

DOCTORAL THESIS



INTERNATIONAL DOCTORAL SCHOOL

Doctoral Program in Social Science

Destructive Leadership in Organizations:
Empirical Studies on the Dark Triad of Personality and Its
Interplay With Motivation, Satisfaction, and Development

Author:

Alina Elbers, M.Sc.

Supervisors:

Prof. Dr. Pablo Salvador Blesa Aledo

Prof. Dr. Stephan Kolominski

Murcia, June 2024

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UNIVERSIDAD CATÓLICA
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THESIS SUPERVISORS' AUTHORIZATION FOR THESIS SUBMISSION

Prof. Dr. Pablo Salvador Blesa Aledo and Prof. Dr. Stephan Kolominski, as Supervisors⁽¹⁾ of the Doctoral Thesis 'Destructive Leadership in Organizations: Empirical Studies on the Dark Triad of Personality and Its Interplay With Motivation, Satisfaction, and Development' by Ms. Alina Elbers in the Doctorate Program in Social Science, **authorize its submission**, given that it meets the required conditions for its defense.

Which I hereby sign in compliance with Spanish Royal Decree 99/2011, of 28 January, in Murcia, on June 30, 2024.



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ABSTRACT

For more than two decades, researchers have been showing an increasing interest in the construct of the Dark Triad of personality and its impact on organizations and individuals. The Dark Triad includes the subclinical dimensions of narcissism, Machiavellianism, and psychopathy, and has been empirically linked to destructive leadership and its malevolent outcomes.

Much of the existing research has focused on the impact of leaders with high scores on the Dark Triad and their role in the organizational context. The aim of this doctoral thesis is to examine the underlying and regulatory influences, with a focus on the effects these leaders have on followers in terms of their motivation, satisfaction, and career development. For this purpose, an extensive literature review on destructive leadership, Self-Determination theory, and overarching prevalent theories was carried out; this was followed by four empirical studies. The first study ($N = 469$) focused on the role of followers' psychological capital and psychological safety and revealed a serial mediation for the relationship between dark leadership and the work-related basic need satisfaction of followers.

The second study ($N = 575$) examined differences between two occupational groups, namely individuals in social jobs and non-social jobs regarding their types of motivation, and how they were influenced by destructive leadership. Several findings were drawn from this study. First, the two groups differed in nearly all the motivational types, but not in their levels of leaders' dark traits. Also, their autonomous types of motivation were found to be a mediator of the relationship between the Dark Triad of their leaders and their level of amotivation. For further examination, the sample was divided into four groups depending on the job type and the Dark Triad level of leaders. Results revealed significant differences among those four groups regarding individuals' life satisfaction, agreeableness, their own dark traits, and the Light Triad traits of themselves and their leaders.

The third study ($N = 647$) focused on the impact of leaders' Dark Triad of personality on their followers' career development, with a focus on the influence on their core self-evaluations as an underlying mechanism. Results revealed that the influence of dark leaders on their followers' career development was almost entirely explained by their core self-evaluations, their intrinsic motivation, and

their own light and dark character traits. Furthermore, the Dark Triad of personality was demonstrated as a moderator of the relationship between followers' intrinsic motivation and their career success, revealing its impact on their development within the organization.

The fourth study consisted of data collected in the previous studies, as they all measured both the Dark Triad traits of leaders, as well as that of followers. The aim of this study was to examine the interplay of dark leaders and dark followers, and it was demonstrated that followers' dark traits mediated relationships in the workplace and beyond.

Besides drawing overarching conclusions from the empirical studies and considering their implications for science and practice, the last section illustrates their limitations and suggestions for future research.

KEY WORDS

Destructive leadership; Dark Triad of personality; Self-Determination theory; motivation; satisfaction; development

RESUMEN

Durante más de dos décadas, los investigadores han mostrado un creciente interés en el constructo de la Tríada Oscura de la personalidad y su impacto en las organizaciones y los individuos. La Tríada Oscura incluye las dimensiones subclínicas del narcisismo, maquiavelismo y psicopatía, y se ha vinculado empíricamente con el liderazgo destructivo y sus resultados malévolos.

Gran parte de la investigación existente se ha centrado en el impacto de los líderes con altos puntajes en la Tríada Oscura y su papel en el contexto organizacional. El objetivo de esta tesis doctoral es examinar las influencias subyacentes y regulatorias con un enfoque en los efectos que estos líderes tienen sobre los seguidores en términos de su motivación, satisfacción y desarrollo profesional. Con este propósito, se realizó una extensa revisión de la literatura sobre liderazgo destructivo, la teoría de la autodeterminación y teorías prevalentes generales; esto fue seguido por cuatro estudios empíricos. El primer estudio ($N = 469$) se centró en el papel del capital psicológico y la seguridad psicológica de los seguidores y reveló una mediación en serie para la relación entre el liderazgo oscuro y la satisfacción de las necesidades básicas relacionadas con el trabajo de los seguidores.

El segundo estudio ($N = 575$) examinó las diferencias entre dos grupos ocupacionales, a saber, individuos en trabajos sociales y trabajos no sociales, con respecto a sus tipos de motivación y cómo fueron influenciados por el liderazgo destructivo. De este estudio se extrajeron varios hallazgos. Primero, los dos grupos diferían en casi todos los tipos de motivación, pero no en sus niveles de rasgos oscuros de los líderes. Además, se encontró que sus tipos de motivación autónoma eran un mediador de la relación entre la Tríada Oscura de sus líderes y su nivel de amotivación. Para un examen más detallado, la muestra se dividió en cuatro grupos según el tipo de trabajo y el nivel de Tríada Oscura de los líderes. Los resultados revelaron diferencias significativas entre esos cuatro grupos en cuanto a la satisfacción con la vida de los individuos, su amabilidad, sus propios rasgos oscuros y los rasgos de la Tríada de Luz de ellos mismos y de sus líderes.

El tercer estudio ($N = 647$) se centró en el impacto de la Tríada Oscura de la personalidad de los líderes en el desarrollo profesional de sus seguidores, con un enfoque en la influencia en sus autoevaluaciones centrales como un mecanismo

subyacente. Los resultados revelaron que la influencia de los líderes oscuros en el desarrollo profesional de sus seguidores se explicaba casi en su totalidad por sus autoevaluaciones centrales, su motivación intrínseca y sus propios rasgos de carácter claros y oscuros. Además, se demostró que la Tríada Oscura de la personalidad era un moderador de la relación entre la motivación intrínseca de los seguidores y su éxito profesional, revelando su impacto en su desarrollo dentro de la organización.

El cuarto estudio consistió en datos recopilados en los estudios anteriores, ya que todos ellos midieron tanto los rasgos de la Tríada Oscura de los líderes como de los seguidores. El objetivo de este estudio era examinar la interacción de líderes oscuros y seguidores oscuros, y se demostró que los rasgos oscuros de los seguidores mediaban las relaciones en el lugar de trabajo y más allá.

Además de extraer conclusiones generales de los estudios empíricos y considerar sus implicaciones para la ciencia y la práctica, la última sección ilustra sus limitaciones y sugiere investigaciones futuras.

PALABRAS CLAVE

Liderazgo destructivo; Tríada Oscura de la personalidad; teoría de la autodeterminación; motivación; satisfacción; desarrollo

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‘But, in the main, leaders behave badly because of who they are and what they want’ (Kellerman, 2004, p. 19).

TABLE OF CONTENTS

ABSTRACT	7
I - INTRODUCTION AND PURPOSE	33
1.1. Motivation and Justification	33
1.2. Contribution to Science and Practice	34
1.3. Structure of the Thesis	37
II - THEORETICAL FOUNDATIONS	43
2.1. Introduction to Leadership.....	43
2.1.1. Definition and Nomological Network	43
2.1.2. Full Range of Leadership Model.....	48
2.1.3. More Recent Forms of Positive Leadership.....	55
2.2. Negative and Destructive Leadership	62
2.2.1. Definition and Nomological Network	62
2.2.2. Impact on Followers and Organizations.....	67
2.2.3. Antecedents of Destructive Leadership	71
2.3. The Dark Triad of Personality	75
2.3.1. Conceptualization of the Dark Triad of Personality	76
2.3.2. Connection With Other Personality Constructs	98
2.3.3. Impact on Followers and Organizations.....	103
2.3.4. Dark Traits and Leadership Derailment	110
2.3.5. Empirical Findings and Recent Developments of the Construct	113
2.3.6. Concluding Remarks on Leadership and the Dark Triad	120
2.4. Introduction to Self-Determination Theory.....	121

2.4.1.	Types of Motivation Within SDT	121
2.4.2.	Basic Needs and the Impact of Basic Need Satisfaction	127
2.4.3.	Relevance for the Occupational Context.....	130
III -	PREVALENT MODELS ON LEADERSHIP, MOTIVATION, AND WELL-BEING	139
3.1.	From the Perspective of Leaders: Motivation to Lead	139
3.2.	From the Perspective of Followers: Prevalent Theories on the Impact of Leadership Behavior	144
3.2.1.	The Job Demands-Resources Model of Burnout.....	146
3.2.2.	Leader-Member Exchange	153
IV -	CONSOLIDATION AND OBJECTIVES FOR EMPIRICAL STUDIES.....	161
4.1.	Synthesis of the Literature Review	161
4.2.	Conceptualization of the Research Model and the Empirical Studies.....	164
4.3.	Methodological Considerations for the Empirical Studies.....	170
4.3.1.	Structure and Procedure of the Empirical Studies	170
4.3.2.	Data Collection and Analysis	172
4.3.3.	Common Method Biases	178
V -	EMPIRICAL STUDIES.....	185
5.1.	Study 1: Coping With Dark Leaders: How Do Psychological Capital and Psychological Safety Affect the Interplay of Dark Leaders and Followers' Basic Need Satisfaction?	185
5.1.1.	Theoretical Background and Hypotheses.....	185
5.1.2.	Methods	194
5.1.3.	Results.....	198
5.1.4.	Discussion	207

5.2.	Study 2: When Dark Leaders and High Job Demands Combine: On the Role of Motivation and Occupational Settings.....	213
5.2.1.	Theoretical Background and Hypotheses.....	213
5.2.2.	Methods	229
5.2.3.	Results.....	232
5.2.4.	Discussion	261
5.3.	Study 3: Successful With a Dark Leader? On the Interplay of Dark Personalities, Core Self-Evaluations, and Career Success.....	273
5.3.1.	Theoretical Background and Hypotheses.....	273
5.3.2.	Methods	279
5.3.3.	Results.....	281
5.3.4.	Discussion	291
5.4.	Study 4: Birds of a Feather Flock Together: Examination of the Interdependences of Toxic Leaders and Toxic Followers	295
5.4.1.	Theoretical Background and Hypotheses.....	295
5.4.2.	Methods	298
5.4.3.	Results.....	298
5.4.4.	Discussion	305
VI -	DISCUSSION	311
6.1.	Overall Conclusion of Results.....	311
6.2.	Theoretical and Practical Implications.....	318
6.3.	Limitations and Suggestions for Future Research	327
VII -	BIBLIOGRAPHICAL REFERENCES.....	339
VIII -	APPENDICES	387

ACRONYMS AND ABBREVIATIONS

ASA framework	Attraction-Selection-Attrition Framework
BFI-2	Big Five Inventory 2
BNS	(Work-Related) Basic Need Satisfaction
CA	Career Success
CI	Confidence Interval
COVID-19 pandemic	Global Pandemic of Coronavirus Disease
CPC-12	Compound Psychological Capital Scale
CS	Core Self-Evaluations
CSS	Career Satisfaction Scale
CWB	Counterproductive Work Behavior
DSM-IV	Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders
DSM-IV-TR	Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders Text Revision
DT	Dark Triad
DT-F	Dark Triad Follower
DT-L	Dark Triad Leader
HC3	Type of Heteroskedasticity-Consistent Standard Error
HC4	Type of Heteroskedasticity-Consistent Standard Error
HCSE	Heteroskedasticity-Consistent Standard Errors

HEXACO model	Honesty-Humility (H), Emotionality (E), Extraversion (X), Agreeableness (A), Conscientiousness (C), and Openness to Experience (O)
INM	Intrinsic Motivation
JD-R model	Job Demands-Resources Model of Burnout
LL	Lower Limits
LMX	Leader-Member Exchange
LT-F	Light Triad of Personality of Followers
LT-L	Light Triad of Personality of Leaders
LTS	Light Triad Scale
Mach-IV/Mach-V	Machiavellianism Scale
MANOVA	Multivariate Analysis of Variance
MTL	Motivation to Lead
MWMS	Multidimensional Work Motivation Scale
NPI/NPI-16	Narcissistic Personality Inventory
OCB	Organizational Citizenship Behavior
OLS	Ordinary Least Squares
PC	Psychological Capital
PCL-R	Psychopathy Checklist - Revised
PCQ	Psychological Capital Questionnaire
POB	Positive Organizational Behavior
PPI	Psychopathic Personality Inventory
PROCESS	Macro Used for Statistical Analyses
PS	Psychological Safety
PsyCap	Psychological Capital
SD3	Short Dark Triad
SDT	Self-Determination Theory
SE	Standard Error

SEM	Structural Equation Modeling
SPI	Supernumerary Personality Inventory
SPSS	Software Program (Statistical Package for the Social Sciences)
SRP-III	Self-Report Psychopathy Scale
SWLS	Satisfaction with Life Scale
UL	Upper Limits
VIF	Variance Influence Factor
VUCA	Volatility, Uncertainty, Complexity, and Ambiguity
W-BNS	Work-Related Basic Need Satisfaction Scale

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 1. Structure of the Thesis.....	40
Figure 2. A Model of Destructive and Constructive Leadership Behavior.....	64
Figure 3. Outcomes of Destructive Leadership.....	68
Figure 4. The Toxic Triangle	73
Figure 5. Correlations Among Measures of Narcissism, Machiavellianism, and Psychopathy	77
Figure 6. How Leader Personality Affects Organizational Performance.....	81
Figure 7. The Self-Determination Continuum	124
Figure 8. Theoretical Framework for Understanding the Role of Individual Differences in Leader Behavior	140
Figure 9. Interplay of the Motivation to Lead, the Motivation of Followers, and Their Outcomes	143
Figure 10. The Research Model of the JD-R Model	149
Figure 11. The Hypothesized Job Demands-Resources Leadership Model.....	150
Figure 12. Levels of Conceptualization for Leadership Processes	165
Figure 13. Conceptual Research Model.....	166
Figure 14. Specific Research Model	168
Figure 15. An Integrative Framework of Psychological Safety	192
Figure 16. Serial Mediation With Psychological Capital and Psychological Safety as Mediators.....	201
Figure 17. Conditional Process Analysis.....	204
Figure 18. Three-Step Procedure for Study 2	217
Figure 19. Bar Chart on the Types of Motivation in Both Occupational Groups.	240
Figure 20. Mediation Analysis With Identified Regulation as the Mediator (Social Jobs).....	242

Figure 21. Mediation Analysis With Intrinsic Motivation as the Mediator (Social Jobs).....	243
Figure 22. Mediation Analysis With Identified Regulation as the Mediator (Non-Social Jobs)	246
Figure 23. Mediation Analysis With Intrinsic Motivation as the Mediator (Non-Social Jobs)	246
Figure 24. Visualization of Significant Post Hoc Test Results	260
Figure 25. Statistical Diagram of the Moderation Analysis	284
Figure 26. Plot of the Simple Slope Analysis for the Moderator Variable	286
Figure 27. Serial-Parallel Mediation Model.....	287
Figure 28. Mediation Analysis With the Dark Triad of Followers as the Mediator for Study 1	302
Figure 29. Mediation Analysis With the Dark Triad of Followers as the Mediator for Study 2.....	304
Figure 30. Mediation Analysis With the Dark Triad of Followers as the Mediator for Study 3.....	304
Figure 31. Expanded JD-R Model According to the Findings of the Empirical Studies.....	321

LIST OF TABLES

Table 1. Studies and Overarching Research Questions of the Doctoral Thesis.....	37
Table 2. Characteristics of Transformational and Transactional Leaders	51
Table 3. Positive Leadership Styles and Their Components.....	61
Table 4. Overview of Meta-Analyses on the Dark Triad	114
Table 5. Key Features of the Dark Tetrad of Personalities	118
Table 6. Means, Standard Deviations, and Intercorrelations	198
Table 7. Regression Analysis With Work-Related Basic Need Satisfaction as the Dependent Variable	200
Table 8. Regression Analysis With Psychological Safety as the Dependent Variable	200
Table 9. Output Details of the Serial Mediation.....	202
Table 10. Indirect Effects of the Serial Mediation	203
Table 11. Output Details of the Conditional Process Analysis	205
Table 12. Index of Moderated Mediation.....	206
Table 13. Index of Moderated Mediation.....	206
Table 14. Means, Standard Deviations, and Intercorrelations	233
Table 15. Regression Analysis With Overall Life Satisfaction as the Dependent Variable.....	234
Table 16. Regression Analysis With Intrinsic Motivation as the Dependent Variable	235
Table 17. Regression Analysis With Amotivation as the Dependent Variable	235
Table 18. Regression Analysis With the Dark Triad of Followers as the Dependent Variable.....	236
Table 19. Regression Analysis With the Light Triad of Followers as the Dependent Variable.....	237

Table 20. Means, Standard Deviations, and Intercorrelations for Individuals in Social Jobs.....	239
Table 21. Means, Standard Deviations, and Intercorrelations for Individuals in Non-Social Jobs.....	239
Table 22. t-Test for the Mean Differences Between Types of Motivation.....	241
Table 23. Output Details of the Mediation Analysis With Identified Regulation as the Mediator (Social Jobs)	244
Table 24. Output Details of the Mediation Analysis With Intrinsic Motivation as the Mediator (Social Jobs).....	245
Table 25. Output Details of the Mediation Analysis With Identified Regulation as the Mediator (Non-Social Jobs)	247
Table 26. Output Details of the Mediation Analysis With Intrinsic Motivation as the Mediator (Non-Social Jobs).....	248
Table 27. t-Test for the Mean Differences Between Leaders' Dark Triad Levels..	249
Table 28. Median Values for Leaders' Dark Triad Levels.....	250
Table 29. Means, Standard Deviations, and Intercorrelations for Group 1	251
Table 30. Means, Standard Deviations, and Intercorrelations for Group 2	252
Table 31. Means, Standard Deviations, and Intercorrelations for Group 3	253
Table 32. Means, Standard Deviations, and Intercorrelations for Group 4	254
Table 33. MANOVA for the Four Groups of the Sample	255
Table 34. Games-Howell Post Hoc Test	256
Table 35. Means, Standard Deviations, and Intercorrelations	282
Table 36. Regression Analysis With Career Success as the Dependent Variable.	283
Table 37. Output Details of the Moderation Analysis.....	284
Table 38. Moderator Value Defining Johnson-Neyman Significance Regions	285
Table 39. Conditional Effects of the Focal Predictor at Values of the Moderator	285
Table 40. Output Details of the Serial-Parallel Mediation Analysis.....	288
Table 41. Indirect Effects of the Serial-Parallel Mediation.....	290
Table 42. Correlations of the Dark Triad of Leaders and Followers Across the Empirical Studies	299

Table 43. Regression Analysis With the Dark Triad of Followers as the Dependent Variable in Study 1	300
Table 44. Regression Analysis With the Dark Triad of Followers as the Dependent Variable in Study 2.....	300
Table 45. Regression Analysis With the Dark Triad of Followers as the Dependent Variable in Study 3.....	301
Table 46. Output Details of the Mediation Analysis for Study 1.....	303
Table 47. Output Details of the Mediation Analysis for Study 3.....	305
Table 48. Research Question, Hypotheses, and Outcomes of Study 1	312
Table 49. Research Question, Hypotheses, and Outcomes of Study 2	314
Table 50. Research Question, Hypotheses, and Outcomes of Study 3	316
Table 51. Research Question, Hypotheses, and Outcomes of Study 4	317

LIST OF APPENDICES

APPENDIX 1: Scales of Study 1	387
APPENDIX 2: Scales of Study 2	395
APPENDIX 3: Scales of Study 3	405
APPENDIX 4: Scales of Study 4	409

I – INTRODUCTION AND PURPOSE

I - INTRODUCTION AND PURPOSE

1.1. MOTIVATION AND JUSTIFICATION

As early as 1987, Schneider stated that the most important part when building an organization with the aim to succeed is the people in it, including both followers and leaders. In today's challenging climate, marked by a volatile, uncertain, complex, and ambiguous (VUCA) world, it is paramount for leaders to prioritize and safeguard their followers' psychological well-being. Hence, it is becoming even more important for leadership to develop the potential of individuals as an assurance of the future (Rodriguez & Rodriguez, 2015). Not only is leadership important for the organization's strategy, but also to provide a sense of security for subordinates as the immediate interaction with them has a considerable impact on the work environment, their performance outcomes, and overall engagement. Thus, leaders are responsible for maintaining suitable conditions for followers to thrive, underscoring the important role of leadership in the organizational context (Decuyper & Schaufeli, 2021).

Personality traits can display dysfunctional and malevolent, or even potentially destructive behaviors and vary within populations. Often, they are summarized as dark traits or dark personalities (Hartung et al., 2022). Such personality traits, in particular the Dark Triad of personality, operate as antecedents of destructive leadership which is a costly phenomenon in the organizational context, effecting turnover, reduced productivity, absenteeism, and even health care expenditures (Tepper et al., 2011). Thus, it is important to continue examinations in this field of research. At the same time, recent research on the Dark Triad proposes that it will continue to occupy a central role in leadership and organizational research as it links personality traits to organizational outcomes, both positive and negative. Researchers have therefore suggested to further examine the potential mediators and moderators of these relationships (LeBreton et al., 2018).

Research on the Dark Triad of personality started two decades ago when Paulhus and Williams (2002) first described it. Since then, leadership research has shown a growing interest in this construct, its antecedents, and outcomes for organizations. Negative and even some potentially beneficial outcomes for individuals and organizations have been described in the literature, e.g. how destructive leadership influences followers, their job satisfaction, and overall performance in the workplace. Nevertheless, information on the reasons for negative outcomes in terms of underlying mechanisms has been neglected. Thus, the aim of this doctoral thesis is to shed light on factors which lie beneath.

1.2. CONTRIBUTION TO SCIENCE AND PRACTICE

“No one questions that human resources are critical to sustainable competitive advantage in today’s global economy” (Luthans & Youssef, 2004, p. 157). So far, leadership and especially destructive leadership have been topics of great interest in research. With the initial research of Paulhus and Williams (2002), the Dark Triad of personality has become a core piece in the field of leadership research combined with the impact of personality traits. Although the Dark Triad of personality has been extensively investigated, there is still a gap in the knowledge about employee-related factors and anticipatory measures for the damage that might be caused by destructive leaders. During the past decades, an increasing number of articles were published on the topic of the Dark Triad and a change in this trend appears unlikely (Muris et al., 2017).

With regard to the reviewed literature, it becomes obvious that the Dark Triad of personality has been especially investigated with a focus on the negative impact on organizations and followers, as well as on the selection processes that enable such leaders to enter organizations. Numerous researchers have concluded that detecting individuals with these personality traits is challenging, and preventing their negative impact within organizations is similarly difficult (R. Hogan & Kaiser, 2005; Rauthmann, 2012). While organizations seem to be full of incompetent managers, literature primarily focuses on the impact of bad leaders and organizational consequences, but regarding followers, there seems to be hardly any alternative other than to “suffer in silence” (Hogan & Hogan, 2001, p. 40).

Thus, one of the contributions of this doctoral thesis is the examination of follower-related factors such as team climate and personal resources which might have protective effects on followers and subsequently on organizations.

With regard to Self-Determination theory (SDT), another approach of this thesis is to explore which types of motivation are particularly vulnerable to adverse impacts or, conversely, demonstrate greater resilience. Research on the conditions that promote or threaten human potentials has a practical as well as a theoretical impact because not only does it contribute to knowledge on human behavior, but also on the interplay that optimizes performance, well-being, and development (Ryan & Deci, 2000). These issues are covered by research on SDT and thus, they are one of the main topics in this thesis. Although there has been extensive research on the need satisfaction associated with SDT, it has not been combined with destructive facets such as the Dark Triad of personality (to the author's best knowledge). According to SDT, individuals show different types of motivation which are either more extrinsic or intrinsic. As intrinsic motivation is characterized by an internal locus of causality and is recognized as the most desirable type of motivation (Deci & Ryan, 2000), the question arises whether intrinsically motivated individuals deal with destructive leaders more easily because they work out of their inner beliefs.

In 2019, the construct of the Light Triad of personality was primarily mentioned in research and was not intended to be a complete counterpart to the Dark Triad of personality (Kaufman et al., 2019). The aim of this thesis also includes identifying whether the components of the Light Triad might influence the impact of the Dark Triad.

Overall, this doctoral thesis contributes to important lines of research by conducting examinations on the following aspects:

- Increased knowledge on the Dark Triad of personality with regard to its effects on motivation as stated within SDT
- Identification of moderating or mediating effects that can serve as preventive measures when dealing with destructive leaders
- Increased knowledge on the interplay of personality traits both of leaders and followers

- Broadening the knowledge on the underlying mechanisms of the impact of destructive leaders in organizations

With reference to the role and the impact of destructive leadership in organizations, this doctoral thesis aims to provide a better understanding of the negative impact of destructive leaders on several follower-related factors. In this context, the role of both leaders' and followers' personality traits are investigated. Regarding this interaction, several potential moderators and mediators were included in the empirical studies to broaden the knowledge in this research area.

Apart from SDT, the theoretical constructs of the Job Demands-Resources Model of Burnout (JD-R model) and leader-member exchange theory (LMX) serve as additional theoretical foundations. The JD-R model is highly relevant for the structure of the empirical studies as it generally states that leadership can trigger both motivational and stress process within followers (Schaufeli, 2015). LMX generally describes the development of mature relationships between leaders and followers (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995). As personality traits of both parties are examined, the theoretical background of LMX is relevant for the understanding of the interplay.

Thus, the following research questions are examined with the help of the empirical studies of this doctoral thesis (see Table 1):

Table 1. Studies and Overarching Research Questions of the Doctoral Thesis

Study	Research Question
Study 1	How do psychological capital and psychological safety affect the interplay between dark leaders and followers' satisfaction in the workplace?
Study 2	What are the differences between occupational groups regarding motivation, light and dark traits, overall satisfaction, and, especially, their leaders?
Study 3	What is the impact of dark leaders on their followers' career success?
Study 4	What are the effects of the Dark Triad traits of followers with regard to the Dark Triad of their leaders?

Moreover, the literature review of this doctoral thesis provides reasons why organizations cannot avoid certain personality traits in management positions, or why they fail to detect them. Thus, the aim of this thesis is to uncover underlying mechanisms and identify measures for the organizational context to help individuals better deal with destructive leaders.

1.3. STRUCTURE OF THE THESIS

This doctoral thesis consists of six main chapters, with this section giving a short overview of the upcoming chapters. Overall, the thesis addresses several research questions on the topic of destructive leadership, the Dark Triad of personality, and different variables which might influence the interplay of leadership and follower-related outcomes. In this section, an overview of the separate chapters and their key messages is provided.

This first main chapter deals with the purpose itself of this thesis, it highlights its significance in both scientific knowledge and practical application, and provides the overall structure of the thesis and its research questions.

In the second chapter, the theoretical framework of the thesis is outlined. It thus includes literature reviews on the topic of leadership, the Dark Triad of personality, and SDT, as they represent the central constructs of the thesis. The chapter starts with the definition of leadership and prevalent theories, including the Full Range of Leadership Model and recently developed positive forms of leadership. It is followed by the definition, potential impacts and antecedents of destructive leadership. The next part of the second chapter deals with the Dark Triad of personality, as it demonstrates the central construct of this doctoral thesis. The three relevant personality traits are illustrated before the relation of the Dark Triad with other personality constructs is outlined. The impact on individuals and organizations is considered, highlighting both positive and negative aspects. Moreover, as leaders with high scores on the Dark Triad tend to derail in their careers, this topic is also illustrated as it represents impacts on leaders themselves regardless of the organizational consequences. As a significant amount of research on the Dark Triad has emerged over the past decades, the most important meta-analytical findings are summarized, and further developments of the initial construct are presented. The final section of the second chapter deals with an overview of SDT, the types of motivation included in the theory, and the role of basic need satisfaction. To date, SDT is considered a valid explanation for optimal human functioning and development and is therefore inevitable for the organizational context.

The third chapter deals with prevalent theories on leadership, motivation, and well-being. It starts with a leader's point of view and why individuals are motivated to lead. In contrast, and with reference to the aforementioned effects of destructive leadership and individuals' motivation and need satisfaction, two prevalent constructs relevant for followers' performance and wellbeing are outlined. For this purpose, two constructs appeared highly relevant for the upcoming research, namely the JD-R model of burnout and the leader-member exchange. Both constructs are outlined in great detail in the third chapter as they incorporate leadership and illustrate potential outcomes.

The fourth chapter deals with an intermediate consolidation which includes a synthesis of literature review and the conceptualization of the research model and its research questions. As this main chapter provides an outlook for the empirical

studies, it also deals with the overarching methodological considerations relevant for the examinations, including the data collection process of the empirical studies, the analyses, and considerations of potential issues such as common method bias.

The fifth main chapter marks the start of the empirical studies of the doctoral thesis. It is divided into four separate studies, the subchapters of which are structured identically. Initially, the hypotheses are developed, then the methods of the individual study are described, followed by a section where the statistical results are described and analyzed. The results, including their limitations and an outlook for potential future research, are finally discussed. Overall, the contribution and answers to the above-mentioned research questions are demonstrated by this chapter.

Finally, the sixth chapter provides an overall discussion of the results found in the empirical investigations and overarching concluding remarks. It also deals with theoretical and practical implications as well as limitations of the studies, and suggestions for future research. Although each of the studies has its own section in the discussion section, it is necessary to examine it from an overarching level, including the limitations and suggestions for future research.

Figure 1 illustrates the previously described structure and provides a visual overview of the overall doctoral thesis.

Figure 1. Structure of the Thesis



Chapter	Content
Introduction and Purpose	Motivation and Justification, Contribution to Science and Practice, Structure of the Thesis
Theoretical Foundations	Theoretical Framework of Destructive Leadership, the Dark Triad of Personality and Self-Determination Theory
Prevalent Models on Leadership, Motivation, and Well-Being	Introduction to Prevalent Models from Leaders' and Followers' Perspectives
Consolidation and Objectives for Empirical Studies	Synthesis of the Literature Review, Conceptualization of the Research Model and the Empirical Studies, Methodological Considerations
Empirical Studies	Empirical Studies Including Hypotheses Development, Methods, Results, and Discussion
Discussion	Overarching Discussion of the Results, Their Limitations, and Suggestions for Future Research

Note. Author's elaboration.

II – THEORETICAL FOUNDATIONS

II - THEORETICAL FOUNDATIONS

2.1. INTRODUCTION TO LEADERSHIP

2.1.1. Definition and Nomological Network

As the central construct of this doctoral thesis, it is important to provide a comprehensive introduction to the topic of leadership. Thus, this chapter first deals with definitions and the nomological network of leadership in general, before providing definitions and consequences of destructive leaders. Afterwards, the Dark Triad of personality is illustrated in great detail. The chapter closes with the introduction to SDT as a relevant theory that combines basic needs and motivation in an organizational context. Given the expansive nature of the topic, the aim of this chapter is not to be exhaustive, but to yield the models and theories relevant for the course of this thesis.

According to Yukl (2013), most definitions of leadership “share the assumption that it involves an influence process for facilitating the performance of a collective task” (p. 36). Echoing this perspective, Lawrence (2010) stated that leadership is “a particular kind of decision making – decisions a leader makes in guiding and motivating a group of people in responding to a particular set of circumstances. The circumstances may be immediate or they may be something the leader foresees in the future, but in either case, there are choices to be made” (p. 11). Every species on Earth has developed mechanisms to survive, most of them by passing on evolutionary advantageous and instinctive behaviors to their offspring, giving them an advantage in their environment. In contrast, humans have evolved to survive by working together and relying on problem-solving skills. This way of solving problems as they arise and finding solutions to different problems in a variety of ways represents another working definition of leadership (Lawrence, 2010).

Apart from a single definition of leadership, the leadership effectiveness domain is often mentioned. According to DeRue et al. (2011), leadership

effectiveness is characterized by the dimensions of content, level of analysis and the target of evaluation. Regarding leadership emergence, there has been extensive research on the antecedents and the reasons why individuals emerge as leaders. In contrast, the consequences of leadership emergence, i.e. whether those who emerge as leaders are satisfied with their role, have been neglected (Badura et al., 2022).

In organizational psychology, leadership is one of the most dominant topics discussed and questions on leadership have been a subject of speculation for a long time. It has been defined with regard to individual traits, leadership behavior, follower perceptions, and a list of other factors, and most definitions appear to involve an influence process, but have little else in common. The differences in the definitions represent strong disagreement among researchers about the identification of leaders and the nature of leadership processes (Van Fleet & Yukl, 1992).

According to Bass (2009), individuals' behavior as leaders and followers is affected by earlier experiences with their parents and by their genetic makeup. Thus, the importance of parenthood and human development can be considered world's oldest endeavor.

Although it is one of the most important topics in human sciences, it is one of the more poorly understood. Leadership is the key to organizational effectiveness; organizations can thrive and prosper with good leadership, while bad leaders perpetrate misery on their domains (R. Hogan & Kaiser, 2005). Leadership is considered one of the most widely researched and also discussed topics in organizational sciences because nothing gets accomplished without it (Yammarino, 2013). Nevertheless, scientific research on leadership did not emerge until the twentieth century (Yukl, 2013). Since then, much research has focused on the determinants of leadership effectiveness, with social scientists attempting to discover which aspects determine how well a leader is able to influence followers and accomplish task objectives. Thus, it becomes clear that the term conveys images of powerful and dynamic individuals (Yukl, 2013). "Leadership of any type springs from the interplay of an individual's motivation and ability to lead, subordinates' desire for direction and authority, and events calling for leadership" (Padilla et al., 2007, p. 179). However, modern science has tended to take a one-sided view of this topic of leadership, emphasizing only positive aspects while neglecting its darker

sides (Padilla et al., 2007). Hogan and Kaiser (2005) summarized that leadership is usually defined in terms of the people who are responsible for organizations and their units; by definition, those people are leaders. But at the same time, people who rise to the top of organizations are not necessarily distinguished by talent for leadership.

In the following, the topic of leadership is reviewed from different perspectives: What are the prevalent theories on the topic of leadership? Which leadership styles have been defined and how can they be distinguished from each other? Although they do not constitute the central subject of this thesis, it seems necessary to present an overview of those leadership aspects in order to go into more detail on its negative components afterwards. As this thesis focuses on destructive leadership and dark personality traits of leaders, this chapter also provides an overview of the current definitions and the nomological network of destructive leadership. Regarding the antecedents of destructive leadership, the Dark Triad of personality is considered and literature on the destructive impact of dark personality traits for organizations is reviewed.

When it comes to defining leadership, Stogdill (1974) once stated that there are as many definitions of leadership as there are researchers who have tried to define the construct. Generally, leadership is viewed as “a process that includes influencing the task objectives and strategies of a group or organization, influencing people in the organization to implement the strategies and achieve the objectives, influencing group maintenance and identification, and influencing the culture of the organization” (Van Fleet & Yukl, 1992, p. 149). In line with this, Kets de Vries and Miller summarized: “We find great men theories, trait theories, environmental theories, person-situation theories, interaction-expectation theories, humanistic theories, exchange theories, behavioral theories, and perceptual and cognitive theories. This confused situation caused some scholars to abandon the subject altogether and focus on more specific problems such as power or motivation” (1985, p. 585).

Overall, when reviewing literature on leadership, it has been defined in terms of personality traits, leader behavior, interaction, relationship, followers’ perceptions, influence on followers, task goals, and influence on organizational culture. Most definitions include an influence process, but differ in many aspects

such as who exerts influence, the purpose of influence and the manner in which it is executed. Some researchers claim that leadership is inherent in social influence processes in organizations and that it is a collective process among the organization's members. Others state that there is always a specialized leadership role where one person has more influence than others. The applied definition of leadership determines whether research focuses on the attributes and actions of a single leader or on reciprocal influence processes performed by organizational members and leaders (Van Fleet & Yukl, 1992).

Although there are literally thousands of definitions and views of leadership, there are some commonalities across these ideas that can be integrated in terms of an overall definition, the importance of levels of analysis, the born vs. made issue, the role of antecedents, and highlights of the implications for professional practice (Yammarino, 2013). Thus, another attempt to summarize the amount of definitions was phrased as follows: "Leadership is a multi-level (person, dyad, group, collective) leader-follower interaction process that occurs in a particular situation (context) where a leader (e.g., superior, supervisor) and followers (e.g., subordinates, direct reports) share a purpose (vision, mission) and jointly accomplish things (e.g., goals, objectives, tasks) willingly (e.g., without coercion)" (Yammarino, 2013, p. 150). Controversy also continues over the definitions and differences between leadership and management. Some researchers have stated that a person can be a leader without being a manager and vice versa. A potential distinction may be that leaders influence the commitment of followers, whereas managers focus on the responsibilities and corresponding authority of their positions. In this context, it is also relevant to consider that managers do not necessarily have subordinates. In contrast, other researchers have noted considerable overlap between managers and leaders, leading to sharp disagreement on this question of whether this distinction exists (Van Fleet & Yukl, 1992).

In this doctoral thesis, the terms "manager," "supervisor," "superior," and "leader" are used interchangeably. Thus, these terms refer to individuals holding leadership positions. The terms "followers," "subordinates," and "employees" are also used synonymously in this thesis. The term "employees" refers to individuals who are formally employed within an organization and does not necessarily

exclude those in leadership positions; however, this term is often used in leadership literature when examining leaders' impacts on their followers. In this doctoral thesis, these three terms are used synonymously to refer to individuals who do not hold a leadership position.

From a level of analysis perspective, prior to roughly 1970, leadership research mainly focused on the leaders as a person or individual, the group he or she led, and its effectiveness. In the 1970s, a change occurred, and the focus shifted to the multiple leaders-follower dyadic relationships within the group (Yammarino, 2013). Most studies on leadership divide into distinct lines of research and can be classified by their focus on leader traits, behavior, power and influence, or situational factors (Van Fleet & Yukl, 1992). Given its relevance to this thesis, the trait approach is the primary focus in the subsequent discussion:

The trait approach focuses on the personal attributes of leaders. Researchers found differences between leaders and nonleaders on certain traits. These findings provide evidence on the type of people that will most likely occupy leadership positions, but not on what type of people will succeed as leaders. Focus among researchers shifted from leader traits to leader behavior, but research on traits continued and leader traits were found to be related to leadership effectiveness and advancement. Thus, high energy levels, stress tolerance, integrity, emotional maturity, self-confidence as well as motivation were found to be predictors of effectiveness and advancement (Van Fleet & Yukl, 1992).

In examinations conducted by McClelland and colleagues (1987), leader motives were measured and divided into the need for power, need for achievement, and need for affiliation. For each motive, McClelland defined an ideal degree for sustainable success. With the help of the explorative studies, he concluded that those with a moderately strong achievement motive were able to demonstrate the greatest operational success and always showed an interest in further challenges. The power motive describes the interest in influencing the way others think and an interest in leading groups. According to McClelland (1987), this type of motivation should be high but still socially acceptable. Likewise, McClelland states that the affiliative motive should ideally be low as managers also need to make unpleasant, business-related decisions without being overly influenced by social interactions.

Currently, the view of leadership is typically a leader-follower interaction rather than a focus on the leader as the primary source of leadership (Yammarino, 2013). According to the honeymoon effect, people tend to view a new leader in absolutely positive terms (Tepper et al., 2004), but those skills attributed by followers do not necessarily mean that leaders in fact possess the required knowledge, abilities or skills.

2.1.2. Full Range of Leadership Model

The Full Range of Leadership Model is considered universally valid and assumes that situational variables determine the type of leadership that emerges. It is based on Bass's theory on transactional and transformational leadership (Bass, 1985). This framework has been updated to now include various factors that reflect three behavioral styles of transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership (Antonakis & House, 2013), which will be addressed in the following sections.

2.1.2.1. *Transactional Leadership*

Transactional leadership is generally based on transactions between leaders and followers. Followers who do not perform well are penalized, while followers who perform well receive pay increases and other benefits. Such transactional leadership is often considered a prescription for mediocrity (Bass, 1990). Transactional leaders achieve performance of their team members by using contingent rewards or feedback (Hater & Bass, 1988).

Transactional leadership is characterized by rewards or disciplines towards followers depending on their performance or behavior. It also depends on laying out contingencies and positive contingent rewards, or forms of management-by-exception. With the contingent rewards approach, leaders establish agreements outlining what needs to be done in exchange for satisfactorily executing the assignment. Although these forms of transactions have been found effective, they are not as effective as transformational components. The management-by-

exception approach as another form of corrective transactional leadership appears to be more ineffective, especially when applied excessively. Nevertheless, a corrective form of leadership can be required in high-risk situations, such as in healthcare or firefighting, or other situations which require immediate compliance, as its interpretation is different in situations with low risk. Such corrective transactions can be active or passive with a leader who either actively monitors deviations from standards to take corrective actions when needed, or the leader passively waits for errors to occur (Avolio, 2011).

It is considered a base for effective leadership, but is unconcerned with the development of followers to their full potential, as it focuses on the satisfaction of the requirements between themselves and their followers (Bass & Avolio, 1990). On a meta-analytical level, the social-normative motivation to lead was the only motivational type that demonstrated a significant relationship with transactional leadership (Badura et al., 2020).

Nevertheless, as summarized by Avolio (2011), transactional leaders will not achieve the same performance goals when ignoring aspects of transformational leadership. In certain situations, transactional leadership will lead to performance, but followers will never be inspired, developed or challenged. Transactional leaders get jobs done, but without focusing on developing their own followers to lead. While their focus on performance is crucial to optimizing performance, they do not optimize change and further development.

2.1.2.2. *Transformational Leadership*

Transformational leadership initially was an answer to the requirements of greater efficiencies in the new global market. Leaders who respond to change positively and actively were needed. It does not detract from transactional leadership, but builds on it and broadens the effects of leaders (Bass & Avolio, 1990).

Transformational leadership emerges when leaders elevate the interests of their followers, generate awareness and accept the purposes of the group. Transformational leaders encourage their followers to look beyond their own self-interest for the sake of the group, they may be charismatic and inspirational,

meeting their followers' emotional needs and potentially providing intellectual stimulation. Such charismatic leaders have power and influence as individuals want to identify with them and they incorporate high levels of trust and confidence, they pay close attention to differences among followers and act as mentors who help to grow and develop. They are remarkable for their energy, determination, self-confidence, intellectual, verbal skills and for their strong ego ideals. As intellectual stimulation is a factor in transformational leadership, leaders teach their followers to see difficulties as problems that need to be solved and emphasize rational solutions (Bass, 1990). In a meta-analysis on the impact of leadership, theories such as transformational leadership had a larger impact on subordinates' feelings and their thinking, while traditional leadership approaches had a stronger influence on more proximal target behaviors (Avolio et al., 2009).

Regarding its development, transformational leadership can be taught and learned, starting with early life experiences. Similar to the role of parents, transformational leaders promote their followers' maturity and development towards ideals (Bass & Riggio, 2006). Later on, in their early careers, leaders should be trained and retrained at later career stages to ensure transformational leadership behavior (Bass & Avolio, 1990).

In contrast to transactional leaders, transformational leaders are seen as satisfying and effective leaders, and they maintain better relationships with their own supervisors and make more of a contribution to the company compared to their purely transactional counterparts. Followers not only do a better job when they experience transformational leaders, but they also show more satisfaction with the organization's appraisal system (Bass, 1990).

Furthermore, transformational leadership can also have an impact on recruitment processes as candidates are more likely to be attracted by chief executive officers who are considered charismatic, optimistic, successful and dynamic leaders (Bass, 1990).

In sum, Table 2 illustrates the different characteristics of both transformational and transactional leaders:

Table 2. Characteristics of Transformational and Transactional Leaders

Transformational Leader	
Charisma	Provides vision and sense of mission, instills pride, gains respect and trust.
Inspiration	Communicates high expectations, uses symbols to focus efforts, expresses important purposes in simple ways.
Intellectual Stimulation	Promotes intelligence, rationality, and careful problem solving.
Individualized Consideration	Gives personal attention, treats each employee individually, coaches, advises.
Transactional Leader	
Contingent Reward	Contracts exchange of rewards for effort, promises rewards for good performance, recognizes accomplishments.
Management by Exception (Active)	Watches and searches for deviations from rules and standards, takes corrective action.
Management by Exception (Passive)	Intervenes only if standards are not met.
Laissez-Faire	Abdicates responsibilities, avoids making decisions.

Note. Adapted from "From Transactional to Transformational Leadership: Learning to Share the Vision," by B. M. Bass, 1990, Organizational Dynamics, 18(3), p. 22 (DOI: 10.1016/0090-2616(90)90061-S). Copyright by Elsevier. Reprinted with permission.

Regarding selection processes, Bass (1990) states that factors associated with transformational leadership should be included in selection and placement processes, as they are measurable and therefore easy to detect. Furthermore, transformational leadership can be learned and should therefore be part of management training and development programs. Nevertheless, it is not a panacea and in certain organizations or in stable markets, transactional leadership might still appear appropriate when rules and regulations for getting things done are required. But whenever turbulent times arise, transformational leadership should be fostered at all organizational levels (Bass, 1990).

Transformational leaders exhibit four basic components of transformational leadership, namely “individual influence (charisma), individualized consideration, intellectual stimulation, and inspirational motivation” (Bass & Avolio, 1990, p. 22). In a nutshell, those four I’s can be described as follows:

Idealized influence: It is strongly noticeable among leaders with a vision and sense of mission, they acquire strong individual identification from their employees. They manage to obtain extra effort from their team and achieve ideal levels of performance.

Individually considerate: Such leaders concentrate on the needs and capabilities of their followers and attend to them on an individual level. Furthermore, they coach them and provide feedback for individual development. In turn, followers take greater responsibility for their own development such as challenging job tasks.

Intellectually stimulating: Those leaders encourage to rethink the existing way of solving problems. They promote creativity and intellectually stimulate their followers to develop their own problem-solving techniques. Thus, followers become more innovative and more effective.

Inspirational: Inspirational leaders increase their employees’ enthusiasm and optimism. They stimulate their energy to accomplish more demanding challenges by providing their vision.

(Bass & Avolio, 1990)

In more recent elaborations on transformational leadership, the factor of idealized influence was split up into attributed and behavioral charisma. Attributed charisma is defined as the perceptions followers have about the leader, which are influenced by their own attributions. It represents the emotional aspect of leadership that redirects followers' self-interest towards the greater good. Behavioral charisma, however, is represented by specific behaviors through which leaders reflect on their own values and beliefs, including their moral and ethical orientation (Antonakis & House, 2013). Among those components, idealized influence and inspirational leadership are considered the most effective and satisfying compared to intellectual stimulation and individualized consideration (Avolio, 2011).

While transactional and transformational leadership are often described as distinct styles, they can be incorporated by the same leader and the combination of both approaches represents optimal leadership behavior (Bass & Avolio, 1990).

Above all, Bass (1990) stated that fostering transformational leadership is likely to pay off in the well-being, health and overall effective performance of organizations. The best of leaders are the ones who are transformational as well as transactional across time, challenges and situations (Avolio, 2011; Bass & Riggio, 2006).

Overall, transformational leaders motivate their followers to perform beyond initial expectations. This can be achieved by either raising awareness of the importance of outcomes, by motivating followers to transcend their own self-interests, or by expanding their needs with regard to Maslow's hierarchy of needs. Transformational leadership leads to performance beyond expectations in military as well as in corporate settings. In empirical studies, transformational leaders were rated better than transactional leaders regarding subordinates' effectiveness and satisfaction, and subsequently differentiated top performing managers from average managers (Hater & Bass, 1988).

Despite all the research on transformational leadership, the Bass' model of leadership has also been criticized for the lack of a precise conceptual definition of charismatic-transformational leadership, and explanations on how the different dimensions combine to form charismatic-transformational leadership (van Knippenberg & Sitkin, 2013).

Also, as summarized by Labrague et al. (2020), transformational leadership has been linked to positive effects on empowerment, innovative work behaviors, and increased job contentment. The prevention of toxic leadership can be achieved by developing transformational leadership through training, education and organizational policy development. Performance has been demonstrated to be higher when leaders succeed in transactional or transformational leadership compared to when neither style is employed. The highest performance level was observed when both types were applied (Jacobsen & Bøgh Andersen, 2015).

Apart from leadership styles, particularly transformational leadership, moderators have been examined that attenuate the effects of negative leadership in followers. For this purpose, Harvey et al. (2007) analyzed the effects of ingratiation and high levels of positive affect when interacting with abusive leaders. Results demonstrated that individuals who actively participate in ingratiation and show high levels of positive affect are not adversely affected when destructive leadership increased. Both factors appeared to operate as effective buffers against their supervisors' influence on turnover intentions. From these findings, constructs were revealed that can be used advantageously for coping with destructive leadership.

Considering all facets of the Full Range of Leadership Model, Antonakis and House (2013) suggested that transformational behaviors should be displayed most often, followed by contingent reward leadership, management-by-exception active and passive, and then laissez-faire leadership, if ever.

2.1.2.3. *Laissez-Faire Leadership*

Another leadership style described in the Full Range of Leadership Model is nontransactional or laissez-faire leadership, which is characterized by the near-avoidance or even absence of leadership. By definition and according to research, it is the most inactive, dissatisfying and ineffective style of leadership. In its most extreme form, nothing is transacted between the leader and the follower (Avolio, 2011).

Although leadership research often deals with active forms of leadership such as transactional and transformational leadership, lack or absence of leadership skills may also lead to stress for individuals. This lack of skills is referred to as

passive leadership and is considered quite ineffective (Kelloway et al., 2005). Equal to transaction and transformational leadership, this so-called laissez-faire leadership is part of the Full Range of Leadership Model (Avolio, 2011).

Passive forms of leadership, including laissez-faire leadership as the most extreme form, can lead to detrimental effects on individuals as well as on organizations as it violates the interests of followers, undermines their motivation and job satisfaction, and should subsequently be considered a form of destructive leadership (Einarsen et al., 2007; Schyns et al., 2018). Laissez-faire leadership is by definition characterized by inaction and avoidance as such leaders generally avoid making decisions, abandon their responsibilities, or delay actions (Hinkin & Schriesheim, 2008; Robert & Vandenberghe, 2021).

Nevertheless, the effects should not be considered universal as longitudinal examinations elucidated particularly negative effects for individuals with strong relational self-concepts. As they possibly are more likely to direct their reactions towards their exchange partners, the employee-supervisor relationship might be damaged and those reactions are then generalized to the overall organization (Robert & Vandenberghe, 2021).

Hence, for a full presentation of the Full Range of Leadership Model, laissez-faire leadership must not be neglected. Nevertheless, it is also considered a form of destructive leadership. As negative and destructive leadership is illustrated in great detail in another chapter, laissez-faire leadership is at this point only mentioned for the purpose of a complete demonstration of the Full Range of Leadership Model.

2.1.3. More Recent Forms of Positive Leadership

Currently, there is a shift in organizations away from traditional and hierarchical leadership styles towards servant leadership. It incorporates ethical and caring behavior while improving the quality of organizational life (Spears, 2010). A demand for more ethical, people-centered management, and leadership inspired by the concepts of servant leadership might be the answer to organizational needs (Van Dierendonck, 2011).

Apart from the Full Range of Leadership Model, positive leadership styles have emerged, such as authentic leadership, servant leadership, ethical leadership, and empowering leadership, although there is not a general framework to distinguish them from one another. These leadership styles demonstrate a stronger focus on normative or even altruistic behavior as a leader, on being authentic and empowering (Decuyper & Schaufeli, 2021). This list of positive and more recently developed leadership styles is not exhaustive, but in the following, the aim is to give a short overview of the most well-known positive leadership styles.

In comparison to transformational leadership, servant leadership focuses more on the followers' psychological needs and sees them as a goal, while transformational leadership evaluates these needs secondary to the goals of the overall organization (Van Dierendonck et al., 2014). Nevertheless, there seems to be an overlap between these leadership styles as they both aim to satisfy followers' needs, but still with a qualitative difference. As leadership research has shifted from a strong focus on transformational leadership towards a stronger focus on the interaction between leaders and followers, servant leadership has become an intriguing field of research (Van Dierendonck et al., 2014).

When it comes to the definition of servant leadership, there is an oft-quoted phrase "The Servant-Leader is servant first. [...] It begins with the natural feeling that one wants to serve, to serve first. Then conscious choice brings one to aspire to lead" (Greenleaf, 1977, p. 7). Nowadays, this quote is often criticized, as it lacks a clear definition and conceptualization. Eva et al. (2019) attempted to fill this gap by providing a new definition of servant leadership which describes it as "an (1) other-oriented approach to leadership (2) manifested through one-on-one prioritizing of follower individual needs and interests, (3) and outward reorienting of their concern for self towards concern for others within the organization and the larger community" (p. 114). With this definition, they included the essential features of servant leadership, namely its motive, mode, and finally, mindset as they are irreplaceable for an accurate understanding of the concept.

Servant leadership is characterized by the empowerment and development of people, by the expression of humility, authenticity, interpersonal acceptance, stewardship, as well as by providing direction for followers. Leaders who combine their personal motivation to lead with a simultaneous need to serve are the ones

who are considered servant leaders (Van Dierendonck, 2011). For organizational outcomes, a high-quality dyadic relationship, trust, and fairness are expected to be the most relevant mediators as they promote self-actualization, positive job attitudes and performance (Van Dierendonck, 2011). The functional elements of servant leadership emerge from proper leadership values, the values of which can be summarized as trust, appreciation of others, and empowerment. Trust holds the overall organization together, while appreciation for others reflects empathy, patience and encouragement. Empowerment, rooted in trust, signifies a commitment to equality. Servant leaders respect those they serve while authoritarian leaders diminish them (Russell, 2001).

Spears (2010) stated that servant leadership characteristics often emerge naturally and can be enhanced by learning and practice. It is therefore seen as hope for organizations as it promotes the creation of better. In a systematic literature review by Coetzer et al. (2017), eight characteristics of servant leaders were elaborated, namely authenticity, humility, compassion, accountability, courage, altruism, integrity, and ability to listen. At the same time, empowerment, stewardship, building relationships, and compelling vision emerged as the central servant leadership competencies.

Research on servant leadership has experienced progress over the past two decades, although there are still lingering questions on the overlap with other leadership styles such as transformational leadership (Eva et al., 2019). Starting with the descriptions of both leadership styles, it becomes clear that there is considerable overlap, as they both focus on their followers. However, major differences in the way they influence their followers were elaborated. Further investigations on the underlying mechanism revealed that transformational leadership is more focused on being perceived as a leader by followers, whereas servant leadership aims to address the psychological needs of followers. Thus, servant leadership focuses more on the individual and treats need satisfaction as crucial. Both styles are more influential than laissez-faire leadership, but the path through which they operate differs (Van Dierendonck et al., 2014).

The outcomes of servant leadership can be divided into three main categories: individual outcomes, team outcomes, and organizational outcomes. On an individual level, servant leadership was positively linked to work engagement,

job satisfaction, trust, self-efficacy, organizational citizenship behavior, innovative behavior, commitment, person-job fit, person-organizational fit, leader-member exchange, and improved work-life balance. In contrast, it was negatively associated with burnout and turnover intentions. On a team level, positive relationship with group organizational citizenship behavior, service climate and culture, group identification, and procedural justice climate were found. Finally, for organizations, improvements in sales performance and customer service were reported (Coetzer et al., 2017). Additionally, literature distinguishes between strategic and operational servant leadership. In strategic servant leadership, the leader's behavior is aligned to become a role model to followers and operate as an ambassador. In operational servant leadership, the organization's hierarchy is flipped upside-down, so the servant leader in fact empowers and serves followers to enable them to accomplish the mission and goals (Coetzer et al., 2017).

Overall, the research on servant leadership has not led to consensus on the exact characteristics and competencies of servant leaders, but it has clearly been distinguished from other current leadership theories. Nevertheless, there is consensus that servant leadership proposes a meaningful approach to leadership to maintain sustainable results for organizations and individuals (Coetzer et al., 2017). Additionally, research on servant leadership has demonstrated that it can be observed and investigated across contexts, culture, and themes, and multiple measures have been validated for its analysis. Literature review has shown that it can help address ethical dilemmas and might even function as the leadership framework that is required to face the challenges of the twenty-first century which range from technological advancements to the threat of global warming (Parris & Peachey, 2013).

Charismatic leadership like ethical leadership is a value-driven kind of leadership. Such leaders influence the beliefs, the self-concept, and subsequently the motivation, attitude, and behavior of their followers (Den Hartog & Belschak, 2012). Followers of transformational leaders react with trust and respect, but in charismatic leadership, they even idolize or worship them as a superhuman hero. Charismatic leadership is therefore defined more narrowly and assumes that leaders possess an inherently inspired gift according to their followers' perceptions. Generally, charismatic leadership focuses on the individual leader

instead of the leadership process (Van Fleet & Yukl, 1992). A very recent meta-analysis on ethical leadership revealed that there has been no global increase of ethical leadership or organizational trends which drive leaders to become more ethical since its first conceptualization in 2004. Instead, it was found that although sociocultural factors play a role in shaping ethical leadership, they cancel out each other on the global level. Regarding followers' work outcomes it was demonstrated that the positive impact of ethical leadership increased and became more relevant over time although there was no general increase of global ethical leadership levels. This may be explained by an increased sensitivity of followers towards ethical leaders. For the organizational context, results indicated that followers increasingly benefit from ethical leadership and its promotion appears as an effective strategy for the motivation of followers and keeping them engaged. Hence, the results of the study supported the relevance of ethical leadership, stressing the relevance particularly for the selection and development processes of leaders (Amory et al., 2024).

Charismatic leaders are often considered corporate heroes who cure organizational woes and communicate a compelling vision of the future. They can, in fact, be quite effective leaders, but they may vary in their ethical standards and, according to research, the risks associated with charismatic leadership are as significant as the promises. Many charismatic leaders support creative thinking in their followers, provide opportunities for development, share information, and welcome feedback. Those are considered ethical charismatics, however, there are also unethical charismatics who concentrate solely on their own goals, control and manipulate followers, and even their moral standards are characterized by self-interested views. Those two groups can be distinguished by certain behaviors, namely the use of power, the creation of visions, the communication with followers, the intellectual stimulation of followers, the development of followers, and overall moral standards. Ethical charismats can convert followers into leaders by making them feel independent, confident, and capable. Consequently, and due to the double-edged sword of charismatic leadership, organizations need to carefully select their charismatic leaders (Howell & Avolio, 1992). The core assumption of charismatic and transformational leadership is that such leaders raise their followers' aspirations and activate their higher-order values, enabling them to identify with their leader and his or her mission, leading to better feelings

about their work and often surpass expectations. Subsequently, charismatic leadership was positively associated with leadership effectiveness and various important outcomes at the individual, group, and organizational level across occupational settings and cultures (Avolio et al., 2009).

Authentic leadership as another form of positive leadership emerged in response to transformational leadership and is defined by four central components, namely the self-awareness of the leader, balanced processing of information before making decisions, relational transparency of feelings and thoughts towards followers, and an internalized moral perspective in terms of self-regulation (Walumbwa et al., 2008).

Finally, empowering leadership has emerged from principles based on positive psychology and focuses on enabling followers rather than imposing authority. Overall, it is characterized by six dimensions which are the delegation of authority, information sharing, skill development, accountability for outcomes, self-directed decision making, and coaching for innovation performance (Konczak et al., 2000).

Comparing all the recent positive leadership styles, ethical decision making, role modelling, and a sense of integrity were found as shared attributes between transformational, authentic and ethical leadership (Brown & Treviño, 2006). However, empowering leadership has not yet been examined with regard to shared attributes (Decuyper & Schaufeli, 2021). The overlap between the above-mentioned positive leadership styles might be due to construct mixology which happens when new constructs are created by combining existing constructs, finally leading to construct redundancy (Decuyper & Schaufeli, 2021). In sum, Decuyper and Schaufeli (2021) summarized the main components of positive leadership styles as illustrated in Table 3:

Table 3. Positive Leadership Styles and Their Components

Transformational Leadership	Authentic Leadership	Servant Leadership
– Idealized influence – Intellectual stimulation – Inspirational motivation – Individualized consideration	– Self-awareness – Balanced processing – Relational transparency – Internalized moral perspective	– Empowerment – Accountability – Standing back – Humility – Authenticity – Courage – Forgiveness – Stewardship
Ethical Leadership	Empowering Leadership	
– Moral person – Moral manager	– Delegation of authority – Accountability for outcomes – Self-directed decision making – Information sharing – Skills development – Coaching for innovative performance	

Note. Adapted from “Exploring the Leadership-Engagement Nexus: A Moderated Meta-Analysis and Review of Explaining Mechanisms,” by A. Decuyper & W. B. Schaufeli, 2021, *International Journal of Environmental Research and Public Health*, 18(16), p. 4 (DOI: 10.3390/ijerph18168592). CC BY.

It is to be mentioned that the types of leadership outlined in this chapter are not exhaustive. The aim is to provide an overview of the prevalent theories and to demonstrate recent developments in organizational and leadership psychology.

2.2. NEGATIVE AND DESTRUCTIVE LEADERSHIP

In addition to the previous chapter on leadership in general and the most relevant models and theories, this chapter focuses on the negative and destructive facets of leadership. It provides an overview of the nomological network, antecedents, and their impact on individual and organizations as a whole.

Both leadership styles and behaviors have been empirically investigated; due to the broad research on leadership in general and now the increasing interest in its negative aspects, it appears necessary to give an overview on the existing definitions and the nomological network of negative and destructive leadership as well. The negative side of leadership should not be neglected as it has a significant impact on the organizational context. Baumeister et al. (2001) even stated that bad events have greater power than good ones, defining this as a general principle across several life domains such as relationships, social network patterns and interpersonal interactions.

2.2.1. Definition and Nomological Network

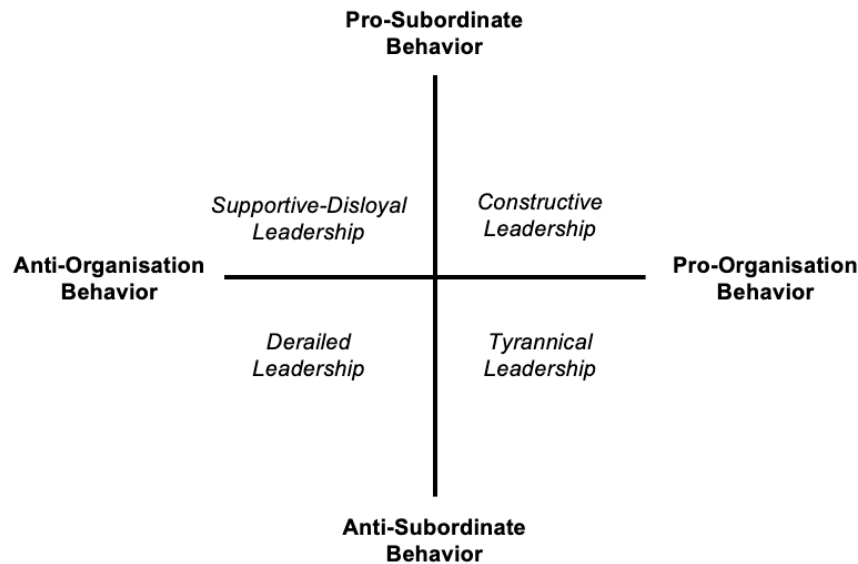
Beyond an overarching definition of leadership, criteria are required to distinguish between good, bad, evil, and misguided leadership. Good leadership can be described as the exercise of influence over followers in a balanced and sustainable manner which helps followers to satisfy their own drives. Bad leaders are those who influence their followers in a way that maximizes the fulfillment of their own needs without any regard to the consequences for others. Finally, evil leaders, a specific group within bad leaders, demonstrate their disregard for others through actions that can result in harm or even the loss of life. Misguided leadership is characterized by influence over followers that helps them satisfy only some of their drives while simultaneously influencing them to suppress other

drives. Misguided leaders are typically influenced and intimidated by bad or evil leaders, or they act on incomplete leadership theories (Lawrence, 2010).

Overall, the nomological network of destructive leadership includes various terms, such as petty tyranny (Ashforth, 1997), tyrannical or destructive leadership (Einarsen et al., 2007), autocratic despotic leadership (Aronson, 2001), or supervisor undermining (Duffy et al., 2002). Nowadays, the term of “abusive supervision” is quite commonly used (Tepper, 2000, 2007). For this doctoral thesis, the terms “abusive supervision,” “destructive leadership,” and also “dark leadership” will be used interchangeably. Per definition, abusive supervision “refers to subordinates’ perceptions of the extent to which supervisors engage in the sustained display of hostile verbal and nonverbal behaviors, excluding physical contact” (Tepper, 2000, p. 178).

Traditionally, leadership research focused on factors associated with effective leadership for many years. Researchers have therefore called for a closer investigation of the construct of destructive leadership, its characteristics and organizational impact. Thus, Einarsen et al. (2007) proposed a definition and a descriptive model of destructive leadership behavior. In their study, they described destructive leadership behavior as a systematic and repeated behavior that violates the legitimate interest of the organization and the motivation, well-being, or job satisfaction of subordinates. According to their definition, they conceptualized a model that is congruent with their definition and reflects the two dimensions of the organization and the subordinates while considering constructive and destructive leadership as illustrated in Figure 2. The subordinate-oriented dimension describes leadership behaviors ranging from anti- to pro-subordinate behaviors which violate the legitimate interest of the organization by undermining the motivation, well-being, or job satisfaction of subordinates. These behaviors may also include bullying, harassment, or other kinds of mistreatment. On the contrary, pro-subordinate behaviors foster the motivation, well-being, and job satisfaction including taking care of and supporting subordinates.

Figure 2. A Model of Destructive and Constructive Leadership Behavior



Note. Adapted from "Destructive leadership behaviour: A definition and conceptual model," by S. Einarsen, M. S. Aasland, & A. Skogstad, 2007, *The Leadership Quarterly*, 18(3), p. 211 (DOI: 10.1016/j.leaqua.2007.03.002). Copyright by Elsevier. Reprinted with permission.

The topic of destructive leadership was intensively examined in the meta-analysis by Schyns and Schilling (2013), who analyzed its effects for organizations and several organizational outcomes by including 57 studies into their own research. They observed that there had been a lot of research on the positive aspects of leadership, but that research in that area was lacking an integration of diverse concepts and a quantitative review of destructive leadership. Besides the analysis of negative outcomes, it is important to define and distinguish between leadership itself and the behavior of leaders as these terms are often used interchangeably. Schyns and Schilling (2013) summarized for their analysis that the term of destructive leadership focuses on aspects which include follower-targeted influence, as not everything a leader does should generally be declared leadership.

Destructive leadership was operationalized with the help of different concepts which include abusive supervision (Tepper, 2000), destructive leadership (Einarsen et al., 2007), toxic leadership, and petty tyranny (Ashforth, 1997). The concept of abusive supervision is characterized by hostile verbal and nonverbal behaviors, excluding physical contact, such as screaming, insulting, and humiliating, as well as invasion of privacy, taking undue credit, inappropriately assigning blame, and finally rudeness (May et al., 2016; Tepper, 2000; Tepper et al., 2006). Petty tyranny is generally defined as the behavior to lord one's power over others and to use it oppressively, capriciously, and perhaps vindictively (Ashforth, 1997).

According to these concepts and in line with Yukl's (2013) definition of leadership, Schyns and Schilling (2013) summarized that destructive leadership is "a process in which over a longer period of time the activities, experiences and/or relationships of an individual or the members of a group are repeatedly influenced by their supervisor in a way that is perceived as hostile and/or obstructive" (p. 141). According to May et al. (2016, p. 267), the following actions can be classified as destructive leadership:

- Treating employees in an unfriendly and rude manner
- Verbal aggressions against employees (e.g. insulting and shouting at)
- Releasing anger built up elsewhere on employees
- Ridiculing or humiliating employees in front of others
- Making employees responsible for mistakes of the leaders themselves
- Demonstratively denying employees' recognition for good performance
- Punishing employees arbitrarily
- Cheating, lying to or deceiving employees
- Abandoning employees, behaving disloyally
- Playing employees off against one another
- Teasing/patronizing employees
- Bypassing employees, not involving them in processes

- Pressuring, intimidating employees
- Overloading employees with tasks
- Claiming achievements/success of employees for themselves

Besides the concept of destructive leadership, it also seems necessary to consider the term of negative leadership which is used as an overarching term that includes commonly disliked behaviors. According to Schilling (2009), negative leadership is associated with eight behavioral categories including insincere, despotic, exploitative, restrictive, failed, laissez-faire, and active-passive leadership. It therefore ranges from ineffective behaviors to those that are destructive, in the sense of the definition of destructive leadership mentioned before (Schyns & Schilling, 2013).

Apart from active destructive actions, the concept of laissez-faire leadership must not be neglected as it can be harmful to followers and organizations as well (Robert & Vandenberghe, 2021). Consistent with the definition of destructive leadership given by Einarsen et al. (2007), laissez-faire leadership violates the legitimate interest of organizations as it seems to steal time from subordinates and therefore may possibly undermine their motivation, well-being, and satisfaction.

While laissez-faire leadership is in fact an ineffective leadership style, there is a qualitative difference between non-leadership and concepts such as abusive supervision. Subordinates perceiving abusive supervision are more likely to quit their jobs, and if they remain in their jobs, they tend to experience lower job and life satisfaction, lower normative and affective commitment, higher continuance commitment, conflict between work and family, and psychological distress (Tepper, 2000).

Schyns and Schilling (2013) also stated that it seems necessary to distinguish between negative and destructive leadership, whereas negative leadership operates as a term used for behaviors ranging from ineffective and anti-social behavior to destructive behavior as described before. For their meta-analysis on destructive leadership, they included as many concepts as possible while focusing on leadership behavior that is targeted towards individuals. Taking this highly influential meta-analysis into account, Mackey et al. (2021) published an updated systematic literature review on the destructive leadership research as they stated

that this previous analysis was now missing nearly a decade of research. Overall, their meta-analysis re-stabilized the foundation for the destructive leadership literature and their results did not contradict existing findings. Results supported the widely held view that destructive leadership negatively affects followers' perceptions and behaviors. Furthermore, the research highlighted that, while much of the existing literature on destructive leadership focuses on how it exacerbates subordinates' negative perceptions, there is less emphasis on understanding the broader impact of leaders' actions on followers and the overall organization (Mackey et al., 2021).

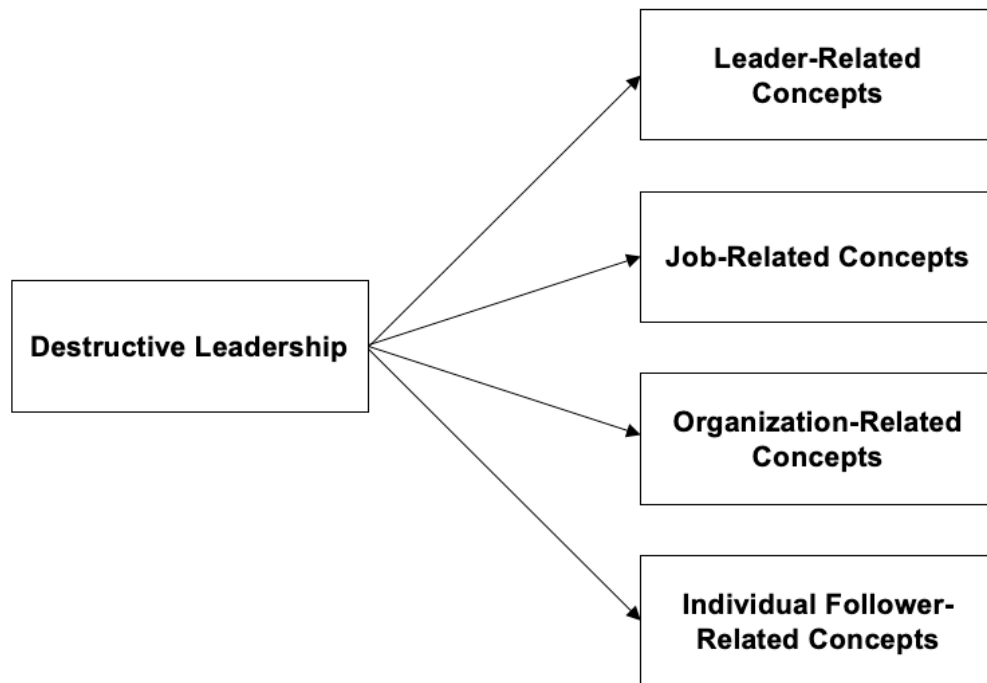
2.2.2. Impact on Followers and Organizations

In their meta-analysis, Schyns and Schilling (2013) described a negative correlation of destructive leadership and positive leader-related concepts, and a positive correlation with negative leader-related concepts. At the same time, destructive leadership showed a negative relation to positive job-related concepts, a negative relationship with positive organization-related concepts, and a positive relationship with negative organization-related concepts. Destructive leadership also showed a negative relationship with positive individual follower-related concepts and positive relationships with negative individual follower-related concepts. The strongest effects were found for attitude towards the leader, illustrating that destructive leadership is consequently related to how followers feel about their leaders.

Another relationship was found between well-being, negative affectivity, stress, and destructive leadership, demonstrating that its effects are wider than merely work-related, whereas the relationship with occupational stress was not as strong as with well-being and negative affectivity. It was therefore hypothesized that these factors might be more strongly affected by destructive leadership whereas occupational stress might be affected by other factors. The authors suggested that the presence of colleagues might possibly operate as a moderator resulting in lower stress levels (Schyns & Schilling, 2013).

Regarding outcome variables of destructive leadership, most of them are rated from a follower's point of view. They can broadly be differentiated into the categories of leader-related concepts, job-related concepts, organization-related concepts, and individual follower-related-concept as illustrated in Figure 3:

Figure 3. Outcomes of Destructive Leadership



Note. Adapted from "How bad are the effects of bad leaders? A meta-analysis of destructive leadership and its outcomes," by B. Schyns & J. Schilling, 2013, The Leadership Quarterly, 24(1), p. 142 (DOI: 10.1016/j.leaqua.2012.09.001). Copyright by Elsevier. Reprinted with permission.

Concepts that relate directly to the leader, such as follower resistance and leader identification, are subsumed in the category of leader-related concepts, which are considered dyadic as they demonstrate behaviors shown by individuals to individual leaders. Job satisfaction is one of the most relevant topics in job-related concepts, and the category of organization-related concepts mainly includes

aspects that directly affect the organization, for example commitment or turnover rates. Consequences that relate directly to the individual follower are summarized as follower-related concepts, such as stress, well-being, and performance (Schyns & Schilling, 2013).

Undermining of employees is also considered abusive leadership and has a significant impact on employee attitudes, behaviors, and well-being (Duffy et al., 2002) which is in line with empirical findings linking abusive supervision to negative relations with employees' engagement (P. Li et al., 2021).

In selection processes, new executives are often recruited from outside the organization, making an accurate evaluation difficult. The most commonly selection tool is a job interview and the dark tendencies are designed to create favorable impressions. Narcissists and psychopaths excel in such situations and are often hired for the characteristics which ultimately lead them to derailment (Hogan & Kaiser, 2005).

Overall, various studies illustrated that followers who perceive their leaders being more abusive are less satisfied with their jobs which leads to deleterious consequences to organizations (Tepper et al., 2006). In a qualitative examination on young employees, a definition and model of destructive leadership as experienced by them was proposed. The definition closely resembled the one proposed by previous research. A unique contribution of the study was the identification of money and social atmosphere as moderators of the relationship between leadership behaviors and their outcomes. Employee turnover and a destructive culture were described as the outcomes of abusive leadership. A work environment managed by a destructive leader does not attract young workers and will lead to high turnover (Starratt & Grandy, 2010).

According to Tepper et al. (2004), abusive supervision is likely to evoke self-serving organizational citizenship behavior (OCB). In a longitudinal study, they demonstrated that employees' job satisfaction and organizational commitment were positively related to OCB when abusive supervision was low, but when it was high, OCB was negatively related to job satisfaction and even unrelated to organizational support. In a second study, they even found support for a moderating effect of abusive supervision in this conceptual context.

Another interesting effect was found when employees' intention to quit was examined. When employees' intention to quit was rather high, abusive supervision was more strongly associated with deviance regarding the organization and also with deviance regarding the manager. Also, deviance directed towards the manager was higher than towards the organization (Tepper et al., 2009).

Turnover and employee misconduct such as absenteeism and theft are unnecessary costs for organizations which should be avoided. Nevertheless, screening applicants for certain dispositions will only treat symptoms and not causes, as a considerable amount of employee misconduct is attributable to poor treatment by management (Hogan & Hogan, 2001).

Tepper et al. (2008) additionally demonstrated that there is a mediated effect between abusive supervision and organization deviance through affective commitment of employees. This effect appeared even stronger when employees perceived that team members are approving of organization deviance and when they show acts of organization deviance.

Overall, the relationship between the Dark Triad traits and organizational outcomes is complex and no consensus has been found. In fact, different empirical findings and inconsistent effect sizes in meta-analyses suggest that underlying mechanisms such as moderator or mediator variables need to be considered in examinations (LeBreton et al., 2018).

According to Goldman (2006), the origin of dysfunctional organizations primarily resides in leaders with long-standing personality disorders, but one dysfunctional leader is enough to bring down an organization as they are precursors to escalating organizational dysfunctions. Thus, he called for instruments to identify personality disorders among leaders, such as the Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders (DSM-IV-TR (American Psychiatric Association, 2000)).

Nonetheless, organizations should be careful how they score certain personality traits in selection processes. Meta-analytic findings suggest that for example, lower scores in narcissism are not necessarily better than high scores. Levels near the population mean are associated with the most positive outcome regarding leadership effectiveness. Therefore, individuals with average levels

should be preferred over those with very high or very low levels (Grijalva et al., 2015).

2.2.3. Antecedents of Destructive Leadership

Overall, individuals who are perceived as extraverted, interpersonally dominant, and socially skilled are the ones often to be found in leadership positions (Brunell et al., 2008).

Throughout leadership research, one key question arises very frequently: Are leaders born or made? There has not been a clear answer yet, as scientists state that leaders are born as well as made as they start with a base level of competencies linked to heredity and life experiences, and then they enhance such competencies through more life experiences and learning situations (Yammarino, 2013).

Apart from its definitions and the impact on organizations, the question arises how and why destructive leadership emerges, and which factors operate as potential antecedents. Again, it is important to distinguish whether leaders are simply ineffective or malicious towards their subordinates or the overall organization. The nature of harm-doing underlying destructive leadership is seen as a demarcation line that differentiates it from ineffective leadership. Overall, destructive leadership is described as a product of dispositional and contextual factors, so different dimensions need to be considered (Krasikova et al., 2013).

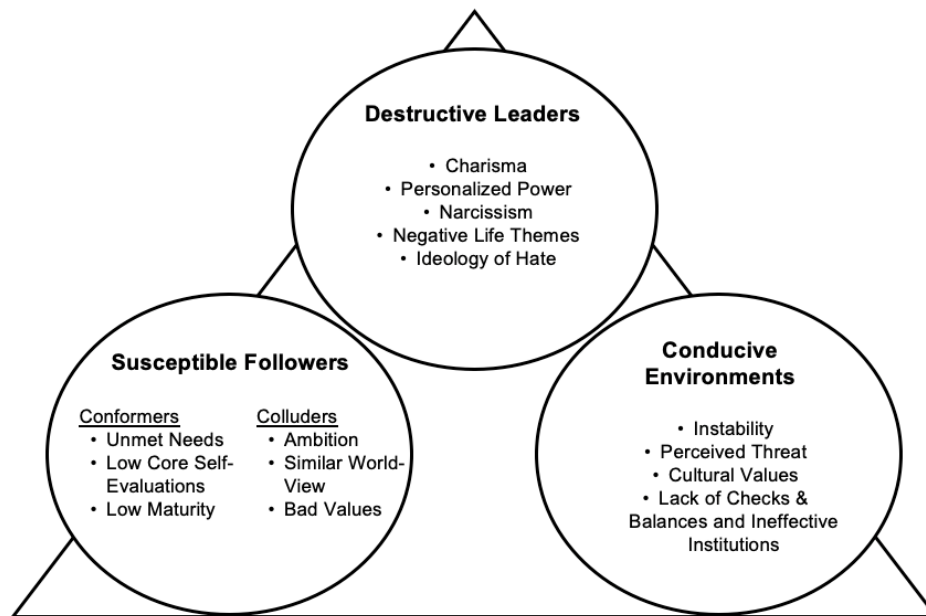
In 1997, Ashforth conducted studies to elaborate on the dispositional factors of petty tyranny, but in this preliminary examination, the hypothesized antecedents in terms of individual predispositions such as beliefs about the self, the organization or subordinates could not be confirmed (Ashforth, 1997). In contrast, when examining individuals in more recent studies, affect, cognition, and personality of leaders as well as followers have been considered antecedents of leadership (Yammarino, 2013). It was shown that those leaders who possess certain dispositional personality traits which lead them to hostility are prone to engage in destructive leadership (Kellerman, 2004; Spain et al., 2014). Specifically, leaders with the tendency to emphasize their self-interest over the interest of, and at the expense of others, are more likely to engage in destructive leadership styles. Within

this framework, the Dark Triad traits are acknowledged as the predominant dispositions reflecting the foregoing preoccupation with self-interest. Machiavellians tend to pursue their own goals despite any negative impact on individuals or the organization, and they compel their followers accomplish desired outcomes by using harmful methods of influence. Leaders high in narcissism are likely to neglect others' needs when determining goals, and psychopaths tend to be self-centered, manipulative and prone to lying, thus, they commonly underlie deviance and counterproductive work behavior (Krasikova et al., 2013).

Regarding personalities, the interest in personality disorders in terms of dysfunctional dispositions already arose in the 1970s. Dysfunctional dispositions are associated with poor social and occupational performance and sometimes even with depression and anxiety (Hogan & Hogan, 2001).

Studies linking dark personality traits to leadership outcomes have also suggested that the individual context, i.e., the environment, is a potential determinant of whether dark personality traits will play a role in positive or negative outcomes (Padilla et al., 2007; Spain et al., 2014). The model of the so-called "toxic triangle" represents the interplay of the three variables of destructive leaders, susceptible followers, and conducive environments. According to the authors, destructive leadership is a function of elements in those three domains as illustrated in Figure 4:

Figure 4. The Toxic Triangle



Note. Adapted from "The toxic triangle: Destructive leaders, susceptible followers, and conducive environments," by A. Padilla, R. Hogan, & R. B. Kaiser, 2007, *The Leadership Quarterly*, 18(3), p. 180 (DOI: 10.1016/j.leaqua.2007.03.001). Copyright by Elsevier. Reprinted with permission.

The first component of the model concerns destructive leaders, and the authors claim that – among other factors – narcissism appears to be correlated with destructive leadership. But destructive leaders might not achieve power in all situations, which raises the factors of followers and the environment. Regarding followers, low core self-evaluations have a strong impact as they are related to life satisfaction, job satisfaction, motivation, and even occupational performance. Additionally, self-esteem, locus of control, and self-efficacy appear to be linked to a vulnerability to destructive leadership (Padilla et al., 2007). Individual needs or unmet needs might also play a role as even bad leaders can satisfy the most basic human needs for safety, simplicity, and certainty. This also applies for groups which go along with bad leaders as they provide cohesion and identity, they hold

them together in times of development and change, and they enable them to distinguish themselves from one another (Kellerman, 2004). Leaders taking power in unstable times are granted more authority and therefore, those situations enable dark leaders to emerge as people look up to leaders who provide hope and stability. It is hard for destructive leaders to succeed in stable situations with strong institutions as attempts to take over the system are more likely to fail (Padilla et al., 2007).

Although abusive supervision has been generally declared as a response to perceptions of mistreatment and managers' downward hostility, little is known about the triggering mechanisms that make supervisors abuse certain followers (Tepper et al., 2011). Apart from personality traits of leaders, situational factors appear to contribute strongly to the occurrence of abusive supervision when a vulnerable target among followers is available. Symptoms evoked by procedural injustices will turn into abusive supervision when characteristics of followers make them a desirable target for their leaders. Procedural injustice and depression have been identified as factors that can make leaders more prone to engage in abusive behavior. In turn, this results in abusive behavior against followers who are perceived to be provocative or vulnerable (Tepper et al., 2006). Apart from provocative and vulnerable followers, those who are perceived as showing lower performance results have shown to become targets for hostility. It is suggested that they are perceived as harmful or threatening by managers and therefore have a lower benefit for the organization (Tepper et al., 2011). Research has identified provocative followers as potential victims because they elicit retaliation due to their own aggressive or dominating behavior, and submissive followers are considered vulnerable targets because they present themselves particularly defenseless (Aquino, 2000).

In line with these findings, along with the concept of the toxic triangle, Schilling (2009) summarized environmental factors of the leader as causal attributions of negative leadership, including followers, the immediate working field, organizational processes, structures, and resources. As research primarily focuses on the characteristics of supervisors, Henle and Gross (2014) shifted from the supervisors' perspective to that of the target's in order to elucidate why certain subordinates are more likely to report abusive leadership than others. Apart from

the above-mentioned environmental factors, emotional stability and conscientiousness of employees emerged as predictors of their self-reports of abusive supervision. Also, they found a U-shaped curvilinear relationship for agreeableness, stating that employees at either higher or lower levels are more likely to experience abusive supervision, but not those at a moderate level. Additionally, subordinates with lower levels of conscientiousness and agreeableness showed a stronger relationship between perceived abusive supervision and their dysfunctional resistance. In this case, resistance refers to either constructive efforts which might open a dialogue with their supervisors or dysfunctional reactions such as passive-aggressive responses. Thus, abusive supervision does not affect all employees equally (Tepper et al., 2001).

Considering preventive methods, monitoring organizational environments and controlling such behaviors via sociocultural means or administrative channels are described as options (Krasikova et al., 2013).

To understand personality of leaders, two perspectives should be considered, i.e., how a person thinks about him- or herself and how others think about him or her, essentially, a person's reputation (Hogan & Hogan, 2001; Hogan & Kaiser, 2005). Very often, age and gender differences are discussed in leadership research. Regarding age differences, highly stable correlations were found between socially aversive traits and higher order loadings on a common factor. Nevertheless, a uniform decline was measurable when age increased. Examinations on this debate revealed that males score higher on the dark traits (Jonason et al., 2012), but females score higher on agreeableness and honesty-humility (Hartung et al., 2022).

2.3. THE DARK TRIAD OF PERSONALITY

This chapter presents the Dark Triad of personality as the central construct of this doctoral thesis. As the Dark Triad is particularly relevant for all the empirical studies, it is illustrated in great detail. Thus, this chapter deals with the conceptualization of the construct, its connection with other personality constructs, an overview of the most relevant empirical findings, along with its impact on

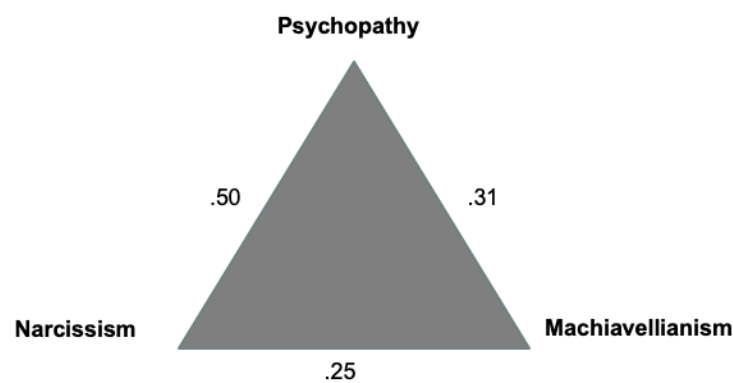
leaders and followers themselves. Furthermore, recent developments of the construct are demonstrated.

2.3.1. Conceptualization of the Dark Triad of Personality

The construct of the Dark Triad of personality was first introduced by Paulhus and Williams in 2002. It includes three distinct personality traits: narcissism, Machiavellianism, and subclinical psychopathy. In a sample of 245 students, they examined the three constructs and concluded that while overlapping, they remain distinct constructs. Regardless of their separate origins, the traits share various common features, displaying a malevolent character with tendencies towards self-promotion, emotional coldness, duplicity, and aggressiveness. As there is empirical evidence for their overlap, the opportunity arises that they might be equivalent, so Paulhus and Williams (2002) demonstrated three methods for teasing apart the triad by mapping them onto the Big Five domains, comparing them to two measures of cognitive ability, and determining whether the substantial self-enhancement of narcissists could be observed in Machiavellian and psychopathic individuals. For their examination, the student sample was given a questionnaire package for self-report measures. It included the Narcissistic Personality Inventory (NPI) for narcissism, the Mach-IV inventory for Machiavellianism, and the Self-Report Psychopathy scale (SRP-III) for subclinical psychopathy as well as the Big Five Inventory, measures for self-perceptions of intelligence and cognitive ability, and self-enhancement bias. Men scored significantly higher than women in all three traits of the Dark Triad, and while significant correlations were found across genders, the maximum correlation of .50 suggested that the three constructs are not entirely equivalent. When considering the Big Five personality traits, the study revealed low agreeableness as the only commonality, while narcissism and psychopathy were also associated with extraversion and openness, and Machiavellianism and psychopathy were negatively associated with conscientiousness. As a conclusion, the authors stated that for non-clinical samples, members of the Dark Triad share a common core of disagreeableness. In combination with disagreeableness, they described psychopaths as most treacherous, but at the same time, they stated that no trait is

universally adaptive or maladaptive. Concluding their first examination, they considered that the three traits of the Dark Triad are distinctive enough to warrant separate measurement (Paulhus & Williams, 2002). Consistent with the initial investigations in 2002 which are illustrated in Figure 5, significant correlations between narcissism and psychopathy, and between Machiavellianism and psychopathy were found in subsequent studies. On the other hand, significant correlations between narcissism and Machiavellianism were not always found, and empirical support for the traits' overlap is not always forthcoming (Vernon et al., 2008). Subsequent meta-analytic studies even indicated that the extent to which the traits overlap might vary. In those studies, narcissism clearly emerged as an independent trait, while the distinctiveness of Machiavellianism and psychopathy was less explicit. Results even suggested a high degree of overlap in the constructs of psychopathy and Machiavellianism, finally leading to the recommendation of developing a new measure of Machiavellianism (Vize et al., 2018). Nevertheless, on a meta-analytical level, Muris et al. (2017) concluded that the three traits should be examined simultaneously due to their substantial intercorrelations across various studies.

Figure 5. Correlations Among Measures of Narcissism, Machiavellianism, and Psychopathy



N = 245. All correlations significant at $p < .001$, two-tailed.

Note. Adapted from "The Dark Triad of personality: Narcissism, Machiavellianism, and psychopathy," by D. L. Paulhus & K. M. Williams, 2002, *Journal of Research in Personality*, 36(6), p. 559 (DOI: 10.1016/S0092-6566(02)00505-6). Copyright by Elsevier. Reprinted with permission.

In line with those findings, Rauthmann (2012) demonstrated different social outcomes of the three traits in situations of acquaintance, and social interaction, once again supporting their distinctiveness. In these experimental settings, narcissists showed no other-derogation, but they did demonstrate self-aggrandizement. Machiavellians showed condescending views of other individuals, but their self-ratings and ratings of others appeared quite similar. Psychopaths were rated negatively by others, but there were no harmful effects to communication and the working atmosphere in the short term (Rauthmann, 2012).

Other examinations confirmed the empirical overlap of the traits, stating highest correlations between psychopathy and Machiavellianism, and lowest between narcissism and Machiavellianism. Thus, the question arises whether these relations are due to item overlap of the measures, common components, or even other factors (Furnham, Richards, et al., 2013). Recent studies of Bertl et al. (2017) challenged these assumptions again as their examinations revealed the best model fit for one common core instead of independent, yet overlapping, traits.

Some of the most prevalent behaviors of Dark Triad leaders include ridiculing and degrading subordinates, blaming others for their own mistakes, lying and deceptiveness, harassment, and even physical aggression (Mathieu et al., 2014). At this point, it becomes obvious once again that there are considerable similarities between the characteristics of destructive leadership and the behavior of leaders with significant scores on the Dark Triad.

The first behavioral genetic investigation of the three traits examined 278 twins and outlined the influence of genetic and non-shared environmental factors. To be more precise, narcissism and psychopathy appeared to have a heritable component, and Machiavellianism showed a stronger influence from the shared environment. Hence, the authors considered Machiavellian behaviors to be rather learned in addition to being transmitted genetically. With the exception of Machiavellianism, the findings on the Dark Triad traits replicated previous results on the importance of genetic and non-shared environmental factors and their contribution to individual differences (Vernon et al., 2008). Overall, researchers concluded that malevolent behavior is influenced by environmental influences, while others stress genetic roots as the origin of this behavior (Muris et al., 2017).

The traits of the Dark Triad were also collectively found to be associated with short-term mating strategies (Carter et al., 2014), which is consistent with the view that they represent an exploitative style that is advantageous to themselves (Jonason et al., 2009). These findings support the so-called “evil genius” hypothesis stating that those individuals outperform others with their intellectual skills (O’Boyle et al., 2013). Contrary to this, the Dark Triad is associated with counterproductive work behavior and the question arises whether those traits are rather associated with intellectual deficits. In a meta-analytic study from O’Boyle et al. (2013), no correlation between general mental abilities, i.e. intelligence, was found, so none of the assumptions of higher or lower intelligence in exploitative characters was supported.

Men scored higher on the dark traits than women (Jonason et al., 2009; Lee & Ashton, 2005) in various studies, although these effects were not always supported. It was suggested that differences between sexes might depend on the samples and their age structure, as many of them included college students who differ from the normal population in age and other measures such as individualism and internal locus of control (Carter et al., 2014). Muris et al. (2017) summarized examinations on sex differences with their findings of small to medium gender effects on the dark traits, with men generally scoring somewhat higher than women. Although the traits have mostly been described as distinct, Jones and Figueredo (2013) addressed why and how dark personalities overlap. Manipulation and callousness emerged as the common antagonistic core because they completely accounted for the relationships among the facet scores of the three traits (Bertl et al., 2017; D. N. Jones & Figueredo, 2013).

Given the length of the standard measures for narcissism, Machiavellianism, and psychopathy mentioned above, the need for a valid and reliable short measure arose. Jones and Paulhus (2014) therefore developed a short measure with only 27 items by conducting four consecutive analyses for item selection and validation, resulting in the so-called Short Dark Triad (SD3) that showed correlations of .68 or higher with its standard counterpart. Nevertheless, the SD3 deals with weaknesses and criticism, as components are not represented by a similar number of items within the scale. For example, erratic lifestyle and antisocial behavior are

represented by three items each, whereas interpersonal manipulation and callous affect are assessed by one and two items (Muris et al., 2017).

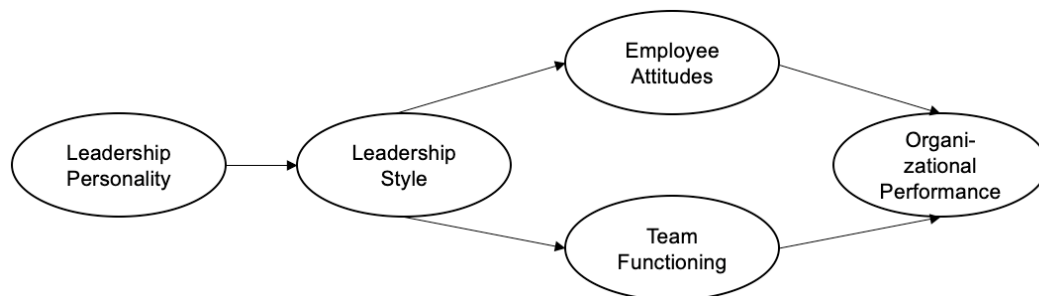
Another short measure is represented by the Dirty Dozen, which consists of 12 items and seeks to prevent participant fatigue by reducing the scale size considerably. With the help of four analyses, the final scale of the Dirty Dozen was designed for and shows consistent evidence of measuring the Dark Triad. The authors stated that such a short measure is always a trade-off between accuracy and efficiency, but when evaluating its consistency, the levels of internal consistency for the subscales were reasonable (Jonason & Webster, 2010). The Dirty Dozen tends to be criticized for being too short with only four items per construct, but despite this, cannot be faulted for the reliabilities of its subscales as they are all respectable (D. N. Jones & Paulhus, 2014). When comparing the psychopathy subscale of the Dirty Dozen with established measures, significant correlations were found, albeit smaller, which clearly demonstrates the aforementioned compromise regarding efficiency (Jonason & Webster, 2010; Miller et al., 2012).

Lee et al. (2013) published a study on the predicted outcome of money, sex, and power in association with the Dark Triad and used both scales, the Short Dark Triad and the Dirty Dozen in comparison. Analyzing the samples, the Dirty Dozen appeared to lack much of the specificity that distinguishes each of the Dark Triad constructs from the other two. Hypothesized relations could be supported when traits were measured by the SD3, but the pattern of results was not observed when measured by the Dirty Dozen. The authors therefore concluded that the SD3 is the recommended measure when one is interested in measuring each of the Dark Triad traits variables separately, but when a composite measure is investigated, both measures represent reasonable choices.

According to literature, a “dark” trait would be judged as socially undesirable, beneficial for oneself and detrimental for others. In contrast, a “bright” trait is socially desirable, beneficial for others and does not entail negative consequences for others. Rauthmann and Kolar (2012) determined that narcissism would be perceived more favorably than Machiavellianism and psychopathy and is therefore distinguished in people’s perceptions from the other two traits, leaving them as the “Malicious Two”. On a meta-analytical level, it was confirmed that narcissism appears as a more unique trait than Machiavellianism and psychopathy,

while the latter is regarded as the dominant malevolent trait when controlling for shared variances among the traits (Muris et al., 2017). They justified their findings by the fact that some narcissistic attributes may alter people's perceptions as narcissists appear charming, attractive, and relatively high in conscientiousness and achievement motivation. However, the Dark Triad traits were only analyzed in their perceived darkness, not in their actual darkness (Rauthmann & Kolar, 2012).

Putting various studies together, personality acts as a predictor of leadership style, while leadership style predicts employee attitudes and team functioning, which then leads to organizational performance (R. Hogan & Kaiser, 2005), as illustrated in Figure 6:



Note. Adapted from "What we know about leadership," by R. Hogan & R. B. Kaiser, 2005, Review of General Psychology, 9(2), p. 175 (DOI: 10.1037/1089-2680.9.2.169). Copyright by SAGE Publications. Reprinted with permission.

The Dark Triad of personality is often linked to destructive leadership and its negative impact on employees' job satisfaction and well-being. Particularly psychopathy is often considered the most toxic trait of the construct (K. M. Williams et al., 2010).

But why are people with high scores on dark traits often found in management positions? Hogan and Kaiser (2005) concluded that the bright side of people appears in job interview situations, whereas the dark side only reveals itself when the person actually starts the job. Dark personality traits typically co-exist with well-developed social skills which then compensate for them, at least in the short run. Individuals scoring high on the dark traits appear flattering, and only further interaction over the long run elucidates their self-beneficial and exploitive behaviors. Therefore, those dark side characteristics are hard to detect (R. Hogan & Kaiser, 2005; Rauthmann, 2012).

Although high scores on dark traits are mostly associated with negative consequences, low scores are not desirable either. Kaplan and Kaiser suggest there is an optimal level for most managerial behavior (2003).

In research, different outcomes of the Dark Triad of personality have been frequently discussed, they are organized around the human concerns of occupational, educational, mating, interpersonal, and antisocial behavior (Furnham, Richards, et al., 2013). Apart from all the outcomes associated with antisocial behavior, it was elucidated that all three of the Dark Triad traits are likely to use humor as an interpersonal strategy, while narcissists prefer affiliative humor, Machiavellians and psychopaths tend to use aggressive humor styles (Furnham, Richards, et al., 2013).

2.3.1.1. *Narcissism*

Overall, narcissism displays three fundamental characteristics: firstly, a positive and inflated self-concept; secondly, a lack of interest in close or intimate relationships; and thirdly, self-enhancement, both intraphysically and interpersonally (Campbell et al., 2006). Individuals with high scores in narcissism are characterized by a sense of grandiosity, ego-reinforcement along with a high desire of admiration from others (Volmer et al., 2016). They consider themselves

unique and superior to others, and maintain their grandiose self-concept both internally and externally, as they fantasize about power or defending themselves against criticism. As a result, their self-views and behavioral styles lead to various consequences for interpersonal behavior and relationships (Campbell et al., 2011). Regarding their interplay with others, examinations showed that narcissists appear popular even at zero acquaintance because of their appearance, facial expressions, verbal expressions, and self-assured body movements. Likewise, these factors are also the major reasons for their interpersonal issues, as the short-term positive from others might boost their ego and make them adhere to their usually maladaptive behavior as there is no urge to self-criticize. Because of their permanent selfishness, they fail to build interpersonal relationships which makes them vulnerable and requires even more admiration from others and so on (Back et al., 2010). In the long-run, individuals with high scores in self-enhancement, as incorporated in narcissism, only give positive impressions in the beginning and rather negative impressions over time (Robins & Beer, 2001; Robins & Paulhus, 2001). As demonstrated by Paulhus (1998), the typical primacy effect was eliminated when the effects of self-enhancers were measured and compared their initial positive impressions. These findings suggested that narcissists initially demonstrate positive qualities, but in the long run, their positive reputation decreases (Rauthmann, 2012).

Narcissists enjoy status and dominance and prefer to be surrounded by successful or popular people. Even in romantic relationships, they seek status and self-esteem instead of intimacy (Campbell et al., 2011). Apart from being a clinical disorder, narcissism has been described as a personality dimension in which individuals can be reliably arrayed (Chatterjee & Hambrick, 2007).

Narcissism has shown a rising frequency when describing the destructive behaviors of top managers and politicians, but there is still confusion about the construct of narcissism. It is commonly referred to as an individual difference marked by grandiosity, self-love, and inflated self-views (Campbell et al., 2011). In the organizational context, narcissists tend to be wholeheartedly interested in their own tasks and contributions, while overlooking those of others. Their feeling of specialness persists even when evidence emerges that this is mistaken. They are convinced that they can operate independently, do not need support, and deserve

all the credit for their success (Stein, 2013). The construct of narcissism appears in both the social-personality literature and the clinical psychology and psychiatric literature. The social-personality literature conceptualizes it as a trait, while the clinical and psychiatric literature describes it as a personality disorder with a list of specific symptoms. Part of the confusion stems from the existence of different forms of narcissism. Existing literature concentrates on two primary forms: grandiose and vulnerable narcissism. The grandiose form is characterized by overconfidence, extraversion, high self-esteem, dominance, attention-seeking, interpersonal skills, unwillingness to take criticism, aggression, lack of empathy and interpersonal haughtiness. The vulnerable narcissist is likely to be hostile, believes the world is unfair, is high in psychological entitlement, has low self-esteem and tends to be depressed and anxious. When considering the classic narcissist in the workplace, the grandiose narcissist is of particular concern in the organizational context (Campbell et al., 2011). One of the running issues regarding narcissism and leadership is the question of whether narcissism should be considered good or bad for organizations. One approach is the so-called bright and dark side model, which states that narcissism is linked to outcomes for the self and the social environment that can be both positive and negative. Generally, narcissism predicts outcomes that are beneficial for the narcissist, but detrimental for those around the narcissist. The contextual reinforcement model formalizes the pattern in greater detail. In this model, narcissism appears beneficial in new leadership positions and chaotic situations, but harmful in long-held positions and in stable situations. When looking at the interplay between transformational or charismatic leadership and narcissism, research has yielded mixed results, although there is a proposed linkage between narcissism and charisma. In sum, narcissism appears to be negatively related to follower-centered aspects of transformational leadership, yet it is positively related to certain dimensions of both transformational and charismatic leadership. Regarding their own task performance, narcissists tend to perform best when there is a chance of glory for themselves (Campbell et al., 2011).

Self-enhancement is one of the characterizations that is often linked to narcissism as self-enhancers and narcissists both hold unrealistic positive beliefs about their own achievements and skills. The underlying explanations for self-enhancement include cognitive reasons which focus on information, beliefs and expectations, and motivational or affective explanations. These in turn focus on

enhancing self-esteem, reducing negative effects and the need for social approval. As a personality construct, self-enhancement is therefore reminiscent of the construct of narcissism (Robins & Paulhus, 2001). Recently, narcissism has been studied as a normal personality dimension and not only as a clinical syndrome. Although it is not considered pathological, the grandiosity, entitlement and willingness to manipulate others do have a detrimental potential, so organizations cannot afford to overlook them. In the organizational context, narcissists are increasingly evaluated as a mixed blessing (Robins & Paulhus, 2001). Narcissists make a strong initial impression and are often nominated as leaders, but receive negative ratings by their peers in the long run (Paulhus, 1998).

The standard measure of subclinical narcissism in the Dark Triad literature is the original 40-item NPI by Raskin and Hall (1979), who claimed it was not necessarily a measure of a personality disorder, but rather it should be considered a measure of the degree to which people exhibit traits that have been labeled narcissistic. Overall, narcissism is considered a multifaceted and complex construct and the characteristics appear to be difficult to measure both through either self-report or through observer ratings (Wink, 1991). Nowadays, shorter measures have been developed, one of them being the NPI-16 with only 16 items. Despite the small number of items, it represents the different aspects of narcissism reflected in the original NPI-40 and these items are evenly distributed across components. The NPI-16 appears to be a valid instrument to capture this construct in situations where time pressure and respondent fatigue may be major concerns (Ames et al., 2006).

Research on personnel selection and narcissism showed that narcissists often pursue leadership positions (Braun, 2017) and tend to be positively evaluated in interview situations. Therefore, it appears that human resource management needs to be trained on detecting narcissistic behavior (Campbell et al., 2011). As Grijalva et al. (2015) summarized, many characteristics of narcissists are “leaderlike”, such as being extraverted, socially dominant, or having high self-esteem (p. 4). Overall, the connection between narcissism and leadership is well established. A significant number of leaders have grandiose beliefs of themselves and therefore show clear signs of narcissism (Rosenthal & Pittinsky, 2006). A central principle in current literature is that narcissistic leaders can be either helpful or unhelpful to their

organizations. It is also possible for both malevolent and beneficial traits to inhere in one person and emerge as a reaction to different circumstances. Changes in the environment can lead to changes in the narcissistic leader and a potential downturn may trigger the deceleration from a constructive to a harmful leader (Stein, 2013).

The behavior exhibited by leaders is often mirrored by narcissist individuals and vice versa; narcissism is often the driving force to apply for leadership positions (Kets de Vries & Miller, 1985).

For example, Paulhus et al. (2003) investigated the connection between overestimation and actual abilities by asking subjects to indicate how familiar they were with various terms. However, a proportion of the terms given were foils. The result clearly showed that the subjects who exhibited a high level of narcissism overestimated their abilities significantly more often than did non-narcissists. To date, the NPI, a 40-item scale, has received the most empirical attention and has been validated by various studies. Studies on construct validation have provided evidence for the general construct, as well as the first-order components, which include authority, exhibitionism, superiority, vanity, exploitativeness, entitlement and self-sufficiency. When testing for gender differences, no significant variations among the correlations were reported (Raskin & Terry, 1988). According to individual differences in narcissism, a major study revealed that narcissism declines in older participants, and compared to the findings of Raskin and Terry (1988), males scored significantly higher than females. Additionally, the study examined ethnic differences showing that participants from more individualistic societies scored higher on narcissism than those from collectivistic societies. While narcissism is frequently associated with its negative aspects such as being less agreeable, being less motivated by intrinsic and more by extrinsic rewards, tending to brag about accomplishments and displaying arrogant attitudes, literature also refers to positive aspects of narcissism. Consequently, narcissistic people tend to be highly extraverted, less depressed and less socially anxious (Foster et al., 2003). Narcissists see themselves as good leaders (Furtner et al., 2011) and enjoy being surrounded by popular or successful people (Campbell et al., 2002).

Impulsivity has often been linked to narcissism in various studies and it accounts in part for their behavior that is characterized by self-enhancement, aggression, and short-sightedness. Nevertheless, there is not only a strong positive

relationship, narcissists' dispositional impulsivity also operates as an influence on and as an explanation for their behavior (Vazire & Funder, 2006).

Ultimately, the question arises as to whether there is an optimal level of narcissism for leaders, as there is extensive existing research focusing on the role of narcissism in leadership. Despite this, no consensus has been found regarding its impact. This question was therefore addressed in a meta-analysis by Grijalva et al. (2015) as they summarized that there are inconsistencies in the literature on the relationship between narcissism and leadership. The results of their study revealed that the overlap of narcissism and extraversion accounts for the fact that narcissists are more likely to emerge as leaders. Nevertheless, this does not necessarily mean that they are more or less likely to be effective leaders as this relationship was moderated by the source of the leadership report. To be precise, those relationships were stronger for self-reports than for observer reports of leadership effectiveness. Results also demonstrated a nonmonotonic relationship between narcissism and leadership effectiveness, i.e. moderate levels of narcissism contributed to leadership effectiveness, but at a maximum point it became detrimental to leadership effectiveness. Overall, they concluded that the general effect of narcissism depends on whether emergence of effectiveness is examined. Due to the overlap of narcissism and extraversion, individuals with higher scores on extraversion are more likely to emerge as leaders. Furthermore, narcissism did not show linear associations with leadership effectiveness apart from one exception: the relationship became significant when ratings were based on self-reports. Conversely, authors found a curvilinear relationship between narcissism and leadership effectiveness (Grijalva et al., 2015).

Narcissism has a somewhat paradoxal state when leadership skills are discussed, but due to the consistency between characteristics of emergent leaders and narcissistic individuals, it can be both assumed and empirically supported that they are more likely to emerge as leaders (Brunell et al., 2008). Empirically, they have not only been examined as leaders for others, but also as leaders for themselves. The concept of self-leadership focuses on the aspect of self-influence and combines behavior-focused strategies of self-management and self-control, while also incorporating aspects of intrinsic motivation and constructive thinking. Narcissism was found to be positively related to self-leadership, while

Machiavellianism and psychopathy were not. Narcissists and self-leaders are similar in some dimensions, as both set goals driven by a need for achievement, or use self-regulation strategies for pursuing goals (Furtner et al., 2011).

2.3.1.2. *Machiavellianism*

Machiavellians are characterized by being highly exploitative and emotionally cold in their social interactions; they strategically manipulate others for their personal gain and very often at the expense of other's self-interest (Volmer et al., 2016; Wilson et al., 1996). At the same time, Machiavellianism has also demonstrated associations with high levels of depression, anxiety, alexithymia, and anhedonia. However, when it comes to emotional deficits, the results highly depend on the disorders studied (Al Ain et al., 2013).

The construct of Machiavellianism was named after Niccolo Machiavelli, a chief political advisor in the early 16th century. Four centuries later, Richard Christie summarized that Machiavelli's strategies showed parallels with the everyday social behavior of many individuals (D. N. Jones & Paulhus, 2009). The motivation of Machiavellians is often described as selfish or instrumental as they have intrinsic motives which they pursue in duplicitous ways (D. N. Jones & Paulhus, 2009). Research on Machiavellianism often distinguishes between high and low Machs, referring to high and low scorers on the test, and they differ in many aspects of their behavior, ranging from job choices to situations that include forming alliances (Wilson et al., 1996). In examinations on a sample of males, systematic differences in their appearances and behaviors were elucidated. Precisely, high Machs were described as rather clever, ambitious, bold, persuasive, confident, relaxed, dominating, and talented. In contrast, individuals with low scores on Machiavellianism were more likely to be described as unintelligent, indecisive, cowardly, gullible, insecure, and emotional. The impressions were so unambiguous that naive observers could differentiate the individuals based on their appearance and expressive behavior (Cherulnik et al., 1981).

Regarding motivation, literature states that high Machs report a control-oriented motivational orientation. In fact, they strive for financial success, and

demonstrate a high degree of antisocial behavior and alienation. In contrast, they focus less on self-love related goals or community and family (McHoskey, 1999).

In their laboratory examinations, Christie and Geis (1970) showed that high Machs are more willing to manipulate and even enjoy it. According to their definition, successful manipulation as executed by those individuals is a process in which they get more reward than they would have without manipulation. Because of their successful manipulation strategies, researchers have deduced that Machiavellianism might be associated with superior intelligence, emotional intelligence or mind reading. However, those assumptions could not be supported, and Machiavellianism does not consistently lead to success. Instead, it is even argued that their abilities derive from superior impulse regulation as opposed to cognitive abilities (D. N. Jones & Paulhus, 2009; Wilson et al., 1996).

According to Christie and Geis (1970), both high and low Machiavellians show the tendency to perform in a reckless manner with a low degree of enthusiasm when situations are highly structured. When controlling for gender, higher scores are more often found in men than in women.

The standard measure for Machiavellianism initially was the so-called Mach-IV by Christie and Geis (1970), although this was criticized due to a too high correlation with social desirability, so the Mach-V was developed (Fehr et al., 1992).

Machiavellianism is characterized by mistrust in human nature, lack of conventional morality, opportunism, and lack of affect in interpersonal relationships. People high in Machiavellianism are considered successful manipulators and show a task-oriented approach. Together with their tendency to attain control in group situations, they appear as effective leaders in task-oriented groups, although they were also found to be less concerned with their group members' feelings (Drory & Gluskinos, 1980). Across various examinations, men consistently score higher on Machiavellianism than women, but lower on empathy. Overall, Machiavellianism is negatively related to several facets of empathy: cognitive empathy, affective empathy, and cognitive empathic skills (Blötner et al., 2021).

Contrary to predictions, individuals with medium scores on Machiavellianism were preferred as leaders compared to those at either extreme, and the level of Machiavellianism did indeed make a difference in group members'

choices (Gleason et al., 1978). Nevertheless, Machiavellian leaders are attributed a high level of interest in directing the activities of groups. They gain a high level of satisfaction from their status as leaders (Deluga, 2001). To summarize, Machiavellianism neither predicts the emergence of group leadership nor the effectiveness of a leader, and Machiavellianism and occupational success were shown to be unrelated (Fehr et al., 1992).

In short-term social interactions, individuals with high scores in Machiavellianism often appear charming and attractive to others, but studies on these individuals showed that they use exploitative strategies (Wilson et al., 1998).

In line with the findings on narcissism, individuals with high scores on Machiavellianism seem to be successful only in the short-term as the advantages of their exploitative behavior are usually temporary, lasting only until the exploited individuals leave. Thus, high Machs are expected to have shorter relationships than low Machs (D. N. Jones & Paulhus, 2009; Wilson et al., 1996), and the question arises whether they should be considered “wolves in sheep’s clothing” or talented social actors (Wilson et al., 1998, p. 205).

In the occupational context, Machiavellians thrive when they gain decision power and are exposed to fewer rules and supervision. High Machs have shown to perform worse than low Machs when they have to deal with highly structured organizations, and Machiavellianism is a predictor of perceptions of organizational politics which is negatively correlated with job autonomy (D. N. Jones & Paulhus, 2009; O’Connor & Morrison, 2001). These findings underline the results of Christie and Geis (1970), who illustrated that Machs struggle when their own flexibility is constrained and their opportunities to exploit interpersonal relationships and improvise are limited.

While in industrial sales jobs, individuals with high scores in Machiavellianism are more productive and obtain higher sales volumes, but they receive lower managerial ratings from their supervisors than those who sell less. Machiavellianism has subsequently been considered a paradox as managers should appreciate such work outcomes (Ricks & Fraedrich, 1999). In a meta-analysis of unethical behavior in the workplace, Machiavellians were identified as one of the groups more likely to make unethical decisions. The reason given for this was that Machiavellians manipulate others to achieve their own goals and see no

association between their actions and possible consequences (Kish-Gephart et al., 2010). Wisse and Sleebos (2016) found that abusive supervision had a positive relationship with the perceived power of the leader and was reinforced if this perception was high. This effect was only demonstrated for Machiavellianism, and not for narcissism and psychopathy.

Machiavellians tend to use negative impression management tactics including supplication and intimidation. In sum, empirical research has documented their misbehavior in nonaggressive varieties such as lying, betrayal or cheating. In contrast, there is no support for overt aggression in Machiavellian individuals (D. N. Jones & Paulhus, 2009).

As demonstrated by Paulhus and Williams (2002) in their initial studies on the Dark Triad of personality, Machiavellianism is related to low conscientiousness and low agreeableness. Further research indicated that it is highly associated (and higher than with any of the big five) with a sixth factor of personality, namely honesty-humility (Lee & Ashton, 2005).

Machiavellians were once considered master social strategists. In recent examinations, an overall complicated relation between Machiavellianism and social-cognitive skills was elucidated as it entails features that blend deficiency, proficiency, and only average levels of social-cognitive skills. Thus, those individuals are actually deficient in these skills (Hart et al., 2021).

In contrast to deficits in social skills, Machiavellians also demonstrate a positive side, particularly regarding task-orientation in the organizational context. Task orientation has been described as the core of Machiavellian leaders as they aim to take control of situations and get work done. Machiavellianism was indeed found to be positively associated with task-oriented leadership, and this relationship was moderated by job autonomy, when job autonomy was high or average. Those results illustrated that, despite their mostly negative connotations, Machiavellians are able to focus on tasks, suggesting that this behavior might be one form of impression management. Achieving targets can be part of their plan to move ahead in the organization as they seek power and status (Rehman & Shahnawaz, 2021). Apart from their impression management and their selfish and goal-driven actions, Machiavellians are also considered adaptable and succeed in creating a positive image if they find it personally beneficial. If necessary, they even

act out ethical leader behaviors and profit from the motivational effects on their followers, and they maintain this identity as an ethical leader even if it is not congruent with their private beliefs and identities (Den Hartog & Belschak, 2012).

Much of the research on Machiavellianism in the organizational context has focused on the perspective of Machiavellian leaders. Recently, studies have also examined how followers' Machiavellian traits interact with leaders' humility, specifically how this humility can trigger a sense of power among followers. It was suggested that individuals who perceive themselves as powerful, tend to become reward-driven and are more likely to pursue personal goals, regardless of potential conflicts. This ultimately leads to a more self-interested behavior. Based on these assumptions, it was suggested that followers' underlying traits for these mechanisms are worth investigation, and Machiavellianism in particular, appeared relevant as such individuals make decisions that are guided primarily by self-interest. Machiavellianism emerged as a moderator of the relationship between the sense of power and the self-interested behavior of followers, so the relation was stronger when their level of Machiavellianism was rather high compared to when it was low (Chen et al., 2022).

Generally, individuals who display the Dark Triad traits are often found in sales professions. Interestingly, when analyzing long-term effects of Machiavellianism on sales performance, an initial drag on performance was measurable, but it eventually showed above-average growth. These findings were in line with the expectations that Machiavellians are more strategic and aim to achieve their goals in the long run without overtly manipulating. Thus, Machiavellianism can be considered a relevant performance driver in certain occupational niches. Conversely, contrary to expectations, narcissism did not influence performance growth, while psychopathy resulted in rapid initial gains in performance which subsequently leveled off below the average (Satornino et al., 2023).

2.3.1.3. *Psychopathy*

In the early nineteenth century, scientists started taking note of a type of person that appeared quite intelligent, well-adjusted and sociable on the one side, but also committed actions of unprovoked violence and deception on the other. Those individuals were given the term “psychopaths”, which was composed of the Greek term for suffering souls. It turned out that this name was a mistake as psychopaths are not suffering at all, but they are inflictors of suffering on other individuals. By some researchers, psychopaths are even considered as human beings with a genetic defect as they lack the drive to bond and are incapable of empathy (Lawrence, 2010).

Psychopaths are described as individuals with impaired affect regulation, lack of self-control, degraded affect regulation, and strong impulsivity (Volmer et al., 2016). The concept originally derives from psychiatry where it was used to characterize individuals with enduring antisocial behavior, diminished empathy and remorse, as well as bold behavior that was sometimes covered by superficial charm (Muris et al., 2017).

In the initial examinations, Cleckley (1941) listed the following features as a clinical profile in his elaborations: superficial charm and good intelligence, absence of delusions and irrational thinking, absence of psychoneurotic manifestations or nervousness, unreliability, untruthfulness and insincerity, lack of shame or remorse, inadequately motivated antisocial behavior, poor judgement and failure to learn by experience, pathologic egocentricity and incapacity for love, general poverty in major affective reactions, specific loss of insight, unresponsiveness in general interpersonal relations, fantastic behavior with alcohol and sometimes without, suicide rarely carried out, sex life impersonal, trivial and poorly integrated, and finally, failure to follow any life plan.

Psychopathy is considered a rare trait, affecting less than 1% of the household population, although it is indeed detectable among prisoners and individuals in psychiatric admissions and homeless persons. Overall, studies on a representative sample from the general population are rare as the majority of the general population shows very few psychopathic traits (Coid et al., 2009).

Scales used to assess psychopathy can be divided into three categories: clinical ratings, self-report scales, and informant scales (Blais et al., 2014). The most

commonly-used measure of psychopathy is the SRP-III, which consists of a four-factor structure and has undergone several revisions. Originally, it was modeled after the Psychopathy Check List by Hare (1991), which is considered the standard measure of forensic psychopathy, and was later revised as the PCL-R (Hare, 2003). Generally, the PCL-R is considered a clinical construct rating scale including interpersonal, affective, lifestyle and antisocial factors, and is widely used for clinical purposes (Hare & Neumann, 2008). Another measure in Dark Triad research is the Psychopathic Personality Inventory (PPI) by Lilienfeld and Andrews (1996), which includes eight subscales: Machiavellian egocentricity, social potency, coldheartedness, carefree nonplanfulness, fearlessness, blame externalization, impulsive nonconformity, and stress immunity. Lilienfeld and Andrews asserted that those subscales were most relevant to the typical features of psychopathy. Overall, when developing the PPI, the total score demonstrated convergent validity and provided promising support for the notion that psychopathy is a meaningful construct to assess (Lilienfeld & Andrews, 1996). Researchers argued that individuals with dark personality traits may appear more skilled and more willing to engage in faking in job interview situations and therefore positively influence employability. For example, highly narcissistic people are more prone to behaviors such as talkativeness and self-promotion while Machiavellians are more willing to be dishonest during interviews (Spain et al., 2014).

Their low level of empathy is also reflected in their limited ability to make use of the affective components of language and to recognize emotions. In experimental designs, individuals with high scores on psychopathy demonstrated less behavioral differentiation between affective and neutral words compared to nonpsychopaths, and the nonpsychopaths were able to respond significantly faster to emotional as opposed to neutral words. It was therefore hypothesized that psychopaths have only a limited ability to extract emotional information from formulations (Williamson et al., 1991).

Typical outcomes of psychopathy can be subsumed under general and violent recidivism, institutional misconduct, and delinquency. In meta-analytic investigations, there was no evidence that psychopathy was more related to either instrumental violence (such as controlled aggression) or reactive violence as an emotional response (Blais et al., 2014).

In their study on corporate psychopathy, Mathieu et al. (2014) suggested that it may play a particularly important role in explaining the dynamics of destructive and dysfunctional leadership styles. In a study on scholastic cheating, it was pointed out that psychopaths are more likely to cheat than are nonpsychopaths. In contrast, Machiavellians showed some associations with cheating, but weaker than those with psychopathy, while narcissism turned out to be the least effective predictor of cheating. Overall, psychopathy appears to be consistently associated with a wide range of misconduct in nonoffenders (K. M. Williams et al., 2010).

Among all forms of psychopathology, psychopathy has the closest similarity to Machiavellianism, as both portray characters low in emotionality and prone to malevolent behavior (Fehr et al., 1992). Psychopaths share certain traits with Machiavellian individuals, specifically interpersonal manipulation, and callousness, however, they also appear to be irresponsible, reckless, and grandiose (Book et al., 2015).

Research often distinguishes two forms of psychopathy, namely primary psychopathy which is considered emotionally stable, and secondary psychopathy which is considered to be reactive. The primary form is characterized by glibness, egocentricity, manipulativeness, a general lack of empathy and guilt, and callousness. The secondary form is characterized by impulsive behavior, a parasitic lifestyle, anti-social felonious tendencies, and a need for stimulation (Barelds et al., 2018).

As well as the other traits, psychopathy has not solely been linked to obviously malevolent factors. According to Babiak et al. (2010), it was positively associated with perceptions of well-developed communication skills, strategic thinking, and creative abilities, but also with poor management, lack of social abilities, and poor performance appraisals. Thus, some psychopathic features may lead to the ability to make persuasive argument and ruthless decisions, while others are related to poor performance and decision-making.

Although initial research on psychopathy focused on clinical and penal settings, there has been a growing interest in successful industrial psychopaths who display psychopathic characteristics, without the increasing antisocial behavior and deviant lifestyle (Babiak, 1995). In an occupational setting, examinations were conducted to analyze the relationship between employees'

perceptions of psychopathic features in their leaders and how they would rate them with regard to the Full Range of Leadership model. Results revealed positive correlations with laissez-faire leadership, but negative associations with transactional and transformational leadership (Mathieu et al., 2015).

Summing up the aforesaid, one might think that individuals with such behaviors would not be hired for important jobs, or that their behavior would lead to disciplinary action and termination. But, according to research, this often is not the case. According to Babiak and Hare (2007)), there are four possible reasons for this. First, psychopathic traits can appear attractive in job interviews as they can display a charisma and disarm even the wariest of individuals. As a result, they succeed in getting hired. Second, some organizations may innocently recruit psychopathic individuals as they mistakenly attribute leadership attributes to psychopathic behavior. Failing to analyze such stereotypical leadership skills might sometimes lead to regrettable decisions. Third, the changing nature of organizations represents a contributing factor to the increasing number of psychopathic individuals being hired. During the 1900s, being successful in a competitive environment required speed and innovation, as opposed to keeping track of what was already old news, consequently, hiring individuals who get things done quickly was appealing. This inadvertently led to the selection of individuals with psychopathic traits. Fourth and finally, psychopathic individuals were attracted by those new, more flexible organizational structures as they seek businesses that offer such fast-paced, high-profit and high-risk working environments (Babiak & Hare, 2007).

The corporate success of psychopathic manipulation can be promoted by a culture of secrecy in organizations. In such environments, it is easier for pretenders such as psychopaths to hide and harder for management to detect them and rate their actual performance or observe their abuse on coworkers. When transitioning organizations increase their level of secrecy, they nourish the pretenders who have entered their ranks (Babiak & Hare, 2007).

In literature, the type of psychopaths who successfully gain entry to organizations and are then promoted are called corporate psychopaths, and most likely, they can be found in senior management positions in organizations. It is important to study them because of the large amount of financial, environmental,

and human resources that many modern companies have at their disposal. In terms of such successful psychopaths, researchers even suggest that non-criminal psychopaths may have the same neuropsychological dysfunctions as criminal psychopaths do. Their personal charm enables them to come across positively at job interviews and their charm leads senior managers to place trust in them. Corporate psychopaths aim for leadership positions due to their desire to access prestige, power, control of others and financial rewards associated with certain senior positions (Boddy et al., 2010).

In a rare organizational study, the corporate sample demonstrated higher scores than did the community sample, supporting the argument that some psychopaths manage to climb the corporate ladder (Babiak et al., 2010). Their antisocial behaviors are rarely evident as they are covered by a convincing veneer of charm. It requires prolonged exposure so that any manipulative nature becomes apparent. But even then, they manage to create an environment of trust due to their theatrical and convincing stories (Babiak, 1995). In two cross-sectional studies, leaders' psychopathy was even identified as a predictor of psychological distress (Mathieu et al., 2014).

A study from 2010 investigated whether people with Machiavellian and psychopathic traits exhibit deficits in their ability to recognize and interpret the emotions of others. For this purpose, several tests were carried out to measure empathic abilities, Machiavellianism, and subclinical psychopathy. The test subjects were shown recordings of facial expressions and voices, which they were then asked to describe using one word. As previously hypothesized, the results confirmed that psychopaths and Machiavellians in particular have a lack of empathic abilities. This deficiency is considered to be one of the factors why these personality traits are often associated with callousness and affective disorders which in turn affect their abilities and success as leaders (Ali & Chamorro-Premuzic, 2010).

Considering the impact of corporate psychopaths, the question arises as to how they manage to enter organizations. However, as summarized by Babiak (1995), the likelihood of a psychopathic individual entering an organization is increased when considering that those who are responsible for selection processes are not particularly trained to identify such individuals. As previously mentioned,

their exceptional charm and appearance of intelligence make them appear the ideal candidates. Still, there is limited knowledge on those corporate psychopaths and their implications for organizations due to the lack of cooperation of organizations and their resources for research (Babiak et al., 2010). Although psychometric measures for psychopathy exist, they mostly involve forensic populations and do not cover the requirements to measure psychopathy for organizational settings. For this purpose, and because there has been an increasing interest in the nature and implications of psychopathic behaviors in the workplace, the B-Scan 360 was developed. It represents an instrument to measure psychopathy in the workplace by using peer ratings. In the workplace, psychopathic traits often manifest through self-serving behaviors that harm the organization and its members, or through actions such as deception, manipulation, corruption, and bullying (Mathieu et al., 2013).

Although psychopathy is considered the most destructive of the Dark Triad traits, research on organizational settings often focuses on narcissism and Machiavellianism unless the Dark Triad is examined as a whole (Mathieu et al., 2015; Paulhus, 1998). Nevertheless, research has shown that high levels of psychopathy do not necessarily lead to progress and advancement in the corporate world as it is rather associated with style than with substance (Babiak et al., 2010).

2.3.2. Connection With Other Personality Constructs

Although the relationship between personality and leadership are broadly agreed upon, most of the research has tried to link leadership outcomes with the traits included in the Big Five (Goldberg, 1990): openness, conscientiousness, extraversion, agreeableness, and neuroticism, or the Five Factor Model (Costa & McCrae, 1992). The constructs of the Big Five and the Five Factor Model are often used interchangeably because they refer to the same set of dimensions and the same framework for describing personality traits. At this point, it is necessary to highlight that subclinical traits, such as the Dark Triad traits, are neither considered normal personality traits, nor clinical traits used to diagnose psychological illnesses (Harms et al., 2011).

The core of the Dark Triad has been a controversial topic of discussion and over the past decades, the Dark Triad of personality has been examined in combination with other personality constructs, such as the Big Five (Goldberg, 1990), the HEXACO model (Lee & Ashton, 2004) or the Supernumerary Personality Inventory (SPI (Veselka et al., 2011)).

With reference to the Big Five, Paulhus and Williams (2002) already examined their relation with the Dark Triad in their initial study. It was demonstrated that among the Big Five of personality, only agreeableness consistently correlated with all the three traits. Generally, whenever the Dark Triad is mentioned in combination with the Big Five, results report its negative association with agreeableness (Furnham et al., 2014; Jakobwitz & Egan, 2006; Jonason & Webster, 2010; Vize et al., 2018). Nevertheless, low agreeableness and dark traits are still to be considered as related, but functionally distinct constructs and should not be equated (Moshagen et al., 2020; Scholz et al., 2022). In contrast to destructive or dark traits among leaders, when considering leadership effectiveness, conscientiousness as part of the Big Five appeared as the most consistent predictor in meta-analytical investigations (Derue et al., 2011; Judge et al., 2002).

In the past, there was no consensus on the general structure of personality; several studies on the structure of personality have been published and the five-factor structure has emerged as one common denominator (Ashton et al., 2004). Although many attempts have been made to capture people's personality, the Five Factor Model, including neuroticism, conscientiousness, extraversion, agreeableness, and openness to experience, has emerged as the one most widely accepted, and also most studied framework within personality psychology (Wang et al., 2015).

In lexical studies, it was indicated that the structure of the Big Five should be revised and a sixth factor should be added (Ashton et al., 2004). Apart from the Big Five, another model of personality structure was proposed which represents variants of the Big Five factors and an additional dimension named honesty-humility, which is strongly and negatively related to the Dark Triad traits. This honesty-humility factor has no clear counterpart among the Big Five factors and therefore represents the most striking novelty of the model (Lee & Ashton, 2005),

and it represents the predictive advantages of the model compared to five-factor models (Lee & Ashton, 2004). This sixth factor emerged from lexical studies of personality structure and some researchers consider it the most comprehensive framework for understanding personality characteristics (Ashton & Lee, 2001). Thus, while the six-factor solution resembles the classic Big Five structure, it still provides a reorganization of the factors (Ashton et al., 2004). Those six major dimensions of personality are namely honesty-humility, emotionality, extraversion, agreeableness, conscientiousness, and finally openness to experience, hence they are considered the HEXACO model (Lee & Ashton, 2004).

To be precise, the honesty-humility factor corresponds to the construct of fairness (Ashton & Lee, 2001) and incorporates the facets of sincerity, fairness, greed avoidance, and modesty (Lee & Ashton, 2004), which are all features that are lacking in the Dark Triad (Muris et al., 2017). Consistent with their low levels of positive attributes, the Dark Triad of personality was negatively related to the honesty-humility factor, with a stronger negative link with Machiavellianism and psychopathy than with narcissism (Muris et al., 2017). All the three traits are negatively correlated with the honesty-humility factor of the HEXACO model, while psychopathy and Machiavellianism were also negatively correlated with agreeableness of the Big Five model. Narcissism did not correlate with agreeableness, but it did with extraversion of both models (Lee & Ashton, 2005). Studies on the HEXACO model confirmed it as the most theoretically parsimonious model and demonstrated that it accounts for a considerable percentage of variance in the Dark Triad (Book et al., 2015).

The factor of honesty-humility and its relation with the HEXACO model, the Big Five, and the Dark Triad have been of great interest among researchers. However, recent analyses unveiled results that diverge from prior findings, stating that honesty-humility is subsumed by neuroticism and agreeableness in the Big Five model, and that any predictive ability of honesty-humility is encapsulated within these two dimensions. If these findings prove accurate and endure over an extended period, the HEXACO may be considered an inadequate representation of personality that provides little benefit to science and practice (Van Kampen, 2012). Similarly, it was argued that the HEXACO model may be redundant with the Dark Triad or even depict an absence of Dark Triad traits as a near-perfect negative

correlation with the honesty-humility factor was found (Hodson et al., 2018). Regarding those premises and criticism, Howard and Van Zandt (2020) conducted a meta-analysis on the discriminant validity of the honesty-humility dimension. They demonstrated the hypothesis that honesty-humility might be subsumed by the Big Five to be false as the majority of its variance was unique. Hence, they concluded that honesty-humility and the overarching HEXACO model do provide predictive validity beyond the Big Five and that it may be strongly related to other theoretical frameworks, but not with the Big Five dimensions. Furthermore, and of considerable importance, they demonstrated that one of these related theoretical frameworks is the Dark Triad of personality, and it was suggested that Machiavellianism may share a common theoretical basis with honesty-humility. Overall, they concluded that honesty-humility shares a modest amount of variance with the dimensions of the HEXACO model and the Big Five.

More recently, literature on dark personality traits has experienced another upsurge of interest and the term of “dark traits” is sometimes used to subsume subclinical personality traits that are linked to socially questionable and malevolent behavior. In this context, another theoretical conceptualization of a general disposition underlying different dark traits was created, namely the Dark Factor of Personality (Moshagen et al., 2018). It represents a fluid construct and does not depend on a specific selection of indicator variables if a reliable number of indicators related to dark personalities are included (Moshagen, Zettler, & Hilbig, 2020). To be precise, it was conceptualized as “the general tendency to maximize one’s individual utility – disregarding, accepting, or malevolently provoking disutility for others – accompanied by beliefs that serve as justifications” (Moshagen et al., 2018, p. 657). It is even proposed that any dark trait can be interpreted as a manifestation of this Dark Core. Thus, it represents not only the commonalities of the Dark Triad or the Dark Tetrad, but all dark traits (Moshagen et al., 2018; Moshagen, Zettler, & Hilbig, 2020).

If not stated otherwise, the term “dark traits” will particularly refer to the three characteristics of the Dark Triad of personality, namely narcissism, Machiavellianism, and psychopathy in this doctoral thesis.

The above-mentioned SPI measures ten traits that lie beyond the Big Five model, namely conventionality, seductiveness, manipulativeness, thriftiness,

humorousness, integrity, femininity, religiosity, risk-taking, and finally egotism. All the Dark Triad traits demonstrated positive correlations with the traits of seductiveness, humorousness, manipulateness, risk-taking, and egotism. In contrast, negative associations were found for thriftiness, femininity, and integrity. In those examinations of the Dark Triads and the SPI, the sample consisted of twins and the results revealed that differences in the dark traits of narcissism and psychopathy were caused by genetic and non-shared environmental factors. Only Machiavellianism showed a pattern of shared and non-shared environmental factors, suggesting that individuals learn to be socially manipulative through their own families (Veselka et al., 2011).

Research on the Dark Triad has not only focused on its relation with other personality constructs, but also on the associations with values. In fact, Machiavellianism and psychopathy were found to be associated with moral disengagement, but narcissism was not (Egan et al., 2015). In consideration of universal social values, Kajonius et al. (2015) demonstrated that the Dark Triad significantly correlated with all ten value types. In this context, values were defined as enduring goals under the influence of cognitive control which are stable and can be examined in relation to personality traits. Results revealed that hedonism, stimulation, achievement, and power can be considered primary values of individuals with high scores on the Dark Triad. Furthermore, the dark traits accounted for unique variance in social values which was not accounted for by the Big Five, which were also part of the examination. The authors therefore claimed that individuals with the Dark Triad traits not only hold values which encompass the exclusion of others, but also the enhancement of themselves. They concluded that the relationship between dark traits and specific values represent a system of dark values, characterized by self-enhancing values, while opposing self-transcending values. In short, they are associated with the manipulation of others and viewing others as a means for the accomplishment of personal selfish goals (Kajonius et al., 2015). Also, Jonason et al. (2015) conducted research on the association of the Dark Triad with moral and social values. In this context, moral values included harm, fairness, ingroup differences, authority, and purity. Social values in this study included individual and collective interests, as well as self-transcendence, conservation, self-enhancement, and openness. Results revealed that narcissism was related to a socially desirable form of morality while

Machiavellianism was related to a moral flexibility. Psychopathy demonstrated diminished concerns for all moral foundations. Also, a variety of mediation effects indicated that moral and social values might contribute to the explanation of why women and men generally score differently on the Dark Triad traits (Jonason, Strosser, et al., 2015). Subsequent research on the Dark Triad traits and their relation with basic values reported that they were collectively associated with the values of excitement and promotion. At their individual levels, psychopathy showed associations with a lower emphasis on existence, while psychopathy and Machiavellianism were related to limited interactive or normative values. Finally, narcissism showed associations with a stronger emphasis on suprapersonal, interactive, and even normative values. To conclude, these associations highlight the more positive approach narcissism incorporates compared to Machiavellianism and psychopathy (Jonason et al., 2018).

Over the past decades, as recently summarized, the Five Factor Model, also called Big Five, and the HEXACO Model of Personality have emerged as the models most widely used. According to these models, personality can be structured along five dimensions: neuroticism (also labelled negative emotionality or low emotional stability), extraversion, agreeableness, conscientiousness, and openness to experience (also labelled intellect, imagination, or open-mindedness). While they differ slightly in the naming and interpretation of some of their dimensions, they are often used interchangeably. When referring to a six-factorial structure, the HEXACO model is the most prominent representation of the requested structure (Thielmann et al., 2022).

2.3.3. Impact on Followers and Organizations

As stated by Babiak et al. (2010), “the devil is in the details” (p. 192) when evaluating the consequences of the Dark Triad. Literature review on the Dark Triad shows that leaders’ dark traits can have bright and dark sides for employees, depending on the specific trait. To be specific, narcissism appeared to be beneficial for objective and subjective career success of employees, yet it did not predict their well-being. In this context, objective career success refers to salary and number of promotions, while subjective career success includes factors such as personal career

satisfaction. In contrast, both Machiavellianism and psychopathy were detrimental to employees' career and well-being (Volmer et al., 2016) which corresponds to the findings of Rauthmann and Kolar (2012), who named them the "Malicious Two" as they show more detrimental effects than narcissism.

Traditionally, the Dark traits are perceived negatively, but this view is also considered one-sided and too simplistic as they should not only be seen in their problematic facets, but also as adaptive mechanisms for solving challenges from an evolutionary perspective. Transferring this to the organizational context, it is recommended to seek appropriate niches for individuals with dark traits based on the functionality of their personality (Jonason et al., 2014).

Dickman (1990) stated that impulsivity had maladaptive as well as adaptive aspects by differentiating two distinct forms. In his studies, he outlined that functional impulsivity is the tendency to act with little forethought when such a style is optimal and has been shown to predict for example enthusiasm, adventurousness, and the ability to make quick decisions. Thus, this tendency appears relevant to situations where fast decisions outweigh the advantages of accuracy. On the other hand, dysfunctional impulsivity entails an erratic disorderliness and includes the tendency to act with less forethought than most individuals of equal ability (Dickman, 1990). Given their differential pattern of associations with the Big Five, Jones and Paulhus (2011) hypothesized a similar pattern of associations between the Dark Triad traits and impulsivity. Thus, they examined the relationship of the three Dark Triad traits and the two forms of impulsivity and outlined that narcissism was a predictor of functional impulsivity and psychopathy was a predictor of dysfunctional impulsivity. In contrast, Machiavellianism had no association with any form of impulsivity.

As previously considered, the Dark Triad traits can also lead to positive outcomes for organizations. In this context, narcissism in CEOs has been found to be not only positively related to strategic dynamism, grandiosity, the number of acquisitions, but also to fluctuating organizational performance, as they are likely to engage in bold actions which either lead to big losses or wins (Chatterjee & Hambrick, 2007).

It was also empirically demonstrated that individuals with high scores on Machiavellianism and psychopathy perceived their workplaces as competitive.

Narcissistic individuals, on the other hand, perceived their workplaces as prestigious and with fewer restrictions. Regarding job satisfaction, individuals with high scores in Machiavellianism were satisfied when they found themselves in prestigious and highly autonomous jobs. Narcissists demonstrated more satisfaction in prestigious jobs. Finally, competitiveness appeared stressful to all types of characteristic disposition. Overall, empirical research has shown that the Dark Triad traits are indirectly linked to job satisfaction based on the perceptions of workplace prestige, autonomy, and competitiveness (Jonason, Wee, et al., 2015).

To be specific, Machiavellianism has shown to be positively related to salary and narcissism to be positively related to career satisfaction and leadership positions. In contrast, psychopathy is negatively associated with work-related outcomes (Muris et al., 2017).

Despite such positive tendencies and single positive outcomes of the dark traits, they are clearly overshadowed by negative outcomes, confirming the overall malevolent character of the Dark Triad traits (Muris et al., 2017). In fact, the disadvantageous dimensions of the Dark Triad are obvious. Toxic or destructive employees, regardless of in which position, represent a problem for any company and its supervisors and employees. In line with the above-mentioned characteristics of the Dark Triad, research has shown that the traits may facilitate workplace influence by using forceful, aggressive, and hard tactics of social influence in the workplace. Tactics are distinguished by their forcefulness, hard tactics being those where an individual forces a certain will upon another person, while soft tactics include the attempt to convince the target to engage in the advocated behavior. Examinations on those tactics demonstrated that men's tendency to adopt this manipulative approach as compared to women was fully mediated by the Dark Triad. Overall, these findings underline that the Dark Triad traits are fundamental in facilitating destructive behavior towards others in the workplace. Considered in detail, the use of hard tactics was associated with high scores on Machiavellianism and psychopathy, while high scores on narcissism and Machiavellianism were predictors of soft tactics (Jonason et al., 2012).

Companies aim to recruit energetic, charming and fast-moving employees. People with high scores on the Dark Triad and in particular, psychopathy can appear to possess these attributes and present themselves in a good light due to

their ability to tell interesting and engaging personal anecdotes. For example, corporate psychopaths make those who interact with them believe that the evoked feelings of friendship and loyalty are reciprocated. Hence, it is easy for them to be accepted. Once in organizations, psychopaths identify their potential network of patrons who support them as they ascend to senior levels and thus they manipulate their way up the corporate ladder (Boddy et al., 2010). With this in mind, some researchers state that those who appoint leaders and tolerate them when destructive behavior manifests are the ones to blame (Allio, 2007).

Also, as summarized by Roulin and Bourdage (2017), the Dark Triad traits are predictors of the use of deceptive impression management in job interview situations. Those individuals are able and willing to adapt their behaviors and use deceptive tactics such as exaggerations and inventions adjusted to the requirements and subsequently receive higher evaluations from recruiters. This behavior is twofold: As such skills can in fact be seen valuable, but at the same time, those individuals exhibit undesirable characteristics, and valuing them might represent risks for organizations. In short, those individuals are not only impression managers, but also a threat for organizations.

Thus, the question arises: How do people with high scores on the Dark Triad actually harm organizations? In a meta-analysis on the implications for job performance and counterproductive work behavior (CWB), it was found that increases in Machiavellianism and psychopathy were associated with reductions in the quality of job performance. Also, counterproductive work behavior was associated with all traits of the Dark Triad, but contextual factors such as authority and culture showed moderating effects. At the same time, the Dark Triad was identified as a predictor of counterproductivity in multivariate analyses, but these effects could not be supported for job performance. Again, the three traits were identified as distinctive constructs (O'Boyle et al., 2012).

From a similar perspective, Furnham (2010) distinguished between so-called sad and mad leaders. Sad leaders are the ones who perform badly and therefore do not get promoted any further. Bad or mad leaders are those who rise as despots or tyrants within organizations in chaotic times and then cause them harm.

Recent studies on toxic leadership once again confirmed the adverse impacts including decreased job satisfaction and staff morale, increased negative behaviors,

negative effects on the career development, and finally on the emotional, physical and psychological wellbeing of employees. Regarding mental impacts, depression, anxiety, low self-esteem, frustration, anger and fear were listed along the lines of examples (Snow et al., 2021).

With reference to individuals' work behavior, Machiavellianism was linked to it in both positive and negative terms. In positive terms, Machiavellians show the ability to be a social chameleon adapting the attitudes and behaviors of people around them while manipulating situations to their favor (Hurley, 2005). This skill enables them to build powerful social networks, gain trust of coworkers, and finally extract desired outcomes from clients, thus leading to increased job performance. At the same time, those benefits can be counterbalanced by interpersonal risks due to interpersonal manipulation. When Machiavellians rely on manipulation but lack self-presentational acumen, coworkers and supervisors might recognize the deception and the relationship between the Machiavellian and the organization might be weakened. Social exchange theory therefore predicts that Machiavellianism is negatively associated with job performance, so Machiavellians generally tend to be less successful in meeting the demands of a business career (O'Boyle et al., 2012).

On a meta-analytical level, narcissism was related to formal and informal corrective actions such as low performance, being passed over for promotion, exclusion, and even interpersonal deviance. Narcissists may be dissatisfied in the workplace in they feel they are not receiving the credit they think they deserve, while at the same time, the high level of self-approbation can leave them pleased with their work and even causes them to overestimate their acceptance by others. Nevertheless, in contrast to Machiavellianism and psychopathy, narcissism was not related to decreased job performance (O'Boyle et al., 2012).

Regarding psychopaths, their actions are inconsistent with the principles of reciprocity, trust, resource exchange, and cooperation. If their performance evaluations depend on their ability to work with others, their overall performance will obviously be negative. Due to their erratic behavior and inability to empathize with others, they are less than ideal employees and are expected to struggle with maintaining production standards, meeting job requirements, or concerning themselves with job requirements (O'Boyle et al., 2012).

When it comes to the Dark Triad and the occupational motivation of the three characteristics, it was demonstrated that they all have unique motivational patterns. Narcissists have been found to prefer environments with social approval, Machiavellians seek jobs where they can gain status, and psychopaths avoid social interaction and supervision. Regarding vocational interests, psychopaths demonstrate more interest in realistic and practical careers, while narcissists are more attracted by artistic, enterprising, or social careers. Finally, Machiavellians prefer career paths that avoid caring for others. Generally, it was illustrated that individuals with high scores on the Dark Triad literally structure their environment through career preferences (Jonason, Wee, Li, et al., 2014).

Regarding individuals' aggression levels, by comparison, the aggression level of the Dark Triad traits seems to depend on the overall context. Different provocations trigger aggression in narcissists and psychopaths, while psychopaths appear to have no scruples about harming others, but their goals are mostly instrumental. Also, their impulsive orientation limits aggression to low-investment, short-term responses. In contrast, narcissists are unlikely to care about aggression until their ego is threatened and finally, Machiavellians are too aware of risk retaliation without sufficient benefits for themselves (Buckels et al., 2013).

Furthermore, the influence of abusive leaders on aspects such as frustration, perceived injustice and helplessness is likely to create tension in the dyadic relationship (Tepper, 2000). As summarized by Harvey et al. (2007), abusive supervision has been empirically linked to emotional exhaustion, and it is suggested that this is caused by interpersonal conflicts and chronic assaults on followers' feelings, their self-esteem and self-efficacy. Another link was found with turnover intentions as negative evaluations of one's own job might foster withdrawal. Thus, destructive leadership is believed to influence turnover intentions equally to actual turnover behavior.

When considering destructive leadership, coping strategies of employees should also be taken into consideration. On a high level, coping was described as an adaptive process that intervenes between a stressor and its psychological, emotional and physiological outcomes, e.g. the fight, flight or freeze response to stress (Skinner et al., 2003). When facing destructive leadership, different coping strategies could be observed among followers, such as seeking social support,

ruminating, resigning from the organization or even assertively challenging the leader (Webster et al., 2016).

Recently, Roulin and Bourdage (2017) confirmed that all the three traits were predictors of the use of fallacious impression management in selection processes and they were able to easily adapt to different structures and requirements used by the hiring organizations. For their examination, they proposed that individuals must feel comfortable using impression management before in fact engaging in such behavior. Thus, they examined factors such as self-evaluations, the Dark Triad and HEXACO traits, worldviews, and self-monitoring. They were able to demonstrate two types of use, namely honest impression management use and deceptive impression management use. While individuals who engage in honest impression management showed higher levels of core self-evaluations and extraversion, only very few characteristics seem to be linked to honest impression management. In contrast, those who use deceptive impression management showed lower levels of the honesty-humility factor, but higher levels of the Dark Triad. The authors therefore concluded that it is necessary to distinguish between honest and deceptive impression management, as the deceptive type may be detrimental for organizations. Applicants who fake their behavior in interview situations possess a personality profile that is undesirable for organizations (Roulin & Bourdage, 2017) as it is likely to be linked to negative outcomes such as CWB (O'Boyle et al., 2012). As examinations demonstrated, individuals who use deceptive impression management tend to adapt their impression management during selection processes, so while they might initially start with honest impression management, they may adapt it when it feels ineffective and change to deceptive forms to increase their chances. Therefore, they are considered more willing to take risks to influence others. To be precise, they use tactics such as exaggerations or interventions to increase their chances of success in these situations. These results reaffirmed that additional work is required to better understand the processes through which the Dark Triad is associated with faking behavior and to identify measures in the selection process which are less susceptible to faking (LeBreton et al., 2018).

Very recent examinations on narcissism revealed that leaders with both high and low levels of grandiose narcissism may have beneficial consequences for

leadership effectiveness when they simultaneously show high levels of leader political skill. Precisely, a U-shaped relationship between leadership effectiveness and grandiose narcissism was found when political skill was high, and an inverse relationship was found for low political skill. Interestingly, both high and low narcissism lead to detrimental consequences when leaders only showed low political skills. As these findings were drawn from a cross-sectional study, it is still unknown how individuals with high levels of narcissism and political skill develop over time and whether political skill is a long-term game changer (Böhm & Blickle, 2024).

2.3.4. Dark Traits and Leadership Derailment

Initially, leadership derailment was examined by McCall and Lombardo (1983), who conceptualized the topic of successful managers who suddenly derail. They discovered that leaders who derailed hardly differed from those who remained successful in their careers. According to their definition, derailed managers are either demoted, fired or do not achieve the level of anticipated achievement; they may rise to a certain position and fail unexpectedly, or their careers may plateau (Lombardo et al., 1988; McCall & Lombardo, 1983). For their examination, McCall and Lombardo (1983) defined derailment in terms of managers who were quite successful in their career over decades, but did not manage to live up to their full potential. Some of them were demoted or transferred, some were fired, and some simply stopped progressing. What they all had in common was the fact that it occurred involuntarily. Some of those who derailed had previously moved up during reorganizations within their companies, at times when performance was challenging to measure. At the start of the analysis, the sample appeared quite similar as they were all highly competent managers with outstanding track records, minimal flaws, were ambitious and identified early, and who made many sacrifices for their careers.

Those who derailed found themselves in changed situations where their strengths suddenly became liabilities that knocked them off their course. Others experienced situations where weaknesses became the very qualities needed as strengths in a new position, and yet others became victims of their own success or

faced events outside their control (McCall & Lombardo, 1983). This is in line with previously mentioned research on dark personality traits such as narcissism where individuals leave a favorable impression during initial group formation, but not in the long run. This effect has been described particularly for narcissism (Ong et al., 2016). Such a decline of positive perceptions is also known as the “honeymoon effect”, which is one phase of the life cycle models of leadership effects. Leaders with personality traits such as narcissism demonstrate favorable characteristics for selection processes and emerge as leaders with a considerable latitude. Nevertheless, in the long run, a considerable latitude does not necessarily imply that leaders in fact show the required skills, and whether their characteristics match with the organization’s overall strategy. A mismatch between the organization’s and the leader’s strategy may lead to poor organizational performance in the long term and ultimately even to the dismissal of the leaders (Boal & Hooijberg, 2001).

In general, five factors were outlined that happened to both the successful and those who later derailed. These factors and the way managers dealt with them were the events which separated the two groups:

- The loss of a boss who had concealed their weaknesses
- The start of a new job without adequate preparation, usually coupled with a new boss with a different style
- Leaving behind a trail of problems or bruised subordinates due to problems in handling them or neglect
- Advancing during an organizational transformation
- Entering the executive suite where collaboration is essential

(McCall & Lombardo, 1983, p. 5)

In sum, McCall and Lombardo concluded that derailed leaders showed at least two of the following characteristics:

- Specific performance issues
- Insensitivity towards others in terms of an abrasive, bullying or intimidating style
- Being cold, inapproachable, or arrogant
- Overmanaging characterized by a failure to delegate or build a team
- Excessive ambitions and a focus on political tactics or the next job
- Failure to recruit and maintain an effective staff
- Inability to think strategically
- Inability to adapt to bosses with different styles
- Overdependence on a mentor or an advocate

(McCall & Lombardo, 1983, p. 6)

Although appearing very similar in many ways, those who did not derail differed in certain facets including their problem-solving and the handling of mistakes, getting along with all kinds of people, composure under stress and even more diversity in their track records (McCall & Lombardo, 1983). These qualitative findings were supported by quantitative examinations by Lombardo, Ruderman, and McCauley (1988) in which they compared successful and derailed managers in upper-level positions. When distinguishing the successful and the derailed ones in eight dimensions, the dimension of directing, motivating, and developing subordinates emerged as the one with the strongest deviations between the groups.

Overall, McCall and Lombardo (1983) emphasized that there is not one best way to succeed and that even the most talented executives require a diverse set of skills. Nevertheless, with their work, they provided a conceptualization that is still relevant and cited today. To close the circle with the previously mentioned findings on the Dark Triad, management derailment has been associated with personality traits, and in particular with narcissism, Machiavellianism, and psychopathy (Drory & Gluskinos, 1980; Jonason et al., 2012; Volmer et al., 2016).

More recent studies on the association between subclinical traits and leader development revealed that those traits were moderators of leader development and that these effects remained consistent over several years (Harms et al., 2011).

Kanning (2014) summarized potential antecedents of management derailment and listed management skills, leadership style, social competences, along with personality traits and behavior, and subclinical personality traits as included in the Dark Triad. Individuals with higher scores on those traits are more likely to derail in their careers as they see themselves as infallible, and they manipulate and harm others without feeling any guilt.

As aforesaid, research has often shown that personality and leadership style are related. The success of individual leaders is often based on political skills and luck, very often even without any measurable leadership skills. Nevertheless, the measurement of leadership effectiveness appears difficult compared to incompetence, as incompetence in terms of being fired or demoted is easier to metric (Hogan & Hogan, 2001). With reference to the Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders (DSM-IV (American Psychiatric Association, 1994)), which is a taxonomy of clinical disorders, Hogan and Hogan (2001) developed an inventory to detect the dysfunctional dispositions of employees. Specifically, they aimed to identify personality traits associated with derailment, develop reliable items and demonstrate their validity. Throughout their analyses, three factors were identified regarding dispositions attributed to incompetence and derailment, including tendencies of individuals to lose their temper, show off, or conform when put under pressure. In line with the dark personality traits described above, the derailment tendencies often coexist with strong social skills which make them almost invisible in selection processes. The tendencies are only detected after exposure to such individuals and typically, subordinates are the ones to be affected (Hogan & Hogan, 2001).

2.3.5. Empirical Findings and Recent Developments of the Construct

As previously mentioned, the Dark Triad of personality was first introduced about two decades ago (Paulhus & Williams, 2002). Ever since, there has been an increasing empirical interest in the construct. In the following, particularly relevant publications on the Dark Triad are listed chronologically in Table 4 to provide an overview on the most important meta-analytical findings on the construct.

Table 4. Overview of Meta-Analyses on the Dark Triad

Publication	Samples	Key Message	Methodology Applied
O'Boyle et al. (2012)	245 independent samples, N = 43,907	Implications of the Dark Triad traits on job performance and counterproductive work behavior; associations of decreased job performance with Machiavellianism and psychopathy; CWB was related to all the three traits	Meta-analysis
O'Boyle et al. (2013)	48 independent samples (total number of participants not clearly stated)	Neither the "evil genius" nor the "compensatory hypothesis" were supported	Meta-analytic review

Table 4 continued:

Muris et al. (2017)	143 relevant research articles	Dark Triad traits are substantially intercorrelated, more among men than women; traits are predominantly related to agreeableness and honesty-humility	Meta-analysis
Vize et al. (2018)	Three separate analyses of articles of 159 samples (N = 53,826)	Nomological networks of Machiavellianism and psychopathy overlap substantially, Machiavellianism may be better understood as a secondary psychopathy literature	Meta-analysis
Michels & Schulze (2021)	N = 71 studies (total number of participants not clearly stated)	Construct description; summary of research on the core of the Dark Triad; relationships between the Dark Triad and emotional intelligence; Dark Triad traits are only weakly related to emotion-related traits, individuals have no special emotional manipulative skills	Meta-analysis

Note. Author's elaboration.

Apart from the meta-analytical findings of the past two decades, more current research on the Dark Triad of personality shows the tendency that the existing triad should be accompanied by a fourth related trait, namely sadism, or in its subclinical manifestation, everyday sadism (Bonfá-Araujo et al., 2022). This has led to the concept of the Dark Tetrad and initial research results show that it merits investigation. Sadistic individuals are defined as people who humiliate others, show patterns of cruel or demeaning behavior to others, inflict physical, sexual, or psychological pain or suffering to assert power and dominance, or even for enjoyment and pleasure (O'Meara et al., 2011). However, sexual sadism is not necessarily associated with everyday sadism and individuals can be sadistic in interactions without deriving sexual gratification from cruelty. Sadism is also different from the classic Dark Triad traits as those who have high scores on the three traits do not necessarily enjoy hurting others (Lyons, 2019). Overall, the Dark Tetrad is associated with several dysfunctional behaviors as well as socially maladaptive outcomes. Regarding the Dark Triad traits, sadism is more similar to psychopathy and Machiavellianism than it is to narcissism (Bonfá-Araujo et al., 2022).

To be specific, some researchers even claim that the form of sadism that should be added to the construct is called everyday sadism. In laboratory studies sadism emerged as an independent predictor of behaviors associated with cruelty. The studies also provided evidence that sadistic individuals obtain pleasure from cruel behaviors. The association appeared independent of sadism's overlap with the Dark Triad and by contrast, when controlling for sadism, any predictive power of the Dark Triad was eliminated. Subsequently, researchers claim that everyday sadism should be incorporated into the new construct of the Dark Tetrad of personality. Of individuals with dark traits, however, sadists were the only dark personalities willing to work to hurt an innocent person as this is so rewarding for them that they will risk it, even at a personal cost. The studies therefore confirmed that sadism is related to the enjoyment in harming others without any additional reward, and thus differs from the other dark traits (Buckels et al., 2013; Lyons, 2019). Other studies support this association of sadism and deriving pleasure from harming others. In fact, research results revealed a positive relationship between everyday sadism and the amount of violent video game exposure and this relation remained stable when controlling for the Dark Triad traits (Greitemeyer, 2015).

In the light of the question how the Dark Triad and sadism are actually related, Chabrol et al. (2015) analyzed a group of over 600 high school students and identified different clusters of personalities in the sample. It is to be highlighted that they found a cluster that was high on all the four traits and at the same time, those individuals showed the highest levels of antisocial behavior and also suicidal ideations. Additionally, the study revealed correlations among all of the four traits, demonstrating that they share some variance at least. The prevailing results on the distinctiveness of the Dark Triad traits were once again supported and were even obtained when sadism was added to the construct. Regarding the HEXACO personality model, which represents an extension of the Big Five model as it also includes the honesty-humility dimension, (Lee & Ashton, 2004), the Dark Tetrad traits can be located on the negative pole of the honesty-humility, agreeableness, conscientiousness, and emotionality dimensions of this construct (Mededović & Petrović, 2015). According to recent examinations by Bertl et al. (2017), the dark nucleus would be best represented by callousness and manipulation, even when sadism was added to the model. This is basically in line with the findings of Jones and Figueredo (2013). As recently summarized by Kaufman et al. (2019), there is an emerging consensus that the nucleus of the Dark Triad is made up of an “antagonistic social strategy characterized by high levels of interpersonal manipulation and callous behavior” (p. 1). Regarding their moral beliefs and behaviors, individuals with high scores on the Dark Tetrad show self-preservation and benefit-seeking tendencies, i.e. they seek power and control and display success to receive social approval and esteem (Bonfá-Araujo et al., 2022).

Research results on sadism suggest that sadistic individuals possess an intrinsic appetitive motivation to harm innocent others. This represents a motivation that is absent in other dark personality traits (Buckels et al., 2013). In line with these findings on sadists’ tendency to harm others, the association of trolling behaviors on social networking sites and personality traits has become a topic of great interest. Buckels et al. (2014) revealed that trolling correlated positively with sadism, psychopathy, and Machiavellianism and above all, sadism demonstrated the most robust association with trolling. Thus, they concluded that cyber-trolling appears to be an online manifestation of everyday sadism. In a similar study, the Dark Tetrad traits and social reward were examined with the result that, contrary to the hypotheses, only psychopathy and sadism predicted

trolling behaviors. This led researchers to the conclusion that negative social reward motivation better explains trolling behaviors as opposed to negative personality traits (Craker & March, 2016).

Overall, the proposal of several researchers to add sadism to the existing construct of the Dark Triad and claim it as a new construct, namely the Dark Tetrad, appears reasonable (Chabrol et al., 2015; Mededović & Petrović, 2015; Paulhus, 2014). Paulhus (2014) summarized the four profiles point by point as illustrated in Table 5 and stated that they all share callousness, regarded as a deficit in empathy, as a common feature.

Table 5. Key Features of the Dark Tetrad of Personalities

Feature	Narcissism	Machiavellianism	Psychopathy	Sadism
Callousness	++	++	++	++
Impulsivity	+		++	
Manipulation	+	++	++	
Criminality		Only White-Collar	++	
Grandiosity	++		+	
Enjoyment of Cruelty				++

Note. A double sign indicates high levels of a given trait (top quintile) relative the average population-wide level. A single plus sign indicates slightly elevated levels (top tertile). A blank entry indicates average levels of a trait.

Adapted from "Toward a Taxonomy of Dark Personalities", by D. L. Paulhus, 2014, Current Directions in Psychological Science, 23(6), p. 422. Copyright by SAGE Publications. Reprinted with permission.

In conclusion, it is to be highlighted that the Dark Tetrad of personality appears to be a relevant construct that needs to be considered when conducting research on the Dark Triad of personality. However, in line with current meta-analytic findings, the Dark Tetrad is most commonly related to topics such as online behavior, aggressiveness, moral beliefs, video gaming, sexual behavior, and emotional functioning (Bonfá-Araujo et al., 2022). To the author's best knowledge,

there is no such workplace-related literature as there is on the Dark Triad. Despite all this knowledge and research on the Dark Tetrad and the incorporation of everyday sadism, there is another proposal of a Dark Tetrad construct, in which spitefulness operates as the fourth trait and should be assessed in future reviews (Bonfá-Araujo et al., 2022). As previously mentioned, several researchers have suggested incorporating sadism into the construct. For this doctoral thesis, the Dark Triad of personality will intentionally be the central construct and sadism will not be considered in the empirical studies. This decision took different aspects into account. First, as researchers have concluded, it differs from the other traits and is to be seen as a distinct construct. Second, there is less empirical evidence on the impact of the Dark Tetrad on the workplace. In contrast, there is a literature base of around two decades on the Dark Triad of personality which provided a better starting point for the empirical studies for this doctoral thesis.

Another recent empirical approach on the Dark Triad highlighted the controversies on the number of dark traits within the constellation and discussed whether it is a Dark Dyad, a Dark triad, a Tetrad, or even a Tent. The concept of the Dark Dyad includes Machiavellianism and psychopathy as they are closely related to each other and could be considered two facets of one single construct. Support for this assumption was found in different studies. Regarding its initial development, it is to be mentioned that the three traits were not selected on the basis of consistent criteria, but rather because of shared commonalities such as social aversion, emotional coldness, as well as aggressiveness and self-promotion. Nevertheless, some researchers argue that there are more than three traits and advocate for the inclusion of status-driven risk taking or everyday sadism, as mentioned earlier. A final solution does not exist yet, and it seems that there are various facets under the umbrella of a common construct which is neither exhaustive nor final (Rogoza & Ciecuch, 2020).

As recently outlined, the Dark Triad traits do not demonstrate a unidimensional structure, and yet they are often reduced to a general score (Rogoza & Ciecuch, 2020). In this doctoral thesis, the general score of the Dark Triad is of great interest and the applied measure is explained in an upcoming chapter.

2.3.6. Concluding Remarks on Leadership and the Dark Triad

Starting with a very broad overview of leadership and prevalent theories such as the Full Range of Leadership Model and more recently developed forms of positive leadership, the topic of leadership was introduced. With a focus on negative and destructive leadership, it became apparent that this has been a topic of great interest in leadership research.

A clear definition of destructive leadership had not existed for a long period of time (Krasikova et al., 2013), but the meta-analytic approaches of Schyns and Schilling (2013) and Mackey et al. (2021) provided a prevalent definition. Apart from the definition itself, the impact on organizations and subordinates was presented, showing negative effects on subordinates' well-being, even beyond the workplace. Furthermore, the antecedents of destructive leadership were highlighted, including theories which state that both dispositional and contextual factors can increase likelihood of destructive leadership (Krasikova et al., 2013; Padilla et al., 2007). Regarding dispositional antecedents, the Dark Triad of personality (Paulhus & Williams, 2002) is often referred to as a potential cause for destructive leadership. Consequently, the Dark Triad of personality and the three traits of narcissism, Machiavellianism, and psychopathy were illustrated in great detail. It was demonstrated that the Dark Triad leads to detrimental consequences for organizations as well as for individuals. The three traits are hard to detect in selection processes (R. Hogan & Kaiser, 2005; Rauthmann, 2012), yet they were all associated with negative work-related outcomes such as counterproductive work behavior (O'Boyle et al., 2012).

As the Dark Triad was demonstrated as being an antecedent of destructive leadership, it is of high relevance for the upcoming examinations in this doctoral thesis. With reference to the previously mentioned purpose of this thesis, leaders' Dark Triad of personality will be at the center of the empirical investigations which analyze the interplay with followers' satisfaction in the workplace and beyond, their motivation, and their career development.

2.4. INTRODUCTION TO SELF-DETERMINATION THEORY

2.4.1. Types of Motivation Within SDT

Over the past decades, research has contributed to a better understanding of the connection between employees' motivation and affective as well as organizational factors. In this context, the dichotomy between intrinsic and extrinsic motivation as presented within Cognitive evaluation theory failed to be applied to the organizational context. Extrinsic motivation had to be examined in a more nuanced view which led to the development of Self-Determination theory (Gagné & Deci, 2005).

It was not until the 1950s that it was assumed that human motivation is based on innate psychological needs instead of a set of biological needs, or it was considered a concept that relies on the simple amount of motivation, not the different types (Deci & Ryan, 2008a). Thus, Deci and Ryan (1985) articulated Self-Determination theory (SDT) to contribute to the deeper analysis of optimal human functioning.

SDT offers a multidimensional conceptualization of motivation including both the level and quality of motivation (Gagné et al., 2014), while the type and strength of motivation are determined by the degree to which the psychological needs of autonomy, relatedness, and competence are met (Deci & Ryan, 2008b). It proposes that motivation is best illustrated by conceptually distinct, yet complementary, types of behavioral regulations experienced by individuals (J. L. Howard et al., 2016). SDT specifies different types of motivation and how they can be promoted or discouraged, with each of them having specifiable consequences for learning, performance, well-being, and also personal experience (Ryan & Deci, 2000).

Overall, three major categories exist: First, amotivation is defined as the absence of motivation towards an activity. Individuals lack the intention to engage in behavior as they do not see reasons to do so and therefore do not value the activity (Deci & Ryan, 1985; Van den Broeck et al., 2021). Second, intrinsic motivation suggests that “the energy is intrinsic to the nature of the organism” (Deci & Ryan, 1985, p. 5), and is defined as doing an activity for its own sake

because it is inherently interesting and enjoyable (Gagné et al., 2014). It is fostered by acknowledgement of feelings, choice, and opportunities of self-direction because they provide a feeling of autonomy. Conversely, intrinsic motivation is threatened by factors such as deadlines, directives, threats, evaluations or imposed goals (Ryan & Deci, 2000), or briefly by tension and pressure (Deci & Ryan, 1985). The third category is extrinsic motivation which refers to engaging in activities for instrumental reasons such as attaining rewards, avoiding punishments or criticism, enhancing self-esteem or reaching a valued goal. Unlike intrinsic motivation, it is characterized by the aim of attaining some operationally separable outcome (Gagné et al., 2014; Ryan & Deci, 2000; Vansteenkiste et al., 2008). SDT hypothesized that intrinsic motivation is more likely to flourish in situations that are marked by safety and relatedness, so there seems to be a strong link between intrinsic motivation and the satisfaction of the needs for competence and autonomy. A similar association was suggested for the need for relatedness (Ryan & Deci, 2000).

Regarding extrinsic motivation, SDT distinguishes between different subtypes which vary in their internalization and fall along a continuum of self-determination (Ryan & Deci, 2000): First, there is external regulation which refers to doing an activity to obtain rewards or avoid punishments (Deci & Ryan, 2000). It relates to the so-called “carrot and stick” approach because individuals have an externally regulated motivation to engage in activities. These external factors can be either material in terms of obtaining a bonus, or in a social nature in terms of seeking approval or avoiding criticism (Deci & Ryan, 2000). To date, it is unclear in which situations external regulation is an effective motivator and in which it is more harmful than helpful (J. L. Howard et al., 2021). Second, introjected regulation as a partially internalized form of extrinsic motivation refers to the regulation of behavior due to internally pressuring forces (e.g. ego-involvement, guilt or shame) and is still relatively low on self-determination. Introjected regulation becomes apparent when individuals engage in activities out of ego-involvement or contingent self-esteem which is the case when they reward or punish themselves through self-related emotions. Those individuals aim to approach positive feelings, while avoiding negative ones (Van den Broeck et al., 2021). Overall, it is to be mentioned that such extrinsic rewards can decrease intrinsic motivation, e.g. when individuals are given extrinsic rewards for an initially intrinsically motivating

activity, this intrinsic motivation for the specific activity is undermined (Deci & Ryan, 2008a).

Third, identified regulation refers to doing an activity because one identifies with the value or accepts it as one's own, so the form of internalization is considered volitional. Introjected regulation is characterized by engagement due to perceived personal meaningfulness and importance (Gagné et al., 2014; Van den Broeck et al., 2021). Although intrinsic motivation is often considered to be the most highly self-determined form of motivation due to its relation with desirable outcomes, identified regulation is becoming increasingly important among researchers as it is sometimes considered more influential (J. L. Howard et al., 2021).

Finally, in cases of integrated regulation, engaging in a behavior is fully integrated within the individual's value system, and the reasons are considered inherent and coherent part of one's identity. However, the reasons for a certain behavior might not be completely internalized and self-determined. Integrated regulation has not been included in most scales because there is no consensus on its distinctiveness due to meta-analytic correlations with identified and intrinsic regulation (Van den Broeck et al., 2021). Also, depending on the individual reference, it becomes clear that some researchers have merged external and introjected regulations into a composite construct of controlled motivation, and combined identified and intrinsic motivation into the construct of autonomous motivation (Gagné et al., 2014).

Figure 7 demonstrates the different motivational types, from left to right in terms of the degree to which the motivations originate from the self. It starts with amotivation at the far left, followed by five classifications of motivated behaviour, with intrinsic motivation being on the far right, which is highly autonomous and represents the "prototypic instance of self-determination" (Ryan & Deci, 2000, p. 72). In contrast, extrinsically motivated behaviors vary in the degree to which their regulation is indeed autonomous. Behaviors are referred to as externally regulated when they are extrinsically motivated and at least autonomous. In this case, behaviors are performed in order to satisfy demands or to receive rewards, and individuals experience it as controlled or alienated. Introjected regulation is another type of extrinsic motivation and is characterized by taking in a regulation, but without completely accepting it as one's own, which makes it a controlled form

of regulation, and is carried out to avoid guilt or to attain ego enhancements. A more self-determined form of extrinsic motivation is identified regulation which demonstrates a conscious valuing of a behavioral goal, so the action can be considered personally important. The most autonomous form of extrinsic motivation is integrated regulation and it shares many qualities with intrinsic motivation as regulations are full assimilated to the self and they are congruent with personal values. There are studies which have combined identified, integrated, and intrinsic forms of regulations to form an autonomous motivation composite. Nevertheless, research on SDT has also demonstrated that extrinsically motivated actions can become self-determined when individuals assimilate their regulation and become committed (Ryan & Deci, 2000).

Figure 7. The Self-Determination Continuum

Behavior	Nonself-Determined					Self-Determined
Motivation	Amotivation	Extrinsic Motivation				Intrinsic Motivation
Regulatory Styles	Non-Regulation	External Regulation	Introjected Regulation	Identified Regulation	Integrated Regulation	Intrinsic Regulation
Perceived Locus of Causality	Impersonal	External	Somewhat External	Somewhat Internal	Internal	Internal
Relevant Regulatory Processes	Nonintentional, Nonvaluing, Incompetence, Lack of Control	Compliance, External Rewards and Punishments	Self-Control, Ego-Involvement, Internal Rewards and Punishments	Personal Importance, Conscious Valuing	Congruence, Awareness, Synthesis with Self	Interest, Enjoyment, Inherent Satisfaction

Note. Adapted from "Self-Determination Theory and the Facilitation of Intrinsic Motivation, Social Development, and Well-Being," by R. M. Ryan & E. L. Deci, 2000, *American Psychologist*, 55(1), p. 72 (DOI: 10.1037/0003-066X.55.1.68). Copyright by the American Psychological Association. Reprinted with permission.

In order to be able to measure the different forms of motivation, the Multidimensional Work Motivation Scale (MWMS) was designed (Gagné et al., 2014). It measures different facets of motivation including amotivation, distinguishing it from previously developed measures which only included active forms of motivation (Gagné et al., 2010).

In the context of Self-Determination theory, needs have been most commonly described as “a person’s conscious wants, desires or motives. Viewed in this way, needs are treated as individual-difference variables, with the strength of a person’s needs (i.e. desires)” (Baard et al., 2004, p. 2046). The psychological needs for autonomy, competence, and relatedness, as well as the theoretically derived antecedents to work motivation (such as leadership or job design) are predictably related to the different forms of motivation. As a consequence, these are predictably related to important work outcomes, such as well-being, commitment, performance, and turnover (Gagné et al., 2014). Autonomous types of motivation are positively related to the satisfaction of the three psychological needs for autonomy, competence, and relatedness as well as with job design, leadership (especially transformational leadership), and autonomy support. In contrast, controlled motivation types were unrelated to need satisfaction and autonomy support but were indeed related to other types of more or less supportive and controlling leadership behaviors (Gagné et al., 2014).

Adopting a person-centered approach to work motivation, Howard et al. (2016) examined the simultaneous occurrence of multiple behavioral regulations within individuals. This strategy involved thinking about the many components that make up a motivational profile instead of thinking about a whole person as a variable. The aim of their study was to establish which motivational profiles are most likely in the work domain in order to examine predictors and outcomes of the single profiles. Within two heterogeneous samples, they found a 4-profile solution which indicates that the profile structure is remarkably similar across independent samples, providing clear support to the generalizability of the profiles and the measurement itself. The first profile was characterized by highly amotivated employees with average to low levels on all other motivational factors. The second one included employees with very low levels of external regulations, low levels of amotivation and introjection, average or slightly above average levels of identified

regulation and intrinsic motivation. This profile was therefore consolidated as the moderately autonomous profile. The third profile was marked by highly motivated employees with relatively low levels of amotivation, moderate to high levels on the other types of regulations which therefore increase as a direct function of their relative degree of self-regulation as per SDT. It presents the highest levels on the more autonomous types of motivation compared to the other profiles. In the fourth profile, employees presented average levels of all regulations. This profile appears to follow the continuum of self-regulation proposed by SDT and was therefore declared the profile of balanced motivation. At this point, it is to be highlighted that the profile characterized by highly motivated employees was associated with positive performance and wellbeing outcomes and therefore appears as the most desirable profile (J. L. Howard et al., 2016).

To date, research has shown that intrinsic motivation is the most important type of motivation when considering employee well-being and attitudes and behavior. However, identified regulation was shown to be a more powerful predictor of performance and organizational citizenship behavior. Introjected regulation has been linked to positive as well as negative consequences, while external regulation showed limited associations with behavior and leads to well-being costs. The consequences of amotivation have been shown to be entirely negative (J. L. Howard et al., 2021).

To conclude this section on the types of motivation as stated within SDT, it is to be highlighted that its original assumptions on positive or negative outcomes of the individual forms are still upheld today. In a recent meta-analysis, prior findings were supported as the more autonomous forms of motivation were associated with adaptive outcomes. Conversely, less self-determined forms were generally linked to maladaptive results. Apart from those findings, undocumented effects were found as identified regulation appeared to hold unique and meaningful characteristics which could not be found in the other motivation types. Results were surprising because identified regulation was initially considered a self-determined form of extrinsic motivation. While intrinsic motivation depends on emotions such as curiosity and enjoyment, identified regulation appears more relevant to both interesting and uninteresting tasks, thus supporting its importance for outcomes that depend on persistence. Additionally, new insights into

introjected regulation were revealed, showing it to be strongly associated with performance goals, including both avoidance and approach, with age moderating this relationship. Furthermore, new insights were also found for external regulation. It was related to various maladaptive results, but appeared unrelated to desirable outcomes, which is contrary to previous research. Although those results were found in a student sample, authors suggest that they are transferable to domains beyond education such as the workplace (J. L. Howard et al., 2021).

The overall important role of motivation was also supported when analyzing different motivational profiles. Results revealed that employees with an autonomous motivational profile demonstrated higher levels of work engagement, work satisfaction, quality of working life, and better learning outcomes, while also showing lower risks for burnout and job anxiety (Gillet et al., 2018; Vansteenkiste et al., 2009).

2.4.2. Basic Needs and the Impact of Basic Need Satisfaction

Self-Determination theory focuses on the investigation of individuals' inherent growth tendencies as well as their innate psychological needs which serve as the basis for self-motivation and personality integration, and the creation of conditions conducive to positive processes. The needs for autonomy, competence, and relatedness have been identified to be essential for optimal growth and integration and also for social development and personal well-being. A basic need is an energizing state that leads to health and well-being when feeling satisfied and contributes to pathology and ill-being if not satisfied (Ryan & Deci, 2000). These different motivations and needs reflect degrees to which the regulation of the requested behavior has been internalized or integrated. Much research that has focused on SDT has also incorporated environmental factors which influence self-motivation, personal well-being and social functioning. Thus, SDT is not only concerned with the nature of developmental tendencies, but also with environments that hinder those tendencies (Ryan & Deci, 2000). Research on SDT has also demonstrated that processes which energize and direct behavior must not be neglected and these processes are represented by the satisfaction of basic psychological needs (Deci & Ryan, 2000). Those needs are described as nutrients

which are essential for growth, health, and integrity. The needs for autonomy, relatedness and competence are distinguished and are considered crucial for optimal functioning.

In this context, the need for autonomy is defined as the desire to act with a sense of choice, and differs from the conceptualization in terms of independence commonly found in psychological research (Deci & Ryan, 2000). Autonomy is associated with adaptive advantages, such as the improved ability to regulate emotions and actions better, enabling individuals to disengage from exogenous goals if necessary (Vansteenkiste et al., 2008). The need for relatedness, or sometimes called belongingness, reflects the idea that individuals seek close and intimate relationships. It describes the tendency to need to feel connected, to be a member of a group, the need to love and to be loved, as well as the need to care and to be cared for (Deci & Ryan, 2000; Vansteenkiste et al., 2008). Finally, the need for competence stands for the desire to feel capable of coping with the environment and ensuring the desired outcomes (Deci & Ryan, 2000). Overall, SDT considers those three needs to be primary and innate propensities (Deci & Ryan, 2000), although it does not focus on how much individuals express these needs, but to what degree individuals are able to satisfy each of them. All of them are considered equally important and they are not hierarchically organized. In empirical studies, it was even demonstrated that individuals with a balanced satisfaction of their needs reported higher well-being than those with more variability. These findings provided new insights into topic of need satisfaction as SDT had not examined the balance, but only the existence of certain needs for optimal health and functioning (Sheldon & Niemiec, 2006). Something that has harmful consequences for individuals should not be considered a need, as the satisfaction of a need relates to the level of well-being. Indeed, several studies provided support that competence, autonomy, and relatedness represent true needs (Baard et al., 2004; Deci et al., 2001).

The three fundamental needs generally represent underlying mechanisms of the “what” (qualitative types of goals) and “why” (qualitative types of motivations) of motivation (Deci & Ryan, 2000). Empirical evidence has shown that need satisfaction operates as an important process that explains the relation between extrinsic goal pursuit and individuals’ functioning (Van Den Broeck,

Vansteenkiste, & De Witte, 2008). The experience of autonomy, relatedness, and competence in the workplace has been empirically linked to job satisfaction. Also, associations with mental health, self-esteem, and general job and task satisfaction were found. In addition to the positive effects on job satisfaction, the experience of perceived competence also emerged as a predictor of self-esteem (Ilardi et al., 1993).

Regarding basic need satisfaction, several studies have demonstrated positive and negative consequences of both their satisfaction and their frustration (Deci & Ryan, 2000). Specifically, need satisfaction has been shown to be positively associated with work-related well-being, general well-being, attitudes in terms of self-esteem as well as with attitudes towards organizational performance, and self-related performance (Vansteenkiste et al., 2007). Thus, optimal functioning at work does not primarily depend on organizational rewards, but even more on the degree of basic need satisfaction (Van Den Broeck, Vansteenkiste, & De Witte, 2008).

The concept of needs has been quite appealing for researchers as it shows utility for describing the work environment dimensions that lead to positive versus negative outcomes in the workplace. Studies in different organizations demonstrated that the followers' autonomous causality orientation and their perceptions of their leaders' autonomy support predicted satisfaction of their intrinsic needs. Subsequently, performance evaluation and psychological adjustment were positively influenced (Baard et al., 2004; Deci et al., 2001).

As stated by SDT, the satisfaction of basic needs, such as autonomy, relatedness, and competence, enhances employees' well-being. Summarized by Deci and Ryan (2008a), the satisfaction of psychological needs in terms of autonomy, competence, and relatedness demonstrates a variety of advantages across several life domains. In particular, autonomy support has been linked to persistence and adherence, as well as to psychological health. When individuals experience satisfaction of the three needs, they will be motivated and exhibit well-being. These positive effects have even been tested and supported cross-culturally (Deci et al., 2001). Consequently, it has an important influence on employees' well-being and performance, while employees' thriving was associated with autonomous motivation (Van den Broeck et al., 2013). Even more support for this was found in the integrative model of Miquelon and Vallerand (2008), who proposed that the pursuit of autonomous goals promotes well-being in terms of

happiness and self-realization, whereas controlled goals decrease them. Additional support for the importance of autonomy was found by Markland and Tobin (2010) as it was associated with less amotivation and less external regulation.

2.4.3. Relevance for the Occupational Context

Over the decades of research, SDT has become a grand theory of human motivation and optimal functioning, but it also states that the growth tendencies of individuals require fundamental nutrients such as need satisfaction. Thus, SDT takes into account both ideal functioning and malfunctioning and therefore becomes relevant for the organizational context as its premises suggest that employees perform best in an environment that appears encouraging, whereas dysfunctions will arise when it is over-challenging, rejecting or overly controlling (Van Den Broeck, Vansteenkiste, & De Witte, 2008). In general, SDT shares its empirical approach with the positive psychology movement (Seligman & Csikszentmihalyi, 2000) and particularly with positive occupational psychology (Luthans, 2002).

Conceptually, the development of SDT started off with an analysis of the interplay of extrinsic and intrinsic motivation, (Deci & Ryan, 2000) to as the “why” of behavior (Deci & Ryan, 2000), whereas SDT holds a nuanced view especially on qualitatively different types of extrinsic motivation. It even points out that interest and enjoyment may be decreased when individuals are rewarded financially for intrinsically motivating tasks, which in turn helps to understand the role of incentives in the occupational context. Research on SDT has shown that not all types of extrinsic motivation appear unfavorable for employees’ optimal functioning, which subsequently led to the definition of different types of extrinsic motivation illustrated above (Van Den Broeck, Vansteenkiste, & De Witte, 2008).

SDT states that optimal functioning is not only determined by the quantity of motivation, but also by the type of quality, and extrinsic motivation can be distinguished by the degree to which humans have internalized and integrated their behavioral engagement as demonstrated in Figure 7 above.

External regulation is associated with meeting external expectations, obtaining rewards or in contrast, with avoiding punishment. Thus, the reason for this behavior is situated external to the concerned individual (Deci & Ryan, 2000). Regarding introjection, the contingencies for individuals' behaviors have been partially internalized and behavior is guided by internally influencing reasons. An example for external regulation would be working overtime to meet the expectations of supervisors, while working long to avoid feelings of guilt is characterized by introjection (Van Den Broeck, Vansteenkiste, & De Witte, 2008). External or introjected regulation are considered to be controlled types of motivation as individuals are likely to feel pressured and either no or only little internalization occurs.

In contrast, identified and integrated regulation demonstrate types of extrinsic motivation where individuals identify with their behavior and perceive it as their own. For example, a nurse might consider her job meaningful and subsequently put effort into it which would represent integrated regulation. Integrated regulation would take place if she believes her job is in line with her other values. In both cases, the reason for the behavior is accepted and internalized, with identified and integrated regulation representing the autonomous types of motivation, whereas intrinsic motivation is the most autonomous type with people following their interests freely and spontaneously (Deci & Ryan, 2000).

Overall, extrinsic motivation is not necessarily negative, provided that the reason for the behavior is internalized. It is also possible to integrate behaviors even if they were not previously (Van Den Broeck, Vansteenkiste, & De Witte, 2008). However, SDT claims that higher well-being and better performance can be generated when adopting autonomous instead of controlled regulation styles (Deci & Ryan, 2000).

Considering the organizational context, individuals who are autonomously motivated as opposed to those who are controlled or regulated have been found to demonstrate greater job satisfaction, life satisfaction, as well as feelings of professional efficacy and mental health. Additionally, they are less likely to experience emotional exhaustion and cynicism (Fernet et al., 2004). On a meta-analytical level, the individual types of motivation each made unique contributions in accounting for organizational outcomes. Only integrated regulation was not

examined due to the paucity of available effect sizes. As previously stated, this type of motivation is often excluded from research and scales on SDT (Van den Broeck et al., 2021).

Recent examinations on the types of motivation have once again outlined that intrinsic motivation was the most important predictor of outcomes such as burnout, engagement, job satisfaction, affective commitment, turnover intentions, proactivity, CWB, and absenteeism. Identified regulation emerged as the second most important motivation type, and surprisingly, it was more important for performance than intrinsic motivation. It also proved to be the most important predictor of OCB together with introjected regulation. Introjected regulation was an important predictor of normative commitment, while amotivation was associated with burnout and decreased well-being (Van den Broeck et al., 2021).

In sum, different types of extrinsic motivation are differentiated within SDT. They range from controlling to more autonomous forms while intrinsic motivation is considered the most autonomous type. The differentiation is generally helpful in understanding why employees can be qualitatively motivated for both intrinsically and extrinsically motivating tasks (Van Den Broeck, Vansteenkiste, & De Witte, 2008). In addition to these reasons for behavior, SDT also includes the content of motivation as an important factor for optimal functioning and is therefore referred to as the “what” of behavior (Deci & Ryan, 2000). Equally to Goal Setting Theory (Locke & Latham, 2006), SDT suggests that challenging goals are more motivation for individuals as opposed to general goals. Within the organizational context, an extrinsic work value orientation has been demonstrated to be negatively associated with employees’ job satisfaction, general well-being, dedication, and vitality while it was positively related to emotional exhaustion, the experience of work-home inference and turnover intentions (Vansteenkiste et al., 2007). Nevertheless, pursuing extrinsic goals might seem appealing as they are likely to provide a form of short-term satisfaction (Vansteenkiste et al., 2007). This contentment, however, is likely to fade quickly and more extrinsic goals need to be achieved which might result in a hedonic treadmill with hardly any satisfaction on goal attainment left (Diener et al., 2006).

Within research, different moderators have been suggested to influence the negative impact of extrinsic goals on optimal functioning. It was hypothesized that

the different impact of extrinsic and intrinsic goal orientations must be attributed to differences in attainment and attainability of these goals. Also, the degree to which goals match with one's personal values was presumed to be a potential moderator. However, empirical evidence for these assumptions has not been supported and in sum, the content of individuals' goals and the pursuit of intrinsic goals have been shown to be more strongly related to optimal functioning than the pursuit of extrinsic goals (Deci & Ryan, 2000).

To sum up, within SDT, the satisfaction of the three needs is considered to promote optimal functioning and to drive autonomous versus controlled regulations as well as intrinsic work goals (Van Den Broeck, Vansteenkiste, & De Witte, 2008). Hence, it is recommendable for organizations not to focus on monetary rewards, but to consider employees' basic need satisfaction to boost well-being and performance. For instance, proper feedback mechanisms can foster learning and therefore increase job competence, whereas decision latitude and social support can promote the satisfaction of the need for autonomy and belonging (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004). Either way, the satisfaction of basic needs leads to engagement and, in turn, it seems plausible that such employees have a lower tendency to leave the organization. In a nutshell, engagement mediates the relationship between job resources and turnover intention and in contrast, burnout mediates the relationship between job demands and health issues (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004).

In other examinations, it was demonstrated that the more competent employees felt, the less intrinsically motivated they were. These surprising findings might be explained by a lack of acknowledgment by the organizations towards employees. This lack of recognition could be a mediator of the negative link between competence and constructs such as motivation or satisfaction (Gagne et al., 1997).

As part of occupational health psychology, job design is considered an important factor of employees' motivation. One of the relevant models in this area is the Job Demands Resources model (Demerouti et al., 2001), which is explained in detail in the next chapter. Nevertheless, it lacks information on the underlying relationships between job characteristics and the well-being of employees, yet SDT has been shown to be a remedy for this issue (Van Den Broeck, Vansteenkiste, &

De Witte, 2008). Specifically, it was demonstrated that meaningfulness, autonomy, competence, and impact account for the associations between stimulating job characteristics and intrinsic motivation, and although these variables were framed marginally differently, they are related to the needs for autonomy and competence as stated in SDT (Gagne et al., 1997). The role of basic need satisfaction in the relationship between resourceful job characteristics (such as social support or skill utilization) and employees' well-being has been empirically supported. Also, need satisfaction accounts for the associations between demanding job characteristics (such as emotional demands and work-home interference) and individuals' functioning in terms of engagement and burnout (Van Den Broeck, Vansteenkiste, De Witte, et al., 2008).

From the viewpoint of SDT, individuals with an extrinsically oriented motivation tend to focus on receiving valuable external indicators, which results in a neglect of their own wants and interests and is inconsistent with basic need satisfaction (Vansteenkiste et al., 2007).

In their examinations, Vansteenkiste et al. (2007) demonstrated that employees with extrinsic work values showed less job satisfaction and also lower life satisfaction. In contrast, income showed a positive association with life satisfaction and life happiness, but these results could not be replicated for job satisfaction. Also, income did not moderate the effects of extrinsic work value orientations, specifically, they were shown to be detrimental to job satisfaction and life well-being, independent of a high or low level of income (Vansteenkiste et al., 2007). Furthermore, an extrinsic work value orientation predicted negative effects on dedication, job vitality, and job satisfaction, but positive effects on short-lived satisfaction, turnover intention, work-family conflict, and also on emotional exhaustion. Mediation analyses revealed that basic need satisfaction accounted for these effects, which consequently explains why employees who value their jobs due to material success, status, and control instead of enhancing their social relationships, capacities, and personality, report more maladaptive outcomes (Vansteenkiste et al., 2007). The finding of the mediating effect of basic need satisfaction is considered important as in the past, basic need satisfaction was considered a heuristic framework, which explains the effects of extrinsic and intrinsic motivation. The explanatory role of basic need satisfaction includes two

perspectives (Vansteenkiste et al., 2007): On the one side, intrinsically oriented individuals are more likely to engage in activities that satisfy their needs (Deci & Ryan, 2000), and on the other side, individuals with an extrinsically oriented mindset focused on materialistic factors such as money, possessions, and image might report less self-actualization and happiness, but more anxiety and physical symptoms. As well-being partially depends on need satisfaction, an intense materialistic focus hinders well-being and happiness (Kasser & Ahuvia, 2002).

Notably, negative experiences due to an extrinsic value orientation were transferred to employees' life as they also reported lower life satisfaction, less happiness, and more conflicts between their jobs and family lives (Vansteenkiste et al., 2007).

When considering motivation and its role in the organizational context, the question arises of how individuals develop their own motivational profile. According to Ratelle et al. (2007), the nature of an individual's social context may influence the development of motivation, thus, motivational profiles may be context sensitive, and it was recommended for future research to identify social and contextual variables responsible for this influence.

Although literature within human resource management emphasizes the effectiveness of monetary-based incentives, research with reference to SDT holds a critical view of these beliefs. Examinations showed that external regulations were far less related to performance than other types of motivation because such incentives were related to the quantity of output, but less predictive of performance quality. External regulation was generally related to negative impacts on employees' well-being, resulting in long-term problems including further performance issues and even turnover. Thus, such rewards were not proven to be as beneficial as believed. Instead, organizations would be well advised to promote intrinsic motivation by ensuring motivating job designs or autonomy support (Van den Broeck et al., 2021).

Apart from the impact of aspects such as job design, SDT also states that leadership and leadership styles can have a motivational impact. Within occupational health psychology, leadership has become a crucial variable in the context of followers' motivation (Kaiser et al., 2008). Autonomous leadership styles increase followers' satisfaction with their supervisors, benefits, job design, pay but

also promote their trust in the organization. Overall, followers whose leaders supported autonomy in terms of self-determination tended to feel good and demonstrate a positive attitude (Deci et al., 1989). In contrast, a controlling leadership style is likely to cause negative outcomes as followers' motivation is decreased (Richer & Vallerand, 1995). In sum, the impact of autonomy-supportive in contrast to controlling leadership can be explained by basic need satisfaction (Baard et al., 2004).

Regarding motivation, various examinations have demonstrated that extrinsic values or goals have a negative impact on well-being in contrast to intrinsic motivation (Gagné & Forest, 2008). Hence, SDT also offers numerous propositions which are helpful to understand the impact of compensation systems on well-being (Gagné & Forest, 2008).

III – PREVALENT MODELS ON LEADERSHIP, MOTIVATION, AND WELL- BEING

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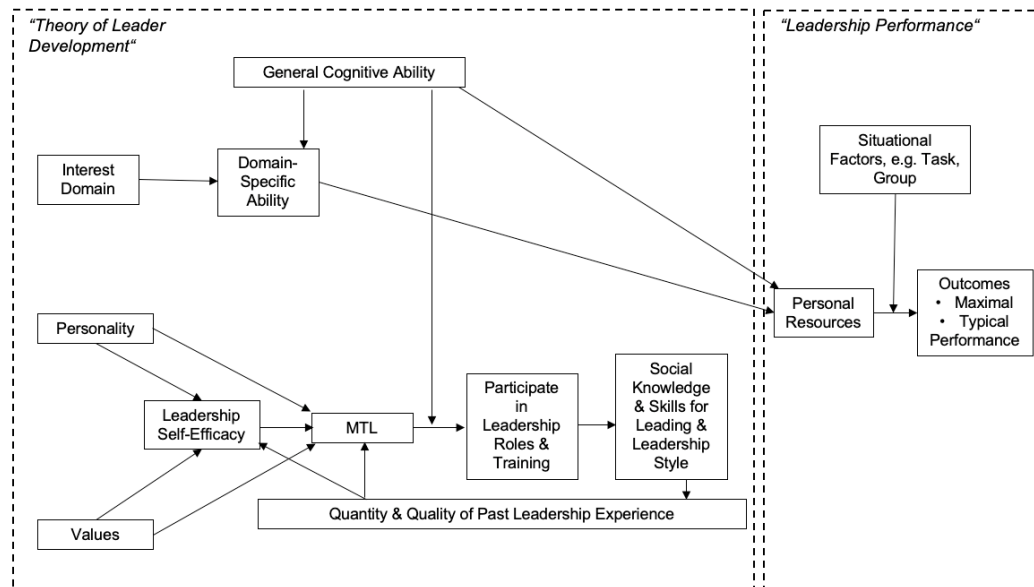
3.1. FROM THE PERSPECTIVE OF LEADERS: MOTIVATION TO LEAD

When combining the research areas of leadership, motivation, and well-being, these can be generally approached from two different perspectives. On the one hand, leaders incorporate a certain motivation that drives them to lead. On the other hand, perceived leadership behavior influences followers' motivation, their well-being, and the organizational performance as a whole. This section deals with the first perspective, the latter will be addressed in the next section.

The very first approach on the motives of leadership was reported by McClelland and Boyatzis (1982) when presenting the leadership motivation pattern, examining personality characteristics and their association with long-term managerial success. This approach was broadened by the so-called motivation to lead (MTL), which describes an individual's efforts to perform leadership responsibilities, training, and roles (Clemmons & Fields, 2011). It incorporates the key premise that noncognitive ability constructs, such as personality and values, relate to leadership behaviors through the individual's MTL (Chan & Drasgow, 2001). In turn, this MTL influences the degree of participation in leadership roles. According to Chan and Drasgow (2001), "MTL may be defined as an individual-differences construct that affects a leader's or leader-to-be's decision to assume leadership training, roles, and responsibilities and that affect their intensity of effort in leading and persistence as a leader. The key assumption is that within any group, one is able to find individual differences in MTL that are relatively stable over time" (p. 482). Individual differences might depend on vocational or life domains, but it is assumed that people are not generally motivated to lead by birth. Neither are any assumptions made that MTL is related to leadership effectiveness (Chan & Drasgow, 2001).

Figure 8 illustrates the generic overall framework on the individual differences in leadership behavior which incorporates MTL:

Figure 8. Theoretical Framework for Understanding the Role of Individual Differences in Leader Behavior



Note. Adapted from "Toward a Theory of Individual Differences and Leadership: Understanding the Motivation to Lead," by K. Chan & F. Drasgow, 2001, *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 86(3), p. 482 (DOI: 10.1037/0021-9010.86.3.481). Copyright by the American Psychological Association. Reprinted with permission.

MTL can be conceptualized and measured by three factors: affective-identity MTL, noncalculative MTL, and social-normative MTL. Affective-identity MTL represents the idea that some individuals enjoy leading others and are directed by their MTL, while the social-normative form represents the sense of a duty or responsibility. Finally, noncalculative forms do not focus on the costs and benefits of a leadership position (Clemmons & Fields, 2011). With reference to the previously mentioned Full Range of Leadership Model, all the three types of motivation to lead showed negative associations with laissez-faire leadership (Badura et al., 2020).

Individuals with the motivation to lead are expected to work harder, and obtain leadership roles also to fulfill the requirements of the leadership role more effectively. This motivation was divided into three previously mentioned different types, and all of them were positively associated with leadership emergence (Badura et al., 2020). Very recently, leadership emergence was described as the

phenomenon “of an individual becoming a leader within their team, organization, or among others to whom the prospective leader’s actions matter, regardless of the formality of the leadership role” (Badura et al., 2022, p. 2070).

Apart from that, personality constructs, sociocultural values, past leadership experience, and leadership self-efficacy are considered general antecedents to MTL, but each of the three factors of MTL incorporates its unique set of antecedents. For affective-identity and social-normative MTL, the effects of sociocultural variables were relatively weak compared to the other variables, but they were larger for noncalculative MTL (Chan & Drasgow, 2001; Clemmons & Fields, 2011). Nevertheless, research on the motivation of leaders should be considered in two main aspects: First, it is important to understand how leaders’ self-regulatory processes and their own personal values influence their MTL and their subsequent behavior towards followers. Second, this behavior subsequently affects followers’ motivation and their performance as their own self-regulatory processes are influenced (Kark & Van Dijk, 2007).

These findings broaden the results from Hogan and Kaiser (2005), who reported that the personality of leaders forms their leadership style by incorporating leaders’ values (Kark & Van Dijk, 2007). Transferring these findings to leadership styles, it was noted that transformational and charismatic leaders are motivated by a promotion focus as individuals with this focus are more likely to take risks and experience the advantages of novel directions of behavior. With their inspirational and visionary leadership style, they have a strong emotional influence on their followers and thus, they also elicit a promotion focus among them. Hence, they mirror their own promotion focus and represent a role model to their followers. With reference to the different forms of MTL, they are likely to have an affective MTL. In contrast, leaders with a transactional or a rather monitoring leadership style are more likely to be based on a social normative MTL. These findings highlight how deeply tied leadership is to leaders’ and followers’ motivational systems (Kark & Van Dijk, 2007). Nevertheless, it should be noted that these findings contradict previous empirical research that demonstrated personal values as important determinants of work motivation (Clemmons & Fields, 2011).

Further research revealed that romance of leadership is another contributing factor of a leader's motivation to lead. It is described as the over-attribution of responsibility for performance to leaders while neglecting situational factors when explaining the success or failure of organizations. Thus, individuals who consider leadership roles highly desirable are more likely to develop a stronger MTL. The relation of romance of leadership and MTL was empirically supported, stating that the more individuals believe in the relevance of leadership roles, the more they are motivated to lead. Nevertheless, these internal beliefs harbor risk as individuals might be frustrated when they realize that leader do not have the level of influence they originally assumed, and they might continuously over-estimate their own influence on the organization (Felfe & Schyns, 2014).

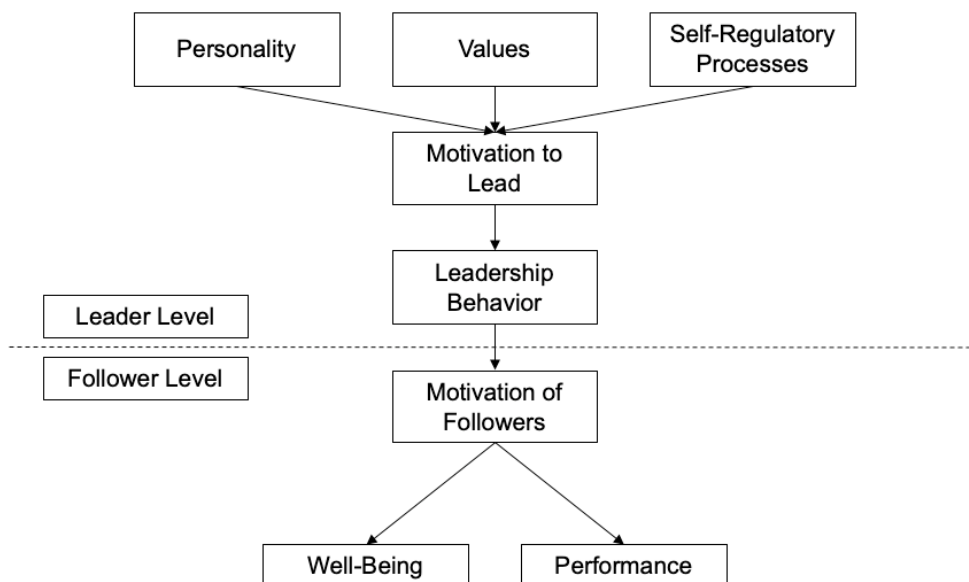
Regarding the above-mentioned types of the motivation to lead, all of them were positively related to transformational leadership, and transformational leadership was the most consistent predictor of leadership effectiveness in meta-analytical investigations (Badura et al., 2020).

Among those who are motivated to lead and succeed in achieving leadership positions, researchers examined which traits appeared to be related to leadership emergence or leadership effectiveness. In addition to qualitative reviews on the traits of effective or emergent leaders, Judge et al. (2002) demonstrated in their meta-analysis the associations between the dimensions of the Big Five and leadership. In this context, they did not specifically differentiate between leadership emergence and leadership effectiveness, but conducted an overall analysis that combined the two criteria. In their results, they outlined that extraversion showed the strongest correlation with leadership which was not surprising as sociable and dominant individuals tend to assert themselves in group interactions. Second, conscientiousness and openness emerged as strong and consistent correlates of leadership which was explained by the fact that conscientious individuals and their organizing activities allow them to emerge as leaders. Regarding openness to experience, it is the trait that is least understood, but appeared as a strong correlate of leadership in business settings. In contrast, neuroticism was not found to be a significant predictor of leadership. Finally, agreeableness was the least relevant traits of the Big Five regarding leadership which was not surprising as passive and compliant individuals are not prone to

emerge as leaders. In conclusion, the results highlighted the relevance of the Big Five in leadership research (Judge et al., 2002).

To conclude, Figure 9 illustrates a summary of both perspectives and offers a comprehensive overview of the interplay between them:

Figure 9. Interplay of the Motivation to Lead, the Motivation of Followers, and Their Outcomes



Note. Author's elaboration.

As clarified by Clemmons and Fields (2011), personality traits and personal values both contribute to the prediction of an individual's motivation to lead. In turn, this explains the willingness of leaders to perform in the best possible way in their role as leaders. Overall, this research by Clemmons and Fields made a valuable contribution to the field regarding leadership, motivation, and personal values. Particularly, leaders strive to motivate others to lead; and values represent

key factors in leadership and motivation. As personal values can influence individuals' MTL, they are a valuable field for further research.

Subsequent research into the nature of MTL highlighted that self-regulatory focus and personal values may operate as predictors for each type of MTL. In turn, MTL contributes to leadership behavior which in turn influences follower-related perceptions and motivation, and finally organizational effectiveness (Kark & Van Dijk, 2007).

3.2. FROM THE PERSPECTIVE OF FOLLOWERS: PREVALENT THEORIES ON THE IMPACT OF LEADERSHIP BEHAVIOR

"The relation between leadership behaviors and follower performance is one of the oldest and most widely researched topics in organizational behavior" (Gottfredson & Aguinis, 2017, p. 558) – as stated above, the interplay of leadership, motivation, and well-being can also be approached from the perspective of followers.

The previous chapter focused on leaders' inner motivational processes to take over leadership roles; this chapter deals with the opposing perspective, i.e. the impact of leaders' behavior on their followers, their motivation, and subsequently their well-being. This chapter aims to provide a comprehensive overview of the relevance of the previously mentioned constructs. For this purpose, prevalent theories in leadership research are outlined. To clearly illustrate the interplay and interdependences between leadership and follower-related outcomes, the literature review for this doctoral thesis was further extended, identifying two constructs that appeared well-suited for the overarching purpose of this chapter.

Leadership and its association with followers' well-being has experienced an increasing interest in recent research as several studies have outlined that positive leadership behavior is related to increased levels of well-being and lower stress levels (Perko et al., 2016).

Effective strategic leadership can demonstrate a competitive advantage for organizations as it enhances performance when facing turbulent and unpredictable times. It then becomes a source of competitive advantage which, in turn,

strengthens an organization's future competitiveness (Ireland & Hitt, 1999). In the organizational context, a leader's success in influencing others to work in a common beneficial direction represents the talent to motivate followers. This ability is based on the leader's skill and on the motivation level of the individual employee (Gilley et al., 2009). Positive leadership styles have been empirically linked to positive effects on followers' engagement, however, this relationship is based on several underlying pathways and is independent of the exact leadership style. Research on these underlying mechanisms often focuses on three particular theoretical considerations: SDT, the JD-R model, and LMX (Decuyper & Schaufeli, 2020, 2021).

With reference to empirical findings on the relationship of leadership styles and motivational mediators in the leadership context, SDT is a highly relevant theory (Inceoglu et al., 2018). Leaders who foster followers' development through self-determination and their self-awareness of values influence fundamentally motivational processes, in which need satisfaction evokes autonomous motivation and engagement (Decuyper & Schaufeli, 2021).

According to SDT, there are at least two interpersonal styles: autonomy and controlling. In a climate that is characterized by autonomy support, leaders favor followers' involvement in decision-making processes, recognize their preferences, consider their perspectives, and offer them adequate choices. In a controlling style, leaders impose their own point of view, demonstrate an authoritarian style, pay negative conditional attention, make use of rewards and controlling, and even tend to control their followers' personal lives. Overall, autonomy-supportive social contexts favor intrinsic motivation, while the controlling styles undermine it. In very recent studies on motivational climates, it was demonstrated that need satisfaction and self-determined types of motivation mediated the relationship between the perception of an empowering climate by the leader and the followers' intention to continue. In contrast, need thwarting and self-determined motivation mediated the relationship between the perception of a disempowering climate and the intention to leave. Regarding need satisfaction, it was illustrated that this led to autonomously motivated individuals, while psychological need thwarting was associated with controlled motivation. Thus, need satisfaction was considered a predictor of self-determined motivation while need thwarting was a negative

predictor. Finally, results revealed that the perception of a motivational climate created by the leader had significant consequences through the thwarting of basic psychological needs and the followers' quality of motivation. The perception of a disempowering climate contributes to the thwarting of followers' basic psychological needs (Castillo-Jiménez et al., 2022).

3.2.1. The Job Demands-Resources Model of Burnout

The JD-R model was conceptualized due to the assumption that burnout can develop irrespective of the type of occupation when job demands are high and job resources are limited. Thus, according to the model, negative working conditions can lead to energy depletion and undermine employees' motivation. Within the model, job types can be categorized into the broad categories of job demands and job resources. Job demands are mainly related to the exhaustion component of burnout, whereas a lack of job resources is mainly related to disengagement (Demerouti et al., 2001). Burnout represents a reaction to chronic occupational stress which is characterized by emotional exhaustion, cynicism, and a lack of professional efficacy. As proposed by burnout researchers, the conceptual opposites of emotional exhaustion and cynicism are dedication and vigor as they represent the core dimensions of engagement (González-Romá et al., 2006).

In contrast to previous definitions of burnout in which it was demonstrated as a syndrome of emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and reduced personal accomplishment, the Oldenburg Burnout Inventory includes two dimensions for the definition of burnout: exhaustion and disengagement from work. In the JD-R model, job demands refer to physical, social, or organizational aspects that require physical or mental effort by employees, and are therefore associated with psychological and physiological costs, such as exhaustion (Demerouti et al., 2001). While not necessarily negative, they can turn into stressors when they demand significant effort and are therefore also associated with outcomes such as anxiety, burnout or depression (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004). Job resources, however, refer to physical, psychological, social, or organizational aspects that may be functional in achieving work goals, reducing job demands, or stimulating growth and development (Demerouti et al., 2001). When conceptualizing the JD-R model,

authors found evidence that the development of burnout symptoms is not determined by a specific job type, but by a specific constellation of working conditions. When job demands are high and job resources are low at the same time, they predict that employees will develop exhaustion and disengagement (Demerouti et al., 2001).

Referring to SDT, job resources might influence an intrinsic motivational role as they increase individuals' growth, development and learning. This also applies to extrinsic motivation as job demands can be instrumental in achieving professional goals (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004). The needs for competence and self-determination motivate individuals to seek and attempt optimal challenges which fit their competencies, and keep them involved in cycles of optimal functioning. In contrast, pressure and tension can inhibit the experience of the optimal flow (Deci & Ryan, 1985).

The impact of job resources on intrinsic motivation is also recognized by Job Characteristics Theory, which states that every job has its own motivational potential and depends on five core characteristics: skill variety, task significance, task identity, feedback, and autonomy. The model assumes that those characteristics are associated with desirable outcomes such as increased performance, internal motivation, job satisfaction, and low absenteeism and turnover rates (Wall et al., 1978).

The JD-R model can be applied to a broad range of job types and is not restricted to a limited set of predictor variables such as the demand-control model (Karasek et al., 1979) or the effort-reward imbalance model (Siegrist, 1996). Historically, the demand-control model has dominated empirical research on job and stress over decades, stating that the combination of high job demands and low job control operates as a predictor of psychological strain and illness. In contrast, the effort-reward imbalance model assumes that job strain is caused by an imbalance between effort and rewards, with effort being defined as extrinsic job demands and the intrinsic motivation to meet them, and rewards being defined as salary or career opportunities. The overall assumption in this model is that a lack of reciprocity between effort and reward will consequently lead to arousal and stress. According to the authors of the JD-R model, the above-mentioned models

do not leave room for the integration of other work-related factors that might be related to well-being (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007). The model is based on two underlying psychological processes that play a role in the development of job strain and motivation. First, the health impairment process assumes that poorly designed jobs or chronic job demands exhaust employees' mental and physical resources and can lead to energy depletion and health problems. The second process states that job resources have motivational potential and lead to higher work engagement, lower cynicism, and excellent performance. Evidence has been found on the buffer effect of job resources on the relationship between job demands and employees' well-being. As a suggestion for future research, researchers recommended to include personal resources in the JD-R model (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007).

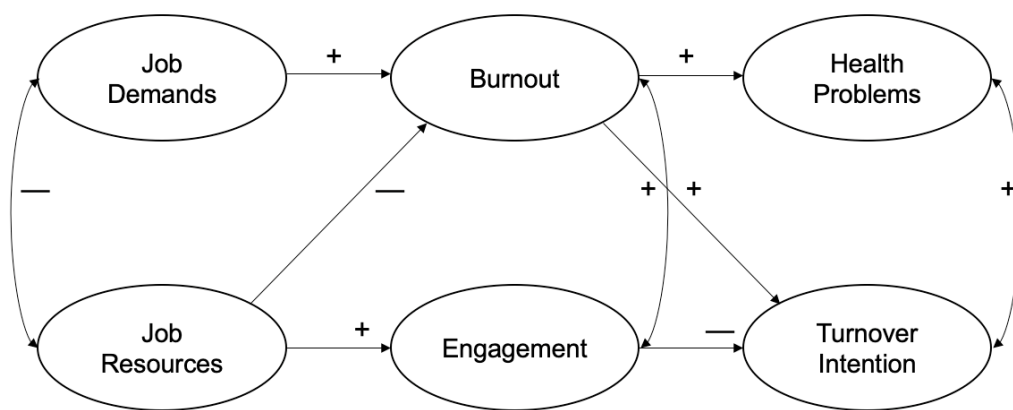
In addition to personal resources, job resources may play a role in buffering the impact of job demands which are associated with burnout. Nevertheless, there is also evidence for a curvilinear relationship between job resources and individuals' well-being, and an increase in certain resources may not always lead to a decrease in burnout symptoms (Bakker et al., 2005).

According to Schaufeli and Bakker (2004), burnout metaphorically describes a state of mental weariness, whereas job engagement is purported to be its positive antipode. Engagement is defined as a "positive, fulfilling, work-related state of mind that is characterized by vigor, dedication, and absorption" and it "refers to a persistent and pervasive affective-cognitive state that is not focused on any particular object, event, individual, or behavior" (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004, p. 295).

Regarding stress, the JD-R model states that it is relevant at both the individual and the team level, and can be an outcome of various leadership approaches. While some degree of stress can enhance performance, excessive levels may have debilitating consequences (Yammarino, 2013). Also, low structured job situations have been shown to lead to less satisfaction among employees (Gleason et al., 1978). In line with this, and with reference to SDT, it was suggested that engaging leaders can reduce their followers' levels of burnout and boost their levels of work engagement. In short, the model generally assumes that excessively high job demands result in negative outcomes (i.e. the stress process), whilst job resources are found to elicit positive outcomes (i.e. the motivational process

(Schaufeli, 2015)). The overarching idea of the JD-R in its initial form is illustrated in Figure 10:

Figure 10. The Research Model of the JD-R Model



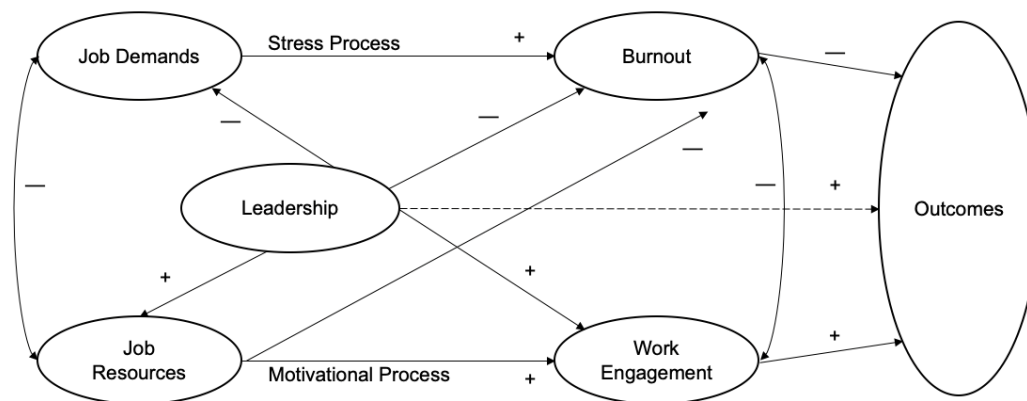
Note. Adapted from "Job demands, job resources, and their relationship with burnout and engagement: A multi-sample study," by W. B. Schaufeli & A. B. Bakker, 2004, *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 25(3), p. 297 (DOI: 10.1002/job.248). CC BY.

The impact of leadership appeared particularly relevant for the JD-R model because leaders are supposed to maintain their followers' health, motivation, and productivity by balancing their job demands and job resources (Schaufeli, 2015). Nevertheless, it also becomes apparent that leaders can affect both dimensions and can increase job demands as well as job resources (Tummers & Bakker, 2021). Transformational leaders in particular, create desirable work environments and strengthen motivational process which evoke motivational processes in followers. In contrast, destructive leaders cause role problems and trigger burnout (Schaufeli, 2015). As earlier indicated, SDT proposes that the satisfaction of the needs for autonomy, competence, and relatedness predicts employees' work engagement (Deci & Ryan, 2000), and transferring this to the JD-R model, basic need satisfaction

was revealed as a mediator between job resource and vigor (Van Den Broeck, Vansteenkiste, De Witte, et al., 2008). In essence, job resources foster need satisfaction, which in turn, promote work engagement, and those resources can be found in engaging leaders, as they inspire, strengthen, and connect with their followers and therefore satisfy their basic needs. In contrast, if leaders fulfil not all of these needs, employees experience higher levels of job demands and are more likely to suffer burnout. The findings on leadership within the JD-R model were not restricted to specific organizational or occupational groups (Schaufeli, 2015).

To sum up, the findings of Schaufeli combine the findings of SDT and JD-R by using leadership as illustrated in Figure 11:

Figure 11. The Hypothesized Job Demands-Resources Leadership Model



Note. Adapted from "Engaging leadership in the job demands-resources model," by W. B. Schaufeli, 2015, *Career Development International*, 20(5), p. 447 (DOI: 10.1108/CDI-02-2015-0025). Copyright by Emerald Group Publishing Limited. Reprinted with permission.

It is assumed that work characteristics and need satisfaction, as stated within SDT and the JD-R model, serve as mediators of the relationship between positive leadership behavior and followers' work engagement (Decuyper & Schaufeli, 2020). Abusive supervision, which was described in detail in the previous chapters,

is considered a source of stress that might have serious implications for the effectiveness of organizations and their members (Tepper et al., 2004).

The integration of leadership into the JD-R model (Schaufeli, 2015) was an important hallmark and a trigger for subsequent research on the individual components. As previously outlined, positive associations between positive leadership styles and followers' engagement were found in a meta-analysis by Decuyper and Schaufeli (2021), who also identified several overarching categories of moderators and mediators, which further explained these mechanisms. Overall, transformational, authentic, servant, ethical, and empowering leaders were demonstrated to overlap in their aim to be a moral manager, show role modelling behavior, support followers' self-determination, and promote positive exchanges with followers.

With regard to the JD-R model, resources were found to be the strongest predictors of work engagement as they enable followers to master demands and to promote processes of growth and learning. Despite their important role in the model, a systematic categorization was only recently implemented. Now, four types of resources have been defined, namely social resources (e.g. support among employees), job resources (in terms of job variety), organizational resources (such as organizational justice), and developmental resources (e.g. followers' career perspective). However, empirical findings on the strength of the relationship between engagement and the categories of resources are inconclusive. Social resources in terms of leaders' and co-workers' supportive behaviors are crucial for employee well-being while support at the organizational level has a long-term effect on engagement. Overall, personal resources and development resources showed stronger relationships with job engagement in contrast to job and social resources. However, a medium range of correlation was found across all resources (Mazzetti et al., 2023).

Touching on personal resources and the expanded JD-R model, meaningful work was conceptualized as a significant personal resource in the workplace. Not only resources, but also job demands were classified into categories, for example challenge stressors and hindrance stressors. While challenge stressors included job demands such as high workloads, time pressure, and a multifaceted job scope,

hindrance stressors included aspects such as office politics, formalities, job ambiguity, and along with insecurity (Meng et al., 2023). As found out by Xanthopoulou et al. (2009), individuals who are self-efficacious, optimistic, and believe in their own importance within the organization are more likely to experience high levels of work engagement because of these personal resources. When such resources are available for the individual, they feel able to accomplish their work goals. To date, research has mainly focused on such variables that are related to the construct of psychological capital (i.e. hope, optimism, self-efficacy, resiliency), because it was demonstrated that they allow individuals to continue to behave in a positive manner when faced with setbacks in the workplace (Meng et al., 2023). The approach on personal resources was broadened by the consideration of meaningful work, being an individual's subjective experience that his or her work is significant, contributes to the greater good and may facilitate their own development. The role of meaningful work had previously rarely been included in JD-R literature, although it was shown as a moderator of the relationship between hindrance stressors and job burnout, thus buffering the negative impact for individuals who perceived their work to be more meaningful. In contrast, an interaction effect was not found for challenge stressors and meaningful work. Nevertheless, it becomes apparent that the further development of the JD-R model is beneficial for leadership research and sheds light on the underlying mechanisms between leadership and job demands or resources and their impact on employee-related outcomes (Meng et al., 2023). Furthermore, meaningful work entails a match between the sense of existential purpose and one's activities. Individuals then act out their individually intended roles, resulting in the experience of autonomy, competence, and relatedness. As outlined in SDT, these circumstances promote the most high-quality types of motivation and decrease the sense of work as an externally imposed burden. In contrast, some researchers argued that meaningful work can also result in exhaustion as a consequence of excessive efforts (Roşca et al., 2021).

As the research on the JD-R model continued, it was outlined that although the model initially addresses how jobs are objectively designed and subjectively experienced, most examinations relied exclusively on subjective self-reported data. Very recent analyses depicted that perceived job characteristics mediate the effects of objective characteristics on follower outcomes. These findings raise the question

which features make jobs more or less demanding, and the need for a better understanding of the link between objective and subjective job demands and resources (Y. Li et al., 2023).

With the expansion and further research on the JD-R model, research with a focus on individual occupational settings emerged. Very often, examinations focus on settings which are characterized by high job demands in order to analyze potential job resources that buffer the negative effects on employees' well-being. An occupational setting that plays an important role in recent research on the JD-R is the healthcare sector. In healthcare systems, employees are exposed to occupational health risks, including exposure to diseases, psychological stressors, or working in shifts. In such environments, tools need to be assessed to foster the motivation and well-being of individuals. It was demonstrated that job demands such as high work pressure, role ambiguity, and emotional demands can result in health problems, while resources in terms of social support, feedback mechanisms, and autonomy lead to a motivational process that promotes learning, work engagement, and organizational commitment. Apart from personal resources in terms of constructs that are related to psychological capital, the personality of employees was found to have an important role in coping with negative effects arising from work environment settings (Tomo & De Simone, 2019).

3.2.2. Leader-Member Exchange

Another underlying mechanism is the importance of LMX, which originally rooted from role theory, but now mostly relies on social exchange theory (Dulebohn et al., 2012).

LMX was initially considered another leadership style, yet has evolved into a prescription for generating more effective leadership due to the development of sustainable leadership relationships (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995). When it was first introduced, LMX was considered ground-breaking for two reasons. First, it considered separate dyadic relationships between leaders and followers, and second, it did not assume that leaders develop an identical relationship with each subordinate (Dulebohn et al., 2012) The dyadic relationship between leaders and

members and its unique adoption of the relationship as the level of analysis distinguishes LMX from other leadership theories (Gerstner & Day, 1997). LMX assumes that leaders modify their interactions across followers as the same behavior will not generate the identical outcome in all dyads. For instance, some followers will react positively to transformational leadership and enhance the relationship with their leaders while others react more negatively, resulting in a decrease of LMX quality (Dulebohn et al., 2012). LMX is also described as the quality of their social exchanges and states that leaders treat their followers differently leading to different quality relationships and different levels of performance (Schreier et al., 2022).

LMX is characterized by the three domains of leaders, followers, and the dyadic relationship among them; these domains are not exhaustive as other relevant domains such as the group, the team, or the organization have not been included for reasons of simplification. With the three domains, a relationship-based approach to leadership was operationalized. Its core assumption is that effective leadership processes emerge when leaders and followers form mature relationships between dyadic partners which can occur in and between organizations. A significant amount of research still uses the dichotomous descriptions of in-group and out-group, although the construct has progressed beyond this simple classification. LMX contains three dimensions: The first dimension is mutual respect for the abilities of one another, the second is deep reciprocal trust, and the third is the assumption that obligation will transform into career-oriented social exchanges (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995). Work relationships that build on social rather than economic exchange are represented by loyalty, commitment, trust, and support, and the reciprocal relationship leads to affective attachment between leaders and subordinates (Dulebohn et al., 2012).

Regarding leadership styles and the Full Range of Leadership Model, LMX is both transactional and transformational. The dyadic exchange usually starts with social transactions in terms of transactional leadership, but effective LMX relationships lead to transformational leadership in which leaders perform effectively in their formal roles (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995). When leaders show transformational behaviors, they show their willingness to put extra effort into the relationship which in turn, motivates followers to display more accomplishments

and improve work behaviors. Overall, the key outcomes are determined by the quality of the relationship, rather than by the behaviors or perceptions of leaders or followers (Dulebohn et al., 2012). In their meta-analysis, Decuyper and Schaufeli (2021) outlined the importance of LMX as a dominant mediator in the relationship between leadership and performance, and also as an explanation for the overlap of transformational, servant, and ethical leadership.

The quality of the relationship between leaders and members operates as a predictor of outcomes at the individual, group, and the organizational level. LMX has been empirically linked to performance-related and attitudinal outcomes, such as job performance, satisfaction with leaders, overall satisfaction, role conflict and clarity, commitment, member competence, and turnover intentions. Interestingly, it was positively related to performance ratings and the strength of the relationship was stronger when it was measured from the leader's perspective (Gerstner & Day, 1997).

A recent study on the relationship between leadership behaviors and follower performance relied on 35 meta-analyses to explain this relationship (Gottfredson & Aguinis, 2017). The central question of the overarching examination was how and which positive leadership behaviors improve several types of follower performance. The aim was to identify the underlying mechanisms including their respective theories which provided explanations across four types of leadership behaviors (namely consideration, initiating structure, contingent rewards, and transformational leadership) as well as two types of follower performance (in terms of task performance and organizational citizenship behavior). It is worth noting that the relation between job satisfaction and LMX primarily relied on social exchange theory when it was first examined as part of the transformational leadership literature. In sum, as the major result of the recent study, the strongest pathway from leadership behaviors to followers' performance was through LMX, and it emerged as a common explanatory mediating mechanism across the multiple leadership behaviors. As an implication for practice, the authors stated that, again, leaders need to focus on followers' perceptions of their relationship with them as this might serve as a catalyst for performance. Specifically, if leaders want to promote their followers' performance, they need to

engage in positive relationships, and as these perceptions improve, performance outcomes will also improve (Gottfredson & Aguinis, 2017).

In times of job insecurity, LMX can operate as a mediator of the relationship between perceived job insecurity and job-related outcomes, such as higher job satisfaction and lower turnover intentions. From an organizational perspective, those results showed that promoting LMX may lead to satisfaction and improved health of employees (Di Stefano et al., 2020).

According to LMX, processes are not only influenced by leaders, but also by followers which is contrary to traditional leadership research approaches as they assume that leader characteristics and behaviors directly affect their followers' attitudes and behaviors. These relationships are characterized by continuous interplay and leaders depend on their followers to meet targets. This dynamic necessitates a thorough assessment of each individual follower. Nevertheless, in sum, LMX appears to be more strongly influenced and affected by leaders than by followers (Dulebohn et al., 2012).

Social exchange processes in the organizational context play a pivotal role as the relationship between leaders and followers has been demonstrated as a prominent antecedent of followers' workplace behavior. When followers perceive the relationship with their supervisors positively, they are more likely to display OCB and less likely to engage in CWB (Götz et al., 2020). Götz et al. (2020) found that employees' organizational identification operates as an underlying mechanism. Employees tend to generalize the quality of their relationship with their leader to the overall organization, so the better the relationship with their leaders, the more strongly connected they feel with the organization. Thus, they define themselves in terms of the organization and subsequently act in its best interest, therefore engaging in OCB and refraining from CWB. These findings on the role of organizational identification of employees contributes to the research on LMX as it represents an explaining mechanism for the link between LMX and numerous dimensions of performance as previously outlined (Götz et al., 2020).

To conclude, LMX is considered one of the direct interpersonal effects from leaders on their followers' engagement based on their social exchange (Decuyper & Schaufeli, 2020), and is considered crucial to organizational functioning (Dulebohn et al., 2012).

The above-mentioned JD-R model assumes that high job demands can be buffered by specific job resources, thus reducing the negative impact of job demands. As illustrated by Bakker et al. (2005), high-quality relationships with leaders can alleviate the influence of job demands because the support and appreciation of the leader allows followers to put demands into perspective. It helps them cope with the demands, facilitates performance, and prevents mental health issues.

Leaders and their behavior play a crucial role in organizations as their displayed behavior significantly impacts the work behavior, performance, and well-being of employees. Frequently, employee well-being is equated to, or operationalized as job satisfaction. In a recent integrated literature review from Inceoglu et al. (2018), the authors fiercely criticized that employees' well-being is underdeveloped in leadership research as the underlying physiological and psychological processes that impact well-being are often ignored and related mediators are not examined.

In studies that included mediators, they could be summarized in five categories: social-cognitive, motivational, affective, relational, and identification. In this context, social-cognitive mediators include e.g. self-efficacy or psychological empowerment (Inceoglu et al., 2018). Motivational mediators include factors such as job control, basic psychological needs, and the management of role overload. Leaders' or followers' affect were considered potential affective mediators, while trust, team climate, and LMX were considered relational mediators. Finally, organizational identification, identification with the leader, or job involvement were considered identification mediators. With regard to the findings of Inceoglu et al. (2018), if any mediators are considered in research, it is primarily the social-cognitive dimension.

To sum up, as stated by Decuypere and Schaufeli (2020), although every leadership style is considered to have an individual focus, their impact on followers might run through different pathways.

IV – CONSOLIDATION AND OBJECTIVES FOR EMPIRICAL STUDIES

IV - CONSOLIDATION AND OBJECTIVES FOR EMPIRICAL STUDIES

4.1. SYNTHESIS OF THE LITERATURE REVIEW

This chapter deals with a summary of the most important findings of the models and theories described in the previous chapters of the thesis, as they provide the basis for the research designs of the empirical studies. This summary is not exhaustive and is limited to the most important models and theories relevant for the conceptualization and interpretation of the empirical studies of this thesis. The synthesis deals with the impact of the Dark Triad on organizations and individuals, as well as with the role of Self-Determination theory, motivation, and overall well-being of followers.

The increasing interest in leadership research is strong, particularly among practitioners (Day, 2000), but it has become clear that leadership research is a broad field. As suggested by Yammarino (2013), leadership research that focuses on the dark side of leadership is one of the research areas that should be considered more often to complement the more advanced knowledge about the positive side of leaders and leadership. In addition, the focus should revolve around teams as well as shared and collectivistic approaches that seem well-suited for organizations with flat hierarchies (Yammarino, 2013). Tepper et al. (2006) called for research that examines the interaction of potential victim and offender characteristics and perceptions of negative work behaviors. It is not about blaming followers, but rather about identifying risk factors that contribute to destructive leadership and negative leadership behaviors. Leaders are considered organizational representatives and should not only be held accountable for their actions, but also monitored for destructive behaviors.

The chapters on the theoretical foundations on destructive leadership and on the Dark Triad of personality in particular, have outlined the devastating effects of leaders with dark personality traits. Nevertheless, the question remains how they actually manage to climb the corporate ladder. Selection processes and interview

situations occur over a short period of time, so dark personality traits might not be revealed, and recruiters are not trained for the detection of certain dark traits (Babiak, 1995). Impression management and certain presentation skills may obscure poor performance and behavioral styles that might harm organizations (Babiak et al., 2010). As previously outlined, dark personality traits have been found to be antecedents of destructive leadership which is in turn linked to a broad range of dysfunctional outcomes, both at the individual and the team level.

SDT taps into the quality of motivation by considering two overarching types of motivation, namely autonomous and controlled motivation, whereas intrinsic motivation is considered the most autonomous form. Intrinsic motivation has been linked to overall positive outcomes and for a long time, it was considered the most desirable form. Only recently did identified regulation appear to be relevant and desirable for performance-related outcomes, although it belongs to the extrinsic forms of motivation (J. L. Howard et al., 2021). Apart from the types of motivation, SDT deals with the three innate psychological needs, namely autonomy, relatedness, and competence which are considered to predict individuals' optimal functioning. Overall, research on the role of need satisfaction has shown its important role as an underlying mechanism for individuals' thriving in the organizational context (Deci & Ryan, 2000; Van den Broeck et al., 2013). As precisely summarized by Gagné and Forest (2008), need satisfaction is the key to individuals' optimal functioning in terms of performance improvement and increased well-being. In brief, the theoretical foundations of this doctoral thesis incorporate two contrasting constructs, namely the Dark Triad of personality as one of the major antecedents of destructive leadership, and SDT as one of the overarching frameworks on motivation and individuals' functioning.

On the basis of these constructs, the JD-R model and the leader-member exchange appeared highly relevant as they represent two of the most prevalent theories in organizational health psychology.

As proposed within the JD-R model, the presence of job demands is associated with burnout through psychological energetic processes, while job resources are associated with engagement due to motivational processes. Empirical research showed that the satisfaction of basic needs partly accounts for the relationship between job demands and exhaustion and also fully accounts for the

relationship between job resources and vigor (Van Den Broeck, Vansteenkiste, De Witte, et al., 2008). Nowadays, the JD-R model has emerged as one of the leading models in occupational health psychology and has contributed to the knowledge on the association of employee well-being and workplace characteristics which are represented by job resources and job demands (Mazzetti et al., 2023). With the inclusion of leadership in the model (Schaufeli, 2015), it represents one of the most important empirical constructs for this doctoral thesis. Interestingly, when leadership was included in the expanded JD-R model, it was demonstrated that it can trigger both motivational and stress processes, so it was neither a clear job demand nor a job resource. These findings were highly relevant for the examinations of this thesis as they examined both positive and negative influences of leaders' dark traits. The leader-member exchange represents the quality of the relationship between leaders and followers and has been considered an important predictor of outcomes on the individual, the group, and the organizational level (Gerstner & Day, 1997). The leader-member exchange appeared relevant as it focuses on the dyadic relationship of leaders with their followers. As the dark personality of leaders is the focus of the empirical studies of this thesis, the question arises which impact the characteristics have on employees and subsequently on their performance, satisfaction and well-being.

As previously stated, leadership research on employee well-being often neglected underlying mechanisms that influence physiological and psychological outcomes of employees (Inceoglu et al., 2018). To remedy this research deficiency, the empirical studies of this doctoral thesis will consider relevant variables in each of these studies. Nevertheless, when reviewing literature on the connection of leadership and well-being of employees, it is noteworthy that it often focuses on either positive or negative aspects of leadership without considering both sides, or even actively excludes negative aspects (Inceoglu et al., 2018). Conversely, literature on the Dark Triad of personality did show that some researchers did indeed consider both sides (Volmer et al., 2016).

4.2. CONCEPTUALIZATION OF THE RESEARCH MODEL AND THE EMPIRICAL STUDIES

With regard to the previous summary, the conceptualization of the empirical studies is outlined in this section. The overarching research model represents the basis for the individual research designs of each examination.

As proposed by Gagné and Forest (2008), there are three organizational levers that can influence work-related need satisfaction: job design, compensation in terms of rewards, and interpersonal relations. The aim of this doctoral thesis is to examine the interplay of the Dark Triad of personality with factors such as followers' satisfaction. Thus, in the following empirical studies, the above-mentioned aspects were examined and followers' satisfaction, their occupational setting and job design, as well as their career development were considered while always analyzing the leader's Dark Triad level.

In general, leadership theories can be classified in terms of their level of conceptualization. As illustrated in Figure 12, the levels can be interpreted as a hierarchy, in which each level has a unique focus, as well as advantages and disadvantages (Yukl, 2013).

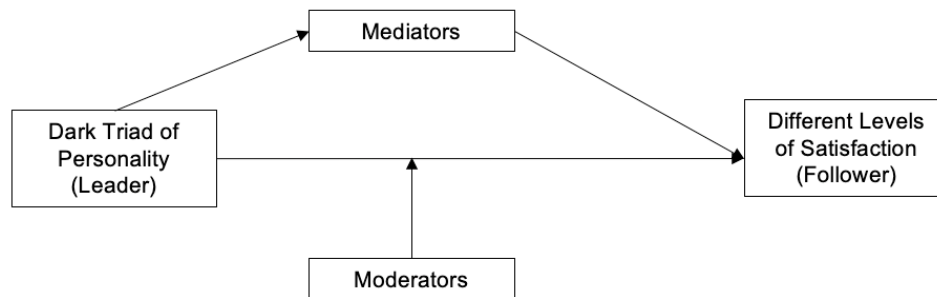
Figure 12. Levels of Conceptualization for Leadership Processes



Level	Influence of Leaders at the Specific Level
Organizational-Level Processes	▪ Strategic leadership: gathering information about the environment, identifying threats and opportunities, developing strategies for adapting to the environment, etc. ▪ Leaders' responsibilities include designing an appropriate organizational structure, determining authority relationships, and coordinating across units. ▪ Providing explanations for financial performance
Group-Level Processes	▪ Focus on collective processes that determine team performance ▪ Collective explanatory processes include the utilization of personnel and resources, commitment and confidence of group members, and trust among individuals. ▪ Implications of leaders' actions on the larger organization are seldom explicitly considered.
Dyadic Processes	▪ Relationship between leaders and others, typically followers ▪ Leadership behavior is a source of influence on followers' attitudes, motivations, and behaviors. ▪ These processes do not include behaviors that are necessary to facilitate collective performance.
Intra-Individual Processes	▪ Leaders' traits, values, skills, motivation, and cognition influence their behavior. ▪ Traits and skills explain motivation to seek power and authority; values explain the emergence of ethical leadership and the altruistic use of power. ▪ Do not directly influence subordinates, peers, bosses, and outsiders

Note. Author's elaboration based on *Leadership in Organizations* (pp. 30–34), by G. Yukl, 2013, Pearson.

In this illustration, it becomes apparent that leadership processes influence all levels within an organization, including the individual, the dyadic, the group, and the overall organizational level. The aim of the empirical studies in this doctoral thesis is to analyze the impact of the Dark Triad traits of leaders on their followers, particularly on their satisfaction in the workplace and beyond, and on their career development while considering several follower-related variables. Summarizing the previously mentioned and the findings of the literature review, the overarching research model can be illustrated as shown in Figure 13:

Figure 13. Conceptual Research Model

Note. Author's elaboration.

Each empirical study has a different focus which is described in the following:

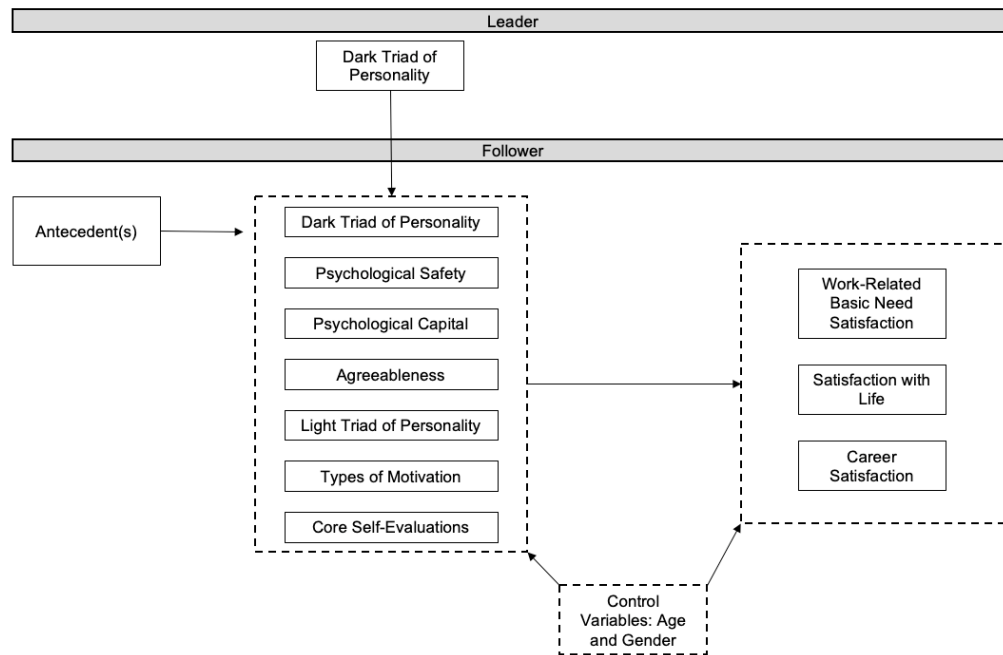
The first study examines the impact of dark leadership on work-related basic need satisfaction of followers while considering the role of their psychological capital and psychological safety within the team. With this approach, underlying mechanisms influenced by destructive leadership are analyzed, both on the individual level of the followers' psychological capital as well as the team's level in terms of the psychological safety. Both of these constructs can be influenced and promoted by measures such as training and development. Hence, they appear relevant for investigation. As outlined in the previous chapters, the Dark Triad often leads to negative consequences for subordinates, but the knowledge on the exact mechanisms is scarce. At the same time, this study aims to elucidate factors that can prevent followers from being harmed by their leader, both on a personal and on a team level.

The second study uses a different approach and incorporates the role of individuals' motivation in the workplace with regard to the previously illustrated components of Self-Determination theory. Furthermore, job types are used to divide the overall sample into groups for detailed analysis. For the conceptualization of the study, it was assumed that there might be job types and

organizational settings with higher levels of intrinsic motivation, which enable individuals to cope better with high demands and low resources in their jobs.

The third study focuses on career development of followers that are confronted with dark leaders and the overall question of how those leaders influence their followers' success, and which underlying mechanisms operate. It therefore particularly considers the dyadic interplay of dark leaders and their influence on the development of their followers.

Finally, the fourth study collectively analyzes the relationship between the Dark Triad traits of leaders and followers of the first three studies. The literature review in the previous chapter did not provide insights on the interplay of leaders' and followers' characteristics with a focus on the Dark Triad traits. However, as for example described within the construct of the toxic triangle, destructive leaders succeed more easily when they encounter a certain type of susceptible followers. Thus, the fourth study sheds light on this interplay and its impact on satisfaction in the workplace and beyond. With reference to the literature review and the aim of the separate studies, the following specific research model in Figure 14 was conceptualized:

Figure 14. *Specific Research Model*

Note. Author's elaboration.

The variables of interest are explained in great detail in the respective study. As depicted in Figure 14, the research model of this thesis mainly focuses on follower-related variables. This is in contrast to most previous research on the Dark Triad of personality, and it represents a novel approach to also consider followers' dark traits and their predictors.

As previously outlined, one of the central variables of the empirical studies is the Dark Triad level of leaders and followers, which is measured in each of the studies. With regard to the previous chapter on theoretical foundations, it was outlined that there are separate standard measures for each of the three traits of narcissism, Machiavellianism, and psychopathy. To be specific, narcissism is often measured with the NPI (Raskin & Hall, 1979), while Machiavellianism is often measured with the Mach-IV (Christie & Geis, 1970), and finally, one of the most

commonly used measures for psychopathy is the SRP-III (Hare, 1991). For the empirical studies, it did not appear efficient to apply those standard measures due to the high number of items and the risk of participant fatigue. Thus, standard measures for the Dark Triad of personality as a whole were reviewed to identify alternatives.

Currently, the Short Dark Triad (SD3) and the Dirty Dozen are considered the most commonly used scales for assessing the Dark Triad, and in both cases, their limited sets of items imply that some original facets of the three traits might not be fully represented and the uniqueness of each trait might not be grasped. Especially the items for psychopathy have been severely criticized as only callous affect is assessed, while other components such as manipulation and antisocial behavior are neglected (Muris et al., 2017). With regard to past criticism due to its brevity, the Dirty Dozen was evaluated once again to provide more evidence of its validity. In this context, good convergent validity and associations of each trait with the Big Five were demonstrated (Jonason et al., 2013) and it even replicated findings that were initially identified with the Short Dark Triad (D. N. Jones & Paulhus, 2014), consisting of 27 items. Although the Dirty Dozen has been criticized for its brevity and for measuring each trait with only four items, it has become a commonly used measure applied by various researchers to this day (Carter et al., 2014; Craker & March, 2016; Furnham & Treglown, 2021; Greitemeyer, 2015; Jonason et al., 2012; Kiral Ucar et al., 2023; Klimstra et al., 2020; Satornino et al., 2023; Volmer et al., 2016).

For reasons of test economy and regarding similar test results of the SD3 and the Dirty Dozen in past research (Muris et al., 2017), the Dirty Dozen was chosen for the research within this doctoral thesis in order to avoid drop-outs among participants due to the high number of items leading to participant fatigue. In sum, research on the Dirty Dozen demonstrated that the knowledge gain on the three separate traits of the Dark Triad is limited and that the dimensions might not be fully represented. However, the aim of the empirical studies was not to provide detailed and separate insights on the three Dark Triad traits, but to examine the impact of an overall Dark Triad score among leaders. Hence, the Dirty Dozen represents an appropriate measure to fulfill the purpose of the research designs in this thesis.

4.3. METHODOLOGICAL CONSIDERATIONS FOR THE EMPIRICAL STUDIES

4.3.1. Structure and Procedure of the Empirical Studies

This chapter deals with the common structure of the empirical studies and the procedure applied in all of them. Before conducting research, it is important to incorporate the findings and assumptions of existing research into the research model and then derive the individual designs of the empirical studies from it.

For the purpose of this doctoral thesis, four empirical studies were designed. For each of the empirical studies, the procedures are explained in great detail in the relevant chapters. Nevertheless, all of the studies follow a generic structure, so this section intends to present the overarching structure and approach for each examination.

In all studies, the theoretical background and hypothesis development is outlined in the first section of each study. The hypotheses are then derived from the theoretical background with the aim of broadening existing knowledge in the specific area of research. The hypotheses are directly followed by the description of the methods, including the sample descriptions and details on the data collection, inventories, and their reliabilities. Afterwards, the statistical analyses and their results with regard to the corresponding hypotheses are presented. Finally, those results are discussed and limitations as well as suggestions for future research are provided. This general structure is applied for all the four studies. As mentioned before, there is also an overarching discussion that covers all of the studies at the end of the doctoral thesis.

With reference to the theoretical foundations in this thesis, it becomes apparent that in each of the studies, the Dark Triad of leaders is required as one variable. In leadership research, leaders are often rated by their followers because their perceptions are crucial for examining the impact of leadership on followers and organizations. In contrast, it would be possible to collect data with self-reported data, but this would lead to the risks of self-report bias or social desirability, which is outlined in one of the following chapters. Hence, using others-assessments appeared more appropriate for the purpose of this thesis. Apart from the individual variables of interest in each study, control variables were

implemented. Age and gender represent commonly used control variables in organizational and leadership research. Apart from being a standard control variable that is regularly found in leadership research, participants' age appeared particularly interesting because of the examinations of Carstensen et al. (2000), who explored age-related differences in emotional experience over the adult life span. They elucidated that age was unrelated to the frequency of the experience of positive emotions, but a curvilinear relationship was found for the experience of negative emotions, showing that negative emotional experiences were less frequent among older people. Results clearly reported that early adulthood is the phase in which negative affect was experienced most frequently. Furthermore, older individuals were found to exhibit a higher level of differentiation in their emotional experiences, and this emotional differentiation was associated with positive characteristics of individuals, such as reduced neuroticism and better emotional control. The second control variable was the gender of participants. As character traits of participants were measured, and previous research showed that gender differences occur particularly in European and American cultures (Costa et al., 2001), the implementation of this control variable appeared to be meaningful.

In general, the target group of all examinations included employees in occupational settings with a direct superior to be rated. Thus, full-time students, pensioners, or self-employed individuals were not targeted and were excluded from the sample. For this purpose, a cover story and an excluding question at the start were implemented for all empirical studies. Apart from this general requirement, a detailed description of the samples was included in all the empirical studies. The second empirical study has a particular purpose as it aims to examine differences between occupational groups, focusing on individuals in helping professions compared with other professions. In this case, the cover story of the questionnaire was modified, and participants were asked in which profession they worked at the start of the questionnaire.

One of the most important questions when designing research is on the decision between cross-sectional and longitudinal research designs. In occupational health psychology, researchers often rely on cross-sectional designs, frequently using online questionnaires. This approach provides various advantages, such as simplicity and cost-effectiveness. For researchers, they also

provide a short or predictable data collection period, and for participants, they represent only a very limited burden as they only participate once. Cross-sectional designs are well-suited for testing assumptions and enable researchers to receive a clear impression of the state of affairs in the organization, or among their target group at a specific point in time. Nevertheless, the disadvantages of cross-sectional research cannot be ignored. One of the most important limitations is the inability to distinguish between a presumed cause and its effect. Although concepts may be well correlated, it does not necessarily imply that one causes the other, thus limiting its informative value on causality. Over the years, this has led to the implementation of alternative approaches, believed to mitigate these disadvantages by applying longitudinal research. Nevertheless, even longitudinal research involving repeated measurement does not automatically allow to draw conclusions on causal inferences (Taris et al., 2021).

For this doctoral thesis, cross-sectional designs were applied despite their potential limitations, each with a different focus, but always considering the Dark Triad of leaders as the central variable. In each of the studies, limitations and recommendations were outlined with reference to the commonly known weaknesses of cross-sectional designs.

4.3.2. Data Collection and Analysis

Before starting the upcoming empirical studies of this doctoral thesis, some methodological considerations were applied which are illustrated in this chapter. This also includes further methodological considerations which are necessary before the data collection process.

In each of the empirical studies, existing psychometric measures were used, but not all of them were available in German. As the studies were conducted among German-speaking employees, the use of German questionnaires was preferred as it appeared easier to attract participants. Whenever items were only available in English, they were translated into German in accordance with the guidelines for cross-cultural research by Brislin (1970). Within these guidelines, Brislin recommended a four-step procedure for the translation of items and starts with the

translation of the original item into the target language. Afterwards, the target language is checked and blindly back-translated into the source language. If a meaning error is detected, the terms are translated and back-translated again until meaning errors no longer exist (Brislin, 1970). Although Brislin's model is a well-known instrument for translations in cross-cultural research, some researchers propose a revised approach. To increase efficiency and achieve the goals of cultural and functional equivalence, an extension of the model that includes simultaneous translations and back-translations, followed by group consultations with bilingual experts is recommended (P. S. Jones et al., 2001). For the empirical studies, the items were translated by the author of this doctoral thesis and then back-translated by a third person. As group consultations with bilinguals were not available, translations were double-checked with online translators to check for translation errors. Additionally, a pretest was conducted for every study with a focus on the comprehensibility and conciseness of the translated items. Whenever items were not easily understandable or misinterpretations were likely, the terms were replaced and the pretest was repeated. For all studies, the items utilized can be found in the appendices of this doctoral thesis.

For all the subsequent studies, the G*power-tool was used to determine the minimum sample size. In contrast to small samples, large samples can also lead to problems, especially since extreme values can lead to a lack of normal distribution (Field, 2019). Regarding sample sizes, it was demonstrated that studies based on large samples sizes often show an extreme statistical significance, but only small or trivial effect sizes. Unlike p-values, effect sizes are not directly affected by sample sizes. Thus, researchers suggest to always report the effect size along with the p-value as a remedy for interpreting statistical significance in large samples (Lantz, 2013).

As previously mentioned, the personality traits of leaders were measured in the subsequent examinations as they operate as the core variable of most of the cases. Leadership literature differentiates between self-assessment and others-assessment which represent perceptions. Leadership is considered a matter of intentions as well as perceptions and these two perspectives do not necessarily always match. Thus, there is a gap between employee-perceived leadership and leader-intended leadership and they are only weakly correlated. Organizational

performance is more strongly influenced by employee-perceived leadership because employees' motivation and commitment are only affected by leadership if individuals actually notice it (Jacobsen & Bøgh Andersen, 2015). Recently, Schyns et al. (2018) demonstrated that followers' perceptions influence reactions to destructive leadership behavior and that those perceptions, in fact, mediate the relationship between leaders' behaviors and even leaders' reactions. Those results stressed the importance of considering the effects of perceptions when examining leadership and its outcomes. Furthermore, longitudinal studies on the relationship between followers' well-being and leadership behavior achieved appropriate results by measuring perceived leadership with others-assessments by followers (Perko et al., 2016). For this reason, the decision was made to measure leaders' personality traits with an others-assessment provided by their followers, as the perceived traits and behaviors are considered more important for examination than self-evaluations and the intended leadership styles of leaders themselves. Also, as stated by Avolio et al. (2009), the measurement of leadership has always been an issue due to methodological problems including the arbitrary manner in which key variables and constructs are chosen. Leadership is generally difficult to observe, and therefore it is typically measured by asking followers about their subjective perceptions. Consequently, the method of others-assessments was chosen for the empirical studies in this thesis and was applied identically in each of the studies.

Data for the statistical analyses were collected using SoSci Survey, an academic access panel whose participants do not receive compensation when completing questionnaires (Leiner, 2019). SoSci Survey allows researchers to create questionnaires and distribute them with the help of hyperlinks. The inventories for each study, introductory information for participants, and contact details of the author were provided in the questionnaire.

SoSci Survey provides different export options for the collected data. For the upcoming studies, data were exported as regular Excel-files, as they were further analyzed with SPSS version 29 and the PROCESS macro designed by Andrew F. Hayes. PROCESS is one of the leading tools for mediation, moderation, and conditional process analysis (A. F. Hayes, 2022).

Although existing measures were used in all the studies, they were checked for appropriate reliability before conducting hypotheses testing. For reliability,

Cronbach's alpha (Cronbach, 1951) appeared as the most widely used measure, but it should be noted that reliability always depends on the sample being tested, and differs from one sample to another. Higher heterogeneity among the sample leads to higher variance of the scores and higher reliability. Thus, researchers must not rely on the estimates of alpha that were published with the initial development of a scale, but they need to measure it for every sample that is being investigated (Streiner, 2003). Although Cronbach's alpha (α) is a widely-used measure, methodologists warned that it is not an optimal measure compared to its more general form, McDonald's omega (McDonald, 1999). Omega (ω) is a related and better alternative and methodologists recommend a shift away from alpha to omega. Nevertheless, Cronbach's alpha appears to be the most dominant measure reported in studies. However, although it is widely used, it is also often misunderstood. For its use and interpretation, it must be ensured that it is only used when items measure one single construct. Also, alpha assumes equal factor loadings, called tau-equivalence, which is often unknown or even neglected by users. Omega is considered a more general estimator of reliability as it does not anticipate tau-equivalence. Although there is no consensus on whether omega should completely replace alpha, it has emerged as a recommended and superior alternative (A. F. Hayes & Coutts, 2020). In this doctoral thesis, both alpha and omega values are reported throughout the empirical studies as the applied scales were initially developed and published with Cronbach's alpha values. To provide comparability with the initial publication of the scales, both measures of reliability are mentioned. At this point, it needs to be mentioned that the two measures often produce similar estimates, especially when scales are used that have undergone a process of refinement and evaluation (A. F. Hayes & Coutts, 2020), which is the case with the scales in the upcoming empirical studies.

As previously mentioned, all statistical analyses were conducted using the IBM SPSS Statistics software (version 29) and the PROCESS macro (version 4.0) by Andrew F. Hayes (A. F. Hayes, 2022).

The above-mentioned conceptual design illustrated that the empirical studies of this doctoral thesis require mediation and moderation analyses as well as conditional indirect effects, also known as moderated mediation effects (Preacher et al., 2007). Mediation focuses on the intervening mechanism that causes an effect,

whereas moderation focuses on factors which may affect the magnitude of the effect (Muller et al., 2005). Mediation (or an indirect effect) occurs whenever the causal effect of an independent variable (X) on a dependent variable (Y) is passed on by a mediator (M). The terms “mediation effect” and “indirect effect” are used interchangeably in this thesis. Furthermore, the strength of an indirect effect can depend linearly on the value of a moderator (W), and this combination of moderation and mediation is considered a conditional indirect effect, or moderated mediation. To be precise, the term reiterates that the effect of interest is an indirect effect, potentially conditional on the value of a moderator. Analyses conducted with the PROCESS macro are illustrated within regression analyses or path-analytic frameworks without latent variables. The macro includes bootstrapping as researchers advocate its use for assessing indirect effects. Generally, bootstrapping is one of the various resampling techniques which conceptualizes the sample as a pseudo-population which represents the broader population. When bootstrapping, no assumptions about the shape of the sampling distribution are initially required. Bootstrapping presents only minor drawbacks as it might be time-consuming, depending on the statistical analysis programs. Also, it provides slightly different confidence intervals (CI) each time it is applied to the same data set (Preacher et al., 2007).

When using the PROCESS macro, heteroskedasticity-consistent standard errors (HCSE) can be applied in the analyses. Hayes and Cai (2007) argued that they should be routinely used and provide a comparison of different standard errors (SE) that have been described so far. The overall assumption of homoskedasticity states that the variance of regression errors is constant. If not, the errors are said to have a status referred to as heteroskedastic. A highly appealing method of reducing those effects is the implementation of HCSE; however, they are still largely unknown outside the field of statistics and econometrics. They are derived from an estimate of the variance-covariance matrix of the regression coefficients, and over the last decades, several estimators have been proposed. In their composition, Hayes and Cai (2007) especially suggested the use of the standard errors HC3 and HC4. The so-called HC3 can keep the test size at the nominal level regardless of the presence or absence of heteroskedasticity, but it does depend to some extent on the presence or absence of high leverage points. Thus, HC4 demonstrates the most recent proposal with the aim of taking large

leverage values into consideration; it can therefore outperform HC3 in terms of test size control and performs well when used to construct quasi *t*-tests, regardless of whether high leverage observations are included or not. Moreover, numerical results show that the HC4 estimator implementation can slightly outperform double bootstrap tests in quasi *t*-tests, and that it behaves well in balanced and unbalanced designs (Cribari-Neto, 2004). However, the use of HCSE is not necessarily a panacea for the inferential problem caused by heteroskedasticity. Nevertheless, their implementation can function as a remedy for the potential effects and is therefore highly recommended for linear regression models (A. F. Hayes & Cai, 2007), as it is common that such models of cross-sectional data show some form of heteroskedasticity (Cribari-Neto, 2004).

PROCESS is a macro which “simplifies the implementation of mediation, moderation, and conditional process analysis” (A. F. Hayes et al., 2017, p. 77). A mediation analysis is a statistical procedure which tests hypotheses about the mechanism by which causal effects are transmitted. Apart from regular mediation analyses, conditional process models are growing in frequency. They allow for moderation of a mechanism; hence they are also referred to as moderated mediation models (A. F. Hayes et al., 2017). PROCESS relies on ordinary least squares (OLS) regression and includes bootstrapping methods which are required when the data are not normally distributed in small to medium samples (Shrout & Bolger, 2002). In social science, the approach by Baron and Kenny (1986), which focuses on the separate components of the model, has been experiencing waning popularity. There is a shift among researchers from the focus on partial and full mediation to a stronger attention on direct and indirect effects (Rucker et al., 2011; Zhao et al., 2010).

In behavioral research, very frequently the question arises whether structural equation modeling (SEM) would provide more benefits for the examinations of this doctoral thesis compared to PROCESS as an observed-variable tool. However, for models that include only observed and no latent variables, differences in results between SEM and PROCESS are likely to be trivial. In small samples, there might be differences in the values for standard errors, but not in bigger samples. Although mediation analyses that do not use latent variables receive criticism, even SEM will not be a panacea for problems caused by imperfect reliability of measurement. In

contrast to SEM, PROCESS requires complete data and listwise deletes datasets when data are missing (A. F. Hayes et al., 2017). For this reason, the questionnaires for this doctoral thesis did not allow participants to leave questions unanswered. If they decided not to answer, they were able to quit the interview and the dataset was not integrated into further analysis.

In sum, and apart from various other statistics, the PROCESS macro estimates model coefficients, uses bootstrap inference for all models, and can conduct comparisons between conditional indirect effects (A. F. Hayes & Rockwood, 2020). Thus, it was viewed as appropriate and beneficial for the purpose of the empirical studies of this thesis, even if it showed strengths and weaknesses compared to SEM approaches.

4.3.3. Common Method Biases

The general interest in the problem of method biases shows a long history in the behavioral sciences, as they are considered one of the main sources of measurement error, although there is still little agreement about whether this really is a problem (Podsakoff et al., 2012). The causes of method biases are manifold, some result from the fact that the predictor and the dependent variable are measured by the same source or rater, while other biases are due to the items themselves or the context in which they are measured (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, et al., 2003). In sum, it was even suggested that many of the existing tests of the antecedents and consequences of leadership constructs may be biased. It is therefore recommended to not only consider the relationships between constructs and measurement methods, but also the relationships between them when conducting research in the leadership field (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Podsakoff, et al., 2003; Podsakoff & Organ, 1986).

When obtaining the predictor and the criterion variable from the same person, a self-report bias is likely to occur resulting from covariance between the variables. Also, individuals aim to appear consistent in their responses and might search for similarities in their responses which might lead to a consistency motif. Nevertheless, examinations based on self-reported data are prominently

represented in organizational and management research (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, et al., 2003; Podsakoff & Organ, 1986).

Furthermore, the tendency of leaders to overrate their capabilities, especially in transformational leadership might be caused by social desirability bias. There are strong expectations concerning the leader role, and when those leaders have to assess their own behavior, the pressure may lead to overrating (Jacobsen & Bøgh Andersen, 2015). The tendency of social desirability represents the aim of individuals to present themselves in favorable lights, but this might also hide the true relationships between two or more variables (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, et al., 2003).

With regard to item characteristics as the source of method biases, it was demonstrated that social desirability may also be seen as a property of items. Items that possess more social desirability may relate more or less to one another because of this and the underlying constructs they are supposed to measure. Also, negatively worded or reverse-coded items have been shown to produce artifactual response factors that disappear after the reverse-coded items are rewritten. It was assumed that participants establish a constant pattern of responding that fails to grasp the positive-negative wording of the individual items (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, et al., 2003).

The leniency bias describes the tendency for individuals to rate those they know higher than they should. Further research on this type of bias revealed that it produces false correlations between leader behavior and employee satisfaction (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, et al., 2003). It also refers to the effect that individuals tend to focus more on positive over negative aspects when assessing their own behavior (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Podsakoff, et al., 2003).

The context of the items is also relevant, as item priming effects might occur which makes particular aspects more salient than they would be without being initially asked to do so. Additionally, item embeddedness represents neutral items embedded in the context of positive or negative phrases and how they take on the evaluations of those phrases. This process may subsequently lead to covariation among the items (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, et al., 2003).

Also, item proximity can cause method bias and affect the correlation between constructs, as this can increase for unrelated items when they are

positioned next to each other, as opposed to when they are a few items apart (Podsakoff et al., 2012).

One way to control for biases is the separation between the measures of the predictor and the criterion variables, while this separation may be either temporal (by using a time delay), proximal (by increasing physical distance between measures) or psychological (by using a cover story to reduce the salience of the linkage between variables). Additionally, it is recommended to improve items to eliminate ambiguity, as they can cause uncertainty about how to respond which then increases the likelihood that participants will be influenced by their systematic response tendencies. Therefore, the authors suggest keeping questions simple and specific and to define unfamiliar terms (Podsakoff et al., 2012).

In all the following empirical studies, a pretest was conducted to ensure that all instructions and items would be concise and comprehensible. When inventories were only available in English, they were translated into German in accordance with the recommended procedure by Brislin (1970). But again, by conducting a pretest with the translated items, it was ensured that ambiguous translations were improved, and that social desirability was not emerged by poor translations.

Apart from the remedies mentioned above, Podsakoff et al. (2012) also focused on factors leading to responding bias, so researchers should consider whether participants are able to provide accurate answers, and whether they are motivated. This is to reduce the possibility that they may otherwise answer in an undifferentiated manner or use stylistic responding.

To conclude, as the data collection of the empirical studies is based on self-reports for all follower-related variables, it is important to consider the impact of common method variance and apply remedies (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, et al., 2003).

As another procedural remedy, Podsakoff et al. (2012) recommended maximizing respondents' motivation and ability and minimizing task difficulty so they are likely to respond accurately. Thus, for all the following studies, a cover story (i.e. an introduction to the study) and clear instructions were provided at the beginning of the questionnaire. It was outlined that respondents' anonymity was ensured at all times, and that there were no right or wrong answers. Participants were asked to answer as intuitively as possible while assuring them that people

generally have different opinions about the issues. Finally, all participants were informed that no personal data would be collected, so no conclusions could be drawn about the participants' companies, and that results were used for scientific research only.

Finally, the authors outlined that method bias can inflate or deflate bivariate linear relationships, but it cannot inflate quadratic and interaction effects (but it does deflate). Therefore, method bias would not be able to account for any statistically significant effects observed when testing quadratic or interaction effects (Podsakoff et al., 2012) which will be the case in some of the following studies.

V – EMPIRICAL STUDIES

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5.1. STUDY 1: COPING WITH DARK LEADERS: HOW DO PSYCHOLOGICAL CAPITAL AND PSYCHOLOGICAL SAFETY AFFECT THE INTERPLAY OF DARK LEADERS AND FOLLOWERS' BASIC NEED SATISFACTION?

5.1.1. Theoretical Background and Hypotheses

The Dark Triad and work-related basic need satisfaction: The aim of this study was to provide a contribution to existing research on factors that are affected by destructive leadership, but also how they protect followers from severe harm caused by dark leaders. As aforesaid, buffering factors were already demonstrated by Harvey et al. (2007) when examining personal affect and ingratiation. Based on these findings, this study's aim was to examine further factors that might be advantageous for followers when being confronted with a dark leader.

In the chapters on the theoretical foundations, the construct of the Dark Triad of personality and its impact on followers and organizations was outlined in detail. Furthermore, SDT states that individuals possess the needs for autonomy, competence, and relatedness. In this context, autonomy is defined as the desire to feel volitional and experience freedom when engaging in activities. Second, competence is characterized by the desire to feel effective when engaging in interactions with the environment, and finally, the need for relatedness is satisfied when individuals experience a sense of communion and close relationships with others. The satisfaction of those needs has been demonstrated as an important predictor of individuals' functioning in the workplace and other life domains (Van den Broeck et al., 2010).

For this first empirical study, the constructs of psychological capital and psychological safety were examined with regard to the effect of destructive leadership on both of these constructs and finally, on the work-related basic need satisfaction of followers.

Psychological capital: The concept of psychological capital has attracted great interest since its first definition by Luthans, Youssef and Avolio in 2007, and has been linked to attitudes, behavior, and performance on different levels ever since (Newman et al., 2014).

In contrast to the Dark Triad and its organizational impact, positive organizational behavior was introduced with the aim of bringing positive psychology to the workplace, and to emphasize strengths instead of continuing in a downward spiral of negativity. Positive organizational behavior (POB) was defined as the study and application of positive human strengths and psychological capabilities which can be measured, developed and managed for performance improvement. Specifically, it includes state-like concepts and criteria of being measurable and contributing to organizational performance improvement (Luthans, 2002). POB focuses exclusively on state-like psychological resource capacities which are open and adaptable to change and development (Youssef & Luthans, 2007). In the context of positive psychology, the components of self-efficacy, hope, resilience, and optimism appeared especially relevant, providing a wide range of desirable attitudinal, behavioral, and performance-related outcomes in the workplace (Avey, Luthans, & Youssef, 2010; Youssef & Luthans, 2012). Self-efficacy is defined as one's confidence about one's abilities to mobilize motivation, cognitive resources, and courses of action to successfully execute a task. Highly self-efficacious employees will activate sufficient effort which will lead to successful outcomes. On the basis of personal self-efficacy, employee behavior can be predicted, as social cognitive theory suggests that employees act on their self-efficacy judgments of how well they can perform the behaviors necessary to receive certain consequences (Stajkovic & Luthans, 1998b). Self-efficacy was also demonstrated as a predictor of work-related performance, but this relationship was moderated by task complexity (Stajkovic & Luthans, 1998a). Hope is defined as a positive motivational state based on a sense of successful goal-directed energy and pathways. On a leader-dimension, it was shown that leaders' hope was a predictor of subordinates' organizational performance, job satisfaction, and retention (Peterson & Luthans, 2003). Optimism is portrayed as a positivity-oriented future expectation. Finally, resilience is the positive psychological capacity to rebound from negative incidents such as conflict or failure and to cope successfully with significant change, adversity, or risk. The main difference between self-efficacy and

resilience is the fact that resiliency is rather reactive than proactive and has a narrower domain. Highly resilient individuals tend to be more effective in a fuzzy world and function effectively in a broad range of life experiences, with these skills being transferrable to the workplace (Luthans, 2002). Taken together, these four components have been empirically tested as a state-like positive core construct which is now called psychological capital and has been defined as follows:

“PsyCap is an individual’s positive psychological state of development and is characterized by: (1) having confidence (self-efficacy) to take on and put in the necessary effort to succeed at challenging tasks; (2) making a positive attribution (optimism) about succeeding now and in the future; (3) persevering toward goals and, when necessary, redirecting paths to goals (hope) in order to succeed; and (4) when beset by problems and adversity, sustaining and bouncing back and even beyond (resiliency) to attain success” (Luthans, Youssef, et al., 2007, p. 3).

Psychological capital is considered state-like rather than just a fixed trait, and it is positively related to desirable behaviors and negatively related to counterproductive work behavior. Still, there seem to be many contextual factors, individual differences, and other work-related outcomes that need further examination to provide better understanding of psychological capital in the organizational context (Avey, Luthans, & Youssef, 2010).

In their examination on the mediating role of psychological capital, Luthans et al. (2008) stated that it mediates the effects of a supportive organizational climate on employee outcomes. To be precise, psychological capital was positively related to performance, satisfaction, commitment and referrals within the company (Avey, Nimnicht, et al., 2010; Luthans et al., 2008). Originally, it was described as a derivative of positive organizational behavior and was drawn from research in positive psychology. In this field of research, the focus is on people’s strengths and their flourishing. The term of “positive organizational behaviour” takes positive psychology to the workplace. The four constructs of hope, resiliency, self-efficacy, and optimism have been assessed to meet the criteria of positive organizational behavior. Due to its positive effects, researchers encourage investing in employees’ psychological capital to enable them to achieve growth and performance.

Scientists propose that managing the psychological capital of both leaders and followers might grant a competitive advantage when addressing the

intensifying challenges for organizations (Avey, Luthans, & Youssef, 2010; Luthans et al., 2008). Within positive psychology, individuals with higher levels of psychological capital are more likely to flourish as they generally perceive situations in a more positive way (Harms & Luthans, 2012). Apart from the potential effect for organizations, this study suggests that it is essential to acknowledge a follower-centered approach, as they are the ones who might directly suffer from destructive leadership. The level of psychological capital of employees has been demonstrated as a resource which enhances their psychological well-being, even in longitudinal research designs. In turn, an increase of psychological well-being has reciprocal effects on work-related outcomes such as job satisfaction (Avey, Luthans, Smith, et al., 2010).

On a meta-analytical level, the effects of psychological capital were divided into desirable and undesirable aspects. Positive relationships were found with desirable attitudes such as job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and psychological well-being, as well as with multiple measures of performance (subjective and objective) and with desirable behaviors in terms of citizenship. In contrast, negative relationships were found with undesirable attitudes such as cynicism, turnover intentions, stress and anxiety, as well as with deviance. Overall, psychological capital has been demonstrated as an important predictor of employee attitudes, performance and behavior in the workplace (Avey et al., 2011). Employees' levels of psychological capital have empirically demonstrated negative relationships with their perceived symptoms of job stress, as well as intentions to leave the company and job search behaviors (Avey et al., 2009). Even individuals affected by unemployment can benefit from psychological capital as it mediates the relationship between unemployment and their well-being. In this context, psychological capital was shown to facilitate their re-employment and re-entry into the labor market (Cole et al., 2009).

In studies on the perceptions of safety climate, psychological capital showed positive correlations, once again highlighting its important role in the organizational context (Bergheim et al., 2013).

Currently, psychological capital has been demonstrated as a mediator of the relationship between perceived organizational support and psychosocial well-being, once again confirming its intense effects in the workplace (Ho & Chan, 2022).

In previous studies, positive relationships between the psychological capital of employees and their trust in the management team were found. In turn, trust of employees has been demonstrated as a mediator of performance, confirming its important role in the organizational context. These positive relationships between psychological capital and the trust of employees emphasize the importance of not only the leaders' behaviors, but also of the positivity and attitudes of employees (Clapp-Smith et al., 2009).

Psychological safety: The role of a supportive organizational climate in countering downsizing tendencies of organizations has been described in several examinations (Luthans et al., 2008). At the group and the team level, climate and norms are considered fundamental human processes that affect both followers and leaders. Team members' perceptions of the team's cohesiveness and the climate are as essential as the actual level of cohesiveness and climate (Yammarino, 2013). Additionally, the team's climate strength has been demonstrated as the moderator of the relationship between the team climate and the team's performance (González-Romá et al., 2009).

The construct of psychological safety is commonly described as a shared belief among team members that the team is safe for interpersonal risk taking and is associated with organizational learning behavior. It is important to note that psychological safety is not the same as group cohesiveness, but it is rather a sense of confidence that team members will not embarrass, reject, or punish each other for speaking up (Edmondson, 1999). Thus, it is characterized by mutual respect and trust among employees. This was initially described in the 1960s in the context of organizational change and requirements to help employees feel safe and to be prepared for organizational changes. It does not necessarily require mutual liking, but describes a sense of confidence that interpersonal reactions and consequences will not be negative within the team. Individuals feel that their colleagues will not reject them for what they say, and that they respect each other's competence while being interested in one another as people and having positive intentions toward each other. Also, it is possible to engage in constructive conflicts because it is safe to experiment and to take risks. Nevertheless, psychological safety does not emerge naturally and can vary significantly across work groups that belong to the same

organization (Edmondson, 1999). While the dyadic relationship between leaders and followers is centrally important, it is also influenced by the expectations of the peers' attitudes and behaviors within the same group. Individuals are more likely to come up with new ideas or tools if the interpersonal climate is characterized by psychological safety. In contrast, if leaders are perceived as unwilling to act as advocates or if there is fear of being rejected for making mistakes, followers are less likely to experiment with new ideas. Hence, it is hypothesized that psychological safety increases the chance of learning-oriented working environments and therefore promotes desirable outcomes by reducing the resistance among employees and enabling them to adapt to change (Edmondson & Woolley, 2003). As psychological safety is considered a group-level construct, it is rather characterized by the team than by individual members, and team members are expected to share similar perceptions of it (Edmondson, 1999).

Since the initial work on psychological safety which mostly focused on learning and performance outcomes, empirical research has also focused on antecedents and mediating effects. Further research demonstrated the effects of supportive leadership on work outcomes through psychological safety. Furthermore, the group's positive perception of the leader was found to foster team-level outcomes such as team learning behavior, team performance, as well as engagement in improvement work through the development of psychological safety. Employees' positive perceptions of the organizational support, access to mentoring, and diversity practices also promote work outcomes due to the mediating effects of psychological safety. At the team level, relationship networks and their social support promote psychological safety, and positively influence team learning, performance, and innovation. Within teams, it was shown that characteristics such as shared team rewards, formal team structures, and their engagement in boundary work are positively linked to increased psychological safety (Newman et al., 2017). In this context, it has also been shown to correlate with performance (Edmondson & Lei, 2014). Apart from this, at the individual level, a positive link between psychological safety and the work attitudes, work engagement, and positive attitudes towards team work were found. With regard to antecedents, most of them can be summarized under the category of supportive environments, such as supportive leadership, supportive relationships with team members, and supportive organizational practices (Newman et al., 2017).

Research suggested a clear link between abusive supervision and followers' ability to handle conflicts, job efficacy, and well-being, while the relationship between abusive supervision and followers' perceptions of their colleagues' behavior has been mainly neglected (Tepper et al., 2004) which makes psychological safety interesting for investigation in this empirical study. In line with this, Schyns and Schilling (2013) hypothesized in their meta-analysis that the presence of colleagues may even result in lower stress levels when facing destructive leaders, supporting the importance of psychological safety among team members.

As summarized by Frazier et al. (2017), positive relationships with leaders have a crucial influence on the level of psychological safety. Thus, it is no surprise that leadership constructs such as transformational or ethical leadership, servant leadership, LMX, and trust have been found positively linked to psychological safety on a meta-analytical level. It was also positively related to work engagement and performance. The fact that a positive relationship with the general category of positive leader relations was found, highlights the salience of direct leaders and their impact on shaping the working environment and promoting psychological safety among their followers.

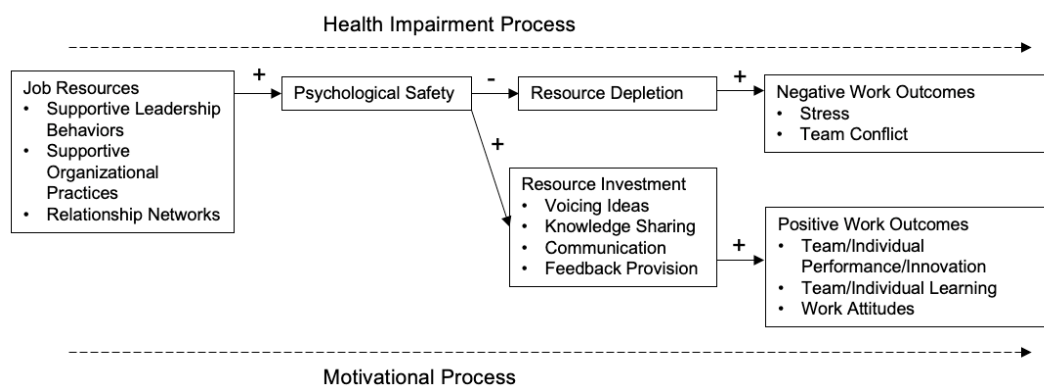
Regarding the empirical findings on destructive leadership mentioned above, another consequence of dysfunctional traits is the erosion of trust. People with high scores on dysfunctional dispositions are more likely to serve themselves before they serve others. A lack of trust inevitably hinders them building a team and dissolves any processes of interaction (Hogan & Hogan, 2001). Trust has also been demonstrated as a mediator between authentic leadership and organizational performance, which is based on the assumption that individuals who have trust in their leaders are more willing to invest time and resources towards future outcomes. Hence, collective trust has been hypothesized to be a valuable mediator between leadership behavior and follower outcomes (Cole et al., 2009).

As team climate has been identified as a moderating factor when examining the Dark Triad and counterproductive work behavior in a meta-analysis, the variable of psychological safety and how it is affected by destructive leadership appears worthy of investigation, following the suggestions of O'Boyle et al. (2012). Moreover, in their recent meta-analysis, Decuyper and Schaufeli (2021) outlined

the importance of trustful working environments as it was found as a mediator between perceived leadership styles and engagement in various studies.

In early research on psychological safety, it was demonstrated that it facilitates the team's actions to accomplish work and affects learning behavior, which in turn affects team performance as illustrated in Figure 15.

Figure 15. *An Integrative Framework of Psychological Safety*



Note. Adapted from "Psychological safety: A systematic review of the literature," by A. Newman et al., 2017, *Human Resource Management Review*, 27(3), p. 530 (DOI: 10.1016/j.hrmr.2017.01.001). Copyright by Elsevier. Reprinted with permission.

In times of uncertainty and rapid changes for organizations, teams provide an important source of psychological safety at work (Edmondson, 1999). While studies defined leadership in terms of emergence or influence, only few studies have used group performance as a criterion although it is believed to be an appropriate way to define and evaluate it (R. Hogan & Kaiser, 2005).

In sum, it seems that psychological safety is mostly associated with positive work outcomes. Regarding high levels of psychological safety, Pearsall and Ellis (2011) extended previous research by investigating the potential disadvantageous side of psychological safety. They demonstrated that high levels psychological safety created a context of high utilitarianism which led to cheating behavior as

they perceived their interpersonal risks as low. Thus, it was demonstrated that, depending on the individual team composition, psychological safety may have unintended consequences contributing to behaviors that are harmful to organizational long-term success. Nevertheless, they clearly stated that the various benefits of psychological safety still outweigh any potential risks. According to Edmondson and Lei (2014), psychological safety should not be considered a panacea for all organizational challenges, but must be combined with other essential measures to improve learning and performance. In contrast, excessive psychological safety can even have negative effects as individuals may waste time on unimportant things or might lose the motivation to learn. This is why leaders need to work on an adequate balance. Additional research on psychological safety illustrated that high levels can even harm the performance of routine tasks. To be specific, it was demonstrated that where tasks are routine, high levels of psychological safety can be harmful because employees are distracted by focusing on more novel tasks instead of their core tasks. Also, employees might tend to experiment with their routine tasks, so high levels of psychological safety may subsequently hinder the performance of those routine tasks. Although negative effects were supported across different work levels and job types, it was also shown that collective accountability moderates those negative effects, functioning as a regulatory mechanism that refocuses individuals' attention on their routine tasks, ensuring they are performed according to standard practises (Eldor et al., 2023).

To conclude, it was empirically demonstrated that psychological safety leads to various positive outcomes in the organizational context, and the factor of team climate represents a resource to overcome negative influences, making it a promising area for research on the Dark Triad of personality. With regard to the afore-mentioned findings and with reference to previous research by Elbers et al. (2023a), the following hypotheses were examined:

Hypothesis 1: The Dark Triad of leaders is negatively related to the work-related basic need satisfaction of followers.

Hypothesis 2: Psychological capital is positively related to the perceived psychological safety of followers.

Hypothesis 3: Psychological capital and psychological safety serially mediate the relationship between the Dark Triad traits of leaders and the work-related basic need satisfaction of followers.

Furthermore, it is acknowledged that the level of the Dark Triad of followers themselves has the potential to intensify the effects dark leaders have on the psychological capital of followers. As demonstrated by Padilla et al. (2007), toxic leaders succeed more easily when they have conducive followers. For this examination, it was examined whether followers' dark traits amplify the effect of dark leadership. Thus, it was also hypothesized:

Hypothesis 4: The indirect effect between the Dark Triad of leaders and the work-related basic need satisfaction of followers across psychological capital and psychological safety is moderated by the Dark Triad level of followers.

5.1.2. Methods

Sample, procedure, and measures: With reference to Elbers et al. (2023a), the sample was recruited and can be characterized as follows:

As previously mentioned, SoSci Survey was used for the data collection phase. Across all the empirical studies of this doctoral thesis, the guidelines for ethical research were fulfilled, i.e., all respondents took part on a voluntary basis, their datasets were collected anonymously, and then handled confidentially. Furthermore, all participants confirmed that results may be used for scientific analyses. The target group for this examination was made up of individuals in permanent employment with a direct superior. SoSci Survey created a hyperlink which was then distributed over various channels over the course of around four weeks. The hyperlink was distributed via email in personal networks, professional networks, and in occupational social media networks. Moreover, the link was posted in social media groups for academic research in order to expand the sample. Overall, no certain branch was targeted, but it was always verified that respondents without direct superiors and self-employed individuals were excluded. In the

introductory story of the questionnaire, respondents were informed that the survey generally addressed leadership and basic need satisfaction in the workplace. In this way, 672 participants took part in the online survey. The questionnaire started with a question on participants' current status of employment and if they had a direct superior that could be subsequently evaluated. In total, 187 participants were excluded at this stage because they either had no direct superior or stopped the survey themselves. This left 485 datasets for further analysis. In order to identify meaningless datasets in the web-based survey, the relative speed index was used for removing questionnaires that were completed at a significantly above-average speed. The relative speed index was included in the output file of the online panel and the cut-off limit was set for datasets that were above the value of 2.0 as recommended by Leiner (2019). In this study, only 16 datasets had to be removed due to the relative speed index. In sum, 469 datasets consisting of German-speaking employees in permanent positions remained for analysis. The period of data collection was from February 2022 until March 2022. All scales can be found in the appendices of this doctoral thesis.

39.9% of the respondents were male, and 60.1% were female. The sample's age structure appeared as follows: 6.18% were in the age group 18–25, 40.72% were in the age group 26–35, 24.95% were in the age group 36–45, 16.63% were in the age group 46–55, another 11.30% were in the age group 56–65, and only 0.21% were older than 65 years. Thus, the age group from 26 to 35 years was most predominantly represented.

Dark Triad of leaders and followers: In this study, the Dark Triad of personality was measured for both the leader and the follower. According to Allio (2007), leaders and followers often share a collective madness that allows either side to accept inappropriate goals and behavior. When leaders are charged with misfeasance, the role of followers is often neglected, but they always share culpability for their leaders' actions, often as a result of their crimes of obedience. Furthermore, little is known about the impact of leaders' view of their own personality and its interplay with performance which is challenging to measure. In contrast, observers' ratings are more easily available and their association with performance has been investigated more deeply (Hogan & Hogan, 2001). Hence,

following the recommendations of Hogan and Hogan (2001) that a leader can be best evaluated by using followers' ratings, the Dark Triad of personality of leaders was measured with an others-assessment of their followers.

As stated before, several measures for the Dark Triad exist; they primarily differ in the number of items and it should be considered whether a composite measure is required or whether the three traits should be analyzed separately. For the first study, a composite measure of the Dark Triad for followers along with their leaders was aimed at, so the Dirty Dozen (Jonason & Webster, 2010) appeared appropriate. It consists of 12 items, four for each trait of the Dark Triad. For the study, the validated German version by K  fner et al. (2014) was used for both leaders and followers.

According to Lee et al. (2013), the Dirty Dozen also works as an observer rating when changing the items from the first person to the third person. By doing so, the scales were used to measure the dark traits of leaders from the point of view of their own followers. For the measurement of the Dark Triad of followers, the Dirty Dozen was used in its original form with items phrased in the first person. As previously mentioned, leaders tend to overrate their own skills, and as intended leadership and perceived leadership are only weakly correlated (Jacobsen & B  gh Andersen, 2015), this measurement approach appeared appropriate.

In previous studies on the Dark Triad traits of managers, the traits of employees were neglected (Volmer et al., 2016). This study aims to bridge this research gap by also collecting data on employees' Dark Triad traits.

Most researchers examining the Dark Triad have exclusively relied on self-reports of dark traits, but a small number have also included peer-reports. In these cases, results revealed significant correlations between self-reports and peer reports, indicating that self-reports were corroborated by peers. Nevertheless, researchers have strongly recommended to include other-informant reports when examining the Dark Triad (Muris et al., 2017). Thus, an others-assessment was determined to be a valid instrument for the purposes of this doctoral thesis. For this first empirical study, the Dirty Dozen showed appropriate values for reliability with $\alpha = .95$ and $\omega = .95$ for the Dark Triad of leaders, and $\alpha = .86$ and $\omega = .85$ for the Dark Triad of followers.

Work-related basic need satisfaction of followers: For this examination, the work-related basic need satisfaction according to SDT was measured using the Work-related basic need satisfaction scale (W-BNS (Van den Broeck et al., 2010)). Previously existing measures had not been validated adequately and did not tap into the satisfaction of the needs as such. It consists of 18 items, six for each of the three dimensions of autonomy, competence, and relatedness at work as postulated within SDT. Participants responded on a 7-point Likert scale. The scale showed appropriate values for its reliability with $\alpha = .89$ and $\omega = .88$

Psychological capital of followers: The psychological capital of followers was measured with the compound PsyCap scale (CPC-12), developed by Lorenz et al. (2016) and consists of 12 items that have already been translated into German for the initial development. As it consists of only 12 items and thus only three items per sub-facet, it is recommended to use to the original scales of the Psychological Capital Questionnaire (PCQ) developed by Luthans et al. (2014) if a specific sub-facet is the key topic of interest. In contrast to the PCQ, the CPC-12 is considered a more universal measure of the construct and is less domain-specific. Consistent with its initial development, the scale showed reasonable values for its reliability with $\alpha = .86$ and $\omega = .86$.

Psychological safety of followers: To measure the psychological safety of followers, a 6-item scale by Edmondson and Woolley (2003) was used and participants answered on a 7-point Likert scale. The items of the scale were translated according to the above-mentioned procedure by Brislin (1970) as no German version existed. The scale showed an appropriate reliability with $\alpha = .79$ and $\omega = .79$.

5.1.3. Results

The results of the statistical analyses are presented below. The software applied was described in a previous chapter. The analysis starts with descriptive statistics, followed by regression analyses, serial mediation, and conditional process analysis for the hypotheses testing.

Means, standard deviations, and intercorrelations among the variables are shown in Table 6 below:

Table 6. Means, Standard Deviations, and Intercorrelations

Variable	M	SD	1	2	3	4
1. Dark Triad Leader	2.95	1.49				
2. Dark Triad Follower	2.42	0.91	.34***			
3. Basic Need Satisfaction	5.17	0.88	-.41***	-.24***		
4. Psychological Capital	5.41	0.76	-.11*	-.02	.48***	
5. Psychological Safety	4.99	1.27	-.67***	-.12**	.56***	.29***

Note. $N = 469$; parts of this table are also illustrated in Elbers et al. (2023a).

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

The Dark Triad of leaders showed negatively significant correlations with the work-related basic need satisfaction of followers ($r = -.41, p < .001$), their psychological capital ($r = -.11, p < .05$), and their psychological safety ($r = -.67, p < .001$). Followers' psychological capital was positively related to their psychological safety ($r = .29, p < .001$). Also, the Dark Triad of leaders showed positive correlations with the Dark Triad of followers ($r = .34, p < .001$), but the Dark

Triad of followers was not significantly related to followers' psychological capital ($r = .02, p = .62$).

For further analysis with regard to the hypotheses, regression analyses were applied as shown in Table 7 and Table 8. One of the requirements for regression analyses is a nearly normal distribution of the data. As outlined in a previous chapter, bootstrapping can be applied if that is not the case. Regression analyses presuppose that there is no multicollinearity among the independent variables. For this purpose, apart from examining Pearson correlations, the variance influence factor (VIF) was considered before further testing. A linear relationship between the dependent and the independent variables, as another assumption of regression analysis (Field, 2019), was tested and supported. As recommended by Hayes and Cai (2007), rather than assuming homoskedasticity, a robust standard error was used for all regression-based analyses in this empirical study. With reference to the methodological considerations for the empirical studies, HC4 was applied (Cribari-Neto, 2004).

As participants' age was collected as an ordinal instead of a continuous variable, the decision was made to use the midpoint of each category (R. A. Williams, 2020) and replace the variable with this value (e.g. for the category of 18-25 years, the value 21.5 was set). For the category that represented participants older than 65 years, the value of 67.5 was set.

Table 7. Regression Analysis With Work-Related Basic Need Satisfaction as the Dependent Variable

Predictors	Unstandardized Coefficients <i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	Standardized Coefficients Beta (β)	<i>p</i>	95% CI	
					<i>LL</i>	<i>UL</i>
(Constant)	5.77	0.23		<.001	5.32	6.23
DT-L	-0.23	.03	-0.40	<.001	-0.29	-0.18
Gender	-0.08	0.08	-0.05	.27	-0.23	0.07
Age	0.01	0.003	0.07	.09	-0.001	0.01

Note. A bootstrap sample of 5,000 and a robust standard error (HC4) were used. *LL* and *UL* indicate the lower and upper limits of a CI. DT-L = Dark Triad leader.
 $R^2 = .17$

Table 8. Regression Analysis With Psychological Safety as the Dependent Variable

Predictors	Unstandardized Coefficients <i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	Standardized Coefficients Beta (β)	<i>p</i>	95% CI	
					<i>LL</i>	<i>UL</i>
(Constant)	2.64	0.62		<.001	1.44	3.84
Psychological Capital	0.48	0.09	0.29	<.001	0.32	0.65
Gender	-0.08	0.12	-0.03	.50	-0.32	0.15
Age	-0.003	0.005	-0.03	.51	-0.01	0.01

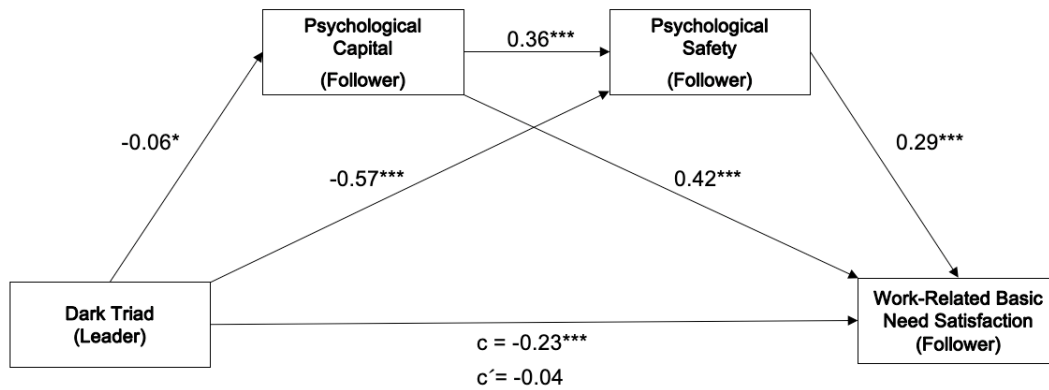
Note. A bootstrap sample of 5,000 and a robust standard error (HC4) were used. *LL* and *UL* indicate the lower and upper limits of a CI.
 $R^2 = .09$

Support was found for Hypothesis 1, as the Dark Triad of leaders was negatively associated with the work-related basic need satisfaction of followers ($B = -0.23$, $\beta = -0.40$, $p < .001$). Results also showed that the psychological capital of

followers was positively associated with their perceived psychological safety ($B = 0.48$, $\beta = 0.29$, $p < .001$), thus supporting Hypothesis 2.

For the third hypothesis, a serial mediation was applied, with the psychological capital and psychological safety of followers as mediators. Results are illustrated in Figure 16 and Tables 9 and 10.

Figure 16. Serial Mediation With Psychological Capital and Psychological Safety as Mediators



Note. PROCESS Model 6 was applied. Path coefficients indicate unstandardized weights. All paths were controlled for gender and age. For reasons of efficiency, they were not illustrated in this figure.

* indicates $p < .05$. *** indicates $p < .001$.

Table 9. Output Details of the Serial Mediation

Model	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>p</i>	95% CI		Fit
				<i>LL</i>	<i>UL</i>	
Psychological Capital						
(Constant)	6.09	0.18	<.001	5.72	6.44	<i>R</i> ² = .04
DT-L	-0.06	0.03	.04	-0.11	-0.003	
Gender	-0.27	0.07	<.001	-0.40	-0.13	
Age	-0.002	0.003	.51	-0.01	0.004	
Psychological Safety						
(Constant)	5.51	0.47	<.001	4.60	6.43	<i>R</i> ² = .52
DT-L	-0.57	0.03	<.001	-0.63	-0.51	
PC	0.36	0.06	<.001	0.24	0.48	
Gender	-0.10	0.09	.23	-0.28	0.07	
Age	-0.02	0.004	<.001	-0.02	-0.01	
Work-Related Basic Need Satisfaction						
(Constant)	1.03	0.41	.01	0.23	1.85	<i>R</i> ² = .45
DT-L	-0.04	0.03	.22	-0.11	0.02	
PC	0.42	0.05	<.001	0.32	0.51	
PS	0.29	0.04	<.001	0.20	0.37	
Gender	0.08	0.07	.21	-0.04	0.21	
Age	0.01	0.003	<.001	0.01	0.02	

Note. A bootstrap sample of 5,000 and a robust standard error (HC4) were used. LL and UL indicate the lower and upper limits of a CI.

DT-L = Dark Triad leader, PC = Psychological capital, PS = Psychological safety.

Table 10. Indirect Effects of the Serial Mediation

	Effect	SE	95% CI	
			LL	UL
TOTAL	-0.19	0.03	-0.25	-0.13
DT-L – PC – BNS	-0.02	0.01	-0.05	-0.001
DT-L – PS – BNS	-0.16	0.03	-0.21	-0.11
DT-L – PC – PS – BNS	-0.01	0.003	-0.01	-0.0004

Note. A bootstrap sample of 5,000 was used. LL and UL indicate the lower and upper limits of a CI.

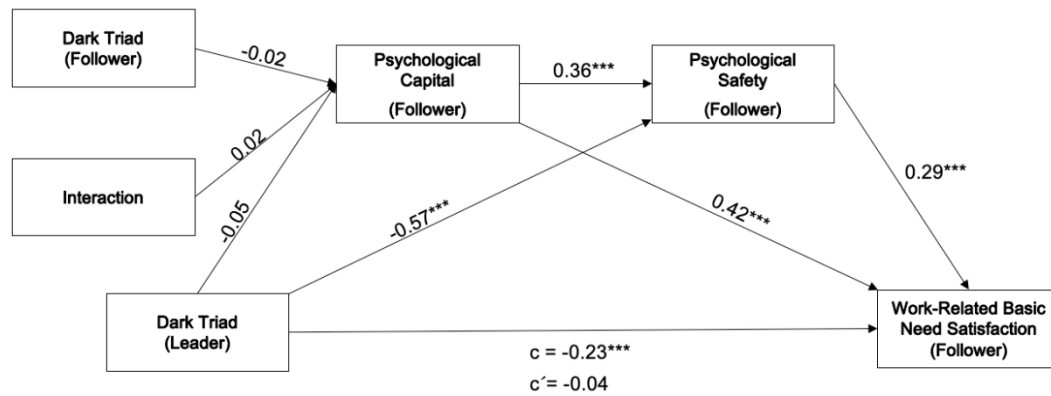
DT-L = Dark Triad leader, PC = Psychological capital, BNS = Work-related basic need satisfaction, PS = Psychological safety.

Results revealed support for Hypothesis 3, as psychological capital and psychological safety emerged as serial mediators for the relationship between the Dark Triad of leaders and the work-related need satisfaction of followers (total indirect effect = -0.19, CI [-0.25, -0.13]). All indirect effects were significant (see Table 10). The direct effect was not significant (-0.04, CI [-0.11, 0.02]); therefore, the indirect effect represents a full mediation.

For further examinations, conditional process analysis was applied, as it allows testing several mediation analyses and moderation mediation within one single model. The PROCESS macro was used to conduct the analysis.

The Dark Triad of followers was added to the model as a moderator of the a-path between the leader's Dark Triad and the psychological capital of followers with regard to Hypothesis 4 (see Figure 17 and Table 11):

Figure 17. Conditional Process Analysis



Note. PROCESS Model 83 was applied. Path coefficients indicate unstandardized weights. All paths were controlled for gender and age. For reasons of efficiency, they were not illustrated in this figure.

*** indicates $p < .001$.

Table 11. Output Details of the Conditional Process Analysis

Model	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>p</i>	95% CI		Fit
				<i>LL</i>	<i>UL</i>	
Psychological Capital						
(Constant)	5.92	0.16	<.001	5.60	6.24	<i>R</i> ² = .04
DT-L	-0.05	0.03	.09	-0.11	0.004	
DT-F	-0.02	0.05	.63	-0.11	0.07	
Interaction	0.02	0.03	.56	-0.05	0.08	
Gender	-0.27	0.07	<.001	-0.41	-0.13	
Age	-0.002	0.003	.46	-0.01	0.004	
Psychological Safety						
(Constant)	3.84	0.44	<.001	3.01	4.67	<i>R</i> ² = .52
DT-L	-0.57	0.03	<.001	-0.63	-0.51	
PC	0.36	0.06	<.001	0.24	0.47	
Gender	-0.10	0.09	.23	-0.27	0.07	
Age	-0.02	0.004	<.001	-0.02	-0.01	
Work-Related Basic Need Satisfaction						
(Constant)	0.91	0.36	.01	0.23	1.60	<i>R</i> ² = .45
DT-L	-0.04	0.03	.22	-0.10	0.02	
PC	0.42	0.05	<.001	0.32	0.51	
PS	0.29	0.04	<.001	0.20	0.37	
Gender	0.08	0.07	.21	-0.05	0.21	
Age	0.01	0.003	<.001	0.01	0.02	

Note. A bootstrap sample of 5,000 and a robust standard error (HC4) were used. *LL* and *UL* indicate the lower and upper limits of a CI. DT-L = Dark Triad leader, DT-F = Dark Triad follower, PC = Psychological capital, PS = Psychological safety.

Finally, Hypothesis 4 was not supported as no significant moderation was found for the indirect effect between the Dark Triad of leaders and the work-related basic need satisfaction of followers across psychological capital and psychological safety, as illustrated in Table 12 and Table 13. As the confidence intervals included zero (CI [-0.02, 0.03] and [-0.01, 0.01]), the indices were not significant.

Table 12. Index of Moderated Mediation

	Index	SE	95% CI	
			LL	UL
Dark Triad	0.01	0.01	-0.02	0.03
Follower				

Note. Index of moderated mediation for DT-L – PC – BNS. A bootstrap of 5,000 samples was used. LL and UL indicate the lower and upper limits of a CI.

Table 13. Index of Moderated Mediation

	Index	SE	95% CI	
			LL	UL
Dark Triad	0.02	0.03	-0.01	0.01
Follower				

Note. Index of moderated mediation for DT-L – PC – PS – BNS. A bootstrap of 5,000 samples and a robust standard error (HC4) were used. LL and UL indicate the lower and upper limits of a CI.

5.1.4. Discussion

The results of this examination are diverse. First, with regard to Hypothesis 1 and the previous findings of Elbers et al. (2023a), the negative impact of destructive leaders was once again empirically supported. As already stated in Elbers et al. (2023a), the Dark Triad of leaders was negatively related to followers' basic need satisfaction in the workplace, supporting Hypothesis 1. The findings correspond with assumptions of Ryan and Deci (2000), who stated that the degree of individuals' psychological need satisfaction is not only influenced by their own competencies, but also by demands and obstacles in their sociocultural contexts, and overall, need satisfaction is associated with increased well-being. In this context, destructive leaders can be considered demands that influence the satisfaction of followers. Recent studies on the perceived organizational support of employees also demonstrated that individuals are more likely to experience flourishing in the long run as they experience contentment and joy, establish positive relationships, have a sense of purpose in life, and work towards their own goals (Ho & Chan, 2022). Individuals who work with a destructive leader are less likely to experience such positive feelings in the organizational context, which is another explanation for the findings of this study and the negative impact on work-related basic need satisfaction.

To examine underlying mechanisms of this relationship, psychological capital and psychological safety of followers were added to the model as serial mediators. The state-like nature of psychological capital stresses the relevance of its development and corresponding interventions which will finally lead to positive impacts on performance (Youssef-Morgan & Luthans, 2015). Previous empirical support demonstrated that individuals' levels of psychological capital are positively related to performance and job satisfaction. In addition, the construct as a whole was a better predictor of such outcomes than the individual components (Luthans, Avolio, et al., 2007). The results of this study support the proposition that promoting psychological capital in organizations channels people's talents, strengthens their psychological capacities, reduces absenteeism, and subsequently results in a competitive advantage (Avey et al., 2006; Luthans & Youssef, 2004). Furthermore, it underlines the importance of future research on the topic of psychological capital (Ardichvili, 2011).

As previously mentioned, psychological safety describes individuals' perceptions of the consequences of taking interpersonal risks in their working environment and enables teams and organizations to learn and to perform (Edmondson & Lei, 2014). As shown in the model in Figure 16, the Dark Triad of leaders was negatively related to the perceived psychological safety of followers. This is in line with previous findings by Newman et al. (2017), who stated that positive relationships with the leader are one of the main antecedents of psychological safety. Leaders should engage in supportive behaviors to foster bonds between team members and leverage supportive organizational practices to increase psychological safety. Furthermore, psychological safety was viewed as a mediator between antecedents such as organizational context, team and leadership characteristics, and outcomes such as innovation, learning, and performance (Edmondson & Lei, 2014). With regard to the aforementioned consequences of the Dark Triad, these findings and the negative impact on the perceived psychological safety are not surprising. As psychological capital was related to psychological safety and a serial mediation was found for the assumed model, support was found for Hypotheses 2 and 3.

The connection between psychological capital and psychological safety in the model is in line with the findings of Cole et al. (2009), who stated that psychological capital and the level of trust were related and therefore, the role of followers' positive attitudes was as crucial to organizational performance as leadership behavior itself. It also supports the results of Bergheim et al. (2013), who stressed the practical implications of those insights and called for new approaches to developing and managing human resources. Psychological capital is considered a human resource that can be developed and sustained, and is crucial for the success of both individuals and organizations (Newman et al., 2014). Overall, the findings on psychological capital are in line with recent meta-analytical findings of Decuyper and Schaufeli (2021), who outlined that psychological capital is a mediator of the relationship between leadership style and followers' engagement.

However, the construct of positive organizational behavior is likely to be broadened in the future to include other positive psychological constructs that go beyond the existing models and theories (Luthans et al., 2008).

With reference to personal resources and psychological capital, the question arises of how individuals with certain resources differ from others. Considering optimism, Scheier et al. (1986) outlined that more optimistic individuals are able to deal with stressful situations more easily due to the coping strategies they use. Optimism, now widely recognized as a component of the psychological capital construct, was related to problem-focuses coping, reaching out for social support and even emphasizing positive aspects of a primarily stressful situation. In contrast, pessimists showed an association with denial, a focus on stressful feelings, and even with disengagement from the goal the stressor was interfering with. In sum, optimists' coping strategies were more likely to be successful. In accordance with the conclusions of Schaufeli (2015), organizations will benefit more when they invest in the improvement of their employees' job resources rather than when they just concentrate on the mitigation of job demands. Transferring these suggestions to this first study, it is another argument for the development and enhancement of followers' psychological capital and the maintenance of trustful team climates instead of the focus on dark leaders.

Overall, the results of this examination highlight the underlying mechanisms of psychological capital and psychological safety when followers are confronted with destructive leaders, as they were demonstrated as serial mediators of the relationship between dark leadership and followers' satisfaction in the workplace.

The results on the impact of psychological safety on work-related basic need satisfaction align with the suggestions of Frazier et al. (2017) that employees who perceive lower risks in making mistakes are more likely to be satisfied with their jobs. This perception of psychological safety is associated with specific personality traits of employees. Thus, organizations might benefit from recruiting applicants who are likely to create or perceive a work environment safe for interpersonal risk taking. To be precise, proactive employees are more likely to perceive psychological safety and engage in their work tasks. Individuals responsible for hiring processes might find value for designing tools that capture these required personality characteristics. The empirical evidence suggests that organizations should pay more attention the issue that psychological safety is often only viewed as a byproduct of high impact work, but it should rather be considered a goal of high importance. Overall, psychological safety is influenced by positive leader

relations, workplace support, and work design, thus, training for leaders to maintain an environment where followers feel safe are required. Furthermore, safety perceptions were shown to be influenced by social support among employees, which can be fostered by trainings on teamwork and developing effective relationships (Frazier et al., 2017). The results of the study are also in accordance with recent studies on the perception of empowering climates. It was demonstrated that disempowering motivational climates hinder the satisfaction of basic psychological needs and the quality of motivation (Castillo-Jiménez et al., 2022).

With regard to the direct effect after the mediators were added to the model, it is to be mentioned that it is not significant and the overall indirect effect can therefore be considered a full mediation. In social psychology, the distinction between full and partial mediations has had an important impact over the past decades. With this distinction, full mediation suggests that a process has been completely explained and tests for further indirect effects are no longer required. Also, full mediation implies the impossibility of perfect measurement without errors. In contrast, partial mediations assume that other indirect effects are likely and should be examined. By focusing on effect sizes instead of full and partial mediation, the magnitude of an effect can be evaluated and predictions on any other mediations can be made (Rucker et al., 2011). Thus, more recently, the distinction between full and partial mediation does not appear as the most important interpretation of a mediation analysis anymore (A. F. Hayes, 2022; Shrout & Bolger, 2002).

Another link to the previously mentioned JD-R model can be found with regard to the findings of Xanthopoulou et al. (2009), who added personal resources to the model which are represented by the concept of psychological capital. To be specific, they added self-efficacy, organizational based self-esteem, and optimism to the model and found reciprocal relationships among individuals' personal resources and work engagement. Thus, personal resources play a crucial role as they enable employees to deal with their work goals. Individuals who experience these personal resources in the workplace can create a resourceful work environment, and engage in their tasks. In turn, individuals who experience

engagement are more likely to create or activate personal resources (Xanthopoulou et al., 2009).

Finally, with regard to the fourth hypothesis, the Dark Triad level of followers did not moderate the a-path of the mediation model. Thus, the mediation including the components of psychological capital and psychological safety was not significantly influenced by dark personality traits of followers. These findings are surprising as it was expected that dark traits influence individuals' confidence about themselves and that they are more optimistic and self-efficacious. In other words, it was assumed that their dark traits would increase their level of psychological capital and subsequently also the level of perceived psychological safety. It was also assumed that it would affect the influence of psychological safety as destructive leaders do not promote empowering working environments. Nevertheless, no support was found for both of these assumptions in the empirical study.

Overall, the findings of this study contribute to the knowledge on the effects of the Dark Triad on employees' and their well-being in the workplace. Although it was once again shown that destructive leaders have harmful effects on their subordinates, light was shed on the underlying mechanisms that help explain how subordinates are affected. As suggested by Tett and Guterman (2000), situation trait relevance might be useful to explain differences among situations in regarding trait expression, even when all the situations are targeted to the same specific trait. This study followed their suggestion by examining the potentially moderating effect of leaders' Dark Triad traits, however, Hypothesis 4 was not supported.

Nevertheless, this study is not free of limitations. First, it is to be mentioned that most of the data were collected through self-report of followers with the exception of the Dark Triad of leaders, which was evaluated by their subordinates. As outlined in a previous chapter, this procedure might lead to self-report bias and a response behavior that is characterized by social desirability (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, et al., 2003). Respondents were asked to rate their leaders and were also asked to evaluate their own situation in the team, their psychological capital and their own characteristics. In the introductory story of the questionnaire, they were not informed on the true purpose of the examination and the measurement of dark personality traits, so it was utilized as a psychological remedy to a certain

degree. But still, rating their leaders might influence how followers see and rate themselves.

For future examinations, longitudinal research designs appear recommendable, as they provide temporal separation of measurement. Temporal separation allows previously recalled information to leave short-term memory, which facilitates the collection of data on the leader completely separate from the data collection on the followers themselves (Podsakoff et al., 2012).

Another limitation is the informative value of psychological safety; it represents a trustful team climate, but in this study, only the dyadic relationship between one leader and one follower was considered. Future research designs would benefit from nested datasets which analyze more team members under the influence of one leader. Nested teams would also provide more information on the perceived leader characteristics as more than one follower would evaluate them.

5.2. STUDY 2: WHEN DARK LEADERS AND HIGH JOB DEMANDS COMBINE: ON THE ROLE OF MOTIVATION AND OCCUPATIONAL SETTINGS

5.2.1. Theoretical Background and Hypotheses

Leadership and occupational settings: In leadership research, the situational approach highlights the importance of contextual factors, such as the leader's authority, the nature of the work within the occupational context, the attributes of followers, and the nature of the overall external environment. This situational approach deals with the influence of situations on leader behavior as well as on situations as potential moderators between leaders' attributes and leader effectiveness (Van Fleet & Yukl, 1992).

Recent examinations with reference to the JD-R model indicated that objective job characteristics are associated with followers' perceptions of job demands and resources. In this context, job hazard exposure and its impact on emotional demands and physical health were particularly highlighted (Y. Li et al., 2023). The aim of this second empirical study was twofold. On the one hand, it aimed to investigate the general relationship between leaders' dark traits and the motivation and life satisfaction of followers. On the other hand, it focused on different occupational settings with which to examine differences between employees and their reactions to destructive leaders. Regarding the JD-R model, Britt et al. (2021) demonstrated that job resources such as meaningful work which may buffer negative influences, are not effective in every occupational setting.

In this study, the focus was on the difference between certain occupational fields and how they are influenced by dark leaders. As suggested by LeBreton et al. (2018), this study further examined whether or not individuals with dark traits show vocational interests or career choices, and the desire to hold leadership positions. Also, as stated within the construct of the toxic triangle (Padilla et al., 2007), destructive leaders need a conducive or instable environment to succeed. For this purpose, jobs of participants were clustered into two overarching groups, namely social jobs and non-social jobs, and it was assumed that leaders in these occupational settings differ with regard to their dark personality traits.

As early as in the 1990s, empirical investigations illustrated that burnout symptoms could be detected in a variety of health care providers. Those examinations included physicians, nurses, social workers, dentists, different types of health care providers, emergency service personnel, mental health workers, speech-language pathologists, and occupational therapists as being occupations that were at a particular risk for burnout (Felton, 1998). Similar findings on stress and burnout were also found for nursing staff caring for disoriented elderly individuals (Mountain et al., 1994). Examinations on paramedical health care employees elucidated that process-related workplace factors, participative decision making, and intra-professional relations were significant predictors of job satisfaction and psychological well-being (Agarwal & Sharma, 2011). Another profession where individuals often exhibit symptoms of burnout, emotional exhaustion, and depersonalization, are firefighters (Lourel et al., 2008; Roşca et al., 2021). Such emergency service professions are fundamental in the maintenance of societies, and although these jobs provide an intrinsic positive value, research demonstrated that these jobs are characterized by heavy physical work, time pressure, and emotionally demanding situations. Such high-risk professions involve job demands that include exposure to emotional and physical trauma, as well as to life-threatening situations, increasing the risk for post-traumatic stress, burnout, and other health problems. Interestingly, the level of resiliency was shown to be higher among firefighters than in the general population. In line with the previously mentioned findings on meaningful work in the expanded JD-R model, firefighters with higher levels of meaningful work perception showed less emotional exhaustion and were more likely to effectively engage in work, and cope with job demands and negative strain (Roşca et al., 2021). Apart from those jobs in healthcare and firefighting, another job type worth consideration was teachers. Empirical research with reference to the JD-R model illustrated that job demands predicted decreased well-being, while job resources increased it. In turn, higher well-being predicted higher engagement and lower turnover intentions. Researchers in education reported increasing workloads and an acceleration of speed across different nations. Time pressure and discipline problems were related to stress, lower levels of commitment, emotional exhaustion, lower levels of self-efficacy, lower job satisfaction, and subsequently increased intentions to leave (Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2018).

The staffing situation in those jobs is characterized by as massive shortage, a growing number of people retiring in the next years, and an increasing number of those who are intending to leave their job. In studies on nurses, the positive effects of transformational leadership on employees themselves, and even on patients and their safety, were outlined (Labrague et al., 2020; Lavoie-Tremblay et al., 2016). Up to now, nurses have been of great interest in empirical research compared to other helping professions. The issue of nurse turnover due to ongoing instability in their working lives has become a global issue with unanswered questions about the impact on their well-being, the patient care, and costs for the overarching system. International studies have identified emotional exhaustion and problems in work design as determinants for nurses' turnover. In a systematic review, job dissatisfaction and the expressed intent to leave the profession were identified as the consistent predictors of turnover. Moderators such as professional commitment and personal disposition appeared to influence turnover behavior. Researchers suggested administrative interventions to improve quality of work, as organizational characteristics are also believed to contribute to turnover. Those included factors associated with workload, work schedules, management style, empowerment and autonomy, as well as promotional opportunities. From an economic point of view, turnover was associated with costs for recruiting and hiring new employees, along with the orientation, training, and decreased productivity of new employees (L. J. Hayes et al., 2006). With a focus on nursing staff, it was also outlined that authentic leadership leads to greater work engagement. This relationship was found to be fully mediated by the alignment between the person and job fit within their work life (Bamford et al., 2013). In a study on Canadian nurses, an increased health risk was found for those who worked full-time as they experienced more burnout, sickness, and job dissatisfaction compared to those in part-time jobs. With regard to the JD-R model, this study also demonstrated that a positive work environment can be overshadowed by strong job demands in terms of high workload. Their work life is generally characterized by concerns over workload and adequacy of resources; however, their health risk increases when efforts at work are not adequately balanced by any kind of rewards (Shamian et al., 2002).

Overall, in light of previous studies on the extremely high job demands in the healthcare sector, questions arise regarding how individuals in these jobs differ

from those in other professions. How do they cope with this workload and what distinguishes them from individuals in other occupational settings? Empirical evidence has shown that job characteristics play a crucial role in employees' feelings of empowerment (Gagne et al., 1997). For healthcare workers, it can be summarized that job demands in terms of job characteristics are high, but these individuals often find their work deeply meaningful, as in some cases, others' lives depend on their work (Roşca et al., 2021). Within the JD-R model, resources represent a twofold role. On the one hand, they are intrinsically motivating, promoting followers' knowledge and mastery fulfilling basic human needs in terms of autonomy, belongingness, and competence. On the other hand, they also have an extrinsic motivation potential that translates into instrumental help, assisting employees in achieving ambitions (Mazzetti et al., 2023). Regarding previous findings on the Dark Triad, research has shown that men scored higher than women on all three traits, but regarding job types, women showed more interest in artistic and social job types than men (Jonason, Wee, Li, et al., 2014).

For this empirical study, social jobs included all kinds of helping professions, e.g. hospital staff, firefighters, therapists, and teachers. In contrast, the non-social group represented any other job which was not considered a helping profession. In both cases, participants were asked to specify their job group on a more detailed level. There is awareness that groups might not be entirely distinct, but the study attempted to distinguish and study these major groups.

As previously mentioned, destructive leadership has detrimental consequences for organizations and has been associated with intentions to quit (Schyns & Schilling, 2013). In, for example, a nursing shortage context, it appears even more important to examine the impact of leaders on certain occupational fields; the development of transformational leadership has emerged as an important organizational strategy (Lavoie-Tremblay et al., 2016). Former studies have concluded that transformational leadership among nurse managers had a positive impact on productivity and retention, job satisfaction, and also increased patient satisfaction (Cummings et al., 2018).

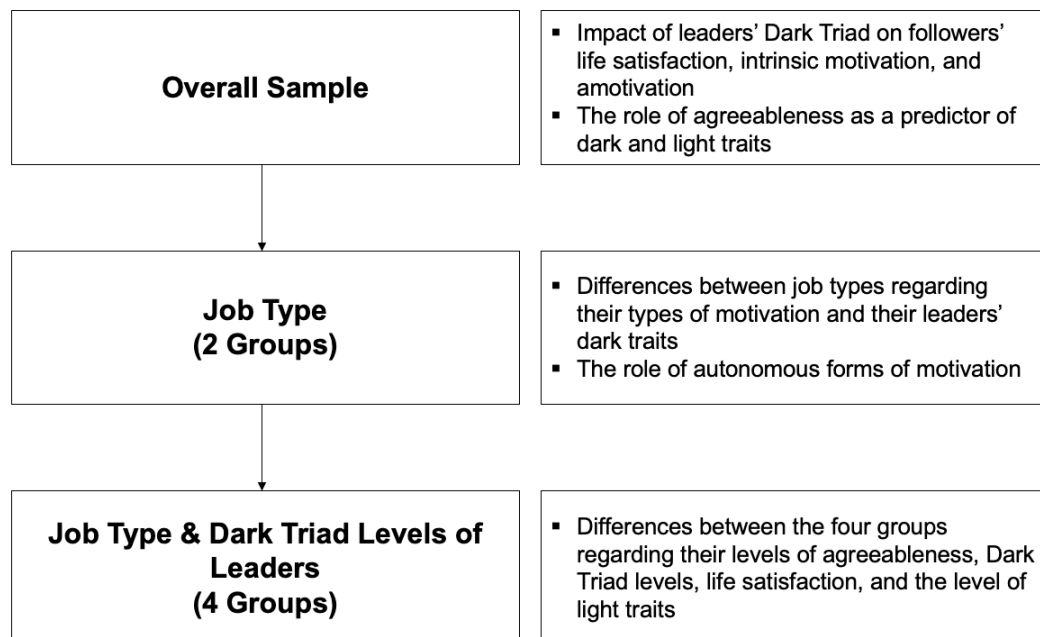
When examining transformational and destructive leadership simultaneously, transformational leadership showed positive influences on the

quality of work and nurses' intentions to stay. In contrast, and as expected, abusive leadership had opposite effects on both factors (Lavoie-Tremblay et al., 2016).

With regard to the needs and desires of new generations, it seems obvious that those needs will not be met when leaders act abusively. Also, in the context of staff shortages in certain sectors such as healthcare, paying attention to leadership practices appears to be important in retaining employees in their jobs. Thus, the aim of this study was to distinguish between occupational settings and the influence of destructive leaders on them. To identify differences between the two overarching groups, several variables were examined to answer the question of how individuals cope with their demanding job situations and how they may differ from individuals in other occupational settings. Particularly, the impact of dark leaders on the two job groups were analyzed, as destructive leadership can represent an additional job demand.

For the upcoming examinations of this study, the following research design was created (Figure 18):

Figure 18. Three-Step Procedure for Study 2



Note. Author's elaboration.

This study broadens the field of research as helping professions are examined without a particular focus on hospital staff. To the author's best knowledge, no such research on the Dark Triad and different job types within one study has been previously conducted.

In the following, the variables relevant for the examination are clarified:

Types of motivation according to SDT: For the examination, it was assumed that certain types of motivation are more prevalent among the participants of each group. For example, it may be assumed that individuals in social jobs are more intrinsically motivated in choosing these despite the fact of them being commonly known to be affected by high job demands such as workloads and shift works. Intrinsic motivation has been empirically linked with feelings of meaningfulness and autonomy at work (Gagne et al., 1997), with social jobs such as in healthcare, indeed, representing meaningful jobs.

As summarized by Van den Broeck et al. (2021), SDT proposes that with increasingly autonomous forms of motivation, employees' optimal functioning should increase accordingly, resulting in intra- and interpersonal growth and development in terms of well-being (such as positive emotions or vitality), attitudes (including job satisfaction and organizational commitment), and behavior (such as performance, proactivity, and collaborative behaviors). SDT is increasingly prevalent in organizational psychology and helps to understand the associations between different types of motivation and work-related outcomes. Its multidimensional view operates as a comprehensive framework to better grasp the complexity of motivation. For empirical research, it is strongly recommended to consider the motivational regulations separately and not in composites, e.g., in autonomous and controlled forms.

The procedure of this study is linked to the studies of Howard et al. (2016), who analyzed the concurrent occurrence of several behavioral regulations within individuals and different profiles across samples.

In order to measure the type of motivation and therefore identify the motivational profile, the MWMS was used. This was originally developed to use Self-Determination theory in the field of organizational behavior (Gagné et al., 2014). It consists of 19 items, and for this study they were measured on a 7-point

Likert scale. The MWMS was developed to overcome existing validity and psychometric problems of previous scales, while still tapping into each of the different forms of motivation. When being originally designed, it was validated across different cultures in nine countries and seven languages. Its intention is to improve existing scales in four ways: it captures people's motives more fully than other scales, it creates more balance between approach and avoidance motives, items do not tap into other related constructs, and items were written in a way that they could be endorsed in many cultures (Gagné et al., 2014).

For its development, Gagné et al. (2014) started with a pool of 55 items and reduced it to a final set of 19 items with three to six items per factor. The MWMS was chosen for this study as it allows the measurement of different types of motivation while considering all of its components of motivation rather than treating it as a single variable. Additionally, the generalizability of the MWMS was supported across examinations across heterogeneous samples (J. L. Howard et al., 2016). As several job types would be examined in the sample of this empirical study, the components of motivation and their individual characteristics were deemed to be relevant for analysis.

According to Howard et al. (2016), the highly motivated profile which was associated with the best performance outcome and highest scores on well-being, was characterized by high levels of intrinsic motivation, identified regulation, and introjected regulation, and slightly above average levels of external regulation. In individuals in social professions, it was assumed that they were characterized more by intrinsic motivation than by external regulation. Intrinsic motivation relates to activities undertaken for their own sake, as they are perceived enjoyable or interesting in themselves (Gagné et al., 2014). This form of motivation is promoted by factors such as acknowledgment of feelings, choice, and opportunities for self-direction which lead to a feeling of autonomy.

As outlined by Howard et al. (2016), different forms of motivation are present within individuals, each with different levels. With this in mind, the question arises: How do the motivational forms influence each other and how are they influenced by dark leaders? Due to the detrimental effects of dark leaders, it was hypothesized that particularly the more autonomous forms would be affected

which are also the forms that are most important for positive outcomes and performance, namely identified regulation and intrinsic motivation.

Well-being in terms of overall life satisfaction: Destructive leaders have been linked to many detrimental consequences for followers, such as psychological distress, exhaustion, and turnover intentions, along with lower job performance and reduced citizenship behavior (Nevicka et al., 2018). In previous research, the Dark Triad was also negatively related to life satisfaction, whereas the Light Triad showed positive correlations (Kaufman et al., 2019).

The relationship between job satisfaction and life satisfaction has been of great interest among researchers, although many examinations have not provided insights into the causal nature of the relationship. As summed up by Judge and Watanabe (1993), previous research had already concluded that job satisfaction causes life satisfaction, and conversely, life satisfaction causes job satisfaction, and they are therefore mutually causative and mutually related. In their examinations, they demonstrated that job and life satisfaction were positively and reciprocally related, while the effect of life satisfaction on job satisfaction was higher. Also, the effect sizes in cross-sectional settings were higher than in longitudinal ones. In this context, they explored why life satisfaction influences job satisfaction, proposing that an individual's overall life satisfaction affects how they evaluate their job conditions and process job-related information (Judge & Watanabe, 1993).

In general, subjective well-being is defined as how individuals evaluate their own lives, or a conscious evaluative judgement about their life satisfaction as a whole. Individuals show high levels of subjective well-being when they are satisfied with their lives and experience frequent positive emotions in terms of joy and happiness, while infrequently experiencing negative emotions such as sadness and anger. Subjective work-related well-being was demonstrated to be related to work engagement, happiness at work, and job satisfaction. In this context the terms happiness and job satisfaction are often used interchangeably (Bakker & Oerlemans, 2012).

As summarized by Diener et al. (2002), the approach to subjective well-being is a broad field. Need satisfaction theorists generally suggest that the satisfaction of basic needs results in happiness, whereas activity theorists that engagement in

an activity leads to happiness. In contrast, goal researchers refer to important goals and making progress as reliable indicators of well-being, combining the elements of need satisfaction and pleasurable activity as an explanation for well-being. While some researchers argue that subjective well-being changes when individuals approach their goals or engage in enjoyable activities, others assume an element of stability across the lifespan. Cultural research also elucidated profound differences in factors which promote well-being. In individualistic cultures, well-being was associated with self-esteem and consistency in self-perception, while relationship harmony and social support were more important in collectivistic cultures (Diener et al., 2002).

Regarding job satisfaction, life satisfaction and well-being have been demonstrated as antecedents. As job satisfaction was related to work performance, this relationship is highly relevant for the organizational context (Judge et al., 2001).

Overall, it was empirically demonstrated that the well-being of employees significantly contributed to increased job performance, a reduction in absenteeism, and reduced turnover likelihood. Happy individuals were more likely to be sensitive to opportunities in their work environment, be helpful to their colleagues, and were generally more optimistic and confident (Cropanzano & Wright, 2001). With regard to the previously mentioned JD-R model, two characteristics particularly determine processes at work: The stress process within the model is characterized by overwhelming demands and lack of resources to compensate which may result in burnout, and the motivational process is defined by job resources that foster work engagement (Decuyper & Schaufeli, 2020). Meanwhile, leadership has been integrated into this model, but it was generally left open for further consideration whether leadership represents a resource or a demand in this context (Schaufeli, 2015), and it therefore remained an independent element (Decuyper & Schaufeli, 2020).

Furthermore, the concept of individuals' flourishing as a form of social well-being refers to psychosocial functioning. This form of well-being can be achieved by fulfilling important psychological needs such as relationships, respect, self-esteem, competence, meaning, and purpose in life (Diener et al., 2010).

Overall, it is clear that well-being has been defined in various ways. One of the purposes of this study was to examine the impact of destructive leaders on the

overall life satisfaction of their followers. Hence, it broadens the approach of previous research on the relationship between leadership and job satisfaction by considering the field of life satisfaction instead of only focusing on job satisfaction.

For the upcoming examinations, participants were asked whether they currently work in any form of social occupations. By using this question at the start of the questionnaire, participants were divided into two groups for the data analysis, namely individuals in social occupations, and individuals in other occupations. This allowed a group-specific examination of variables such as satisfaction.

For social occupations, it was demonstrated that destructive supervision and even physical or personal abuse, occur particularly in the health care sector, where such actions primarily influenced by hierarchical structures and status differences often lead to severe consequences (Richman, 1992; Richman et al., 1996).

When dealing with job demands, the question arises as to which factors operate as predictors of burnout and which role self-determination takes in this process. When examining work self-determination, the negative effects of job demands on emotional exhaustion and depersonalization were moderated by job control when individuals showed high levels of work self-determination. Job demands were also found to be positively related to emotional exhaustion, and negatively to personal accomplishment. Work self-determination had opposite effects, i.e. a negative relation with emotional exhaustion and a positive relation with personal accomplishment (Fernet et al., 2004).

There is empirical evidence that employees surrounded by resourceful job characteristics are more likely to experience psychological freedom, interpersonal connectedness, and perceived effectiveness, which in turn satisfy the needs for autonomy, relatedness, and competence (Van Den Broeck, Vansteenkiste, De Witte, et al., 2008).

Agreeableness: Agreeableness represents a quality of interpersonal interaction which is characterized by six personality facets, namely trust, straightforwardness, altruism, compliance, modesty, and tender-mindedness. At the individual level, agreeableness was empirically associated with job performance, and also demonstrated desirable facets for social interactions in teams, in particular the

facets of trust, straightforwardness, altruism, and compliance. Agreeable individuals are not viewed as a threat by others and tend to be considered as partners in a cooperative effort. Also, their facets of straightforwardness demonstrate their willingness to behave in a sincere and open manner. In sum, their interpersonal skills help them resolve conflict and communicate openly (Neuman & Wright, 1999).

Agreeableness is a personality trait that is primarily concerned with helping and building positive relationships with others. Regarding the Dark Triad of personality, the negative relations of agreeableness to those traits have been subject of debate. Some scholars state that the dark traits form a functionally distinct construct, while others contend that they merely represent the opposite pole of agreeableness. As part of the Big Five, agreeableness is conceptualized as a general factor, that is, it is made up of the covariance of its associated characteristics of altruism, straightforwardness, cooperativeness and so forth (Wilmot & Ones, 2022).

In their review of meta-analytic findings on agreeableness, Wilmot and Ones (2022) summarized a large amount of agreeableness's relations among different life domains. As stated before, the dark traits of narcissism, Machiavellianism, and psychopathy showed negative relations with agreeableness. In contrast, subordinates' leader satisfaction showed positive relations as well as life satisfaction, psychological wellbeing in several dimensions and the psychological needs of autonomy, relatedness, and competence.

Agreeableness exhibits traits such as friendliness, compassion, sociability, warmth, and affability. It has been found to be positively linked to reciprocity behavior which is also key to the previously described LMX (Dulebohn et al., 2012).

Highly agreeable individuals tend to avoid confrontation which can also be a consequence of responding to destructive leadership. Individuals with lower scores on agreeableness engaged in constructive resistance tactics more often than those with high scores (Tepper et al., 2001).

As previously stated, Henle and Gross (2014) found a U-shaped curvilinear relationship between agreeableness and perceived abusive supervision. Agreeable individuals are considered sympathetic, supportive, truthful, considerate, and they elicit positive feelings in other individuals (Wilmot & Ones, 2022). Such individuals can be vulnerable targets for abusive leaders as they appear too accommodating or

amiable and therefore unlikely to defend themselves or retaliate. Thus, individuals with higher or lower levels were more likely to experience abusive supervision, but not those at moderate levels (Henle & Gross, 2014).

Agreeable team members were shown to freely contribute their ideas in a confident manner, while at the same time, they aimed to achieve a group concept without resulting in the negative aspects of groupthink. Thus, agreeableness was also linked with improved team performance. As team members, agreeable individuals tend to cooperate with others and possess the social skills required for effective team work. Agreeableness was associated with conflict resolution and open communication across levels. Such individuals tend to be more effective at avoiding work disruptions related to disagreeable social interactions, such as interpersonal conflict. Agreeable individuals appear to be more likable and therefore tend to receive positive evaluations from peers and supervisors (Neuman & Wright, 1999).

Agreeableness was also empirically linked with motives to maintain positive interpersonal relations. It allows individuals to reduce the negative consequences of conflicts and negotiate outcomes which benefit from the advantages of group living. Individuals with higher levels of agreeableness evaluate the use of destructive tactics as less appropriate compared to individuals with lower levels. In sum, this motive system leads them to generate more positive perceptions and attributions. They select tactics that disrupt their relationships only minimally during conflicts, and they continue to talk to their conflict parties more after conflict situations. Overall, agreeable individuals perceived better interpersonal ratings than low agreeable persons (Jensen-Campbell & Graziano, 2001).

As aforesaid and demonstrated by Tepper et al. (2001), personality traits of employees can operate as moderators in certain situations that are marked by destructive leadership. Suitable for this, agreeable individuals were described as more sympathetic toward others and eager to help (Neuman & Wright, 1999).

With reference to those empirical findings on agreeableness, followers' level of agreeableness appeared worthy of investigation. The question arises as to which role agreeableness shows in the context of different occupational settings, and under the influence of dark leaders. As previously stated, destructive leaders have a negative impact on work environments, and especially Machiavellians tend to

use manipulative tactics. Consequently, the interplay of destructive leaders and agreeable followers was part of this empirical investigation.

It is to be reiterated that across numerous studies on the Dark Triad and the Big Five, Machiavellianism, and psychopathy were related to low agreeableness, whereas narcissism was not, or only marginally negatively related (Jonason et al., 2013; Muris et al., 2017).

Light Triad of personality: In 2000, the need for a new framework for a science of positive psychology arose to understand the factors that enable individuals and societies to flourish. The exclusive focus on pathology, disorders, and negative effects of environmental stressors were particularly apparent after World War II when science was focused on healing, but suffered from a lack of knowledge of positive features (Seligman, 2001). Thus, the aim of positive psychology at that time was to catalyze a change in the focus of psychology, and to allow psychologists to understand what makes life worth living (Seligman, 2001; Seligman & Csikszentmihalyi, 2000). It is defined as the scientific examination of the strengths and virtues of human beings and attempts to adopt an appreciative perspective towards their potentials, capacities, and motives. It presupposes that understanding individuals' functioning requires moving beyond problem-focused frameworks (Sheldon & King, 2001).

As a reaction to the growing literature on dark leaders and the construct of the Dark Triad over the past decades, Kaufman et al. (2019) contrasted the Dark Triad with the nomological network of the Light Triad. It represents a construct of a loving and beneficent orientation towards others by considering the three facets of Kantianism, Humanism, and Faith in Humanity. Kantianism, as one of the factors, represents the attitude to treat people as ends unto themselves, while Humanism values the dignity and worth of all individuals, and Faith in Humanity is characterized by believing in the fundamental goodness of human beings. When the Light Triad was initially conceptualized, it served as a predictor of life satisfaction and several growth-oriented and self-transcendent outcomes.

Further examinations on the Light Triad corroborated the findings on those three relatively distinct traits, but empirical research on the construct of the Light Triad is still scarce and little is known about its predictive potential for adverse and

transgressive behaviors. Also, the construct of the Light Triad is a reaction to the need for understanding the positive side of human behavior as stated in the positive psychology movement (Lukić & Živanović, 2021).

Although they are moderately correlated and the name might suggest that the Light triad represents a direct counterpart of the Dark Triad facets, they cannot merely be considered counterparts. The Light Triad shows positive relations with the need of the above-mentioned psychological needs as stated in SDT, along with altruistic value orientations (Kaufman et al., 2019; Kiral Ucar et al., 2023).

Results of further studies of the Light Triad yielded that it can be exclusively predicted by high honesty-humility, emotionality, extraversion, and agreeableness. Thus, individuals with higher scores on the Light Triad are also more modest, sincere, sociable, sentimental, gentle, and forgiving, in contrast to individuals with lower scores (Lukić & Živanović, 2021). Among the Big Five traits, the correlation with agreeableness was the strongest (Kaufman et al., 2019).

Empirical examinations including measures of the dark side and simultaneously including measures of the light side of personality are missing in the field of research (Kaufman et al., 2019). Thus, the Light Triad of personality was included in the study to explore the differences between the job types and their association with destructive leadership.

Dark Triad of leaders and followers: Healthcare systems around the globe experience times of turbulent change, and the need for effective and visionary leadership to address the challenges in this sector has never been greater. These systems are confronted with ongoing concerns of staff shortages and complaints of an overloaded workforce (Cummings et al., 2018). As stated by Wang et al. (2015), research on destructive leadership is often imbalanced, as it mostly deals with its consequences and neglects subordinate-related predictors of perceptions of abusive leadership. As a result, there is little knowledge on how employee-related factors can moderate those effects of perceptions on organizational outcomes. In their studies, the authors demonstrated that the personality traits of employees influence the degree of perceived abusive supervision. As employees tend to direct their dysfunctional responses to perceived abusive leadership towards their

leaders and team, there has been an increasing focus on interpersonal deviance and behaviors (Wang et al., 2015).

In a recent systematic review of the nursing workforce and work environments, the influence of leadership on working outcomes and working environments was analyzed. Abusive leadership led to several negative outcomes, such as significantly higher intentions the leave compared to transformational and charismatic leadership. The authors therefore claimed that the key for future sustainability in this sector is the improvement of existing leadership and that this should be a priority for chief executives in those organizations (Cummings et al., 2018).

As outlined before, leaders with high scores on the Dark Triad traits tend to show destructive leadership behavior. With regard to the JD-R model, destructive leaders require sustained psychological effort and are therefore associated with psychological and physiological costs (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007). Therefore, this study aims to investigate its relation with employees' life satisfaction. With a focus on the well-being of nursing staff, a positive relationship between authentic leadership and work engagement was found (Bamford et al., 2013).

With regard to those examinations, employees' personality traits can be seen as boundary conditions for the relationship between the perceptions of destructive leadership and interpersonal behavior (Wang et al., 2015).

As demonstrated by Black et al. (2014), leaders with dark traits are prolific exploiters, but they are not particularly skilled at identifying the emotional vulnerabilities of their potential victims. Instead, they perceive every individual as weak and vulnerable. To be precise, they perceive their followers as disagreeable and individuals with low self-esteem, being neurotic, depressed, and anxious. With regard to these findings, the purpose of this study was again follower-related. As dark leaders do not focus on certain types of followers, the question arises whether specific groups of followers react differently to destructive leadership.

Regarding the aforementioned empirical findings, this study was divided into three steps of analysis. The first level of analysis considered the overall sample. The second level divided the sample into two major groups depending on individuals' jobs. The third level split up those groups depending on the Dark Triad level of their leaders.

For examinations on the overall sample, it was hypothesized as follows:

Hypothesis 1: The level of dark personality traits of leaders is negatively related to the overall life satisfaction and intrinsic motivation of followers, but positively related to their amotivation.

Hypothesis 2: The level of agreeableness of followers predicts both their level of Dark Triad traits and their Light Triad.

For the examinations on the two major groups, the following hypotheses were tested:

Hypothesis 3: The types of motivation according to the Multidimensional Work Motivation Scale differ significantly between individuals from helping and individuals from other professions. Individuals in social jobs have higher levels of intrinsic motivation and lower levels of external regulation compared to individuals in non-social jobs.

Hypothesis 4: In both groups, the more autonomous forms of motivation mediate the relationship between the Dark Triad of leaders and the amotivation of followers.

Hypothesis 5: Leaders in non-social jobs exhibit higher perceived dark traits than those in social jobs.

For the third and final level of analysis, the four groups were analyzed with regard to the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 6: The four groups differ significantly in their levels of agreeableness, their Dark Triad levels, overall life satisfaction, and the level of the Light Triad of personality for themselves and their leaders.

5.2.2. Methods

Sample, procedure, and measures: As previously stated, the aim of this study was to distinguish between two major job categories, namely social occupations and non-social occupations.

As in the first study, SoSci Survey was used to collect the data for the examination. The items of all measures were inserted and a hyperlink for distribution was created. This time, the hyperlink was shared on various channels. Similar to the first study, emails were sent to both personal networks and professional networks, and it was shared in occupational social media networks and social media groups for academic research. In contrast to the prior study, this one had two specific target groups, one of them being individuals in social or helping jobs. In order to gain an adequate number of participants from relevant branches, managers from the local fire brigade and a hospital were contacted and asked to distribute the study. Additionally, the hyperlink was converted to a QR-code and distributed as printed versions at a local hospital. Also, the questionnaire was made available in an online campus for part-time students at a German university of applied sciences. Students were rewarded with course credit for participation. Furthermore, the questionnaire was distributed to courses for social work and others specialized in health care education at this university. All other participants did not receive any form of compensation. As in the first study, the questionnaire started with a cover story and provided information on the confidential handling of the data, and that their participation was voluntary. Again, the questionnaire started with the question on whether participants recently had a direct leader that could be rated. For the purpose of distinguishing between participants in social jobs and in non-social jobs, an additional question was added at the start. Respondents were asked whether they worked in a social job at the time of the participation. Although there is a lot of existing research on employees in healthcare and other helping professions, it was difficult to provide an exhaustive list of jobs that were considered social. Thus, a description and examples were provided: "Social professions include those that are characterized by the fact that the work performed benefits fellow human beings in need of help. Those include for example medical professions, nursing profession, therapeutic professions in the

fields of pedagogy, social pedagogy, education (e.g. teachers, educators).” Hence, all participants were able to allocate themselves to the suitable category.

The overall period of data collection was from October 2022 to January 2023. In sum, the dataset included 730 participations, although only 606 finished the questionnaire, meaning they reached the last page of the examination without actively and prematurely terminating the questionnaire. During the process, 17 were excluded due to the exclusion question of whether they were in a job with a direct superior at the time they took part. Subsequently, 589 complete datasets remained, and another 14 had to be removed for quality reasons as their relative speed index was above 2.0 (Leiner, 2019). Afterwards, 575 datasets remained for further examinations. Of those 575, 153 participants declared to be working in a social job, 422 participants belonged to the other job category. Although much more effort was put into the recruitment of participants from social jobs, the number of participants remained comparatively small in contrast to the other group. All scales can be found in the appendices of this doctoral thesis.

For this overall sample, 66.6% were females, and 33.4% were males. Participants’ age ranged from 18 to 63 years ($M = 31.55$, $SD = 9.31$).

Dark Triad of personality of leaders and followers: As in the first study, the Dark Triad of leaders was measured with the Dirty Dozen (Jonason & Webster, 2010), participants responded on a 7-point Likert scale. Followers were asked to rate their leaders’ traits, so it was used as an others-assessment. Again, the reliability appeared appropriate with $\alpha = .95$ and $\omega = .95$. The Dark Triad of followers was again measured by the Dirty Dozen, items were answered on a 7-point Likert scale. Again, the scale showed satisfactory reliability with $\alpha = .86$ and $\omega = .85$.

Types of motivation of followers according to SDT: The types of motivation were measured with the Multidimensional Work Motivation Scale (MWMS) by Gagné et al. (2014), a commonly used scale to capture different levels and types of motivation. It includes 19 items which were evaluated on a 7-point Likert scale. It is to be pointed out that the MWMS does not measure integrated regulation separately as it can hardly be statistically differentiated from identified and intrinsic motivation, and so far, the integration of it in previous research has not

demonstrated additional variance in outcomes (Gagné et al., 2014). This is in line with the meta-analytical findings of Howard et al. (2017), who recommended not to include it.

When examining its reliability, the five different types were analyzed individually. The following values were found: for intrinsic motivation, Cronbach's alpha was $\alpha = .93$ and McDonald's omega was $\omega = .93$; for identified regulation $\alpha = .89$ and $\omega = .89$; for introjected regulation $\alpha = .75$, and $\omega = .70$; for external regulation $\alpha = .76$ and $\omega = .72$; and for amotivation $\alpha = .87$ and $\omega = .87$. Overall, the MWMS appeared as an appropriate measure for the purpose of the study.

Life satisfaction of followers: For the measurement of followers' satisfaction, the Satisfaction with Life Scale (SWLS) from Diener et al. (1985), which consists of only five items, was used on a 7-point Likert scale. The scale was developed to measure global life satisfaction by asking the individual for an overall judgement of their life without tapping into related constructs such as positive affect or loneliness (Diener et al., 1985). Subjective well-being represents what individuals think and how they feel about their lives, including cognitive and affective conclusions when evaluating their existence (Seligman & Csikszentmihalyi, 2000).

The use of such scales for self-reports is a major concern in research because answers might be influenced by respondents' current mood and may therefore not represent the average level of satisfaction experiences across different moments. Nevertheless, they are still considered valuable because they provide insights into psychological processes and individuals' judgements about their lives. Furthermore, they often predict future decisions and important life outcomes (Diener et al., 2002).

When measuring life satisfaction, it is important to highlight that the judgment of how satisfied people are is based on a comparison with a standard that is set by every individual for themselves. Previously developed scales consisted of only one single item or did not focus solely on the quality of life satisfaction. While being formulated, the SWLS showed desirable psychometric properties and moderately strong correlations with nearly all the subjective well-being scales that were used for the development. It does not evoke socially desirable responses and

leaves the respondent free to weight life domains and feelings in whatever way they may choose (Diener et al., 1985). In this examination of the doctoral thesis, the scale appeared as an appropriate measure with $\alpha = .88$ and $\omega = .88$. To date, the SWLS is a commonly used measurement for overall life satisfaction (Kaufman et al., 2019).

Light Triad of personality of leaders and followers: For this study, the corresponding Light Triad Scale (LTS) was applied. It consists of 12 items, four for each of the three facets, and participants were asked to respond on a 7-point Likert-scale (Kaufman et al., 2019). In this examination, the reliability of the scale was $\alpha = .90$ and $\omega = .90$ for the measurement of leaders. The same scale was applied for measuring the Light Triad of personality of followers. The reliability was $\alpha = .75$ and $\omega = .74$.

Agreeableness of followers: As part of the Big Five of personality, agreeableness was measured by the relevant items of the so-called Big Five Inventory 2 (BFI-2) (Danner et al., 2019), an inventory to capture all the Big Five traits. The 12 relevant items for agreeableness were extracted and measured on a 7-point Likert-scale. The derived scale showed appropriate values of reliability with $\alpha = .76$ and $\omega = .74$.

Again, the variables relevant for investigation were collected using SoSci Survey, an online tool for academic research. It is to be noted that, as in the first study, the questionnaire again began with remarks on the confidential handling of the data and other relevant information for participants.

5.2.3. Results

For the examination of this study, the statistical analysis was divided into three subsequent steps.

First step of analysis:

For the first step, the overall sample was examined. Primarily, the overall sample was analyzed regarding descriptive statistics whose results are shown in Table 14:

Table 14. Means, Standard Deviations, and Intercorrelations

Variable	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6
1. Dark Triad Leader	3.00	1.50						
2. Dark Triad Follower	2.69	0.96	.33***					
3. Light Triad Follower	5.25	0.73	-.14***	-.29***				
4. Agreeableness	5.35	0.68	-.12***	-.45***	.60***			
5. Life Satisfaction	4.93	1.15	-.14***	-.06	.18***	.20***		
6. Intrinsic Motivation	5.00	1.55	-.28***	-.15***	.19***	.15***	.32***	
7. Amotivation	1.85	1.21	.41***	.25***	-.12**	-.15***	-.24***	-.55***

Note. $N = 575$.

** indicates $p < .01$. *** indicates $p < .001$.

With regard to Hypothesis 1, the Dark Triad of personality of leaders was weakly negatively correlated with their followers' life satisfaction ($r = -.14, p < .001$). Also, it was negatively related to their intrinsic motivation ($r = -.28, p < .001$), but positively to their amotivation ($r = .41, p < .001$). With reference to Hypothesis 2,

followers' agreeableness was related to their Dark Triad traits ($r = -.45, p < .001$), and positively to their Light Triad traits ($r = .60, p < .001$).

Similar to the previous empirical study, the assumptions for regression analyses were tested before further examining the data. For the potential violation of normal distribution, further analyses were applied using a bootstrap technique (Preacher et al., 2007). Also, as recommended by Hayes and Cai (2007), using robust standard errors is recommended rather than assuming homoscedasticity, so HC4 was applied for regression-based analyses in this empirical study.

For hypotheses testing, regression analyses were applied as shown in the following Tables 15–17.

Table 15. Regression Analysis With Overall Life Satisfaction as the Dependent Variable

Predictors	Unstandardized Coefficients <i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	Standardized Coefficients Beta (β)	<i>p</i>	95% CI	
					<i>LL</i>	<i>UL</i>
(Constant)	4.73	0.22		<.001	4.29	5.16
DT-L	-0.11	0.03	-0.14	<.001	-0.16	-0.05
Gender	0.26	0.10	0.11	.01	0.07	0.46
Age	0.01	0.01	0.04	.36	-0.01	0.02

Note. A bootstrap sample of 5,000 and a robust standard error (HC4) were used. *LL* and *UL* indicate the lower and upper limits of a CI. DT-L = Dark Triad leader.
 $R^2 = .03$

As predicted, the Dark Triad of leaders was negatively associated with their followers' life satisfaction ($B = -0.11, \beta = -0.14, p < .001$).

Table 16. Regression Analysis With Intrinsic Motivation as the Dependent Variable

Predictors	Unstandardized Coefficients <i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	Standardized Coefficients Beta (β)	<i>p</i>	95% CI	
					<i>LL</i>	<i>UL</i>
(Constant)	4.77	0.22		<.001	4.22	5.30
DT-L	-0.28	0.03	-0.27	<.001	-0.36	-0.19
Gender	-0.04	0.10	-0.01	.01	-0.30	0.23
Age	0.04	0.01	0.21	.36	0.02	0.05

Note. A bootstrap sample of 5,000 and a robust standard error (HC4) were used. LL and UL indicate the lower and upper limits of a CI. DT-L = Dark Triad leader.
 $R^2 = .12$

Table 17. Regression Analysis With Amotivation as the Dependent Variable

Predictors	Unstandardized Coefficients <i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	Standardized Coefficients Beta (β)	<i>p</i>	95% CI	
					<i>LL</i>	<i>UL</i>
(Constant)	1.10	0.20		<.001	0.72	1.48
DT-L	0.32	0.04	0.40	<.001	0.25	0.40
Gender	0.19	0.10	0.07	.06	-0.003	0.39
Age	-0.02	0.004	-0.12	<.001	-0.02	-0.01

Note. A bootstrap sample of 5,000 and a robust standard error (HC4) were used. LL and UL indicate the lower and upper limits of a CI. DT-L = Dark Triad leader.
 $R^2 = .18$

As hypothesized, Dark Triad of leaders was also negatively associated with the intrinsic motivation of followers ($B = -0.28$, $\beta = -0.27$, $p < .001$), but positively

with their amotivation ($B = 0.32$, $\beta = 0.40$, $p < .001$). Thus, Hypothesis 1 was fully supported.

For the role of agreeableness as a predictor of dark and light personality traits, linear regression analyses were used as shown in Tables 18 and 19:

Table 18. Regression Analysis With the Dark Triad of Followers as the Dependent Variable

Predictor	Unstandardized Coefficients <i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	Standardized Coefficients Beta (β)	<i>p</i>	95% CI	
					<i>LL</i>	<i>UL</i>
(Constant)	6.06	0.33		<.001	5.38	6.70
Agreeable- ness	-0.60	0.05	-0.43	<.001	-0.70	-0.50
Gender	0.33	0.08	0.16	<.001	0.19	0.48
Age	-0.02	0.004	-0.18	<.001	-0.03	-0.01

Note. A bootstrap sample of 5,000 and a robust standard error (HC4) were used. LL and UL indicate the lower and upper limits of a CI.

$R^2 = .25$

Table 19. Regression Analysis With the Light Triad of Followers as the Dependent Variable

Predictor	Unstandardized Coefficients <i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	Standardized Coefficients Beta (β)	<i>p</i>	95% CI	
					<i>LL</i>	<i>UL</i>
(Constant)	1.99	0.24		<.001	1.52	2.46
Agreeable- ness	0.64	0.04	0.59	<.001	0.56	0.72
Gender	-0.04	0.06	-0.02	.54	-0.15	0.08
Age	-0.003	0.004	-0.04	.38	-0.01	0.004

Note. A bootstrap sample of 5,000 and a robust standard error (HC4) were used. LL and UL indicate the lower and upper limits of a CI.

$R^2 = .36$

The level of agreeableness of followers predicted their Dark Triad traits ($B = 0.60$, $\beta = -0.43$, $p < .001$) as well as their Light Triad traits ($B = 0.64$, $\beta = 0.59$, $p < .001$). Thus, Hypothesis 2 was also fully supported.

Second step of analysis:

Subsequently, the sample was divided based on whether participants were employed in social occupations or not. As there were now two samples, their descriptive statistics were outlined again.

The sample of individuals in social jobs consisted of 153 participants, 71.9% female, and 28.1% male. Their ages ranged from 18 to 61 years ($M = 35.22$, $SD = 10.47$). Regarding their exact job, 37.3% were hospital staff, 24.2% were pedagogues, 18.3% were from firefighting and rescue teams, 6.5% were social workers, 5.2% belonged to therapeutic jobs, and 1.3% belonged to ambulatory care. Another 7.2% belonged to other social jobs that were not further specified.

The sample of individuals in non-social jobs consisted of 422 participants, 64.7% female, and 35.3% male. Their ages ranged from 19 to 63 years ($M = 30.22$,

SD = 8.48). Regarding their exact job, 22.0% belonged to the telecommunications sector, 12.6% were from the service industry, 11.6% were from insurances, banking and the financial sector, 10.7% were from the industry, 8.3% were from the retail sector, 7.8% belonged to IT, 4.7% were from consultancy, 4.0% were public administration, 3.8% belonged to transport and logistics, 3.3% from the energy sector, 2.1% were from the food and purchasing sector, 0.7% were from research and innovation. Another 8.3% were from sectors that were not further specified.

As the sample was split up, reliabilities of the relevant scales were examined again, following the recommendations of Streiner (2003) to always verify them for each sample. For the sample of participants in social jobs, the following reliabilities were found: The Dirty Dozen showed appropriate values for reliability, with $\alpha = .94$ and $\omega = .94$. Regarding the MWMS, the following values were found: for external regulation $\alpha = .78$ and $\omega = .75$, for introjected regulation $\alpha = .77$ and $\omega = .76$, for identified regulation $\alpha = .88$ and $\omega = .88$, for intrinsic motivation $\alpha = .89$ and $\omega = .90$, and for amotivation $\alpha = .80$ and $\omega = .83$.

For participants in non-social jobs, similar results were revealed. The Dirty Dozen showed a reliability of $\alpha = .95$ and $\omega = .95$. The MWMS items revealed the following values: For external regulation, $\alpha = .72$ and $\omega = .67$, for introjected regulation $\alpha = .74$ and $\omega = .68$, for identified regulation $\alpha = .89$ and $\omega = .89$, for intrinsic motivation $\alpha = .94$ and $\omega = .94$, and for amotivation $\alpha = .88$ and $\omega = .88$.

Intercorrelations, means, and standard deviations of the two samples are illustrated in Table 20 and Table 21 below:

Table 20. Means, Standard Deviations, and Intercorrelations for Individuals in Social Jobs

Variable	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5
1. Dark Triad Leader	3.01	1.49					
2. External Regulation	3.74	1.23	-.08				
3. Introjected Regulation	4.91	1.36	0.04	.33***			
4. Identified Regulation	6.10	1.06	-.27***	.10	.32***		
5. Intrinsic Motivation	5.71	1.35	-.32***	.06	.03	.61***	
6. Amotivation	1.60	0.97	.45***	.10	-.10	-.52***	-.48***

Note. $n = 153$.

*** indicates $p < .001$.

Table 21. Means, Standard Deviations, and Intercorrelations for Individuals in Non-Social Jobs

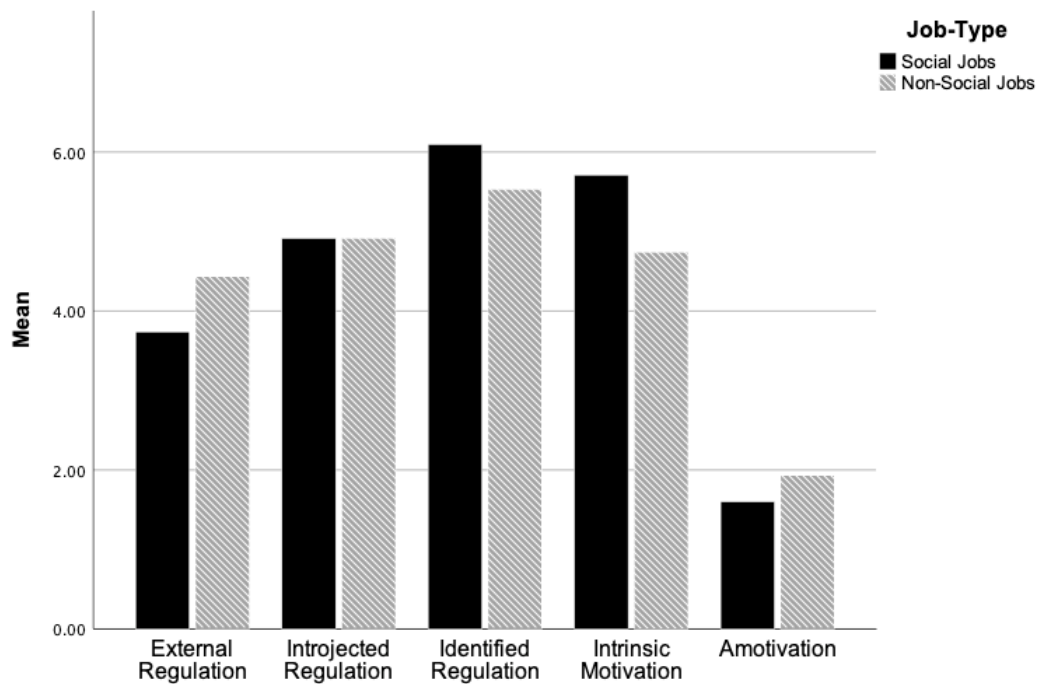
Variable	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5
1. Dark Triad Leader	3.00	1.50					
2. External Regulation	4.44	1.08	.14***				
3. Introjected Regulation	4.91	1.23	.01	.33***			
4. Identified Regulation	5.53	1.26	-.18***	.09	.44***		
5. Intrinsic Motivation	4.74	1.54	-.28***	-.05	.08	.50***	
6. Amotivation	1.94	1.27	.41***	.08	-.11*	-.44***	-.56***

Note. $n = 422$.

* indicates $p < .05$. *** indicates $p < .001$.

It was hypothesized that the two groups would show differences in the types of motivation as measured by the MWMS. For this purpose, the different motivational types of the MWMS were initially visualized in a bar chart as demonstrated in Figure 19 before statistically testing them. As expected, differences between the job types were apparent in all types of motivation except for introjected regulation.

Figure 19. Bar Chart on the Types of Motivation in Both Occupational Groups



Note. n (social jobs) = 153, n (non-social jobs) = 422.

For further analysis of Hypothesis 3 regarding the two overarching job types, the differences between the job groups in terms of their motivational types

were statistically examined. For the examination of significant differences between the mean values of each motivational type between the groups, a *t*-test was conducted as demonstrated in Table 22.

Table 22. *t*-Test for the Mean Differences Between Types of Motivation

	Mean Difference	SE	<i>p</i>	95% CI		Cohen's <i>d</i>	95% CI	
				LL	UL		LL	UL
External Regulation	-0.70	0.11	<.001	-0.92	-0.48	1.13	-0.81	-0.43
Introjected Regulation	0.00	0.13	.99	-0.24	0.24	1.27	-0.19	0.18
Identified Regulation	0.57	0.10	<.001	0.36	0.77	1.21	0.28	0.66
Intrinsic Motivation	0.97	0.13	<.001	0.71	1.23	1.49	0.46	0.84
Amotivation	-0.33	0.10	<.001	-0.53	-0.13	1.20	-0.46	-0.09

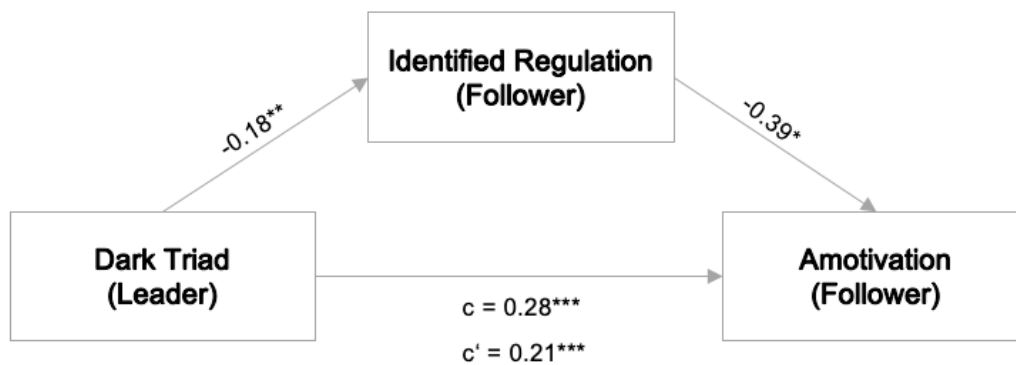
Note. *n* (social jobs) = 153, *n* (non-social jobs) = 422. A bootstrap sample of 5,000 was used. LL and UL indicate the lower and upper limits of a CI. The Welch-test was applied for all variables.

As demonstrated in Table 22, the *t*-test yielded the expected results that could be taken from the visualization above. The test demonstrated significant differences between the two groups for all types of motivation except for introjected regulation. Thus, Hypothesis 3 was only partially supported, as the two job types only differed significantly in four of five motivational types. Notably, there was no statistically significant difference in their values for introjected regulation ($p = 0.99$). All other types showed statistically significant differences, while intrinsic motivation showed the strongest effect sizes (Cohen's $d = 1.49$, CI [0.46, 0.84]). Furthermore, support was found for Hypothesis 3, which predicted that individuals in social jobs would exhibit higher levels of intrinsic motivation

(mean difference = 0.97, $p < .001$) and lower levels of external regulation (mean difference = -0.70, $p < .001$) than individuals in non-social jobs.

Moving on to Hypothesis 4, mediation analyses were conducted to test the mediating effects of the different forms of motivation on the relationship between the Dark Triad of leaders and the level of amotivation of followers. Intrinsic motivation and identified regulation were examined as mediators as it was hypothesized that the more autonomous forms of motivation operate as underlying mechanisms of the relationship of Dark Triad traits of leaders and the amotivation of followers.

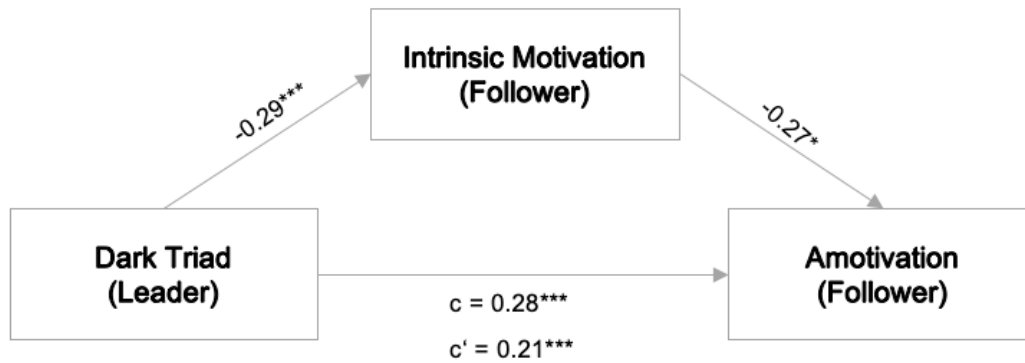
Figure 20. Mediation Analysis With Identified Regulation as the Mediator (Social Jobs)



Note. PROCESS Model 4 was applied. Path coefficients indicate unstandardized weights. All paths were controlled for gender and age. For reasons of efficiency, they were not illustrated in this figure.

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

Figure 21. Mediation Analysis With Intrinsic Motivation as the Mediator (Social Jobs)



Note. PROCESS Model 4 was applied. Path coefficients indicate unstandardized weights. All paths were controlled for gender and age. For reasons of efficiency, they were not illustrated in this figure.

* indicates $p < .05$. *** indicates $p < .001$.

As hypothesized, for individuals in social jobs, significant indirect effects were only found for identified regulation (indirect effect = 0.07, CI [0.01, 0.17]) and intrinsic motivation (indirect effect = 0.08, CI [0.02, 0.17]). Results are illustrated in Figures 20 and 21, and Tables 23 and 24. Regarding introjected regulation (indirect effect = -0.003, CI [-0.02, 0.02]) and external regulation (indirect effect = -0.01, CI [-0.02, 0.01]), the indirect effects were not significant.

Table 23. Output Details of the Mediation Analysis With Identified Regulation as the Mediator (Social Jobs)

Model	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>p</i>	95% CI		Fit
				<i>LL</i>	<i>UL</i>	
Identified Regulation						
(Constant)	7.20	0.38	<.001	6.51	7.98	
DT-L	-0.18	0.06	.003	-0.30	-0.06	
Gender	-0.18	0.18	.31	-0.53	0.18	
Age	-0.01	0.01	.44	-0.03	0.01	
						<i>R</i> ² = .09
Amotivation						
(Constant)	3.32	1.29	.01	1.47	5.27	
DT-L	0.21	0.06	<.001	0.11	0.30	
Identified Regulation	-0.39	0.19	.04	-0.66	-0.15	
Gender	0.15	0.17	.39	-0.15	0.47	
Age	-0.004	0.01	.61	-0.02	0.01	
						<i>R</i> ² = .38

Note. A bootstrap sample of 5,000 and a robust standard error (HC4) were used. LL and UL indicate the lower and upper limits of a CI. DT-L = Dark Triad leader.

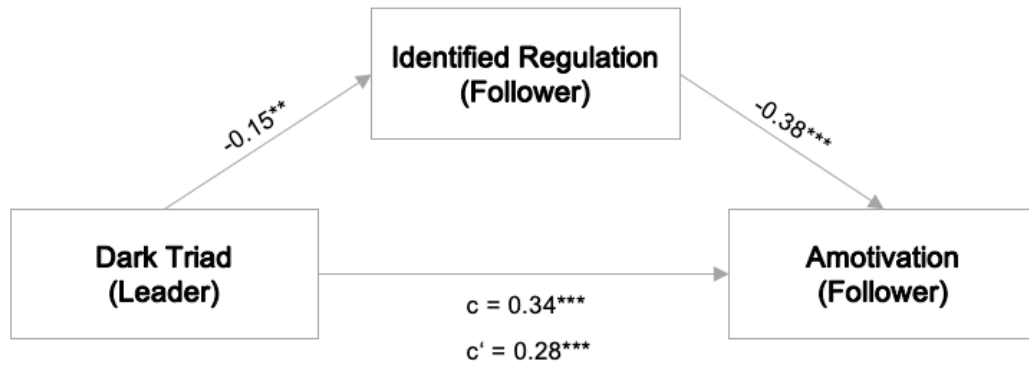
Table 24. Output Details of the Mediation Analysis With Intrinsic Motivation as the Mediator (Social Jobs)

Model	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>p</i>	95% CI		Fit
				<i>LL</i>	<i>UL</i>	
Intrinsic Motivation						
(Constant)	6.50	0.46	<.001	5.60	7.41	<i>R</i> ² = .10
DT-L	-0.29	0.08	<.001	-0.44	-0.14	
Gender	-0.02	0.23	.94	-0.47	0.41	
Age	0.003	0.01	.81	-0.02	0.03	
Amotivation						
(Constant)	2.25	0.70	.002	1.04	3.58	<i>R</i> ² = .34
DT-L	0.21	0.05	<.001	0.10	0.30	
Intrinsic Motivation	-0.27	0.10	.01	-0.46	-0.11	
Gender	0.22	0.16	.18	-0.08	0.54	
Age	<0.001	0.01	.998	-0.01	0.02	

Note. A bootstrap sample of 5,000 and a robust standard error (HC4) were used. LL and UL indicate the lower and upper limits of a CI. DT-L = Dark Triad leader.

For individuals in non-social jobs, similar results were shown as mediating effects were only found for identified regulation (indirect effect = 0.06, CI [0.02, 0.09]) and intrinsic motivation (indirect effect = 0.11, CI [0.06, 0.16]). Results are demonstrated in Figures 22 and 23, and Tables 25 and 26. Regarding introjected regulation (indirect effect = -0.001, CI [-0.01, 0.01]) and external regulation (indirect effect = 0.001, CI [-0.01, 0.01]), the indirect effects were again not significant. Thus, Hypothesis 4 was supported.

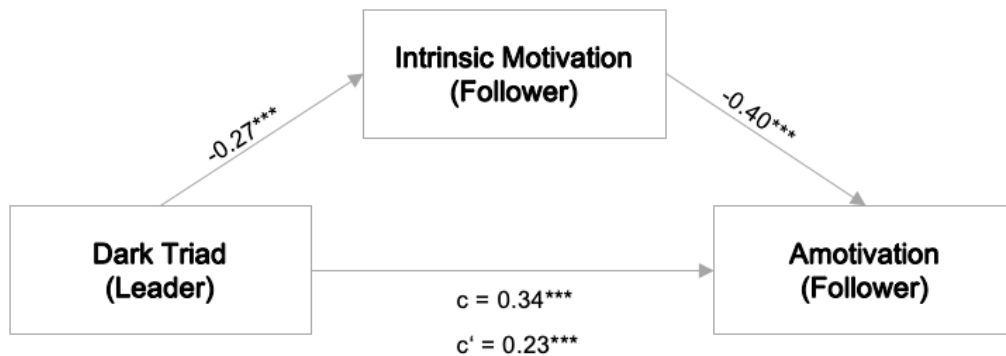
Figure 22. Mediation Analysis With Identified Regulation as the Mediator (Non-Social Jobs)



Note. PROCESS Model 4 was applied. Path coefficients indicate unstandardized weights. All paths were controlled for gender and age. For reasons of efficiency, they were not illustrated in this figure.

** indicates $p < .01$. *** indicates $p < .001$.

Figure 23. Mediation Analysis With Intrinsic Motivation as the Mediator (Non-Social Jobs)



Note. PROCESS Model 4 was applied. Path coefficients indicate unstandardized weights. All paths were controlled for gender and age. For reasons of efficiency, they were not illustrated in this figure.

*** indicates $p < .001$.

Table 25. Output Details of the Mediation Analysis With Identified Regulation as the Mediator (Non-Social Jobs)

Model	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>p</i>	95% CI		Fit
				<i>LL</i>	<i>UL</i>	
Identified Regulation						
(Constant)	6.01	0.27	<.001	5.49	6.54	
DT-L	-0.15	0.05	.001	-0.24	-0.06	
Gender	-0.26	0.15	.07	-0.56	0.02	
Age	0.01	0.01	.17	-0.01	0.03	
						<i>R</i> ² = .04
Amotivation						
(Constant)	3.50	0.38	<.001	2.75	4.23	
DT-L	0.28	0.04	<.001	0.20	0.36	
Identified Regulation	-0.38	0.05	<.001	-0.47	-0.27	
Gender	0.08	0.12	.50	-0.15	0.30	
Age	-0.01	0.01	.01	-0.02	-0.003	
						<i>R</i> ² = .18

Note. A bootstrap sample of 5,000 and a robust standard error (HC4) were used. LL and UL indicate the lower and upper limits of a CI. DT-L = Dark Triad leader.

Table 26. Output Details of the Mediation Analysis With Intrinsic Motivation as the Mediator (Non-Social Jobs)

Model	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>p</i>	95% CI		Fit
				<i>LL</i>	<i>UL</i>	
Intrinsic Motivation						
(Constant)	4.40	0.31	<.001	3.80	4.99	<i>R</i> ² = .12
DT-L	-0.27	0.05	<.001	-0.37	-0.17	
Gender	0.02	0.16	.89	-0.29	0.34	
Age	0.04	0.01	<.001	0.02	0.05	
Amotivation						
(Constant)	2.99	0.31	<.001	2.37	3.59	<i>R</i> ² = .38
DT-L	0.23	0.04	<.001	0.14	0.32	
Intrinsic Motivation	-0.40	0.04	<.001	-0.48	-0.31	
Gender	0.19	0.11	.08	-0.03	0.39	
Age	-0.004	0.004	.39	-0.01	0.01	

Note. A bootstrap sample of 5,000 and a robust standard error (HC4) were used. LL and UL indicate the lower and upper limits of a CI. DT-L = Dark Triad leader.

Hypothesis 5 posited that leaders in social jobs would exhibit different levels of perceived Dark Triad traits compared to those in non-social jobs. For this purpose, another *t*-test was applied as shown in Table 27:

Table 27. *t*-Test for the Mean Differences Between Leaders' Dark Triad Levels

	Mean Difference	SE	<i>p</i>	95% CI		Cohen's <i>d</i>	95% CI	
				LL	UL		LL	UL
DT-L	0.01	0.14	.93	-0.27	0.29	1.50	-0.18	0.19

Note. A bootstrap sample of 5,000 was used. LL and UL indicate the lower and upper limits of a CI.

DT-L = Dark Triad leader.

According to the *t*-test, there was no support for Hypothesis 5, as there were no statistically significant differences in the mean values of leaders' Dark Triad levels (mean difference = 0.01, $p = .93$).

Third step of analysis:

To investigate both the groups (social vs. other job types) even further, a third analysis was conducted and both groups were split up once more depending on the median value of the leaders' Dark Triad of personality. The median split approach for the Dark Triad score was applied in previous research on dark leaders and appeared suitable for this examination (Black et al., 2014).

As previously noted, leaders in social and non-social jobs did not differ significantly in their mean values. Nevertheless, a decision had to be made how to differentiate between comparatively high and low dark trait levels. For this purpose, the median of leaders' Dark Triad was determined as illustrated in Table 28:

Table 28. Median Values for Leaders' Dark Triad Levels

Job Type	Median Value (Dark Triad of Leaders)
Social	2.75
Non-social	2.63

Note. $N = 575$; n (social) = 153; n (non-social) = 422.

As a result, four groups of participants emerged from the dataset:

1. Individuals in a social job with a leader Dark Triad value below the median in this job category (considered as "low" in this examination)
2. Individuals in a social job with a leader Dark Triad value above the median in this job category (considered as "high" in this examination)
3. Individuals in a non-social job with a leader Dark Triad value below the median in this job category (considered as "low" in this examination)
4. Individuals in a non-social job with a leader Dark Triad value above the median in this job category (considered as "high" in this examination)

Although there is a difference in the median value between the two job types, it becomes apparent that these values not overly differ from each other. For the four groups, mean values, standard deviations, and intercorrelations are presented in the Tables 29–32 below.

The first group (social job, leaders with low Dark Triad traits) consisted of 78 individuals, 76.9% female and 23.1% male. Their ages ranged from 18 to 61 years ($M = 35.14$ years, $SD = 11.35$). Again, the reliability of the psychometric scales was examined, revealing the following values: $\alpha = .68$ for the Dark Triad of leaders, $\alpha = .88$ and $\omega = .88$ for the Light Triad of leaders, $\alpha = .82$ and $\omega = .81$ for the Dark Triad of followers, $\alpha = .82$ and $\omega = .81$ for the Light Triad of followers, $\alpha = .73$ and $\omega = .70$ for agreeableness, and $\alpha = .89$ and $\omega = .90$ for life satisfaction. In the case of the Dark Triad of leaders, McDonald's Omega could not be estimated due to

negative or zero item covariances in this subgroup. Descriptive statistics for this group are shown in Table 29.

Table 29. Means, Standard Deviations, and Intercorrelations for Group 1

Variable	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	1	2	3	4	5
1. Dark Triad Leader	1.78	0.54					
2. Light Triad Leader	4.98	0.99	-.34***				
3. Dark Triad Follower	2.29	0.80	.28*	.07			
4. Light Triad Follower	5.30	0.88	-.05	.66***	-.14		
5. Agreeableness	5.43	0.67	-.10	.27*	-.33***	.55***	
6. Life Satisfaction	4.97	1.20	.07	.22	.01	.35***	.30**

Note. *n* = 78.

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

The second group (social job, leaders with high Dark Triad traits) consisted of 75 participants, 66.7% female and 33.3% male. Ages ranged from 20 to 60 years ($M = 35.31$, $SD = 9.54$). Also, the reliability of the measures was again examined, revealing the following values: $\alpha = .85$ and $\omega = .83$ for the Dark Triad of leaders, $\alpha = .88$ and $\omega = .88$ for the Light Triad of leaders, $\alpha = .85$ and $\omega = .84$ for the Dark Triad of followers, $\alpha = .79$ and $\omega = .77$ for the Light Triad of followers, $\alpha = .72$ and $\omega = .65$ for agreeableness, and $\alpha = .85$ and $\omega = .85$ for life satisfaction. Descriptive statistics for this group are shown in Table 30.

Table 30. Means, Standard Deviations, and Intercorrelations for Group 2

Variable	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	1	2	3	4	5
1. Dark Triad Leader	4.29	1.01					
2. Light Triad Leader	3.59	1.08	-.56***				
3. Dark Triad Follower	2.73	0.98	.20	.13			
4. Light Triad Follower	5.06	0.84	-.19	.25*	-.30**		
5. Agreeableness	5.19	0.67	-.11	.15	-.43***	.37***	
6. Life Satisfaction	4.77	1.19	-.21	.14	-.16	-.10	-.03

Note. *n* = 75.

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

The third group (non-social job, leaders with low Dark Triad traits) consisted of 211 participants, 64.5% female and 35.5% male. Their ages ranged from 19 to 63 years ($M = 30.88$, $SD = 9.18$). With regard to reliability, the following values were determined: $\alpha = .61$ and $\omega = .55$ for the Dark Triad of leaders, $\alpha = .82$ and $\omega = .81$ for the Light Triad of leaders, $\alpha = .85$ and $\omega = .83$ for the Dark Triad of followers, $\alpha = .72$ and $\omega = .71$ for the Light Triad of followers, $\alpha = .75$ and $\omega = .73$ for agreeableness, and $\alpha = .86$ and $\omega = .86$ for life satisfaction. Descriptive statistics for this group are shown in Table 31.

Table 31. Means, Standard Deviations, and Intercorrelations for Group 3

Variable	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5
1. Dark Triad Leader	1.75	0.45					
2. Light Triad Leader	5.12	0.75	-.33***				
3. Dark Triad Follower	2.42	0.89	.25***	-.04			
4. Light Triad Follower	5.37	0.68	-.16*	.33***	-.41***		
5. Agreeableness	5.45	0.67	-.06	.16*	-.53***	.64***	
6. Life Satisfaction	5.10	1.09	-.01	.20***	-.08	.22***	.19**

Note. $n = 211$.

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

The fourth group (non-social job, leaders with high Dark Triad traits) consisted of 211 participants, 64.9% female and 35.1% male. Ages ranged from 21 to 61 years ($M = 29.57$, $SD = 7.68$). Finally, regarding reliability, the following values were revealed: $\alpha = .87$ and $\omega = .87$ for the Dark Triad of leaders, $\alpha = .87$ and $\omega = .87$ for the Light Triad of leaders, $\alpha = .84$ and $\omega = .83$ for the Dark Triad of followers, $\alpha = .71$ and $\omega = .70$ for the Light Triad of followers, $\alpha = .78$ and $\omega = .77$ for agreeableness, and $\alpha = .89$ and $\omega = .89$ for life satisfaction. Descriptive statistics for this group are shown in Table 32.

Table 32. Means, Standard Deviations, and Intercorrelations for Group 4

Variable	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	1	2	3	4	5
1. Dark Triad Leader	4.24	1.10					
2. Light Triad Leader	3.91	1.00	-.64***				
3. Dark Triad Follower	3.10	0.92	.03	.18**			
4. Light Triad Follower	5.19	0.67	.04	.15*	-.21***		
5. Agreeableness	5.28	0.68	.06	.03	-.42***	0.67***	
6. Life Satisfaction	4.81	1.16	-.08	.08	-.05	0.16*	0.23***

Note. *n* = 211.

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

With reference to Hypothesis 6 and for further analysis of the four groups and their differences, a multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was conducted and illustrated in Table 33. Although groups were not given specific names, they were numbered consecutively according to the list above.

Table 33. MANOVA for the Four Groups of the Sample

Effect		Value	<i>F</i>	Hypo- thesis <i>df</i>	Error <i>df</i>	<i>p</i>	Partial Eta Squared
Intercept	Pillai's	.99	11809.86	5.00	567.00	<.001	.99
	Trace						
	Wilk's	.01	11809.86	5.00	567.00	<.001	.99
	Lambda						
	Hotelling's	104.14	11809.96	5.00	567.00	<.001	.99
	Trace						
	Roy's	104.14	11809.86	5.00	567.00	<.001	.99
	Largest						
	Root						
Group	Pillai's	.44	19.71	15.00	1707.00	<.001	.15
	Trace						
	Wilk's	.57	23.34	15.00	1565.64	<.001	.17
	Lambda						
	Hotelling's	0.72	27.09	15.00	1697.00	<.001	.19
	Trace						
	Roy's	0.68	77.18	5.00	569.00	<.001	.40
	Largest						
	Root						

Note. A bootstrap sample of 5,000 was used.

With the MANOVA, differences between groups can be identified, however, the single use of a MANOVA does not provide detailed information on the origin of the differences. In this empirical study, the significance of the MANOVA, particularly the significance of Wilk's Lambda, demonstrated that differences were found between the four groups ($\Lambda = .57$, $p < .001$). To identify the specific differences, a post hoc test was applied. Due to the variation in sample sizes across the four groups, the Games-Howell test was chosen as the most suitable due to its

proven success with groups of various sizes (Field, 2019; Sauder & DeMars, 2019). Its results are demonstrated in Table 34 below.

Table 34. Games-Howell Post Hoc Test

Dependent Variable	(I) Group	(J) Group	Mean Difference (I-J)	SE	<i>p</i>	95% CI	
						<i>LL</i>	<i>UL</i>
Agreeable-ness	1	2	0.24	0.11	.13	-0.04	0.52
		3	-0.02	0.09	.998	-0.25	0.22
		4	0.15	0.09	.33	-0.08	0.38
	2	1	-0.24	0.11	.13	-0.52	0.04
		3	-0.26*	0.09	.03	-0.49	-0.02
		4	-0.09	0.09	.77	-0.32	0.15
	3	1	0.02	0.09	.998	-0.22	0.25
		2	0.26*	0.09	.03	0.02	0.49
		4	0.17	0.07	.052	-0.001	0.34
	4	1	-0.15	0.09	.33	-0.38	0.08
		2	0.09	0.09	.77	-0.15	0.32
		3	-0.17	0.07	.052	-0.34	0.001
Dark Triad Follower	1	2	-0.44*	0.15	.02	-0.82	-0.06
		3	-0.13	0.11	.62	-0.42	0.15
		4	-0.81*	0.11	<.001	-1.09	-0.52
	2	1	0.44*	0.15	.02	0.06	0.82
		3	0.31	0.13	.09	-0.03	0.64
		4	-0.37*	0.13	.03	-0.71	-0.03
	3	1	0.13	0.11	.62	-0.15	0.42
		2	-0.31	0.13	.09	-0.64	0.03
		4	-0.67*	0.09	<.001	-0.90	-0.45
	4	1	0.81*	0.11	<.001	0.52	1.09
		2	0.37*	0.13	.03	0.03	0.71
		3	0.67*	0.09	<.001	0.45	0.90

Table 34 continued:

Dependent Variable	(I) Group	(J) Group	Mean Difference (I-J)	SE	<i>p</i>	95% CI	
						<i>LL</i>	<i>UL</i>
Light Triad Follower	1	2	0.24	0.14	.33	-0.13	0.60
		3	-0.07	0.11	.91	-0.36	0.21
		4	0.11	0.11	.76	-0.18	0.39
	2	1	-0.24	0.14	.33	-0.60	0.13
		3	-0.31*	0.11	.02	-0.59	-0.03
		4	-0.13	0.11	.63	-0.41	0.15
	3	1	0.07	0.11	.91	-0.21	0.36
		2	0.31*	0.11	.02	0.03	0.59
		4	0.18*	0.07	.03	0.01	0.35
	4	1	-0.11	0.11	.76	-0.39	0.18
		2	0.13	0.11	.63	-0.15	0.41
		3	-0.18*	0.07	.03	-0.35	-0.01
Light Triad Leader	1	2	1.38*	0.17	<.001	0.95	1.82
		3	-0.15	0.12	.64	-0.47	0.18
		4	1.07*	0.13	<.001	0.72	1.41
	2	1	-1.38*	0.17	<.001	-1.82	-0.95
		3	-1.53*	0.13	<.001	-1.88	-1.18
		4	-0.32	0.14	.12	-0.69	0.05
	3	1	0.15	0.12	.64	-0.18	0.47
		2	1.53*	0.13	<.001	1.18	1.88
		4	1.21*	0.09	<.001	0.99	1.43
	4	1	-1.07*	0.13	<.001	-1.41	-0.72
		2	0.32	0.14	.12	-0.05	0.69
		3	-1.21*	0.09	<.001	-1.43	-0.99

Table 34 continued:

Dependent Variable	(I) Group	(J) Group	Mean Difference (I-J)	SE	<i>p</i>	95% CI	
						LL	UL
Life Satisfaction	1	2	0.21	0.19	.70	-0.29	0.71
		3	-0.13	0.16	.85	-0.53	0.28
		4	0.16	0.16	.72	-0.25	0.58
	2	1	-0.21	0.19	.70	-0.71	0.29
		3	-0.33	0.16	.15	-0.74	0.07
		4	-0.04	0.16	.99	-0.46	0.37
	3	1	0.13	0.16	.85	-0.28	0.53
		2	0.33	0.16	.15	-0.07	0.74
		4	0.29*	0.11	.04	0.01	0.57
	4	1	-0.16	0.16	.72	-0.58	0.25
		2	0.04	0.16	.99	-0.37	0.46
		3	-0.29*	0.11	.04	-0.57	-0.01

Note. A bootstrap sample of 5,000 was used. LL and UL indicate the lower and upper limits of a CI.

In the Games-Howell post hoc test, details of the significant differences between the four groups were outlined. As the purpose of the study was to identify the differences between the four groups, results are presented in terms of the group instead of the dependent variable.

For Group 1 (social job, low Dark Triad levels of leaders), it was found that they differed significantly in the mean difference of the Dark Triad of followers compared to Groups 2 and 4. In both cases, Group 1 had significantly lower mean differences (mean difference = -0.44, $p = .02$, and mean difference = -0.81, $p < .001$). Furthermore, Group 1 showed significantly higher mean differences in the Light Triad of leaders compared to Groups 2 and 4 (mean difference = 1.38, $p < .001$, and mean difference = 1.07, $p < .001$). In brief, Group 1 was represented by rather low Dark Triad traits among followers and high Light Triad traits among leaders.

For Group 2 (social job, high Dark Triad levels of leaders), it was elucidated that the level of agreeableness was significantly lower than that of Group 3 (mean difference = -0.26, $p = .03$). It also differed in the Dark Triad level of followers, as Group 1 showed lower levels (mean difference = 0.44, $p = .02$), while Group 4 showed higher levels (mean difference = -0.37, $p = .03$). Regarding the Light Triad of followers, Group 2 showed significantly lower mean values than Group 3 (mean difference = -0.31, $p = .02$). It also differed in the Light Triad of leaders because it differed from Groups 1 and 3 which showed higher levels than Group 2 (mean difference = -1.38, $p < .001$, and mean difference = -1.53, $p < .001$). In summary, Group 2 was characterized by rather low levels in terms of agreeableness, light traits of followers, and also low Light Triad traits of leaders.

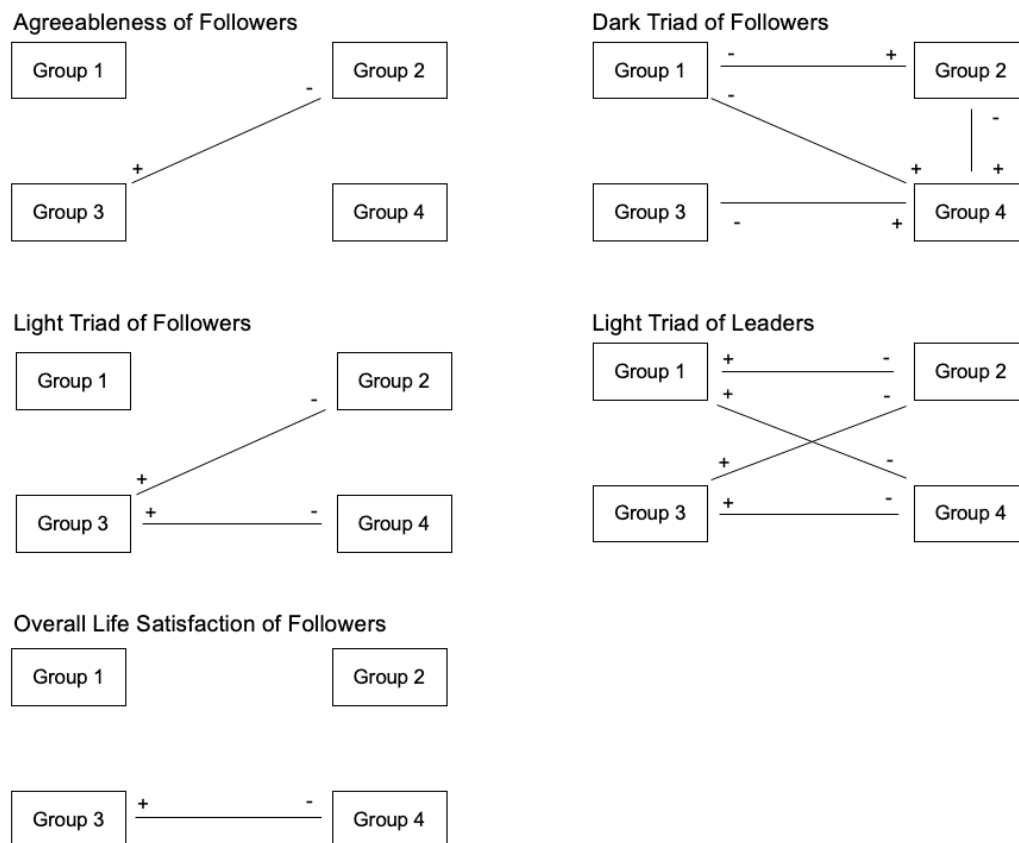
Group 3 (non-social job, low Dark Triad level of leaders) also demonstrated significant mean differences compared to other groups. For agreeableness, as previously mentioned, it differed from Group 2 in terms of higher levels (mean difference = 0.26, $p = .03$). It also demonstrated significant mean differences in the Dark Triad level of followers compared to Group 4 where levels were higher (mean difference = -0.67, $p < .001$). Regarding the Light Triad of followers, Group 3 differed from Groups 2 and 4, as both showed lower levels (mean difference = 0.31, $p = .02$, and mean difference = 0.18, $p = .03$). Regarding the Light Triad of leaders, Group 3 showed higher values than Groups 2 and 4 (mean difference = 1.53, $p < .001$, and mean difference = 1.21, $p < .001$). Finally, it also differed from Group 4 as it showed higher mean values for the level of overall life satisfaction (mean difference = 0.29, $p = .04$). In sum, this group was characterized by high socially desirable traits such as agreeableness and Light Triad traits, even among leaders. Additionally, followers in this group were found to have higher life satisfaction and lower Dark Triad traits.

Finally, with reference to the previously mentioned differences, it was outlined that, for Group 4, it showed significant differences in the Dark Triad of followers because it had higher levels than Groups 1, 2, and 3 (mean difference = 0.81, $p < .001$, mean difference = 0.37, $p = .03$, and mean difference = 0.67, $p < .001$). Regarding the Light Triad of followers, it had lower mean differences than Group 3 (mean difference = -0.18, $p = .03$). For the Light Triad of leaders, lower mean levels compared to those in Groups 1 and 3 were found

(mean difference = -1.07, $p < .001$, and mean difference = -1.21, $p < .001$). Also, as noted earlier, it showed lower mean values in the overall life satisfaction than Group 3 (mean difference = -0.29, $p = .04$). In summary, this group exhibited higher levels of Dark Triad traits among followers, along with lower levels of life satisfaction, and lower Light Triad traits among leaders and followers.

For improved clarity regarding the differences, Figure 24 was constructed to illustrate the significant differences among the four groups for each of the variables of interest.

Figure 24. Visualization of Significant Post Hoc Test Results



Note. Simplified illustration of the significant post hoc test results. +/- indicating significantly higher and lower levels of the specific variable, respectively.

Hypothesis 6 was therefore partially supported by the results of the post hoc test. Differences were found among some of the groups regarding their levels of agreeableness, Dark Triad levels, overall life satisfaction, and the Light Triad of leaders and followers. However, no significant differences were observed between all groups regarding each of the dependent variables. The hypothesis was therefore only partially supported, as it cannot be claimed that the groups differed in all the dependent variables.

5.2.4. Discussion

As this second study was divided into three levels of analysis, the discussion of the results follows the same consecutive order. Before the questionnaire was distributed, short interviews were arranged with individuals working as either nurses or firefighters, with the aim of subjectively confirming the findings of the previously mentioned literature on the job demands for individuals in social jobs. It was found that they indeed operate under high pressure in their daily work, most of them working in shifts. The issues of staff shortages and turnover intentions, as highlighted in examinations conducted in other countries, are also observed among the workforce in Germany. For those who decided to stay in their professions, physical and mental symptoms were observed as reported by the interviewees. These interviews did not claim to be a proper qualitative investigation, but were used for confirmation of the results obtained from other countries.

On the first level of analysis, correlations between the Dark Triad of leaders, followers' life satisfaction, their intrinsic motivation, and amotivation were found. Nevertheless, only a weak correlation between life satisfaction and dark leaders was found. Regression analyses revealed that the Dark Triad traits of leaders did indeed predict followers' overall life satisfaction. As previously outlined, the construct of life satisfaction is a broad field in research and definitions depend on factors such as cultural backgrounds or demographic correlates (Diener et al., 2002). For the sample of this study, the significant but weak effect of leaders' Dark Triad traits suggest that individuals' evaluations of their leaders did not substantially influence their overall life satisfaction. Thus, previous findings on the relationship between job and life satisfaction were generally confirmed, but only weakly. Nevertheless, the results underline the importance of leadership for

followers' overall life satisfaction and demonstrate its impact beyond the workplace. At the same time, it becomes apparent that in such analyses of life satisfaction, researchers need to be aware of aspects such as cultural background for interpretation. For the assumptions on intrinsic and amotivation, the results were in accordance with previous findings on the impact of leadership. As previously outlined, engaging leaders foster their followers' intrinsic motivation, thus fulfilling their psychological needs for autonomy, relatedness, and competence (Rahmadani & Schaufeli, 2020). Destructive leaders are not interested in satisfying their followers' psychological needs, which results in decreased intrinsic motivation and an increase in their amotivation. Intrinsic motivation is the most desirable form of motivation as it is considered autonomous; and individuals engage in activities due to the intrinsic interest derived from it. Thus, intrinsic motivation was empirically linked to positive outcomes such as job satisfaction, growth, and development. As previously outlined, amotivation is the worst form of motivation as it is exclusively linked to negative outcomes (Van den Broeck et al., 2021). Hence, Hypothesis 1 was fully supported, once again highlighting the detrimental effect of destructive leaders.

With reference to Hypothesis 2, support was found for both assumptions as the level of agreeableness of followers predicted both their level of Dark Triad traits, along with their Light Triad of personality. The findings on the Dark Triad concur with previous findings stating that the construct is associated with low scores on agreeableness (Paulhus & Williams, 2002). Furthermore, the associations between the Light Triad and the Dark Triad were in accordance with previous and initial research on the Light Triad, stating that they cannot be considered perfect counterparts. Due to the paucity of previous research on the Light Triad, opportunities for meaningful conclusions at this point are limited.

From the second level of analysis in this study, major findings can be drawn. Previous research on the expanded JD-R model demonstrated that the relationship between objective job demands, such as job hazard exposure, and exhaustion was mediated by perceived emotional demands (Y. Li et al., 2023). These circumstances particularly apply to the sample in social jobs of this examination as for example healthcare staff and firefighters are regularly confronted with life-threatening situations or illnesses that influence their own security and safety (Lourel et al.,

2008). However, research demonstrated that meaningful work enhances intrinsic motivation. Thus, it was hypothesized that the job types would generally differ in their levels of different types of motivation according to the MWMS. Nonetheless, Hypothesis 3 was only partially supported as the two groups differed in four out of five types of motivation, but not in introjected regulation. Introjected regulation is considered an internally driven form of motivation which represents a state that is characterized by internal, self-esteem related dynamics including the avoidance of guilt and shame, but the aim for pride. Overall, it was linked with ego-involvement because the overarching goal is to experience approval from the self as well as from others (J. L. Howard et al., 2021). It can be concluded that the results follow the previous findings of Gillet et al. (2018), who stated that the characteristics of motivational profiles can differ across research settings as they did across the job types in this empirical investigation.

The group of individuals in non-social jobs generally showed higher levels of external regulation which is a low-quality type of motivation. Expecting rewards or avoiding punishments is not a favorable type of motivation as it is stressful and leads to a continuance commitment, which is associated with the worst performance and well-being outcomes (Van den Broeck et al., 2021). Although it may drive short-term behavior, it often undermines self-determined behavior (J. L. Howard et al., 2021). This examination followed the assumptions of Howard et al. (2016) regarding the consideration of all components that make up a motivational profile instead of thinking about the whole person as a variable. Regarding amotivation, the group of followers in non-social jobs showed higher levels than the other job group. Amotivation has been found to be a predictor of burnout and was negatively associated with performance in meta-analytical examinations. Lacking motivation was considered more detrimental than low-quality types of motivation (Van den Broeck et al., 2021). In contrast, the group of individuals in social jobs showed higher levels of intrinsic motivation and identified regulation. These findings concur with previous research, as the experience of meaningful work – such as in the social jobs examined – can fulfill psychological needs and foster intrinsic motivation (Roşca et al., 2021). Introjected regulation is considered an extrinsic form of motivation, although it is the most autonomous and self-determined form among them, and has shown growing importance for performance-related outcomes (J. L. Howard et al., 2021). In summary, results

demonstrated that social jobs are primarily characterized by high-quality forms of motivation compared to the other group. These findings might explain the underlying question of how individuals cope with the tremendous workloads and conditions in their jobs, especially in healthcare as their intrinsic motivation and introjected regulation operate as job resources, buffering negative impact. Interestingly, this study found that identified regulation, as an autonomous form of motivation and a predictor of performance, demonstrated the highest mean values in both groups. This finding indicates indicating that this type of motivation merits further investigation.

Hypothesis 4 assumed that the relationship between the Dark Triad of leaders and the amotivation of followers was mediated by their autonomous forms of motivation, so identified regulation and intrinsic motivation were chosen for mediation analyses. As predicted, both mediated the relationship in the two different occupational groups. In contrast, the other forms of motivation, precisely external regulation and introjected regulation, did not account for any indirect effects. Apart from the hypothesis being supported, effect sizes were strongest in the group of individuals in non-social jobs and for their intrinsic motivation as the mediator. As previously outlined, effect sizes are not directly affected by sample sizes, so they are suitable for comparisons (Lantz, 2013).

The results support the importance of the autonomous types of motivation, although they also elucidate that they are prone to be affected by destructive leadership. Thus, one of the recommendations derived from this study is that organizations should enhance measures to maintain autonomous forms of motivation among employees. In accordance with recommendations drawn from previous examinations, it therefore appears important for organizations to promote organizational support and procedural justice, as they are associated with autonomous motivation (Gillet et al., 2018).

Furthermore, as also outlined by the results, the Dark Triad of personality of leaders is a phenomenon or a challenge for all branches, and does not concern just one in particular. Contrary to expectations, there were no significant mean differences in the leaders' Dark Triad levels between the overarching job types as assumed in Hypothesis 5. This finding contrasts with the findings of Jonason, Wee, Li, et al. (2014), who stated that there were vocational preferences for individuals

with high scores on the Dark Triad. At this point, it is important to mention that the Dark Triad level of leaders was collected through others-assessments by their followers. Thus, the analysis in this study indicates that there are no significant differences in the perceptions of leaders' Dark Triad traits which were rated by their followers. To further validate these findings, examinations with either self-reports from leaders themselves or additional others-assessments by more followers would be required. It is therefore a limitation of this study that the Dark Triad traits of leaders were measured by only one follower without considering moderating or mediating effects of this measurement method. As research on the buffering effects of personal resources in the expanded JD-R model is still scarce (Meng et al., 2023), theoretical explanations for these results are difficult to provide.

The third level of analysis examined four groups that were made up of the previous overall sample. The four groups were characterized by the job type (social/non-social) and the leaders' Dark Triad levels (high/low due to the median-split approach). As the second step of analysis revealed that the two groups differed in their motivational types, the aim was to identify more specific characteristics of the groups. For this examination, it was assumed that individuals might cope differently with destructive leadership, depending on their job type and the perceived Dark Triad level of their leaders. Using the median-split approach, the groups were divided into high and low levels. With those four groups, a MANOVA was conducted including post hoc testing. The MANOVA revealed significant differences among the four groups with regard to the five dependent variables. With the Games-Howell post hoc test, the detailed differences were outlined. For the MANOVA and the post hoc test, the groups were examined for differences regarding their levels of agreeableness, the Dark Triad Level of followers, the Light Triad of both followers and leaders, and followers' overall life satisfaction. Most differences were found for the variables of the Dark Triad of followers and the Light Triad of leaders. Considering the Dark Triad of followers, Group 4 differed from all other groups and demonstrated the highest values of mean differences. This group consisted of individuals in non-social jobs with leaders characterized by relatively high Dark Triad traits. Thus, the question arises as to why individuals in this group display comparatively high dark traits in individuals. As previously noted, individuals in non-social jobs tend to show lower levels of high-quality forms of motivation. They do not work in helping

professions, and as a result, they may not necessarily experience meaningful work as a buffer for negative impact caused by the leader. Thus, they either develop dark traits as a reaction to their dark leaders, or they influence their leaders to develop dark traits, so followers represent the origin of the emergence of dark leaders. As stated by Yammarino (2013), similarity on a common interest or characteristic can lead to mutual liking which could be viewed as a potential rationale for those findings. Group 4 and its Dark Triad levels among followers also concurs with previous findings of the so-called person-organization fit which describes the compatibility between people and the organizations in which they work (Kristof, 1996). It distinguishes between a supplementary fit in which individuals possess similar characteristics, and a complementary fit which occurs when individuals show characteristics which are missing in the environment. Research on the person-organization fit demonstrated that it is mostly associated with positive outcomes such as improved job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and decreased intentions to quit. Nevertheless, some researchers claimed that a strong homogeneity can also lead to a lack of innovation and stultification. This negative side of a good fit may result in an inability to adapt to volatile environments. For Group 4 in this study, further research is required to elucidate the impact of the homogeneity regarding dark traits among followers. Another possible explanation might be that they are attracted to certain occupational niches such as non-social jobs and dark leaders.

The Light Triad of leaders was another variable that revealed differences between all groups. It was demonstrated that Groups 1 and 3 showed higher levels compared to Groups 2 and 4. Groups 1 and 3 consisted of individuals with lower Dark Triad levels in their leaders, so a low level in dark traits appeared to co-occur with higher levels in the Light Triad. Again, and in concurrence with other findings of this study, the Dark and the Light Triad appear to be associated and may not be seen as counterparts (Kaufman et al., 2019).

As previously mentioned, the data collection phase for this empirical study was from October 2022 until January 2023, so especially for individuals in the healthcare system, the COVID-19 pandemic was still a relevant issue. With reference to the JD-R model, research on the job demands and job resources among healthcare professionals increased during the pandemic, as it was clear that they

worked on the frontlines, treating patients with the coronavirus, and faced severe stressors associated with the pandemic. Apart from traditional or regular stressors such as long working hours, time pressure and extreme workload, the pandemic also caused physical demands as protective equipment had to be worn, and staff members faced the risk of potentially infecting their own family members (Britt et al., 2021). The pandemic caused excessive hospital overload, an even acuter shortage of healthcare resources, and an additional workload for staff members as they had to restructure work teams to address the needs of patients diagnosed with COVID-19. Examinations with reference to the JD-R model showed high levels of emotional exhaustion as a result of this exposure to increased job demands (Barello et al., 2021). The findings of this study corroborate the important role of positive psychology and the focus on human thriving as its value has been neglected in research for a long time (Sheldon & King, 2001).

Since patients can be seen as customers for the healthcare sector and hospitals, staff in this sector are viewed as holding one of the most sensitive jobs, and the overarching aim should be to keep them motivated and engaged. Transformational leadership can be a key motivational factor and intervention for improving individuals' work engagement (Hayati et al., 2014). Nevertheless, empirical findings on the statistically significant effect of transformational leadership are not equivocal: As stated by Brewer et al. (2016), high turnover of staff nurses represents a persistent issue for healthcare organizations across the globe. They elucidated that organizational commitment, job satisfaction, support from a mentor, promotional opportunities, and age showed positive relations with employees' intentions to stay. In contrast to expectations, transformational leadership did not show a significant impact in their examination, but they concluded that it has the potential to reduce attrition of followers and create a positive and supportive work environment, thus retaining staff in the organization. Any improvement in job satisfaction and organizational commitment increases intentions to stay, so organizations should invest in leadership training to develop structures that foster positive communication and work environments. Furthermore, workplace mentoring programs and career opportunities for leaders in healthcare organizations may provide a cumulative impact on work outcomes. In a very recent systematic review on the impact of transformational leadership in the nursing work environment and on patients' outcomes, transformational

leadership indirectly and directly affected the work environment through mediators such as structural empowerment, organizational commitment, and job satisfaction. It was reported that most leaders did not show satisfactory levels, so the review was a further call for a stronger focus on leadership education to make future leaders more effective and cultivate efficient teamwork (Ystaas et al., 2023).

A zero-tolerance policy that aims to reduce destructive behaviors in the organization and a clear set of guidelines should be the norm in every organization. Additionally, training sessions for leaders on stress management, coping skills, and resilience may help to handle emotions and to effectively avoid showing destructive leadership styles (Labrague et al., 2020). Nevertheless, such policy solutions are sometimes considered “quick fixes” as the issues are too complex and require more research and detailed analysis to provide sustainable solutions (L. J. Hayes et al., 2006).

When collecting data for the study, it became clear that participants from social jobs accounted for a much smaller percentage of the overall sample compared to the other job type. This problem is consistent with previous studies on nurse turnover (L. J. Hayes et al., 2006) and their overall workload. Moreover, it should be considered that healthcare jobs, in particular, are rarely typical office jobs with permanent access to opportunities for taking part in online questionnaires. It was apparent that this type of sample was harder to recruit and participation for them was more difficult than in other jobs.

For future research, it is suggested to conduct examinations with larger samples and in a longitudinal design, although it appears that participants from social jobs are difficult to recruit for longitudinal designs, so examining these vocational niches continues to be hindered by methodological challenges (L. J. Hayes et al., 2012). In addition to quantitative research, additional data collection through qualitative interviews appears appropriate. Employees in jobs that are characterized by high job demands need to have access to job resources (Meng et al., 2023) or to training to develop personal resources such as psychological capital. With a mixed-methods approach, a more nuanced and detailed view on the followers' needs would be available.

Furthermore, extended research on the expanded JD-R model is suggested, particularly with a focus on the buffering effects of job resources, and the

requirements of different occupational niches. As meaningful work as part of the JD-R model was shown to have positive impacts on the influence of job demands, psychological training could address work-related issues, strengthening the positive perception of their jobs. Also, debriefing sessions after complex situations could add even more significance to completed missions, particularly in healthcare professions or among firefighters (Roşca et al., 2021).

With regard to the findings of Diener et al. (2006), individuals have different forms of well-being, and one individual might incorporate multiple well-being set points. Apart from the fact that those set points can change under certain conditions, it needs to be considered that individuals differ in their adaptation to events. As demonstrated in this study, leadership appears as a factor that can affect individuals' well-being in terms of overall satisfaction. It also becomes apparent that individuals reacted differently to destructive leadership due to different underlying mechanisms in terms of mediators.

Literature on job demands and job resources often suggests that organizations should consider altering job demands and job resources, as well as elevating their employees' psychological need satisfaction (Decuyper & Schaufeli, 2020). As work engagement among nursing staff was predicted by authentic leadership, Bamford et al. (2013) suggested that organizations need to give their leaders the opportunity for feedback on a regular basis to enhance their self-assessment skills. One of the tools for this purpose may be the implementation of 360-degree feedback systems. This, together with staff meetings where employees have the chance to present their own ideas or address challenges to the administration, foster a feedback culture within organizations. Although such suggestions appear beneficial, it may be difficult to implement a new feedback culture in work environments characterized by extreme workloads and permanently understaffed shifts. Further improvements of working conditions could be implemented by providing job resources, such as more staff to get work done, enough time and opportunities to discuss care issues, adequate support services for the staff (Shamian et al., 2002).

Despite its extensive results, this study is not free of limitations. One of the clear limitations of this study is the data collection through self-reports. As outlined before, this type of data collection might lead to biases such as social desirability

(Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, et al., 2003). Also, the results of this study were obtained exclusively in Germany, so before transferring these assumptions to other nations, further research is suggested.

Another limitation is that data on the type of employment were not collected. Previous studies have outlined that full-time employment, as opposed to part-time employment among nursing staff, might be an indicator of employees' illness and is associated with burnout (Shamian et al., 2002). This study, however, does not allow any conclusions or further contributions to the impact of fulltime employment. As outlined by Britt et al. (2021), it is crucial to understand which specific factors increase mental health strain among healthcare professionals, especially in times of high job demands such as a pandemic. For future research, it is therefore suggested to further examine potential job resources for these individuals. Surprisingly, meaningful work was not demonstrated as a potential resource for buffering effects of mental strain (Britt et al., 2021), so it became apparent that previously illustrated resources are not effective for occupational sector.

Given that the samples represented diverse workplace settings and industries, the findings of the first level of analysis provide generalizability and robustness of the results to some degree. Nevertheless, the two major groups showed noteworthy differences in their sample sizes, which have to be considered when interpreting significances and effect sizes. Another limitation is the sample size of the group of participants in social jobs. When dividing the overall sample into the two groups according defined job types, 153 participants belonged to the social job category, whereas the other group included 422 participants. It became obvious that it is more difficult to obtain results from individuals in social jobs for empirical research data, which also concurs with the assumptions made on their job demands. As the sample of participants in social jobs was so small, there was no examination on the different jobs (i.e. there was no specific analysis of e.g. hospital staff) within the two overarching groups, neither among individuals in social jobs, nor those in non-social jobs. Throughout all levels of analysis, the percentage of female participants was considerably higher than that of males, which limits the extent to which the findings can be generalized.

Similar to the limitations of the recent examinations of Li et al. (2023), an objective measure of workload was not included in the study. Within the scope of literature research, jobs were identified as being characterized by high job demands due to their overall occupational setting, but factors such as weekly working hours or shifts for measuring demands in an objective way were not included in the questionnaire.

Furthermore, the cross-sectional design of this study does not allow conclusions to be drawn regarding causality. Here, longitudinal research designs are recommended. Furthermore, as recommended by Thapa et al. (2022), intervention studies are required to identify to what extent the health and burnout risk of individuals in helping professions can be improved. Previous research has shown that social support is worth investigating in such studies.

Future studies are recommended to examine a better understanding of how work meaning and intrinsic motivation are related to higher-order constructs, such as overall life satisfaction. This would support the importance of preventative measures of prolonged workplace stress. For further research using the motivation types of SDT, it is important to consider the multicollinearity of the individual types when conceptualizing research designs (Van den Broeck et al., 2021).

Finally, with regard to the methodology, another limitation is the use of the median-split approach as part of the third level of analysis. It was used to distinguish between leaders with a high or low Dark Triad of personality for both job types. The general problem of the median-split approach is that it dichotomizes continuous variables by classifying them into two groups and therefore reduces the variability in the data. This loss of information may also lead to a reduction of statistical power. Values that are close to the median may not represent meaningful differences, but belong to different groups due to the dichotomization. It can be generally considered to be a convenient method for the simplification of data analysis, but limitations of the method should always be acknowledged. Instead of applying the median-split approach in this study, the groups could have also been defined by their percentiles. As the number of subjects in social jobs was only 153, a split by percentiles would have led to one very small group, so the median-split appeared suitable for this sample. For future research, more examinations with

larger samples are recommended to provide more flexibility when forming the groups.

A further limitation is the absence of other constructs measured. Regarding the findings on psychological capital and psychological safety derived from the first study, those variables would have been a beneficial contribution to this study. As occupational groups with verifiably high job demands were examined, future research should particularly focus on variables that have been demonstrated to buffer job demands, such as those associated with social support. In addition, constructs such as psychological capital which include facets such as resiliency and optimism would have been a contribution to this examination to outline whether or not there are more than motivational differences between occupational settings.

As mentioned above, the healthcare sector represents an important factor in recent research on the JD-R model. Employees in this sector are regularly exposed to occupational health risks, so it is highly recommendable for organizations to implement tools that foster and preserve employees' health and motivation. Previous research already revealed that job resources such as social support, feedback mechanism, and perceived autonomy promote motivational processes which then foster outcomes such as learning, engagement, and commitment. Furthermore, and in concurrence with the results of this study, the personality of employees was demonstrated to influence how individuals cope with occupational settings (Tomo & De Simone, 2019).

5.3. STUDY 3: SUCCESSFUL WITH A DARK LEADER? ON THE INTERPLAY OF DARK PERSONALITIES, CORE SELF-EVALUATIONS, AND CAREER SUCCESS

5.3.1. Theoretical Background and Hypotheses

Leadership and followers' career success: Examinations of the dark side of leadership and its antecedents and outcomes have become essential in academic research as the negative aspects of top management and leaders are becoming a progressively serious issue for organizations (Hoobler & Hu, 2013).

Krasikova et al. (2013) suggested further examination of the role of followers in the processes underlying destructive leadership, such as negative core self-evaluations or abrasive personality traits. This empirical study contributes to these suggestions and examines the interplay between leaders' dark traits and the motivation, core self-evaluations, and career development of followers. As outlined in the previous chapters, the Dark Triad traits of leaders lead to a variety of outcomes for both organizations and individuals. Considering narcissists, it is believed that they promote their employees' careers to fulfill their own needs for admiration and grandiosity (Volmer et al., 2016). Recently, Nevicka et al. (2018) outlined that followers' personality traits play a critical role in how they perceive their own leaders and their leadership style. Followers' own self-worth, competence, capabilities, and the extent as to which they feel in control of their lives influence how prone they are to destructive leaders and their ability to cope with them. In short, their self-appraisals provide them with a buffer in coping with negative leadership behavior. As previously discussed, the Dark Triad traits of leaders can also lead to positive outcomes for their followers. Career success and job development, in particular, demonstrate that these traits do not only have negative influences.

As summarized by Heslin (2005), career success has been operationalized in different ways, but subjective career success is mostly described as job or career satisfaction. It includes reactions to anticipated and actual attainments in individuals' careers. Job satisfaction and career satisfaction are considered distinct constructs, although job satisfaction can contribute to success. Another valuable comparison was provided by Seibert et al. (2001), who stated that objective career outcomes are often measured by factors such as salary or promotion, whereas

intrinsic career outcomes are related to individuals' subjective perceptions of accomplishments and satisfaction with their own career. In their research, they linked the social capital literature with career success literature, providing additional insights into this field of research. Overall, they outlined the importance of social capital for career success. They demonstrated in detail that individuals with network structures within the company tend to have better access to information, resources, and career sponsorship. Such social resources were associated with salary, number of promotions, and career satisfaction due to their positive relationships through an increased organizational reputation of the individual.

In one of the few previous longitudinal studies, Volmer et al. (2016) proposed that narcissistic leaders aim to fulfill their demand for admiration by promoting their followers' careers. Results revealed that narcissism turned out to be the brightest of the three traits and did show positive effects for followers in the long run. At the same time, they suggested that followers of Machiavellians experience less success in their careers, as such leaders primarily pursue their own goals, and truly believe in their manipulative tactics. Finally, psychopaths were also believed to negatively influence their followers' careers due to their emotional shallowness and low levels of guilt or remorse. The Malicious Two, consisting of Machiavellianism and psychopathy, did show unfavorable consequences for followers' career paths.

To summarize, researchers show a growing interest in the relationship between dark personality traits and to which extent they promote failure or success in organizations. Nevertheless, there is currently no consensus regarding the link between dark triad traits and job performance or job success, neither for Dark Triad traits of subordinates nor for their followers (LeBreton et al., 2018). Recent examinations of the Dark Triad and perceived career success elucidated that particularly narcissistic individuals reported higher ratings of their own career success, but it did not consider the effect of dark leaders on their followers' career (Furnham & Treglown, 2021).

Apart from the Dark Triad traits, examinations of the predictive value of the Big Five personality traits regarding subjective success revealed that conscientiousness was the strongest predictor. In today's volatile environment,

organizations must be able to adapt to survive, so the recruiting of high potential employees has become crucial to maintain a competitive advantage (Teodorescu et al., 2017). Furnham et al. (2013) demonstrated that intelligence was, as expected, a predictor of promotion as well as age. Additionally, conscientiousness within the Big Five was a consistent and significant predictor, but even more importantly, elevated levels of dark sides were associated with speed of promotion. Individuals with assertive and competitive tendencies rise through organizations and experience faster promotions. Research suggests that, while neither high nor low scores are desirable, there is an optimal level for each tendency (Gøtzsche-Astrup et al., 2016). Recent findings revealed that job changes were also associated with personality. Job changes can occur when employees are promoted, but also if they are dismissed or leave voluntarily. People that appear more able might be offered a variety of new jobs to test or increase their potential, although individuals might choose not to change their jobs in order to increase their well-being. Analyses based on the Hogan Development Survey revealed that certain disorders are rarely associated with any form of success, while others appear rather beneficial. It was demonstrated that, among the dark personality disorders, three indicated positive correlations with job changes: mischievous, imaginative, and colorful. In contrast, cautiousness and dutifulness were negatively correlated (Furnham, 2020). Thus, as certain personality traits appear to have a positive outcome on followers' success, organizations should implement the required measures to detect such individuals.

To summarize, results on the relationship between dark personality traits and career success are equivocal. On the one hand, research focused on the dark traits of leaders and their impact on the career development of followers (Volmer et al., 2016). On the other hand, research on the Dark Triad of personality clearly demonstrated that dark personality traits can be beneficial to individuals when climbing the corporate ladder. These examinations shared the characteristic of considering only one of the parties involved to have destructive character traits. Given the previously mentioned lack of knowledge regarding the exact relationship between the Dark Triad traits and career success, this issue is addressed by examining the Dark Triad traits of followers as a potential underlying mechanism, serving as a mediator variable for the relationship between Dark Triad leaders and their followers' career success. Thus, this examination contributes to

the field of research by broadening the approach and focusing on the interplay of dark personalities.

In their meta-analysis, O'Boyle et al. (2012) found only a weak relationship between the Dark Triad and work performance due to two moderators. First, the higher the position of a dark leader, the more likely they were to cause problems, so authority appeared as a moderator of this relationship. Second, it was demonstrated that the more collectivistic the organizational culture, the lower influence of dark leaders was noticeable.

For this study, the existing approach was broadened and instead of focusing on the single traits, the Dark Triad construct as a whole is considered and the recently developed construct of the Light Triad of personality is included in the investigations. Also, as recommended by Volmer et al. (2016), in this empirical study, participants in their role as followers were asked to rate their own Dark Triad traits and not only those of their leaders, allowing for the examination of leader-follower Dark Triad configurations. This study therefore aimed to specifically investigate the impact of leaders' characteristics on the subjective career success of followers. As part of this, underlying mechanisms such as core self-evaluations, intrinsic motivation, as a predictor of success and well-being (J. L. Howard et al., 2021), and the personality of the follower were considered.

The role of core self-evaluations: The concept of core self-evaluations was first introduced by Judge, Locke, and Durham (1997), who described it as a broad, latent higher-order trait that is characterized by four traits: self-esteem, generalized self-efficacy, locus of control, and emotional stability. Initially, it was proposed as an explanatory variable for job satisfaction. Within the core self-evaluation traits, self-esteem represents the overall value that individuals place on themselves as persons and is considered the most fundamental manifestation among the four traits. Generalized self-efficacy is viewed as an indicator of positive core evaluations and represents the ability to cope, perform, and be successful. The third trait, internal locus of control, represents a manifestation of core evaluations which can control a wide range of factors in individuals' lives. Finally, emotional stability in terms of low neuroticism reflects the tendency to be confident, secure, and steady (Judge & Bono, 2001). In their meta-analysis, Judge and Bono (2001) elucidated positive

relationships between job satisfaction and all the four traits. The same effect was found for job performance, although the results appeared somewhat weaker. As those meta-analytical results suggest that core self-evaluations operate as significant predictors of job satisfaction and job performance, it merits investigation as to whether there are further indicators that affect their outcomes. In short, core self-evaluations represent a basic, fundamental appraisal of an individual's worthiness, effectiveness, and abilities as a person. It is assumed that the core traits result from a broad, general, positive self-regard. As individuals who score high on core self-evaluations tend to be well-adjusted, confident, positive, efficacious, and believe in their own agency, this broad core subsequently manifests in the four traits that make up the construct of core self-evaluations (Judge et al., 2003). Empirically, positive core self-evaluations have not only been linked to job satisfaction, but also to the willingness to attain jobs with higher levels of complexity (Judge et al., 2003).

With regard to abusive supervision, the question was raised if certain individuals are more likely to believe that they are targets of their leaders than others (Tepper et al., 2017). For leader-follower relationships, it was demonstrated that followers with lower core self-evaluations suffered more from leaders with dark personality traits, and experienced more burnout symptoms (Nevicka et al., 2018). This aligns with previous findings regarding the construct of the toxic triangle: Followers with low core self-evaluations are prone to the harmful effects of destructive leaders (Padilla et al., 2007). These types of individuals are more insecure, need more approval, and tend to interpret certain attitudes as abusive. Thus, they represent easier targets and suffer more from their leaders because they dislike themselves, and have no confidence in their abilities, worthiness, or competence. Lower levels of core self-evaluations were linked to perceived abusive supervision, which was in turn negatively associated with follower task performance and positively with their exhaustion (Nevicka et al., 2018).

In this context, core self-evaluations were identified as a moderator of the relationship between leaders' narcissism and the perceived level of abusive supervision. The extent as to which narcissistic leaders were perceived as abusive depended on their followers' personality, in particular, their core self-evaluations. Apart from core self-evaluations, it is suggested that followers with certain

personality dispositions are more sensitive to destructive characteristics, while others are better at coping with them (Nevicka et al., 2018).

Very similar effects were found in studies on leaders' psychopathy and their self-serving behaviors. As outlined in the chapter on the theoretical foundations, dark personality traits have been demonstrated as antecedents of destructive leadership behavior. With this in mind, Barelds et al. (2018) examined the relationship between psychopathy and the occurrence of self-serving behavior. Self-serving behavior is characterized by acts of securing monetary benefits, taking unwarranted credit for others' accomplishments, and disowning responsibility for failure. They found that there was a positive relationship between leaders' psychopathy and self-serving behavior, but only when their followers' levels of self-esteem were low. Thus, the study demonstrated that followers' characteristics can influence the degree to which perceived negative traits are reflected in leaders' behavior. They also stated that psychopaths differentiate between targets and actively victimize followers with low self-esteem. Regarding self-serving behavior of leaders, it does not only harm individuals, but also diminishes the effectiveness of organizations and employees.

With regard to the findings and suggestions for future research of Nevicka et al. (2018), the aim of this study was to examine the effects of followers' core self-evaluations on the relationship between Dark Triad leaders and followers' career success while considering additional positive personality traits. Also, toxic leadership has recently been linked to mental issues including low self-esteem among employees (Snow et al., 2021), enhancing its relevance for further examination.

In previous research, the Light Triad of personality demonstrated positive relations with global self-esteem (Kaufman et al., 2019), so this recently developed construct appears worthy of examining. It raises the question of whether believing in the good in people and having an overall faith in humanity may impact the influence of dark leaders on their employees' career success. Regarding the findings on psychological capital in the first empirical study, it was suggested that the Light Triad of personality represents another underlying mechanism.

With regard to the previously mentioned empirical findings on the constructs, it was hypothesized as follows:

Hypothesis 1: Intrinsic motivation of followers is positively associated with their career success.

Hypothesis 2: The Dark Triad of leaders moderates the relationship between intrinsic motivation and career success of followers.

Hypothesis 3: The relationship between the Dark Triad of leaders and the career success of followers is serially mediated by the core self-evaluations of followers and by their Dark Triad, Light Triad, and intrinsic motivation.

5.3.2. Methods

Sample, procedure, and measures: Equal to the procedure in the second study, the questionnaire was made available in an online campus for part-time students at a German university of applied sciences. For participation, students received course credit. Additionally, the questionnaire was distributed among the authors' professional networks to ensure the sample would not exclusively consist of academics. The overall period of data collection was from May 2023 to August 2023, and again, the variables relevant for investigation were collected using SoSci Survey, an online tool for academic research.

A total of 752 participants took part in the online survey, but only 680 of them formally finished the questionnaire without terminating it before completion. Among these, 3 participants were excluded because they did not agree with the consent statement and one more was eliminated due to the exclusion question if there was a direct superior to be evaluated. Thus, 676 complete datasets remained. For quality reasons, the relative speed index was once again used to eliminate participants who answered too fast compared to the rest of the sample. By applying a cut-off value of 2.0, as recommended by Leiner (2019), another 29 datasets were

eliminated. Finally, 647 datasets remained for further analysis. All scales utilized can be found in the appendices.

The remaining sample consisted of 647 participants, 69.1% female and 30.9% male. Participants' ages ranged from 19 to 63 years ($M = 26.83$, $SD = 5.57$). Regarding occupations, 77.7% were employees, 13.9% were extra occupational students, 0.8% were apprentices, 0.3% were civil servants, 0.2% were self-employed, but still had a direct superior, and 7.1% belonged to other occupational settings that were not further specified. With reference to the educational background and the highest degree at time of participation, 54.9% had a high school diploma, 18.4% had a specialized baccalaureate, 14.8% had completed an apprenticeship, 8.2% held an academic degree, 3.1% had a secondary school diploma, and another 0.6% had a qualification that was not further specified. Regarding industry sectors, 19.9% of the sample were from insurances, banking or financial services, 14.7% were from the industry sector, 11.4% belonged to the service sector, 9.9% were from the retail sector, 7.3% were from the telecommunications sector, 5.4% were from the consultancy sector, 4.8% were from IT, another 4.8% were from public administration, 3.6% were from transports and logistics, 2.9% were from the energy sector, 0.9% were hospital staff, another 0.6% were from research and development, another 0.6% were from therapeutic professions, 0.3% were pedagogics and ambulatory care each, and 0.2% were social workers. Another 9.6% belonged to other sector that were not further specified.

Dark Triad of leaders and followers: For the dark traits of leaders and followers, the Dirty Dozen was used again. In both cases, it showed appropriate values for reliability, with $\alpha = .94$ and $\omega = .94$ for the Dark Triad of leaders, and $\alpha = .88$ and $\omega = .87$ for self-assessment of followers.

Career satisfaction of followers: Overall, there is no consensus on whether objective measures of career success overrule subjective ones, or whether a combination of both is most recommendable (Furnham & Treglown, 2021). For this study, the widely adopted career satisfaction scale (CSS) by Greenhaus et al. (1990) was used and participants answered on a 7-point Likert scale. The scale measures career satisfaction as an individual's evaluation of their own progress toward

career-related ambitions. It has been used in several hundred studies, demonstrating high levels of construct validity across cross-sectional, longitudinal, and intervention examinations (Spurk et al., 2015). In this examination, it showed appropriate values for reliability with $\alpha = .89$ and $\omega = .89$.

Core self-evaluations of followers: The Core Self-Evaluations Scale by Judge et al. (2003) was used, which consists of 12 items. Participants responded on a 7-point Likert scale. The construct of core self-evaluations is indicated by the four traits of self-esteem, generalized self-efficacy, locus of control, and emotional stability, and it was demonstrated that the Core Self-Evaluations Scale is a more accurate predictor than the four individual core traits. Thus, the overall measure outperforms the measurement of the four separate criteria (Judge et al., 2003) and appeared as an appropriate scale for the purpose of this study. In the sample of this examination, the scale showed appropriate values for reliability with $\alpha = .85$ and $\omega = .85$.

Light Triad of personality of followers: As in the previous study, the Light Triad of followers was measured with the scale by Kaufman et al. (2019). Its reliability was appropriate with $\alpha = .77$ and $\omega = .76$.

Intrinsic motivation of followers: For the intrinsic motivation of followers, the related items of the MWMS were used. The reliability for this extracted scale was $\alpha = .94$ and $\omega = .95$.

5.3.3. Results

Before hypotheses testing, means, standard deviations, and intercorrelations among the variables are shown in Table 35 below:

Table 35. Means, Standard Deviations, and Intercorrelations

Variable	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5
1. Dark Triad Leader	3.04	1.42					
2. Dark Triad Follower	2.81	1.01	.30***				
3. Light Triad Follower	5.17	0.74	-.10*	-.35***			
4. Core Self-Evaluations	4.98	0.86	-.18***	-.19***	.16***		
5. Career Success	4.90	1.14	-.11**	-.09*	.25***	.46***	
6. Intrinsic Motivation	4.60	1.55	-.16***	-.06	.21***	.31***	.42***

Note. $N = 647$.

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

As in the previous studies, assumptions for regression analyses were considered. Again, and in concurrence with the procedures of the previous empirical studies, bootstrapping samples were used for the potential violation of normal distribution (Preacher et al., 2007) and a robust standard error was applied instead of assuming homoscedasticity (A. F. Hayes & Cai, 2007).

With reference to Hypothesis 1, correlations in Table 35 already revealed there was a positive relationship between intrinsic motivation and career success of followers ($r = .42$, $p < .001$). Regression analysis was used for further examination of this association between followers' intrinsic motivation and their subjective career success as demonstrated in Table 36.

Table 36. Regression Analysis With Career Success as the Dependent Variable

Predictors	Unstandardized Coefficients <i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	Standardized Coefficients Beta (β)	<i>p</i>	95% CI	
					<i>LL</i>	<i>UL</i>
(Constant)	3.40	0.22		<.001	2.98	3.85
Intrinsic Motivation	0.31	0.03	0.42	<.001	0.25	0.36
Gender	-0.05	0.09	-0.02	.55	-0.23	0.13
Age	0.01	0.01	0.03	.40	-0.01	0.02

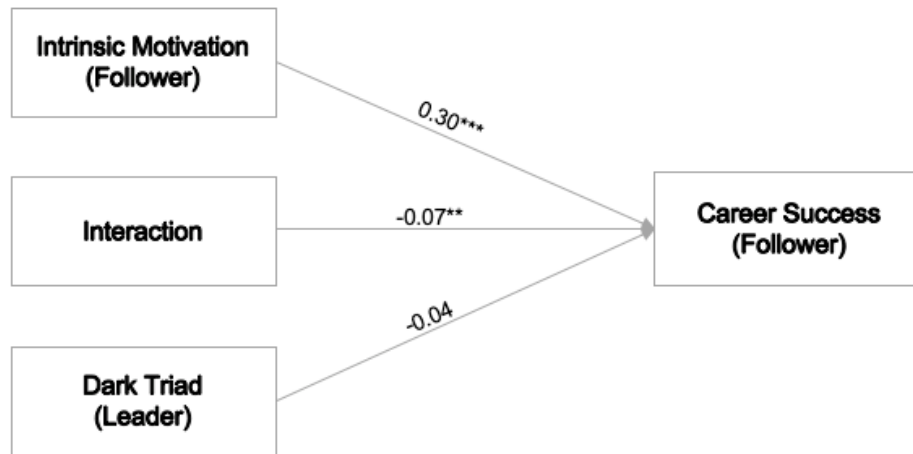
Note. A bootstrap sample of 5,000 and a robust standard error (HC4) were used. *LL* and *UL* indicate the lower and upper limits of a CI.

$R^2 = .18$

Support was found for Hypothesis 1, as followers' intrinsic motivation was found to be a significant predictor of their subjective career success ($B = 0.31$, $\beta = 0.42$, $p < .001$).

For testing Hypotheses 2, moderation analysis was conducted as visualized in Figure 25, statistical information is illustrated in Table 37:

Figure 25. Statistical Diagram of the Moderation Analysis



Note. PROCESS Model 1 was applied. Path coefficients indicate unstandardized weights. All paths were controlled for gender and age. For reasons of efficiency, they were not illustrated in this figure.

** indicates $p < .01$. *** indicates $p < .001$.

Table 37. Output Details of the Moderation Analysis

Model	B	SE	p	95% CI	
				LL	UL
(Constant)	4.87	0.20	<.001	4.50	5.28
Intrinsic Motivation	0.30	0.03	<.001	0.24	0.36
Dark Triad Leader	-0.04	0.03	.22	-0.10	0.02
Interaction	-0.07	0.02	.002	-0.11	-0.03
Gender	-0.04	0.09	.64	-0.22	0.13
Age	0.003	0.01	.72	-0.01	0.02

Note. A bootstrap sample of 5,000 and a robust standard error (HC4) were used. LL and UL indicate the lower and upper limits of a CI.

As the interaction effect was statistically significant ($B = -0.07$, $p = 0.002$), a moderating effect was found, supporting Hypothesis 2. The Dark Triad of leaders was found to be a moderator of the previously described relationship between followers' intrinsic motivation and their subjective career success. Additionally, the Johnson-Neyman regions revealed the following results as demonstrated in Tables 38 and 39.

Table 38. Moderator Value Defining Johnson-Neyman Significance Regions

Value	% below	% above
2.61	95.36	4.64

Note. Continuous variables defining the product were mean-centered prior to analysis.

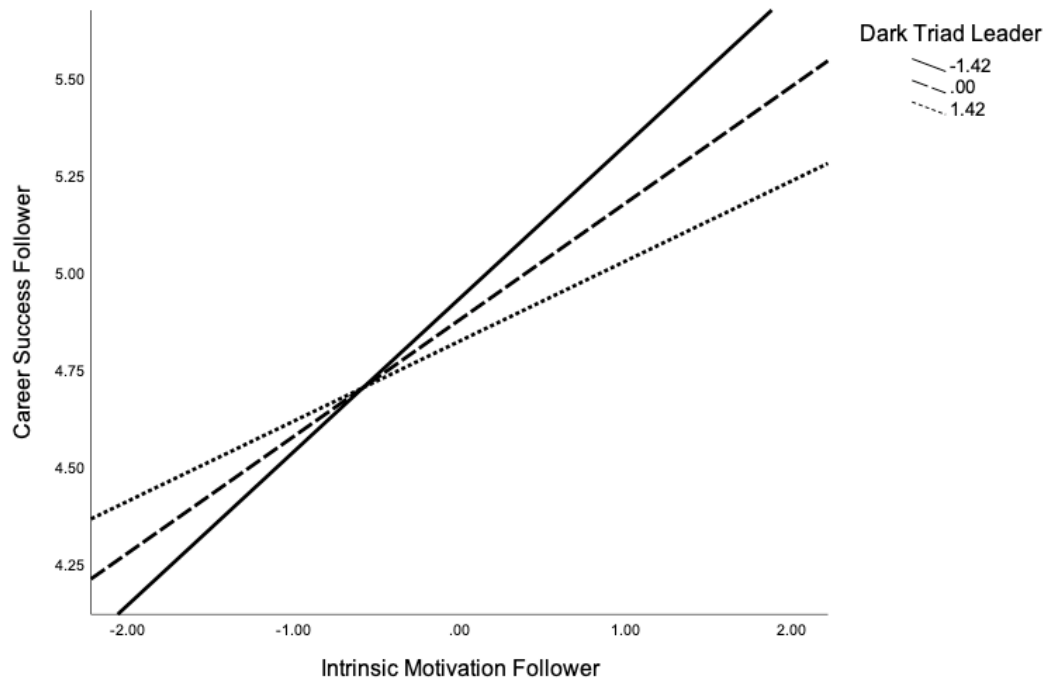
Table 39. Conditional Effects of the Focal Predictor at Values of the Moderator

Dark Triad Leader	Effect	SE	p	95% CI	
				LL	UL
-1.42	0.39	0.04	<.001	0.32	0.47
0.00	0.30	0.03	<.001	0.24	0.36
1.42	0.21	0.04	<.001	0.12	0.29

Note. A robust standard error (HC4) was used. LL and UL indicate the lower and upper limits of a CI.

As shown in the Johnson-Neyman output, the conditional effects were significant up to a value of 2.61 for the moderator. Simple slopes were visualized in Figure 26, highlighting that higher values of leaders' Dark Triad traits led to lower associations between intrinsic motivation and the subjective career success of followers.

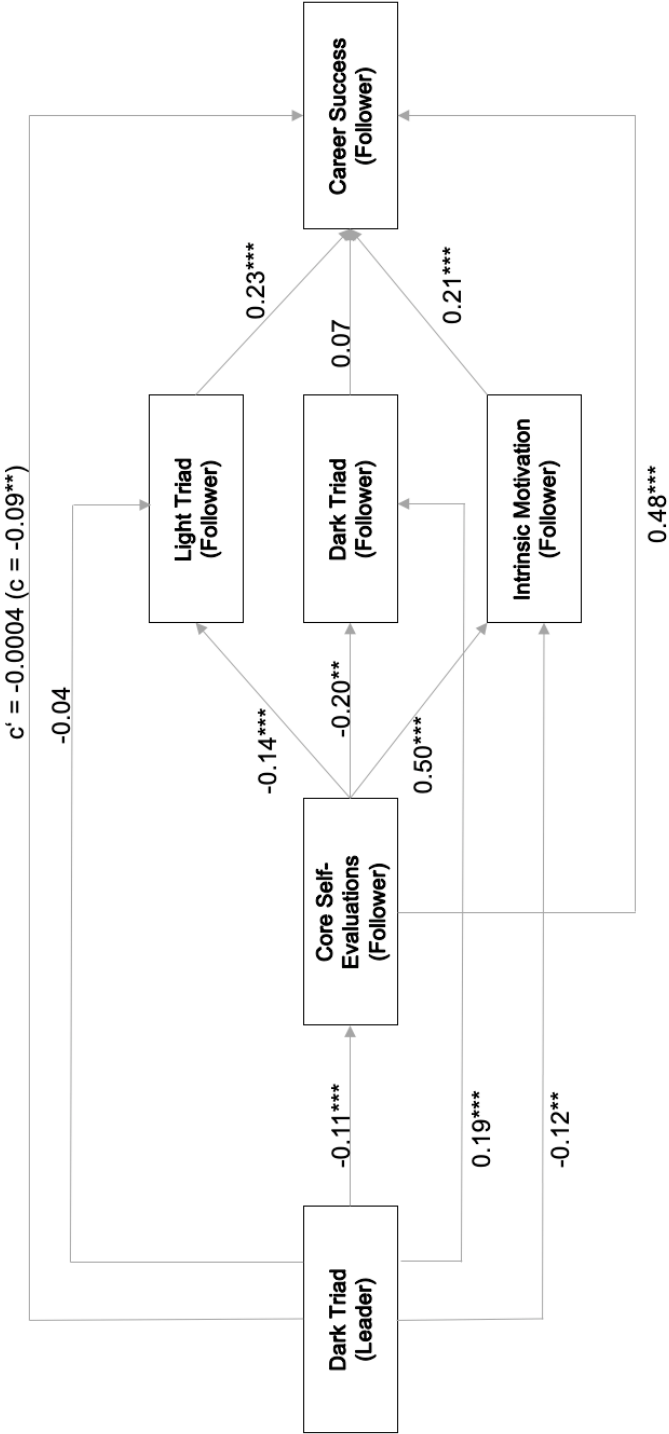
Figure 26. Plot of the Simple Slope Analysis for the Moderator Variable



Note. PROCESS Model 1 was applied.

Finally, the overall model of this empirical study with reference to Hypothesis 3 was tested (see Table 40) and visualized in Figure 27.

Figure 27. Serial-Parallel Mediation Model



Note. PROCESS Model 83 was applied. All paths were controlled for gender and age. For reasons of efficiency, they were not illustrated in this figure.
** indicates $p < .01$. *** indicates $p < .001$.

Table 40 continued:

Model	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>p</i>	95% CI		Fit
				<i>LL</i>	<i>UL</i>	
Intrinsic Motivation						
(Constant)	1.64	0.42	<.001	0.84	2.47	
DT-L	-0.12	0.04	.004	-0.21	-0.04	
CS	0.50	0.07	<.001	0.36	0.64	
Gender	-0.03	0.13	.81	-0.29	0.23	
Age	0.03	0.09	<.001	0.01	0.05	
						<i>R</i> ² = .12
Career Success						
(Constant)	0.28	0.46	.55	-0.61	1.17	
DT-L	-0.0004	0.03	.99	-0.06	0.06	
CS	0.48	0.05	<.001	0.38	0.58	
LT-F	0.23	0.06	<.001	0.11	0.34	
DT-F	0.07	0.04	.11	-0.01	0.15	
Intrinsic Motivation	0.21	0.03	<.001	0.14	0.27	
Gender	-0.13	0.09	.13	-0.30	0.04	
Age	0.002	0.01	.71	-0.01	0.01	
						<i>R</i> ² = .32

Note. A bootstrap sample of 5,000 and a robust standard error (HC4) were used. LL and UL indicate the lower and upper limits of a CI.

DT-L = Dark Triad leader, CS = Core Self-Evaluations, LT-F = Light Triad follower, DT-F = Dark Triad follower.

For the model, eight indirect effects were identified as outlined in Table 41:

Table 41. Indirect Effects of the Serial-Parallel Mediation

	Effect	SE	95% CI	
			LL	UL
TOTAL	-0.09	0.02	-0.13	-0.05
DT-L – CS – CA	-0.05	0.01	-0.08	-0.03
DT-L – LT-F – CA	-0.01	0.01	-0.02	0.001
DT-L – DT-F – CA	0.01	0.01	-0.003	0.03
DT-L – INM – CA	-0.03	0.01	-0.05	-0.01
DT-L – CS – LT-F – CA	-0.004	0.002	-0.01	-0.001
DT-L – CS – DT-F – CA	0.001	0.001	-0.0003	0.004
DT-L – CS – INM – CA	-0.01	0.003	-0.02	-0.01

Note. A bootstrap sample of 5,000 was used. LL and UL indicate the lower and upper limits of a CI.

DT-L = Dark Triad leader, CS = Core self-evaluations, CA = Career success, LT-F = Light Triad follower, INM = intrinsic motivation.

Of the eight indirect effects, only five were found to be significant. The first significant indirect effect involved the mediation through followers' core self-evaluations (CI [-0.08, -0.03]), and the second involved the mediation through intrinsic motivation (CI [-0.05, -0.01]). A significant serial mediation was found for core self-evaluations and the Light Triad of followers (CI [-0.01, -0.001]), as well as for core self-evaluations and intrinsic motivation (CI [-0.02, -0.01]). Overall, the model indicated a significant total indirect effect (-0.09, CI [-0.13, -0.05]). Conversely, the direct effect was not significant ($c' = 0.0004$, CI [-0.06, 0.06]) and was close to zero, representing a full mediation. Thus, Hypothesis 3 was supported.

5.3.4. Discussion

The results of this study were generally not contradictory to prior expectations, and they contribute to the understanding of the impact of destructive leaders in various ways.

With reference to the first hypothesis, results showed that intrinsic motivation is a predictor of career success which supports previous findings on this type of motivation. Empirically, intrinsic motivation has a highly beneficial nature and was strongly associated with well-being. Thus, fostering a work environment that is inherently enjoyable and interesting for employees is beneficial (Van den Broeck et al., 2021).

The second hypothesis suggested that the Dark Triad level of leaders was a moderator of the relationship between their intrinsic motivation and career success. Results revealed support for this hypothesis as a significant interaction effect was found. It was demonstrated that a positive relationship between individuals' intrinsic motivation and their subjective career success was found and that this relationship was moderated by their leaders' Dark Triad level. Higher values of the Dark Triad led to lower associations between followers' intrinsic motivation and their subjective career success. The Johnson-Neyman output demonstrated that the conditional effect was significant until it exceeded a mean-centered value of 2.61. Thus, the statistical results elucidated that the influence of motivation on success was affected by the Dark Triad of leaders. Generally, these findings again support the detrimental effects of leaders' dark traits. For this sample, the previously mentioned findings of Volmer et al. (2016), who outlined that dark leaders can in fact have beneficial influences on their followers' careers, could not be replicated.

These findings contribute to the recommendations of Li et al. (2023) to further examine interaction effects in the expanded JD-R model. Leadership was added to the JD-R as an important factor that might trigger both motivational as well as stressor processes (Schaufeli, 2015). The findings of this empirical study, particularly those of the moderator analysis, highlight the effects of leaders' Dark Triad traits. With reference to the inclusion of leadership into the JD-R model, the results of this study highlight that leadership does not necessarily lead to either motivation or stress, but that the effects are more complex and can even affect the subjective career satisfaction of individuals.

In the serial-parallel mediation model of this study, several relevant findings were elucidated. First, a dark personality of leaders was negatively associated with the subjective career success of followers as demonstrated by the total effect of the model. Within the model, various (serial) mediators were examined, represented by eight indirect effects that were to be tested. The first significant indirect effect was found for the serial mediation through followers' core self-evaluations and the Light Triad of followers. The next indirect effect was tested for a mediation through core self-evaluations and the Dark Triad of followers themselves, but it was not shown to be significant. Another indirect effect was tested through core self-evaluations and the intrinsic motivation of followers and it was found to be significant. The indirect effect with only core self-evaluations as a mediator appeared significant in contrast to the mediation through the Dark Triad of followers. The indirect effect through the Light Triad of personality was not significant. Finally, intrinsic motivation was found to be a significant mediator. Thus, among the indirect effects with only one mediator, only core self-evaluations and intrinsic motivation were significant mediators of the relationship between the Dark Triad of leaders and their followers' career success.

In addition to assessing the impact of leaders' dark traits on their followers' success, this study also emphasized the effect of these traits on followers' core self-evaluations. In the model, the leaders' dark traits were negatively associated with core self-evaluations. This finding reaffirms the negative impact of these traits on follower-related outcomes, as demonstrated in the previous studies described in this doctoral thesis. As outlined above, core self-evaluations include self-esteem, generalized self-efficacy, locus of control, and emotional stability, and these attributes have been empirically linked to job satisfaction. Therefore, it is concerning that leaders with dark traits have such multifaceted and wide-ranging impact. However, the model also elucidated the positive associations between core self-evaluations and followers' career success. Moreover, core self-evaluations were functioned as a significant predictor of career success, even when controlling for the dark traits of leaders (as well as gender and age).

To summarize, the total effect of all indirect effects was significant, and the direct effect of the model was nearly zero ($c' = -0.0004$) and not significant. Thus, the

relationship between the Dark Triad of leaders and their followers' career success was almost entirely explained by the mediators included in the model.

This model also provides support for the need for methods that allow mediation analyses involving multiple simultaneous mediators. Such models have received little attention although they are clearly needed for the explanations of underlying mechanisms because it is unlikely that the effect of an independent variable on an outcome is explained by only one means. The use and analysis are often more precise, more convenient, and even more parsimonious when including them all in one model (Preacher & Hayes, 2008).

As suggested by Judge and Bono (2001), future research should focus on potential factors that moderate the relevance of self-esteem for job performance which would be a beneficial contribution to the findings of this empirical study.

When examining follower-related factors such as their core self-evaluations, it is important to note that those examinations do not aim to hold followers responsible for the impact of their dark leaders. However, it is important to acknowledge that followers' personalities do play a role in the interplay of leaders' personality and their behavior (Barelds et al., 2018). Nevertheless, organizations are responsible for the prevention of such behaviors in the workplace, and they need to be cautious about who they promote into leadership positions (Wisse & Sleebos, 2016).

As the Dark Triad traits of both leaders and followers were measured with the Dirty Dozen, the effects of the single traits were not investigated separately. While the Dirty Dozen is a validated instrument for the measurement of the overall construct, previous research suggested not to draw conclusions on the single traits (Jonason & Webster, 2010).

Previous research using the Career Satisfaction Scale showed that the conceptualization of career satisfaction or success differs across occupational groups (Spurk et al., 2015). Thus, further research should consider whether career success is perceived differently across different job types or branches, and whether the moderating effect found in this empirical study is valid for all types of occupational settings. Additionally, future research should consider the role of identified regulation, as it was found to be an important predictor of performance (J. L. Howard et al., 2021). As a result, future examinations should examine a

moderator analysis for identified regulation as the predictor and the career success of followers as the dependent variable.

Furthermore, analyzing the impact of leaders' dark personality traits on their followers' career success in greater detail is suggested. As previously outlined, the leaders' Dark Triad traits were found to moderate the relationship between intrinsic motivation and career success, although only the overall construct of the Dark Triad was considered as opposed to the individual traits. Future research should focus on the individual Dark Triad traits and how they affect different occupational settings. For this purpose, it is recommended to measure the Dark Triad with a different scale than the Dirty Dozen, as longer scales provide a more nuanced view on the single traits.

With regard to the sample, it was evident that participants had a relatively low mean age and that genders were not equally distributed with more than two thirds being females. For future research, it is recommended to examine the impact of destructive leaders on older participants or to analyze the impact across the life span. Particularly with regard core self-evaluations, it appears interesting to elucidate whether the impact of destructive leaders decreases with an increase in age.

Regarding future research, it is also recommended to examine differences between branches and whether occupational settings exist in which individuals are generally more successful despite destructive leaders than in other environments.

5.4. STUDY 4: BIRDS OF A FEATHER FLOCK TOGETHER: EXAMINATION OF THE INTERDEPENDENCES OF TOXIC LEADERS AND TOXIC FOLLOWERS

5.4.1. Theoretical Background and Hypotheses

Similarity of leaders and followers: In all previous studies, the Dark Triad of personality was measured for both leaders and followers. The aim of this recurring measurement was to determine the special role of similarity of leaders and followers which was further examined in this fourth study. Research has supported the specific role of similarity among individuals and its impact on peer-evaluations (Byrne, 1997; Montoya & Horton, 2013); the aim of this study was to transfer previous findings to the Dark Triad of personality. Recently, Badura et al. (2022) outlined that organizations nowadays struggle to identify leaders, and there has been only very limited research on the factors that promote leadership emergence in the first place. As illustrated throughout this thesis, it has become clear that leaders with dark traits often achieve leadership positions. The first study investigated the impact of psychological safety as a factor that describes the climate within an organization, focusing not on character traits, but on perceived mutual respect and trust within teams. To broaden this approach, this fourth and final study examined the personality traits of followers themselves, and which factors were affected. This approach followed the recommendations of Volmer et al. (2016), who proposed that the examination of such specific leader-member configurations of the Dark Triad was worth investigation.

For this examination, several theoretical constructs were considered for the hypothesis development. First, as previously stated, the toxic triangle (Padilla et al., 2007) describes the interplay of toxic leaders and susceptible followers as they are part of the leadership process. In this context, susceptible followers are those who are either unwilling or unable to resist destructive leadership. There are two types of susceptible followers in the toxic triangle. On the one hand, these followers have unmet needs, low core self-evaluations, or low maturity. Destructive leaders can attract these followers by offering a sense of community, impressing them, and because of their low maturity, they will not oppose their abusive leaders. On the other hand, there are followers who are considered colluders characterized by ambition, congruent beliefs with the leader, and unsocialized values. The

congruence of values has also been proven as a mediator between transactional and transformational leadership and performance, supporting the importance for the organizational context (Jung & Avolio, 2000). Employees with congruent values are more satisfied and committed and it is suggested that values do not change over time, so they have positive long-term effects (Meglino et al., 1989). Colluders can even prosper through destructive leaders as they aim for status and success, and therefore also engage in exploitative behavior. It was demonstrated that leadership works best when the identity of followers and leaders match, thus, leaders' effectiveness increases when followers' self-concepts are consistent with the identity level and values stressed by leaders. In contrast, lack of congruence can emerge as a source of conflict or ambiguity (Lord & Brown, 2001). Regarding their values, those individuals with unsocialized values such as selfishness tend to follow destructive leaders (Padilla et al., 2007).

Another theory that should be considered when investigating similarity in the organizational context is the attraction-selection-attrition (ASA) framework (Schneider, 1987). The framework states that organizations are shaped by individuals behaving the way they do. Specifically, it posits that individuals are attracted by a particular environment, are then selected by it, and finally, they stay with it. The attraction of similar types to the same place, i.e. organizations, then determines the place (Schneider, 1987). One of the major assumptions of this framework is that it subsequently leads to homogenous places or organizations because individuals who do not fit are more likely to leave, and those who remain will be similar to each other, leading to more internal homogeneity (Schneider, 1987; Schneider & Smith, 1995). The similarity or congruence of employees and the organization was also examined by Chatman (1989), who introduced the model of person-organization fit which represents the congruence between the norms and values of organizations and the values of individuals. This model proposes that the understanding and prediction of behavior is only possible when considering both the individuals, as well as situational factors, and how they interact. It is partially created by the selection and socialization of individuals that enter the organization. It was demonstrated that the congruence of values influences the adjustment process, individuals' satisfaction, and their intention to stay (Chatman, 1991).

According to similarity-attraction hypothesis, individuals' beliefs are validated and confirmed by others with similar attitudes, and therefore, individuals are attracted to each other. In the organizational context, managers tend to evaluate followers similar to themselves more favorably as it enhances their self-esteem. Also, in recent investigations, the overall congruence of person and job was verified as a mediator of the relationship between leadership style and followers' engagement (Decuyper & Schaufeli, 2021).

Tepper et al. (2011) demonstrated a causal framework in which a perceived deep-level dissimilarity between managers and employees provokes relationship conflicts leading to lower performance evaluations of employees which finally leads to destructive leadership.

Apart from the organizational context, Byrne and Clore (1966) investigated the effect of attitude similarity on attraction, stating that this effect not only includes attitudes, but also similarity and dissimilarity in the economic status, responses to items of fact, evaluative statements, and responses in learning situations.

In leadership research, literature has mainly focused on leaders and less attention has been paid to followers. With regard to this, Dvir and Shamir (2003) examined followers' developmental characteristics and they suggested that leadership and followership influence their mutual relationships. They posited that a certain level of congruence or compatibility contributes to the emergence of transformational leadership. Leaders will be more motivated to demonstrate a transformational leadership style when they perceive appropriate characteristics in their followers. In this context, characteristics are defined by motivation, morality, and empowerment. Thus, results at the group level indicated that followers' characteristics operate as a predictor of transformational leadership. These results also stress that transformational leadership is not inherent in a leader and may be influenced by a change in the leader-follower construct. These findings of Dvir and Shamir (2003) highlight the importance of examinations that do not entirely rely on leader attributes and include the impact of followers on their leaders (Dvir & Shamir, 2003).

Thus, there has been a lot of empirical research on the dyadic relationship of leaders and followers with the focus on potential similarities among them. With these empirical findings in mind, it was hypothesized as follows:

Hypothesis 1: The Dark Triad of leaders predicts the Dark Triad of followers.

Hypothesis 2: The Dark Triad of followers mediates the relationship between the Dark Triad of leaders and positive outcomes such as satisfaction and core self-evaluations, in the organizational context and beyond.

5.4.2. Methods

Sample, procedure, and measures: There was no separate data collection for this fourth study. In the course of the previous three studies, the Dark Triad of leaders as well as the Dark Triad of followers were always measured. Thus, for this fourth study, the three datasets will be analyzed, whereby the first dataset was $N = 469$, the second was $N = 575$, and the third was $N = 647$.

As outlined before, the Dark Triad of leaders was measured using an others-assessment by followers. The Dark Triad of followers was measured using self-assessment. Across all studies, the Dirty Dozen (Jonason & Webster, 2010) was used and participants responded on a 7-point Likert scale.

In all three previous studies, the scale showed appropriate values for reliability.

5.4.3. Results

As the previous studies provided detailed information on their overall descriptive statistics, only the relevant values for the Dark Triad of leaders and the Dark Triad of followers are illustrated again (see Table 42), as only those variables are the focus of this study.

Table 42. Correlations of the Dark Triad of Leaders and Followers Across the Empirical Studies

Study No.	M DT Leader	SD DT Leader	M DT Follower	SD DT Follower	<i>r</i> (DT-L and DT-F)
1	2.95	1.49	2.42	0.91	.34***
2	3.00	1.50	2.69	0.96	.33***
3	3.04	1.42	2.81	1.01	.30***

Note. *N* = 469 (Study 1); *N* = 575 (Study 2); *N* = 647 (Study 3); DT = Dark Triad, DT-L = Dark Triad leader, DT-F = Dark Triad follower.

*** indicates $p < .001$.

In all three studies, significant correlations were found between the Dark Triad of leaders and the Dark Triad of their followers ($r = .34^{***}$, $p < .001$; $r = .33^{**}$, $p < .001$; and $r = .30^{**}$, $p < .001$).

For hypotheses tests, regression analyses were conducted to examine whether the Dark Triad of leaders can predict the Dark Triad of their followers (see Tables 43–45). In concurrence with the previous studies, the prerequisites for regression-based analyses were considered. Again, as recommended in the methodological chapter of this thesis, a bootstrap sample (Preacher et al., 2007) and a robust standard error (A. F. Hayes & Cai, 2007) were used for the regression-based analyses of this fourth study.

Table 43. Regression Analysis With the Dark Triad of Followers as the Dependent Variable in Study 1

Predictors	Unstandardized Coefficients <i>B</i>	SE	Standardized Coefficients Beta (β)	<i>p</i>	95% CI	
					LL	UL
(Constant)	2.84	0.23		<.001	2.39	3.30
DT-L	0.19	0.03	0.32	<.001	0.13	0.26
Gender	-0.30	0.08	-0.16	<.001	-0.46	-0.14
Age	-0.01	0.003	-0.16	<.001	-0.02	-0.01

Note. A bootstrap of 5,000 samples and a robust standard error (HC4) were used. LL and UL indicate the lower and upper limits of a CI. DT-L = Dark Triad leader.
 $R^2 = .16$

Table 44. Regression Analysis With the Dark Triad of Followers as the Dependent Variable in Study 2

Predictors	Unstandardized Coefficients <i>B</i>	SE	Standardized Coefficients Beta (β)	<i>p</i>	95% CI	
					LL	UL
(Constant)	1.93	0.16		<.001	1.61	2.25
DT-L	0.20	0.03	0.31	<.001	0.15	0.25
Gender	0.51	0.08	0.25	<.001	0.35	0.66
Age	-0.02	0.004	-0.16	<.001	-0.02	-0.01

Note. A bootstrap of 5,000 samples and a robust standard error (HC4) were used. LL and UL indicate the lower and upper limits of a CI. DT-L = Dark Triad leader.
 $R^2 = .18$

Table 45. Regression Analysis With the Dark Triad of Followers as the Dependent Variable in Study 3

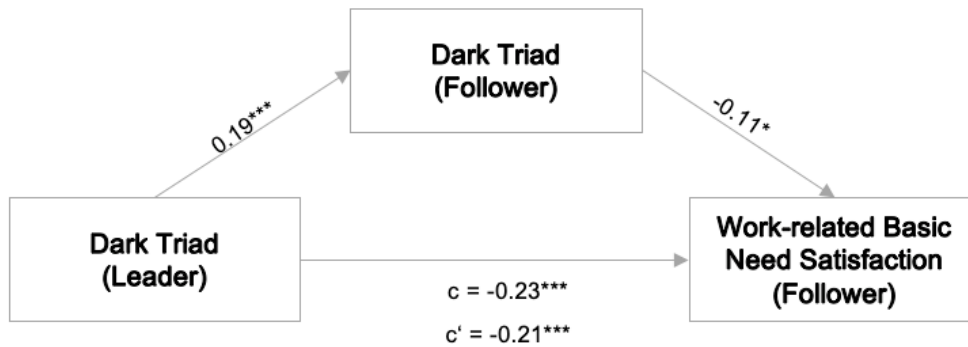
Predictors	Unstandardized Coefficients <i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	Standardized Coefficients Beta (β)	<i>p</i>	95% CI	
					<i>LL</i>	<i>UL</i>
(Constant)	1.88	0.22		<.001	1.45	2.28
DT-L	0.21	0.03	0.30	<.001	0.15	0.27
Gender	0.44	0.09	0.20	<.001	0.27	0.60
Age	-0.01	0.01	-0.06	.15	-0.02	0.004

Note. A bootstrap of 5,000 samples and a robust standard error (HC4) were used. *LL* and *UL* indicate the lower and upper limits of a CI. DT-L = Dark Triad leader.
 $R^2 = .13$

Full support was found for Hypothesis 1, as the Dark Triad of leaders was a significant predictor of the Dark Triad of followers in Study 1 ($B = 0.19$, $\beta = 0.32$, $p < .001$), Study 2 ($B = 0.20$, $\beta = 0.31$, $p < .001$), and Study 3 ($B = 0.21$, $\beta = 0.30$, $p < .001$).

For testing Hypothesis 2, mediation analyses were conducted. In the first study and its dependent variable, it was examined whether followers' Dark Triad mediated the relationship between the Dark Triad of leaders and followers' work-related basic need satisfaction. A significant indirect effect (-0.02 , CI $[-0.04; -0.004]$) was found, so followers' Dark Triad was demonstrated as a partial mediator (see Figure 28 and Table 46).

Figure 28. Mediation Analysis With the Dark Triad of Followers as the Mediator for Study 1



Note. PROCESS Model 4 was applied. Path coefficients indicate unstandardized weights. All paths were controlled for gender and age. For reasons of efficiency, they were not illustrated in this figure.

* indicates $p < .05$. *** indicates $p < .001$.

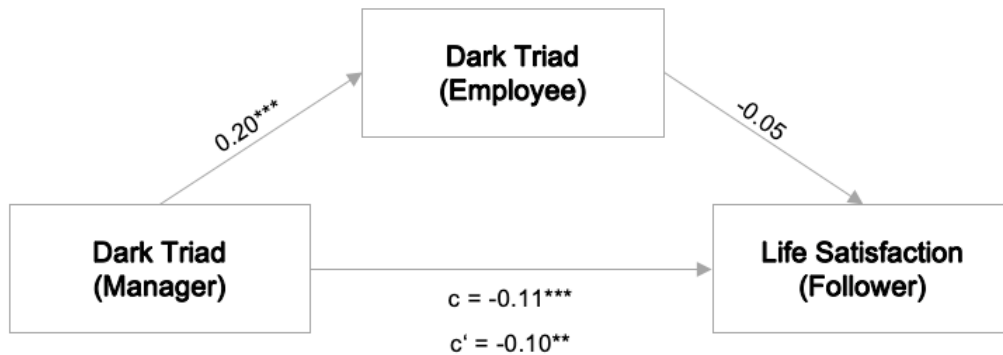
Table 46. Output Details of the Mediation Analysis for Study 1

Model	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>p</i>	95% CI		Fit
				<i>LL</i>	<i>UL</i>	
Dark Triad Follower						
(Constant)	2.84	0.23	<.001	2.38	3.29	
DT-L	0.19	0.03	<.001	0.14	0.26	
Gender	-0.30	0.08	<.001	-0.46	-0.13	
Age	-0.01	0.003	<.001	-0.02	-0.01	
						<i>R</i> ² = .16
Work-Related Basic Need Satisfaction						
(Constant)	6.10	0.26	<.001	5.60	6.57	
DT-L	-0.21	0.03	<.001	-0.27	-0.16	
DT-F	-0.11	0.05	.02	-0.20	-0.02	
Gender	-0.12	0.08	.13	-0.26	0.03	
Age	0.004	0.003	.21	-0.002	0.01	
						<i>R</i> ² = .17

Note. A bootstrap sample of 5,000 and a robust standard error (HC4) were used. *LL* and *UL* indicate the lower and upper limits of a CI. DT-L = Dark Triad leader, DT-F = Dark Triad follower.

In the second mediation analysis with followers' overall life satisfaction as the dependent variable, the indirect effect was not statistically significant (-0.01, CI [-0.03, 0.02]), indicating there was no mediation of the relationship between dark leadership and followers' overall life satisfaction, as shown in Figure 29.

Figure 29. Mediation Analysis With the Dark Triad of Followers as the Mediator for Study 2

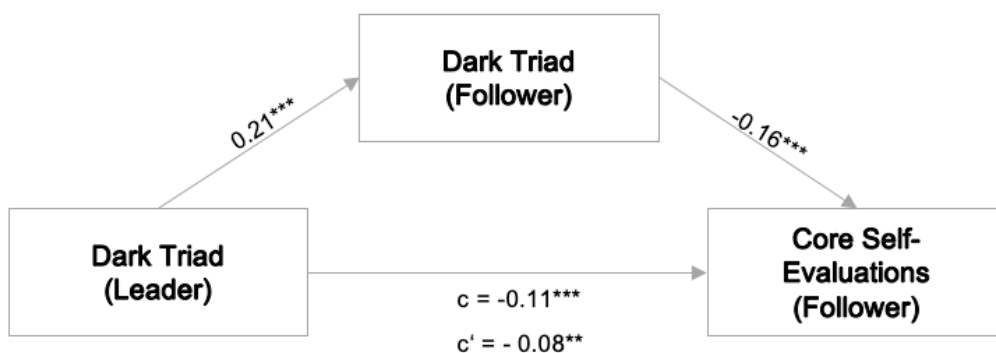


Note. PROCESS Model 4 was applied. Path coefficients indicate unstandardized weights. All paths were controlled for gender and age. For reasons of efficiency, they were not illustrated in this figure.

** indicates $p < .01$. *** indicates $p < .001$.

For the third study, followers' core self-evaluations were examined as the dependent variable. The indirect effect was significant (-0.03, CI [-0.05, -0.02]), indicating another partial mediation was present (see Figure 30 and Table 47). To conclude, Hypothesis 2 was only partially supported.

Figure 30. Mediation Analysis With the Dark Triad of Followers as the Mediator for Study 3



Note. PROCESS Model 4 was applied. Path coefficients indicate unstandardized weights. All paths were controlled for gender and age. For reasons of efficiency, they were not illustrated in this figure.

** indicates $p < .01$. *** indicates $p < .001$.

Table 47. Output Details of the Mediation Analysis for Study 3

Model	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>p</i>	95% CI		Fit
				<i>LL</i>	<i>UL</i>	
Dark Triad Follower						
(Constant)	1.88	0.22	<.001	1.44	2.29	
DT-L	0.21	0.03	<.001	0.15	0.27	
Gender	0.44	0.09	<.001	0.28	0.61	
Age	-0.01	0.01	.15	-0.02	0.004	
						<i>R</i> ² = .13
Core Self-Evaluations						
(Constant)	4.89	0.18	<.001	4.54	5.25	
DT-L	-0.08	0.02	.001	-0.12	-0.03	
DT-F	-0.16	0.04	<.001	-0.23	-0.09	
Gender	0.29	0.07	<.001	0.15	0.43	
Age	0.01	0.01	.01	0.004	0.02	
						<i>R</i> ² = .09

Note. A bootstrap sample of 5,000 and a robust standard error (HC4) were used. *LL* and *UL* indicate the lower and upper limits of a CI. DT-L = Dark Triad leader, DT-F = Dark Triad follower.

5.4.4. Discussion

The comparison of situations, traits and their interactions has been a major theme in personality research over the past decades (Tett & Guterman, 2000). “Personality traits may systematically color the way individuals perceive their world, including their workplace” (Jonason, Wee, et al., 2015, p. 113) is probably a suitable summary of the examinations of this study.

The purpose of this empirical study was the examination of the interplay of leaders and followers and their Dark Triad traits. With regard to the construct of the toxic triangle (Padilla et al., 2007), toxic leaders need a specific type of

employees to be successful, in addition to other contextual factors. As stated by Schneider (1987), particular kinds of individuals are attracted to particular settings.

The results of this study can be interpreted from two sides. First, it is possible that the results follow the assumptions of several theories regarding the similarity of followers and their organization or leaders. From this perspective, it is posited that individuals enter organizations or teams with similar values (Schneider & Smith, 1995) and the degree of similarity influences the outcomes.

From a different perspective, it can also be posited that dark leaders influence their followers, and their characteristics become assimilated over time. In those studies, it was not examined how long leaders and followers had been in the dyadic relationship, so no conclusions can be made on this factor.

The results of the study represent a valuable contribution to understanding the impact of destructive leaders while considering contextual factors. Previous studies have demonstrated that the negative effects of destructive leadership were strengthened under conditions of high-quality leader-member exchanges. High leader member exchange relationships are characterized by a strong identification with the leader, and in turn, followers mimic their leaders' behaviors. This mimicry includes internalizing unethical behavior, which then results in reduced performance and other malpractices (Naseer et al., 2016). LMX theory states that leaders build distinct associations with their followers through a system of exchanges (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995). Contrary to this beneficial view of high-quality LMX, Naseer et al. (2016) were able to show that this relationship can also have harmful effects if the leadership style is abusive.

The results of this overarching study also lend support to concerns previously expressed by Schneider (1987) when describing the ASA framework. He stated that the idea of the framework leads to more homogenous places or organizations in the long run, which may lead to the occupation of an ecological niche, and this can even cause an organizations' failure. When individuals, structures, and processes become adaptive to only a certain type of environment and this environment changes, the organization is no longer viable (Schneider, 1987). In line with this framework, Chatman (1991) illustrated that the fit of people's values to the values of the organization operates as a predictor of satisfaction and individuals' intention to stay or leave the company.

Combined with the findings on leadership derailment due to the Dark Triad of managers as outlined in a previous chapter, the natural cycle of the ASA framework can be dangerous to organizational health (Schneider, 1987).

Overall, the mediation analyses provided additional interesting insights on the role of the Dark Triad of followers. Recent findings on the dark traits of followers have revealed their mediating effect on the relationship between Dark Triad traits of leaders and psychological safety within teams (Elbers et al., 2023b). As previously stated, mediating effects were only found in the first and third studies, in which the work-related basic need satisfaction and core self-evaluations of followers were used as dependent variables. With regard to the above-mentioned theories and frameworks on the similarity of leaders and followers, the results of this doctoral thesis support previous findings for the organizational context. The mediating effect on the core self-evaluations are particularly interesting as they go beyond the organizational context and demonstrate that the Dark Triad of a leader does not only influence factors of the occupational life, but beyond. In summary, the results are in accordance with the findings of Wang et al. (2015), who observed that reactions to destructive leadership can differ among employees based on their own personality characteristics. They are an important influence on the perceptions of, and reactions to such leadership behavior styles.

Nevertheless, those findings did not apply to the examination of the second study, in which overall life satisfaction was the dependent variable. It could be argued that the concept of overall life satisfaction is too wide and the influence of a follower's personality is so small that, for this sample, no mediating effect could be identified, and followers' dark traits were not outlined as underlying mechanisms of the relationship between dark leadership and life satisfaction. As previously outlined, the construct of life satisfaction is also highly dependent on cultural and sociodemographic factors which were not considered at this point.

In total, the results of this study resemble the chicken or the egg causality dilemma because no conclusions can be made on whether followers showed similar characteristics when they entered the company, or whether they assimilated with their leader, or maybe a combination of both.

One of the limitations of this study is the fact that all data for leaders and followers were collected through the same source, i.e. the followers and their

others-assessment regarding their leaders' personality. For an objective examination of the similarity of leaders and followers, self-reports from both sides would have been required. Nevertheless, it can be argued that the perceived characteristics of the leader are more important when individuals decide to enter an organization.

Another limitation is the fact that the duration of the dyadic relationship between leaders and followers was not recorded. The duration of their relationship would have been interesting for further analysis on moderating or mediating effects. It was not identified whether leaders actively selected their followers with dark traits or whether they became leaders of existing teams and their traits were then assimilated. For future research, a focus on this issue is suggested to determine whether dark leaders attract dark followers, or whether dark leaders influence followers in a way of trait assimilation.

For future research, longitudinal research designs are recommended to investigate the dark characteristics of followers and, in particular, whether they change over time when confronted with a destructive leader.

Overall, this study can be seen as a call for more research on the dark traits of followers as it can be assumed that their impact on their leaders has been underestimated and neglected.

VI – DISCUSSION

VI - DISCUSSION

6.1. OVERALL CONCLUSION OF RESULTS

“Of the interpersonal relationships people develop at work none are more important than those employees have with their immediate supervisor” (Tepper et al., 2009, p. 156). For this doctoral thesis, four studies were conducted to contribute to the knowledge of the impact of the Dark triad of personality on follower-related outcomes. From an overarching point of view, in all the four empirical studies, the dependent variable was associated with followers’ satisfaction to some degree. Specifically, the impact of the Dark Triad of leaders was examined regarding their followers’ satisfaction in the workplace, overall life satisfaction, and satisfaction with professional development.

Before outlining theoretical and practical implications, this section provides a summary of the four empirical studies of this doctoral thesis, starting with an overview of the research questions and hypotheses in Tables 48–51, and whether they were supported by statistical analyses.

Table 48. Research Question, Hypotheses, and Outcomes of Study 1

Research Question	Hypotheses	Outcome
How do psychological capital and psychological safety affect the interplay between dark leaders and followers' satisfaction in the workplace?	1) The Dark Triad of leaders is negatively related to the work-related basic need satisfaction of followers.	Supported
	2) Psychological capital is positively related to the perceived psychological safety of followers.	Supported
	3) Psychological capital and psychological safety serially mediate the relationship between the Dark Triad traits of leaders and the work-related basic need satisfaction of followers.	Supported
	4) The indirect effect between the Dark Triad of leaders and the work-related basic need satisfaction of followers across psychological capital and psychological safety is moderated by the Dark Triad level of followers.	Not supported

The first study examined the impact of the Dark Triad of leaders on the basic need satisfaction of followers in the workplace while investigating the potentially mediating roles of psychological capital and psychological safety. Results revealed that both operated as mediators, providing insights into the underlying mechanisms of the relationship between the Dark Triad of leaders and the work-related basic need satisfaction of followers. The findings of this study are twofold: Apart from the mediating effect, results elucidated that the Dark Triad of leaders was negatively associated with both the psychological capital and psychological safety of followers. Thus, results were consistent with previous findings on the effects of destructive leaders on these constructs. Destructive leaders affect followers and their well-being in the workplace at various levels, not only

influencing their optimism, self-efficacy, hope, and resilience (the components of psychological capital), but also the team level, affecting the perceived interpersonal risk in the work environment. Thus, the Dark Triad influences the individual level, the team level, and subsequently, the overall organizational level. At the same time, results showed positive associations between psychological safety and psychological capital with work-related basic need satisfaction. As both are constructs that can be learned, developed, or fostered through training, results underline that organizations should invest in them. The investigation of psychological safety and its interplay with destructive leaders broadens the existing research fields on the role of trust among followers. To conclude, the study's results underline the importance of developing and enhancing followers' psychological capital and maintaining positive team climates, as these factors positively influence work-related basic need satisfaction even in the presence of destructive leaders.

Table 49. Research Question, Hypotheses, and Outcomes of Study 2

Research Question	Hypotheses	Outcome
What are the differences between occupational groups regarding motivation, light and dark traits, overall satisfaction, and, especially, their leaders?	1) The level of dark personality traits of leaders is negatively related to the overall life satisfaction and intrinsic motivation of followers, but positively related to their amotivation.	Supported
	2) The level of agreeableness of followers predicts both their level of Dark Triad traits and their Light Triad.	Supported
	3) The types of motivation according to the Multidimensional Work Motivation Scale differ significantly between individuals from helping and individuals from other professions. Individuals in social jobs have higher levels of intrinsic motivation and lower levels of external regulation compared to individuals in non-social jobs.	Partially supported
	4) In both groups, the more autonomous forms of motivation mediate the relationship between the Dark Triad of leaders and the amotivation of followers.	Supported
	5) Leaders in non-social jobs exhibit higher perceived dark traits than those in social jobs.	Not supported
	6) The four groups differ significantly in their levels of agreeableness, their Dark Triad levels, overall life satisfaction, and the level of the Light Triad of personality for themselves and their leaders.	Partially supported

The second study was divided into different levels of analysis. Examination of the overall sample supported previous findings on the negative relationship between destructive leadership and motivation, and that agreeableness was a predictor of both Dark Triad and Light Triad personality traits, whereas the association with the Dark Triad was negative. The sample was then divided into two major groups according to the occupational setting: One group consisted of individuals working in social jobs, while the other group worked in non-social jobs and did not belong to any form of helping profession. Results revealed that the two groups differed in four out of five forms of motivation derived from SDT. While the group of individuals in social jobs showed higher levels of intrinsic motivation and identified regulation, the other group showed higher levels of external regulation and amotivation. In contrast, they did not significantly differ in their levels of introjected regulation. With reference to previous research on meaningful work experiences, these results did not come as a surprise, as it was assumed that individuals in social jobs experience more meaningful work. As examinations of this overall sample demonstrated that destructive leadership is a predictor of amotivation, the underlying mechanisms for both job groups were examined to clarify which forms of motivation are influenced and harmed by dark leaders, and finally lead to amotivation. For both groups, identified regulation and intrinsic motivation were identified as mediators, representing underlying mechanisms on a motivational level which are affected by dark leaders. These findings are highly relevant for the organizational context as they highlight the harmful effects of dark leaders due to their impact on the most important and high-quality forms of motivation. In brief, it was shown that destructive leaders foster the low-quality types of motivation in terms of amotivation, but negatively influence the more autonomous forms which are relevant for individuals' well-being in the workplace. In contrast to the findings on the types of motivation, the groups did not show significant differences regarding the perceived Dark Triad levels of leaders. Following this, the two sub-samples were split up again, resulting in four groups which were then examined in a MANOVA. The groups were defined according to the job type (social vs. non-social) and the Dark Triad levels of leaders (high vs. low). When examining the four subgroups, one group in particular demonstrated outstanding characteristics. It consisted of individuals in non-social jobs with leaders characterized by high Dark Triad traits. In this group, followers themselves

showed comparatively higher levels of dark traits than those in the other groups. In contrast, their levels of Light Triad traits were rather low as was their life satisfaction. It was concluded that further research is required to shed light on whether they developed dark traits as a reaction to their dark leaders, or if followers catalyzed the development of dark traits within their leaders and therefore represented the origin of the emergence of dark leadership.

Table 50. Research Question, Hypotheses, and Outcomes of Study 3

Research Question	Hypotheses	Outcome
What is the impact of dark leaders on their followers' career success?	1) Intrinsic motivation of followers is positively associated with their career success.	Supported
	2) The Dark Triad of leaders moderates the relationship between intrinsic motivation and career success of followers.	Supported
	3) The relationship between the Dark Triad of leaders and the career success of followers is serially mediated by the core self-evaluations of followers and by their Dark Triad, Light Triad, and intrinsic motivation.	Supported

In the third study, the focus was on followers' satisfaction with the development of their careers. It was outlined that followers' intrinsic motivation was a predictor of success, but this relationship was moderated by the leaders' dark traits. Specifically, higher values of the leaders' Dark Triad traits led to lower associations between followers' intrinsic motivation and their career success. Furthermore, in a serial-parallel mediation model, the underlying mechanisms of the relationship between destructive leadership and the career success of followers were examined. Results revealed that core self-evaluations had a major impact on

the relationship, and in combination with further aspects such as intrinsic motivation, as well as the dark and light personality traits of followers, the effect of destructive leaders on their followers' career success was largely accounted for.

In sum, the third study revealed the impact of dark leaders on followers on a personal level. Such leaders not only influence the career development of followers and their progress within the organization but also their inner core self-evaluations including self-esteem, generalized self-efficacy, locus of control, and emotional stability. Thus, destructive leadership factors not only affect the organizational context but also extend beyond it, thus rendering these influences even more harmful in the long term.

Table 51. Research Question, Hypotheses, and Outcomes of Study 4

Research Question	Hypotheses	Outcome
What are the effects of the Dark Triad traits of followers with regard to the Dark Triad of their leaders?	1) The Dark Triad of leaders predicts the Dark Triad of followers.	Supported
	2) The Dark Triad of followers mediates the relationship between the Dark Triad of leaders and positive outcomes such as satisfaction and core self-evaluations, in the organizational context and beyond.	Partially supported

Finally, the fourth study was not based on a separate data collection, but instead referred to the data of the previous empirical studies. In all the studies, the Dark Triad traits of leaders and of followers were measured, thus allowing an overall examination of their interaction. For this purpose, regression and mediation analyses were conducted, and the results demonstrated that leaders' traits predicted followers' traits. Furthermore, followers' dark traits operated as mediators for the impact of the Dark Triad traits of leaders in the workplace and beyond. Specifically, followers' dark traits mediated the relationship between the Dark Triad traits of leaders and work-related basic need satisfaction of followers,

as well as the relationship between the Dark Triad traits of leaders and followers' core self-evaluations. Thus, the results highlight the role of followers' traits when examining the impact of destructive leaders in the organizational context.

The results can be interpreted in two ways. On the one hand, it can be assumed that individuals are attracted to organizations or teams with similar values. On the other hand, as dark leaders influence their followers, it is possible that over time, their traits and values assimilate. For the empirical study in this doctoral thesis, no information was collected on how long the leader-follower dyads had existed, so it is not possible to draw a firm conclusion on this issue. Either way, this study emphasized the importance of considering dark traits, not only within leaders but also within followers.

6.2. THEORETICAL AND PRACTICAL IMPLICATIONS

As stated before, destructive traits often coexist with socially desirable skills, making them hard to detect in hiring processes (R. Hogan & Kaiser, 2005; Rauthmann, 2012). In testing situations, such as job interviews or employment testing, individuals with elevated levels of the Dark Triad traits are prone to provide socially desirable responses; they are more skilled in faking than other individuals and feel more comfortable with this behavior. Thus, as outlined in the course of this thesis, dark personalities are a nearly unavoidable reality in organizations. The above-mentioned focused on the follower level and explored which follower-related factors, such as motivation, psychological capital, psychological safety, or their own personality traits, affect the interaction of leaders and followers.

In the literature on occupational health psychology, the JD-R model (Demerouti et al., 2001) represents an overarching model, assuming that occupational risk factors associated with stress or burnout can be classified into the two categories of job demands and job resources. It also assumes that individuals are likely to develop burnout symptoms when certain job demands are high and job resources are limited. Nevertheless, it was demonstrated that job resources may buffer the negative impact of job demands, while social support, a high-quality relationship with the leader, and performance feedback were well-known variables

with buffering potential (Bakker et al., 2005). Leadership was integrated into the model more than a decade after its development, and it was outlined that it can activate both motivational and stress processes (Schaufeli, 2015). As illustrated throughout this doctoral thesis, leaders and their behaviors can have a detrimental impact on their followers' motivation, well-being, and more. Destructive leadership leads to decreased job satisfaction, increased absenteeism, and psychological distress, and ultimately, intention to leave the company (Labrague et al., 2020).

As leaders with dark personality traits are hard to detect during the hiring process, they manage to enter organizations where they inflict damage on the organization, the followers, and shareholders. Despite the knowledge on destructive leadership, it remains difficult to build teams or organizations without members with toxic traits as a high proportion of people have them. Teams may be able to tolerate one toxic individual but will be harmed if there are several of them. Nevertheless, it appears that the more knowledge available about the managers' styles, the easier it is to assign them to positions in which they can thrive instead of harming the organization (Lubit, 2004).

Summing up the findings of this doctoral thesis and considering previous findings in literature, several implications can be drawn:

As a theoretical implication, the empirical results of this thesis call for another expansion of the JD-R model that further specifies the aspect of personal resources to be included in the model. In light of these findings, the JD-R model may be expanded in several ways:

On an individual level, the construct of psychological capital, personality traits such as agreeableness, and core self-evaluations should be integrated, as well as high-quality forms of motivation. All these aspects were adversely affected by destructive leaders, however, they also demonstrated associations with positive outcomes in each of the empirical studies.

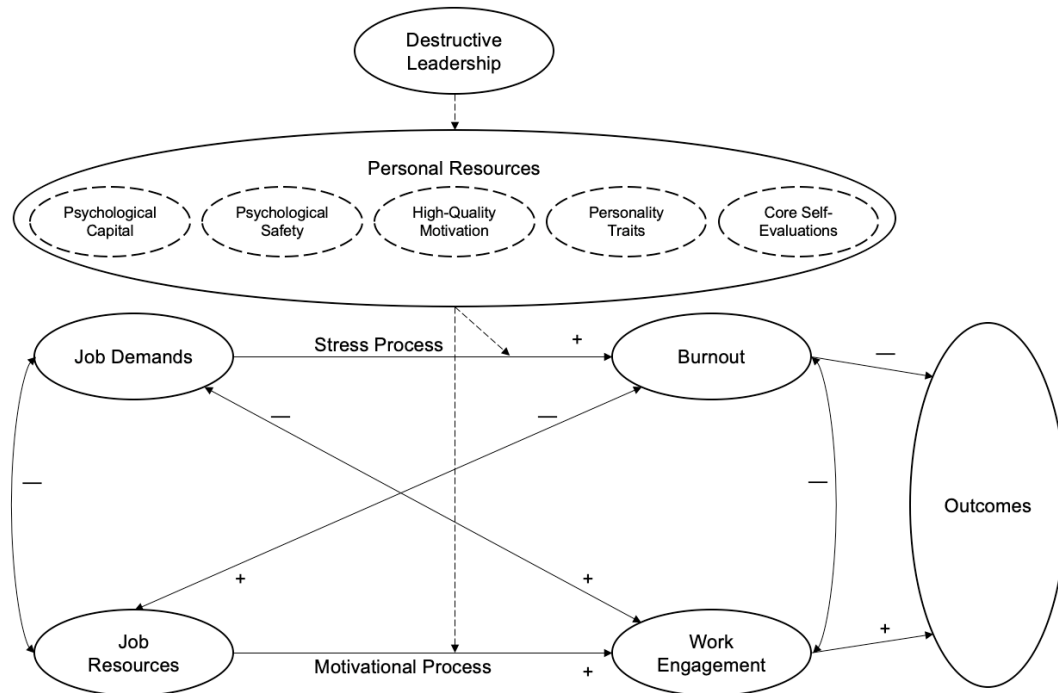
On a team-level, psychological safety was demonstrated to have a positive impact on workplace satisfaction, despite being affected by destructive leaders. Previous research on the JD-R model has already emphasized the importance of integrating personal resources into the model, such as social support, a positive relationship with the leader, and performance feedback (Bakker et al., 2005), as well

as self-esteem, organizational-based self-esteem, and optimism (Xanthopoulou et al., 2007). However, these previous investigations on personal resources used slightly different constructs, which were not identical to the constructs of this doctoral thesis.

With reference to the integration of leadership into the JD-R model nearly a decade ago (Schaufeli, 2015) and the ambiguity as to whether it is better represented as a job demand or a job resource, it should be noted that destructive leaders evidently represent job demands due to their detrimental effects on subordinates.

In summary, the overarching results of the empirical studies support their inclusion in the expanded JD-R model. The following Figure 31 incorporates the results of the empirical studies from this doctoral thesis.

Figure 31. Expanded JD-R Model According to the Findings of the Empirical Studies



Note. Expansion of the JD-R Model with reference to the results derived from the empirical studies of the doctoral thesis. Further personal resources were added to the model. Parts of this expanded model were adapted from "Engaging leadership in the job demands-resources model", by W. B. Schaufeli, 2015, *Career Development International*, 20(5), p. 447 (DOI: 10.1108/CDI-02-2015-0025). Copyright by Emerald Group Publishing Limited. Reprinted with permission.

On the basis of the theoretical implications with reference to the JD-R model, numerous practical implications can be derived.

Overall, the question remains as to which preventive measures can be applied in order to curb the emergence of leadership styles and their harmful effects. Although considerable research on destructive or toxic leadership exists, little contains practical recommendations on how to prepare for the impact of undetected destructive leaders in the organization. According to Goldman (2008), organizations must implement their own remedial approach to detect and solve toxicity problems, provide training for leaders and followers on emotional intelligence and mental disorders, designate managers as detectors and handlers

for toxic leaders, review the organization's guidelines for workplace problems, and determine annual performance appraisals for each individual.

According to previous research, team support is essential for a leader's vision to be implemented as the superiority of group decisions overrule individual decisions. Also, a culture of integrity fosters high-performing organizations, and a set of values as well as a code of behavior ensure appropriate behavior. Furthermore, researchers recommend establishing a network of peers for feedback and guidance, as leaders must encourage alternative perspectives even from the rebels in the group. Bearing this in mind, leaders should determine what stakeholders value, and adapt to new information, as well as cultivating personal awareness to balance intuition with data, confidence with context, and their personal needs with the greater good (Allio, 2007). As already stated by Edmondson (1999), teams are crucial for providing psychological safety for individuals in organizations. Consequently, organizations should promote psychological safety as it positively influences team performance.

As factors such as psychological capital and psychological safety have emerged as important contributors for employees' well-being, organizations are advised to adopt employee-oriented measures to value their contributions and foster a culture of trust and care. The findings in this doctoral thesis were in line with recent research on the important role of stable personal resources and individual characteristics as antecedents of work engagement. Individuals with salient levels of personal resources, such as psychological capital, are likely to appraise their ability to achieve their work targets, have trust in good outcomes, and believe that they can meet their needs by fulfilling their organizational roles (Mazzetti et al., 2023). In line with this, psychological capital has become a theoretically and practically relevant phenomenon due to the increased importance of learning and innovation in today's organizations (Edmondson & Lei, 2014).

Based on positive psychology literature, organizations can exhibit appreciation for employees' contributions particularly by implementing beneficial treatment such as fair resource distribution, supervisor support, organizational rewards, and desirable job conditions in terms of work-life balance practices. In turn, such measures will lead to favorable outcomes, such as job satisfaction and positive moods for employees, and affective commitment and lessened withdrawal

tendencies among employees, benefiting the organization (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002).

Research has also reported different forms of coping strategies among employees who are confronted with toxic leaders. Coping strategies include seeking social support, ruminating, challenging the leader, taking leave, or even leaving the organization. Among those who remain in the organization, chronic health issues, long-term harm, and learned helplessness have been reported. Organizational representatives play a crucial important role in supporting employees affected by toxic leadership when their assistance is sought. It is even recommended to implement proactive organizational training programs to focus on more effective coping strategies, and to provide social and professional support. Such training might equip employees with the skills required to prevent them from harm (Webster et al., 2016).

Increasing research based on SDT provided an important basis for insights on individuals' flourishing. SDT assumes that all human beings have basic psychological needs that are required for their flourishing, even in the workplace (Vansteenkiste et al., 2008). As stated previously, all the studies for this doctoral thesis were conducted during different stages of the COVID-19 pandemic. During this pandemic, people's daily routines were often ruptured which, from a Self-Determination theory perspective, potentially led to impeding the satisfaction of their psychological needs for autonomy, relatedness, and competence, in everyday life as well as in the workplace. Examinations on these circumstances revealed that felt insecurity, need satisfaction as well as need frustration, independently predicted not only positive indicators such as life satisfaction, but also negative ones such as depressive symptoms and anxiety. Hence, need satisfaction should not be neglected in times of crisis as need frustration represents a risk factor for maladjustment during such periods (Vermote et al., 2021).

As illustrated in previous research, daily job resources in terms of supervisor coaching or team atmosphere contribute to followers' levels of optimism, self-efficacy, and self-esteem, thus resulting in higher engagement (Bakker & Oerlemans, 2012), which is in line with the findings on psychological safety outlined before.

As mentioned previously, leadership was included into the JD-R model of burnout, stating that it can trigger both motivational and stress processes (Schaufeli, 2015). Furthermore, it was demonstrated that certain job resources can buffer the negative impact of job demands, and social support was demonstrated as one potential job resource for this purpose. The message for organizations is that employees should be provided with adequate resources to cope with their specific job demands. Nevertheless, this does not necessarily only require an enhancement of resources, but also that jobs should be designed in a manner that enables employees to fulfill their job demands without harming their health (Bakker et al., 2005).

Apart from all these measures which refer to employees and their personal resources, it must not be neglected that an organization's aim should always be to detect and prevent destructive leaders from entering the organization. In the worst-case scenario, destructive leadership can lead to staff turnover and can represent serious challenges at all organizational levels and even across industries (L. J. Hayes et al., 2012).

It therefore appears essential to implement improved and evidence-based screening measures. In view of the overarching results of this doctoral thesis, it can be clearly seen that the Dark Triad of personality is not a problem of vocational niches, but of all industries and it has considerable effects on individuals. Hence, the question as to arises why leaders with dark personality are not detected and eliminated in the selection and recruiting processes. Previous research found that narcissists succeed in making positive first impressions but fail in the long run, and peer-rankings deteriorate. Machiavellians are good at faking during selection processes, along with psychopaths who are masters of impression management and manipulating others for their own purpose (LeBreton et al., 2018). Another reason is, as illustrated before, the fact that dark traits often coexist with socially desirable traits, which makes the dark traits harder to detect (R. Hogan & Kaiser, 2005; Rauthmann, 2012). Another quite relevant reason is the occurrence of a confirmation bias when the decisions on the personnel selection methods are made. As outlined by Kanning et al. (2023), there is a high discrepancy between science and practice which leads to a rare usage of scientifically valid selection methods. Generally, confirmation bias describes a distorted form of information processing.

Individuals process information in a manner which leads to a reconfirmation of their pre-existing beliefs. They particularly seek information that confirms their opinion, while contradictory information is avoided, and if they cannot be avoided, they are devaluated or considered implausible. Transferring these findings to organizations and their selection methods, this form of bias represents an explanation why personnel selection methods are not adjusted or optimized over time. The scientific knowledge on certain selection methods is unpopular and their effects are underrated. This bias is further reinforced by the mere exposure effect, which suggests that less familiar methods are often evaluated more negatively. The confirmation bias and the mere exposure effect mutually reinforce each other, leading to a lack of change in the world of personnel selection methods (Kanning et al., 2023). Given these circumstances, it is strongly recommended to implement new selection methods and diagnostic measures to detect destructive leaders and potentially harmful personality traits in advance of them being considered for employment.

Summing up the aforesaid, it becomes apparent that aversive personality traits are often hard to detect as they often coexist with socially desirable skills, but at the same time, due to confirmation bias, selection processes in organizations often adhere to conventional or presumably well-established methods when recruiting new personnel. As outlined in the chapter on the conceptualization, it is not always necessary to apply long psychometric measures in selection processes as short scales such as the Short Dark Triad (D. N. Jones & Paulhus, 2014) or the Dirty Dozen (Jonason & Webster, 2010) have been developed to avoid factors such as respondent fatigue. In light of this, the findings of this doctoral thesis represent an urgent appeal for more innovation and evidence-based methods in selection processes.

To conclude, recommendations for organizations seem to be multifaceted and of course, there is no panacea for issues concerning leaders with high scores on the Dark Triad. First, organizations may focus on leadership development programs to ensure their leaders learn how to maintain their employees' well-being in the workplace. With reference to previous empirical findings, engaging leaders fulfill their followers' basic psychological needs and therefore foster their motivation and work engagement. It is therefore recommendable to create leaders

who strengthen, empower, and connect their followers (Rahmadani & Schaufeli, 2020; Schaufeli, 2015). In this context, the construct of servant leadership (Van Dierendonck, 2011) appears as a promising leadership style that meets most of these requirements. If leaders are generally not aware of their behavior and characteristics perceived by their followers, changing these behavioral tendencies may represent a formidable task for those individuals. This subsequently calls for self-awareness among leaders (Jacobsen & Bøgh Andersen, 2015). When it comes to leadership development, researchers focus particularly on standard measures such as 360-degree feedback by peers, executive coaching, mentoring, networking, job assignments, and action learning (Day, 2000).

Overall, it appears relevant to create and sustain leaders that meet high moral standards. As illustrated by Howell and Avolio (1992), a culture of ethical responsibility depends on recruiting and promoting leaders with moral standards and their commitment to a clearly stated code of conduct for the organization. Leaders need to be provided with training on the maintenance of interpersonal relationships, and on the social skills and motivation required to demonstrate ethical leadership behavior. This training needs to be in line with the organization's values and beliefs. Furthermore, organizations need individuals who exemplify moral standards, and it is essential for top management to recognize and exemplify these individuals, this being crucial to the long-term success.

Aligning with the conclusions of Schaufeli (2015), organizations need to focus on the improvement of job resources in their organizational environment as opposed to reducing job demands. In this context, job demands can be caused by destructive leaders as they affect stress processes within individuals and can finally lead to burn out. Increasing job resources appears more efficient as it is not always necessary to hire more staff in order to diminish the workload for each individual. Instead, increasing performance feedback, possibilities for learning and development, and the participation in the decision-making process can foster job resources for employees.

Very similar to the previously illustrated ASA framework, the so-called person-organization fit emerges when the values of the organization and the employee are congruent. This fit can be moderated by personality traits, for example a specific openness to influence (Chatman, 1989). In previous research, it

was suggested that organizations may attempt to find the best fit between leaders and followers when forming teams. If possible, they should also consider factors such as levels of core self-evaluations among followers as the ones with lower levels are more vulnerable. As this will not always be feasible, followers, especially the vulnerable ones, should be provided with organizational support in terms of mentors or networks to voice their concerns and feelings (Nevicka et al., 2018). From a preventative perspective, organizations should invest in training programs on increasing factors such as psychological capital and core self-evaluations, making them more resilient to dark leaders.

To conclude, and as already suggested by Ong et al. (2016), leadership research would benefit from a shift from the focus on leadership emergence to leadership effectiveness in recruitment processes. This recruitment awareness would increase the chance of selecting the “right” leaders that leave a sustainable positive impression and enhance organizational stability.

6.3. LIMITATIONS AND SUGGESTIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

As each empirical study had its own section on limitations and future research, this chapter focuses on the most relevant and overarching limitations before providing suggestions for future research.

In line with the majority of existing studies on the Dark Triad of personality, the studies of this doctoral thesis had a cross-sectional design which, however, limits the conclusions regarding causality. Among the limitations of these studies is also the reliance on a single source for all measurements (Podsakoff et al., 2012). Thus, common method bias cannot be completely ruled out.

Also, a major part of the data was collected through self-reports and only the data on the leaders were collected through others-assessments by followers. Thus, common method variance or social desirability might have influenced the results. As participants rated both their leaders’ and their own personality traits, their responses might have been particularly influenced by factors such as social desirability. In organizational research, soliciting respondents’ perceptions of an external variable such as supervisors’ behaviors are often based on self-reports, i.e.

the perceptions of employees. This leads to bias problems, and, depending on the field of research, it should be noted that they are in fact not verifiable by other means (Podsakoff & Organ, 1986). This study is similar to other examinations using self-reports in that the ever-present problem of social desirability can cause participants to exaggerate ratings of their own positive outcomes and also suppress dark-side variables (Furnham & Treglown, 2021). This limitation must be considered when evaluating participants' self-reports of their own Dark Triad traits.

For the empirical studies of this doctoral thesis, individuals' perceptions of their leaders' dark traits were at the core of the analysis and therefore, the decision was made to collect data on the Dark Triad traits of leaders through others-assessments by their followers as their perceptions are highly relevant for the organizational context (Jacobsen & Bøgh Andersen, 2015). Furthermore, it was empirically demonstrated that certain psychological mechanisms may lead to leaders overrating themselves compared to employee ratings (Atwater & Yammarino, 1992), emphasizing the importance of employees' perceptions instead of using self-reported data of leaders. However, there is always the possibility that the viewpoint of followers might be influenced by their role and their dependent status. Therefore, it is recommended to compare the perceptions of followers with those of others, such as colleagues and other superiors (Ashforth, 1997). For future research, it is therefore recommended to conduct studies within teams to collect more data on one leader from multiple sources (Atwater & Yammarino, 1992).

As previously mentioned, measures were applied to reduce the risk of common method variance and were described in the chapters on the empirical studies. It cannot be denied that leaders' traits could have also been measured through their own self-reports, and that more information on the leaders would have been beneficial for the examinations; however, this would have required a dyadic research design. Still, there would have been the problem of social desirability causing an upward shift in the distribution of responses (Podsakoff & Organ, 1986). Also, a dyadic research design would have led to the risk of numerous incomplete datasets, and would have reduced the aforementioned economic benefits of cross-sectional studies. Consequently, and despite the

problems caused by self-report measures, the practical utility of this type of measurement outweighed the risks for the aim of this doctoral thesis.

Another limitation is that a considerable number of participants took part on a voluntary basis without any compensation as they were simply addressed by the author of the thesis to participate in the investigation. Voluntary participation might lead to subject fatigue more quickly as there is no incentive to continue (Jonason et al., 2012). Thus, from the second study onwards, the questionnaires were made available to student samples which received credit as a form of compensation.

When considering limitations of the empirical studies, weaknesses of the Dirty Dozen cannot be ignored. Details on the decision to choose the Dirty Dozen were outlined in the previous chapter on the conceptualization of the empirical studies. As stated by Muris et al. (2017), the strength of associations between normal personality traits and the Dark Triad varied considerably across the applied measures, so the findings in this doctoral thesis could differ when using the SD3 instead of the Dirty Dozen in future research. Nevertheless, both of these short measures are not capable of assessing all aspects of the three traits compared to the original questionnaires. Due to reasons of test economy, the Dirty Dozen was used across all the studies of this thesis, although the conciseness of such short scales comes at the cost of an indexing of the trait with the strongest explanatory power (Muris et al., 2017).

Some studies on the Dark Triad seem to claim to have fully captured the malevolent side of human nature with the constellation of the Dark Triad of personality as initially described by Paulhus and Williams (2002). However, as illustrated in the chapter on the theoretical foundations, there is no absolute consensus on the core of the Dark Triad, its relations with other personality traits, other personality constructs, or the distinctiveness of the individual traits. Thus, for this entire doctoral thesis, it cannot be claimed that the malevolent side of humans was fully captured.

Another limitation is the lack of more detailed data on the leaders in all the empirical studies. The data on their Dark Triad traits were collected through others-assessments, which exclusively included the evaluation of personality traits. No further questions were asked about the leaders which led to limited opportunities

of interpretation. For future research, it is recommended to at least collect data on the gender, ideally also on age, and factors such as years in leadership to analyze leader-related factors in more detail. With reference to missing data on leaders, it is to be noted that all the studies dealt with followers' perceptions of their leaders and their dark traits, but leaders' own perceptions were neglected. For future examinations, dyadic or nested models are recommended, particularly for further research on the interplay of dark traits among teams and on the mutual perceptions of leaders and followers.

Regarding the empirical studies in this doctoral thesis, it is important to be aware of the period of data collection and the interplay of psychological needs, their frustration, and potential consequences. According to Diener et al. (2006), well-being also depends on context and situational factors, and can change over time. Situational variables can influence how individuals respond to mediators in their environment. In all three studies, positive outcomes were measured as the dependent variable, either work-related or regarding overall life satisfaction. It must not be overlooked that participants were influenced by the COVID-19 crisis and its impact on everyday life. Hence, this unknown impact of the COVID-19 pandemic on the data of all three studies represents another limitation affecting each empirical study. As none of the studies included questions on current restrictions or influences on participants due to the pandemic, it was not possible to examine the strength of this influence. As mentioned before, all data were collected between February 2022 and August 2023, so in all cases, the pandemic still affected the everyday lives of participants, although implications varied in their intensity during the pandemic. Apart from restrictions in their private lives, the pandemic also changed the way people worked, professional relationships, team dynamics, and the overall functioning of organizations. One of the biggest changes was due to remote work, which was perhaps the most significant impact on human relationships at the workplace. Under normal circumstances, leaders are responsible for assigning work to their subordinates, providing feedback on a regular basis, developing subordinates, and evaluating their work. Thus, the leaders' role is crucial for their success (Varma et al., 2022).

From a research perspective, the pandemic can be considered a global health crisis characterized by unprecedented speed, which brought out the best and the

worst in leaders. Throughout the pandemic, it became clear that many leaders not only failed to foster hope, but instead engaged in selfish and destructive actions. Generally, crises represent events that disrupt a social system's activities and relationships, while typically involving a high degree of uncertainty. Thus, the global pandemic was a global crisis par excellence. Examinations on political leaders were transferred to the leadership context and identified narcissism as one of the dangerous fault lines of leadership, especially in times of crisis. According to literature, narcissistic leaders tend to be highly ineffective because they fail to maintain social ties and to motivate stakeholders toward a sustainable crisis response. Overall, the pandemic demonstrated that leaders must play numerous roles as demanded by their specific situation. Ideally, leadership is supposed to focus on the well-being of others and not about the leaders themselves. Thus, in times of crisis, they need to be agile in changing effectively and to make decisions while facing extreme situations (Maak et al., 2021).

It is therefore a clear limitation of this thesis that none of the studies considered or analyzed the potential impact of the pandemic. As outlined by literature, the pandemic did have an impact on leader-follower relationships. However, regarding the empirical studies of this doctoral thesis, it was not possible to draw conclusions from the participants' data regarding the specific impact the pandemic had had on their specific job situations and the interplay with destructive leaders. Given the timing of the studies, one can only assume that the pandemic had had various effects, to a greater or a lesser degree, in both participants' private and professional lives. In an attempt to stop the progress of the pandemic, many global governments decided to implement lockdown measures across various fields of life. Organizations faced massive challenges as they were suddenly forced to implement a home office policy wherever possible. This shift to a new era of work was generally met with positive reactions by those affected due to the elimination of commuting time, more flexibility regarding working hours, and an increase in productivity. Nevertheless, negative impacts included feelings of isolation, a tendency to overwork, and a decrease in the frequency of communication and interaction (Schreier et al., 2022). Despite all its negative consequences, the pandemic offered a new field of research for organizational health psychology. Research on the pandemic often refers to LMX, which represents the development and promotion of relationships between leaders and

followers. With regard to the fact that many employees now work remotely, another limitation in this context is that participants did not have to provide information on whether they worked remotely, as this would have been an interesting variable to consider when examining the underlying mechanisms of destructive leadership and leader-follower relationships.

According to the findings of Schreier et al. (2022), remote work did not negatively influence the level of respect, trust, and mutual obligations between leaders and followers, at least not for those who had had well-established relationships before the start of the pandemic. Communication was identified as an important tool in maintaining high-quality relationships and high levels of trust.

As summarized by Varma et al. (2022), LMX states that some followers develop high-quality relationships with their leaders and profit from more attention and higher ratings, while others get less attention, poorer assignments, and lower ratings. Hence, it is true that leaders often have in-groups and out-groups of subordinates, and research shows that they engender interpersonal liking and attraction among in-group individuals. Also, in-group members were found to show OCB, reduced dissatisfaction, turnover, and even committed themselves to higher work involvement. In the context of remote work which became necessary during the pandemic, occupational relationships underwent several evolutionary modifications as most of the regular interactions were transferred to online meetings, with the result that body language and other non-verbal cues in communication were possibly distorted. In such work environments, a high-quality LMX and the leader's frequent communication can motivate followers by acknowledging their contributions thereby strengthening their psychological connection. Nevertheless, remote work often led to fewer opportunities for interaction, which in turn could lead to the development of different types of relationships. In this context, the location itself emerged as a moderating factor of the frequency of interactions and influenced the quality of relationships that developed between leaders and followers (Varma et al., 2022). It is therefore another limitation of the studies that no information was collected on working environments such as remote work or whether followers had to exclusively rely on virtual communication methods with their leaders.

Overall, for future research, longitudinal studies and the inclusion of more complex measurement methods are suggested. Particularly followers' well-being should be measured with more robust methods. The rapid development of portable physiological measures in terms of wearable technologies could provide a significant contribution to research as data collection can be simplified and allow the consideration of well-being at a physiological level in research on leadership and its impact on employee well-being (Inceoglu et al., 2018). Also, researchers should additionally focus on cultural differences when examining the impact of destructive leaders. As an example, it was previously outlined that satisfaction often depends on sociocultural factors (Diener et al., 2002). The questionnaires of the empirical studies in this doctoral thesis were only available in German, and no information was collected on cultural backgrounds of participants, thus limiting the informative value on the impact of culture in the empirical studies. With reference to the findings of O'Boyle et al. (2012), who stated that more collectivistic organizational cultures were less vulnerable to destructive leaders, future research should consider both the sociocultural as well as the organizational culture when examining dark leaders and their impact.

Furthermore, across all studies, there was a discrepancy in the representation between men and women. Although the discrepancy was not large, genders were not equally distributed. This disbalance is common for online and volunteer studies (Lukić & Živanović, 2021), but future research should take a more balanced focus on investigations on the effects of destructive leadership.

It can be concluded that the samples used in this doctoral thesis were reasonable representatives of the target group and of corporate personnel. Nevertheless, the extent to which the above-mentioned findings can be generalized to other contexts is a matter for future research. It was not possible to consider all variables that may be related to destructive leadership and its outcomes. Particularly in the second study, collecting data from individuals in social occupations was challenging. However, considerable effort was dedicated to the recruiting process and several institutions were contacted. In line with previous studies with relatively small samples, those types of employees are hard to attain and therefore difficult to examine. For future research, it therefore seems only partially realistic to suggest examinations with larger samples, as they would be

difficult to attain. Apart from this, subsequent cross-sectional studies to replicate the recent findings appear more realistic. When replicating studies on different job types and their interplay with destructive leadership, it is also advisable to explore the different jobs and industries in greater detail. As previously stated, this was not deemed purposeful in this study as the sample of individuals in social jobs was relatively small and more than a third was represented by hospital staff, making the other social jobs too underrepresented for detailed analysis.

Another aspect to consider is the mean age of participants in the different studies. The sample of the third study was comparatively young, so participants might not have had as much job experience as in those other groups. The sample of the third study was mostly recruited among occupational students which provides an explanation for the comparatively low mean age.

Regarding suggestions for future research, two theoretical constructs in particular should be considered: trait activation theory and Affective Events Theory. Regarding interactional psychology, individuals can behave consistently across various situations. Having stated that, situations can cause different individuals to behave in a similar way. According to Tett and Guterman (2000), personality traits are “intraindividually consistent and interindividually distinct propensities to behave in some identifiable way” (p. 398). Thus, the question arises as to which situations promote specific actions. The principle of trait activation states that “the behavioral expression of a trait requires arousal of that trait by trait-relevant situational cues. It offers a link to classic behaviorism [...] by considering traits as differential response tendencies” (Tett & Guterman, 2000, p. 398). Considering the empirical studies of this doctoral thesis, the specific situations or environmental factors of the participants were not gathered in the data sets with the exception of job types and branches in the second and third studies. Although these variables were not explicitly part of the research questions, it has to be taken into account in which situations the respondents were at the time of participation. Nevertheless, trait activation theory also states that trait expression is influenced by the degree of the relevance with respect to the targeted trait (Tett & Guterman, 2000). Although trait activation theory generally states that traits are unlikely to change, their expression can be influenced by the context and environment in which individuals operate. Dark traits in particular, and their perception have been

found to be influenced by followers' characteristics such as their self-esteem (Barelds et al., 2018) or overall core self-evaluations (Nevicka et al., 2018). In sum, this is another appeal to collect more data on the overall situation of participants when examining the impact of their leaders.

In the second study, the overall well-being of the participants was a central part of investigation. The empirical studies of this doctoral thesis were collected between February 2022 and August 2023. Thus, they were conducted during the COVID-19 pandemic, which entailed massive restrictions and changes for most individuals. As a result, the situation trait relevance appears neglected in the data. Situations are considered relevant to a trait if "it is thematically connected by the provision of cues, responses to which (or lack of responses to which) indicate a person's standing on the trait" (Tett & Burnett, 2003, p. 502).

Finally, with reference to Affective Events Theory (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996), another factor that was not examined in the above studies is the environment or the general circumstances of the subjects in which they took part in the examinations. The data for the first study were collected from February until March 2022, the data for the second study from October 2022 until January 2023, and the third dataset compiled from May until August 2023. Germany and other European countries were facing severe challenges during these periods, so it can be assumed that the life of participants was affected in some way. During the first data collection, the COVID-19 pandemic caused severe restrictions in terms of lockdowns, and the reduction of social interaction. Additionally, the Russian attacks on Ukraine started in February 2022, so war in Europe has been an influential factor. In the pre-tests of all studies, participants were able to comment anonymously, and provide recommendations for improvement. For the first and the second study in particular, some of the participants commented that they would have answered questions on their well-being differently (in the workplace as well as generally) if the environmental and political situations had been better. Thus, those factors cannot be canceled out completely. According to Affective Events Theory, emotions in the workplace and affective reactions can be influenced by a variety of factors. The theory states that things happen to individuals in occupational settings, and they often react emotionally, and these affective experiences may have direct influences on job satisfaction. Within the framework,

a variety of environmental factors influence affect levels and subsequently mood levels, which in turn have consequences on organizational behaviors (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996) . The framework initially focused on work events, but further research has stressed that both job-related and non-job-related events can trigger emotional states at work (Weiss & Beal, 2005). Hence, in line with Affective Events Theory, it can be assumed that the environmental factors as a global pandemic and war in Europe might have influenced participants' moods and response behavior. Apart from the pandemic as a specific example, future research would generally benefit from collecting more data on participants' overall well-being at the time of their participation. This would allow researchers to examine in more detail which life domains are more or less vulnerable to destructive leadership.

VII – BIBLIOGRAPHICAL REFERENCES

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VIII – APPENDICES

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APPENDIX 1: Scales of Study 1

The Dark Triad of managers was measured with the German version of the Dirty Dozen (Küfner et al., 2014); used for others-assessments; English version by Jonason and Webster (2010); English items in italics

1. Meine Führungskraft neigt dazu, andere zu manipulieren, um ihren Willen durchzusetzen.
My manager tends to manipulate others to get his or her way.
2. Meine Führungskraft neigt dazu, keine Gewissensbisse zu haben.
My manager tends to lack remorse.
3. Meine Führungskraft neigt dazu, von anderen bewundert werden zu wollen.
My manager tends to want others to admire him or her.
4. Meine Führungskraft hat getäuscht oder gelogen, um ihren Willen durchzusetzen.
My manager has used deceit or lied to get his or her way.
5. Meine Führungskraft neigt dazu, sich nicht um die Moral ihrer Handlungen zu kümmern.
My manager tends to be unconcerned with the morality of his or her actions.
6. Meine Führungskraft neigt dazu, von anderen beachtet werden zu wollen.
My manager tends to want others to pay attention to him or her.
7. Meine Führungskraft hat Schmeicheleien genutzt, um ihren Willen durchzusetzen.
My manager has used flattery to get his or her way.
8. Meine Führungskraft neigt dazu, gefühllos oder unsensibel zu sein.
My manager tends to be callous or insensitive.

9. Meine Führungskraft neigt dazu, nach Ansehen oder Status zu streben.

My manager tends to seek prestige or status.

10. Meine Führungskraft neigt dazu, andere für ihre Zwecke auszunutzen.

My manager tends to exploit others towards his or her own end.

11. Meine Führungskraft neigt dazu, zynisch zu sein.

My manager tends to be cynical.

12. Meine Führungskraft neigt dazu, besondere Gefälligkeiten von anderen zu erwarten.

My manager tends to expect special favors from others.

The Dark Triad of employees was measured with the German version of the Dirty Dozen (Küfner et al., 2014); English version by Jonason and Webster (2010); English items in italics

1. Ich neige dazu, andere zu manipulieren, um meinen Willen durchzusetzen.
I tend to manipulate others to get my way.
2. Ich neige dazu, keine Gewissensbisse zu haben.
I tend to lack remorse.
3. Ich neige dazu, von anderen bewundert werden zu wollen.
I tend to want others to admire me.
4. Ich habe getäuscht oder gelogen, um meinen Willen durchzusetzen.
I have used deceit or lied to get my way.
5. Ich neige dazu, mich nicht um die Moral meiner Handlungen zu kümmern.
I tend to be unconcerned with the morality of my actions.
6. Ich neige dazu, von anderen beachtet werden zu wollen.
I tend to want others to pay attention to me.
7. Ich habe Schmeicheleien genutzt, um meinen Willen durchzusetzen.
I have used flattery to get my way.
8. Ich neige dazu, gefühllos oder unsensibel zu sein.
I tend to be callous or insensitive.
9. Ich neige dazu, nach Ansehen oder Status zu streben.
I tend to seek prestige or status.
10. Ich neige dazu, andere für meine Zwecke auszunutzen.
I tend to exploit others towards my own end.
11. Ich neige dazu, zynisch zu sein.
I tend to be cynical.
12. Ich neige dazu, besondere Gefälligkeiten von anderen zu erwarten.
I tend to expect special favors from others.

Work-related basic need satisfaction was measured with the Work-related Basic Need Satisfaction Scale (W-BNS) by Van den Broeck et al.(2010); items were translated from English to German following the guidelines by Brislin (1970); English items in italics

1. Ich fühle mich bei meiner Arbeit nicht wirklich mit anderen Menschen verbunden. (R)
I don't really feel connected with other people at my job. (R)
2. Bei der Arbeit fühle ich mich als Teil der Gruppe.
At work, I feel part of the group.
3. Ich verkehre bei meiner Arbeit nicht wirklich mit anderen Menschen. (R)
I don't really mix with other people at my job. (R)
4. Bei der Arbeit kann ich mit Menschen über Dinge sprechen, die mir wirklich wichtig sind.
At work, I can talk with people about things that really matter to me.
5. Ich fühle mich oft allein, wenn ich mit meinen Kollegen zusammen bin. (R)
I often feel alone when I am with my colleagues. (R)
6. Einige Leute, mit denen ich arbeite, sind enge Freunde von mir.
Some people I work with are close friends of mine.
7. Ich fühle mich in meinem Job nicht wirklich kompetent. (R)
I don't really feel competent in my job. (R)
8. Ich beherrsche meine Aufgaben in meinem Job wirklich.
I really master my tasks at my job.
9. Ich fühle mich in meinem Job kompetent.
I feel competent in my job.
10. Ich bezweifle, ob ich in der Lage bin, meine Arbeit richtig auszuführen. (R)
I doubt whether I am able to execute my job properly. (R)
11. Ich bin gut in den Dingen, die ich in meinem Beruf mache.
I am good at the things I do in my job.
12. Ich habe das Gefühl, dass ich auch die schwierigsten Aufgaben bei der Arbeit bewältigen kann.
I have the feeling that I can even accomplish the most difficult tasks at work.

13. Ich habe das Gefühl, dass ich bei meiner Arbeit ich selbst sein kann.
I feel like I can be myself at my job.
14. Bei der Arbeit habe ich oft das Gefühl, dass ich die Befehle anderer Leute befolgen muss. (R)
At work, I often feel like I have to follow other people's commands. (R)
15. Wenn ich es mir aussuchen könnte, würde ich Dinge bei der Arbeit anders machen. (R)
If I could choose, I would do things at work differently. (R)
16. Die Aufgaben, die ich bei der Arbeit zu erledigen habe, entsprechen dem, was ich wirklich tun möchte.
The tasks I have to do at work are in line with what I really want to do.
17. Ich fühle mich frei, meine Arbeit so zu tun, wie ich es für am besten halte.
I feel free to do my job the way I think it could best be done.
18. In meinem Beruf fühle ich mich gezwungen, Dinge zu tun, die ich nicht tun will. (R)
In my job, I feel forced to do things I do not want to do. (R)

Psychological Capital was measured with the German Compound PsyCap scale (CPC-12) by Lorentz et al. (2016); English items in italics

1. Sollte ich mich in einer Zwickmühle befinden, würden mir viele Auswege einfallen.
If I should find myself in a jam, I could think of many ways to get out of it.
2. Im Moment betrachte ich mich als recht erfolgreich.
Right now, I see myself as being pretty successful.
3. Mir fallen viele Strategien ein, um meine derzeitigen Ziele zu erreichen.
I can think of many ways to reach my current goals.
4. Ich freue mich auf das Leben, das noch vor mir liegt.
I am looking forward to the life ahead of me.
5. Die Zukunft wird für mich viel Gutes mit sich bringen.
The future holds a lot of good in store for me.
6. Alles in allem erwarte ich, dass mir mehr gute als schlechte Dinge widerfahren.
Overall, I expect more good things to happen to me than bad.
7. Ich kann mich auch überwinden, Dinge zu tun, die ich eigentlich nicht machen will.
Sometimes I make myself do things whether I want to or not.
8. Wenn ich in einer schwierigen Situation bin, finde ich gewöhnlich einen Weg heraus.
When I'm in a difficult situation, I can usually find my way out of it.
9. Ich kann es akzeptieren, wenn mich nicht alle Leute mögen.
It's okay if there are people who don't like me.
10. In unerwarteten Situationen weiß ich immer, wie ich mich verhalten soll.
I am confident that I could deal efficiently with unexpected events.

11. Wenn ein Problem auftaucht, kann ich es aus eigener Kraft meistern.

I can solve most problems if I invest the necessary effort.

12. Schwierigkeiten sehe ich gelassen entgegen, weil ich mich immer auf meine Fähigkeiten verlassen kann.

I can remain calm when facing difficulties because I can rely on my coping abilities.

Psychological safety was measured with the Psychological Safety Scale by Edmondson and Woolley (2003); items were translated from English to German following the guidelines by Brislin (1970); English items in italics

1. Wenn ich in diesem Beruf einen Fehler mache, wird mir das oft zum Nachteil ausgelegt. (R)
If I make a mistake in this job, it is often held against me. (R)
2. Es ist schwierig, andere in dieser Abteilung um Hilfe zu bitten. (R)
It is difficult to ask others in this department for help. (R)
3. Meine Führungskraft ermutigt mich oft, neue Aufgaben zu übernehmen oder zu lernen, wie man Dinge angeht, die ich noch nie zuvor getan habe.
My manager often encourages me to take on new tasks or to learn how to do things I have never done before.
4. Wenn ich darüber nachdenken würde, dieses Unternehmen zu verlassen, um anderswo einen besseren Job zu finden, würde ich mit meiner Führungskraft darüber sprechen.
If I was thinking about leaving this company to pursue a better job elsewhere, I would talk to my manager about it.
5. Wenn ich in diesem Unternehmen ein Problem hätte, könnte ich mich darauf verlassen, dass meine Führungskraft für mich eintreten würde.
If I had a problem in this company, I could depend on my manager to be my advocate.
6. Wenn ich ein Problem bei meiner Führungskraft anspreche, scheint sie oder er oft nicht sehr daran interessiert zu sein, mir bei der Suche nach einer Lösung zu helfen. (R)
Often when I raise a problem with my manager, she or he does not seem very interested in helping me find a solution. (R)

APPENDIX 2: Scales of Study 2

The Dark Triad levels of managers and employees were measured with the same scales as in Study 1. For reasons of efficiency, they are listed only once.

The Light Triad of personality of managers was measured with the Light Triad scale (LTS) by Kaufman et al. (2019); used for others-assessments; items were translated from English to German following the guidelines by Brislin (1970); English items in italics

1. Meine Führungskraft neigt dazu, das Beste in den Menschen zu sehen.
My manager tends to see the best in people.
2. Meine Führungskraft neigt dazu, darauf zu vertrauen, dass andere Menschen fair mit ihr umgehen werden.
My manager tends to trust that other people will deal fairly with him or her.
3. Meine Führungskraft denkt, die Menschen sind meistens gut.
My manager thinks people are mostly good.
4. Meine Führungskraft ist schnell darin, Menschen zu verzeihen, die sie verletzt haben.
My manager is quick to forgive people who have hurt him or her.
5. Meine Führungskraft neigt dazu, andere zu bewundern.
My manager tends to admire others.
6. Meine Führungskraft neigt dazu, die Erfolge anderer Menschen zu loben.
My manager tends to applaud the successes of other people.
7. Meine Führungskraft neigt dazu, andere als wertvoll zu behandeln.
My manager tends to treat others as valuable.
8. Meine Führungskraft hört gerne Menschen aus allen sozialen Schichten zu.
My manager enjoys listening to people from all walks of life.

9. Meine Führungskraft zieht Ehrlichkeit dem Charme vor.

My manager prefers honesty over charm.

10. Meine Führungskraft fühlt sich nicht wohl dabei, Menschen offen zu manipulieren, damit diese etwas tun, was sie will.

My manager does not feel comfortable overtly manipulating people to do something he or she wants.

11. Meine Führungskraft möchte authentisch sein, auch wenn dies ihrem Ruf schaden könnte.

My manager would like to be authentic even if it may damage his or her reputation.

12. Wenn meine Führungskraft mit Menschen spricht, denkt sie selten darüber nach, was sie von ihnen will.

When my manager talks to people, he or she is rarely thinking about what he or she wants from them.

The Light Triad of personality of employees was measured with the Light Triad scale (LTS) by Kaufman et al. (2019); items were translated from English to German following the guidelines by Brislin (1970); English items in italics

1. Ich neige dazu, das Beste in den Menschen zu sehen.
I tend to see the best in people.
2. Ich neige dazu, darauf zu vertrauen, dass andere Menschen fair mit mir umgehen werden.
I tend to trust that other people will deal fairly with me.
3. Ich denke, die Menschen sind meistens gut.
I think people are mostly good.
4. Ich bin schnell darin, Menschen zu verzeihen, die mich verletzt haben.
I'm quick to forgive people who have hurt me.
5. Ich neige dazu, andere zu bewundern.
I tend to admire others.
6. Ich neige dazu, die Erfolge anderer Menschen zu loben.
I tend to applaud the successes of other people.
7. Ich neige dazu, andere als wertvoll zu behandeln.
I tend to treat others as valuable.
8. Ich höre gerne Menschen aus allen sozialen Schichten zu.
I enjoy listening to people from all walks of life.
9. Ich ziehe Ehrlichkeit dem Charme vor.
I prefer honesty over charm.
10. Ich fühle mich nicht wohl dabei, Menschen offen zu manipulieren, damit diese etwas tun, was ich will.
I don't feel comfortable overtly manipulating people to do something I want.
11. Ich möchte authentisch sein, auch wenn dies meinem Ruf schaden könnte.
I would like to be authentic even if it may damage my reputation.

12. Wenn ich mit Menschen spreche, denke ich selten darüber nach, was ich von ihnen will.

When I talk to people, I am rarely thinking about what I want from them.

The overall life satisfaction of employees was measured with the Satisfaction with Life Scale (SWLS) by Diener et al.(1985); items were translated from English to German following the guidelines by Brislin (1970); English items in italics

1. In vielerlei Hinsicht kommt mein Leben meinem Ideal nahe.
In most ways my life is close to my ideal.
2. Die Bedingungen für mein Leben sind ausgezeichnet.
The conditions of my life are excellent.
3. Ich bin mit meinem Leben zufrieden.
I am satisfied with my life.
4. Bis jetzt habe ich die wichtigen Dinge, die ich im Leben will, bekommen.
So far I have gotten the important things I want in life.
5. Wenn ich mein Leben noch einmal leben könnte, würde ich fast nichts ändern.
If I could live my life over, I would change almost nothing.

Agreeableness of employees was measured with the German BFI-2 items for agreeableness (Danner et al., 2019); English items (not part of the original publication) in italics

1. Ich bin einfühlsam, warmherzig.
I am empathetic, warm-hearted.
2. Ich begegne anderen mit Respekt.
I treat others with respect.
3. Ich neige dazu, andere zu kritisieren. (R)
I tend to criticize others. (R)
4. Ich habe mit anderen wenig Mitgefühl. (R)
I have little compassion for others. (R)
5. Ich habe oft Streit mit anderen. (R)
I often have arguments with others. (R)
6. Ich bin nachsichtig, vergebe anderen leicht.
I am forgiving, forgive others easily.
7. Ich bin hilfsbereit und selbstlos.
I am helpful and selfless.
8. Ich bin manchmal unhöflich und schroff. (R)
I am sometimes rude and harsh. (R)
9. Ich bin anderen gegenüber misstrauisch. (R)
I am suspicious of others. (R)
10. Andere sind mir eher gleichgültig, egal. (R)
Others are rather irrelevant to me, I do not care. (R)
11. Ich bin höflich und zuvorkommend.
I am polite and courteous.
12. Ich schenke anderen leicht Vertrauen, glaube an das Gute im Menschen.
I trust others easily, believe in the good in people

The different types of motivation were measured with the German version of the Multidimensional Work Motivation Scale (MWMS) by Gagné et al. (2014); English items in italics

Es gibt verschiedene Gründe dafür, sich anzustrengen und gute Arbeit zu leisten. Warum strengen Sie sich bei Ihrer Arbeit an? Bitte kreuzen Sie für jeden der Gründe an, wie sehr Sie der jeweiligen Aussage zustimmen. Ich strenge mich bei der Arbeit an, ...

To what extent are the following propositions reasons for you to make efforts/to get involved in your job?

External regulation:

1. ... um von anderen Anerkennung zu erhalten (z.B. von Vorgesetzten, Kollegen, Familie, Kunden).

To get others' approval (e.g., supervisor, colleagues, family, clients...).

2. ... weil andere mich dann stärker respektieren (z.B. Vorgesetzte, Kollegen, Familie, Kunden).

Because others will respect me more (e.g., supervisor, colleagues, family, clients...).

3. ... um zu vermeiden, dass ich von anderen kritisiert werde (z.B. von Vorgesetzten, Kollegen, Familie, Kunden).

To avoid being criticized by others (e.g., supervisor, colleagues, family, clients...).

4. ... weil andere mich nur dann finanziell belohnen, wenn ich mich anstrengende (z.B. Arbeitgeber, Vorgesetzte).

Because others will reward me financially only if I put enough effort in my job (e.g., employer, supervisor...).

5. ... weil andere mir größere Job-Sicherheit bieten, wenn ich mich genug anstrengende (z.B. Arbeitgeber, Vorgesetzte).

Because others offer me greater job security if I put enough effort in my job (e.g., employer, supervisor...).

6. ... weil ich riskiere, meine Arbeit zu verlieren, wenn ich mich nicht genug anstrenge.

Because I risk losing my job if I don't put enough effort in it.

Introjected regulation:

7. ... weil ich mir beweisen muss, dass ich es kann.

Because I have to prove myself that I can.

8. ... weil ich dann stolz auf mich bin.

Because it makes me feel proud of myself.

9. ... weil ich mich sonst dafür schämen würde.

Because otherwise I will feel ashamed of myself.

10. ... weil ich mich sonst schlecht fühlen würde.

Because otherwise I will feel bad about myself.

Identified regulation:

11. ... weil ich es persönlich wichtig finde, mich bei dieser Arbeit anzustrengen.

Because I personally consider it important to put efforts in this job.

12. ... weil es meinen Wertvorstellungen entspricht, mich bei dieser Arbeit anzustrengen.

Because putting efforts in this job aligns with my personal values.

13. ... weil es mir persönlich etwas bedeutet, mich bei dieser Arbeit anzustrengen.

Because putting efforts in this job has personal significance to me.

Intrinsic motivation:

14. ... weil ich Spaß an meiner Arbeit habe.

Because I have fun doing my job.

15. ... weil das, was ich bei meiner Arbeit mache, spannend ist.

Because what I do on my work is exciting.

16. ... weil die Arbeit, die ich leiste, interessant ist.

Because the work I do is interesting.

Amotivation:

17. Ich strenge mich nicht an, denn ich habe das Gefühl, bei dieser Arbeit meine Zeit zu verschwenden.

I don't, because I really feel that I'm wasting my time at work.

18. Ich strenge mich kaum an, denn diese Arbeit ist die Anstrengung nicht wert.

I do little because I don't think this work is worth putting efforts into.

19. Ich weiß nicht, warum ich diese Arbeit mache; sie ist sinnlos.

I don't know why I'm doing this job, it's pointless work

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APPENDIX 3: Scales of Study 3

For the Dark Triad of managers and employees, as well as for intrinsic motivation and the Light Triad of personality of employees, scales from the previous studies were used. For reasons of efficiency, they are listed only once.

The core self-evaluations of employees were measured with the Core Self-Evaluations Scale (CSES) by Judge et al. (2003); items were translated from English to German following the guidelines by Brislin (1970); English items in italics

1. Ich bin überzeugt, dass ich den Erfolg bekomme, den ich im Leben verdiene.
I am confident I get the success I deserve in life.
2. Manchmal fühle ich mich deprimiert. (R)
Sometimes I feel depressed. (R)
3. Wenn ich es versuche, dann bin ich in der Regel erfolgreich.
When I try, I generally succeed.
4. Manchmal, wenn ich scheitere, fühle ich mich wertlos. (R)
Sometimes when I fail I feel worthless. (R)
5. Ich erledige Aufgaben erfolgreich.
I complete tasks successfully.
6. Manchmal habe ich das Gefühl, meine Arbeit nicht unter Kontrolle zu haben. (R)
Sometimes, I do not feel in control of my work. (R)
7. Insgesamt bin ich mit mir selbst zufrieden.
Overall, I am satisfied with myself.
8. Ich bin von Zweifeln an meiner Kompetenz erfüllt. (R)
I am filled with doubts about my competence. (R)
9. Ich bestimme, was in meinem Leben passieren wird.
I determine what will happen in my life.

10. Ich habe das Gefühl, keine Kontrolle über meinen beruflichen Erfolg zu haben. (R)

I do not feel in control of my success in my career. (R)

11. Ich bin in der Lage, die meisten meiner Probleme zu bewältigen.

I am capable of coping with most of my problems.

12. Es gibt Zeiten, in denen die Dinge für mich ziemlich düster und hoffnungslos aussehen. (R)

There are times when things look pretty bleak and hopeless to me. (R)

The subjective career success of employees was measured with the Career Satisfaction Scale by Greenhaus et al. (1990); items were translated from English to German following the guidelines by Brislin (1970); English items in italics

1. Ich bin zufrieden mit dem Erfolg, den ich in meiner Karriere erreicht habe.
I am satisfied with the success I have achieved in my career.
2. Ich bin zufrieden mit den Fortschritten, die ich bei der Verwirklichung meiner gesamten beruflichen Ziele gemacht habe.
I am satisfied with the progress I have made toward meeting my overall career goals.
3. Ich bin zufrieden mit den Fortschritten, die ich bei der Erreichung meiner Einkommensziele gemacht habe.
I am satisfied with the progress I have made toward meeting my goals for income.
4. Ich bin zufrieden mit den Fortschritten, die ich bei der Erreichung meiner Weiterentwicklungsziele gemacht habe.
I am satisfied with the progress I have made toward meeting my goals for advancement.
5. Ich bin zufrieden mit den Fortschritten, die ich bei der Erreichung meiner Ziele für die Entwicklung neuer Fähigkeiten gemacht habe.
I am satisfied with the progress I have made toward meeting my goals for the development of new skills

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APPENDIX 4: Scales of Study 4

Study 4 consisted of scales used in the previous studies. For reasons of efficiency, they are not listed redundantly.

