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The Impact of Psychopathy on Managers' Wellbeing and Burnout: The Role of Authenticity

A thesis
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Abstract

The aim of this study was to investigate the impact of psychopathy on individuals' wellbeing and burnout amongst a sample of managers across a wide range of organisations in New Zealand. This study also investigated the role of authenticity in an attempt to examine its influence amongst these relationships. In addressing gaps in the literature, the current study employed the Triarchic model of psychopathy to examine the effects of three dimensions of psychopathy (disinhibition, meanness, boldness) separately rather than unidimensionally in order to demonstrate a thorough assessment of how each dimension exerts its influence on individuals in the workplace.

Through the utilisation of the Job Demands-Resources model, this study proposed that disinhibition and meanness, being more maladaptive, would limit individuals' access to job resources and exacerbate the negative effects of job demands thereby resulting in lower wellbeing and higher burnout. Conversely, boldness was hypothesised to be more adaptive for individuals and therefore would assist in the attainment of job resources while decreasing the negative effects of job demands. In turn, bold individuals would be more likely to demonstrate higher wellbeing and lower burnout. Authenticity was proposed to act as a personal resource operating as both a moderator and mediator in these relationships.

Moderation and mediation analyses were conducted in SPSS to test the proposed hypotheses. A number of hypotheses were supported; boldness predicted higher wellbeing; both disinhibition and meanness predicted higher emotional exhaustion; boldness predicted lower emotional exhaustion; both disinhibition and meanness predicted higher depersonalisation; and boldness predicted lower depersonalisation. Moderation analyses produced no significant findings, however some mediation effects were found. Authenticity mediated the relationship between; disinhibition and wellbeing; meanness and wellbeing; disinhibition and depersonalisation; meanness and depersonalisation and boldness and depersonalisation. Some hypotheses were not supported indicating that there are likely factors other than authenticity which influence these relationships and therefore, further research in this area is advised.

This study presents a number of implications for theory as well as practice. While there is a great deal of research assessing the impact of manager psychopathy on subordinates, there is very little research pertaining to how those with psychopathic traits are impacted by these traits themselves. The current study addressed this in an attempt to shed light on the wellbeing and workplace functioning of those who demonstrate both maladaptive and adaptive psychopathic traits. Furthermore, this study investigated a previously under-

researched personal resource - authenticity, both as a moderator and mediator in order to gain a more robust understanding of its influence.

This study highlights that organisations should screen for psychopathy in the workplace to identify those who demonstrate maladaptive tendencies and to put strategies in place to support these individuals as well as implement processes to protect others in the workplace from those who have maladaptive traits. It is also evident that those who demonstrate boldness may potentially be an asset to organisations given their potential to accumulate important resources on the job. Results suggest that through the promotion of authenticity at work, organisations can cultivate a healthier and more functional working environment.

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Chapter One: Introduction

The notion that it is advantageous for individuals to be authentic has been emphasised in various academic fields (Boyratz, Waits & Felix, 2014). Most research has demonstrated that individuals attain psychological wellbeing and fulfilment in life if they take responsibility for their personal experiences. That is, their thoughts, feelings, wants, needs, beliefs and preferences and that they convey themselves in a manner which is consistent with their inner ideals (Knoll, Meyer, Kroemer & Schröder-Abé, 2015). However, could the act of being authentic still have benefits for psychopathic individuals who genuinely lack conscience and exhibit an egotistic and ruthless way of living?

In exploring current gaps in the psychopathy and authenticity literature, the current study conceptualises the effect of psychopathic traits on workplace outcomes in terms of the Job Demands-Resources model and makes a number of important contributions. Firstly, using regression analyses this study examines the influence of managers' psychopathy on their wellbeing and burnout. Secondly, moderation and mediation analyses assesses the role of authenticity in the relationship between psychopathy and wellbeing and burnout with the aim of gaining a better understanding of the influence of authenticity amongst those with psychopathic tendencies.

Psychopathy

Psychopathy is a pathologic syndrome which presents in approximately one percent of the population, comprising severe behavioural deviancy along with distinctive emotional and interpersonal features (Patrick, Fowles, & Krueger, 2009; Boddy, 2014). Hare (1993) has described psychopathy as being characterised by a constellation of personality traits and behaviours which society generally denounces. While there are a number of competing conceptualisations of psychopathy (Smith & Lilienfeld, 2013), Mathieu, Neumann, Hare and Babiak (2014) have argued that characteristics of psychopathy include grandiosity, egocentricity, deceptiveness, shallow emotions, lack of empathy or remorse, irresponsibility, impulsivity and a tendency to ignore or violate social norms. Psychopaths share similar traits to other anti-social personalities and if their absence of conscience is revealed in violence and antisocial behaviours, then they may find themselves in front of the courts and deemed criminals (Boddy, 2014).

Corporate Psychopathy

Despite the broadly held view that psychopathy is perpetually maladaptive, researchers such as Cleckley (1964) have proposed that some of its component traits can in fact be adaptive in particular settings, including the corporate world. Corporate psychopaths were initially recognised in Cleckley's book *The Mask of Sanity* (1964). A fundamental part of Cleckley's argument, which was formed through his immediate exposure to psychopaths within a psychiatric facility, was the notion that psychopaths possess a severe underlying pathology which is disguised by an observable appearance of robust mental health. As opposed to other psychiatric patients who display irrational, agitated, dysphoric behaviours and are often withdrawn, Cleckley argued that psychopaths present themselves as confident, personable and psychologically competent on initial contact. It is only when one is exposed to these individuals over time and in a variety of settings that the psychopath's underlying pathology is exposed (Smith & Lilienfeld, 2013).

While fully developed psychopaths are less likely to be successful in the business world due to high levels of deviance and impulsivity, corporate psychopaths are more likely to demonstrate subclinical rather than clinical symptoms with different variations on particular aspects of psychopathy (Dutton, 2012). For example, while subclinical psychopaths may present as callous towards people, they may still demonstrate some attachment towards others which points to the idea that psychopathy is not a typology, rather it can be best understood as occurring along a continuum (Walker & Jackson, 2017). Variations across this continuum differentiate the successful (or noncriminal) psychopath from the clinical or criminal psychopath (Westerlaken & Woods, 2013). This notion of the successful psychopath has been the driving force behind research into corporate psychopathy. Boddy (2014) describes corporate psychopaths as simply "those psychopaths working in the corporate sector, possibly attracted by the potentially high monetary rewards, prestige and power available to those who reach the senior managerial levels of large corporations" (p. 108).

The corporate world can often be turbulent and unpredictable. Organisations are increasingly forced to keep up with fiercely competitive global markets, manage effectively in high risk environments and deal with the uncertainty of a changing world. Babiak (1995) has argued that this kind of corporate climate which allows for stimulation and excitement, is an avenue which gives psychopaths the opportunity to achieve success. Babiak speculated that the inclination for psychopaths to manipulate and deceive others may influence their rise in the ranks of organisations. Some authors have suggested that psychopaths, who are attracted to the glamour of the corporate world, may appear to outsiders as ideal leaders,

concealing their dark side with poise and charm (Boddy, 2006; Furnham, 2007). When a psychopath is working within an organisational setting, they may be attracted to the financial, power and status gains accessible in senior positions, and can induce substantial damage within these roles from using a manipulative interpersonal style to large scale fraud (Walker & Jackson, 2017). For example, Blickle and Schütte (2017) have found that subclinical psychopathy was linked to counterproductive work behaviours directed towards the organisation including such behaviours as failing to follow instructions, stealing, using illegal drugs or alcohol on the job and giving away the organisation's confidential information to unauthorised persons. Furthermore, Babiak and Hare (2006) cited specific cases whereby individuals with psychopathic traits spawn chaos by engaging in embezzlement and laying down demands that are impossible to meet. Some have even suggested that the Global Financial Crisis in 2008 which resulted in worldwide financial losses and retrenchment, was attributable partially to the behaviours of corporate psychopaths (Boddy, 2011b).

Most of the research on the outcomes of psychopathy in the workplace has focussed on the consequences brought upon subordinates while under the supervision of corporate psychopaths. Mathieu and Babiak (2016) have found that employees' ratings of supervisor psychopathic traits predicted their ratings of abusive supervision, indicating that psychopathy may be linked with bullying and aggression and may take the form of abusive supervision when revealed in the workplace. Furthermore, Mathieu and colleagues (2014) found that employees' ratings of psychopathic traits in supervisors were related to employees' psychological distress, work-family conflict and job dissatisfaction. In another study by Mathieu and Babiak (2015), it was found that psychopathic traits in supervisors predicted subordinate job dissatisfaction, lower work motivation, psychological distress and turnover intentions more than the supervisor's leadership style. So while there is substantial focus on the effects of psychopathy on organisations and the individuals working within them, there is very little research pertaining to how employees with psychopathic traits are impacted by these traits both in terms of their own wellbeing and their functioning within the workplace. The current study aims to examine this, which will illuminate how these individuals really experience certain aspects of life while contributing to knowledge in this largely ignored domain of psychopathy research.

Models of Psychopathy

Trait based assessments of psychopathy have been derived almost entirely from the work of Cleckley (1976). Through utilising his clinical experience as a guide, Cleckley investigated various case studies and was able to draw out commonalities to define general characteristics which he believed were representative of the core of psychopathy.

Frequently identified as the Cleckley criteria, these 16 characteristics were inclusive of behaviours such as failure to learn from experience and persistent lying as well as personality features such as callousness and egocentricity. Cleckley argued that these traits were prototypically psychopathic and may serve as indicators for identifying individuals with psychopathy. Although Cleckley's work was exclusively descriptive and did not result in a formal diagnostic system, he did lay the foundations for future efforts to define the construct of psychopathy capable of reliable identification (Brinkley, Schmitt, Smith & Newman, 2001).

The etiology, dynamics and conceptual boundaries of psychopathy continue to be a great source of debate and subject of research. However, there is persistent clinical and empirical focus on its core interpersonal, affective and behavioural features (Berrios, 1996; Cleckley, 1976; Hare, 1991; Millon, Simonsen, Birket-Smith & Davis, 1998). From the interpersonal perspective, psychopaths frequently present as grandiose, arrogant, callous, dominant, superficial, deceptive and manipulative. At the affective level, these individuals have short tempers, are unable to form strong emotional bonds with others and lack empathy, guilt, remorse, or deep-seated emotions. These interpersonal and affective attributes are inherent in a socially deviant lifestyle which encompasses irresponsible and impulsive behaviours as well as a propensity to ignore or violate social conventions and morals (Hare, 1991). While not all psychopaths wind up in the criminal justice system, their defining characteristics undoubtedly put them at high risk for crime and violence (Hare, 1999).

Building on this conceptualisation of psychopathy, the Psychopathy Checklist Revised (PCL-R; Hare, 2003) was developed for use within forensic settings and remains the most extensively used psychopathy measure in the psychology literature (Brinkley et al., 2001). Upon conducting factor analyses of this scale and its descendants, it has been found that psychopathy is contingent on two vast, higher order dimensions and four lower order dimensions. Factor 1 encompasses interpersonal and affective traits (e.g. superficial charm, lack of empathy, lack of remorse), and Factor 2 includes antisocial behaviour and lifestyle traits (e.g. irresponsibility, impulsivity). Currently, the majority of research on psychopaths has been carried out in prison and other forensic environments and hence, has relied on the PCL-R (Watts, Lilienfeld, Edens, Douglas, Skeem, Verschuere & LoPilato, 2016).

A significant hindrance in the psychopathy literature however, has been the absence of an appropriate assessment tool for the identification of psychopaths in the general population. The PCL-R is limited in this respect. Its items are tailored to those who have a criminal background, and the standardised administration of the PCL-R requires a lengthy structured interview as well as access to collateral file data (Benning, Patrick, Hicks,

Blonigen & Krueger, 2003). While interview based approaches such as this may be practical in incarcerated populations with a high base rate of psychopathy (20% - 25%; Hare, 1991), research into workplace samples requires a more efficient, self-report measurement tool.

As research in psychopathy has evolved, with increasing concern for understanding psychopathy in non-clinical settings, such as within community, college or workplace samples (Stevens, Deuling & Armenakis, 2012) along with a burgeoning interest surrounding the “successful psychopath”, there has been concern surrounding the most accurate way to conceptualise and examine this side of psychopathy. This has prompted the development of various well-validated self-report measures of psychopathy such as the Psychopathic Personality Inventory (PPI; Lilienfeld & Andrews, 1996), the Levenson Self-Report Psychopathy Scale (LSRP; Levenson, Kiehl & Fitzpatrick, 1995) and the Triarchic Psychopathy Measure (TriPM; Patrick, 2010).

The PPI was designed using a personality oriented technique which concentrated on capturing the internal states and personality traits considered central to psychopathy. This measure examines psychopathy broadly, and initial validation studies indicate that it encompasses items which reflect both facets of psychopathy included in the PCL-R (Lilienfeld & Andrews, 1996). In a similar fashion to the PCL-R, factor analyses of the PPI regularly uncover two higher order dimensions, fearless-dominance (FD) and self-centred impulsivity (SCI). FD examines social and physical boldness and immunity to stress. Conversely, the SCI assesses a narcissistic inclination to exploit people, recklessness and the tendency to externalise blame (Benning et al., 2003). Similar to Factor 1 of the PCL-R, FD examines several of the interpersonal and affective characteristics of psychopathy. However, it places more emphasis on social boldness, physical fearlessness and other conceivably adaptive traits. Hence, while FD is linked mostly with positive psychological functioning (e.g. emotional stability and adjustment) SCI is more inherent in maladaptive functioning (e.g. externalising behaviours, such as antisocial behaviour) (Lilienfeld, Patrick, Benning, Berg, Sellbom & Edens, 2012).

Building on Cleckley’s and Hare’s work, the LSRP was developed as a means to assess psychopathy within community samples and evaluates both the behavioural and personality traits commonly associated with psychopathy in the literature (Brinkley et al., 2001). However, instead of emphasising criminal behaviours, as with previous measures, the LSRP was developed to obtain information pertaining to behaviours more typical of community life. To illustrate, an individual’s virtue is measured by items such as “even if I were trying hard to sell a product, I would not lie about it” (Levenson et al., 1995, p. 153). The LSRP bears resemblance to the PPI in the sense that it is principally made up of two

broad factors, Primary (Factor 1) and Secondary (Factor 2) psychopathy. However, these seem to be associated with largely maladaptive features of psychopathy (e.g. anger and impulsivity) and capture both Factor 1 and Factor 2 of the PCL-R (Watts et al., 2016). Ultimately, evidence suggests that while the LSRP does correlate with the widely used PCL-R which is promising, it is a weaker measure, and thus should be utilised with caution (Brinkley et al., 2001).

The Triarchic Model of Psychopathy

The Triarchic model of psychopathy emerged during a period whereby a number of long-standing and unresolved issues in the study of psychopathy were being revisited and deliberated on. Evidence in support of a dimensional rather than a typological notion of psychopathy (Guay, Ruscio, Knight & Hare, 2007) brought about a number of questions pertaining to the unitary versus configural nature of psychopathy. Furthermore, a number of key questions were also raised during this time regarding how psychopathy and its facets can be comparable between adults and youth, based on research with children and adolescents (Salekin, 2006).

The Triarchic model of psychopathy draws upon both historic and contemporary efforts to conceptualise psychopathy and utilises three prominent and recurring themes emerging in the research, which have been designated as disinhibition, meanness and boldness. Through a consideration of the broader personality, psychopathology and neurobiological research, it is argued that these three distinct but intersecting phenotypic dimensions can be measured and understood separately (Patrick et al., 2009). According to Patrick and colleagues (2009) these three dimensions represent the solution to understanding psychopathy in its differing manifestations: criminal and noncriminal, unsuccessful and successful.

Disinhibition refers to a general tendency towards impulsivity, encompassing inadequacies in planfulness and foresight, weak restraint, hostility and mistrust as well as difficulties in emotion regulation (Patrick et al., 2009). Similar constructs include externalising (Krueger, Hicks, Patrick, Carlson, Iacono & McGue, 2002), disinhibitory psychopathology (Gorenstein & Newman, 1980) and low inhibitory control (Kochanska, Murray & Coy, 1997). With regard to personality, disinhibition can be understood as the core of impulsivity and negative affectivity (Krueger, 1999; Sher & Trull, 1994). Disinhibition typically manifests itself in behaviours such as irresponsibility, impatience, impulsive acts which result in unfavourable consequences, alienation and distrust, aggression, untrustworthiness, drug and alcohol issues as well as a tendency to partake in illicit or other norm violating activities (Patrick et al., 2009).

This externalising dimension is evident to varying degrees in many historic conceptualisations of psychopathy. Interestingly, arguments surrounding the most suitable definition and boundaries of the psychopathy construct can be traced to this dimension. An individual high in externalising behaviours seems to be consistent with the traditional assumption of the symptomatic or “secondary psychopath” (Patrick et al., 2009), which has been described by Karpman (1941) as reflecting an environmentally acquired affective disturbance as opposed to primary psychopathy, which is described as being underpinned by a heritable affective deficit. However, more recently, researchers generally do not see disinhibition or externalising as comparable to psychopathy. It is only when an inclination to externalise is concomitant with dispositional boldness or meanness that a diagnosis of psychopathy would be deemed suitable (Patrick et al., 2009).

Meanness involves defective empathy, an impaired capacity for affiliation, contempt towards others, voracious exploitativeness and a tendency to be cruel or destructive in order to feel empowered (Patrick & Drislane, 2015). Features resembling meanness include callousness, coldheartedness and antagonism (Patrick et al., 2009). With regard to interpersonal behaviour, meanness is best understood as maintaining a point half way between high dominance and low affiliation (Blackburn, 2006; Harpur, Hare & Hakstian, 1989). As opposed to being socially withdrawn, which involves passive disengagement from others (“moving away from people”), individuals high in meanness actively exploit people and are likely to engage in confrontation (“moving against people”) (Patrick et al., 2009). Individuals high in meanness tend to be arrogant and verbally abusive, are defiant towards authority, lack close, warm bonds with others, have a tendency to be aggressively competitive and to strategically exploit others for gain, as well as seek excitement through destructive activities. Some may even engage in physical cruelty towards people and animals (Patrick et al., 2009). Hence, it is easy to see how the notion of meanness is central to interpretations of psychopathy within criminal and delinquent samples.

Finally, boldness entails propensities towards being venturesome, confident and socially assertive, as well as emotionally resilient (Patrick & Drislane, 2015). This phenotypic style involves an ability to remain calm and focused in high pressure scenarios or settings in which a threat is present. It also entails high self-assurance and social efficacy, an ability to be resilient in unfamiliar and dangerous scenarios and a capacity to recover rapidly from high stress experiences (Patrick et al., 2009). Descriptions akin to boldness include fearless dominance (Benning, Patrick, Blonigen, Hicks & Iacono, 2005), daringness, audacity, indomitability, resiliency (Block & Block, 2014), and hardiness (Kobasa, 1979). With regard to understanding boldness in terms of personality, it may be considered central to social dominance, low stress reactivity, and thrill–adventure seeking (Benning et al., 2003;

Benning et al., 2005). The most pronounced behaviours associated with boldness include imperturbability, social poise, assertiveness and persuasiveness, bravery, and venturesomeness. In line with the Triarchic model, boldness is not deemed equivalent to “fearless”. Rather, fearlessness is understood as an inherent, genotypic disposition which involves a diminished sensitivity of the brain’s defensive motivational system to cues which signal punishment or threat. Boldness instead, is a way in which genotypic fearlessness can be conveyed phenotypically (Patrick et al., 2009).

It has been pointed out by Neo, Sellbom, Smith and Lilienfeld (2018), that the boldness domain of psychopathy is largely ignored by researchers and is poorly understood. Boldness in fact possesses both adaptive and maladaptive ramifications for workplace behaviour. Lilienfeld, Waldman, Landfield, Watts, Rubenzer and Faschingbauer (2012) have argued that boldness may in fact be associated with adaptive leadership behaviours such as superior persuasiveness, public communication and crisis management. The adaptive traits of boldness highlight that not all individuals high on psychopathy would be an overt menace to the workplace, and in fact these traits may be the reason why some psychopaths become so successful in the business world (Neo et al., 2018).

Hence, it seems that when assessing the corporate psychopath, it is imperative that both the maladaptive and adaptive traits are recognised and measured as they all have substantial implications for organisations and the people working within them. The development of the Triarchic model is a significant improvement in measurement of psychopathy, and given its ability to assess various manifestations of psychopathy, is particularly helpful in assessing the corporate psychopath. Being able to utilise this model to investigate both the good and dark sides of a corporate psychopath gives researchers leverage in explaining their behaviour and how they seem to succeed in the corporate world. A number of studies have been conducted in support of the Triarchic model in various settings, mainly through the utilisation of the Triarchic Psychopathy Measure (TriPM), which has been well validated (Patrick & Drislane, 2015). Given its relevance for the present study, the Triarchic Psychopathy Measure (work) (TriPM work) will be utilised (Sutton, Roche, Stapleton & Roemer, under review), which is a shorter version of the TriPM, adapted to be more suitable for a corporate setting.

Wellbeing

Employee psychological wellbeing is an extremely important issue in the modern world, with research consistently demonstrating that both organisations, and those who work among them, benefit greatly when employee wellbeing is higher (Robertson & Cooper, 2011). The

question which remains however, is how are corporate psychopaths impacted by their traits in terms of their psychological wellbeing in the workplace? The notion of wellbeing has a vast history amongst researchers and it is important to gauge how the concept of wellbeing has developed over time in order to understand how it has been implemented in the assessment of individual and workplace outcomes.

Traditionally, wellbeing has been conceptualised based on two discrete ideas: hedonic/subjective and eudaimonic/psychological. Hedonic wellbeing assesses the evaluations of affect and life satisfaction or quality. This approach focusses on happiness and defines wellbeing in terms of pleasure attainment and pain avoidance (Ryan & Deci, 2001). In contrast, eudaimonic wellbeing can be thought of as realising one's true potential across the lifespan (Ryan & Deci, 2001; Ryff & Keyes, 1995) and is the perceived thriving associated with the existential challenges of life including the pursuit of meaningful goals (Keyes, Shmotkin & Ryff, 2002). These two approaches have given rise to a variety of research and contributed to a body of knowledge that is both disparate and complementary in nature across different areas (Ryan & Deci, 2001).

In more recent times, psychologists who have embraced the hedonic approach have gravitated towards a broader appreciation of hedonism which is inclusive of the preferences and pleasures of the mind as well as the body (Kubovy, 1999). The most predominant approach amongst hedonic psychologists is that wellbeing consists of subjective happiness or subjective wellbeing (SWB) and is concerned with experiences of pleasure versus displeasure widely interpreted to encompass all judgements about the good or bad elements of life. From this perspective, happiness is not reducible to physical hedonism as it can be derived from goal achievement or other valued outcomes within various domains (Diener, Sapyta & Suh, 1998). In spite of the proliferation of SWB studies, it is not the only way to think about wellbeing. The eudaimonic perspective holds that not all needs or outcomes which an individual might value yield wellbeing once they are attained. So while they might cultivate pleasure momentarily, some outcomes may not be beneficial for individuals or their wellbeing (Ryan & Deci, 2001). Hence, reports of being happy does not necessarily mean that individuals are psychologically well and therefore, from the eudaimonic perspective, subjective happiness cannot be equated with wellbeing (Deci & Ryan, 2008).

Waterman (1993) has argued that while happiness is hedonically defined, the eudaimonic conceptualisation of wellbeing compels individuals to live in alignment with their true selves and suggested that eudaimonia transpires when individuals fully engage in behaviour which is harmonious with their deeply ingrained values. Under these circumstances, individuals would feel fiercely alive and authentic, existing as who they truly

are – a state Waterman labelled as personal expressiveness (PE). Through empirical testing, Waterman demonstrated that while hedonic enjoyment and PE were strongly correlated, they represented two distinct forms of experience. For instance, both PE and hedonic measures were linked with drive fulfilments, however PE was more strongly linked to activities that granted personal growth and development. Additionally, PE indicated a stronger relationship with being challenged and exerting effort whereas hedonic enjoyment was more strongly associated with being relaxed, absent of problems and happy.

A Multidimensional Approach to Wellbeing

The hedonic and eudaimonic perspectives have offered substantial insight into positive mental health and evidence from various researchers has suggested that wellbeing is likely best understood as a multi-dimensional phenomenon which appreciates aspects of both hedonic and eudaimonic conceptions. For example, Compton, Smith, Cornish and Qualls (1996) studied the relationships amid 18 indicators of wellbeing and mental health. Two factors were established, one which reflected SWB and another demonstrating personal growth. Both these factors were correlated suggesting that the hedonic and eudaimonic constructs are both distinct as well as coinciding and that an understanding of wellbeing might be improved by measuring it in differentiated ways. In a similar study using factor analysis, McGregor and Little (1998) analysed a broad scope of mental health indicators and discovered two factors, reflecting both happiness and meaningfulness. Conclusively, the literature shows wellbeing is complex and there is a great deal of debate surrounding what defines optimal experience and what comprises “the good life”. There is however, consensus that wellbeing entails optimal psychological functioning and experience (Ryan & Deci, 2001).

Current instruments which measure wellbeing draw from various conceptualisations of wellbeing as their starting point. Recently, Tennant, Hiller, Fishwick, Platt, Joseph, Weich and Stewart-Brown (2007) proposed the development and testing of the Warwick-Edinburgh Mental Well-Being Scale (WEMWBS). This scale was cultivated to capture a wide conception of wellbeing and emphasises positive aspects, ultimately intended to support the promotion of mental health. Compared with previous measures of wellbeing which assess more narrow components of wellbeing, the WEMWBS assesses affective emotional elements, cognitive-evaluative features as well as psychological functioning.

To illustrate, the widely used Positive and Negative Affect Scale (PANAS; Watson, Clark & Tellegen, 1988) only measures affective or feeling based assessments of wellbeing with no inclusion of important cognitive-evaluative aspects of wellbeing. Hence, while the PANAS measures a person’s mood, it does not address aspects of wellbeing which are

derived from behaviours such as achieving meaningful goals or the expression of virtue. Comparably, The Scale of Psychological Wellbeing (SPWB; Ryff & Keyes, 1995) focusses more on the eudaimonic aspects of wellbeing (such as environmental mastery, purpose in life and self-acceptance) with little regard for a person's affective state. Also, other scales such as the Short Depression Happiness Scale (SDHS; Joseph, Linley, Harwood, Lewis & McCollam, 2004) which measures wellbeing on a continuum between the two states of depression and happiness, have been developed and refined specifically for use in therapeutic environments and therefore are unhelpful for use in the general population. The WEMWBS is ultimately a more comprehensive measure, drawing from hedonic and eudaimonic origins providing an in depth insight into psychological wellbeing while emphasising positive aspects, rather than simply identifying what is "wrong" with a person. Given the current study aims to address wellbeing thoroughly within a working sample this measure will be utilised for the present study.

Wellbeing in the Workplace

There is a great deal of research which focuses on how conditions within the workplace negatively impact wellbeing. For example, substantial research examining the adverse outcomes of stress in the workplace upholds the notion that prolonged experience of negative emotions depletes psychological resources and consequently, individuals are more prone to physical and psychological illness (Robertson & Cooper, 2011). Furthermore, psychosocial and organisational working conditions such as employee workloads, decision making input, and social support can all impact the psychological wellbeing of employees (Lawson, Noblet & Rodwell, 2009). While this research is helpful in identifying problems and provides insight into what can go wrong in the workplace, the shift of focus onto positive mental health in recent times illuminates the importance of addressing aspects within the organisational setting which contribute to positive psychological health.

To illustrate, the importance of obtaining some value or meaning from work is well recognised. For example, Locke and Taylor (1990) argue that individuals "seek to derive certain values from work (e.g. material, a sense of purpose, enhancement of one's self-concept)" (p. 140), to the extent that they experience stress when their ability to attain values is jeopardised. Similarly, Robertson and Cooper (2011) argue that when individuals feel their work is rewarding, comprised of positive relationships with co-workers as well as opportunities to frequently experience a sense of achievement is paramount in their psychological wellbeing. Warr (1987) has postulated that in addition to its discernible function as a source of income, work can in fact contribute benefits to employees in terms of its ability to define a person's identity, self-esteem and psychological wellbeing. Together,

these findings support the argument that engaging in something that gives meaning and purpose, such as work, can provide us with the important “eudaimonic experience” which contributes to our overall psychological wellbeing.

People who are psychologically well ultimately work more effectively and deliver important advantages to their organisations (Robertson & Cooper, 2011). There is substantial research supporting the notion that organisations achieve better results when employee psychological wellbeing is higher. For example, one specific factor associated with productivity is employees’ perceptions that their organisation shows concern for their wellbeing. When this is the case, organisations can expect to see higher productivity levels (Patterson, Warr & West, 2004). Moliner, Martinez-Tur, Ramos, Peiró and Cropanzano (2008) found that within the service industry where staff wellbeing is higher, employees are more inclined to “go the extra mile”. Not surprisingly, job performance is also directly linked to employee psychological wellbeing. In one substantial piece of research carried out by Harter, Schmidt and Keyes (2003), significant associations were found between employees’ wellbeing scores and business unit level outcomes including customer satisfaction, productivity, profitability, employee turnover and sickness-absence levels. Hence, it seems justifiable that when organisations promote a healthy working environment for their employees they will reap the benefits on many levels. Many organisations are already on board with this idea. For example, in an attempt to promote employee wellbeing, Google provides on-site healthcare facilities, exercise classes and courses such as cooking classes and guitar lessons (Goodnet, 2018).

Psychopathy and Wellbeing

Ultimately, psychological wellbeing is seen as an important part of healthy functioning and work performance. However, there is currently very little research within the organisational literature pertaining to the wellbeing of the corporate psychopath. As we have seen, the corporate psychopath’s maladaptive traits may impede in their ability to function as a psychologically healthy individual. For example, Martens (2014) has suggested that psychopaths are at times aware of the impact their behaviour has on others and they may be genuinely upset as a result of their inability to control it. Furthermore, psychopaths live lives that are lacking stable social networks or warm, close bonds which can sadden them, particularly when they see the love and friendship others share knowing they cannot be a part of it. While some psychopaths may be superficially adapted to their environment and even popular, they acknowledge that they have to meticulously shroud their true nature as it is undesirable to those around them. This results in psychopaths having to make a burdensome choice: either adapt and navigate through a life that is empty and spurious, or

not adapt and live a lonesome life isolated from others. The need for excessive stimulation is common for psychopaths which is why they are often drawn to the fast paced corporate world. However, psychopaths often experience disillusionment along their ventures due to unrealistic expectations and conflicts with others. Together, these findings illuminate that on the outside psychopaths may appear selfish, callous and nasty with little emotion, however, they may suffer internally as a result of their traits.

Psychopathy, Wellbeing and the Job-Demands Resources Model

The current study proposes that the effect of psychopathy on wellbeing can be conceptualised in terms of the Job Demands-Resources model (JD-R model). The JD-R model has become extremely prominent in the academic field and is acknowledged as one of the leading models of job stress (Schaufeli & Taris, 2014). At the core of the JD-R model is the notion that despite the type of job, the psychosocial features of the occupation can be classified into two groups: job demands and job resources (Demerouti, Bakker, Nachreiner & Schaufeli, 2001; Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004). Job demands are described as those conditions of a job which involve continuous physical and/or psychological effort and consequently, are linked to various physiological and/or psychological costs (Demerouti et al., 2001). Conversely, job resources have been described as the physical, psychological, social or organisational facets of a job that; 1. Can diminish job demands along with the related physiological and psychological costs; 2. Promote the achievement of occupational goals, and; 3. Encourage personal growth, learning and development (Hakanen, Schaufeli & Ahola, 2008).

Thus, job resources can either be intrinsically motivating due to the fact that they support employees' growth, learning and development, or they may be extrinsically motivating as they encourage the achievement of occupational goals. In the former case, job resources appease fundamental psychological needs (Deci & Ryan, 1985), including the needs for autonomy (DeCharms, 1968), competence (White, 1959) and relatedness (Baumeister & Leary, 1995). Job resources may also be extrinsically motivating, given that workplaces which provide a variety of resources promote the enthusiasm to commit one's efforts and skills to the task at hand. In such cases, it is probable that work tasks will be successfully carried out and occupational goals will be achieved. For example, having supportive co-workers and obtaining accurate feedback from superiors enhance the likelihood of successfully attaining workplace goals. In either case, be it through the gratification of psychological needs or through the attainment of occupational goals, the presence of job resources promotes engagement, while a lack of resources elicits a cynical attitude towards the job (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007).

Hence, it is widely acknowledged that while job demands generally predict negative outcomes such as burnout (e.g. Bakker, Demerouti & Verbeke, 2004) and reduced physical and psychological wellbeing (e.g. Bakker, Demerouti, De Boer & Schaufeli, 2003; Hakanen et al., 2008; Bakker, Demerouti & Schaufeli, 2003) job resources are typically the most influential predictors of work enjoyment, motivation, and engagement (Bakker, Hakanen, Demerouti & Xanthopoulou, 2007; Bakker, Van Veldhoven & Xanthopoulou, 2010). Therefore, job demands and job resources provoke two independent psychological processes which eventually impact crucial organisational outcomes. These are, the health impairment process and the motivational process. These two exclusive processes occur because job demands ultimately require effort and deplete energetic resources leading to impaired health and strain (health impairment process), while job resources promote motivation and commitment (motivational process) (Hakanen et al., 2008).

In this study the TriPM dimensions are conceptualised in terms of their potential to either increase or decrease the effects of job demands and limit or give access to greater resources which in turn, will influence wellbeing. Specifically, it is proposed that the traits and behaviours associated with disinhibition and meanness exacerbate the negative effects of job demands while limiting access to important job resources which results in reduced wellbeing. As Patrick and colleagues (2009) point out, those who demonstrate disinhibition are irresponsible, impatient, and often partake in impulsive behaviours. Those who demonstrate meanness are arrogant, aggressively competitive, demonstrate predatory aggression and gain empowerment through cruelty towards others. These behaviours are known to damage social relationships (Guelker, 2012) and thereby limit the individual's access to social support. Support from colleagues and supervisors is one of the valuable resources described in the JD-R model (Bakker et al., 2004), helping to buffer against the effects of various other demands associated with the job. Therefore individuals who are meaner and more disinhibited are likely to experience greater strain and reduced wellbeing. Conversely, the traits and behaviours associated with boldness may in fact decrease the negative effects of job demands while giving access to greater resources on the job. As Patrick and colleagues (2009) point out, those who demonstrate boldness possess a more adaptive interpersonal style whereby they demonstrate resilience, self-confidence and a high level of social poise. This may allow these individuals to gain access to resources such as social support (Guelker, 2012) which in turn, may assist them in successfully meeting the demands of their job while promoting the achievement of occupational goals and encouraging personal growth, learning and development. Furthermore, the bold individual's tendency to be resilient in times of stress indicates they may be less inclined to suffer psychologically in the face of various demands on the job. Hence, it is proposed that those

who demonstrate boldness may be more able to fulfil basic psychological needs, such as the needs for autonomy, relatedness and competence and therefore will demonstrate higher levels of wellbeing. Therefore, on the basis of the JD-R model, the following hypotheses were formulated.

H1a: Disinhibition will predict lower levels of wellbeing.

H1b: Meanness will predict lower levels of wellbeing.

H1c: Boldness will predict higher levels of wellbeing.

Burnout

As we have seen, job related wellbeing is extremely important for healthy functioning and workplace performance. Job burnout is an explicit and severe form of disturbed job related wellbeing which is not only an unpleasant experience, but can also substantially impact an individual's functioning within the workplace (Sonnentag, 2015). There is general consensus amongst researchers that burnout can be described as a psychological syndrome emerging as a prolonged response to chronic interpersonal stressors on the job (Maslach & Leiter, 2016). In order to gain an adequate understanding of the ways in which burnout influences employees both in the individual and workplace contexts, it is first necessary to gauge the evolution of the burnout construct and how it is measured to illuminate its vastness as well as its interacting factors.

Models of burnout

Some of the earliest burnout researchers derived from a social and clinical psychology background as thus were drawn towards applicable ideas from these areas. The social perspective employed constructs pertaining to interpersonal relations, such as how individuals perceive and respond to others. These included detached concern, dehumanisation in self-defence and attribution processes. Additionally, this perspective involved concepts surrounding motivation and emotion, particularly with regard to coping and emotional arousal. Likewise, the clinical view also involved motivation and emotion, however, these concepts were encompassed more in terms of psychological disorders, including depression. Subsequent researchers from the organisational psychology field accentuated work attitudes and behaviours. By this stage, burnout had been conceptualised as a form of job stress, however the dominant focus was on the organisational context and less on the physical aspects of the perceived stress. Emerging from this early descriptive work were the three dimensions of experienced burnout. The exhaustion dimension, the

depersonalisation (or cynicism) dimension and the reduced personal accomplishment (or inefficacy) dimension (Maslach & Leiter, 2016).

The emotional exhaustion dimension depicts the basic personal strain component of burnout. It measures feelings of being overworked and indicates the depletion of a person's emotional and physical resources. The depersonalisation dimension refers to the interpersonal context component of burnout and reveals a negative, callous or excessively detached reaction to various facets of the job. The dimension of reduced accomplishment measures the self-evaluation component of burnout and refers to feelings of incompetence as well as depleted achievement and productivity on the job (Maslach & Leiter, 2008).

Amongst the vast amount of research on burnout, exhaustion is the most widely reported and the most thoroughly analysed dimension. While exhaustion represents the strain component of burnout, on its own, it ignores the crucial elements of the relationships which employees have with their work. Exhaustion is not something that is merely experienced. In fact, it spurs behaviours aimed to separate oneself emotionally and cognitively from the job, seemingly as a technique to cope with being overextended at work (Maslach & Leiter, 2008). As mentioned, depersonalisation refers to an employee striving to establish distance between oneself and various aspects of work, and is thought to be an immediate response to exhaustion. Research has consistently demonstrated a strong relationship from exhaustion to depersonalisation across a large variety of different occupations (Maslach & Leiter, 2005).

The third dimension of reduced personal accomplishment illustrates a more complicated relationship to the first two dimensions, in some cases being directly related to them and at other times being more independent (Maslach & Leiter, 2008). For example, a work scenario with chronic overwhelming demands that lead to exhaustion or depersonalisation is likely to diminish an individual's sense of efficiency. Furthermore, it is a challenging endeavour to cultivate a sense of accomplishment while experiencing exhaustion (Maslach, Schaufeli & Leiter, 2001). However, in other work situations, lowered personal accomplishment seems to develop in parallel with the other two dimensions of burnout rather than sequentially (Marek, Schaufeli & Maslach, 2017). It has also been established that diminished personal accomplishment seems to come about more evidently as a result of not being able to obtain important resources, whereas exhaustion and depersonalisation are more likely to occur due to work overload and social conflict (Maslach et al., 2001).

While some measures assess multiple aspects of burnout, including the dimensions discussed above, others focus solely on the exhaustion component. The discrepancy

between measures which evaluate multiple dimensions of burnout and those which evaluate the sole dimension of exhaustion is indicative of differing conceptualisations of burnout (Maslach & Leiter, 2016). For instance, the Burgen Burnout Inventory (BBI; Maarit, Rantanen, Hyvonen, Mäkikangas, Huhtala, Pihlajasaari & Kinnunen, 2013) evaluates three dimensions of burnout: exhaustion at work, cynicism toward the meaning of work and a sense of inadequacy at work. Comparably, the Oldenburg Burnout Inventory (OLBI; Maslach & Jackson, 1981) measures two dimensions: exhaustion and disengagement from work. Other burnout measures solely focus on exhaustion, however they make a distinction between different aspects of exhaustion. For example, The Shirom-Melamed Burnout Measure (SMBM; Shirom & Melamed, 2006) differentiates between physical fatigue, emotional exhaustion and cognitive weariness. Similarly, the Copenhagen Burnout Inventory (CBI; Kristensen, Borritz, Villadsen & Christensen, 2005) distinguishes between physical and psychological exhaustion.

A widely used measure based on a comprehensive program of psychometric research is the Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI) developed by Maslach and Jackson (1981) which measures all three of the burnout dimensions established in the early years of burnout research: emotional exhaustion, depersonalisation and reduced personal accomplishment. Schaufeli and Enzmann (1998) argue that the MBI has been utilised in over 90 percent of all empirical burnout studies globally, which virtually gives it monopoly status in the field. This three dimensional construct remains popular due to the fact that it situates the experience of personal strain within the social context of the job and includes the individual's perception of both self and others (Marek et al., 2017). A shorter abbreviated version of the MBI (aMBI; McManus, Jonvik, Richards & Paice, 2011) has also been developed which will be utilised in the current study to examine burnout due to its comprehensive multidimensional nature and convenient utilisation. Ultimately, measuring burnout using these three dimensions has permitted researchers to assiduously demonstrate the factors which contribute to burnout as well as demonstrate how burnout influences individuals and organisations.

Predictors of Burnout

Historically, sources of job burnout have been categorised into three broad types: organisational, occupational and individual (Cordes & Dougherty, 1993). There are several organisational and occupational risk factors which have been identified in burnout research across many occupations (Maslach & Leiter, 2005; Maslach et al., 2001; Schaufeli & Enzmann, 1998), and these factors can be summarised within six key domains of the workplace environment: workload, control, reward, community, fairness and values (Maslach et al., 2001).

Job overload is a frequently discussed antecedent of burnout and refers to job demands which exceed human limits. It has been consistently demonstrated in the literature that as workload increases, so does burnout and this is particularly so for the exhaustion aspect (Cordes & Dougherty, 1993; Maslach et al., 2001; Schaufeli & Enzmann, 1998). Job overload leads to exhaustion by depleting an employee's capacity to meet the demands of their work. When employees are unable to recover from job demands, they can experience acute fatigue as a result. When this kind of overload is ongoing, as opposed to just occurring occasionally, the employee has very little opportunity to rest, recover and restore balance (Maslach & Leiter, 2008).

Another source of burnout revolves around an employee's perceptions of personal control while on the job. Threats to an individual's personal control can occur when they experience role conflict which can occur when an employee is expected to perform multiple roles at work (Maslach & Leiter, 2008). Various studies have demonstrated a strong association between role conflict and the exhaustion aspect of burnout (Cordes & Dougherty, 1993; Schaufeli, Bakker, Van der Heijden & Prins, 2009). Role ambiguity, which refers to the absence of direction in work, is also linked to higher reports of burnout, however, these findings have been less consistent than those linking role conflict to burnout. While role conflict directly inhibits a course of action, role ambiguity may in fact improve some work scenarios through providing employees with the freedom to pursue their inner values (Maslach, & Leiter, 2008). People's vulnerability to burnout also increases when they experience insufficient rewards in the workplace. Rewards can entail financial, institutional or social rewards (e.g. Chappell & Novak, 1992; Glick, 1983; Maslanka, 1996). For example, when employees feel their hard work is not being recognised by clients, co-workers, or superiors, they can feel as though their efforts are being devalued which, as a consequence, can lead to feelings of inefficacy (Cordes & Dougherty, 1993).

A sense of community pertains to the overall value of social interaction on the job, which includes issues relating to conflict, mutual support and closeness with others as well as the capability to contribute to a team (Maslach, & Leiter, 2008). So far, research on burnout has largely concentrated on social support from supervisors, co-workers and family members (Cordes & Dougherty, 1993; Greenglass, Fiksenbaum & Burke, 1995) and noticeable relationships have been discovered for informal support from colleagues and support from superiors (Jackson, Schwab & Schuler, 1986). Furthermore, studies assessing community orientation (e.g. Marek et al., 2017) have consistently demonstrated that burnout is less likely to occur within a positive and supportive workplace.

When an employee feels they are being treated unfairly at work, they are also more susceptible to burnout. Fairness is the fundamental aspect underpinning equity theory (Walster, Berscheid & Walster, 1973), which holds that the way in which people determine the balance between their inputs (e.g. time, effort, expertise) and outputs (e.g. rewards, recognition) forms their perceptions of equity in the workplace. In utilising this theoretical framework, it has been discovered that while imbalanced social exchange processes can be a source of burnout (Bakker, Schaufeli, Demerouti, Janssen, Van Der Hulst & Brouwer, 2000), individuals who view their superiors as being both fair and supportive in their exchanges are less likely to report burnout (Leiter & Harvie, 1997).

People tend to be attracted to occupations which are congruent with their morals, values and inner ideals. When there is a good fit between individuals and their work they become more motivated to pursue organisational goals. When an employee experiences a situation where their values are being challenged, it ultimately creates a gap between their own values and those of the organisation. In this kind of situation, employees may find themselves making a trade-off between work they want to do and work they have to do (Maslach & Leiter, 2008). Research has demonstrated that conflict in values is associated with all three dimensions of burnout (Leiter & Harvie, 1997; Leiter, & Maslach, 2005).

The study of individual level predictors of burnout has been far less systematic than organisational and occupational predictors, with demographics having been the primary individual differences used to predict job burnout (Swider & Zimmerman, 2010). Of the demographic variables that have been studied, age has been most consistently linked to burnout with younger employees reporting higher levels of burnout compared to those individuals over 30 or 40 years of age (Maslach et al., 2001).

Several personality traits have also been investigated in an attempt to determine which types of people may be more prone to experiencing burnout. Research on the Big Five personality traits has demonstrated that burnout is linked to the neuroticism dimension. Neuroticism encompasses trait anxiety, hostility, depression, self-consciousness and vulnerability. People who are neurotic tend to be emotionally unstable as well as susceptible to psychological distress (Maslach et al., 2001), hence it is understandable why such individuals may be more inclined to experience burnout. One study conducted by Swider and Zimmerman (2010) concluded that the Big Five personality traits were robust predictors of job burnout. They found that individuals higher in neuroticism and lower in extraversion, conscientiousness and agreeableness were more susceptible to burnout. These findings highlight that using individuals' personalities to predict burnout should augment existing

findings, specifically considering that personality traits are relatively stable across time (Conley, 1984), in comparison to unstable situational predictors such as workload.

Outcomes of Burnout

Research shows that burnout is associated with several negative health outcomes including headaches/gastrointestinal disorders, muscle tension, hypertension, cold/flu episodes and sleep disturbances (Maslach & Leiter, 2008). Additionally, it is a significant predictor of psychological distress, and it is well established that burnout is linked to depression (Ahola & Hakanen, 2007; Hakanen et al., 2008). There is also some evidence that burnout has a spill-over effect on people's home life (Maslach et al., 2001) indicating that the effects of burnout are far reaching and can have negative consequences for family members as well.

Research has also established that burnout is linked to several adverse reactions towards work such as absenteeism, intention to leave the job and turnover (Maslach & Leiter, 2008). For those who choose to remain in their jobs, burnout precipitates reduced productivity and effectiveness (Maslach et al., 2001) and subsequently, job satisfaction declines along with a decreased commitment towards work and the organisation (Lee & Ashforth, 1996). Furthermore, employees afflicted by burnout can have a negative impact on their co-workers, through initiating personal conflicts as well as disrupting job tasks. In this sense, burnout can in fact be "contagious" and perpetuate itself through informal interactions in the workplace (Maslach et al., 2001).

There is less direct evidence to suggest that burnout is associated with impaired job performance, as most of this data has been collected using self-report methods which can undermine the findings, for example, as a result of response bias (Maslach & Leiter, 2008). However, research conducted within healthcare facilities has indicated that nurses afflicted by burnout were judged independently by their patients to be providing a lower level of patient care (Leiter, Harvie & Frizzell, 1998; Vahey, Aiken, Sloane, Clarke & Vargas, 2004). Another study of police officers established a relationship between burnout and the use of violence against civilians (Kop, Euwema & Schaufeli, 1999). Overall the current literature paints a fairly robust picture of what precipitates burnout and the outcomes it has on individuals and organisations. Building upon this knowledge, it seems future research holds the key to investigating this concept more comprehensively and to examine what works and what doesn't when it comes to countering this phenomenon.

Psychopathy and Burnout

It is important to consider the significant gap in the literature with regard to the individual factors which may contribute to burnout. While studies on some personality traits (e.g. the Big Five) have been linked to burnout (e.g. Swider & Zimmerman, 2010), there is currently very little literature pertaining to burnout within individuals who possess psychopathic traits. Two studies have been identified which have examined psychopathy in relation to workplace stress within police officers. One assessed the outcome of job strain (Bartol, Bergen, Volckens & Knoras, 1992) and the other assessed job stressors as an outcome (Beutler, Nussbaum & Meredith, 1988). However, neither of these studies found significant relationships between psychopathy and these stress variables. Another study carried out by Johnson, Beehr and O'Brien (2015) found that both primary and secondary psychopathy were positively related to emotional exhaustion. Hence, results pertaining to the relationship between psychopathy and burnout so far seem to be somewhat mixed and worthy of further inquiry.

Psychopathy, Burnout and the Job Demands-Resources Model

In line with the JD-R model, job demands have been well established as an antecedent of burnout (Bakker et al., 2004; Demerouti et al., 2001) while job resources are largely acknowledged as an antecedent of its positive counterpart - work engagement (Mauno, Kinnunen & Ruokolainen, 2007; Hakanen et al., 2008). For example, Bakker and colleagues (2004) found that job demands (including work load and emotional demands) were the most influential predictors of exhaustion while job resources (including autonomy and social support) had a negative relationship to disengagement. In a very similar study utilising a wider range of job demands and resources, Demerouti and colleagues (2001) found that job demands were primarily and positively related to exhaustion, while job resources were primarily and negatively related to work disengagement. These studies indicate that when job resources are lacking, individuals are more prone to disengagement. Furthermore, the JD-R model anticipates that job resources alleviate the negative influences of job demands on exhaustion (Schaufeli & Taris, 2014). Ultimately, having access to lots of job resources protects individuals from burnout because high numbers of resources permit individuals to satisfy job demands and protect themselves from strain (Tims, Bakker & Derks, 2013).

As discussed, the current study proposes that the traits and behaviours associated with disinhibition and meanness are likely to impede in individuals gaining access to important resources (such as social support), while exacerbating the negative effects of job demands. This may ultimately result in individuals having to devote continuous

psychological effort to deal with these issues, ultimately resulting in psychological costs including higher levels of burnout. Hence, it is proposed that those high in disinhibition and meanness will demonstrate higher levels of burnout. On the contrary, those who are high in boldness may be adept at accumulating important resources on the job which may reduce the negative influence of job demands, including the associated psychological costs, ultimately resulting in lower levels of burnout. Hence, the current study proposes the following:

H2a: Disinhibition will predict higher levels of emotional exhaustion.

H2b: Meanness will predict higher levels of emotional exhaustion.

H2c: Boldness will predict lower levels of emotional exhaustion.

H3a: Disinhibition will predict higher levels of depersonalisation.

H3b: Meanness will predict higher levels of depersonalisation.

H3c: Boldness will predict lower levels of depersonalisation.

H4a: Disinhibition will predict higher levels of reduced personal accomplishment.

H4b: Meanness will predict higher levels of reduced personal accomplishment.

H4c: Boldness will predict lower levels of reduced personal accomplishment.

Authenticity

The notion of authenticity is a complicated concept which has its origins in philosophical conceptions of what it means to be human. There are several different conceptualisations of authenticity, but the general argument is that individuals are better off if they behave in ways which reflect who they really are (Sutton, 2018). It is important to consider the competing views of authenticity to gain a complete understanding of the construct, how it has evolved and how it is being utilised across various psychological domains.

Conceptualisations of Authenticity

Trait theorists, many of whom embrace the Big Five model of personality, hold that individuals are assumed to possess trans-contextual personality dispositions which are largely stable across time, situations and social roles (McCrae & Costa, 1984). According to this view not only do our traits characterise us, but they may be “our very selves” (McCrae & Costa, 1994, p. 175). Hence, to be true to oneself is to exhibit behaviours consistent with one’s own latent traits. This notion is illustrated in work conducted by Donahue, Robins,

Roberts and John (1993), who discovered that individuals who exhibited lots of inconsistency in their trait profiles across different roles demonstrated lower wellbeing. Similarly, Roberts and Donahue (1994) found that in situations where individuals deviate from their general or characteristic style within a particular role, they are more likely to experience discontentment within that role. The trait perspective however, has incurred notable criticism precisely due to its focus on stability or consistency, seemingly neglecting the impact of social-contextual factors on personality (McAdams, 1992; Pervin, 1994). Hence, this perspective may not provide a complete description of personality and what it means to be true to our very selves.

An alternative view, which emphasises a more contextual and dynamic view of the individual suggests that not all situations or roles are favourable for an individual to exhibit choiceful and authentic behaviour and consequently, there are expectable within subject differences in the extent to which authenticity is experienced within different behavioural territories (Ryan, 1995; Sheldon, Ryan, Rawsthorne & Ilardi, 1997). In other words, individuals may vary in different contexts the extent to which they connect with and enact their true feelings and values. This can occur because an individual's natural inclinations may be at odds with prevailing environmental dictates (Kernis & Goldman, 2006). As research has demonstrated, acting in a manner that is in conflict with a person's true self solely to appease controlling pressures often results in detrimental outcomes (Deci & Ryan, 2000). However, when individuals comply with environmental contingencies, it does not always mean they are acting in an incongruent manner with their true selves. Individuals can, and often do, embody social contingencies, that is, they willingly embrace them as self-guides (Ryan & Connell, 1989). In these situations, conflict may be minimal or not occur at all and therefore, they still operate authentically (Kernis & Goldman, 2006). This research highlights that roles and situations can be assumed to differently afford support for authentic self-expression and self-organised behaviours, and some roles may foster false self-presentations or departures from how one might ideally choose to be (Sheldon et al., 1997). It also highlights the complexity of the authenticity construct, whereby a subjective feeling of authenticity can still include inconsistent behaviour, particularly in the context of internalised social or environmental dictates.

Self-determination theorists (e.g. Ryan & Deci, 2000; Sheldon & Kasser, 1995) recognise authenticity as self-determined or self-initiated behaviours that are in line with basic psychological needs of competency, autonomy and relatedness (Ménard & Brunet, 2011). In accordance with this perspective, various behaviours, values and self-presentations can be assumed as more or less authentic or characteristic of the true self (Ryan, LaGuardia & Rawsthorne, 2005). Comparably, humanistic theorists recognise

authenticity as self-respect and respect of one's needs and values (Barnett & Deutsch, 2016). Rogers (1963) has argued that living outside of one's true self can be considered detrimental to wellbeing and an obstacle which one must overcome in order to attain self-achievement. He even goes so far as to argue that the feeling of authenticity is the most important experience in achieving full functionality.

Taken together, authentic features of personality are those that are entirely self-endorsed, volitionally expressed and personally meaningful to the person. When an individual is authentic in this sense, their motivation, quality of experience and wellbeing are enhanced (Ryan et al., 2005). In consideration of the various conceptualisations of authenticity, many models of authenticity have been formulated by academics as a means to explain, organise and measure authenticity in practical and comprehensive ways.

Models of Authenticity

Through an examination of the philosophical debates surrounding authenticity and psychological research on optimal self-esteem and psychological functioning, Kernis and Goldman (2006) presented a model of authenticity, suggesting four essential facets of trait authenticity: awareness, unbiased processing, behaviour, and relational orientation. Awareness refers to the degree of knowledge pertaining to oneself and the motivation to cultivate it and trust in that knowledge. That is, knowing and recognising of all parts of the self, such as strengths and weaknesses, desires and motives, and not just acknowledging the parts of the self which reinforce one's overarching self-concept. Awareness also incorporates an inclination to learn more about oneself as a way to increase self-knowledge. Unbiased processing refers to the admissible absence of interpretative misrepresentations in processing self-relevant information. In this sense, objectively evaluating both internal and external self-relevant information leads to an accurate sense of self, free of distortions, biases or defence mechanisms. The behaviour facet entails acting in congruence with one's values, preferences and needs and can be viewed as an expression of autonomy. However, in order to enact this aspect of authenticity, an individual must have firmly established the first two aspects – awareness and unbiased processing. Relational orientation is about admiring and obtaining openness and truthfulness in close relationships. This relies on active self-disclosure and openness to conveying both the good and bad parts of oneself to close others. These four facets have been measured with the Authenticity Inventory 3 (AI3). While this model provides a well-rounded insight into authenticity given that it involves investigating people's awareness, actions and relationships, it is also very complex. In order to assess authenticity using the AI3, individuals must possess deep insight and adequate

comprehension of complex questions. It is also a lengthy process to assess all of these components using the 45 item AI3 (Mengers, 2014).

Drawing from organismic and existential approaches, Wood, Linley, Maltby, Baliousis and Joseph (2008) offer an alternative view of authenticity. They defined authenticity as “consistency between the three levels of (a) a person’s primary experience, (b) their symbolised awareness, and (c) their outward behaviour and communication” (Barrett-Lennard, 1998, p. 82). The first aspect of authenticity entails the imminent mismatch between the conscious awareness and actual experience. From this view, it is impossible to have precise congruence between these aspects of experience, and it is the extent of self-alienation an individual experiences between their conscious awareness and actual experience which comprises this first aspect. The second aspect concerns the congruence between consciously perceived experience and behaviour. Authentic living refers to individuals behaving and expressing emotions in a manner which is compatible with their conscious awareness of physiological states, emotions, beliefs and cognitions. The third aspect of authenticity involves the degree to which an individual acknowledges other people’s influences as well as the belief that one has to adapt to meet the expectations of others. Introjecting other people’s views and accepting external influence is said to impact both feelings of self-alienation and the experience of authentic living (Wood et al., 2008). In order to measure the “authentic personality” through utilising this model, Wood and Colleagues (2008) developed the 12 item Authenticity Scale (AS) comprised of three subscales: self-alienation, authentic living and accepting external influence. This scale is substantially shorter than the AI3 indicating its usefulness in both practical and academic settings.

Ultimately, both approaches seem to cover similar content in that they take into consideration an awareness of one’s internal experiences and the degree to which people behave in accordance with their internal values as opposed to conforming to the expectations of others (White, 2011). However, utilisations of these models in organisational research is extremely limited (Knoll et al., 2015). Ménard and Brunet (2011) utilised the AI3 and discovered that authenticity was linked to subjective wellbeing in the workplace. The only utilisation of the AS in the workplace was a cross sectional study carried out by Van den Bosch and Taris (2014). This study revealed that the only significant relationships between authenticity and work-related variables were found for the subscales authentic living and self-alienation and relationships for the subscale external influence were weak or did not occur at all. Ultimately ambiguities in the conceptualisation of authenticity, coupled with a lack of sufficient measures presents difficulties in gaining insight into authenticity within the organisational setting.

An Integrated Measure of Authenticity

It appears there are two aspects that most conceptualisations of authenticity share, one self-oriented and one expression oriented (Knoll et al., 2015). A self and an expression oriented component is visible within various conceptualisations of authenticity including those discussed above. To further illustrate, Sheldon (2004) indicates authenticity as “accurately representing - privately and publicly - internal states, intentions and commitments” (p. 249). Harter (2002) who explored authenticity and false self-development across the lifespan takes from the two dictums “know thyself” and “be thyself” to refer to authenticity. In the self-help literature, Guignon (2004) notes that authenticity constitutes “(1) knowing what you believe and feel and (2) honestly expressing those beliefs and feelings in what you do” (p. 150). Essentially, drawing from the common characteristics of previous approaches, Knoll and colleagues (2015) integrated conceptualisations of authenticity based on their conceptual overlap into a new two-dimensional model comprising of both a self-directed and an expression-oriented component.

From this view, individuals who possess high levels of authentic self-awareness have a good understanding of themselves and are driven to deepen their self-understanding. Conducive to achieving this self-understanding, individuals high in authenticity investigate the reasons for their cognitions, emotions and behaviours. This is a continuous process whereby individuals take notice of informational cues from external (e.g. how others react to their actions) and internal sources (e.g. what they feel when achieving a goal). As a result of this exploration, individuals develop a temporary congruent identity to which those with high authentic self-awareness commit themselves (Knoll & Van Dick, 2013). In committing themselves in this way, an individual is able to anchor their expression in self-acceptance and self-confidence (Guignon, 2004; Kernis & Goldman, 2006). The extent to which these commitments reveal themselves in an individual’s expressions (such as their behaviour, clothing, facial expression) dictates the extent of their authentic self-expression. The structure of these two aspects illuminate the notion that, while they are discrete, they are in fact connected to each other in a dynamic interplay (Knoll & Van Dick, 2013).

Using this theoretical model, Knoll and colleagues (2015) developed the Integrated Authenticity Scale (IAS), a parsimonious measure for assessing the crucial characteristics of authenticity for use in a non-clinical setting. The IAS demonstrated good psychometric properties and through further analyses the authors confirmed its usefulness for research within an organisational setting. The authors provided support for this model in organisational research by demonstrating evidence for authenticity’s association with

antecedents of responsible organisational behaviour such as insight and moral courage. Given its suitability, the current study will utilise the IAS as a measure of authenticity.

Outcomes of Authenticity

Authenticity in organisations is important because most individuals are either employed by an organisation themselves, or their wellbeing and health is in some way impacted by organisations such as schools, caring facilities or clubs amongst many others (Knoll et al., 2015). While the concept of authenticity is found to be associated with a fulfilling and satisfying life for individuals (e.g. Rogers, 1961; Taylor, 1992), Knoll and colleagues (2015) point out that authentic individuals may also foster healthy social environments which depend on individuals who have seized an understanding of themselves and behave in congruence with their inner values rather than complying with situational and social pressures. Grandey, Foo, Groth and Goodwin (2012) have investigated the notion of a “climate of authenticity” which refers to a shared perception regarding the degree that an organisation values and accepts self-expression of emotions among members of that organisation with an emphasis on negative emotions. This climate of authenticity can promote an environment which can buffer against the stressors associated with emotional labour. Hence, authenticity in the workplace can be considered both an individual and team level phenomenon.

Research into the link between authenticity and wellbeing in the workplace is still in its infancy. However, as research is evolving it has become clear that authenticity has potential value for understanding as well as cultivating conditions for healthy individuals and work environments. A number of studies have indicated the link between authenticity and hedonic or subjective wellbeing. Deci and Ryan (1985) and Ryan and Deci (2001) have found that authentic integration and the display of core self-aspects are positively linked to wellbeing. Sheldon and colleagues (1997) conducted a study on people’s wellbeing within various life roles. The results indicated that people who deliberately expressing valued features of the self in a role were less anxious, less depressed and less distressed compared to those who were more inconsistent with their core selves. They concluded that authenticity as the consistency of actions with the core self was positively linked to subjective wellbeing. Similarly, Ryan and colleagues (2005) found that authenticity of self-aspects was firmly linked to indicators of subjective wellbeing including depressive symptoms, anxiety and perceived stress. Goldman and Kernis (2002) pointed out that general authenticity was positively linked to life satisfaction and negatively linked to negative affect. Ultimately, these studies lend support the long held idea that living authentically has a positive outcome on one’s psychological wellbeing.

There are several studies which lend support to the idea that authenticity is important for wellbeing in terms of finding meaning and goal achievement, which is relevant to work. In their study on self-concordant goals, Sheldon, Kasser, Smith and Share (2002) demonstrated the importance of psychological wellbeing in terms of meaning, mastery, autonomy, relationships, purpose and growth how these factors positively influence the pursuit of self-concordant goals. Another study by McGregor and Little (1998) assessed the relationship between psychological wellbeing and the integrity of pursued goals. They discovered that integrity was positively linked to meaning and that integrity had a stronger relationship to wellbeing than efficacy. Ultimately, these studies support the notion that meaning is an essential aspect of eudaimonic wellbeing and it seems to be intimately related to authenticity.

In an attempt to contribute to the scarce literature on authenticity and wellbeing in the workplace, Ménard and Brunet (2011) assessed the relationship between authenticity and wellbeing amongst managers. Results indicated that managers who were more authentic were also more satisfied and experienced positive affect more frequently and negative affect less frequently. They also found that meaning of work was a significant partial mediator of the relationship between authenticity and subjective wellbeing. These findings are in line with various perspectives on the connection between authenticity, meaning and wellbeing.

Another study conducted by Sutton (2018) has also examined the link between authenticity and wellbeing at work. This study examined the distinct influences of authenticity and personality consistency on wellbeing at work. It was found that authenticity predicted a substantial proportion of wellbeing. The findings suggested that opposed to personality consistency, authenticity was the key contributing factor to wellbeing. Similar to findings from Ménard and Brunet (2011), results indicated that those who felt authentic were found to be less stressed and more satisfied. This study also indicated that authentic behaviour was shown to be agentic and goal directed, whereby goals tended to be more internal, involving behaving in accordance with one's inner values and moral code as opposed to behaving in ways to meet external requirements or material gains (e.g. promotion). Ultimately, while the research into authenticity and wellbeing at work is fairly scarce, all studies identified have presented promising results illuminating the importance of authenticity on wellbeing at work. These findings highlight that the promotion of authenticity in the workplace may have extremely beneficial outcomes for both individuals and organisations.

Authenticity, Wellbeing and Psychopathy

There is very limited research on how authenticity and wellbeing are related within psychopathic individuals. Only one study was identified considering this. Womick, Foltz and King (2019), assessed whether authenticity is linked to wellbeing even for those with dark personality traits, whose innermost impulses may stand apart from or even conflict with the greater good. Results indicated that the relationship between authenticity and wellbeing was moderated by undesirable traits, providing preliminary support for their hypothesis that for those high on the dark tetrad traits (Machiavellianism, Narcissism and Psychopathy), authenticity was not as strongly linked to wellbeing. Furthermore, among those low in authenticity, the dark tetrad composite predicted higher wellbeing. A possible explanation for this is that for a person who expresses their core self as deceitful, callous and manipulative for example, their behaviour can lead to negative consequences for their wellbeing. While this study alone does not provide robust evidence to ignore the substantial body of organisational literature indicating the positive link between authenticity and wellbeing, it does indicate that further research in this area is needed.

Authenticity as a Personal Resource

A fundamental development of the JD-R model is the incorporation of personal resources in the model and theory. Personal resources have been referred to as aspects of the self that are generally associated with resiliency, and concern a person's sense of their capacity to control and influence their environment successfully (Hobfoll, Johnson, Ennis & Jackson, 2003). For example, Judge, Van Vianen and De Pater (2004) have demonstrated that positive self-evaluations predict goal setting, motivation, performance, job and life satisfaction amongst various other advantageous outcomes. Previous research has also indicated that personal resources are not only associated with resilience to stress, but have positive influences on physical and emotional wellbeing as well (Chen, Gully & Eden, 2001; Pierce, Gardner, Cummings & Dunham, 1989; Scheier & Carver, 1992). It is argued that the reason personal resources have such a desirable effect is that the more personal resources an individual has, the more positive their self-regard and higher goal self-concordance is anticipated (Judge, Bono, Erez & Locke, 2005). Those who experience goal self-concordance tend to be inherently motivated towards goal pursuit and consequently, they generate higher performance and satisfaction (Luthans & Youssef, 2007).

Ultimately the literature so far points to the idea that personal resources have a positive impact on individuals, either through buffering the effects of job demands, or increasing the positive effect of job resources. For example Xanthopoulou, Bakker,

Demerouti and Schaufeli (2007) demonstrated that personal resources including self-efficacy, organisational based self-esteem and optimism, partially mediated the relationship between job resources and work engagement. Another longitudinal study carried out by Xanthopoulou, Bakker, Demerouti and Schaufeli (2009) indicated that over time, personal resources were reciprocal with job resources and work engagement. That is, job resources predicted personal resources and work engagement. Conversely, personal resources and work engagement successively predicted job resources. In addition to demonstrating the interactional effect between personal resources and job resources, these findings provide support for the notion that personal resources are inherent in achieving important work outcomes. As yet, there is only minimal literature pertaining to how personal resources interact with job demands. One survey study conducted by Tremblay and Messervey (2011) found that compassion satisfaction buffered the impact of role overload on job strain (anxiety and depression) indicating that personal resources may alleviate job demands on wellbeing. Thus, from a review of the literature so far, it seems personal resources ultimately function as sources of strength as such, or permit people to obtain further external sources of strength.

In line with the JD-R literature, the current study proposes that authenticity can be seen as a personal resource, whereby it protects individuals from the negative effects of job demands, and increases the positive effects of job resources. Due to the fact there is no current research in this area, and both moderation and mediation models are theoretically possible, the current study attempts to determine which model is the better fit. With regard to the moderation model, it is important to consider the large body of evidence supporting a positive link between authenticity and wellbeing (e.g. Ryan & Deci, 2001; Sheldon et al., 1997; Ryan et al., 2005). Not only is authenticity important for individual wellbeing it can also foster healthy social environments (Knoll et al., 2015) which can buffer against the stressors associated with emotional labour (Maslach, & Leiter, 2008). Hence, it is argued that the presence of authenticity will buffer the negative influences brought on by maladaptive traits (disinhibition, meanness) in terms of their effect on job demands and resources. Conversely, it is proposed that the presence of authenticity will increase the positive influences of boldness in terms of its effect on job demands and resources, thereby strengthening the relationship between all three dimensions of psychopathy and wellbeing, and weakening the relationship between all three dimensions of psychopathy and all three dimensions of burnout. Hence, it is hypothesised that:

H5a: Authenticity will strengthen the relationship between disinhibition and wellbeing.

H5b: Authenticity will strengthen the relationship between meanness and wellbeing.

H5c: Authenticity will strengthen the relationship between boldness and wellbeing.

H6a: Authenticity will weaken the relationship between disinhibition and emotional exhaustion.

H6b: Authenticity will weaken the relationship between meanness and emotional exhaustion.

H6c: Authenticity will weaken the relationship between boldness and emotional exhaustion.

H7a: Authenticity will weaken the relationship between disinhibition and depersonalisation.

H7b: Authenticity will weaken the relationship between meanness and depersonalisation.

H7c: Authenticity will weaken the relationship between boldness and depersonalisation.

H8a: Authenticity will weaken the relationship between disinhibition and reduced personal accomplishment.

H8b: Authenticity will weaken the relationship between meanness and reduced personal accomplishment.

H8c: Authenticity will weaken the relationship between boldness and reduced personal accomplishment.

In contrast to the moderated model, the mediated model suggests that the psychopathic traits themselves have an effect on an individual's authenticity, which in turn influences wellbeing and burnout. Only one relevant study was identified which utilised authenticity as a mediator between job resources and workplace outcomes. Metin, Taris, Peeters, Van Beek and Van den Bosch (2016) found that authenticity was positively associated with job resources, and authenticity mediated the relationships between job resources and work engagement, satisfaction and performance. In light of the influence of authenticity in these findings, it could be argued that authenticity also mediates the relationship between psychopathy and wellbeing and burnout. More specifically, for those with maladaptive psychopathic traits (disinhibition, meanness), authenticity may be lower in these individuals resulting in reduced wellbeing and higher levels of burnout. This assumption stems from research by Sheldon and colleagues (1997) who demonstrated that when individuals are displaying socially desirable traits they feel more authentic. More

recent research also suggests that the “authentic self” is perceived as morally good (Hicks, Schlegel & Newman, 2019). Hence, in the context of the current study, the presence of undesirable traits - disinhibition and meanness, means individuals may be less likely to feel authentic and as a result they will experience reduced wellbeing and higher levels of burnout. Conversely, authenticity may be higher for individuals who express the more adaptive boldness trait given that it is more socially desirable, and as a result this may have a positive influence on their wellbeing and they may be less likely to burn out. Hence, it is hypothesised that;

H9a: Authenticity will mediate the relationship between disinhibition and wellbeing. That is, disinhibition will be associated with lower authenticity, which in turn will result in lower wellbeing.

H9b: Authenticity will mediate the relationship between meanness and wellbeing. That is, meanness will be associated with lower authenticity, which in turn will result in lower wellbeing.

H9c: Authenticity will mediate the relationship between boldness and wellbeing. That is boldness will be associated with higher authenticity, which in turn will result in higher wellbeing.

H10a: Authenticity will mediate the relationship between disinhibition and emotional exhaustion. That is, disinhibition will be associated with lower authenticity, which in turn will result in higher levels of emotional exhaustion.

H10b: Authenticity will mediate the relationship between meanness and emotional exhaustion. That is, meanness will be associated with lower authenticity, which in turn will result in higher emotional exhaustion.

H10c: Authenticity will mediate the relationship between boldness and emotional exhaustion. That is, boldness will be associated with higher authenticity which in turn will result in lower emotional exhaustion.

H11a: Authenticity will mediate the relationship between disinhibition and depersonalisation. That is, disinhibition will be associated with lower authenticity, which in turn will result in higher depersonalisation.

H11b: Authenticity will mediate the relationship between meanness and depersonalisation. That is, meanness will be associated with lower authenticity, which in turn will result in higher depersonalisation.

H11c: Authenticity will mediate the relationship between boldness and depersonalisation. That is, boldness will be associated with higher authenticity, which in turn will result in lower depersonalisation.

H12a: Authenticity will mediate the relationship between disinhibition and reduced personal accomplishment. That is, disinhibition will be associated with lower authenticity, which in turn will result in higher levels of reduced personal accomplishment.

H12b: Authenticity will mediate the relationship between meanness and reduced personal accomplishment. That is, meanness will be associated with lower authenticity, which in turn will result in higher levels of reduced personal accomplishment.

H12c: Authenticity will mediate the relationship between boldness and reduced personal accomplishment. That is, boldness will be associated with higher authenticity, which in turn will result in lower levels of reduced personal accomplishment.

Summary

This study investigates the impact of individuals' psychopathy on their own wellbeing and tendency to burnout amongst managers across various industries in New Zealand. Through utilising the Job Demands-Resources model, the current study conceptualises the three psychopathy traits (disinhibition, meanness, boldness) in terms of their effect on job demands and resources in order to explain their influence on wellbeing and burnout. Authenticity is conceptualised as a personal resource that may moderate or mediate these relationships. The method utilised in this study is discussed in Chapter 2, followed by the results in Chapter 3. The final chapter will present a discussion of the results.

Chapter Two: Method

Procedures

This research project was approved by the School of Psychology Research and Ethics Committee of the Faculty of Arts and Social Sciences, University of Waikato. The data used for the current study was originally collected for the purposes of developing and validating short self-report and short other-report measures for manager psychopathy, built on the Triarchic Psychopathy Measure (TriPM) developed by Patrick (2010) and to discover the ways in which psychopathy is linked to a number of variables within workplace settings. The sampling provider Research Now was employed to gather quantitative, longitudinal data from New Zealand managers and New Zealand employees via an online survey at two time points between October 2018 and December 2018.

The recruitment of participants at time 1 produced 679 managers and 697 employees. Upon reconnection with the participants after four weeks following the completion of the first survey 300 managers and 331 employees were retained indicating a 44.2% and 47.5% retention rate respectively. Personal ID's for each participant were produced through the survey software and these ID's were used to match the responses of participants' at time 1 (T1) and time 2 (T2). Both T1 and T2 surveys were identical however, demographics were collected only once at T1.

Participants

The sample of managers at T1 were 43% female and 56% male and there was a small number of participants who either preferred not to state their gender or identified as a gender other than male or female. The mean age for managers was 42.7 years ($SD = 13.2$) and the average time working in their current occupation was 7.45 years. Of these managers, 14.3% were working in retail and accommodation and 12.3% in education and training. The sample of managers at T2 had a similar proportion of industry sectors as T1. Forty six percent were female and 53% were male with a small number of participants preferring not to state their gender. The mean age for participants at T2 was 46.5 years ($SD = 21.5$).

Measures

For the purposes of the current study, managers' self-report measures on psychopathy and authenticity at T1 and wellbeing and burnout at T2 were utilised.

Psychopathy: In order to assess manager psychopathy in this sample, the Triarchic Psychopathy Measure (work) (TriPM work) was used (Sutton, Roche, Stapleton & Roemer, under review). This measure is based on the self-report Triarchic Psychopathy Measure developed by Patrick (2010), adapted in order to shorten it and make it more suitable for use in a workplace setting. As with the original TriPM, the TriPM (work) measures three dimensions of psychopathy, specifically; meanness, disinhibition and boldness.

The TriPM (work) consists of 21 items, with 7 items measuring each dimension. Responses are given on a scale from 1 to 4 (1= false; 4= true). The TriPM (work) is able to be used for self-report and other-report, but for the purposes of the current study only the self-report version was utilised. Example items include “I am a born leader”, “It doesn’t bother me when people around me are hurting” and “I have had problems at work because I was irresponsible”. Cronbach’s Alpha for each scale was above .7 and all scales demonstrated good test-retest reliability together with construct and criterion validity (Sutton, Roche, Stapleton & Roemer, under review).

Wellbeing: Wellbeing was measured using the Warwick-Edinburgh Mental Wellbeing Scale (WEMWBS) developed by Tennant and colleagues (2007). This unidimensional, self-report measure contains 14 items which draw from both hedonic and eudaimonic wellbeing. Responses are given on a 5 point Likert scale (1= none of the time; 5= all the time). Example items include “I’ve been feeling optimistic about the future” and “I’ve been feeling cheerful”. According to Tennant and colleagues (2007), this measure indicates high internal reliability with a Cronbach’s alpha of .89 within a student sample and .91 within a general population sample. The WEMWBS also indicates good test-retest reliability of .83 (over one week).

Burnout: Burnout was measured using the 9 item abbreviated Maslach Burnout Inventory (aMBI) developed by McManus, Jonvik, Richards and Paice (2011). This scale was initially developed for doctors, so it has been adapted to make the measure more suitable for the workplace setting. Hence, the word “patients” has been changed to “people” in particular items. Items are rated on a 7 point Likert scale (1=never; 7=every day). Example items include “I feel emotionally drained from my work”, “I’ve become more callous towards people since I took this job” and “I feel I’m positively influencing other people’s lives through my work”. While internal reliabilities for this scale have not been stated, factor analysis has provided support for all three of the expected dimensions of burnout including emotional exhaustion, depersonalisation (or cynicism) and the reverse scored personal accomplishment dimension (McManus, Winder & Gordon, 2002).

Authenticity: Authenticity was measured using the Integrated Authenticity Scale (IAS) developed by Knoll and colleagues (2015). Two subscales are included: authentic self-awareness (ASA) and authentic self-expression (ASE). Items are rated on a 1-7 scale (1= does not apply to me; 7= applies to me entirely). Example items include “For better or worse, I know who I really am” and “To express what I think, I also bear negative consequences”. The authentic self-awareness subscale has good reliability (.78 to .84) as well as authentic self-expression (.72 to .74). Overall this measure also indicates good reliability (.80 to .82).

Data Analyses

Missing Data: Cases with more than 10% missing values were removed. Outliers were also removed through the assessment of the Mahalanobis distance which is employed to recognise multivariate outliers (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2014) combined with the participants' response time. The Mahalanobis distance was calculated for each case based on every item on the TriPM measure and then compared to a chi-square distribution with the same degrees of freedom ($df = 49$). In accordance with guidelines by Tabachnick and Fidell (2014) a particularly cautious probability estimate of $p < .001$ was utilised to establish potential outliers. Additionally, in order to obtain an indication of whether the participants had provided quality responses, a response time faster than 50% of the median time was used based on recommendations from Greszki, Meyer and Schoen (2014). Hence, cases with both a significant Mahalanobis distance in addition to a fast response time were removed from the data sets. Ultimately, a final sample of 651 managers was obtained. Of those managers, 286 had matching data at T1 and T2.

Factor analyses: Factor analysis was carried out on the IAS, WEMWBS and the aMBI in order to confirm the factor structure of the measures in this sample (Field, 2018). Field (2018) indicates that an acceptable sample size for EFA should be at least 10-15 participants per variable. Hence the current study was well within these guidelines with 286 participants. Prior to analysing the EFA, two tests were assessed to establish whether the sample was appropriate for factor analysis: the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy and Bartlett's Test of Sphericity. With regard to the KMO, values greater than .5 are considered acceptable, and Bartlett's Test of Sphericity should be significant (Field, 2018). Principle Axis Factoring (PAF) was utilised and as it was expected that factors would correlate with each other, oblique rotation (direct oblimin) was selected (Field, 2018). Each of the measures used had previously been validated, therefore, a fixed number of factors were extracted based on previous validation studies of the measures (Field, 2018). In accordance with guidelines from Field (2018), factor loadings greater than .4 were

considered adequate. In cases where more than 1 underlying factor was present, the pattern matrix was assessed to analyse the item composition for each factor. Additionally, scree plots, percentages of variance obtained and factor correlations were also inspected.

Descriptive Statistics: In order to gather information pertaining to frequencies, means, skew and kurtosis, descriptive statistical analyses were carried out. It is important to assess levels of skew and kurtosis prior to conducting further tests to ensure that data is dispersed within acceptable limits. In accordance with guidelines from (Kline, 2011) skew values larger than ± 3 indicate that data is extremely skewed and kurtosis values of ± 8 are considered extreme. In cases where data falls within these extreme ranges, it is advised that the data is transformed (Kline, 2011). Results from descriptive statistics in the current study did not indicate that data was within these extreme levels and hence, transformation was not required.

Reliability Analyses: Reliability analyses were carried out on all three subscales of the TriPM (Work), the WEMWBS, the IAS and all three subscales of the aMBI in order to establish internal consistency. In line with guidelines by Gliem and Gliem (2003), Cronbach's alphas of $>.9$ indicates excellent reliability, $>.8$ indicates good reliability, $>.7$ is acceptable, $>.6$ is questionable, $>.5$ is poor and $<.5$ is unacceptable. For the purposes of the current study any measure with a reliability below $.7$ was considered unreliable and hence was not used for further analysis. The reliabilities of measures used are presented in table 3 and described in further detail in the following chapter.

Correlation Analyses: Pearson's product moment correlations were carried out to ascertain the significant correlations amongst all variables (Field, 2018). In the current study, all variables showed significant correlations. Table 3 in the following chapter presents the correlations amongst TriPM (work) and IAS data at T1 and WEMWBS and aMBI data at T2.

Moderation Analyses: Using Hayes PROCESS plug in for SPSS, moderation analyses were carried out to test all regression and moderation hypotheses. Prior to conducting moderation analyses a regression analysis was conducted in SPSS to ensure that the data was in line with the assumptions for further analysis. This process is described further in the following chapter. The moderation analysis aimed to investigate whether authenticity strengthened or weakened relationships between the three dimensions of psychopathy and wellbeing, emotional exhaustion, depersonalisation and reduced personal accomplishment. A moderation effect was assessed through examining whether there was a significant interaction effect between the predictor and moderator variables (Field, 2018). The results from this output also indicated whether dimensions of psychopathy significantly

predicted wellbeing, emotional exhaustion, depersonalisation and reduced personal accomplishment.

Theoretical Model for Moderation

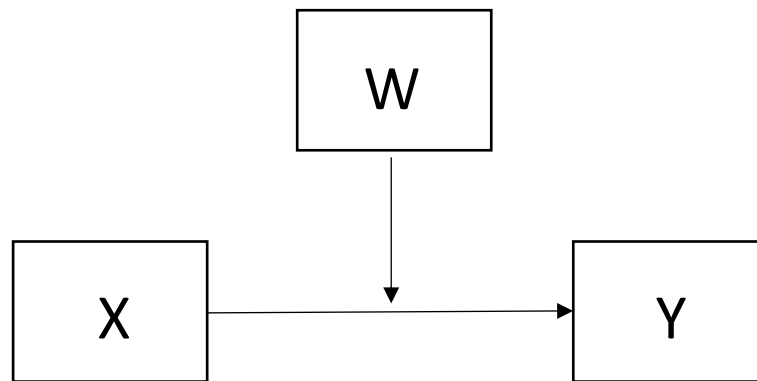


Figure 1. Theoretical model for moderation analyses whereby X represents predictor variables (boldness, meanness and disinhibition), Y represents outcome variables (wellbeing, emotional exhaustion, depersonalisation, reduced personal accomplishment) and W represents the moderator variable (authenticity).

Mediation Analyses: Again, using Hayes PROCESS plug in for SPSS, mediation analyses were carried out to test all mediation hypotheses. The mediation analysis aimed to investigate whether authenticity was a causal factor in the relationships between the three dimensions of psychopathy and wellbeing, emotional exhaustion, depersonalisation and reduced personal accomplishment. A mediation is said to have occurred if the strength of the relationship between the predictor and outcome variables is reduced by including the mediator. This effect is determined through examining the indirect effect between the predictor and outcome variable (Field, 2018). The reported indirect effect is the combined effect of path A and path B as shown in figure 2. The effect is considered significant if the 95% CI does not include zero.

Theoretical Model for Mediation

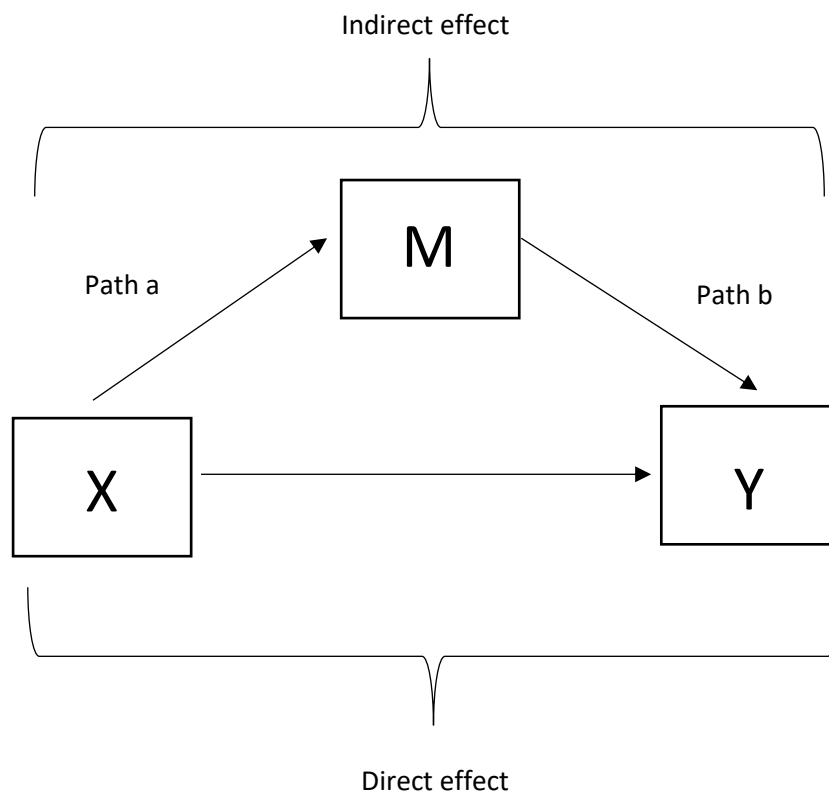


Figure 2. Theoretical model for mediation analysis whereby X represents predictor variables (disinhibition, meanness, boldness), Y represents outcome variables (wellbeing, emotional exhaustion, depersonalisation, reduced personal accomplishment) and M represents the mediator variable (authenticity).

Summary

This chapter indicates the methods used in the current study, inclusive of the data analysis techniques carried out to test the proposed hypotheses. The methods used in this study are in line with recommendations and guidelines provided in the academic literature. The following chapter will detail the results of the analyses carried out to test all hypotheses.

Chapter Three: Results

Exploratory Factor Analyses

Exploratory factor analysis (EFA) was conducted on the IAS, the WEMWBS and the aMBI. Principle Axis Factoring and oblique rotation (Direct Oblimin) were utilised. Given that each of these measures have been previously validated in the literature in terms of how each item factors out, the EFA was carried out by using a fixed number of factors for extraction indicating the desired number of factors to be extracted in accordance with the current literature for the measures. Factor loadings greater than .4 were considered adequate (Field, 2018).

Triarchic Psychopathy Measure (work): The TriPM was not developed as a measure with three distinct factors because each of its scales index a single overarching dimension (Somma, Borroni, Drislane, Patrick & Fossati, 2019) and therefore a factor analytic approach was not appropriate. However reliability analyses were conducted on each individual dimension.

Warwick-Edinburgh Mental Wellbeing Scale: Principle Axis Factoring (PAF) was carried out on all 14 items of the WEMWBS with an oblique (Direct Oblimin) rotation as it was expected that the factors would be related. The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy showed that the sample was appropriate for factor analysis, KMO = .947, well above the accepted limit of .50 (Field, 2018). Bartlett's Test of Sphericity was statistically significant, $X^2(91) = 2374.8$, $p < .001$, indicating there is common variance in the correlation matrix showing there were patterned relationships between the items. Using the same number of factors as outlined in previously validated studies (Tennant et al., 2007), one factor was extracted explaining a cumulative variance of 51% and ultimately, the WEMWBS was retained for further analysis.

Abbreviated Maslach Burnout Inventory: Principle Axis Factoring (PAF) was conducted on all 9 items of the aMBI with an oblique (Direct Oblimin) rotation. The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy showed that the sample was suitable for factor analysis, KMO = .773, above the accepted limit of .50 (Field, 2018). Bartlett's Test of Sphericity reached statistical significance $X^2(36) = 891.8$, $p < .001$ indicating there were patterned relationships between the items. Using the same number of factors as outlined in previous validation studies of the Maslach Burnout Inventory (Poghosyan, Aiken & Sloane, 2009), 3 factors were extracted explaining a cumulative variance of 68.9%. Component 1 contributing 39.3%, component 2 contributing 17.6% and component 3 contributing 12%. The items that cluster on the same factor suggests factor 1 indicates emotional exhaustion,

factor 2 indicates reduced personal accomplishment and factor 3 indicates depersonalisation (table 1 shows the factor loadings after rotation) and ultimately the aMBI was retained for further analyses.

Table 1.

Pattern Matrix of aMBI

	Factor		
	1	2	3
I feel emotionally drained from my work	.908		
I feel fatigued when I get up in the morning and have to face another day on the job	.862		
Working with people all day is really a strain for me	.600		
I deal very effectively with the problems I face at work		.625	
I feel I'm positively influencing other people's lives through my work		.779	
I feel exhilarated after working closely with people at work		.803	
I feel I treat some people at work as if they were impersonal objects			-.908
I've become more callous towards people since I took this job			-.705
I don't really care what happens to some people at work			-.848

Integrated Authenticity Scale: Principle Axis Factoring (PAF) was conducted on all 8 items of the IAS with an oblique (Direct Oblimin) rotation. The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy indicated that the sample was appropriate for factor analysis, KMO = .774, above the accepted limit of .50 (Field, 2018). Bartlett's Test of Sphericity was statistically significant $\chi^2(28) = 715.5, p < .001$. Using the same number of factors as outlined in a previous validation study of the IAS (Knoll et al., 2015), 2 factors were extracted explaining a cumulative variance of 58.9% with component 1 contributing 39.8% and component 2 contributing 19%. Table 2 shows the factor loadings after rotation. The items that cluster on the same factor suggests factor 1 indicates authentic self-awareness and factor 2 indicates authentic self-expression. Note that although the scale reveals two factors, it can also be analysed as a single factor measuring an overall score for authenticity (Knoll et al., 2015). This single factor structure was used for further analysis in

the current study. Given that 3 items (item 4, item 5 and item 8) had their primary loadings on the incorrect factor, and this study was interested in authenticity as a single concept, the single factor structure was used for further analysis in the current study.

Table 2.

Pattern Matrix of IAS

	Factor	
	1	2
I understand why I think about myself as I do	.784	
For better or worse I know who I really am	.870	
I understand why I behave like I do	.860	
I feel like I don't know myself particularly well		.676
I always stand up for what I believe in	.697	
I am easily influenced by others opinions		.825
Sometimes I say nothing about issues or decisions, or I agree even though I don't think it's right		.844
To express what I think I am willing to bear negative consequences	.415	

Reliability Analyses

Reliability analyses (Cronbach's alpha) were conducted on all three of the subscales of the TriPM (work), the IAS, the WEMWBS and all three subscales of the aMBI. The TriPM (work) subscales indicated acceptable to good reliability. The boldness subscale consisted of 7 items ($\alpha = .709$), the meanness subscale consisted of 7 items ($\alpha = .880$) and the disinhibition subscale consisted of 7 items ($\alpha = .879$). The IAS indicated acceptable reliability ($\alpha = .768$) and the WEMWBS demonstrated excellent reliability ($\alpha = .933$). However, with regard to the aMBI, only the emotional exhaustion ($\alpha = .795$) and depersonalisation ($\alpha = .826$) subscales indicated acceptable reliability. The personal accomplishment subscale indicated poor reliability ($\alpha = .591$) (Gliem & Gliem, 2003). Hence, the personal accomplishment subscale was not utilised for further analysis. The reliabilities of these scales are reported in table 3.

Table 3.

Pearson product-moment correlations and Cronbach's Alphas for the three subscales of the Triarchic Psychopathy Measure (work) and Integrated Authenticity Scale at time 1 and the Warwick-Edinburgh Mental Wellbeing Scale and the three subscales of the Abbreviated Maslach Burnout Inventory at time 2.

Variables	TriPM Work (Boldness)	TriPM Work (Meanness)	TriPM Work (Disinhib)	Integrated Authenticity Scale	WEMWBS	aMBI (EE)	aMBI (DP)	aMBI (PA)
TriPM Work (Boldness)	.709							
TriPM Work (Meanness)	-.288**	.889						
TriPM Work (Disinhibition)	-.342**	.623**	.879					
Integrated Authenticity Scale	.553**	-.335**	-.318**	.768				
WEMWBS	.549**	-.172**	-.133*	.322**	.933			
aMBI EE (Emotional Exhaustion)	-.339**	.210**	.302**	-.182**	-.328**	.795		
aMBI DP (Depersonalisation)	-.311**	.560**	.464**	-.325**	-.200**	.546**	.826	
aMBI PA (Personal Accomplishment)	-.382**	.181**	.140*	-.369**	-.453**	.135*	.203**	.591

Sample size – 286 (psychopathy, authenticity, wellbeing), 285 (burnout), * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$ (reliability for each measure in bold on diagonal).

Table 4.

Descriptive statistics for T1 and T2 data

	N	Mean	St. Dev	Skew	Kurtosis
Time 1 Data					
TriPM (work) Meanness	286	1.68	.593	.915	.750
TriPM (work) Disinhibition	286	1.68	.627	1.159	1.070
TriPM (work) Boldness	286	2.98	.437	-.025	-.065
Integrated Authenticity Scale	286	5.12	.846	-.186	-.404
Time 2 Data					
WEMWBS	286	3.52	.634	-.431	.559
aMBI (Emotional Exhaustion)	285	3.49	1.465	.314	-.640
aMBI (Depersonalisation)	285	2.60	1.559	.837	-.365
aMBI (Personal Accomplishment)	285	2.88	1.131	.298	-.490

Note: TriPM (work) = Triarchic Psychopathy Measure (work), WEMWBS = Warwick-Edinburgh Mental Wellbeing Scale, AMBI = Abbreviated Maslach Burnout Inventory.

Descriptive Statistics

The descriptive statistics including the mean, standard deviation, skew and kurtosis for all dimensions of psychopathy and authenticity at T1 and wellbeing and all dimensions of burnout at T2 are presented in table 4 above. The mean for meanness, disinhibition and boldness were measured on a scale from one to four (1= False and 4= True). The mean for authenticity was measured on a scale from one to seven (1= Does not apply to me at all and 7= Applies to me entirely). The mean for wellbeing was measured on a scale from one to five (1= None of the time and 5= All of the time). The mean for emotional exhaustion, depersonalisation and personal accomplishment were measured on a scale from one to seven (1= Never and 7= Every day).

The means across all variables ranged between 1.68 and 5.12 as shown in table 4. On average for the meanness subscale of psychopathy, participants indicated closer to “false” for statements relating to this dimension ($M = 1.68$, $SD = .60$). On average for the disinhibition subscale of psychopathy, participants indicated closer to “false” for statements relating to this dimension ($M = 1.68$, $SD = .60$). On average for the boldness subscale of psychopathy, participants indicated closer to “true” for statements relating to this dimension ($M = 2.98$, $SD = .40$). For authenticity, participants, on average, rated themselves at the higher end of authenticity closer to “applies to me entirely” rather than “does not apply to me at all” on statements relating to this construct ($M = 5.12$, $SD = .90$). For wellbeing, on average, participants indicated “some of the time” or “often” with regard to statements relating to their wellbeing ($M = 3.52$, $SD = .60$). For the emotional exhaustion subscale of burnout participants, on average, indicated “a few times a month” or “once a week” relating to items measuring this dimension ($M = 3.49$, $SD = 1.5$). On average for the

depersonalisation subscale of burnout, participants indicated “*once a month or less*” or “*a few times a month*” regarding items pertaining to this dimension ($M = 2.60$, $SD = 1.6$). For the personal accomplishment subscale of burnout participants, on average, indicated “*once a month or less*” or “*a few times a month*” on items reflecting this dimension ($M = 2.88$, $SD = 1.1$). With regard to skew and kurtosis, the current results did not show data within extreme ranges (Kline, 2011), and therefore did not require transformation.

Moderation Analyses

Prior to conducting moderation analyses, assumptions were checked to ensure that the data was suitable for moderation. Given that assumptions cannot be checked using the PROCESS output, multiple regression analysis was carried out on SPSS using all predictor variables (disinhibition, meanness, boldness) and the moderator variable (authenticity) to predict one outcome variable (wellbeing). Preliminary analyses showed no violation of the assumptions of normality, linearity, multicollinearity or homoscedasticity. None of the variables correlated higher than .623 which is below the .7 guideline suggested by Pallant (2013), hence all variables were retained. None of the tolerance values were less than the recommended .10 cutoff with the lowest at .582 indicating there was no violation of multicollinearity. This is also supported by the VIF values which are well below the cut off of 10 with the highest at 1.718. In checking for outliers, normality, linearity, homoscedasticity and independence of residuals, the normal P-P Plot showed that points were lying in a reasonably straight diagonal line from bottom left to top right. This suggests no major deviations from normality. In assessing the scatterplot of the standardised residuals, the residuals were roughly rectangularly distributed with most of the scores concentrated in the centre. Outliers were checked by inspecting the mahalanobis distance. In accordance with Tabachnick and Fidell’s (2014) guidelines, the critical value for 4 independent variables is 18.47. Only three cases slightly exceeded this value, but taking into consideration the large sample size, this could be expected and was not a cause for concern. The total variance explained by the model as a whole was 15.6%, $F(4, 280) = 12.95$, $p < .001$.

After conducting tests to check assumptions, the hypotheses were then tested. Given that the personal accomplishment subscale was unreliable, hypotheses 4a, 4b, 4c, 8a, 8b and 8c were not tested.

Hypothesis 1a was concerned with the effect of disinhibition on wellbeing, while hypothesis 5a predicted the effect of authenticity as a moderator. These hypotheses were tested using the PROCESS plug in on SPSS with disinhibition entered as a predictor along with the authenticity x disinhibition interaction and wellbeing as an outcome. The overall

model was significant $F(3, 282)=11.05, p<.001, R^2=.11$. However, while the effect of disinhibition on wellbeing was negative it did not reach significance ($b= -.03, s.e.= .06, p=.63$). Hence hypothesis 1a was not supported. Hypothesis 5a was also rejected. Table 5 presents these results.

Hypothesis 1b was concerned with the effect of meanness on wellbeing, while hypothesis 5b predicted the effect of authenticity as a moderator. These hypotheses were tested using the PROCESS plug in on SPSS with meanness entered as a predictor along with the authenticity x meanness interaction and wellbeing as an outcome. The overall model was significant $F(3, 282)=12.16, p<.001, R^2=.11$. The effect of meanness on wellbeing was negative providing some support for the proposed direction, however this effect was not significant ($b= -.04, s.e.= .07, p=.53$). Hence, hypothesis 1b was not supported. Hypothesis 5b was also rejected. Table 5 presents these results.

Hypothesis 1c was concerned with the effect of boldness on wellbeing, while hypothesis 5c predicted the effect of authenticity as a moderator. These hypotheses were tested using the PROCESS plug in on SPSS with boldness entered as a predictor along with the authenticity x boldness interaction and wellbeing as an outcome. The overall model was significant $F(3, 282)= 40.76, p<.001, R^2= .30$, and the effect of boldness on wellbeing was positive and significant ($b= .76, s.e.= .09, p<.001$). Hence hypothesis 1c was supported. However, hypothesis 5c was not supported. Table 5 presents these results.

Hypothesis 2a was concerned with the effect of disinhibition on emotional exhaustion, while hypothesis 6a predicted the effect of authenticity as a moderator. These hypotheses were tested using the PROCESS plug in on SPSS with disinhibition entered as a predictor along with the authenticity x disinhibition interaction and emotional exhaustion as an outcome. The overall model was significant $F(3, 281)=10.89, p<.001, R^2=.10$. The effect of disinhibition on emotional exhaustion was both positive and significant ($b= .67, s.e.= .14, p<.001$) providing support for hypothesis 2a. However, hypothesis 6a was rejected. These results are presented in table 6.

Hypothesis 2b was concerned with the effect of meanness on emotional exhaustion, while hypothesis 6b predicted the effect of authenticity as a moderator. These hypotheses were tested using the PROCESS plug in on SPSS with meanness entered as a predictor along with the authenticity x meanness interaction and emotional exhaustion as an outcome. The overall model was significant $F(3, 281)=6.50, p<.001, R^2= .07$. The effect of meanness on emotional exhaustion was positive and significant ($b= .34, s.e.= .16, p<.05$). Hence hypothesis 2b was supported. However, hypothesis 6b was rejected. These results are presented in table 6.

Hypothesis 2c was concerned with the effect of boldness on emotional exhaustion, while hypothesis 6c predicted the effect of authenticity as a moderator. These hypotheses were tested using the PROCESS plug in on SPSS with boldness entered as a predictor along with the authenticity x boldness interaction and emotional exhaustion as an outcome. The overall model was significant $F(3, 281)=12.29, p<.001, R^2=.12$. The effect of boldness on emotional exhaustion was negative and reached significance ($b= -.1.16, s.e.= .23, p<.001$), providing support for hypothesis 2c. However, hypothesis 6c was not supported. These results are presented in table 6.

Hypothesis 3a was concerned with the effect of disinhibition on depersonalisation, while hypothesis 7a predicted the effect of authenticity as a moderator. These hypotheses were tested using the PROCESS plug in on SPSS with disinhibition entered as a predictor along with the authenticity x disinhibition interaction and depersonalisation as an outcome. The overall model was significant $F(3, 281)=31.45, p<.001, R^2=.25$. The effect of disinhibition on depersonalisation was both positive and significant ($b= .99, s.e.= .14, p<.001$) providing support for hypothesis 3a. However hypothesis 7a was rejected. These results are presented in table 7.

Hypothesis 3b was concerned with the effect of meanness on depersonalisation, while hypothesis 7b predicted the effect of authenticity as a moderator. These hypotheses were tested using the PROCESS plug in for SPSS with meanness entered as a predictor along with the authenticity x meanness interaction and depersonalisation as an outcome. The overall model was significant $F(3, 281)=47.78, p<.001, R^2=.34$. The effect of meanness on depersonalisation was positive and significant ($b= 1.39, s.e.= .15, p<.001$), therefore supporting hypothesis 3b. However hypothesis 7b was rejected. Table 7 presents these results.

Hypothesis 3c was concerned with the effect of boldness on depersonalisation, while hypothesis 7c predicted the effect of authenticity as a moderator. These hypotheses were tested using the PROCESS plug in for SPSS with boldness entered as a predictor along with the authenticity x boldness interaction and depersonalisation as an outcome. The overall model was significant $F(3, 281)=14.41, p<.001, R^2=.13$. The effect of boldness on depersonalisation was negative and significant ($b= -.69, s.e.= .24, p<.01$) providing support for hypothesis 3c. However, hypothesis 7c was not supported. These results are presented in table 7.

Table 5.

Linear model of predictors of wellbeing.

Predictor	<i>b</i>	SE B	<i>t</i>
Constant	3.53 [3.45, 3.60]	0.037	94.31***
Disinhibition	-0.03 [-0.15, 0.09]	0.062	-0.48
Authenticity	0.23 [0.15, 0.32]	0.045	5.24***
Disinhibition x Authenticity	0.02 [-0.11, 0.15] $R^2 = .11^{***}$	0.068	0.29
Constant	3.54 [3.47, 3.62]	0.038	93.51***
Meanness	-0.04 [-0.18, 0.09]	0.068	-0.63
Authenticity	0.23 [0.14, 0.32]	0.045	5.10***
Meanness x Authenticity	0.11 [-0.05, 0.27] $R^2 = .11^{***}$	0.080	1.38
Constant	3.53 [3.46, 3.60]	0.036	98.46***
Boldness	0.76 [0.61, 0.95]	0.087	8.94***
Authenticity	0.02 [-0.07, 0.11]	0.045	0.43
Boldness x Authenticity	-0.02 [-0.18, 0.15] $R^2 = .30^{***}$	0.082	-0.18

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$.

Table 6.

Linear model of predictors of emotional exhaustion.

Predictor	<i>b</i>	SE B	<i>t</i>
Constant	3.52 [3.35, 3.69]	0.087	40.67***
Disinhibition	0.67 [0.39, 0.95]	0.143	4.72***
Authenticity	-0.17 [-0.37, 0.04]	0.104	-1.61
Disinhibition x Authenticity	0.19 [-0.12, 0.50] R ² = .10***	0.157	1.21
Constant	3.45 [3.27, 3.62]	0.090	38.27***
Meanness	0.34 [0.02, 0.65]	0.162	2.07*
Authenticity	-0.23 [-0.44, -0.02]	0.107	-2.15*
Meanness x Authenticity	-0.27 [-0.64, 0.11] R ² = .07***	0.191	-1.40
Constant	3.47 [3.29, 3.65]	0.093	37.15***
Boldness	-1.16 [-1.61, -0.72]	0.226	-5.14***
Authenticity	0.02 [-0.21, 0.25]	0.117	0.17
Boldness x Authenticity	0.11 [-0.32, 0.54] R ² = .12***	0.219	0.50

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$.

Table 7.

Linear model of predictors of depersonalisation.

Predictor	<i>b</i>	SE B	<i>t</i>
Constant	2.59 [2.42, 2.75]	0.084	30.72***
Disinhibition	0.99 [0.71, 1.26]	0.139	7.11***
Authenticity	-0.37 [-.57, -.17]	0.101	-3.64***
Disinhibition x Authenticity	-0.05 [-0.35, 0.25] R ² = .25***	0.153	-0.35
Constant	2.62 [2.47, 2.78]	0.081	32.53***
Meanness	1.39 [1.10, 1.67]	0.145	9.54***
Authenticity	-0.28 [-0.47, -0.09]	0.100	-2.98*
Meanness x Authenticity	0.16 [-0.18, 0.50] R ² = .34***	0.171	0.94
Constant	2.55 [2.36, 2.75]	0.098	25.93***
Boldness	-0.69 [-1.16, -0.22]	0.239	-2.90**
Authenticity	-0.40 [-0.64, -0.16]	0.124	-3.24**
Boldness x Authenticity	0.23 [-0.23, 0.68] R ² = .13***	0.231	0.98

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$.

Mediation Analyses

Mediation analyses were conducted in order to test hypotheses 9a, 9b, 9c, 10a, 10b, 10c, 11a, 11b and 11c. As mentioned, the personal accomplishment subscale of the aMBI was unreliable, therefore, hypotheses 12a, 12b and 12c were not tested.

Hypothesis 9a suggested that authenticity would mediate the relationship between disinhibition and wellbeing. That is, it was predicted that disinhibition would be associated with lower authenticity which in turn would be associated with reduced wellbeing. Path A indicated that disinhibition significantly predicted authenticity $b = -.43$, $t = -5.65$, $p < .001$. Disinhibition explained 10% of the variance in authenticity. This relationship was negative, indicating that as disinhibition increased, authenticity decreased. Path B indicated that authenticity significantly predicted wellbeing $b = .23$, $t = 5.25$, $p < .001$. This relationship was

positive indicating that when authenticity increased, wellbeing increased. Path C indicated that when authenticity was not included in the model, disinhibition significantly predicted wellbeing $b = -.13$, $t = -2.26$, $p < .05$. The model explains 2% of the variance in wellbeing. This relationship was negative, as disinhibition increased, wellbeing decreased. Path C' indicated that disinhibition did not significantly predict wellbeing when authenticity was included in the model $b = -.03$, $t = -.57$, $p = .57$. The indirect effect of disinhibition on wellbeing through authenticity was significant $b = -.10$, 95% BCa CI $[-.16, -.05]$. Hence hypothesis 9a was supported. These results are presented in figure 3.

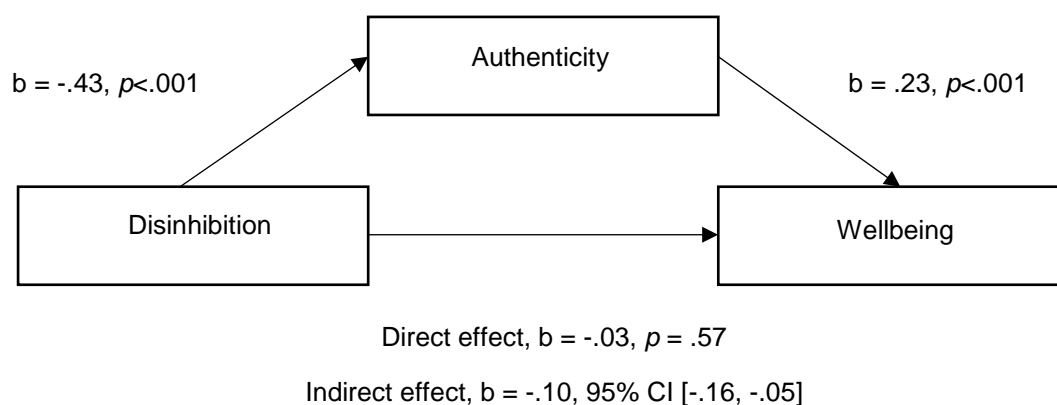


Figure 3. Model of disinhibition as a predictor of reduced wellbeing, mediated by authenticity.

Hypothesis 9b proposed that authenticity would mediate the relationship between meanness and wellbeing. That is, meanness would be associated with lower authenticity which in turn would be linked to reduced wellbeing. Path A indicated that meanness significantly predicted authenticity $b = -.48$, $t = -5.99$, $p < .001$. Meanness explained 11% of the variance in authenticity. This relationship was negative, indicating that as meanness increased, authenticity decreased. Path B indicated that authenticity significantly predicted wellbeing $b = .22$, $t = 5.00$, $p < .001$. This relationship was positive indicating that when authenticity increased, wellbeing increased. Path C indicated that when authenticity was not included in the model meanness significantly predicted wellbeing $b = -.18$, $t = -2.95$, $p < .01$. The model explains 3% of the variance in wellbeing. This relationship was negative, as meanness increased, wellbeing decreased. Path C' indicated that meanness did not significantly predict wellbeing when authenticity was included in the model $b = -.08$, $t = -1.21$, $p = .23$. The indirect effect of meanness on wellbeing through authenticity was significant $b = -.11$, 95% BCa CI $[-.17, -.05]$. Hence hypothesis 9b was supported. These results are presented in figure 4.

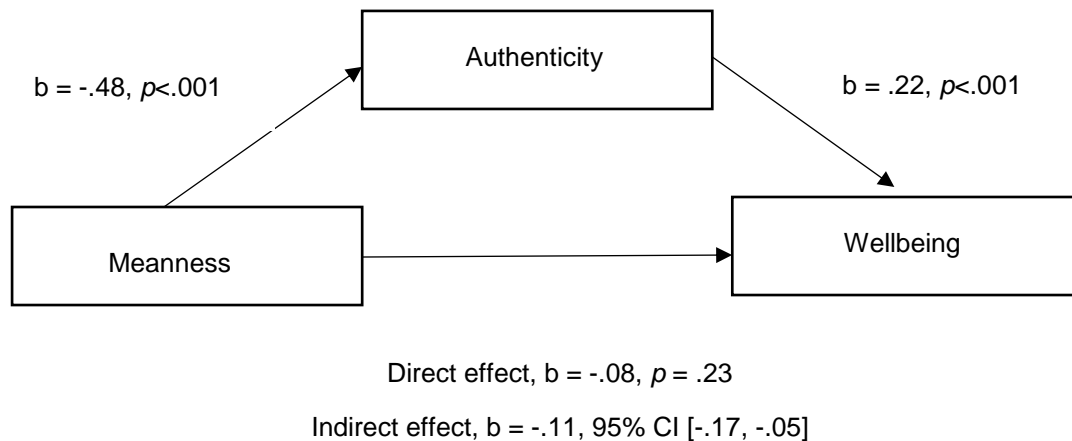


Figure 4. Model of meanness as a predictor of reduced wellbeing, mediated by authenticity.

Hypothesis 9c proposed that authenticity would mediate the relationship between boldness and wellbeing. That is, boldness would be associated with higher authenticity which in turn would be linked to higher levels of wellbeing. Path A indicated that boldness significantly predicted authenticity $b = 1.07$, $t = 11.17$, $p < .001$. Boldness explained 30% of the variance in authenticity. This relationship was positive, meaning that as boldness increased, authenticity increased. Path B indicated that authenticity did not significantly predict wellbeing $b = .02$, $t = .45$, $p = .65$. Path C indicated that when authenticity was not included in the model boldness significantly predicted wellbeing $b = .80$, $t = 11.08$, $p < .001$. The model explained 30% of the variance in wellbeing. This relationship was positive, as boldness increased, wellbeing increased. Path C' indicated that boldness significantly predicted wellbeing when authenticity was included in the model $b = .77$, $t = 8.97$, $p < .001$. The indirect effect of boldness on wellbeing through authenticity was not significant $b = .02$, 95% BCa CI $[-.08, .14]$. Therefore, hypothesis 9c was rejected.

Hypothesis 10a proposed that authenticity would mediate the relationship between disinhibition and emotional exhaustion. That is, disinhibition would be associated with lower authenticity which in turn would be linked to higher levels of emotional exhaustion. Path A indicated that disinhibition significantly predicted authenticity $b = -.42$, $t = -5.60$, $p < .001$. Disinhibition explained 10% of the variance in authenticity. This relationship was negative, meaning that as disinhibition increased, authenticity decreased. Path B indicated that authenticity did not significantly predict emotional exhaustion $b = -.17$, $t = -1.61$, $p = .11$. Path C indicated that when authenticity was not included in the model, disinhibition significantly

predicted emotional exhaustion $b = .71$, $t = 5.33$, $p < .001$. The model explained 9% of the variance in emotional exhaustion. This relationship was positive, as disinhibition increased, emotional exhaustion increased. Path C' indicated that disinhibition significantly predicted emotional exhaustion when authenticity was included in the model $b = .63$, $t = 4.56$, $p < .001$. The indirect effect of disinhibition on emotional exhaustion through authenticity was not significant $b = .07$, 95% BCa CI $[-.02, .18]$. Therefore, hypothesis 10a was rejected.

Hypothesis 10b proposed that authenticity would mediate the relationship between meanness and emotional exhaustion. That is, meanness would be associated with lower authenticity which in turn would be linked to higher levels of emotional exhaustion. Path A indicated that meanness significantly predicted authenticity $b = -.47$, $t = -5.90$, $p < .001$. Meanness explained 11% of the variance in authenticity. This relationship was negative, meaning that as meanness increased, authenticity decreased. Path B indicated that authenticity significantly predicted emotional exhaustion $b = -.22$, $t = -2.05$, $p < .05$. This relationship was negative meaning that when authenticity increased, emotional exhaustion decreased. Path C indicated that when authenticity was not included in the model, meanness significantly predicted emotional exhaustion $b = .52$, $t = 3.62$, $p < .001$. The model explains 4% of the variance in emotional exhaustion. This relationship was positive, as meanness increased, emotional exhaustion increased. Path C' indicated that meanness significantly predicted emotional exhaustion when authenticity was included in the model $b = .42$, $t = 2.76$, $p < .01$. The indirect effect of meanness on emotional exhaustion through authenticity was not significant $b = .10$, 95% BCa CI $[0, .22]$. Therefore hypothesis 10b was rejected.

Hypothesis 10c proposed that authenticity would mediate the relationship between boldness and emotional exhaustion. That is, boldness would be associated with higher authenticity which in turn would be linked to lower levels of emotional exhaustion. Path A indicated that boldness significantly predicted authenticity $b = 1.07$, $t = 11.18$, $p < .001$. Boldness explained 31% of the variance in authenticity. This relationship was positive, meaning that as boldness increased, authenticity increased. Path B indicated that authenticity did not significantly predict emotional exhaustion $b = .02$, $t = .14$, $p = .89$. Path C indicated that when authenticity was not included in the model, boldness significantly predicted emotional exhaustion $b = -1.14$, $t = -6.07$, $p < .001$. The model explained 12% of the variance in emotional exhaustion. This relationship was negative, as boldness increased, emotional exhaustion decreased. Path C' indicated that boldness significantly predicted emotional exhaustion when authenticity was included in the model $b = -1.15$, $t = -5.12$, $p < .001$. The indirect effect of boldness on emotional exhaustion through authenticity was not significant $b = .02$, 95% BCa CI $[-.25, .25]$. Therefore, hypothesis 10c was rejected.

Hypothesis 11a proposed that authenticity would mediate the relationship between disinhibition and depersonalisation. That is, disinhibition would be associated with lower authenticity which in turn would be linked to higher levels of depersonalisation. Path A indicated that disinhibition significantly predicted authenticity $b = -.42$, $t = -5.60$, $p < .001$. Disinhibition explained 31% of the variance in authenticity. This relationship was negative, meaning that as disinhibition increased, authenticity decreased. Path B indicated that authenticity significantly predicted depersonalisation $b = -.37$, $t = -3.65$, $p < .001$. This relationship was negative indicating that as authenticity increased, depersonalisation decreased. Path C indicated that when authenticity was not included in the model, disinhibition significantly predicted depersonalisation $b = 1.15$, $t = 8.82$, $p < .001$. The model explained 22% of the variance in depersonalisation. This relationship was positive, as disinhibition increased, depersonalisation increased. Path C' indicated that disinhibition significantly predicted depersonalisation when authenticity was included in the model $b = .99$, $t = 7.40$, $p < .001$. The indirect effect of disinhibition on depersonalisation through authenticity was significant $b = .16$, 95% BCa CI [.07, .27]. Therefore, hypothesis 11a was supported. These results are presented in figure 5.

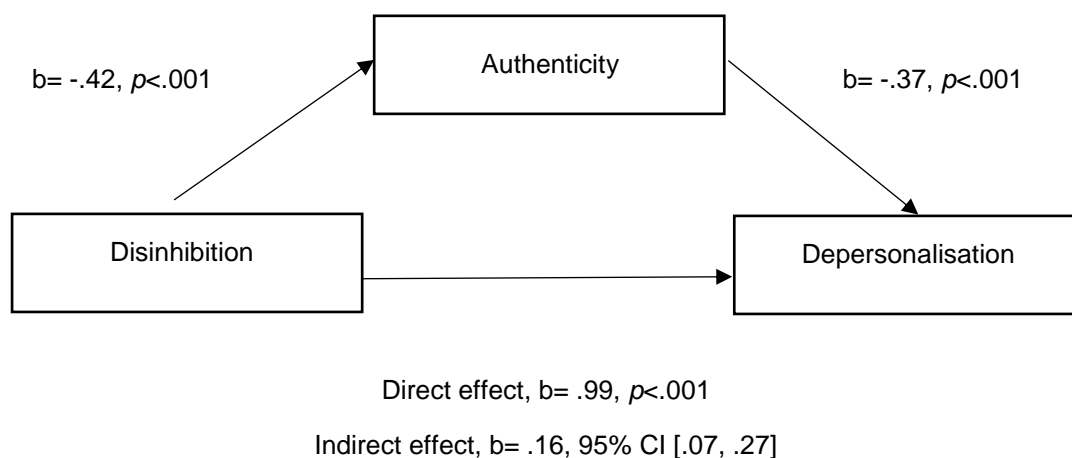


Figure 5. Model of disinhibition as a predictor of depersonalisation, mediated by authenticity.

Hypothesis 11b proposed that authenticity would mediate the relationship between meanness and depersonalisation. That is, meanness would be associated with lower authenticity which in turn would be linked to higher levels of depersonalisation. Path A indicated that meanness significantly predicted authenticity $b = -.47$, $t = -5.90$, $p < .001$. Meanness explained 11% of the variance in authenticity. This relationship was negative,

indicating that as meanness increased, authenticity decreased. Path B indicated that authenticity significantly predicted depersonalisation $b = -.29$, $t = -3.06$, $p < .01$. This relationship was negative indicating that as authenticity increased, depersonalisation decreased. Path C indicated that when authenticity was not included in the model, meanness significantly predicted depersonalisation $b = 1.47$, $t = 11.37$, $p < .001$. The model explains 31% of the variance in depersonalisation. This relationship was positive, as meanness increased, depersonalisation increased. Path C' indicated that meanness significantly predicted depersonalisation when authenticity was included in the model $b = 1.34$, $t = 9.89$, $p < .001$. The indirect effect of meanness on depersonalisation through authenticity reached significance $b = .14$, 95% BCa CI [.04, .24]. Therefore, hypothesis 11b was supported. These results are presented in figure 6.

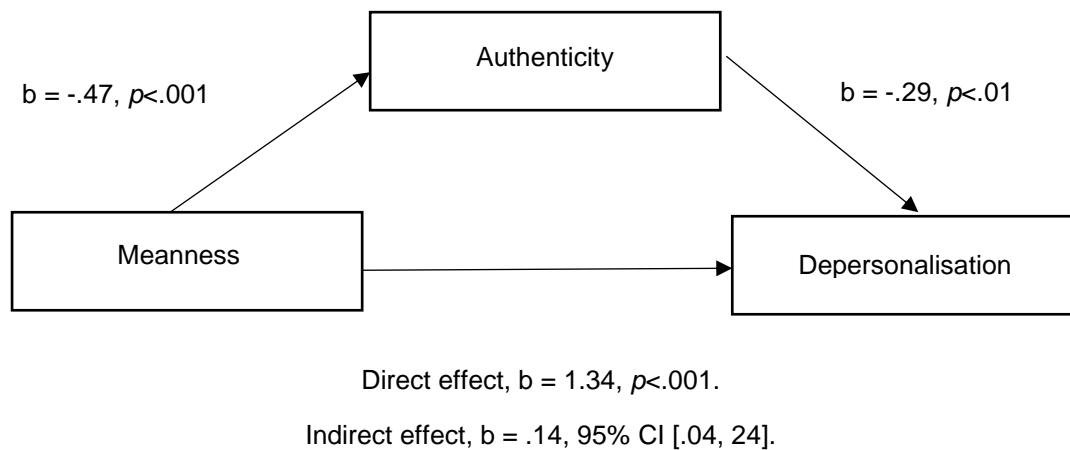


Figure 6. Model of meanness as a predictor of depersonalisation, mediated by authenticity.

Hypothesis 11c proposed that authenticity would mediate the relationship between boldness and depersonalisation. That is, boldness would be associated with higher authenticity which in turn would be linked to lower levels of depersonalisation. Path A indicated that boldness significantly predicted authenticity $b = 1.07$, $t = 11.18$, $p < .001$. Boldness explained 31% of the variance in authenticity. This relationship was positive, meaning that as boldness increased, authenticity increased. Path B indicated that authenticity significantly predicted depersonalisation $b = -.41$, $t = -3.32$, $p < .01$. This relationship was negative meaning that as authenticity increased, depersonalisation decreased. Path C indicated that when authenticity was not included in the model, boldness significantly predicted depersonalisation $b = -1.11$, $t = -5.50$, $p < .001$. The model explained

10% of the variance in depersonalisation. This relationship was negative, as boldness increased, depersonalisation decreased. Path C' indicated that boldness significantly predicted depersonalisation when authenticity was included in the model $b = -.67$, $t = -2.82$, $p < .01$. The indirect effect of boldness on depersonalisation through authenticity was significant $b = -.44$, 95% BCa CI $[-.74, -.17]$. Therefore, hypothesis 11c was supported. These results are presented in figure 7.

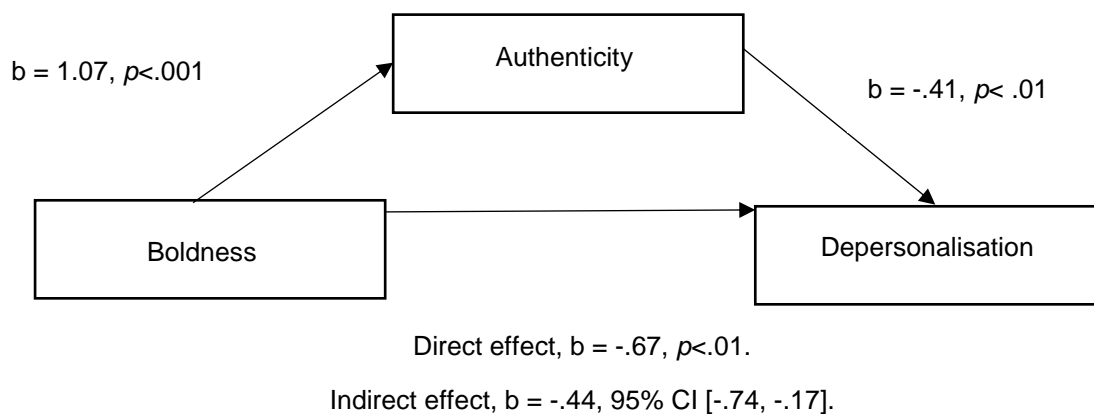


Figure 7. Model of boldness as a predictor of reduced depersonalisation, mediated by authenticity.

Summary

This chapter presents the results of the current study for a manager sample. Ultimately, while some of the linear regression results support some hypotheses pertaining to how dimensions of psychopathy predict the outcome variables, none of the moderation analyses indicated significant findings. However, upon conducting mediation analyses, some mediation effects were found. The results will be discussed in the following chapter.

Chapter Four: Discussion

The aim of this study was to examine whether the Triarchic dimensions of psychopathy (disinhibition, meanness, boldness) influenced managers' wellbeing and burnout. Furthermore, this study also examined how managers' authenticity influenced the relationships between these dimensions of psychopathy and wellbeing and burnout.

The results of this study supported many of the proposed hypotheses indicating that the three psychopathy dimensions predict some outcomes. Results investigating authenticity as a personal resource indicate that authenticity can be viewed as a mediator rather than a moderator of the relationship between psychopathy and wellbeing and burnout. This chapter will discuss the primary findings of this study, with a consideration of the literature relevant in each case. Practical and theoretical implications of this research will be explained followed by the strengths and limitations of this study, suggestions for future research and finally, concluding remarks.

Psychopathy and Wellbeing

In this study, Triarchic psychopathy traits were conceptualised in terms of their effect of job demands and resources. As discussed in chapter one, job demands and job resources influence wellbeing through two different processes. While job demands influence wellbeing through the health impairment process, job resources influence wellbeing through the motivational process (Hakanen et al., 2008). Boldness capturing more adaptive traits is seen as increasing job resources and was expected to predict higher levels of wellbeing. From this perspective boldness can also diminish job demands, along with their related physiological and psychological costs, promote the achievement of occupational goals and encourage personal growth, learning and development. As a result, bolder individuals are more likely to fulfil basic psychological needs such as the needs for autonomy, relatedness and competence and therefore will demonstrate higher levels of wellbeing. This hypothesis was supported indicating that boldness does predict higher levels of wellbeing.

The current finding supports previous research assessing the link between job resources and health outcomes. For example, Bakker, Boyd, Dollard, Gillespie, Winefield and Stough (2010) found that job resources including autonomy, fairness, job security and trust in management were all negatively related to health impairment. In a similar study, Bakker, Demerouti and Schaufeli (2003) also found positive relationships between job resources and wellbeing outcomes. These authors found that job resources including colleague support, supervisory coaching, performance feedback and time control were all

negatively related to exhaustion and positively related to organisational commitment and dedication.

The process by which boldness serves to improve wellbeing remains for further study, but several suggestions can be made. For example, those high in boldness tend to be high in social efficacy (Patrick et al., 2009). Their social skills may assist them in cultivating and maintaining positive support networks in the workplace (i.e. increasing job resources), which in turn, may have a positive influence on their wellbeing (Robertson & Cooper, 2011). It could be that bold individuals' tendencies to be assertive and persuasive (Patrick et al., 2009) may assist them in becoming successful leaders and therefore in achieving meaningful goals which can lead to both positive affect as well as the eudaimonic experience associated with the mastering of meaningful goals (Waterman, 1993). Another explanation is that bold individuals' inclinations towards venturesomeness and an ability to tolerate unfamiliarity (Patrick et al., 2009) may allow them to carry out work tasks which require some degree of risk. This risk taking may result in the achievement of better performance outcomes (Pines, Dvir & Sadeh, 2012) which may also contribute to their hedonic and eudaimonic wellbeing. Ultimately, this finding provides support for suggesting that boldness increases job resources and reduces the negative effects of job demands.

Contrary to expectations, disinhibition and meanness while showing the expected direction of effect did not reach significance in predicting lower levels of wellbeing. The lack of significance indicates that the wellbeing of those who demonstrate disinhibition and meanness is not as negatively influenced by these traits as some may think. These findings contradict the arguments presented by Martens (2014) who indicate that those with maladaptive psychopathic traits suffer psychologically and emotionally as a result of their dispositions. Marten's (2014) arguments however, were based on interviews with psychopathic serial killers whose psychopathy is fully developed. Hence, it could be argued that for those in the working population, including those in the current sample, their maladaptive psychopathic traits are not as dominant and are therefore less disruptive to their wellbeing. This notion reflects Dutton's (2012) argument that corporate psychopaths are more likely to demonstrate subclinical, rather than clinical symptoms with different variations on particular aspects of psychopathy, which may be the reason the wellbeing of these individuals is not notably influenced by these traits. Furthermore, the fact that boldness significantly predicted higher wellbeing suggests that the boldness phenotype is more influential on individual's wellbeing in the workplace than both disinhibition and meanness. Ultimately, these results indicate that maladaptive psychopathic traits in the working population may not be as detrimental to wellbeing compared to those in clinical or forensic settings.

Psychopathy and Burnout

Disinhibition and meanness were expected to increase the negative effects of job demands and prevent individuals from obtaining important resources on the job which ultimately involves continuous psychological effort, consequently resulting in psychological costs including burnout. The results showed that disinhibition and meanness significantly predicted higher levels of emotional exhaustion and depersonalisation.

These findings provide an interesting contrast to previous findings from Bartol and colleagues (1992) and Beutler and colleagues (1988) who found no significant relationship between psychopathy and workplace stressors. The discrepancies in these results may be due to differences in the measurement of psychopathy compared to the utilisation of the TriPM (work) in the current study. Both of these studies utilised the psychopathic deviate subscale of the Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory (MMPI), which does not test meanness and disinhibition specifically. Rather it measures general social maladjustment and the absence of strongly pleasant experiences. The items on this subscale investigate issues such as problems in the family or with authority figures, self-alienation, social alienation and boredom (Comrey, 1958). The lack of significance in these studies may be due to the use of a less robust measure of psychopathy compared with the TriPM (work) utilised in the current study. Furthermore, these studies did not test emotional exhaustion directly, but rather vulnerability to job strain and job stressors which may also account for discrepancies in results.

In another study specifically addressing the relationship between psychopathy and burnout, Johnson and colleagues (2015) found that both primary and secondary psychopathy were positively related to the emotional exhaustion component of the MBI, which the findings from the current study support to a degree. However, as with the previous studies, this study measured psychopathy from a completely different lens. Ultimately the current study makes an important contribution to this limited area of research by utilising a more effective measure of psychopathy which assesses psychopathy dimensionally while capturing both its maladaptive and adaptive tendencies. This ultimately gives a more thorough indication of the ways in which psychopathy influences burnout amongst employees. Findings from the current study also support findings from Bakker and colleagues (2004) and Demerouti and colleagues (2001) who found that job demands were positively linked to exhaustion. Although it is important to point out the investigation into job demands in these studies do not reflect the effect of psychopathy. However, the justification for suggesting disinhibition and meanness increase job demands is compelling, and

expectedly, the results indicate they do have detrimental effects on the burnout of employees.

A possible interpretation for why disinhibition and meanness act to increase job demands or reduce resources, ultimately resulting in burnout is that those who possess these maladaptive traits may not be able to cultivate or maintain the support networks they need which can prevent burnout, such as co-worker and supervisor support (Cordes & Dougherty, 1993; Greenglass et al., 1995). In this sense, these traits prevent them from obtaining important job resources which help them in achieving occupational goals, reducing stress and encouraging personal growth and development (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007). It could also be that those who are disinhibited and mean are prone to conflicts with others in the workplace, which can also exacerbate burnout (Maslach, & Leiter, 2008). For example, those who are mean have a tendency towards confrontation and exploitativeness and the disinhibited type tend to have deficient behavioural restraint (Patrick et al., 2009). A failure to obtain important social resources as well as engagement in conflict may ultimately exacerbate stress associated with job demands as well as deplete the individual of important resources, therefore resulting in emotional exhaustion and the ensuing depersonalisation as a way to cope with the exhaustion (Maslach & Leiter, 2008). While the current study cannot examine these pathways specifically using the regression model, further academic inquiry is necessary to investigate and demonstrate how psychopathy leads to burnout.

Hypothesis 2c was supported indicating that boldness significantly predicted lower levels of emotional exhaustion. Hypothesis 3c was also supported indicating that boldness significantly predicted lower levels of depersonalisation. These findings provide support for research conducted by Bakker and colleagues (2004) and Demerouti and colleagues (2001) who both investigated a wide range of job resources and demonstrated that when job resources are lacking, individuals are more prone to disengagement (measured with the OLBI), which shares notable similarities to the depersonalisation component of the aMBI. While these two studies provide insight into the various job resources which prevent burnout such as social support, autonomy, feedback and rewards, the current study ultimately adds to this area of research by demonstrating that boldness may influence the attainment of important resources such as these, thereby reducing the likelihood of experiencing burnout.

A possible interpretation for why boldness results in lower levels of burnout could be due to the fact that bold individuals are high in social efficacy (Patrick et al., 2009). They possess affiliative capacity and demonstrate social poise which can allow them to accumulate social resources from a variety of domains, including at work and in their private lives, which may therefore prevent burnout (Cordes & Dougherty, 1993; Greenglass et al.,

1995; Jackson et al., 1986). Social support can mitigate burnout in a number of ways. For example, having social support can protect employees from the pathological consequences of stressful experiences by encouraging people to re-define any potential harm in a given situation as well as reinforcing people's beliefs that they are able to cope with a given situation by enhancing their perception that others will provide the necessary resources (Cordes & Dougherty, 1993). Furthermore, instrumental support from co-workers can ensure that work tasks are completed on time which may also mitigate the effect of work overload on burnout (Van der Doef & Maes, 1999). Ultimately, support is likely to buffer against various job demands while diminishing emotional exhaustion and the resultant depersonalisation and bold individuals may be more able to achieve support. Additionally, the bold individual's capacity to preserve important working relationships with others can promote a sense of community at work by, for example, stimulating the experience of mutual support, closeness to others as well as the ability to work as part of a team, all of which reduce the likelihood that these individuals will experience burnout (Maslach & Leiter, 2008).

In addition, those who demonstrate boldness tend to be able to remain calm and resilient in adverse circumstances (Patrick et al., 2009), which may allow them to better cope with job demands without becoming emotionally depleted. There is a large body of research which supports the notion that resilience helps individuals to avoid burnout, particularly amongst medical staff (e.g. Yang, Liu, Liu, Wu, Ding & Xie, 2018; Kutluturkan, Sozeri, Uysal & Bay, 2016). Amongst these studies it has been demonstrated that resilience is negatively related to both emotional exhaustion and depersonalisation and positively related to accomplishment. Ultimately, while it cannot be certain that the accumulation of social resources or resilience are the factors contributing to the current finding, the results still support the notion that those who demonstrate boldness possess the personal attributes and skills that ensure healthy and successful functioning and adaptation, lending support to the idea that boldness is a factor which contributes to the attainment of job resources and reduces the negative effects of job demands.

Based on the findings discussed so far, and in line with the JD-R model, it is reasonable to argue that boldness can enhance the accumulation of job resources, thereby triggering the motivational process, given that boldness predicted both higher wellbeing and lower levels of both dimensions of burnout. There is also evidence to suggest that disinhibition and meanness prevent the attainment of resources and exacerbate the negative effects of job demands thereby triggering the health impairment process given that disinhibition and meanness predicted higher burnout. In order to shed light on the process by which the three dimensions of psychopathy exert their influences on individuals, the

current study examined the role of authenticity in the relationship between psychopathy and wellbeing and burnout. These findings will now be discussed in more detail.

Authenticity as a Personal Resource

Authenticity has substantial positive influences on individual wellbeing, both personally as well as within a working environment (Ryan et al., 2005; Sutton, 2018). Authentic individuals are generally less stressed, and more satisfied with their lives, and the act of being authentic can also foster healthy social environments (Knoll et al., 2015), therefore exerting a positive influence on organisations. Hence, in the current study, authenticity was proposed to act as a personal resource whereby it fosters resilience, as well as an individual's capacity to control and influence their environment successfully (Hobfoll et al., 2003). From this perspective, authenticity is argued to buffer the negative effects of job demands and increase the positive effects of job resources, thereby increasing wellbeing and reducing burnout. Due to gaps in the literature, the current study examined authenticity both as a moderator and a mediator in order to conclude which model is the best fit.

Contrary to expectations, moderation analyses produced no significant findings, indicating that authenticity does not act as a moderator in the psychopathy to wellbeing, or psychopathy to burnout relationships. However, with regard to mediated relationships, some significant results were found indicating that authenticity plays a more active role in the relationship between psychopathy and outcome variables. Previous work has indicated that personal resources can indeed provide a buffer to the negative effects of job demands on workplace outcomes as well as enhance the positive effects of job resources (e.g. Xanthopoulou et al., 2007; Tremblay & Messervey, 2011), and the current study suggests that authenticity may act in a similar way by providing a mechanism through which psychopathy affects wellbeing and burnout.

Psychopathy, Authenticity and Wellbeing

Authenticity was found to mediate the effect of both disinhibition and meanness on wellbeing. While the literature surrounding how personal resources interact with job demands and resources in relation to wellbeing is limited, there are some studies which reflect the findings of the current study. For example, Tremblay and Messervey (2011) examined the role of compassion satisfaction in the relationship between four job demands (role overload, role conflict, role ambiguity, role insufficiency) and job strain (anxiety and depression). These authors found that compassion satisfaction buffered the impact of role overload on strain. Another study conducted by Jex and Elacqua (1999) found that global

self-esteem buffered the impact of role stressors on both depression and depressive symptoms. However, other researchers have failed to demonstrate such results. For example, Xanthopoulou and colleagues (2007) examined whether personal resources (self-efficacy, organisational-based self-esteem) moderated the relationship between four job demands (workload, emotional demands, emotional dissonance, organisational changes) and exhaustion. However, no significant results were found. In light of these mixed findings, the current study makes an important contribution by extending support to the notion that when employees have high levels of personal resources, they have greater mastery which supports them in coping more effectively with demanding conditions, which consequently, protects them against negative health outcomes.

Authenticity did not mediate the relationship between boldness and wellbeing. The rejection of this hypothesis may be attributed to the notion that boldness in itself predicts wellbeing regardless of whether or not a person is authentic. In this sense, the traits and attributes associated with boldness allow for adaptive functioning both in the presence or absence of authenticity. So, although authenticity was found to mediate the negative effects of disinhibition and meanness on wellbeing, it does not appear to enhance the positive effect of boldness. This indicates that authenticity may buffer negative effects of psychopathy, but not enhance positive ones in terms of wellbeing.

Psychopathy, Authenticity and Burnout

Authenticity did not mediate the relationships between all three psychopathy dimensions and emotional exhaustion. This is an interesting finding considering that authenticity mediated the negative relationship between disinhibition and meanness on wellbeing. Indeed many studies view an absence of exhaustion as an indicator of wellbeing and the two constructs seem to share some characteristics (Cropanzano & Wright, 2001; Rothmann, 2008). However, these findings are a clear indication these two concepts are distinct. Ultimately, authenticity is not a crucial factor in the relationship between psychopathy and emotional exhaustion. Hence, disinhibition, meanness and boldness alone may be enough to exacerbate or alleviate emotional exhaustion respectively, even in the presence or absence of authenticity.

These findings conflict somewhat with a large body of research indicating the mediating effects of various personal resources on the relationships between job resources and job demands on exhaustion. For example, Xanthopoulou and colleagues (2007) found that personal resources mediated the relationship between job resources and exhaustion. Another study conducted by Huang, Wang and You (2016) found that personal resources

mediated the relationship between job demands and exhaustion. Discrepancies in these findings are likely explained by the fact that the personal resources assessed in previous studies do not reflect authenticity. Rather they measure more commonly investigated personal resources such as self-esteem, optimism and self-efficacy. Discrepancies in these findings suggest that the more well-researched personal resources investigated in previous studies are more influential on emotional exhaustion compared to authenticity.

Authenticity was found to mediate the relationship between both disinhibition and meanness and depersonalisation. These findings indicate that authenticity is the mechanism through which psychopathy exerts its negative influence on depersonalisation. A possible reason for why authenticity mediated the relationships between disinhibition and meanness and depersonalisation but not the relationships between disinhibition and meanness and emotional exhaustion could come down to the fact that depersonalisation represents the interpersonal context component of burnout, in which authenticity may be particularly influential. As discussed, when a person engages in depersonalisation, they have a callous or excessively detached reaction to various facets of the job, including in their interactions with others (Maslach & Leiter, 2008). A lack of authenticity may therefore influence this coping process to the detriment of the individual.

Authenticity also mediated the relationship between boldness and depersonalisation. This finding provides support for previous findings assessing the role of personal resources in the relationship between job resources and depersonalisation. Huang and colleagues (2016) demonstrated that one personal resource (optimism) partially mediated the relationship between one job resource (social support) and depersonalisation. A possible explanation for why boldness was associated with higher authenticity resulting in lowered depersonalisation could be that the bold individuals' positive traits, such as their tendencies towards social efficacy and resilience, may feel more in accordance with their true selves and intentions which may assist them in coping with stress and behaving more genuinely towards others in times of stress.

To illustrate further, given that mediation analyses confirmed that disinhibition and meanness were negatively associated with authenticity leading to lowered wellbeing and higher depersonalisation and that boldness was positively associated with authenticity leading to reduced depersonalisation, the current study provides support for the notion of authenticity as being intrinsically righteous. Authenticity is often viewed as being true to oneself "warts and all" (Womick et al., 2019). However, people also see their authentic selves as socially desirable or good (Hicks et al., 2019). The current study suggests that when individuals are authentically self-aware and expressing themselves authentically, they

are less likely to report negative traits. It is in fact the positive, socially desirable trait of boldness that was more likely to feel authentic. This finding supports research by Sheldon and colleagues (1997) who demonstrated that when individuals are displaying socially desirable traits they feel more authentic. Furthermore, Jongman-Sereno and Leary (2016) discovered that individuals were more likely to rate positive behaviours as being authentic expressions of themselves as opposed to negative behaviours. This contradicts arguments presented by Womick and colleagues (2019) who propose that for those who have traits that are socially problematic, including psychopathy, inauthentic behaviour may actually be functional with regard to their personal wellbeing.

Ultimately the current findings indicate that employees who have adaptive psychopathic traits seem to have higher levels of psychological wellbeing and are less inclined to experience burnout. In contrast, those who have maladaptive traits seem to be more inclined to have experience higher levels of burnout. It seems that authenticity is an influential factor contributing to the relationships between disinhibition and meanness and wellbeing, providing support for the argument that authenticity is the optimal strategy towards psychological functioning (Womick et al., 2019). Based on the current findings, authenticity cannot be considered the mechanism through which the psychopathy dimensions exert their influences on emotional exhaustion. However authenticity appears to have a substantial influence on the relationship between psychopathic traits and depersonalisation. These findings provide some support for the two independent processes analogous to the JD-R model through which these traits influence individual outcomes – the health impairment process and the motivation process (Hakanen et al., 2008). The adaptive trait of boldness may serve to increase access to job resources and lessen the negative effects of job demands, while the maladaptive traits of meanness and disinhibition serve to reduce access to job resources, and perhaps increase job demands.

Theoretical implications

The current study addresses some notable gaps in the scientific literature, thereby making meaningful theoretical contributions. Firstly, while there is a large body of literature pertaining to how subordinates are impacted by psychopathic supervisors, there is currently very little literature pertaining to how employees with psychopathy are impacted by these traits themselves. The current study addresses this in an attempt to shed light on the wellbeing and workplace functioning of those who demonstrate both adaptive and maladaptive psychopathic tendencies through the utilisation of the self-report TriPM (work) (Sutton, Roche, Stapleton & Roemer, under review).

Secondly, while research into corporate psychopathy is gaining momentum, there is very limited scientific literature utilising the Triarchic Psychopathy Measure (TriPM) within the workplace context. Hence, the utilisation of the newly established TriPM (work) measure (Sutton, Roche, Stapleton & Roemer, under review) demonstrates its effectiveness at measuring psychopathy within a sample of managers in the New Zealand context. Furthermore, the fact that the current study investigates the three dimensions (disinhibition, meanness boldness) separately rather than unidimensionally, allows for more precise predictions of individual and workplace outcomes. It is able to identify the sometimes contradictory effects of different psychopathic traits on wellbeing and burnout.

As yet, no research into corporate psychopathy has conceptualised psychopathy in terms of its effect on job resources and job demands. The justification for utilising the JD-R model to assess the effect of psychopathy on wellbeing and burnout is compelling based on the number of findings obtained in this study. Ultimately, the current study expands the JD-R literature by providing evidence to suggest that meanness and disinhibition thwart access to important resources and possibly exacerbate the negative effects of job demands, while boldness may in fact promote the accumulation of resources on the job and reduce the negative effects of job demands. Furthermore, in previous research, personal resources as applied to the JD-R model have largely examined three main moderators, namely organisational-based self-esteem, optimism and self-efficacy. The current study makes an important contribution by utilising a previously under-researched personal resource – authenticity, and examining both moderated and mediated relationships to gain a better understanding of the role of authenticity within these relationships.

Practical implications

The current study provides an insight into the way managers' psychopathy impacts their wellbeing and tendency to burnout. In identifying those who have maladaptive traits, organisations can work to support these individuals to navigate through working life successfully. One way this could be achieved is through the promotion of behavioural self-management techniques in which organisations can help individuals to reduce the frequency and severity of their negative behaviours by convincing them that capitalising their strengths and abilities in pro-social ways will bring about more advantages for them as opposed to capitalising in antisocial ways (Wong & Hare, 2005). Such individuals may also benefit from close mentoring and coaching, particularly in terms of enhancing interpersonal skills which may help them obtain important resources such as social support from colleagues and superiors (Le Blanc & Schaufeli, 2008). Organisations could also consider the implementation of health promotion programmes as well as free or subsidised counselling

services as ways to prevent and counteract the negative outcomes associated with maladaptive psychopathic traits.

It is also important to protect other employees and subordinates of managers who demonstrate maladaptive psychopathic traits. Those managers who demonstrate maladaptive traits and particularly those who experience negative health outcomes as a result of these traits are likely to be poorly organised, and even dangerous leaders, who may negatively impact others in the workplace (Boddy, 2011a). While disciplinary action against such individuals may offer some support to employees, the traits and behaviours associated with corporate psychopathy means this kind of action may have little effect. Hence, devoting time and money on coaching psychopathic managers to function positively may be more appropriately spent on strengthening selection and succession procedures as a way of preventing such individuals from attaining positions of leadership in the first place (Mathieu & Babiak, 2016).

These issues highlight the need for appropriate psychopathy screening to be employed in order to identify those who may present psychopathic tendencies. Given this study provides support for the use of the TriPM (work) (Sutton, Roche, Stapleton & Roemer, under review) within a workplace context, this measure may be an appropriate tool for the screening process to identify psychopathic traits within individuals. However, it is suggested also that other-report or 360 degree utilisations of this measure be considered, as during psychopathy screening processes it is imperative to assess potential discrepancies between an individuals' self-report scores and scores of colleagues and subordinates on that individual (Walker & Jackson, 2017).

Through screening, those who have a tendency towards boldness can also be identified which may also have important implications for organisations. The current study suggests that bold individuals may be more proficient at accumulating important resources on the job, which ultimately allow for more effective functioning in the workplace. These individuals have great social skills, are resilient as well as confident and venturesome (Patrick et al., 2009), all of which can assist these individuals in workplace endeavours. For example, those who are confident and venturesome may be better able to accumulate resources such as funding, which may positively influence organisational effectiveness. These individuals may also possess the interpersonal skills needed to be competent team players. Furthermore, their ability to be assertive and persuasive may allow them to be influential leaders. Therefore, bold individuals may potentially be an asset to organisations and the individuals working within them, so long as the presence of boldness is demonstrated in the absence of meanness and disinhibition.

The fact that authenticity was found to be the mechanism through which some psychopathic traits influenced some outcomes, the current study provides insight into the importance of promoting an authentic workplace whereby authenticity in individual employees as well as within groups is upheld and stimulated. When an organisation promotes authenticity, not only will employees be less stressed and more satisfied (Ryan et al., 2005), but their behaviour may be more agentic and goal directed (Sheldon et al., 2002), therefore influencing positive organisational outcomes. Furthermore, organisations who encourage and support authentic self-expression among group members may also promote a sense of psychological safety whereby group members have a “sense of confidence that other group members will not embarrass, reject or punish someone for speaking up ... it describes a team climate characterised by interpersonal trust and mutual respect in which people are comfortable being themselves” (Edmondson, 1999, p. 354). When this is the case, individuals may be better able to accumulate and maintain various resources, such as social support, which can buffer the effects of various job demands at work.

Strengths

A significant strength of this study is that it utilised a longitudinal design which allowed for the assessment of psychopathy and authenticity at T1 and outcome variables at T2. This allowed for a more accurate assessment of the temporal effects of psychopathy. Furthermore, the causal relationships implied by the paths in the mediation model take time to unfold. Therefore the use of longitudinal data was appropriate. Ultimately, the use of longitudinal data is an improvement on cross-sectional studies which comprise the majority of studies.

The current findings were supported by a large sample size, adequate for survey research which prevents errors that may occur in smaller samples such as Type 2 error (Field, 2018). The larger sample size ultimately increased the significance level of the findings and therefore, more accurately represented the behaviour of the whole group. Furthermore, the managers in the current sample population were recruited from a variety of industries in New Zealand, including manufacturing, construction, education and training and health care to name a few. This allows for greater generalisability of the findings to a wide range of organisations in the New Zealand context.

While previous research employing the JD-R model has mainly focussed on the moderating potential of personal resources, the current study goes one step further to analyse the mediating effect as well in order to uncover whether authenticity moderates or mediates the relationship between psychopathy and wellbeing and burnout. Through

assessing both models, the current study was able to determine that a mediation model provided the best fit for the data.

Limitations

A number of limitations to the current research warrant note. Firstly, this study relied on self-report measures of all variables, which may have resulted in common method variance (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee & Podsakoff, 2003). Another issue with self-report methods, is the possibility of a variety of response biases, such as social desirability bias or faking good (Van de Mortel, 2008). This may particularly be an issue for measures of psychopathy, given that psychopathic individuals are prone to lying and manipulation (Patrick et al., 2009). The presumption that measuring psychopathy through self-report measures is untrustworthy has reinforced extensive scepticism regarding the utilisation of self-report methods in the detection of psychopathy (Ray, Hall, Rivera-Hudson, Poythress, Lilienfeld & Morano, 2013). To illustrate, Hart, Hare and Forth (1994) claim that “behavioural checklist and self-report scales are poorly suited to assessing psychopathy because of their susceptibility to a variety of response biases” (p. 85). Additionally, Edens, Hart, Johnson, Johnson and Olver (2000) assert that “... self-reports may be particularly susceptible to response distortion. This is a major potential problem because deceitfulness is construed as a core symptom of psychopathy” (p. 137). However, other studies disprove these arguments. For example, Miller, Jones and Lynam (2011) demonstrated notable concurrence between self-reports and informant-reports of psychopathy indicating that psychopaths may in fact be amenable as well as capable of producing precise assessments of themselves on psychopathic traits.

In order to shed light on these contrasting views, Ray and colleagues (2013) conducted a meta-analysis to investigate psychopaths’ supposed propensity to falsify their survey responses, particularly in a socially desirable or undesirable way. No evidence was found to suggest that scores on psychopathy measures were positively linked to social desirability or faking good. While these findings cannot fully exclude the risk of response distortion, they do indicate that those with psychopathic traits are frequently willing and capable of revealing a variety of socially inadmissible traits and behaviours about themselves, and that those with psychopathic traits are not always inclined to excessive lying or positive impression management on self-report questionnaires. Hence, these are important considerations for the current study indicating that the results may not be as heavily influenced by this type of responding as previously thought by researchers studying psychopathy. Furthermore, the answers to questionnaires were anonymous, meaning that participants could respond honestly and therefore this kind of responding may have been reduced. The other variables assessed in this study referred to managers levels of

authenticity, wellbeing and burnout which are extremely difficult to observe objectively. Therefore, self-report methods were appropriate and necessary to map these experiences.

Another limitation of this study was that the personal accomplishment subscale of the aMBI was unreliable and therefore was not utilised. Hence, a complete assessment of the burnout construct could not be carried out. It is suggested that future research employ a more sound assessment of the burnout construct in order to demonstrate a more robust indication of how psychopathy and authenticity influence burnout.

Finally, the current study did not control for factors which may act as extraneous influences, such as gender. Researchers have consistently demonstrated that psychopathy is more common in males compared to female populations. In correctional samples, the base rate of psychopathy in females is between 10 and 15 percent compared to between 25 and 30 percent in males (Hare, 2003; Salekin, Rogers & Sewell, 1997; Strand & Belfrage, 2001). Furthermore, the large majority of studies indicate a higher base rate for psychopathy among males compared to females despite various instruments and methodologies being used (Forth, Brown, Hart & Hare, 1996; Hare, 2003; Rutherford, Alterman, Cacciola & Snider, 1995; Salekin, Rogers, Ustad & Sewell, 1998; Strand & Belfrage, 2001). However, an important consideration to take note of is that female samples are often small in forensic settings (Strand & Belfrage, 2005), and therefore, it is problematic to generalise prevalence to a broader population, such as within the corporate world. Regardless, further research into corporate psychopathy should control for gender, to rule this out as a potential influence on the results.

Directions for Future Research

Along with recommendations for future research discussed above, there are a number of other proposed suggestions. As mentioned, with regard to the regression analyses carried out in the current study, it is impossible to determine why psychopathy predicts wellbeing and burnout using a simple regression model. While the current study aimed to address this issue by investigating authenticity as a moderator and mediator in these relationships, only some mediation effects were identified. Hence, it is likely there are a variety of other factors which cause psychopathy to influence outcome variables. For example, it is speculated here that bold individuals tendency to be high in social efficacy may contribute to their wellbeing and their tendency to be resilient may contribute to lower levels of burnout. Conversely, it is speculated that those who are disinhibited and mean may be less likely to obtain social resources, perhaps due to a tendency to engage in conflict, ultimately leading to burnout. Hence future research could investigate mediator variables such as social efficacy,

resilience or conflict in order to gain a better understanding of the process through which dimensions of Triarchic psychopathy influence individuals.

It is advised that future research using mediation analyses continue to utilise a longitudinal design when assessing the mediating effect of personal resources in the relationship between psychopathy and outcome variables as this has an advantage over cross sectional designs, in which making causal conclusions are less appropriate. However, it is suggested that future studies collect data at three time waves instead of two as this may be better suited for a three variable causal chain (Cole & Maxwell, 2003).

The current findings also underlie the need to investigate how psychopathy influences wellbeing and workplace outcomes in other countries. Smith and Lilienfeld (2013) argue that psychopathy in the corporate context may have different implications in different cultures, particularly in countries where collectivist vs. individualistic attitudes are ingrained. Indeed, there may be cultural variations with regard to the degree of impairment considered problematic in psychopathic individuals. To illustrate, culture shapes the way individuals and societies respond to various degrees of traits in people. Some traits may be considered relatively normal among certain cultures and hence, may not be considered problematic until they become more extreme (Ryder, Dere, Sun & Chentsova-Dutton, 2014). Cooke (1996) asserts that in individualistic cultures, low to moderate degrees of psychopathic personality disorder are often tolerated and even facilitated, whereas these types of traits are often suppressed within collectivist societies. Accordingly, there is a need for research across cultures in order to contribute to a more meticulous depiction of how corporate psychopathy influences individuals and organisations.

Another recommendation for future research stems from the fact that boldness is a dimension of psychopathy which researchers know less about, compared to its negative counterparts - disinhibition and meanness (Neo et al., 2018). Hence, future research could look at how boldness influences personal resources and outcome variables by for example, assessing the moderating and mediating role of boldness in the relationship between personal resources and individual and workplace outcomes to gain a more comprehensive understanding of the positive impact boldness has on individuals and organisations.

Conclusion

In addressing current gaps in the psychopathy literature, this study investigated the relationship between the Triarchic dimensions of psychopathy and wellbeing and burnout, as well as the moderating and mediating effects of authenticity in these relationships amongst a sample of managers in New Zealand. As hypothesised, the findings demonstrate that

boldness predicted higher levels of wellbeing and lower levels of burnout, while disinhibition and meanness predicted higher levels of burnout but not lower levels of wellbeing. These findings suggest that disinhibition and meanness may limit the accumulation of job resources while increasing the negative effects of job demands and that boldness may increase job resources while lessening the negative effects of job demands.

While authenticity did not demonstrate any moderation effects, some mediation effects were found in the relationship between psychopathy and outcomes. Specifically, authenticity was found to mediate the relationships between disinhibition and wellbeing, meanness and wellbeing, disinhibition and depersonalisation, meanness and depersonalisation and boldness and depersonalisation. This indicates that authenticity acts as a causal factor rather than just having an interaction effect in the relationship between psychopathy and outcomes and can be viewed as an important personal resource, reflecting previous findings demonstrating the importance of personal resources at work. However, due to many of the hypothesised mediation relationships being non-significant, these findings indicate that there are likely other factors not explored in this study which influence the relationships between Triarchic dimensions of psychopathy and wellbeing and burnout, with future research necessary to explore these relationships more comprehensively.

Overall, the current study presents important implications for organisations, indicating that psychopathic traits have significant effects on individual wellbeing and burnout and that organisations could benefit from promoting and encouraging authenticity. In doing so, organisations can support employees to cope with and thrive amongst the challenges and changes which undoubtedly emerge during working life.

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Appendix

Questionnaire

Leadership Survey - Managers

Information sheet and consent form

Thank you for completing our first questionnaire a few weeks ago. We would now like to invite you to complete a second questionnaire. You may find you recognise questions in this survey. This is not a mistake, but something we have done on purpose. Please don't try to remember what you answered last time, we are interested in your responses TODAY. As before, we will now give you some information about the study and you can choose whether to continue.

Research Project: How bad is bad leadership?

Thank you for showing interest in being a part of this research study, your contribution is much appreciated. Different leadership approaches can have a large effect on our performance and well-being and this research project aims to identify some of these effects for both the employees and the leaders themselves. The study is being conducted by Dr Maree Roche (maree.roche@waikato.ac.nz) and Dr Anna Sutton (anna.sutton@waikato.ac.nz) in the School of Psychology at the University of Waikato, New Zealand. This research project has been approved by the School of Psychology Research and Ethics Committee of the Faculty of Arts and Social Sciences, University of Waikato. Any questions about the ethical conduct of this research may be sent to the convenor of the Research and Ethics Committee (e-mail ethics@waikato.ac.nz).

What is involved?

Should you choose to continue, you will be asked to complete a questionnaire about your experience of, as well as thoughts and feelings about your work. The questionnaire will take about 20 minutes. This is not a test, so there are no right or wrong answers: we are interested in discovering your true views, feelings and encounters in the workplace. Please be as honest as you can.

Confidentiality/ Anonymity

The data we collect does not contain any personal information about you. You do not need to provide your name. All your responses go directly to the researcher via a licensed software survey platform provided by the University of Waikato, and will not go through your organisation. Therefore, you can be assured that your responses cannot be traced back to an individual for any appraisal or other human resource decisions. Results collected are solely for research purposes. The researchers will keep all study records, and no one else

will have access to the records. At the conclusion of this study, the researcher will publish the findings in an aggregated form and your data will not be personally identified.

Potential risks and questions

There may be potential but minimum psychological discomfort if you recall an uncomfortable incident that happened at work. You are welcome to discontinue the study at any point, simply by closing your browser. If you have any questions about the study either before, during or after completing this questionnaire, please contact one of the researchers, we are happy to help. (For any technical help with completing the survey, please contact Qualtrics direct.) If you would like to receive a report on the study's findings, please contact either of the project leaders using their email addresses.

Summary

By proceeding with the online survey, you are agreeing that: (1) you have read and understood this information (2) questions about your participation in this study have been answered satisfactorily (3) you are aware of the potential risks (4) you are taking part in this research study voluntarily (5) anonymised data may be shared in public research repositories.

Q136

☐ I agree. (1)

☐ I do not agree. (2)

Q1. To create your unique code, please enter the following: The first letter of **your** mother's name (e.g: Anna = A) The last letter of the town/city **you** were born in (e.g: Auckland = D) The date (day) of **your** birth (e.g: 1st of Aug = 01) The first letter of **your** name (e.g: Michael = M) Code is: AD01M (Example) **Your** code:

Demographics

Q2.1 What is your age (years)?

Q2.2 What is your gender?

☐ Female (1)

☐ Male (2)

☐ Other (Please specify) (3)

☐ Prefer not to say (4)

Q2.3 How many direct reports do you have?

☐ 0 (1)

☐ 1-5 (2)

☐ 6-10 (3)

☐ more than 10 (4)

Q2.4 How long have you been in your current job (years)?

Q2.5 Which industry sector are you in?

- ☐ Agriculture, Forestry and Fishing (1)
- ☐ Mining (2)
- ☐ Manufacturing (3)
- ☐ Electricity, Gas, Water and Waste Services (4)
- ☐ Construction (5)
- ☐ Wholesale Trade (6)
- ☐ Retail Trade and Accommodation (7)
- ☐ Transport, Postal and Warehousing (8)
- ☐ Information Media and Telecommunications (9)
- ☐ Financial and Insurance Services (10)
- ☐ Rental, Hiring and Real Estate Services (11)
- ☐ Professional, Scientific, Technical, Administrative and Support Services (12)
- ☐ Public Administrative and Safety (13)
- ☐ Education and Training (14)
- ☐ Health Care and Social Assistance (15)
- ☐ Arts, Recreation and Other Services (16)

Q2.6 Have you ever undertaken any formal leadership training?

- ☐ Undergraduate university qualification (e.g. BA Management) (1)
- ☐ Postgraduate university qualification (e.g. MBA) (2)

☐ In-house training (3)

☐ Formal mentorship programme (4)

☐ Other (please specify) (5)

☐ No (never undertaken formal leadership training) (6)

Triarchic Psychopathy Measure

Q3. For each of the following statements, indicate the degree to which you think the item is true for you.

	False (1)	Somewhat false (2)	Somewhat true (3)	True (4)
I'm optimistic more often than not. (1)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I am well-equipped to deal with stress. (2)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I get scared easily. (3)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I'm a born leader. (4)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I have a hard time making things turn out the way I want. (5)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I have a knack for influencing people. (6)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I function well in new situations, even when unprepared. (7)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I don't think of myself as talented. (8)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

	False (1)	Somewhat false (2)	Somewhat true (3)	True (4)
I'm afraid of far fewer things than most people. (1)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I can get over things that would traumatise others. (2)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
It worries me to go into an unfamiliar situation without knowing all the details. (3)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I can convince people to do what I want. (4)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I don't like to take the lead in groups. (5)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
It's easy to embarrass me. (6)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I stay away from physical danger as much as I can. (7)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I don't stack up well against most others. (8)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

	False (1)	Somewhat false (2)	Somewhat true (3)	True (4)
I never worry about making a fool of myself with others. (1)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I'm not very good at influencing people. (2)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
How other people feel is important to me. (3)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I don't mind if someone I dislike gets hurt. (4)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I sympathise with others' problems. (5)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I return insults. (6)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
It doesn't bother me to see someone else in pain. (7)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I enjoy pushing people around sometimes. (8)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

	False (1)	Somewhat false (2)	Somewhat true (3)	True (4)
I taunt people just to stir things up. (1)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I don't see any point in worrying if what I do hurts someone else. (2)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I am sensitive to the feelings of others. (3)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I don't have much sympathy for people. (4)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
For me, honesty really is the best policy. (5)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I sometimes insult people on purpose to get a reaction from them. (6)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Things are more fun if a little danger is involved. (7)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

	False (1)	Somewhat false (2)	Somewhat true (3)	True (4)
I don't care much if what I do hurts others. (1)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
It's easy for me to relate to other people's emotions. (2)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
It doesn't bother me when people around me are hurting. (3)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I often act on immediate needs. (4)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I've often missed things I promised to attend. (5)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
My impulsive decisions have caused problems with loved ones. (6)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I have missed work without bothering to call in. (7)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I jump into things without thinking. (8)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

	False (1)	Somewhat false (2)	Somewhat true (3)	True (4)
I have good control over myself. (1)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
People often abuse my trust. (2)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I keep appointments I make. (3)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I often get bored quickly and lose interest. (4)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I have conned people to get money from them. (5)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I get in trouble for not considering the consequences of my actions. (6)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I have a hard time waiting patiently for things I want. (7)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I have lost a friend because of irresponsible things I've done. (8)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

	False (1)	Somewhat false (2)	Somewhat true (3)	True (4)
Others have told me they are concerned about my lack of self-control. (1)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I have had problems at work because I was irresponsible. (2)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Passive Leadership

Q4. This questionnaire is to describe your leadership style as you perceive it. Judge how frequently each statement fits you.

	Not at all (1)	Once in a while (2)	Sometimes (3)	Fairly often (4)	Frequently, if not always (5)
I fail to interfere until problems become serious. (1)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I wait for things to go wrong before taking action. (2)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I show that I am a firm believer in "If it ain't broke, don't fix it.". (3)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I demonstrate that problems must become chronic before I take action. (4)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I avoid getting involved when important issues arise. (5)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I am absent when needed. (6)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I avoid making decisions. (7)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I delay responding to urgent questions. (8)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

want to
achieve that I
lose touch
with what I'm
doing right
now to get
there. (1)

I do jobs or tasks automatically, without being aware of what I'm doing. (2)

I find myself
listening to
someone with
one ear,
doing
something
else at the
same time.
(3)

I drive places
on 'automatic
pilot' and then
wonder why I
went there.
(4)

I find myself
preoccupied
with the future
or the past.
(5)

I find myself
doing things
without
paying
attention. (6)

I snack
without being
aware that I'm
eating. (7)

○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○

○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○

○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○

○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○

○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○

○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○

Warwick-Edinburgh Mental Wellbeing Scale

Q7. Below are some statements about feelings and thoughts. Please select the scale that best describes your experience of each over the last 2 weeks.

	None of the time (1)	Rarely (2)	Some of the time (3)	Often (4)	All the time (5)
I've been feeling optimistic about the future. (1)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I've been feeling useful. (2)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I've been feeling relaxed. (3)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I've been feeling interested in other people. (4)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I've had energy to spare. (5)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I've been dealing with problems well. (6)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I've been thinking clearly. (7)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

	None of the time (1)	Rarely (2)	Some of the time (3)	Often (4)	All the time (5)
I've been feeling good about myself. (1)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I've been feeling close to other people. (2)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I've been feeling confident. (3)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I've been able to make up my own mind about things. (4)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I've been feeling loved. (5)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I've been interested in new things. (6)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I've been feeling cheerful. (7)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Work and Wellbeing Survey

Q8. The following nine statements are about how you feel at work. Please read each statement carefully and decide if you ever feel this way about your job. If you have had this feeling, indicate how often you feel it by selecting the scale that best describes how frequently you feel that way.

	Never (1)	Almost never (a few times a year or less) (2)	Rarely (once a month or less) (3)	Sometimes (a few times a month) (4)	Often (once a week) (5)	Very often (a few times a month) (6)	Always (every day) (7)
At my work, I feel bursting with energy. (1)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
At my job, I feel strong and vigorous. (2)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I am enthusiastic about my job. (3)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
My job inspires me. (4)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
When I get up in the morning, I feel like going to work. (5)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I feel happy when I am working intensely. (6)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I am proud of the work that I do. (7)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I am immersed in my work. (8)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I get carried away when I'm working. (9)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Abbreviated Maslach Burnout Inventory

Q9. For each statement, select the scale that most accurately reflects you response.

I don't
really care
what
happens to
some
people at
work. (8)

☐☐☐☐☐☐☐

I feel
exhilarated
after
working
closely
with people
at work. (9)

☐☐☐☐☐☐☐

