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The Devil at Work: Understanding the Dark Side of Personality and its Impact on Performance

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THE DEVIL AT WORK:
UNDERSTANDING THE DARK SIDE OF PERSONALITY AND ITS IMPACT ON
PERFORMANCE

A Dissertation

Submitted to the Graduate Faculty of the
Louisiana State University and
Agricultural and Mechanical College
in partial fulfillment of the
requirements for the degree of
Doctor of Philosophy

in

The E.J. Ourso College of Business Administration
Rucks Department of Management

by
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ABSTRACT

Personality and its impact on work-related behaviors is an area of research that lacks an explanation of causal mechanisms. In this study, the influence of darker forms of personality (e.g., Machiavellianism, narcissism and psychopathy) on workplace behaviors are examined to determine if these behaviors in turn influence job performance outcomes (e.g., task performance, organizational citizenship behaviors). Using socioanalytic theory, getting along and getting ahead behaviors are proposed as mediators for the transmission of dark personality's impact on task performance. The theory is also used to examine the relationship between dark personality and targeted citizenship. Another important issue that is addressed is whether personality assessments rated by self and others diverge to describe the same individual. As more employers adopt some forms of personality assessment in their hiring processes (e.g., self-report, interviews, or coworker ratings), it is appropriate to test whether the mode of personality assessment (i.e., self or other) influences the prediction of personality measures on performance outcomes. The findings of this work further explicate the importance and impact of darker forms of personality on the workplace by showing that these traits and their form of assessment do have a meaningful impact.

CHAPTER 1: THE DISSERTATION TOPIC

And here comes in the question whether it is better to be loved rather than feared, or feared rather than loved. It might perhaps be answered that we should wish to be both; but since love and fear can hardly exist together, if we must choose between them, it is far safer to be feared than loved.

Niccolo Machiavelli (1469-1527)

Avert your gaze and you will lose your love, for this that holds your eyes is nothing save the image of yourself reflected back to you. It comes and waits with you; it has no life it will depart if you will only go.

Publius Ovidius Naso “Ovid” (43 BC-17 AD)

Together, these pieces of the puzzle form an image of a self-centered, callous, and remorseless person profoundly lacking in empathy and the ability to form warm emotional relationships with others, a person who functions without the restraints of conscience.

Robert D. Hare, Ph.D. (1934-)

* * *

Prologue: Tales from the Dark Side

Aliko Dangote, current CEO of the Dangote Group, is a Nigerian businessman whose estimated wealth is approximately \$16 billion—making him the richest person in Africa (Forbes, 2013). He is described as cynical, eccentric, tactical and manipulative with his business practices. Dangote is notorious for crushing his competition, always plotting his next move, developing relationships with powerful individuals, occasionally doing good deeds and surrounding himself with smart people (Nsehe, 2011). This tactical behavior indicates a darker outlook on life, yet Dangote is very successful in his quest to get ahead of others. Donald Trump is perhaps one of the most famous businessmen in the United States. Developing a real estate empire, Trump is notorious for his constant self-promotion, excessive style, and desire for attention (Donald Trump, 2013). However, his desire for recognition and fame along with his inability to form enduring social connections has not prevented him from achieving great financial success (Forbes, 2015). Al Dunlap, former CEO of Sunbeam, is a poster child for the

media's portrayal of negative personal attributes resulting in disastrous consequences (Hogan, 2007). Dunlap was infamous for implementing massive personnel cuts and demanding his employees meet highly unrealistic sales goals. He engaged in emotionally aggressive behavior and promoted imprudent and unethical activities amongst his staff, highlighting his de-emphasis on getting along with others (Byrne, 1998). His absence of empathy, superficial charm, and remorseless activities eventually caught up with him, but in the short term he was hailed as a business genius (Bercovici, 2011; Byrne, 1988). Each of these men was driven by their personalities to gain social status at the expense of social acceptance. In their organizations, they strove to get ahead quickly and effectively using tactics that allowed them to succeed. However, as they rose to prominence, their failure to get along sacrificed opportunities to develop strong workplace connections with others. Through their constant machinations and beguiling charm, these self-loving individuals advanced through life leaving a trail of both financial success and personal destruction (e.g., divorces, betrayals etc.).

This combination of good and bad behaviors associated with darker personalities could explain how people are either more or less successful; however, the mechanisms which account for these results are not well understood as it is unclear whether these “negative” personality traits actually lead to success or failure at work. Popular culture and the news media showcase individuals with dark personality characteristics and often vacillate between attributing praise or blame for their successes and failures according to their more “sinister” tendencies. All of the people described above advanced within their organizations, sometimes moving from one company to another and creating a solid performance record along the way. However, when the final results of their activities are revealed, harsher assessments are made about their behaviors. Do those with dark personalities strive to get ahead do so at the expense of their need to get

along? These circumstances beg the question of why people with dark personalities succeed or fail? Answering these questions can help us understand how dark personality influences job performance. In this dissertation, I propose and then test the idea that dark personality traits influence the initiation and accomplishment of both status striving and social acceptance behaviors in different ways that ultimately impact various aspects of job performance. Specifically, I argue that behaviors of a getting ahead and getting along nature mediate the impact of dark personality traits on task performance. Further, I argue that different forms of citizenship behavior can be either be status striving or communal in nature and thus those with dark personality traits will be more or less likely to engage in them. The impact of dark personality on performance can be explained by the types of behaviors that those with dark personalities engage in (i.e., these people may achieve greater success or failure due to their desire or lack thereof to perform specific types of behaviors at work). Finally, I argue that multiple forms of personality assessment (i.e., self and other) are necessary to determine the impact of these traits on job performance because those with darker personalities may be unwilling or unable to accurately assess themselves.

Statement of the Problem

Dark Triad

The influence of personality on workplace performance has been hotly debated (e.g., Davis-Blake & Pfeffer, 1989) and extensively researched (e.g., Barrick & Mount, 1991; Barrick & Mount, 2005; Hertz & Donovan, 2000). Most personality research in the organizational sciences has focused on the Five Factor Model (i.e., the Big Five) because of its utility and parsimony and the consistent and positive relationships that some traits (e.g., conscientiousness) have with job performance. Personality researchers desire to explain why some individuals are

more likely to be better task performers (Barrick & Mount, 1991; Hurtz & Donovan, 2000), and organizational citizens (Chiarbu, Oh, Berry, Li & Gardner, 2011), and less likely to engage in deviant activities (Berry, Ones, & Sackett, 2007). However, the impact of alternative personality constructs and frameworks has gained increased interest especially on traits that are considered malevolent or socially undesirable. Among these “offensive” traits are three prominent characteristics that together can help us understand how disposition impacts job performance. Labeled the Dark Triad (DT) by Paulhus and Williams (2002), these traits include Machiavellianism, narcissism, and psychopathy.

Those who are characterized as *Machiavellian* display a willingness and ability to manipulate situations and others (Christie & Geis, 1970), while acting without regard to ethical norms and skillfully exercising strategies to exploit circumstances and people for their personal benefit (Fehr, Samsom, & Paulhus, 1992; Grams & Rogers, 1990; O’Hair & Cody, 1987). *Narcissists* are preoccupied with gaining the admiration of others as well as their own self-love (Morf & Rhodewalt, 2001). This desire for recognition exhibits itself multiple ways including strategic outward kindness or overt outward aggression (Michel & Bowling, 2013). In the past, narcissism was viewed as a clinical disorder; however, empirical work demonstrates support for the existence of a nonclinical narcissism construct (Morf & Rhodewalt, 2001; Raskin & Hall, 1979). *Psychopathy* is characterized by individuals who are without conscience (Hare, 1993). People with this trait have a reduced capacity for relationship building, empathy, guilt, or loyalty to anyone beyond themselves. They demonstrate high levels of grandiosity and shallow emotion (Babiak & Hare, 2006). As with narcissism, there is evidence for a subclinical version of this trait and subsequent research has validated this idea (e.g., Paulhus, Hemphill & Hare, in press).

Prior Research

Past research has exclusively examined direct bivariate relationships between DT traits and workplace outcomes limiting our understanding of the true nature of the association between dark personality and performance. For example, in their meta-analysis based on self-assessments of DT traits and their impact on task performance, O'Boyle and colleagues found multiple significant relationships (O'Boyle, Forsyth, Banks & McDaniel, 2012). They found that task performance significantly relates to both psychopathy ($\rho = -.10$) and Machiavellianism ($\rho = -.07$), but not narcissism ($\rho = -.03$ *n.s.*). Their research demonstrates significant correlations between DT traits and task performance when studied in the aggregate; however, the aggregated data may be masking important explanations for the impact of these traits as the primary studies included in their analysis vary greatly. For example, Gable and Deangelo (1994) show a correlation of .29 between Machiavellianism and performance; yet Duffy, Shiflett and Downey (1977) reported a correlation of -.13. Judge, LePine and Rich (2006) found a correlation of .05 between narcissism and performance, but Johnson et al. (2010) showed a correlation of -.66 between the two. Bartol (1991) reported a correlation of -.16 between psychopathy and performance whereas McDonald et al. (1994) found a correlation of .03. These findings could be explained in part by sampling error, but other factors may be a driver of the differences in correlations between studies which explains the range of results found between the traits and task performance. Other research has tried to link DT traits and citizenship behaviors with conflicting results (e.g., Becker & O'Hair, 2007; Judge et al., 2006). Therefore, the current evidence suggests that people who are Machiavellian, narcissistic and demonstrating psychopathic tendencies may not always be poor performers, as relationships vary a great deal across studies.

Perhaps these traits cause those who possess them to perform work-related behaviors in conflicting ways (i.e., as they strive for advancement in the social hierarchy at work, they sacrifice the social acceptance that can be gained from their coworkers). A causal mechanism (i.e., mediator) based on a theoretical understanding of how the DT impacts job performance is crucial to further our understanding of this situation. Mediators are useful mechanisms to the extent they account for the relationships between predictor and outcome variables (Preacher & Hayes, 2004). Therefore, they help explain why and how the DT impacts task performance through different status striving and social acceptance behaviors that occur during workplace social interaction.

Socioanalytic Theory

Socioanalytic theory (Hogan, 1991; 2007) appears to explicate this situation and help categorize potential mediators of dark personality's impact on job performance. According to socioanalytic theory (Hogan, 1991, 2007), humans are social beings driven by the need to interact with one another for survival. The theory categorizes the types of interactions that occur in human society by the fundamental motives to *get along* and *get ahead*. Getting along can be defined as “behavior that gains the approval of others, enhances cooperation, and serves to build and maintain relationships” (J. Hogan & Holland, 2003, p. 103). Getting ahead can be seen as “behavior that produces results and advances an individual within the group” (J. Hogan & Holland, 2003, p.103).

These two categories of behavior appear to mirror the activities that those with elevated levels of the DT seem to be good at doing (i.e., getting ahead) and bad at doing (i.e., getting along). Therefore, I propose that – on the one hand – people with greater levels of DT traits are

focused on advancing themselves in the organization (i.e., getting ahead) and – on the other hand – are poor at forming healthy social relationships at work (i.e., getting along).

Socioanalytic theory assumes that all humans engage in both types of activities and these aspects of our behavior are hard wired into our genetic makeup and are manifested through human personality (Roberts & Wood, 2006). The theory is useful because it details why these social motives may exist and how personality is both expressed and can be measured (Hogan, 2007). It also explains how DT traits should relate to these social interaction activities (i.e., getting along and getting ahead mediating behaviors) in opposing ways—a process which ultimately impacts task performance in different fashions. Hence, different behavioral processes (as detailed below) are partially mediating the effect of the DT on task performance. By their nature, those with DT traits find it more difficult to get along and instead engage in what they do best (i.e., getting ahead). As such, individuals high in DT characteristics are likely deficient in their ability to create meaningful social exchanges. As seen in Figure 1.1, when aggregated together – as is typically done in meta-analyses (e.g., Hunter & Schmidt, 2004) – these positive and negative effects likely “wash out” in such a way that the true relationship between the DT and task performance is hidden. This situation could also be accounted for by the different performance measures that were used in prior research. Some studies may be measuring performance that belongs in more of a getting ahead category while others measure performance of a getting along nature. This could explain why there is such a high variation in results across different studies. In either case, it appears that engagement of getting along and getting ahead activities impacts task performance outcomes.

Moreover, this theoretical framework helps us to understand how getting along and getting ahead behaviors are influenced by personality—especially in a work performance

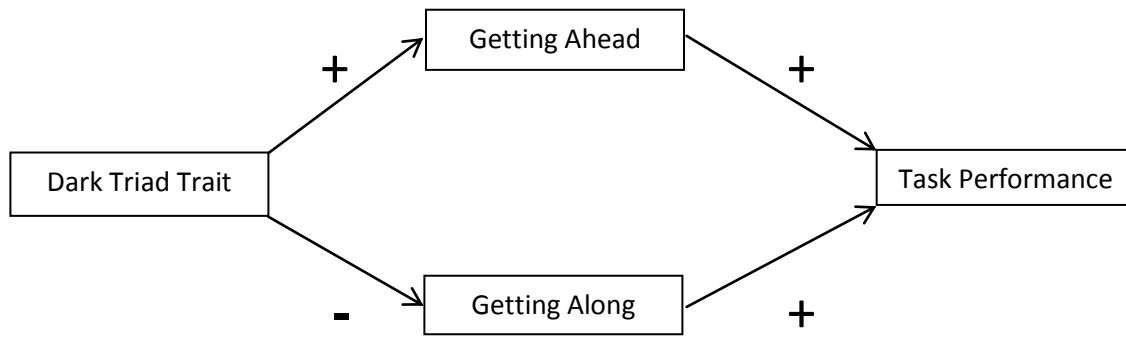


Figure 1.1
Mediating Relationships between Dark Triad Traits and Task Performance.

context. With a socioanalytic approach to understanding human interpersonal interactions and personality theory, I make theoretical arguments for how and why these socially malevolent personality characteristics impact job performance. Having an understanding of the various aspects and nature of job performance is also important for teasing out the impact of the DT.

Job Performance Issues

Along these lines, the first two objectives of this research are to outline and test a framework of theoretically relevant relationships that explain how the DT impacts aspects of job performance. Scholars hold various views about job performance, often splitting it into the categories of task performance and citizenship behaviors (Borman & Motowidlo, 1993; Rotundo & Sackett, 2002). Task (sometimes referred to as in-role) performance can be described as the core duties of a job (e.g., working an 8-hour day, finishing assignments in a timely way, complying with policies and procedures; Williams & Anderson, 1991). Prior research (e.g., Hoffman, Blair, Meriac & Woehr, 2007) shows that task performance can be measured as a distinct construct from citizenship behavior (LePine, Erez & Johnson, 2002). Task performance emphasizes achieving or exceeding duties formally established as components of the job that contribute to the organization's ability to convert inputs into outputs (i.e., its technical core;

Borman & Motowidlo, 1993). On the other hand, Borman and Motowidlo (1993) defined contextual performance (i.e., citizenship behavior) as “behaviors [that] do not support the technical core itself so much as they support the broader organizational, social and psychological environment in which the technical core must function” (p.73). Thus citizenship behaviors contribute to organizations by enhancing positive social and psychological climates (Borman & Motowidlo, 1997). With both the task performance and citizenship behaviors aspects of job performance in mind, I develop reasoning for explaining the impact of the DT.

Task Performance

The first goal of this dissertation is to develop a model for each DT trait detailing behaviors that embody either getting ahead or getting along which mediate the personality-task performance relationship (see Figure 1.2). Specifically, I argue that engaging in political skills (e.g., spending a lot of time and effort networking with coworkers; Ferris et al., 2005), displaying impression management (e.g., self-promotion, ingratiation etc.; Bolino & Turnley, 1999; Wayne & Ferris, 1990) and exhibiting proactive behaviors (e.g., using opportunities swiftly to reach goals; Ashford & Black, 1996; Crant, 2000; Frese, Kring Soose & Zempel, 1996) are getting ahead activities that should lead to positive DT-task performance relationships. These activities increase an employee’s influence at work and positively impact one’s performance evaluation.

On the other hand, getting along behaviors include friendliness (or a reduced display of harmful aggressiveness characterized by calmness or easy going actions; Buss & Perry, 1992; Greenberg & Barling, 1999), expressing humility (e.g., admitting when one doesn’t know how to do something; Owens, Johnson & Mitchell, 2013), and cooperation with other employees (e.g., having a strong sense of togetherness; Seers, 1989). People high in DT traits find it more difficult

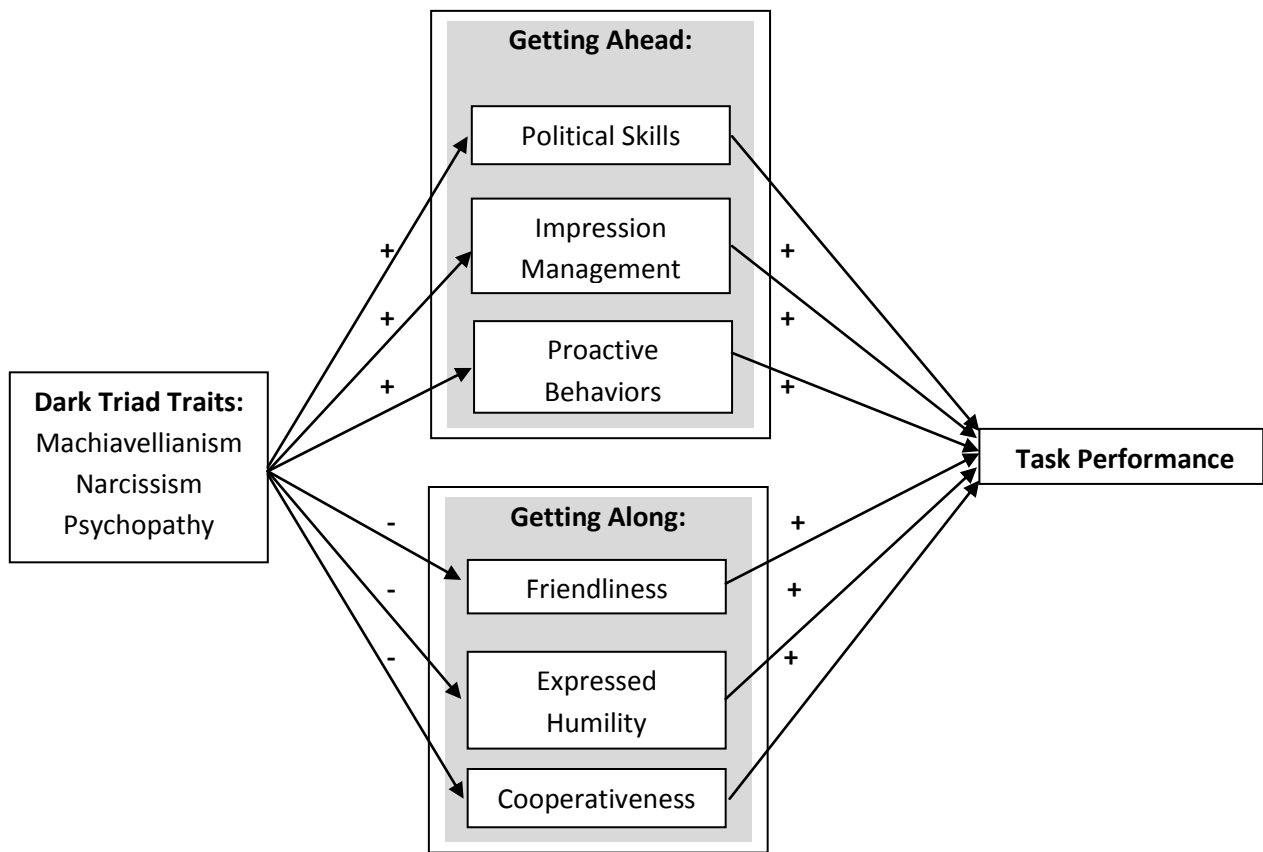


Figure 1.2
Dark Triad Relationships with Task Performance

Note. Socioanalytic theory argues that *getting along* and *getting ahead* behaviors should determine workplace performance. *Getting ahead* social behaviors include the use of political skills, impression management (e.g., self-promotion and ingratiation), and proactive behaviors. *Getting along* social behaviors include being friendly (i.e., calm and easy going) towards others, displaying expressed humility, and general cooperativeness with others. The Dark Triad should be measured by both the focal employee and co-workers (other ratings of personality). Mediators should be measured by the target employee. Task performance should be obtained from supervisors.

to engage in getting along behaviors. Yet these getting along behaviors are important for performance because supervisors recognize the value of being a team player and working with others to achieve organizational objectives (Liden, Wayne & Sparrowe, 2000).

Taken together, task performance should be influenced by the amount of employees' getting along and getting ahead behaviors. However, the negatives associated with failing to

engage in getting along type behaviors should outweigh the positive benefits of engaging in more of the getting ahead type behaviors. This should result in a significant (but low) negative overall relationship between DT traits and task performance; however, the importance of the correlation is muddled and masked, as evidenced by the O'Boyle et al. (2012) meta-analysis. In Chapter 2, I make more specific arguments regarding each DT trait and these “getting ahead” and “getting along” mediators.

Organizational Citizenship Behaviors

As a second goal of this dissertation, I will advance understanding of the DT-job performance relationship by focusing on another aspect of job performance—organizational citizenship behaviors (OCBs; Organ, Podsakoff & MacKenzie, 2006). Definitions of OCBs emphasize their contribution to the social and psychological core of the organization (Organ, 1997) and are seen as behaviors that workers engage in that are outside of normal job duties. OCBs can be placed into a framework based on the target of the behavior (e.g., Lavelle, Rupp & Brockner, 2007). Targets of OCBs include coworkers (e.g., “Shows genuine concern and courtesy toward coworkers”) and supervisors (e.g., “Accepts added responsibility when the supervisor is absent”). Currently, the extent to which someone with a high level of DT traits performs citizenship behaviors towards either coworkers or supervisors is not well addressed in the literature (e.g., Becker & O'Hair, 2007; Dahling, Whitaker & Levy, 2009). It is likely that those high in DT characteristics will engage in OCBs directed at pleasing their supervisor, as this will enhance their agenda. However, they are less likely to direct OCBs toward coworkers because they do not have the same degree of influence on their ability to get ahead. If differences exist between the target of the OCB and DT traits, their potential positive or negative effect can

be delineated, helping to explain when DT traits may be “good” or “bad” for different members of the organization.

Self vs Other Ratings

As a third goal of this dissertation, I examine the role that different forms of personality ratings have on the prediction of job performance outcomes. Specifically, I look at theoretical differences between self- and other-ratings of personality from a socioanalytic theory perspective. According to socioanalytic theory (Hogan, 1991, 2007), observer ratings of personality should be predictive of behaviors and perhaps even more so than self-ratings of personality. Consequently, measuring the DT from an “other” perspective enhances an understanding of its impact. Socioanalytic theory defines personality from two perspectives that serve two distinct purposes (Hogan, 2007). The first is the individual’s view of their own personality from the inside concerning what they know about who they are, their dreams, desires, fears etc. and their own theories about how to get along and get ahead (McAdams, 1993). This internal aspect of personality is labeled *identity* (Hogan, 1991, 2007). In contrast, an observer’s view of a focal individual’s personality involves what that observer knows and thinks about that person based on that individual’s behavior. This is labeled *reputation* (Hogan, 1991, 2007). Whereas we usually worry about our internal perspective and self-evaluations, it is others’ perspectives of our reputation that has a greater payoff when it comes to relationships with job performance (Hogan, 2007). This dual view of personality leads to a differing result for both the impact and measurement of personality. “Affection and status are granted on the basis of reputation—people hire us, fire us, marry us, loan us money, and otherwise support us based on our reputations” (Hogan, 2007, p. 9). In addition, exploring the differing impact of self- and other-rated measures of DT traits could be vital because the nature of the traits may cause their

assessment to be different based on the source of rating (e.g., a Machiavellian may strategically report personality ratings to fit an agenda). It is also likely that other ratings of DT traits more accurately predict job performance similar to other ratings of Big Five traits (e.g., Oh, Wang & Mount, 2011).

Contribution of the Dissertation

This dissertation will provide several contributions to the organizational sciences. Prior researchers have called for a greater understanding of the impact of dark traits on interpersonal relationships at work (e.g., Judge et al., 2006). Accordingly, I build on socioanalytic theory to explicate the effect of the DT on different aspects of job performance. Doing so is important because the impact of personality on job performance continues to be valuable for researchers and practitioners who desire to understand relevant antecedents of job performance. To date, it is unclear exactly how and why dark personality traits impact aspects of job performance (O’Boyle et al., 2012). By testing relationships between personality traits, potential mediators, and performance outcomes, this work could help address these issues. It is thought that those who possess high levels of dark traits could have a dramatic impact on their work environments; as a result, providing a better understanding of this impact is both theoretically and practically important.

Following this line of reasoning, this research begins by advancing our knowledge of personality theory and demonstrates why and how darker traits impact task performance specifically. These findings should show more clearly how DT traits either positively or negatively impact task performance. By identifying the mediating mechanisms that explain how the expression of DT traits impact task performance, I will demonstrate that these traits may be more impactful than previously believed. This will provide more clarity to our understanding of

the DT and overcome weaknesses of previous research (e.g., lumping different DVs; measurement issues). Hence, the first contribution of this work is to enhance understanding of *how* dark personality traits influence task performance by their impact on specific behaviors that have already demonstrated important relationships with task performance.

Testing the arguments of socioanalytic theory also helps build a better understanding of *why* this happens. Both “getting along” and “getting ahead” behaviors should act as opposing mediating mechanisms which attenuate the bivariate relationships between DT traits and task performance outcomes. This work will build on prior research that has tried to explain the impact of personality on performance and attempt to challenge our current understanding of the positive and negative impact of DT traits on workplace behavior. Along these lines, I hope to demonstrate that DT traits do not always lead to negative outcomes. This is in opposition to most currently held opinions about the expression of dark personality. Thus, this dissertation attempts to unravel the relationships between DT traits and task performance in a more comprehensive manner by moving beyond the examination of simple bivariate correlations. As a result, this work builds on both DT and socioanalytic theory to explain both *how* and *why* personality impacts task performance.

Further, I will show that DT traits impact different forms of citizenship behaviors in different ways—furthering knowledge about more focused aspects of performance (see Figure 1.3) and adding a second contribution to the literature regarding DT traits and their impact on OCBs. Specifically, I contend that some OCBs (e.g., those targeted at coworkers and including such activities as giving time to help coworkers with work-related issues) are more closely aligned with “getting along” type behaviors. At the same time, other OCBs (e.g., those targeted at supervisors such as accepting added responsibility to help an absent supervisor) are more

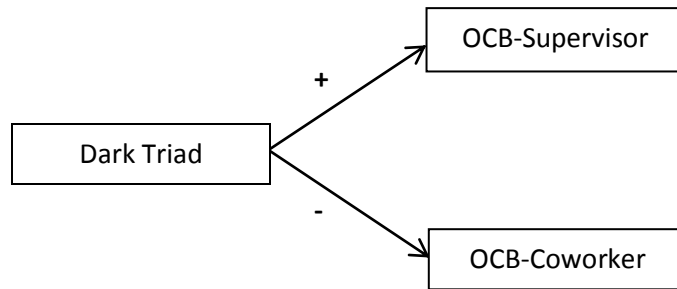


Figure 1.3
Dark Triad Relationships with Targeted OCBs

Note. OCB-Supervisor (OCB-S) and OCB-Coworker (OCB-C) should be assessed by the supervisor.

closely aligned with “getting ahead” type behaviors. Viewing these forms of performance from a socioanalytic perspective will test theory about *why* personality impacts their enactment and on *how* personality causes these behaviors to occur. Essentially, I will help establish the idea in the personality and performance literatures that dark personality types may be beneficial because they are antecedents of targeted citizenship behavior. Demonstrating that DT traits are beneficial for organizational players challenges currently held views that dark traits are always detrimental to performance outcomes.

Yet a third contribution of this research is a greater understanding of the importance of measuring dark personality from an observer standpoint. Prior research establishes that Big Five traits measured from an observer’s perspective significantly predict job performance (Oh et al., 2011) because others have the ability to accurately evaluate personality traits in the work context that impact job performance (e.g., conscientiousness). However, the extent to which observer ratings of DT traits impact workplace outcomes has not been explored. In their meta-analysis of the DT traits, O’Boyle and colleagues (2012) “found no instances where peer or supervisor ratings were used to measure DT traits, so in all cases the DT traits were self-reported” (p.562). Therefore, prior research relied exclusively on self-report measures of DT traits. This is

especially troubling for DT research because those who possess dark personality traits may be *unwilling* or *unable* to accurately assess themselves due to the nature of the traits. Research that specifically examines the impact of observer ratings of the DT traits will enhance our understanding of these darker characteristics because a more objective measure of dark personality is necessary for accurate ratings. Thus, an important contribution of this dissertation is the idea that well-acquainted others can as adequately or more accurately assess these traits in focal individuals. By establishing the validity of observer ratings of dark personality traits for predicting job performance outcomes, I could impact how researchers and practitioners think about the value of acquaintance ratings of personality.

Likewise, I can contribute to ongoing research by establishing that the combination of self and other personality ratings may incrementally predict job performance—adding to the range of useful antecedents that explain these outcomes. As such, this work will build on the increasing research stream of observer ratings (e.g., Connelly & Ones, 2010; Kluemper, McLarty & Bing, 2015; Oh et al., 2011) by demonstrating why (i.e., alternative measures of different aspects of dark traits) and how (i.e., the cumulative effect of multiple measures) observer ratings of DT traits are vital to understanding performance outcomes. With this in mind, I will argue that observer ratings of these traits (i.e., reputation) are predictive of subsequent behavior because observers are able to evaluate the DT. This will challenge the notion that self-ratings of personality are solely adequate for predicting job performance. As detailed above, the reputation perspective of the DT should relate strongly to job performance because past reputation predicts future behavior (e.g., Mount, Barrick & Strauss, 1994). This could help establish the importance of using this form of assessment for predicting vital outcomes such as a task and citizenship performance.

Yet another contribution of this dissertation could be the further establishment of the DT framework for future research efforts. Because the DT has not been considered as a group of personality traits prior to the work of Paulhus and Williams (2002) and because the measurement of task performance in nearly all of the primary research to date is so widespread and inconsistent, the true relationship between these traits and task performance is difficult to ascertain. This work will clarify this issue. Similar to research that was spurred once the Big Five was established (e.g., Barrick & Mount, 1991), this DT research could demonstrate relevant workplace relationships and potentially encourage more investigations of the DT if the results justify further study. The current inconsistencies with extant empirical data indicate that there is much to learn about the true relationship between DT traits and different aspects of job performance. This dissertation will be a first attempt to uncover previously understudied aspects of the personality-performance debate. Along these same lines, this dissertation involves the comprehensive analysis of the three DT traits in a single research effort. Most other research focuses on one of the three traits impacting a single performance outcome (e.g., Becker & O'Hair, 2007; Dahling et al., 2009). By assessing the impact of all three and including multiple relevant outcomes in the same study, I can provide more clarity to the literature as a whole. The current lack of information about the influence of the DT on various target-based forms of OCBs (e.g., Lavelle et al., 2007) is particularly noticeable in the literature.

Summary of the Remaining Chapters

In this introductory chapter, I establish the importance of pursuing research exploring the impact of DT traits on job performance. I provide a brief introduction to each component of the DT and their impact. I also argue for using a strong theoretical framework (i.e., socioanalytic theory) to explain the influence of the DT and the mediating mechanisms between these traits

and task performance. Moreover, I introduce the idea that the DT should have different relationships with different forms of OCBs depending on the target of the citizenship activities. Finally, I establish the importance and usefulness of assessing these DT traits from multiple perspectives. Chapter 2 continues to detail the importance of the DT and their impact on different aspects of job performance. Using socioanalytic theory as a framework, I present hypotheses that outline the nature of the relationships between DT traits and different forms of performance. In Chapter 3, I explain the methodology used to test the hypothesized relationships. A discussion of the sample characteristics, procedures and instruments used to collect information are detailed. In Chapter 4, I explain the statistical analyses implemented to test the hypotheses first by establishing construct validity and then moving into mediation and regression techniques. Finally, Chapter 5 consists of a discussion of the results, the theoretical and practical implications of this work, and the limitations and future research that could be pursued because of it.

CHAPTER 2: THE MODEL AND HYPOTHESES

The Dark Triad of Personality

Most research linking personality with job performance has focused on the “bright side” constructs (e.g., the Big Five), but much less is known about the relationship between darker aspects of personality (e.g., Machiavellianism, narcissism and psychopathy) and job performance. The Dark Triad (DT) – Machiavellianism, narcissism and psychopathy – is a configuration composed of three “offensive, yet non-pathological personalities” (Paulhus & Williams, 2002, p.556) which are sometimes thought to represent a higher order construct of dark personality. The establishment of the DT has led to fruitful research about its impact on numerous outcomes related to personality research (e.g., Jonason & Webster, 2010; McDonald, Donnellan, & Navarrete, 2012; Rauthmann & Kolar, 2012; Webster & Jonason, 2013). Although some preliminary work suggested that the DT is related to work-related outcomes (e.g., O’Boyle et al., 2012), the nature of this relationship is not well understood. Developing a more in-depth understanding of how and why the DT impacts aspects of job performance will enrich our understanding of its true influence in the workplace.

O’Boyle et al. (2012) helped to solidify the concept of the DT as a dark personality construct by showing that each of the three traits is distinguishable from the other (despite the existence of some overlap). For example, Machiavellianism and narcissism demonstrate a true correlation coefficient of $\rho = .30$, suggesting that narcissists may be more willing to manipulate so they can elevate the amount of affirmation they receive and maintain superiority over others (O’Boyle et al., 2012). This may also indicate that those who use deceit and craftiness may view their abilities as evidence of their greater status amongst their peers. Psychopathy demonstrated stronger relationships with Machiavellianism ($\rho = .59$) and narcissism ($\rho = .51$). This indicates

that “antisocial tendencies are an important part of viewing oneself as better than most and being willing to engage in deceitful tactics for one’s own gain” (O’Boyle et al., 2012, p. 569).

Jones and Paulhus (2014) suggested that the DT may be indicative of an antagonistic or exploitative interpersonal style. This style is characterized by “agentic striving at the expense of or disregard for communal welfare” (Rauthmann & Kolar, 2013, p. 622). In other words, traits included in the DT are precursors to behaviors that are focused on status achievement rather than those related to social acceptance. Consequently, individuals who exhibit high levels of the DT are prone to focusing their actions on striving to attain greater levels in a social hierarchy rather than achieving enhanced relationships with those in their surroundings. This emphasis on getting ahead of others at the expense of getting along with others represents a corrupted understanding of social exchange processes by those with more DT characteristics. Because status striving often interferes with acceptance development, there is an ongoing conflict between the two processes (Hogan, 1996), and people must work to balance the two. This implies that in organizational settings those who are more adept at balancing their behaviors between the two motives should be more successful (i.e., better performers with more career success; Day & Schliecher, 2006).

However, those with higher DT levels likely find this balancing act very difficult to perform—and may not even recognize the need to perform it. Instead, their personality likely drives them to improve their social position within the group hierarchy (e.g., a work setting) in order to gain access to more resources and influence over others. Greater degrees of DT traits may also discourage behaving in ways that gain the approval of others, enhance cooperation, or establish and maintain interpersonal connections. In the review that follows, I build on this logic by describing each DT construct as well as its place in the nomological network of management

scholarship. Doing so allows me to later theorize how DT traits influence motivations of behavior in the workplace (i.e., how DT traits influence getting ahead and getting along).

Machiavellianism

Machiavellianism represents a trait described as being willing and able to manipulate other people without regard for ethics (Becker & O'Hair, 2007; Christie & Geis, 1970). People with this trait (i.e., Machs) use a calculated, detached interpersonal style that enhances their own self-interests instead of building relationships and the welfare of other people. Niccolo Machiavelli (1469/1513) wrote extensively on the negative aspects of human interaction and is credited with originating the concept in modern times. He argued that one should always be at war (or preparing for it), that virtue can be bad while vice is good, that it is better to be feared than loved, and that one must always be seizing opportunities for advancement and wealth.

Along these lines, research indicates that Machs are dominant and non-nurturing (Paulhus & Martin, 1987), opportunistic, highly adaptive to changing environments, and able to engage in multiple forms of communication and behaviors to achieve their goals (e.g., Martin, Anderson & Thweatt, 1998; Grams & Rogers, 1990; O'Hair, Cody & McLaughlin, 1981; Fehr et al., 1992). Dahling and colleagues (2009) recently advanced understanding of Machiavellianism by showing that the construct has four distinct facets. These include distrust of others (e.g., "If I show any weakness at work, other people will take advantage of it", p. 251), desire for status (e.g., "Status is a good sign of success in life", p. 251), desire for control (e.g., "I enjoy being able to control the situation" p. 251), and the propensity to engage in amoral manipulation of others (e.g., "I am willing to be unethical if I believe it will help me succeed", p. 251). Among these facets a clear pattern of selfishness, calculation, and amorality exist.

Nomological Network of Machiavellianism

Machiavellianism is similar to other traits in the DT in that all describe socially pernicious features leading toward behaviors such as self-promotion, shallow displays of affection and enhanced calculation. As mentioned, meta-analysis data shows that Machiavellianism relates to both narcissism ($\rho = .30$) and psychopathy ($\rho = .59$) lending support to the notion that it is part of a darker framework of personality (O'Boyle et al., 2012). This indicates that Machiavellians likely desire superiority over others and utilize antisocial techniques to manipulate others for personal gain. When considering the Big Five personality framework across multiple studies, Machiavellianism tends to relate negatively to agreeableness and conscientiousness and positively to neuroticism (e.g., Douglas, Bore & Munro, 2012; Jakobwitz & Egan, 2006; Lee & Ashton, 2005; Paulhus & Williams, 2002; Veselka, Schermer & Vernon, 2012). However, the effect sizes are only moderate in magnitude (e.g., a range of .23 to .38 for neuroticism). Taken together, Machiavellianism overlaps some with the DT and the Big Five, yet is distinct enough to be considered a separate, impactful manifestation of personality (Paulhus & Williams, 2002; O'Boyle et al., 2012).

Machiavellianism and Job Performance

Job performance may be thought of as “those actions and behaviors that are under the control of the individual and contribute to the goals of the organization” (Rotundo & Sackett, 2002, p. 66). Many researchers conclude that there are multiple aspects to job performance and choose to study these aspects in differing ways. One useful view of job performance espoused by Borman and Motowidlo (1993) recognizes two categories that include task performance (sometimes referred to as in-role) and contextual performance (i.e., organizational citizenship behaviors; OCBs). Task performance describes the core tasks of a job (e.g., a full 8-hour work

day, completion of assigned duties in a timely fashion, obeying organizational rules and regulations; Williams & Anderson, 1991). In-role behavior emphasizes the completion of tasks and performance; it can be seen as achieving or exceeding quantitative or qualitative established standards (Katz & Kahn, 1978), and accomplishing duties and responsibilities of a job (Murphy, 1989) that are formally established as components of the work and contribute to the organization's technical core (Borman & Motowidlo, 1993). Contributing to the technical core of the organization is a vital piece which sets apart this performance component from citizenship. Measures of task performance vary from study to study, sometimes because of the difficulty in comparing formal requirements from organization to organization, but the key for understanding this aspect of job performance is the attempt to measure outcomes that are directly understood as being part of the required work (i.e., they contribute to the organization and are recognized as doing so; Rotundo & Sackett, 2002).

Gaining knowledge about the antecedents of job performance, particularly task performance, is one of the most vital aspects of organizational research (Faye & Sonnentag, 2010). Personality has been researched under many contexts to understand its impact on task performance and several meta-analyses have established important relationships between Big Five personality factors and task performance (e.g., Barrick & Mount, 1991; Hurtz & Donovan, 2000; Oh et al., 2010; Salgado, 1997). This work concludes that personality (in the form of brighter traits of the Big Five) does predict task performance; hence, managers are concerned about this issue. What is lacking is a deeper understanding of the relationship between traits in the DT and task performance (O'Boyle et al., 2012).

Machiavellianism and Getting Ahead

As a DT trait, Machiavellianism indicates a behavioral pattern mirroring the desire to achieve enhanced status in the workplace (i.e., recognition for greater task performance). However, direct relationships between Machiavellianism and task performance show very mixed results. For example, Dahling et al. (2009) found a negative correlation between Machiavellianism and task performance ($r = -.11$) in an employed student sample. However, organizational tenure moderated the relationship so that increased tenure resulted in higher performance ratings for those higher in Machiavellianism—suggesting that participants who were more similar to regular employees have different results than students. In other research, Gable and Dangello (1994) found a correlation of .29 between Machiavellianism and performance as measured by sales and turnover rate of inventory in a retail environment—a decidedly getting ahead type of outcome. These types of results are mirrored in other work where more objective measures of performance such as sales volume are used rather than supervisor perceptions of performance (e.g., Aziz, 2004, 2005; Ricks & Fraedrich, 1999; Turnball, 1976). It has also been demonstrated that those higher in Machiavellianism will perform more successfully in loosely structured environments where they have the ability to increase reward outcomes compared to highly structured situations where those low in the trait were more successful (Corzine, Buntzman & Busch, 1988; Schultz 1993). Less structured situations represent environments where getting ahead can be positively impacted by Machiavellian activities.

Machiavellianism and Getting Along

When performance outcomes are more geared toward building social connections (i.e., getting along), Machiavellianism has shown more negative relationships. For example, Duffy et

al. (1977) and Jaffe, Nebenzahl and Gotesdyner (1989) found negative correlations between Machiavellianism and perceptions of military unit performance effectiveness and team performance, respectively. Likewise, leadership performance measured through perceptions that emphasize getting along behaviors significantly and negatively correlate with Machiavellianism (Hollon, 1996; Seigel, 1973). These findings demonstrate the complicated mechanisms involved in explaining how Machiavellianism impacts task performance. When performance measures emphasize getting along behaviors, negative relationships seem to occur; when performance measures emphasize getting ahead behaviors, positive relationships seem to occur. By testing mediators that represent these two types of behaviors in a relationship between Machiavellianism and task performance, a better explanation can be uncovered as to how this trait influences task performance.

Narcissism

Narcissism has a rich history in personality research dating back to Havelock Ellis (1898) who coined the word after drawing from the Greek myth of Narcissus—the young man who was doomed to fall in love with his own reflection (Rosenthal & Pittinsky, 2006). Freud (1931/1950) is also credited with suggesting that it be considered a personality type. Narcissism can be described generally as “a grandiose sense of self-importance” (Judge et al., 2006, p. 762) and an enhanced preoccupation with reinforcing a positive self-view (Chatterjee & Hambrick, 2007). Narcissists are preoccupied with daydreams of limitless success, are convinced of their own uniqueness, desire and seek greater than normal levels of admiration from others, possess a strong entitlement mentality, tend to use others for their own gain, have limited sensitivity to the emotions of others, and are arrogant and haughty in their interactions with others (Judge et al., 2006).

Psychologists have demonstrated that “healthy” amounts of narcissism can also exist where it is not considered a debilitating disorder (Raskin & Terry, 1988). Therefore, it can be characterized as a personality trait, not only a clinical disorder, and reduced levels of narcissism are present in normal populations (Chatterjee & Hambrick, 2007; Emmons, 1987). Four characteristics that embody trait narcissism have been investigated and verified (Emmons, 1984, 1987; Raskin & Hall, 1981). These include: (1) Exploiteness/Entitlement (the notion that one can easily manipulate others and has the right to do so); (2) Leadership/Authority (the belief in a high ability to influence others and a desire for positions of power); (3) Superiority/Arrogance (the notion that one is simply “better” and has a hereditary advantage over others); and (4) Self-absorption/Self-admiration (the presence of high degree of self-importance and vanity). Emmons (1987) also established that these four aspects represent a single higher order narcissism construct.

Scholars argue that non-clinical narcissism can have important implications for organizational settings (Bushman & Baumeister, 1998; Bushman, Bonacci, van Dijk & Baumeister, 2003). As a result, narcissism research in the organizational sciences has increased in recent years (Soyer, Rovenpor, Kopelman, Mullins & Watson, 2001) as scholars have recognized the importance of this personality trait in influencing workplace issues (e.g., leadership [Judge et al., 2006; Resick, Whitman, Weingarden & Hiller, 2009; Paunonen, Lonnqvist, Verkasalo, Leikas & Nissinen, 2006; Rosenthal & Pittinsky, 2006], deviant workplace behaviors [Michel & Bowling, 2013; Penney & Spector, 2002], job satisfaction [Michel & Bowling, 2013; Soyer et al., 2001] and others). Narcissism impacts work criteria in different ways due to its reflection of different attitudes, beliefs, and behavioral tendencies that

cause narcissists to engage in behaviors that are decidedly self-serving and self-aggrandizing (i.e., they are geared toward pursuing getting ahead activities).

Nomological Network of Narcissism

Prior research establishes that narcissism is a distinct construct that is related, but not identical to self-esteem (Brown & Zeigler-Hill, 2004; Emmons, 1984). Research by Paulhus and Williams (2002) and others (e.g., Douglas et al., 2012; Jakobwitz & Egan, 2006; Lee & Ashton, 2005; Veselka et al., 2012) shows that narcissism is not well reflected by the Big Five. This work shows that Narcissism is moderately related to extraversion (effect sizes of .22 to .46) and agreeableness (effect sizes of -.36 to -.67). Some studies also show a small negative correlation with conscientiousness and a small positive correlation with openness (Douglas et al., 2012; Jakobwitz & Egan, 2006; Paulhus & Williams, 2002). In regards to other DT traits, as pointed out previously, narcissism correlates with Machiavellianism ($\rho = .30$) and psychopathy ($\rho = .51$) such that a higher order darker personality framework is feasible, yet it can be considered a distinct trait as well (O'Boyle et al., 2012). These results indicate that narcissists may be more willing to engage in manipulation and antisocial behavior so they can elevate the affirmation they receive and maintain their superiority over others (O'Boyle et al., 2012). Therefore, narcissism can be viewed as a distinct personality trait, while also having significant associations with other aspects of both the DT and Big Five frameworks of personality.

Narcissism and Getting Ahead

Research on narcissism and its association with performance has produced mixed results (Campbell, Hoffman, Campbell & Marchisio, 2011). As a general rule, narcissists are more willing to behave in ways that serve their own goals rather than someone else's (Morf & Rhodewalt, 2001), including aspects of task performance which are more likely to be seen (and

subsequently rewarded) by superiors (Judge et al., 2006). Due to their emphasis on immediate personal gain, narcissists may seek short term advantages at the expense of long term benefits as they attempt to self-aggrandize (Robins & Beer, 2001). Because narcissists are concerned with displaying superiority over others, they are interested in performing in ways that get them powerful places in organizations and objective recognition for their work. Research shows that narcissism relates positively with getting ahead type outcomes such as sales performance (Soyer, Rovenpor & Kopelman, 1999). Research also shows that narcissistic CEOs tend to have a significant impact on firm performance by engaging in more bold actions that attract attention and lead to either extreme gains or losses (e.g., strategic dynamism, number and size of acquisitions; Chatterjee & Hambrick, 2007). This demonstrates how narcissists focus on getting ahead by pursuing tactics that display their greatness in flashy ways that can sometimes cause beneficial results and can be viewed as positive individual task performance.

Narcissism and Getting Along

On the other hand, some forms of task performance are more geared toward getting along with coworkers (e.g., teamwork performance). These behaviors are likely less important for a narcissist who desires to enhance and bolster an ongoing self-view of a grandiose nature. For example, Campbell, Rudich and Sedikies (2002) found that narcissists believe they are above average on aspects which indicate individualistic orientations (e.g., intellectual skills, extraversion) but lower on factors more communal in nature (e.g., agreeableness, emotional stability, morality). This suggests narcissists are more likely to get ahead using their abilities than get along by pursuing more communal behaviors. Narcissists may also use different strategies to keep their self-views in place by seeking recognition, admiration and undue credit—in doing so they form shallow relationships with others (Campbell et al., 2011). In this vein, Paulhus (1998),

in a study of groups, showed that over time narcissists tend to contribute less and less to group performance. Similarly, Blair, Hoffman and Hellend (2008) found that narcissism negatively relates to aspects of performance such as team building, sensitivity and confrontation effectiveness. Finally, Goffin and Anderson (2006) showed that peers tend to rate narcissists more negatively than supervisors. Taken together, these results indicate that narcissists are unlikely to form strong bonds with others or even engage in behaviors that are aimed at getting along.

Psychopathy

According to Hare (1996), psychopathy is a “cluster of personality traits and socially deviant behaviors” (p. 25). The most common conceptualization of psychopathy involves the interrelationship of four areas—interpersonal manipulation, callous affect, impulsive thrill-seeking lifestyle, and antisocial behaviors (Williams, Nathanson & Paulhus, 2003). Along these lines, psychopathy is viewed as a multidimensional continuum; only those on the extreme end are true clinical psychopaths¹; that is they have a heavy dose of the four domains (Babiak & Hare, 2006). Therefore, individuals who are lower on the continuum may be considered sub-clinical and the characteristics of psychopathy can be seen as a personality trait in normal (non-clinical, non-forensic) populations (Williams & Paulhus, 2004). Sub-clinical psychopathy has been linked with socially deviant behaviors including cheating, plagiarism, self-reports of misbehavior, bullying, and drug abuse (Babiak & Hare, 2006; Williams & Paulhus, 2004; Williams et al., 2003). Sub-clinical psychopaths can function reasonably well in various professions and are adept at mimicking good performance (Babiak & Hare, 2006; Hare, 1993). As such, sub-clinical psychopaths have the ability to function in society without being incarcerated; consequently, efforts to understand people with these traits in “normal” samples

have increased in recent years with various estimates of its existence offered (e.g., Coid, Freestone & Ullrich, 2012; Coid, Yang, Ullrich, Roberts & Hare, 2009; Lee, Ashton, Wiltshire, Bourdage, Visser & Gallucci, 2013; Lilienfeld & Andrews, 1996; Neumann & Hare, 2008; Williams, Paulhus & Hare, 2007).

The four domains of psychopathy distinguish it from other dark personality traits. The first is called the interpersonal domain and describes how psychopaths present themselves to others—usually behaving in a way that is superficial, grandiose, dominant and deceitful (Babiak & Hare, 2006). The affective domain relates to what psychopaths feel or don't feel emotionally—they are typically shallow, unable to form strong emotional attachments to others, lack empathy, and fail to show remorse or regret for their actions (Hare & Neumann, 2009). The interpersonal and affective domains involve feelings and relationships, whereas the lifestyle and antisocial domains are more geared toward social deviance, noted for a “chronically unstable and aimless lifestyle marked by casual and flagrant violations of social norms and expectations” (Hare, 1993, p. 57). For example, in the lifestyle domain, psychopaths tend to demonstrate impulsiveness, lack goals, and are irresponsible about keeping commitments (Babiak & Hare, 2006; Lilienfeld & Andrews, 1996). Finally, the antisocial aspects of psychopathy include a poor history of behavioral control (i.e., they are short-tempered, easily offended and quick to resort to aggression), and possess a pattern of adolescent and adult antisocial behavior (e.g., persistent lying, cheating, unethical and immoral activities etc.; Hare, 1993).

Nomological Network of Psychopathy

As with other elements of the DT, psychopathy is significantly associated with different Big Five personality traits. However, the only consistently strong and negative relationship is the correlation that exists between psychopathy and agreeableness with effect sizes ranging from -

.25 to -.68 (e.g., Douglas et al., 2012; Jakobwitz & Egan, 2006; Lee & Ashton, 2005; Paulhus & Williams, 2002; Veselka et al., 2012). Some research shows significant negative associations with conscientiousness as well (ranging from -.24 to -.37), but the pattern is less clear (Douglas et al., 2012; Paulhus & Williams, 2002; Veselka et al., 2012). Therefore, psychopathy falls into the nomological network of the Big Five, but is not fully explained by it. As explained before, psychopathy also demonstrates moderate relationships with Machiavellianism ($\rho = .59$) and narcissism ($\rho = .51$). This indicates that “antisocial tendencies are an important part of viewing oneself as better than most and being willing to engage in deceitful tactics for one’s own gain” (O’Boyle et al., 2012, p. 569). Hence, the trait falls nicely into the DT framework, yet can still be considered a distinct construct for research purposes.

Psychopathy and Getting Ahead

Psychopaths operate without a sense of guilt or conscience and greatly desire to achieve self-serving ends. Although research on psychopathy and task performance is limited, some suggest that psychopaths are attracted to organizational employment because it provides opportunities for them to take advantage of others, succeed quickly, and hide all at the same time (Babiak & Hare, 2006). Psychopaths seem to have little interest in most realistic long-term and organizational goals; instead they seem motivated by more immediate gratification (i.e., they desire to achieve higher status within social hierarchies and get ahead quickly; Babiak & Hare, 2006). Psychopaths are very good at assessing others’ strengths and weaknesses in an opportunistic fashion and controlling the flow of information and communication with their victims, allowing them to take advantage of their surroundings and positively impact their resulting task performance (at least in the short term; Babiak & Hare, 2006). Moreover, a psychopath’s lack of emotion allows the ability to make hard decisions, keep emotions in check,

and remain cool under fire (Babiak & Hare, 2006)—all skills associated with high levels of task performance (e.g., some forms of leadership). Thus, it is reasonable to believe that enhanced degrees of psychopathy will relate positively to certain aspects of task performance that reflect getting ahead activities because the lack of conscience characteristic of psychopathy allows for activities that others would find unpalatable. In sum, psychopaths will do the “dirty work” that others won’t, thus they can more quickly advance within their organizations and achieve recognition for task performance.

Psychopathy and Getting Along

On the other hand, psychopaths are not viewed as good team players because they tend to be too selfish and shortsighted to work toward common goals. In their pursuit of immediate gratification, psychopaths can wreak havoc on others through actions, which are not technically illegal, but violate ethics and rest on the “shady side of the law” (Hare, 1993, p.114). This drive for self-gratification likely prevents the formation of strong, durable relationships with others. Although psychopaths are very good at assessing and manipulating others, they culminate their tactics by abandoning their targets once their objective is complete (Babiak & Hare, 2006). After these behaviors are recognized, the true nature of the psychopath becomes clear to others. Their propensity to use others in a heartless and cold fashion ultimately results in their inability to garner social acceptance. Therefore, when task performance is measured in a way that reflects more getting along behavior (e.g., teamwork; peer evaluations etc.) psychopathy will likely lead to decreased levels of task performance.

Summary

In the previous paragraphs, I provide a foundation for the theoretical arguments by reviewing how the DT relates to the management literature—and, in particular, job performance.

There appears to be scholarly consensus that the DT components are related but are also distinct constructs (i.e., they possess discriminant validity). Moreover, the review highlights the likelihood that these traits result in a corrupted social exchange process wherein getting ahead behaviors are emphasized at the expense of getting along behaviors. In the following section, I build on this logic by explicitly adopting socioanalytic theory (Hogan, 1996, 2007) as a guiding framework and showing how this theory can help explicate why the DT impacts job performance and how this process occurs.

Socioanalytic Theory

Socioanalytic theory (Hogan, 1983, 1996, 2007) is an integrated theory of personality that considers traits and motivations from an evolutionary perspective. According to socioanalytic theory, because humans are motivated by “a small number of unconscious biological needs” (Hogan, 1996, p. 165), adaptation has played a strong role in the development of our personalities. Specifically, two key needs are identified: the need for status (in order to give greater opportunities for reproductive success) and the need for social acceptance (in order to improve survival). The greater the amounts of status and acceptance that people have, the greater the likelihood they pass genetic material forward and fulfill the goals of evolutionary theory (Hogan, 1996). Further, social interactions must occur between people and are vital to the status and acceptance achievement processes as almost all consequential human action takes place through social interaction (Hogan, 2007). Even in private, people are either reflecting on past interaction or planning future ones. The importance of interaction and personality expression at work is also paramount, “People are motivated in a deep and often unconscious way to get along, get ahead, and to render their lives interpretable. People pursue these goals during social interaction; many people including most adults, also pursue these goals in their

occupations, primarily during interactions at work” (Hogan & Shelton, 1998, p. 132). As people negotiate for status and acceptance through exchange processes these social interactions in turn grant status and acceptance (i.e., a cumulative effect occurs; Hogan, 1996). People must interact with one another, making personality important—if social connectivity was not necessary, personality would not matter (Wiggins, 1980).

Socioanalytic theory has advanced personality research because it provides a framework for understanding the underlying motives that drive personality. These can be summarized by the need for status and the need for belonging (Hogan, 1983). “Our needs for acceptance and social contact lead to behaviors designed to get along; our needs for status result in behaviors designed to get ahead” (Hogan, 2007, pp. 6-7). Together, these motives are fulfilled during social interaction, especially in the workplace. According to the theory, several conclusions about the nature of human motivation can be reached (Hogan & Shelton, 1998). The first is that people need to “feel accepted, liked, and supported and they fear being criticized, shunned and rejected” (Hogan & Shelton, 1998, p. 130). This motivation for belongingness includes the desire to have friendships, family, and social identification within a group (Roberts & Wood, 2006). People also want “status, power, and the control of resources, and they fear losing what status and power they may have” (Hogan & Shelton, 1998, p. 130). The motivation for status includes the desires for social regard, fame, wealth, and high places in a social hierarchy (Roberts & Wood, 2006). These motives can be encapsulated in the terms *getting along* and *getting ahead*. Although they are biologically founded and consequently stable and enduring, personality traits represent the degree to which people have different urges to satisfy these two needs.

Using the framework of socioanalytic theory (Hogan, 1996), getting along and getting ahead factors can help explain how dark personality impacts performance by showing why traits

influence performance outcomes. The basic motivations for workers are to gain acceptance and status in their work group (J. Hogan, Rybicki, Motowidlo & Borman, 1998). Hogan and Shelton (1998, p. 133) argue that “individual differences in job performance are related to individual differences in peoples’ interest in, and strategies for, getting along and getting ahead”.

Individuals who are unable to balance these two forms of behavior may find success in the workplace to be more challenging. In this research, I explore different getting ahead and getting along behaviors and how they are impacted by dark personality. This operationalizes the concepts outlined by socioanalytic theory in a way that is unique from prior work and impactful for understanding the relationship between the DT and job performance.

Getting Ahead Behaviors

Getting ahead can be seen as “behavior that produces results and advances an individual within the group” (J. Hogan & Holland, 2003, p.103). Overall, the notion of getting ahead implies that people are driven to improve their social position within the group hierarchy (i.e., a work setting) in order to gain access to more resources and influence over others. Those who desire to get ahead will “volunteer, take initiative, seek responsibility, delight in standing out from the group, and try to ensure that their supervisors notice their performance” (Hogan & Shelton, 1998, p. 133). Getting ahead is important because it represents how people can achieve access to greater resources and enhance survival in the long term. Accordingly, I conceptualize getting ahead behaviors in the workplace to include the use of *political skills*, *impression management*, and the expression of *proactive behaviors*. Next I detail information about each of these behaviors.

Political Skill

Political skill is “the ability to effectively understand others at work, and to use such knowledge to influence others to act in ways that enhance one’s personal and/or organizational objectives” (Ahearn, Ferris, Hochwarter, Douglas, & Ammeter, 2004, p. 311). People who are more politically skilled mesh their social awareness with their ability to change their behavior depending on their current context. In doing so, they are recognized by others to be genuine, have the ability to foster trust, and are adept at influencing and controlling the reactions of their coworkers (Ferris, et al., 2005). Political skill shares some conceptual space with other social effectiveness concepts such as self-monitoring, social intelligence, or social skill; however, political skill is conceptually distinct from these constructs because of its emphasis on social interactions in the work place (Harris, Kacmar, Zivnuska & Shaw, 2007). Those with enhanced political skills perform better at their jobs (e.g., Bing, Davison, Minor, Novicevic & Frink, 2011; Ferris et al., 2005; Harris et al., 2007; Semadar, Robins & Ferris, 2006) because of their ability to adapt to situations and modify behavior to take advantage of opportunities. Thus, people who have political skills should enhance their task performance and get ahead more quickly than others.

Impression Management

Impression management is the process that occurs when people at work attempt to influence the image that others have about them (Bolino & Turnley, 1999). Bolino & Turnley (1999) define impression management based on the Jones and Pittman (1982) taxonomy of the concept. This definition consists of behaving in ways that are self-promoting, ingratiating toward others and performing in such a way that displays exemplified accomplishments. Other activities that are considered impression management techniques include intimidating coworkers who

block the progression of one's work and pretending to need assistance so that others will provide help. Impression management was further validated by Kacmar, Harris and Nagy (2007) and has been shown to positively influence supervisor evaluations of task performance (e.g., Barsness, Diekmann, & Seidel, 2005; Harris et al., 2007; Wayne & Ferris, 1990). Because impression management behaviors allow people to position themselves in a positive frame, they help those who use them be more successful at work. Therefore, workers who are better at impression management should get ahead and achieve greater position within the workplace hierarchy.

Proactive Behaviors

Proactive behavior is another way to describe personal initiative—that is, taking an active and self-starting approach to work (Frese et al., 1996). As originally conceived, the notion of proactive behaviors was thought to be a rather stable behavioral pattern; however, later findings indicated variability in personal initiative (e.g., Fritz & Sonnentag, 2009). According to Frese and colleagues, examples of proactive behaviors include actively attacking problems, searching for solutions quickly, seizing opportunities to take initiative, and taking chances to do more than they are asked (Frese, Fay, Hilburger, Leng & Tag, 1997). Because proactive behaviors represent a striving activity toward achieving positive outcomes, it is not surprising that the construct has been positively correlated with performance in multiple studies (e.g., Ashford & Black, 1996; Crant, 1995; Kim, Cable, Kim & Wang, 2009; Thomas, Whitman, & Viswesvaran, 2010). As such, those who are motivated to get ahead should utilize proactive behaviors to obtain goals.

Getting Along Behaviors

Those who wish to get along are more cooperative, compliant, work well in groups, show a friendly attitude, and attempt to keep attention away from themselves (J. Hogan & Holland, 2003). Because part of our survival and ultimate reproductive success relies on improving and

maintaining our social connectivity with other humans, there is a strong need for social acceptance in a group-living culture such as that in which human beings exist. Below, I detail three specific behaviors that represent getting along activities at work: *friendliness*, *expressed humility*, and *cooperativeness*.

Friendliness

Friendliness may be seen as an easy going or calm approach to dealing with other people. As a result, friendliness can be categorized as a form of getting along behavior (i.e., displaying a friendly attitude, Hogan & Shelton, 1998). Friendly behavior is not emotionally charged and does not lead to antisocial activities (Berkowitz, 1993; Geen, 1995). The inverse of friendly behavior is aggressive behavior. Those who are more aggressive engage in behaviors that display “more intense emotional responses to aversive stimuli” (Aquino, Galperin & Bennett, 2004, p. 1004). Individuals who engage in lower levels of aggressive behaviors are considered more friendly, calm and easy going (Buss & Perry, 1992). Because friendliness enables one to create more social connections and build social capital (Nahapiet, & Ghoshal, 1998), engaging in friendly behaviors at work (i.e., pursuing getting along type activities) is associated with increased task performance (e.g., Borman, White & Dorsey, 1995).

Expressed Humility

Expressed humility can be defined as “an interpersonal characteristic that emerges in social contexts that connotes (a) a manifested willingness to view oneself accurately, (b) a displayed appreciation of others’ strengths and contributions, and (c) teachability” (Owens et al., 2013, p. 2). Because of its prosocial nature, behaviors that express humility enhance workplace relationships and increase the likelihood of positive task performance. Having a manifested willingness to see the self accurately implies that those who express humility will have higher

quality interpersonal working relationships (i.e., increased trust and social exchange) and better decision making skills because of the development of more accurate information about resources and less overconfidence resulting in better performance. Visibly appreciating the strengths and contributions of others helps define expressed humility as affiliation-oriented in nature.

Teachability is shown when one openly demonstrates the desire to learn new things, seek feedback and advice, and accept ideas from others. This enhances greater trust, motivation and justice perceptions (Cropanzano, Bowen & Gilliland, 2007). Each of these three behaviors that are characteristic of expressed humility positively impact job performance (Owens et al., 2013). Being willing to take feedback, realistically understanding oneself, and being able to learn from mistakes also appears to be important in team-based performance situations (Owens et al., 2013). As such, expressed humility is a unique form of action that qualifies as a getting along behavior according to definitions provided by socioanalytic theory (e.g., Hogan & Shelton, 1998).

Cooperativeness

Perhaps no other construct matches the notion of getting along better than the idea of workplace cooperativeness. In fact, Hogan and Shelton (1998) specifically describe getting along activities as those in which people “cooperate, comply, [and] work well in teams” (p. 133). Cooperativeness amongst employees is expressed in the management literature in several different research streams including social exchange theory and its derivatives (e.g., team member exchange [TMX]; Murphy, Wayne, Liden & Erdogan, 2003; Seers, 1989) and in the justice literature (e.g., Tyler, 2008, 2012). Seers (1989) argues that cooperation (i.e., the perceptions of one’s role within the group and the quality of the exchange relationship that exists with other team members) is important because teams with high cooperation levels are typically high performing (i.e., they are highly cohesive and productive). Cooperation is often studied in

the context of the prisoner's dilemma (e.g., Axelrod, 1984) and is demonstrated to be superior to behaving in a self-interested fashion under many circumstances (Tyler, 2012). Cooperation can only occur when people are willing and able to adjust their behaviors in social settings that take into account the needs of others (Tyler, 2008). Research has also verified the importance of cooperation in predicting task performance (e.g., Dierdorff, Bell & Belohlav, 2011; Liden et al., 2000; Seers, 1989); therefore, it is a useful getting along behavior to examine.

Hypotheses Development

As stated above, previous research has established a positive relationship between each of these getting along/getting ahead behaviors and task performance. These relationships are important for understanding why people achieve increased task performance; however, what is missing is an understanding of why people engage in these behaviors. DT characteristics cause people to pursue getting ahead and getting along behaviors in different ways. Because of their desire to gain status in a social hierarchy, people with greater degrees of DT traits will engage in getting ahead behaviors at the expense of getting along behaviors. This failure to pursue getting along activities can be seen as a corrupted social exchange process. According to socioanalytic theory (Hogan, 1996, 2007), people should pursue both getting along and getting ahead in tandem and balance these behaviors in the attempt to enhance access to resources and survive. Prior research has established the importance of matching specific personality traits and personality facets to relevant outcomes and potential mediators (Barrick & Mount, 2005; J. Hogan & Holland, 2003). Finding the impact of these potential mediating behaviors helps establish the importance of darker personality in the work context and explains how the DT should influence task performance. Overall, the combination of getting ahead and getting along

behaviors should transmit the influence of DT traits on task performance in a way that attenuates the direct relationship between these personality characteristics and task performance.

Machiavellianism and Getting Ahead

In many respects, the description of Machiavellian characteristics aligns with the notion of status seeking or getting ahead behaviors (Hogan, 2007). Because of their desire to climb the social hierarchy, Machs should pursue getting ahead strategies and behaviors more intensely and engage in activities that are recognized as status-striving. Hence, Machs will be more likely to achieve enhanced levels of task performance as a consequence of their pursuit of getting ahead activities. For example, Dahling et al. (2009) found significant relationships between Machiavellianism and political skills. Because Machiavellianism and political skills are related, the impact of Machiavellianism on task performance should be impacted by the engagement of political skills. Machs use charisma and directive leadership styles with lower genuine interpersonal consideration (Deluga, 2001). This indicates a willingness to engage in behaviors of a political nature such that Machs are less interested in the consequences of their actions for other people (i.e., they employ their political skills with greater ease).

Similarly, Christie and Geis (1970) argued that Machiavellianism should be positively associated with the practice of impression management. Machiavellians utilize impression management behaviors because they more quickly advance their personal agendas (Ickes, Reidhead & Patterson, 1986; Rauthmann, 2012). Machs are also likely to engage multiple forms of impression management tactics—including some that could be seen as less socially acceptable (i.e., supplication and intimidation; Bolino & Turnley, 2003; Pandey & Rastogi, 1979; Rauthmann, 2013)—and influence tactics that help build their power base including strategic self-disclosure and ingratiation (Becker & O’Hair, 2007; Dingler-Duhon & Brown, 1987;

Harrell, 1980). Therefore, Machiavellianism should demonstrate its effects in the workplace on task performance through getting ahead impression management behaviors. Finally, because proactive behaviors are techniques that potentially get people ahead in the workplace through taking an active, self-generated approach to work activities and seeking greater responsibility through the use of personal initiative (Frese et al., 1996), it is reasonable to believe that Machs will implement them as they attempt to achieve workplace status. By their nature, Machs should be more willing to use these tactics to pursue their ends because behaving in ways that go above and beyond for personal gain are characteristic of the trait and also should influence task performance. In sum, because of their motive to achieve status, power, and influence over others within a social hierarchy, employees with higher levels of Machiavellianism will utilize political skills, impression management and proactive behaviors to get ahead at work.

Therefore, Hypothesis 1 is that Machiavellianism is positively associated with getting ahead behaviors including (a) political skills, (b) impression management and (c) proactive behaviors.

Machiavellianism and Getting Along

Machs ignore activities that build strong social bonds and do not pursue the getting along motive as outlined by socioanalytic theory (Hogan, 1996). Hence, they fail to engage in behaviors that can positively impact task performance and instead pursue tactics that do not build social harmony with others. By their nature, Machs are much more likely to engage in multiple forms of non-friendly, aggressive, and less than easy-going social interactions with coworkers (Russell, 1974). Because of a desire to achieve their own objectives, they do not recognize the value of forming long-term, personal relationships with others and are more likely to distrust coworkers, seek enhanced social status, desire control over their surroundings, and manipulate

others without regard to morality (Dahling et al., 2009). Consequently, Machs should be less friendly and more aggressive with coworkers who they recognize as easy to push around and manipulate to achieve their own wishes; thus displaying their unwillingness to get along.

Machs also do not value philosophies that embrace humility (Zettler, Frierich & Hilbig, 2010) and therefore do not recognize the importance of expressing it; this should cause them to fail to get along with coworkers (e.g., Lee et al., 2013; Rauthmann, 2012). Their distrust of others and willingness to manipulate without regard for ethical standards means they should not see the value of others and instead view them as threats to their goal attainment. It is likely that their desire for status and control should also cloud Machs' own self-judgment, making it difficult for them to recognize their flaws or need for enhanced learning—another aspects of expressed humility (Owens et al., 2013). Machs are also unlikely to willingly promote cooperation amongst their coworkers. They are known to engage in destructive hyper-competitive and unethical behavior that makes it difficult for others to get along with them (e.g., Mudrack, Bloodgood & Turnley, 2012). Because of low levels of trust and willingness to force others to do their wishes at all costs (Dahling et al., 2009), Machs should have difficulty building healthy relationships. Instead of developing stronger bonds with others, Machs often prefer to act as lone wolves, solely seeking their desires and excluding others who would seek to share in the spoils of their efforts. Therefore, they should not pursue cooperation with others. Because Machiavellians express an unwillingness to engage in getting along behaviors, the result is a negative relationship between the trait and friendliness, expressed humility and cooperativeness.

Therefore, Hypothesis 2 is that Machiavellianism is negatively associated with getting along behaviors including (a) friendliness, (b) expressed humility and (c) cooperativeness.

Narcissism and Getting Ahead

Narcissists are also motivated to seek enhanced status in a social hierarchy and ignore activities that build greater social connections with others. Because narcissists are obsessed with their own superiority over others, self-love and a desire to maintain a positive self-image despite potentially contradictory information (Campbell et al., 2011; Judge et al., 2006), they pursue getting ahead behaviors. This allows them to be more recognized as powerful, successful, and more important than other people within a group. Narcissists engage in behaviors and activities to pursue enhanced opportunities for achieving greater task performance that reinforces their glowing self-views and need for achievement (Soyer et al., 2001). Along these lines, narcissists should be driven to use getting ahead behaviors such as politically skilled actions because the use of power and influence on other people naturally enhances their superiority over others. As they seek to climb through the social hierarchy of the workplace, narcissists are likely to mold their behaviors depending on the current context such that they alter the perceptions of coworkers in a fashion that allows them to control important outcomes around them. This use of political skill (Ferris et al., 2005) could help narcissists be more successful.

Similarly, narcissists ought to recognize when it is in their best interest to ingratiate themselves with their superiors to enhance their future and perceived importance within the organization. Therefore, narcissists are more likely to utilize impression management (Bolino & Turnley, 2003) to further their agenda to build and maintain their own self-importance and reputation. By actively pursuing a strategy that enhances their relationship with superiors, narcissists should attempt to get further ahead of others and could justify their sense of self-importance and grandiosity through affiliation with vital organizational leaders. Accordingly, Paunonen et al. (2006) demonstrated that self-deception (an important component of the

narcissists' belief in and pursuit of their own purported positive attributes) is strongly associated with impression management behaviors. Narcissists should also seek to be proactive in their work pursuits in ways that enhance and support their inflated self-views. Because narcissists desire to be seen as successful, view their work as important, and like to gain attention, they are likely to be proactive in work environments where they can take bold and decisive action that leads to enhanced recognition from others when success is achieved (Chatterjee & Hambrick, 2007). Narcissists are also more likely to excessively take risks in gambling situations (Lakey, Rose, Campbell, & Goodie, 2008) which may enhance their proactive behavioral tendencies as well. Therefore, their motivation to get ahead and demonstrate their grandiose nature will spur them toward proactive action. All in all, because of their desire to maintain their positive image, reinforce their own self-love, and pursue tactics that convince others of their greatness within a social hierarchy, narcissists will engage in higher degrees of behaviors such as political skills, impression management and proactive actions so they can get ahead at work.

Therefore, Hypothesis 3 is that narcissism is positively associated with getting ahead behaviors including (a) political skills, (b) impression management and (c) proactive behaviors.

Narcissism and Getting Along

Narcissists are preoccupied with self-aggrandizement and maintaining a self-view that reinforces an overly positive opinion of their own abilities, qualities, and other characteristics (Judge et al., 2006). This pursuit to build credibility comes at the expense of their relationships with coworkers (e.g., subordinates and peers) as they are less motivated to get along with others. Hence, they should fail to expend much effort to build high-quality, long lasting relationships with many people in the workplace. For example, when a narcissist is confronted by others with negative feedback that opposes their rosy self-view, evidence indicates they are likely to become

angry and aggressive and refute information that is contradictory to their perceptions (Kernis & Sun, 1994; Rhodewalt & Morf, 1998). Therefore, narcissists are likely not as willing to be friendly with others or exhibit an easy going or calm approach to dealing with others. They also seem predisposed to perceive negative intent during social interactions and respond accordingly (Wu & LeBreton, 2011).

Narcissists are also unlikely to express humility (Owens et al., 2013). By their very nature, narcissists are unwilling to see themselves in an accurate light, preferring to believe in an elevated sense of their grandiosity (Emmons, 1987). They are also unlikely to appreciate others' contributions (which could be threatening) or be teachable (as this would indicate a form of weakness; Owens et al., 2013). Narcissists are more willing to take credit from others who are close to them, causing serious damage to interpersonal relationships (Campbell et al., 2011). Consequently, because they cannot express humility, narcissists should fail to form strong social bonds and get along with others. Finally, because of their decreased motivation to get along with others, narcissists are likely less cooperative with coworkers. Even though narcissism is self-focused, it can greatly influence interpersonal interactions because narcissists lack empathy, dislike intimacy, desire admiration and rebuke others when under attack (Stucke & Sporer, 2002). The potential ego-laden nature of a work context should also impact how narcissists interact with coworkers as well by influencing workplace friendships, reactions, and commitment to coworkers (Judge et al., 2006). In general, narcissists are usually more concerned with seeking gains for their purposes at the expense of others. This pursuit harms cooperation when working closely with others and negatively impacts performance outcomes that rely on strong cooperation among employees. Because of a desire to maintain and defend their high opinions of themselves, narcissists likely engage in behaviors that are not conducive for getting

along with others. As such, they are less likely to behave in a friendly manner, express humility, or cooperate with coworkers.

Therefore, my Hypothesis 4 is that narcissism is negatively associated with getting along behaviors including (a) friendliness, (b) expressed humility and (c) cooperativeness.

Psychopathy and Getting Ahead

Psychopaths do not believe that norms and rules apply to them and their lack of conscience allows them to pursue paths that others would avoid (Boddy, 2006). Thus, people who possess the psychopathy trait are much more prone to use their skills and abilities to take advantage of opportunities in the workplace to get what they want through thrill-seeking and manipulation tactics (Babiak & Hare, 2006). Psychopaths have the ability to charm and beguile others, thus they are proficient at using political skills and are more likely to use them to achieve their objectives. Accomplished users of politically skilled behaviors exhibit many psychopathic personality traits—they are willing to use others for their benefit, they assess targets carefully, and they are willing to use cunning tactics to accomplish goals (Ferris et al., 2005). Therefore, psychopaths have the capacity to be organizational politicians and likely use the opportunities they find at work to get ahead.

Psychopaths are also inclined to use their insight and verbal ability to skillfully adjust their persona to fit the situation and their plan (Babiak & Hare, 2006), which is typical of impression management. For example, in pursuit of their agenda, they are often willing to make themselves appear more attractive, worm their way into the hearts of others with beguiling charms, and intimidate others who oppose them (Babiak & Hare, 2006). Psychopaths are also likely to form close one-on-one relationships with powerful members of the organization who can protect them as they put on a show of good behavior. Therefore, psychopaths have the

capacity to create and maintain a fictional account of the “ideal employee and future leader” (Babiak & Hare, 2006, p.121). As they engage others in their attempt to improve their position, they are also likely to use falsehood (Babiak & Hare, 2006). Thus, psychopaths are likely to attempt to achieve enhanced social status through impression management. Finally, psychopaths are willing to engage in proactive behaviors that can positively impact work performance outcomes. Because they are impulsive by nature and willing to engage in actions that lead to bold consequences (Babiak & Hare, 2006), psychopaths should utilize proactive behaviors at work in their pursuit to get ahead. As such, they should be motivated toward proactivity at work in order to get ahead and gain personal gratification quickly. Overall, the psychopath’s desire to pursue paths that allow them to get ahead more quickly should naturally lead them to engage their political skills, display impression management prowess, and be proactive in how they approach work.

Therefore, Hypothesis 5 is that psychopathy is positively associated with getting ahead behaviors including (a) political skills, (b) impression management and (c) proactive behaviors.

Psychopathy and Getting Along

Psychopaths pursue tactics that make social interaction more difficult because they use others for personal gain without any thought of the consequences of their actions or feelings for those they take advantage of (Williams et al., 2007). Through interpersonal manipulation, they use deceit, trick others into fulfilling their wishes, and come across as haughty in social exchanges (Babiak & Hare, 2006). Psychopaths’ callous affect towards others also causes them to lack empathy and remorse for their actions with others. Therefore, it is expected that psychopaths would fail to engage in, or be motivated to pursue, activities of a getting along nature. For example, psychopaths are likely to pursue very unfriendly or aggressive behavior

when dealing with others. Because they lack emotion and conscience, they use aggressive tactics, bullying, and intimidation to force others to do what they wish. Multiple studies have linked psychopathy to bullying and aggression (Boddy, 2011; Lilienfeld & Andrews, 1996; Williams & Paulhus, 2004; Williams et al., 2003; Williams et al., 2007). Psychopaths often seem unable to act without aggression, and this overt aggression comes across as bullying, while a covert form is seen through coercion and intimidation (Babiak & Hare, 2006). Psychopaths have the ability to control themselves in front of superiors or others of importance, but lose their cool and become very unfriendly with unimportant spectators or subordinates (Babiak & Hare, 2006). Therefore, psychopathy should lead to reduced friendliness and cause a decrease in this type of getting along behavior.

Similarly, psychopaths are less likely to express humility in ways that build relationships with others. Psychopaths are not interested in viewing themselves accurately and display an inability to be modest—an arrogance that stands out to coworkers (Babiak & Hare, 2006). Because they do not see others as equals or having a legitimate claim to resources, psychopaths are also characterized by an unwillingness to share (Babiak & Hare, 2006). Their intensely competitive nature causes them to siphon resources from others and take credit for others' accomplishments while refusing to accept blame (Hare, 1993). Because they blame others and even create evidence for the blame, this should further reduce their chances of getting along with others (Babiak & Hare, 2006). Finally, psychopaths are generally unwilling to cooperate with coworkers as they withhold and distort information to such a degree that team formation is untenable (Babiak & Hare, 2006). Because of an inability to consistently tell the truth, it should be difficult for them to gain the trust necessary to develop cooperation. Their impulsive nature is also likely to hinder cooperation because, while acting as loose cannons, they can wreak havoc

on day to day social interactions at work (Babiak & Hare, 2006; Harpur, Hart & Hare, 1994).

This short-term behavior has negative consequences for the development of strong interpersonal ties and should especially be problematic in the work environment when group efforts are required to accomplish organizational objectives. Overall, psychopathy should have negative relationships with behaviors of a getting along nature as this trait should reduce friendliness, decrease one's ability to express humility, and exacerbate the incapacity to cooperate with coworkers.

Therefore, Hypothesis 6 is that psychopathy is negatively associated with getting along behaviors including (a) friendliness, (b) expressed humility and (c) cooperativeness.

Impact of the DT on Task Performance

As outlined previously, there are established relationships between both getting along and getting ahead behaviors and task performance (Borman et al., 1995; Ferris et al., 2005; Harris et al., 2007; Liden et al., 2000; Owens et al., 2013; Thomas et al., 2010). Consequently, the impact of each DT trait on task performance should be mediated by these factors. Each getting ahead behavior (i.e., political skills, impression management, and proactive behaviors) is engaged in more readily by those with greater DT traits. As a result, these workers strive more to get ahead, and these activities positively impact task performance. As detailed above, the relationship between getting along behaviors and task performance is also positive; however, workers with more DT characteristics are less likely to pursue these activities. Instead, their propensity is to be less friendly, fail to express humility, and not to cooperate with others, each of which negatively impacts their task performance.

As they pursue more getting ahead behaviors at the expense of getting along behaviors, people with DT traits will struggle to achieve enhanced task performance because of their

inability to balance these behaviors. The positive effects of their status striving are washed out by the negative influence of their failure to seek social acceptance. Therefore, an attenuated overall relationship between each DT trait and task performance is likely to exist (e.g., O'Boyle et al., 2012).

Organizational Citizenship Behaviors

Organizational citizenship behaviors (OCBs; Bateman & Organ, 1983; Smith, Organ & Near, 1983) are considered voluntary work behaviors that are outside the formalized reward system and enhance the success of the organization (Barnard, 1938; Katz, 1964). OCBs contribute to organizations by helping create a positive social and psychological climate (Borman & Motowidlo, 1997) through the enactment of “non-task” behaviors that are affiliative and promotive (i.e., they involve helping; Organ, 1997; Van Dyne, Cummings, & McLean-Parks, 1995). Hence, OCBs are generally recognized as a form of job performance that involves promoting organizational welfare and coworker performance through behaviors that contribute to goals of the organization (Rotundo & Sackett, 2002). As such, OCBs are separate from task performance. Organ (1997) defines the term as “performance that supports the social and psychological environment in which task performance takes place” (p.95). This definition of OCB is clearly distinct from task performance –which is generally understood to be the core “in role” job duties.

OCBs targeted toward Supervisors and Coworkers

Supervisors control rewards (e.g., pay and promotion) from the organization; therefore, the interpersonal exchange processes involved in conducting an OCB targeted to a supervisor should be different than the exchange process that occurs for other forms of OCB. Thus, OCB-S (organizational citizenship behaviors for supervisors) is a manifestation of what employees

perceive about their supervisor's characteristics and how that supervisor can benefit them directly (Lee & Allen, 2002). For example, OCB-S could involve activities such as helping a supervisor with a heavy workload or passing along work-related and relevant information to enhance a supervisor's decision making (Rupp & Cropanzano, 2002). Prior research has established that OCB-S can be empirically separated from other forms of OCB and have different relationships with antecedents (e.g., Colquitt, Scott, Rodell, Long, Zapata & Conlon, 2013; Malatesta & Byrne, 1997; Rupp & Cropanzano, 2002). From a socioanalytic perspective, OCBs which are more driven by the desire to get ahead (e.g., OCB-S) should be pursued by those who have personality characteristics geared toward selfish objectives, enhanced personal appearance, and a lack of conscience as represented by the DT traits.

On the other hand, OCB-C (organizational citizenship behaviors for coworkers) is conceptualized to involve behaviors that benefit peers (e.g., Lee & Allen, 2002; McNeely & Meglino, 1994; Settoon & Mossholder, 2002; Skarlicki & Latham, 1996, 1997). Because OCB-Cs benefit coworkers rather than supervisors, they also likely represent a form of getting along behavior. Thus, employees of approximately equal status (e.g., team members, work group members) can provide one another citizenship behaviors unrelated to either their supervisor or to the organization (Lavelle et al., 2007). For example, OCBs targeted toward peers may include listening to coworkers when they have to get something off of their chest or going out of the way to make new coworkers feel welcome (Settoon & Mossholder, 2002). It is likely that OCB-C activities are of less interest to individuals with high degrees of DT traits because peers generally lack access to organizational resources and benefits. In fact, it may be that OCB-C best represents the behaviors that Organ (1997) conceived. This is because OCB-Cs build the psychological and social environment of the organization through the development of healthy

social exchanges (e.g., Rotundo & Sackett, 2002). Getting along activities enhance social cohesion and develop relationships over the long haul. Consequently, OCB-C is an example of how this process occurs.

Dark Triad and OCB-S

Little is known about the relationship between the DT and OCBs (e.g., Becker & O'Hair, 2007; Dahling et al., 2009; Judge et al., 2006); in none of the prior research did the measure of OCB clearly distinguish the target of the activity as outlined above. Consequently, the results of this research are conflicting. Because OCB-Ss are easily recognized by supervisors and lead to the assignment of some form of reward (even if not a formal reward; e.g., Borman & Motowidlo, 1997), those high in the DT will likely pursue approaches that entice supervisors to provide them with these increased benefits. For example, people with elevated degrees of Machiavellianism often try to manipulate people and situations to achieve their desires; as a result, they likely target their supervisor. Along these lines, by selectively performing behaviors for organizational authorities, narcissists should also seek to enhance their future prospects and glorify themselves by association with organizational players. Similarly, psychopaths likely target their supervisors with citizenship behaviors because they have the capacity to charm others and recognize the rewards that can be obtained from those in authority. By using face-to-face interactions (Geis & Christie, 1970) and deceitful behavior (Williams et al., 2003) those high in DT traits should strategically manipulate and sometimes con their superiors without regard for ethics or conscience. As such, they will likely take on extra duties when their boss is absent, volunteer their time to help and take a personal interest in their supervisor's life. As a result, there should be a positive association between DT traits and citizenship behaviors targeted toward supervisors

because people with these characteristics believe that doing so will advance their personal agendas more quickly.

Therefore, Hypothesis 7 is that the Dark Triad (a) Machiavellianism, (b) narcissism, and (c) psychopathy will be positively associated with OCBs targeted toward the supervisor (OCB-S).

Dark Triad and OCB-C

On the other hand, those high in DT traits should have a different motivation for how they get along with coworkers as they should not find appeal in pursuing activities that demonstrate altruism, courtesy, civic virtue and the spreading of goodwill (Organ, 1997). Because there is no direct or recognizable personal benefit, they likely will not attempt to enhance the social and psychological core of the organization and should go out of their way to avoid building strong social ties with coworkers. For example, Machs desire to perform through manipulation to achieve personal objectives, thus engaging in behaviors that place positive attention on others is unhelpful for them as they view most coworkers as unimportant (Dahling et al., 2009). Similarly, narcissists should perceive building the personal prestige and work-related welfare of coworkers as a threat to their position in the organization (Campbell et al., 2011; Judge et al., 2006). As a result, they will likely ignore opportunities to get along better with others. Instead, they pursue activities that enhance their prestige, taking credit for results not of their own doing and consequently harm relationships with coworkers (Campbell et al., 2011). Along these lines, psychopaths have reduced capacities for empathy which should leave them unable to form strong emotional attachments to others (Hare & Neumann, 2009). This lack of connection leads them to be unwilling, and perhaps unable, to provide coworkers with citizenship because of their incapacity to perform normal social exchanges (i.e., they have an

enhanced ability to ignore and violate social norms and expectations; Babiak & Hare, 2006; Hare, 1993). Thus, those with high levels of DT traits should not perform OCB-Cs effectively because they generally lack the capacity to do so.

Therefore, Hypothesis 8 is that the Dark Triad (a) Machiavellianism, (b) narcissism and (c) psychopathy will be negatively associated with OCBs targeted toward the coworker (OCB-C).

Self vs Other Ratings of Personality

According to socioanalytic theory (Hogan, 2007), personality is defined by *reputation* (i.e., the impression we give based on our interpersonal behaviors) and *identity* (i.e., what we believe about ourselves). This distinction implies that personality should be viewed from both the perspective of the observer (i.e., other people) and the actor (i.e., the self) with potentially differing results (Hogan, 1996; J. Hogan et al., 1998). Adjectives found within the Big Five (McCrae & John, 1992) can illustrate reputation using trait descriptions (J. Hogan et al., 1998) that are stable and highlight past performance—which is useful for predicting future behavior (Hogan, 2007; Mount et al., 1994). Therefore, reputation is an evaluative concept that indicates how much status and acceptance one has within a group (Hogan, 1996). This perspective of personality has been reliably assessed (e.g., Funder & Sneed, 1993; Kolar, Funder & Colvin, 1996) and displays the observer's measurement of the focal actor's behaviors and expressed beliefs, desires and motives. On the other hand, identities influence people's agendas, the roles they play, and how they play them (Hogan & Shelton, 1998). Roles can be thought of as a form of personal identity and are based on an individual's development as shaped by one's efforts to either gain acceptance or status throughout life. According to socioanalytic theory (Hogan, 2007), because many people are irrational, they are often unaware of their identities that shape

subsequent social behavior and can be careless regarding how others react to them. On the other hand, some individuals are more cognizant of these processes and shape their reputations based on their goals of gaining status and acceptance. Therefore, identity is translated into a self-presentational style that forms the reputation that others develop about a person (Hogan, 1996).

Personality Assessment

Observers can make valid assessments of reputation but cannot easily assess identity (Hogan, 2007) because identity includes the internal perspective that an individual has about one's own goals, desires, preferences, fears, and preferred behaviors (J. Hogan et al., 1998). Thus, reputation can be evaluated as it involves the things you do that others witness and identify, using a standardized reporting tool that usually has strong agreement among assessors that are stable over time (Funder & Sneed, 1993). Thus, reputation includes a summary of prior actions that an observer sees as the focal person's typical behaviors, motives, abilities and narratives which are vital to their interaction with others. Some researchers argue that reputation is the best method for understanding personality (Hofstee, 1994)—potentially because it relates to future behavior. On the other hand, identity is who you think you are and tell others about during social interactions (Hogan, 2007). Identity encompasses both the “content of self-perceptions and the metacognitive perception of those same self-perceptions” (Roberts & Wood, 2006, p.17). This means that people reflect on themselves and use this information to develop their desired and ideal self-concept. Identity can be used to explain why you do what you do; therefore, identity can be useful for explaining the expression of reputation as it determines its development over time. Because identity is not readily observable, it is harder to directly measure and can be more difficult to assess reliably (Hogan, 2007). However, identity and reputation can be separated and measured methodologically (Roberts & Wood, 2006). The

methods to gain this information are self-report tools (for identity) and observer-report tools (for reputation). Therefore, studying personality from a more holistic standpoint requires an understanding of *both* perspectives at the same time (Roberts & Wood, 2006).

Incremental Validity of Alternative Personality Measures

Because of these arguments, both reputation and identity forms of personality can and should be measured in the assessment of the impact of personality on workplace outcomes. Each form of personality taps different pieces of the overall personality construct and using both forms of assessment is vital to gain enhanced measurement and incremental validity in predicting outcomes. Consequently, by studying both forms of personality and measuring each in the same research design, evidence of enhanced prediction can be tested. Because reputation is essentially a measurement of past performance, it should be a strong predictor of future performance (Mount et al., 1994). Whereas identity taps a different perspective of personality than reputation, it should predict above and beyond what reputation predicts. A significant issue in regard to the DT set of personality traits is the fact that people with these traits may be more manipulative and likely to provide misleading information about themselves—perhaps even unconsciously. Therefore, having alternative forms of measurement is important if identity measures are potentially misleading. For example, a major issue with identifying psychopaths is the reliance on self-report measures that are easily faked, manipulated and modified through techniques that psychopaths possess in abundance (e.g., pathological lying). As a consequence, instruments that assess these traits independently are necessary to distinguish true psychopaths from general rule breakers (Hare, 1996). Similar arguments can be made for narcissists and Machs who may not provide accurate evaluations of themselves even if they think they are doing so. As a result,

measuring Machiavellianism, narcissism and psychopathy from two perspectives should enhance an understanding of the impact of these traits on vital workplace outcomes.

Therefore, Hypothesis 9 is that self- and coworker-ratings of Dark Triad traits (a) Machiavellianism, (b) narcissism and (c) psychopathy will explain unique variance in employee task performance and OCBs.

CHAPTER 3: METHOD

Sample

Data were collected from student nominators, focal employees, coworkers of focal employees and supervisors of focal employees. Participants were employed at various organizations located in the southern United States and were nominated by students at Louisiana State University (LSU). Using a sample of individual employees from multiple organizations increases the generalizability of the results and prevents potential issues related to more homogeneous personality traits amongst employees of a single organization (e.g., Schneider, 1987; Schneider, Smith, Taylor & Fleenor, 1998). Industries included in the sample were diverse as opposed to a single organization in a single industry, thus enhancing the possibility of finding subjects with greater levels of DT traits. Performing data collection using this sampling approach increased the number occupations measured in the study, the number of organizations within the study (Organ & McFall, 2004; Organ et al., 2006), and the number of industries in the study (Ashforth, Kreiner, Clark & Fugate, 2007; Powell & Greenhaus, 2010). This approach allowed me to examine whether dark personality traits exist at meaningful levels across workplace settings, and minimized issues related to whether citizenship behaviors are discretionary (as they theoretically should be) or are mandated by the organization. By casting a wide net and including multiple job types and industries, this sample is more generalizable to the workforce population as a whole.

In total, the listwise sample size of focal employees for this research effort is 277 with multiple industries represented. Focal employees described themselves as belonging to the following job types: “professional” ($n = 216$; e.g., civil engineer), “manager” ($n = 54$; e.g., call center manager), “sales” ($n = 21$), “customer service” ($n = 19$), “retail” ($n = 7$),

“manufacturing/production” ($n = 6$), “skilled/semi-skilled labor” ($n = 5$) and “other” ($n = 39$; e.g., administrative assistant). Table 3.1 shows the breakdown of participants by occupation category. Additionally, focal employees were on average 42.33 years of age, had 20.63 years of work experience and worked 40.98 hours per week. Focal employees’ tenure with their supervisor averaged 6.05 years. Demographically, the sample consists of 67.5% females and was 84.8% White. I will expand further on the sample in Chapter 4.

Table 3.1
Focal Employee Job Categories

Category	Frequency	Percent
Professional	126	45.5%
Manager	54	19.5%
Other	39	14.1%
Sales	21	7.6%
Customer Service	19	6.9%
Retail	7	2.5%
Manufacturing/Production	6	2.2%
Skilled/Semi-Skilled Labor	5	1.8%
Total	277	100.0%

Procedure

Data collection took place by inviting students at LSU enrolled in introductory management courses to nominate a participant for the study. In return for serving as a contact for someone within the organization, students received a small amount of extra course credit. Students who chose not to participate in the study were provided alternative methods for achieving comparable extra credit. At Time 1, students recruited a working adult (defined as employment requiring a minimum of 30 hours per week of work) who was willing to participate in the study (i.e., the focal employee) and who had a minimum of three years of full-time work experience. Students were required to nominate focal employees whom they knew well or very well to facilitate completion of the surveys and to ensure more accurate ratings. During this

process, contact information for the focal employee was collected from the student nominator along with information about the student's demographic characteristics.

Once a focal employee was nominated, I made direct contact with that participant at Time 2, ensuring willingness to participate in the project. At Time 2, each focal employee then nominated both a direct supervisor (henceforth designated "supervisor") and up to three fellow employees (henceforth referred to as "coworkers") to participate as well. Focal employees were reached using direct email messages and asked to complete survey items, demographic data, and to give contact information for their direct supervisor and the coworkers they nominated. Focal employees, coworkers, and supervisors were entered into a random drawing to win one of twenty \$50 gift cards to encourage their participation and completion of the surveys. Previous research shows that acquaintance ratings of Big Five personality traits reliably predict performance outcomes (Oh et al., 2010); similarly, I expect acquaintance ratings of the DT to predict as well according to the arguments of socioanalytic theory (Hogan, 2007) regarding reputation. When possible, multiple coworker ratings were included so that a more reliable measure of other ratings of personality could be obtained.

Approximately two weeks later (Time 3), coworkers were contacted with a survey asking them to assess the personality of the focal employee which created the acquaintance ratings. Coworkers were also asked questions about their own demographics. At Time 4, the focal employee was contacted again to complete a second survey administration where they provided self-assessments for the mediating behaviors of interest for the study (e.g., getting ahead and getting along behaviors). At Time 5 a survey was sent to the focal employee's supervisor to measure task performance and citizenship behaviors. Demographic information for supervisors was also collected. Times 3, 4 and 5 were distinct but may have been separated by a few days or

up to two weeks depending on the responses received from focal employees. With multiple sources for employee ratings and temporal distance between variable assessments, this research design reduces issues related to common method variance (CMV; Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003; Richardson, Simmering & Sturman, 2009). This increases the credibility of the results as the temporal distance and techniques used to collect the data have been shown to produce valid outcomes.

If at any point in the data collection duplicate email addresses across the student, focal employee, coworkers, or supervisor were discovered, that set of responses was removed from the working sample. I also was careful to examine email addresses to determine if they appeared to be professional in nature (i.e., organization email domains vs personal accounts). During the data collection process if I did not receive responses in a timely manner, I sent follow-up reminder emails to survey participants until the data collection period was completed. After data collection was completed, I randomly sampled approximately 10% of the final participant pool and contacted these individuals directly to verify that they participated in the study. This helped to ensure that the data collection is valid as 100% of those contacted responded and verified their participation.

Sample Appropriateness

With this data collection technique, the sample consists of sets of focal employees and multiple coworkers with the same supervisor. Data were collected and matched so that each focal employee has information from three sources (i.e., self-reports, coworker-reports and supervisor-reports). Each of the individuals within the organization completed their Internet based surveys across different points in time assessing different variables in the proposed model. Using a secure website to obtain the data helps to ensure participant confidentiality and I informed all

participants of the confidential nature of the survey at each stage of the process. This data collection procedure (or similar variants of it) has been used in multiple published articles in respected organizational research journals (e.g., Grant & Mayer, 2009; Greenbaum, Mawritz & Eissa, 2012; Lee & Allen, 2002; Mayer, Kuenzi, Greenbaum, Bardes, & Salvador, 2009; Morgeson & Humphrey, 2006; Piccolo, Greenbaum, Den Hartog, & Folger, 2010; Skarlicki & Folger, 1997). In these studies, scholars gathered data from a wide variety of employee-supervisor or employee-coworker dyads from multiple organizations, filling a need for a large, diverse sample similar to that which I need to test the hypotheses. This technique also eliminates nesting issues and non-independence of the data (i.e., multiple employees being rated by a single supervisor). It is also useful because social conditions can significantly influence behaviors (Blau, 1964) and citizenship should be impacted by different organizational and job characteristics (Organ et al., 2006). The likelihood of a restriction in range of personality type (Schneider, 1987) was also minimized using this technique, creating a better opportunity to capture variance in DT traits.

Power Analysis

Before data collection began, I first determined approximately how many observations were needed by conducting a power analysis. I assessed the necessary sample size to detect the relationships I am studying by checking power tables specifically designed for mediation analysis. For example, in their simulation analysis to ascertain the sample size needed to detect mediation effects, Fritz and MacKinnon (2007) showed that depending on the effect size of the path relationship between an independent variable and a mediator and between a mediator and the dependent variable, different sample sizes are required. Because the relationship between other personality traits and behaviors in general is relatively small to moderate (e.g., .14 to .26;

Barrick & Mount, 1991; Hurtz & Donovan, 2000; Ones, Dilchert, Viswesvaran & Judge, 2007), and the relationships previously established in the literature between the getting along and getting ahead mediating behaviors and task performance is also relatively small to moderate (e.g., .14 to .26; Ashford & Black, 1996; Blickle, Wendel & Ferris, 2010; Borman et al., 1995; Owens et al., 2013), it appears that a conservative estimate of between 148 to 377 observations should be sufficient to detect the mediation relationships of interest (see Table 3 of Fritz & MacKinnon, 2007). Consequently, I gathered data until I reached a sample size approaching this larger number as a safeguard. This sample size is necessary when using a mediation analysis procedure that utilizes bias-corrected bootstrapping such as that in the Hayes (2012) PROCESS macro that I used for analysis.

Measures

A complete listing of all measures that were used in this study is provided in Appendix A. Unless otherwise specified, each measure was anchored using Likert-type response ramps ranging from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 7 (*strongly agree*). All responses were averaged and coded so that higher scores reflect an enhanced level of agreement or frequency of that trait or behavior.

Machiavellianism. The focal employee's self and other ratings of this trait were made using the Machiavellian Personality Scale (MPS) developed by Dahling et al. (2009). This 16-item measure taps four dimensions of the trait (amorality, desire for control, desire for status and distrust of others) and was adapted from its customary self-rating format for use by coworkers to make ratings by changing the referent of the item from I to he/she. Sample items include "I believe that lying is necessary to maintain a competitive advantage over others" and "I dislike committing to groups because I don't trust others."

Narcissism. This trait was also evaluated by focal employees and coworkers using the 16-item version of the Narcissistic Personality Inventory (NPI) developed by Ames, Rose and Anderson (2006). This measure is based on the original Raskin and Terry (1988) NPI which includes pairs of items describing feelings and behaviors related to narcissism. Survey takers selected which of the pair best describes their opinions. Facets of narcissism in the nonclinical literature include grandiosity, entitlement, dominance, and superiority (Paulhus & Williams, 2002; Raskin & Hall, 1979). Paired items include “I really like to be the center of attention” versus “It makes me uncomfortable to be the center of attention”; and “I am going to be a great person” versus “I hope I am going to be successful.” Coworker ratings of this trait were obtained by altering the referent from “I” to “he/she” in each item. Scoring of the items was accomplished by computing the proportion of responses consistent with narcissism.

Psychopathy. Similarly, coworker and self-ratings of this trait were measured using twenty items from the psychopathy measure SRP-III as developed by Williams, Paulhus and Hare (2007). This measure taps sub clinical psychopathy and the four domains of psychopathy: interpersonal manipulation, callous affect, erratic life style and anti-social behaviors. Sample items from each respective domain include “I get a “kick” out of conning someone” (interpersonal manipulation); “I am often rude to other people” (callous affect); “I enjoy drinking and doing wild things” (erratic life style); and “I have been arrested” (antisocial behavior). Once again, coworker ratings of this trait were obtained by changing the referent from “I” to “he/she” in each item.

Political Skills. Behaviors associated with political skills were measured using the 18-item political skill inventory (Ferris et al., 2005). Items include “I spend a lot of time and effort at work networking with others”; “At work, I know a lot of important people and am well

connected”; and “I am good at using my connections and networks to make things happen at work”. Focal employees provided responses to this scale.

Impression Management. Bolino & Turnley (1999) refined previous impression management scales to develop a more comprehensive measure. Focal employees assessed frequency items on a 7-point scale from: (1) *never* to (7) *always*; with a stem “How often do you?” Items include “Make people aware of your talents or qualifications”; “Let others know that you are valuable to the organization”; and “Try to appear busy, even at times when things are slower.”

Proactive Behaviors. Proactive behavior or personal initiative was assessed with a seven-item scale created by Frese et al. (1997). With responses rated on a 7-point anchor ranging from 1 (*never*) to 7 (*always*) example items include: “I actively attack problems” and “Whenever something goes wrong, I search for a solution immediately.” Focal employees provided responses to this scale.

Friendliness. In this data collection, the measurement of friendliness was done by assessing factors of a well-established aggressiveness scale and by creating a reversed total score. Buss & Perry (1992) developed the aggression questionnaire with four factors that include physical aggression, verbal aggression, anger and hostility. Aggressive type behaviors have been researched in organizational settings and have a negative relationship with work performance (e.g., Aube & Rousseau, 2010; Harris, Kacmar & Zivnuska, 2007; Hoobler & Hu, 2013; Porath & Erez, 2007; Porath & Erez, 2009; Schat & Frone, 2011; Xu, Huang, Lam & Miao, 2012). For the purposes of this work, only the anger and hostility facets were assessed as they are more conceptually related to the inverse of friendliness. Example items for anger include: “I flare up quickly but get over it quickly” and “Sometimes I fly off the handle for no

good reason.” Items for the hostility facet include: “At times I feel I have gotten a raw deal out of life” and “I am suspicious of overly friendly strangers.” Focal employees provided responses to this scale.

Expressed Humility. Owens et al. (2013) recently published a measure that taps expressed humility. This nine-item scale was developed to assess the degree that individuals have accurate self-views, appreciate the strength of others, and are teachable. Response items were modified so that focal employees could answer them (i.e., “This person” was changed to “I”). Sample items include: “I admit it when I don’t know how to do something”; “I often complement others on their strengths”; and “I am open to the ideas of others.”

Cooperativeness. Seers, Petty and Cashman (1995) developed a ten-item scale that represents an employee’s perception of exchanges with other members of their work group and called it a team member exchange (TMX) scale. This measure should adequately represent the degree of cooperation that exists between an employee and coworkers. Responses to items focus on relationships with coworkers and items include: “I often let other team members know when they have done something that makes my job easier (or harder)” and “I am flexible about switching job responsibilities to make things easier for other team members” Focal employees provided responses to this scale.

Task Performance. Supervisors rated focal employees’ task performance using six items from Alper, Tjosvold & Law (2000) with response scales ranging from 1 (*never*) to 7 (*always*). This measure of in-role behavior includes items such as “This employee meets or exceeds my productivity requirements” and “This employee puts considerable effort into his/her job.”

Organizational Citizenship Behavior-Supervisor (OCB-S). Supervisors assessed focal employees on their performance of citizenship behaviors directly targeted toward them. A scale

from Rupp & Cropanzano (2002) adapted from Malatesta (1995) was utilized. Responses range from 1(*never*) to 7 (*always*) on this five-item measure. Items include the following: “Accepts added responsibility when you are absent” and “Passes along work-related information to you”.

Organizational Citizenship Behavior-Coworker (OCB-C). Supervisors also assessed focal employees on the frequency of these behaviors directed toward coworkers using Lee and Allen’s (2002) scale. Eight items are included using 7-point anchors (1 = *never*, 7 = *always*). These items were developed with the intent that they would not conceptually overlap with task performance or supervisor-targeted citizenship. The items were modified slightly to reflect the performance of the behaviors by the focal employee (e.g., “your” replaced with “his/her”). A stem reading “How often does this employee?” prefaced each item. Example items include: “Help others who have been absent” and “Willingly give his/her time to help others who have work-related problems.”

Instructed Response Items. Other items included in the study consist of instructed response items to determine if participants were carelessly responding as suggested by Meade and Craig (2012). Items include “Respond with ‘strongly agree’ for this item” and “In your honest opinion, should we use your data (i.e., did you thoughtfully evaluate each item before you selected your response)?”. Meade and Craig (2012) recommend including one of these items for every 50 to 100 items in a survey to help detect careless responders. Each survey in this study included three instructed response items similar to these examples.

Item Appropriateness

One of the central arguments of this research is that the proposed mediating behaviors (e.g., political skills, cooperation) can be categorized as either getting ahead or getting along according to socioanalytic theory (Hogan, 2007). In order to verify that these mediating

behaviors indeed can be classified into these categories, I utilized procedures detailed by Schriesheim and colleagues (Schriesheim, Coglisier, Scandura, Lankau & Powers, 1999; Schriesheim, Powers, Scandura, Gardiner & Lankau, 1993). All 81 items from the six constructs (political skills, impression management, proactive behavior, friendliness, expressed humility and cooperativeness) were presented to judges with instructions to categorize each item as either “obviously getting ahead”, “obviously getting along” or “neither getting ahead nor getting along.” Definitions for each type of behavior were given as a reference point. Getting along was defined as “*behavior that gains the approval of others, enhances cooperation, and serves to build and maintain relationships*”; whereas getting ahead was defined as “*behavior that produces results and advances an individual within the group*” (Hogan & Holland, 2003, p. 103).

Data were collected from student participants (judges) in the Marketing Experimental Research Hub (MERH) housed in the LSU E.J. Ourso College of Business. Schriesheim et al. (1993) argue that the only qualification for judges in a process such as this is that they have the intellectual ability to rate the items and be sufficiently free of any potential biases. Along these lines, college students are ideal candidates because they have the intellectual capacity (as determined by university admission standards) to read and sort items and should be free of potential biases that might be held by employees who have experienced or engage in the types of behaviors in the workplace that are included in the measures. Undergraduate students with relatively little work experience should not have extensively read much or any theoretical or empirical literature related to the behaviors or experienced organizational socialization processes that might cause them to be biased in their views about certain behaviors (Schriesheim et al.,

1993). Using the MERH is ideal for this procedure as students are easily recruited to perform the ratings and then provided with the link to the online survey where their work is completed.

A total of 173 observations were used for analysis once careless responders were removed from the original 207 participants. Once categorized, mean ratings can be used to assess how each item was assigned. An item was considered appropriately sorted when a majority of respondents placed it into the category that was it was theorized to belong to. Following this policy, seven of eighteen political skill items were categorized as getting ahead. These seven items were used to create a reduced political skill construct for further analysis (see Appendix A for which items were included). Similarly, nine of twenty-two impression management items were sorted as getting ahead and used to create a new reduced item construct for impression management in further analysis (see Appendix A for which items were included). All other items were sorted according to the predicted category and were used to create the mediator constructs. This procedure helped to verify the argument that political skills, impression management and proactive behaviors are getting ahead in nature and that friendliness, expressed humility and cooperativeness are getting along in nature.

CHAPTER 4: RESULTS

At Time 1, 758 focal employees were nominated to be a part of this research by student participants. Of these, several were eliminated due to incompleteness or lack of useable information to proceed further. Additionally, as detailed by Meade and Craig (2012), the removal of careless responders is important to ensure that responses are meaningful. Consequently, each survey in this study included three items used to assess careless responding. Following a strict set of guidelines for each survey component that comprised a complete observation, observations were removed from the sample if more than one of these three items was answered incorrectly in each survey administration. Consequently, only 636 focal employees were included after Time 1 due to careless responders and incomplete information.

Among the 636 nominated focal employees, 403 provided complete and useable information in response to the first focal employee survey at Time 2 (after removing careless responders). In this first employee survey at Time 2, approximately 1209 coworkers were nominated to participate by the 403 focal employees. At Time 3, these 1209 coworkers were contacted and surveyed and 819 provided useful data after careless responses were removed. These 819 coworker surveys corresponded to 352 focal employees—thus reducing the sample size further.

Of the focal employees who participated in the first employee survey at Time 2, only 332 provided useable data for the second focal employee survey at Time 4 once careless responses were removed. Finally, at Time 5, 305 supervisors provided useable survey responses for these 332 focal employees after the removal of careless responders. After examining data across all five time periods, the final listwise sample of complete observations (i.e., a student nomination, two focal employee surveys, at least one coworker survey and one supervisor survey) was 277 of

the potential 758 (36.54%) employees originally nominated. Additionally, each focal employee had an average of 2.08 coworker personality ratings in the final sample (i.e., 691 coworker surveys for 277 focal employees). Figure 4.1 details the process used to reach the final listwise sample.

According to Fritz and MacKinnon (2007), if the true relationship between independent variables and mediators is stronger, a smaller sample size will suffice to uncover a significant effect (i.e., if the effect size between the trait and the mediating behavior and between the mediating behavior and task performance is .26, then the required sample size would only be 148; see Table 3 of Fritz & MacKinnon, 2007). Therefore, I believe that the final sample size of 277 is sufficient to test mediation hypotheses based on the likely effect size between variables.

In an effort to ensure the data are not biased, I conducted analyses to determine if there were any significant differences between students whose nominees chose to participate (403) and those who did not (233) based on available student demographic data. There were no significant differences in student gender or race; however employee participants tended to be nominated by slightly younger students ($t = -2.37, p < .05$). I then examined whether focal employees who participated in the second focal employee survey (332) were significantly different from those who selected not to participate (71) based on their demographic information. Again, there were no significant differences in gender or race; however, older employees were more likely to complete the second employee survey than younger ones ($t = 3.93, p < .001$). I further looked to see if the demographic information for focal employees was different for those who obtained coworker ratings (352) versus those who did not (51). Once again, there were no significant differences in gender or race; however, older employees were much more likely to get

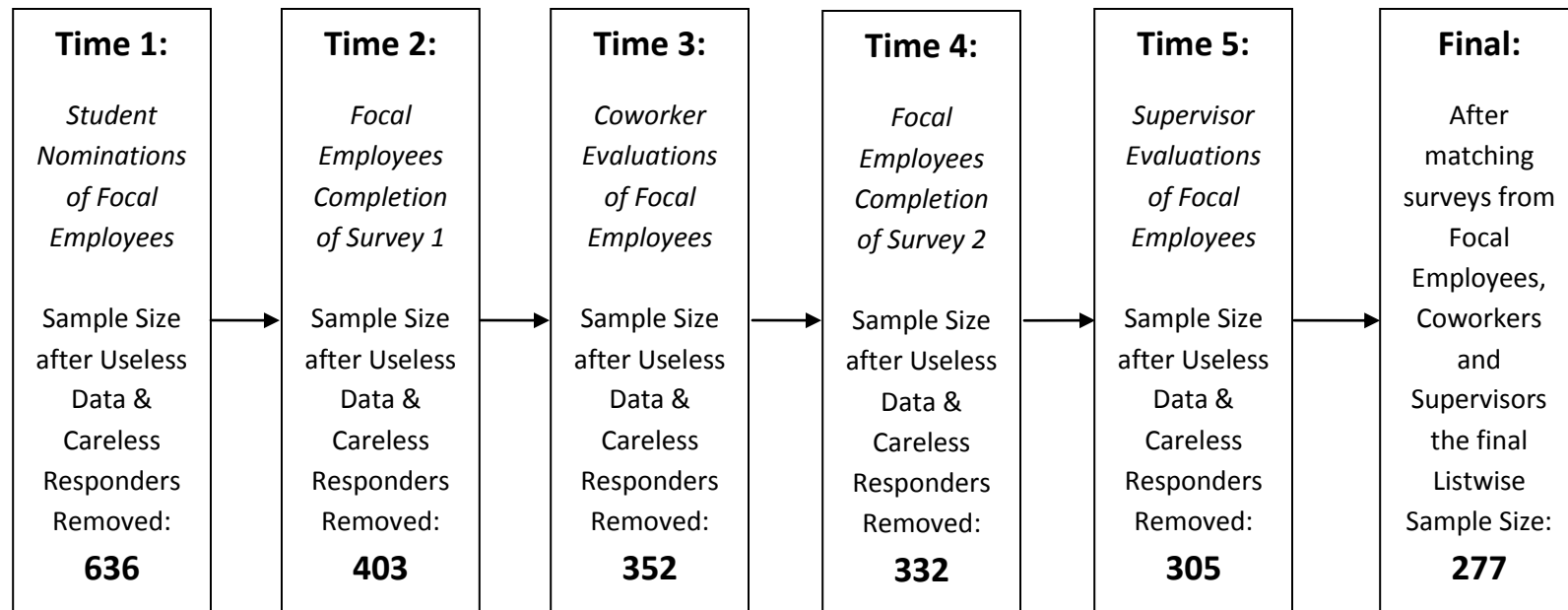


Figure 4.1
Data Collection Points and Determination of Final Sample Size

at least one coworker to complete a survey ($t = 2.20, p < .05$). Finally, I examined whether employee demographics differed for those whose supervisors participated (305) versus those who did not (98). Female focal employees were more likely to get a supervisor to complete their survey ($t = 2.19, p < .05$). Older focal employees were also more likely to get a completed supervisor survey ($t = 4.14, p < .001$). Additionally, non-white employees were more likely to have their supervisor participate in the survey than white employees ($t = -2.23, p < .05$).

In general, these results indicate that older employees were more likely to participate in the research effort. Table 4.1 shows the final sample characteristics in terms of demographics. I include age, work experience, hours worked per week, supervisor dyad tenure, gender and race for the three categories of participants when appropriate. As displayed in Table 4.1, focal employees are on average younger than supervisors, older than coworkers and tend to be predominantly female (67.5%) compared to male supervisors (53.8%).

Data Analysis

Construct Validity

Before comprehensive data analysis was completed, I used confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) to determine the construct validity of all the measures included in this study (AMOS version 21). This tests the discriminant validity of each construct and verifies that the variables represent distinct factors. I used two approaches to establish construct validity. First, I assessed three fit indices during the CFA analysis. These included a chi-square goodness of fit test, an absolute fit test (root mean square error approximation; RMSEA), and a comparative fit test (comparative fit index; CFI). Hair, Black, Babin, Anderson and Tatham (2006) recommend that an acceptable RMSEA falls below .10 and an acceptable CFI should be greater than .90 (pp.784-789). Second, I assessed the standardized factor loadings, composite reliability coefficients, and

Table 4.1
Sample Characteristics

	Focal Employees		Coworkers		Supervisors	
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Age (years)	42.33	12.88	39.60	11.13	48.05	11.39
Work Experience (years)	20.63	12.04	18.89	11.33	9.30	8.41
Average Hours Worked per Week	40.98	9.88	39.05	9.81		
Supervisor Dyad Tenure	6.05	6.18	4.96	4.64		
Gender (%)						
Male (1)	32.5		n/a		53.8	
Female (2)	67.5		n/a		46.2	
Race (%)						
White	84.8		n/a		87.4	
Non-White	15.2		n/a		12.6	

Note. $n = 277$ focal employees and supervisors. For analysis purposes coworker data is averaged so that 277 observations are utilized; thus, percentage of gender and race statistics are not available (n/a) for coworkers.

variance extracted estimates for each construct (Raykov, 1997). Factor loadings must be statistically significant and preferably .5 or higher in magnitude. Composite reliabilities should be above .70 and indicate the relative consistency that each item possesses in the expression of the reflective construct. Each factor should also demonstrate satisfactory average variance extracted (AVE; i.e., above .50; Fornell & Larcker, 1981). Comparative fit models were also run by combining different constructs and determining if different combinations of constructs either improved or reduced model fit. Assuming each construct is meaningfully distinct, any combination of constructs will result in worse fit overall which helps me to determine that they are distinct constructs.

In line with procedures recommended by Podsakoff and MacKenzie (1994), I further assessed discriminant validity of the constructs by comparing the AVE for each construct to the shared variance between each construct (i.e., the squared correlation between them). If the AVE estimate for each construct is larger than the squared correlation between a pair of constructs, they are discriminant from one another. For example, if the AVE for Construct A is .80 and the AVE of Construct B is .85 while the squared correlation between the two is .49 (i.e., their correlation is .70), an argument for discriminant validity can be made. Additionally, discriminant validity can also be evaluated during CFA testing by fixing the correlation between constructs of interest equal to one. After running the CFA again, if model fit statistics are changed significantly, there is data to argue that the constructs are unique from each other (Hair et al., 2006).

In order to establish construct and discriminant validity in the most meaningful way possible, I used the tests described above with data from different survey administrations. However, before I ran these tests, I also ran an exploratory factor analysis (EFA) to establish that the items loaded correctly on to their theorized factors. To begin with, I examined the outcome variables assessed by supervisor participants. Task performance, OCB-S and OCB-C should show distinctness from each other if I am to make arguments about their usefulness as dependent variables. Running an EFA on the six task performance, five OCB-S and eight OCB-C items, it became clear that I needed to remove one OCB-S item (item 5) from the analysis because it cross-loaded with both the task performance and OCB-C factors. No other items demonstrated this problem. To further establish the need to remove this item, the results of the CFA analysis of all performance items showed that removing this item reduced the χ^2 statistic for the measurement model by over 100. Removing this item also improved the RMSEA and CFI fitness

scores to establish a baseline model that was more satisfactory. Table 4.2 demonstrates the results of each test of construct and discriminant validity that I ran on the performance items. The final baseline model had satisfactory fit statistics [$\chi^2(132) = 359.50, p < .01, CFI = .93, RMSEA = .08$].

I further examined the composite reliability and AVE for each of the three constructs. Every item loaded significantly on to the theorized factor at greater than .50 (with .70 or higher preferred, because a significant factor loading may be weak in strength when sample sizes increase; Hair et al., 2006, p. 777). OCB-S had a composite reliability of .88 with an AVE of .65. The squared interconstruct correlation between OCB-S and OCB-C was .49 whereas the squared interconstruct correlation between OCB-S and task performance was .35. OCB-C had a composite reliability of .93 and an AVE of .61. Its squared interconstruct correlation with task performance was .48. Finally, task performance had composite reliability of .89 and an AVE of .57. Therefore, I can reasonably argue that each of these three constructs demonstrates both construct and discriminant validity.

After establishing the validity of the outcome variables, I tested the validity of the independent variables in a similar manner. I ran an EFA on self-rated Machiavellianism, narcissism and psychopathy items first to help me establish that there were no issues of cross-loading and that the facets of these three traits existed in the data as theorized previously. The 16 self-rated Machiavellianism items demonstrated four facets: amorality (items 1-5), desire for control (items 6-8), desire for status (items 9-12) and distrust (items 13-16). Only item 12 loaded on the wrong facet and as a result became a candidate for later deletion. When an EFA was performed on self-rated narcissism items four facets were established: self-admiration (items 1, 9 & 15), superiority (items 2, 10, 12 & 16), leadership/authority (items 5, 8 & 13) and entitlement

Table 4.2
Comparison of Measurement Models for OCB-S, OCB-C & Task Performance

Model	Factors	χ^2	DF	$\Delta \chi^2$	ΔDF	χ^2/DF	RMSEA	CFI
Null Model		3498.61	153			22.87	0.28	0.00
Baseline	3 Factors OCB-S, OCB-C & TP with item OCB-S5 removed	359.50	132			2.72	0.08	0.93
Model 1	3 Factors OCB-S, OCB-C & TP no items removed	459.63	149	100.13*	17	3.08	0.09	0.91
Model 2	2 Factors: OCB Combined & TP	631.23	134	271.73*	2	4.71	0.12	0.85
Model 3	2 Factors: OCB-S & TP Combined	711.73	134	352.23*	2	5.31	0.13	0.83
Model 4	2 Factors: OCB-C & TP Combined	724.08	134	364.23*	2	5.40	0.13	0.82
Model 5	1 Factor: All Combined	979.20	135	619.70*	3	7.25	0.15	0.75
Model 6	3 Factors OCB-S, OCB-C & TP correlation btw OCB-S & OCB-C 1.0	638.88	133	279.38*	1	4.80	0.12	0.85
Model 7	3 Factors OCB-S, OCB-C & TP correlation btw TP & OCB-C 1.0	724.01	133	364.51*	1	5.44	0.13	0.82
Model 8	3 Factors OCB-S, OCB-C & TP correlation btw TP & OCB-S 1.0	695.65	133	336.15*	1	5.23	0.12	0.83

Note: $n = 277$; $*p < 0.01$; TP = Task Performance; OCB-S = Organizational Citizenship Behavior to Supervisors; OCB-C = Organizational Citizenship Behavior to Coworkers

(items 3 & 14). Items 4, 6, 7 & 11 cross-loaded and were removed through multiple EFAs before clean facets could be established; therefore, they became candidates for removal from the final measures after the CFA was conducted. An EFA on self-rated psychopathy items also resulted in the establishment of four facets based on theory and multiple rounds and removal of cross-loading items: interpersonal manipulation (items 1-4), antisocial behavior (items 6-10), erratic lifestyle (items 11, 13, 14 & 15) and callous affect (items 16, 19 & 20). Items 5, 12, 17, & 18 demonstrated issues with cross-loading and became future candidates for removal.

CFA analysis was then conducted with both self-rated and coworker-rated Machiavellianism, narcissism and psychopathy items with each facet of each trait established by theory. In an attempt to retain consistency, I did not remove items from the CFAs unless I removed the same item from both the self- and coworker-rated version of the trait. To start with, 24 first-order factors and six second-order factors were put into a CFA to establish the construct and discriminant validity of both the self- and coworker-rated versions of the three traits. It became immediately obvious based on the number of items and the poorness of the initial fit statistics that items established in the EFA as candidates for removal would need to be strongly considered; therefore, I moved forward by eliminating these items from the next round of CFA. Removal of the items that cross-loaded left me with a model with following fit indices: [$\chi^2(3530) = 6387.68, p < .01, CFI = .76, RMSEA = .05$]. After examining the modification indices and the statistical significance of the items (as well as the strength of the loading of the items), I determined that I should remove items 1 and 20 from both the self- and coworker-ratings of psychopathy. This left me with an improved fit [$\chi^2(3200) = 5645.34, p < .01, CFI = .78, RMSEA = .05$] and a reasonably satisfactory baseline model to run validity checks against (see Table 4.3 for further information). The fit statistics for this baseline model were not ideal; however, I

determined that I should attempt to retain as many items as possible for the constructs to maintain their theoretical identity and consistency.

I then determined the composite reliability and AVE for each of the higher order personality constructs using their facets' loading to calculate these measurements of reliability and validity. Unfortunately, not every facet loaded onto the second-order personality factor at greater than the preferred .50 (self-rated interpersonal manipulation loaded at .47 onto self-rated psychopathy and coworker-rated interpersonal manipulation loaded at .23 to coworker-rated psychopathy); however, each did significantly load onto the correct factor. Composite reliabilities for each trait are included in Table 4.4 as well as AVEs for each trait. Whereas reliabilities for each trait are sufficient (i.e., above .70), the AVEs for self-rated narcissism and self-rated Machiavellianism fall below the desired .50 threshold (i.e., .46 and .44) established in the literature (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). However, this is the result of using the second-order loadings to calculate AVE and may not be as great a concern. Squared interconstruct correlations are displayed in Table 4.5 and demonstrate that there may be issues of discriminant validity between some of the constructs. For example, the squared correlation between self-rated narcissism and self-rated Machiavellianism is .46 which equals the AVE for self-rated narcissism and is greater than the AVE for self-rated Machiavellianism. Therefore, using these statistics it may be hard to argue that self-rated narcissism and self-rated Machiavellianism are distinct constructs. Additionally, the squared correlation between coworker-rated narcissism and coworker-rated Machiavellianism is .72 which exceeds the AVE of .51 found for coworker-rated Machiavellianism. Again, these results may cast doubt on the distinctiveness of the constructs; however, using the loadings of the first-order factors of personality facets onto the second-order factors of the personality traits could be the issue. Fortunately, I was able to help establish

Table 4.3
CFA Comparison of Measurement Models for Self- and Coworker-Rated Dark Triad Traits

Model	Factors	χ^2	DF	$\Delta \chi^2$	Δ DF	χ^2/DF	RMSEA	CFI
Null Model		14518.36	3321			4.37	0.11	0.00
Baseline	24 1st Order Factors by Theory excludes items as shown below	5645.34	3200			1.76	0.05	0.78
Model 1	24 1st Order Factors by Theory excludes items as shown below	5906.31	3363	260.96*	163	1.76	0.05	0.78
Model 2	24 1st Order Factors by Theory excludes items as shown below per original EFA	6387.68	3530	742.34*	330	1.81	0.05	0.76
Model 3	6 Factors with No Facets; Items same as Baseline	8193.48	3224	2548.14*	24	2.54	0.08	0.56
Model 4	24 1st Order Factors by Theory Correlation btw SRSRP & CRSRP set to 1.0	5727.84	3201	82.50*	1	1.79	0.05	0.77
Model 5	24 1st Order Factors by Theory Correlation btw SRSRP & CRNPI set to 1.0	5760.88	3201	115.53*	1	1.80	0.05	0.77
Model 6	24 1st Order Factors by Theory Correlation btw SRSRP & CRMPS set to 1.0	5754.88	3201	109.54*	1	1.80	0.05	0.77
Model 7	24 1st Order Factors by Theory Correlation btw SRNPI & CRSRP set to 1.0	5722.58	3201	77.23*	1	1.79	0.05	0.78
Model 8	24 1st Order Factors by Theory Correlation btw SRNPI & CRNPI set to 1.0	5686.55	3201	41.20*	1	1.78	0.05	0.78
Model 9	24 1st Order Factors by Theory Correlation btw SRNPI & CRMPS set to 1.0	5710.39	3201	65.04*	1	1.78	0.05	0.78
Model 10	24 1st Order Factors by Theory Correlation btw SRMPS & CRSRP set to 1.0	5789.72	3201	144.38*	1	1.81	0.05	0.77
Model 11	24 1st Order Factors by Theory Correlation btw SRMPS & CRNPI set to 1.0	5792.08	3201	146.74*	1	1.81	0.05	0.77
Model 12	24 1st Order Factors by Theory Correlation btw SRMPS & CRMPS set to 1.0	5776.86	3201	131.52*	1	1.80	0.05	0.77

Note: $n = 277$; * $p < 0.01$; SRP = Psychopathy; NPI = Narcissism; MPS = Machiavellianism; CR = coworker-rated; SR = self-rated.

Baseline: Final Measurement Model

SRP: 8 Factors: Manipulation, Anti-Social, Erratic Lifestyle, Callous Affect except items 1,5,12,17,18 & 20

NPI: 8 Factors: Self-Admiration, Superiority, Leadership, Entitlement except items 4,6,7 & 11

MPS: 8 Factors: Amoral, Control, Status & Distrust, except item 12

Model 1

SRP: 8 Factors: Manipulation, Anti-Social, Erratic Lifestyle, Callous Affect except items 1,5,12,17,18

NPI: 8 Factors: Self-Admiration, Superiority, Leadership, Entitlement except items 4,6,7 & 11

MPS: 8 Factors: Amoral, Control, Status & Distrust, except item 12

Model 2

SRP: 8 Factors: Manipulation, Anti-Social, Erratic Lifestyle, Callous Affect except items 5,12,17 & 18

NPI: 8 Factors: Self-Admiration, Superiority, Leadership, Entitlement except items 4,6,7 & 11

MPS: 8 Factors: Amoral, Control, Status & Distrust, except item 12

Table 4.4
Composite Reliabilities and Average Variance Extracted for Self- and Coworker-Rated Dark Triad Traits

Construct	Composite Reliability	Average Variance Extracted
SRSRP	0.82	0.54
SRNPI	0.77	0.46
SRMPS	0.75	0.44
CRSRP	0.81	0.56
CRNPI	0.92	0.75
CRMPS	0.80	0.51

Note: $n = 277$; SRP = Psychopathy; NPI = Narcissism; MPS = Machiavellianism; CR = coworker-rated; SR = self-rated.

Table 4.5
Correlations and Squared Interconstruct Correlations for Self- and Coworker-Rated Dark Triad Traits

Construct		Construct	Estimate	Squared Interconstruct Correlation
SRSRP	<-->	SRNPI	0.57	0.33
SRSRP	<-->	SRMPS	0.72	0.52
SRSRP	<-->	CRNPI	0.29	0.08
SRSRP	<-->	CRSRP	0.55	0.30
SRSRP	<-->	CRMPS	0.37	0.13
SRNPI	<-->	SRMPS	0.68	0.46
SRNPI	<-->	CRMPS	0.38	0.14
SRNPI	<-->	CRNPI	0.58	0.33
SRNPI	<-->	CRSRP	0.22	0.05
SRMPS	<-->	CRSRP	0.31	0.09
SRMPS	<-->	CRMPS	0.40	0.16
SRMPS	<-->	CRNPI	0.30	0.09
CRSRP	<-->	CRNPI	0.54	0.29
CRSRP	<-->	CRMPS	0.68	0.46
CRNPI	<-->	CRMPS	0.85	0.72

Note: $n = 277$; SRP = Psychopathy; NPI = Narcissism; MPS = Machiavellianism; CR = coworker-rated; SR = self-rated.

discriminant validity for these self- and coworker-rated traits using the technique of setting the correlation between each second-order factor to 1.0 and assessing if the change in model fit was significant. This process is detailed in Table 4.3 and demonstrates that model fit significantly worsens in each case when correlations between self- and coworker-rated traits are set to 1.0.

For the getting along and getting ahead behaviors, I again ran another set of EFAs and CFAs to establish their construct validity and distinctiveness from one another. According to theory, there should be 11 factors that represent the six behaviors. Of the getting along behaviors cooperation has one factor, friendliness has two (anger and hostility) and expressed humility has three (accurate view of the self, willingness to share credit and teachability). The getting ahead behaviors are theorized to have one factor for proactive behaviors, two factors for impression management (self-promotion and exemplification) and two factors for political skills (networking ability and social astuteness). However, when I ran an EFA for these behaviors, more factors appeared. For example, hostility split into two factors which I labeled HostilityA and HostilityB, and cooperation split into two factors that I called CoopComm (communication-related) and CoopHelp (helpfulness-related). This indicated that the six behaviors should consist of 13 first-order factors instead of 11.

The results of the EFA also indicated that I should delete several items based on their issues with cross-loading to non-theorized factors or for loadings less than .40. Problematic items from cooperation included the item I had labeled COOP4. Problem items from friendliness included ANGR7 and AGGRHOS7. There were also two items from the impression management scale, IMGTIG1 and IMGTEX4 that presented potential problems. When I ran the first CFA including these items and all the rest from the six behaviors, they were problematic; therefore, I removed them to improve the model fit. However, when I examined the CFA I still had multiple issues to resolve. Several items were not loading significantly or loaded well below the .50 threshold. After several rounds removing items that seemed to be the most troublesome based on this information and the modification indices provided by AMOS, I arrived at a satisfactory baseline model to begin establishing validity. As a result of these efforts, I removed

one item from proactive behavior (PROB1), two more items from friendliness (ANGR4 and AGGRHOS5), two additional items from cooperation (COOP1 and COOP5), one item from expressed humility (EXHU1) and one more item from impression management (IMGTEX3). The new baseline model included 13 factors and had the following fit statistics: [$\chi^2(962) = 1,694.35, p < .01, CFI = .90, RMSEA = .05$]. More information about the comparison between the theorized number of factors and the number that I settled on is available in Table 4.6.

Next, I examined the composite reliability and AVE for each of the six behaviors. Every item loaded significantly on to the theorized factor at greater than .50. Information about composite reliabilities and AVEs for each behavior is included in Table 4.7. All constructs had sufficient composite reliabilities (i.e., at or above .70) and all except friendliness had greater than .50 AVE; however, friendliness' AVE was .49 putting it right at the border for an acceptable level. The squared interconstruct correlations between the behaviors are included in Table 4.8. In no case does the AVE for a construct fall below the squared interconstruct correlation for that construct with another. This indicates that the getting along and getting ahead constructs are distinct from one another, and I can reasonably argue that they exhibit both construct and discriminant validity. This is further reinforced by the steps I took to assess whether there was a significant change in model fit when the correlation between the constructs was set to 1.0. As can be seen in Table 4.6, when this restriction is placed any combination of constructs, the overall model fit becomes significantly poorer. This furthers to strengthen the argument that the six constructs are distinct. Additionally, Table 4.9 displays the complete listing of items excluded from the final constructs for clarity sake.

Table 4.6
Comparison of Measurement Models for Self-Rated Getting Ahead & Getting Along Behaviors

Model	Factors	χ^2	DF	$\Delta \chi^2$	Δ DF	χ^2/DF	RMSEA	CFI
Null								
Model		8347.73	1035			8.07	0.16	0.00
Baseline	13 Factors per EFA	1694.35	962			1.76	0.05	0.90
Model 1	12 Factors Cooperation as one	1804.68	964	110.33*	2	1.87	0.06	0.89
Model 2	12 Factors Friendliness as one	1838.66	963	144.32*	1	1.91	0.06	0.88
Model 3	11 Factors Cooperation & Hostility as one per Theory	1949.89	965	255.55*	3	2.02	0.06	0.87
Model 4	13 Factors correlation btw Impression Management & Political Skill set to 1.0	1738.41	963	44.06*	1	1.81	0.05	0.89
Model 5	13 Factors correlation btw Proactive Behavior & Political Skill set to 1.0	1739.17	963	44.83*	1	1.81	0.05	0.89
Model 6	13 Factors correlation btw Proactive Behavior & Impression Management set to 1.0	1738.74	963	44.39*	1	1.81	0.05	0.89
Model 7	13 Factors correlation btw Proactive Behavior & Cooperation set to 1.0	1714.79	963	20.44*	1	1.78	0.05	0.90
Model 8	13 Factors correlation btw Impression Management & Cooperation set to 1.0	1737.41	963	43.07*	1	1.80	0.05	0.89
Model 9	13 Factors correlation btw Political Skill & Cooperation set to 1.0	1726.91	963	32.56*	1	1.79	0.05	0.90
Model 10	13 Factors correlation btw Friendliness & Cooperation set to 1.0	1762.43	963	68.09*	1	1.83	0.06	0.89
Model 11	13 Factors correlation btw Expressed Humility & Cooperation set to 1.0	1715.41	963	21.06*	1	1.78	0.05	0.90
Model 12	13 Factors correlation btw Expressed Humility & Political Skill set to 1.0	1755.65	963	61.30*	1	1.82	0.06	0.89
Model 13	13 Factors correlation btw Friendliness & Political Skill set to 1.0	1775.15	963	80.81*	1	1.84	0.06	0.89
Model 14	13 Factors correlation btw Friendliness & Impression Management set to 1.0	1736.11	963	41.77*	1	1.80	0.05	0.89
Model 15	13 Factors correlation btw Expressed Humility & Impression Management set to 1.0	1740.33	963	45.99*	1	1.81	0.05	0.89
Model 16	13 Factors correlation btw Proactive Behavior & Friendliness set to 1.0	1827.75	963	133.41*	1	1.90	0.06	0.88
Model 17	13 Factors correlation btw Proactive Behavior & Expressed Humility set to 1.0	1866.17	963	171.82*	1	1.94	0.06	0.88
Model 18	13 Factors correlation btw Expressed Humility & Friendliness set to 1.0	1807.45	963	113.10*	1	1.88	0.06	0.89

Note: $n = 277$; * $p < 0.05$

Baseline: 13 Factors include: Anger, HostilityA, HostilityB, AccurateSelf, ShareCredit, Teachability, CoopComm, CoopHelp, ProBeh, Self-Promotion, Exemplification, Networking Ability & Social Astuteness. Cooperation has 2 facets: Communication (CoopComm) & Help (CoopHelp). Friendliness has 3 facets: Anger, HostilityA & HostilityB. Expressed Humility has 3 facets: AccurateSelf, ShareCredit & Teachability. Impression Management has 2 facets: Self-Promotion & Exemplification. Political Skill has 2 facets: Networking Ability & Social Astuteness. Proactive Behavior has 1 facet.

Table 4.7
Composite Reliabilities and Average Variance Extracted for Self-Rated Getting Ahead and
Getting Along Behaviors

Construct	Composite Reliability	Average Variance Extracted
Cooperation	0.70	0.53
Friendliness	0.74	0.49
Expressed Humility	0.83	0.62
Political Skill	0.77	0.63
Impression Management	0.73	0.58
Proactive Behavior	0.87	0.54

Table 4.8
Correlations and Squared Interconstruct Correlations for Self-Rated Getting Ahead and Getting
Along Behaviors

Construct		Construct	Estimate	Squared Interconstruct Correlation
Friendliness	<-->	Expressed Humility	0.34	0.11
Friendliness	<-->	Cooperation	0.24	0.06
Friendliness	<-->	Proactive Behavior	0.10	0.01
Friendliness	<-->	Impression Management	-0.29	0.08
Friendliness	<-->	Political Skill	0.13	0.02
Cooperation	<-->	Political Skill	0.55	0.30
Cooperation	<-->	Proactive Behavior	0.72	0.52
Cooperation	<-->	Impression Management	0.24	0.06
Expressed Humility	<-->	Cooperation	0.70	0.49
Expressed Humility	<-->	Proactive Behavior	0.48	0.23
Expressed Humility	<-->	Political Skill	0.44	0.20
Expressed Humility	<-->	Impression Management	-0.13	0.02
Impression Management	<-->	Political Skill	0.20	0.04
Proactive Behavior	<-->	Impression Management	0.23	0.05
Proactive Behavior	<-->	Political Skill	0.60	0.36

Descriptive Statistics and Correlations

Based on the work that I did conducting the CFAs to establish the validity of each construct, I calculated each construct's summated score by including the items that passed the CFA and prior sorting analysis. I then determined, means, standard deviations, alpha reliabilities

and correlations between all study variables. The results of these calculations are presented in Table 4.10 and provide the first glimpse as to whether the hypotheses will be supported or not.

Table 4.9
Complete List of Items Removed from Constructs for Final Analysis

Construct:	Items Removed by Sorting:	Items Removed by CFA Analysis:
Politically Skilled Behavior	PSINA4, PSINA5, PSIAS1, PSIAS2, PSIAS3, PSISA4, PSISA5, PSIII1, PSIII2, PSIII3, PSIII4	n/a
Impression Management	IMGTIG2, IMGTIG3, IMGTIG4, IMGTIN1, IMGTIN2, IMGTIN3, IMGTIN4, IMGTIN5, IMGTSU1, IMGTSU2, IMGTSU3, IMGTSU4, IMGTSU5	IMGTIG1, IMGTEX3, IMGTEX4
Proactive Behavior	n/a	PROB1
Friendliness	n/a	ANGR4, ANGR7, AGGRHOS5, AGGRHOS7
Expressed Humility	n/a	EXHU1
Cooperation	n/a	COOP1, COOP4, COOP5
Self-Rated Machiavellianism	n/a	MPS12
Coworker-Rated Machiavellianism	n/a	MPS12
Self-Rated Narcissism	n/a	NPI4,NPI6,NPI7,NPI11
Coworker-Rated Narcissism	n/a	NPI4,NPI6,NPI7,NPI11
Self-Rated Psychopathy	n/a	SRP1,SRP5,SRP12,SRP17,SRP18,SRP20
Coworker-Rated Psychopathy	n/a	SRP1,SRP5,SRP12,SRP17,SRP18,SRP20
OCB-S	n/a	OCB-S5
OCB-C	n/a	n/a
Task Performance	n/a	n/a

Hypothesis 1 argued that self-rated Machiavellianism would be positively associated with (a) political skills, (b) impression management and (c) proactive behaviors. Results show a positive and significant correlation between the trait and both political skills ($r = .12, p < .05$) and

Table 4.10
Means, Standard Deviations and Correlations between All Study Variables

Variable	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15
<i>Self-Rated (Time 2)</i>																	
1 Machiavellianism	0.14	0.81	0.86														
2 Narcissism	0.23	0.20	.42**	0.70													
3 Psychopathy	1.97	0.65	.53**	.41**	0.75												
<i>Coworker-Rated (Time 3)</i>																	
4 Machiavellianism	2.43	0.73	.30**	.24**	.28**	0.91											
5 Narcissism	0.28	0.20	.20**	.38**	.25**	.63**	0.84										
6 Psychopathy	2.22	0.58	.26**	.18**	.45**	.55**	.43**	0.85									
<i>Self-Rated (Time 4)</i>																	
7 Political Skill	4.99	0.96	.12*	.29**	.05	.04	.13*	-.03	0.85								
8 Impression Management	3.57	0.89	.33**	.17**	.18**	.21**	.16**	.15*	.21**	0.76							
9 Proactive Behavior	5.54	0.80	.04	.25**	-.04	.00	.11	-.07	.46**	.16**	0.87						
10 Friendliness	2.75	1.03	-.42**	-.16**	-.38**	-.28**	-.15*	-.25**	.09	-.19**	.06	0.87					
11 Expressed Humility	6.07	0.61	-.19**	-.07	-.26**	-.11	-.05	-.21**	.30**	-.13*	.42**	.26**	0.91				
12 Cooperation	5.52	0.79	-.15*	.06	-.11	-.15*	-.05	-.13*	.32**	.13*	.54**	.17**	.46**	0.86			
<i>Supervisor Rated (Time 5)</i>																	
13 Task Performance	6.33	0.70	-.22**	-.08	-.30**	-.25**	-.19**	-.27**	.06	-.12	.15*	.19**	.16**	.15*	0.88		
14 OCB-S	5.72	1.14	-.13*	.01	-.15*	-.18**	-.13*	-.17**	.18**	-.07	.15*	.10	.08	.13*	.56**	0.87	
15 OCB-C	5.74	0.95	-.17**	-.12*	-.25**	-.25**	-.21**	-.24**	.12*	-.05	.14*	.15*	.17**	.23**	.61**	.66**	0.92

Note: $n = 277$; * $p < 0.05$; ** $p < .01$; Constructs created post CFA analysis; Alpha reliabilities appear on diagonal.

impression management ($r = .33, p < .01$) but not proactive behavior ($r = .04, n.s.$). This provides support for Hypothesis 1a and 1b. Hypothesis 2 stated that self-rated Machiavellianism would negatively and significantly correlate with (a) friendliness, (b) expressed humility and (c) cooperativeness. Results show support for all three aspects of Hypothesis 2 as friendliness ($r = -.42, p < .01$), expressed humility ($r = -.19, p < .01$) and cooperation ($r = -.15, p < .05$) are all significant and in the predicted direction.

Hypothesis 3 stated that self-rated narcissism would positively correlate with (a) political skill, (b) impression management, and (c) proactive behavior. This is supported for all three behaviors respectively ($r = .29, p < .01$; $r = .17, p < .01$; $r = .25, p < .05$). Hypothesis 4 argued that self-rated narcissism would negatively correlate with (a) friendliness, (b) expressed humility and (c) cooperativeness. However, only friendliness ($r = -.16, p < .05$) supports the hypothesis as both expressed humility ($r = -.07, n.s.$) and cooperation ($r = .06, n.s.$) do not.

Hypothesis 5 examined self-rated psychopathy and its relationship with (a) political skill, (b) impression management, and (c) proactive behavior arguing for positive correlations between the trait and the behaviors. Hypothesis 5a and 5c were not supported as both political skill ($r = .05, n.s.$) and proactive behavior ($r = -.04, n.s.$) were not significant. Hypothesis 5b was supported for impression management ($r = .18, p < .05$). Regarding Hypothesis 6, it was argued that self-rated psychopathy would negatively correlate with (a) friendliness, (b) expressed humility and (c) cooperativeness. Results show that the trait significantly correlates with friendliness ($r = -.38, p < .01$) and expressed humility ($r = -.26, p < .01$) but not cooperation ($r = .11, n.s.$). Therefore, Hypothesis 6a and 6b are supported, but 6c is not.

In addition to examining self-rated DT traits to test Hypotheses 1-6, coworker-rated traits can also provide insight. Hypothesis 1 argued that coworker-rated Machiavellianism would be

positively associated with (a) political skills, (b) impression management and (c) proactive behaviors. Results show a positive and significant correlation between the trait and impression management ($r = .21, p < .01$) but not for political skills ($r = .04, n.s.$) and proactive behavior ($r = .00, n.s.$). This provides support for Hypothesis 1b which mirrors findings for self-ratings as does the lack of support for Hypothesis 1c. However, self-ratings of Machiavellianism were correlated with politically skilled behaviors while coworker-ratings are not. Hypothesis 2 stated that coworker-rated Machiavellianism would negatively and significantly correlate with (a) friendliness, (b) expressed humility and (c) cooperativeness. Results show support for Hypothesis 2a and 2c as friendliness ($r = -.28, p < .01$) and cooperation ($r = -.15, p < .05$) mirror results for self-rated Machiavellianism. However, coworker-rated Machiavellianism does not correlate with expressed humility ($r = -.11, n.s.$) which fails to support Hypothesis 2b and is inconsistent with the findings for self-ratings.

Hypothesis 3 stated that coworker-rated narcissism would positively correlate with (a) political skill, (b) impression management, and (c) proactive behavior. This is supported for politically skilled behavior ($r = .13, p < .05$) and impression management ($r = .16, p < .01$) but not proactive behavior ($r = .11, n.s.$). Thus, Hypothesis 3a and 3b are consistent for self- and coworker-ratings but this is not the case for Hypothesis 3c. Hypothesis 4 argued that coworker-rated narcissism would negatively correlate with (a) friendliness, (b) expressed humility and (c) cooperativeness. As with self-ratings of the trait, only friendliness ($r = -.15, p < .05$) supports the hypothesis as both expressed humility ($r = -.05, n.s.$) and cooperation ($r = -.05, n.s.$) do not.

Hypothesis 5 argued that coworker-rated psychopathy would positively correlate with (a) political skill, (b) impression management, and (c) proactive behavior. Hypothesis 5a and 5c were not supported as both political skill ($r = -.03, n.s.$) and proactive behavior ($r = -.07, n.s.$)

were not significant. Hypothesis 5b was supported for impression management ($r = .15, p < .05$). These results are very consistent with those found for self-ratings of psychopathy. Regarding Hypothesis 6, it was argued that coworker-rated psychopathy would negatively correlate with (a) friendliness, (b) expressed humility and (c) cooperativeness. Results show that the trait significantly correlates with friendliness ($r = -.25, p < .01$), expressed humility ($r = -.21, p < .01$) and cooperation ($r = -.13, p < .05$). Therefore, Hypothesis 6a, 6b and 6c are all supported. This is similar to self-ratings except here cooperation is also found to be significant.

Mediation Analysis

Examining simple correlations between the DT traits and the getting ahead and getting along behaviors provides support for the hypotheses. However, a more thorough examination of the impact of these traits in the workplace must include task performance in the complete model. Therefore, I used mediation analysis techniques developed by Hayes (2009, 2012) to test the hypotheses regarding the opposing nature of getting ahead and getting along behaviors. With the PROCESS macro developed for SPSS, as many as ten different mediators can be tested for their influence on the relationship between DT traits and task performance. The model can be run simultaneously and each mediator is tested in parallel with the others indicating that they do not impact each other during the test. In this fashion I could determine the total effect of each DT trait on task performance and the direct and indirect effects of the traits and mediators on task performance.

The output I collected demonstrate whether each mediator is influencing task performance in a positive or negative fashion and either lends support or disconfirms the hypotheses. PROCESS produces output that demonstrates the statistical significance of each effect using bootstrapping techniques that do not rely on a normal distribution of data points to

determine significance values (Hayes, 2012). Therefore, this technique provides a more realistic test of the mediation impact of the variables between DT traits and task performance. For the sake of interpretation of the results, I created tables that include the direct, overall and indirect effects for the impact of each DT trait on task performance. Decomposed effects for the impact of each trait and mediator on task performance can be understood more clearly by labeling each pathway. The overall effect of each trait on task performance is labeled c , whereas the direct effect of the trait on task performance is labeled c' . The path between the trait and the mediator is labeled a and the path between the mediator and task performance is labeled b . Thus the indirect effect of the trait on task performance is best understood as the multiplicative combination of a and b or $a*b$. Inferences about indirect effects should not be based on the statistical significance of the paths that define it (i.e., between a and b), but instead on the indirect effect itself ($a*b$) and a “statistical test that respects the nonnormality of the sampling distribution of the indirect effect” (Hayes, 2012, p. 13).

Therefore, in this research, if the $a*b$ path is significant, that indicates that there is an indirect effect of a trait on task performance as mediated by the behavior of interest. Recent views of mediation have argued that evidence of a total effect (c) prior to the estimation of direct (c') or indirect effects ($a*b$) is not necessary (Hayes, 2009; 2012; Zhao, Lynch & Chen, 2010). As long as $a*b$ is significant, evidence of some form of mediation exists (Zhao et al., 2010). If $a*b$ is significant and c' is not, full mediation is implied. If both $a*b$ and c' are significant, then partial mediation is occurring. If $a*b$ and c' are both significant and have the same sign, complementary mediation exists; however, if $a*b$ and c' are both significant and have opposing signs, competitive mediation exists—either is a form of partial mediation (Zhao et al., 2010). In a

situation of competitive mediation, the indirect ($a*b$) and direct effects (c') could serve to cancel each other out and cause the appearance of little to no total effect (c ; Hayes, 2009).

Additionally, multiple indirect effects could be at play simultaneously. In a parallel multiple mediator model as outlined by PROCESS, the different mediators are assumed to have no impact on each other and the sum of all specific indirect effects within the model results in the total indirect effect of X on Y through the various M variables (see Figure 4.2; Hayes, 2012). It is possible that two or more indirect paths which transmit the influence of X to Y may have opposite signs and function in opposing ways such that they cancel each other out. This results in a total indirect effect that is not detectably different than zero despite evidence of multiple specific indirect effects that are not themselves zero (Hayes, 2009). Figure 4.2 displays how the direct, indirect, and overall effects are represented in mediation analyses using PROCESS.

As seen in Table 4.11, Hypothesis 1 can be tested for the mediation effects of getting ahead behaviors for self-rated Machiavellianism's impact on task performance. Whereas the first-stage effect (a) path for both political skill and impression management are significant in the direction predicted, the indirect effects ($a*b$) of both mediators are not. Similarly, the second-stage effect (b) of proactive behavior is significant but the indirect effect is not. The total indirect effect ($a*b$) of all three mediators is also not significant. Therefore, there is little support for Hypothesis 1. Thus, when political skill, impression management and proactive behavior are tested both individually and as a group there is no significant indirect effect ($a*b$). However, the paths generally indicate support for the hypothesis by trending in the correct direction.

Table 4.11 also provides a test of Hypothesis 2 which argued that self-rated Machiavellianism would be mediated by getting along behaviors for its impact on task performance. When friendliness, expressed humility and cooperation are tested there is a

significant indirect effect for both friendliness ($-.0426, p < .05$) and cooperation ($-.0155, p < .05$), but not for expressed humility. When tested as a group there is also a significant total indirect effect as the combined $a*b$ path ($-.0552; p < .05$) has lower and upper bootstrapped confidence intervals below zero ($-.1128; -.0089$). This indicates that self-rated Machiavellianism's impact on task performance is partially mediated by these two getting along behaviors by supporting

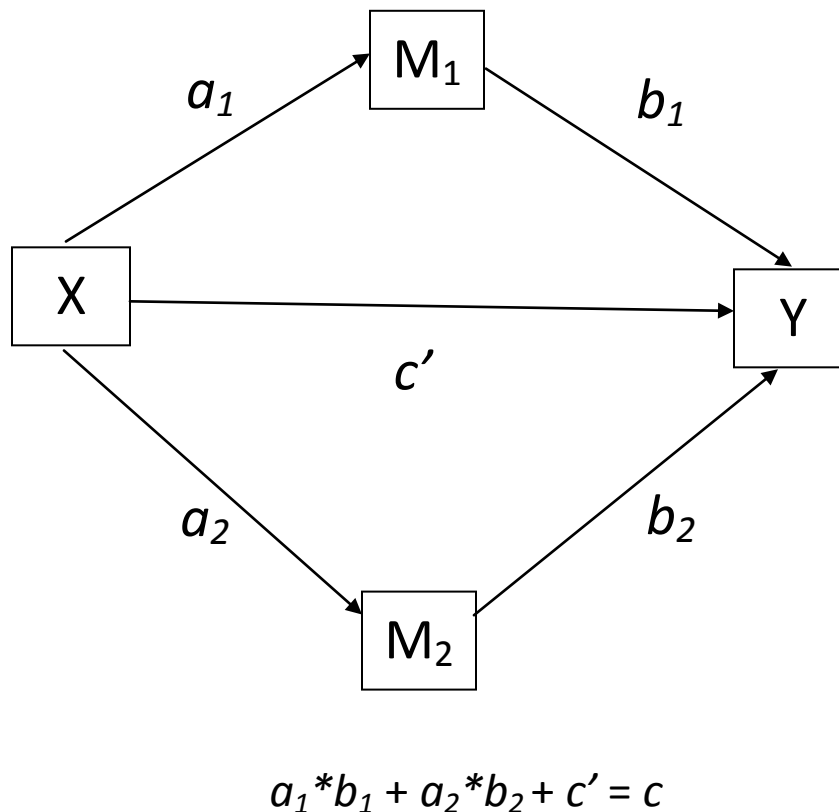


Figure 4.2
Mediation Analyses with Multiple Mediators in Parallel

Note: X=independent variable (trait); M=mediator (getting along or getting ahead behavior); Y=dependent variable (task performance); a = first-stage effect of trait on mediator; b = second-stage effect of mediator on task performance; c' = direct effect of trait on task performance; c = total effect of trait on task performance.

Hypothesis 2a and 2c. Partial mediation is indicated as the direct effect (c' ; $-.1356; p < .05$) is also significant. Careful inspection of the decomposed effects demonstrates that each getting

along behavior has a significant first-stage effect in the predicted direction. This further bolsters confidence in the interpretation of the results.

To be comprehensive, I also ran analyses for the impact of all six mediators in the same model. The results for this analysis of total combined effects for Hypothesis 1 and 2 is also displayed in Table 4.11. Results show that there is a significant overall (c ; $-.1908, p < .05$) and a significant direct effect (c' ; $-.1346, p < .05$) for the relationship between self-rated Machiavellianism and task performance; however, there is no significant total indirect effect for the getting along or getting ahead behaviors when all six are included in the same model (i.e., when all specific indirect effects are summed). This result mirrors the situation outlined by Hayes (2009) where specific indirect effects cancel out the impact of each other when combined in the same model. Additional mediation analysis for each behavior on an individual, group and total basis is included in Appendix B. I have also included a table in Appendix B that compares the indirect effect of each behavior depending on the condition of its test to demonstrate how the unstandardized beta coefficients change in magnitude and significance. These fluctuations are likely a result of multicollinearity as PROCESS is essentially a regression based analytical tool. In all cases, friendliness dominates as the most impactful mediating behavior.

Similar mediation analyses were conducted for self-rated narcissism. Table 4.12 displays the complete breakdown for these analyses including all six mediating behaviors. In this case, there is no significant direct (c') or total effect (c) between self-rated narcissism and task performance. However, there is a significant indirect effect through proactive behavior (.1618, $p < .05$) and friendliness ($-.1010, p < .05$) as confidence intervals for both indirect paths ($a*b$) do not include zero. Thus, Hypotheses 3c and 4a are supported. However, when all six behaviors are evaluated either in getting along or getting ahead groups or in total, the combined indirect effect

Table 4.11
Direct, Indirect and Total Effects of Self-Rated Machiavellianism on Task Performance through
Getting Along & Getting Ahead (Hypotheses 1&2)

Mediator	Decomposed Effects		Indirect Effects					
Individual Effects (H1)	a	b	c	c'	Boot (a*b)	SE	Lower	Upper
Political Skill	0.1420*	0.0620	-0.1908*	-0.1996*	0.0088	0.0090	-0.0017	0.0367
Impression Management	0.3610*	-0.0382	-0.1908*	-0.1771*	-0.0138	0.0185	-0.0527	0.0213
Proactive Behavior	0.0428	0.1387*	-0.1908*	-0.1968*	0.0059	0.0098	-0.0103	0.0301
Combined Effects (H1)			-0.1908*	-0.1767*	-0.0141	0.0225	-0.0622	0.0292
Mediator	Decomposed Effects		Indirect Effects					
Individual Effects (H2)	a	b	c	c'	Boot (a*b)	SE	Lower	Upper
Friendliness	-0.5306*	0.0804	-0.1908*	-0.1482*	-0.0426*	0.0222	-0.0903	-0.0040
Expressed Humility	-0.1456*	0.1343*	-0.1908*	-0.1713*	-0.0196	0.0144	-0.0581	0.0008
Cooperation	-0.1491*	0.1038*	-0.1908*	-0.1753*	-0.0155*	0.0106	-0.0456	-0.0011
Combined Effects (H2)			-0.1908*	-0.1356*	-0.0552*	0.0265	-0.1128	-0.0089
Total Combined Effects (H1 & H2)			-0.1908*	-0.1346*	-0.0562	0.0324	-0.1232	0.0054

Note: $n = 277$; * $p < .05$; a = first-stage effect of trait on mediator; b = second-stage effect of mediator on task performance; c = total effect of trait on task performance; c' = direct effect of trait on task performance. Boot (a*b) = bootstrapped indirect effect. Lower and upper values are bias-corrected and accelerated 95% confidence intervals. Bootstrap sample size = 5,000.

Table 4.12
Direct, Indirect and Total Effects of Self-Rated Narcissism on Task Performance through Getting Along & Getting Ahead (Hypotheses 3&4)

Mediator	Decomposed Effects				Indirect Effects			
Individual Effects (H3)	a	b	c	c'	Boot (a*b)	SE	Lower	Upper
Political Skill	1.3863*	0.0633	-0.2758	-0.3636	0.0877	0.0745	-0.0441	0.2519
Impression Management	0.7862*	-0.0826	-0.2758	-0.2108	-0.0650	0.0451	-0.1867	0.0007
Proactive Behavior	1.0286*	0.1573*	-0.2758	-0.4376*	0.1618*	0.0678	0.0546	0.3269
Combined Effects (H3)			-0.2758	-0.3908	0.1150	0.0885	-0.0435	0.309
Mediator	Decomposed Effects				Indirect Effects			
Individual Effects (H4)	a	b	c	c'	Boot (a*b)	SE	Lower	Upper
Friendliness	-0.8143*	0.1240*	-0.2758	-0.1749	-0.1010*	0.0508	-0.2277	-0.0233
Expressed Humility	-0.2168	0.1727*	-0.2758	-0.2384	-0.0374	0.0447	-0.1717	0.0171
Cooperation	0.2518	0.1363*	-0.2758	-0.3101	0.0343	0.0448	-0.0352	0.1502
Combined Effects (H4)			-0.2758	-0.1979	-0.0779	0.0769	-0.2471	0.0613
Total Combined Effects (H3 & H4)			-0.2758	-0.2687	-0.0071	0.1134	-0.2284	0.2246

Note: $n = 277$; * $p < .05$; a = first-stage effect of trait on mediator; b = second-stage effect of mediator on task performance; c = total effect of trait on task performance; c' = direct effect of trait on task performance. Boot (a*b) = bootstrapped indirect effect. Lower and upper values are bias-corrected and accelerated 95% confidence intervals. Bootstrap sample size = 5,000.

is not significant. These results support the idea that getting along and getting ahead behaviors may be canceling out each other when it comes to the impact of narcissism on task performance. This finding supports the idea that there is mediation occurring here. Based on the lack of direct or total effect, the counteracting indirect effects appear to be fully mediating the impact of narcissism on task performance. Further mediation analyses for each behavior is included in Appendix B as well as a table comparing the changes in indirect effect magnitudes and significance depending on how the analyses were conducted. For self-rated narcissism, proactive behaviors dominate in their impact as in all cases this getting ahead behavior has the most impact on task performance. Friendliness, and to a lesser degree impression management, work to counter the impact of proactive behaviors leaving the total indirect effect to be minimal and insignificant.

Self-rated psychopathy and its impact on task performance was analyzed in a similar fashion. Table 4.13 is patterned after the previous two and shows that when all six behaviors are examined there is no significant indirect effect found; whereas both direct (c' ; $-.2756, p < .05$) and overall effects (c ; $-.3245, p < .05$) are significant when all behaviors are examined together. In no case does the indirect effect appear significant. Therefore, no support is found under any situation for Hypothesis 5 or 6. Appendix B includes more detailed analyses and breaks down each analysis condition (individual, group or overall). Once again, I also provide a table showing the changes in magnitudes of the indirect effects in each condition. It is noteworthy to notice that five of the six behaviors display a paths that have the hypothesized sign and several are significant; however, the indirect paths are not significant. Thus, for psychopathy, the direct relationship between the trait and task performance is most important creating a “direct-only nonmediation” situation as described by Zhao et al. (2010, p. 200).

Table 4.13
 Direct, Indirect and Total Effects of Self-Rated Psychopathy on Task Performance through Getting Along & Getting Ahead (Hypotheses 5&6)

Mediator	Decomposed Effects		Indirect Effects					
Individual Effects (H5)	a	b	c	c'	Boot (a*b)	SE	Lower	Upper
Political Skill	0.0781	0.0537	-0.3245*	-0.3287*	0.0042	0.0074	-0.0033	0.0304
Impression Management	0.2462*	-0.0498	-0.3245*	-0.3123*	-0.0123	0.0125	-0.0445	0.0066
Proactive Behavior	-0.0538	0.1189*	-0.3245*	-0.3182*	-0.0064	0.0107	-0.0350	0.0095
Combined Effects (H5)			-0.3245*	-0.3014*	-0.0231	0.0187	-0.0663	0.0089
Mediator	Decomposed Effects		Indirect Effects					
Individual Effects (H6)	a	b	c	c'	Boot (a*b)	SE	Lower	Upper
Friendliness	-0.5910*	0.0606	-0.3245*	-0.2887*	-0.0358	0.0230	-0.0826	0.0076
Expressed Humility	-0.2402*	0.0959	-0.3245*	-0.3015*	-0.0230	0.0201	-0.0699	0.0103
Cooperation	-0.1325	0.1033*	-0.3245*	-0.3109*	-0.0137	0.0112	-0.0459	0.0005
Combined Effects (H6)			-0.3245*	-0.2777*	-0.0468	0.0294	-0.1118	0.0058
Total Combined Effects (H5 & H6)			-0.3245*	-0.2756*	-0.0490	0.0331	-0.1167	0.0131

Note: $n = 277$; * $p < .05$; a = first-stage effect of trait on mediator; b = second-stage effect of mediator on task performance; c = total effect of trait on task performance; c' = direct effect of trait on task performance. Boot (a*b) = bootstrapped indirect effect. Lower and upper values are bias-corrected and accelerated 95% confidence intervals. Bootstrap sample size = 5,000.

In addition to the analysis I conducted for self-rated DT traits, I performed analyses on coworker-rated DT traits. Hypothesis 1 argued that coworker-rated Machiavellianism would impact task performance indirectly through politically skilled behaviors, impression management, and proactive behaviors. Results indicate no significant indirect effect ($a*b$) exists for these three behaviors. Hypothesis 2 argued that friendliness, expressed humility and cooperation would also mediate the impact of coworker-rated Machiavellianism on task performance. Results indicate that friendliness ($-.0347, p<.05$) and cooperation ($-.0160, p<.05$) do transmit the trait's impact with significant indirect effects which supports Hypothesis 2a and 2c. Additionally, when all six behaviors are analyzed in combination, there is a significant indirect effect ($a*b$; $-.0500, p<.05$), direct effect (c' ; $-.1906, p<.05$) and overall effect (c ; $-.2406, p<0.05$) as shown in Table 4.14. Thus, partial mediation is occurring here of a complementary nature as all three paths share a negative sign (Zhao et al., 2010). These results mirror those found for self-rated Machiavellianism. Further details about these analyses can be found in Appendix B.

Regarding Hypothesis 3 and coworker-rated narcissism, Table 4.15 shows there is no significant indirect effect ($a*b$) for politically skilled behaviors, impression management or proactive behaviors; therefore, Hypothesis 3 is not supported. Hypothesis 4 argued that friendliness, expressed humility and cooperation would mediate the impact of coworker-rated narcissism to task performance. Results indicate that only friendliness has a significant indirect effect ($-.0887, p<.05$). Therefore, Hypothesis 4a is supported but 4b and 4c are not. Additionally, when the three getting along behaviors are analyzed in combination, a significant indirect effect is found ($-.1003, p<.05$). Friendliness seems to drive the entire model when all three behaviors are analyzed in conjunction and partial mediation is implied. However, when all six behaviors

Table 4.14
Direct, Indirect and Total Effects of Coworker-Rated Machiavellianism on Task Performance through Getting Along & Getting Ahead
(Hypotheses 1&2)

Mediator	Decomposed Effects				Indirect Effects			
Individual Effects (H1)	a	b	c	c'	Boot (a*b)	SE	Lower	Upper
Political Skill	0.0532*	0.0492	-0.2406*	-0.2432*	0.0026	0.0058	-0.0034	0.0243
Impression Management	0.2601*	-0.0517	-0.2406*	-0.2272*	-0.0134	0.0130	-0.0439	0.0085
Proactive Behavior	-0.0015	0.1298*	-0.2406*	-0.2404*	-0.0002	0.0096	-0.0216	0.0184
Combined Effects (H1)			-0.2406*	-0.2214*	-0.0192	0.0191	-0.0652	0.0118
Mediator	Decomposed Effects				Indirect Effects			
Individual Effects (H2)	a	b	c	c'	Boot (a*b)	SE	Lower	Upper
Friendliness	-0.3890*	0.0892*	-0.2406*	-0.2059*	-0.0347*	0.0171	-0.0739	-0.0069
Expressed Humility	-0.0931	0.1483*	-0.2406*	-0.2268*	-0.0138	0.0128	-0.0517	0.0007
Cooperation	-0.1583*	0.1013	-0.2406*	-0.2246*	-0.0160*	0.0128	-0.0536	-0.0007
Combined Effects (H2)			-0.2406*	-0.1959*	-0.0447*	0.023	-0.096	-0.008
Total Combined Effects (H1 & H2)			-0.2406*	-0.1906*	-0.0500*	0.0273	-0.1106	-0.0019

Note: $n = 277$; * $p < .05$; a = first-stage effect of trait on mediator; b = second-stage effect of mediator on task performance; c = total effect of trait on task performance; c' = direct effect of trait on task performance. Boot (a*b) = bootstrapped indirect effect. Lower and upper values are bias-corrected and accelerated 95% confidence intervals. Bootstrap sample size = 5,000.

Table 4.15
Direct, Indirect and Total Effects of Coworker-Rated Narcissism on Task Performance through Getting Along & Getting Ahead
(Hypotheses 3&4)

Mediator	Decomposed Effects				Indirect Effects			
Individual Effects (H3)	a	b	c	c'	Boot (a*b)	SE	Lower	Upper
Political Skill	0.6351*	0.0612	-0.6609	-0.6998	0.0389	0.0391	-0.0079	0.1546
Impression Management	0.7057*	-0.0690	-0.6609	-0.6122	-0.0487	0.0387	-0.1477	0.0081
Proactive Behavior	0.4617	0.1510*	-0.6609	-0.7307	0.0697	0.0514	-0.0031	0.2060
Combined Effects (H3)			-0.6609*	-0.6786*	0.0177	0.069	-0.119	0.1561
Mediator	Decomposed Effects				Indirect Effects			
Individual Effects (H4)	a	b	c	c'	Boot (a*b)	SE	Lower	Upper
Friendliness	-0.7920*	0.1120*	-0.6609*	-0.5722*	-0.0887*	0.0486	-0.2101	-0.0169
Expressed Humility	-0.1570	0.1674*	-0.6609*	-0.6347*	-0.0263	0.0429	-0.1592	0.0261
Cooperation	-0.2140	0.1226*	-0.6609*	-0.6347*	-0.0262	0.0356	-0.1332	0.0201
Combined Effects (H4)			-0.6609*	-0.5607*	-0.1003*	0.0636	-0.2546	-0.0005
Total Combined Effects (H3 & H4)			-0.6609*	-0.5884*	-0.0726	0.0912	-0.2657	0.0971

Note: $n = 277$; * $p < .05$; a = first-stage effect of trait on mediator; b = second-stage effect of mediator on task performance; c = total effect of trait on task performance; c' = direct effect of trait on task performance. Boot (a*b) = bootstrapped indirect effect. Lower and upper values are bias-corrected and accelerated 95% confidence intervals. Bootstrap sample size = 5,000.

are analyzed together, there is no significant indirect effect. Again, the other mediators are canceling out the impact of friendliness. There is a significant direct (c' ; $-.5884, p < .05$) and overall effect (c ; $-.6609, p < .05$) for the trait's impact when examining all six behaviors as a group as seen in Table 4.15. This finding is different from self-rated narcissism indicating that coworkers are identifying narcissistic traits that influence task performance in a direct fashion. Further details regarding these results for each mediator are presented in Appendix B. Additionally, I provide a table that compares the indirect effects and how they change in magnitude and significance depending on how they are analyzed. Interestingly, when getting ahead behaviors are analyzed as a group, impression management demonstrates a significant indirect effect ($-.0661, p < .05$) under that condition; however, it is in the opposite direction as was hypothesized and therefore does not support Hypothesis 3b.

Finally, Hypothesis 5 and 6 argued that coworker-rated psychopathy and getting ahead and getting along behaviors would mediate the trait's impact on task performance. Results show that politically skilled behaviors, impression management and proactive behaviors all fail to produce a significant indirect effect; therefore, Hypothesis 5 is not supported. On the other hand, friendliness ($-.0389, p < .05$) and cooperation ($-.0178, p < .05$) do demonstrate significant indirect effects supporting Hypotheses 6a and 6c. Expressed humility does not generate a significant indirect effect. These findings are displayed in Table 4.16. Additionally, when examining the impact of all six mediators at once, the indirect ($a*b$; $-.0646, p < .05$), direct (c' ; $-.2621, p < .05$) and overall (c ; $-.3267, p < .01$) effects are all significant and share the same sign. This indicates that complementary partial mediation is occurring (Zhao et al., 2010). It appears that coworkers' impressions of focal employees' psychopathy may be a good representation of the existence of this trait. Additionally, friendliness and cooperation seem to partially mediate the impact of

Table 4.16
Direct, Indirect and Total Effects of Coworker-Rated Psychopathy on Task Performance through Getting Along & Getting Ahead
(Hypotheses 5&6)

Mediator	Decomposed Effects				Indirect Effects			
	a	b	c	c'	Boot (a*b)	SE	Lower	Upper
Individual Effects (H5)								
Political Skill	-0.0575	0.0350	-0.3267*	-0.3247*	-0.0020	0.0057	-0.0234	0.0041
Impression Management	0.2335*	-0.0599	-0.3267*	-0.3128*	-0.0140	0.0121	-0.0444	0.0045
Proactive Behavior	-0.0924	0.1149*	-0.3267*	-0.3161*	-0.0106	0.0128	-0.0482	0.0064
Combined Effects (H5)			-0.3267*	-0.2958*	-0.0309	0.0210	-0.0823	0.0025
Mediator	Decomposed Effects				Indirect Effects			
	a	b	c	c'	Boot (a*b)	SE	Lower	Upper
Individual Effects (H6)								
Friendliness	-0.4368*	0.0891*	-0.3267*	-0.2878*	-0.0389*	0.0183	-0.0811	-0.0088
Expressed Humility	-0.2196*	0.1186	-0.3267*	-0.3007*	-0.0261	0.0213	-0.0870	0.0019
Cooperation	-0.1736*	0.1024*	-0.3267*	-0.3090*	-0.0178*	0.0141	-0.0592	-0.0004
Combined Effects (H6)			-0.3267*	-0.2708*	-0.0559*	0.0268	-0.1153	-0.0100
Total Combined Effects (H5 & H6)			-0.3267*	-0.2621*	-0.0646*	0.0299	-0.1322	-0.0127

Note: $n = 277$; * $p < .05$; a = first-stage effect of trait on mediator; b = second-stage effect of mediator on task performance; c = total effect of trait on task performance; c' = direct effect of trait on task performance. Boot (a*b) = bootstrapped indirect effect. Lower and upper values are bias-corrected and accelerated 95% confidence intervals. Bootstrap sample size = 5,000.

psychopathy on task performance. More analyses for each mediator are included in Appendix B as well as a table showing how the magnitudes and significance of the indirect effects change depending on way the mediators are analyzed (i.e., individually, as a group or all together).

Correlational Analysis

Hypotheses related to the impact of the DT on the two forms of OCB based on target were assessed using correlational analysis. As demonstrated in Table 4.10, Hypothesis 7 was not supported for any self-reported DT trait and its relationship with OCB-S. In fact, a significant and negative correlation was found for Machiavellianism ($r = -.13, p < .05$) and psychopathy ($r = -.15, p < .05$). This was opposite to the hypothesized direction. No relationship was found between narcissism and OCB-S ($r = .01, n.s.$). On the other hand, Hypotheses 8 was fully supported demonstrating a relationship between self-rated Machiavellianism and OCB-C ($r = -.17, p < .01$), narcissism and OCB-C ($r = -.12, p < .05$) and psychopathy and OCB-C ($r = -.25, p < .01$). A similar pattern of results is found when examining coworker-rated DT traits and both OCB-S and OCB-C. Coworker-rated Machiavellianism ($r = -.18; p < .01$), narcissism ($r = -.13; p < .05$) and psychopathy ($r = -.17; p < .01$) all significantly correlated with OCB-S in the opposite direction as hypothesized which fails to support Hypothesis 7. Coworker-rated Machiavellianism ($r = -.25; p < .01$), narcissism ($r = -.21; p < .01$) and psychopathy ($r = -.24; p < .01$) all significantly correlated with OCB-C which fully supports Hypothesis 8.

Regression Analysis

Regarding the detection of unique variance explained by using multiple methods of assessing personality traits, regression analysis provides me with results that test whether identity and reputation build upon each other in the prediction of job performance outcomes. As seen in Table 4.17, Hypothesis 9a was supported for the impact of Machiavellianism on task

Table 4.17
Hierarchical Regression Results

	Supervisor-rated Task Performance				Supervisor-rated OCB-S				Supervisor-rated OCB-C			
	β	R	ΔR^2	ΔF	β	R	ΔR^2	ΔF	β	R	ΔR^2	ΔF
Step 1		.22***	.05***	14.23***		.13*	.02*	4.67*		.17**	.03**	8.45**
SR	-				-				-			
Machiavellianism	.22***				.13*				-.17**			
Step 2		.29**	.04**	11.17**		.20*	.02*	6.41*		.27***	.04***	12.97***
SR												
Machiavellianism	-.16**				-.08				-.11			
CR					-				-			
Machiavellianism	-.20**				.16*				.22***			
Step 1		.08	.01	1.70		.01	.00	.02		.12*	.02*	4.15*
SR Narcissism	-.08				.01				-.12*			
Step 2		.19**	.03**	8.53**		.15*	.02*	5.88*		.21**	.03**	8.86**
SR Narcissism	-.01				.07				-.05			
CR Narcissism	-.19**				-				-			
Step 1		.30***	.09***	27.89***		.15*	.02*	6.20*		.25***	.07***	18.99***
SR Psychopathy	-				-				-			
Step 2	.30***				.15*				.25***			
SR Psychopathy		.34**	.02**	7.13**		.19	.01	3.78		.29*	.02*	5.86*
CR Psychopathy	-				-				-			
SR Psychopathy	.23***				-.09				-.18**			
CR Psychopathy	-.17**				-.13				-.16*			

Note: $n = 277$; * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$; *** $p < .001$; SR = Self-rated, CR = Coworker-rated.

β = Standardized regression coefficient; $df = 275$ in Step 1 and 274 in Step 2.

OCB-S=Organizational Citizenship Behavior to Supervisors; OCB-C=Organizational Citizenship Behavior to Coworkers.

performance, OCB-S and OCB-C as the coworker-ratings of Machiavellianism showed a significant impact ($\beta = -.20, p < .01$; $\beta = -.16, p < .05$; and $\beta = -.22, p < .001$) respectively above self-ratings of Machiavellianism. It should be noted that only the beta coefficients for coworker-ratings of Machiavellianism are significant for predicting OCB-S and OCB-C when the self- and coworker-ratings of the trait are both included in the regression. However, the beta coefficients for both measures of Machiavellianism remain significant in the prediction of task performance. Additionally, the ΔR^2 for each outcome changed significantly upon the addition of coworker ratings of Machiavellianism (.04, $p < .01$; .02, $p < .05$; .04, $p < .001$) for task performance, OCB-S and OCB-C which fully supports Hypothesis 9a.

Hypothesis 9b was partially supported regarding coworker-ratings of narcissism's impact on task performance, OCB-S and OCB-C above that of self-ratings of narcissism. In each case, coworker-ratings of the trait showed a significant impact ($\beta = -.19, p < .01$; $\beta = -.16, p < .05$; and $\beta = -.19, p < .01$) respectively beyond self-ratings of the traits. However, for task performance, OCB-S and OCB-C the self-rating of narcissism failed to achieve significance in predicting the performance outcomes once coworker-ratings were included. In fact, only OCB-C is significantly associated with self-ratings of narcissism. Thus, only in the case of OCB-C is there a significant ΔR^2 (.03; $p < .01$) for the addition of coworker-ratings above a previously significant result for self-ratings; therefore, only this aspect of Hypothesis 9b is supported.

Finally, Hypothesis 9c was also partially supported for the impact of coworker-ratings of psychopathy above and beyond self-ratings of this trait. Results show ($\beta = -.17, p < .01$; $\beta = .13, n.s.$; and $\beta = -.16, p < .05$) for task performance, OCB-S and OCB-C, respectively. Whereas the addition of coworker-ratings of psychopathy increase the prediction of task performance and OCB-C, adding coworker-ratings causes the entire model to lose significance in the prediction of

OCB-S. Therefore, only for task performance and OCB-C does the addition of coworker ratings of psychopathy cause a significant increase in ΔR^2 (.02, $p < .01$; .02, $p < .05$).

A complete summary of all hypotheses discussed in Chapter 4 is provided in Table 4.18. This table uses correlational results from Table 4.10 instead of mediation analyses to either support or fail to support Hypotheses 1 through 6. Additionally, Table 4.10 provides results for Hypotheses 7 and 8. Hypothesis 9 is reflected based on results found in Table 4.17 which indicate which coworker-rated trait provided unique variance above the self-rated trait in the prediction of different performance outcomes. In general, the majority (34 out of 57) of the various aspects of the hypotheses are supported which bolsters the arguments given about the impact of the DT.

Table 4.18
Summary of Support for Hypotheses

	Political Skills (a)	Impression Management (b)	Proactive Behaviors (c)
<i>Hypothesis 1</i>			
SR Machiavellianism	Yes	Yes	--
CR Machiavellianism	--	Yes	--
<i>Hypothesis 3</i>			
SR Narcissism	Yes	Yes	Yes
CR Narcissism	Yes	Yes	--
<i>Hypothesis 5</i>			
SR Psychopathy	--	Yes	--
CR Psychopathy	--	Yes	--
	Friendliness (a)	Expressed Humility (b)	Cooperation (c)
<i>Hypothesis 2</i>			
SR Machiavellianism	Yes	Yes	Yes
CR Machiavellianism	Yes	--	Yes
<i>Hypothesis 4</i>			
SR Narcissism	Yes	--	--
CR Narcissism	Yes	--	--
<i>Hypothesis 6</i>			
SR Psychopathy	Yes	Yes	--
CR Psychopathy	Yes	Yes	Yes
Self-Rated:	Machiavellianism (a)	Narcissism (b)	Psychopathy (c)
<i>Hypothesis 7</i>			
OCB-S	--	--	--
<i>Hypothesis 8</i>			
OCB-C	Yes	Yes	Yes
Coworker-Rated:	Machiavellianism (a)	Narcissism (b)	Psychopathy (c)
<i>Hypothesis 7</i>			
OCB-S	--	--	--
<i>Hypothesis 8</i>			
OCB-C	Yes	Yes	Yes
	Machiavellianism (a)	Narcissism (b)	Psychopathy (c)
<i>Hypothesis 9</i>			
Task Performance	Yes	--	Yes
OCB-S	Yes	--	--
OCB-C	Yes	Yes	Yes

Note: SR = Self-Rated; CR = Coworker-Rated; Yes = hypothesis supported; -- = hypothesis not supported

CHAPTER 5: DISCUSSION

The objective of this dissertation was to unpack the relationship between dark personality traits and work performance by drawing from socioanalytic theory (Hogan, 2007). Specifically, an examination of workplace behaviors that qualify as getting ahead or getting along as mediators are used to attempt to understand how dark traits influence task performance. Additionally, I aspired to examine the relationship that dark personality has on different forms of targeted citizenship. Finally, I hoped to demonstrate that using multiple measures of dark personality traits could increase the explained variance seen in job performance outcomes; thus demonstrating the potential usefulness of acquaintance ratings of dark personality traits.

Consistent with prior research (O'Boyle et al., 2012), dark personality in the form of the dark triad was found to have significant correlations with task performance. The reported research shows an effect size of $r = -.22$ ($p < .01$) and $r = -.30$ ($p < .01$) for self-reported Machiavellianism and psychopathy and a non-significant relationship with narcissism $r = -.08$ (*n.s.*). These results are comparable to O'Boyle et al.'s meta-analytic results (Machiavellianism [$\rho = -.07$]; psychopathy [$\rho = -.10$]); and narcissism [$\rho = -.03$ *n.s.*], and show how self-rated DT traits relate directly to task performance. This research effort goes further and examines coworker-ratings of DT traits to determine if they predict task performance as well. The results demonstrate that coworker-rated Machiavellianism ($r = -.25$, $p < .01$), narcissism ($r = -.19$, $p < .01$) and psychopathy ($r = -.27$, $p < .01$) are all relevant in the prediction of task performance. This suggests that coworkers are providing more accurate information regarding focal employee dark personality characteristics. Building on these ideas, the inclusion of potential mediating mechanisms as argued by socioanalytic theory (i.e., getting ahead and getting along behaviors) tells an even more complete story about what effects DT traits have on task performance.

Specific Findings

Many of the hypotheses offered were fully supported by the data collected in this research effort. When discussing correlational results about the relationships between DT traits and getting along and getting ahead behaviors, the strongest findings of this work involve self-ratings of Machiavellianism and self-ratings of narcissism. Self-ratings of Machiavellianism consistently negatively correlate with friendliness, expressed humility and cooperation (Hypothesis 2). Self-ratings of narcissism consistently positively correlate with politically skilled behaviors, impression management and proactive behaviors (Hypothesis 3). From a coworker-ratings perspective, psychopathy correlates negatively and significantly with friendliness, expressed humility and cooperation (Hypothesis 6). All three traits negatively and significantly correlate with coworker-targeted citizenship behavior (Hypothesis 8). This was true for both self- and coworker-ratings of the DT providing a very consistent relationship between dark personality and OCB-C. Finally, self- and coworker-ratings of Machiavellianism provide unique variance in the prediction of task performance, OCB-S and OCB-C (Hypothesis 9a). Taken as a whole, these findings provide strong evidence for the importance of the DT in predicting relevant workplace behaviors.

A number of the hypotheses were also partially supported. For example, both self- and coworker-ratings of Machiavellianism do not correlate with proactive behaviors, but both consistently correlate with impression management. Machiavellianism has mixed results for politically skilled behaviors as self-ratings correlate whereas coworker-ratings do not (Hypothesis 1). Self- and coworker-ratings of Machiavellianism also differ in their relationship with expressed humility as self-ratings significantly and negatively correlate whereas coworker-ratings do not (Hypothesis 2). Additionally, coworker-ratings of narcissism do not correlate with

proactive behaviors but they do significantly correlate with impression management and politically skilled behaviors (Hypothesis 3). Both self- and coworker-ratings of narcissism correlate with friendliness, but do not with expressed humility or cooperation (Hypothesis 4). Additionally, both self- and coworker-rated psychopathy significantly and positively correlate with impression management but not politically skilled or proactive behaviors (Hypothesis 5). On the other hand, coworker-ratings of psychopathy significantly and negatively correlate with friendliness and expressed humility but not cooperation (Hypothesis 6). Both self- and coworker-ratings of narcissism incrementally predict OCB-C (Hypothesis 9b). Finally, both task performance and OCB-C have variance that is uniquely predicted by both self- and coworker-ratings of psychopathy (Hypothesis 9c).

Only one hypothesis received no support in this research effort. Neither self- nor coworker-ratings of DT traits positively and significantly correlate with citizenship behaviors targeted toward supervisors (Hypothesis 7). Arguments were made that OCB-S could be considered a form of getting ahead behavior and that individuals who possess DT traits would attempt to engage in this form of citizenship in an attempt to advance themselves in the workplace social hierarchy. Instead, a significant and negative correlation was found for most of the relationships between self- and coworker-rated DT traits and OCB-S. This significant finding is important despite the fact that the original hypothesis was developed to predict the opposite outcome. Every other hypothesis in this research received at least partial support which stresses the importance of pursuing this research agenda. Once again, Table 4.18 provides a visual representation of the findings for each hypothesis.

Theoretical Implications

Beginning with Machiavellianism and its impact on task performance (Hypotheses 1 and 2), the results lend support for the arguments established in socioanalytic theory regarding both self- and coworker-rated Machiavellianism. Specifically, the getting along behaviors of friendliness and cooperation partially mediate the relationship between Machiavellianism and task performance as predicted which drives the relationship between the trait and outcome. However, when all of the getting ahead and getting along behaviors are tested in the same model, no significant indirect effect is found as the behaviors are acting to cancel out each other's impact leaving the direct and overall effect as the only significant relationships. Thus, the direct effects of the trait on task performance only appears to be more relevant because the specific indirect effects are washed out. These results show that there are important mediation effects occurring and unpacking these relationships helps to explain how Machiavellianism functions to influence workplace behaviors according to socioanalytic theory. Perhaps more importantly, this also helps to explain the magnitude and direction of the effect size between Machiavellianism and task performance.

The impact of the direct effect is also important as the results show that Machiavellianism seems to have as much influence as conscientiousness (e.g., $\rho = .22$) for its impact on task performance as established in multiple meta-analyses of that trait (e.g., Barrick & Mount, 1991; Hurtz & Donovan, 2000; Salgado, 1997). Both self-rated ($r = -.22, p < .01$) and coworker-rated ($r = -.25, p < .01$) Machiavellianism has direct influence on task performance showing that this trait could serve as an important means of understanding poor task performance. From a theoretical standpoint, this means that Machiavellianism can be argued as a useful predictor of performance adding it to the list of other factors that help determine this highly examined outcome (Judge,

Thoresen, Bono & Patton, 2001). Therefore, these results bolster theoretical arguments for the importance of understanding different personality traits and their impact on task performance.

A slightly different situation exists for narcissism and its influence on task performance (Hypotheses 3 and 4). Mediation analysis shows that there is no significant direct (c'), overall (c) or total indirect effect ($a*b$) between self-rated narcissism and task performance; however, proactive behaviors and friendliness both have significant and opposing indirect effects which cancel each other out when added together resulting in an insignificant total indirect effect. Similar to what occurred with Machiavellianism, this situation is described as competitive mediation by Zhao et al. (2010) meaning that the impact of the trait on task performance is being washed out by the two mediating behaviors. Hayes (2009, p. 414) further explains this situation by stating that “two or more indirect effects with opposite signs can cancel each other out, producing a total effect and perhaps even a total *indirect* effect that is not detectably different from zero, in spite of the existence of specific indirect effects that are not zero.” This reasoning supports the arguments I made for the model where I hypothesized that getting along and getting ahead activities could negate each other. Therefore, for self-rated narcissism the arguments made by Hogan (2007) seem to apply and socioanalytic theory is bolstered which helps to explain the low magnitude and lack of significance for the bivariate effect size between self-rated narcissism and task performance.

On the other hand, examining coworker-ratings of narcissism shows there is a significant direct (c') and overall effect (c) but no significant total indirect effect ($a*b$) between the trait and task performance. These results are different from self-ratings of narcissism and show that coworkers are assessing the trait differently than focal employees. This supports the idea that reputation and identity ratings of narcissism tap different aspects of the trait and also indicate

that coworkers may be more accurate in assessing this particular trait than focal employees—supporting socioanalytic theory and its arguments about different forms and assessments of the same trait. Additionally, only friendliness shows a significant indirect effect ($a*b$) and a case can again be made that its influence is being washed out by the other behaviors when included in a larger model. Friendliness drives the indirect effect more strongly than any other mediating behavior. Therefore, the value of measuring this getting along behavior is emphasized if an understanding of the true impact of personality on task performance is desired.

Correlational results for both self- and coworker-rated psychopathy show consistent support for arguments based in socioanalytic theory that psychopathy should relate to both getting ahead and getting along behaviors. However, mediation analysis of self-rated psychopathy shows no significant indirect effect for any getting along (Hypothesis 5) or getting ahead behavior (Hypothesis 6) or total indirect effect. There is a significant direct (c') and overall (c) effect which indicates that self-rated psychopathy does directly impact task performance. In contrast to these findings, coworker-rated psychopathy shows a significant direct (c'), overall (c) and total indirect effect ($a*b$). Both friendliness and cooperation have significant indirect effects which impact the total indirect effect and again result in a situation of complementary partial mediation for coworker-rated psychopathy. Similar to the case with narcissism, psychopathy provides different results depending on the source of the rating. It is reasonable to believe that coworkers are assessing focal employees' reputation for psychopathic tendencies in a way that more strongly relates to both getting along behaviors and task performance. These results again support arguments established by socioanalytic theory by showing that getting along behaviors can mediate the impact of the trait and that reputation

measures differ from identity measures. Therefore, using the theory to explain how psychopathy influences task performance is valid.

Because both self- and coworker-rated psychopathy have significant direct and overall effects on task performance, it is useful to also examine how this trait can impact task performance directly. Both self- and coworker-rated psychopathy seem to directly impact task performance more strongly than Machiavellianism. This further strengthens arguments that this trait is a relevant factor in explaining poor performance as the reported results for self- and coworker-ratings demonstrate ($r = -.30$ and $-.27$; $p < .01$). Therefore, it is theoretically important to continue to assess the impact of psychopathy on performance outcomes and attempt to understand its relationship better. Little prior research has been conducted regarding the impact of psychopathy at work and more theory needs to be developed regarding its relevance.

As a whole, the three traits of the dark triad appear to behave somewhat similarly to each other in their impact on task performance both from a direct correlational perspective and through various mediators. Whether examining self- or coworker-ratings of each trait, mediation is taking place by getting ahead and getting along behaviors. Friendliness (5 out of 6) and cooperation (3 out of 6) are the most consistent mediators examined. They establish the importance of these getting along behaviors for explaining how dark personality negatively impacts task performance. These results highlight the importance of socioanalytic theory for explaining how and why dark personality operates in the prediction of task performance. This research effort also establishes the need for measuring mediating mechanisms to better explain the impact of personality on task performance—an effort that has not been followed by prior researchers.

I also argued that dark personality traits should cause those who possess them to engage in citizenship targeted toward supervisors with the logic that supervisor-targeted citizenship can be understood as a form of getting ahead activity (Hypothesis 7). Socioanalytic theory (Hogan, 2007) was used to make this assertion that performing above and beyond for a supervisor would be a natural activity for one who possessed a dark trait in order to achieve their desire to gain social status at work. Unfortunately, the findings did not support this idea. For self-reported DT traits I found significant and negative correlations between the traits and OCBs targeted to supervisors (excluding narcissism which had no relationship). For coworker-rated traits all three were significantly and negatively correlated with OCB-S. Theoretically, this means that viewing OCB-S as a form of getting ahead behavior may be ill-conceived. There is certainly a significant and negative relationship between the traits and OCB-S which means there is a relevant connection, but socioanalytic theory does not explain this link as predicted. Instead, it appears that the possession of DT traits predisposes individuals to fail to perform any kind of OCB activity no matter the target.

This conclusion is further bolstered because all three traits significantly and negatively correlate with OCB-C whether examining self- or coworker-rated versions of the traits (Hypothesis 8). I argued that citizenship targeted at coworkers was a form of getting along behavior and those with high DT levels would fail to engage in these behaviors as they would be at odds with their personal objectives. The results support this idea and show that individuals with DT traits seem to view their coworkers as unworthy of citizenship behaviors and therefore fail to engage in getting along type citizenship activities. This finding supports an understanding of what it means to possess one or more of these dark traits and further supports socioanalytic

theory arguments. Therefore, the use of the theory is appropriate when explaining why dark personality has a negative influence on coworker-targeted citizenship.

Identity and reputation ratings of DT traits are useful for predicting performance outcomes both individually and in combination (Hypothesis 9). As Hogan (1991, 2007) argued, identity and reputation differ in the aspects of personality that they measure and results show that coworker-ratings of the DT provide incremental validity beyond corresponding self-ratings in the explanation of performance. When included in the regression analysis, coworker ratings of all three traits provide incremental prediction of OCB-C. Therefore, coworker-targeted citizenship is especially relevant when it comes to assessing the impact of multiple forms of dark personality. Coworker-ratings of Machiavellianism and psychopathy also provide enhanced explanation of task performance; whereas only Machiavellianism provides such information for OCB-S. Thus, Machiavellianism appears to be the most useful of the three traits for providing incremental information about the three performance types as between 2% to 4% of additional variance was explained by coworker-ratings of the trait. Coworker-rated narcissism appears to only be helpful in predicting additional variance in OCB-C (around 3%); whereas coworker-rated psychopathy provides a gain of 2% for both task performance and OCB-C. Therefore, the results demonstrate that when using coworker ratings of dark personality in an additive model of prediction above self-ratings, the members of the DT vary in their useful contributions. These results also provide support to the arguments of socioanalytic theory that different measures of personality can tap different aspects of DT traits. This may also speak to the capacity of coworkers to witness dark personality in focal employees.

Based on the overall findings of this work, there are several useful contributions of this research effort. To begin with, workplace behaviors mediate the impact of dark personality traits

on task performance as predicted by socioanalytic theory. Specifically, dark personality negatively impacts getting along behaviors (e.g., friendliness and cooperation) and this negatively influences task performance. Dark personality does have positive relationships with getting ahead behaviors, but the impact is much smaller and is overcome by the negative impact of the failure to engage in getting along behaviors. Therefore, getting along behaviors are much more crucial than getting ahead for their impact on task performance. This means that future theory development may need to focus on getting along behaviors to more fully understand the impact of personality on performance. In other words, the overall effect of this process is to cancel out the good impact of getting ahead activities with the bad impact of not getting along. Thus, a type of corrupted social exchange process takes place where those with enhanced DT traits fail to recognize the importance of getting along with coworkers which ultimately negatively impacts their task performance. To date, this work is the first to demonstrate this situation. Thus, these findings show how dark personality traits actually impact job performance through mediation processes. This establishes the importance of accounting for both dark personality and mediating behaviors in the workplace simultaneously.

Additional contributions of this research are related to these issues. For example, the findings indicate that task performance is not as well understood as previous researchers may have thought. Unless both getting along and getting behaviors are assessed at the same time as personality and task performance are examined, it may not be clear what the true impact of different personality traits on task performance might be. Therefore, socioanalytic theory should be used as a framework to drive more research that accounts for the influence of these mediating behaviors of trait impact on performance. This work was also the first to show that established workplace behavior constructs (e.g., proactive behaviors, cooperation) can be utilized to serve as

getting along or getting ahead activities as outlined by socioanalytic theory. This demonstrates that Hogan's conceptualizations of these behaviors can be tested with established measures. Thus, this work tests socioanalytic theory in a way previously not examined.

Other contributions of this research include the establishment of clear relationships between dark personality traits and citizenship behavior. Very little prior research examined whether dark personality impacts this form of performance. The results consistently show that dark traits are negatively related to all types of citizenship activities no matter who the target of the activities might be. Establishing this is important as it shows that no form of citizenship should be viewed as a type of getting ahead behavior—no matter the target. Therefore, using socioanalytic theory to explain relationships between dark personality and citizenship is only useful from a getting along perspective.

Another value-added impact of this research is that it helps to establish that assessing dark personality from multiple perspectives is critical for understanding the prediction of both task and citizenship performance—not just deviance behaviors from a self-ratings perspective as shown by prior efforts (e.g., O'Boyle et al., 2012). Coworker-ratings of DT traits were predictive of multiple performance outcomes—a finding that makes it clear that such a perspective is vital for understanding the impact of dark personality. In fact, depending on the trait in question, significant additional variance in various performance outcomes can be found by combining both self- and coworker-ratings of the traits in an additive fashion. This not only supports Hogan's (2007) arguments about identity and reputation ratings, it establishes that coworkers are seeing something different in focal employees when it comes to dark traits. Different assessments of dark traits is critical as those who possess these traits may be unable or even unwilling to

accurately provide information about themselves—perhaps as a consequence of possessing the trait.

In summary, there is much support given in this research effort for the arguments described in socioanalytic theory and multiple implications are evident. Certain getting along and getting ahead behaviors consistently mediate the impact of dark personality on task performance meaning that researchers should include these in their attempts to understand how personality impacts performance. Dark personality relates negatively to citizenship behaviors of all types. This indicates that dark traits are a consistent antecedent to reduced citizenship activity. Additionally, the reputation and identity aspects of personality provide different and useful information when predicting job performance outcomes. These results enhance arguments that multiple views of personality can be useful for predicting job performance and that dark personality has a significant impact on many different types of workplace behaviors. Therefore, if more than one source of personality measurement can be obtained, more useful results can be assessed.

Practical Implications

There are several practical implications that can be taken from this research. By establishing that dark personality traits are predictive of task performance and citizenship behaviors, the results further arguments that practitioners should attempt to measure these traits (in multiple forms) from prospective job applicants (e.g., Kluemper et al., 2015). Just as Big Five traits can be utilized for selection purposes, measuring the DT from multiple perspectives can also help hiring professionals to avoid bringing in new employees who perform their tasks poorly or fail to provide citizenship. Because reputation ratings of personality traits can only develop over time through interaction with others, assessment of DT traits could also be useful after

employees have had time to work in an organization. These ratings would then be relevant for assisting in promotion decisions.

More specifically, the results for both self- and coworker-rated DT traits could prove useful to human resources professionals seeking to find predictors of poor task performance. For example, implementing methods that determine if a potential employee is more highly Machiavellian should be pursued whether through self- or other-reports of this trait as either demonstrate similar negative correlations with task performance. These results are very similar for psychopathy and its potential impact in the organization. Both self- and coworker-rated versions of this trait negatively impact performance outcomes and this helps to bolster the argument that practitioners should do their best to detect and avoid hiring or promoting individuals who possess high levels of this trait. In addition, the traits in the DT impacts specific types of behaviors that can serve as mediators and ultimately impact task performance. This means that organizations should be cognizant that employees who possess one or more DT traits can influence their environment (in mostly negative ways).

Even more interesting is the finding that coworker-ratings of narcissism are predictive of decreased task performance and OCB-S whereas self-ratings are not. From a practical perspective this indicates that human resource professionals should attempt to obtain other-ratings of this trait instead of relying on self-ratings. It may be of use for practitioners to avoid bringing narcissistic employees into their organizations or promoting them once they are detected.

If both self- and coworker-ratings of DT traits can be assessed by practitioners, the results show that an even greater percentage of performance outcomes can be explained. By developing regression models that include both forms of the traits, practitioners can more thoroughly help

organizations to predict if job candidates will be poor performers. Using this tool could help them to create a reasonable cut point for determining when to hire or promote a candidate.

Another practical outcome of this study may be the recognition of the need for future development of better intervention programs by researchers and practitioners to mitigate the negative impact that these traits may have on the social structure of the work setting. The behaviors that occur in the workplace as a result of the possession of DT traits which negatively impact productivity and performance need to be recognized and dealt with by practitioners. The results indicate that those with high DT do have a negative impact in the organization; therefore, practitioners need to find ways to deal with those individuals.

Limitations

As with all research, this study has several limitations. To begin with, no experimental or true longitudinal design was employed. As a result, it may be difficult to draw strict causal conclusions (Hair et al., 2006). Despite the theoretical arguments presented, there could be an argument that task performance influences workplace behaviors such as proactivity, impression management, cooperation or even expressed humility if those activities are encouraged by an organization's assessment of task performance. Using generic measures of task performance limits the capacity to understand exactly what kind of performance is measured and rewarded within the various workplace settings that compose the sample. Only by creating a true longitudinal design where workplace behaviors are measured before any task performance is assessed could eliminate questions of causality.

A second potential limitation of this research comes from the diverse sample used and the multitude of jobs and organizations that were included. Whereas a diverse sample may bolster arguments for generalizability, there may be other unknown biases at play that could impact the

results. Another data collection within a single organization should be pursued to replicate and verify the results. It is also possible that the focal employees who agreed to participate have better relationships with their supervisors which could impact their assessments of performance and potentially cause a restriction in the range of employee task and citizenship performed. If this research were duplicated within a single organization, this would not necessarily be an issue as more employees with poorer relationships with their supervisors would be included in the analysis. It is also possible that conducting this research within a single organization would allow me to test or control for potential group-level factors (e.g., location, work groups etc.) that were not modeled in this work. Using individual focal employees, coworkers and supervisors reduces issues related to data independence, but does not provide me with the chance to test if DT traits influence work group activities or other multi-level constructs. For example, a group of employees with enhanced DT traits may form a “dark personality climate” that exerts negative effects on various aspects of performance.

Similarly, it could be that performing this research within a single organization could limit issues of differing socioeconomic status, regional geographic preferences or other similar factors. Further, it may be beneficial to conduct this research in different national environments. The societal and economic institutional environment could impact the inclusion of more or less individuals who possess dark personality traits and thus influence discretionary workplace behaviors (e.g., Markoczy, Vora & Xin, 2009). Replicating this research in multiple contexts could verify its general application and demonstrate the importance of assessing employees or potential employees for DT traits. However, the methodology that was selected for this research does provide useful and valid information to make conclusions about the impact of dark personality in workplace settings from a more generalizable perspective.

A third potential limitation that may exist in the results could be the influence of common method variance (CMV). Richardson et al. (2008) pointed out that collecting data from the same source may inflate relationships between variables due to same source bias. However, I attempted to reduce this potential issue by collecting data from multiple sources and at different time points. For example, I separated the collection of focal employee self-reported personality variables from self-reported mediating behaviors into different surveys administered approximately two weeks apart. By collecting coworker-ratings of personality and supervisor-ratings of performance I believe that the possibility of CMV should be reduced as well.

A final potential limitation of this research effort may be related to the use of PROCESS as an analytical tool to assess the impact of the DT on task performance. Using a solely regression based technique means that no adjustment for measurement error can be included in the examination of relationships between constructs. Utilizing SEM techniques could help to alleviate this concern by creating reflective constructs and structural models that test relationship paths between them. Additionally, PROCESS may suffer from issues related to multicollinearity as it is essentially a regression based analytical tool. This could help to explain why the various mediating behaviors produce different results depending on which are included in the various models that I tested.

Future Research

There are multiple research efforts that can be pursued that relate to the concepts explored in this work. For example, interactive effects of self- and coworker-ratings of DT traits could be tested for their prediction of different performance outcomes. Following the example established by Kluepfer et al. (2015) using Big Five traits, it is possible that a coworker rating of DT traits could moderate the self-rating of the trait in its prediction of task performance or

citizenship. For example, a coworker's assessment of Machiavellianism that is in agreement with a self-rating of Machiavellianism may predict reduced task performance to an even greater degree than either assessment in isolation. This work would build on socioanalytic theory (Hogan, 2007) and further establish the usefulness of reputation and identity aspects of personality as a viable area for future research.

Self-reports of personality have often been the target of skepticism due to the potential for respondents to fake their answers under selection conditions (e.g., Peterson, Griffith, Isaacson, O'Connell & Mangos, 2011). However, no extant research examines the degree to which coworkers might provide socially desirable responses to inquiries about a focal employee's personality. This situation is worthy of investigation if reputation ratings of personality are to be demonstrated as valid forms of personality measurement.

Another issue that could be explored relates to the impact of supervisor DT traits. It could be that supervisors who are higher in Machiavellianism, narcissism or psychopathy (or all) provide different performance rankings to the same focal employee as supervisors with lower levels of these traits. This would require investigating employees with multiple supervisors that could evaluate performance or the creation of a lab experiment where different "supervisors" were asked to evaluate a "sample" employee. In either case, comparisons could be made regarding sample employee performance based on rater personality. Additionally, it may be interesting to examine the levels of leader member exchange (LMX) that exists between supervisors and focal employees with dark personalities. There may be important organizational consequences if supervisors and focal employees share dark personalities and develop a dark form of LMX.

The relationship between DT traits and different targeted forms of counterproductive workplace behaviors is another area for further exploration. It may be possible that individuals with higher DT levels engage in these negative behaviors more heavily depending on the target. For example, coworkers could receive more abuse from high DT focal employees being targeted to a greater degree than supervisors or the organization. Additionally, the characteristics of the organization itself may moderate the relationship. For example, highly centralized or structured organizations may make deviance easier to detect and thus reduce the opportunities that dark personalities have to abuse their coworkers and organization. Organizational size could also moderate these results as more employees could provide more opportunities for bad behavior to occur.

Additional research could explore the impact of DT traits on more objective forms of job performance rather than subjective supervisor ratings. For example, it may be that Machiavellian employees perform better in a sales environment where they can manipulate customers into purchasing more expensive merchandise. In this situation, raw sales figures may indicate more accurate information about performance.

There is little information in the organizational sciences regarding the impact of dark personality on employee attitudes. Research exploring relationships between organizational commitment, turnover intentions, job satisfaction, organizational justice etc. may conclude that individuals with these traits view their workplace environments differently. This could change how human resources professionals attempt to influence these employees and their relationships with the organization.

A final area for future research could be an examination of the relationship between DT traits and response faking. It is conceivable that individuals who possess darker personalities are

more likely to engage in overclaiming (Bing, Kluemper, Davison, Taylor & Novicevic, 2011) or social desirability in an attempt to enhance their appearance to others. What kind of impact this might have for organizations is currently unknown.

Conclusion

This research used socioanalytic theory as a framework for explaining how dark personality traits are measured and influence the workplace with a desire to quantify their impact on performance outcomes. I found that dark personality is a driver of workplace behaviors (especially friendliness and cooperation) that subsequently negatively impact task performance. Individuals with greater DT traits prefer to pursue getting ahead behaviors at the expense of getting along behaviors which ultimately harms their task performance. In fact, the findings suggest getting along behaviors are more important in determining task performance than getting ahead behaviors. The results also show that dark personality is an important factor in explaining citizenship performance as both self- and coworker-ratings of the traits consistently and negatively correlate with both coworker and supervisor targeted citizenship behaviors. This work also demonstrates that multiple measurements of dark personality can be beneficial for organizations to account for more explanation of task and citizenship behavior. Regression analysis shows that both self- and coworker-measures of DT traits incrementally predict more performance. Machiavellianism is especially promising as a dark trait that predicts more variance in task performance and citizenship. Overall, this work furthers our understanding of why and how dark personality is important for explaining different critical aspects of job performance.

FOOTNOTE

¹. Cleckley (1941/1976) was one of the first to spur research in psychopathy using a clinical framework. Clinical psychopaths are social predators who lack a conscience as they charm and manipulate others, take selfishly, and do as they please without regard for social expectations, guilt, or regret (Hare, 1993). These people are often criminals who have difficulty existing in social harmony as they exhibit their behavior in a cold, calculated fashion when they interact with others. Psychopaths are not insane, out of touch with reality, or delusional. Instead, they are typically “rational and aware of what they are doing and why. Their behavior is the result of choice, freely exercised” (Hare, 1993, p. 22). Psychopaths fully understand the consequences of their actions; however, they are unconcerned about these consequences. Psychopaths are often distinguished by their lack of conscience (Stout, 2005) and inability to experience the feelings of others; however, they also possess other characteristics that let them come across as hireable and deserving of advancement in organizations. For example, they can appear as smooth talkers who lead discussions to topics that they prefer, have no compulsion against speaking poorly about coworkers, easily create distortions of the truth, seize choice opportunities, and act ruthlessly and without regret (Boddy, 2006).

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APPENDIX A: STUDY MEASURES

Machiavellianism:

Dahling et al. (2009)'s Machiavellian Personality Scale (MPS) was used. All items are on a 7-point scale ranging from 1 = *strongly disagree* to 7 = *strongly agree*.

Amorality:

1. I believe that lying is necessary to maintain a competitive advantage over others. MPS1
2. The only good reason to talk to others is to get information that I can use to my benefit. MPS2
3. I am willing to be unethical if I believe it will help me succeed. MPS3
4. I am willing to sabotage the efforts of other people if they threaten my own goals. MPS4
5. I would cheat if there was a low chance of getting caught. MPS5

Desire for Control:

6. I like to give the orders in interpersonal situations. MPS6
7. I enjoy having control over other people. MPS7
8. I enjoy being able to control the situation. MPS8

Desire for Status:

9. Status is a good sign of success in life. MPS9
10. Accumulating wealth is an important goal for me. MPS10
11. I want to be rich and powerful someday. MPS11

Distrust of Others:

12. People are only motivated by personal gain. MPS12*
13. I dislike committing to groups because I don't trust others. MPS13
14. Team members backstab each other all the time to get ahead. MPS 14
15. If I show any weakness at work, other people will take advantage of it. MPS15
16. Other people are always planning ways to take advantage of the situation at my expense. MPS16

*Item removed after CFA analysis.

Coworker version of the MPS:

Amorality:

1. He/she believes that lying is necessary to maintain a competitive advantage over others. MPS1

2. He/she feels the only good reason to talk to others is to get information that can be used to their benefit. MPS2
3. He/she is willing to be unethical if they believe it will help them succeed. MPS3
4. He/she is willing to sabotage the efforts of other people if they threaten their own goals. MPS4
5. He/she would cheat if there was a low chance of getting caught. MPS5

Desire for Control:

6. He/she likes to give the orders in interpersonal situations. MPS6
7. He/she enjoys having control over other people. MPS7
8. He/she enjoys being able to control the situation. MPS8

Desire for Status:

9. He/she feels that status is a good sign of success in life. MPS9
10. He/she feels that accumulating wealth is an important goal for them personally. MPS10
11. He/she wants to be rich and powerful someday. MPS11

Distrust of Others:

12. He/she feels that people are only motivated by personal gain. MPS12*
13. He/she dislikes committing to groups because they don't trust others. MPS13
14. He/she feels that team members backstab each other all the time to get ahead. MPS14
15. If he/she shows any weakness at work, they believe that other people will take advantage of it. MPS15
16. He/she feels that other people are always planning ways to take advantage of the situation at their expense. MPS16

*Item removed after CFA analysis.

Narcissism:

The NPI-16 was developed by Ames et al. (2006). It has participants read each pair of statements and select the one that comes closest to describing their feelings and beliefs about themselves. NPI-16 Key: Responses consistent with narcissism are shown in bold.

- | | | |
|------|-----|---|
| 1. | ___ | I really like to be the center of attention |
| NPI1 | ___ | It makes me uncomfortable to be the center of attention |
| 2. | ___ | I am no better or nor worse than most people |
| NPI2 | ___ | I think I am a special person |
| 3. | ___ | Everybody likes to hear my stories |

NPI3	___	Sometimes I tell good stories
4.	___	I usually get the respect that I deserve
NPI4*	___	I insist upon getting the respect that is due me
5.	___	I don't mind following orders
NPI5	___	I like having authority over people
6.	___	I am going to be a great person
NPI6*	___	I hope I am going to be successful
7.	___	People sometimes believe what I tell them
NPI7*	___	I can make anybody believe anything I want them to
8.	___	I expect a great deal from other people
NPI8	___	I like to do things for other people
9.	___	I like to be the center of attention
NPI9	___	I prefer to blend in with the crowd
10.	___	I am much like everybody else
NPI10	___	I am an extraordinary person
11.	___	I always know what I am doing
NPI11*	___	Sometimes I am not sure of what I am doing
12.	___	I don't like it when I find myself manipulating people
NPI12	___	I find it easy to manipulate people
13.	___	Being an authority doesn't mean that much to me
NPI13	___	People always seem to recognize my authority
14.	___	I know that I am good because everybody keeps telling me so
NPI14	___	When people compliment me I sometimes get embarrassed
15.	___	I try not to be a show off
NPI15	___	I am apt to show off if I get the chance
16.	___	I am more capable than other people
NPI16	___	There is a lot that I can learn from other people

*Item removed after CFA analysis.

Coworker version of the NPI-16:

- | | | |
|--------|-----|--|
| 1. | ___ | He/she really likes to be the center of attention |
| NPI1 | ___ | It makes him/her uncomfortable to be the center of attention |
| 2. | ___ | He/she feels they are no better nor worse than most people |
| NPI2 | ___ | He/she probably thinks he/she is a special person |
| 3. | ___ | He/she feels that everybody likes to hear their stories |
| NPI3 | ___ | Sometimes he/she tells good stories |
| 4. | ___ | He/she usually gets the respect that is deserved |
| NPI4* | ___ | He/she insists upon getting the respect that is due to them |
| 5. | ___ | He/she doesn't mind following orders |
| NPI5 | ___ | He/she likes having authority over people |
| 6. | ___ | He/she feels they are going to be a great person |
| NPI6* | ___ | He/she hopes they are going to be successful |
| 7. | ___ | People sometimes believe what he/she tells them |
| NPI7* | ___ | He/she can make anybody believe anything they want them to |
| 8. | ___ | He/she expects a great deal from other people |
| NPI8 | ___ | He/she likes to do things for other people |
| 9. | ___ | He/she likes to be the center of attention |
| NPI9 | ___ | He/she prefers to blend in with the crowd |
| 10. | ___ | He/she is much like everybody else |
| NPI10 | ___ | He/she feels they are an extraordinary person |
| 11. | ___ | He/she always knows what they are doing |
| NPI11* | ___ | Sometimes he/she is not sure of what they are doing |
| 12. | ___ | He/she don't like it when they find themselves manipulating people |
| NPI12 | ___ | He/she find it easy to manipulate people |

13. ___ Being an authority doesn't mean that much to him/her
- NPI13 ___ **People always seem to recognize his/her authority**
14. ___ **He/she knows that they are good because everybody keeps telling them so**
- NPI14 ___ When people compliment him/her it is sometimes embarrassing for him/her
15. ___ He/she tries not to be a show off
- NPI15 ___ **He/she is apt to show off if they get the chance**
16. ___ **He/she feels more capable than other people**
- NPI16 ___ There is a lot that he/she feels can be learned from other people

*Item removed after CFA analysis.

Psychopathy:

The Short SRP-III 20-item measure includes items that loaded most favorably onto the 4 facets of psychopathy according to Williams et al. (2007). All items are on a 7-point scale ranging from 1 = *strongly disagree* to 7 = *strongly agree*.

Interpersonal Manipulation:

1. I find it easy to manipulate people. SRP1*
2. People can usually tell if I'm lying. (r) SRP2
3. I don't think of myself as tricky or sly. (r) SRP3
4. Conning people gives me the "shakes". (r) SRP4
5. I get a "kick" out of conning someone. SRP5*

Antisocial Behavior:

6. I have stolen property that is very valuable. SRP6
7. I've been involved in delinquent gang activity. SRP7
8. I have been arrested. SRP8
9. I have broken into a building or vehicle to steal or vandalize. SRP9
10. Some of my friends have gone to jail. SRP10

Erratic Lifestyle:

11. Rules are made to be broken. SRP11
12. I have often done something dangerous just for the thrill of it. SRP12*
13. I enjoy drinking and doing wild things. SRP13
14. I have broken an appointment when something better came along. SRP14
15. I have avoided paying for things, such as movies, rides and food. SRP15

Callous Affect:

16. I am often rude to other people. SRP16
17. My friends would probably say I am a kind person. (r) SRP17*
18. I'm not afraid to step on others to get what I want. SRP18*
19. I'm the most important person in the world: No one else matters. SRP19
20. Not hurting others' feelings is important to me. (r) SRP20*

*Item removed after CFA analysis.

Coworker version of the Short SRP-III

Interpersonal Manipulation:

1. He/she finds it easy to manipulate people. SRP1*
2. He/she believes that people can usually tell if he/she is lying. (r) SRP2
3. He/she doesn't think of themselves as tricky or sly. (r) SRP3
4. He/she feels that conning people gives him/her the "shakes". (r) SRP4
5. He/she gets a "kick" out of conning someone. SRP5*

Antisocial Behavior:

6. He/she has stolen property that is very valuable. SRP6
7. He/she has been involved in delinquent gang activity. SRP7
8. He/she has been arrested. SRP8
9. He/she has broken into a building or vehicle to steal or vandalize. SRP9
10. Some of his/her friends have gone to jail. SRP10

Erratic Lifestyle:

11. He/she feels that rules are made to be broken. SRP11
12. He/she has often done something dangerous just for the thrill of it. SRP12*
13. He/she enjoys drinking and doing wild things. SRP13
14. He/she has broken an appointment when they believed something better came along. SRP14
15. He/she has avoided paying for things, such as movies, rides and food. SRP15

Callous Affect:

16. He/she is often rude to other people. SRP16
17. His/her friends would probably say he/she is a kind person. (r) SRP17*
18. He/she is not afraid to step on others to get what they want. SRP18*
19. He/she feels they are the most important person in the world: No one else matters. SRP19
20. Not hurting others' feelings is important to him/her. (r) SRP20*

*Item removed after CFA analysis.

Political Skill:

Political Skill was assessed using the 18-item political skill inventory (Ferris et al., 2005). All items are on a 7-point scale ranging from 1 = *strongly disagree* to 7 = *strongly agree*.

Networking Ability:

1. I spend a lot of time and effort at work networking with others. PSINA1
2. At work, I know a lot of important people and am well connected. PSINA2
3. I am good at using my connections and networks to make things happen at work. PSINA3
4. I have developed a large network of colleagues and associates at work who I can call on for support when I really need to get things done. PSINA4^
5. I spend a lot of time at work developing connections with others. PSINA5^
6. I am good at building relationships with influential people at work. PSINA6

Apparent Sincerity:

1. It is important that people believe I am sincere in what I say and do. PSIAS1^
2. When communicating with others, I try to be genuine in what I say and do. PSIAS2^
3. I try to show a genuine interest in other people. PSIAS3^

Social Astuteness:

1. I always seem to instinctively know the right thing to say or do to influence others. PSISA1
2. I have good intuition or savvy about how to present myself to others. PSISA2
3. I am particularly good at sensing the motivations and hidden agendas of others. PSISA3
4. I pay close attention to people's facial expressions. PSISA4^
5. I understand people very well. PSISA5^

Interpersonal Influence:

1. It is easy for me to develop good rapport with most people. PSIII1^
2. I am able to make most people feel comfortable and at ease around me. PSIII2^
3. I am able to communicate easily and effectively with others. PSIII3^
4. I am good at getting people to like me. PSIII4^

^Item removed after sorting process.

Impression Management:

Bolino & Turnley (1999) created a scale further validated by Kacmar, Harris and Nagy (2007) that consists of 5 distinct factors: self-promotion; ingratiation; exemplification; intimidation; and supplication. A 7-point scale anchor was used: 1 = *never*, 7 = *always* with the prompt: "How often do you".

Self-Promotion:

1. Talk proudly about your experience or education. IMGTSPP1
2. Make people aware of your talents or qualifications. IMGTSPP2
3. Let others know that you are valuable to the organization. IMGTSPP3
4. Make people aware of your accomplishments. IMGTSPP4

Ingratiation:

1. Compliment your colleagues so they will see you as likeable. IMGTI1*
2. Take an interest in your colleagues' personal lives to show them that you are friendly.^
IMGTI2
3. Praise your colleagues for their accomplishments so they will consider you a nice person.
IMGTI3^
4. Do personal favors for your colleagues to show them that you are friendly. IMGTI4^

Exemplification:

1. Stay at work late so people will know you are hard working. IMGTEX1
2. Try to appear busy, even at times when things are slower. IMGTEX2
3. Arrive at work early to look dedicated. IMGTEX3*
4. Come to the office at night or on weekends to show that you are dedicated. IMGTEX4*

Intimidation:

1. Be intimidating with coworkers when it will help you get your job done. IMGTI1^
2. Let others know that you can make things difficult for them if they push you too far.
IMGTI2^
3. Deal forcefully with colleagues when they hamper your ability to get your job done.
IMGTI3^
4. Deal strongly or aggressively with coworkers who interfere in your business. IMGTI4^
5. Use intimidation to get colleagues to behave appropriately. IMGTI5^

Supplication:

1. Act like you know less than you do so people will help you out. IMGTSU1^
2. Try to gain assistance or sympathy from people by appearing needy in some area.
IMGTSU2^
3. Pretend not to understand something to gain someone's help. IMGTSU3^
4. Act like you need assistance so people will help you out. IMGTSU4^
5. Pretend to know less than you do so you can avoid an unpleasant assignment. IMGTSU5^

*Item removed after CFA analysis.

^Item removed after sorting process.

Proactive Behaviors:

A 7-item scale (Frese et al., 1997) with responses rated on a 7-point anchor ranging from 1 = strongly disagree to 7 = strongly agree was used to measure this including:

1. I actively attack problems. PROB1*
2. Whenever something goes wrong, I search for a solution immediately. PROB2
3. Whenever there is a chance to get actively involved, I take it. PROB3
4. I take initiative immediately even when others don't. PROB4
5. I use opportunities quickly in order to attain my goals. PROB5
6. Usually I do more than I am asked to do. PROB6
7. I am particularly good at realizing ideas. PROB7

*Item removed after CFA analysis.

Friendliness (Reverse Aggression):

Buss & Perry (1992) developed the Aggression Questionnaire (2 out of 4 facets are used). All items are on a 7-point scale ranging from 1 = *strongly disagree* to 7 = *strongly agree*.

Anger:

1. I flare up quickly but get over it quickly. ANGR1
2. When frustrated, I let my irritation show. ANGR2
3. I sometimes feel like a powder keg ready to explode. ANGR3
4. I am an even-tempered person.(R) ANGR4*
5. Some of my friends think I'm a hothead. ANGR5
6. Sometimes I fly off the handle for no good reason. ANGR6
7. I have trouble controlling my temper. ANGR7*

Hostility:

1. I am sometimes eaten up with jealousy. AGGRHOS1
2. At times I feel I have gotten a raw deal out of life. AGGRHOS2
3. Other people always seem to get the breaks. AGGRHOS3
4. I wonder why sometimes I feel so bitter about things. AGGRHOS4
5. I know that "friends" talk about me behind my back. AGGRHOS5*
6. I am suspicious of overly friendly strangers. AGGRHOS6
7. I sometimes feel that people are laughing at me behind my back. AGGRHOS7*
8. When people are especially nice, I wonder what they want. AGGRHOS8

*Item removed after CFA analysis.

Expressed Humility:

Owens et al. (2013) developed a 9-item measure of expressed humility. All items are on a 7-point scale ranging from 1 = *strongly disagree* to 7 = *strongly agree*. The items are modified from “this person” to “I” so that focal employees can assess them.

1. I actively seek feedback, even if it is critical. EXHU1*
2. I admit it when I don't know how to do something. EXHU2
3. I acknowledge when others have more knowledge and skills than I do. EXHU3
4. I take notice of others' strengths. EXHU4
5. I often compliment others on their strengths. EXHU5
6. I show appreciation for the unique contributions of others. EXHU6
7. I am willing to learn from others. EXHU7
8. I am open to the ideas of others. EXHU8
9. I am open to the advice of others. EXHU9

*Item removed after CFA analysis.

Cooperation:

Seers et al. (1995) created a TMX scale to assess cooperation. Responses to items focus on relationships with coworkers using a 7-point ratings scale ranging from 1 = *strongly disagree* to 7 = *strongly agree*.

1. I often make suggestions about better work methods to other team members. COOP1*
2. Other members of my team usually let me know when I do something that makes their jobs easier (or harder). COOP2
3. I often let other team members know when they have done something that makes my job easier (or harder). COOP3
4. Other members of my team recognize my potential. COOP4*
5. Other members of my team understand my problems and needs. COOP5*
6. I am flexible about switching job responsibilities to make things easier for other team members. COOP6
7. In busy situations, other team members often ask me to help out. COOP7
8. In busy situations, I often volunteer my efforts to help others on my team. COOP8
9. I am willing to help finish work that had been assigned to others. COOP9
10. Other members of my team are willing to help finish work that was assigned to me. COOP10

*Item removed after CFA analysis.

Task Performance:

This 6-item measure is from Alper et al. (2000) with response scales ranging from 1 = *strongly disagree* to 7 = *strongly agree*.

1. He/she works effectively. TASKA1

2. He/she meets or exceeds his/her productivity requirements. TASKA2
3. He/she puts considerable effort into his/her job. TASKA3
4. He/she is concerned with the quality of his/her work. TASKA4
5. He/she searches for ways to be more productive. TASKA5
6. He/she is committed to producing quality work. TASKA6

OCB-S:

This 5-item measure is from Rupp & Cropanzano (2002) and Malatesta (1995—unpublished dissertation with items adapted from Williams & Anderson, 1991). Response scales range from 1 = *never* to 7 = *always*. The supervisor rates how often the subordinate engages in the following:

1. Accepts added responsibility when you are absent. OCB-S1
2. Helps you when you have a heavy work load. OCB-S2
3. Assists you with your work (when not asked). OCB-S3
4. Takes a personal interest in you. OCB-S4
5. Passes along work-related information to you. OCB-S5*

*Item removed after CFA analysis.

OCB-C:

Lee & Allen (2002) developed an 8-item OCB scales to measure OCBC. Participants are asked to indicate, using 7-point scales 1 = *never* to 7 = *always*, how often the target person engaged in these behaviors. Items are modified so that supervisors can rate the items instead of focal employees.

1. Helps others who have been absent. OCB-C1
2. Willingly gives their time to help others who have work-related problems. OCB-C2
3. Adjusts their work schedule to accommodate other employees' requests for time off. OCB-C3
4. Goes out of the way to make newer employees feel welcome in the work group. OCB-C4
5. Shows genuine concern and courtesy toward coworkers, even under the most trying business or personal situations. OCB-C5
6. Gives up time to help others who have work or non-work problems. OCB-C6
7. Assists others with their duties. OCB-C7
8. Shares personal property with others to help their work. OCB-C8

Demographics:

1. Gender (male, female)
2. Age (in years)
3. Race (white/Caucasian, black/African-American, Hispanic, Asian, other)
4. Average number of hours worked per week (in hours)
5. Years of work experience (in years)
6. Years with current supervisor (in years)

7. Current occupation. 1=Professional; 2=Manager; 3=Sales; 4=Skilled/Semi-Skilled Labor; 5=Customer Service; 6=Retail; 7=Manufacturing/Production; 8=Other

APPENDIX B: SUPPLEMENTARY MEDIATION ANALYSIS

Note: n = 277;

** p < .05;*

a = first-stage effect of trait on mediator;

b = second-stage effect of mediator on task performance;

c = total effect of trait on task performance;

c' = direct effect of trait on task performance.

Boot (a*b) = bootstrapped indirect effect.

Lower and upper values are bias-corrected and accelerated 95% confidence intervals.

Bootstrap sample size = 5,000.

B1: Direct and Indirect Effects of Self-Rated Machiavellianism on Task Performance through Political Skill

Mediator	Decomposed Effects		Indirect Effects					
	a	b	c	c'	Boot (a*b)	SE	Lower	Upper
Political Skill	0.1420*	0.0620	-0.1908*	-0.1996*	0.0088	0.0090	-0.0017	0.0367

B2: Direct and Indirect Effects of Self-Rated Machiavellianism on Task Performance through Impression Management

Mediator	Decomposed Effects		Indirect Effects					
	a	b	c	c'	Boot (a*b)	SE	Lower	Upper
Impression Management	0.3610*	-0.0382	-0.1908*	-0.1771*	-0.0138	0.0185	-0.0527	0.0213

B3: Direct and Indirect Effects of Self-Rated Machiavellianism on Task Performance through Proactive Behavior

Mediator	Decomposed Effects		Indirect Effects					
	a	b	c	c'	Boot (a*b)	SE	Lower	Upper
Proactive Behavior	0.0428	0.1387*	-0.1908*	-0.1968*	0.0059	0.0098	-0.0103	0.0301

B4: Direct and Indirect Effects of Self-Rated Machiavellianism on Task Performance through Friendliness

Mediator	Decomposed Effects				Indirect Effects			
	a	b	c	c'	Boot (a*b)	SE	Lower	Upper
Friendliness	-0.5306*	0.0804	-0.1908*	-0.1482*	-0.0426*	0.0222	-0.0903	-0.0040

B5: Direct and Indirect Effects of Self-Rated Machiavellianism on Task Performance through Expressed Humility

Mediator	Decomposed Effects				Indirect Effects			
	a	b	c	c'	Boot (a*b)	SE	Lower	Upper
Expressed Humility	-0.1456*	0.1343*	-0.1908*	-0.1713*	-0.0196	0.0144	-0.0581	0.0008

B6: Direct and Indirect Effects of Self-Rated Machiavellianism on Task Performance through Cooperation

Mediator	Decomposed Effects				Indirect Effects			
	a	b	c	c'	Boot (a*b)	SE	Lower	Upper
Cooperation	-0.1491*	0.1038*	-0.1908*	-0.1753*	-0.0155*	0.0106	-0.0456	-0.0011

B7: Direct and Indirect Effects of Self-Rated Machiavellianism on Task Performance through Getting Ahead (Hypothesis 1)

Mediator	Decomposed Effects				Indirect Effects			
	a	b	c	c'	Boot (a*b)	SE	Lower	Upper
Political Skill	0.1420*	0.0180			0.0026	0.0083	-0.0097	0.0257
Impression Management	0.3610*	-0.0627			-0.0226	0.0201	-0.0692	0.0131
Proactive Behavior	0.0428	0.1392*			0.0060	0.0100	-0.0097	0.0325
Total			-0.1908*	-0.1767*	-0.0141	0.0225	-0.0622	0.0292

B8: Direct and Indirect Effects of Self-Rated Machiavellianism on Task Performance through Getting Along (Hypothesis 2)

Mediator	Decomposed Effects				Indirect Effects			
	a	b	c	c'	Boot (a*b)	SE	Lower	Upper
Friendliness	-0.5306*	0.0642			-0.0340	0.0226	-0.0827	0.0060
Expressed Humility	-0.1456*	0.0744			-0.0108	0.0149	-0.0500	0.0121
Cooperation	-0.1494*	0.0694			-0.0104	0.0105	-0.0399	0.0044
Total			-0.1908*	-0.1356*	-0.0552*	0.0265	-0.1128	-0.0089

**B9: Direct and Indirect Effects of Self-Rated Machiavellianism on Task Performance
through All Getting Along & Getting Ahead Mediators**

Mediator	Decomposed Effects				Indirect Effects			
	a	b	c	c'	Boot (a*b)	SE	Lower	Upper
Political Skill	0.1420*	0.0026			0.0004	0.0087	-0.0159	0.0213
Impression Management	0.3610*	-0.0569			-0.0205	0.0196	-0.0642	0.0137
Proactive Behavior	0.0428	0.1150			0.0049	0.0088	-0.0073	0.0300
Friendliness	-0.5306*	0.0618			-0.0328	0.0221	-0.0769	0.0101
Expressed Humility	-0.1456*	0.0222			-0.0032	0.0146	-0.0377	0.0235
Cooperation	-0.1494*	0.0335			-0.0050	0.0102	-0.0314	0.0118
Total			-0.1908*	-0.1346*	-0.0562	0.0324	-0.1232	0.0054

B10: Comparison of Indirect Effect Sizes by Analysis for Self-Rated Machiavellianism on Task Performance

	Individual	Grouped by Hypotheses	All Combined
	Boot (a*b)	Boot (a*b)	Boot (a*b)
Political Skill	0.0088	0.0026	0.0004
Impression Management	-0.0138	-0.0226	-0.0205
Proactive Behavior	0.0059	0.0060	0.0049
Friendliness	-0.0426*	-0.0340	-0.0328
Expressed Humility	-0.0196	-0.0108	-0.0032
Cooperation	-0.0155*	-0.0104	-0.0050

B11: Direct and Indirect Effects of Self-Rated Narcissism on Task Performance through Political Skill

Mediator	Decomposed Effects				Indirect Effects			
	a	b	c	c'	Boot (a*b)	SE	Lower	Upper
Political Skill	1.3863*	0.0633	-0.2758	-0.3636	0.0877	0.0745	-0.0441	0.2519

B12: Direct and Indirect Effects of Self-Rated Narcissism on Task Performance through Impression Management

Mediator	Decomposed Effects				Indirect Effects			
	a	b	c	c'	Boot (a*b)	SE	Lower	Upper
Impression Management	0.7862*	-0.0826	-0.2758	-0.2108	-0.0650	0.0451	-0.1867	0.0007

B13: Direct and Indirect Effects of Self-Rated Narcissism on Task Performance through Proactive Behavior

Mediator	Decomposed Effects				Indirect Effects			
	a	b	c	c'	Boot (a*b)	SE	Lower	Upper
Proactive Behavior	1.0286*	0.1573*	-0.2758	-0.4376*	0.1618*	0.0678	0.0546	0.3269

B14: Direct and Indirect Effects of Self-Rated Narcissism on Task Performance through Friendliness

Mediator	Decomposed Effects				Indirect Effects			
	a	b	c	c'	Boot (a*b)	SE	Lower	Upper
Friendliness	-0.8143*	0.1240*	-0.2758	-0.1749	-0.1010*	0.0508	-0.2277	-0.0233

B15: Direct and Indirect Effects of Self-Rated Narcissism on Task Performance through Expressed Humility

Mediator	Decomposed Effects				Indirect Effects			
	a	b	c	c'	Boot (a*b)	SE	Lower	Upper
Expressed Humility	-0.2168	0.1727*	-0.2758	-0.2384	-0.0374	0.0447	-0.1717	0.0171

B16: Direct and Indirect Effects of Self-Rated Narcissism on Task Performance through Cooperation

Mediator	Decomposed Effects				Indirect Effects			
	a	b	c	c'	Boot (a*b)	SE	Lower	Upper
Cooperation	0.2518	0.1363*	-0.2758	-0.3101	0.0343	0.0448	-0.0352	0.1502

B17: Direct and Indirect Effects of Self-Rated Narcissism on Task Performance through Getting Ahead (Hypothesis 3)

Mediator	Decomposed Effects				Indirect Effects			
	a	b	c	c'	Boot (a*b)	SE	Lower	Upper
Political Skill	1.3863*	0.023			0.0319	0.0771	-0.1081	0.2039
Impression Management	0.7862*	-0.1044*			-0.0821*	0.0479	-0.2068	-0.0101
Proactive Behavior	1.0286*	0.1606*			0.1652*	0.0729	0.0471	0.3418
Total			-0.2758	-0.3908	0.1150	0.0885	-0.0435	0.3090

B18: Direct and Indirect Effects of Self-Rated Narcissism on Task Performance through Getting Along (Hypothesis 4)

Mediator	Decomposed Effects				Indirect Effects			
	a	b	c	c'	Boot (a*b)	SE	Lower	Upper
Friendliness	-0.8143*	0.1005*			-0.0816*	0.0460	-0.2080	-0.1040
Expressed Humility	-0.2168	0.0805			-0.0174	0.0338	-0.1476	0.0148
Cooperation	0.2518	0.0838			0.0211	0.0371	-0.0154	0.1479
Total			-0.2758	-0.1979	-0.0779	0.0769	-0.2471	0.0613

**B19: Direct and Indirect Effects of Self-Rated Narcissism on Task Performance
through All Getting Along & Getting Ahead Mediators**

Mediator	Decomposed Effects				Indirect Effects			
	a	b	c	c'	Boot (a*b)	SE	Lower	Upper
Political Skill	1.3863*	0.0003			0.0004	0.0801	-0.1473	0.1763
Impression Management	0.7863*	-0.0832			-0.0654*	0.0482	-0.1947	-0.0004
Proactive Behavior	1.0286*	0.1185			0.1219*	0.0723	0.0080	0.3007
Friendliness	-0.8143*	0.0914*			-0.0744*	0.0452	-0.1948	-0.0090
Expressed Humility	-0.2168	0.0181			-0.0039	0.0281	-0.0895	0.0364
Cooperation	0.2518	0.0569			0.0143	0.0311	-0.0146	0.1282
Total			-0.2758	-0.2687	-0.0071	0.1134	-0.2284	0.2246

B20: Comparison of Indirect Effect Sizes by Analysis for Self-Rated Narcissism on Task Performance

	Individual	Grouped by Hypotheses	All Combined
	Boot (a*b)	Boot (a*b)	Boot (a*b)
Political Skill	0.0877	0.0319	0.0004
Impression Management	-0.0650	-0.0821*	-0.0654*
Proactive Behavior	0.1618*	0.1652*	0.1219*
Friendliness	-0.1010*	-0.0816*	-0.0744*
Expressed Humility	-0.0374	-0.0174	-0.0039
Cooperation	-0.0343	-0.0211	-0.0143

B21: Direct and Indirect Effects of Self-Rated Psychopathy on Task Performance through Political Skill

Mediator	Decomposed Effects				Indirect Effects			
	a	b	c	c'	Boot (a*b)	SE	Lower	Upper
Political Skill	0.0781	0.0537	-0.3245*	-0.3287*	0.0042	0.0074	-0.0033	0.0304

B22: Direct and Indirect Effects of Self-Rated Psychopathy on Task Performance through Impression Management

Mediator	Decomposed Effects				Indirect Effects			
	a	b	c	c'	Boot (a*b)	SE	Lower	Upper
Impression Management	0.2462*	-0.0498	-0.3245*	-0.3123*	-0.0123	0.0125	-0.0445	0.0066

B23: Direct and Indirect Effects of Self-Rated Psychopathy on Task Performance through Proactive Behavior

Mediator	Decomposed Effects				Indirect Effects			
	a	b	c	c'	Boot (a*b)	SE	Lower	Upper
Proactive Behavior	-0.0538	0.1189*	-0.3245*	-0.3182*	-0.0064	0.0107	-0.0350	0.0095

B24: Direct and Indirect Effects of Self-Rated Psychopathy on Task Performance through Friendliness

Mediator	Decomposed Effects				Indirect Effects			
	a	b	c	c'	Boot (a*b)	SE	Lower	Upper
Friendliness	-0.5910*	0.0606	-0.3245*	-0.2887*	-0.0358	0.0230	-0.0826	0.0076

B25: Direct and Indirect Effects of Self-Rated Psychopathy on Task Performance through Expressed Humility

Mediator	Decomposed Effects				Indirect Effects			
	a	b	c	c'	Boot (a*b)	SE	Lower	Upper
Expressed Humility	-0.2402*	0.0959	-0.3245*	-0.3015*	-0.0230	0.0201	-0.0699	0.0103

B26: Direct and Indirect Effects of Self-Rated Psychopathy on Task Performance through Cooperation

Mediator	Decomposed Effects				Indirect Effects			
	a	b	c	c'	Boot (a*b)	SE	Lower	Upper
Cooperation	-0.1325	0.1033*	-0.3245*	-0.3109*	-0.0137	0.0112	-0.0459	0.0005

B27: Direct and Indirect Effects of Self-Rated Psychopathy on Task Performance through Getting Ahead (Hypothesis 5)

Mediator	Decomposed Effects				Indirect Effects			
	a	b	c	c'	Boot (a*b)	SE	Lower	Upper
Political Skill	0.0781	0.0198			0.0015	0.0069	-0.0057	0.0278
Impression Management	0.2462*	-0.0736			-0.0181	0.0143	-0.0561	0.0029
Proactive Behavior	-0.0538	0.1219*			-0.0066	0.0110	-0.0402	0.0082
Total			-0.3245*	-0.3014*	-0.0231	0.0187	-0.0663	0.0089

B28: Direct and Indirect Effects of Self-Rated Psychopathy on Task Performance through Getting Along (Hypothesis 6)

Mediator	Decomposed Effects				Indirect Effects		Lower	Upper
	a	b	c	c'	Boot (a*b)	SE		
Friendliness	-0.5910*	0.0474			-0.0280	0.0240	-0.079	0.0157
Expressed Humility	-0.2402*	0.0314			-0.0075	0.0222	-0.0558	0.0332
Cooperation	-0.1325	0.0847			-0.0112	0.0110	-0.0462	0.0017
Total			-0.3245*	-0.2777*	-0.0468	0.0294	-0.1118	0.0058

B29: Direct and Indirect Effects of Self-Rated Psychopathy on Task Performance through All Getting Along & Getting Ahead Mediators

Mediator	Decomposed Effects				Indirect Effects		Lower	Upper
	a	b	c	c'	Boot (a*b)	SE		
Political Skill	0.0781	0.0118			0.0009	0.0067	-0.0078	0.0222
Impression Management	0.2462*	-0.0717			-0.0177	0.0142	-0.0545	0.0037
Proactive Behavior	-0.0538	0.1009			-0.0054	0.0093	-0.0381	0.0061
Aggression	0.5910*	-0.0420			-0.0248	0.0244	-0.0728	0.0229
Expressed Humility	-0.2402*	-0.0232			0.0056	0.0223	-0.0390	0.0496
Cooperation	-0.1325	0.0568			-0.0075	0.1020	-0.0411	0.0044
Total			-0.3245*	-0.2756*	-0.0490	0.0331	-0.1167	0.0131

B30: Comparison of Indirect Effect Sizes by Analysis for Self-Rated Psychopathy on Task Performance

	Individual	Grouped by Hypotheses	All Combined
	Boot (a*b)	Boot (a*b)	Boot (a*b)
Political Skill	0.0877	0.0319	0.0004
Impression Management	-0.0650	-0.0821*	-0.0654*
Proactive Behavior	0.1618*	0.1652*	0.1219*
Friendliness	-0.1010*	-0.0816*	-0.0744*
Expressed Humility	-0.0374	-0.0174	-0.0039
Cooperation	-0.0343	-0.0211	-0.0143

B31: Direct and Indirect Effects of Coworker-Rated Machiavellianism on Task Performance through Political Skill

Mediator	Decomposed Effects				Indirect Effects			
	a	b	c	c'	Boot (a*b)	SE	Lower	Upper
Political Skill	0.0532*	0.0492	-0.2406*	-0.2432*	0.0026	0.0058	-0.0034	0.0243

B32: Direct and Indirect Effects of Coworker-Rated Machiavellianism on Task Performance through Impression Management

Mediator	Decomposed Effects				Indirect Effects			
	a	b	c	c'	Boot (a*b)	SE	Lower	Upper
Impression Management	0.2601*	-0.0517	-0.2406*	-0.2272*	-0.0134	0.0130	-0.0439	0.0085

B33: Direct and Indirect Effects of Coworker-Rated Machiavellianism on Task Performance through Proactive Behavior

Mediator	Decomposed Effects				Indirect Effects			
	a	b	c	c'	Boot (a*b)	SE	Lower	Upper
Proactive Behavior	-0.0015	0.1298*	-0.2406*	-0.2404*	-0.0002	0.0096	-0.0216	0.0184

B34: Direct and Indirect Effects of Coworker-Rated Machiavellianism on Task Performance through Friendliness

Mediator	Decomposed Effects				Indirect Effects			
	a	b	c	c'	Boot (a*b)	SE	Lower	Upper
Friendliness	-0.3890*	0.0892*	-0.2406*	-0.2059*	-0.0347*	0.0171	-0.0739	-0.0069

B35: Direct and Indirect Effects of Coworker-Rated Machiavellianism on Task Performance through Expressed Humility

Mediator	Decomposed Effects				Indirect Effects			
	a	b	c	c'	Boot (a*b)	SE	Lower	Upper
Expressed Humility	-0.0931	0.1483*	-0.2406*	-0.2268*	-0.0138	0.0128	-0.0517	0.0007

B36: Direct and Indirect Effects of Coworker-Rated Machiavellianism on Task Performance through Cooperation

Mediator	Decomposed Effects				Indirect Effects			
	a	b	c	c'	Boot (a*b)	SE	Lower	Upper
Cooperation	-0.1583*	0.1013	-0.2406*	-0.2246*	-0.0160*	0.0128	-0.0536	-0.0007

B37: Direct and Indirect Effects of Coworker-Rated Machiavellianism on Task Performance through Getting Ahead (Hypothesis 1)

Mediator	Decomposed Effects				Indirect Effects		Lower	Upper
	a	b	c	c'	Boot (a*b)	SE		
Political Skill	0.0532	0.0097			0.0005	0.0050	-0.0061	0.0170
Impression Management	0.2601*	-0.0751			-0.0195	0.0148	-0.0548	0.0041
Proactive Behavior	-0.0015	0.1381*			-0.0002	-0.0106	-0.0249	0.0182
Total			-0.2406*	-0.2214*	-0.0192	0.0191	-0.0652	0.0118

B38: Direct and Indirect Effects of Coworker-Rated Machiavellianism on Task Performance through Getting Along (Hypothesis 2)

Mediator	Decomposed Effects				Indirect Effects		Lower	Upper
	a	b	c	c'	Boot (a*b)	SE		
Friendliness	-0.3890*	0.0703			-0.0273	0.017	-0.0653	0.0015
Expressed Humility	-0.0931	0.0871			-0.0081	0.0013	-0.0452	0.0041
Cooperation	-0.1583*	0.0585			-0.0093	0.0115	-0.0421	0.0060
Total			-0.2406*	-0.1959*	-0.0447*	0.0225	-0.0959	-0.0076

**B39: Direct and Indirect Effects of Coworker-Rated Machiavellianism on Task Performance
through All Getting Along & Getting Ahead Mediators**

Mediator	Decomposed Effects				Indirect Effects			
	a	b	c	c'	Boot (a*b)	SE	Lower	Upper
Political Skill	0.0532	-0.0056			-0.0003	0.0050	-0.0135	0.0081
Impression Management	0.2601*	-0.0583			-0.0152	0.0148	-0.0531	0.0090
Proactive Behavior	-0.0015	0.1113			-0.0002	0.0085	-0.0190	0.0174
Friendliness	-0.3890*	0.0682			-0.0265	0.0176	-0.0677	0.0032
Expressed Humility	-0.0931	0.0379			-0.0035	0.0102	-0.0333	0.0107
Cooperation	-0.1583*	0.0275			-0.0044	0.0111	-0.0335	0.0132
Total			-0.2406*	-0.1906*	-0.0500*	0.0273	-0.1106	-0.0019

B40: Comparison of Indirect Effect Sizes by Analysis for Coworker-Rated Machiavellianism on Task Performance

	Individual	Grouped by Hypotheses	All Combined
	Boot (a*b)	Boot (a*b)	Boot (a*b)
Political Skill	0.0026	0.0005	-0.0003
Impression Management	-0.0134	-0.0195	-0.0152
Proactive Behavior	-0.0002	-0.0002	-0.0002
Friendliness	-0.0347*	-0.0273	-0.0265
Expressed Humility	-0.0138	-0.0081	-0.0035
Cooperation	-0.0160*	-0.0093	-0.0044

B41: Direct and Indirect Effects of Coworker-Rated Narcissism on Task Performance through Political Skill

Mediator	Decomposed Effects				Indirect Effects			
	a	b	c	c'	Boot (a*b)	SE	Lower	Upper
Political Skill	0.6351*	0.0612	-0.6609	-0.6998	0.0389	0.0391	-0.0079	0.1546

B42: Direct and Indirect Effects of Coworker-Rated Narcissism on Task Performance through Impression Management

Mediator	Decomposed Effects				Indirect Effects			
	a	b	c	c'	Boot (a*b)	SE	Lower	Upper
Impression Management	0.7057*	-0.0690	-0.6609	-0.6122	-0.0487	0.0387	-0.1477	0.0081

B43: Direct and Indirect Effects of Coworker-Rated Narcissism on Task Performance through Proactive Behavior

Mediator	Decomposed Effects				Indirect Effects			
	a	b	c	c'	Boot (a*b)	SE	Lower	Upper
Proactive Behavior	0.4617	0.1510*	-0.6609	-0.7307	0.0697	0.0514	-0.0031	0.2060

B44: Direct and Indirect Effects of Coworker-Rated Narcissism on Task Performance through Friendliness

Mediator	Decomposed Effects				Indirect Effects			
	a	b	c	c'	Boot (a*b)	SE	Lower	Upper
Friendliness	-0.7920*	0.1120*	-0.6609*	-0.5722*	-0.0887*	0.0486	-0.2101	-0.0169

B45: Direct and Indirect Effects of Coworker-Rated Narcissism on Task Performance through Expressed Humility

Mediator	Decomposed Effects				Indirect Effects			
	a	b	c	c'	Boot (a*b)	SE	Lower	Upper
Expressed Humility	-0.1570	0.1674*	-0.6609*	-0.6347*	-0.0263	0.0429	-0.1592	0.0261

B46: Direct and Indirect Effects of Coworker-Rated Narcissism on Task Performance through Cooperation

Mediator	Decomposed Effects				Indirect Effects			
	a	b	c	c'	Boot (a*b)	SE	Lower	Upper
Cooperation	-0.2140	0.1226*	-0.6609*	-0.6347*	-0.0262	0.0356	-0.1332	0.0201

B47: Direct and Indirect Effects of Coworker-Rated Narcissism on Task Performance through Getting Ahead (Hypothesis 3)

Mediator	Decomposed Effects				Indirect Effects			
	a	b	c	c'	Boot (a*b)	SE	Lower	Upper
Political Skill	0.6351*	0.0183			0.0116	0.0388	-0.0417	0.1239
Impression Management	0.7057*	-0.0937*			-0.0661*	0.0446	-0.1925	-0.0054
Proactive Behavior	0.4617	0.1564*			0.0722	0.0533	-0.0034	0.2155
Total			-0.6609*	-0.6786*	0.0177	0.069	-0.1191	0.1561

B48: Direct and Indirect Effects of Coworker-Rated Narcissism on Task Performance through Getting Along (Hypothesis 4)

Mediator	Decomposed Effects				Indirect Effects			
	a	b	c	c'	Boot (a*b)	SE	Lower	Upper
Friendliness	-0.7972*	0.0897*			-0.0711*	0.0434	-0.1865	-0.0088
Expressed Humility	-0.157	0.0864			-0.0136	0.0302	-0.1415	0.0134
Cooperation	-0.2140	0.0731			-0.0156	0.0267	-0.1120	0.0126
Total			-0.6609*	-0.5607*	-0.1003*	0.0636	-0.2546	-0.0005

B49: Direct and Indirect Effects of Coworker-Rated Narcissism on Task Performance through All Getting Along & Getting Ahead Mediators

Mediator	Decomposed Effects				Indirect Effects			
	a	b	c	c'	Boot (a*b)	SE	Lower	Upper
Political Skill	0.6351*	0.0002			0.0001	0.0380	-0.0702	0.0884
Impression Management	0.7057*	-0.0720			-0.0508	0.0430	-0.1675	0.0100
Proactive Behavior	0.4617	0.1242			0.0573	0.0501	-0.0057	0.2050
Friendliness	-0.7920*	0.0843*			-0.0668*	0.0443	-0.1859	-0.0054
Expressed Humility	-0.1570	0.0276			-0.0043	0.0247	-0.0891	0.0242
Cooperation	-0.2140	0.0379			-0.0081	0.0224	-0.0940	0.0142
Total			-0.6609*	-0.5884*	-0.0726	0.0912	-0.2657	0.0971

B50: Comparison of Indirect Effect Sizes by Analysis for Coworker-Rated Narcissism on Task Performance

	Individual	Grouped by Hypotheses	All Combined
	Boot (a*b)	Boot (a*b)	Boot (a*b)
Political Skill	0.0398	0.0116	0.0001
Impression Management	-0.0487	-0.0661*	-0.0508
Proactive Behavior	0.0697	-0.0722	0.0573
Friendliness	-0.0887*	-0.0711*	-0.0668*
Expressed Humility	-0.0263	-0.0136	-0.0043
Cooperation	-0.0262	-0.0156	-0.0081

B51: Direct and Indirect Effects of Coworker-Rated Psychopathy on Task Performance through Political Skill

Mediator	Decomposed Effects				Indirect Effects			
	a	b	c	c'	Boot (a*b)	SE	Lower	Upper
Political Skill	-0.0575	0.0350	-0.3267*	-0.3247*	-0.002	0.0057	-0.0234	0.0041

B52: Direct and Indirect Effects of Coworker-Rated Psychopathy on Task Performance through Impression Management

Mediator	Decomposed Effects				Indirect Effects			
	a	b	c	c'	Boot (a*b)	SE	Lower	Upper
Impression Management	0.2335*	-0.0599	-0.3267*	-0.3128*	-0.0140	0.0121	-0.0444	0.0045

B53: Direct and Indirect Effects of Coworker-Rated Psychopathy on Task Performance through Proactive Behavior

Mediator	Decomposed Effects				Indirect Effects			
	a	b	c	c'	Boot (a*b)	SE	Lower	Upper
Proactive Behavior	-0.0924	0.1149*	-0.3267*	-0.3161*	-0.0106	0.0128	-0.0482	0.0064

B54: Direct and Indirect Effects of Coworker-Rated Psychopathy on Task Performance through Friendliness

Mediator	Decomposed Effects				Indirect Effects			
	a	b	c	c'	Boot (a*b)	SE	Lower	Upper
Friendliness	-0.4368*	0.0891*	-0.3267*	-0.2878*	-0.0389*	0.0183	-0.0811	-0.0088

B55: Direct and Indirect Effects of Coworker-Rated Psychopathy on Task Performance through Expressed Humility

Mediator	Decomposed Effects				Indirect Effects			
	a	b	c	c'	Boot (a*b)	SE	Lower	Upper
Expressed Humility	-0.2196*	0.1186	-0.3267*	-0.3007*	-0.0261	0.0213	-0.0870	0.0019

B56: Direct and Indirect Effects of Coworker-Rated Psychopathy on Task Performance through Cooperation

Mediator	Decomposed Effects				Indirect Effects			
	a	b	c	c'	Boot (a*b)	SE	Lower	Upper
Cooperation	-0.1736*	0.1024*	-0.3267*	-0.3090*	-0.0178*	0.0141	-0.0592	-0.0004

B57: Direct and Indirect Effects of Coworker-Rated Psychopathy on Task Performance through Getting Ahead (Hypothesis 5)

Mediator	Decomposed Effects				Indirect Effects			
	a	b	c	c'	Boot (a*b)	SE	Lower	Upper
Political Skill	-0.0575	0.001			-0.0001	0.0056	-0.014	0.0107
Impression Management	0.2335*	-0.0809			-0.0189	0.0133	-0.053	0.0009
Proactive Behavior	-0.0924	0.1300*			-0.0120	0.0148	-0.0535	0.0082
Total			-0.3267*	-0.2958*	-0.0309	0.0210	-0.0823	0.0025

B58: Direct and Indirect Effects of Coworker-Rated Psychopathy on Task Performance through Getting Along (Hypothesis 6)

Mediator	Decomposed Effects				Indirect Effects			
	a	b	c	c'	Boot (a*b)	SE	Lower	Upper
Friendliness	-0.4368*	0.0746			-0.0326*	0.0184	-0.0771	-0.0028
Expressed Humility	-0.2196*	0.0495			-0.0109	0.0214	-0.0619	0.0255
Cooperation	-0.1736*	0.0719			-0.0125	0.0131	-0.0493	0.0036
Total			-0.3267*	-0.2708*	-0.0559*	0.0268	-0.1153	-0.0100

B59: Direct and Indirect Effects of Coworker-Rated Psychopathy on Task Performance through All Getting Along & Getting Ahead Mediators

Mediator	Decomposed Effects				Indirect Effects			
	a	b	c	c'	Boot (a*b)	SE	Lower	Upper
Political Skill	-0.0575	-0.0112			0.0006	0.0059	-0.0089	0.0172
Impression Management	0.2335*	-0.0678			-0.0158	0.0132	-0.0493	0.0044
Proactive Behavior	-0.0924	0.1039			-0.0096	0.0123	-0.0503	0.0047
Friendliness	-0.4368*	0.0707			-0.0309	0.0188	-0.0742	0.0000
Expressed Humility	-0.2196*	0.0026			-0.0006	0.0203	-0.0447	0.0392
Cooperation	-0.1736*	0.0482			-0.0084	0.0124	-0.0443	0.0078
Total			-0.3267*	-0.2621*	-0.0646*	0.0299	-0.1322	-0.0127

B60: Comparison of Indirect Effect Sizes by Analysis for Coworker-Rated Psychopathy on Task Performance

	Individual	Grouped by Hypotheses	All Combined
	Boot (a*b)	Boot (a*b)	Boot (a*b)
Political Skill	-0.0020	0.0001	0.0006
Impression Management	-0.0140	-0.0189	-0.0158
Proactive Behavior	-0.0106	-0.0120	-0.0096
Friendliness	-0.0389*	-0.0326*	-0.0309
Expressed Humility	-0.0261	-0.0109	-0.0006
Cooperation	-0.0178*	-0.0125	-0.0084

VITA

Benjamin David McLarty received his Bachelor of Science degree in biochemistry from Oklahoma State University in 1999. In 2001, he completed his Masters of Business Administration degree from Oklahoma State University. He was recognized multiple times throughout his career in the doctoral program in the Rucks Department of Management at Louisiana State University. He was the inaugural recipient of the Arthur G. Bedeian Research Award in 2015 and received the James W. Reddoch outstanding graduate student award in 2013 from the department. He was also recognized with an outstanding graduate teaching assistant award by the E.J. Ourso College of Business in 2015. Ben's research interests include individual differences, job performance issues such as counterproductive workplace behaviors and organizational citizenship behaviors, selection, recruiting, social media, management history and research methods. He has coauthored articles that currently appear in the *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *Journal of Business and Psychology*, and the *Journal of Management History* among others. He is currently employed as an assistant professor of management at West Texas A&M University in Canyon, Texas, and is an active member of the Academy of Management, Southern Management Association and the Society for Industrial and Organizational Psychology. He was born in Tulsa, Oklahoma in 1977.