higher job performance [35]. However, a more direct study where managers rated their own psychopathy and their superiors rated their job performance, found both no relationship between boldness and performance and a negative relationship between meanness/disinhibition and performance [36]. Other recent work has found a negative relationship between psychopathy and job performance [37] as well as both objective and subjective career success [38].

The conflicting effects of psychopathy on these work outcomes may be better understood by considering the adaptive and maladaptive elements of psychopathy as captured in the triarchic model.

1.3.2. Between-Person Effects

The between-person effects of psychopathy on well-being mirror the findings of within-person effects, negatively affecting employee well-being. Managers who reported that a psychopathic individual was present in the workplace felt more angry, anxious, bored, depressed and discouraged, as well as less at ease, calm and content [39]. Furthermore, employees who rate their supervisors as more psychopathic report greater levels of psychological distress [17]. The impact of supervisor psychopathy on subordinate burnout has also been acknowledged in the literature, with subordinates who rate their direct supervisor as having higher levels of psychopathy reporting higher levels of emotional exhaustion [40].

As yet, there is no research investigating the effect of manager psychopathy on subordinate engagement or job performance.

1.3.3. The Job Demands-Resources Model as a Framework

While this evidence demonstrates that psychopathy can be both adaptive and maladaptive at work [5], a model that could explain the mechanism of these occasionally inconsistent effects has not yet been proposed. We suggest that psychopathic traits can be conceptualised as demands or resources for workers and the Job Demands-Resources (JD-R) model [27] used to elucidate the adaptive and maladaptive effects of psychopathy on work outcomes. The JD-R distinguishes between job demands, which are aspects of the job requiring effort or skills and associated with physical or psychological costs, and job resources, which help workers achieve their goals, reduce job demands or stimulate development. It also recognises that personal characteristics, such as personality traits, play a role in how people interpret and respond to job demands.

In terms of within-person effects, we propose that the boldness trait, capturing social assertiveness, confidence and venturesomeness, is adaptive in that it enables the individual to access greater resources in response to job demands and perceive these demands more positively (as challenges rather than insurmountable problems). In contrast, the maladaptive traits of meanness and disinhibition result in poorer interpersonal relationships, so that individuals are less likely to be able to draw on social support (a job resource) in order to meet demands.

The JD-R model also suggests how the between-person effects of psychopathy may manifest at work. Boldness in a manager could act to provide greater access to resources for their subordinates and to present demands as positive challenges. On the other hand, interpersonal mistreatment at work is a job demand [41], and we therefore conceptualise the manager's meanness and disinhibition as job demands for subordinates.

Job resources are associated with lower burnout and higher engagement, well-being and performance, while job demands are associated with higher burnout and lower engagement, well-being and performance [42]. As a job resource, boldness is therefore hypothesised to have a negative effect on burnout and a positive effect on engagement, well-being and job performance. In contrast, as job demands, meanness and disinhibition are hypothesised to have positive effects on burnout and negative effects on engagement, well-being and job performance.

In summary, by developing a measure of psychopathy in the workplace based on the triarchic model of psychopathy we expect to be able to refine our understanding of the adaptive and maladaptive elements of psychopathy at work. Boldness is expected to associate positively with servant leadership and negatively with abusive supervision, while the opposite should hold for meanness and disinhibition. In developing equivalent self- and other-report versions of this workplace measure, we will also be able to assess within-person effects and impacts on others. Boldness is expected to act as a job resource and have a positive effect both on the individual and subordinate's work outcomes, while meanness and disinhibition are expected to act as job demands and result in negative effects.

2. Method

2.1. Design

Quantitative, two-phase data was collected from two different samples in New Zealand. Respondents completed an online survey at two time points, four weeks apart. Participants' time 1 (T1) and time 2 (T2) responses were matched using personal IDs generated by the survey software. The T2 survey was kept open until a minimum of 300 participants had completed it.

Sample 1 consisted of managers reporting on their own psychopathy (amended TriPM, described below) and work-related outcomes (well-being, engagement, burnout and performance) and was used to test the within-person effects. Sample 2 consisted of employees reporting on their managers' psychopathy (Note: the two samples were not linked. The managers in sample 1 were not reported on by employees in sample 2. Research on the consistency of self- and other perception of psychopathy is limited, and as our concern here was for developing equivalent measures rather than demonstrating consistency or difference between self-perceptions and follower perceptions of psychopathy, we did not use matched samples.) (amended TriPM), servant leadership and abusive leadership as well as self-report measures of their own work-related outcomes (well-being, engagement, burnout and performance) and was used to test the between-person effects and the relationships between perceived psychopathy and leadership styles.

2.2. Participants

Sample 1 consisted of 679 managers at time 1 (T1) and 300 at time 2 (T2), a 44.2% retention rate. At T1, the sample was 43% female, 56% male and 1% identified as another gender or preferred to not state. The mean age was 42.7 years (SD = 13.2) and mean job tenure 7.45 years. No information on ethnicity was collected. Largest industry categories were retail, trade and accommodation (14.3%) and education and training (12.3%). Slightly more female than male respondents were retained in the T2 sample (46% female) and the mean age increased to 46.5 years (SD = 21.5), with a similar proportion of industry sectors as at T1.

Sample 2 consisted of 697 employees at T1 and 331 at T2, a 47.5% retention rate. At T1, the sample was 52% female and 48% male, with a mean age of 38 years (SD = 12.6) and mean job tenure of 5.83 years. Many respondents worked in retail, trade and accommodation (15.2%) and in health care and social assistance (14.8%). Similarly to the manager sample, more female than male respondents were retained at T2 (58% female), and the mean age increased to 40.48 years (SD = 12.5) with a similar spread of industries as at T1.

2.3. Measures

2.3.1. Demographics

The following demographic characteristics were collected at T1: age, gender, tenure in current job and industry sector (using the Australian and New Zealand Standard Industrial Classification (ANZSIC) 2006 categories). In addition, the manager sample reported their number of direct reports and any formal leadership training (5 categories: Undergraduate university qualification (e.g., BA Management), Postgraduate university qualification (e.g., MBA), In-house training, Formal mentorship program or Other).

2.3.2. Psychopathy

Self-reported psychopathy was assessed with the TriPM, a 58-item measure of the triarchic psychopathy model, adapted as described below to make it applicable to a workplace setting. The scale consists of three dimensions characteristic of psychopathy, namely boldness, meanness and disinhibition, and items are rated on a 4-point scale (1 = false, 4 = true). Cronbach alphas are reported as 0.79 (Boldness), 0.83 (Meanness) and 0.79 (Disinhibition) [43]. Item wordings are available at the

PhenX website [44] and will be referred to by number here. For this and all following measures, unless otherwise noted, the mean score was calculated for each scale and used in further analysis.

Items were screened for face validity and suitability for administration to a workplace sample. Eight items (#4, 5, 14, 18, 24, 43, 53, 58) which had low face validity for the workplace (e.g., I have no strong desire to parachute out of an airplane) or would require knowledge of the manager, which the subordinate might not have (e.g., (My manager) has gotten in trouble because s/he missed too much school) were removed. In order to develop an equivalent other-report version of the TriPM, "I" was changed to "my manager" for all items and some rewording was necessary to maintain the meaning of the item. For example, "Others have told me they are concerned about my lack of self-control" was changed to "People are concerned about my manager's lack of self-control". The amended measure consisted of 50 items for both self- and other-report.

2.3.3. Servant Leadership

The servant leadership measure [45] consists of 14 items rated on a 5-point Likert scale (1 = to a small extent, 5 = to a very large extent). A sample item is "My manager creates a sense of community among employees". The original wording of "department manager" was changed to "manager" for this study. Internal consistency for this scale is reported as 0.98 [45].

2.3.4. Abusive Supervision

Abusive supervisory behaviours were measured using the Tepper [25] scale, with the original wording of "boss" changed to "manager" for consistency with other scales. The scale consists of 15 statements rated on a 5-point Likert scale (1 = I cannot remember my manager ever using this behaviour with me, 5 = Uses this behaviour with me very often). A sample item is "Reminds me of my past mistakes and failures". Reported Cronbach alpha for this scale is 0.9 [25].

2.3.5. Burnout

The abbreviated Maslach Burnout scale [46] was used to assess burnout. Again, in line with the literature, we utilise an overall burnout score rather than the three subscales of emotional exhaustion, depersonalisation, and professional efficacy [46]. In order to make the scale applicable to the workplace, the word "patients" has been changed to "people" in the respective statements. The measure consists of nine items, for example, "I feel I treat some people at work as if they were impersonal objects", rated on a 7-point Likert scale (1 = never; 7 = everyday).

2.3.6. Engagement

Engagement was assessed with the short version of the Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (UWES; [47]). It is a 9-item measure consisting of the three dimensions of vigour, dedication and absorption, though we follow recommendations in the literature and combine all items into a single measure of engagement [48]. Items are rated on a 7-point Likert scale (1 = never; 7 = always (every day)). A sample item is "At my work, I feel bursting with energy".

2.3.7. Well-Being

Well-being was assessed with the Warwick–Edinburgh Mental Well-being Scale (WEMWBS; [49]). The WEMWBS is a unidimensional measure that consists of 14 items and contains statements that refer to hedonic as well as eudaimonic well-being and can be rated on a 5-point Likert scale (1 = none of the time; 5 = all the time). A sample item is "I've been feeling cheerful". The WEMWBS has high internal consistency, with Cronbach alpha of 0.89 for a student sample and 0.91 for a general population sample, and good test-retest reliability (0.83 over one week) [49].

2.3.8. Performance

Performance was assessed using three items from the World Health Organisation Health and Work Performance Questionnaire (HPQ) [50]. The first two items act as internal anchors by asking the respondent to rate the performance of the average worker doing their job and then their own usual performance before rating the final item: "Your own overall job performance on the days you have worked during the past 6 months" [50]. The rating scale is 1–10, (where 1 = the worst performance anyone could have at your job, 5 to 6 = average level of performance and 10 = the performance of a top worker). The final item is used as a global index of subjective job performance, and the HPQ shows good concordance with objective performance measures.

2.4. Data Cleaning

Cases with >10% missing values were removed. Outliers were removed based on a combination of the Mahalanobis distance, used to identify multivariate outliers [51], and the participants' response time. Mahalanobis distance was calculated for each case based on all items from the TriPM measure and compared to a Chi-square distribution with the same degrees of freedom (df = 49). As advised by Tabachnick and Fidell [51], a very conservative probability estimate of $p < 0.001$ was used to identify potential outliers. In addition, a response time faster than 50% of the median time [52] was taken as an indication that the participants may not have given quality responses. Therefore, cases with both a significant Mahalanobis distance as well as a fast response time were removed from the data sets. This resulted in a final sample of 651 managers and 668 employees at T1 and 286 managers and 318 employees at T2.

2.5. Data Analysis

The development of short self- and other-report TriPM scales applicable to the workplace was addressed by reducing the number of items in each scale while maximizing internal consistency, evaluating convergent validity with the original scales, and checking test-retest reliability.

The TriPM scales were originally drawn from large multi-scale inventories and developed to optimise both content representation and accurate scoring. While the TriPM captures a substantial amount of the variance in other psychopathy measures [53], and there is some support from SEM for the three factor structure [5], the TriPM does not measure the three components as distinct factors but rather as inter-related phenotypic constructs [3]. Because of this, we do not expect CFA to identify three distinct factors in the TriPM and did not subject the whole measure to CFA. Instead, in order to identify the items that most strongly represent each subscale in a working population, we conducted principal component analysis on each subscale in turn, forcing one factor and ranking items according to their highest loadings. From the top ten highest loading items for each scale, we selected 7 items that were identical across self- and other-report to create a short, 21-item measure of the triarchic model of psychopathy at work (TriPM (Work)).

Internal consistency of the TriPM (Work) scales was evaluated with Cronbach alpha. Their convergent validity with the original scales, as well as the internal relationships between the scales, was evaluated using Pearson correlations. Finally, test–retest reliability was assessed by calculating Pearson correlations between the T1 and T2 data.

Hypotheses about the relationship between other-reported psychopathy and leadership style were also assessed using Pearson correlations at T1. Subsequently, hypotheses of the differential effects of psychopathic traits at T1 on work outcomes at T2 (within- and between-person effects) were tested using regression analyses. We use $p < 0.05$ as the target significance level for all statistical analyses and report effect sizes where appropriate.

3. Results

3.1. The TriPM(Work)

As described in Section 2.5, we conducted CFA on each TriPM scale and selected the 7 highest-loading items that were identical across self- and other-report to create a 21-item TriPM (Work) measure, with the same seven items per scale. Items retained for the TriPM(Work) boldness scale are 7, 10, 13, 16, 22, 50, 57; for the meanness scale 9, 12, 15, 37, 49, 51, 56 and for the disinhibition scale 20, 23, 26, 29, 36, 48, 55.

The correlations between the full TriPM and their equivalent TriPM(Work) scales were all above 0.9, indicating a close to perfect relationship and demonstrating convergent validity. Cronbach's alphas for TriPM(Work) scales were above 0.7 (see Tables 1 and 2) indicating adequate internal consistency. The correlations between the self-report TriPM(Work) scales generally conform to those found in studies using the full TriPM [4], with moderate positive correlations between disinhibition and meanness, although the boldness scale shows somewhat stronger negative correlations with the other two subscales than in previous work.

Table 1. Descriptive statistics for Sample 1 (managers) at Time 1 (N = 651).

Variables	Min	Max	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6
1. Boldness	1.00	4.00	2.93	0.46	(0.74)					
2. Meanness	1.00	4.00	1.69	0.61	−0.29 **	(0.90)				
3. Disinhibition	1.00	4.00	1.73	0.65	−0.33 **	0.64 **	(0.87)			
4. Well-being	1.21	5.00	3.51	0.63	0.48 **	−0.13 **	−0.21 **	(0.93)		
5. Engagement	1.00	7.00	5.10	1.21	0.42 **	−0.19 **	−0.18 **	0.59 **	(0.94)	
6. Burnout	1.00	6.33	3.01	1.01	−0.48 **	0.44 **	0.48 **	−0.47 **	−0.57 **	(0.77)
7. Performance	3.00	10.0	7.80	1.45	0.29 **	−0.19 **	−0.23 **	0.43 **	0.46 **	−0.37 **

Note. Min and Max represent the minimum and maximum scores on each scale reported by participants. M = mean score, SD = standard deviation. Alpha reliabilities in parentheses. ** $p < 0.01$ (two-tailed).

Table 2. Descriptive statistics for Sample 2 (employees) at Time 1 (N = 668).

Variables	Min	Max	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	9	10
1. Boldness	1.00	4.00	2.92	0.66	(0.86)								
2. Meanness	1.00	4.00	1.85	0.80	−0.63 **	(0.94)							
3. Disinhibition	1.00	4.00	1.70	0.70	−0.64 **	0.76 **	(0.90)						
4. Well-being	1.00	5.00	3.33	0.66	0.14 **	−0.15 **	−0.14 **	(0.93)					
5. Engagement	1.00	7.00	4.73	1.30	0.26 **	−0.28 **	−0.19 **	0.52 **	(0.94)				
6. Burnout	1.00	6.33	3.27	1.04	−0.33 **	0.39 **	0.33 **	−0.49 **	−0.61 **	(0.75)			
7. Performance	1.00	10.0	7.53	1.59	0.12 **	−0.15 **	−0.17 **	0.36 **	0.33 **	−0.34 **			
8. Servant	1.00	5.00	3.00	1.00	0.67 **	−0.58 **	−0.47 **	0.24 **	0.36 **	−0.30 **	0.14 **	(0.96)	
9. Abusive	1.00	4.87	1.70	0.88	−0.58 **	0.77 **	0.71 **	−0.18 **	−0.27 **	0.42 **	−0.21 **	−0.43 **	(0.97)

Note. Min and Max represent the minimum and maximum scores on each scale reported by participants. M = mean score, SD = standard deviation. Alpha reliabilities in parentheses. ** $p < 0.01$ (two-tailed).

Using matched T1 and T2 data, test–retest reliability after 4 weeks was evaluated. All scales demonstrated adequate test-retest reliability, with T1-T2 correlations above 0.70, as shown in Table 3.

Table 3. TriPM(Work) test–retest reliability (Time 1 and Time 2 Pearson correlations).

Variables	Sample 1 (Self-Report)	Sample 2 (Other-Report)
Boldness	0.74 **	0.77 **
Meanness	0.76 **	0.72 **
Disinhibition	0.73 **	0.78 **

Note. ** $p < 0.01$ (two-tailed).

3.2. Psychopathy and Leadership Styles

Subordinate perceptions of managers' boldness were expected to correlate negatively with abusive leadership and positively with servant leadership. These relationships were supported (see Table 2). The opposite pattern of results was expected for the meanness and disinhibition scales and again was confirmed.

3.3. Effects of Psychopathy at Work

Using the JD-R model, we predicted that boldness, as a job resource, would relate positively to engagement, well-being and job performance and negatively to burnout, while meanness and disinhibition, as job demands, are expected to show the opposite pattern of results. Matched T1 and T2 data (see Tables 4 and 5) was used to test these predictive relationships, with regression analyses conducted using TriPM(Work) scales at T1 predicting outcomes at T2.

Table 4. Descriptive statistics for Sample 1 (managers, matched T1 and T2 data) (N = 286).

Variables	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6
1. Boldness T1	2.98	0.44	(0.70)					
2. Meanness T1	1.68	0.59	−0.29 **	(0.89)				
3. Disinhibition T1	1.68	0.63	−0.34 **	0.62 **	(0.88)			
4. Well-being T2	3.52	0.63	0.55 **	−0.17 **	−0.13 *	(0.92)		
5. Engagement T2	5.18	1.11	0.47 **	−0.25 **	−0.22 **	0.55 **	(0.94)	
6. Burnout T2	2.99	1.03	−0.46 **	0.45 **	0.43 **	−0.42 **	−0.61 **	(0.77)
7. Performance T2	7.91	1.41	0.33 **	−0.16 **	−0.13 *	0.47 **	0.51 **	−0.33 **

Note. * $p < 0.05$ (two-tailed), ** $p < 0.01$ (two-tailed).

Table 5. Descriptive statistics for Sample 2 (employees, matched Time 1 and Time 2 data) (N = 318).

Variables	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6
1. Boldness T1	2.94	0.65	(0.87)					
2. Meanness T1	1.82	0.78	−0.63 **	(0.94)				
3. Disinhibition T1	1.69	0.71	−0.66 **	0.77 **	(0.91)			
4. Well-being T2	3.30	0.68	0.03	−0.09	−0.10	(0.94)		
5. Engagement T2	4.81	1.30	0.16 **	−0.19 **	−0.16 **	0.55 **	(0.95)	
6. Burnout T2	3.21	1.06	−0.20 **	0.30 **	0.27 **	−0.45 **	−0.62 **	(0.76)
7. Performance T2	7.52	1.64	0.07	−0.13 *	−0.16 **	0.41 **	0.40 **	−0.37 **

Note. Alpha reliabilities in parentheses. * $p < 0.05$ (two-tailed), ** $p < 0.01$ (two-tailed).

3.3.1. Within-Person Effects

Self-reported psychopathy predicted a substantial amount of variance in well-being (31%), engagement (23%), burnout (33%) and performance (12%) (see Table 6). Boldness predicted increased well-being ($ß$ = 0.56, t(281) = 10.65, $p < 0.001$); engagement ($ß$ = 0.43, t(281) = 7.68, $p < 0.001$) and performance ($ß$ = 0.32, t(279) = 5.31, $p < 0.001$) along with reduced burnout ($ß$ = −0.33, t(280) = −6.36, $p < 0.001$). The expected negative effect of meanness on engagement did not reach significance, but there was a positive effect on burnout ($ß$ = 0.26, t(281) = 4.11, $p < 0.001$). Similarly, disinhibition increased (burnout $ß$ = 0.16, t(281) = 2.46, $p < 0.01$) but had no significant effect on other outcomes.

3.3.2. Between-Person Effects

Managers' perceived psychopathy did not significantly predict subordinate well-being or performance and perceived boldness, and disinhibition did not have the expected effects on any of the employee outcomes (see Table 7). However, managers' meanness did predict reduced subordinate engagement ($ß$ = −0.18, t(314) = −1.98, $p < 0.05$) and increased burnout ($ß$ = 0.25, t(313) = 2.79, $p < 0.01$).

Table 6. Regression analyses of self-reported psychopathy (Time 1) predicting well-being, engagement, burnout and performance (Time 2).

Variables	Well-Being T2			Engagement T2			Burnout T2			Performance T2		
	B	***SE B***	***ß***	***B***	***SE B***	***ß***	***B***	***SE B***	***ß***	***B***	***SE B***	***ß***
Intercept	1.04 ***	0.28		2.32 ***	0.53		4.13 ***	0.45		5.08 ***	0.71	
Boldness T1	0.82	0.08	0.56 ***	1.09	0.14	0.43 ***	−0.78	0.12	−0.33 ***	1.03	0.19	0.32 ***
Meanness T1	−0.08	0.07	−0.08	−0.24	0.13	−0.13	0.45	0.11	0.26 ***	−0.23	0.17	−0.10
Disinhibition T1	0.11	0.07	0.11	0.00	0.12	0.00	0.26	0.10	0.16 **	0.09	0.17	0.04
R^2	0.31			0.23			0.33			0.12		
F	42.01 ***			28.17 ***			47.05 ***			12.30 ***		

Note. B = unstandardized beta value, SE B = standard error of beta value, *ß* = standardized beta. ** $p < 0.01$. *** $p < 0.001$.

Table 7. Regression analyses of perceived manager psychopathy (Time 1) predicting engagement, burnout and performance in subordinates (Time 2).

Variables	Well-Being T2			Engagement T2			Burnout T2			Performance T2		
	B	***SE B***	***ß***	***B***	***SE B***	***ß***	***B***	***SE B***	***ß***	***B***	***SE B***	***ß***
Intercept	3.78 ***			4.96 ***	0.65		2.27 ***	0.52		8.85 ***	0.83	
Boldness T1	−0.08	0.08	−0.08	0.12	0.15	0.06	0.03	0.12	0.02	−0.17	0.20	−0.07
Meanness T1	−0.04	0.08	−0.05	−0.30	0.15	−0.18 *	0.34	0.12	0.25 **	−0.09	0.19	−0.04
Disinhibition T1	−0.11	0.09	−0.12	−0.03	0.17	−0.02	0.13	0.14	0.09	−0.40	0.22	−0.17
R^2	0.01			0.04			0.10			0.03		
F	1.41			4.76 **			11.06 ***			3.00 *		

Note. B = unstandardized beta value, SE B = standard error of beta value, *ß* = standardized beta. *$p < 0.05$. ** $p < 0.01$. *** $p < 0.001$.

In summary, managers' self-reported psychopathy predicts a substantial amount of variance in all four work outcomes, with boldness showing the predicted positive effects and meanness and disinhibition both increasing burnout. When measured by other-report, manager's meanness predicts reduced subordinate engagement and increased burnout.

4. Discussion

Overall, we find that the TriPM (Work) provides a reliable and valid measure of psychopathy at work and can be used for both self- and other-report. Similarly to the original TriPM measure, the three subscales of the TriPM (Work) have good internal consistency and test–retest reliability. The scales also demonstrate the expected relationships with several work variables. The boldness trait, largely representing the adaptive elements of psychopathy at work, shows positive relationships with a beneficial leadership style and positive work outcomes for the individual. Meanness and disinhibition traits, representing the maladaptive elements of psychopathy, are associated with a poor leadership style and negative work outcomes for the individual and, in the case of meanness, for subordinates as well.

The pattern of results between psychopathic traits and work outcomes is consistent with our proposition that boldness may act as a resource within the JD-R model and improve engagement, well-being and job performance, while meanness and disinhibition act to increase demands and thereby burnout. Whether this is a direct effect of the traits or whether the effect is mediated by other factors such as perception of job demands or influence on social support remains for future research to explore. A recent study indicated that subordinates' psychopathy may serve to maintain personal resources in the face of abusive supervision [54], though as it did not use the triarchic model, it is unclear whether this is due primarily to the boldness trait acting as a resource or a high level of overall psychopathy. Clearly, understanding the intricacies of the adaptive effects of psychopathy requires detailed examination of these relationships, and it is our hope that the TriPM (Work) measure we report on here will support future research in this area.

One of the most striking findings of this study is that psychopathic traits have larger within-person than other-person effects. This provides a contrast to much of the literature around psychopathy at work, which emphasises the negative impact of psychopathy on others in the workplace (e.g., [6]). We found that, as hypothesised, managers' self-reported boldness has a large positive effect on their work outcomes (increasing well-being, engagement and performance and reducing burnout) while meanness and disinhibition both increase burnout. Nevertheless, the effects of managers' perceived psychopathy on subordinates are not as substantial as these within-person effects. In addition, the effect of managers' psychopathy on subordinates seems to be limited to a small negative impact from the meanness trait, with no positive effect of boldness on subordinates' work outcomes. This finding raises important questions for our understanding of psychopathy at work, and the distinction between primary and secondary psychopathy may shed some light on this issue. Corporate psychopathy has been described as including the callous emotional traits associated with primary psychopathy but not exhibiting the same level of anti-social or criminal tendencies of secondary psychopathy [6]. Our findings may provide some support for this distinction by demonstrating that psychopathy at work is associated with a substantial effect on the individual's own emotional well-being and engagement and less effect, via anti-social behaviour, on those around them.

The largest effect sizes in our study were the relationships between the triarchic traits and leadership styles, which are substantially larger than those found in a self-report study of psychopathy and the full-range leadership model [55]. Besides the differences in instruments used to assess psychopathy and leadership, there are two potential explanations for this finding. First, it may indicate that the TriPM (Work) is tapping into behaviours that are seen as particularly salient to employees' perceptions of leadership style. With correlations above 0.7 for the relationship between abusive supervision and both meanness/disinhibition, for example, it appears that these maladaptive psychopathy traits may be almost synonymous with destructive leadership. Alternatively, the correlations may be subject

to a negative halo effect. Previous work on supervisor personality and bullying has found that employees rate their supervisors' personality as significantly less socially desirable when they observe or experience bullying at work [56]. We discuss this further in Section 4.2.

These relationships do, however, confirm the suggestion that psychopathic traits are related to the leadership styles that managers adopt. Again, boldness was confirmed as an adaptive element of psychopathy, related to greater servant leadership and lower abusive supervision while meanness and disinhibition were maladaptive, being related to less servant leadership and greater abusive supervision. To our knowledge, this is the first paper to report on the relationship between servant leadership and psychopathy, and it demonstrates the utility of using a triarchic model to measure psychopathy. A positive relationship between psychopathy and servant leadership would appear at first glance to be highly unlikely, yet decades of research support the relationship between effective leadership and social assertiveness or confidence [57]. It seems that the boldness element of the triarchic model of psychopathy captures this essential leadership quality and may underlie at least some of the success of more highly psychopathic individuals at work.

We noted in the introduction that researchers have suggested boldness should not be considered part of the psychopathy concept precisely because of these kinds of adaptive outcomes [11]. The meta-analytic review that confirmed the relevance of boldness to psychopathy noted that boldness was likely to be substantially more important for the study of psychopathy in community rather than forensic samples, where the emphasis is on adaptive functioning [15]. The authors also caution against assuming that psychopathy, as measured in community settings, is exactly the same construct as measured in forensic settings. In this paper, we have focused on delineating the adaptive and maladaptive effects of psychopathic traits at work, demonstrating that boldness represents an adaptive element of the overall psychopathy construct while meanness and disinhibition are maladaptive.

4.1. Implications

This study demonstrates that the TriPM (Work) is a reliable and valid measure of the triarchic model of psychopathy for the workplace. With only 21 items, it is well suited to organisational research where participants' time is frequently limited, while equivalent self- and other-report versions promise to make comparative and multi-level research simpler.

In addition, we have demonstrated that the triarchic model of psychopathy is useful in distinguishing between the adaptive and maladaptive effects of psychopathy at work. As suggested by previous authors (e.g., [7]), boldness can indeed be viewed as an adaptive element of psychopathy while meanness and disinhibition are maladaptive in the workplace. The JD-R model provides a way of conceptualizing these distinctive effects as resources or demands for both the individual and their co-workers.

The finding that psychopathy has a greater effect on managers themselves than on their subordinates suggests that interventions aimed at reducing the negative effect of psychopathy in the workplace should focus on self-development rather than attempting to buffer or reduce the effect of "psychopathic leaders" on their subordinates. It was recognised early on that psychopathy, even in noninstitutionalised populations, includes a distinctly self-defeating lifestyle [58], and this study demonstrates that meanness and disinhibition in particular have significant negative within-person effects. Using the regression equations reported here, for example, the average manager's boldness score predicts very low burnout (1.8 on a 7-point scale) and high engagement (5.6 on a 7-point scale), while average meanness and disinhibition predict much higher burnout (4.9 and 4.5 on a 7-point scale). Interventions aimed at helping managers to increase their boldness and reduce meanness/disinhibition could therefore have substantial positive workplace effects.

4.2. Limitations and Further Research

It still remains to be determined what level of psychopathic traits would be considered necessary and sufficient to categorise someone as a "psychopath" at work. While some measures in the clinical

and forensic field utilise cut-off scores [7], we have avoided drawing a cut-off here as we were interested in psychopathic traits as continuous dimensions in the normal population. Future research could explore the extent to which different trait profile patterns may be associated with adaptive and maladaptive outcomes. For example, is the adaptive effect of boldness weakened when combined with higher meanness or disinhibition scores?

We note that the inter-correlations between the other-report TriPM (Work) scales are higher than has been found in studies using the full self-report TriPM [4]. This may be due to a halo effect, which is an established issue in leadership research: if a leader is seen as effective, they are rated more positively across a range of categories and vice versa [58].

We also acknowledge that the lack of a matched sample of employees and managers means that we are unable to establish the extent to which the self- and other-report TriPM (Work) measures may correspond for the same individual. We expect there may be reasonable levels of concordance between self- and other-ratings for two reasons. First, the TriPM (Work) items focus on observable behaviours rather than inference about internal states and is therefore reasonably straightforward for observers to report. Second, a recent meta-analysis of self- and other-reports across a range of personality questionnaires (collated into the Big Five traits) showed work colleagues' reports on personality as not being significantly different from self-reports. It remains for future research to determine the extent to which this finding may be generalizable to psychopathic traits. However, concordance is not of itself essential for the use of these measures in future work. For example, the extent to which a manager's self-reported psychopathy corresponds with subordinate's perceptions may be used as the basis for 360 feedback, much as the B-Scan 360 aims to do [18].

While there is some evidence here that boldness may act as a resource and meanness/disinhibition as demands, in terms of their effects on engagement, burnout, well-being and performance, these relationships would benefit from further research. In particular, the mechanism of these effects is as yet unknown. For example, meanness could have its effect either by acting as an extra demand on the individual or via destruction of social support (i.e., removal of resources).

One of the strengths of this study is the time-lagged data, which enabled predictive relationships to be explored properly. However, as the time-lag was only 4 weeks, further research looking at the long-term effects of psychopathy would be valuable. Whether boldness, for example, would continue to have positive effects over the longer-term is unknown. It may also be that a longer-term study would also be able to identify greater effects of psychopathy on subordinates.

5. Conclusions

The triarchic model of psychopathy is useful in distinguishing between adaptive and maladaptive psychopathic traits in the work context and the TriPM (Work) scales provide a reliable, organisationally-relevant measure for both self- and other-report. Boldness is associated with primarily positive leadership styles and work outcomes, while meanness and disinhibition are associated with poor leadership styles and negative work outcomes. Additionally, psychopathic traits are associated with much greater within-person than cross-person effects.

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