

**Graduate School of Business
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**Corporate Psychopaths in Australian Workplaces:
Their Influence on
Organisational Outcomes**

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Doctor of Business Administration
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Declaration

To the best of my knowledge and belief this thesis contains no material previously published by any other person except where due acknowledgement has been made.

This thesis contains no material, which has been accepted for the award of any other degree or diploma in any university.

Signature

Date

Table of Contents

Declaration	1
Abstract	10
1. Introduction	11
1.1 Introduction	11
1.2 Background to the Research	17
1.3 Research Objectives	23
1.4 Significance of the Research	24
1.5 Research Philosophy and Paradigm	28
1.6 Definitions	29
1.6.1 Respondents, Psychopaths, Sociopaths and Psychotics	29
1.6.1.1. Respondents.....	29
1.6.1.2. Psychopaths	29
1.6.1.2.1. Sub-Clinical Psychopaths	30
1.6.1.2.2. Unsuccessful Psychopaths.....	30
1.6.1.2.3 Successful Psychopaths	30
1.6.1.3. Sociopaths.....	30
1.6.1.4. Psychotics	31
1.6.2 Corporate Psychopaths	31
1.7 The Emergence of the Concept of the Successful Psychopath	32
2 Literature Review	35
2.1 Introduction: The Concept of Corporate Psychopaths	35
2.1.1 Who Are Corporate Psychopaths?.....	36
2.2 Corporate Psychopaths, as compared with People with a Narcissistic Personality Type, people with Antisocial Personality Disorder and with Sociopaths.	44
2.2.1 Narcissistic Personality Type	45
2.2.2 Antisocial Personality Disorder.....	48
2.2.3 Psychopaths and Sociopaths.....	51
2.2.3.1 Acquired Sociopathy (Acquired Psychopathy)	53
2.2.4 Dissocial Personality	55

2.3 The Origins of Psychopathy	62
2.3.1 The Origins of Psychopathy	62
2.4 Psychopaths and the Effects of Culture	72
2.5 Psychopaths and Organisations.....	77
2.5.1 Psychopaths and Organisations	77
2.5.2 Why Psychopaths Work for Corporations.....	79
2.5.3 Why do Organisations Hire Psychopaths	80
2.6 Corporate Psychopaths and the Corporate Hierarchy	81
2.6.1 How Corporate Psychopaths Get Into Organisations	81
2.6.2 The Prevalence of Corporate Psychopaths in Organisations.....	83
2.6.3 At What Levels are Corporate Psychopaths to be found in Organisations?	84
2.7 Identifying Psychopaths	86
2.8 How Psychopaths Think of Themselves.....	90
2.9 Strategies Psychopaths Use	92
2.9.1 Charm, Manipulation and Abuse.....	92
2.9.2 Disheartened and Exploited Workforce	93
2.9.3 Workplace Conflict and Bullying.....	95
2.10 Corporate Psychopaths and Organisational Performance	98
2.10.1 Corporate Psychopaths and Organisational Performance	98
2.10.2 Corporate Psychopaths and Corporate Social Responsibility	99
2.11 Corporations as Psychopaths.....	103
2.12 Conclusions.....	105
2.13 Hypotheses Generated From the Literature Review.....	106
3. Methodology	114
3.1 Introduction.....	114
3.2 Research Approach and Philosophy	114
3.3 Research Method and Design	116
3.4 Research Sample Used.....	118

3.5 Sample Size Determination	120
3.6 Questionnaire Development	122
3.7 The Reliability and Validity of Observer Reports of Psychopathy	128
3.8 Core Instrument Development – Measuring Corporate Psychopaths.	132
3.9 Development of Dependent Variables	144
3.10 Questionnaire Pilot Testing.....	151
3.11 Ethical Considerations in the Methodology	155
3.12 Methodological Conclusions	156
4: Results and Analysis of Data	157
4.1 Introduction.....	157
4.2 Sample Analysed	159
4.3 Data Analysis.....	161
4.4 Reliability Measures Undertaken.....	164
4.5 Statistical and Reliability Conclusions.....	169
4.6 Substantive Results	170
4.7 Descriptive Results.....	188
4.7.1 Withdrawal from Work	188
4.7.2 Workload	190
4.7.3 Conflict at Work.....	191
4.7.4 Constraints at Work.....	193
4.7.5 Corporate Psychopaths and Organisational Seniority	196
4.8 Conclusions to the Data Analysis.....	198
5: Discussion of the Research Findings.....	199
5.1 Introduction.....	199
5.2 Discussion of Findings in Relation to the Research Objectives	202
5.2.1 Are Corporate Psychopaths deemed to be working in Australian Workplaces?	202
5.2.2 What Influence has the Presence of Corporate Psychopaths Had on Those Workplaces?	203

5.2.3 What Influence has the Presence of Corporate Psychopaths had on Other Employees?.....	204
5.3 Discussion of Findings Relating to Each Hypothesis	205
5.3.1 Corporate Psychopaths and Conflict at Work	205
5.3.2 Corporate Psychopaths and Job Satisfaction at Work.....	208
5.3.3 Corporate Psychopaths and Organisational Constraints at Work.....	212
5.3.4 Corporate Psychopaths and Corporate Social Responsibility at Work ...	215
5.3.5 Corporate Psychopaths and Bullying at Work	219
5.3.6 Corporate Psychopaths and Workload	221
5.3.7 Corporate Psychopaths and Management Level at Work	223
5.3.8 Corporate Psychopaths and Withdrawal from Work.....	225
5.4 Implications for Theory and for Further Research.....	229
5.4.1 Implications for Theory	229
5.4.2 Implications for Further Research	232
5.4.2.1. The PM-MRV Research Instrument.....	232
5.4.2.2. Research into Corporate Psychopaths and Corporate Longevity	233
5.4.2.3. Research into Corporate Psychopaths and Counterproductive Work Behaviour	234
5.4.2.4. Research into Corporate Psychopaths and Organisational Commitment	235
5.4.2.5. Research into Corporate Psychopaths and Intention to Quit.....	236
5.4.2.6. Research into Corporate Psychopaths and Organisational Type.....	238
5.4.2.7. Research into the Voluntary Retirement of Corporate Psychopaths ...	239
5.4.2.8. A Conceptual Model for Future Research into Corporate Psychopaths	240
5.5 Implications for Organisations, Management and Governance.....	241
5.5.1 The Implications of Corporate Psychopaths for Organisations.....	241
5.5.2 Implications for Corporate Management.....	244
5.5.3 The Implications of Corporate Psychopaths for Governance.....	247
5.5.4 Limitations of the Research.....	249
5.6 Overall Conclusions	253
Appendices:-	284
The Scatter plots for the construct of Corporate Psychopathy against the items of management behaviour that were measured in the research.....	285
The Questionnaire Used	303

Tables

Table 1: Hare’s Psychopathy Checklist-Revised (PCL-R) Items	40
Table 2 : Comparison of the Criteria for Psychopathy, Anti-social Personality Disorder and Dissocial Personality.	56
Table 3: Cleckley’s Original Criteria for Psychopathy.....	139
Table 4: Comparison of the PCL-R Criteria for Psychopathy, Cooke’s 13 Item Measure, Hare’s Suggested Criteria for Corporate Psychopathy and the Measure’s Adopted in this research.	142
Table 5: Corporate Psychopathy Items: The Psychopathy Measure – Management Research Version.	143
Table 6: Construct of Conflict and Bullying Item	146
Table 7: Job Satisfaction Items	147
Table 8: Organisational Constraints Items.....	148
Table 9: Corporate Social Responsibility Items	149
Table 10: Workload Items	149
Table 11: Withdrawal Items.....	150
Table 12: Inter-item Correlations for Construct of Corporate Psychopathy (Q.11).	166
Table 13: Reliability Statistics Summary	167
Table 14: Pearson’s Correlation Matrix for all Constructs.....	170
Table 15: Means, Standard Deviations and Significance Scores: Withdrawal Construct.....	179
Table 16: Means, Standard Deviations and Significance scores for construct of Workload items.....	181
Table 17: Means, Standard Deviations and Significance scores for Construct of Conflict Items.....	182
Table 18: Means, Standard Deviations and Significance scores for construct of Organisational Constraints items	183
Table 19: Means, Standard Deviations and Significance scores for construct of Corporate Social Responsibility items.....	184
Table 20: Means, Standard Deviations and Significance scores for construct of Job Satisfaction Items	185
Table 21: Reported Incidence of Withdrawal Behaviours.....	189
Table 22: Reported Incidence of Workload Items	190
Table 23: Reported Number of Hours Worked Per Week	191
Table 24: Reported Incidence of Experiencing Conflict Items	192
Table 25: Reported Incidence of Work Constraints Items.....	194
Table 26: Experience of Corporate Psychopaths and Seniority by Position	196
Table 27: Experience of Corporate Psychopaths and Seniority by Years Worked	197

Figures

Figure 1: Clinical Model of Personality Disorders	57
Figure 2: Dysfunctional Leadership Model of Personality Disorders	59
Figure 3: Estimated Incidence of Corporate Psychopaths in Organisations.....	85
Figure 4: Strategies that Corporate Psychopaths Use	92
Figure 5: Research Model	113
Figure 6: Outline of Questionnaire Design	126
Figure 7: Scatter plot of Corporate Psychopathy versus Conflict at Work.....	173
Figure 8: Scatter plot of Corporate Psychopathy and Bullying at Work.	173
Figure 9: Scatter plot of Corporate Psychopathy versus Withdrawal.....	174
Figure 10: Scatter plot of Corporate Psychopathy versus Workload.....	175
Figure 11: Scatter plot of Corporate Psychopathy versus Corporate Social Responsibility	175
Figure 12 : Scatter plot of Corporate Psychopathy versus Organisational Constraints	176
Figure 13: Scatter plot of Corporate Psychopathy versus Job Satisfaction	177
Figure 14: Scatter plot of Corporate Psychopathy and reports of the company behaving in a socially desirable manner.	285
Figure 15: Scatter plot of Corporate Psychopathy and reports of the company behaving in a way that demonstrates commitment to its employees.	286
Figure 16: Scatter plot of Corporate Psychopathy and reports of the company behaving in an environmentally friendly manner.	286
Figure 17: Scatter plot of Corporate Psychopathy and reports of the company behaving in a way that benefits the local community.....	287
Figure 18: Scatter plot of Psychopathy and Arguments at work	287
Figure 19: Scatter plot of Psychopathy and Rudeness at Work.....	288
Figure 20: Scatter plot of Psychopathy and Yelling at Work	288
Figure 21: Scatter plot of Corporate Psychopathy and Leaving Work Early ...	289
Figure 22: Scatter plot of Corporate Psychopathy and Coming to Work Late.	289
Figure 23: Scatter plot of Corporate Psychopathy and Claiming to be Sick when not really Sick	290
Figure 24: Scatter plot of Corporate Psychopathy and Taking a Longer Break than Allowed at Work.....	290
Figure 25 : Scatter plot of Corporate Psychopathy and Needing to Work Very Fast.....	291
Figure 26: Scatter plot of Corporate Psychopathy and Needing to Work Very Hard.....	291
Figure 27: Scatter plot of Corporate Psychopathy and Job Often Having More Work Than Can Be Done Well.....	292
Figure 28: Scatter plot of Corporate Psychopathy and Hours Worked Per Week	292
Figure 29 : Scatter plot of Corporate Psychopathy and Job Leaving Little Time to Get Things Done.....	293
Figure 30: Scatter plot of Corporate Psychopathy and Job Often Having A Great Deal to Do	293

Figure 31: Scatter plot of Corporate Psychopathy and Job Often Having Difficulties Due to Organisational Rules and Procedures	294
Figure 32: Scatter plot of Corporate Psychopathy and Job Often Having Difficulties Due to Other Employees.....	294
Figure 33: Scatter plot of Corporate Psychopathy and Job Often Having Difficulties Due to Inadequate Training	295
Figure 34: Scatter plot of Corporate Psychopathy and Job Often Having Difficulties Due to Interruptions by Other People	295
Figure 35: Scatter plot of Corporate Psychopathy and Job Often Having Difficulties Due to a Lack of Necessary Information about What to do or How to do it	296
Figure 36: Scatter plot of Corporate Psychopathy and Job Often Having Difficulties Due to Inadequate Help from Others	296
Figure 37 : Scatter plot of Corporate Psychopathy and Job Having Difficulties Due to Incorrect instructions.....	297
Figure 38: Scatter plot of Corporate Psychopathy and Job Often Having Difficulties Due to Poor Equipment or Supplies	297
Figure 39: Scatter plot of Corporate Psychopathy and Job Often Having Difficulties Due to Supervisor	298
Figure 40: Scatter plot of Corporate Psychopathy and Job Often Having Difficulties Due to Lack of Equipment or Supplies.....	298
Figure 41: Scatter plot of Corporate Psychopathy and Agreement that the Respondent.....	299
Figure 42 : Scatter plot of Corporate Psychopathy and Agreement that the Respondent Liked the People They Worked With	299
Figure 43: Scatter plot of Corporate Psychopathy and Agreement that Communications Seemed Good Within the Organisation	300
Figure 44: Scatter plot of Corporate Psychopathy and Agreement that Respondent's found Work Harder Because of Other's Incompetence	300
Figure 45 : Scatter plot of Corporate Psychopathy and Agreement that the Respondent's Supervisor Was Unfair to them.....	301
Figure 46: Scatter plot of Corporate Psychopathy and Agreement that Their Work was not Appreciated.....	301
Figure 47: Scatter plot of Corporate Psychopathy and Agreement that Respondent's Supervisor Showed Little Interest in the Feelings of Subordinates	302
Figure 48: Scatter plot of Corporate Psychopathy and Agreement that Respondent's Efforts Were Not Properly Rewarded	302

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Abstract

This thesis describes the construct of psychopathy and the study of psychopaths. It identifies that psychopaths have been studied extensively in their criminal manifestations but that there is a large and recognised gap in the literature and a stated need for the study of successful psychopaths and Corporate Psychopaths. The thesis outlines the research instrument used to identify such people in a 2008 survey of management behaviour among 346 managers in Australia. The robust statistical validity and reliability of the instrument is described, and the high level of face validity of the resultant findings is noted. The research defined Corporate Psychopaths as psychopaths who work in corporations. Operationally, Corporate Psychopaths were defined as those managers who scored above 12 on a psychopathy measure of their behaviour. It investigated outcomes in terms of the influence of the presence of Corporate Psychopaths on organisational constraints, withdrawal from the workplace, workplace conflict and bullying, workload, levels of job satisfaction and perceived levels of corporate social responsibility. Nearly all of the dependent variables deployed in the current research show a significant relationship with Corporate Psychopaths in the expected direction. Findings highlight that while Corporate Psychopaths comprise only a small minority of employees and managers, they have a significant, negative influence on organisational outcomes. Corporate Psychopaths create disorder in the workplace on a scale previously unimagined and unidentified until now. They directly or indirectly account for large amounts of rudeness and bullying and significant amounts of other types of employee-related work difficulties. They also have a strongly negative influence on a whole host of workplace outcomes, including withdrawal from the workplace, workplace constraints and job satisfaction. The presence of Corporate Psychopaths in organisations thus costs organisations in lost employee time as they withdraw from the organisational environment and in sub-optimal employee performance as they cope with extra organisational constraints. The presence of Corporate Psychopaths in organisations presents unnecessarily difficult working conditions for employees as they cope with a hostile working environment and with myriad negative influences associated with poor levels of job satisfaction. This has practical implications for organisational and human resource management as discussed in the thesis.

1. Introduction

“If we cannot identify psychopaths, we are forever doomed to be their victims”.
Robert Hare, 1994.

1.1 Introduction

This document is the thesis of a management doctorate, which utilises constructs from psychology and psychiatry to examine the behaviour of managers in relation to organisational outcomes. The thesis contains five main chapters, an introduction, a literature review, the methodology, the results and analysis of findings and finally a discussion of the research findings. These are described in more detail below.

The first chapter of the thesis introduces the construct of psychopathy and outlines some of the possible neurological origins of the syndrome and some of the history of the study of psychopaths by psychologists. It describes how not all psychopaths are criminal and introduces the concept of the successful, white collar, Corporate Psychopath. The chapter discusses how Corporate Psychopaths are able to gain entry to, and promotion within, organisations. The chapter then describes the research problem addressed by the research presented here in this thesis, outlines the significance of the research and delineates the research paradigm and method used. The chapter also gives some definitions for the terms used in the research and in this thesis.

The second chapter reviews the literature on the subject of psychopaths and on the syndrome of psychopathy. As this area is relatively new to management researchers, and because much of the literature is from other disciplines such as psychology, the literature review is quite extensive. It describes the concept of Corporate Psychopaths, compares psychopaths with people with similar personality disorders and clarifies some of the similarities and differences between psychopaths and others. It also reviews the inconsistent nomenclature used in the literature and gives some definitions of key terms. The chapter then reviews the origins of psychopathy, and how it may be modified by culture.

A review of the ways in which psychopaths and corporations fit together is then made, together with an overview of what strategies psychopaths use within organisations. The hypotheses are then drawn out of this literature review and are presented.

The third chapter presents the methodology used in the research to investigate the research problems and the hypotheses generated from the literature review. The research design, sample used and questionnaire design are described in this chapter, together with a description of the psychopathy scale used in the research; the Psychopathy Measure - Management Research Version (PM-MRV). The dependent variables are then described and detailed. A description of the two pilot tests used in the research is then made together with comments on how these pilot tests were used to change and refine the questionnaire that was used. Finally, some of the ethical issues in the methodology chosen are discussed.

The fourth chapter of this thesis details the data analysis techniques used, the reliability measures taken and the statistical results from the research. The fifth and final chapter then discusses the results in terms of their implications for conflict, bullying, job satisfaction, organisational constraints, workload, workplace withdrawal and corporate social responsibility in the workplace. Some of the implications of the findings for theory, policy and for further research are then discussed.

Psychopaths

Psychopaths are people, who, perhaps due to factors relating to abnormal brain connectivity and chemistry, especially in the areas of the amygdala and orbital/ventrolateral frontal cortex (Kiehl et al. 2006; Kiehl et al. 2004; Kiehl et al. 2001; Blair et al. 2005; Blair et al. 2006) have no conscience, few emotions and an inability to feel love or even empathy for other people. The amygdala is important in processing socially relevant information and so disruption of its functions could lead to socially inappropriate behaviour (Wernke & Huss 2008).

This makes psychopaths extraordinarily cold, calculating and ruthless towards others and a menace to the companies they work for and to society (Viding 2004; Brinkley et al. 2004). Hare says that it is likely that most people will come across a psychopath at some stage in their lives and that being able to identify them can help minimise the physical or financial harm they cause (Hare 1999a).

Some psychopaths demonstrate antisocial tendencies and end up in prison. Other psychopaths; who are less researched, and understood than their antisocial peers, can perhaps see that easier gains can be made by applying their ruthless skills in the corporate world. These Corporate Psychopaths are the subject of this thesis.

The concept of the Corporate Psychopath has caught the popular imagination. It has been reported in the popular press and in business magazines and television programs including: the Australian Broadcasting Corporation's 'Catalyst' TV Program, The Dublin Sunday Times, The New Paper (Singapore), The Daily Mail, The Liverpool Echo, Harvard Business Review, The Times, The West Australian, The Financial Times, New Scientist, and The Economist.

The recent books: "Working with Monsters"; "Snakes in Suits"; "Without Conscience"; "The Pocket Psycho" and "The Sociopath Next Door" have also been published on the same subject. Along the same lines, Sandra Speedy, at the 2005 Australasian Business and Behavioural Sciences Association Conference, has identified the problem of ruthless, dysfunctional managers and their effects on organisations and society (Speedy 2005). Although Speedy did not name these managers as Corporate Psychopaths, the behaviour of some of the managers she described identified them as such and they have become a topic of interest among academics and the public. The recent revelations as to the Machiavellian machinations of the managers of some of the world's largest companies which have gone bankrupt have reportedly (McCormick & Burch 2005) led to a growing interest in how psychopaths affect organisations and the workplace.

Clarke, the author of one of the books mentioned above, called 'Working with Monsters', claims that up to 0.5% of all women and 2% of all men can be classified as psychopaths. He describes how coming across psychopaths in organisations could present another employee with situations of harassment and humiliation.

It has been recognised that the personality of leaders can affect their performance in management roles (Cannella & Monroe 1997) and therefore the exploration of dysfunctional management and of managers with personality disorders such as psychopathy should be of interest to researchers in management. Authentic leaders are described as having, among other attributes, an internalised moral perspective on life and business (Walumbwa et al. 2008), and that psychopaths are reported to lack any such perspective gives an insight into why they are associated with such negative organisational outcomes as found in this research.

Similarly, the importance of ethical behaviour in an organisation has been identified (Trevino, Weaver & Reynolds 2006), as has the presence of employees and managers who are of strong (good) character (Wright & Goodstein 2007). Both of these attributes, ethical behaviour and morality, have been identified as potentially important organisational research topics. The presence of unethical or amoral personalities as managers in organisations, such as Corporate Psychopaths, should therefore be of interest to management researchers and managers alike. Corporate Psychopaths are ruthless managers with no conscience (Stout 2005a) who are willing to lie and are able to present a charming façade in order to gain managerial promotion via an opportunistic and manipulative approach to career advancement (Hare, 1993). The implications of the presence of Corporate Psychopaths in business organisations is an area that is relatively new to business and behavioural research (Butcher 2004; Morse 2004; Deutschman 2005). However, the psychopathy of corporations rather than of individual managers within corporations is a concept that is now being debated by lawyers such as Lee and Nesteruk and so it is evident that the concept of psychopathy is being increasingly recognised outside the disciplines of psychology and psychiatry (Lee 2005; Nesteruk 2005).

Traits described as belonging to a Corporate Psychopath are: superficial charm and good intelligence; no sign of delusions or irrational thinking or nervousness, unreliability, untruthfulness, and insincerity; lack of remorse or shame; pathologic egocentricity and incapacity for love; general poverty in major affective reactions (i.e. lack of emotions); an impersonal sex life and unpleasant behaviour when drunk (Cleckley 1988).

Corporate Psychopaths are reportedly drawn to business organisations because within these institutions are the sources of power, prestige and money they seek to accrue to themselves (Hare 1994). Hare reports that psychopaths are to be found wherever you get power, prestige and money (Utton 2004). The fact that Corporate Psychopaths are reported to be excellent at manipulation and impression management helps to explain how they gain entrance to organisations as employees. (The impression management techniques of job applicants, for example, have been shown to positively influence how interviewers evaluate such applicants) (Tsai, Chen & Chiu 2005). Corporate Psychopaths, presenting themselves as desirable employees, are easily able to obtain employment. Without the inhibiting effect of a conscience they are able to ruthlessly charm, lie, cajole and manipulate their way up an organisation in pursuit of their main aims of power, wealth and status and at the expense of anyone who gets in their way (Clarke 2005).

This present research aims to take this research topic to the area of management and to investigate empirically the possible manifestations of the actions of Corporate Psychopaths. The objectives of this research were to determine the perceived existence of Corporate Psychopaths in Australian workplaces and to analyse what influence the presence of Corporate Psychopaths has on those workplaces and on the other employees working there. The design of the research was that of a survey of working people, mainly living in (or possibly visiting) Perth in Western Australia.

Respondents were either postgraduate business students, or were members of various business and professional organisations, in Perth. Implicitly this research was based on a positivist ontology, and an objectivist epistemology.

The assumption of this method is that quantitative, objective measures provide data which is easily replicable and thus can be verified in terms of its validity and reliability (Westen & Rosenthal 2005). The concomitant methodology was necessarily quantitative and an empirical perspective was adopted.

The contribution to be made by this research was the building of a body of knowledge about the impact that psychopaths have on organisational outcomes. The research adds to the knowledge of the subject because almost no research has been undertaken in this area to date by business and management academics.

1.2 Background to the Research

The study of psychopaths has been fairly recent and, for example, originally writing in 1941, Cleckley called them the forgotten people of psychiatry (Cleckley 1988). Since then however criminal psychopaths have been extensively studied. More recently, research into successful (un-incarcerated) or white-collar psychopaths has been started. Cleckley (1988) stated that only a small proportion of psychopaths are likely to be in prison. Other leading researchers state that psychopaths are well represented in society beyond criminal groups (Cooke & Michie 2001) and that the study of successful psychopaths is probably both overdue and potentially rewarding in terms of the breadth of subjects waiting to be researched (Johansson & Kerr 2005; Kirkman 2005; Cleckley 1988).

Cleckley, who was a psychiatrist, describes a variety of his patients as being psychopaths including people whom he said were businessmen, professionals, scientists, academics, physicians and psychiatrists. While acknowledging that there are few studies of these white collar psychopaths, investigators speculate that their propensity for unethical behaviour may be as great as that of criminal psychopaths and that they may use their manipulation abilities to cover up their activities and further their corporate careers (Babiak & Hare 2006; Vien & Beech 2006). While management writers and academics have increasingly looked at the darker side of management and of organisations (Goldman 2006) the presence of psychopaths in the workforce has only been acknowledged within the past twenty or thirty years.

However, with the realisation that every large company has Corporate Psychopaths working for them and that everyone is likely to encounter a psychopath at some stage (Newby 2005; Clarke 2005) it is incumbent on academics working in the area of business to understand what potential effects this can have on organisational decision making and organisational outcomes. How Corporate Psychopaths think, act and behave affects the organisation and its management in ways which need to be explored and recognised if they are to be managed.

In trying to describe psychopaths (before the term psychopath was coined) as people who appeared to be without remorse, the French psychiatrist Philippe Pinel used the phrase 'insanity without delirium' ('manie sans delire') (Pridmore, Chambers & McArthur 2005). The US psychiatrist Cleckley then went on to further develop the idea of the psychopathic personality (Cleckley 1988). Cleckley considered psychopaths to be superficially charming, emotionally shallow, egocentric and deceitful, irresponsible, insincere and remorseless (Chapman, Gremore & Farmer 2003). As a word 'Psychopathic' has its etymological derivations in the words psychologically and damaged, but over time has come to mean a socially damaging personality (Alwin et al. 2006).

Building on Cleckley's work in more recent years, Hare has probably conducted the most work on criminal psychopaths (Deutschman 2005) and his work is referred to in describing Corporate Psychopaths below. Initially based on Cleckley's work and on his own research findings, Hare developed a checklist for discriminating among criminal psychopaths, i.e. to discriminate between the most and least psychopathic criminals (Benning, Patrick & Iacono 2005). This was called the Psychopathy Checklist (PCL) and this was subsequently revised by Hare based on further research and refinements, to the Psychopathy Checklist Revised (PCL-R), the form in which it is currently used, by psychologists, throughout the world.

This was an attempt by Hare to standardise the assessment and measurement of psychopathy for clinical and research purposes (Lorenz & Newman 2002). It was motivated by an understandable desire to diagnose, control and treat socially dangerous people who appeared to be rational but who failed to follow conventional morality and act in line with societal norms (McHoskey, Worzel & Szyarto 1998). Hare has more recently begun to apply this tool for the identification of Corporate Psychopaths.

According to Hare, a subset of his criminal checklist caters for identifying Corporate Psychopaths (Deutschman 2005). He describes such people as; glib and superficially charming, in possession of a grandiose sense of self-worth, pathological liars, good at conning and manipulating others, having no remorse about harming others; being emotionally shallow, calculating and cold, callous and lacking in empathy and failing to take responsibility for their own actions. These are the personality traits traditionally deemed to be central to the syndrome as opposed to the more behavioural, antisocial manifestations of it (Lilienfeld & Andrews 1996).

According to researchers (Salekin, Trobst & Krioukova 2001) the PCL-R and the PCL, when subject to factor analysis, usually presents a two factor solution (Harpur, Hakstian & Hare 1988). A two factor structure is the structure most commonly discussed in the literature (Sandoval et al. 2000; Lynam, Whiteside & Jones 1999; Miller & Lynam 2003) as a feature of psychopathy. The factors are described as being, on one hand, the personality traits traditionally deemed central to the syndrome and on the other, the anti-social behavioural manifestations of the syndrome. Other researchers describe a three factor solution and this research is described later on in this thesis, (Johansson et al. 2002; Cooke, Michie & Hart 2004; Cooke & Michie 2001; Skeem, Mulvey & Grisso 2003).

Like all psychopaths, Corporate Psychopaths do not seem like the psychopaths of popular imagination when one first meets them (Adshead 2003). They can appear to act appropriately and they use that disguise of normality to gain the trust and support of others (Clarke 2005). They are able to use their charm to seduce (Reise & Wink 1995) and manipulate their victims via their mastery of inter-personal interactions and of corporate politics (Deutschman 2005). Corporate Psychopaths then, are merely those psychopaths who work in corporations. Psychologists have historically been most concerned with criminal psychopaths (Kirkman 2002), often those who directly and physically harm others. Corporate Psychopaths are different in that they are much more in control of themselves (and others) and can appear to be charming, polished, likeable and even charismatic .

However, they are emotionally unconnected to the rest of humanity and view others as little more than objects to be used (Hare 1999b). This view that Corporate Psychopaths are much more in control of themselves than criminal psychopaths, is consistent with research. This research demonstrates that although they are correlated, the two main trait dimensions of psychopathy, (impulsivity/antisocial behaviour and callousness/lack of emotion) can show some independence, and that people can be high on one dimension but low on the other (Patrick 1994).

Leading researchers into psychopathy agree that there is considerable reason to believe that the manner in which it is manifested in behaviour, depends on the social environment of the individual psychopath (Blair et al. 2006). Further, that the presence of family wealth, with the educational opportunities and social privileges this brings, may enable psychopaths to achieve their goals in a socially acceptable manner (Blair et al. 2006). Corporate Psychopaths may well be such people, either not having or being able to control any impulsive or antisocial tendencies to the extent of hiding them or rendering them lawful in their expression. This enables the psychopath to operate relatively undetected in society and in corporations.

Psychopathy is marked by a pattern of interpersonal, affective and behavioural manifestations as described above (Louth, Hare & Linden 1998; Hare 1999b). It is somewhat similar to, but more tightly defined than, antisocial personality disorder (Ogloff 2006) and has a greater number of affective symptoms and traits associated with it and a lesser number of overtly antisocial behavioural manifestations. A key defining characteristic of psychopaths is that they have no conscience and are incapable of experiencing the feelings of others (Hercz 2001; Stout 2005b). They use others for their personal gain and abandon their victims when their own needs have been met (Sandoval et al. 2000).

This lack of conscience means that Corporate Psychopaths are invariably out to maximise their own careers, wealth and power and they will do this at the expense of anyone they can manipulate and of any company which will hire them.

The characteristics of Corporate Psychopaths make them appear very hireable; they are smooth, adroit at manipulating conversations to subjects they want to talk about, willing to put others down, are accomplished liars, totally ruthless and opportunistic, calculating and without remorse. Their cold-heartedness and manipulateness are the traits that are least discernable by others and this allows Corporate Psychopaths to gain people's confidence (Mahaffey & Marcus 2006). They are adept at faking the emotions which they do not have and are very good at impression management and presenting a favourable image to people (Edens et al. 2001). Although not any more or less intelligent than the population as a whole (Johansson & Kerr 2005), according to Hare (BBC 2004; Stout 2005b) Corporate Psychopaths see the world as one large watering hole and use their arrogance and charm to rise up the ladder of corporate success, knocking off whoever gets in their way.

Corporate Psychopaths are very capable of acting in an immoral, unethical or dishonest manner if it furthers their aims. Furthermore, they are also quite capable of lying about this immoral behaviour and of blaming others (Spinney 2004) and are capable of using their well-developed social and business networks to cover up their activities. They are only out to profit themselves and have no concern for their colleagues or for the organisations they work for. Very limited academic research appears to have been conducted on Corporate Psychopaths in the area of business or on non-incarcerated psychopaths in general. Calls for such research have been made because such research is said to have potentially valuable implications for understanding the syndrome (Johansson et al. 2002; Skeem, Mulvey & Grisso 2003), and how it develops from childhood and onwards and how it manifests itself in different types of behaviour (Kirkman 2002). The published reports from psychologists tend to focus on the impact of psychopaths in terms of their influence on other people or on their criminal activities or on their impact on relationships, rather than on their influence on business and organisations. There are reportedly many things still unknown about the psychopathy personality and how these people interact with society but they are reported to be excellent manipulators and charmers (Wernke & Huss 2008).

This present research aims to focus on their influence on business and organisations. The objectives of this research are discussed in more detail in the next section of this chapter.

1.3 Research Objectives

The objectives of this research were to:-

- measure the perceived existence of Corporate Psychopaths in Australian workplaces
- analyse what influence the presence of Corporate Psychopaths had on those workplaces, if any
- analyse what influence the presence of Corporate Psychopaths had on other employees, if any.

In line with these objectives a number of hypotheses were developed based on a literature review as discussed below. According to Hare, Corporate Psychopaths are the approximately one per cent of the population who are psychopathic and who work in corporations and other business organisations (Morse, 2004). However, estimates of the incidence of psychopathy vary between researchers, with Clarke saying that one to three per cent of males and zero point five to one per cent of females are psychopathic (Clarke 2005). Stout estimates that four per cent of the (USA) population are psychopathic (Stout 2005b) whereas Salekin *et. al.* state that five per cent of a (USA) student sample were (Salekin, Trobst & Krioukova 2001) psychopathic. It is generally believed that males outnumber female psychopaths in the general population and among the criminal population, where lower levels of female psychopathy have been found by researchers (Grann 2000). The definition of the incidence level depends on what cut-off point is adopted in the particular psychopathy measurement scale used. Cut-off scores of 23, 25 and 30 (out of a possible maximum of 40) on the PCL-R measure of psychopathy are reported as being used in psychopathy research (Morana, Arboleda-Florez & Camara 2005; Yang et al. 2005; Intrator et al. 1997). In clinical settings, a cut-off of 30 and above is used to define psychopaths (Herve, Hayes & Hare 2001) and 20 and below to define non-psychopaths (Richell et al. 2003; Blair et al. 1995a). Equivalents of these cut off points were followed in this research. As reference points, Hare says that criminal offenders in general will score about 22 on the PCL-R whereas most other people in society will score about 5 (Hare 1996).

1.4 Significance of the Research

The proposed research is significant for two main reasons. First, it contributes to the building of a body of knowledge to explain the impact of Corporate Psychopaths on organisations. This will be the main contribution made by this research. This research will add to the knowledge of the subject because very little research has been undertaken in this area to date.

Second, the research is significant because it will stimulate debate on this issue in academic circles outside the disciplines of psychology and criminology and, in particular, will bring it to the attention of business and management academics. It is important to study Corporate Psychopaths because of the large-scale nature of the financial, environmental and human resources, which many modern international corporations have at their disposal. Many corporations are bigger in financial terms than nation-states, and for example, of the 100 largest economies in 2002, 50 per cent were corporations (Assadourian 2005). Senior corporate managers thus have the financial power and resources to have major effects on the population on a worldwide basis.

Furthermore, the mimicking and mirroring of organisational leaders' behaviour has been found to exist in research into the toxic leadership of organisations (Goldman 2006). This means that the presence of Corporate Psychopaths within an organisation may well have an insidious effect on the ethical decision making of the whole organisation, as people lower down the organisational hierarchy copy and reflect their leader's behaviour. This is another reason why this research is important. Researchers working with neuroscientists in looking at the functioning of the brain have found that some neurons mimic or mirror the same neurons in other people's brains and that this triggers empathetic actions and feelings (Goleman & Boyatzis 2008). In this way, followers can come to mirror the emotions and actions of their leaders at a sub-conscious level. Goldman points out that it only takes one leader to bring down a whole organisation and uses this as an argument for the necessity of this type of research being carried out (Goldman 2006).

With the widespread attention given to the fall of such seemingly successful firms such as Enron and WorldCom and the moral lapses that have been associated with these falls, there has been increased legislative and public opinion pressure on boards of directors to make sure that there is an ethical and moral standard within their organisations (Robertson 2008). A lack of ethical reasoning in the recent strategic decision making of executives has been identified (Robertson 2008).

This means that the relevant ethical and moral standards of employees should be of concern to organisational management and to management researchers. Indeed, it is claimed that strategic management has traditionally been concerned with ethical principles and standards within organisations (Robertson 2008). It has also been pointed out that organisations are functions of the types of people that the organisation contains and that it is the people within an organisation who create the norms, ways of doing things and the outcomes of organisations (Schneider 1987).

Cooper (2000) reports that in the USA, most people who leave their companies, do so because of reasons related to their supervisors, rather than due to other company related reasons. This means that so the existence of Corporate Psychopaths may have important implications for the ability of an organisation to retain good staff (Cooper 2000). Researchers have found that organisations are reflections of their top managers, including the functional backgrounds and experience of those top managers which partially determine how they relate to organisational problems (Thomas & Simerly 1994). The study of the personalities of top managers, including of their ethical and moral characteristics, is therefore of interest to management researchers and scholars.

Also, it is apparent from the literature that criminal psychopaths are responsible for a much greater share of crimes than their numbers would suggest, it seems logical therefore, that Corporate Psychopaths may be responsible for far more than their fair share of unethical organisational behaviour including a lack of corporate social responsibility, unnecessarily high job losses and environmental damage.

Ketola (2006) suggests that the types of organisational behaviour that a corporation managed by psychopaths may indulge in could include harsh treatment of employees, sudden terminations of employment contracts, and unhealthy and environmentally damaging production practices. Also, dangerous working conditions, and the breaking of human rights conventions and employment laws (Ketola 2006). This makes psychopaths who work in corporations worthy of further investigation.

The research is also pertinent to business practitioners. Academic business researchers have called for research which is relevant to business and to management (Rieger & Wong-Rieger 1996; Stringfellow et al. 2006; Brennan & Ankers 2004). This current research is highly relevant to business and management as well as being based in academic theory and will thus help to bridge the divide that is sometimes said to exist between the academic and business communities (Stanton 2006; Baker 2001; Ankers & Brennan 2002; Stringfellow et al. 2006).

The rationale for the choice of this topic of research is thus that it is contemporary, contentious and highly relevant to people working in business. It should be therefore a subject for academic research in business where it is in need of greater conceptual development.

Refining the construct of psychopathy to that of Corporate Psychopaths may also be argued to be increasing the incremental utility of the construct because it adds to the identification and delineation of non-incarcerated psychopaths and to the understanding of the psychopathic behaviour of non-incarcerated psychopaths. This is something that researchers in the area have repeatedly called for (Kirkman, 2002, Frick et al., 2000, Widom, 1977). A construct in psychology is defined as some postulated attribute that people possess that is reflected in their behaviour or performance, it is defined implicitly by a network of propositions as to that behaviour (Cronbach & Meehl 1955).

The idea that the rewards and power vested in senior managerial positions in major corporations, attracts those with a degree of ruthlessness approaching or actually dwelling in the realm of the psychopathic, is not new to the area of business research and of corporate social responsibility, however, it has rarely been explicitly stated (Boddy 2005a). However, the existence of strategic leadership as a potentially unique resource in a firm's strategy has long been recognised (Hoskisson, Wan & Yiu 1999) as a stream of research in business strategy. Furthermore, the subject of bad leadership has become a topic of research and interest as it is realised that bad leaders can damage the welfare of stakeholders (Allio 2007; Cooper 2000) and that they do not always have the best interests of the organisation they work for in mind, when they make decisions (Harvey et al. 2007).

The existence of Corporate Psychopaths has potentially major implications for understanding some decisions on firm resource allocation, ethical decision making and overall firm performance. It also has implications for human resources selection and performance management strategies and these are discussed in more detail in Chapter 5 of the thesis, where the findings are discussed and the recommendations for future research are made. The existence of Corporate Psychopaths cannot therefore, be ignored by academics working in the areas of business, corporate social responsibility or strategic management as an area of research and investigation. The empirically displayed existence of Corporate Psychopaths also has a role to play in alerting the attention of psychologists and attracting their attention away from their self-admitted, over-focus on studies of criminal psychopaths (Lynam, Whiteside & Jones 1999). This research may thus help to expand the understanding of psychopathy as a concept as well as to understand how psychopathy develops over time and manifests itself in different behaviour patterns (Kirkman 2002). Reportedly, researchers in this area know almost nothing about the psychopaths who live among the general population and research into such non-institutionalised psychopaths has long been called for to address this lack of knowledge (Kirkman, 2002, Frick et al., 2000, Widom, 1977).

1.5 Research Philosophy and Paradigm

The ontological assumption in this research is that the presence of psychopathy can be empirically measured by surveying respondents. The proposed research methodology stems from the essence of the ontological and epistemological premises used, i.e. a belief that knowledge is objectively constructed and best understood from an accumulation of empirical data (Blackburn 1996). It also assumes that generalizations can be drawn from the results of the survey.

This positivist approach to research follows the philosophy of Auguste Comte, which holds that the highest form of knowledge is the description of sensory phenomena (Blackburn 1996). Positivism is said to combine deductive logic and precise empirical observations of individual behaviour with the aim of discovering and confirming a set of probabilistic causal laws which can be used to predict general patterns of human activity (Neuman 1997). This approach is not without its detractors, especially in the social sciences, but it is the basis on which much research into psychological constructs has been conducted (Barrett 2005).

In practical terms, this meant conducting an extensive literature review around the subjects of psychopathy and related personality disorders and around the subject of Corporate Psychopaths. From this literature review, a number of hypotheses were created according to the expectations of how Corporate Psychopaths were expected to behave in management positions. Primary data were then collected from a survey of management behaviour. These data were then analysed in order to test the hypotheses that had been identified.

1.6 Definitions

Researchers agree that the study of psychopathy and personality disorders in general has been hindered by a lack of common definitions and measurement instruments (Board & Fritzon 2005). As an example of this, Hare states that whether the term sociopath or psychopath is used often depends on the user's view of the origins of the syndrome (Hare 1999a). He states that the term sociopath is preferred when the user believes that the syndrome is entirely forged by social forces, whereas where it is felt that biological, genetic and psychological factors are at work, then the term psychopath is used. For the purposes of this research some definitions are made below.

1.6.1 Respondents, Psychopaths, Sociopaths and Psychotics

1.6.1.1. Respondents

A research respondent in this research is defined as a person who responds to the survey questionnaire, used in the study. In this case, respondents were either postgraduate students with at least one-year's work experience, or members of various professional and business organisations, in Perth, Western Australia, in 2008.

1.6.1.2. Psychopaths

A Psychopath is defined on a dichotomous or trichotomous rating scale, as someone who scores a certain rating (e.g. 30 out of 40 possible points on the Psychopathy Checklist Revised) on a measure of traits deemed to be psychopathic (Hare 1999b). While there is debate about whether psychopathy should be treated as a discrete or continuous variable, both rating scales have proven to be useful in research on psychopaths (Porter et al. 2003) and a trichotomous scale was used in this research.

1.6.1.2.1. Sub-Clinical Psychopaths

Sub-clinical psychopathy is defined as existing when a person does not exhibit a rating which would be classified as clinical psychopathy (e.g. 30 out of 40 on the PCL-R) but who nevertheless scores highly on a psychopathy rating scale relative to others rated on the same scale at the same time (Nathanson, Williams & Paulhus 2006). In other words, it is used as a continuous rating scale to identify those relatively high in psychopathic traits.

1.6.1.2.2. Unsuccessful Psychopaths

In line with the literature, the concept of unsuccessful psychopaths is taken to mean those psychopaths who have criminal convictions (Yang et al. 2005; Widom 1977; Cooke & Michie 2001).

1.6.1.2.3 Successful Psychopaths

In line with the literature the nascent concept of successful psychopaths is taken to mean those psychopaths that have no criminal convictions (Yang et al. 2005). Some of these may work in corporations, called 'white-collar' psychopaths and these are the primary concern of this research (Vien & Beech 2006).

1.6.1.3. Sociopaths

A Sociopath is sometimes used in the USA as a term for a Psychopath (Stout 2005b) but other psychologists (Hare 1999a) make the important distinction that sociopaths have been socialised into patterns of antisocial behaviour which can therefore be modified whereas psychopaths have not. This latter definition was adopted in this research as described in more detail below.

1.6.1.4. Psychotics

Psychotics are those who are delusional or insane, in common parlance they are 'mad' rather than 'bad'. Research illustrates, for example, that psychotic and psychopathic murderers are quite distinct groups of people with very different clinical conditions (Nestor et al. 2002).

1.6.2 Corporate Psychopaths

The concept of Corporate Psychopaths marries the terms 'psychopath' from the psychological literature with the term 'corporate' from the area of business to denote a psychopath who works and operates in the organisational area. These people have also been called Executive Psychopaths, Industrial Psychopaths, Organisational Psychopaths and Organisational Sociopaths (Pech & Slade 2007). In this current research, it was decided to call them Corporate Psychopaths. Hare says that a subset of his psychopathy checklist caters for identifying Corporate Psychopaths. They are glib and superficially charming, have a grandiose sense of self-worth, are pathological liars, good at conning and manipulating others, have no remorse about harming others, are emotionally shallow, calculating and cold; callous and lacking in empathy and they fail to take responsibility for their own actions (Deutschman 2005). Their cold-heartedness and manipulateness are the traits which are the least discernable to others and this allows them to gain other people's confidence and facilitates their entry into positions where they can do most benefit to themselves and harm to others (Mahaffey & Marcus 2006).

Corporate Psychopaths are thus defined as those workplace employees who are perceived to exhibit a score of 75% or more (i.e. 75% or more of the total possible psychopathy score) on the traits identified as psychopathic in Hare's Psychopathy Checklist Revised (Hare 1991) modified (Deutschman 2005) for use in business research.

1.7 The Emergence of the Concept of the Successful Psychopath

Historically, psychopathy has largely been studied among male criminal populations and this has led to the confounding of psychopathy with criminality. More recently there has been an acknowledgement that psychopaths are more varied and heterogeneous than past research may have indicated, and some researchers have put forward the view that subtypes of psychopathy exist (Murphy & Vess 2003). Hare says that a focus on the anti-social behavioural elements of psychopathy to the exclusion of the interpersonal and affective symptoms has led to the under-diagnoses of psychopathy among the non-criminal population (Hare 1999b) and other researchers subscribe to this view as well (Johansson et al. 2002; Viding 2004).

Other commentators have further suggested that successful psychopaths can control their behaviour in a way in which criminal psychopaths cannot (McCormick & Burch 2005) and this is evidenced by the fact that intelligence has been shown to correlate with violence. Low IQ psychopaths demonstrate low impulse control and a history of violence (Murphy & Vess 2003). Further evidence that successful psychopaths are a separate and distinct sub-group to unsuccessful psychopaths comes from a study of 13 successful, 16 unsuccessful and 23 non-psychopathic people using three dimensional brain images generated from magnetic resonance imaging. The research demonstrated that unsuccessful psychopaths (those who had criminal convictions) had significantly lower amounts of prefrontal grey matter in the brain compared to successful psychopaths (those psychopaths that had no criminal convictions) and to non-psychopaths (Yang et al. 2005). These successful psychopaths, who are high in achievement and competence, and are thus able to function successfully in the community, have been discussed by researchers. They have been identified as being hard to identify using psychopathy criteria which rely on antisocial elements to identify psychopaths, because these successful psychopaths do not display such antisocial behaviour (Brinkley et al. 2004).

Successful psychopaths are discussed as lacking the unreliability, poor impulse control and aimlessness of criminal psychopaths and as being people who are able to move ahead in their fields (Brinkley et al. 2004) and avoid encounters with the law (Benning et al. 2003). It can be hypothesised that intelligent psychopaths from relatively privileged social backgrounds (Blair et al. 2006), with good social and business connections, and with good educational opportunities, know that they can exercise their self-serving behaviour to far better effect and with much less risk of detection in a corporate setting. They also have not had to learn anti-social strategies to get what they want. One researcher, in her study of non-institutionalised psychopaths found that they have a higher level of education than the criminal psychopaths usually found in research (Widom 1977).

It is acknowledged in the literature that not much is known about the life trajectories of these functionally adaptive psychopaths because they have not been the subject of much study (Vaughn & Howard 2005). They are not included in correctional research samples because they are not often caught doing anything illegal, and even when they are, their white collar crimes attract only small periods of institutionalisation (Babiak & Hare 2006) and so little research has been carried out on them (Skeem et al. 2004).

Another reason advanced as to why little research has been carried out on non-criminal samples of psychopaths is that some of the measurement instruments and practices involved in the study of psychopaths are designed to be most easily used on criminal samples (Kirkman 2002; Benning et al. 2003). Such institutionalised samples provide relatively easy access for psychologists, as they have case histories associated with them and subjects are convenient to find. These measurement instruments cannot, reportedly, be easily adapted for use in community (non-institutional/general population) settings (Kirkman 2002).

Some researchers have called for research into people who have achieved celebrity status but who are reported to be devious, deceptive and disruptive as possible fruitful sources of successful psychopaths who can be studied (Benning, Patrick & Iacono 2005). This is not of direct concern in the current research except to note that very successful psychopaths are clearly thought to exist in society. In line with this viewpoint, that functionally adaptive psychopaths exist successfully and relatively undetected in society, psychologists have recently taken the subject of psychopathy into the popular domain with the publication, in the last few years, of several books on the subject; see the following references for details (Hare 1999a; Clarke 2007; Clarke 2005; Babiak & Hare 2006; Stout 2005b).

Hare, in particular, has repeatedly drawn attention to the existence of psychopaths in corporations and other large organisations (Hercz 2001). Researchers have called for empirical research into ‘white collar’ psychopaths to determine the extent of the similarity of personality structure between these people and criminal psychopaths (Vien & Beech 2006). Other researchers have also hypothesised that there may be a great number of primary psychopaths (non antisocial psychopaths) living with impunity in the general population and not coming to the attention of the legal system or psychologists (Levenson, Kiehl & Fitzpatrick 1995). Primary psychopaths are said to be charming but callous and to plan their manipulative behaviour in order to con other people and socially rank themselves higher than others (DelGazio & Falkenbach 2008). These psychopaths are not impulsive in their behaviour and can actually be very cool and deliberate in their planning (Levenson 1993) and so do not get into difficulties with the law enforcement authorities through their lack of foresight. In response to this, business academics are just becoming aware of the nature and extent of the influence of Corporate Psychopaths on businesses and in recent years several papers have been published on this in academic journals and conferences (Boddy 2008; Boddy 2005a; Boddy 2005b; Morse 2004; Boddy, Galvin & Ladyshevsky 2009; Cangemi & Pfohl 2009).

The next chapter of this thesis describes the current literature on psychopaths and Corporate Psychopaths in greater detail than is done in this introduction.

2 Literature Review

“I believe by seldom addressing the possibility of deeply hurtful behaviour in our management literature, we have given evil undue power. Because the descriptions of disordered personalities are mostly found in the specialised literature of clinical psychology, we leave the average manager unprepared when encountering such disorders”. Andre Delbecq, 2001.

2.1 Introduction: The Concept of Corporate Psychopaths

The main aims of this chapter are to explore and detail the theoretical background and empirical research, which exists on the construct of psychopathy. Because much of this literature is from the disciplines of psychology and psychiatry and is therefore probably relatively unknown to management researchers, a fairly lengthy literature review has been necessary in order to fully elucidate and delineate the constructs and concepts involved.

Firstly, the concept of the Corporate Psychopath is explored. Then Corporate Psychopaths are compared to two other types of people with personality disorders who have been the subject of management research; these are Narcissists and Machiavellians (Williams and Paulhus 2006). Corporate Psychopaths are also compared with those who have the related personality disorders of anti-social personality and to sociopaths, to help clarify the confusion between these people, which currently exists in some of the literature. After this, some of the possible causes or origins of psychopathy are discussed. This is a discussion which has not yet reached a resolution among the psychologists involved. The influences of cultural factors on the behavioural manifestations of psychopathy are then discussed. How Corporate Psychopaths interact with organisations is discussed next, along with detail of the somewhat sparse literature, which exists on how they may influence organisational performance. The main methods of identifying psychopaths are then discussed, followed by a description of the possible strategies they utilise for getting what they want in an organisational setting. Finally a series of hypotheses are generated and described that the research then seeks to address.

2.1.1 Who Are Corporate Psychopaths?

Corporate Psychopaths are those people out of the roughly one per cent of the population who are psychopathic, who work in corporations and other business organisations (Morse, 2004). Psychopathy is not yet recognised as a condition in the USA Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders (DSM), but there is a very substantial body of psychological research evidence linking the construct with risk for criminal and anti-social behaviour (Cale & Lilienfeld 2006). The USA Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders is published by the American Psychiatric Association and is commonly used as the standard classification of mental disorders by mental health professionals in the United States. Nevertheless, it is criticised by many clinical psychologists as having only limited usefulness and as having problems with the reliability and validity of the diagnostic criteria and categories it uses (Alwin et al. 2006). Last revised and published in 1994, it is anticipated that the next major revision will be in 2011, at the earliest. It does not, at present, include psychopathy as a personality disorder but is expected to do so in the next edition. Despite not being defined or identified in the Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders (American Psychiatric Association 1994) the construct of psychopathy is regarded as one of the most well validated in the field of personality disorders (Hare, Hart & Harpur 1991; Andrade 2008).

Evidence from many different sources, as detailed in the literature review below, provides evidence for stability in test/re-test situations, for behavioural relevance and for predictive validity. This evidence shows that the construct of psychopathy has both predictive accuracy and practical and clinical usefulness; these are the elements identified by researchers as being important in the demonstration of a construct's validity (Cronbach & Meehl 1955). A person with psychopathy has been defined as having a mental disorder considered apart from cerebral disease (Onions 1983). In common usage, a psychopath is a person with a personality disorder characterised by extreme callousness, who is liable to behave antisocially or violently in getting his or her own way (Davidson et al. 1998).

Personality disorders are usually described as being exaggerations or variations of normal personality attributes which impair the well-being or social functioning of the personality involved (Alwin et al. 2006). This is congruent with a layman's view of what a criminal psychopath would be like. It is usually described as a childhood onset condition (Soderstrom 2003).

A more psychologically oriented definition of psychopathy comes from the Dictionary of Psychology, which defines it as a mental disorder roughly equivalent to antisocial personality disorder, but with emphasis on affective and interpersonal traits such as superficial charm, pathological lying, egocentricity, lack of remorse, and callousness (Colman 2001). This psychological definition better illustrates the characteristics of a Corporate Psychopath. Thus Corporate Psychopaths are opportunistic, lacking any concern for the consequences of their actions and ruthless in their pursuit of their own aims and ambitions.

Psychopaths should not be confused with psychotics who are people suffering from a mental disorder which has made them lose touch with reality (Davidson et al. 1998). However, there is some confusion over these definitions between lawyers and psychologists and in the UK legal system for example, psychopathic disorder is defined by the 1983 Mental Health Act as being where people have a persistent disorder or disability of mind, which results in abnormally aggressive behaviour or seriously irresponsible conduct (Thomas-Peter 1991). This UK legal definition appears to be more in line with the North American condition of antisocial personality disorder rather than the North American description of psychopathy.

Psychopaths view life as a game to be calculated, played and won at the expense of others (Stout 2005a). Psychopaths are also described as being grandiose, manipulative and cold-hearted (Bernstein et al. 2000) and lacking in genuine remorse or empathy. They have no conscience about manipulating others and even find this amusing and thrilling.

They view other employees as pawns to be used in their games and they manipulate their colleagues. They are free of any ties with others because they have no meaningful emotional relationships and this gives them the ability to analyse inter-personal situations with a cool detachment that other people simply do not possess (Hare 1999a). They win (successfully accomplish their strategic aims of gaining money and power) because no one else realises that they are in a game rather than a relationship of some sort. Winning is all-important to psychopaths, says Stout (2005).

Corporate Psychopaths are defined as having the characteristics of being charming when they need to be, but ruthless towards others when it suits them. They are cunning, self-centred and manipulative and able to present a good image to others (Edens et al. 2001).

For example, Edens and his colleagues conducted an experiment where, among other things, respondents were asked to present themselves in the best possible light in a self report questionnaire reporting on psychopathy measures. A finding was that those with higher levels of psychopathy, were more able to present a better image when required to do so than those with lower psychopathy scores were. In other words, they were found to be good at impression management in terms of denying or minimising their undesirable traits and seemingly endorsing their socially desirable characteristics (Edens et al. 2001).

In a follow-up analysis, Edens reassessed this data and found that the impression management was more obvious and significant in direction with regard to the anti-social elements of the particular psychopathy measure he used, the Psychopathic Personality Inventory (PPI). This held true both for efforts at positive impression management (trying to portray oneself as socially desirable) and negative impression management (trying to portray oneself as socially undesirable) (Edens 2004).

This may be because it is more obvious to respondents that measures of anti-social behaviour (e.g. ruthlessness, non-conforming, blaming others) should be suppressed or enhanced if impression management is attempted, compared with the more subtle measures to be found in the underlying or primary measures of psychopathy such as being immune to stress and being fearless (Edens 2004).

Corporate Psychopaths are quick to seize any opportunity for self-promotion and are shameless, remorseless and without conscience over the effects of their actions on others. They are unconcerned with the predicaments of others and are emotionally cold, loveless and impersonal (Benning et al. 2003). Self-gratification is their main aim in life. Corporate Psychopaths are able to use their extroverted charm (Hare 1994) and charisma (McCormick & Burch 2005) to shrewdly manipulate others to achieve their own selfish ends of enrichment and empowerment. They cold-bloodedly get rid of anyone standing in their way in the organisational hierarchy. Although not psychotic, they are ruthless and dangerous to those around them and to the companies that employ them (Hofmann & Hasebrook 2004; Hofmann, Korte & Suvak 2009).

Determined to be promoted and to gain wealth they try to create a power network for themselves and are willing to lie to gain career advantage. Unlike criminal psychopaths who may enjoy violently dominating people, Clarke says that Corporate Psychopaths prefer to psychologically dominate other people in their organisation (Clarke 2007).

In terms of identifying psychopaths, Hare's checklist (Hare 1991) for (criminal) psychopathy (PCL-R) is summarised in Table 1 below for reference. This is the most widely accepted instrument for identifying psychopaths (Weber et al. 2008).

Hare's Psychopathy Checklist-Revised (PCL-R) is shown below in Table 1.

Table 1: Hare's Psychopathy Checklist-Revised (PCL-R) Items

Hare's Psychopathy Checklist-Revised (PCL-R) Items:	Factor Two – Behavioural Manifestations:-
Factor One – Interpersonal and Affective Core Characteristics:-	Factor Two – Behavioural Manifestations:-
Interpersonal Aspects	Lifestyle Aspects
Glibness/superficial charm	Need for excitement
Grandiose sense of self-worth	Parasitic lifestyle
Pathological lying	Impulsivity
Conning/manipulative	Irresponsibility
Affective Aspects	Lack of realistic long term goals
Lack of remorse or guilt	
Shallow affect (emotion)	
Failure to accept responsibility for actions	Antisocial Aspects
Cold/callous/lack of empathy	Poor behavioural control
Three items are not always loaded onto the two main factors	Early behavioural problems
Promiscuous sexual behaviour	Juvenile delinquency
Many short term marital relationships	Revocation of conditional release
Criminal versatility	

This checklist has become central to forensic psychiatric research into psychopathy as well as to clinical diagnoses of it and is described as being the most commonly used clinical assessment method (Soderstrom 2003).

Those psychopaths who can operate without breaking the law or without getting caught or coming to the notice of psychiatric services are described as sub-criminal psychopaths or as successful psychopaths (Hare 1999a; Board & Fritzon 2005). These are psychopaths, who, perhaps because of their intelligence and advantageous family backgrounds, can present a façade of normality and thus achieve their desires with relative impunity. Corporate Psychopaths are reported to be one of these types of psychopath (Hare 1999a). Corporate Psychopaths are reportedly attracted to white collar environments because these environments present so many opportunities for unscrupulous actions and because even when caught, sentences are often trivial for white collar crimes (Hare 1999a).

Corporate Psychopaths are reported to display more long term planning abilities than other psychopaths are, developing long term strategies to get what they want and this helps them achieve their career and self-gratification aims (Clarke 2005). They channel their personality characteristics into more socially acceptable behaviours than anti-social psychopaths do and their charm and ability to manipulative others allows them to talk themselves out of trouble when necessary (Board & Fritzon 2005).

Researchers suggest that these non-criminal psychopaths may have some of the same neuropsychological dysfunctions as criminal psychopaths, resulting in a similar lack of empathy, for example, but it has also been suggested that a superior executive function may serve as a protective factor in non-criminal psychopaths, decreasing their risk of being involved in illicit behaviour (Mahmut, Homewood & Stevenson 2007).

This superior executive functioning would be promoted by a good socio-economic family background, good education and high intelligence and so this idea is supported by research showing that high psychopathy traits are strongly associated with the opposite of these factors, i.e. factors such as low socio-economic status and poor early parental supervision (Farrington 2005).

This view is supported by a review of the research into neuro-imaging studies of psychopaths, which indicates that criminal psychopaths have a reduction in the amount of grey matter in the brain compared to successful psychopaths (Yang & Raine 2008; Yang et al. 2005). Also, neuro-anatomical studies have shown some differences in the prefrontal cortex and the hippocampus of successful versus criminal psychopaths, with successful psychopaths showing no abnormalities in these areas (Yang & Raine 2008). Few studies have been conducted into such populations of non-criminal psychopaths (Mahmut, Homewood & Stevenson 2007; Board & Fritzon 2005).

Researchers have therefore suggested that non-criminal psychopaths may be a less extreme version of psychopath than criminal psychopaths are and have less antisocial aspects to their personalities (Mahmut, Homewood & Stevenson 2007). Indeed, the original Cleckley definition of a psychopath is recognised as being more elusive of the criminal system than the modern conception of the psychopath has come to be. Cleckley described the psychopath as being someone who avoided detection and detention, as successful psychopaths are now thought to do (Andrade 2008; Cleckley 1988).

Calls for the study of such successful psychopaths in populations other than criminal populations have repeatedly been made by psychologists (Wernke & Huss 2008). In a study of the perceptions of emotion displayed by primary psychopathy and secondary psychopathy students, primary psychopaths (those scoring higher on factor 1 elements of psychopathy) were found to have fewer errors in interpreting fearful facial expressions than secondary psychopaths (those scoring higher on factor 2 elements of psychopathy) did. (see Table 1, for a description of these two factors). Differences in findings were reported between primary psychopaths and secondary psychopaths, and the researchers concluded that their research supported the need to study psychopathy as a heterogeneous construct (DelGazio & Falkenbach 2008). This supports the need to study the less anti-social psychopaths who can often work for corporations and have been called Corporate Psychopaths.

It should be noted that a single piece of recent research has been published which claims to have cast doubt on the existence of successful psychopaths. This is because the research claims that in a community (non-incarcerated) sample of 304 men, high psychopathy scores did not relate to “successful intimate relationships” or to “status and wealth” (Ullrich, Farrington & Coid 2008). The researchers stated that these elements of success, (status and wealth and the presence of intimate relationships) should be displayed by successful psychopaths. However, this research can be criticised on at least three main grounds, which show that it is not as logically conceived and executed; in terms of its key premises, as it could have been. Firstly, it uses a measure of psychopathy that includes anti-social elements.

This ignores the literature which claims that successful psychopaths can suppress or control these elements of their personality so as not to appear to be anti-social (Mahmut, Homewood & Stevenson 2007). It is perhaps little wonder that “anti-social” psychopaths were found to be unsuccessful in Ullrich and colleagues’ research. The measures, which define psychopaths, contain this anti-social element because most of these measures were based on the study of criminal populations and it is illogical to look for successful psychopaths among the anti-social population. Secondly, the research uses a definition of success “successful intimate relationships” which has never been used in the literature to describe successful psychopaths. Psychopaths themselves would arguably never use this as a definition of success because it is not a part of their ambition in life. Lacking empathy and emotions, they do not care for others and are not concerned with gaining “successful intimate relationships”. Success, in terms of psychopathy, is usually used in a much more restrictive manner. It is used in terms of the psychopath not being identified, caught, convicted or criminalised rather than in terms of broader manifestations of success (Boddy, 2006b; Mahmut et al., 2007; Boddy, 2005d; Clarke, 2005; Clarke, 2007; Neumann et al., 2005; Newby, 2005; Stout, 2005a; Board and Fritzon, 2005).

Thirdly, the sample used was of men originally from working class backgrounds in a poor area of London (Ullrich, Farrington & Coid 2008). Successful psychopaths are often hypothesised to come from more privileged backgrounds where their family connections and support and good education give them the executive skills to control or inhibit their tendencies towards illicit behaviour and to thereby operate “successfully” in society (Babiak & Hare 2006; Cleckley 1988). From a reading of the literature, investigations of successful psychopaths would be better directed at samples of middle to upper class people rather than working class people and at people with little or no evidence of anti-social personality rather than those with anti-social elements to their personality. This research, which Ullrich and colleagues have conducted, is thus, arguably based on a poor sample in which to find successful psychopaths. It is a singular piece of research that does not fit with all the other literature and evidence, and the findings must be questioned because of this.

2.2 Corporate Psychopaths, as compared with People with a Narcissistic Personality Type, people with Antisocial Personality Disorder and with Sociopaths.

A problem for management researchers into this area, as well as for psychologists is that the classification and naming of personality disorders by individual psychologists and by such bodies as the American Psychiatric Association, and others, has been inconsistent and changeable through the years (Cleckley 1988; Arrigo & Shipley 2001; Ogloff 2006). For example, the classification of 'psychopathic personality' became that of 'sociopathic personality' in 1952 and this was changed to 'antisocial personality' in 1968 (Cleckley 1988). The terms are often used synonymously in the popular press and are often confused with each other even by psychologists (Vaughn & Howard 2005) who do not speak the same language as each other when talking about this syndrome (Shipley & Arrigo 2001).

Currently psychologists such as Robert Hare are trying to get psychopathy classified as a separate disorder to that of 'antisocial personality disorder' in the review of the Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Psychiatric Disorders that is currently being undertaken in the USA (Hare, Hart & Harpur 1991). Other psychologists support this move and question how the conceptualisation of antisocial personality disorder can be considered as a synonym for psychopathy when it ignores most of the personality traits which define psychopathy (Shipley & Arrigo 2001). Cleckley (1988) said that throughout his work he continued to use the term psychopath, which he described as being a more familiar and durable term, despite the changes in nomenclature which took place through the years. Other researchers agree that 'psychopathy' is the term with the longest clinical tradition (Ogloff 2006) for this condition and it thus seems the most appropriate to use in this research. Hopefully, the revisions currently being considered will clarify the classifications and lead to a common practice in naming these related disorders.

One ordered classification of personality disorders previously took place in the 1980s before which it has been described as anarchic (Tyrer 2004). The general diagnostic criteria used since then have been that a disorder is a pervasive pattern of maladaptive traits and behaviours leading to significant personal distress and/or social dysfunction and disruption to others (Tyrer 2004). Because of the recent history of this classification exercise, not all researchers and clinicians use the same classification language for the same condition and this leads to some confusion in the field (Arrigo & Shipley 2001). Researchers point out that the same fundamental clinical construct has variously been described as moral insanity, Sociopathy, antisocial personality and others (Hobson & Shine 1998). For both psychologists and management researchers this creates some definitional problems. For the sake of clarity, some related personality disorders are defined below in the light of a literature review of these disorders and of the most common practice in terms of naming these disorders.

2.2.1 Narcissistic Personality Type

The concept of narcissism, originally developed by Freud (Freud 1914) comes from the myth of Narcissus, a beautiful young man who, spurning the affection of various nymphs, was fated by a goddess to fall into unrequited love (Holme 1981). He did this with his own reflection in a pool of water, where, unable to draw himself away from his own beautiful image, he died of starvation and turned into a white and purple flower (Holme 1981). Since then a narcissist has been regarded as being someone who loves themselves too much for their own good (Kansi 2003).

Like other work in psychology, research into narcissism is said to suffer from a lack of conceptual clarity (Kansi 2003). However, psychologists generally differentiate between people with narcissistic traits, which are deemed to be commonly present in a normal population and those who suffer from Narcissistic Personality Disorder.

These are people who are narcissistic in an extreme and maladaptive manner and who fulfil the criteria for Narcissistic Personality Disorder. They are said to be arrogant and aggressive in terms of their personality styles (Alwin et al. 2006). Narcissists are concerned with displaying and acknowledging their own talent and brilliance and have a desire to be admired and acknowledged to the exclusion of others around them (Goldman 2006). People with high narcissism are arrogant, self-centred, duplicitous and self-enhancing and have a sense of superiority over others (Nathanson, Williams & Paulhus 2006). They are said to be exhibitionist, exploitative and to have dominant personalities (MacNeil & Holden 2006).

One group of researchers identified narcissists as people having the characteristics of being grandiose, with fantasies of ideal love, perfect beauty or unlimited or unrealistic success; idealising or devaluing other people; having a sense of entitlement or displaying interpersonal exploitativeness; having a lack of empathy; being oversensitive to criticism and having a need for attention or admiration (Shulman, McCarthy & Ferguson 1988). Narcissists are said to have a lack of human values, to be self-absorbed and to have a need to control others and to make management decisions that are not in the best interests of organisations or their employees or of other stakeholders in the organisation (Holian 2006).

While psychopathy measures correlate positively with both narcissistic personality disorder and antisocial personality disorder there are some differences between these (Sandoval et al. 2000). A psychopath differs from a person classed as a Narcissistic Personality Type because, according to clinical psychologists, Narcissists (Stout 2005b) do have emotions and feelings, and thus a conscience, and are therefore bothered by their own behaviour. Psychopaths on the other hand, with their lack of emotions (Nadis 1995; Stout 2005a) and no conscience, are not troubled by their own behaviour (Tamayo & Raymond 1977). Narcissism can be identified using the Narcissistic Personality Inventory which contains forty forced-choice items and is considered the standard measure of sub-clinical narcissism (Nathanson, Williams & Paulhus 2006).

The Narcissistic Personality Inventory measures persistent attention seeking, extreme vanity, excessive self-focus and exploitativeness in personal relationships (Jakobwitz & Egan 2005). Narcissistic leaders can be charismatic and inspire followers but are poor listeners and sensitive to criticism, whereas psychopaths are not sensitive to criticism (Maccoby 2000). Both lack empathy with others and both thrive in chaotic times, but Narcissistic leaders often want to change their personalities because they know that their behaviour is unacceptable or hurtful to others and they want to be liked (Stout 2005b). Psychopaths could not care less about hurting others and have been shown, for example, to not take the pain of others into account when making moral judgements (Blair et al. 1995a) and to even get a thrill from hurting others (Clarke 2005). Further, psychopaths do not see any reason to change their personalities. Narcissists have grandiose but unstable self-concepts, an inflated sense of entitlement and a tendency towards establishing superiority (Cale & Lilienfeld 2006). They can have fantasies of ideal love whereas psychopaths have an incapacity for love or deep emotions (Benning et al. 2003).

Researchers have found that psychopathy was more strongly related to aggressive responses than narcissism was (Cale & Lilienfeld 2006). Hare says that psychopaths have a narcissistic view of their own importance but combine this with other characteristics like manipulateness, ruthlessness and a lack of conscience or emotion, to make up a personality which has many different facets than narcissism (Hare 1994). One research study hypothesised that narcissism may be more associated with females than males (Frick, Bodin & Barry 2000) although this has not been noted by other researchers. However, it is usually agreed that psychopathy is more evident among males than females (Clarke 2005) and these overlapping but separate constructs may just possibly be gender related in ways that have not yet been fully explored.

2.2.2 Antisocial Personality Disorder

Antisocial personality disorder is a personality disorder defined by the American Psychiatric Association as a pervasive pattern of disregard for and violation of the rights of others, and an inability or unwillingness to conform to what are considered to be the usual rules of society (American Psychiatric Association 1994). The disorder is reported to involve a history of chronic antisocial behaviour which begins before the age of 15 and continues into adulthood (Frick 2000). The disorder is reportedly, manifested by a pattern of antisocial and irresponsible behaviour as indicated by such things as academic failure, illegal activities, recklessness, poor job performance and impulsive behaviour. Symptoms are said to include an inability to tolerate boredom, feeling victimized, and a diminished capacity for intimacy. The assessment of antisocial personality disorder is thus a behaviour based approach rather than a personality based approach (Kirkman 2002).

In the literature, antisocial personality disorder is sometimes confusingly and misleadingly known as a psychopathic personality or a sociopathic personality and often brings a person into conflict with society as a consequence of a pattern of behaviour that is amoral, unethical and illegal (Hare 1996). Complications that reportedly arise from this disorder are said to include frequent imprisonment for unlawful behaviour, as well as alcoholism and drug abuse.

The DSM-IV (the Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders version IV, of the American Psychiatric Association, the reference book used by psychiatrists and psychologists to define mental disorders) specifically says that antisocial personality disorder has also been referred to as psychopathy. However, psychologists argue that the DSM-IV definition of antisocial personality disorder is far broader in scope than psychopathy (Hare 1991; Edens et al. 2006; Shipley & Arrigo 2001) and that the two should not be confused by clinicians or other researchers (Ogloff 2006).

Hare says that there is diagnostic confusion because of what he says is an incorrect assertion by the DSM-IV and its predecessor the DSM III (the Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders version III, of the American Psychiatric Association), that antisocial personality disorder and psychopathy are the same diagnosis (Hare 1996). Hare says that antisocial personality disorder is a broad behavioural diagnosis which covers a multitude of types of criminals and is of dubious reliability, and that psychopaths are more specific in that they have a distinct personality syndrome involving the interpersonal and affective components as discussed elsewhere in this thesis (Hare 1996). Other commentators in this area agree with Hare's viewpoint and call for a separation of the two diagnoses; antisocial personality disorder and psychopathy, and for a common nomenclature to be agreed on in this area (Shipley & Arrigo 2001).

Psychologists have noted that antisocial personality disorder is largely a reflection of criminal type behaviours rather than the more callous and unemotional personality traits exhibited by psychopaths (Ogloff 2006) and point out that a diagnosis of antisocial personality disorder does not have the dire implications for treatment, recidivism and violence that a diagnoses of criminal psychopathy does. The range of people diagnosed with antisocial personality disorder is reported to be highly heterogeneous (Blair 2001a).

Psychopaths may well be anti-social but only a minority of those diagnosed with anti-social personality disorder are also psychopaths (Ogloff, 2006, Edens et al., 2006, Hare, 1996). Blair and colleagues in a review of the knowledge concerning psychopathy state that only about 25 per cent of individuals classed as being anti-social personalities will show psychopathic tendencies as well (Blair et al. 2006). There are reportedly many routes to an anti-social personality and psychopathy is only one of them (Blair et al. 2006). Psychopaths are thus a more specific group than people with antisocial personality disorder are (Brinkley et al. 2004). Hence, antisocial action alone is not sufficient to identify the construct of psychopathy (Levenson, Kiehl & Fitzpatrick 1995).

According to Hare, the definition of anti-social personality disorder is relatively unproblematic for referring to criminal psychopaths because the definition itself was made after the study of criminal psychopaths, mainly in prison populations (Hare 1999a). However, he states that a focus on the anti-social elements of psychopathy to the exclusion of the interpersonal and affective symptoms leads to the over-diagnosis of psychopathy in criminal populations and the under-diagnosis of psychopathy in non-criminal populations (Hare 1999b). This directly relates to this present research because it can be argued that the confounding of criminality with psychopathy has blinded researchers to the presence of white-collar, successful psychopaths in organisations. Indeed, a weakness of research into psychopathy is acknowledged to be the lack of ability to generalise from it because of the dominant use of criminal populations in research (Kirkman 2002; Salekin, Trobst & Krioukova 2001; Chapman, Gremore & Farmer 2003; Kirkman 2005).

It is of interest to note that the violence of those with antisocial personality disorder typically differs from that of those with psychopathy. The violence of those with antisocial personality disorder is typically reactive, in response to frustration, whereas that of psychopaths is typically instrumental, i.e. is directed towards a goal such as the acquisition of power or money (Blair et al. 2006; Blair 2001a; Hare 1999a). In other words, those people with antisocial personality disorder get angry and violently lose their temper while the violence of psychopaths is more cold, calculating, controlled and directed towards a particular goal such as the acquisition of another's money or possessions.

Leaders with antisocial personality disorder can reportedly be both admired as rule breakers and feared as destructive personalities by their colleagues and those who work under them (Goldman 2006). Their behaviour can be constructive in times when rapid change is necessary for an organisation to survive but destructive, dishonest and unethical at other times (Goldman 2006).

Researchers say that many adults with antisocial personality disorder do not fulfil the criteria for psychopathy because they do not have the callous-unemotional traits necessary to be counted as psychopaths (Viding et al. 2005). Other criticisms of the criteria for antisocial personality disorder are that they are too broad and all-encompassing and lack validity (Hare, Hart & Harpur 1991). In conclusion then, antisocial personality disorder overlaps with and is correlated with psychopathy (Morana, Arboleda-Florez & Camara 2005) but is far from being an identical or synonymous construct (Frick, 2000; Shipley and Arrigo, 2001).

2.2.3 Psychopaths and Sociopaths

While some US psychologists appear to use the terms psychopath and sociopath interchangeably (Stout 2005b), others make an important distinction. Sociopaths are defined as those people who display socially deviant behaviour because of the way they have been socialised in their environment, which could be a result of growing up in, for example, a criminal family or society of criminal peers. In this case the usual norms of society have not been taught or learned (Vaughn & Howard 2005).

Instead, the attitudes and behaviours of their sub-culture have been learned and these are deemed normal within that sub-culture but not within wider society. Such a person is treatable because they can be taught what the usual norms are and shown the harmful effects of their actions on others and because they have a conscience and a normal capacity for guilt and empathy. It is their behaviour that needs to be modified via learning the values of society.

Sociopathy is an antisocial orientation, which results from environmental, socio-cultural and familial factors, which are modified by an individual's personality. Psychopathy is more deeply rooted in an individual's core personality as affected by their environmental, socio-cultural and familial backgrounds (Vaughn & Howard 2005).

Psychopathy is defined as existing when a person scores highly on rating scales designed to measure psychopathy such as the psychopathy screening device for children (Frick 2000) and the Psychopathy Checklist Revised for adults (Blair 2001b; Porter et al. 2003). Psychopaths are commonly said to be relatively immune to treatment and to socialisation (although the evidence for this has recently been challenged by researchers who criticise the basis for the evidence for this saying that many papers on this subject are flawed in their design, (D'Silva, Duggan & McCarthy 2004)). However, there is recent further evidence that psychological interventions may actually be counterproductive to the treatment of psychopaths (Vaughn and Howard, 2005; Babiak and Hare, 2006a; Tyrer, 2004). It is pointed out by reviewing researchers that actual research on the effectiveness of treatment for psychopathic offenders is still at a relatively early stage and that more research in this area is needed (Alwin et al. 2006).

Hare and Babiak (2006) state that Corporate Psychopaths are clever and charming enough to avoid detection, conflict with society, and therefore prison. They say that because of this, a revised definition, other than that of antisocial personality disorder, which is used by some US psychologists to denote psychopathy, has to be used for these more sophisticated psychopaths. Other researchers also acknowledge that antisocial personality disorder characterises the behavioural aspects of criminal psychopaths rather than the innate personality factors (Lilienfeld & Andrews 1996). These researchers suggest that because the majority of studies of psychopathy have been with incarcerated populations, psychopathy has been confounded and confused with measures of criminality (Lynam, Whiteside & Jones 1999). This confounding has meant that measures of psychopathy and differences between criminal psychopaths and criminal non-psychopaths cannot be unambiguously interpreted (Lynam 1997). Some researchers say that a degree of conceptual drift has occurred and call for measures of psychopathy to be made, that do not link it, as a construct, to criminality. They posit that it should be positioned back in the realm of personality deviation and that the population of choice for studying psychopathy should be the general population and not criminal populations (Skeem, Mulvey & Grisso 2003). It is psychopathy, in the general population of corporate employees, that is the focus of this current research.

Researchers more recently argue that the construct of a psychopathic personality should not be contaminated with criminality and socially deviant behaviour because these elements are correlates to psychopathy rather than core characteristics of it (Johansson et al. 2002; Skeem, Mulvey & Grisso 2003). This fits with the view of psychopathy held by leading researchers in the field, such as Hare and Cleckley, who highlighted that there are psychopaths who do not engage in criminal behaviour and can function well in society (Hare 1999a; (Cleckley 1988). It is these psychopaths, working in the corporate arena, who are the primary focus of the research in this thesis. Other researchers also describe unsuccessful psychopaths as being those that had criminal convictions and successful psychopaths as being those psychopaths that had no criminal convictions or no illegal antisocial behaviour (Yang et al. 2005; Lynam 1997).

2.2.3.1 Acquired Sociopathy (Acquired Psychopathy)

The term ‘Acquired Sociopathy’ was introduced to characterise people who became aggressive, unemotional and callous after physical damage to the orbito-frontal cortex area of the brain (Blair, 2001b; Lilienfeld and Andrews, 1996; Benning et al., 2005). They are less likely to display autonomic responses to visual emotional stimuli and have problems in curtailing their violent responses (Blair 2001b; Blair 2001a). Researchers report that these people, having suffered brain damage in the area of the ventromedial frontal cortex, due to such things as physical damage caused by strokes, accidental damage and neurological disease, display such behavioural characteristics as high levels of aggressiveness, lack of concern for social and moral rules, emotional blunting and irresponsibility (Ciarraelli et al. 2007).

They are also more likely to judge moral violations as being acceptable behaviour than non-damaged people are. After frontal lobe injury these people display socially inappropriate behaviour and aggressive behaviour which is described as psychopathic-like (Weber et al. 2008).

This research into people with localised brain damage, logically implies that those psychologists conducting research into the role of the areas of the ventromedial frontal cortex in psychopathy are looking at the right areas of the brain in their research. Further, that their hypothesis that a neurological factor is present in terms of the origins of psychopathy is at least partially correct.

These findings highlight the neurological aspects of psychopathy, and while these are relevant to the debate about the possible origins of psychopathy, they are not what this thesis is about. This document will therefore not dwell on these findings, other than to note that the present trend in psychopathy research is into neurological areas of investigation (Vien & Beech 2006). However, it does appear that arguably, this definition of Acquired Sociopathy is more in line with a name of Acquired Psychopathy rather than Acquired Sociopathy because the syndrome is physically acquired (Blair & Cipolotti 2000) (through brain damage) rather than acquired through socialisation. The brain damage is thought to interfere with the executive emotional system of the brain that allows control over appropriate responses to threat (Blair 2001a).

This inconsistent nomenclature does not overly concern us in this research into Corporate Psychopaths because the condition of Acquired Sociopathy is extremely rare. However, it shows that psychologists and psychiatrists are not consistent in their definitions of these conditions and highlights one of the problems found in this literature review (that of inconsistent terminology).

2.2.4 Dissocial Personality

Dissocial Personality is a classification of the World Health Organisation related to anti-social personality disorder and psychopathy, but is again a classification that is not totally synonymous with psychopathy (Ogloff 2006). It is not a term that commonly appears in the literature on psychopathy and so is not discussed at length in this research except to note that it is another related classification adding to the confusion over diagnosis and terminology.

Ogloff (2006) says that the three diagnoses of antisocial personality disorder, dissocial personality and psychopathy are significantly different from each other. He says that the overlap between antisocial personality disorder and psychopathy is of the order of 37.5% for the interpersonal aspects of psychopathy and 60% for the behavioural manifestations, meaning that the criteria for antisocial personality disorder are much broader than for psychopathy.

For dissocial personality and psychopathy, Ogloff (2006) says that there is also an overlap of 37.5% between the two constructs with the criteria for dissocial personality being much less comprehensive than those for psychopathy, as measured by the PCL-R.

The psychopathy (PCL-R) criteria are compared to the antisocial personality criteria and the dissocial personality criteria in Table 2 below, for reference.

Table 2 : Comparison of the Criteria for Psychopathy, Anti-social Personality Disorder and Dissocial Personality.

Psychopathy (PCL-R): (Hare 1991)	Anti-Social Personality Disorder: (American Psychiatric Association 1994)	Dissocial Personality: (World Health Organization 1990)
Interpersonal Aspects		
Glibness/superficial charm		
Grandiose sense of self-worth		
Pathological lying	Deceitfulness, as indicated by repeated lying, use of aliases	
Conning/manipulative	Conning others	
Affective Aspects		
Lack of remorse or guilt	Lack of remorse as indicated by indifference to, or rationalising of having hurt, mistreated or stolen from another	Incapacity for guilt and to profit from experience or punishment
Shallow affect /emotion		
Failure to accept responsibility for actions		Marked proneness to blame others or give rationalisations for conflict behaviour
Cold/callous/lack of empathy		Callous unconcern for others feelings/lack of empathy
Lifestyle Aspects		
Need for excitement		
Parasitic lifestyle		
Impulsivity	Impulsivity/failure to plan ahead	
Irresponsibility	Consistent irresponsibility as indicated by persistent failure to work or honour financial obligations	Gross and persistent irresponsibility
Lack of realistic long term goals		
Promiscuous sexual behaviour		Incapacity to maintain enduring relationships
Many short term marital relationships		
Antisocial Aspects		
Poor behavioural control	Irritability and aggressiveness as indicated by repeated physical fights or assaults	Persistent irritability. Low threshold for aggression and violence.
Early behavioural problems		
Juvenile delinquency	Evidence of conduct disorder <15yrs	
Revocation of conditional release		
Criminal versatility	Failure to conform to social norms/lawful behaviour	Disregard for social norms

In a similar manner to the criteria shown in the table above, a Venn diagram of the three overlapping conditions: antisocial personality disorder, psychopathy and sociopathy, based on the literature review conducted here, is shown below in Figure 1. This is a simplified view, based on the majority opinion in the literature and not necessarily a consensus view among psychologists. However, it helps to differentiate between the three similarly defined conditions in the psychological literature for the purposes of clarity for management research. This is the author's attempt at simplification and is not a figure taken directly from the literature on clinical psychology. As this is based on the research and writings of clinical psychologists writing on personality disorders, it has been labelled the Clinical Model of Personality Disorders.

Figure 1: Clinical Model of Personality Disorders

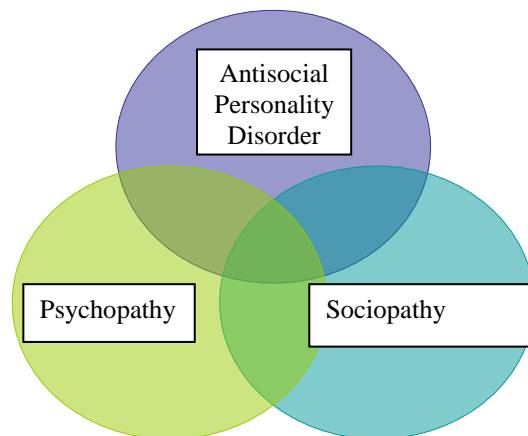


Figure 1 shows that there is an overlap between the disorders but is not meant to illustrate the exact amount of overlap. As described above, some psychopaths may or may not exhibit behaviour consistent with antisocial personality disorder (the area of cross-over between psychopathy and antisocial personality disorder in the Venn diagram above) such as inter-personal violence (Blair et al. 2006).

These anti-social people would tend to be classed as criminal psychopaths. As described in the literature review above, these are the most studied of psychopaths as they are the most often institutionalised in prison. Prison populations have been the most researched group of psychopaths (Lynam, Whiteside & Jones 1999). This is perhaps because of their availability and accessibility to psychologists.

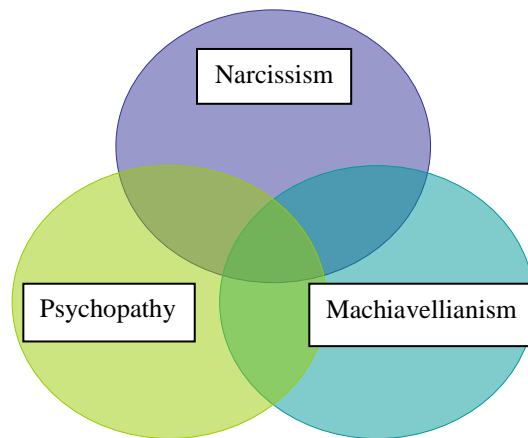
Other psychopaths do not exhibit such anti-social behaviour and these could be called successful psychopaths or Corporate Psychopaths. They have not been the subject of much research as they are passed over by many psychopathy measures that rely on antisocial markers to identify psychopaths (Benning et al. 2003).

Sociopaths, who are defined as being people who have been socialised into behaviour, which is considered immoral or anti-social, may also be psychopathic, but most would have a conscience and so would not be classed as psychopathic in this document, nor by leading researchers into psychopathy such as Robert Hare. People with anti-social personality disorder may be anti-social because they are psychopathic or sociopathic or for some other reason such as being psychotic or as a reaction to early stage parental rejection (Meloy, 2002).

A similar Venn diagram can be drawn for the constructs of Machiavellianism, Narcissism and psychopathy as below. This is based on the research (Paulhus & Williams 2002) that shows that these constructs are overlapping but still distinct from each other. Machiavellianism is the name for a ruthless and selfish approach to management which was supposedly advocated by Niccolo Machiavelli in his treatise 'The Prince' written in the sixteenth century (McGuire & Hutchings 2006).

Figure 2, below, illustrates that there is an overlap between Narcissism, Machiavellianism and Psychopathy based on Paulhus and Williams (2002) work and on a reading of the limited amount of other literature on this subject. As this is based on the research and writings of business academics writing on dysfunctional leadership it has been labelled the Dysfunctional Leadership Model of Personality Disorders.

Figure 2: Dysfunctional Leadership Model of Personality Disorders



This figure (above) of the Dysfunctional Leadership Model of Personality Disorders is meant to show that the constructs overlap, but not the exact extent of the overlap, which is subject to continued debate.

Machiavellianism has commonalities with Corporate Psychopathy in that it has no reference to moral standards and promotes the idea that the end justifies the means. It also advocates a political approach to management including the use of a fraudulent persona when necessary (entailing the use of apparent honesty, charm and tact to gain advantage) and it advocates the use of force if necessary to achieve desired ends (McGuire & Hutchings 2006).

Machiavellianism is thus reportedly the presence of high levels of manipulative behaviour in a personality and is based on Richard Christie's selection of personality attributes taken from Machiavelli's books and subsequently refined into a twenty point measure of personality (Paulhus and Williams, 2002; Singhapakdi and Vitell, 1992; Schepers, 2003).

Niccolo Machiavelli was a 16th century Italian political strategist who based his writings on observations of his patron, Cesare Borgia, and who advocated the use of power as a tool, recommending that leaders be ruthless like a lion and cunning like a fox (Allio 2007). Based on Machiavelli's writings, researchers have characterised a Machiavellian as being someone who has, a lack of concern with conventional morality, a lack of interpersonal affect, a lack of gross psychopathology and low ideological commitment and who was willing and able to manipulate others through any means including deceit (McHoskey, Worzel & Szyarto 1998). This definition does not imply a lack of conscience, as displayed by psychopaths but it has broad similarities to many definitions of psychopathy. Machiavellians reportedly pursue strategies that promote self-interest, using deception, flattery and emotional detachment to manipulate and exploit social and interpersonal relationships to their own ends (Jakobwitz & Egan 2005). Machiavellianism has been described as a strategy of socially manipulating others for personal gain (MacNeil & Holden 2006).

This measure is referred to as the Machiavellian or 'Mach' Scale and is scored on a six point Likert scale to give a range of possible scores from 40 to 160 (Schepers 2003). High 'Machs' tend to detach themselves from ethical considerations and to manipulate and use others to profit themselves (Schepers 2003). Other researchers claim that there is more overlap than Paulhus and Williams (2002) claim, between these three constructs (Machiavellianism, narcissism and psychopathy), although their research was based on a relatively small sample size (Jakobwitz & Egan 2005). Earlier researchers claimed that there is such an overlap between Machiavellianism and psychopathy that they are essentially the same construct (McHoskey, Worzel & Szyarto 1998).

However, according to McHoskey, academic interest in Machiavellianism reportedly peaked in 1982 whereas it is evident that research into psychopathy continues strongly and this theme of the two constructs being essentially the same, has been sidelined by researchers, as they concentrate on the reliability and validity of psychopathy measures.

McHoskey and colleagues reported that the two areas of research (Machiavellianism and psychopathy) were taking part in two different areas of psychology and clinical practice and that while hundreds of papers were produced on each subject only five papers linked the two constructs (McHoskey, Worzel & Szyarto 1998).

Machiavellianism, Narcissism and psychopathy, have been described as being the 'dark triad' of malevolent personalities; by Paulhus and Williams (2002). Referring to past research they cite evidence for the overlap of Machiavellianism with psychopathy, the overlap of Narcissism and psychopathy, and the overlap of Machiavellianism and Narcissism (Paulhus & Williams 2002). Based on these overlaps, they wanted to test whether the overlap was total, i.e. that the three constructs were equivalent. They therefore measured the three constructs among a sample of 245 undergraduate psychology students in one university in the USA.

Paulhus and Williams then mapped the three measures against other measures of the 'big five' personality factors; extraversion, agreeableness, conscientiousness, neuroticism and openness, as well as to ratings of intelligence and of self over-claiming of talents and abilities. They found that while the three key measures overlapped considerably, the maximum inter-correlation was .50, which was between Narcissism and psychopathy, meaning that they cannot be considered as equivalent measures. The inter-correlation between Machiavellianism and psychopathy was .31 and between Narcissism and Machiavellianism was .25 (Paulhus & Williams 2002).

2.3 The Origins of Psychopathy

2.3.1 The Origins of Psychopathy

Hare says that psychopathy is a syndrome; a collection of characteristics which together make up a psychopath. Other researchers accept this viewpoint (Blair et al. 2006). However, Hare says that it is not known definitively whether this syndrome stems from biological or environmental factors and is probably the result of an interplay of both (Hare 1994). A debate continues over whether nature or nurture is more responsible for the development of psychopaths, with some commentators saying that the balance of evidence leans towards the view that the bio-psychological is most important, but in ways that are yet to be precisely identified (Blair et al. 2006). Researchers cite evidence that frontal brain lobe dysfunction is an example of a neurological abnormality that accounts for the origins of psychopathy, as the frontal lobe is thought to be the centre of an individual's executive (self) governance (Vaughn & Howard 2005; Kiehl et al. 2004). Somehow internal controls and emotions are undeveloped and a conscience is not present in the individuals concerned. Research (Nadis 1995) indicates that a neurophysiologic factor may be affecting psychopaths and that some areas of their brains may be undeveloped or under-active. Other psychopathy research suggests that psychopaths may not be able to engage both hemispheres of the brain (Bernstein et al. 2000) as well as non-psychopaths and this again suggests a neurological factor is responsible.

Researchers thus strongly suspect that psychopathy is associated with functional anomalies in the brain circuitry that is involved in linguistic and affective (emotional) processing (Intrator et al., 1997, Kiehl et al., 2001). The areas of the brain sometimes referred to as the 'social brain', including the areas of the amygdala, hippocampus and orbit frontal regions have been identified as being under-active in psychopaths whereas the more intellectual or cognitive areas are brought into play to process affective words and stimuli (Soderstrom 2003).

However, in a review of twenty neuro-imaging studies in psychopathy the researchers involved rightly point out that many of the initial findings have not been replicated and that the biological basis of psychopathy remains to be elucidated (Pridmore, Chambers & McArthur 2005). More recent research, - where psychopaths and non-psychopaths were asked to detect simple, novel, target auditory stimuli - found differences in response that again implicate temporal lobe abnormalities in psychopathy. However, the researchers admit that the evidence for this is indirect and inconclusive (Kiehl et al. 2006). The general agreement is that some dysfunction of the amygdala and/or orbito-frontal cortex is probably involved and that the other developmental and environmental pathways of psychopathy are not fully understood (Vien & Beech 2006).

It should also be pointed out that the presence of brain abnormalities does not necessarily mean that the causal direction is established, it could be that learning and environmental factors contribute to changes in brain chemistry over time. Childhood neglect with associated lack of sensory input in infancy has, for example, been associated with physiological changes in brain size and in metabolic activity in the orbito-frontal gyrus and amygdala areas of the brain (Alwin et al. 2006).

Also, it is evident that, at least with criminal psychopaths, there is a co-morbidity of psychopathy with alcohol and drug abuse (Reardon, Lang & Patrick 2002) and these can affect brain chemistry, meaning that it is more difficult to identify cause and affect relationships in research data (Howard & McCullagh 2007). Researchers can control for this by matching samples on key characteristics like history of alcohol abuse and this is what Howard and McCullagh (2007) did in their research looking at neuro-affective processing in criminal psychopaths. They comment however that the building into research of controls for alcohol abuse is commonly lacking in biophysical psychopathy research.

Nonetheless, other research into brain chemistry also indicates a physical aspect to psychopathy and one study showed a correlation between increased triiodothyronine and decreased thyroxin in psychopathic subjects indicating a possible pathophysiological mechanism at work (Soderstrom & Forsman 2004).

Other researchers suggest that psychopaths have difficulty in processing non-dominant cues in their nexus of thoughts and that they can only concentrate on a dominant thought to the exclusion of thoughts that may have a more inhibiting influence on their behaviour (Maccoon & Newman 2006). These researchers rely, as usual, on studies of criminal psychopaths for their analysis and so their suggestions may not be appropriate with regard to more successful Corporate Psychopaths.

Indeed recent research into successful versus unsuccessful psychopaths reinforces the view that these are two distinct sub-groups of psychopaths (Yang et al. 2005). Using magnetic resonance imaging this research found that the prefrontal cortex volume of grey matter (i.e. not white matter or total brain volume) was less in unsuccessful psychopaths compared to the volume in non-psychopaths and successful psychopaths. This suggests that prefrontal brain structural impairment of some kind is a factor in psychopathy. Researchers conclude that psychopaths are fundamentally different from non-psychopaths in ways that are yet to be fully elucidated and understood but that include some enhanced abilities such as the ability to con and manipulate others (Harris et al. 2007).

Other researchers have found that environmental factors such as early stage parental rejection, predict early onset violent criminality which is emblematic of psychopathic behaviour (Meloy 2002). Others report that ineffective parenting, which is poor and inconsistent parenting, is associated with impulsivity and narcissistic traits in Hispanic females (Vitacco et al. 2003). However, they also found that ineffective parenting in their study did not associate with callousness. Callousness is arguably a more fundamental element of psychopathy than impulsivity and narcissistic traits are, and the researchers themselves admit that callousness is a critical construct to psychopathy (Vitacco et al. 2003). This research is inconsistent in its findings therefore and far from conclusive in terms of identifying possible causes of psychopathy.

Research in 1993 by Intrator, with Hare collaborating suggests a physical, neurological factor at work (Kaihl 1996). The researchers used an emotional language test that measured brain activity reactions to neutral words and emotionally-loaded words after injecting test subjects with a radioactive tracer and then scanning colour images of their brains. Using a sample of 8 psychopaths and 9 non-psychopaths, and with psychopathy being defined by the PCL-R using a cut-off score of 25 (rather than the clinical cut-off of 30), the researchers found differences in the brain activations (as measured by regionalised blood flow) of the psychopaths compared to non-psychopaths. This was particularly in the areas around the ventromedial frontal cortex and amygdala (Intrator et al. 1997). The ventromedial frontal cortex apparently plays a crucial role in controlling impulses and long-term planning and is involved in the formation of linkages between factual knowledge and bio-regulation (Blair 2001b). The amygdala is often described as the seat of emotion and it feeds into the threat-response system of the brain concerning a reaction of flight or fight (Blair 2001a).

Counter-intuitively, the researchers found greater brain activation in psychopaths compared to non-psychopaths (Intrator et al. 1997). They speculated that psychopaths may need more brain resources to process emotional words, because they do not have the immediate emotional knowledge that non-psychopaths have, and must therefore process the words intellectually in order to gather their emotional meaning. The researchers concluded that the brain processes associated with the processing of words are different in psychopaths compared to non-psychopaths and that psychopaths do not differentiate between neutral and emotional words in the same way that normal people do (Intrator et al. 1997).

Other researchers make the same conclusion and found in an experimental study that psychopaths do not understand or make effective use of the emotional content of language. Here the experimental task was to sort metaphorical statements into groups that were assigned positive or negative emotional content (Herve, Hayes & Hare 2001).

Psychopaths were found to make more sorting errors than non-psychopaths and for example, one psychopath assigned a positive connotation to the metaphorical statement “man is a worm that lives on the corpse of the earth” and a negative connotation to the metaphorical statement “love is an antidote for the world’s ills”. The researchers noted that the psychopaths seemed to know what the metaphors meant at a literal or rational level but missed the affective aspects of the meanings (Herve, Hayes & Hare 2001).

Another study of brain activity using magnetic resonance imaging also found that the amygdala of psychopaths was un-reactive to emotional stimuli relative to non-psychopaths (Birbaumer et al. 2005). Similar research by other researchers (Bernstein et al., 2000; Herpertz et al., 2001; Seymour, 2006; Stout, 2005a) has found similar findings and researchers report that even using basic measuring devices like sweat measurement instruments, can help to identify psychopaths (Louth et al. 1998). Psychopaths do not process emotional stimuli in a normal way which makes them adept at deception and lying, and for example they do not sweat at the sight of violent pictures of mutilated faces whereas everyone else does sweat slightly at the sight of these pictures (Louth et al. 1998). Psychopaths seem to process the information without emotion.

Other researchers have also found evidence that supports a bio-physical origin to psychopathy (Loney et al. 2006). In this research male adolescents with pronounced callous-unemotional traits (symptomatic of psychopathy) were found to have lower levels of cortisol than other adolescents. Cortisol is an emotional or stress related hormone that indicates activity in the hypothalamic-pituitary-adrenal axis (Loney et al. 2006). Similarly, recently published research involving a large sample of twins found that two thirds of the difference between extremely callous-unemotional children and normal children could be explained genetically (Viding et al. 2005). Again this indicates that there is a physical or biological cause to the syndrome of psychopathy.

Further research among adolescent male twins also showed that there is a genetic influence rather than an environmental influence contributing to the existence of psychopathy (Taylor et al. 2003). Other research among twins showed that males with high antisocial tendencies exhibited deficient overall skin conductance magnitudes when shown pictures of neutral, positive and negative images, compared to males in a control group, and this again argues for a physical factor in psychopathy (Benning, Patrick & Iacono 2005). Such research among such identical (monozygotic) and non-identical (dizygotic) twins makes it easier for researchers to differentiate between factors that are probably genetic and factors that are probably environmental in nature because the genetic and environmental similarities of the twins are largely known beforehand. It is assumed that identical twin similarity owes more to genetic similarity rather than similarity in the environment compared to non-identical twin similarity. (Identical twins share 100 per cent of their genes while non-identical twins only share 50 per cent). This research found that there was a common genetic influence on the two major trait dimensions of psychopathy and this suggests that psychopathic behaviour is largely inherited rather than environmentally driven (Benning, Patrick & Iacono 2005).

Yet further research has found that environmental factors also affect psychopathy (Marshall & Cooke 1999) and it is probably an interplay of nature and nurture that determines how psychopathy is expressed in behaviour (Hare 1999a). In terms of violent psychopaths the link between early cruelty to animals and later violence toward humans has been documented by the popular press as well as psychiatrists and law enforcement officials (Dadds, Whiting & Hawes 2006). Indeed the Federal Bureau of Investigation lists animal abuse as one of three symptoms that predict the development of a criminal psychopath. Researchers in this area have found that a physically abusive person's first target is often an animal in the home and that the second target is usually their spouse or child. It is widely reported that childhood cruelty to animals is an early marker of the propensity for later violence (Dadds, Whiting & Hawes 2006). Childhood manifestations of psychopathy are reported to include not only patterns of hurting or killing animals, but also casual lying, indifference to the feelings of others, petty theft, bullying and aggression, and vandalism (Hare 1999a).

Corporate Psychopaths, with their often better social background, upbringing and education are harder to detect than criminal psychopaths because of their lack of overt anti-social personality traits and their charm and manipulateness (Hare 1999a). In line with this hypothesis researchers suggest that people from less anti-social backgrounds will have less activated anti-social responses than those from more anti-social backgrounds, suggesting that psychopaths from good social backgrounds will be less likely to offend in anti-social ways than others (Maccoon & Newman 2006). However, some clues towards identifying them can be drawn from their speech patterns and speech reactions to emotional stimuli (Louth et al. 1998). Louth et al conducted a study into the reasons for the ability of psychopaths to lie so convincingly. They found that male psychopaths were more quietly spoken than non-psychopaths and the researchers hypothesised that this was to draw the listener into the personal space of the psychopath so that they could use their non-verbal communication skills such as hand gestures and prolonged eye contact to convince the listener of their sincerity.

Psychopaths tend to treat people like objects to be manipulated and used, and this lack of emotional involvement with or commitment to others gives a clue as to the possible origins of psychopathy (Hare 1999b). Researchers have noted that psychopaths have been shown to treat emotional words like non-emotional words in terms of their intellectual and affective response to them. Also, that their voice levels did not differ when verbalising such words, whereas the voice levels of non-psychopaths did vary when verbalising the emotional words. The researchers hypothesise that the lack of emotional response in psychopaths allows them to lie without the tell-tale signs that a non-psychopath would display out of nervousness or fear of being caught out (Louth et al. 1998). The researchers in this study found that psychopaths seemed oblivious to the affective nuances of emotional words and treated them as devoid of emotional content. Other researchers report similar findings and have found, for example, that psychopathic boys cannot recognise fear in others' voices (Blair et al. 2005).

An experiment looked at the emotional reactions of psychopaths (Nadis 1995). This showed that they paid as much attention to a picture of a woman who looked like she had been run over by a car, and who had blood oozing out of her head, as they did to a picture of a woman who was just riding a bike in front of cars. Normal people remembered the emotionally worrying picture of the bleeding woman in more detail than they did the more emotionally neutral pictures (Christianson et al. 1996). Psychopaths treated both pictures in the same rational, unworried way and recalled the central emotional aspects of the picture as well as they did the emotionally neutral peripheral aspects. This research indicates that a neurophysiologic factor may be affecting psychopaths and that some areas of their brains may be undeveloped or under-active (Nadis 1995; Christianson et al. 1996).

It thus appears to be well established that psychopaths respond differently to emotional stimuli than normal people do. They do not become apprehensive before electric shocks are delivered and the area of the brain known as the amygdala does not activate as much in psychopaths as in normal people in response to emotional stimuli. A study using magnetic resonance imaging found that the amygdala of psychopaths does not react to emotional stimuli as much as it does with non-psychopaths (Birbaumer et al. 2005). Similar research has led some researchers to the conclusion that the amygdala is the main area of dysfunction in psychopaths (Blair et al. 2005).

Another study using magnetic resonance imaging also showed that psychopaths appear to use non-emotional, cognitive areas of the brain (outside the limbic system) to process emotional words more than non-psychopaths do, indicating that the emotional meaning of the words used is not as immediately accessible to psychopaths as to non-psychopaths (Kiehl et al. 2001). This was said to be consistent with the hypothesis that psychopaths need to use alternative cognitive operations to process affective material (Pridmore, Chambers & McArthur 2005). Psychopaths also showed less affect related activity in the areas of the amygdala, parahippocampal gyrus and bilateral anterior superior temporal gyrus than did non-psychopaths (Kiehl et al. 2001).

These differences were reported to be present in the absence of any overt structural abnormalities in the brains of psychopaths (Kiehl et al. 2001).

Stout reports along similar lines, and says that psychopaths respond to emotionally charged words the same as they do to neutral words (Stout 2005a). This is a response usual for intellectual problems rather than for emotional issues and suggests that psychopaths primarily react to emotional issues as intellectual challenges rather than as emotional issues. In a similar way, other researchers found temporal lobe abnormalities in semantic processing by criminal psychopaths, supporting the theory that psychopathy is associated with right brain hemisphere abnormalities. Thus it may be a biological predisposition which when subject to an adverse social environment creates the conditions necessary for the development of a psychopath (Kirkman 2005). The social environment, such as educational opportunities and family background may determine how the psychopathy becomes manifested as either criminal psychopathy or more successful forms such as corporate psychopathy.

This neurobiological research into psychopathy has been influenced by the growing belief that psychopaths are biologically different to other people in terms of the brain structure and/or functioning. It has also been influenced by the availability of new technological breakthroughs in terms of the ability to look at specialised areas of the brain in greater details and with more precision than has previously been the case; and by the belief that certain cerebral functions are located in relatively specific areas of the brain (Vien & Beech 2006).

In terms of the origins of psychopathy then, recent researchers point out that with the increasing number of neuro-imaging studies being conducted and presented in psychopathy research, the evidence for a neural base for the disorder has been increasing in recent times (Yang & Raine 2008). However, they also point out that directional causality has not been established and that it may be a psychopathic lifestyle that causes changes in the brain rather than the other way around (Yang & Raine 2008).

Another recent review of the literature on structural brain abnormalities in psychopaths outlined a variety of research findings that identified a reduction in the prefrontal grey matter of the brain in psychopaths. It also identified grey matter loss in the right superior temporal gyrus, amygdala volume loss, a decrease in posterior hippocampal volume, an exaggerated structural hippocampal asymmetry, and an increase in callosal white matter volume in psychopaths (Weber et al. 2008). This review concluded that while the literature suggests that psychopathy is associated with brain abnormalities in a prefrontal-temporo-limbic circuit, (the regions of the brain that are involved, among other things, in emotional and learning processes) no causal inference can yet be drawn from this. The reviewers concluded that the documented brain abnormalities in psychopaths are not sufficient to explain psychopathy (Weber et al. 2008).

As discussed above, research into the possible causes of psychopathy has concluded that it is probably a mixture of genetic and environmental factors that cause it (Marshall & Cooke 1999). Hare agrees, but tends to think that it is the societal factors which influence the way psychopathy is expressed in behaviour rather than their being a direct cause (Hare 1994). Other leading researchers concur with this viewpoint and say that environmental factors such as family background probably influence how psychopathy is manifested in behaviour but that such factors are not the cause of psychopathy (Blair et al. 2006).

In conclusion, it appears that leading researchers in the field of psychopathy are coming down on the side of nature rather than nurture concerning the origin of psychopathy. They say that there is a stronger genetic cause rather than a social one, and that the genetic influence leads to the emotional dysfunction which appears to be centred around disruption in the amygdala and orbital/ventrolateral frontal cortex of the brain (Blair et al. 2006).

2.4 Psychopaths and the Effects of Culture

Stout (2005) argues that culture does influence the prevalence and behaviour of psychopaths. Societies such as the US, which promote and idealise individualism allow, says Stout, the development of anti-social behaviour patterns and a 'me-first' attitude. These societies also facilitate the disguising of such behaviour because it blends in more readily with the accepted norms of society, where personal advancement and self-fulfilment are seen as noble and desirable aims. Stout agrees with Hare's suggestion that North American society is moving in the direction of permitting, reinforcing and in some instances valuing some traits such as impulsivity, irresponsibility and lack of remorse. Stout says that such Western societies allow and encourage attitudes devoted to the pursuit of domination of others.

In Australia, commentators on psychopaths in organisations say that an organisational culture that promotes the hiring of aggressive employees who are prepared to do anything to achieve corporate ambitions, may be encouraging Corporate Psychopaths to apply for such positions (Clarke 2005). The wording of Australian job advertisements has also been identified as indicating a corporate culture that encourages psychopaths (Newby 2005).

Research from the UK seems to confirm this analysis that culture influences psychopathy, to some extent. This is because the researchers concerned found that while the structure of the syndrome of psychopathy was consistent across samples in the UK and USA, the PCL-R measurement tool gave scores that were not directly comparable, and which were, on average, two points lower in the UK than in the USA. UK Scores were especially lower on the interpersonal features of the checklist (Cooke et al. 2005). These researchers concluded that the same items loaded on the same factors in the same way across the two countries and that the symptoms of psychopathy can be regarded as having stability across the two cultures sampled (Cooke et al. 2005).

Other researchers agree with the view expressed by Hare and Stout, that culture does influence the prevalence and behaviour of psychopaths. They claim that Western society is much more materialistic and competitive than it was twenty years ago and that this may promote psychopathic traits and Machiavellianism (Jakobwitz & Egan 2005).

Hare agrees with this view and says that modern society values some of the traits associated with psychopathy, such as egocentricity, lack of concern for others, manipulateness and superficiality. He says that this makes it easy for psychopaths to blend in with the rest of the people in society and facilitates their entry into business organisations, politics, government and other social structures (Hare 1996; Hare 1999a).

Stout (2005) argues that cultures which promote the advancement of the group as a whole rather than individuals within it and which teach that all living things are interconnected, may provide stronger environmental constraints to the psychopath than more individualistic western societies. Hofstede, based on a study of fifty countries, identified four major dimensions on which to classify national cultures. These were individualism/collectivism, masculinity/femininity, power distance and uncertainty avoidance (Hofstede 1991; Hofstede 2001; Hofstede 1998). He conceptualised countries such as the USA to be individualistic in nature and to value personal performance whereas collectivist countries, such as Japan, value group performance more. This individualism is reported to promote a lack of constraints on the development and expression of psychopathic traits (Stout 2005b).

In a review of the literature on psychopathy, one researcher points out that he previously calculated a spearman rank coefficient of 0.5 between a nation's individualism and its per capita rate for arrest for robbery (Walters 2004). This appears to affirm the view that cultural influences are important in how behaviour manifests itself. Psychopaths do have a need to 'fit in' with their society at a face level for them to be able to operate successfully. Fitting in with group culture means that the adapting of one's behaviour to group norms and expectations is necessary.

Stout uses the example of Taiwan, a Confucian and Buddhist culture, and says that levels of anti-social personality disorder are far lower there, (at up to just 0.14%) than they are in Western cultures. Researchers have called for further cross-cultural research into psychopathy to address the current lack of research in this area (Levenson, Kiehl & Fitzpatrick 1995).

In a paper from Western authors in 1982, psychopaths were described as being produced by the evolutionary pressures of modern life. The authors describe how psychopaths seem to have many traits often seen as desirable by others; namely an untroubled self-confidence, good social skills and attractiveness to the opposite sex (Ray & Ray 1982).

They say that in some ways psychopaths have advantages over other people because they are relatively immune from anxiety. They are not held back by matters of conscience, or by emotional attachment to others. They are also less vulnerable to the censure and judgement of others and cannot imagine that other people do not think along similar lines as themselves (Tamayo & Raymond 1977). The effects of culture then are not so much internalised, because psychopaths may be aware of societal expectations but are not disturbed by their failure to live up to these expectations (Tamayo & Raymond 1977), but rather culture defines the range, depth and breadth of external mechanisms which may limit the extent a psychopath can express his or her personality.

In terms of differences in levels of psychopathy among ethnic groups from the same culture, little has been specifically researched. However, a meta-analysis of existing studies involving re-analysis of data than could be separated by ethnic group, in twenty-one studies involving 8,890 people was undertaken. It found that blacks and whites in the USA do not meaningfully differ in their levels of psychopathy, as measured by the PCL-R; which the researchers recognised as the gold standard for such assessments (Skeem et al., 2004; Morana et al., 2005; Harris et al., 2007).

Other researchers point out that there are no compelling reasons to expect psychopathy to differ across cultures (Hobson & Shine 1998). Hare's PCL-R has reportedly been used in various countries including Canada, the USA, the UK, New Zealand, Australia, Belgium, the Netherlands, Denmark, Sweden, Norway, China, Hong-Kong, Finland and Germany and was recently translated for use in Brazil (Morana, Arboleda-Florez & Camara 2005). This supports the view that the symptoms of psychopathy have some stability across different countries.

In Japan, researchers have found evidence that supports the ability to generalize about the prevalence of psychopathy. This is from studies of the relationship between psychopathy and hypo-arousal in reaction to an emotionally evocative stimulus (Osumi et al. 2007) indicating that the possible neurological correlates of psychopathy are common across cultures. In Singapore recent research found that there was a neuro-affective processing deficit among criminal psychopaths in a prison sample, again indicating that the possible neurological correlates of psychopathy are common across cultures. As an aside, the researchers said that the PCL-R was reliable and valid as used in their Singaporean research (Howard & McCullagh 2007).

Research in Sweden among sub clinical psychopaths replicated a US study and found that aberrant self-promotion, a sub clinical form of psychopathy, was found in Sweden as well as in the US but that Swedish subjects scored less on measures of narcissism than US subjects did (Pethman & Erlandsson 2002). The researchers speculate that this may be because the Swedish ideal person would be highly altruistic. The US ideal person would be more assertive and tough, as US society values strong individuality, and the researchers say that these cultural factors have an influence on the expression of psychopathy (Pethman & Erlandsson 2002).

Other researchers have reported that small observed differences in the assessment of psychopathy across cultures were not due to rater bias and so were more likely to be due to differences in how the disorder is expressed in the different cultures (Scottish and Canadian) concerned (Cooke, Michie & Hart 2004).

These researchers call for further research into the impact of cultural processes on the expression of psychopathy (Cooke, Michie & Hart 2004). It is logical to hypothesise from their tentative conclusions that differences in corporate culture may also influence how Corporate Psychopaths are able to express their psychopathy in their corporate behaviour. The extent to which corporate culture is a moderator of Corporate Psychopathy is a possible area of fruitful research for management researchers. Other organisational variables may well also be moderators of Corporate Psychopathy, but given the early stages of work in this area, these possibilities are simply identified here, rather than being explicitly tested in this research. For example, it may be that a highly collegial and close-knit working group, provides an organisational culture that makes it difficult or even impossible for a Corporate Psychopath to exercise their will. Such workplace environments may result in Corporate Psychopaths not being attracted to them. On the other hand, highly distant, large and autocratic styles of organisations and their accompanying cultures may be the environments that provide fertile grounds for Corporate Psychopaths to work in.

As discussed above, differences in the rate of psychopathy between different countries have been hypothesised to stem from cultural differences, with the individualism of North American, and especially of USA culture, being said to enable the free expression of psychopathic behaviour. More collectivist cultures are said to suppress the overt expression of the anti-social aspects of the syndrome (Wernke & Huss 2008; Cooke et al. 2005). Individualistic cultures are said to create competitiveness and a tendency for shallowness and selfishness (Wernke & Huss 2008). However, recently researchers have pointed out that the USA criminal justice system incarcerates psychopaths at much higher rates than other countries do because it penalises property crimes in particular, such as car theft and burglary, and these are the types of impulsive crimes most commonly committed by psychopaths. This reportedly leads to the prison populations in the USA being more populated with psychopaths than those in other countries. This has the effect of making it appear that the USA has a higher incidence of psychopaths than other countries. However, the rate may be exaggerated because of the different rates of imprisonment across different countries (Wernke & Huss 2008). This is an interesting argument but one that remains to be proven conclusively.

2.5 Psychopaths and Organisations

This section of chapter two of this thesis seeks to explore and explain how Corporate Psychopaths engage with and thrive in organisations.

2.5.1 Psychopaths and Organisations

Psychologists have speculated that Corporate Psychopaths are good at portraying the skills which organisational interviewers and managers are looking for, and so may be better at gaining promotions within corporations than other people are. Research from Edens and his colleagues seems to confirm this view because they found that people with higher psychopathy scores were better at managing their image than people with lower psychopathy scores (Edens et al. 2001). Other researchers also say that individuals within companies may be promoted because of a seemingly high level of self-confidence and optimism which look like good levels of emotional intelligence, but that this self-confidence may actually be selfish arrogance and the optimism may have nothing to do with possessing any emotional intelligence (Holian 2006).

Several commentators have hypothesised that Corporate Psychopaths may thus be more commonly found at the higher levels of a corporation than at the lower levels (Clarke 2005; Boddy 2006a). Paul Babiak, a US organisational psychologist, reported that psychopaths tend to rise quickly in organisations thanks to their manipulative charisma, single-minded determination and near-complete lack of remorse about who they may hurt in their ascent to the top of the organisational hierarchy (Selamat 2004). He claims that their intelligence and well developed social skills permit them to present a façade of normalcy, which enables them to get what they want with relative impunity.

Corporate Psychopaths have been argued to be more motivated and better equipped than other managers are, to rise to high corporate positions. They are more motivated because they crave the power, money and prestige that senior managerial positions bring and they are better equipped because they are ruthless, lack empathy (Maibom 2005; Chapman, Gremore & Farmer 2003), are prepared to lie and they have fewer other claims on their time because of a lower number of emotional attachments than normal people (Maibom 2005). Other papers have suggested that Corporate Psychopaths are a threat to business performance and longevity because they put their own interests before those of the firm (Boddy 2006b). Their presence at senior levels of organisations has potentially negative implications for how corporations are managed and for how resources within corporations are used.

Another researcher found that non-institutionalised psychopaths could and would delay gratification if they needed to and this argues that some psychopaths may have more self-control than others (Widom 1977). Other leading commentators agree with this and say that psychopaths are not necessarily impulsive in their behaviour. Another article claims that Corporate Psychopaths find wealth and success as highly manipulative corporate careerists and have a profound lack of empathy and remorse for the harm they do others (Kaihla 1996). One commentator says that the world of business rewards people who have these types of psychopathic traits and that common sense suggests that some of these people occupy high corporate positions, but he declined to name any CEOs showing such signs (McConnell 2004). Paul Babiak says that psychopaths have the ability to demonstrate the traits that organisations need and can present a charming façade and look and sound like an ideal leader but actually be manipulative and deceitful. These attributes may facilitate their entrenchment, the ability to gain more power through informal mechanisms and through increased popularity and this consolidation of power in turn can facilitate further advancement in the corporate hierarchy (Brockmann et al. 2004). These theories led to the hypothesis explicitly stated at the end of this chapter; that Corporate Psychopaths may be more common in terms of their incidence, the higher up one goes in an organisation.

2.5.2 Why Psychopaths Work for Corporations

Corporate Psychopaths Work for Corporations because they are attracted by positions of power. Corporate Psychopaths are motivated by a desire to win, a desire for power and a desire to gain wealth and prestige (Hercz 2001; Babiak & Hare 2006).

These elements can all be found in working for corporations and this is why Corporate Psychopaths are drawn to them. Hare says that they can be found in corporate positions which have power and control over other people and where the opportunity for self-enrichment is present (Babiak & Hare 2006). Clarke agrees with this and says that Corporate Psychopaths aim to get to the top of organisations to gain the financial rewards and power this brings (Clarke 2007). Further evidence for this view comes from research by psychologists, Board and Fritzon (2005). In a small study (n=39) of senior British executives, researched via interviews and personality tests, the researchers found that these high level British executives were as likely or even more likely to display Hare's psychopathic personality traits as criminals were. They dubbed these high level executives "successful psychopaths" as opposed to the "unsuccessful psychopaths" who were to be found in prisons (Board & Fritzon 2005).

This terminology has been adopted by other researchers as well (Yang et al. 2005) with successful psychopaths commonly described as being simply those without a criminal past and unsuccessful psychopaths being those with a criminal past (Benning, Patrick & Iacono 2005). Researchers acknowledge that there is no doubt that many psychopaths have never been imprisoned (Levenson, Kiehl & Fitzpatrick 1995; Skeem, Mulvey & Grisso 2003). These are the psychopaths, working successfully with corporations, who are the group of interest in this current research.

2.5.3 Why do Organisations Hire Psychopaths

According to Babiak, Corporate Psychopaths are good at manipulating others and so can positively influence those who interview them for jobs and thus appear to be ideal candidates. Companies are reported to want people who are energetic, charming and fast-moving and psychopaths can appear to be this way and can present themselves in a good light because of their ability to tell interesting stories about themselves. Babiak says that organisations going through rapid change are ideal environments for Corporate Psychopaths because psychopaths have no difficulties dealing with the consequences of rapid change (e.g. no emotional ties to other employees) and they find such an environment stimulating and conveniently chaotic for them to easily cover up their activities if needed (Babiak & Hare 2006). Hare says that Corporate Psychopaths look and dress like any other business people, they can be persuasive and fun to be around and so are able to do well at recruitment interviews. Other researchers confirm that psychopaths can present themselves as likeable and personally attractive (Mahaffey & Marcus 2006). Corporate Psychopaths make people think that the feelings of friendship and loyalty they evoke in others are reciprocated. It doesn't usually occur to people that this may not be the case and this makes it easy for Corporate Psychopaths to be accepted. Elsewhere Corporate Psychopaths are described as being paradoxically likeable, (Taylor et al. 2003) perhaps because of their charm and ability to look exciting and they are good at telling people what they want to hear (Clarke 2007). This facilitates their being hired in the first place as well as their subsequent rise in the corporation.

Criminal psychopaths are described by researchers as being exceptionally skilled at working the system to their advantage and at, for example, securing conditional release from prison (Hobson & Shine 1998). It can be hypothesised that if criminal psychopaths can con and manipulate the well regulated and controlled events involved in appearing before expert parole boards then Corporate Psychopaths can do the same with less regulated interview panels with relative ease.

2.6 Corporate Psychopaths and the Corporate Hierarchy

2.6.1 How Corporate Psychopaths Get Into Organisations

Corporate Psychopaths are able to get into organisations because they make a distinctly positive impression when first met (Cleckley 1988). They appear alert, friendly, easy to get along with and talk to, of high ability, emotionally well-adjusted and reasonable and these traits make them attractive to those in charge of hiring staff within organisations. Cleckley also said that psychopaths appear to respond to questions with answers that appear to demonstrate healthy ambitions, warmth towards significant others like family and children and the quality of loyalty (Cleckley 1988). They appear to be free from neuroses and to be well-adjusted with an admirable set of personal values.

They present themselves as calm and poised and look totally reliable, this makes their promises for the future look trustworthy and authentic (Cleckley 1988). Psychopaths can put forward well-structured, coherent ethical arguments involving high-order reasoning skills and presenting unimpaired judgement. In light of this, Cleckley stated that it is from their actions rather than their verbalisations that they can be identified (Cleckley 1988), and this makes them look like ideal job applicants at the interview stage of hiring people. Researchers have found that the psychopathy traits of manipulateness and cold-heartedness are the least discernible to others and that this can facilitate a psychopath appearing fun loving and interpersonally attractive. This would ease their entry into organisations and their rise through the ranks of management giving them opportunities to exploit their positions for their own ends (Mahaffey & Marcus 2006). Corporate Psychopaths' charm in particular means that they come across well at job interviews and promotion interviews and inspire people to have confidence in them and they can thus enter and do well in organisations and corporations (Ray & Ray 1982).

Clarke suggests that organisations may be rewarding some psychopathic behaviour in their selection and performance management procedures. In looking for thrusting, ambitious employees who are willing to get a job done at any cost they may be encouraging ruthless psychopaths to seek employment with them (Newby 2005). Corporate Psychopaths also present the traits of intelligence and success to which many people aspire (Ray & Ray 1982) and they thus present themselves as accomplished and desirable employees. Being accomplished liars (Kirkman 2005) helps them in obtaining the jobs they want.

Psychopaths are aware of the need that people have to be liked (Hofmann & Hasebrook 2004), and are able to use this by presenting themselves as people who can help, befriend and aid others. According to evolutionary psychologists (Hofmann & Hasebrook 2004) humans like to be liked and approved of in order to gain social advantages, supportive relationships from parents and friends and to attract mates (e.g. spouses). Corporate Psychopaths thus make themselves attractive to know and this facilitates their generating support networks for themselves. Their friends, family and patrons do not realise at this stage that to Corporate Psychopaths, they are all extremely expendable and that psychopaths do not develop genuine warm friendships with others (Thomas-Peter 1991).

Once inside an organisation, Corporate Psychopaths can reportedly survive for a long time before being discovered, during which time they can establish defences for themselves to protect their positions (Loizos 2005). Babiak says psychopaths tend to rise quickly in organisations because of their manipulative charisma and their sheer determination to get to the top (Selamat 2004). Babiak says that their intelligence and social skills permit Corporate Psychopaths to present a veneer of normalcy, which enables them to get what they want. Hare reportedly says that once Corporate Psychopaths are inside an organisation they go about planning their rise to the top (Gettler 2003). Psychopaths have a reported talent for using other people and for concealing their true motives through a combination of ingratiating ways and a façade of normality (Ullman 2006). Their polish and cool decisiveness can make them seem like ideal leaders (McCormick & Burch 2005).

They identify a potential support network of patrons who can help them, identify pawns who can be manipulated and they also identify 'police' (auditors, security, human resources personnel) who can hinder their progress if not dealt with. Corporate Psychopaths then manipulate their way up the corporate ladder, using pawns and shedding patrons as they become superseded and no longer needed. According to Hare two factions then typically develop in the organisation; the supporters, pawns and patrons of the Corporate Psychopaths and the detractors, those who realise they have been used and abused or that the company is in danger (Babiak & Hare 2006). A confrontation between the two groups results from this, states Hare, during which the detractors are typically outmanoeuvred and ultimately removed and the Corporate Psychopath ascends to power.

2.6.2 The Prevalence of Corporate Psychopaths in Organisations

From a literature search it appears that every large company has Corporate Psychopaths in it (Newby 2005). This is perhaps quite obvious once one realises that, according to Hare, about one per cent of the population may be classed as psychopathic and that he estimates that this incidence may be higher in the business world. Kinner, a forensic psychologist at the University of Queensland, reports that recent research suggests that psychopaths can be extremely successful in large corporations because their charm, manipulative nature and remorselessness enable them to move up the corporate hierarchy (Kinner 2004; Mitchell 2002).

2.6.3 At What Levels are Corporate Psychopaths to be found in Organisations?

With their charm and good self-presentation skills, Corporate Psychopaths can seem like ideal people to recruit at interviews and they can thus look like they are ideally suited to rise up the hierarchy of organisations (Clarke 2005). They may arguably, therefore, be more commonly found at more senior levels of organisations than their incidence in the general workplace population would initially suggest.

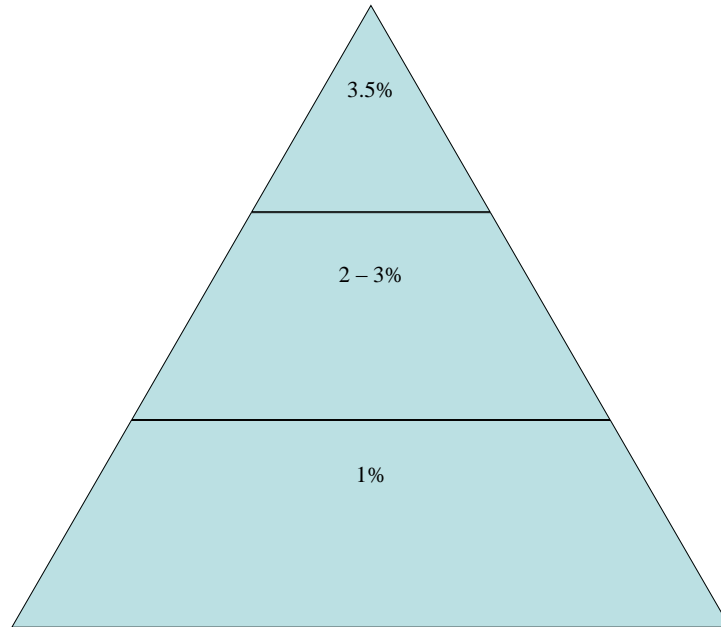
This combination of seemingly attractive personality traits logically suggests that Corporate Psychopaths exist in greater numbers at higher corporate levels than their estimated population frequency of 1% would imply if they were just spread evenly across the corporate population. This is shown in Figure 3 below. It may be hypothesised, that the higher up an organisation one goes, the more likely one is to find Corporate Psychopaths. This is because of the skills of cunning and manipulation, which Corporate Psychopaths have that enable them to do well in job and promotion interviews.

The figure below illustrates what the distribution of incidence levels may look like in the organisational hierarchy based on the rather insubstantial evidence currently available. Estimates of the incidence of psychopaths in the general population are generally of 1% to 3% (Sandler 2007) and there is little reason to assume that they will not be in the organisational population at similar incidence levels.

If the hypothesis that the higher up an organisation one goes the more likely one is to find Corporate Psychopaths is true, then they will be more often found at senior levels and some findings do seem to confirm this with researchers finding that 3.5% of senior executives were psychopathic. This suggests a distribution of Corporate Psychopaths in corporations something like that described in Figure 3 below.

Figure 3: Estimated Incidence of Corporate Psychopaths in Organisations

Higher Organisational Levels



Lower Organisational Levels

As discussed above, evidence for this distribution comes from Hare and Babiak (2006) who found that in a study of nearly two hundred senior executives, three and a half per cent of these were Corporate Psychopaths as measured by the Psychopathy Checklist Screening Version (PCL-SV). They note that this level of incidence is higher than their estimated one per cent incidence in the general population.

2.7 Identifying Psychopaths

A number of measures exist which are used by psychologists to determine a level of psychopathy within individuals and these include the Psychopathic Personality Inventory, the Personality Diagnostic Questionnaire and Hare's Psychopathy Checklist Revised (PCL-R) (Salekin, Trobst & Krioukova 2001).

There are several different versions of the PCL-R, such as the screening version (PCL-SV) which is a twelve item checklist and others, such as the Antisocial Process Screening Device (ASPD) which is used to index psychopathy in children (Blair et al. 2005; Dadds et al. 2005). The ASPD is based on the PCL-R and uses the same cut-off score of 30 out of a possible 40 to identify psychopathic individuals.

Salekin et. al. (2001) found that a substantial level of convergence exists between five psychopathy measures, which they tested, and that there is a high convergent validity between psychopathy measures and antisocial personality disorder. Other researchers (Derefinko & Lynam 2006) also found high levels of convergence (average correlation of .71) between the Psychopathic Personality Inventory (Lilienfeld & Andrews 1996), Hare's Self Report Psychopathy Scale and the Five Factor Psychopathy Index (Miller & Lynam 2003).

Researchers also found, in examining the factor structure of the Psychopathic Personality Inventory that total scores on this inventory correlated substantially and significantly with both factor 1 and 2 of the PCL-R. These correlation coefficient levels were .54 and .40 respectively (Benning et al. 2003). (The Psychopathic Personality Inventory was designed to identify non-criminal and non-incarcerated psychopaths in a more expedient manner than the PCL-R allows for (Sandler 2007)). Researchers have identified the PPI as an efficient tool for measuring psychopathy in a normal population (Falkenbach et al. 2007). The authors concluded that the higher order dimensions of the PPI paralleled the factors of the PCL-R.

Other leading commentators report that the PPI correlates significantly and in predictable directions with self-report measures and with interview based methods of determining psychopathy (Connelly, Lilienfeld & Schmeelk 2006). This provides evidence that the main measures of psychopathy are measuring essentially the same construct.

The view, that high levels of correlation in measurement instruments indicate similarity of what is being measured, is the commonly accepted view among psychologists, but it has recently come under some criticism, (Borsboom, Mellenbergh & van Heerden 2004). These researchers point out, for example, that height and weight correlate to .8 in the general population but that this does not mean that weight is a valid measure of height.

However, other researchers (Reise & Wink 1995; Sandoval et al. 2000) have also found significant correlations between different psychopathy measures. This includes finding significant correlations between different versions of the PCL-R such as the screening version which consists of only twelve items but is highly correlated with the full version (Huchzermeier et al. 2006; Hare 1996). The screening version is reported to have demonstrated reliability and validity across several studies of psychopathy and is said to be almost the equivalent of the full PCL-R (Jackson & Richards 2007) and to have comparable psychometric properties (Howard & McCullagh 2007; Guy & Douglas 2006).

Guy and Douglas (2006) cited correlations between the PCL: SV and PCL-R of $r = .95$ and $r = .94$ for their forensic and correctional samples respectively, in the research which they conducted, investigating the overall and factor correspondences between the two checklists.

Hare says that the screening version of the PCL-R, the PCL-RSV, can be used to assess psychopathy in non-criminal populations (Hare 1996). Researchers in this case use a twelve item checklist with a cut-off score of 12 and below to determine non-psychopaths and 18 and above (out of a possible maximum of 24) to identify psychopaths (Howard & McCullagh 2007; Guy & Douglas 2006).

It is reasonable to state therefore, that the principal psychopathy measures commonly used in psychology are measuring essentially the same thing. Hare's PCL-R is the most commonly used method (McCann 2002) for identifying psychopathy in both research and clinical settings and is the best validated (Lilienfeld & Andrews 1996; Sandoval et al. 2000) and most reliable (Lynam, Whiteside & Jones 1999). This psychopathy checklist was proposed by Hare and has since been adopted worldwide (Wormith 2000; Molto, Poy & Torrubia 2000) as the standard reference for researchers and clinicians to assess psychopathy. For those reasons it was selected as the basis for the instrument used for identifying the traits associated with psychopathy in this research.

In terms of scoring the full version of Hare's checklist, (i.e. the PCL-R), which contains twenty items; a subject is rated on each element using a score of 0, 1 or 2 according to the presence of the element in their personality and behaviour. In clinical settings subjects who score 30 or more out of 40 (i.e. a 75% score on the scale used) are judged to be psychopathic although other researchers state that a continuum of psychopathy probably exists (Vaughn and Howard, 2005; Hare et al., 1991; Osumi et al., 2007; Connelly et al., 2006; Pethman and Erlandsson, 2002). A low score is deemed to be in the range 0-19 and a moderate score 20 to 29 for the full version of the checklist (PCL-R) while these same cut-off scores are 0-12 and 13-17 for the screening version (PCL:SV) (Guy & Douglas 2006). Researchers have found that the PCL:SV and PCL-R have a robust relationship at both the global and factor levels (Guy & Douglas 2006).

Hare has also used lower cut-off scores with his PCL-R, (25 rather than 30) to identify psychopaths for research in non-institutional settings and recommends this cut-off be used for such research, citing evidence that even lower cut-off scores may be able to differentiate between psychopaths and non-psychopaths (Intrator et al. 1997). Hare reportedly uses 30 as a cut-off score in criminal populations as a conservative measure because of the personal implications for treatment it can have for criminals (Morana, Arboleda-Florez & Camara 2005). This cut-off score of 75% was followed in the use of the psychopathy scale used in this research, as described in the next chapter.

The elements in the checklist (PCL-R) are commonly said to fundamentally consist of two stable factors, the first being the set of interpersonal and affective characteristics such as callousness, lack of remorse and egocentricity and the second factor said to be the anti-social manifestations of the syndrome (Hare, Hart & Harpur 1991). The first factor of mainly emotional elements consists of characteristics which are deemed to be the core elements of psychopathy (Blair et al. 2006).

Other measurement scales for psychopathy measure similar items to the PCL-R. For example, Lilienfeld and Andrews developed the Psychopathic Personality Inventory as a 187 item self-report questionnaire measuring eight factors. These factors are, Machiavellian egocentricity, which measures ruthlessness and narcissism social potency, which measures perceived ability to influence and manipulate others; cold-heartedness, which measures callousness and guiltlessness; carefree non-planfulness, which measures indifference in planning actions; fearlessness, which measures the absence of anticipatory anxiety and a willingness to participate in risky activities; blame externalization, which measures a tendency to blame others and to rationalize one's own misbehaviour; impulsive nonconformity, which measures a reckless lack of concern regarding social mores and stress immunity, which measures an absence of reactions to anxiety provoking events (Edens et al., 2001, Lilienfeld and Andrews, 1996, Connelly et al., 2006). This measure is reported to have convergent validity with other measures of psychopathy (Taylor et al. 2003).

Items from the Psychopathic Personality Inventory have been designated as assessing PCL-R factor one and two scores. Factor one; the interpersonal and affective characteristics such as callousness, lack of remorse and egocentricity relate to the PPI elements of social potency, fearlessness, impulsive non-conformity and cold-heartedness. Factor two, the anti-social manifestations of the syndrome, relate to the PPI elements of Machiavellian egocentricity, blame externalization and carefree non-planfulness (Cale & Lilienfeld 2006). Although three and four factor solutions of the PCL-R have been presented, the two factor structure of psychopathy has been by far the most widely researched (Cale & Lilienfeld 2006).

2.8 How Psychopaths Think of Themselves

This section of the literature review describes how psychopaths think of themselves. It helps to understand the rationale behind how they act and is presented here because of this.

According to Hare, psychopaths themselves see no problem with their lack of conscience, empathy or remorse and do not think that they need to change their behaviour to fit in with the societal norms which they do not believe in (Hare 1999a; Babiak & Hare 2006). As described earlier in this thesis, some researchers in this field refer to non-criminal psychopaths like Corporate Psychopaths as being successful psychopaths (MacNeil & Holden 2006).

They are not necessarily violent and do not display an antisocial personality and to this extent they are successfully integrated into the community at large (Falkenbach et al. 2007). Psychopaths have a lack of concern with morality (Meier, Sellbom & Wygant 2007). A study of Criminal Psychopaths (Tamayo & Raymond 1977) indicates that they may recognise that they are 'bad' or morally reprehensible people but that they still have an average sense of self-worth and feel adequate as people. They know what society expects of its members but are not disturbed by their own failure to live up to these expectations. Psychopaths cannot conceive of other people thinking differently to the way they do and so make no effort to change their own views and behaviour. They appear to have no internal pressure to act in a moral manner and cannot conceive of themselves being other than what they are. They may also have a lack of insight into their own personalities and tend towards narcissism and blaming others for their own actions (Cleckley 1988). This makes them less vulnerable to criticism and judgement than other people are.

In overall terms, and apart from that research discussed above, not much is definitively known about how psychopaths see themselves. Research suggests that their ability to accurately assess their own personality is hampered by their emotional and affective deficits (Jackson & Richards 2007).

Other researchers suggest that psychopaths are more likely to blame externalities when things go wrong, rather than to blame themselves, and that this contributes to their failure to take responsibility for their actions and failure to feel guilty about what has happened (Maccoon & Newman 2006). Psychopaths not only fail to feel guilt for their own actions, but also have difficulty identifying situations where feelings of guilt may be attributable to other people as well (Blair et al. 1995b).

Research indicates that psychopaths, along with many other people, perceive other people to be like themselves (Mahaffey & Marcus 2006). This means that psychopaths assume that others are as cold hearted and self-seeking as they are, and this makes them likely to self-justify their actions and to engage in pre-emptive exploitative behaviour as they misattribute evil intent to others (Mahaffey & Marcus 2006). In other words, they think everyone is like them and that their selfish actions are therefore justified in what is to them, a cold, totally ruthless and competitive world. They thus live in a perceptually different world to nearly everyone else.

Cleckley said that a psychopath's experience is so devoid of emotion that they are ignorant of what emotions mean to others and so of why their actions may attract the criticisms of others . They have little capability to see themselves as others see them (Cleckley 1988). Perhaps because they possess rational intelligence but lack emotional insight, psychopaths report on their own behaviour more accurately than they do on their own interpersonal and affective traits (Jackson & Richards 2007). In conclusion then, they lack emotional insight into their own and into others' behaviour and they think that it is a cold, ruthless and heartless world that they live in.

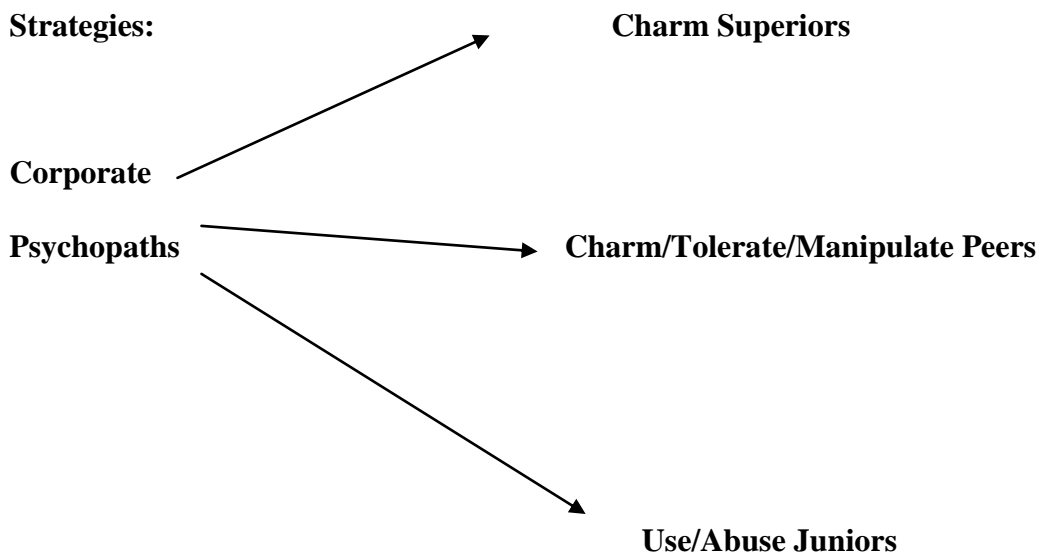
2.9 Strategies Psychopaths Use

2.9.1 Charm, Manipulation and Abuse

Corporate Psychopaths charm those they think will be useful to them, manipulate their peers and abuse the weak and vulnerable (Babiak & Hare 2006; Clarke 2005). Because of the strategies they adopt, Corporate Psychopaths are reportedly more likely to reveal their true ruthlessness in front of those colleagues who are not useful to them as there may be no perceived need to impress such people. This can lead to a situation where the Corporate Psychopath has around him or her a number of useful or important people who are impressed by him or her and other people who really know them better and consequently despise them (Walker 2005).

A diagram of how Corporate Psychopaths behave towards different colleagues, is shown below, in Figure 4.

Figure 4: Strategies, which Corporate Psychopaths Use



These divisive, abusive and manipulative behaviours could be expected to be the cause of conflict in an organisation and may be expected to create conflict in the workplace, and this idea was developed into a formal hypothesis as stated at the end of this chapter.

In the case where they fear being found out, then the strategy of Corporate Psychopaths is to create chaos so that in the confusion they can avoid scrutiny and detection as people concentrate on bringing order to the confusion created (Clarke 2007). Such behaviour, could be expected to cause conflict and organisational constraints or even paralysis in an organisation, and this research looked at this idea as another area of investigation.

Neuroscientists have found that when a leader's demands become too great to bear, elevated levels of cortisol and adrenaline result in the brains of their followers and these high levels paralyse the critical and creative abilities of the brain. Stress spreads through a group of employees via the mimicking action of mirror neurons and a whole team of people can become compromised in their performance (Goleman & Boyatzis 2008). This perhaps may explain how Corporate Psychopaths, with their high levels of social intelligence, can charm their superiors while at the same time paralysing and neutralising the potential objections of their peers and those who report to them.

2.9.2 Disheartened and Exploited Workforce

Corporate Psychopaths use their manipulative skills to dominate the people they work with (Clarke 2005), exploiting them, involving them in sexual affairs, spreading rumours and engaging in office politics to further their aims. Employees who realise what is going on, after being used and abused, and who lose control of their careers at the hands of a Corporate Psychopath are naturally disheartened. They are often, according to Clarke, too afraid to talk to others in the organisation about how they are suffering.

Corporate Psychopaths parasitically claim the credit for work they have not done and blame others for things that go wrong because of their actions (Clarke 2005). They are very willing to exploit the workforce or to move operations to a geographic area where the workforce can more easily be exploited.

With no emotional attachments to their colleagues Corporate Psychopaths are happy to exploit everyone who works for them. This must logically lead to low levels of job satisfaction and this hypothesis was investigated by this research.

Corporate Psychopaths exploit their colleagues through sexual exploitation and harassment and such behaviour has been linked to lower job satisfaction, lower organisational commitment and a greater intention to quit (Willness, Steel & Lee 2007; Laband & Lentz 1998). Clarke details one example where a Corporate Psychopath had sexual relations with most of the females in his department (Clarke 2005). According to Cleckley the psychopath's approach to sexual relations is limited to thrill seeking sexual behaviour, marked by a lack of personal significance or any kind of emotional passion (Cleckley 1988). They therefore have a casual, uncommitted approach to sexual activity; focussed on localised and temporary pleasure and will use their positions of authority within organisations to cajole and seduce colleagues who are then abandoned.

Recent research among institutionalised psychopaths suggests that a coercive, precocious, exploitative and aggressive attitude to sexual relations is a fundamental aspect of psychopathy (Harris et al. 2007). It follows logically from this that Corporate Psychopaths would attempt to use their positions of authority and power to coerce and manipulate their co-workers into sexual relationships and this is indeed what one commentator suggests does happen (Clarke 2005). Such sexual coercion and harassment has been linked with workplace team conflict, withdrawal and with low levels of citizenship behaviour and these issues are investigated in this research.

This view of Cleckley's is substantiated by findings from other researchers who found that psychopathy scores are positively related to the use of deceptive tactics in both sexual and non-sexual contexts (Seto et al. 1997). This sexual promiscuity in both male and female psychopaths can cause a good deal of emotional pain within the ranks of their colleagues and the spouses of their colleagues whom they seduce.

This must logically lessen any feelings of satisfaction associated with the workplace and this reinforces the logic of researching the potential connection between Corporate Psychopaths and low levels of job satisfaction in this research. Researchers, while recognising that some gender bias may be present in the measurement and recording of psychopathy, have found that while male and female psychopaths are very similar on most of the PCL-R items, females tend to exhibit the syndrome in terms of greater promiscuity than males and less in terms of callousness and delinquency (Grann 2000).

The promiscuity aspect of psychopathy in the workplace is detailed in the literature and is worthy of further research. However, in the case of this current research it was deemed to be too difficult to access reliable data, because of the sensitive nature of the subject, and was therefore not studied in this thesis. However, such behaviour would logically, be expected to lead to low levels of job satisfaction and this was investigated in the research.

2.9.3 Workplace Conflict and Bullying

Not all bullies are psychopathic but psychopathic bullies are particularly dangerous to other people because they have no concern for the welfare or rights of others. When combined with their skills at manipulation, their bullying behaviour can be achieved through the manipulation of others so that their own positions are not too overtly apparent and they can avoid blame if any arises. Corporate Psychopaths may also use their reputations as bullies to keep rivals away and subordinates submissive and unquestioning. Hare and Babiak (2006) found that of seven Corporate Psychopaths identified in a study of about two hundred high executives, two of these were bullies as well and they note that this level of incidence (i.e. about 29 per cent of Corporate Psychopaths also being bullies) is also reported by other researchers. Other research has also shown that people with high scores on a psychopathy rating scale were more likely to engage in bullying, crime and drug use than others were, again indicating that psychopaths tend to be bullies in the workplace (Nathanson, Williams & Paulhus 2006).

Bullies have been identified as having the traits of narcissism, lack of self-regulation, lack of remorse and lack of conscience, and these are shared with psychopathy indicating that there is some theoretical cross-over between bullies and psychopaths (Harvey et al. 2007). Bullying, say Harvey and his colleagues, (2007) can take the form of name calling, sexual harassment, scape-goating, undue work pressures and physical abuse.

Bullying can be used to intimidate others and make them afraid to confront the Corporate Psychopaths involved, allowing Corporate Psychopaths more leeway in their behaviour. Bullying is also used by Corporate Psychopaths as a tactic to humiliate (Clarke 2005) subordinates, this may be because many psychopaths enjoy hurting people (Porter et al. 2003). Bullying is also used as a tactic to confuse and disorientate those who may be a threat to the activities of the Corporate Psychopath (Clarke 2005). It distracts attention away from the activities of the Corporate Psychopath, which may otherwise be noticed by a normally functioning staff. It seems likely then that bullying will be associated with the presence of psychopaths and this research investigated such an association.

Corporate Psychopaths will also reportedly undermine their colleagues by spreading disinformation about them, complaining about their behaviour to those more senior so that when promotions are considered some of the Corporate Psychopaths rivals are already disadvantaged (Clarke 2007). This also has the effect that if any colleagues complain about the psychopath, they are less likely to be believed, because the psychopath has already undermined their reputation and position.

Clarke identifies the anger, fear, sadness, anxiety, shame, embarrassment, guilt, depression and confusion that the victims of a Corporate Psychopath can experience (Clarke 2007). He details how these affect a person's ability to work effectively and productively and act rationally. This could be expected to increase the amount of organisational constraints in an organisation and this area is investigated in this research.

The Corporate Psychopath is greatly aided by this emotional turmoil because victims and competitors are rendered emotional and ineffective while the Corporate Psychopath remains rational and able to maintain control of the situation. Studies have shown a significant negative correlation between social anxiety and psychopathy, for example, they do not become anxious to the same extent as non-psychopaths do (Hofmann, Korte & Suvak 2009). Thus Corporate Psychopaths do not feel the same emotions as others do and can treat the turmoil as a means to an end, taking advantage of colleagues while they are at their weakest.

Workplace situations involving conflict and stress are moderated by individual skills at coping (Perrewe et al. 2004), but remain problematic for the majority of employees and are therefore worthy of investigation. This research therefore measured the correlation between conflict and the presence of Corporate Psychopaths.

2.10 Corporate Psychopaths and Organisational Performance

2.10.1 Corporate Psychopaths and Organisational Performance

Recent news articles in major business magazines like the *Economist* (Economist 2004) and regional newspapers like the *West Australian* have discussed the idea of psychopaths at work, as well as the lack of ethics in business, leading to inferior business performance (Rutherford 2004). Corporate Psychopaths, because they are ruthless and largely unaffected by the emotional consequences of what they do, may operate as almost perfectly rational beings, with the important caveat that in making rational decisions they will put their own interests before those of the corporation for which they work. If they are in positions of power then this could have important implications for firm performance.

Resource based view strategists have concluded that a critical issue in firm success is the building of an effective human organisation; one where people work well together (Hansen & Wernerfelt 1989). The presence of Corporate Psychopaths would directly effect such organisational development because they tend to be disruptive to those around them, especially to junior colleagues (Clarke 2005). The presence of Corporate Psychopaths therefore would be expected to be associated with lower levels of organisational effectiveness and increased constraints. This research investigated this possible association.

2.10.2 Corporate Psychopaths and Corporate Social Responsibility

Corporate social responsibility is a general concept concerning what is judged to be good or ethical about corporate behaviour (Carroll 1983; Carroll 1998). It was identified, in the academy, as a new paradigm for business about thirty five years ago (Wartick & Cochran 1985). It reportedly has many synergies and inter-relationships with issues of corporate governance and corporate citizenship in general (Jamali et al., 2008; Matten and Crane, 2005). Corporate social responsibility has, at its core, the idea that a corporation should involve itself in more than just an economic role in society. It should not only take responsibility for its economic actions, but also accept a wider ethical responsibility for the impacts it has on the society and on the environment in which it operates (Ketola, 2006; Robbins, 2008; Carroll, 2000; van Marrewijk, 2003; Carroll, 2004). It holds that corporations should be accountable for their actions in society (Edward & Willmott 2008).

Past research has found that there is managerial resistance to these ideas and that the aligning of corporate behaviour with the interests of society is not without obstacles from within the corporation (Deakin and Hobbs, 2007). However, other research finds that there are increasing numbers of companies engaging in activities which demonstrate corporate social responsibility (Aguilera et al. 2007). Further, there are reported to be differences in emphasis and direction in relation to corporate social responsibility, between different countries, according to the differences in the corporate governance arrangements in those countries (Aguilera et al. 2006; Waring & Edwards 2008). Even the same companies are reported to be able to behave both responsibly and irresponsibly at the same time with regard to corporate social responsibility (Strike, Gao & Bansal 2006). Corporations may have codes of conduct relating to corporate social responsibility (Béthoux, Didry & Mias 2007). However, the existence of such codes of business behaviour in companies does not automatically mean that corporate social responsibility is actually put into practice by organisations (Bondy, Matten & Moon 2008).

Leadership decisions on spending time or money on activities to do with corporate social responsibility are ultimately taken by individual managers within corporations (Robbins 2008; Thomas & Simerly 1994). The individual character of leaders and managers has been identified as an element in their behaviour within corporations (Klann 2003). Logically then, it is the individual ethical stance of the manager which determines whether discretionary corporate social responsibility takes place or not. Corporate social responsibility is said to be a discretionary responsibility of organisations rather than a legal responsibility (Batra, 2007; van Marrewijk, 2003), leaving it open to the decisions of individual managers. Indeed, different organisations at various stages of development are said to be more or less able to adopt different approaches to corporate social responsibility, depending on their specific circumstances and stage of development and geographic location (van Marrewijk and were; 2003; Peng, 2008; McWilliams and Siegel, 2001; Matten and Moon, 2008).

Further, the expectations of the general public over how corporations should perform in terms of corporate social responsibility are reported to be far in advance of what corporations actually do in practice (Verschoor 2008). The general public are reported to want ethical accountability in corporations (Potts & Matuszewski 2004). There are also differences in the expectations of what corporate social responsibility should entail, between non-government organisations and private corporations (Jonker & Nijhof 2006).

Various institutions have been identified as pushing for increased levels of corporate social responsibility in organisations, including religious organisations and universities, and calls for other types of organisations to become more involved have been made (Proffitt Jr. & Spicer 2005). Not surprisingly then, corporate citizenship is emerging as one of the defining business issues for this century (Verschoor 2008; Carroll 1998; Elkington 2006; Dawson 2004).

Perhaps as one consequence of this movement towards corporate responsibility, external pressures are reported to be pushing corporations towards good practice in terms of corporate social responsibility and it has even been described as a business imperative by some commentators (Waddock et al., 2002, Gentile and Samuelson, 2005). Public opinion has long been described as being a driver of corporate social responsibility (Grunig 1979). Internal influences are also coming to bear as corporations build up their internal infrastructure to steward their involvement in corporate social responsibility initiatives (Waddock 2008).

Multiple efforts have been made to link corporate social responsibility with good business strategy and performance (Porter and Kramer, 2002; Porter and Kramer, 2006; Porter and Kramer, 2007; Lo and Sheu, 2007; ViswanathanI et al., 2007; Schuler and Cording, 2006; Perrini, 2006; Gardberg and Fombrun, 2006; Godfrey, 2005). However, it may be argued that the ethical imperative alone should be sufficient to motivate an organisation to act responsibly (Valentine and Fleischman, 2008; Swanson, 2006, Perrini, 2007). However, Corporate Psychopaths have no ethical imperative to motivate them and would logically therefore, be assumed to have no genuine interest in corporate social responsibility. This research sought to investigate this relationship as outlined in one of the hypotheses generated from the literature review.

Some researchers claim that the employment decisions of individuals may be influenced by the ethical and responsible stance taken by a particular company, with executives actively avoiding unethical companies as employers and seeking out companies that are seen as being socially responsible (Cacioppe et al., 2008; Lu and Gowan, 2008). One wonders, in passing, whether Corporate Psychopaths actively seek out unethical companies to work in. This was not investigated in this research but may be worthy of investigation in future.

Ethical business practices and treating employees well are reported to be two important elements of good corporate citizenship (Verschoor, 2008; Berkhout, 2005; Warren, 1997) and this current research investigated these areas. Given the lack of empirical evidence measuring the impact of Corporate Psychopaths on organisational life, this research was undertaken to measure the affects of Corporate Psychopaths on organisations. One particular focus of this research is on employee perceptions of corporate social responsibility within their organisations and this was formed into a hypothesis for testing in this research as discussed in the last section of this chapter.

Psychopaths are not a totally homogenous group (Adshead 2003) and their presence in large firms in relatively large numbers (one per cent or more) can affect a firm's ability to make decisions in its own interests. An article in *The Times* talks about heartless organisations which exploit sweatshop labour in foreign countries and pollute the environment in pursuit of profit (Naish 2004). However, it is the managers within those organisations, who actually make the decisions necessary to lead to those consequences. If those managers are Corporate Psychopaths, then such heartless decisions, it may be argued, are more likely to be made. This reinforces the perceived need, in this research, to investigate, via a formal hypothesis, the link between the presence of Corporate Psychopaths and perceived levels of corporate social responsibility. Corporate Psychopaths who get to the top of organisations can be assumed to be highly intelligent as well as manipulative and some research indicates that (Johansson & Kerr 2005) high intelligence in psychopaths seems to enhance their destructive potential. The power inherent in senior managerial roles in major organisations and corporations means that the implications of these findings are obviously significant for corporate management and regulation and for the societies in which those organisations operate. As Corporate Psychopaths have little or no conscience, then it follows logically that they are not driven by any idea of social fairness or social responsibility and this in turn limits the development of corporate social responsibility within the corporation. This research therefore investigated corporate social responsibility in the presence of Corporate Psychopaths compared to when Corporate Psychopaths are not present.

2.11 Corporations as Psychopaths

This literature review would not be complete without noting that it has been suggested that Corporations themselves could be psychopathic because of their lack of conscience and because they seem to fulfil many of the psychiatric criteria for psychopathy in their practices (Bakan 2006; Ketola 2006). Comments by Robert Hare in one of these articles suggest that corporations do have the characteristics of a psychopath according to the definition of the World Health Organisation. This definition states that psychopaths display the characteristics of being: callous to the feelings of others, incapable of maintaining enduring relationships, reckless as to the safety of others, deceitful, incapable of experiencing guilt and display a failure to conform to social norms and laws. According to a commentator on this subject, Bakan's main thesis is that corporations are solely concerned with making a profit regardless of all other considerations and that this concern is because of the legal environment in which they operate in the USA and presumably in other countries as well (Lee 2005). The law is said to constitute the corporation as a psychopath because its legally defined mandate is to pursue profit rapaciously and regardless of the harm to others (Bakan 2006). Lee argues that this thesis interpretation of the law is too simplistic. Lee says that corporate law is actually much more ambiguous than Bakan's analysis allows for and that the law very much leaves it up to the senior management of any corporation to decide how to run it and how to use its resources (Lee 2005).

In terms of the present research into Corporate Psychopaths as individuals within corporations rather than with the psychopathy of corporations themselves, this argument does not really matter in practical terms. As other writers on management and leadership have argued, the nexus of a dysfunctional organisation may reside in seriously flawed leaders and so the study of such leaders is called for regardless of whether corporations themselves are flawed (Goldman 2006). Also, it is the managers within the corporation who make moral decisions, not the corporations themselves, and so the focus of research should logically be on those individuals.

One writer on leadership goes as far as to say that modern society is suffering from a plague of poor leadership in both the private and public sectors of the economy (Allio 2007). Corporations, which have become psychopathic, says Allio, may engage in such activities as seeking out loopholes in the law to avoid taxes and regulations, manipulating their stock prices where possible to the benefit of executives with shares and share option schemes and to the detriment of investors, pension funds and workers.

However, corporations are made up of people who make these decisions so psychopathy resides within individual Corporate Psychopaths, not the organisations themselves, as corporations do not exercise these actions, people do. If corporations are not themselves psychopathic then the issue of whether individual managers within corporations are psychopathic is still important because of the effects these managers can have on the corporation and its economic and social environment. However, if corporations themselves do display psychopathic characteristics then the effect must be amplified, or even multiplied, when some or all of the managers running those corporations are themselves Corporate Psychopaths. Here the lack of any conscience or guiding sense of morality in the corporation and in its managers can be a recipe for financial, environmental and societal disaster.

In terms of the personal integrity of managers, researchers have demonstrated a strong relationship between integrity scores and scores of psychopathy as measured by the Psychopathic Personality Inventory. Total PPI scores were negatively correlated with all three integrity test scores used in the research and nearly all the sub-traits in the PPI were also negatively correlated with integrity (Connelly, Lilienfeld & Schmeelk 2006). This strongly suggests that Corporate Psychopaths will not be concerned with their own level of integrity and that they will not act with an ethical perspective.

2.12 Conclusions

It appears, from a review of the literature, that the more intelligent psychopath who benefits from a good education and social background, is often able to choose a lifestyle that is not overtly and obviously anti-social. Further, that with their charm and manipulateness they are able to hide their more covert anti-social activities from clear view. It is also evident from the literature that sub-groups of successful and unsuccessful psychopaths exist and that successful psychopaths are little studied or understood compared to their unsuccessful or criminal peers (Falkenbach et al. 2007). Researchers have called for further research among such non-institutionalised psychopaths (Levenson, Kiehl & Fitzpatrick 1995; McHoskey, Worzel & Szyarto 1998) and state that such research is helpful to understand the construct better (Osumi et al. 2007).

It is acknowledged that not much is known about these successful psychopaths but it is clear that if they are easily able to join and rise within the ranks of corporate society, then their activities will have effects on other employees and on how and why corporate resources are deployed. This, in turn, has effects on society, on the businesses concerned and on the environment that may be important to study and recognise. The cunning and manipulative abilities of Corporate Psychopaths, together with their total lack of conscience and concern for the company they work for, and their lack of concern for others, makes them a menace to both the company they work for, and to the other employees there. Study of their behaviour is therefore overdue and has important implications for business and for the environment in which that business operates. This in turn has important implications for society.

2.13 Hypotheses Generated From the Literature Review

As this area of research is new to management research, a review of the literature has revealed a large number of possible hypotheses, which could be investigated. To keep the research within the bounds of a Doctor of Business Administration research degree and within the bounds of the resources available to complete the study, the number of hypotheses to be investigated has been limited to those eight outlined below.

Earlier in this chapter the actions of Corporate Psychopaths were discussed in terms of their potential for causing disharmony, conflict and hostility within an organisation. Further, it would be logical to expect that if supervisors are Corporate Psychopaths then increased conflict may occur. Conflict with supervisors has been linked with such negative behaviour such as counterproductive work behaviour in previous research (Bruk-Lee & Spector 2006). Also, well performing work teams have been linked to low levels of relationship conflict (Jehn & Mannix 2001), whereas high levels of conflict in personal relationships at work could be expected when psychopaths are present.

Psychopaths are reported to delight in inflicting pain on others and to be willing to act ruthlessly to get what they want (Cangemi & Pfohl 2009), this sort of ruthless behaviour would logically be expected to cause conflict within an organisation. Conflict is therefore important to measure as any increased levels due to the presence of Corporate Psychopaths would have negative implications for organisational performance. This led to the first hypothesis.

H1: Employees, who work in workplaces where managers are perceived to demonstrate the traits associated with being Corporate Psychopaths, will report higher levels of conflict at work than those who do not.

Further, it is recognised in the literature that an employees' supervisor is likely to be the key figure for an employee in any organisation. The supervisor largely determines what the job demands are for an employee and this can be expected to influence how the employee evaluates organisational fairness and job satisfaction (Janssen 2001). A poor employee-supervisor relationship, as could be expected when the supervisor is a Corporate Psychopath, has long been linked with low levels of job satisfaction (Stringer 2006). A poor quality supervisor-employee relationship would also be associated with not respecting employees' feelings, not establishing open and effective communications, not recognising employees for their efforts and these, in turn, would also be expected to be associated with low job satisfaction (Stringer 2006). This may affect the employees' individual well-being as well. However, the resource constraints of the research, and an already long questionnaire length precluded investigating this any further in the research carried out.

Thus, poor quality supervision has also been linked with low job satisfaction (Morrow et al. 2005). Not surprisingly, abusive supervision, involving such behaviours as public criticism, rudeness and coercion, has been identified as having a negative influence on job satisfaction and normative and affective commitment to the organisation (Tepper 2000). Corporate Psychopaths would be expected to engage in such abusive behaviour because of their ruthless and careless personalities. This led to the second hypothesis in this research.

H2: Employees, who work in workplaces where managers are perceived to demonstrate the traits associated with being Corporate Psychopaths, will experience lower levels of job satisfaction than those who do not.

Organisational constraints are defined as situations or things which interfere with the performance of a task at work such as difficulty in performing job functions because of malfunctioning equipment or interruptions from other people (Spector & Jex 1998). As Corporate Psychopaths are reported to cause chaos and confusion in the workplace and to use resources for their own ends, it may be expected that employees will experience greater constraints in their presence than would otherwise have been the case.

Poor supervision, such as would logically be expected from Corporate Psychopaths, has been linked with poor levels of organisational citizenship behaviour (behaviour contributing to the organisation's efficiency and effectiveness) (Wayne & Green 1993; Wayne et al. 2008) and this would in turn, logically be linked with higher levels of organisational constraints. Abusive and unhelpful management, such as would be expected from Corporate Psychopaths, is reported to trickle down an organisation and thus influence it on a wider scale (Wayne et al. 2008) and this would also be expected to increase the number constraints within an organisation. Further, previous research has found that situational work constraints are strongly negatively related to performance (GilboaI et al. 2008) and so this issue was thought to be worthy of further investigation. This led to the third hypothesis in this research.

H3: Employees, who work in workplaces where managers are perceived to demonstrate the traits associated with being Corporate Psychopaths, will report higher levels of organisational constraints than those who do not.

Corporate Psychopaths have recently been identified as possible agents of corporate misbehaviour and misconduct and recent papers (Boddy 2005b; Boddy 2006a) suggest that Corporate Psychopaths are a threat to business performance and to corporate social responsibility because they put their own interests before those of the corporation or of society.

Corporate Psychopaths have been hypothesised to be more likely to make decisions involving corporate resources where the resources allocated are likely to be utilised exploitatively or with harm to the environment (Boddy 2005b). Corporate Psychopaths are not concerned about financially exploiting other people as they have no morality or conscience (Hare 1994; Maibom 2005) and they will happily endorse actions that lead to environmental destruction if those actions benefit them by providing them with, for example, increased bonus payments or productivity linked payments.

Corporations themselves have been described as acting like psychopaths in their corporate responsibility practices (Ketola 2006) but if corporations are acting like psychopaths it logically means that managers within those corporations are making psychopathic decisions to the detriment of corporate social responsibility. As discussed earlier, previous research has found that there is managerial resistance to implementing corporate social responsibility initiatives and that the aligning of corporate behaviour with the interests of society is not without obstacles from within the corporation (Deakin and Hobbs, 2007), such obstacles could be logically expected from Corporate Psychopaths because of their selfish attitudes.

Corporate Social Responsibility within organisations has been linked with ethical and moral behaviour (McWilliams, Siegel & Wright 2006). Corporate Psychopaths have no ethical imperative to motivate them towards socially responsible behaviour and would logically be assumed to have no genuine interest in corporate social responsibility. This argument has led to the fourth hypothesis in the research.

H4: Employees, who work in workplaces where managers are perceived to demonstrate the traits associated with being Corporate Psychopaths, will report lower levels of workplace corporate social responsibility than those who do not.

Corporate social responsibility will be measured in the questionnaire by levels of respondent agreement with a series of statements such as the statement that the organisation they worked for behaved in a manner that benefited the local community.

A reading of the psychological literature on psychopaths who work in organisations identifies them as archetypal abusers. They enjoy hurting people because it amuses them (Clarke 2007), they use humiliation to cause confusion and fear in order to hide their other activities (Hare 1999a; Clarke 2005), and they ruthlessly manipulate, bully and abuse others without conscience to further their own aims and objectives (Babiak & Hare 2006).

Further, a stressful work environment, such as could logically be expected from working under a Corporate Psychopath, has been linked to increased levels of interpersonal aggression at work (Chen & Spector 1992).

As reported earlier in this chapter, Hare and Babiak reported that in one research study, about 29 per cent of Corporate Psychopaths were bullies. Other research has also shown that people with high scores on a psychopathy rating scale were more likely to engage in bullying, crime and drug use than others were, again indicating that psychopaths tend to be bullies in the workplace (Nathanson, Williams & Paulhus 2006). Abusive behaviour also trickles down an organisation leading to bullying at lower levels (Wayne et al. 2008). This evidence from the literature led to the fifth hypothesis in this research.

H5 Employees, who work in workplaces where managers are perceived to demonstrate the traits associated with being Corporate Psychopaths, will report higher levels of bullying than those who do not.

Workplace bullying is defined as the repeated unfavourable treatment of one person by another in the workplace including behaviour designed to belittle others via humiliation, sarcasm, rudeness, overworking a person, threats and even violence (Dierickx 2004; Djurkovic, McCormack & Casimir 2004). Bullying is reportedly undertaken to maintain the power of the person doing the bullying (Dierickx 2004). Bullying in organisations can lead to a variety of dysfunctional and negative outcomes for the organisation as well as for individuals within those organisations affected (Harvey et al. 2007).

Resource based view strategists have concluded that a critical issue in firm success is the building of an effective human organisation where employees work effectively and cooperatively together (Hansen & Wernerfelt 1989). The presence of Corporate Psychopaths would directly affect such organisational development because they tend to be disruptive to those around them, especially to junior colleagues (Clarke 2005), this would logically be expected to increase the amount of work that needs doing as people compensate for the disruptions caused.

Corporate Psychopaths are also widely associated with parasitic behaviour in the workplace, claiming others' work as their own, playing groups off against each other, and neglecting their own duties (Babiak 1995). It is logical that if greater amounts of disruption are associated with the presence of psychopathic behaviour then this will cause greater workloads to be experienced, than would otherwise be the case because the disruptions take time away from productive work (Raver & Gelfand 2005). This leads to the sixth hypothesis in the research.

H6 Employees, who work in workplaces where managers are perceived to demonstrate the traits associated with being Corporate Psychopaths, will report greater workloads than those who do not.

Workload is defined as the quantity of work involved in a job rather than the qualitative difficulty of undertaking a job (Spector & Jex 1998). Workload is the degree to which employees are required to work fast and have a great deal of work to do in a short period of time (Van Preen & Janssen 2002).

As discussed earlier in this chapter, Corporate Psychopaths have been argued to be more motivated and better equipped than other corporate managers to rise to high corporate positions. They are motivated by a craving for the power, money and prestige that senior managerial positions bring (Boddy 2005a; Babiak & Hare 2006).

They are better equipped because they lack empathy (Maibom 2005; Chapman, Gremore & Farmer 2003) and are ruthless, prepared to lie, have fewer other claims on their time because of fewer other emotional attachments (Maibom 2005) and because they can present a charming façade and appear to be an ideal leader. Corporate Psychopaths have been assumed to be found at greater levels of incidence at higher levels of organisations, but little evidence of this exists and there are obvious implications if this is indeed the case. As discussed earlier in this chapter, some evidence for this distribution does exist and researchers found that in a study of senior executives, three and a half per cent of these were Corporate Psychopaths as measured by the Psychopathy Checklist Screening Version (PCL-SV).

The researchers noted that this level of incidence is higher than their estimated one per cent incidence in the general population. This discussion leads to the seventh hypothesis in the research.

H7: Managers displaying the traits associated with being Corporate Psychopaths will be perceived to be more common at higher levels of management within workplaces than at lower levels.

As discussed earlier in this chapter Clarke says that not only are companies failing to screen for psychopaths, but that they are actively selecting them as people willing to get the job done at whatever the cost, and that employing them can lead to fraud and loss of staff because of their unethical and unsavoury behaviour (Clarke 2005). Because of the possible consequences of working in a workplace where a Corporate Psychopath was at work, such as being disheartened and feeling exploited as discussed earlier in this chapter, and as detailed in the various hypotheses above, it was further hypothesised that in such environments, more workplace withdrawal would occur than it would in other workplaces.

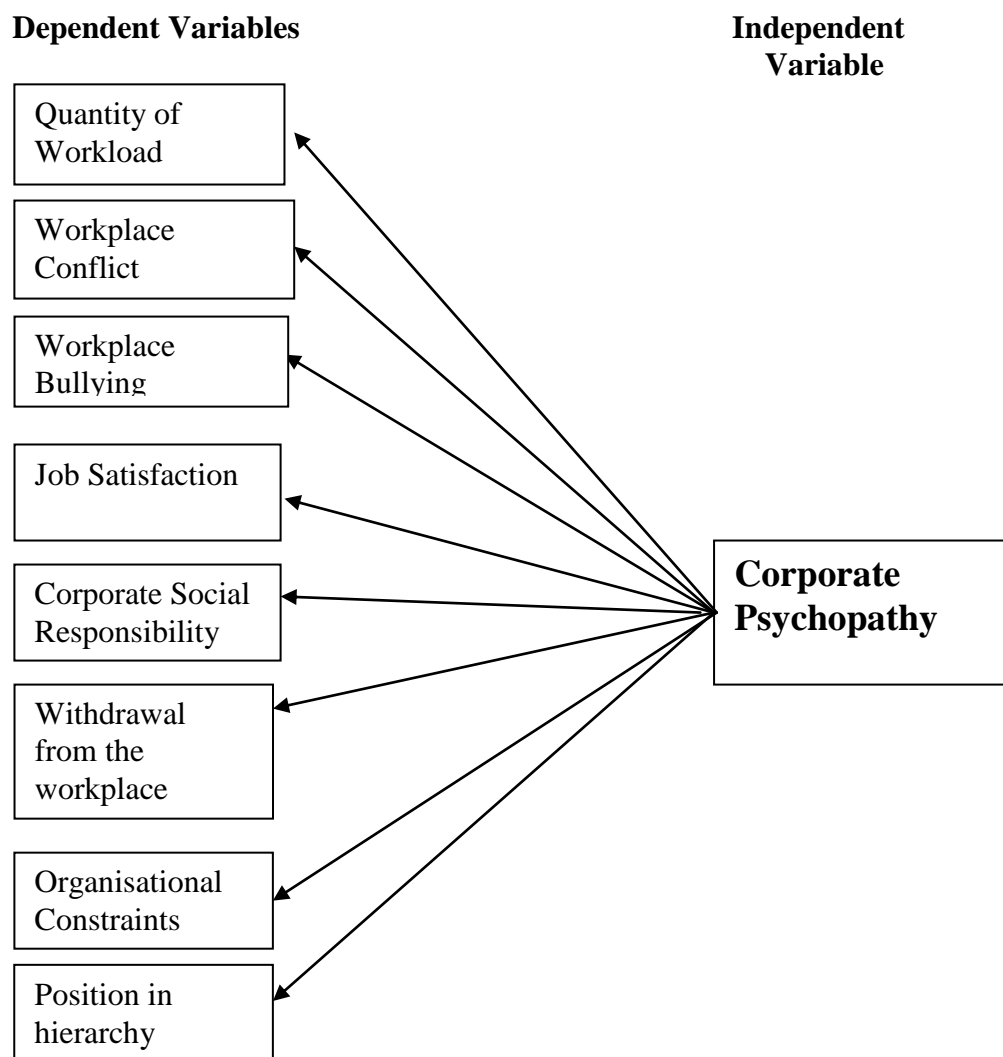
Employees with abusive supervisors, for example, have been found to be more likely to leave their jobs and to have lower levels of commitment to the workplace (Tepper 2000). Supervision quality has long been reported to play an important role in workplace withdrawal and turnover (Morrow et al. 2005; Wayne & Green 1993) and Corporate Psychopaths can be assumed to be poor supervisors because of their self-centred approach.

Good supervisors are said to engender good relationships with employees and good levels of job satisfaction and a degree of organisational commitment, and this helps to embed employees within organisations and provides a disincentive to withdraw from the organisation (Morrow et al. 2005). It is logical to assume that Corporate Psychopaths, with their careless approach to employees and to others in general, would have the opposite effect and create higher levels of withdrawal from an organisation. This led to the eighth hypothesis in this research.

H8: Employees, who work in workplaces where managers are perceived to demonstrate the traits associated with being Corporate Psychopaths, will report higher levels of withdrawal from the workplace than those who do not.

In summary, the following diagram, Figure 5, illustrates the research model to be tested by the research proposed.

Figure 5: Research Model



The next chapter discusses how the research was structured and undertaken in order to examine and address these hypotheses.

3. Methodology

3.1 Introduction

The aim of this chapter is to present the research methodology that was used to test the various hypotheses, which were generated from the literature review. This includes a presentation of the philosophy and approach chosen for the research, and a description of the research method, design and sample used. The process used to develop the questionnaire is then outlined, starting with broad principles of questionnaire development and then focusses on the actual questions chosen. This includes a description of how the instrument for identifying psychopaths, the Psychopathy Measure - Management Research Version (PM-MRV) was developed. A description of the pilot test procedure and of how the pilot test results were used to refine the final questionnaire is then made. The chapter finishes with a discussion of ethical issues involved in the research.

3.2 Research Approach and Philosophy

As the research aimed to be definitive in nature, a quantitative, positivist approach was adopted based on the presuppositions developed from past research and a literature review. A positivist approach was adopted so that the research findings would benefit, in terms of their acceptance by the wider management community, from the use of what is currently the most commonly accepted scientific methodology for research (Tarnass 2000). Positivism is concerned with positive (concrete, verifiable, replicable) facts and is based on establishing what those facts are, so that law-like principles as to how those facts interact can be established and hypotheses can be tested (Lincoln & Guba 2000).

A key advantage of the positivist approach is that research can be precisely replicated so that one researcher's results can be cross-checked by another to see how reliable and valid the results are, although the lack of cases in which this is actually undertaken has been the subject of criticism by some management researchers (Hubbard & Lindsay 2002). This ability to replicate and cross-check contributes towards the reliability of the research undertaken, because it enables independent verification of the results by other researchers (Gill & Johnson 1997). This positivist scientific paradigm is so called because it confines itself to what is positively given, and avoids speculation. The point of view held by this scientific tradition has effectively been the tradition of western science from Descartes until the advent of postmodernism. It holds that the highest or only form of knowledge is the description of sensory phenomena (Blackburn 1996).

Under this scientific paradigm of positivism, it is assumed that objective answers are available and can be gained by reasoning and observation so as to establish a connection between phenomena (Comte 1853). In the positivist tradition social scientists study respondents in a consciously similar way to that of natural scientists, in order to gain scientific respectability for the research (Rosenau 1992). They look for interrelations of cause and effect and study respondents using objective criteria, measures and research designs, which are available for other social scientists to repeat and thus verify or disprove any conclusions.

The main alternative approach to scientific inquiry, the constructivist or post-modern tradition, which is the idea that universal objective truth cannot be found with certainty and that individual subjective truth is a valid form of truth (Hancock & Tyler 2001; Hassard 1999). This incorporates the suggestion that positivist confidence in objective truth is misplaced and that people are transient in their attitudes and beliefs and that people can not always articulate or access or know what is real to them. Post-modern qualitative research discusses how the researcher applies critical subjectivity in participant transaction with the subjects of the research and spends time in the field with participants, such as those in a focus group discussion rather than talking about how researchers engage in the objective empirical observation or study of respondents.

The post-modern tradition has an emphasis on constructivist ontology; the idea that the kinds of things which really exist, can be identified and explored by a co-operative exploration between the researcher and the subjects researched (Letiche & Essers 2004; Linstead 2004). It also has an emphasis on a concomitantly interpretive epistemology; the idea that a researcher can interpret and investigate research subjects in terms of their subjective knowledge. This type of scientific inquiry would arguably be more suited to research investigating the in-depth subjective experience of employees who had experienced working with a Corporate Psychopath rather than being suitable for the research undertaken here, with its emphasis on investigating the phenomena in more broad and definitive terms. For this reason, quantitative research was undertaken in this current research, using a survey methodology involving a self-completion questionnaire. How this questionnaire was developed is discussed in the next section of this chapter.

3.3 Research Method and Design

In terms of overall design, the research was a three stage, quantitative survey of senior white-collar workers in Western Australia. The first stage was a pilot study of ten face-to-face interviews to make sure the wording, routing and design of the questionnaire was easy for respondents to understand. The pilot tests, discussed in more detail below, of the questionnaire ensured that all questions were clear and understandable to respondents and that the questionnaire maintained their involvement (Webb 2000). In line with recommendations from questionnaire design experts a small sub-sample of ten was used in the initial pilot test of the questionnaire (Webb 2000).

The second pilot test was a self-completion questionnaire of 65 respondents to help ensure that the constructs used had a good degree of statistical reliability. The final stage of the research was a self-completion survey of 346 respondents. In total, 1,045 questionnaires were distributed and 346 completed, usable questionnaires were returned, making a response rate of 34.9%. This is a good response rate for a self-completion survey (Harvey, 1987; Yu and Cooper, 1983).

In terms of this research design, it was hypothesised that where a respondent has come across a dysfunctional manager, particularly one who may qualify as a Corporate Psychopath, the salience of the event would be high. This is because of the psychological damage and emotional abuse such people can inflict on their colleagues and the unusualness of the event (Babiak & Hare 2006). This, it was thought, would facilitate the collection of valid and reliable data about such people. Research into the use of critical incident techniques in market research has, for example, shown that a high involvement topic produces more disclosure than a low involvement topic (Burns, Williams & Maxham 2000) and as involvement with psychopaths can be a very high involvement experience then this should facilitate the collection of data about them.

Self report measures of psychopathy have been criticised and are problematic because of the nature of psychopaths who are expert liars and able to present a favourable image (Edens et al. 2001) and because they can have propensities towards narcissism and blame externalisation, which diminish their capacity to report accurately on their own personalities and behaviour. Nonetheless, some self report measures of psychopathy have met with success in terms of reliability with some of the researchers concerned speculating that psychopaths may well hold the meta-attitude that it is desirable to hold such psychopathic attitudes (Levenson, Kiehl & Fitzpatrick 1995) and so are not afraid to display them. Asking respondents to report on their own psychopathy would nevertheless have ethical implications as well as these issues relating to validity and reliability (Fowler & Lilienfeld 2007). For these reasons, it was decided not to ask respondents to report on their own behaviour in this research. Rather, respondents were asked to report on the behaviour of other managers they had known.

Similarly, the individual personality traits of the respondents were not controlled for as the research was constrained by resources and an already long questionnaire length, as to what could be reasonably covered in the research. Adding enough questions to determine the personalities of respondents would have made the questionnaire overly long and thus threatened measurement reliability and validity.

3.4 Research Sample Used

This research was conducted among a quantitative sample of 346 white-collar workers, managers and professionals in Australia drawn from a variety of professional and managerial associations. Respondents were members of chambers of commerce, members of charitable organisations, postgraduate business alumni and postgraduate business students and members of other commercial organisations in Perth, Western Australia, in 2008. The sample of respondents was managerial or professional, of working age (aged 21-60), highly educated (53.0% with postgraduate qualifications) and 53.8% male. The majority (65%) were from companies of over 100 employees from a variety of manufacturing, mining, cultural, financial services and governmental sectors and the majority (76.5%) had more than 12 years of work experience. Of all respondents, according to the psychopathy definition used in this research, 5.75% were currently working with a Corporate Psychopath as their current manager.

Respondents were asked to fill out a self-completion questionnaire, which was delivered to them in person together with a postage paid return envelope. Questionnaires were handed out at the end of lectures, meetings and seminars with postgraduate business students or other business people in Australia at various times from the beginning of May 2008 to November 2008. The response rate was good at 34.9%, probably because of the face-to-face manner in which questionnaires were distributed, and because of the compactness and professional looking design of the questionnaire. Respondents were personally handed a questionnaire by the researcher, or by his supervisors or other lecturers and asked to fill out the questionnaire and return it by post.

The questionnaire was fully structured, with pre-determined response categories and no open-ended questions. It was given to postgraduate business students (with at least one-year's work experience), and to samples of business people attending unrelated business meetings or meetings of professional groups in Perth.

It was assumed that individual questionnaires would have the advantage of the respondents' replies being confidential, and that in this situation respondents would feel more at ease in reporting on this potentially sensitive area.

Questions were asked concerning the respondents' current or last manager and a dysfunctional manager, if they had known one in the past ten years. Each respondent thus reported on up to two managers. Respondents were asked to rate the managers on various questions, one series of which was designed to give a psychopathy score. Respondents were not advised that the research was looking for psychopathy so as not to influence or bias responses.

From this psychopathy score, Corporate Psychopaths were identified within (anonymous) organisations (Corporate Psychopaths were not personally named) and their effects on organisations assessed. This design allowed a comparison of the behaviour and influence of Corporate Psychopaths and other managers to be made. A quantitative survey approach meant that findings were definitive in nature and robust in a statistical sense.

Students in USA studies typically receive course credit for participating in such studies, for example in a study of the perceptions of emotion of high psychopathy and low psychopathy students (DelGazio & Falkenbach 2008). However, postgraduate respondents did not receive course credit for their involvement in this research as they commonly do in USA university psychology departments (Lilienfeld & Andrews 1996).

None of the respondents received any remuneration or other incentive for completing the questionnaire, other than verbal and written requests to complete the survey. Four questionnaires were returned unanswered and were disregarded. Two others were partially completed and were disregarded because most questions were unanswered. This left 346 usable questionnaires.

3.5 Sample Size Determination

The choice of sample size in quantitative research depends on a number of factors. These include the desired accuracy of the estimates to be taken from the sample; the expected incidence of what is being measured, to what extent sub-groups of the total sample will be analysed in isolation, the timing available and with the costs associated with a larger sample size (Meier 2000).

In the case of this research, at the planning stage, it was assumed that if each worker knows an estimated ten other people in an organisation, and the incidence of Corporate Psychopaths is 3.5% at senior management levels, (Babiak & Hare, 2006); then the chance of that worker knowing a Corporate Psychopath will be about 35%. Therefore, the number of completed questionnaires that could be obtained concerning Corporate Psychopaths from a sample of 400 respondents would be 140.

It was thought that this would be a large enough sample to perform meaningful statistical analyses on, because sub-group analysis was not needed. Sub-groups within the total sample were not required in this research to test the hypotheses generated. This was apart from the sub-groups which were defined as: organisations where psychopathy was evident in managers (the group called Corporate Psychopaths), organisations where psychopathy was partially evident in managers (the group called Dysfunctional Managers) and as organisations where psychopathy was not evident in managers (the group called Normal Managers).

It was assumed from this that the method of questionnaire delivery to be used by this present research would yield sub-samples of around 260 non-psychopathic managers and 140 psychopathic managers. This was determined to be sufficient to compare the sub-samples for significant differences in behaviour and in workplace outcomes. In the event, the research obtained slightly lower levels of acquaintance with psychopathic managers than anticipated.

However, the effects of the presence of Corporate Psychopaths were so strong that even the statistical pilot of N=99 responses (from n=65 respondents), indicated that many of the results between the sub-groups of interest were highly significant, even at this small sample size. It was therefore decided to stop fieldwork (distribution of further questionnaires) after a sample of 300 was achieved in terms of returned completed, questionnaires.

Questionnaires continued being posted back after this and in total 346 completed questionnaires were eventually collected and processed.

3.6 Questionnaire Development

In management research, questionnaire design has been described as the art of the practical rather than of the perfect, although there are many ways of trying to ensure that a questionnaire is as valid and reliable as possible (Webb 2000). The questionnaire used in this research was designed so as to maximise response rates (Harvey 1987) in that it was designed to be as physically attractive (clear, uncluttered, easy to read) as possible to respondents so as to arouse the interest and involvement of respondents. Other factors likely to positively influence response rates have been found to be pre and post survey contact and the inclusion of incentives, which were beyond the resources of this study (Dommeyer 1988).

A clear layout, logical order, use of clear and simple words, unambiguous questions, use of short questions where possible, use of various type-faces (italic and normal, black and blue colours) to break up the monotony, and the use of clear routing instructions were all attempted to be incorporated into the questionnaire design. These are all elements determined to add to the response rates of questionnaires and to minimise item-non-response (Webb 2000).

In line with recommendations for questionnaire development (Webb 2000; Kirk-Smith & McKenna 1998), an attempt was made to keep the questionnaire to a reasonable length so as to maximise response rates and response validity and to minimise item non-response.

Researchers have long been aware of the effects that even seemingly tiny and insignificant layout details can have on questionnaire item response. A great deal of care was therefore taken to ensure that response space (the space available for a respondent to give a tick or other indication of their answer) was identical for each given response (Mayer & Piper 1982).

Response validity is the extent to which true and accurate responses are gathered by the research instrument and may be said to be the basic building block of many other types of validity in survey research. Research has been carried out to discover how response validity can be improved and these techniques were incorporated into the design of this questionnaire as discussed below (Cannell, Oksenberg & Converse 1977).

In particular, a number of ways of increasing a respondent's willingness to spend the cognitive energy, time and effort required to answer a question honestly with frankness, completeness and accuracy and to thus to increase the validity of the answers have been identified. These include clarifying what is expected of the respondent, providing clues as to how to be efficient in answering particular questions and motivating the respondent to work hard to recall and organise information relevant to the answers (Cannell, Oksenberg & Converse 1977).

In this research, instructions to the respondent were given in the questionnaire in order to clarify what is to be accomplished and to motivate respondents to complete the task. Commitment creates the motivation to complete the task and this was created by asking the respondent to make an effort to provide complete and accurate information as recommended by researchers in this area (Cannell, Oksenberg & Converse 1977). Cannell and his colleagues found that the use of these instructions and commitment techniques improved the quality of respondent's reporting.

Therefore, statements such as the following were incorporated into the questionnaire. "We know that people respond more accurately to questionnaires when they think carefully about their answers, search their memory and take their time in answering and so please do this when answering these questions". Also, "It does help to think carefully about the time period we are asking you about"; and, "This research is very important to further our understanding of the consequences dysfunctional managers can have in organisations, so please take part and be as accurate as you can in your answers". These sentences were incorporated into the research instrument (questionnaire). (See appendix for copy of questionnaire used).

Altruistic appeals such as this last one have been found to increase response rates and so this was included in the cover page of this questionnaire (Gendall, Hoek & Esslemont 1995). These statements were therefore included in order to provide the instructions and motivations that Cannell (1977) and his colleagues found so important in achieving accurate and valid responses.

In line with the results from research detailing how to maximise response rates (and thus increase the validity of the results) for self-completion surveys, a white, small (A5 paper size) format questionnaire starting with a cover page containing an illustration was used for the research instrument in order to interest and involve respondents (De Rada 2005). However, the illustration was dropped after the initial pilot as respondents voiced the opinion that the illustration gave the research instrument a trivial appearance. Questionnaires which do not have questions on the cover page are reported to be less off-putting to respondents and this was adopted here and in line with research recommendations, only the purpose of the study was described on the cover page along with a message that emphasised the value and importance of the opinions of the respondent (De Rada 2005).

Research on response rates also indicates that elements of the research process, which signify high cost, are given more value by respondents and are more likely to increase return rates. It is reported, for example, that the use of stamps rather than business return envelopes gives a more personal and less junk-mail feel to the questionnaire package (Harris & Guffey Jr. 1978). In line with this finding, good quality paper was used for printing the questionnaire to give a high cost and valuable image to respondents. However, business return envelopes were provided to respondents, rather than stamped envelopes, as this was easier to organise and required, for example, no application for budget approval. Reply paid envelopes were readily available from the Graduate School of Business concerned. Other elements known to affect the validity of responses are time lapse; the time between an event and its reporting, salience; the importance to the respondent of a particular event being reported on and social desirability; the reporting of events likely to be seen as embarrassing or sensitive to a respondent (Cannell et al., 1977; Fisher, 1993).

In terms of timeliness, the questionnaire asked respondents about either their current manager (or most recent manager if not currently working) which made data easy to recall and access, or about a dysfunctional manager they had worked with in the past ten years. In the later case, it was considered that the salience effect should more than compensate for the time recall effect. In questionnaire design, it is always advisable to frame questions within time frames that respondents can recall accurately or otherwise they may guess answers (Webb 2000) or under-reporting of information may occur (Cannell, Oksenberg & Converse 1977).

In a work environment it is reasonable to assume that the longer a person has worked with someone, the more he or she will be well acquainted and the more accurately they will be able to describe that person's personality. There may, thus have been an element of under-reporting in the study because some respondents will not have known their colleagues well enough for them to be able to detect any psychopathic traits they may have. An attempt to minimise this was made by stipulating that respondents should only report on the behaviour of people they had worked with for at least a whole year.

Commonly in questionnaire surveys, demographic questions are asked at the end of the questionnaire. This is because some sensitivity can be experienced by respondents, when giving personal information, such as their age and income, in questionnaires where they can be personally identified. As this survey was anonymous, this sensitivity was not present.

The demographic questions were therefore asked first in order to draw the respondent into the questionnaire with a number of easy to answer questions, before presenting them with potentially more difficult questions about dysfunctional managers they may have worked under, where some thought and memory recall would be needed. The initial pilot test confirmed that this sequence of questions was not a barrier to questionnaire completion by respondents.

Figure 6: Outline of Questionnaire Design

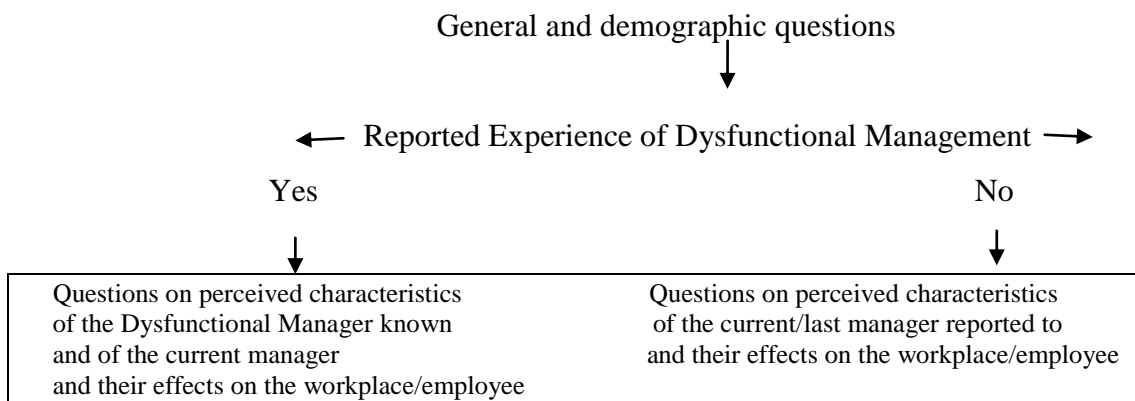


Figure 6; above, outlines the flow of the research instrument which was used in this research.

Questionnaire validity, which is taken to refer to how well a piece of research actually measures what it sets out to measure, (Quaddus, 2004, Zikmund, 2003, Jensen, 1959, Webb, 2000), or how well it reflects the reality it claims to represent, was ensured by making sure the questions are well-grounded in the literature, and so have a high face validity. Also by using, where possible, questions which had been proven in past studies to measure the constructs of concern so that they were more likely to have a high construct validity. A scale or a measure is valid if it measures what it intends to measure (Webb 2000).

Validity is established by considering, face or content validity, which is the subjective assessment of the degree to which a measure captures the characteristics of a concept one desires to measure or a subjective assessment of the correspondence between the concepts studied and the measures constructed to measure these.

In more practical terms, questionnaire validity is ensured by making sure that questions give respondents unambiguous and legitimate response categories (e.g. ‘yes or no’, ‘agree or disagree’) and do not lead or pressure respondents towards a particular answer as this can inflate responses in ways that are difficult to determine (Belkin and Lieberman, 1967).

This advice was taken into account in the design of this questionnaire, which used fairly simple, Likert-type agree/disagree dichotomies or temporal frequency scales for most questions.

Internal validity concerns how a construct is operationalised and what its various internal properties are, but must be viewed in relation to the theoretical formulation that guided the operational criteria (Frick 2000). For the instrument used in this research the theoretical formulation has been described in this thesis in relation to the concept of the successful psychopath; the psychopath who operates well in society and who does not display the overtly antisocial behaviour of the criminal psychopath. A questionnaire based research instrument was thus used. Questionnaires have been identified as being suitable research instruments for the identification of the possible explanations that relate such psychological concepts towards each other (Kirk-Smith & McKenna 1998).

In terms of the reporting of events likely to be seen as embarrassing or sensitive to a respondent, a review of the questions used indicated that this should not be a problem with this research because respondents were only being questioned about other people's behaviour, not their own and so sensitivity should not be an issue. This was found to be the case in the initial pilot of the questionnaire. Anonymity of replies gave respondents the confidence that their accurate reporting of other people's dysfunctional behaviour would not be attributable to them. This presumption that there would be a lack of respondent sensitivity and good respondent confidence in answering questions confidentially was corroborated by the findings from the initial pilot test of the questionnaire.

3.7 The Reliability and Validity of Observer Reports of Psychopathy

The method chosen for this research relies on the observation by respondents of psychopathic behaviour in others. It is important therefore, for the validity and reliability of this approach to investigate whether expert psychologists believe that psychopaths can be identified by observation. Fortunately, there is evidence from a number of studies that psychopathic traits are detectable by individuals who are well-acquainted with the individuals concerned (Mahaffey & Marcus 2006; Lilienfeld & Andrews 1996). Fowler and Lilienfeld, for example, speculate that observer ratings from people who are better acquainted with their peers could reveal pockets of incremental validity in terms of identifying psychopaths (Fowler & Lilienfeld 2007).

This consistency in results, with researchers consistently finding that psychopathic traits are detectable by individuals who are well-acquainted with the individuals concerned, lies at the heart of what is usually described as being the definition of reliability, which is a consistency in results from the repeating of the same procedures or studies (Gill & Johnson 1997). That peer observation is repeatedly found to be capable of identifying psychopathic behaviour is encouraging for the reliability of its use in this research.

Moreover, as discussed earlier, events that are important to people (highly salient or meaningful) are more readily recalled when answering a questionnaire (Webb 2000). Clarke describes the emotional havoc that Corporate Psychopaths create among their colleagues and so it is very likely that acquaintance with a manager who was a Corporate Psychopath would be easily recalled by respondents (Clarke 2005). It was considered by the researcher that this would facilitate the collection of reliable data on working with Corporate Psychopaths.

Similarly, other psychologists have investigated the utility of observer reports for reporting on the personality disorders of others, and found that levels of agreement between observer reports and self-reports was good for many personality disorders and varied according to the visibility of the particular personality disorder being reported on (Miller, Pilkonis & Morse 2004).

These researchers did not investigate the agreement between observer reports and self-reports for the disorder of psychopathy as conceptualised by the PCL-R. They did investigate it however, for the highly correlated disorders of antisocial personality disorder and narcissism, finding that antisocial personality disorder (the broad DSM conceptualisation of psychopathy) was the most visible personality disorder to observers and narcissism was one of the less visible of the ten personality disorders investigated (Miller, Pilkonis & Morse 2004). Visibility was defined by these researchers as being behaviour that was external and publicly observable as opposed to being internal or private, as assessed by a panel of fifteen expert judges.

As discussed elsewhere in this thesis, the conceptualisation of Corporate Psychopathy being investigated here involves taking the overtly antisocial and criminal behaviour elements out of the concept. This logically means that Corporate Psychopathy is probably not as visible to observers, as the disorder of (criminal) psychopathy is, as conceptualised by the PCL-R or in the definition of antisocial personality disorder; but is probably more visible than narcissism, with which it also correlates.

Hare has published extensive research on the reliable identification of psychopaths (see for example, Molto, Poy & Torrubia, (2000) for a description of this) and, as discussed, he developed the Psychopathy Checklist Revised for use in clinical psychiatry and psychology. Hare says that most ordinary people would score three or four on his scale whereas only about one per cent would score over thirty on the checklist (Deutschman 2005). This current research adopts Hare's cut off point for psychopathy and so this research also favours and uses his estimate that one per cent of the population would qualify as psychopathic at this cut-off point.

As discussed previously, this checklist has been adopted worldwide (Wormith 2000; Molto, Poy & Torrubia 2000), as the standard reference for researchers and clinicians to assess psychopathy. It has a high degree of reliability and validity (Marshall & Cooke 1999) (with the possible exception that its proven validity among female samples has been questioned due to the relative lack of studies using female subjects) (Vitale & Newman 2001).

Working with Babiak, Hare has more recently turned his attention to the corporate world and developed a version of his Psychopathy Checklist, called the Business Scan 360, for use in business. The "360" refers to the fact that the checklist involves interviews with all the people around the person concerned. A questionnaire about them is administered to their colleagues in the corporation they work for and concerns questions on anti-social tendencies, organisational maturity, interpersonal relations and personal style. A rating or score on how psychopathic the person is, results from this.

The B-Scan 360 was a test reportedly being developed by Babiak and Hare to identify the Corporate Psychopaths based on the reports of colleagues, however, articles on the B-Scan 360 have dropped out of the academic literature on the subject of psychopathy, probably due to the commercial nature of the test (Holden 2004). However, that Hare, the leading researcher in the field of psychopathy, considers that the reports of colleagues can be used to identify psychopaths, at least at a screening level, is testament to the potential usefulness and validity of such an approach.

Other researchers have also asked for the views of third parties, like teachers and parents in identifying the callous-unemotional and antisocial traits that make up a psychopathic personality (Dadds et al. 2005). This also gives credibility and face validity to the approach used in this research.

Researchers have said that peers, acting as lay observers, can give a good rating of individuals with psychopathy (Fowler & Lilienfeld 2007). This reinforces the view that such an approach could be successfully used in this management research. There is thus multiple research evidence that non-trained, non-experts can recognise psychopathy and most of its traits among people they are well acquainted with, and so this task of respondents is certainly not beyond them (Mahaffey & Marcus 2006).

From their own research and a review of the literature, these researchers have concluded that it appears that psychopathy may be detectable both by trained and untrained observers (Mahaffey & Marcus 2006) although it is recognised that not much research has been conducted in this area (Fowler & Lilienfeld 2007). Corporate Psychopaths should therefore logically be visible to those who have known and worked with the subject for some time. This again lends support to the methodology undertaken in this research where observers were asked to report on the behaviour of work colleagues with whom they had worked with for at least one year.

3.8 Core Instrument Development – Measuring Corporate Psychopaths

The difficulties of taking a clinical assessment tool to research a management environment have been discussed by Goldman in his piece on personality disorders in leaders (Goldman 2006). Goldman points out that a minimum number of the factors which make up a personality disorder are necessary for such a diagnosis and that there is little agreement or consistency over how and by whom assessments can be made. He advocates the setting of objective standards and claims that a clinical participant observer of organisations, such as himself, is qualified to make such judgements.

This research undertakes such an exercise in that it sets objective standards as to what defines a Corporate Psychopath and applies these to the management setting by asking respondents whether the managers they know or have known, exhibit or exhibited such behaviours. This may not be as accurate as full clinical, psychological diagnoses, at least in terms of identifying individual psychopaths, but it acts as a pragmatic substitute and enables this important research to be undertaken at all. Goldman acknowledges that few management scholars have credentials in both management and psychotherapy making accurate clinical diagnoses difficult. Hare also states the importance of the professional competence of the people who are to make clinical diagnoses of individuals because of the severe implications of those diagnoses for the people identified (Hare 1999b).

Unlike in the physical sciences, where such dimensions as length and depth can be measured directly using commonly agreed on units of measurement, the measurement of psychological characteristics is, of necessity, an indirect measure because psychological characteristics are not directly observable (Cooke et al. 2005). Measurement is therefore made of observable behaviour such as verbal reports of symptoms, and a person's standing on the psychological characteristic is inferred from this (Cooke et al. 2005).

The “gold-standard” measure (most accepted and commonly used) (Morana, Arboleda-Florez & Camara 2005; Brinkley et al. 2004) for identifying psychopaths, the Psychopathy Checklist Revised (PCL-R), has been criticised because of its time intensive nature and the necessity for extensive training in its use (Edens et al. 2001). It is reported to take around 120 minutes to conduct the in-depth interview part of the diagnosis, and, as this is just a part of the diagnosis, it is clearly un-wieldy for management research via respondent surveys (Hobson & Shine 1998). (It is noted here that the PCL-R can be scored using just clinical file data without additional interviews where such file data is deemed to be of high quality and this method is reported to yield high predictive validity in research). (Harris et al. 2007).

The Psychopathy Checklist Revised is also inappropriate for use in management research in its present form because it was developed for clinical use among prisoners and involving access to case histories (Benning et al. 2003) and clinical interviews that can take up to a day to process for each individual concerned (Sandler 2007). A shortened version was therefore developed for use in this management research. Without meaning to sound presumptuous, this version was called the Psychopathy Measure - Management Research Version (PM-MRV) as a means of identifying it in this research.

The PCL-R is recognised as having drawbacks for use in non-clinical settings. This is because of its unwieldy nature in terms of the length of time taken to administer the instrument and assess the results and the concomitantly high costs associated with doing this (Mahmut, Homewood & Stevenson 2007). This makes it inappropriate for screening large numbers of people and so impractical for use in quantitative management research in its clinical form. A questionnaire based on the commonalities between Cleckley’s description of psychopaths (Cleckley 1988) and on the Psychopathy Checklist Revised (Hare 1991) and on Cooke and Michie’s work (2004) and designed for use by respondents to report about other (unnamed) people was therefore considered the best way to identify the presence of Corporate Psychopaths in organisations.

This section of the methodology chapter discusses how this was developed. As evidence for the validity of this approach there is research evidence that untrained, non-experts and peer group members can identify and detect psychopaths and many of the traits they possess (Mahaffey & Marcus 2006). In this current research, respondents were asked to identify whether they knew/had experienced dysfunctional managers and if so, with what traits they identified them.

These traits were then matched against those from a profile of psychopathy to identify which work situations could be described as having involved psychopaths. The measured outcomes from those work situations that could be described as having involved psychopaths (called Corporate Psychopaths in this research) were compared to the measured outcomes from those work situations that did not involve psychopaths to see if any significant differences were present. The research actually found many significant differences and these are reported on in the next chapter of this thesis.

Hare's checklist is regarded as the instrument of choice for the identification of psychopaths (Marshall & Cooke 1999; Taylor et al. 2003) and factor analysis on this checklist consistently identifies a two factor solution. The first factor comprises the personality traits that many see as the core elements of psychopathy and is termed "selfish, callous, and remorseless use of others" (Marshall & Cooke 1999) or 'emotional detachment' (Reardon, Lang & Patrick 2002). The second factor is termed "chronically unstable and antisocial lifestyle: social deviance" and consists of the behavioural characteristics of psychopaths. Researchers report that as the construct is an open one, individuals do not have to display all of the elements of it to be classified as psychopathic and that the antisocial elements may theoretically not be displayed at all (Frick 2000).

The PM-MRV (Psychopathy Measure – Management Research Version) developed for use in this research is totally based on the factor 1 traits as it is evident that Corporate Psychopaths do not overtly exhibit the factor 2 (anti-social and criminal) traits.

To some researchers, these factors correspond to what they call primary psychopathy and secondary psychopathy (McHoskey, Worzel & Szyarto 1998; Levenson, Kiehl & Fitzpatrick 1995). They define primary psychopaths as being those whose behaviour is motivated by the core dispositions of psychopathy (PCL-R factor 1 elements) such as selfishness, callousness and shallow affect and secondary psychopaths as being those whose behaviour is motivated by different dispositions such as neurotic conflict and antisocial behaviour (PCL-R factor 2 elements) (Levenson, Kiehl & Fitzpatrick 1995).

More recently, the factor structure delineation has been opened to debate and researchers have discussed three and four factor solutions to the PCL-R (Neumann et al. 2005; Cooke et al. 2004). Cooke and his colleagues propose a three factor solution consisting of interpersonal style, affective experience and an impulsive, irresponsible lifestyle (Cooke et al. 2004; Cooke & Michie 2001).

Cooke and Michie criticised Hare's use of multivariate tests in the original research to determine the factor structure of the PCL-R, and in particular Hare's conclusion that a comparative fit index of .83 was sufficient to warrant the conclusion that this indicated a moderate fit with the predicted factor structure. Cooke and Michie then re-worked some of Hare's original data along with some of their own research. In this study they found that Hare's two factor model did not provide an adequate fit to the data, and over a series of four further studies, developed and refined a three factor structure model of psychopathy with a reportedly better fit to the data (Cooke & Michie 2001). Presenting this in a long, plausible and persuasive paper in 2001 they argued that Hare's PCL-R was based on a misinterpretation of congruence coefficients. Also that, for example, the criminality elements were correlates or consequences of psychopathy rather than core elements of the syndrome and that these criminal elements did not fit in with their superior delineation of the construct of psychopathy (Cooke & Michie 2001).

The three factor structure model of psychopathy fits better with the traditional clinical delineation of psychopathy, they say, (Cleckley 1988) which is underpinned by affective, interpersonal and behavioural components (Cooke & Michie 2001). They describe their three-factor model as involving a first factor measuring an arrogant and deceitful interpersonal style consisting of the elements of possessing glibness and superficial charm and grandiosity. A second factor, measures a deficient affective experience and consisting of the elements of shallow affect, being callous and lacking empathy, and lacking remorse or guilt and a failure to accept responsibility. A third factor measures an impulsive and irresponsible behavioural style and consists of the elements of demonstrating a need for stimulation/a proneness for boredom, impulsivity and irresponsibility and a parasitic lifestyle and lack of realistic long term goals (Cooke & Michie 2001).

These authors finished their paper advocating that their three-factor revision of the PCL-R should be used for further research into psychopathy but said that Hare's existing PCL-R should continue to be used for clinical (criminal) risk assessment. Their three-factor model is summarised in Table 4 in the following pages of this chapter. A key issue for these researchers was to drop Hare's anti-social/criminal elements of psychopathy in order to develop a more refined and purer model of psychopathy. This is in line with much of the literature calling for such a refined measure to identify non-criminal psychopaths. This is also what the PM-MRV does (see Table 5), it focuses exclusively on Hare's factor 1 elements and Cooke and Michie's factors 1 and 2 psychopathy items to obtain a pure measure of psychopathy which does not confound psychopathy with criminal and anti-social behaviour.

Hare and his colleagues replied to Cooke and Michie with a criticism of the mathematical modelling used in the three-factor model. In particular, they said that an adequate test of a four factor model was not undertaken, and instead asserted that a four factor model, which reintroduced some of the antisocial/criminal elements Cooke had dispensed with back into the model, was more appropriate (Neumann et al. 2005).

These four factors were an interpersonal factor, an affective factor, a behavioural lifestyle factor and an antisocial factor (Neumann et al. 2005). In reply, Cooke and other colleagues repeated their arguments that antisocial behaviour is a consequence of psychopathy rather than a symptom of it. This was reported on in a later paper that analysed UK research data on psychopaths (Cooke et al. 2004) and the researchers cited Cleckley's (1988) view that many psychopaths have no history of antisocial behaviour as further evidence for their claims. This conclusion provides good evidence for the choice of items used in the PM-MRV, as this instrument also removes the anti-social/criminal elements from the measure. Cooke and colleagues again found that a three factor solution was the best fit to their data set and said that the antisocial elements of the PCL-R should be reduced or dropped altogether as their inclusion was causing the construct to drift away from its original conceptualisation (Cooke et al. 2004).

Since the three factor solution was first proposed, other researchers have conducted research among non-criminal psychopaths and compared the relative goodness of fit between the two factor solution and the three factor solution proposed by Cooke and Michie. These researchers concluded that the three factor solution fits better, is more plausible than the two factor model and assesses psychopathy in a more theoretically coherent manner (Skeem, Mulvey & Grisso 2003). Other researchers also assert that either the three factor or four factor models fit their data better than the original two factor model does (Guy & Douglas 2006).

Johansson and colleagues, for example, reported that that Cooke and Michie's thirteen item psychopathy checklist, was tested by them and found to have a good fit to the data compared to only a reasonable fit for Hare's two factor solution (Cooke & Michie 2001; Johansson et al. 2002). Their research supported the claim that Cooke and Michie's (2001) thirteen-item measure of psychopathy yielded three easily interpretable factors, an interpersonal factor, an affective factor and a behavioural/lifestyle factor.

The underlying construct of psychopathy (the higher order factor) remains essentially the same and for management research, purposes the core (factor 1, non-criminal) elements of the PCL-R were therefore used in the PM-MRV to assess perceived psychopathic traits in managers. This is in line with the criticisms of the PCL-R discussed above. Further, it is also in line with Hare's recommendation for identifying Corporate Psychopaths, as discussed below.

The subset of his checklist that Hare says caters for identifying Corporate Psychopaths, is that they are glib and superficially charming, have a grandiose sense of self-worth and are pathological liars. They are also good at conning and manipulating others, have no remorse about harming others, are emotionally shallow, calculating and cold, callous and lacking in empathy and they fail to take responsibility for their own actions. These are Hare's factor 1 elements and Cooke and Michie's factor 1 and 2 elements as discussed above.

These are also the core elements originally identified by Cleckley as being characteristic of psychopaths and Cleckley did not use criminal indicators as much as Hare later did in the PCL-R (Edens et al. 2001; Rutter 2005). Cleckley's original checklist is detailed in Table 3 below for reference.

That Cleckley did not include criminal elements in his list provides support for the arguments of Cooke and Michie. It is also support for the exclusion of the criminal elements in the PM-MRV (Psychopathy Measure - Management Research Version) used in this research.

Cleckley's original checklist for identifying psychopaths is detailed in table 3 below.

Table 3: Cleckley's Original Criteria for Psychopathy

Table 3:	Cleckley's Original Criteria for Psychopathy (Cleckley 1988).
1	Superficial Charm
2	Absence of irrational thinking
3	Absence of nervousness
4	Unreliability
5	Untruthfulness and insincerity
6	Lack of remorse
7	Inadequately motivated antisocial behaviour
8	Poor judgement
9	Pathological egocentricity
10	Affective poverty
11	Lack of insight
12	Interpersonal unresponsiveness
13	Fantastic and uninviting behaviour
14	Rare suicide attempts
15	Impersonal sex life
16	Failure to follow a life plan

Hare's inclusion of specifically criminal elements such as 'revocation of conditional release and 'criminal versatility' has led to the PCL-R being criticised in terms of its usefulness for identifying psychopaths among non-criminal samples of the population (Vitale & Newman 2001). This inclusion of the criminal elements; 'revocation of conditional release and 'criminal versatility' has also led to the PCL-R being criticised for being tautological in structure in that (the criminal) criterion and (criminal) outcomes are not clearly and separately demarked (Walters 2004).

Indeed, researchers into the construct of psychopathy have argued that the emphasis of the PCL-R on criminality is probably a reflection of the population in which the checklist was developed, and that criminality is not a core feature of psychopathy but rather a correlate or a consequence of it (Cooke & Michie 2001). There is thus much support in the literature for a psychopathy measure, which excludes criminal elements, and this is good support for the PM-MRV used in this research.

Walters (2004) also criticises the PCL-R for not providing a general theory of crime and for not taking situational/environmental factors into account in criminal behaviour. However, these criticisms are misdirected in the view of this author because Hare and his various colleagues have not claimed that psychopathy is a general theory of crime and have not said that environmental factors do not play a part in psychopathic behaviour and how this manifests (Walters 2004).

Given that this research is primarily interested in these non-criminal psychopaths, then it makes sense to adopt the eight core elements from this thirteen item measure rather than the whole of Hare's original twenty item measure (the PCL-R) as a measure of the presence of Corporate Psychopaths. This is what has been done in the PM-MRV, as detailed in Tables 4 and 5.

A discussion of the bias of most current instruments towards the antisocial components of psychopathy has been discussed and is recognised by researchers in the field (Benning et al. 2003). Therefore, based on a comprehensive review of the literature as it reports on successful or non-institutionalised psychopaths, the antisocial elements of the PCL-R have been dropped from the elements of the instrument used here (the PM-MRV) in this research to identify psychopathic behaviour in managers.

This research is concerned with identifying the effects of the behaviour of successful or white collar psychopaths and so in line with the criticisms of these elements of the PCL-R for non-criminal samples, the more criminal elements of psychopathy have been deleted (Edens et al., 2001; Johansson et al. 2002; Vitale and Newman, 2001; Cooke and Michie, 2001).

As can be seen in the next table, (Table 4), there is in any case a total overlap between Hare's suggested criteria for Corporate Psychopaths; i.e. the factor one elements of his two factor solution to the PCL-R, and Cooke and Michie's factor one and two elements from their three factor solution for psychopathy.

These were therefore adopted as the elements to be measured in this present research as those providing evidence of the existence of Corporate Psychopaths in the organisations in which respondents worked. The items used were intended to operationalise, for Corporate Psychopaths, the non-antisocial elements of psychopathy as identified by the literature review.

This is in line with the recommendations of Hare and others (Babiak & Hare 2006; Hercz 2001) as to how to identify non-institutionalised psychopaths and thus the operational criteria selected do have a prima facie measure of internal and face validity.

These elements are identified in Table 4 below.

Table 4: Comparison of the PCL-R Criteria for Psychopathy, Cooke's 13 Item Measure, Hare's Suggested Criteria for Corporate Psychopathy and the Measure's Adopted in this research.

Psychopathy (PCL-R): (Hare 1991)	Cooke's 13 Item Measure (Cooke & Michie 2001)	Hare's Suggested Criteria for Corporate Psychopathy	Measures used in this research
<i>Interpersonal Aspects</i>	<i>Interpersonal Facet</i>		
Glibness/superficial charm	Glibness/superficial charm	Glibness/superficial charm	Yes
Grandiose sense of self-worth	Grandiose sense of self-worth	Grandiose sense of self-worth	Yes
Pathological lying	Pathological lying	A Pathological lying	Yes
Conning/manipulative	Conning/manipulative	Conning/manipulative	Yes
<i>Affective Aspects</i>	<i>Affective facet</i>		
Lack of remorse or guilt	Lack of remorse or guilt	Lack of remorse or guilt	Yes
Shallow affect (emotion)	Shallow affect (emotion)	Shallow affect (emotion)	Yes
Failure to accept responsibility for actions	Failure to accept responsibility for actions	Failure to accept responsibility for actions	Yes
Cold/callous/lack of empathy	Cold/callous/lack of empathy	Cold/callous/lack of empathy	Yes
<i>Lifestyle Aspects</i>	<i>Lifestyle facet</i>		
Need for excitement	Need for excitement		
Parasitic lifestyle	Parasitic lifestyle		
Impulsivity	Impulsivity		
Irresponsibility	Irresponsibility		
Lack of realistic long term goals	Lack of realistic long term goals		
Promiscuous sexual behaviour			
Many short term marital relationships			
<i>Antisocial Aspects</i>			
Poor behavioural control			
Early behavioural problems			
Juvenile delinquency			
Revocation of conditional release			
Criminal versatility			

Refining the conceptualisation of psychopaths to that of Corporate Psychopaths can be argued to be increasing the incremental utility of the concept because it adds to the identification and delineation of non-incarcerated psychopaths and to the understanding of the psychopathic behaviour of non-incarcerated psychopaths. This is an objective that researchers have repeatedly called for in more recent times (Frick, Bodin & Barry 2000) and is said to be an improvement on research that merely equates psychopathy with severe antisocial behaviour (Lynam 1997).

The items used to identify Corporate Psychopaths in this research were thus those shown in Table 5 below.

Table 5: Corporate Psychopathy Items: The Psychopathy Measure – Management Research Version.

The Psychopathy Measure– Management Research Version.	Source
<p>Glibness and Superficial Charm:</p> <p>(Such behaviours as being friendly and extroverted on first meeting them, being an entertaining speaker, being very smooth and being very persuasive when it suits them).</p>	<p>(Cleckley 1988) (Hare 1999a; Hare 1991) (Cooke & Michie 2001)</p>
<p>Are Accomplished Liars</p> <p>(Such behaviours as being able to lie convincingly when they need to, being good at bullshitting and being able to talk themselves out of trouble when found to be lying).</p>	<p>(Cleckley 1988) (Hare 1999a; Hare 1991) (Cooke & Michie 2001)</p>
<p>Are Manipulative and Conning</p> <p>(Such behaviours as being good at using people, being good at conning people, having well developed political/networking skills and being good at seducing other people).</p>	<p>(Hare 1999a; Hare 1991) (Cooke & Michie 2001)</p>
<p>Have A Grandiose Sense of Self-Worth</p> <p>(Such behaviours as bragging about themselves, downplaying their own personal problems and blaming others for them, behaving like they feel that they are above the rules).</p>	<p>(Cleckley 1988) (Hare 1999a; Hare 1991) (Cooke & Michie 2001)</p>
<p>Display a lack of remorse about how their actions harm other employees</p> <p>(Such behaviours as saying that they feel bad about their own harmful actions but don't act as though they really do feel bad, blaming others for trouble they cause themselves, having no shame over their ruthlessness in pursuing their careers at any cost).</p>	<p>(Cleckley 1988) (Hare 1999a; Hare 1991) (Cooke & Michie 2001)</p>
<p>Are Emotionally shallow, calculating and cold</p> <p>(Such behaviours as not being affected by someone close dying or suffering, making dramatic displays of emotion that don't look real or heartfelt, claim friendship with you but being unconcerned with your welfare).</p>	<p>(Cleckley 1988) (Hare 1999a; Hare 1991) (Cooke & Michie 2001)</p>
<p>Display a lack of empathy – they don't show any capacity to experience the feelings of others</p> <p>(Such behaviours as openly making fun of others, being able to fire people without worrying about it, being selfish, being emotionally or verbally abusive).</p>	<p>(Hare 1999a; Hare 1991) (Cooke & Michie 2001)</p>
<p>Refuse to take responsibility for their own actions</p> <p>(Such behaviours as always having an excuse when things go wrong, blaming others for their own mistakes, claiming responsibility for the good work that other employees do).</p>	<p>(Hare 1999a; Hare 1991) (Cooke & Michie 2001)</p>

3.9 Development of Dependent Variables

In terms of the questions and scales used to measure dependent variables, that is the other constructs of interest in this research, such as job satisfaction and conflict at work; existing scales were used wherever possible while other scales were derivative but based on existing research and modified for use in this research. Levels of workplace conflict was measured by the Interpersonal Conflict at Work Scale (Spector & Jex 1998) while workload was measured by the same authors' Quantitative Workload Inventory scale (Spector & Jex 1998) and organisational constraints were measured by Spector and Jex's Organisational Constraints Scale (Spector & Jex 1998). Elements of the Job Satisfaction Scale (Spector 1985) were used to measure how satisfied respondents were in their workplace. Items were chosen to meet minimum thresholds of reliability with a Cronbach's alpha of 0.6 or more where these alphas were reported. Cronbach's alpha is a measure of internal consistency and reliability and an alpha coefficient measures how correlated each question item is with each of the other question items in the scale being used, the logic of this being that if the items in the scale are all related then it is an internally consistent scale (Tharenou, Donohue & Cooper 2007). Using these existing scales and items maintains consistency with past studies and allows some external comparisons (external to this study) to be made.

Individual questions from the above established questionnaires were also selected based on theoretical guidance and a judgement made as to which were the most appropriate according to the objectives of this particular research study and in line with the hypotheses to be tested. The tables of questions delineated below identify the sources of the individual questions used in this research.

In terms of the order of question areas presented to respondents, some consideration was given to whether to put the job satisfaction questions after or before the questions about other work related areas such as workplace conflict, withdrawal and constraints.

This was because some organisational psychologists have argued that the order of questions may affect correlations. However in a quasi-experimental study to look at this issue via a split sample, with half being asked satisfaction questions before perceptual questions and half being asked these questions the other way around, it was reported that perceptions towards a job and satisfaction were not affected by order of presentation (Spector & Michaels 1983).

The items in Table 6 below relate to the first and fifth hypotheses in the research. “H1, Employees who work in workplaces where managers are perceived to demonstrate the traits associated with being Corporate Psychopaths, will report higher levels of conflict at work than those who do not.” “H5, Employees in workplaces where managers are perceived to demonstrate the traits associated with being Corporate Psychopaths, will report higher levels of bullying than those who do not”.

Researchers have found that conflict at work can affect other personnel and the organisation itself depending somewhat on whether the source of the conflict is seen as being personal (usually a peer) or corporate (usually a superior). They found that conflict resulting from a superior is more likely to result in a reaction towards the organisation rather than the person (Bruk-Lee & Spector 2006) through such things as counterproductive workplace behaviour. The four conflict at work questions comprise three items from Spector and Jex’s (1998) ‘Interpersonal conflict at work scale’ designed to measure how respondents get along with others at work, with high scores representing frequent personal conflicts at work.

The researchers who invented the scale report a good level of internal consistency reliability (coefficient alpha) with an average of .74 across thirteen studies. The bullying question (fourth item) was a new item based on common definitions of workplace bullying (Dierickx 2004; Djurkovic, McCormack & Casimir 2004).

Table 6: Construct of Conflict and Bullying Item

Conflict/Bullying	Source
How often do/did you get into arguments with others at work?	(Spector & Jex 1998)
How often do/did other people yell at you at work?	(Spector & Jex 1998)
How often are/were people rude to you at work?	(Spector & Jex 1998) (Harvey et al. 2007)
How often did you witness unfavourable treatment of one employee by another in this workplace?	(Dierickx 2004; Djurkovic, McCormack & Casimir 2004)

The bullying item (the unfavourable treatment of employees) was put together with the conflict scale as it seemed to logically fit there with the other items in this scale. This entailed a risk to the validity and reliability of the conflict scale. However, the reliability statistics investigated in the pilot stage of the research indicated that this was not evident and that the scale was reliable. This was confirmed further, by the same reliability analysis of the full results of the research. The alpha for the construct of conflict was a good .78. The results of using the scale also suggest strong validity as well.

The items in Table 7 below relate to the second hypothesis in the research: “H2: Employees who work in workplaces where managers are perceived to demonstrate the traits associated with being Corporate Psychopaths, will experience lower levels of job satisfaction than those who do not”. Items were taken from Spector’s (1985) ‘Job satisfaction survey’. Not all of the original thirty-six items were used; this was in the interests of keeping the questionnaire to a reasonable length. Psychologists debate whether job satisfaction is a result of personal differences in response to situations or whether situations themselves are the most important factor in job satisfaction (Spector 2005) and probably it is an interplay of both. The situation of working with a psychopathic colleague would be salient and memorable as discussed above, and so it was assumed that working with a psychopathic colleague would affect job satisfaction.

Table 7: Job Satisfaction Items

Job Satisfaction Items	Source
When I do/did a good job, I receive/received the recognition for it that I should receive.	(Spector 1985)
I like/liked the people I work with.	(Spector 1985)
Communications seems/seemed good within this organisation.	(Spector 1985)
My supervisor is/was unfair to me.	(Spector 1985)
I do not/did not feel that the work I do/did is/was appreciated.	(Spector 1985)
I find/found I have/had to work harder at my job because of the incompetence of people I work/worked with.	(Spector 1985)
My supervisor shows/showed too little interest in the feelings of subordinates.	(Spector 1985)
I don't/didn't feel my efforts are/were rewarded the way they should be/have been.	(Spector 1985)

The items in Table 8 below relate to the third hypothesis in the research. “H3: Employees, who work in workplaces where managers are perceived to demonstrate the traits associated with being Corporate Psychopaths, will report higher levels of organisational constraints than those who do not”.

This is the ‘Organisational Constraints Scale’ operationalised by Spector and Jex (1998) to measure levels of organisational constraints. They report that the individual items in this scale are not considered to be parallel forms of the underlying construct but are rather items, which together constitute the construct of organisational constraints; as such, the coefficient alpha is not deemed to be an appropriate index of reliability for such a scale and is not given by the authors.

Table 8: Organisational Constraints Items

Organisational Constraint Items How often do/did you find it difficult or impossible to do your job because of...	Source
Poor equipment or supplies.	(Spector & Jex 1998)
Organisational rules and procedures.	(Spector & Jex 1998)
Other employees.	(Spector & Jex 1998)
Your supervisor.	(Spector & Jex 1998)
Lack of equipment or supplies.	(Spector & Jex 1998)
Inadequate training.	(Spector & Jex 1998)
Interruptions by other people.	(Spector & Jex 1998)
Lack of necessary information about what to do or how to do it.	(Spector & Jex 1998)
Conflicting job demands.	(Spector & Jex 1998)
Inadequate help from others.	(Spector & Jex 1998)
Incorrect instructions.	(Spector & Jex 1998)

The items in Table 9 below relate to the fourth hypothesis in the research: “H4: Employees who work in workplaces where managers are perceived to demonstrate the traits associated with being Corporate Psychopaths, will report lower levels of workplace corporate social responsibility than those who do not”.

The items were developed for this study based on a reading of some of the recent literature on corporate social responsibility (Laczniak and Murphy, 2006; Ketola, 2006; Aupperle et al., 1983; Boddy, 2005c).

Table 9: Corporate Social Responsibility Items

Corporate Social Responsibility Items	Source
The organisation does/did business in a socially responsible manner	New item
The organisation does/did business in an environmentally friendly manner	(Ketola 2006)
The organisation does/did business in a way that benefited the local community	New item
The organisation does/did business in a way that showed commitment to its employees	New item

The items in Table 10 below relate to the sixth hypothesis in the research; “H6 Employees who work in workplaces where managers are perceived to demonstrate the traits associated with being Corporate Psychopaths, will report greater workloads than those who do not”. The five item scale was designed to measure the quantity of work involved in a job rather than the qualitative difficulty of undertaking a job and the designers report an average internal consistency (coefficient alpha) of .82 across fifteen studies (Spector & Jex 1998). The question about hours worked per week was added as a new item as an additional objective measure of workload.

Table 10: Workload Items

Workload Items	Source
How often did/does your job require you to work very fast?	(Spector & Jex 1998)
How often did/does your job require you to work very hard?	(Spector & Jex 1998)
How often did/does your job leave you with little time to get things done?	(Spector & Jex 1998)
How often is/was there a great deal to be done?	(Spector & Jex 1998)
How often do/did you have to do more work than you can/could do well?	(Spector & Jex 1998)
How many hours per week did you work in this job?	New item

The seventh hypothesis: Managers displaying the traits associated with being Corporate Psychopaths will be perceived to be more common at higher levels of management within workplaces than at lower levels; was deemed to be testable via the demographic analysis of the spread of psychopathy scores. This hypothesis therefore has no single construct associated with it apart from the construct of psychopathy itself.

The items in Table 11 below relate to the eighth hypothesis in the research: “H8 Employees, who work in workplaces where managers are perceived to demonstrate the traits associated with being Corporate Psychopaths, will report higher levels of withdrawal from the workplace than those who do not”.

These four items are taken from the thirty-three item version of the ‘Counterproductive Work Behaviour Checklist’. The thirty-three item version reportedly produces five subscales of; abuse (harmful and nasty behaviours that affect other people), production deviance (purposely doing the job incorrectly or allowing errors to occur), sabotage (destroying the physical environment), theft, and withdrawal (avoiding work through being absent or late) developed by Spector and his colleagues (Spector et al. 2006).

Withdrawal is reportedly linked to being upset and so these items were considered appropriate to use in this research as this can reportedly be a consequence of working alongside someone who displays psychopathic behaviour (Clarke 2005). Internal consistency reliability (coefficient alpha) was reportedly 0.63 in Spector’s research, for these items.

Table 11: Withdrawal Items

Withdrawal Items	Source
Came to work late without permission	(Spector et al. 2006)
Stayed home from work and said you were sick when you weren’t	(Spector et al. 2006)
Taken a longer break than you were allowed to take	(Spector et al. 2006)
Left work earlier than you were allowed to	(Spector et al. 2006)

3.10 Questionnaire Pilot Testing

Pilot testing of survey questionnaires is recommended to help ensure that respondents understand the questions and the response categories correctly (i.e. as intended by the researcher) (Tharenou, Donohue & Cooper 2007; Harpaz 1996). Pilot testing is also undertaken to ensure that a questionnaire does not have flaws to do with flow and routing instructions, understanding of words used and readability of questions, and to make sure that there is no ambiguity in the questions asked (Wolfe 2000; Van Eunen 1995). This helps to ensure that any error because of its design and wording is eliminated from the questionnaire and to identify any practical problems that may occur with distributing and collecting the questionnaires, and with the data entry procedures that are used (Teijlingen and Hundley, 2001; Reynolds et al., 1993). It also identifies any errors that may only be apparent to the population sampled .

A pilot test of the questionnaire was therefore undertaken to ensure that all questions were clear and understandable to respondents and that the questionnaire maintained their involvement (Webb 2000). In line with recommendations from management questionnaire design experts (Webb 2000) a small sub-sample of ten was used to pilot test the questionnaire in terms of wording and flow. It is recommended in the literature that this pilot testing be undertaken via face to face interviews and this was undertaken here, with the researcher being present to aid and assist all through the respondent's completion of the questionnaire, in the initial wording pilot test. After a number of minor wording revisions were made and some additional routing instructions were added and the illustration was removed from the front cover of the questionnaire, a further sixty-five questionnaires were pilot tested to allow statistical tests of reliability to be performed (Radhakrishna 2007).

In line with common research practice when conducting pilot tests and along the lines of what academics are calling ‘cognitive interviewing’ (Beatty & Willis 2007), respondents were de-briefed after completing the questionnaire. They were asked questions as to the clarity of meaning of the questions, whether the questions were easy to answer, whether the flow of questions appeared to be logical, whether the routing instructions were clear, whether the questionnaire was too long and whether the questionnaire engaged and retained their interest (Webb 2000). Cognitive interviewing is defined by Beatty & Willis (2007, p.287) as being “the administration of draft survey questions while collecting additional verbal information about the survey responses, which is used to evaluate the quality of the response or to help determine whether the question is generating the information that its author intends” (Beatty & Willis 2007). It is an iterative way of developing and evaluating a questionnaire by asking the respondent questions about how they constructed their answers, what meanings they gave the questions and what difficulties they had in answering the questions. Answers are evaluated and fed back into the questionnaire design to make it easier to follow and answer.

Both spontaneous (i.e. unprompted) and prompted comments from respondents can be collected to assist in this process of questionnaire evaluation. It is generally agreed that comments collected at the time of or immediately after the questionnaire has been answered, are the most useful as the relevant details are still in the short term memory of the respondent (Beatty & Willis 2007). Discussions over whether spontaneous (i.e. unprompted, ‘think-aloud’ comments) or prompted comments are the more useful for this purpose are currently unresolved in academia but there is agreement that the process in general is a useful one for refining and developing a questionnaire (Beatty & Willis 2007; Webb 2000).

Pilot-test participants are chosen for convenience, as they were here, rather than as being a representative sample of the population under consideration, the aim being to get easy and ready access to identified problems with the questionnaire so that it can be improved prior to the main survey being carried out (Beatty & Willis 2007).

The aim of this procedure is to check the content validity of the questionnaire (Norland 1990). It is assumed that the most critical problems with a questionnaire, if any, will be identified by this process of pilot-testing (Beatty and Willis, 2007; Diamantopoulos et al., 1994). The interviewer, if there is one, or the questionnaire administrator, if present at the time of the interview, is asked to try to notice any signs of hesitation, confusion or reluctance on the part of the respondent during the course of answering or otherwise completing the questionnaire. These instances can be noted and probing questions can then ascertain their cause so that remedial action can be taken in terms of the questionnaire design or wording, if deemed necessary (Beatty & Willis 2007). Misunderstandings or ambiguities in the wording can be identified at this stage (Diamantopoulos, Reynolds & Schlegelmilch 1994).

The Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) software was used to analyse the data from the statistical pilot test and this provides two key pieces of information for this purpose. The first of these is the correlation matrix and the second is the 'view alpha if item deleted' column which can be used to determine if the alpha level (level of reliability) can be raised by the deletion of items from the scale under consideration (Radhakrishna 2007).

The researcher scans down the column to see if any entries are greater than the overall alpha for the entire scale. The assumption is that if alpha increases when an item is deleted then that item is measuring something other than what the scale is meant to be measuring and so the item should be deleted as it does not belong in the same scale as the other items (Todd, Bieber & Grandjean 2004). Researchers suggest that such decisions should be made by the researchers involved based on their knowledge of the theoretical basis for the questionnaire and not just on the empirical results (Todd, Bieber & Grandjean 2004). A reliability coefficient, (alpha), of 0.7 is considered to be an acceptable level of reliability (Radhakrishna 2007; Norland 1990) although some researchers report that a 0.6 level is acceptable (Todd, Bieber & Grandjean 2004).

In a questionnaire like this one, where several questions are designed to assess the same trait, such as workplace conflict for example, then questionnaire reliability addresses the degree to which a respondent's observed scores on each item agrees with their universal score on that item (Todd, Bieber & Grandjean 2004).

If the item scores all agree with the universal score then the questionnaire is considered to be reliable. Inter item correlations should also be positive if the questionnaire is reliable (Todd, Bieber & Grandjean 2004). The inter-item correlation matrix in SPSS gives the researcher some idea about how well the items relate to one another and all or nearly all of the correlations should be positive. Reliability implies internal consistency which means that items in a scale should be positively related to one another (Todd, Bieber & Grandjean 2004). In line with accepted wisdom on the use of pilot results, the pilot test questionnaires from the initial pilot were not included in the final sample of respondents as changes in question routing and wording would make direct comparisons of data questionable in terms of validity (Teijlingen & Hundley 2001).

3.11 Ethical Considerations in the Methodology

Although, or perhaps because, it is described as being the best measure of psychopathy, the PCL-R checklist has come under recent criticism in its use in criminal and legal settings where it is used to help determine sentencing and is even used in capital punishment cases (Edens 2006). Edens (2006) points out that the probabilistic findings, based on average associations that are reported on in much of the research on psychopathy, do not support absolutist assertions as to the likely conduct, including recidivism and violence, of individual psychopaths. Also, that great care has to be used in the labelling of someone as psychopathic because of the prejudicial associations of the label and the potential for stigmatisation that goes with the label (Dadds et al. 2005).

This is particularly the case in the criminal justice systems of countries where the label of psychopath can be applied to identified sub-sets of criminals, because it can mean that sentencing is more severe and treatment less available to these people due to their perceived levels of treat-ability (low) and recidivism (high) (Shiple & Arrigo 2001).

This researcher, in turn, has the ethical responsibility to make sure that unsubstantiated interpretations from this research do not appear as truths in any related press communications about the research findings (Cronbach & Meehl 1955). This potential for stigmatisation is especially noted when the label could potentially be used in legal cases where it may have a pronounced effect on how the defendant is seen (DeMatteo & Edens 2006).

The present research does not identify named individuals as psychopathic and so has no legal or prejudicial implications for any individuals. Edens' criticisms of the way the checklist is used or can be misused in criminal settings or forensic settings are therefore noted but are arguably not directly applicable to this present study for the reasons given above. The confidential nature of research respondents' individual responses to the research was emphasized to respondents.

Primary research data has been stored in accordance with Curtin University policy. Ethical practices were in accordance with Curtin University's ethical guidelines. Only anonymous, aggregated data has been presented in the report. No individuals or individual companies are or can be named. As a safeguard to confidentiality and anonymity, all respondents received a written guarantee of privacy and anonymity in the written content of the research. An information sheet constituted the cover page of the questionnaire, outlining the nature of the project; requirements of the respondents, the effects and benefits of their participation and the rights in relation to the research process. This cover page can be seen at the start of the questionnaire in the appendix. Return of the questionnaire was taken as consent to participate in the research. So as not to compromise the anonymity of respondents, the return of a signed consent form, was not required from them. It was considered that this would pose no practical problems to the research (Christians 2000) as divulging the purpose of the research should facilitate rather than hinder its progress in this particular case. The research was conducted within the guidelines of the Australian National Health and Medical Research Council's National Statement on ethical research involving humans. All raw data collected from the research project will be kept in a secured area at Curtin Graduate School of Business, for a period of five years and then will be destroyed.

3.12 Methodological Conclusions

The initial pilot test achieved its objectives of ensuring that the questionnaire flowed easily and was readily comprehensible to respondents, to the extent that no further changes to the questionnaire were deemed to be necessary after the results of the second (statistical) pilot test were analysed. The researcher concerned had developed hundreds of market research questionnaires and lectured on questionnaire design in research and this experience helped in the task of questionnaire development for this study. The fieldwork was conducted over a long period of about six months due to resource constraints and the slow and gradual delivery and return of questionnaires.

4: Results and Analysis of Data

4.1 Introduction

The aim of this chapter is to present the findings from this doctoral research. Firstly, the reliability and validity measures of the constructs used in the research are investigated and reported on. These show that the instrument (questionnaire) used was of robust reliability and validity and that, in particular, the psychopathy scale utilised can usefully, be applied to other managerial research studies. This in itself is a contribution to knowledge of both theoretical and practical usefulness.

Secondly, the meaningfulness of the results are presented and discussed in terms of their means, and of their statistical significance. This shows, as hypothesised, that many of the measures of managerial behaviour investigated in the research are associated with the presence of Corporate Psychopaths in the workplace in a significant manner. Prior studies of psychopaths have suggested that a numerical cut-off score is used to determining whether subjects are psychopaths or not. This, logically, leads to the analysis of two groups within research results – psychopaths and non-psychopaths. This dichotomy lends itself to the use of t tests to determine whether differences between the two groups are significant or not. However, as the psychopathy score is a continuous variable, it also lends itself to regression analysis, as being an appropriate technique to use to analyse the data. Given these alternative types of analysis being available for use, both have been utilised here. Therefore simple regression analysis was also carried out to show that Corporate Psychopathy has an affect on the dependent variables under consideration. This does show that Corporate Psychopathy clearly has a role to play in predicting job satisfaction and the other dependent variables. This has been demonstrated in this research through the use of these regression analysis models. This is a theoretical contribution to the knowledge of managerial behaviour with many practical and policy implications.

Lastly, some additional analysis of the data has been undertaken in order to further explore the extent of the influence of Corporate Psychopaths on workplace outcomes. This is presented in a format familiar to managers, and shows that the influence of Corporate Psychopaths is pervasive across many areas of the workplace. This, again, is a finding of both theoretical and practical significance and importance, particularly in terms of human resource management, the resource based view of firm performance; in terms of corporate governance and in terms of furthering the understanding of toxic and unethical organisational leadership.

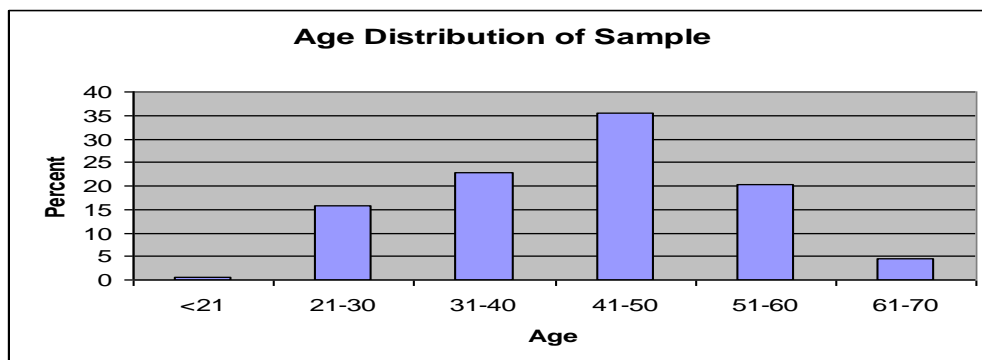
4.2 Sample Analysed

As discussed earlier, a sample of 346 white-collar workers was drawn from a variety of professional and managerial associations. Respondents were members of chambers of commerce, members of charitable organisations, postgraduate business alumni and business students and members of other commercial organisations in Perth, Western Australia, in 2008. The sample of respondents was basically managerial or professional, of working age (aged 21-60) with 60.5% aged over forty, and 53.8% of respondents were male. The majority (65%) were from companies of over 100 employees from a variety of manufacturing, mining, cultural, financial services and governmental sectors and the majority also had (75.7%) more than 12 years of work experience. They were well educated with 86% holding at least a Bachelor's degree. Of all respondents, according to the psychopathy definition used in this research, 5.75% were working with a Corporate Psychopath as their current manager and 32.1% of all respondents had ever worked with a manager who could be classified as a Corporate Psychopath (including those who were currently working with one).

The self-completion questionnaire used in this research included a checklist of behaviours enabling the identification of the presence of Corporate Psychopaths. This exercise obtained 346 complete questionnaires containing 345 responses about current managers and 227 responses about the dysfunctional managers respondents reported that they had worked with, making 572 responses in total. Eighty-five of these were incomplete in terms of the psychopathy scale answers and so were not included in the analysis, which was therefore based on 487 responses. Re-categorising these answers for psychopathy was based on a cut off score of > 75% (i.e. a score of 13 or more out of a total possible of 16) in the psychopathy measure used. This is in line with Hare's definition of psychopathy, which is the strictest or most conservative in the literature. This gave 264 responses about managers where no psychopathy was present, 104 where some was present and 119 where psychopathy was present. These categories were named 'Normal Managers', 'Dysfunctional Managers' and 'Corporate Psychopaths' respectively in the analysis.

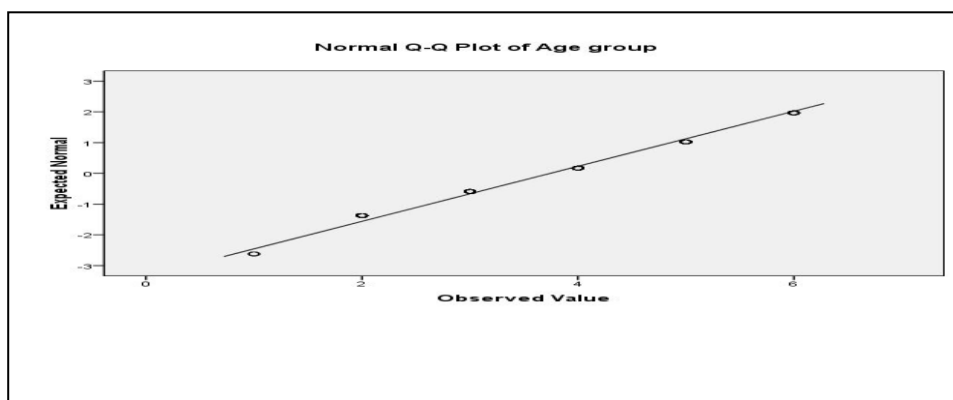
As simple regression analysis, which assumes a normal distribution, was used in the data analysis, a simple test for the normality of the sample by age was carried out. The normal distribution, also called the Gaussian distribution, is a continuous probability distribution that describes data that cluster around the mean. The graph of the associated probability density function is bell-shaped, with a peak at the mean, and is known as the normal curve. A histogram plot indicates the shape of the distribution. Normally distributed data have a bell shape similar to the one for sample age shown below. It was not appropriate to test the age distribution via a statistical test such as Kolmogorov-Smirnov, because age data was collected by age category (e.g. 21 to 30) rather than in discrete ages.

Histogram 1: Age Distribution of Sample



The second test was to look at the Normal Q-Q plot which also indicates normality. This is a plot of the expected normal distribution of the sample versus the observed (actual) distribution. This is generated from SPSS analysis software and is shown below for the sample data here. Normally distributed data lies close to the line as it does in the Q-Q plot for sample age, below. Both tests indicate sample normality by age.

Q-Q Plot 1: Normal Q-Q Plot of Sample Age



4.3 Data Analysis

It is usual in the study of psychopaths to break samples down into dichotomous or trichotomous groups according to the psychopathy scores of respondents. This is so that differences in the reported behaviour of the different groups can be investigated. These sub-groups are typically labelled, non-psychopaths and psychopaths in a dichotomous breakdown. In a trichotomous breakdown, they are typically labelled non-psychopaths, intermediate or moderate psychopaths and psychopaths.

As discussed earlier, in clinical settings a cut-off of 75% and above (e.g. 30 out of 40 on the PCL-R) is used to define psychopaths (Herve, Hayes & Hare 2001) and below 50% (e.g. <20 out of 40 on the PCL-R) to define non-psychopaths (Richell et al. 2003; Blair et al. 1995a). A low psychopathy score is thus deemed to be in the range 0-19 and a moderate score 20 to 29 for the full version of the checklist (PCL-R) while these same cut-off scores are 0-12 (out of 24) and 13-17 (out of 24) for the screening version (PCL:SV) (Guy & Douglas 2006).

This convention is followed in this research. Managers were thus rated on each element in the PM-MRV checklist and given a score of 0, 1 or 2 respectively, according to the presence of the element in their personality and behaviour. Typically, subjects who score 75% or more on any version of the PCL-R checklist are judged to be psychopathic. The checklist of eight behaviours mentioned above, were therefore scored as 0 (not present), 1 (somewhat present) or 2 (present). The maximum score possible, therefore, was sixteen (2x8) and the minimum was zero (0x8). In line with the usual procedures for the classification of psychopathy, scores of 13 and above were taken to indicate the presence of Corporate Psychopaths in an organisation. Scores of 9 to 12 were taken to indicate the presence of Dysfunctional Managers (dysfunctional in that some psychopathy was evident in managers but not to the extent of them being full psychopaths) in an organisation.

Scores at 8 or less (less than 50%) on the psychopathy scale used, were called Normal Managers for the purposes of this research. Cross tabulations of responses were then examined for significant differences in results.

A cross-tabulation of the aggregated results formed the initial basis of the analysis. The header of the cross-tabulation consisted of the sub-groups of organisations where Corporate Psychopaths were present (called Corporate Psychopaths), where some psychopathy was present in managerial behaviour (called Dysfunctional Managers) and where psychopathy was not evident (called Normal Managers). The results were presented below the header in terms of the answers to each of the questions asked.

This allowed a quick view of any potentially significant differences to be made. Significance testing is an objective method of testing whether differences in reported results, expressed in per centages or mean scores, are probably real differences or not at a given level of confidence (Harris 2000). In line with statistical usage in social science and management research, where results are significantly different at the 95% level of confidence, ($p < .05$) then this is described as being significant and where results are significantly different at the 99% level of confidence, ($p < .01$) then this is described as being highly significant (Garner 2005). If any differences looked to be statistically significant then a series of significance tests were performed to determine whether there was a real difference between the two sub-groups with respect to the per cent who had the attribute under consideration. The statistics were investigated for significance at the .05 critical alpha level, (95% confidence level) as well as at levels of .01 (99% confidence level) and .10 (90% confidence level).

Up to three different tests of significance were performed to triangulate results, enable tests across both means and per centages and to see the direction of difference where significant differences did exist.

In order to further analyse the relationship between the variable of Corporate Psychopathy (i.e. treated as a continuum) and the other variables in the research, regression analysis was also carried out. This statistical regression analysis was undertaken to help understand how the values of the dependent variable change when the independent variable is varied. Regression analysis gives an estimate of the expected condition of the dependent variable, given the independent variable (Zikmund 2003; Dadds, Whiting & Hawes 2006).

In this case, as one example, the researcher was interested in the amount (value) of bullying that could be expected to occur, given a pre-determined level of Corporate Psychopathy. Regression analysis is commonly used in academic management research to examine the relationship between constructs e.g. see (Valentine & Fleischman 2008; Djurkovic, McCormack & Casimir 2008) as examples of this.

4.4 Reliability Measures Undertaken

Reliability is the degree of accuracy an instrument has in measuring what it claims to be measuring and its freedom from error (Green & Tull 1978). Statistically, it is the proportion of non-error variance in test scores (Jensen 1959) and a test has a degree of reliability ranging from 0 to 1 as estimated by the reliability coefficient (Jensen 1959).

Reliability is necessary for effective discrimination and so is also a measure of potential effectiveness; actual effectiveness also depending on validity, the measure of the degree to which the instrument measures what it purports to measure (Jensen 1959). Psychologists argue that reliability is the minimum information needed to assess a measure or instrument and that inferences as to an instrument's validity may be based on its reliability. Validity is said to be much more difficult to establish than reliability (Jensen 1959).

Psychologists admit however, that as a general rule the most crucial measure of reliability is the end product of the psychological test itself (Jensen 1959); in other words, whether it appears to make intuitive sense, has face reliability and face validity. In this research, the concept of Corporate Psychopaths has all these present; the results make sense in that they are what would be expected from the literature. Face or content validity is the subjective assessment of the degree to which a measure captures the characteristics of a concept one desires to measure or a subjective assessment of the correspondence between the concepts studied and the measures constructed to measure these.

Constructs are hypothetical traits such as extraversion or intelligence or psychopathy and these are assessed by psychological measures. Construct validity is the judgement about by how much an assessment actually measures the trait in the population under research and thus what can be inferred from individual scores on the measure (Gottfredson 2005).

The Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) software was used to analyse the data from the current research and that analysis provided two key pieces of information for this purpose. The first of these was the correlation matrix and the second was the 'view alpha if item deleted' column which can be used to determine if the alpha level (level of reliability) can be raised by the deletion of items from the scale under consideration (Radhakrishna 2007). The researcher read down the column to see if any entries were greater than the overall alpha for the entire scale. The assumption in doing this is that if alpha increases when an item is deleted then that item is measuring something other than what the scale is meant to be measuring and so the item should be deleted as it does not belong in the same scale as the other items (Todd, Bieber & Grandjean 2004). Researchers suggest that such decisions should be made by the researchers involved based on their knowledge of the theoretical basis for the questionnaire and not just on the empirical results (Todd, Bieber & Grandjean 2004).

In the case of this research, the alpha levels for the Corporate Psychopath construct would not be improved by the deletion of any of the eight individual items in the construct. This suggests that the Corporate Psychopath construct used is internally consistent and reliable.

In a questionnaire like this one, where several questions are designed to assess the same trait, such as workplace conflict for example, then questionnaire reliability addresses the degree to which a respondent's observed scores on each item agrees with their universal score on that item (Todd, Bieber & Grandjean 2004). If the item scores all agree with the universal score then the questionnaire is considered to be reliable. The inter-item correlation matrix in SPSS gives the researcher some idea about how well the items relate to one another and all or nearly all of the correlations should be positive.

Reliability implies internal consistency which means that items in a scale should be positively related to one another (Todd, Bieber & Grandjean 2004). In this research, the inter-item correlations were all positive meaning that the individual items relate well to each other and the construct of the Corporate Psychopath has good levels of internal consistency and reliability.

This was measured at the statistical pilot test to ensure that this was the case, and again in the analysis of the results from the full sample. Using Cronbach’s alpha as a measure of internal consistency, the figure for the Corporate Psychopathy construct looks very good at .93 for all responses, which is a very high figure. Such a high level may have been predicted based on the utilising of such a well used and validated measure, (i.e. a measure with a high level of content validity, because it was designed by experts in the field), (Green & Tull 1978) in this case the field of psychopathy. However, there was always an element of uncertainty in doing this because of the abbreviated way in which the construct was operationalised for managerial measurement purposes.

A summary of these alpha levels and inter-item correlation scores is shown for the construct of psychopathy in Table 12, below. These figures are taken straight from SPSS output and the figures we are most interested in here are the Cronbach’s Alphas, whether the inter-item correlations are all positive and whether the ‘Cronbach’s Alphas if item deleted’ figures in each table could be improved by deletion or not. The figures for the construct of Corporate Psychopathy are shown in detail below in Table 12. Summary details for the other constructs used in this research are then presented in Table 13.

Table 12: Inter-item Correlations for Construct of Corporate Psychopathy (Q.11).

Item-Total Statistics					
	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Squared Multiple Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
q11a Current: Glibness and superficial charm	6.00	25.695	.690	.545	.930
q11b Current: Accomplished liars	6.22	25.162	.744	.585	.926
q11c Current: Manipulative and conning	6.07	24.826	.773	.667	.924
q11d Current: Grandiose sense of self worth	6.14	24.352	.811	.676	.921
q11e Current: Display lack of remorse when actions harm others	6.16	24.463	.803	.691	.922
q11f Current: Emotionally shallow, calculating and cold	6.32	25.036	.773	.677	.924
q11g Current: Display lack of empathy	6.26	25.029	.771	.690	.924
q11h Current: Refuse to take responsibility for own actions	6.17	24.830	.772	.643	.924

Table 13, below, shows summary reliability statistics and the key reliability measure details for all the constructs used in this research.

Table 13: Reliability Statistics Summary

Construct	Cronbach's Alpha	Inter-item correlations all positive?	Could Cronbach's Alpha be improved by any item deletion?
Corporate Psychopathy (Q.11, 8 items)	.93	Yes	No
Withdrawal (Q.12, 4 items)	.79	Yes	Yes, but only very marginally in one item
Workload (Q.13, 5 items)	.88	Yes	No
Conflict (including bullying) (Q.14, 4 items)	.78	Yes	No
Organisational Constraints (Q. 15, 10 items)	.90	Yes	No
Corporate Social Responsibility (Q. 16, 4 items)	.87	Yes	No
Job Satisfaction (Q17, 8 items)	.90	Yes	No

Cronbach's alphas for the 'withdrawal' construct (Q12) look good at .79 and the inter-item correlations are all positive. Cronbach's alpha is not increased by the deletion of any single item apart from a very marginal increase (to .80) if the item "stayed at home claiming sickness when not sick" was deleted. The item in the construct of withdrawal; "came to work late without permission", was reported by two respondents in the pilot study to be redundant in today's work environment when employees are said to be much freer to arrive and leave when they want to than they were in the 1970's when the item was first added to the construct. The same logic may be applied to the item "leave work early". However because the construct was an established one it was decided to leave the items in. With the benefit of the current findings it may be advisable that future research into Corporate Psychopaths and withdrawal would be better to include other items than these two to get a better, more relevant and up to date measure of the construct. However, because this is a well-established construct, it was considered that it would be more useful to keep it intact so that international comparisons against established norms could be made at a later stage of this research. The construct was therefore used as it is.

Cronbach's alphas for the 'workload' construct (Q13) also look good at a high .88 and inter-item correlations are all positive. This is in-line with the findings of the original inventors of the scale, Spector and Jex (1988) who reported an average internal consistency (coefficient alpha) of .82 across fifteen studies (Spector & Jex 1998). Cronbach's alpha is not increased by the deletion of any single item within the construct and it therefore can be used, usefully and reliably as it is. Cronbach's alphas for the 'conflict' construct (Q14) also look good at .78 and inter-item correlations are all positive. This is also in-line with the findings of the original inventors of the scale Spector and Jex (1998), who reported a good level of internal consistency reliability (coefficient alpha) for it, with an average of .74 across thirteen studies.

Cronbach's alpha for 'conflict' is not increased by the deletion of any single item within the construct and it therefore can be used, usefully and reliably, as it is. Alphas for the 'organisational constraints' construct (Q15) also look good at .90, and inter-item correlations are again all positive. Cronbach's alpha for the 'corporate social responsibility' construct (Q16) was also good and high at .87 and inter-item correlations are all positive. Cronbach's alpha is not increased by the deletion of any single item within the construct and it was therefore reliably used as it is. Alphas for the 'job satisfaction' construct (Q17) also look good at .90 and inter-item correlations are all positive.

Non-response bias (the danger that respondents are different in some undetermined way to non-respondents, thus affecting reliability and validity) could not be tested for in this research as the usual test for this which is a test of late versus early responses, to test for significant differences in the two, could not be made (Wilcox 1977). This was because of the questionnaire distribution method used. Questionnaires were not distributed in one single batch but rather over a number of months. It was thus not possible to ascertain which questionnaires were returned early, or late and to then test for differences in these.

4.5 Statistical and Reliability Conclusions

On the whole, the alphas were all at high levels and inter-item correlations were all positive meaning that the research instrument as a whole can be successfully used as it is for management research into this area. Researchers report that a measure of good internal consistency is achieved when Cronbach's alpha exceeds .70 and mean inter-item correlations exceed .15 (Falkenbach et al. 2007). Using these criteria the measure used for identifying Corporate Psychopaths scored well with an alpha of 0.93 and with all the inter-correlations exceeding 0.15 (i.e. all positive).

Further, where comparisons were available, the alpha levels of the constructs used as the dependent variables were also very much in line with what has been found in previous research. This logically means that there was nothing unusual about how they were used in this research and this gives a further element of reliability to the results.

4.6 Substantive Results

Correlation is a measure of any relationship that may exist between variables (Garner 2005). Correlation analysis was therefore undertaken using the corporate psychopathy score as a continuous variable from 0 to 16, and the total scores for the other constructs of; withdrawal, workload, bullying, organisational constraints, conflict, corporate social responsibility and job satisfaction. Results are shown in the Pearson's Correlation matrix below.

Table 14: Pearson's Correlation Matrix for all Constructs

Pearson's Correlation Matrix for all Constructs	Means	SD	Corp. Psycho pathy	With drawal	Work Load	Bully Ing	Org. Const.	Conf.	C S R	J o b Sat.
Corporate Psychopathy	7.05	5.68	1							
Withdrawal	1.57	.62	.246***	1						
Workload	3.56	.95	.275***	.005	1					
Bullying	2.18	1.07	.564***	.248***	.267***	1				
Organisational Constraints	2.18	.81	.526***	.311***	.367***	.615***	1			
Conflict	1.64	.63	.475***	.300***	.170***	.619***	.559***	1		
CSR	4.15	1.29	-.493***	-.212**	-.128***	-.412***	-.447***	-.388***	1	
Job Satisfaction	3.84	1.30	-.702***	-.293***	-.245***	-.571***	-.629***	-.525***	-.613***	1

*** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level ($P < 0.01$) (2 tailed).

As may have been expected from the literature, Corporate Psychopathy correlated significantly with all the constructs under consideration in this research. It can be concluded therefore, that all the dependent variables in this research are related to, and not independent of, the presence of Corporate Psychopaths. Corporate Psychopathy correlated the most positively with bullying and the most negatively with job satisfaction. That is to say, that as Corporate Psychopathy increases, bullying also increases, as was hypothesised.

However, also as hypothesised, as Corporate Psychopathy increases, perceptions of job satisfaction and corporate social responsibility decrease. Corporate Psychopathy correlated the next most positively with organisational constraints, then conflict in the workplace, workload and finally with withdrawal from the workplace. These correlations were all statistically significant.

Another way to investigate correlation is visually through scatter plots of how variables interact with each other. Following are scatter plots of the level of Corporate Psychopathy measured, plotted against the measures of the other items measured in the constructs of interest in this research.

Scatter plots are used to study possible relationships between variables. Measurements of the variables are made on the y and x-axis of a graph, whether a relationship exists between them can be seen visually by the existence or non-existence of a visual trend or line in the data. A negative relationship shows in a line moving from top left to bottom right of the scatter plot. This is what is shown below in the scatter plots for Corporate Psychopathy and the construct of Corporate Social Responsibility, which was measured in this research. The scatter plots are shown with a fitted regression line to illustrate the relationship between the independent and dependent variables and to see if the data fits the expected results pattern. This fitted regression line is a graphical representation of the mathematical regression equation. It is plotted using the least squares method, which minimises the sum of the squared distances between the points and the fitted line. The Pearson correlation coefficient (r) has also been calculated for each item, this is a measure of the strength of the linear relationship between the two variables. This is always in the range of -1 to +1 depending on whether the relationship is positive or negative. A flat line ($r = 0$) indicates no relationship (Taplin 2008). A p value has also been calculated for each correlation to see whether the correlation is statistically significant or not.

These scatter plots take the mean psychopathy scores for each measured level of Corporate Psychopathy (from 0 to 16), and graph these against the mean frequencies of experiencing each type of management behaviour.

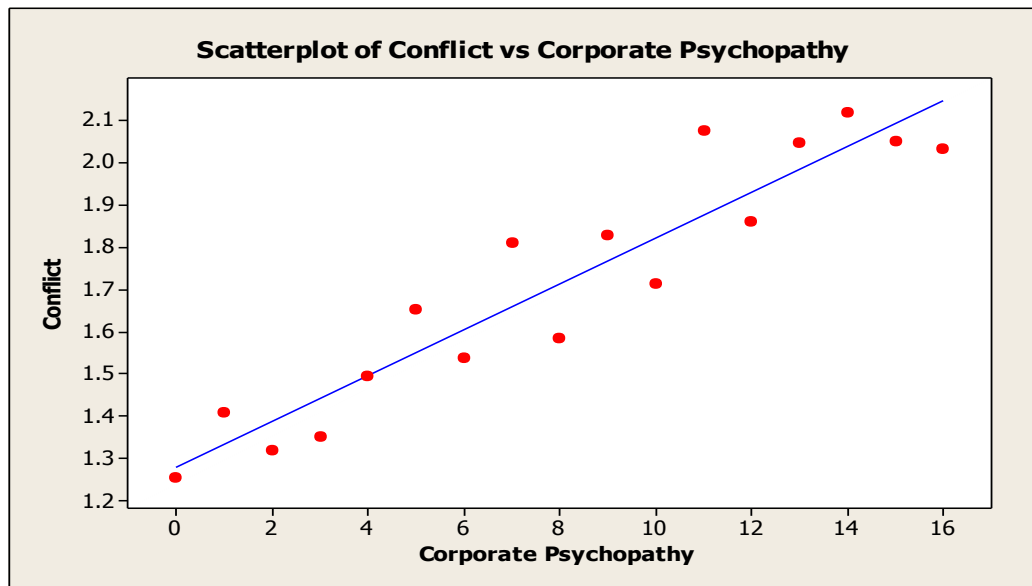
Using means in this way makes the data easier to plot and display visually but is not as accurate in generating p and r numbers as is using the whole data set. Nonetheless, using means to plot scores in order to give a summary visual presentation of the nature of the linear relationship between variables is perfectly acceptable (Taplin 2009). P and r values are given in these scatter plots so that the scatter plot results can be compared between each other.

Scatter plots are shown below for each of the constructs to illustrate the nature of the linear relationship between the variables. These are all straight-line relationships. As this held true for all the items of measurement within each construct, only the scatter plots for the seven overall constructs are shown in this thesis for the sake of brevity and because a correlation matrix at the construct level and based on all data, is in any case shown in this chapter (Table 14, p.170).

As Corporate Psychopathy increases, so conflict at work increases, as shown in the scatter plot (Figure 7) below. As can be seen, the levels of conflict measured, are reasonably close to the regression line, indicating a predictable fit between Corporate Psychopathy and conflict. In other words, as psychopathy increases, so does conflict. This graph shows a degree of positive correlation between Corporate Psychopathy and conflict at work. This is indicated graphically by the closeness of the plotted points to the line of regression, also by the high correlation value ($r = .939$) and by the fact that the p value ($p = .000$) is highly significant (Taplin 2008).

Individual scatter plots of Corporate Psychopathy and arguments at work, and of Corporate Psychopathy and rudeness and yelling at work, are in the appendix. The relationships between measures of conflict and Corporate Psychopathy are all strongly positive in these scatter plots.

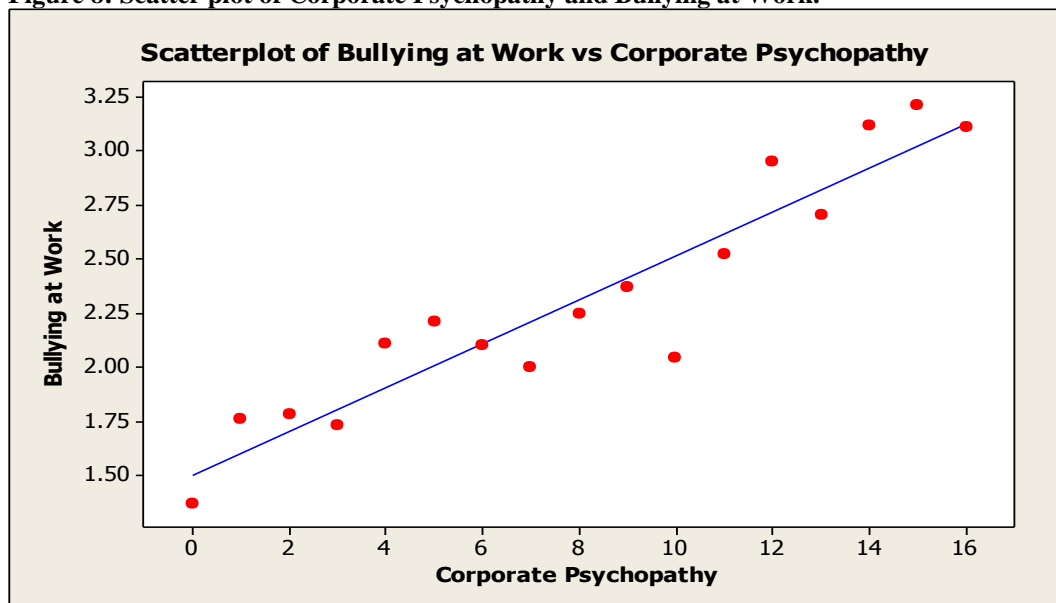
Figure 7: Scatter plot of Corporate Psychopathy versus Conflict at Work



Pearson correlation of Corporate Psychopathy and Conflict Construct; $r = 0.939$, P-Value = 0.000.

As Corporate Psychopathy increases, so does bullying, as shown in the scatter plot below. This graph shows a remarkably strong degree of correlation between Corporate Psychopathy and bullying. This is indicated graphically by for example the closeness of the plotted points to the lines of regression, also by the high correlation value ($r = .939$, in Figure 8 below, for example) and by the fact that the p value ($p = .000$) is highly significant (Taplin 2008).

Figure 8: Scatter plot of Corporate Psychopathy and Bullying at Work.

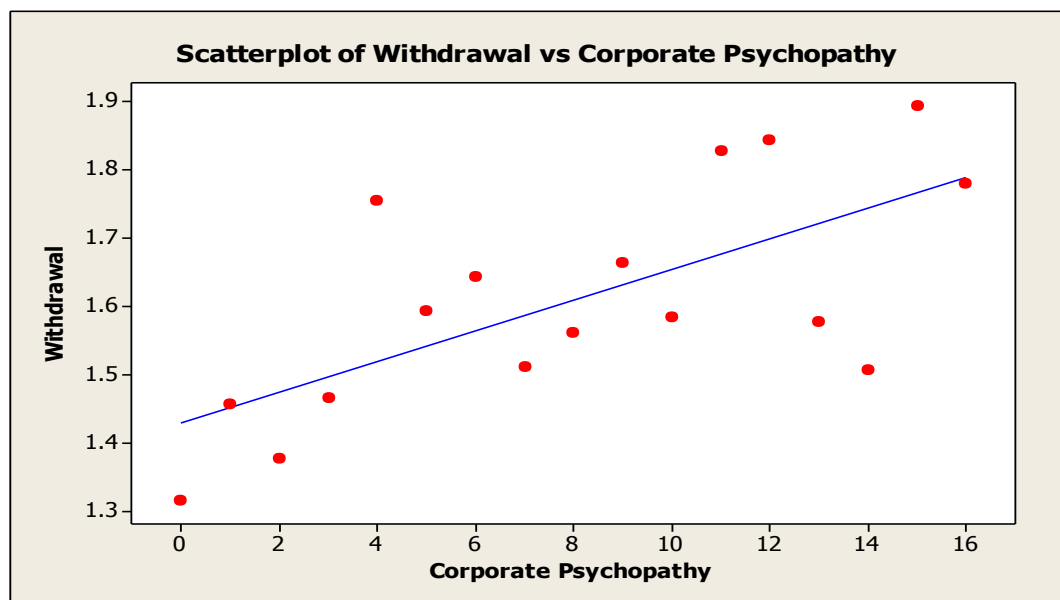


Pearson correlation of Corporate Psychopathy and Bullying at Work; $r = 0.939$, P-Value = 0.000.

A scatter plot for the construct of withdrawal is shown below. As can be seen, the levels of withdrawal measured are more scattered around the regression line than the points in the other scatter plots are. This results in a lower correlation coefficient of 0.682, and indicates less of a correlation between Corporate Psychopathy and the construct of withdrawal.

The correlation is still significantly positive however, in other words, as psychopathy increases, so does withdrawal. There is thus a positive and significant correlation between the presence of Corporate Psychopaths in an organisation and withdrawal behaviours.

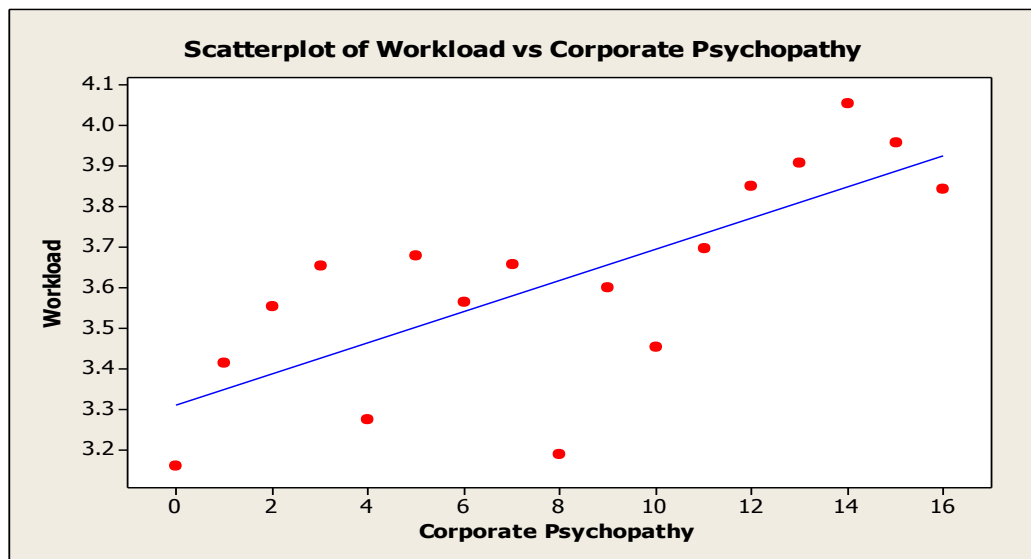
Figure 9: Scatter plot of Corporate Psychopathy versus Withdrawal



Pearson correlation of Corporate Psychopathy and Withdrawal Construct; $r = 0.682$, P-Value = 0.003.

A scatter plot for the construct of workload is shown below. As can be seen, the levels of workload measured, are fairly well scattered around the regression line compared to some of the other scatter plots, indicating a less definite, but still predictable, fit between Corporate Psychopathy and workload. In other words, as psychopathy increases, so does workload. There is a positive and significant correlation between the presence of Corporate Psychopaths in an organisation and workload.

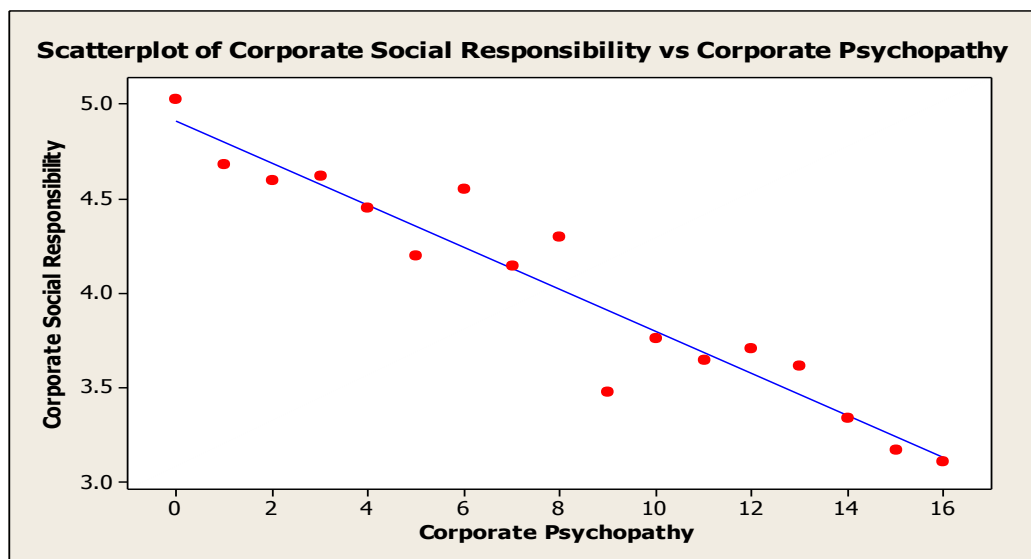
Figure 10: Scatter plot of Corporate Psychopathy versus Workload



Pearson correlation of Corporate Psychopathy and Workload Construct; $r = 0.740$, P-Value = 0.001.

As Corporate Psychopathy increases, so corporate social responsibility decreases, as shown in the scatter plot below. This graph shows a strong degree of negative correlation between Corporate Psychopathy and corporate social responsibility. This is indicated graphically by the closeness of the plotted points to the line of regression, also by the high negative correlation value ($r = -0.956$) and by the fact that the p value ($p = 0.000$) is highly significant (Taplin 2008).

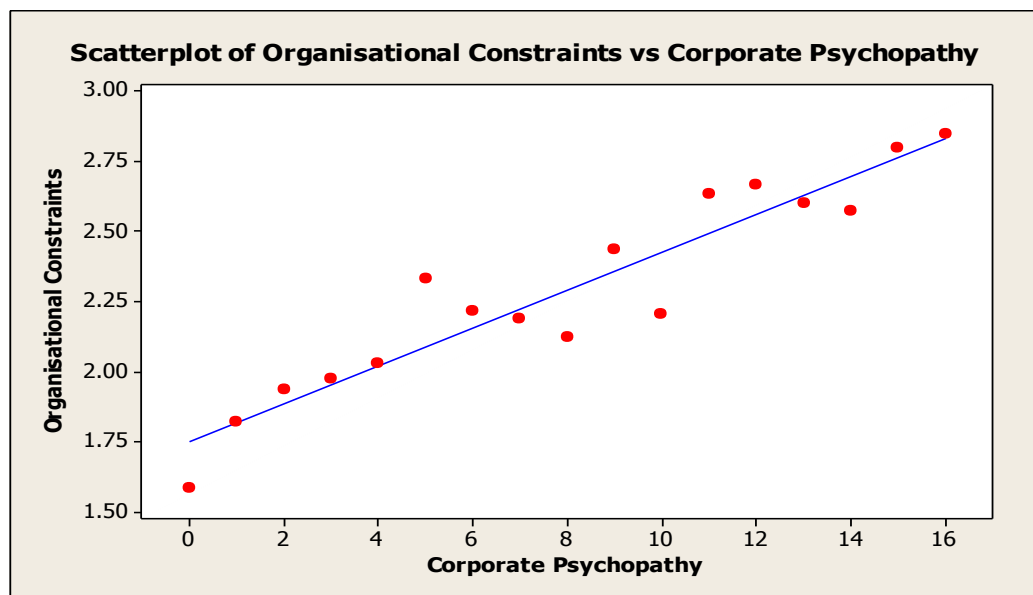
Figure 11: Scatter plot of Corporate Psychopathy versus Corporate Social Responsibility



Pearson correlation of Corporate Psychopathy and Corporate Social Responsibility; $r = -0.956$, P-Value = 0.000.

A scatter plot for the construct of organisational constraints is shown below. The levels of organisational constraints measured are closer to the regression line than some of the other scatter plots are indicating a definite correlation between Corporate Psychopathy and organisational constraints. There is a positive and significant correlation between the two variables. In other words, as psychopathy increases, so does the level of organisational constraints.

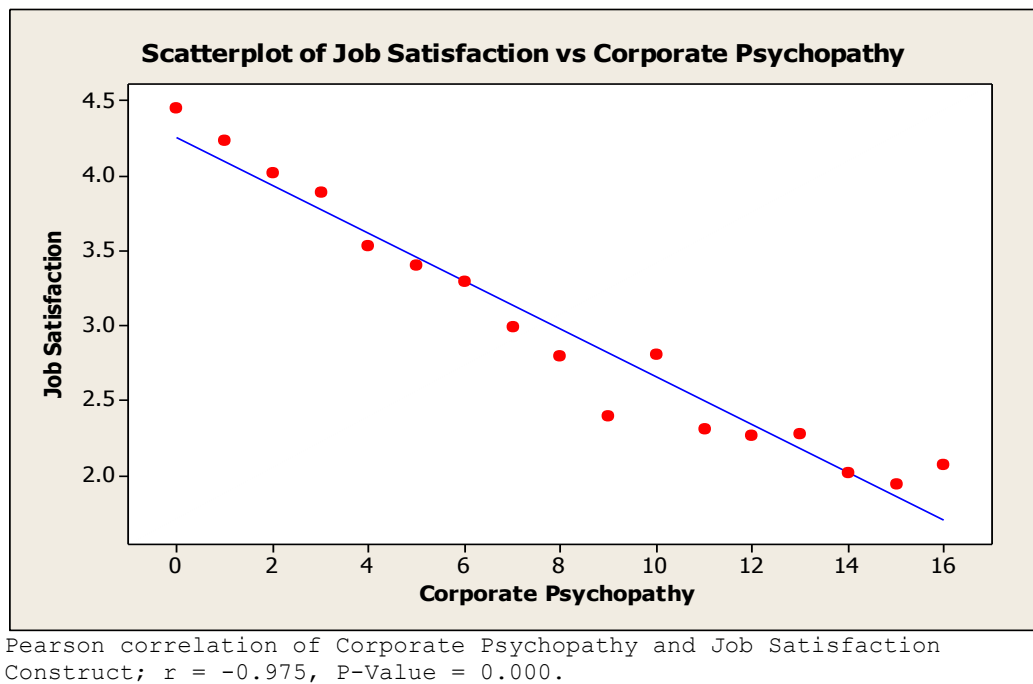
Figure 12 : Scatter plot of Corporate Psychopathy versus Organisational Constraints



Pearson correlation of Corporate Psychopathy and Organisational Constraints; $r = 0.944$, P-Value = 0.000.

In terms of Corporate Psychopathy and job satisfaction, a negative correlation is delineated in the scatter plot below. In other words, as expected, as Corporate Psychopathy increases, so job satisfaction decreases. The scatter plot shows a significant and strongly negative correlation between the Corporate Psychopathy score and the measures in the construct of job satisfaction.

Figure 13: Scatter plot of Corporate Psychopathy versus Job Satisfaction



The scatter plots above treat Corporate Psychopathy as a continuous variable in order to investigate correlations between the variables under investigation and the amount of Corporate Psychopathy involved. Clear relationships, both positive and negative, are shown, as discussed above.

However, as discussed earlier, the data were also trichotomised into three groups for categorical analysis. Having categorised the data into groups of response categories which have been called Normal Managers, Dysfunctional Managers and Corporate Psychopaths, it was then important to the research to investigate whether there were any statistically significant differences between the findings related to the three groups.

In terms of analysing the significance of any differences found between the categories of Normal Managers, Dysfunctional Managers and Corporate Psychopaths, two sets of statistical analyses were considered, in the first instance. The Pearson chi square figures were first investigated to investigate any significant associations or differences between the three categories (groups) and then ANOVA statistics were then analysed as a different measure of the same thing to confirm that differences were present.

If differences were indicated, then the Bonferroni t-test statistics were investigated to see where the difference lies and in particular whether there was a significant difference between the Normal Managers and the Corporate Psychopaths and between the Normal Managers and the Dysfunctional Managers.

Management researchers typically use levels of confidence of 90%, 95% and 99% (Burns & Bush 2003). The following tables identify where there are statistical differences at the 90%, 95% and 99% levels of confidence. Three different statistical tests are used, Person's Chi Square, ANOVA and Bonferroni as discussed below, to enable triangulation of results by cross checking one test against another. Pearson's Chi Square is a test of significance that starts with the assumption that two variables are unrelated (i.e. starts with a null hypothesis). The test compares expected values if the null hypothesis were true with actual values from the research findings, and reports on any significant differences found.

The Chi-Square is thus the statistic that expresses how different the expected, null hypothesis value, is from the actual observed reading. As a measure it is sensitive to sample size and large samples may produce significant results between variables that are otherwise unimportant to each other (Green & Tull 1978). Therefore Chi Square is sometimes used in conjunction with other measures of significance as is done here.

ANOVA, or analysis of variance, is another statistical test that uses the null hypothesis to test differences in this case between means (Kinnear & Gray 2000) and it was used to look at differences between mean values in this research.

Bonferroni statistics are a 'severe' form of t-test often used in medical research to 'force' decisions (Taplin 2008) as to the presence or absence of statistical differences at the 0.05 level or above in paired comparisons of data (Kinnear & Gray 2000). In essence, the method has a tendency to underestimate a statistical relationship and this is the reason it sometimes gives readings of 1.000 (absolutely no correlation) which is a reading which other tests of significance almost never give in management and psychological research because the chances of absolutely no relationship are very slim between sets of management data (Taplin 2008).

The Bonferroni test does, however, give a directional difference, and it is used here for this reason. It is used in conjunction with the other two tests in this research because of its severity. Where Bonferroni records no significant difference, a difference may still be accepted as existing, if one of the other readings gives a difference, and, the difference is expected from an understanding of the nomological net that the constructs are located in (i.e. if the reading is an expected one from a review of the literature on psychopathy) (Green & Tull 1978).

The summary statistics relating to results are shown in the tables below. The key to the tables is shown immediately below in Key 1.

<p>Key 1: NM = Normal Managers DM = Dysfunctional Managers CP= Corporate Psychopaths NM/DM = Dysfunctional Managers compared statistically to Normal Managers NM/CP = Corporate Psychopaths compared statistically to Normal Managers <i>x</i> = mean annual frequency <i>sd</i> = standard deviation</p>

Table 15: Means, Standard Deviations and Significance Scores: Withdrawal Construct

Means, Standard Deviations and Significance Scores for Construct of Withdrawal items	N M ~ X	NM sd	DM ~ X	DM Sd	CP ~ X	CP Sd	P e a r s o n C h i- S q u a r e	T – test NM/ DM	T – test NM/ CP
Come to Work Late Without Permission	7.2	21.1	9.8	28.8	14.4	36.5	.161	1.000	.052*
Stay Home From Work With Falsely Claimed Sickness	2.5	13.0	5.5	17.1	3.2	4.5	.000***	.113	1.000
Take Longer Breaks than Allowed	8.0	26.8	16.5	40.1	17.5	42.8	.076	.106	.039**
Leave Work Early	5.0	18.6	12.5	29.9	13.3	31.3	.003***	.029**	.008***

Key 2:	* = Statistically significant at 90% level of confidence (p< .10)
	** = Statistically significant at 95% level of confidence (p< .05)
	*** = Statistically significant at 99% level of confidence (p< .01)

Means in this table are mean frequencies of experiencing behaviour in the past year. The scale used ranged from, ‘never’, coded as 0 times per year, to ‘once to eleven times per year’ coded as 6 times per year ‘once to three times per month, coded as 24 times per year ‘once to four times per week’ coded as 120 times per year and ‘every day’ coded as 240 times per year. Frequencies were based on 240 working days per year in Australia. (i.e. five days per week, times 52 weeks, minus 4 weeks holiday per year).

ANOVA was not used as a statistical test on these results as ANOVA assumes a normal distribution. As can be seen from the standard deviation figures, the distributions here were not normal. Chi Squares and Bonferroni (T-test) statistics were used to indicate where statistical differences lie.

The presence of Corporate Psychopaths in a workplace significantly or highly significantly affected all the measures of workload used in this research, including the number of hours worked. This is shown in the last column of Table 16, below. The average frequency of having little time to get things done at work was much higher under Corporate Psychopaths at 126.4 times per year, than it was under Normal Managers at 76.5 times per year.

The average frequency of having a great deal to be done at work was significantly higher under Corporate Psychopaths at 150.9 times per year, than it was under Normal Managers at 109.4 times. The table (16) also shows that under Corporate Psychopaths, respondents had more work than could be done well 112.7 times per year compared to only 56.3 times per year under Normal Managers and 84.1 times per year under Dysfunctional Managers.

Table 16: Means, Standard Deviations and Significance scores for construct of Workload items

Means, Standard Deviations and Significance scores for construct of Workload items	NM ~ <i>X</i>	NM <i>sd</i>	DM ~ <i>X</i>	DM <i>sd</i>	CP ~ <i>X</i>	CP <i>Sd</i>	P E A R S O N Chi-Square	T – test NM/ DM	T – test NM/ CP
Required to work very fast	91.4	91.6	92.0	88.4	141.9	94.8	.000***	1.000	.000***
Required to work very hard	116.1	94.5	108.6	94.5	157.6	94.7	.007***	1.000	.000***
Had little time to get things done	76.5	84.2	90.1	87.8	126.4	86.8	.000***	.513	.000***
Was a great deal to be done	109.4	94.8	105.0	90.4	150.9	96.1	.003***	1.000	.000***
Had more work than could do well	56.3	77.4	84.1	91.7	112.7	94.6	.000***	.015**	.000***
Mean Hours Worked	40.9	12.7	42.7	11.7	44.9	12.3	NA	.605	.012**

The means in this table are also mean frequencies of experiencing behaviour in the past year, as in the last table. ANOVA was also not used as a statistical test on these results as ANOVA assumes a normal distribution. As can be seen from the standard deviation figures, the distributions here were not normal. Chi Squares and Bonferroni (T-test) statistics were used to indicate where statistical differences lie.

There was significantly more experience of bullying (unfavourable treatment of others), arguments and of rudeness both when dysfunctional managers and Corporate Psychopaths were present at work, compared to when Normal Managers (displaying no psychopathy) were present. This is shown in Table 17, below.

Table 17: Means, Standard Deviations and Significance scores for Construct of Conflict Items

Means, Standard Deviations and Significance Scores for Construct of Conflict Items	NM ~ X	NM <i>sd</i>	DM ~ X	DM <i>sd</i>	CP ~ X	CP <i>Sd</i>	P E A R S O N C h i- S q u a r e	T – test NM/ DM	T – test NM/ CP
Getting Into Arguments With Others On Job	4.8	11.7	14.9	37.8	20.7	45.0	.000***	.010**	.000***
People Yelling At Respondent At Work	1.9	10.9	4.0	12.9	10.3	30.6	.008***	.915	.000***
People Being Rude To Respondent At Work	4.5	13.4	14.9	35.4	31.0	53.0	.000***	.018**	.000***
Witnessing Unfavourable Treatment Of Others At Work	9.0	26.7	28.7	56.8	64.4	76.7	.000***	.002***	.000***

As in Tables 15, 16 and 17 above and in Table 18 below, the means shown are mean frequencies of experiencing behaviour in the past year.

The presence of Dysfunctional Managers significantly affected seven of the ten individual ratings of organisational constraints, as shown in Table 18, below. The presence of Corporate Psychopaths affected all ten of the individual ratings of organisational constraints, in a highly significant manner as shown in Table 18, below.

Table 18: Means, Standard Deviations and Significance scores for construct of Organisational Constraints items

Means, Standard Deviations and Significance scores for construct of Organisational Constraints items	N M ~ X	N M sd	D M ~ X	D M Sd	C P ~ X	C P sd	P E A R S O N Chi-Square	T – test NM/ DM	T – test NM/ CP
Work Difficulties Due To Poor Equipment Or Supplies	7.4	18.6	27.3	61.5	34.6	67.9	.000***	.001***	.000***
Work Difficulties Due To Organisational Rules And Procedures	18.0	42.5	46.0	73.7	65.6	86.1	.000***	.000***	.000***
Work Difficulties Due To Other Employees	13.2	32.0	27.2	52.7	60.6	81.1	.000***	.066*	.000***
Work Difficulties Due To Respondent's Supervisor	9.4	33.5	43.5	69.8	75.4	89.4	.000***	.000***	.000***
Work Difficulties Due To Lack Of Equipment Or Supplies	7.9	22.1	17.3	43.2	32.8	68.9	.000***	.177	.000***
Work Difficulties Due To Inadequate Training	9.6	31.1	15.5	40.6	39.2	70.9	.000***	.815	.000***
Work Difficulties Due To Interruptions By Others	41.7	70.4	59.6	80.6	83.6	88.5	.000***	.142	.000***
Work Difficulties Due To Lack Of Necessary Information About What To Do Or How To Do It	19.5	43.3	34.9	59.5	74.7	89.5	.000***	.090*	.000***
Work Difficulties Due To Inadequate Help From Others	15.3	36.8	43.1	71.5	60.4	82.0	.000***	.000***	.000***
Work Difficulties Due To Incorrect Instructions	11.8	37.0	30.8	53.1	59.7	81.0	.000***	.008***	.000***

With respect to socially responsible corporate management, the presence of both Dysfunctional Managers and Corporate Psychopaths produced highly significant outcomes. They both affected the perceptions of an organisation's corporate social responsibility, as shown in Table 19, below.

Table 19: Means, Standard Deviations and Significance scores for construct of Corporate Social Responsibility items

Means, Standard Deviations and Significance scores for construct of Corporate Social Responsibility items	N M ~ X	N M <i>sd</i>	D M ~ X	D M <i>Sd</i>	C P ~ X	C P <i>sd</i>	P E A R S O N Chi-Square	A N O V A	T – test NM/ DM	T – test NM/ CP
The Organisation Does Business In A Socially Desirable Manner	5.0	1.2	4.1	1.4	3.6	1.7	.000***	.000***	.000***	.000***
The Organisation Does Business In An Environmentally Friendly Manner	4.6	1.2	4.0	1.3	3.5	1.6	.000***	.000***	.000***	.000***
The Organisation Does Business In A Way That Benefits The Local Community	4.7	1.2	4.2	1.4	3.6	1.6	.000***	.000***	.008***	.000***
The Organisation Does Business In A Way That Shows Commitment To Employees	4.6	1.4	3.3	1.5	2.4	1.6	.000***	.000***	.000***	.000***

Means in Table 19 are mean levels of agreement with a six-point scale with no mid point. This was from 'disagree very much' (1) to 'disagree moderately' (2) to 'disagree slightly' (3) to 'agree slightly' (4) to 'agree moderately' (5) to 'agree very much' (6).

The presence of both Dysfunctional Managers and Corporate Psychopaths affected all the individual ratings of job satisfaction in a highly significant manner, as shown in Table 20, below.

Table 20: Means, Standard Deviations and Significance scores for construct of Job Satisfaction Items

Means, Standard Deviations and Significance scores for construct of Job Satisfaction Items	N M ~ X	N M <i>Sd</i>	D M ~ X	D M <i>sd</i>	C P ~ X	C P <i>Sd</i>	P E A R S O N C h i- S q u a r e	A N O V A	T- test NM/ DM	T- test NM/ CP
Respondent Received Due Recognition for a Job Well Done	4.6	1.4	3.1	1.4	2.4	1.4	.000***	.000***	.000***	.000***
Respondent Liked the People They Worked With	5.2	1.0	4.3	1.3	4.3	1.6	.000***	.000***	.000***	.000***
Communication Was Good Within the Organisation	4.3	1.4	3.0	1.3	2.6	1.5	.000***	.000***	.000***	.000***
Respondent's Supervisor Was Unfair to the Respondent	2.0	1.4	3.8	1.6	4.4	1.6	.000***	.000***	.000***	.000***
Respondent did Not Feel Appreciated For Their Work	2.5	1.5	3.9	1.5	4.4	1.6	.000***	.000***	.000***	.000***
Respondent Had To Work Harder Because of Others Colleagues' Incompetence	2.8	1.6	3.8	1.5	4.0	1.7	.000***	.000***	.000**	.000***
Respondent's Supervisor Showed Little Interest in the Feelings of Subordinates	2.2	1.4	4.1	1.3	5.0	1.3	.000***	.000***	.000***	.000***
Respondent's Efforts Were Not Rewarded Appropriately	2.6	1.6	4.3	1.3	4.8	1.4	.000***	.000***	.000***	.000***

Factor analysis is a research tool commonly used to reduce large amounts of data, typically gathered from exploratory qualitative research, into reduced elements or factors, in order to simplify and aid understanding of data and thus make it more amenable to analysis. Factor analysis was not used in this analysis because the scales used in the research instrument are long established and have been validated by a large amount of other research over a considerable time period. It was thus not considered to be of any benefit to use it here.

Regression analysis is commonly used for testing a hypothesis and for prediction (Garner 2005). Regression analysis thus goes beyond correlation analysis, which tests the strength of any relationship between variables, and makes the stronger claim that it demonstrates the predictive properties of one or more variables on another variable.

This type of analysis is used to infer causal relationships between variables, although it is debateable whether this alone can be used to prove a causal relationship (Garner 2005) as some suggest that it cannot be used to infer causality but rather can be said to predict a particular outcome (Anonymous 2007). In this research, simple regression analysis was utilised in order to understand by how much the independent variable (Corporate Psychopathy) explained the variance in the dependent variable.

Regression analysis was therefore run using each of the constructs in turn as the dependant variable and Corporate Psychopathy as the predictor (independent) variable. A basic objective of undertaking this regression analysis is to measure how much change in one variable affects variations in another variable.

The results of this simple regression analysis are shown in Regression Model 1, below. A measure used in regression analysis to understand the fraction of the total variation in the dependent variable that is explained by the variation in the independent variable, is called the coefficient of determination, known as R squared (R^2). The value ranges from 1, where all the variation in the dependent variable is explained by the variation in the independent variable, to 0. When it is 0, then none of the variation in the dependent variable is explained by the independent variable.

Regression Model 1: Independent Variable is Corporate Psychopathy

Regression Model 1	Dependent Variable(s)	R^2	Standard Error	P Value
1a	Conflict	.231	1.67	.000
1b	Job Satisfaction	.500	7.43	.000
1c	Organisational Constraints	.267	6.98	.000
1d	Corporate Social Responsibility	.249	4.52	.000
1e	Bullying	.321	.89	.000
1f	Workload	.067	4.68	.000
1g	Withdrawal	.060	2.41	.000

Many academic research theses would end the reporting of results at this level (together with an associated discussion of what the results mean for the research questions and hypotheses under consideration) because it shows enough information to make judgments on the hypotheses under investigation and specifically on whether the null versions of the hypotheses are supported or not. However, because this is a management doctorate of relevance to business, additional descriptions and analyses of the data are presented in a manner more familiar to practitioners like myself, below.

The following tables show the incidence levels in terms of the per centages of respondents who reported coming across the types of behaviour investigated in this research.

4.7 Descriptive Results

4.7.1 Withdrawal from Work

In terms of withdrawal behaviours, absenteeism is an area of potential sensitivity to respondents when reporting on their own behaviour and may be subject to social desirability bias (Fisher 1993). However, in research studies, self-reported absenteeism behaviour is reported to have been found to be accurately reported, as the difference between objective measures of absenteeism and self-reported absenteeism was reported to be small (Falkenburg & Schyns 2007). This means that the self-reported measures of absenteeism used in the current research can be used with some reliability, especially as responses are all anonymous and confidential.

Employees who work in organisations where Corporate Psychopaths are present are clearly taking steps to minimise their exposure to those working conditions. They are more frequent in taking a day off sick when they are not really ill, than are people working in organisations where Corporate Psychopaths are not present. They are also roughly twice as frequent in terms of taking longer breaks than allowed, and being more than twice as frequent in leaving work early.

The per centages in Table 21, overleaf, delineate the pervasiveness of the influence of Corporate Psychopaths on withdrawal behaviours in the workplace. The mean frequencies shown above illustrate the mean number of times per year that such behaviour was observed by respondents. The per centages below show by how many people each type of behaviour was experienced. Knowing both figures adds qualitatively to the understanding of the phenomenon.

As shown in Table 21 below, in organisations where there were no Corporate Psychopaths present (i.e. under normal Managers), only a minority (18.4%) of employees had ever stayed off work with falsely claimed sickness. However, in organisations where there were Corporate Psychopaths present, a significantly higher 45.3% had ever stayed off work with falsely claimed sickness.

In organisations where there were no Corporate Psychopaths present, (i.e. under Normal Managers) a minority (44.2%) of employees had ever taken longer breaks than were allowed. However, in organisations where there were Corporate Psychopaths present, a majority (52.6%) had ever taken longer breaks than were allowed. Similarly, in organisations where there were no Corporate Psychopaths present, (i.e. under Normal Managers) a minority (40.2%) of employees had ever left work early. However, in organisations where there were Corporate Psychopaths present, a majority (54.8%) had ever left early.

The difference in proportions test for two proportions was applied to these percentages to test for significant differences. This test is a very common statistical test used in market research and there is no particular reference for it (Taplin, 2008). The percentages for Dysfunctional Managers were compared to those for Normal Managers, and the percentages for Corporate Psychopaths were also compared to those for Normal Managers. Levels of significant difference are marked at the 90%, 95% and 99% levels ($p < .10$, $p < .05$ and $p < .01$) denoted by one, two or three stars respectively in the tables below.

Table 21: Reported Incidence of Withdrawal Behaviours

Reported Incidence Of Withdrawal Behaviours	Normal Managers Present N=264	Dysfunctional Managers Present N=104	Corporate Psychopaths Present N=119
Ever came to work late without permission	39.4%	49.5%*	46.5%
Ever stayed at home claiming to be sick when not	18.4%	38.6%***	45.3%***
Ever Taken a Longer Break than Allowed	44.2%	44.0%	52.6%
Ever left work early	40.2%	48.5%	54.8%***

Statistical Key: 90%, $p < .10$ = *: 95%, $p < .05$ = **: 99%, $p < .01$ = ***

4.7.2 Workload

Workload was another area of organisational life where the presence or absence of Corporate Psychopaths had a significant difference on outcomes. For example, working in an organisation where Corporate Psychopaths were present necessitated working very fast for more people (100%) than did working under Normal Managers (95.7%) or Dysfunctional Managers (94.9%). This is shown in Table 22, below.

Table 22: Reported Incidence of Workload Items

Reported Incidence Of Workload Items	Normal Managers Present N=264	Dysfunctional Managers Present N=104	Corporate Psychopaths Present N=119
Job ever required very fast work	95.7%	94.9%	100%
Job ever required very hard work	97.7%	97.9%	99.2%
Job ever left little time to get things done	94.2%	94.9%	96.6%
Job ever had a great deal to be done	96.9%	98.0%	98.3%
Job ever had more work than could be done well	87.0%	98.0%	91.5%

Differences in the incidences in Table 22 are not statistically significant and it is apparent from the results that nearly everyone in the sample was experiencing a heavy workload, regardless of the type of manager they worked for.

As shown in Table 23 below, average hours worked per week were significantly different across the sub-groups of managers and the presence of Corporate Psychopaths was associated with higher numbers of hours worked.

Table 23: Reported Number of Hours Worked Per Week

Reported Number Of Hours Worked Per Week	Normal Managers Present N=249	Dysfunctional Managers Present N=99	Corporate Psychopaths Present N=114
Mean Hours Worked Per Week	40.9	42.7	44.9**

4.7.3 Conflict at Work

Where Corporate Psychopaths were present, conflict at work was much greater in incidence and more frequent in occurrence. The mean levels of the four types of conflict measured in this research are shown in Table 17, on page 182. In terms of raw statistics the story is the same. About 73.9% of employees who worked in organisations where Corporate Psychopaths were present reported that they have ever got into arguments with others at work compared to 47.8% of employees who worked in organisations where Corporate Psychopaths were not present (i.e. under Normal Managers).

A large minority of employees (47.5%) in organisations where Corporate Psychopaths were present reported that they had ever experienced people yelling at them at work. This compares to a much smaller minority of employees who experienced this in organisations with Normal Managers (no Corporate Psychopaths) present. This is shown in Table 24 below.

Similarly, a large majority of employees (80.7%) in organisations where Corporate Psychopaths were present reported that they had ever experienced people being rude to them at work. This compares to a minority (42.4%) of employees who experienced this in organisations with no Corporate Psychopaths present. This is also shown in Table 24, below.

Table 24: Reported Incidence of Experiencing Conflict Items

Reported Incidence of Experiencing Conflict Items	Normal Managers Present N=257	Dysfunctional Managers Present N=99	Corporate Psychopaths Present N=119
Ever got into an argument with others at work	47.9%	71.7%***	73.9%***
Ever Experienced People Yelling At Respondent At Work	11.7%	31.3%***	47.5%***
Ever experienced people being rude at work	42.4%	70.7%***	80.7%***
Ever Witnessed Unfavourable Treatment Of Others At Work	54.7%	83.8%***	93.3%***

The results shown in Table 24, above show that where there were no Corporate Psychopaths present in an organisation, (i.e. under Normal Managers) 54.7% of employees reported ever witnessing unfavourable treatment of others (bullying) at work compared to the significantly greater figure of 93.3% for employees in organisations where Corporate Psychopaths were present.

This corresponds with other Australian research which found that bullying was prevalent in Australian workplaces (D'Angelo Fisher 2008) and with research from other countries finding that bullying is also common in the UK (Vorster 2008) and the USA (LaVan & Martin 2008).

Levels for experiencing arguments with others are equally high in organisations where Corporate Psychopaths were reported to be working. Looking at the raw frequencies perhaps highlights the nature of this in a more easily understandable manner than statistics and means can. For example, employees who worked in organisations where Corporate Psychopaths were present, experienced arguments at work about five times more frequently than did employees working in organisations where Corporate Psychopaths were not present. Similarly, in organisations where Corporate Psychopaths were present the witnessing of unfavourable treatment of others at work was over seven times more frequent than it was under Normal Managers, when Corporate Psychopaths were not present. One can imagine the negative impact of such frequencies on employees in those situations.

4.7.4 Constraints at Work

Where Corporate Psychopaths were present, constraints in the working environments were both more widespread, and more frequent, than they were in working environments where Corporate Psychopaths were not present. There was a significantly higher incidence of reported work difficulties due to poor equipment or supplies and more frequent work difficulties due to poor equipment or supplies where Corporate Psychopaths were evident in an organisation.

Notably, as shown in Table 25 below, of those employees who worked in an environment where Corporate Psychopaths were present, the majority (85.3%) reported work difficulties due to their supervisor. This compares with just 44.4% of those who worked in an environment where Corporate Psychopaths were not present (i.e. under Normal Managers).

Of those who worked in an environment where Corporate Psychopaths were present, the majority (88.0%) reported ever having work difficulties due to interruptions by other people. This compares with 75.1% of those who worked in an environment where Corporate Psychopaths were not present. This is shown in table 25 below. Similarly, of those who worked in an environment where Corporate Psychopaths were present, the majority (65.8%) reported work difficulties due to inadequate training. This compares with 47.0% of those who worked in an environment where Corporate Psychopaths were not present. This is also shown in Table 25 below.

Of those who worked in an environment where Corporate Psychopaths were present, the majority (83.8%) reported ever having work difficulties due to a lack of necessary information. On the other hand 69.6% of those who worked in an environment where Corporate Psychopaths were not present (i.e. Normal Managers), ever reported work difficulties due to a lack of necessary information.

A majority of 85.3% of those who worked in an environment where Corporate Psychopaths were present reported ever having work difficulties due to inadequate help from others. This is also shown in Table 25, below.

Table 25: Reported Incidence of Work Constraints Items

Reported Incidence Of Work Constraints Items	Normal Managers Present N=264	Dysfunctional Managers Present N=104	Corporate Psychopaths Present N=119
Ever Experienced Work Difficulties Due To Poor Equipment Or Supplies	53.0%	56.7%	67.0%**
Ever Experienced Work Difficulties Due To Organisational Rules And Procedures	66.4%	84.7%***	82.8%***
Ever Experienced Work Difficulties Due To Other Employees	63.6%	78.6%***	82.9%***
Ever Experienced Work Difficulties Due To Respondent's Supervisor	44.4%	80.4%***	85.3%***
Ever Experienced Work Difficulties Due To Lack of Equipment or Supplies	45.6%	58.2%**	59.8%**
Ever Experienced Work Difficulties Due To Inadequate Training	47.0%	61.2%**	65.8%***
Ever Experienced Work Difficulties Due To Interruptions By Others	75.1%	88.8%***	88.0%***
Ever Experienced Work Difficulties Due To Lack Of Necessary Information	69.6%	87.8%***	83.8%***
Ever Experienced Work Difficulties Due To Inadequate Help From Others	62.3%	85.7%***	85.3%***
Ever Experienced Work Difficulties Due To Incorrect Instructions	50.8%	78.6%***	78.6%***

A majority of 78.6% of those who worked in an environment where Corporate Psychopaths were present reported ever having work difficulties due to incorrect instructions. Only 50.8% of those who worked in an environment where Corporate Psychopaths were not present (Normal Managers), ever reported work difficulties due to incorrect instructions. This is shown in Table 25 above.

There are also a significantly higher number of work difficulties due to organisational rules and procedures where Corporate Psychopaths are evident in an organisation. The incidence and average frequency of reported work difficulties due to other employees was much greater when Corporate Psychopaths were present in an organisation. For example, the average frequency of experiencing work difficulties due to other employees was more than four times higher under Corporate Psychopaths than it was under Normal Managers.

Those who worked in an environment where Corporate Psychopaths were present also reported more work difficulties due to inadequate training and due to lack of information about what to do or how to do it, than did those who did not work in such an environment. The average yearly frequency of experiencing work difficulties due to one's supervisor was eight times higher under Corporate Psychopaths than it was under Normal Managers.

As shown in Table 18, on page 183 in the analysis above, under Corporate Psychopaths, respondents reported difficulties due to lack of equipment or supplies four times more frequently than they did under Normal Managers. The frequency of experiencing work difficulties due to a lack of necessary information was also significantly higher under Corporate Psychopaths than it was under Normal Managers.

Also shown in Table 18, was that the frequency of experiencing work difficulties due to inadequate help from others was significantly higher under Corporate Psychopaths than it was under Normal Managers. Employees who worked in an organisation where Corporate Psychopaths were present experience work difficulties due to incorrect instructions about five times more frequently, on average, than do employees who did not work in such an environment.

4.7.5 Corporate Psychopaths and Organisational Seniority

Those respondents in higher positions by seniority of job position were more likely to have come across Corporate Psychopaths than more junior workers were. As shown in Table 26, below, of the responses made by professional workers 27.4% of these had ever come across a Corporate Psychopath; however, this was just 14.8% for the responses made by more junior clerical workers. The difference in proportions test for two proportions was applied to these percentages to test for a significant difference.

The percentages for managerial workers were compared to those for junior workers, and the percentages for professional workers were also compared to those for junior workers. A level of significant difference at the 90% level of confidence ($p < .10$) is denoted by one star (*) in the tables below. A level of significant difference at the 80% level of confidence ($p < .20$) is denoted by (^) in the tables below.

Both workers at managerial and professional levels were significantly more likely to have come across Corporate Psychopaths than junior workers were. This was at low levels of significance, however.

Table 26: Experience of Corporate Psychopaths and Seniority by Position

Experience of Corporate Psychopaths and Seniority by Position	Clerical/Other Junior Workers N=54	Managerial Workers N=227	Professional Workers N=201
(Base = all responses)			
Have Experienced Corporate Psychopaths in the Workplace	14.8%	24.2% ^	27.4%*

Similarly, those respondents with more work experience in terms of years worked, were more likely to have come across Corporate Psychopaths than those with less work experience were. This is shown in Table 27, below, showing that 31.5% of those responses from people with twelve or more years of work experience indicated ever having worked with a Corporate Psychopath in their work environment, compared to 16.4% of those with only one to six years work experience.

This was a statistically significant difference at a 95% ($p < 0.05$) level of confidence as shown in Table 27, below.

Table 27: Experience of Corporate Psychopaths and Seniority by Years Worked

Experience of Corporate Psychopaths and Seniority by Years Worked (Base = all responses)	1-6 Years Worked N=67	7-11 Years Worked N=49	12+ Years Worked N=308
Have Experienced Corporate Psychopaths in the Workplace	16.4%	20.4%	31.5%**

4.8 Conclusions to the Data Analysis

The reliability and statistical results of this research demonstrate that a reliable management research tool, in the form of an identification instrument for Corporate Psychopaths, now exists, based on the world's most commonly used psychological instruments for identifying psychopaths, but relying on peer reporting.

The instrument has a high level of internal reliability and consistency and the results indicate a very good level of face validity for the findings. This tool can be successfully used to identify when psychopathy is present in corporate management and associated research can identify the results of such a presence. Corporate Psychopaths have an effect on organisations that is almost totally in line with the negative expectations of leading theorists, researchers, psychologists and commentators in the field of psychopathy.

Clearly the presence of Corporate Psychopaths in organisations has measurable and significant affects on corporate outcomes costing corporations dearly in lost employee time, sub-optimal employee performance, unnecessarily difficult working conditions, and poor levels of job satisfaction as well as on perceived levels of corporate social responsibility.

The question of the validity of any research is ultimately a question of whether, after a review of the methodology and of the research process, the findings are found to be credible and justified to the researchers and their audience (Gabriel 1990). Internal validity concerns whether the research is well-enough constructed to be able to make the assumption that that the observed effects were caused by what the researcher thought they were caused by and external validity is to do with the limits of the research and whether they can be generalised (Gabriel 1990). This research shows findings which were expected, based on existing knowledge of psychopaths, and of how they could be expected to behave in organisations. The findings thus appear to be both credible and justified and therefore to have a high level of external validity.

5: Discussion of the Research Findings

5.1 Introduction

The aim of this chapter is to discuss the research findings and outline some of the implications of these. The research aimed to determine whether Corporate Psychopaths were deemed to be working in Australian workplaces, to analyse what affects the presence of Corporate Psychopaths had on those workplaces and to analyse what affects the presence of Corporate Psychopaths had on other employees.

The research found that Corporate Psychopaths are deemed to be working in Australian workplaces. It found that 32.1% of all respondents had ever worked with a manager who could be classified as a Corporate Psychopath. Further, that 5.75% of respondents were currently working with managers who scored highly enough on the psychopathy scale used (the PM-MRV) to be classed as Corporate Psychopaths. This figure (5.75%) is a little lower than was anticipated when first planning the research, as it was anticipated that the incidence of psychopathy among managers might be higher than among the population as a whole by some factor. It is consistent with an incidence rate for managerial level Corporate Psychopaths in the lower of the estimated incidence range of 1% to 3.5%. (Obviously, as each manager has several employees working under them, the incidence of working with a Corporate Psychopath as a manager is a multiple of the incidence of Corporate Psychopaths in the employed population).

The research also found that Corporate Psychopaths clearly have a significant, negative influence on a variety of important organisational outcomes. Past research by psychologists has found that criminal psychopaths account for many more crimes than their small numbers would suggest. This current research similarly finds that Corporate Psychopaths create disruption in the workplace on a scale previously unimagined and unexplored until now. They are strongly associated with rudeness, yelling and bullying in the workplace and also have a strongly negative influence on a whole host of other workplace outcomes as detailed in this thesis.

Eliminating or controlling their behaviour would save companies resources, in terms of reducing lost time and unproductive activities and would improve the manner in which companies treat society and the environment.

A test has been described as being a valid one for the measurement of an attribute if the attribute actually exists and if variations in the attribute causally produce variations in the outcomes measured (Barrett 2005). In terms of the usefulness of the Psychopathy Measure – Management Research Version, (PM-MRV), which was the instrument used in this research, variations in their presence or absence do strongly correlate with variations in the workplace outcomes measured. On this basis, the test for Corporate Psychopaths appears to be a valid one.

The attribute of Corporate Psychopathy measured here correlates with the organisational variations which were originally hypothesised and so this provides evidence, albeit not strictly causal in nature, that the attribute of psychopathy as measured here is valid and so should be of considerable interest to management researchers. Some commentators point out that validity should be more about measurement than correlation and that there should be a hypothesis concerning the causal processes that are between the attribute and the differences measured (Borsboom, Mellenbergh & van Heerden 2004). In the case of this research, there is an underlying, unstated hypothesis implicit in each of the stated hypotheses. This is that psychopathy is marked by a lack of conscience and so a careless attitude to others and a selfish attitude. Further, that this accounts for the differences in the measured outcomes in terms of levels of personal conflict, bullying, job satisfaction and the other outcomes hypothesised about in this research.

Borsboom, Mellenbergh & van Heerden (2004) argue that it is cause and effect that researchers should be looking for, rather than creating tables of correlation coefficients and then just checking whether they go in the right direction, with the assumption that if they do, then some measure of validity has been established.

The correlation coefficients calculated in this research all show a correlation between Corporate Psychopaths and the dependent variables, in the expected direction. This is graphically illustrated by the scatter plots, which are generated with calculated regression lines, for each of the items measured in the research. The regression lines in these scatter plots are all in the expected direction in relation to Corporate Psychopaths.

The conclusions from the research, in relation to their bearing on each of the research questions raised, and on each of the hypotheses in the research, are detailed overleaf.

That is, that Corporate Psychopaths do have an affect on:-

1. Conflict at work,
2. Job satisfaction,
3. Organisational Constraints,
4. Corporate Social Responsibility,
5. Bullying at work,
6. Workload, and
7. Withdrawal from the workplace.

5.2 Discussion of Findings in Relation to the Research Objectives

5.2.1 Are Corporate Psychopaths deemed to be working in Australian Workplaces?

The modern corporation has been described as being a superb mechanism for creating wealth for its owners and senior managers (Jones 2005). It makes sense therefore that Corporate Psychopaths would be attracted to join such organisations and would try to attain such senior management positions to gain the wealth, prestige and power that they crave.

This research finds that Corporate Psychopaths are deemed to be working in Australian workplaces and, in this sample, in terms of the incidence of currently working with a Corporate Psychopath, 5.75% of respondents gave ratings about their current manager which qualified those managers as being Corporate Psychopaths.

Of all respondents, 64.2% reported that they had worked, in the past ten years, with a manager whom they deemed to be dysfunctional, defined in the questionnaire as being one who works in an abnormal, unhealthy, impaired or disturbed manner so that they cannot perform all or part of their managerial functions properly. However, when subject to the psychopathy measure used in this research (the PM-MRV) it was found that 32.1% of all respondents had ever worked with a manager who could be classified as a Corporate Psychopath and 5.75% were currently working with such a manager. Clearly then, the incidence of psychopaths in the workplace, together with the impact of their behaviour, is high enough and salient enough for them to be noticed by other employees.

5.2.2 What Influence has the Presence of Corporate Psychopaths Had on Those Workplaces?

The presence of Corporate Psychopaths has a negative influence on the workplace environment resulting in a large number of individual effects. Clarke describes individual anecdotal cases of workplace psychopaths where the negative emotional effects of Corporate Psychopaths on other employees within organisations are described. For example, some of these effects are reported to be that the individual concerned becomes stressed, lacking in confidence and feels helpless and worthless as a result of becoming the target of a psychopath in an organisation (2005).

This research found that the presence of managerial Corporate Psychopaths was associated with work difficulties due to one's supervisor, unfair supervision and lack of recognition for doing a good job. These are all characteristic of a poor quality supervisor-employee relationship and would also be expected to be associated with low job satisfaction (Stringer 2006).

These influences are discussed under a discussion of findings relating to each hypothesis, in the following pages of this chapter. The results of this research have been analysed categorically, applying Chi-Square, ANOVA or Bonferroni t-tests to the differences in findings between the three groups of Normal Managers, Dysfunctional Managers and Corporate Psychopaths. The results have also been analysed as continuous variables, using correlation coefficients and regression lines in scatter plots to view correlations. Simple regression analysis was also undertaken. The results are the same. There are clear, marked and significant associations and correlations between Corporate Psychopaths and the dependent variables in this research. These are discussed in more detail in the following pages.

5.2.3 What Influence has the Presence of Corporate Psychopaths had on Other Employees?

Corporate Psychopaths create a toxic workplace environment typified by conflict, bullying, increased workload, low levels of job satisfaction, and higher than necessary organisational constraints. This is also associated with the higher levels of withdrawal from the workplace that one would logically expect to find among employees working in such an environment. As discussed earlier in this thesis good supervisors are said to generate positive relationships with employees, good levels of job satisfaction and organisational commitment, and this helps to embed employees within organisations and provides a disincentive to withdraw from the organisation (Morrow et al. 2005).

It is not surprising then, that Corporate Psychopaths, with their poor supervision, generate the opposite of this. Employees working under Corporate Psychopaths, experience less instruction, less training and less help from others, than they would experience otherwise. This is associated with more work difficulties than they would otherwise have. They receive less recognition for doing a good job, less appreciation and less reward. They also experience a less friendly work environment, with poorer communications and more unfairness from their supervisor, when Corporate Psychopaths are present. In line with the emotional destruction outlined by commentators in this area, this must have a severe negative effect on employee mental health, commitment to the organisation concerned and productivity (Clarke 2005).

The direct influence of Corporate Psychopaths on employees can most vividly be seen in the analyses of supervision and Corporate Psychopathy. When Corporate Psychopathy is present, management supervision suffers and in such circumstances supervisors are seen as being unfair, disinterested in the feelings of others and as creating difficulties for employees in their workplace.

5.3 Discussion of Findings Relating to Each Hypothesis

5.3.1 Corporate Psychopaths and Conflict at Work

The first hypothesis was: “Employees, who work in workplaces where managers are perceived to demonstrate the traits associated with being Corporate Psychopaths, will report higher levels of conflict at work than those who do not”.

In terms of the overall correlation between the presence of Corporate Psychopaths and the construct of conflict, there was a significant correlation coefficient (.475) in a positive direction. As Corporate Psychopathy increases, so does conflict. This is graphically shown in the three scatter plots correlating mean levels of arguments, rudeness and yelling at work (Figure 18 on page 287 and Figures 19 and 20 on page 288) against the total Corporate Psychopathy score. As Corporate Psychopathy increases, so do arguments, rudeness and yelling.

Further, analysed categorically, t-tests (Table 17, p. 182) show that all the elements of the construct of conflict at work were significantly different at $p < .01$, in a negative direction, when Corporate Psychopaths were present.

In terms of mean annual frequencies, getting into arguments with others at work, experiencing yelling at work and arguments at work were all significantly higher under Corporate Psychopaths, than they were under Normal Managers, in this research.

Employees who worked in organisations where Corporate Psychopaths were present experienced people yelling at them at work more than five times more frequently than did employees who worked in organisations where Corporate Psychopaths were not present. This fits with the literature where psychopaths in the workplace are reported to verbally abuse employees as a method of intimidation (Clarke 2005).

Experiencing rudeness at work was also significantly higher under Dysfunctional Managers and significantly higher under Corporate Psychopaths, than it was under Normal Managers, in this research. In particular there was significantly more experience of rudeness when Corporate Psychopaths were present at work.

The null version of this hypothesis (i.e. that Corporate Psychopaths have no effect on conflict) is therefore not supported and the research concludes therefore that Corporate Psychopaths do appear to be associated with conflict at work. Regression analysis using conflict as the dependent variable, shows that Corporate Psychopathy, with an R^2 of .231 ($P < 0.01$), is a positive and sizeable contributor to conflict. This also leads to the rejection of the null hypothesis from this finding and to accept that Corporate Psychopathy does have an affect on conflict. This is important for employers because researchers have shown that conflict at work can influence other personnel and directly influence the organisation itself. This reportedly varies according to whether the source of the conflict is perceived to be a peer or a superior, through retaliation aimed at individuals or at the organisation as a whole (Bruk-Lee & Spector 2006).

This finding is also important because prior research has shown that rudeness reduces performance on routine employee tasks as well as on more creative tasks, and that further, rude behaviour decreases helpfulness in general (Porath & Erez 2007). The presence of Corporate Psychopaths then, decreases organisational performance through this aspect of conflict that it is associated with.

Aggression and conflict in the organisation have been found to share a significant negative relationship with overall levels of job satisfaction (Lapierre, Spector & Leck 2005). It is not surprising then, that in this research the increased levels of conflict associated with the presence of Corporate Psychopaths in the workplace goes hand in hand with lower levels of job satisfaction as discussed below, in the next section of this chapter.

Workplace psychopaths are reported to revel in the suffering of fellow employees causing as much confusion and conflict as they can within organisations, partly for the thrill they get out of it, and partly so that they can continue their manipulative behaviour under the cloak of the confusion they cause elsewhere (Clarke 2007). They are said to engage in intimidating behaviour and in encouraging others to harass and bully their victims (Clarke 2005). From these revelations in the literature, it is not too surprising that significantly high conflict levels were found in this research when Corporate Psychopaths were present in organisations.

In the literature, organisational psychopaths are also said to create conflict between other employees so that they can control them more easily (divide and conquer tactics) and to deflect attention away from the psychopath and what they are doing (Clarke 2007). This again is a possible explanation for the high levels of conflict at work found in this research, when Corporate Psychopaths were present.

Another reason for finding high levels of conflict associated with the presence of Corporate Psychopaths may be through the mimicking of their aggressive behaviour by their subordinates and supporters (Pech & Slade 2007). Such mimicking has been identified, whereby aggressive behaviour towards employees by a psychopathic manager is seen as a behavioural blueprint by others in the organisation. Such behaviour is reported to spread out through an organisation like a virus (Pech & Slade 2007).

A finding that personal conflict at work correlates strongly with the presence of Corporate Psychopaths is an addition to the literature on personal conflict at work. It highlights the role of personal and individual differences and of managers with personality disorders in particular, on personal conflict at work.

5.3.2 Corporate Psychopaths and Job Satisfaction at Work

This second hypothesis was: - “Employees, who work in workplaces where managers are perceived to demonstrate the traits associated with being Corporate Psychopaths, will experience lower levels of job satisfaction than those who do not”.

Job satisfaction has been described as being an emotional state of mind that reflects an affective reaction to the job being undertaken (Falkenburg & Schyns 2007). The second hypothesis in this researched investigated the association between Corporate Psychopaths and job satisfaction at work.

In terms of the overall correlation between the presence of Corporate Psychopaths and the construct of job satisfaction, there was a very high, negative (-.702) and significant correlation coefficient. As Corporate Psychopathy increases, job satisfaction decreases. In terms of the individual elements in the construct of job satisfaction, all eight of the items measured were negatively affected by the presence of Corporate Psychopaths within an organisation in a highly significant manner. This is shown graphically in Figures 41 to 48 on pages 299 to 302. These scatter plots clearly show the negative correlations between Corporate Psychopathy and all the measures of job satisfaction that were used in this research.

The result was the same for these results analysed categorically, t-tests (Table 20) show that all elements of the construct of job satisfaction were significantly different at $p < .01$, when Corporate Psychopaths were present. When working under Corporate Psychopaths; employees reported that they felt less recognised for doing a good job, less liking for their fellow employees, less appreciated and less rewarded than did employees who worked under Normal Managers. Further, employees who worked under Corporate Psychopaths reported that they disagreed that communications were good, but agreed that they had to work harder because of the incompetence of others. They also agreed that their supervisor was unfair and showed little interest in the feelings of subordinates.

The presence of Corporate Psychopathy has significant negative effects on all the measured aspects of job satisfaction. This included having a negative effect on perceptions that employees get due recognition for a job well done, on employees liking the people they work with, on employees reporting good communications within the organisation and on employees reporting that their supervisor was unfair to them. Also on levels of feeling appreciated for their work, on reports of having to work harder because of the incompetence of others, on employees reporting that their supervisor shows little interest in the feelings of others and on feelings of not being properly rewarded for their efforts.

In Regression Model 1, the R^2 is .500 ($P < 0.01$). This means that the dependent variable of job satisfaction is explained by the presence of Corporate Psychopathy by a large and significant negative correlation between the two. This also leads to the rejection of the null hypothesis and to the adoption of the alternative hypothesis, that Corporate Psychopathy predicts low levels of job satisfaction. The null version of this hypothesis is therefore not supported at all, and Corporate Psychopaths do appear to be associated with poor levels of job satisfaction.

Psychopathic and abusive behaviour have been reported to cause low levels of confidence and morale among employees (Pech & Slade 2007). Another researcher found that abusive supervision was associated with lower job satisfaction and lower job commitment (Tepper 2000). It is not surprising therefore that in this research the presence of Corporate Psychopaths is associated with low levels of job satisfaction.

It is recognised in the literature that an employee's supervisor is likely to be the key figure for an employee in any organisation. This is because the supervisor largely determines what the job demands are and this can be expected to influence how the employee evaluates organisational fairness and job satisfaction (Janssen 2001). Not surprisingly, abusive supervision, involving such behaviours as public criticism, rudeness and coercion, has been identified as having a negative influence on job satisfaction and on normative and affective commitment to the organisation (Tepper 2000).

A reading of the psychological literature on psychopaths who work in organisations identifies them as archetypal abusers. They enjoy hurting people because it amuses and thrills them (Clarke 2007). They use humiliation to cause confusion and fear in order to hide their other activities (Hare 1999a; Clarke 2005), and they ruthlessly manipulate and unfairly abuse others, without conscience, to further their own aims and objectives (Babiak & Hare 2006).

In this research the job satisfaction questions included questions on supervisors and in line with the expected result, the presence of Corporate Psychopaths was associated with poor ratings of respondent's supervisors. This is clearly shown in Figures 39 and 45 on pages 298 and 301 respectively, where poor supervision and Corporate Psychopathy are positively correlated.

In a 2007 survey of a sample of members of the Australian Institute of Management, it was reported that Australian employees generally felt good about their employer and with their managers and leaders. For example, 85% of Australian employees reported that they worked for a great company whereas only 13.5% said that they were not rewarded or recognised for their efforts at work (Cullen 2007).

This compares with the finding in this research that when Corporate Psychopaths are present, 82.2% of respondents report not being properly rewarded for their efforts at work. Clearly, the presence of corporate Psychopaths increases the percentage of workers who feel unrewarded for their efforts.

Some researchers argue that situations rather than the personalities of employees, are the main driving force behind job satisfaction (Spector 2005) and this current research would tend to support this point of view because the situation where Corporate Psychopaths are present in an organisation is significantly associated with decreased levels of job satisfaction across a whole range of measured items.

Research using a meta-analytic structural equation modelling approach found that levels of increasing job satisfaction and organisational citizenship behaviour tended to go hand in hand, mutually reinforcing and encouraging each other in conscientious employees (Lapierre & Hackett 2007). It is not surprising in the light of this, that this current research found that perceived levels of corporate social responsibility and job satisfaction were both negatively associated with the presence of Corporate Psychopaths in an organisation.

Psychopaths who work in organisations are reported to engage in behaviour such as taking credit for others work, blaming others for their own mistakes, humiliating people in public, creating disharmony in the workplace and causing crises and confusion in the workplace (Clarke 2007; Clarke 2005). It is little wonder then, that employees in organisations where Corporate Psychopaths are present, in this research, are significantly more likely to report that their efforts are not appreciated, and that they feel that they do not get due recognition for their good work and that their supervisor was unfair to them at work. The results analysed using the Corporate Psychopathy score as a continuous variable show the same findings. See Figure 45 on page 301, for an example of this. This Figure clearly shows the correlation between Corporate Psychopathy and unfair supervision.

The extant literature on job satisfaction identifies an association between job satisfaction, conflict and bullying and abusive supervision (Tepper 2000). However, it also identifies a gap in the literature in that while the consequences of abusive supervision are known in terms of their influence on conflict, bullying, job satisfaction and psychological distress; the causes of abusive supervision are not known in the discipline of management. This gap has been only partially filled by a recent research review looking at the antecedents of abusive behaviour (Tepper 2007). However, in the discipline of psychology, one major cause of abusive supervision is well known; that is the presence of psychopaths in an organisation (Babiak and Hare, 2006b; Clarke, 2005; Hare, 1999a; Babiak, 1995). This current research draws this knowledge from psychology, supports it empirically and brings it to the attention of management researchers.

5.3.3 Corporate Psychopaths and Organisational Constraints at Work

The third hypothesis was: - “Employees who work in workplaces where managers are perceived to demonstrate the traits associated with being Corporate Psychopaths will report higher levels of organisational constraints than those who do not”.

In terms of the overall correlation between the presence of Corporate Psychopaths and the construct of organisational constraints, there was a significant correlation coefficient in a positive direction. The Pearson’s Correlation Coefficient for this was .526, ($p < .05$) a high figure. As Corporate Psychopathy increases, so does the level of organisational constraints. T-tests show that all of the ten individual elements of this construct were different, in a negative direction and in a highly significant manner, when Corporate Psychopaths were present. For example, the annual frequency of experiencing work difficulties due to one’s supervisor was eight times higher under Corporate Psychopaths than it was under Normal Managers. The scatter plots in Figure 12 on page 176 shows this graphically for the construct of organisational constraints. As Corporate Psychopathy increases, so does the level of organisational constraints. Experiencing regular and frequent difficulties in the workplace due to one’s supervisor, as was found in this research, must logically be debilitating and morale destroying for the employees involved.

In terms of predicting organisational constraints in the Regression Model (1), Corporate Psychopathy, again, does appear to have a fairly large and significant predictive affect ($R^2 = .267$, $P < 0.01$). Therefore this is also enough to reject the null hypothesis and to conclude that Corporate Psychopathy does have an affect on organisational constraints. The null version of this hypothesis is therefore not supported, and Corporate Psychopaths do appear to be associated with high levels of organisational constraints at work.

A commitment to staff training and development has been identified as being an element which contributes to staff morale (McHugh 2002) and in the current research the presence of Corporate Psychopaths is significantly associated with work difficulties due to inadequate training. In the literature, Corporate Psychopaths are also reported to engage in behaviour such as giving inadequate training to others (Clarke 2007). This finding therefore directly corresponds to what was hypothesised in the literature.

This perhaps explains why this research found that, of those who work in an environment where Corporate Psychopaths were present, the majority (65.8%) reported that they had work difficulties due to inadequate training. That these findings are so much in line with the predictions from the literature gives the research a high degree of face validity. The current findings are very much in line with previous theoretical and observed expectations in this regard.

Organisational psychopaths are reported to manipulate corporate systems and procedures to gain what they want (Clarke calls them organisational psychopaths rather than Corporate Psychopaths) (Clarke 2007). This perhaps explains why higher levels of work difficulties due to organisational rules and procedures and due to poor equipment or supplies are both at significantly higher levels in this research when Corporate Psychopaths are present in organisations. Organisational psychopaths are reported to be prone to parasitic behaviour, claiming the success of others' work for themselves and conning others into doing their work for them (Clarke 2007). This perhaps explains why the incidence and the average frequency of reported work difficulties due to other employees were at significantly higher levels in this research when Corporate Psychopaths were present in organisations.

Researchers working with neuroscientists in looking at the functioning of the brain have found that some neurons mimic or mirror the same neurons in other people's brains and that this triggers empathetic actions and feelings (Goleman & Boyatzis 2008). In this way, followers can come to mirror the emotions and actions of their leaders at a sub-conscious level. Leaders with social intelligence can thus spread positive feelings among their followers and promote a cohesive and effective human organisation that can withstand stressful situations.

Neuroscientists have also found that when a dysfunctional leader's demands become too great to bear, elevated levels of cortisol and adrenaline result and these paralyse the critical and creative abilities of other employee's brains. Stress spreads through a group of employees via the mimicking action of mirror neurons and a whole team of people can become compromised in their performance (Goleman & Boyatzis 2008). This might partially explain how performance constraints become established in groups that contain Corporate Psychopaths as managers.

5.3.4 Corporate Psychopaths and Corporate Social Responsibility at Work

The fourth hypothesis stated: - “Employees, who work in workplaces where managers are perceived to demonstrate the traits associated with being Corporate Psychopaths, will report lower levels of workplace corporate social responsibility than those who do not”.

In terms of the overall correlation between the presence of Corporate Psychopaths and the construct of corporate social responsibility, there was a significant correlation coefficient (-.493) ($p < .05$) in a negative direction. As Corporate Psychopathy increases, the level of corporate social responsibility decreases. All elements of this construct were different, in a highly significant and negative direction, when Corporate Psychopaths were present. Reported levels of agreement that the organisation did business in a socially desirable manner, environmentally friendly manner and in a way that benefits the local community, were all significantly lower under Corporate Psychopaths than under Normal Managers. These findings are delineated in Figures 14 to 17 on pages 285 to 287, showing the negative correlation between Corporate Psychopathy and the measures of corporate social responsibility.

In the Regression Model (1) the correlation between Corporate Psychopathy and corporate social responsibility is a strong one ($R^2 = .249$, $P < 0.01$). The dependent variable of corporate social responsibility is explained by the presence of Corporate Psychopathy. This shows that a big predictor of corporate social responsibility is the presence of Corporate Psychopathy in an organisation. The higher the Corporate Psychopathy score, then the lower the levels of corporate social responsibility are. This regression analysis also leads to the rejection of the null hypothesis and to the adoption of the alternative hypothesis, that Corporate Psychopaths do predict low levels of corporate social responsibility. The null version of this hypothesis is therefore not supported and Corporate Psychopaths do appear to be associated with perceptions of low levels of corporate social responsibility at work.

As discussed earlier in this thesis, corporate social responsibility is a general concept concerning what is judged to be good or ethical about corporate behaviour. It has at its core the idea that a corporation should involve itself in more than just an economic role in society and should not only take responsibility for its economic actions but also accept a wider ethical responsibility for the impacts it has on the society and on the environment in which it operates (Robbins 2008). Commentators recognise that decisions on spending time or money on activities to do with corporate social responsibility are ultimately taken by individual managers within corporations (Robbins 2008; Thomas & Simerly 1994) and so logically it is the individual ethical stance of the manager concerned which determines whether discretionary corporate social responsibility takes place or not. Corporate social responsibility is thus said to be a discretionary responsibility of organisations rather than a legal responsibility (Batra 2007).

Commentators have suggested that the whole issue of corporate governance is fundamentally about such ethical questions as, in whose interests should corporations be run? (Elkington 2006). Ethical business practices and treating employees well are therefore reported to be two important elements of good corporate citizenship (Verschoor 2008). In this research, as would be expected from the literature, respondents working in environments where Corporate Psychopaths were present did not agree that the organisation showed commitment to other employees. Under Normal Managers, respondents did agree that the organisation showed commitment to other employees. T-tests show that this difference was significant at the 99% level of confidence ($p < .01$). The correlation between Corporate Psychopathy and commitment to other employees is shown in Figure 15 on page 286. A clear negative correlation can be seen in the direction and steepness of the regression line drawn from the individual plots.

The expectations of the general public over how corporations should perform are reported to be far in advance of what corporations actually do in terms of corporate social responsibility and citizenship (Verschoor 2008). Corporate citizenship is therefore said to be becoming one of the defining business issues for this century (Verschoor 2008).

If this is indeed the case, then research into corporate social responsibility will have to take the presence and actions of Corporate Psychopaths into account, in further research, in this area, as their presence is so influential on this outcome.

Corporate Psychopaths are only interested in self-gratification and not in the success of the organisation in which they work (Clarke 2007). They are interested in running corporations for the power, money and prestige that they crave and are self-interested to the exclusion of others and are indifferent to the fate of the organisations they work for or of their fellow employees (Babiak and Hare, 2006b; Boddy, 2005c; Clarke, 2005; Cleckley, 1988). They could thus, logically be expected to be a barrier to corporate social responsibility, and this current research supports this conclusion.

As stated earlier, ethical business practices and treating employees well are reported to be two important elements of good corporate responsibility (Verschoor 2008). From the results in this current research, ethical business practices and treating employees well are both clearly and negatively affected by the presence of Corporate Psychopaths in an organisation. From a reading of the literature on psychopaths, it is logical to assume that they would privately find the whole idea of corporate social responsibility pointless and ridiculous.

This is unless they were using an overt display of concern about corporate social responsibility to draw attention away from other devious management practices, a phenomenon that has been reported on by other researchers into corporate social responsibility and management ethics (Prior, Surroca & Tribó 2008). The findings in this research are therefore not at all unexpected. It is not a surprising finding in this research, therefore, that altruistic behaviours such as doing business in a socially responsible manner are perceived to be lower when Corporate Psychopaths are in management roles.

As a comparison to some of the results here; in a survey of a sample of members of the Australian Institute of Management, reported on in 2007, 8% said that they disagreed that their company was socially responsible while 86% agreed that it was socially responsible (Cullen 2007). This corresponds very closely with the finding in this research that when working under Normal Managers, only 10.7% of respondents did not agree that their organisation did business in a socially responsible manner. This finding again adds to the external validity of the results of this research in terms of sample representativeness. Similar samples of Australian managers would be expected to produce similar results across key common measures, as found here. It also makes the finding in this research, that in an organisation when Corporate Psychopaths were present, 47.5% disagreed that their organisation did business in a socially responsible manner, all the more meaningful and remarkable. It shows the large negative influence that the presence of Corporate Psychopaths has on organisations.

As discussed earlier, psychopaths are only interested in self-gratification and not in the success; however that is measured, of the organisation they work for (Clarke 2007). Therefore, it is perhaps not too surprising that altruistic behaviours such as doing business in a socially responsible manner or environmentally friendly manner are perceived to be significantly lower when Corporate Psychopaths are present.

Organisations and societies that want business corporations to operate in ways that benefit society, the environment, the local community and employees, will need to make sure that Corporate Psychopaths are not unduly influential in running those businesses.

5.3.5 Corporate Psychopaths and Bullying at Work

The fifth hypothesis read:- “Employees, in workplace where managers are perceived to demonstrate the traits associated with being Corporate Psychopaths, will report higher levels of bullying than those who do not”.

In terms of the overall correlation between the presence of Corporate Psychopaths and the measure of bullying, there was a strong and significant correlation coefficient (.564) in a positive direction. As Corporate Psychopathy increases, so does the level of witnessing bullying in the workplace. The measure for this (witnessing unfavourable treatment of others at work) was significantly different, in an ethically negative direction, when Corporate Psychopaths were present. Figure 8 on page 173 shows the nature of the very strong correlation between the presence of Corporate Psychopaths and the increase in bullying at work.

In terms of mean frequencies, under Corporate Psychopaths, employees reported experiencing the unfavourable treatment of others at work more than seven times more often than they did under Normal Managers. Also, in Regression Model 1, for bullying, ($R^2 = .321$, $P < 0.01$) meaning the dependent variable of bullying is significantly explained by the presence of Corporate Psychopathy. This also leads us to reject the null hypothesis from this finding and to accept that Corporate Psychopathy does have a large and significant affect on bullying. The null version of this hypothesis is therefore not supported and Corporate Psychopaths do appear to be associated with high levels of bullying at work.

This fits in with the expected result from a reading of the literature. Hare and Babiak have noted that about 29 per cent of Corporate Psychopaths are also bullies (Babiak and Hare, 2006). Other research has also shown that people with high scores on a psychopathy rating scale were more likely to engage in bullying, again indicating that psychopaths tend to be bullies in the workplace (Nathanson, Williams & Paulhus 2006). A growing body of management research literature is reported to explore the concept of abusive employee supervision, consisting of various non-physical forms of hostility perpetrated by managers against those who report to them (Tepper 2007).

Managers possessing the psychological traits associated with psychopathy such as lack of remorse, self-gratification, manipulativeness and bullying were identified in the literature review as being those who are often promoted (Pech & Slade 2007; Babiak & Hare 2006). These researchers say that such people as psychopaths rise unchallenged, or ineffectively challenged, in an organisation through the manipulation of others and the creation of groups of supporters (Pech and Slade, 2007; Clarke, 2005; Hare, 1999a).

Researchers report that bad leaders are reported to be callously disregarding of the needs and wishes of others, prepared to lie, bully and cheat and to disregard or cause harm to the welfare of others (Perkel 2005). It is therefore of no surprise to find, in this current research, that the presence of Corporate Psychopaths was so strongly associated with bullying. Corporate Psychopaths clearly deserve to take a prominent place in this research literature because the effects of their presence in an organisation include increased levels of unfair treatment of others and increased levels of yelling, rudeness and argumentative behaviour. This research corresponds with the literature on organisational psychopaths which states that they engage in bullying behaviour such as humiliation of others, verbal abuse and unwarranted criticism (Clarke 2007). The finding that bullying takes place in workplaces also corresponds with other Australian research which found that bullying was prevalent in Australian workplaces (D'Angelo Fisher 2008) and with research from other countries finding that bullying is also common in workplaces in the UK (Vorster 2008) and America (LaVan & Martin 2008). It is recognised that in most work settings, employees interact with their supervisors to perform their jobs and that job effectiveness is reported to partially depend on whether employees can establish high-quality exchanges with their supervisors (Janssen & Van Yperen 2004). Supervisors are reported to be an organisation's most salient agents for an employee and the quality of this relationship is said to affect job effectiveness and job satisfaction (Janssen & Van Yperen 2004). Those supervisors who can be expected to be bullying and abusive, such as Corporate Psychopaths, have been shown to be in this research, would be expected to negatively affect these interactions and to jeopardise employee effectiveness and this makes them worthy of further study.

5.3.6 Corporate Psychopaths and Workload

The sixth hypothesis in this research was:-“Employees, who work in workplaces where managers are perceived to demonstrate the traits associated with being Corporate Psychopaths, will report greater workloads than those who do not”.

In terms of the overall correlation between the presence of Corporate Psychopaths and the construct of workload, there was a relatively weak but still significant correlation coefficient (.275) in a positive direction. As Corporate Psychopathy increases, so does the workload experienced by employees.

All the items in the workload construct were affected by the presence of Corporate Psychopaths in an organisation in a significant or highly significant manner. In the current research, findings in the categorical analysis show that employees working under Corporate Psychopaths were more likely to, and more frequently required to, work very fast. They were more likely to, and more frequently required to, work very hard and more likely to, and more frequently required to, work with little time to get things done. They were also more likely and more frequently to have a great deal to be done and more likely to have and more frequently to have more to do than could be done well. Finally, they were more likely and more frequently required to work longer hours, compared to those working under Normal Managers.

Findings in the analysis using Corporate Psychopathy as a continuous variable show the same result. The correlation between Corporate Psychopathy and workload is shown in Figure 10 on page 175. Individual item correlations are shown in the Appendix. Clear positive relationships between Corporate Psychopathy and workload are delineated across all four workload items. The null version of this hypothesis is therefore not supported and Corporate Psychopaths do appear, in this research, to be associated with higher workloads at work.

In Regression Model 1, the affect of Corporate Psychopathy on workload is an R^2 figure of .067, ($P < 0.01$). This is a small but still significant affect and so clearly Corporate Psychopathy does influence workload. This also leads us to reject the null hypothesis from this finding and to accept that Corporate Psychopathy does have a significant affect on workload.

This would logically be expected from a reading of the literature on psychopathy. It is claimed in the literature that Corporate Psychopaths gain promotion through manipulation, aggression and charm rather than through their job related abilities and competencies and that therefore they may make poor management decisions in their jobs (Pech & Slade 2007). Such poor management, logically, causes extra work for others, which has to be undertaken to rectify the mistakes that these incompetent psychopathic managers make. Also, extra work may be needed within affected companies to calm the emotionally disturbed victims of Corporate Psychopaths (Clarke 2005) and to do the work that Corporate Psychopaths fail to do because of their parasitic lifestyles (Babiak & Hare 2006).

It is recognised in the literature that workload is not necessarily related to job satisfaction because if workload is seen to be fair and equitable compared to the rewards given by the organisation, then employees can remain satisfied (Van Preen & Janssen 2002). However, drawing on equity theory, it is also acknowledged that high workloads, in association with a work situation seen as being unfair, promotes employee dissatisfaction (Janssen 2001). Corporate Psychopaths are likely to be seen as unfair because of their divisive and parasitic actions and so it can be logically assumed that their presence affects job satisfaction indirectly, through increased workload, as well as directly, though their behaviour as abusive supervisors and poor managers.

It could be that workload is a control variable rather than an outcome of dealing with a Corporate Psychopath. The first table presented on this in the data analysis section (4.7.2) (table 22) does makes it look like this could be true. However, the second table (23) more clearly shows that workload is an outcome that is significantly affected by the presence of Corporate Psychopaths. This relationship could be explored further in future research.

5.3.7 Corporate Psychopaths and Management Level at Work

The seventh hypothesis in this research was: - “Managers displaying the traits associated with being Corporate Psychopaths will be perceived to be more common at higher levels of management within workplaces than at lower levels”.

The original idea for how to measure this was to compare levels of psychopathy across higher and lower management levels in the research sample. However, most of the sample collected was drawn from senior managers and professionals leaving only a small number of lower level employees against which to compare findings. Despite obtaining this small sample size (of junior employees) to use as a basis for comparison, there was still a statistically significant difference between the levels of management measured and the presence of Corporate Psychopaths. The null version of this hypothesis is therefore not supported and the prevalence of Corporate Psychopaths does appear, in this research, to be associated with higher levels of management at work.

This finding does fit with the literature. For example, in a sample of senior business managers, researchers found elements of personality disorders closely associated with psychopathy, particularly in terms of the emotional components of the syndrome (Board & Fritzon 2005). These researchers say that this supports the view that psychopaths can be fully functioning members of society and of organisations. It also supports the view that Corporate Psychopaths may be found at senior levels. Indeed in a recent survey of managers, 87% agreed with a statement to the effect that the higher up one goes in organisations, the more political the climate becomes (Buchanan 2008). Corporate Psychopaths are reported to be adept at political manoeuvring and at playing off their pawns, patrons and patsies against one another (Babiak & Hare 2006). In another survey of managers, 84% agreed with a statement to the effect that managers follow the example set by their more senior managers in the amount of political behaviour they engage in (Buchanan 2008). Where senior managers are Corporate Psychopaths, therefore, political behaviour can be expected to be evident in an organisation. This would be an interesting area for further research.

Researchers say that Corporate Psychopaths rise relatively unchallenged in an organisation through the manipulation of others and the creation of groups of supporters (Pech and Slade 2007; Clarke, 2005; Hare, 1999a). Researchers have previously reported that psychopaths are often promoted within organisations because their aggressive self-promotion brings them recognition and reward (Pech & Slade 2007). Because of these traits and abilities, psychopaths have long been assumed to be more common the further up one goes in the corporate hierarchy (Babiak & Hare 2006). That this research finds that this indeed appears to be the case thus fits in well with the extant literature on psychopaths.

Further research could aim to look at this in a more statistically robust manner than the current research does, by for example, increasing the sample size of junior employees so that comparisons with senior employees can be made more confidently.

5.3.8 Corporate Psychopaths and Withdrawal from Work

The eighth hypothesis in this research stated; - “Employees who work in workplaces where managers are perceived to demonstrate the traits associated with being Corporate Psychopaths, will report higher levels of withdrawal from the workplace than those who do not”.

Withdrawal behaviours are defined as behaviours involving actual physical withdrawal from the work environment such as absenteeism and leaving the job (Falkenburg & Schyns 2007). It is acknowledged that these are important to organisations as they result in high costs to the organisation concerned, in terms of lost time, replacement hiring costs and re-training costs for replacement staff (Falkenburg & Schyns 2007). In terms of the overall correlation between the presence of Corporate Psychopaths and the construct of withdrawal from work, there was a significant correlation coefficient (.246) ($p < .05$) in a positive direction. As Corporate Psychopathy increases, so does withdrawal from work.

In terms of mean annual frequencies, the t-test results in Table 15 show that one individual element of this construct (leaving work early) was significantly different, at a 99% level of confidence, ($p < .01$). Another one, (taking longer breaks than allowed) was significant at a 95% level of confidence ($p < .05$), and one (coming to work late) was only significant at a 90% level of confidence ($p < .10$) all in a negative direction, when Corporate Psychopaths were present. In terms of incidence levels, the other item, staying at home claiming to be sick when not really sick, was significantly higher under Corporate Psychopaths than under Normal Managers. As discussed earlier, two elements within this construct, (coming to work late and leaving work early) appear to be problematic in that they may be out of date measures in today’s flexible work environment and arguably, therefore, need replacing in any future research as discussed earlier in the thesis. Nevertheless, the null version of this hypothesis is clearly not supported and Corporate Psychopaths do appear to be associated with higher levels of withdrawal from work.

In Regression Model 1, predicting withdrawal, Corporate Psychopathy does appear to have a small and significant affect on withdrawal ($R^2 = .060$, $P < 0.01$). This also leads us to reject the null hypothesis and to conclude that Corporate Psychopathy does produce an influence on withdrawal.

One of the effects of having psychopaths in the workplace is reported to be the withdrawal of the effort, energy and commitment to an organisation, of other employees (Pech & Slade 2007; Clarke 2005). Employees seek to minimise their suffering at the hands of their greedy and manipulative colleagues (Pech & Slade 2007). Another researcher similarly found that workplace subordinates who perceived that their supervisors were abusive, were more likely to leave their jobs (Tepper 2000). The finding in this research therefore, that Corporate Psychopaths are associated with higher levels of withdrawal from work, is in line with the extant literature on psychopathy.

Workers who perceive that they are treated unjustly or with poor levels of interpersonal treatment also reportedly take more sick leave than other employees do and there is a reported correlation between poor management style and sickness absence (Amble 2006b). Other researchers describe immoral managers as being exceptional individuals, willing to be ruthless, demeaning of others, forceful, deceptive, self-serving, predatory, dissembling and manipulative. They become a powerful disruptive force within organisations, demoralising others and causing fear and paralysis to the extent that organisational change is almost impossible and many employees withdraw from their involvement with and commitment to the organisation (Delbecq 2001). It is not surprising then, that in this current research the null hypothesis in this regard (that Corporate Psychopaths have no influence on withdrawal) finds no support in the empirical evidence.

Absenteeism is one aspect of workplace withdrawal that this current research investigated and the findings here can be somewhat contextualised by research in the UK which found that twenty-two per cent of workers could have really gone to work if they had wanted to when they took a day off sick (Paton 2005).

It also found that the average number of days lost each year in private sector companies, through sick leave, was 8.5 according to the Confederation of British Industry (McHugh 2002). This UK figure of 22% compares very closely with the 18.4% of employees, working under Normal Managers in this current study, who reported falsely claimed sickness at least once in the year in this Australian research. The costs of absenteeism through sick leave are reported to include the direct costs of sick pay and the replacement costs of hiring alternative employees or of paying overtime, but also to include the more indirect costs associated with decreased productivity, reduced customer satisfaction and poorer quality of products or services leading to a loss of future revenue (McHugh 2002). Interestingly, more than a quarter of those who took sick leave, in one study, reported that stress at work contributed to at least one of their absences in the past year (Paton 2005). Workers who perceive that they are treated unjustly or with poor levels of interpersonal treatment reportedly take more sick leave than other employees do and there is a reported correlation between poor management style and sickness absence (Amble 2006b).

High levels of absenteeism through sick leave are said to be symptomatic of an unhealthy organisation with deeply rooted problems and as such can be viewed as an key indicator of organisational problems that require analysis and remedial action (McHugh 2002). Low morale is reported to be seen as one of the underlying causes of absenteeism (McHugh 2002). In the current research it is evident that the presence of Corporate Psychopaths is associated with elements of the workplace environment that would give rise to low morale, such as a feeling of not being appreciated or of not being properly rewarded for one's efforts on the job.

High quality human resources have been identified as being one of the potentially rare resources that a firm can utilise to sustain a competitive advantage over competitive firms (Barney, 1991; Barney et al., 2001; Wright et al., 2001). That the presence of Corporate Psychopaths negatively affects employee withdrawal behaviour is, therefore, of some concern to management as it reduces the effectiveness of the human resource and so, logically, reduces the chances of firm success.

Organisations are reported to seek superficial solutions to absenteeism; solutions which focus on the observed behaviour or the symptoms rather than the underlying causes of absenteeism (Hom & Kinicki 2001). This may involve punishing the late employee rather than trying to mitigate the abusive behaviour of a supervisor who was a Corporate Psychopath, for example.

From the literature, it would appear that some of the underlying causes of absenteeism are low morale, poor communications, low job satisfaction levels and a feeling of not being appreciated (Baker & Newport 2003; Harrison, Newman & Roth 2006; McHugh 2002). From this current research, it is evident that all of these are significantly influenced by the presence of Corporate Psychopaths within an organisation. One of the underlying correlates of absenteeism can, therefore, be said to be the presence of Corporate Psychopaths. Poor organisational communications has also been identified as being an element that contributes to absenteeism (McHugh 2002) and in the current research, the presence of Corporate Psychopaths is significantly associated with a lack of agreement that communication was good within the organisation concerned. The current findings are therefore, again in line with previous theoretical and observed expectations in respect to communications and absenteeism within organisations.

In the literature on the subject of what one author calls 'workplace psychopaths' the destructive behaviour of these people is reported to engender feelings of depression, anger, confusion, relationship problems and lack of trust in fellow employees (Clarke 2007). These feelings may well account for the withdrawal behaviour found in this research when Corporate Psychopaths are present in organisations. Withdrawal is, in the literature, reportedly linked to employees being upset, and so these items of withdrawal, were considered appropriate to use in this research as they can reportedly be a consequence of working alongside someone who displays psychopathic behaviour (Clarke 2005). Clarke describes how working under a psychopath can result in more frequent staff departures from the organisation than would otherwise have been the case and so the finding in this research that employees withdraw from the organisation when Corporate Psychopaths are present is not unexpected (Clarke 2005).

5.4 Implications for Theory and for Further Research

5.4.1 Implications for Theory

The generation of theory is said to be the most valuable contribution a scholar can make to a debate within a discipline (Gummerson 2005). This is described by Gummerson as being the movement from raw data to conceptualisation and from there to the development of more general theory within the context of a particular discipline. Gummerson says that adding value to the phenomena which academics present, is what scholarship is all about (Gummerson 2005).

To the extent that the construct of Corporate Psychopaths can take its place in the nomological net (Cronbach & Meehl 1955) which comprises the construct of psychopathy, this research can be said to extend the theorising about the construct. In particular, it extends the theorising about a narrower definition of the construct of psychopathy than those definitions that include antisocial behavioural elements. In other words, it extends the theorising about the concept of successful psychopaths (Lynam 1997), those who are able to operate in society and who are not incarcerated and not likely to be incarcerated.

Psychologists acknowledge that questions of construct validity are never finally or fully settled but rather act as stimuli to further research and investigation in line with the scientific model of knowledge generation (Westen & Rosenthal 2005). Hopefully, the refined construct of Corporate Psychopaths used here, and the demonstration of a valid and reliable instrument for their identification, will act as a catalyst to further research in the discipline of management as discussed below. In terms of leadership research, bad leaders are reported to be callously disregarding of the needs and wishes of others, prepared to lie, bully and cheat and to disregard or cause harm to the welfare of others (Perkel 2005) and it is noted here that all these traits are commonly associated with psychopathy. This is another reason why this current research is important; it is a part of understanding bad corporate leadership and where it comes from.

Bad leaders are reported to be those who crave excessive power and money or those who are prepared to falsify accounts or bend the rules in pursuit of objectives and as seen in the literature review in this research, these are reported to be typical traits of Corporate Psychopaths. Bad leadership is reported to take a huge toll on employee morale, the careers of the individuals involved in the situation and on company profits.

Commentators on leadership have noted that leadership tends to be written about as if it were always positive, ethical and good. These commentators point out that this ignores the dark side of leadership where narcissistic self-aggrandizement and the pursuit of personal power for personal gain is evident (Clements & Washbrush 1999).

This type of leadership is facilitated by conformist, pragmatist or passive followers who do what they are told as a means to find favour with the leader they follow and thus to gain advantages for themselves (Clements & Washbrush 1999; Johnson 2005). These commentators say that the word leadership needs to be de-mythologized and that it should be recognised, that so-called effective leaders could promote terrible events.

The results of this type of dark leadership are reported to be wasted resources, ruined careers and organisational collapse (Clements & Washbrush 1999). The dark side of business is said to include environmental degradation, corruption, fraud, financial misrepresentation and harmful work practices and to be driven by greed, impatience and lust for power (Batra 2007). The research in this thesis extends the literature on poor leadership and on leaders with personality disorders such as narcissism and psychopathy.

It has also been reported that research into the antecedents of leader-employee exchange has only recently begun, but that the personality traits of leaders and of employees influence the development and quality of such exchanges, which in turn influence job effectiveness and satisfaction (Janssen & Van Yperen 2004).

Where one of these personalities is psychopathic therefore, these elements of job efficiency and satisfaction may be expected to be affected adversely, as has been shown to be the case in this research. There is therefore also a contribution made by this research to current knowledge of leader-employee exchange theory (Morrow et al. 2005; Gomez & Rosen 2001; Stringer 2006; Yrle, Hartman & Galle 2003). As discussed earlier in this thesis a poor quality leader-employee relationship would be expected to be associated with low job satisfaction (Stringer 2006) and this has proved to be the case. This supports leader-member exchange theory, because in line with the theory, low quality supervisor-employee exchanges, as here, are associated with low levels of job satisfaction and less effective communications (Stringer 2006).

The empirical evidence for the prevalence of abusive supervision has been reported to be weak and a gap in knowledge has been reported in terms of understanding the causes of abusive behaviour (Tepper 2000). This research adds considerably to that empirical evidence by showing the incidences of various types of abusive supervision under different types of managers, including Corporate Psychopaths. It thus adds to the knowledge in this area and provides a construct from psychology, that of psychopathy, for use in management research. An understanding of the causes of abusive behaviour is furthered by this research. When Corporate Psychopaths are the management leaders concerned, then their leadership pressure is likely to manifest in a number of similarly negative areas as discussed in this research.

Researchers have found that the social and peer or leadership pressures within organisations which are dishonest can work to pressure employees to fit in with other dishonesty and become dishonest themselves. In this way, they are gradually sucked into a corrupt organisational environment (Zyglidopoulos 2008). The link between leaders who are Corporate Psychopaths and organisational dishonesty would be a fruitful area for further research. Some of the areas where further research into the influence of Corporate Psychopaths on organisations would be useful are discussed in the next section of this chapter.

5.4.2 Implications for Further Research

5.4.2.1. The PM-MRV Research Instrument

According to Cronbach and Meehl, important commentators on construct validity, if prediction based on a construct and the results from empirical data are in harmony then a researcher can retain his belief that the test used does measure the construct of interest (Cronbach & Meehl 1955). Even detractors of construct validity as proposed by Cronbach and Meehl argue that the question of validity is about whether a researcher has developed a test that is sensitive to different levels of the attribute under investigation (Borsboom, Mellenbergh & van Heerden 2004). The scatter plots and other measures of correlation generated in this research clearly show the sensitivity of the dependent variables to the differences in the measure of Corporate Psychopathy.

The results of this research therefore, clearly indicate that the measurement tool used to identify Corporate Psychopaths in this research does correlate with predicted behavioural patterns within organisations and is sensitive to different levels of the attribute of psychopathy that is under investigation. This means that the construct of Corporate Psychopathy does have validity, and can be usefully adopted by other management researchers investigating this phenomenon. The predictions made from the literature review and demonstrated in this research are consistent with the best available theory concerning the trait of psychopathy and this means that the measurement tool used here can be used to measure levels of the traits of Corporate Psychopaths in management research.

The demonstration of the validity and usefulness of the Psychopathy Measure – Management Research Version (PM-MRV) is an important contributor to further management research. It can be used to further research and understanding of bullying, job satisfaction, organisational constraints and many other areas of management behaviour.

5.4.2.2. Research into Corporate Psychopaths and Corporate Longevity

Future research could also powerfully and more specifically test the utility of the construct of Corporate Psychopaths by demonstrating whether their presence reliably predicts other important outcomes of corporate performance such as success, longevity and organisational failure over time. As this current study was possibly the first to investigate, quantitatively, the correlations and connections between the presence of Corporate Psychopaths in an organisation and organisational outcomes, a fairly broad set of indicators was investigated.

Previous research into high quality relationships between supervisors and employees has found a correlation with positive organisational outcomes such as increased performance, innovation and organisational commitment (Stringer 2006). It is logical to assume that the poor quality supervisor-employee relationship measured in this research when Corporate Psychopaths are present, will lead to the opposite of these positive outcomes.

Future research could focus more specifically on the direct connection between the presence of Corporate Psychopaths in an organisation and measures of whole firm or divisional performance, such as profitability, productivity and longevity. Such research however, would be difficult and problematic as the identification of a Corporate Psychopath and indications that profitability and productivity were being negatively affected, would most likely result in the removal of that individual, thus ending the research due to its ethics.

The ethical issues around whether to name any Corporate Psychopaths identified within an organisation, to the organisation concerned, or not, would most likely be oriented to identification in order to minimise risk to the organisation. If the research, on the other hand, took a retrospective approach, seeking to uncover the involvement of Corporate Psychopaths after a company failure, then there may be problems of respondent bias, because of the negative impacts of the failure on past employees. These complex issues would have to be addressed in any future attempts to conduct this kind of research.

5.4.2.3. Research into Corporate Psychopaths and Counterproductive Work Behaviour

Research into Corporate Psychopaths and counterproductive work behaviour among other employees may also be a fruitful area for future research. Research has been undertaken into the relationship between job stressors, negative affectivity, and counterproductive work behaviour. This was designed to investigate the effects of workplace incivility on employee satisfaction. It indicated that incivility, organisational constraints, and interpersonal conflict are negatively related to job satisfaction and positively related to counterproductive work behaviour (Penney & Spector 2005).

Incivility at work has also been found to correlate with an erosion of organisational values and a depletion of organisational resources. Employees decrease their work effort, time spent on the job, productivity, and performance. Job satisfaction and organisational loyalty also diminish and turnover is also increased (Pearson & Porath 2005). Therefore, it seems likely that although counterproductive work behaviour was not specifically measured in this current research, it would probably be an area of fruitful further research into the influence of Corporate Psychopaths on organisations. This is because this research found that incivility (yelling, arguments and rudeness) was significantly higher under Corporate Psychopaths than under Normal Managers. It is logical to assume that this would result in counterproductive work behaviour.

5.4.2.4. Research into Corporate Psychopaths and Organisational Commitment

This research investigated the affects of Corporate Psychopaths on job satisfaction, but not on broader measures of organisational commitment. It is likely from a reading of the literature, that the presence of Corporate Psychopaths does negatively influence affective organisational commitment as well as job satisfaction.

Affective organisational commitment is defined as consisting of three main elements; the identification with the organisation and acceptance of organisational goals and values; the willingness to exert effort on behalf of the organisation and the intention to remain in the organisation (Falkenburg & Schyns 2007). It is logical that the presence of Corporate Psychopaths in organisations would undermine all these types of commitment. This is because Corporate Psychopaths try to twist and manipulate goals and values to their own ends; seek to re-direct others' efforts towards rewards for themselves and to reduce the positive elements of working at the organisation, by poisoning employee relations and the work environment. Research into the influence of Corporate Psychopaths on affective organisational commitment would probably, be very fruitful therefore.

Researchers who have investigated the literature to find a link between organisational commitment and organisational outcomes have found that job satisfaction and organisational commitment are predictors of organisational outcomes (Falkenburg & Schyns 2007). This suggests that as Corporate Psychopaths affect job satisfaction they probably also affect other organisational outcomes as well, such as organisational longevity and success. This also, is worthy of further investigation and research.

5.4.2.5. Research into Corporate Psychopaths and Intention to Quit

Employee turnover was not one of the measures of withdrawal behaviour measured by this research. However, it is a major cost to organisations who invest considerable resources in selecting new employees in the hope that high quality employees will contribute to productivity and contribute to the acquisition of a competitive human resource advantage for the employer (Wright & Bonett 2007). Organisations are interested in keeping these employees to avoid the costs associated with losing them which are identified as being separation costs, replacement costs and re-training costs (Wright & Bonett 2007).

Management research has shown that when employees' co-workers exhibit high levels of workplace withdrawal, other individual employees are also more likely to withdraw from their own work. The research also shows that this can be reduced by perceived high organisational support levels (Eder & Eisenberger 2008). The current research shows that the presence of Corporate Psychopaths is associated with elevated levels of withdrawal behaviour and perceived low levels of organisational support. This was measured by such items as levels of training, levels of good instruction as to what to do and when to do it, and levels of provision of necessary equipment and supplies. This implies that the effects of the presence of Corporate Psychopaths will ripple out through an organisation over time as withdrawal behaviours and dissatisfaction spread through the organisation concerned. This too would be an interesting area for further research.

Various factors contribute to whether these employees remain with the organisation and one of these factors is job satisfaction which has been identified as a significant predictor of workplace withdrawal and turnover (Wright & Bonett 2007). It has been found that when job satisfaction is low, employees start to look for employment alternatives (Wright & Bonett 2007). This may be influenced by team spirit and cohesiveness as well as individual measures of satisfaction but the relationship generally holds true that lower satisfaction equals more absenteeism at the individual employee level (Dineen et al. 2007).

Broader measures than just job satisfaction are also involved in the decision to seek alternative employment and one of these is psychological well being in general, which is the subjective feeling of wellbeing, including the presence of positive emotions and the absence of negative emotions and this concerns a person's life as a whole (Wright & Bonett 2007). Future research could examine the influence of Corporate Psychopaths on individual well-being.

Researchers have found that employees who perceive their superiors to be rude, mean-spirited or unfair can, themselves, become negative and unproductive, engaging in dysfunctional behaviour and withdrawing from the workplace or reducing their work efforts for their employer (Amble 2006a). The current research shows that the presence of Corporate Psychopaths is significantly associated with workplace incivility (e.g. rudeness, yelling, and arguments) and increased organisational constraints and so it is not surprising that it is also significantly associated with job dissatisfaction and withdrawal as well.

Research has shown that the relationships between reported stressors and workplace behaviours are strongest for more direct aggressive actions such as interpersonal aggression and hostility and for intention to quit (Chen & Spector 1992). This current research did not measure intention to quit (the intention to leave an organisation) but it logically follows that the intention to quit will be higher when Corporate Psychopaths are present in an organisation because of the increased levels of interpersonal conflict and hostility that their presence directly or indirectly generates.

Furthermore, this current research shows that the presence of Corporate Psychopaths affects both job satisfaction and elements of psychological well being as a whole, and is therefore almost certainly a contributor to employee turnover and withdrawal. This again would be a potentially very fruitful area for future research into the effects of Corporate Psychopaths on organisations.

5.4.2.6. Research into Corporate Psychopaths and Organisational Type

In terms of the types of organisations which Corporate Psychopaths are attracted to, there is little evidence in the literature as to what these are. Hare says that it is power, prestige and money which attract Corporate Psychopaths (Hare 1999a) and so it would seem logical for them to be attracted to larger commercial organisations, where accelerated progress through the ranks can lead to these elements of power, prestige and money. However, other research among organisations has found that public sector organisations are more political in terms of internal political behaviour than commercial organisations are. Such a political environment would seem ideal for the conning and manipulative talents of Corporate Psychopaths. It may be that such public sector organisations are also easier for Corporate Psychopaths to hide their lack of effort in, as performance appraisals in such organisations are not as objective in that they are not directly linked to external and objective performance indicators such as profits, as they often are in commercial organisations (Boddy 1994). This means that politics can potentially play a bigger part in performance appraisals and promotions and this gives the advantage to those who are cunning and the manipulative, such as people who are Corporate Psychopaths. On the other hand ministerial control and public scrutiny in the public sector may serve as barriers to Corporate Psychopaths.

Research into the related concept of Machiavellianism (which correlates with and overlaps with the construct of psychopathy) throws some light on this issue. This research looked at the relative Machiavellianism scores of people in different occupations. Reportedly, accountants are among the least Machiavellian professions whereas purchasing managers are among the most (Wakefield 2008). Similarly the Machiavellianism scores of students majoring in social work were significantly lower than students majoring in law and business (Wakefield 2008). It may be that the 'caring professions' attract lower numbers of those attracted to power and money than other professions do, including lower numbers of Machiavellians and Corporate Psychopaths. This too, is worthy of further research because it may indicate that some types of organisations should be more concerned than others about the presence of Corporate Psychopaths in their midst.

5.4.2.7. Research into the Voluntary Retirement of Corporate Psychopaths

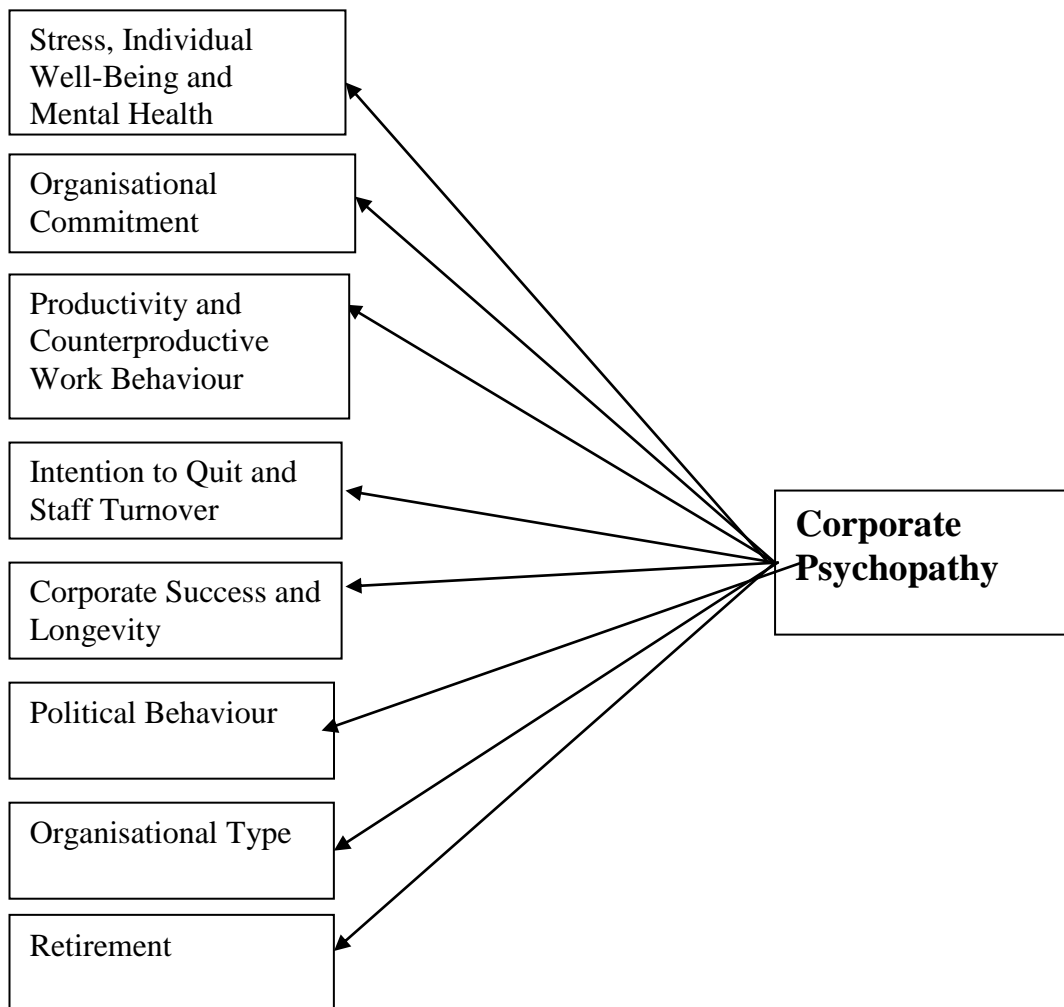
In discussions about Corporate Psychopaths, it has been anecdotally observed (Boddy 2005c) that Corporate Psychopaths do not retire once they become very wealthy, which is perplexing until one considers the nature of Corporate Psychopaths. According to Babiak and Hare, psychopaths have a large appetite for power and control over others (Babiak & Hare 2006). In other words, they may never feel that they have enough power, money or prestige. This may be why some such people in the corporate world do not retire voluntarily, no matter how immensely wealthy and outwardly successful they become. It may be hypothesised, that their playing the game of corporate power politics is what gives them their thrill and nothing in their lives can replace that.

Being emotionally shallow, but not necessarily emotionally unstable (Levenson, Kiehl & Fitzpatrick 1995; Cleckley 1988) they probably have few real friends or a family (promiscuity often brings divorce for them and friends are discarded as they lose their usefulness) with whom they have emotional ties. It has been hypothesised that psychopaths seek to engage in thrilling behaviour to relieve themselves from a lower boredom threshold than other people have (Benning, Patrick & Iacono 2005). Under this hypothesis, such normal events as a family day out at the seaside is just not appealing to them compared to the satisfaction to be gained from another thrilling day manipulating power and abusing people at work.

Speculation as to what drives Corporate Psychopaths includes that they pursue wealth and status to compensate (Pepper 2005) for an internal sense of worthlessness and despair. This again gives a clue as to why they never consider themselves rich enough to retire; in place of emotional fulfilment they have an ever-extendable desire for money that can never be filled. This hypothesis, that Corporate Psychopaths do not like to retire, is worthy of further research because it may imply that Corporate Psychopaths are more prevalent at top levels of organisations, because once they get there, they stay longer than other top managers do.

5.4.2.8. A Conceptual Model for Future Research into Corporate Psychopaths

A summary of possible fruitful ideas for future research into the influences of Corporate Psychopaths on organisations is presented in a conceptual research model below. This is designed to act as a summary to the ideas presented in section 5.4 of this thesis. The elements in the model are discussed in the preceding section, 5.4.



5.5 Implications for Organisations, Management and Governance

5.5.1 The Implications of Corporate Psychopaths for Organisations

Although they comprise only a small minority of around one per cent of employees to up to three point five per cent of senior managers, Corporate Psychopaths clearly have a significantly negative influence on organisational outcomes and, for that reason, their activities should be monitored by the organisations which employ them. The presence of Corporate Psychopaths in organisations costs organisations in lost employee time as they withdraw from the organisational environment, in sub-optimal employee performance as they cope with extra organisational constraints, in unnecessarily difficult working conditions for employees as they cope with a hostile working environment and in the myriad negative effects associated with poor levels of job satisfaction.

Some of this problematic dysfunctional behaviour may perhaps be managed through training, development and coaching where the manager is just dysfunctional but not psychopathic. However, where the manager meets the criteria of a Corporate Psychopath, awareness and control of such an individual is critical for the well being of an organisation.

Criminal psychopaths are responsible for a greater share of crimes than their numbers would suggest, re-offend more than other criminals do (Hare 1999b) and account for a greater number of disciplinary incidents while in prison (Huchzermeyer et al. 2006). In a similar way, this research shows that Corporate Psychopaths appear to be responsible for more than their fair share of organisational misbehaviour and disruption. Having amoral Corporate Psychopaths running corporations which are themselves at best, amoral, may therefore be a recipe for societal disaster and this is worthy of further research.

A reading of the current literature illustrates that the question of how employees deal with a psychopath in an organisation at an individual level this is an undeveloped area. This is one that is clearly worthy of further investigation if individuals are to be successfully advised on how to deal with psychopaths they may encounter in the workplace (Babiak and Hare, 2006a; Stout, 2005b; Hare, 1999a; Clarke, 2005).

From an individual employee's point of view it is reported to be better for that person to cut his or her losses and get out of the organisation when faced with a Corporate Psychopath (Stout 2005b). It is reportedly pointless giving work, money or affection to a psychopath who will not and cannot appreciate another person, says Stout. Stout also advises suspecting anyone who habitually lies or breaks promises or neglects responsibilities as a possible psychopath. She warns against putting one's faith in people with moral sounding titles as these do not imply a conscience to the holder of those titles if they do not have a conscience to begin with. She advises people to doubt authority when advice given by that authority means dominating others in any way such as by committing violence or war.

Psychopaths are described as being extroverted and popular with the opposite sex as well as being likeable and confidence inspiring (Ray & Ray 1982). This logically makes them difficult to detect when first encountered. Hare says (1999a) that even experts can be taken in by psychopaths and that great care needs to be taken with identifying them and dealing with them. He suggests that it is a good idea to look for other victims, to form a team, in attempting to deal with psychopaths, and that this is possible because most psychopaths have many victims. However, psychopaths are said to want power and Hare warns that it is dangerous to engage in direct power struggles with psychopaths as they will seek to inflict emotional or physical harm on those who oppose them.

Hare, Clarke and Stout all advise cutting one's losses when dealing with psychopaths (Clarke 2005; Stout 2005b; Hare 1999a). Clarke advises that an affected employee should get out of the organisation concerned as early as they can because often, by the time they 'blow the whistle' on the behaviour of the Corporate Psychopath, their own credibility will already have been undermined and they will not be believed by those they report to.

According to Hare, who is probably the world's leading expert on psychopaths, if society can not identify psychopaths, then it is forever doomed to be their victim (Hare 1994). Psychopaths are able to succeed in society, and in corporations, largely because their colleagues are unaware that people like this actually exist (Deutschman 2005). Creating an awareness among organisational managers that psychopaths exist is thus a good first step in attempting to stem the havoc that these people cause in organisations (Clarke 2005).

Organisations themselves should reportedly bear in mind that Corporate Psychopaths are more likely to reveal their true ruthlessness in front of those colleagues who are not useful to them as there may be no perceived need to impress such people (Clarke 2005). Therefore, more junior staff may be the first to notice that a colleague or manager is a Corporate Psychopath. A mechanism to allow these concerns to be heard, through, for example an anonymous complaint or reporting procedure, may allow such concerns to surface early in the career of a Corporate Psychopath before any serious damage can be done to the organisation and the lives of its employees.

5.5.2 Implications for Corporate Management

Recently, calls for the screening of immoral, dysfunctional, psychopathic and bullying managers have been made in order to protect organisations and society from their effects (Singh, 2008, Spindel, 2008, Boddy, 2005d). For example, Barbara Kellerman, the Director of research at the Centre for Public Leadership at Harvard, says that the easiest way to deal with bad leadership is to prevent it in the first place through hiring and human resource screening practices (Johnson 2005).

In the case of Corporate Psychopaths, this would entail monitoring employees with high psychopathy traits as evidenced by their colleagues' reports on a measurement scale for identifying Corporate Psychopaths. The Psychopathy Measure - Management Research Version could be used by organisations as an initial screening device for identifying possible psychopaths in areas of the organisation where there appear to be problems. After that, organisational psychologists would probably have to be called in to make a diagnosis at an individual level.

In terms of organisational fraud, according to one commentator, the recent spate of corporate collapses in the US can be linked to the senior management of those corporations exhibiting the behaviours of Corporate Psychopaths (Fagg 2005). As Corporate Psychopaths are only interested in self-enrichment, then it follows that they do not necessarily have the interests of their employers in mind and will go against those interests if they perceive that this will benefit them. Psychopaths are reportedly willing to falsify financial results to get promotion (McCormick & Burch 2005) bonuses and other benefits and even to commit outright fraud (Clarke 2005) on the company that employs them. Research based empirical evidence to support these reports is called for.

In terms of the implications for organisational leadership, Batory (2005) and his colleagues found that ethical practices were a positive function of top management. Top management influence whether ethical practices are followed or not, and if top management has Corporate Psychopaths in its ranks, then the likelihood of it exhibiting ethical behaviour as an example to lower employees, is much reduced.

Evidence also exists which suggests that organisational members are influenced in their assessment of what is right and wrong by their superiors (Hegerty & Sims 1978). If those superiors are incapable of moral reasoning and routinely make immoral decisions then such influence will be a malign one.

Corporate Psychopaths are particularly prone to making unethical choices and it is in this area that corporate managers have to be vigilant. The existing literature on ethics in management, appears to assume that moral reasoning, the capacity to judge right from wrong and to make ethical decisions, is to be found in all members of a population (Batory, Neese & Heineman 2005; Hunt & Laverie 2004). However, in the light of Hare's (Hare 1999a) and other's work (Blair et al. 1995a) on Corporate Psychopaths this underlying premise is clearly incorrect because psychopaths are a segment of the population who demonstrably lack (Adshead 2003) the capacity to evaluate moral choices. Corporate managers therefore need to be aware of the existence of Corporate Psychopaths because they can adversely affect corporate decisions.

Thomas argues that corporate managers in such areas as marketing, should act as the managerial advocates of society's consumer, and should develop a role as social trustees to help ensure a just and sustainable society and to promote a corporation that is not solely ruled by self-interest and market forces (Thomas 2006). However, to achieve this, managers should be aware that some executives, the Corporate Psychopaths of an organisation, would push for decisions based purely on the potential for personal gain, and will not consider any other interests. As executives without a conscience, Corporate Psychopaths are incapable of making a moral judgement because their brains cannot process the possible emotional impacts on others that any particular management plan may involve.

Corporate Psychopaths are very capable of acting in an unethical or dishonest manner if it furthers their aims. Furthermore, they are also quite capable of lying about this and of blaming others and capable of using their power networks to cover up their activities. They are only out to profit themselves and have no concern for their colleagues or for the organisations they work for.

This has obvious implications for managers who therefore need to be cognisant of the likely presence of Corporate Psychopaths in the organisations that they work for. Corporate managers should be aware that any Corporate Psychopaths in the corporation might well call for courses of action that are unethical or immoral.

Commentators on management ethics suggest that the interests of consumers (Cui & Choudhury 2003) should be taken into consideration before management plans are implemented. Cui and Choudhury (2003) recommend that companies have a formal ethical review of plans before they are implemented. They recommend that the review body consists of company executives and include consumer representation. In the light of what we now know about Corporate Psychopaths, this suggestion may be considered a practical one as such an ethical review body would help ensure that ethical issues were given the consideration that most managers would want them to have.

Another way to help ensure that ethical issues are given the consideration that most managers would want is to make sure companies are aware of the codes of conduct of the various professional management bodies which exist. Adherence to these codes will help enable a manager to counter the arguments that Corporate Psychopaths may put forward to push for unethical plans to be implemented. Such codes probably represent a minimum set of standards for most management practitioners and as one commentator says (Day 1975) it is only the individual's personal set of values that ultimately ensure the highest ethical standards are adhered to.

5.5.3 The Implications of Corporate Psychopaths for Governance

The recent journalistic exposition of the existence of Corporate Psychopaths, together with the findings from this research, may influence future firm behaviour and industry structure through pressure for possible legislative intervention. Hayward et. al. (2003), in their examination of CEO celebrities, cite research showing that journalists play a significant role in shaping the public's perceptions of issues and can set the agenda for debate as well as indirectly affecting managers' propensity to carry on with or adopt courses of action. The prominence this issue achieves may vary by culture, with cultures that unreservedly celebrate corporate leaders being less likely to pursue this than cultures like Australia (Meng, Ashkanasy & Hartel 2003) which tend to like to bring 'tall poppies' (those who have been outstandingly successful in any sphere) 'down to size'.

Now that the issue of Corporate Psychopaths is in the public arena it may become linked with the issues of corporate ethics and corporate social responsibility and become more prominent because of this. At a practical level the use of measures of psychopathy will enable human resource departments to measure managers' tendencies towards psychopathy and this may become demanded by shareholders and other stakeholders to protect their assets from potential misuse by Corporate Psychopaths. Alternatively, screening for psychopathy may become a legal requirement of senior managerial appointment.

In terms of the responsibility of human resource departments for hiring Corporate Psychopaths, one influential writer on leadership says that the culprits for bad leadership are those who appoint bad leaders in the first place (Allio 2007). Destructive leadership is thus the proper concern of academics, say researchers, and this includes leaders who strive for personal gains over organisational gains (Harvey et al. 2007).

Clarke (Clarke 2005) describes the adverse effects Corporate Psychopaths can have on the people working around them and he reminds employers that they have a duty of care to protect their workforce from harm. This should include providing protection from the effects of working with psychopaths, Clarke says and this has obvious implications for corporate governance. Other researchers note that if a dysfunctional leader presents a danger to themselves or to those with whom they work, then this can override any right to confidentiality they may have as a subject of clinical research (Goldman 2006). There are ethical issues involved with both identifying and not identifying psychopaths in the workplace.

5.5.4 Limitations of the Research

Like any research, this research project was subject to timing, man-power, and other resource limitations which limited its size and randomness, and thus restricts the ability to generalise from the findings. These limitations are discussed below.

Methodological Limitations

While this research indicates clear and consistent correlations and associations this does not establish cause and effect. Cause and effect relationships are difficult to establish definitely. This research makes a start in this regard in that it establishes a pattern of relationships or associations between the variables studied. Such associations are the starting point of establishing causality. However, causality also requires a time order effect, so that, for example, it can be shown that the presence of the independent variable precedes the change in the dependent variable (Garner 2005). Furthermore, establishing causality also requires demonstrating that the relationship between the independent variable and the dependent variable is not spurious. That is to say, that there are no other variables relevantly affecting both the dependent and independent variables (Garner 2005). This research was undertaken via a survey of respondents; as such, it represents a snapshot picture of a situation and this does not allow for establishing a time order effect. However, it did allow for an examination of behaviour when Corporate Psychopaths were involved or not involved in a particular management situation, and the results are very clear. Corporate Psychopaths, by their presence and toxic influence, have a negative influence across a wide variety of management behaviours.

Asking respondents to rate any dysfunctional manager with whom they had worked with in the past ten years may also have been a limitation, because it presumes an accurate recollection can be made in that period. It was assumed that working with a Corporate Psychopath would be memorable because of their behaviour.

Sampling Limitations

One limitation of the research was to do with an element of its external validity, sometimes referred to as its population validity; the extent to which generalisations can be made based on the sample used compared to the population of interest as a whole. This is because of the restricted geographic area in which it was conducted and that it was mainly conducted among workers who had chosen to pursue postgraduate business qualifications or attend the meetings of various professional and business organisations. These people may not be representative of the general population of Australian white-collar workers as a whole. In turn, Australian white-collar workers as a whole may not be representative of other white-collar workers in other countries of the world.

Another limitation is that respondents were a self-selecting group rather than a randomly chosen sample of respondents, who may differ from the wider population in ways that are relevant to the research questions (Kirk-Smith & McKenna 1998) but in ways which are not known to this researcher. Non-participation is acknowledged as a potential source of non-response error in survey research as results from those who could have responded but didn't take part in the survey could be different to those from the respondents who did take part (Wilcox 1977).

Instrument Limitations

Another limitation was that the instrument used was a self-completion questionnaire which suffers from not having the benefit of an interviewer to guide and help the respondent via positive feedback (Cannell, Oksenberg & Converse 1977) and thus ensure that all questions were completed and understood. On the other hand, it benefited from the possible lack of interviewer bias that using interviewers can bring into a survey due to variability in how different interviewers approach a questionnaire, help respondents in different ways, probe for clarification answers in different ways and record answers in different ways (Bailar, Bailey & Stevens 1977).

On the other hand, self-completion questionnaires are reported to be useful in management research as they encourage, by their confidentiality, candid responses among respondents (Buchanan 2008). In addition, the instrument benefited in terms of its reliability and validity from the fact that it was based on existing measures of psychopathy and management behaviour. It also gained reliability from being pilot tested in terms of wording and flow and ease of understanding and from being pilot tested statistically for reliability and validity.

Interviewers can interact in different ways to respondents according to the interaction effects of the age, sex and socio-economic status of the interviewer relative to that of the respondent (Cannell, Oksenberg & Converse 1977) and these interactions can affect the quality of data gathered and non-response rates to particular questions. Self-completion surveys, such as this was, do not suffer from this interviewer variability (Bailar, Bailey & Stevens 1977). This was one advantage of the method chosen to conduct this research.

The gender of managers reported on by respondents was not collected in this research. This means that differences in the behaviour of male and female Corporate Psychopaths could not be analysed. This issue could be addressed in future research. Resource and other constraints on the questionnaire length also meant that information on whether respondents themselves were psychopaths or not was not collected. However, only 3-4 psychopaths could be expected, from a sample size of 346 respondents and so their responses would only have a marginal influence on the total findings.

Also, there is no evidence in the literature to suggest how this would affect their responses one way or the other. Psychopaths have been found to present themselves in either a favourable or unfavourable manner, according to whether there is any perceived advantage or benefit to be gained by them in doing this. (MacNeil & Holden 2006). However, there would be nothing for them to gain by falsifying their responses about other people in an anonymous survey such as this one. This leads to the potential conclusion that they would not seek to alter their responses away from the truth but would rather answer in an honest and straightforward manner.

This suggests that the presence of any Corporate Psychopaths in the sample of respondents would not likely affect the research findings in any biased manner.

Sample Size Limitations

The relatively small sample size of 346 respondents was another limitation of the research presented in this research. A larger random sample would have increased the robustness of the results and enabled finer detailed statistical analyses to be conducted with more confidence.

5.6 Overall Conclusions

This research indicates that Corporate Psychopaths are present throughout organisations, although more so at senior levels than at junior ones. They have a large, significant, and negative influence on their organisational environment and on a variety of organisational outcomes.

Whether the results of this research are analysed categorically, applying Chi-Square, ANOVA or Bonferroni t-tests, to the differences in findings between the three groups of Normal Managers, Dysfunctional Managers and Corporate Psychopaths; or whether the results are analysed as continuous variables, using correlation coefficients and regression lines in scatter plots to view correlations, then the results are the same. There are clearly significant associations and correlations between Corporate Psychopaths and the dependent variables, across the board.

Based on the evidence presented in this research it is evident that Corporate Psychopaths make a contribution to the dark side of business in several important areas. In terms of the construct of withdrawal from the corporate workplace, when Corporate Psychopaths are present in an employee environment, more employees are more frequently likely to withdraw from the environment. They are also more likely to take longer breaks from work than are allowed and to leave work earlier than would otherwise be the case.

In terms of conflict at work, when Corporate Psychopaths are present in an employee environment, more employees are more frequently likely to get into arguments with other employees. They are also more likely to experience rudeness and being yelled at and to see bullying, the unfavourable treatment of others in the workplace.

In terms of organisational constraints, when Corporate Psychopaths are present in an employee environment, then the staff concerned, are more likely to experience frequent work difficulties due to poor equipment or supplies or to a lack of equipment or supplies. They are also more likely to experience work difficulties due to constraining organisational rules and procedures, than they are when Corporate Psychopaths are not present.

In terms of corporate social responsibility, when Corporate Psychopaths are present in an employee environment, employees are less likely to agree that the organisation does business in a socially desirable manner. They are also less likely to agree that the organisation does business in an environmentally friendly manner and less likely to agree that the organisation does business in a way that benefits the local community, than they are when Corporate Psychopaths are not present. In terms of job satisfaction, all eight of the satisfaction items measured, were adversely and significantly affected by the presence of Corporate Psychopaths within an organisation. Clearly the presence of Corporate Psychopaths within organisations has a significant and dramatic affect on a whole range of organisational outcomes and extensive, further research into this subject is therefore needed.

It appears from this that future research into such managerial issues as workplace withdrawal, workload, organisational constraints, corporate social responsibility, job satisfaction, conflict and bullying at work, as well as into issues like fraud, leadership, managerial effectiveness and corporate performance, cannot reasonably be undertaken, without taking the influence of Corporate Psychopaths into account. That is if such research is to have any claim to practical managerial relevance and to real organisational conditions.

This research provides clearly stated conclusions about Corporate Psychopaths, based on the evidence obtained from the research, from methods that are replicable and which can be discussed in terms of their validity. This is what any scientific research aims to do (Gabriel 1990). Because of the potential global importance of this issue, replications and extensions of this research are called for.

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Appendices:-

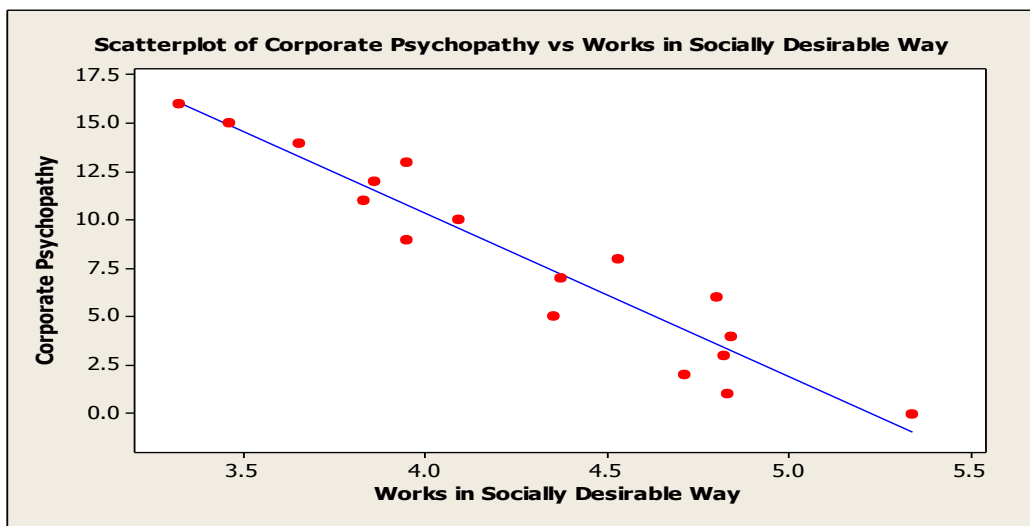
The Scatter plots for the construct of Corporate Psychopathy against the remaining items of Management Behaviour that were measured in the research.

The Questionnaire Used.

The Scatter plots for the construct of Corporate Psychopathy against the items of management behaviour that were measured in the research.

As can be seen in Figure 14 below, the level of corporate social responsibility measured, identified by the dots on the graph, are on, or very close to the regression line. This indicates a predictable negative correlation between Corporate Psychopathy and the company acting in a socially desirable manner. In other words, as Corporate Psychopathy increases, so perceptions of the company acting in a socially desirable manner decrease.

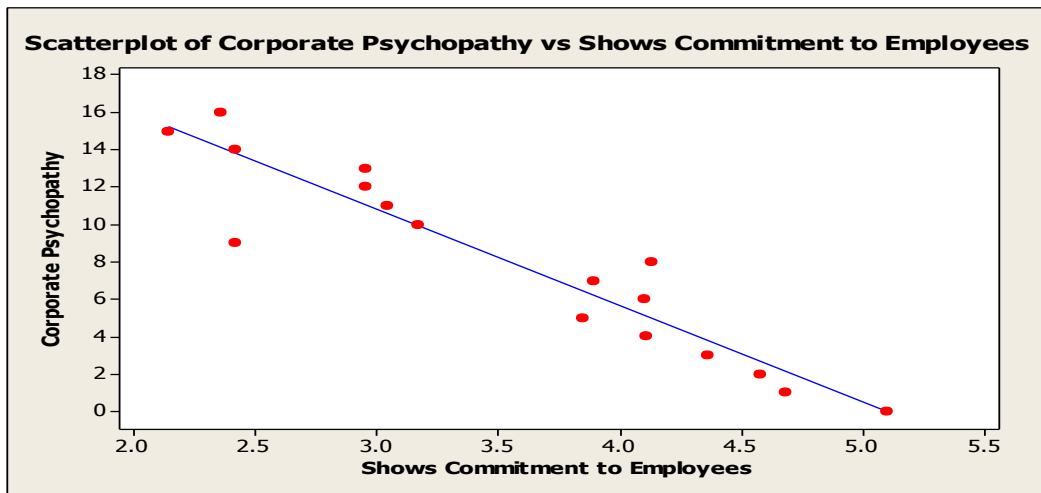
Figure 14: Scatter plot of Corporate Psychopathy and reports of the company behaving in a socially desirable manner.



Pearson correlation of Corporate Psychopathy and Works in Socially Desirable Way, $r = -0.952$, P-Value = 0.000

The scatter plot below (Figure 15) shows that as levels of Corporate Psychopathy increase, levels of the company reportedly displaying commitment to its employees, decrease. Again as expected, there is a strongly negative and significant correlation between these variables.

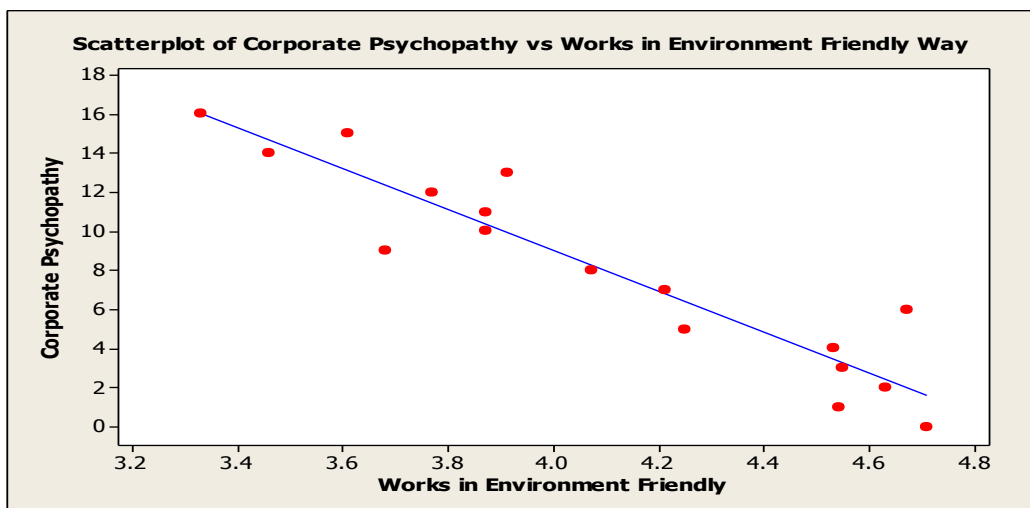
Figure 15: Scatter plot of Corporate Psychopathy and reports of the company behaving in a way that demonstrates commitment to its employees.



Pearson correlation of Corporate Psychopathy and Shows Commitment to Employees, $r = -0.940$, P-Value = 0.000

The scatter plot below (Figure 16) shows that as levels of Corporate Psychopathy increase, levels of the company reportedly behaving in an environmentally friendly manner, decrease. As expected, there is a strongly negative and significant correlation between these variables.

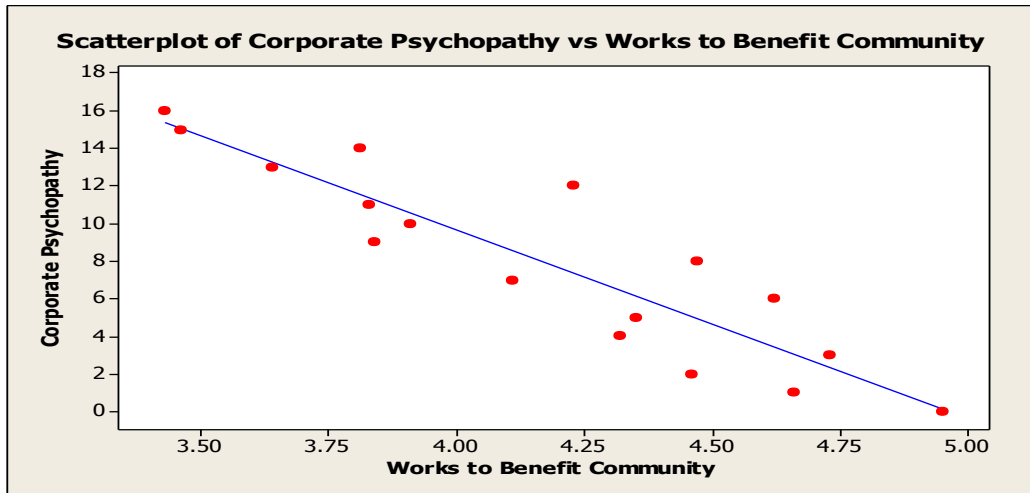
Figure 16: Scatter plot of Corporate Psychopathy and reports of the company behaving in an environmentally friendly manner.



Pearson correlation of Corporate Psychopathy and company behaving in an environmentally friendly manner, $r = -0.934$, P-Value = 0.000.

As psychopathy increases, so the perception that the company does business in a way that benefits the local community, goes down, this is shown in Figure 17 below.

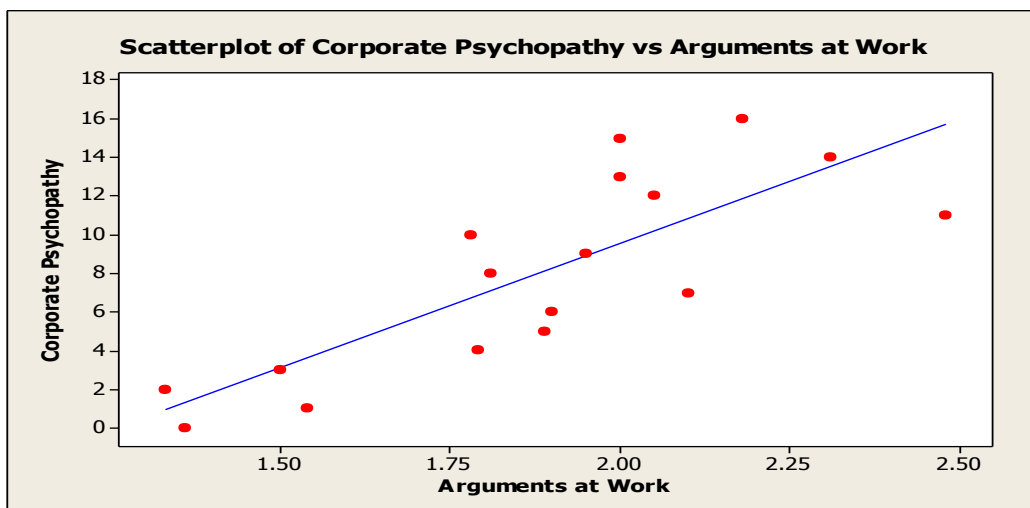
Figure 17: Scatter plot of Corporate Psychopathy and reports of the company behaving in a way that benefits the local community.



Pearson correlation of Corporate Psychopathy and company behaving in a way that benefits the local community, $r = -0.906$, P-Value = 0.000.

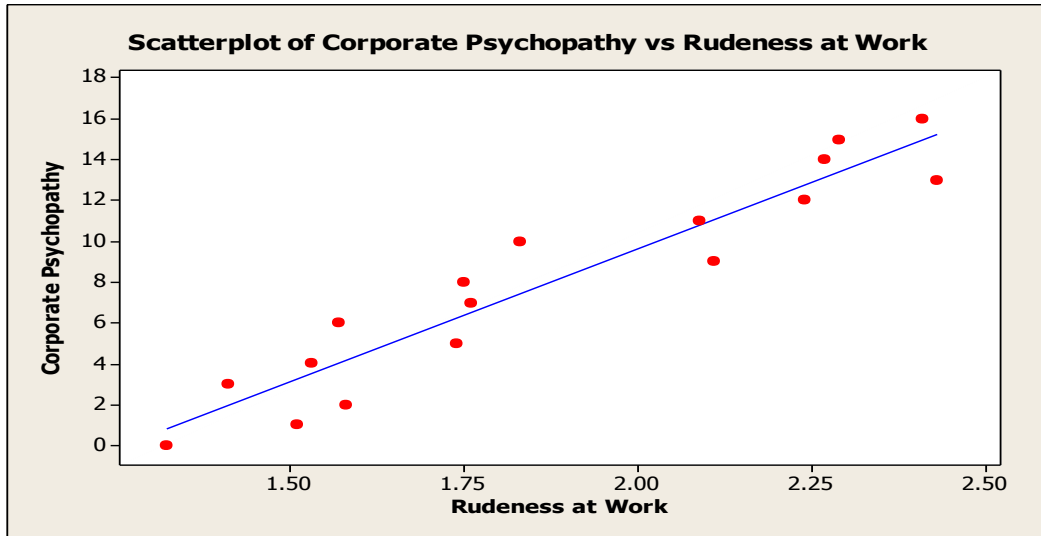
Measures for the individual items in the construct of conflict are shown in the scatter plots below.

Figure 18: Scatter plot of Psychopathy and Arguments at work



Pearson correlation of Corporate Psychopathy and Arguments at Work, $r = 0.805$, P-Value = 0.000

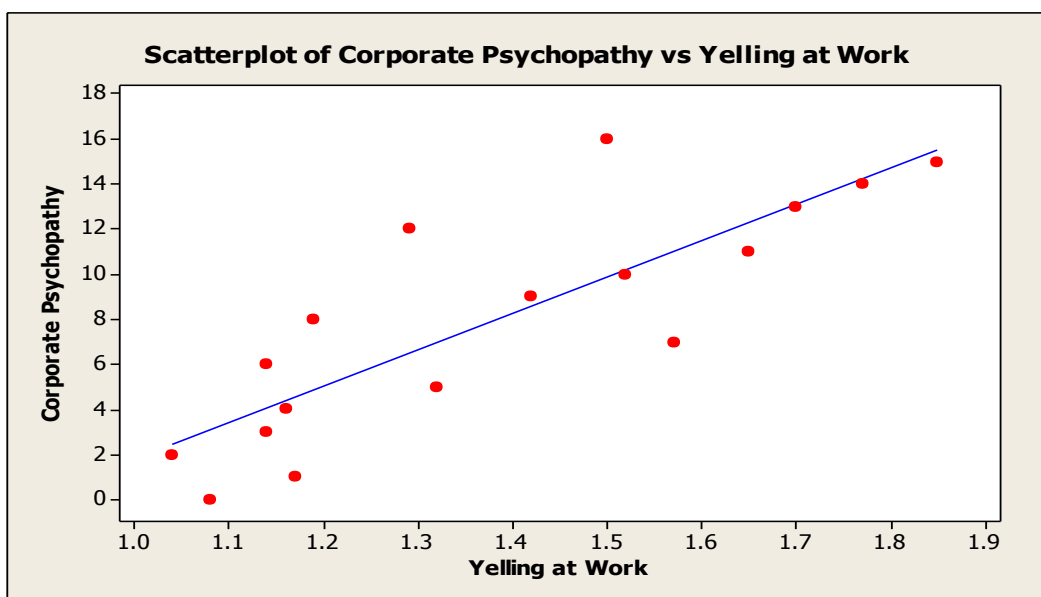
Figure 19: Scatter plot of Psychopathy and Rudeness at Work



Pearson correlation of Corporate Psychopathy and Rudeness at Work = 0.949, P-Value = 0.000.

These graphs show a remarkably strong degree of correlation between Corporate Psychopathy and conflict. This is indicated graphically by for example the closeness of the plotted points to the lines of regression, also by the high correlation value ($r = .949$, in Figure 19 above, for example) and by the fact that the p value is highly significant ($p = .000$, in Figure 19 above, for example) (Taplin 2008). Corporate Psychopathy and the experiencing of yelling at work are plotted below in Figure 20. There is a strong, significant correlation.

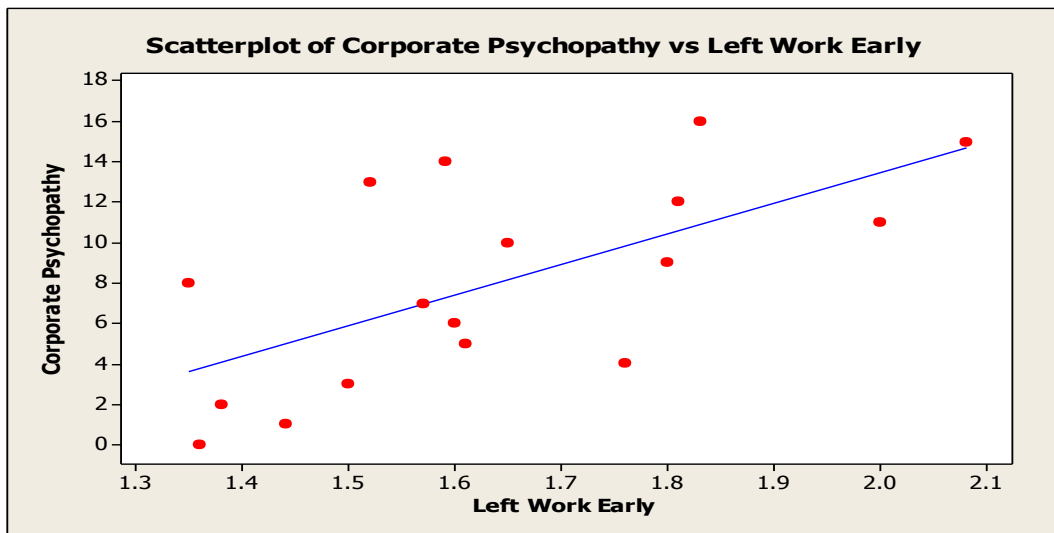
Figure 20: Scatter plot of Psychopathy and Yelling at Work



Pearson correlation of Corporate Psychopathy and Yelling at Work, $r = 0.829$, P-Value = 0.000

In terms of the withdrawal behaviours investigated in this research, these are shown graphically, in terms of their relationship with Corporate Psychopathy below. There is a positive and significant correlation between the presence of Corporate Psychopaths in an organisation and the frequency of leaving work early, as shown in Figure 21 below.

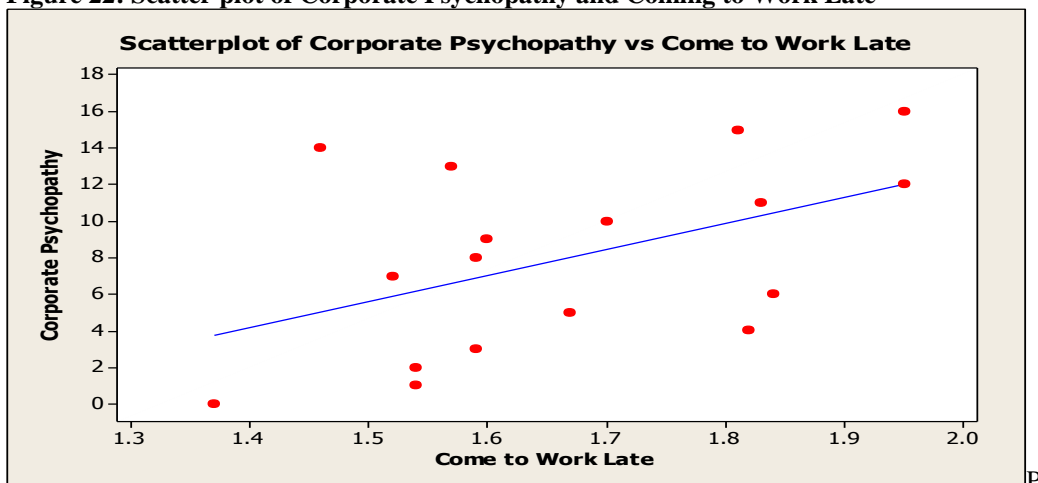
Figure 21: Scatter plot of Corporate Psychopathy and Leaving Work Early



Pearson correlation of Corporate Psychopathy and Left Work Early, $r = 0.649$, P-Value = 0.005

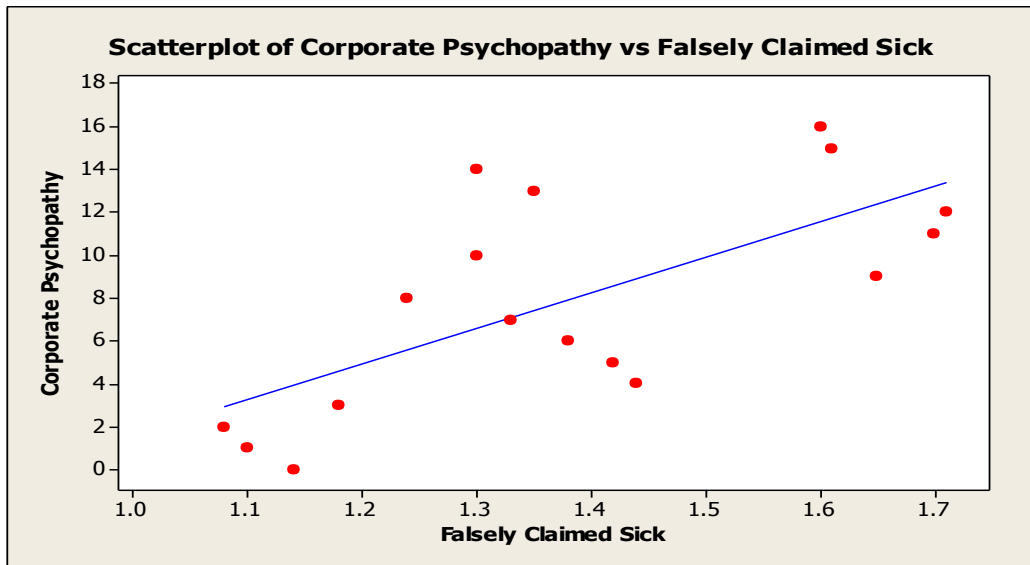
The relationship here between the presence of Corporate Psychopaths and coming to work late (Figure 22) is significant but only at the level of $p = .05$. For falsely claimed sickness (Figure 23) the significance is more substantial with a level of $p = .002$. For taking a longer break than allowed at work and Corporate Psychopathy (Figure 24) again the relationship is weakly significant, only at the $p = .10$ level.

Figure 22: Scatter plot of Corporate Psychopathy and Coming to Work Late



Pearson correlation of Corporate Psychopathy and Come to Work Late, $r = 0.486$, P-Value = 0.048

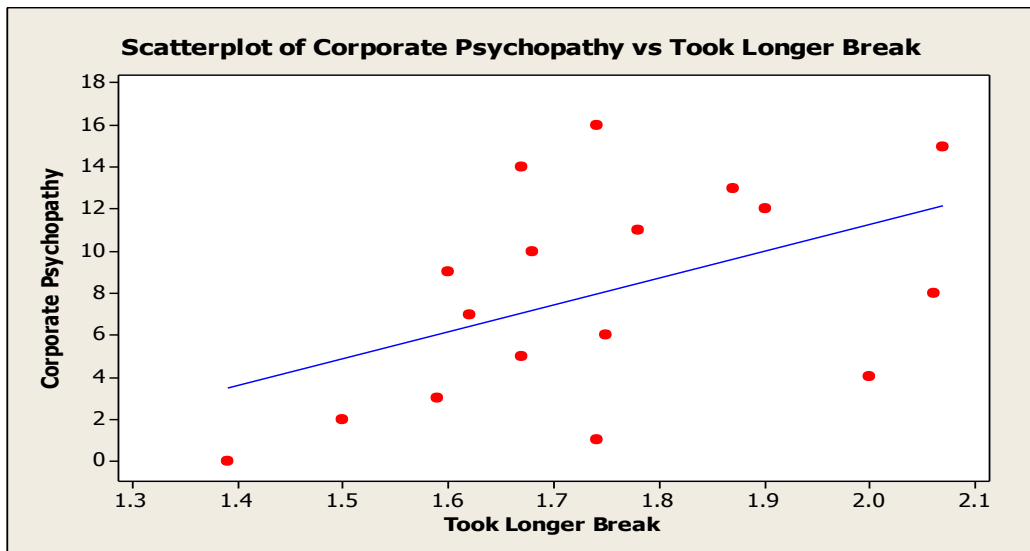
Figure 23: Scatter plot of Corporate Psychopathy and Claiming to be Sick when not really Sick



Pearson correlation of Corporate Psychopathy and Falsely Claimed Sickness $r = 0.684$, P-Value = 0.002

The scatter plot below shows a weak correlation between Corporate Psychopathy and taking a longer break than allowed. This is not significant at a $p = .05$ level but only at a $p = .10$ level.

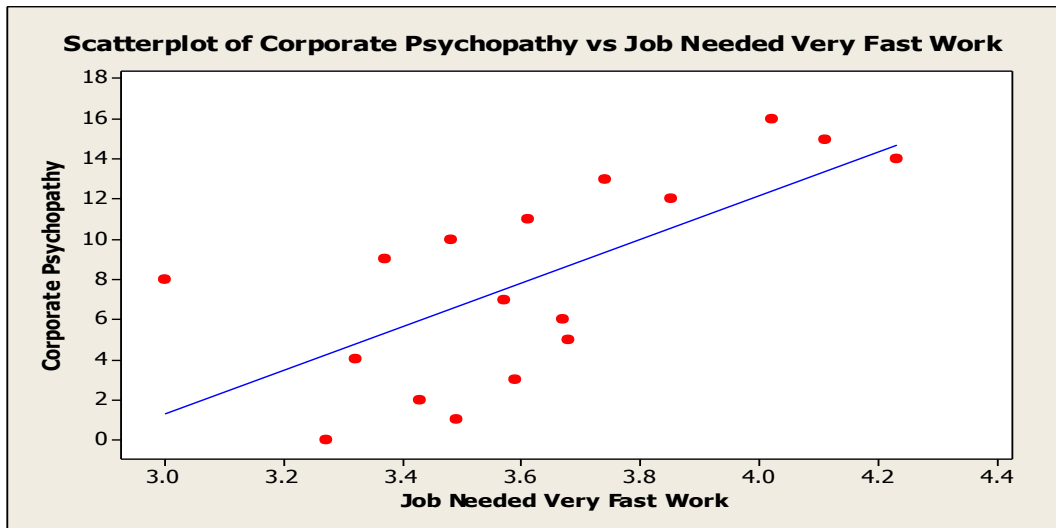
Figure 24: Scatter plot of Corporate Psychopathy and Taking a Longer Break than Allowed at Work



Pearson correlation of Corporate Psychopathy and Took Longer Break, $r = 0.477$, P-Value = 0.053

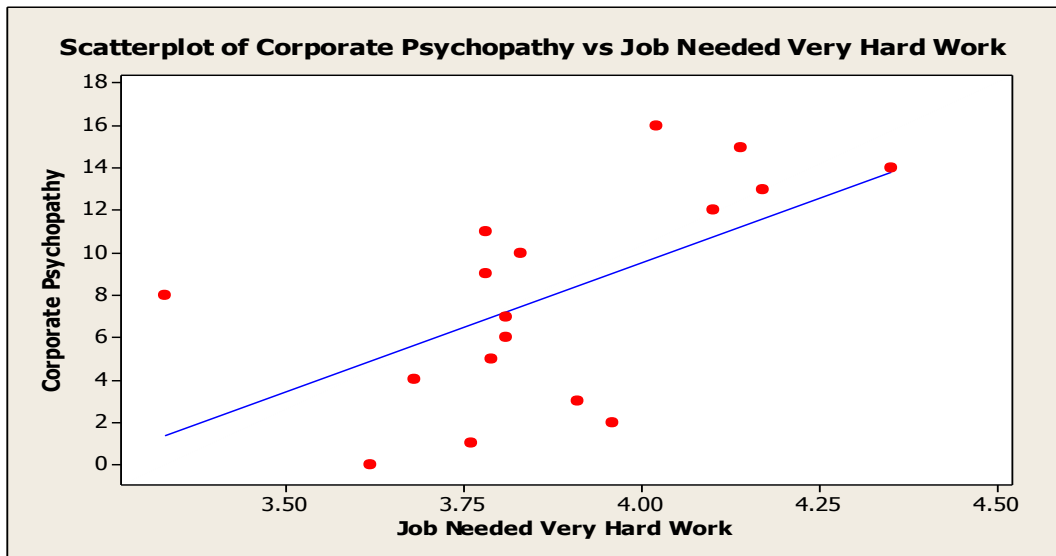
In terms of the individual items in the construct of workload, there is a positive and significant correlation between the presence of Corporate Psychopaths in an organisation and the necessity of working very fast and of working very hard, as shown in Figures 25 and 26 respectively, below.

Figure 25 : Scatter plot of Corporate Psychopathy and Needing to Work Very Fast



Pearson correlation of Corporate Psychopathy and Job Needed Very Fast Work, $r = 0.678$, P-Value = 0.003

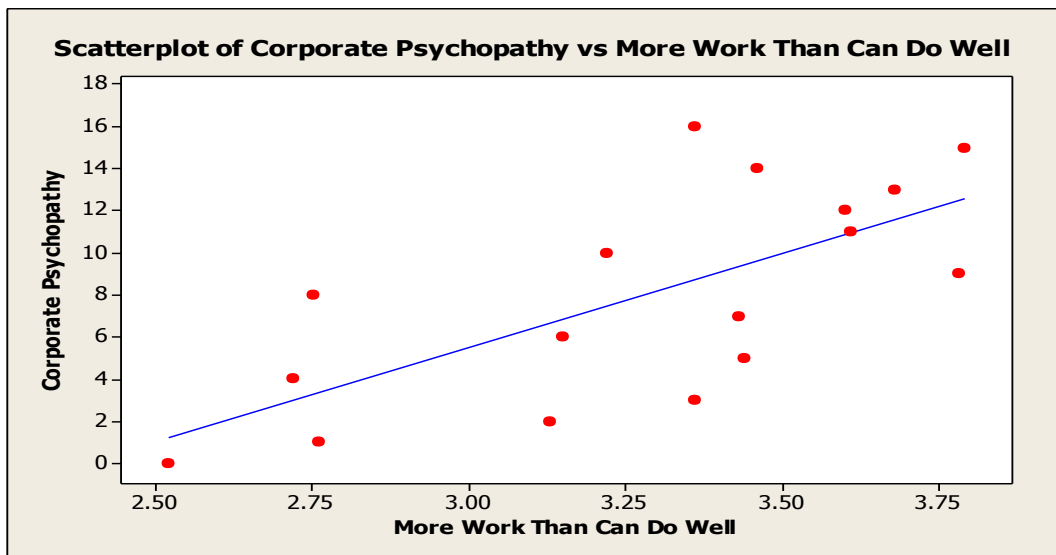
Figure 26: Scatter plot of Corporate Psychopathy and Needing to Work Very Hard



Pearson correlation of Corporate Psychopathy and Job Needed Very Hard Work $r = 0.579$, P-Value = 0.015

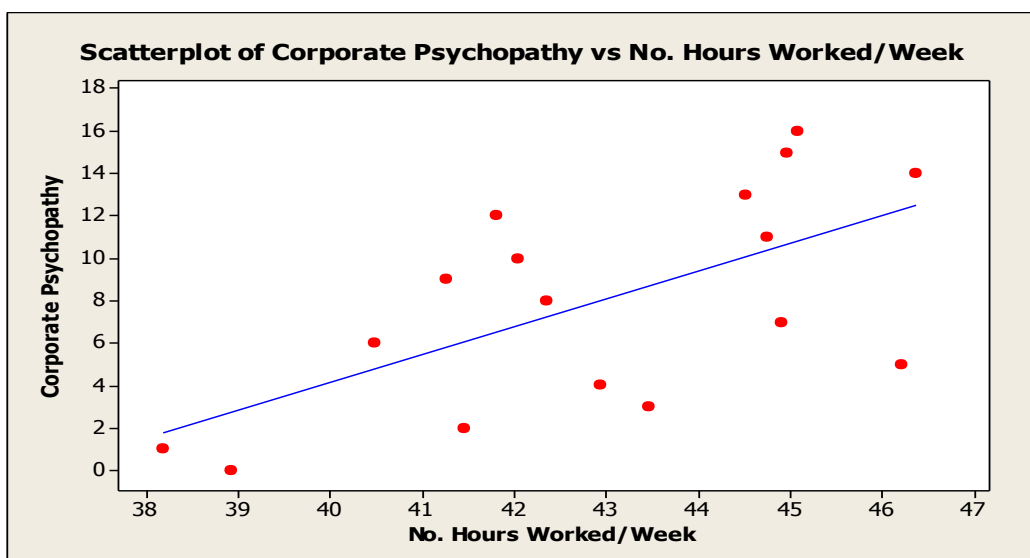
There is a positive and significant correlation between the presence of Corporate Psychopaths in an organisation and the job entailing more work than can be done well and with total average hours worked per week. This is shown in Figures 27 and 28 respectively, below.

Figure 27: Scatter plot of Corporate Psychopathy and Job Often Having More Work Than Can Be Done Well



Pearson correlation of Corporate Psychopathy and More Work Than Can Do Well, $r = 0.695$, P-Value = 0.002

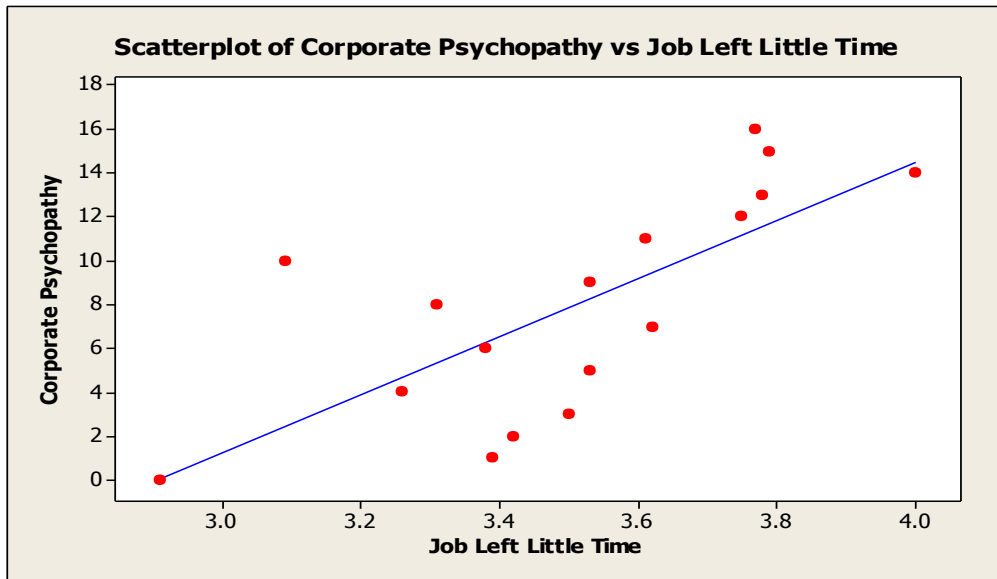
Figure 28: Scatter plot of Corporate Psychopathy and Hours Worked Per Week



Pearson correlation of Corporate Psychopathy and number of hours worked/week, $r = 0.626$, P-Value = 0.007

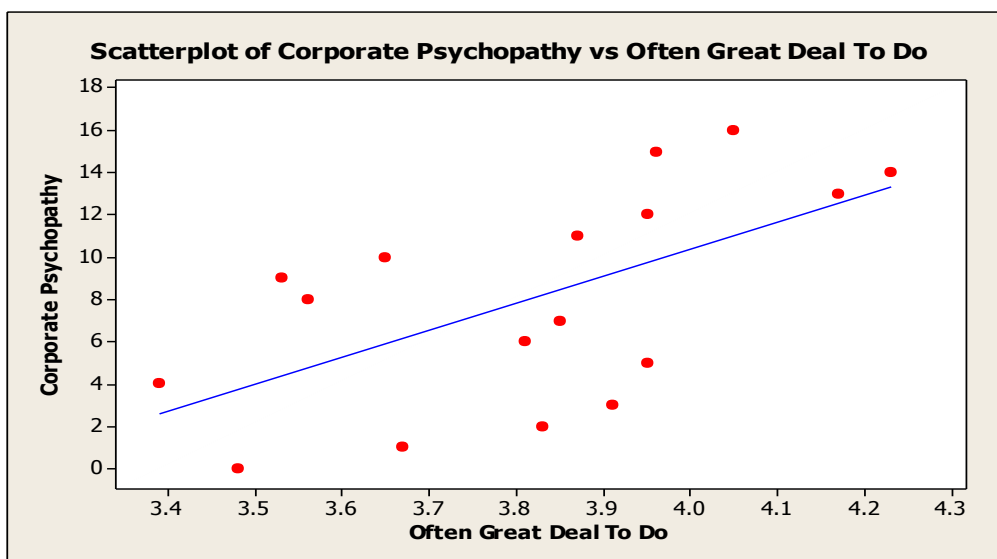
There is a strong, positive and significant correlation between the presence of Corporate Psychopaths in an organisation and of the job leaving little time to get things done, and of having a great deal to do, as shown in Figures 29 and 30 respectively, below.

Figure 29 : Scatter plot of Corporate Psychopathy and Job Leaving Little Time to Get Things Done



Pearson correlation of Corporate Psychopathy and Job Left Little Time, $r = 0.722$, P-Value = 0.001

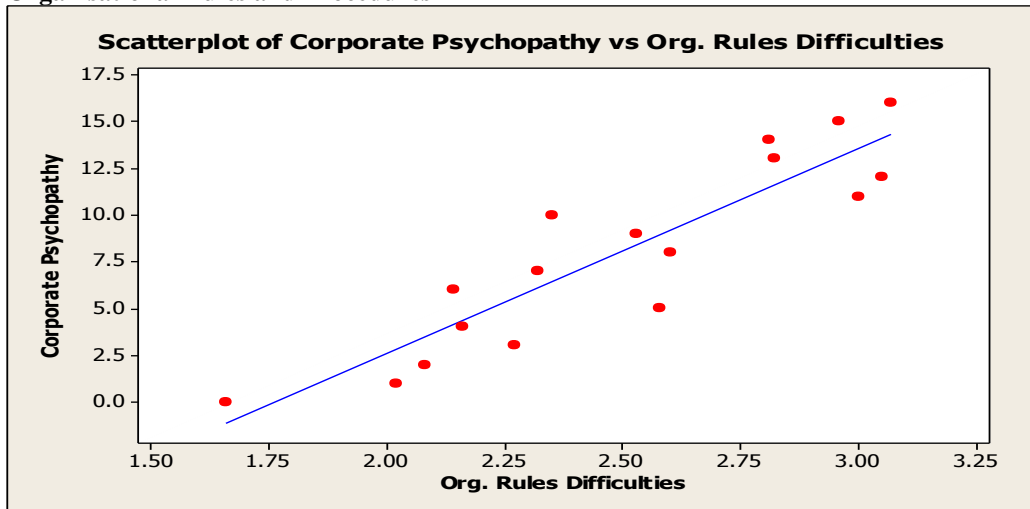
Figure 30: Scatter plot of Corporate Psychopathy and Job Often Having A Great Deal to Do



Pearson correlation of Corporate Psychopathy and Often Great Deal to Do, $r = 0.604$, P-Value = 0.010

In terms of the individual items measured in the construct of organisational constraints, the presence of Corporate Psychopaths also has a strong and significant correlation with employees having work difficulties due to organisational rules as shown in Figure 31, below.

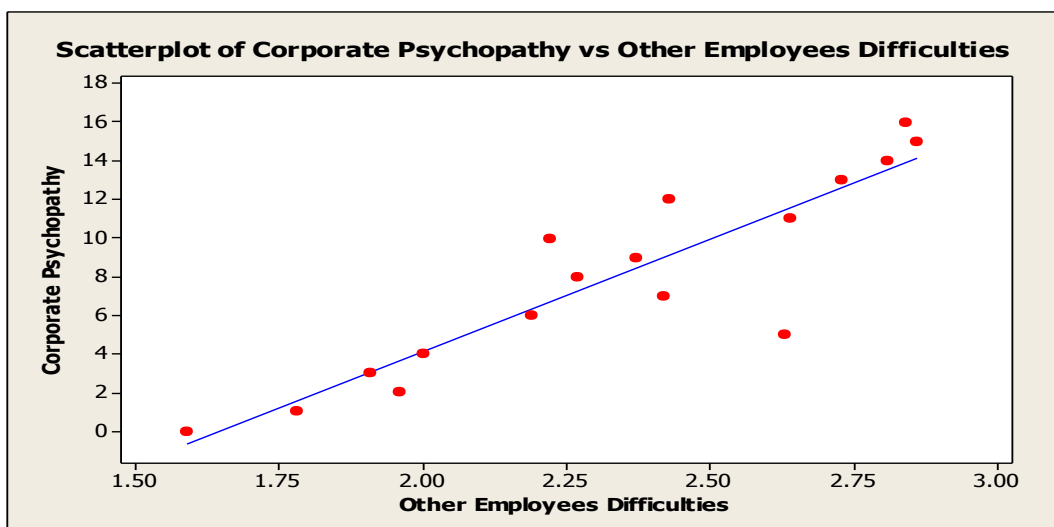
Figure 31: Scatter plot of Corporate Psychopathy and Job Often Having Difficulties Due to Organisational Rules and Procedures



Pearson correlation of Corporate Psychopathy and Org. Rules Difficulties, $r = 0.906$, P-Value = 0.000

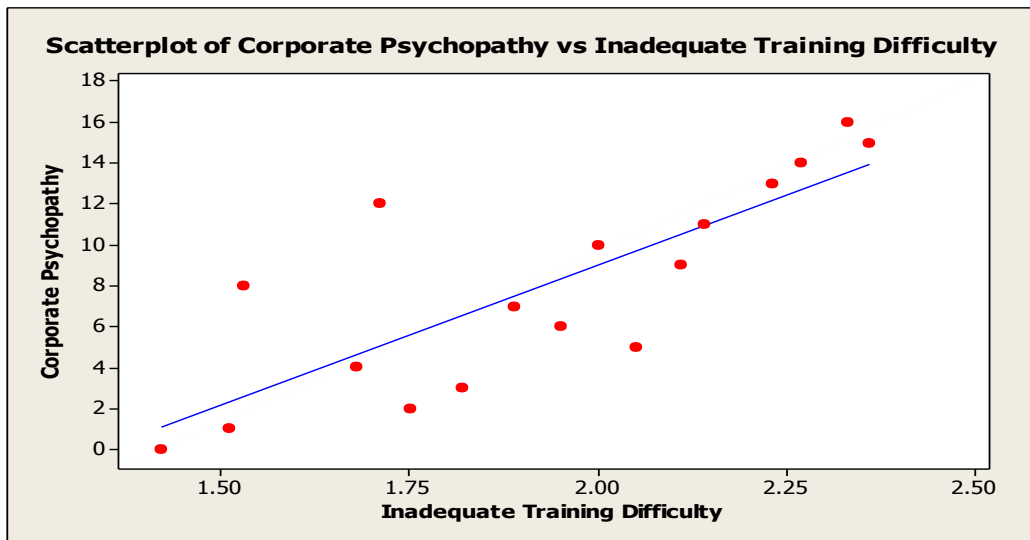
Work difficulties due to other employees and due to one's supervisor also correlate very strongly, significantly and directly with the level of Corporate Psychopathy as shown in the two scatter plots in Figures 32 and 39, respectively below.

Figure 32: Scatter plot of Corporate Psychopathy and Job Often Having Difficulties Due to Other Employees



Pearson correlation of Corporate Psychopathy and Other Employees Difficulties, $r = 0.903$, P-Value = 0.000

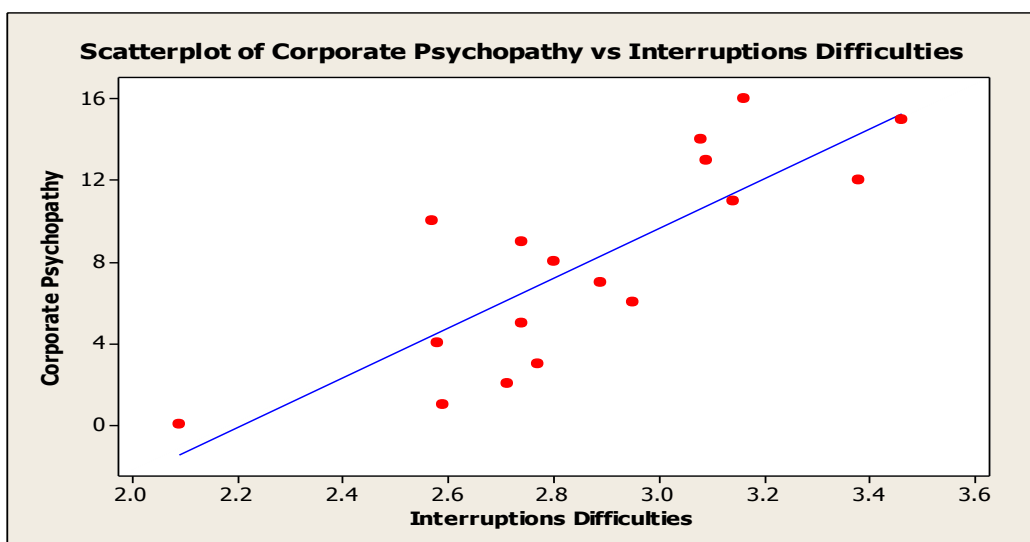
Figure 33: Scatter plot of Corporate Psychopathy and Job Often Having Difficulties Due to Inadequate Training



Pearson correlation of Corporate Psychopathy and Inadequate Training Difficulty, $r = 0.800$, P-Value = 0.000

Figure 34 below, demonstrates a clear, strong and significant correlation between the presence of Corporate Psychopaths and respondent's jobs often having difficulties due to interruptions by other people.

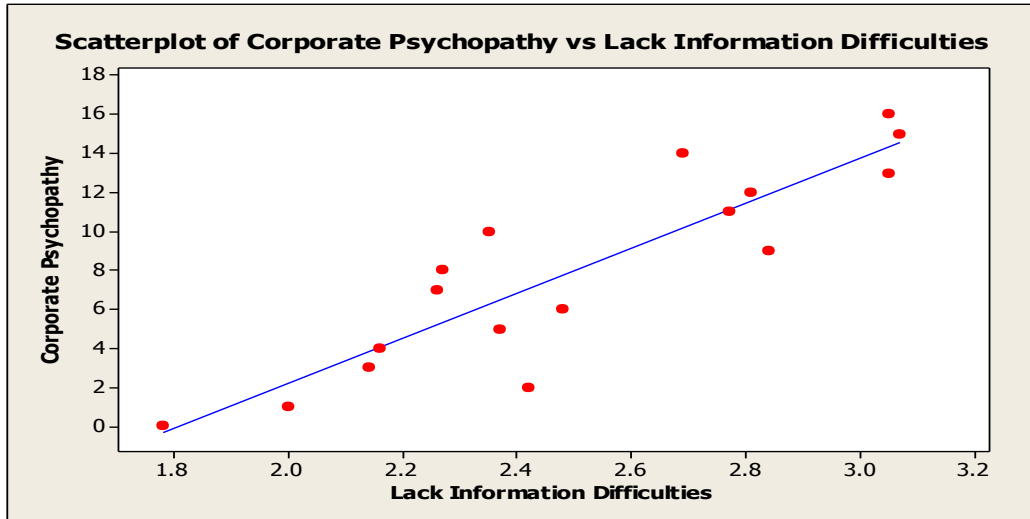
Figure 34: Scatter plot of Corporate Psychopathy and Job Often Having Difficulties Due to Interruptions by Other People



Pearson correlation of Corporate Psychopathy and Interruptions Difficulties, $r = 0.810$, P-Value = 0.000

Similarly Figure 35, below, demonstrates a clear, positive and significant correlation between the presence of Corporate Psychopaths and respondent's jobs often having difficulties due to a lack of information about what to do.

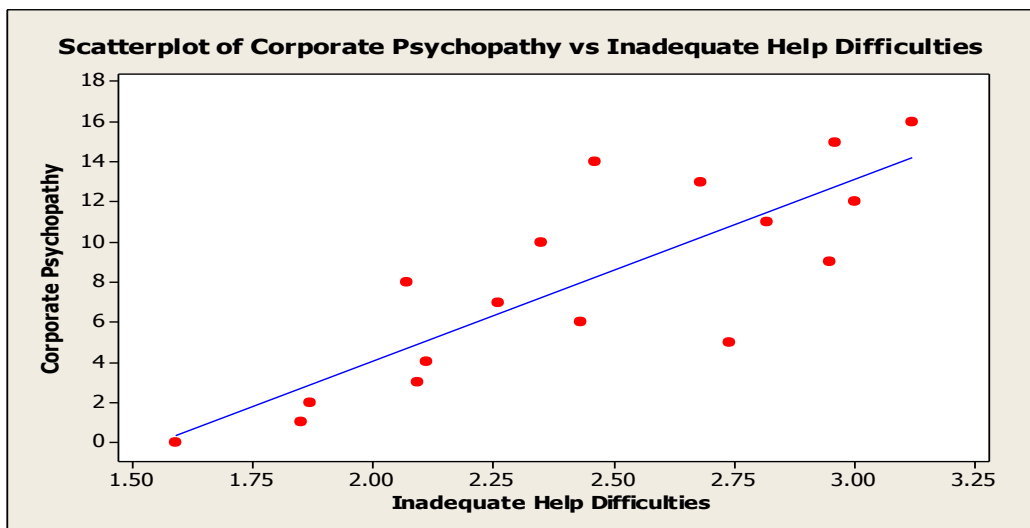
Figure 35: Scatter plot of Corporate Psychopathy and Job Often Having Difficulties Due to a Lack of Necessary Information about What to do or How to do it



Pearson correlation of Corporate Psychopathy and Lack Information Difficulties, $r = 0.889$, P-Value = 0.000

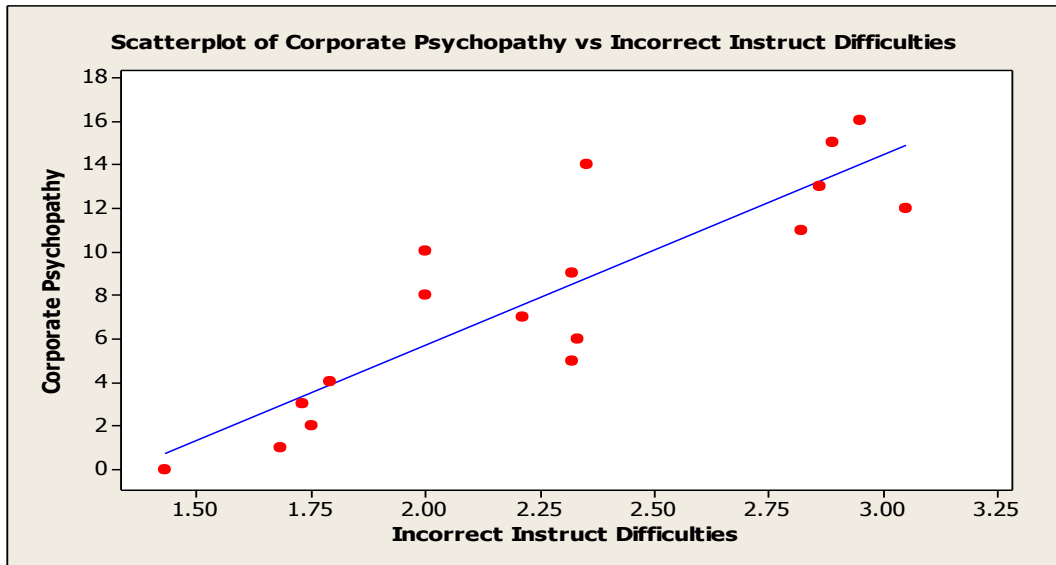
The figures below, demonstrate strong, positive and significant correlations between the presence of Corporate Psychopaths and respondent's jobs often having difficulties due to inadequate help from others (Figure 36) and due to incorrect instructions (Figure 37).

Figure 36: Scatter plot of Corporate Psychopathy and Job Often Having Difficulties Due to Inadequate Help from Others



Pearson correlation of Corporate Psychopathy and Inadequate Help Difficulties, $r = 0.827$, P-Value = 0.000

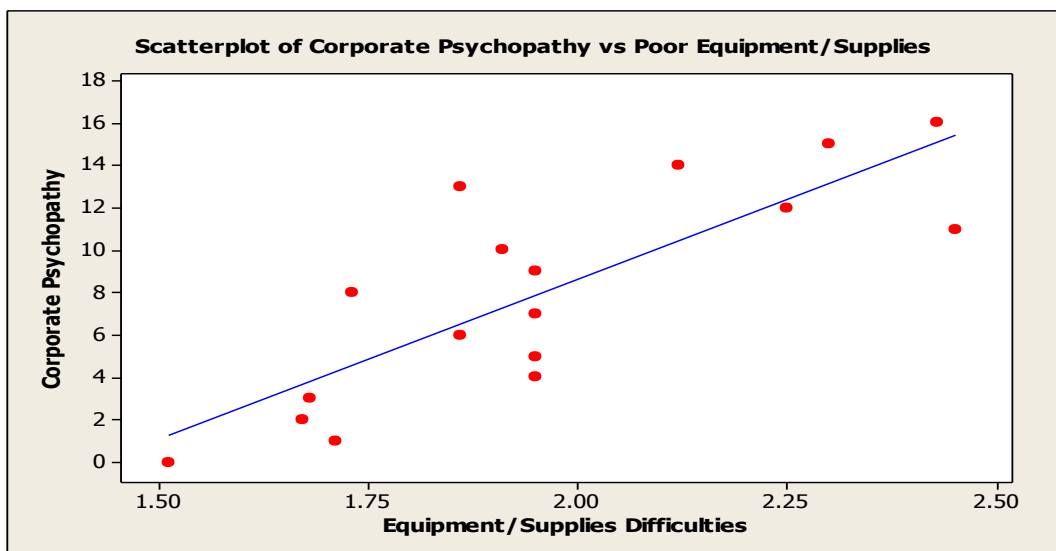
Figure 37 : Scatter plot of Corporate Psychopathy and Job Having Difficulties Due to Incorrect instructions



Pearson correlation of Corporate Psychopathy and Incorrect Instruct Difficulties, $r = 0.875$, P-Value = 0.000

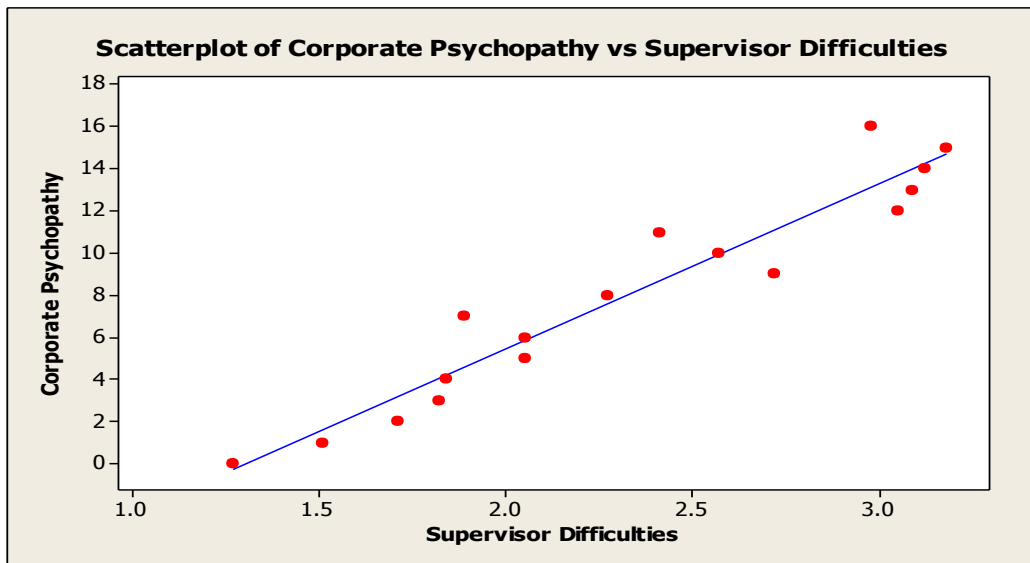
The presence of Corporate Psychopaths also has a strong and significant correlation with employees having work difficulties due to poor equipment or supplies as shown in Figure 38, below.

Figure 38: Scatter plot of Corporate Psychopathy and Job Often Having Difficulties Due to Poor Equipment or Supplies



Pearson correlation of Corporate Psychopathy and Equipment/Supplies Difficulties, $r = 0.812$, P-Value = 0.000

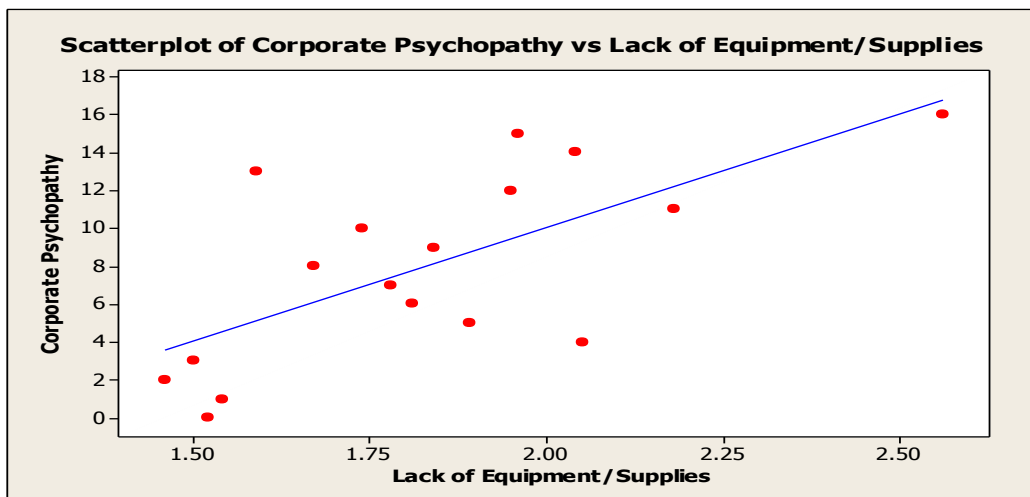
Figure 39: Scatter plot of Corporate Psychopathy and Job Often Having Difficulties Due to Supervisor



Pearson correlation of Supervisor Difficulties and Corporate Psychopathy, $r = 0.960$, P-Value = 0.000

The presence of Corporate Psychopaths also has a significantly positive correlation with employees having work difficulties due to inadequate training, as shown in Figure 40 below.

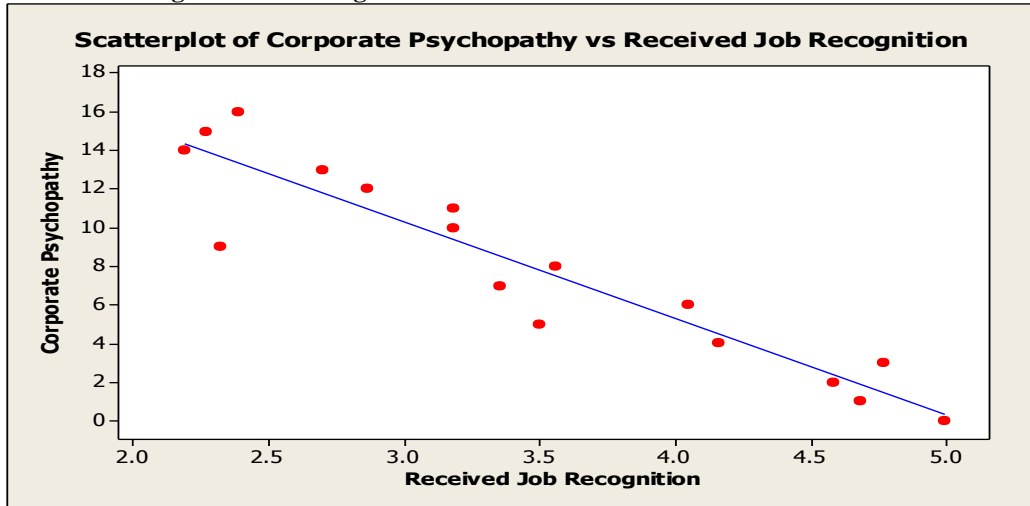
Figure 40: Scatter plot of Corporate Psychopathy and Job Often Having Difficulties Due to Lack of Equipment or Supplies



Pearson correlation of Corporate Psychopathy and Lack of Equipment/Supplies, $r = 0.676$, P-Value = 0.003

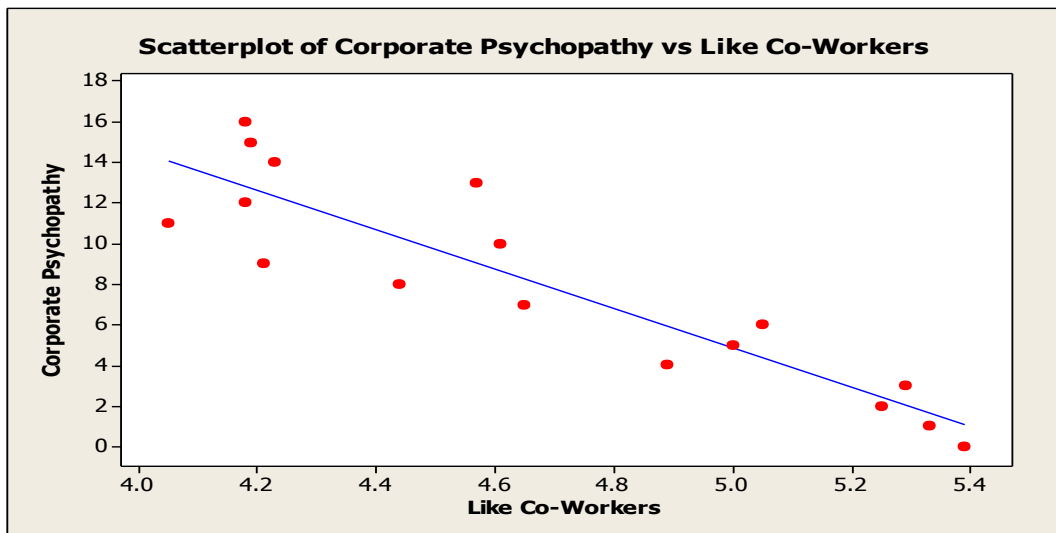
In terms of the items in the construct of job satisfaction, these are plotted on the same types of scatter plots in Figures 41 to 48. These show significant and strongly negative correlations between the Corporate Psychopathy score and the measures of job satisfaction. As the psychopathy scores goes up the level of recognition for doing a good job goes down.

Figure 41: Scatter plot of Corporate Psychopathy and Agreement that the Respondent Received Recognition for Doing a Good Job



Pearson correlation of Corporate Psychopathy and Received Job Recognition, $r = -0.936$, P-Value = 0.000

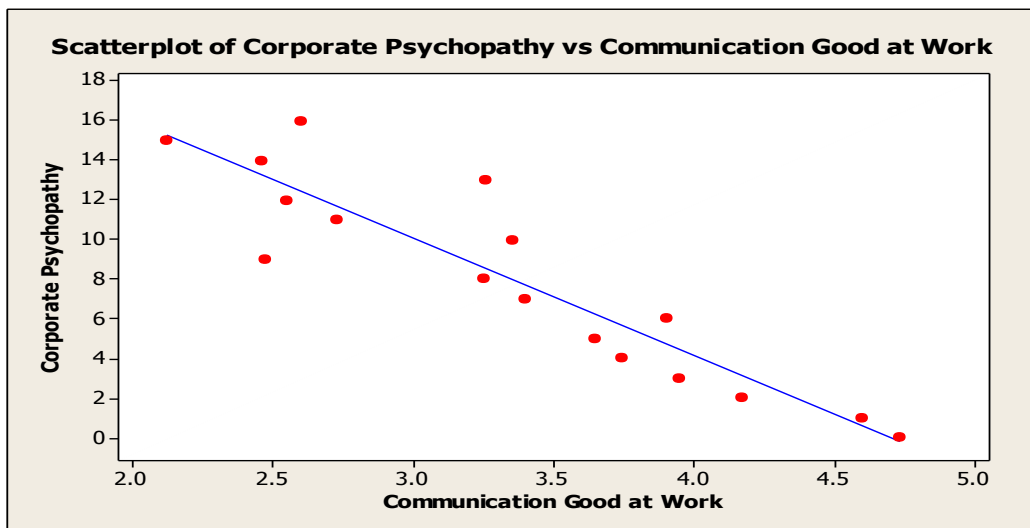
Figure 42 : Scatter plot of Corporate Psychopathy and Agreement that the Respondent Liked the People They Worked With



Pearson correlation of Corporate Psychopathy and Like Co-Workers, $r = -0.905$, P-Value = 0.000

As the level of Corporate Psychopathy goes up, so the level of reported good communication at work goes strongly down, as seen below in Figure 43. This downward trend is highly significant.

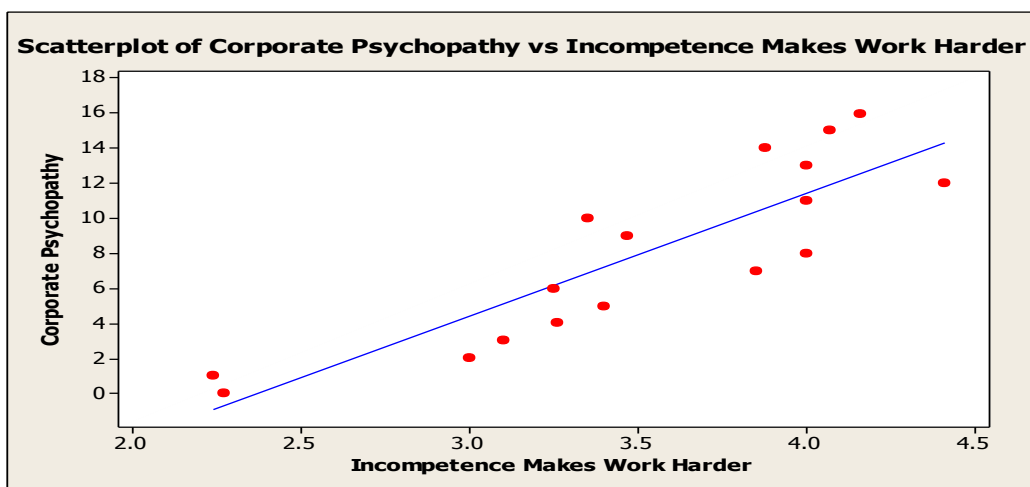
Figure 43: Scatter plot of Corporate Psychopathy and Agreement that Communications Seemed Good Within the Organisation



Pearson correlation of Corporate Psychopathy and Communication Good at Work, $r = -0.915$, P-Value = 0.000

Similarly, as the level of Corporate Psychopathy goes up, so the reported level of work being harder because of other's incompetence at also goes up, as shown below in Figure 44. Again, this is another highly significant correlation.

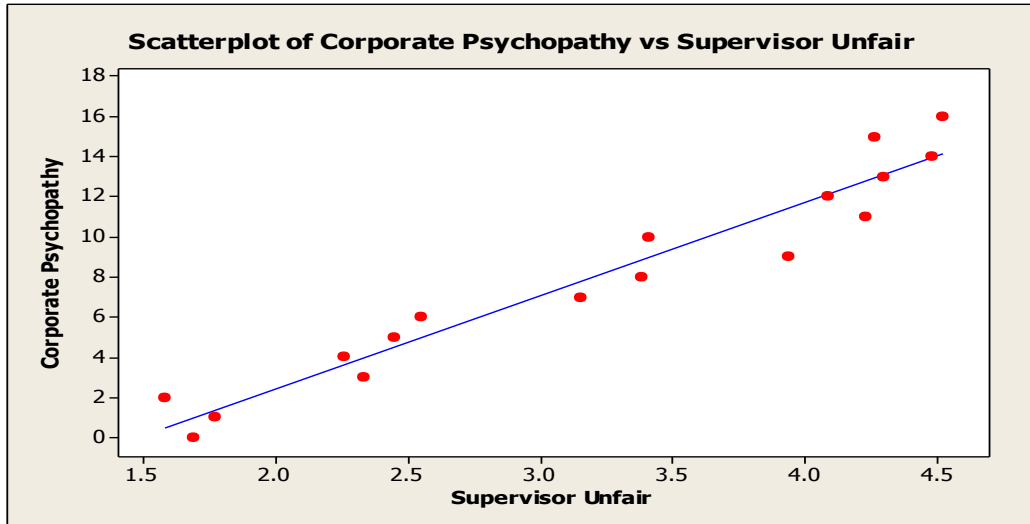
Figure 44: Scatter plot of Corporate Psychopathy and Agreement that Respondent's found Work Harder Because of Other's Incompetence



Pearson correlation of Corporate Psychopathy and Incompetence Makes Work Harder, $r = 0.869$, P-Value = 0.000

As the level of Corporate Psychopathy goes up, so the reported level of supervisor unfairness also goes up, as seen below in Figure 45. Again, this trend is highly significant.

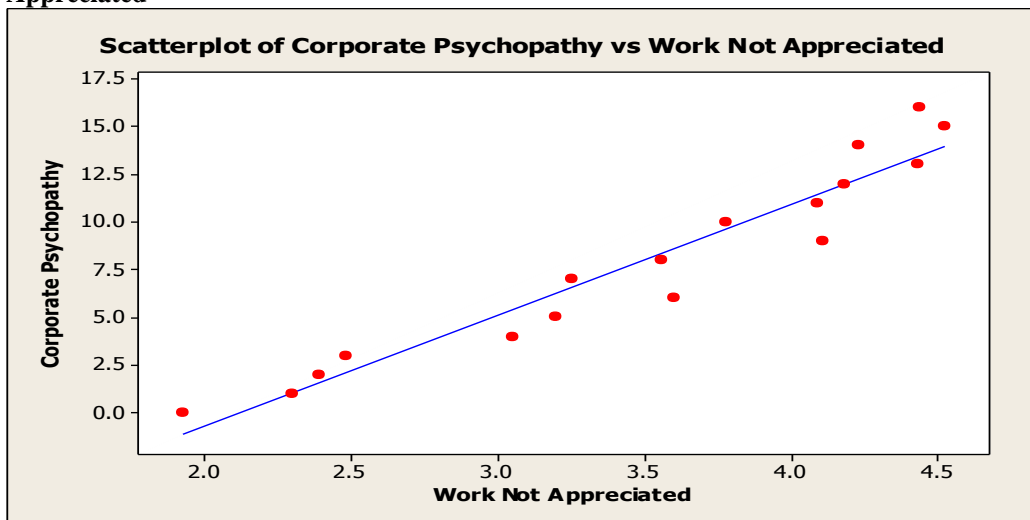
Figure 45 : Scatter plot of Corporate Psychopathy and Agreement that the Respondent’s Supervisor Was Unfair to them



Pearson correlation of Corporate Psychopathy and Supervisor Unfair, $r = 0.969$, P-Value = 0.000

Similarly, as the level of Corporate Psychopathy goes up, so the reported level of not being appreciated at work, also goes up, as seen below in Figure 46. The angle of the line, the closeness of the plots to the regression line and the high r , and low p values indicate a very strong positive correlation between the presence of Corporate Psychopathy and employees’ work not being appreciated at work.

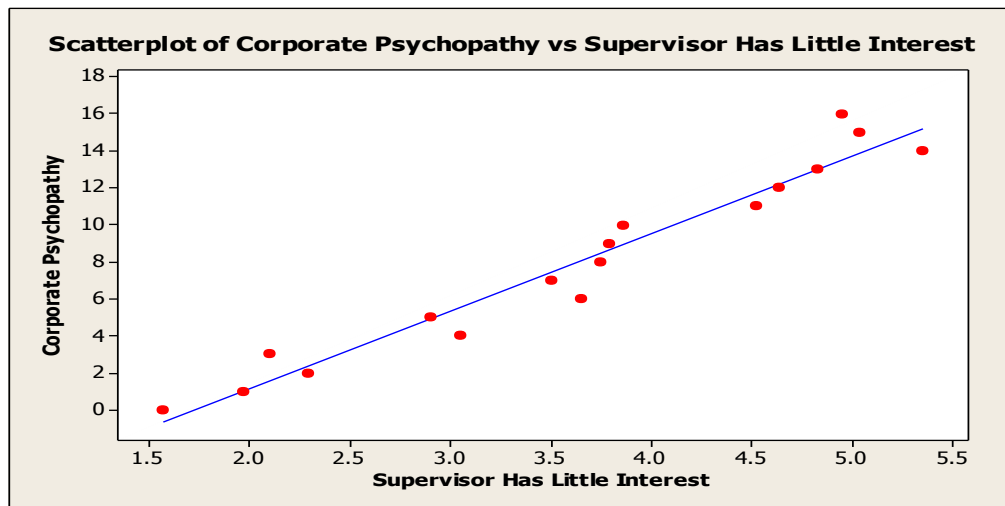
Figure 46: Scatter plot of Corporate Psychopathy and Agreement that Their Work was not Appreciated



Pearson correlation of Corporate Psychopathy and Work Not Appreciated, $r = 0.962$, P-Value = 0.000

As the level of Corporate Psychopathy goes up, so the reported level of the supervisor not showing interest in the feelings of subordinates also goes up. This correlation is demonstrated in Figure 47, below, and again is a highly significant correlation.

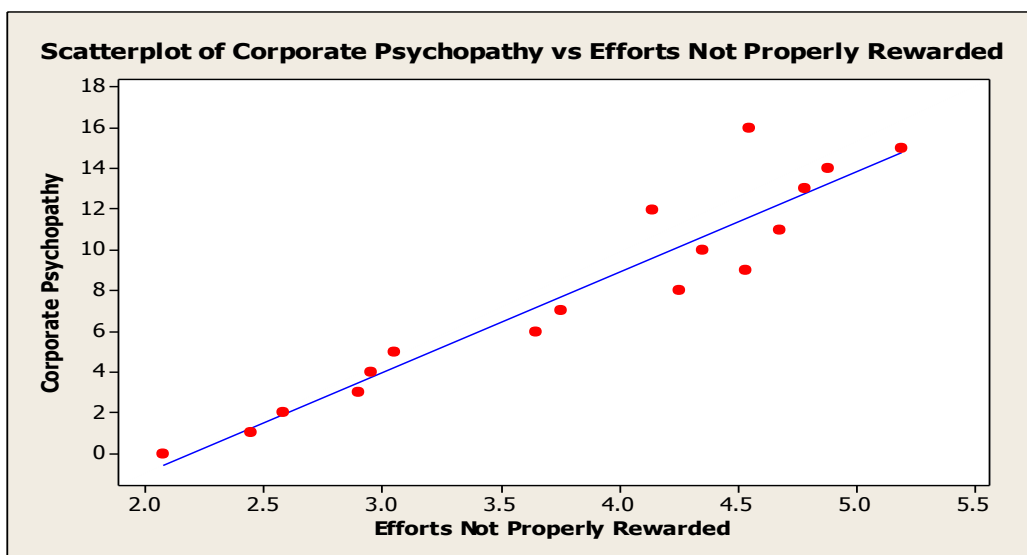
Figure 47: Scatter plot of Corporate Psychopathy and Agreement that Respondent's Supervisor Showed Little Interest in the Feelings of Subordinates



Pearson correlation of Corporate Psychopathy and Supervisor Has Little Interest, $r = 0.975$, P-Value = 0.000

Figure 48, below, shows that in the presence of increasing levels of Corporate Psychopathy, there are increasing levels of respondent's feeling that their efforts were not properly rewarded.

Figure 48: Scatter plot of Corporate Psychopathy and Agreement that Respondent's Efforts Were Not Properly Rewarded



Pearson correlation of Corporate Psychopathy and Efforts Not Properly Rewarded, $r = 0.947$, P-Value = 0.000

The Questionnaire Used