

The role of dark side personality characteristics in employee ingratiation
behaviour: Consequential effects on leader-member relations and employee
outcomes

By

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Declaration

I hereby certify that this material, which I now submit for assessment on the programme of study leading to the award of Doctor of Philosophy is entirely my own work, and that I have exercised reasonable care to ensure that the work is original, and does not to the best of my knowledge breach any law of copyright, and has not been taken from the work of others save and to the extent that such work has been cited and acknowledged within the text of my work.

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Dedication

I dedicate this thesis to my beloved dad, Khan Bahadur Khan, whose memory will forever inspire me, and to my mom, Raseela Khatoon, whose love and support have been my guiding force. This accomplishment is as much yours as it is mine.

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List of Abbreviations

CFA: Confirmatory Factor Analysis
CFI: Comparative Fit Index
DF: Degrees of Freedom
IM: Impression Management
ING: Ingratiation
LMX: Leader-Member Exchange
MACH/MAC: Machiavellianism
MACHS: Machiavellians
MCAR: Missing Completely at Random
MAR: Missing at Random
MLR: Robust Maximum Likelihood
MNAR: Missing Not at Random
MVN: Multivariate Normality
NAR: Narcissism
OC: Objective Career Success
PSYC: Psychopathy
PWB/PsyWB: Psychological Wellbeing
RMSEA: Root Mean Squared Error of Approximation
SAD: Sadism
SDT: Self-Determination Theory
SEM: Structural Equation Modeling
SRMR: Standardized Root Mean Square Residual
SubjCS: Subjective Career Success
SWB: Subjective Well-being
TLI: Tucker–Lewis Index
WLSM: Weighted Least Squares-Mean

Abstract

Author: Adeela Farqan

Thesis Title: The role of dark side personality characteristics in employee ingratiation behaviour: Consequential effects on leader-member relations and employee outcomes

Studies have identified that employees use a variety of influence behaviours to achieve their objectives, with ingratiation being the most common of these. Researchers have called for investigations into the role dark personality plays in the display of ingratiation tactics. This study examines the influence of dark personality traits (i.e., Narcissism, Machiavellianism, Psychopathy and Sadism) on employee use of ingratiation tactics. Employees use ingratiation tactics to have better quality relationships with supervisor which can help them in achieving positive career outcomes. Social exchange theory posits that individuals build quality relationships with people who can prove beneficial to them. This research further explores the link between dark traits and career success outcomes via the mediating effect of ingratiation tactics and the quality of the relationship with supervisor (LMX). Ingratiation is considered a stress-inducing activity as it requires a lot of scheming and plotting, coupled with the risk of failure. However, individuals high in dark traits seek pleasure in the exploitation of others. The final aspect of this study explores the relationship between personality and psychological wellbeing through ingratiation and LMX.

This study uses a quantitative survey design where data is collected from a heterogenous group of working professionals at two different points in time, three months apart. A serial mediation model is tested where employee dark personality traits are indirectly linked to career outcomes and psychological wellbeing through ingratiation and LMX. Narcissism and Machiavellianism were the only traits found to positively influence career success and wellbeing via mediators, ingratiation and LMX. Theoretical and practical implications of these findings are discussed.

1 Chapter 1 – Introduction

1.1 Introduction

Organisations are social entities composed of individuals working in collaboration towards a set of common goals (Thomasson, 2009). An essential aspect of organisational life is social influence, where members try to influence one another. Influence involves power, and although the terms are often used synonymously, these are two distinct concepts. Power is the actual resource or force a person holds (Kotter, 2010), while influence is the application or use of that force to achieve what would otherwise not have been attainable (Tedeschi & Bonoma, 2017). Individuals within organisations use power to influence others' behaviours in ways that are desirable to them. Power is central to organisational leadership behaviour, supervisor-subordinate interactions and peer and stakeholder relationships. Moreover, it has a critical element of dependence (Ocasio, 2017). The more a person is dependent on another for sharing of resources, the greater power the second person holds on the first and hence is more susceptible to influence attempts by the person with little power in the relationship.

One of the most common political influence behaviours displayed within organisations is ingratiation (Appelbaum & Hughes, 1998a). Tedeschi & Melburg (1984) defined ingratiation as “a set of assertive tactics which have the purpose of gaining the approbation of an audience that controls significant rewards for the actor” (p. 37). Ingratiation is based on the idea of “social reciprocity”, where a person does favourable things for a target with the aim that the target will be obliged to return the favour in future (Appelbaum & Hughes, 1998b). Generally speaking, it is an upward influence tactic commonly used by subordinates toward their superiors (Thacker & Wayne, 1995) with the hope that their influence behaviour would be reciprocated positively in the form of positive performance evaluations, promotions, access to valuable resources and powerful social connections which can help them in career progression (Judge & Bretz, 1994; Sibunruang & Kawai, 2021). Ingratiation tactics can influence the supervisor's view of subordinates'

skills and competence. As an ingratiation portrays themselves as someone possessing the traits and qualities desired by their superior, their liking for the ingratiation is raised (Wayne et al., 1997; Wayne & Liden, 1995), and they may respond by providing favourable treatment or rewards to the employee (Higgins et al., 2003a). As similarity attraction theory notes (Byrne, 1971), people are more attracted to others similar to themselves in important aspects (Goldberg, 2005). When employees use ingratiation tactics, such as flattery, praise, or conformity, they are attempting to increase their perceived similarity with their supervisor, which may lead to greater liking and acceptance, resulting in a good relationship between them.

Individuals using ingratiation tactics commonly display behaviours such as other-enhancement, favour rendering, opinion conformity, and self-presentation (Jones, 1964; Tedeschi & Melburg, 1984). Other enhancement involves using praise, flattery, and favourable opinion toward the target person. Favour rendering is often used with other enhancement tactics where one person favours the target to appear friendly and helpful. Opinion conformity involves agreeing with the target person's opinions and ideas. Self-presentation involves behaviours explicitly designed to make a positive impression on the target person.

Individuals within organisations use these ingratiation behaviours to achieve a variety of desirable outcomes. For instance, research shows that ingratiation used during interviews can help candidates succeed in receiving an offer of employment (Chen et al., 2008; Higgins et al., 2003; Zhao & Liden, 2011). Board directors using peer-focused ingratiation are more likely to succeed in getting further board appointments (Stern & Westphal, 2010; Westphal & Stern, 2007), while Zhao & Liden (2011) demonstrated that interns using ingratiation could succeed in gaining workforce permanency. A meta-analysis by Higgins et al. (2003) found that ingratiation can positively influence employee performance assessments, salary raises, and promotions, with later studies, endorsing these findings (Dulebohn et al., 2012; Liu et al., 2014; Westphal & Stern, 2007).

There is a rich research tradition of exploring the role of personality traits in individual behaviour. In a seminal paper, Buss (1987) argued that individuals interact with the social environment through the process of selection, evocation and manipulation. Based on their personality traits, individuals select to interact with certain situations and ignore others, use

their actions and behaviours to elicit a response from others, sometimes unintentionally, and try to manipulate or alter their selected social environments purposefully to their favour (Buss, 1987; Caldwell & Burger, 1997). Individual personality differences contribute to the purposeful manipulation of others in their social environment for their self-serving goals using different manipulation tactics, including charm, coercion, and reasoning (Buss, 1987).

Leaning on this body of research, one route to explaining ingratiation behaviours has been to consider the role of the personality characteristics (Appelbaum & Hughes, 1998a; Pandey & Rastogi, 1979; Ralston, 1985; Zin et al., 2011). As ingratiation behaviours are often considered to represent the darker side of organisational life due to the clandestine nature of motives behind them (Zin et al., 2011). The personality traits examined in the present study in this regard are Narcissism, Psychopathy and Machiavellianism, with the latter receiving concentrated research attention in regard to ingratiation behaviours (Pandey & Rastogi, 1979; Ralston, 1985; Zin et al., 2011). Because of their conceptual overlap and association with similar behavioural outcomes, these three personality traits have been unified into a concept named the Dark Triad (Paulhus & Williams, 2002) which is referred to as a constellation of personality traits linked with the exhibition of manipulative, exploitative interpersonal behaviours (Jones & Paulhus, 2017).

The traits included are subclinical Narcissism, Machiavellianism, and subclinical Psychopathy.

Recently 'Everyday Sadism' was added to the Dark Triad, with the nomenclature being adjusted to the 'Dark Tetrad' (Buckels et al., 2013b). While these traits share associations with selfish, callous, unempathetic and exploitative behaviour, studies have identified particularities of each.

Narcissism is associated with entitlement, arrogance and a strong need for admiration and approval from others (Nevicka et al., 2011). Narcissists' actions and decisions are influenced by their need for recognition and to maintain their grandiose image. Their exploitative nature is related to a variety of counterproductive behaviours in the workplace (Grijalva & Newman, 2015; O' Boyle et al., 2012). They do not hesitate to use a situation to their advantage if it gives them some strategic value; thus, they are most likely to use dubious behaviours to achieve desired goals.

Machiavellianism is associated with a strong desire for money, power, and status, along with manipulation and deception in the pursuit of goal achievement (Christie & Geis, 1970). Machiavellians' actions are more calculated than impulsive, and they consider others as means to reach desired ends (Burris et al., 2013). Machiavellians have a negative view of others, believing that people are primarily motivated by self-interest and will act deceitfully or manipulatively to achieve their goals. Such individuals are not interested in developing meaningful relationships but use people for their exploitative agendas (Sakalaki et al., 2007; Wilson et al., 1996).

Psychopathy is considered the “darkest” among dark personality traits (Szabó et al., 2018). It is linked with a cold and emotionless attitude, lack of remorse and guilt, recklessness, impulsivity, and antisocial tendencies (Muris et al., 2017). Psychopaths are good at impression management because their eloquent verbosity and charm are likely mistaken for charismatic persona (Babiak et al., 2010). Even though Psychopathy is linked to an impulsive attitude, they are still considered strategic thinkers (Babiak et al., 2010). Their strong urge for competition and dominance is displayed in bullying and pitting people against each other and using necessary means to hide their ulterior motives (Ryckman et al., 1990; Semenyna & Honey, 2015).

Sadists seek pleasure in the suffering of others and keep looking for ways to hurt others. They also have a strong need to dominate and control others. Unlike clinical sadism, which is a diagnosable mental disorder, everyday sadism is a personality trait that exists on a continuum in the general population. Research suggests that individuals who score high on measures of everyday sadism are more likely to engage in aggressive and antisocial behaviours and may be less empathetic and more callous towards others. Everyday sadism is linked with online trolling (Buckels et al., 2019) and violent video game play (Greitemeyer & Sagioglou, 2017). Within the organisational context, initial investigations reveal that everyday sadism is linked with counterproductive behaviour, workplace incivility (Thibault & Kelloway, 2020a), workplace bullying (Paulhus, 2014), and poor task performance (Fernández-del-río et al., 2020a). Their antisocial behaviour and tendency to hurt and humiliate others can negatively impact their associates' and peers' lives, influencing their job productivity (O'Meara et al., 2011).

The existing literature has established a conceptual overlap between Narcissism, Machiavellianism, Psychopathy and Everyday Sadism, as explored by (Fernández-del-río et al., 2020b; Gustafson & Ritzer, 1995; Hart & Hare, 1998). Recent empirical research further supports the convergence of all four Dark Tetrad traits (Fernández-del-río et al., 2020b; Furnham et al., 2013). These traits collectively exhibit manipulative, unempathetic, self-centred, and unsociable tendencies that facilitate personal goals while discouraging interpersonal affability (Rauthmann & Kolar, 2012a). Within the Big Five Personality model, they consistently demonstrate low agreeableness (McCrae & Costa, 2008; Meere & Egan, 2017). Notably, Narcissism stands as the sole trait positively correlated with extroversion, openness to experience, and conscientiousness, whereas Machiavellianism, Psychopathy, and Everyday Sadism show negative associations with these personality dimensions (Fernández-del-río et al., 2020a). Moreover, psychopathy deviates by having an inverse relationship with neuroticism due to the apparent absence of anxiety in individuals exhibiting psychopathic traits (Paulhus & Williams, 2002), signifying their non-cooperative nature, lack of honesty in interpersonal relations, limited empathy, and callous disregard for others. Moreover, empirical evidence also consistently underscores a negative association between all four Dark Tetrad traits and the Honesty-Humility factor (Fernández-del-río et al., 2020a; Lee & Ashton, 2005). Individuals high in dark traits scored low on honesty-humility trait, thus indicating exhibition of insincerity in their interactions, engaging in deceptive behaviours, displaying reluctance to openly foster interpersonal relationships, pursuing materialistic gains, and lacking humility.

The concept of the dark traits holds significant importance in understanding and predicting various socially relevant behaviours. Research by Lee et al. (2013) shows that these traits can effectively predict a wide range of socially significant attributes. Furthermore, the dark traits offers valuable incremental validity beyond the Five-Factor Model (FFM) of personality, indicating its relevance in explaining human personality characteristics. All three elements of the dark triad involve a propensity to manipulate others for personal gain, which is associated with measures of fraudulent, cheating, or theft behaviours (Lee et al., 2013). This propensity extends to counterproductive work behaviours (CWBs) in general. The primary reason for studying the Dark Triad model in both theoretical and practical contexts lies in its predictive validity, particularly in relation to negative workplace behaviours.

Multiple studies have supported the strong connection between the Dark Triad traits and CWBs, emphasising its additional contribution to the prediction of such behaviours beyond the FFM. DeShong et al. (2015) examined the FFM and the Dark Triad in the context of predicting interpersonal and organisational CWBs, finding that agreeableness and conscientiousness, as FFM domains, were negatively related to these behaviours, while neuroticism was positively related to organisational CWBs. In accordance with expectations, all three constructs of the Dark Triad were significantly associated with both types of CWBs, suggesting that individuals with high Dark Triad traits tend to engage in a variety of negative workplace behaviours. Moreover, research by Cohen (2018) observed a robust and positive relationship between one-factor assessment of the dark triad and counterproductive work behaviours (CWBs).

The study by Grijalva & Newman (2015) posited that narcissism can significantly elucidate CWBs beyond the explanatory power of the Five Factor Model (FFM). Their research findings demonstrated that narcissism explains an additional variance in CWB, thereby suggesting that it is a significant predictor of negative workplace behaviours. Additionally, Judge et al. (2006) reported that narcissism surpasses all FFM constructs in explaining workplace deviance, reinforcing the idea that dark personality traits, such as narcissism, play a pivotal role in predicting CWBs. Narcissistic individuals are more prone to experiencing negative emotions, such as anger and hostility, when their positive self-appraisals are challenged, leading to aggression (Grijalva et al., 2015; Grijalva & Newman, 2015). Narcissists seek self-enhancement and dominance, often disregarding the interests and relationships of others in their pursuit of self-aggrandisement. They may engage in various interpersonally directed CWBs, driven by their readiness to outshine others and their negative perceptions of interpersonal interactions (Wu & Lebreton, 2011). This propensity for aggression and a focus on dominating others can lead narcissistic individuals to engage in behaviours such as hostility, obstructionism, and overt aggression directed at colleagues, potentially causing damage to workplace relationships (Wu & Lebreton, 2011).

Psychopathy is characterised by a lack of empathy and remorse, as well as a willingness to violate societal norms and ethical principles. The meta-analysis by Muris et al. (2017) revealed psychopathy as the primary trait associated with various malevolent behaviours. DeShong et al. (2017) examined the similarities among the dark triad constructs as well as their associations with three workplace behaviour measures: counterproductive work behaviours (CWBs), unethical workplace behaviours, and citizenship workplace

behaviours. Their findings suggested a significant association of dark traits with CWBs and unethical workplace behaviours. Moreover, none of these traits was linked to citizenship workplace behaviours. A study by Stanescu & Mohorea (2016) identified a noteworthy association between psychopathy and self-reported CWBs. Individuals with psychopathic traits exhibit a pronounced disregard for societal norms and engage in antisocial behaviour, believing themselves to be exempt from the social, moral, ethical, and legal principles that underpin our society. They frequently lack the capacity to experience emotions such as shame, guilt, remorse, or regret. This deficiency in emotional response predisposes them to engage in CWBs (Babiak, 2000; Nelson & Gilbertson, 1991).

Machiavellianism is linked to behaviours driven by a willingness to use deceit and exploitation for personal gain. High Machiavellians exhibit cynicism towards others, a desire for control and status, and a distrust of their peers, using manipulative tactics and viewing others as gullible (Harrison et al., 2018; Nelson & Gilbertson, 1991). Frustration-aggression theory suggests that high Machiavellians are more inclined to resort to hostile and aggressive actions when faced with goal-related obstacles, justifying the means to their ends. Consequently, they are more likely to engage in manipulative CWBs that defy social norms (Wu & Lebreton, 2011). Furthermore, individuals high in Machiavellianism display a lack of remorse and a propensity for unethical decisions, including lying, stealing, cheating, and misleading others (Harrison et al., 2016). This relationship is underpinned by specific conceptual arguments, shedding light on the connection between Machiavellianism and various forms of CWBs.

Machiavellianism is associated with various counterproductive work behaviours (CWBs). (Castille et al., 2017) applied trait activation theory to argue that organisational constraints motivate Machiavellians to perceive their coworkers as threats and engage in behaviours aimed at undermining them. This behaviour is particularly evident in situations with perceived resource constraints, which may help Machiavellians enhance their relative status within a competitive context but at the cost of organisational well-being. When resource constraints are low, Machiavellians are less likely to engage in social undermining and CWBs. High Machiavellians can initially present a friendly demeanour but may switch to aggressive behaviours if their goals are not met, potentially leading to increased CWBs over time (Wu & Lebreton, 2011).

Machiavellians are skilled communicators and leaders but tend to harbour distrust, cynicism, and a lack of concern for others. Their impulsive and manipulative nature may lead to verbal CWBs, such as spreading rumours and gossiping, especially when they struggle to achieve their goals. High Machiavellians are strategic in adapting their communications to manipulate others effectively. Additionally, these individuals may engage in frequent group-switching to conceal their true nature and capitalise on their exploitative skills (Dahling et al., 2009; Wilson et al., 1996). Bullying is a preferred means of influence for Machiavellians and may stem from their negative view of others. This behaviour is driven by a cost-benefit analysis, as they engage in aggression only when it is deemed profitable, particularly in long-term relationships, such as within a work environment (Pilch & Turska, 2015).

Everyday sadism, a personality trait characterised by the inclination to derive pleasure from the suffering of others, has emerged as a distinct and consequential factor in the prediction of maladaptive and antisocial behaviours. Its recognition led to its inclusion within the framework of the Dark Triad, resulting in the formation of the Dark Tetrad, a nomenclature that acknowledges its unique predictive capacity for maladaptive behaviours that extends beyond the purview of other dark personality traits (Chabrol et al., 2009). Notably, everyday sadism exhibits statistically significant positive correlations with other dark personality traits, while concurrently manifesting negative associations with positive traits, including Agreeableness, Conscientiousness, Emotionality, and Honesty-Humility (Book et al., 2016).

The nexus between sadism and counterproductive behaviours becomes evident, as individuals characterised by sadistic personalities tend to actively engage in activities such as cyberbullying, trolling, and the perpetration of unprovoked acts of aggression (Buckels et al., 2019; Geel et al., 2017; Thomas & Egan, 2022). This personality trait, given its inherent disposition for deriving pleasure from the pain of others, exerts a significant influence on the manifestation of antisocial behaviours, where perpetrators often target individuals perceived as vulnerable to satisfy their sadistic inclinations.

Furthermore, within the organisational context, everyday sadism has been observed to bear a negative association with organisational citizenship behaviours, task performance, and contextual performance (Fernández-del-río et al., 2020a; Thibault & Kelloway, 2020a; Zeigler-hill & Besser, 2021). Individuals characterised by heightened levels of everyday

sadism tend to exhibit a deficiency in empathy, alongside proclivities toward aggression and impulsivity. These tendencies predispose them to engage in behaviours such as bullying, thereby rendering them as disruptive and counterproductive forces within organisational settings (Góis et al., 2020). Additional research is warranted to further comprehend the precise role of everyday sadism in the context of organisations and its ramifications on work-related outcomes.

Notwithstanding the association of these maladaptive traits with counterproductive behaviours, it remains a noteworthy and intriguing observation within organisational dynamics that individuals possessing these traits are not only recruited by organisations but also frequently ascend to upper echelons of leadership. This phenomenon has posed a perplexing conundrum for scholars in the field. The aforementioned traits are distinctly characterised by a self-centred demeanour, wherein individuals exhibiting elevated levels of these traits are motivated by personal, egoistic aspirations, reflecting a proclivity towards individualistic pursuits and a willingness to exploit others as a means to attain their self-serving goals.

In this context, scholars have recently delved into the examination of how individuals with high dark traits employ self-presentation and other influence tactics (Hart et al., 2022). This exploration stems from the belief that such individuals may utilise these strategies to manipulate and persuade others regarding their qualities and capabilities, even if these attributes are not genuinely possessed. Research indicates that those high in dark traits commonly share the inclination to manipulate and exploit others for personal gain. A study conducted by Jones & Paulhus (2017) revealed that Machiavellians and Psychopaths tend to engage in deception and lies to achieve material benefits, while narcissists employ deceit and manipulation to uphold their grandiose image. Jonason et al.'s research in 2012 established a positive correlation between dark traits and the utilisation of various social influence tactics. Building upon this, Hart et al. (2019) extended the investigation to examine the use of self-presentation tactics, finding a positive association between dark traits and the deployment of diverse self-enhancing strategies. These findings were substantiated in a separate study on the utilisation of impression management tactics by individuals with high dark traits (refer to Hart et al. (2019b))

While previous research has extensively examined Machiavellianism in relation to manipulative and ingratiating behaviours (Zin et al., 2011; Pandey & Rastogi, 1979), these recent studies have started exploring the role of other dark personality traits in the context of workplace influence tactics, particularly ingratiation (Jonason et al., 2012). These studies have found a positive relationship between dark traits and the use of ingratiation tactics, with Machiavellianism showing the most robust connection (see Hart et al., 2019; Hart et al., 2022; Jonason et al., 2012). Although the relationship between everyday sadism and ingratiation has not been explored in this particular context, it is included in the present study due to its close association and overlap with other dark tetrad traits and exhibition of similar behaviours as other dark personality traits. Like individuals with other dark traits, sadists also exhibit a lack of empathy, callousness, and a preference for controlling and dominating others (Paulhus & Dutton, 2016).

Ingratiation can play an important role in facilitating and enhancing employee social relationships at the workplace. Social exchange theory (Blau, 1964) states that social interactions and relationships are based on a cost-benefit analysis. Individuals engage in social interactions and relationships in order to maximise their rewards (such as love, support, and resources) and minimise their costs (such as time, effort, and emotional distress). This forms the basis for workplace interactions between leaders and followers (Dulebohn et al., 2012). Individuals high in these dark traits have an exploitative social strategy which motivates them to work for self-serving goals. This violates the principles of social exchange, where relationships are maintained on the basis of a fair exchange of resources and rewards (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005).

In organisational research, the concept of leader-member exchange (LMX) rests on social exchange theory and is used to understand relationship dynamics between leaders and employees (Graen & Uhl-bien, 1995). According to LMX theory, leaders within organisations form different quality relations among their employees (Dulebohn et al., 2012). High-quality LMX relations are based on mutual trust, respect and sharing of resources, while low-quality LMX relations do not extend beyond formally agreed commitments (Dulebohn et al., 2012).

Employees may proactively engage in interpersonal influence behaviours at the workplace to improve their relationship with their leaders (Dienesch & Liden, 1986; Schriesheim et al., 2000). They are likely to use tactics like ingratiation to influence their leaders'

perceptions by enhancing their liking and appreciation of themselves (Dulebohn et al., 2012). Better relationships with leaders can help employees achieve personal goals in terms of positive performance appraisal, pay raises, promotions and engagement on complex tasks and projects, which can help them in career progression (Gordon, 1996; Judge & Bretz, 1994; Kipnis & Schmidt, 1988; Wayne & Kacmar, 1991; Zin et al., 2010).

Most of the research on the association between LMX and personality characteristics focuses on positive personality traits (Schyns, 2015a). Traits of agreeableness, extraversion, openness to experience and conscientiousness have been associated with high-quality relationships between leaders and employees, whereas neuroticism has been linked with poor-quality relationships in the workplace (Bernerth et al., 2007a; Kamdar & Van Dyne, 2007; Schyns et al., 2012; Sears & Hackett, 2011). Little is known about dark traits and their effect on LMX in the workplace (Schyns, 2015a). While leaders' dark personality traits at the workplace have been linked with abusive supervision (Kiazad et al., 2010; Mathieu & Babiak, 2016; Waldman et al., 2018; Wisse & Sleebos, 2016), low employee job performance, high CWBs (Spain et al., 2014), high job tension and stress (Harvey et al., 2007), and high manipulative disposition towards others (Blair et al., 2017; Duffy et al., 2002), how employees' dark traits contribute to the relationships at work remains largely unexplored (Schyns, 2015a).

One conundrum within this field of study concerns the career success of people with dark personality traits. Studies have shown that individuals possessing these traits are often quite successful in their lives and do not fit into the impulsive, aggressive, and criminal profiles that are commonly associated with individuals high in these traits (Cohen, 2016). Their skilled manipulation of others for the attainment of self-serving goals, even at the expense of others' rights, has led to them being identified in leadership positions (Cohen, 2016; Schyns, 2015b). Their self-confidence, boldness and ability to present themselves in a desirable way help them in convincing others of their leadership qualities (Chiaburu et al., 2013). The exploration of individuals exhibiting high levels of dark traits, especially those inclined towards narcissism, becomes profoundly significant given their prevalence among global leaders (Rosenthal & Pittinsky, 2006). Numerous world leaders have been recognised for their grandiose belief systems and distinctive leadership approaches. While not explicitly termed "narcissistic," their portrayals consistently depict figures driven by

unwavering arrogance and self-absorption which are the attributes common to individuals high in dark traits.

In their comprehensive literature review on narcissistic leaders, Rosenthal & Pittinsky (2006) highlight the spectrum, encompassing infamous historical figures like Adolf Hitler and Joseph Stalin, lesser-known malevolent leaders such as George Lincoln Rockwell and cult figure Jim Jones, as well as respected historical figures like Alexander Hamilton, business icons like Steve Jobs and Michael Eisner, and contemporary political leaders like Benjamin Netanyahu, John McCain, George W. Bush, and Jimmy Carter. Understanding the dynamics and impact of these traits in successful individuals across diverse domains sheds light on how these characteristics manifest, influencing leadership and offering invaluable insights into leadership impacts and complexities in various fields.

Empirical studies of the career success of people with dark personality traits are limited and have yielded mixed results. For instance, research by Spurk et al. (2016) shows that when analysed for objective career success outcomes of salary and leadership position and subjective career outcome of career satisfaction, narcissism was found to be positively associated with salary, but the relationship was insignificant for leadership position and career satisfaction. Machiavellianism was positively associated with both objective outcomes but had no significant relationship with subjective career success. Psychopathy was only found to be significantly negatively associated with career satisfaction. Another study by Paleczek et al. (2018) found narcissism to be positively associated with objective career outcomes of salary and leadership position, but no significant relation was found for job satisfaction – a subjective career success measure. Machiavellianism had no significant relationship with either objective or subjective outcomes. Psychopathy was only found to be negatively significantly associated with salary. These uneven research findings imply a complex relationship between dark traits and measures of career success. Recently researchers have started looking into mechanisms through which individuals high in dark traits, despite their negative conduct, not only get hired but often reach top positions within organisations (e.g., Hart et al., 2019a; Hart et al., 2022; Jonason et al., 2012; Tariq et al., 2021). These studies examine the association between dark traits and influence tactics dark individuals use to persuade others of their desirable qualities. However, no study has empirically investigated whether using influence tactics helps dark individuals achieve their goals for career success.

This study investigates how individuals high in dark traits achieve their goals for career success by examining their association with ingratiation behaviour and its effect on perceived LMX quality. Career success is investigated using both objective and subjective measures as it provides a comprehensive understanding of individuals' experiences and achievements in their careers. Research shows that subjective and objective career success is not always aligned. Individuals may achieve high levels of objective success, such as a prestigious job title or a big salary, but still feel dissatisfied or unfulfilled in their careers. On the other hand, individuals with modest objective success may experience high levels of subjective career success due to their strong sense of purpose, autonomy, and work-life balance.

Research on dark traits, in general, focuses on the negative outcomes, as these traits are associated with a lack of empathy, manipulative tendencies, and an inflated sense of self-importance. Individuals high in these traits are likely to engage in exploitative and unethical behaviours, aggression towards others and deviant behaviours, which can be detrimental to the well-being of others (Cohen, 2018). However, research is limited in exploring the well-being of individuals high in the dark traits (Limone et al., 2020). It is particularly important as understanding the well-being of individuals with these traits can provide valuable insights into the underlying mechanisms and factors that contribute to their psychological functioning. Moreover, it provides an understanding of how dark traits interact with various aspects of life, such as relationships, work, and overall satisfaction, shedding light on potential factors that may impact their well-being. Existing research on dark traits and well-being has provided mixed findings. While narcissism has been found to be positively associated with subjective well-being (Aghababaei & Blachnio, 2015; Egan et al., 2014; Limone et al., 2020; Papageorgiou et al., 2019), Machiavellianism and Psychopathy provide mixed results, while research on everyday sadism in this regard is non-existent.

Narcissists' strong belief in their superiority and entitlement can lead to a sense of self-satisfaction and feelings of happiness. Additionally, narcissists often engage in self-enhancement strategies, such as focusing on their achievements and strengths while downplaying or dismissing any flaws or criticisms. These strategies help protect their fragile self-esteem and maintain a positive self-view, contributing to their overall sense of well-being. Machiavellianism has been found to negatively associate with subjective well-

being (e.g., (Aghababaei & Blachnio, 2015; Joshanloo, 2021), yet some studies have found a positive (Sabouri et al., 2016) or no significant association at all among the two (Aminnuddin, 2020; Limone et al., 2020). Machiavellians are ambitious and self-serving, lack trust in others and believe others as means to their ends. This might lead to reduced well-being though they might get to experience short-term happiness from achieving their goals. Psychopathy has been linked to negative well-being (Aghababaei & Blachnio, 2015; Bartels & Pizarro, 2011; Durand, 2018; Egan et al., 2014; Joshanloo, 2021; Liu et al., 2021; Love & Holder, 2014); however, some researchers argue that Psychopaths might experience high subjective well-being as they only prioritise their own interests and focus on fulfilling their own needs (Foulkes et al., 2014).

The present research focuses on the well-being of dark individuals within the context of their use of ingratiation for achieving goals for career success. While ingratiation can be beneficial for employees in certain workplace situations, such as helping them build relationships with peers and superiors, receiving positive performance evaluations, and advancing career opportunities. the use of ingratiation tactics by individuals can be a taxing activity as it requires paying continuous attention to how one is coming across in their interactions with others (Yan et al., 2020). These efforts can deplete individuals' physical and psychological resources. Conservation of resources theory (Hobfoll, 1989) suggests that people have a limited amount of resources at their disposal and that they must carefully manage these resources in order to achieve their goals and maintain their well-being (Hobfoll, 2011). These resources can be physical, such as money and material possessions, or psychological, such as social support, self-esteem, and coping skills (Hobfoll, 2013). If these resources are depleted or become insufficient, individuals may experience negative outcomes, such as burnout, illness, or failure (Hobfoll et al., 2000). However, individuals high in dark traits thrive by exploiting others and do not hesitate to use manipulation or other assertive tactics to achieve their goals. How individuals high in dark traits experience these consequences remains unknown.

1.2 Research Objectives

There are four objectives of this research study. First, this study examines the relationship between the dark personality traits of Narcissism, Machiavellianism, Psychopathy and Sadism in the display of employee ingratiation behaviours. Second, the study explores the

association between these ingratiation behaviours on perceptions of LMX quality. Third, the study examines whether the quality of LMX leads to the objectively positive outcomes of promotions and salary increase, as well as the subjectively positive outcomes of career satisfaction and well-being. Finally, the study examines the indirect effect of employee dark personality traits on both objective and subjective outcomes via the mediating variables of ingratiation and LMX.

1.2.1 Objective One

Individuals high in dark traits have a manipulative and exploitative disposition towards others (Jonason et al., 2009). They are likely to use a variety of interpersonal influence and manipulation tactics toward family members, friends, and strangers (Jonason et al., 2012; Jonason & Webster, 2012). However, the link between these personality traits and influence tactics within an organisational context remains tenuous. Only a handful of studies have explored the association between dark triad traits and the use of influence tactics (e.g., Hart et al., 2019; Hart et al., 2022; Jonason et al., 2012). These studies reported that individuals high in dark traits frequently engage in using influence tactics at the workplace. Calls have been made for further exploration into the use of influence tactics by employees possessing dark personality within organisations and whether these tactics help them generate the desired response from others and achieve their goals for success in the workplace (Jonason et al., 2012). The present study responds to those calls and investigates the association between dark traits and ingratiation behaviours.

1.2.2 Objective Two

Ingratiation is a powerful influence tactic because it taps into the basic human need for social acceptance and belonging (Leban & Voyer, 2015). It is a calculated effort to build rapport and gain favour with the target individual in order to achieve a specific goal. Ingratiation can be a form of psychological manipulation when it is used to exploit the target's emotions and vulnerabilities to achieve the manipulator's desired objectives rather than a sincere attempt to build a genuine relationship with the target person (Pandey et al., 2020).

In this research, the influence of dark personality traits on the use of supervisor-oriented ingratiation tactics by employees is explored. The framework by which such influence is

examined is the leader-member exchange (LMX) theory (Dansereau et al., 1975). Ingratiation has been reported to positively influence the quality of leader-member relationships (Deluga & Perry, 1994; Dulebohn et al., 2012). However, most studies exploring this relationship are correlational in nature. The present two-wave study will provide support for the causal effect of ingratiation behaviour on LMX.

1.2.3 Objective Three

Many studies have found that high LMX is positively associated with subjective career success in terms of increased career satisfaction (Magnusen & Kim, 2016; Park et al., 2017); however, research on LMX interaction with objective measures of career success provides inconsistent results (Kraimer et al., 2015; Schaubroeck & Lam, 2002). Moreover, how dark personality traits interact with LMX and affect subsequent work outcomes remains largely unexplored (Schyns, 2015a). The current study will help investigate the association between LMX and career success outcomes, as well as how personality traits interact with LMX via the use of ingratiation tactics. As individuals high in dark traits are skilled at the manipulation and exploitation of others for personal agendas (Jones & Neria, 2015), the use of ingratiation tactics towards supervisors could be an effective strategy for them to achieve their goals for career progression in terms of salary increase and promotion. To date, this question remains largely unexplored (Schyns, 2015a).

Research shows that dark traits are associated with the display of deviant and unethical behaviours, which can negatively influence others' well-being. However, very few studies have looked into the well-being of individuals possessing those traits and exhibiting those deviant behaviours. This is particularly important as it provides an understanding of their unique psychological and emotional experiences and helps realise the broader societal implications of these traits and the complex interaction between nature and nurture. The present study investigates the well-being of individuals high in dark traits using ingratiation tactics to influence their relationship with their supervisor. Ingratiation requires envisioning and planning ways to appear likeable and sincere, which can deplete individuals' self-control resources (Leary, 2019; Vohs & Baumeister, 2004). Conservation of resource theory (Hobfoll, 1989) stipulates that individuals strive to gain, utilise, and maintain their resources for the performance of different tasks. The depletion of these resources may result in stress and exhaustion (Kim et al., 2017; Maslach et al., 2001). However, individuals high

in dark traits thrive on others' exploitation (Kajonius et al., 2016). Therefore, understanding how the use of supervisor-directed ingratiation tactics by employees high in dark traits influences their well-being is an important domain of enquiry.

1.2.4 Objective Four

The present study provides a comprehensive framework explaining the mechanisms by which individuals exhibiting elevated dark traits attain career success within organisational contexts. Although prior investigations have explored the use of influence tactics by such individuals within organisations, thereby explaining how they thrive in their careers despite displaying malevolent behavioural tendencies, empirical inquiry thus far is limited in exploring the specific influence of ingratiation tactics on the career success of dark individuals. This study aims to fill this research gap by proposing a theoretical pathway, positing that dark individuals strategically use ingratiation tactics towards their supervisors to cultivate a mutually beneficial relationship, which ultimately helps them in accomplishing their career objectives. Additionally, the study examines the subjective well-being of these individuals, recognising that while engaging in ingratiation can be mentally and emotionally burdensome, dark individuals derive a sense of pleasure and empowerment from exploiting and manipulating others. Therefore, comprehending the effects of ingratiation on their well-being constitutes another crucial objective of this research study.

1.3 Research Hypotheses

H1: There is a positive relationship between the dark personality traits of a) subclinical Narcissism, b) Machiavellianism, c) subclinical Psychopathy, and ingratiation behaviour; d) There is a relationship between Everyday Sadism and ingratiation behaviour.

H2: Ingratiation behaviour positively influences perceptions of the quality of leader-member exchange (LMX).

H3: Quality of leader-member exchange positively influences subjective career success.

H4: Quality of leader-member exchange positively influences objective career success in terms of a) promotions and b) salary increase.

H5: Quality of leader-member exchange positively influences subjective well-being.

H6: Personality traits of a) subclinical Narcissism, b) Machiavellianism, c) subclinical Psychopathy d) Everyday Sadism have an indirect effect on career satisfaction through ingratiation and LMX.

H7: Personality traits of a) subclinical Narcissism, b) Machiavellianism c) subclinical Psychopathy, d) Everyday Sadism have an indirect effect on objective career success, a) promotions, b) salary, through ingratiation and LMX.

H8: Personality traits of a) subclinical Narcissism, b) Machiavellianism, c) subclinical Psychopathy d) Everyday Sadism have an indirect effect on psychological wellbeing through ingratiation and LMX.

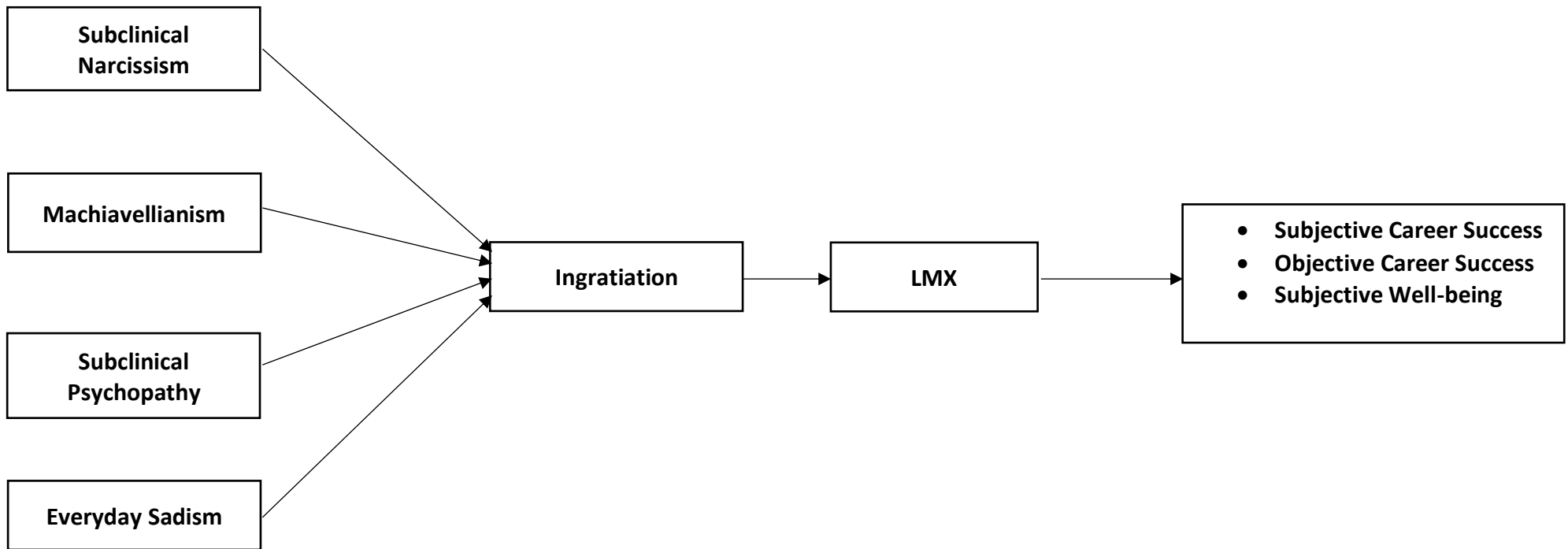


Figure 1-1 Theoretical Model of the Present Study

1.4 Theoretical Contributions

This research makes distinctive contributions to the understanding of dark personality traits and ingratiation behaviour within the organisational context. It is the first study to comprehensively explore the impact of all four dark personality traits on utilising ingratiation tactics in workplaces. While Machiavellianism's association with ingratiation has been previously studied (Zin et al., 2011), this research delves into the connection between all four traits in the dark tetrad and ingratiation behaviour. In parallel with recent explorations of the dark triad's link to influence tactics, this study investigates whether dark personality traits can predict supervisor-focused ingratiation tactics. Furthermore, it adds depth to the existing literature by examining the positive relationship between ingratiation behaviour and Leader-Member Exchange (LMX) longitudinally, challenging the limited cross-sectional designs of previous studies (Dulebohn et al., 2012). Addressing gaps in the understanding of LMX's association with both subjective and objective career success outcomes (Kraimer et al., 2015), this research pioneers an investigation into the mediating role of LMX between ingratiation tactics and career outcomes. Additionally, it sheds light on the subjective well-being of individuals high in dark traits who employ ingratiation tactics, an area often overlooked. The study not only contributes theoretically by exploring influence tactics among individuals with dark traits but also methodologically through its robust two-wave longitudinal design, offering insights towards potential causal inference. Overall, this research provides a comprehensive examination of how dark personality traits manifest in organisational settings, offering valuable insights for both theory and practice. Below is a detailed discussion around each key contribution this study makes.

This research contributes distinctively to the literature on dark personality and ingratiation behaviour. This is the first study to explore the influence of all four dark personality traits on the use of ingratiation tactics within organisations. While ingratiation has been studied in the context of the Machiavellianism (Roulin & Bourdage, 2017), this study provides insights into the association between all four personality traits in dark tetrad and ingratiation behaviour. While researchers have recently started exploring the link between dark triad and influence tactics (see Hart et al., 2019; Jonason et al., 2012), this study attempts to investigate whether dark personality traits predict the use of supervisor-focused ingratiation tactics at the workplace.

This study contributes to the existing literature on the positive relationship between ingratiation and LMX (see Dulebohn et al., 2012). Only a handful of studies have investigated the relationship between ingratiation and LMX, and all of them have used a cross-sectional correlational design (e.g., Deluga & Perry, 1994; Dockery & Steiner, 1990; Rai, 2009). Using two-wave data, this study will investigate whether the use of ingratiation tactics predicts change in LMX quality over a period of time. This study also investigates the relationship between LMX and career success outcomes. While the existing research supports a positive relationship between LMX and subjective career success, the research on the relationship between LMX and objective career success so far has provided mixed results. While most studies have found a positive association, some studies found no significant relationship between LMX and promotions/pay raises (Kraimer et al., 2015). The present study attempts to fill this gap in the literature by investigating the relationship between LMX and objective career success outcomes of LMX and a) promotions and b) salary increase at two points in time.

Employee personality is an essential contributing factor to the quality of the relationship between employer and employee (Schyns, 2015b). However, most research on LMX in the context of personality focuses only on the positive personality traits of employees and leaders (Schyns, 2015b). Little is known about the employee's dark personality traits and their link to LMX. This is particularly important because a good quality relationship with a supervisor can act as a bridge between an individual's desire for and ability to achieve career success goals. This research contributes to this gap in the literature by proposing an indirect relationship between dark personality traits and LMX via the use of ingratiation tactics. No study to date has examined this relationship.

Studies have examined the link between ingratiation and LMX, and LMX and career outcomes. However, no study to date has focused on LMX acting as a mediator between ingratiation and objective and subjective career outcomes. This is unfortunate as it constitutes a lacunae in our understanding of the mechanisms through which the use of ingratiation tactics translates into tangible and intangible work outcomes for its perpetrators. The use of ingratiation tactics by employees enhance supervisors' liking for them, which is a key factor that contributes to a good quality relationship between supervisor and employee (Wayne & Ferris, 1990). These good-quality relationships then

help employees achieve their desired goals for career success and well-being at work. This study is the first to explore this matter.

A further contribution of this study is its consideration of the subjective well-being of individuals high in dark traits. This is a largely neglected area of study. While the use of ingratiation tactics has been linked to psychological stress due to resource depletion and constant scheming (Vohs et al., 2005), whether this holds with respect to people ingratiating from the standpoint of dark personality traits remains unknown. This study provides exciting insights into how these personality traits are associated with well-being for those who use ingratiation tactics to progress in their careers.

This study makes a number of valuable contributions to the existing knowledge of dark personality traits. This is the first study to provide an integrated model investigating how individuals high in dark traits get ahead within organisations. Recently, scholars have started investigating the use of influence tactics by individuals high in dark traits to persuade others to provide what they want. However, the research in this area remains nascent, and no study to date has examined the success of such influence tactics in helping individuals high in dark traits achieve their goals for career success. The theoretical research by Tariq et al. (2021) proposed exploring the use of influence tactics by individuals high in dark traits in relation to establishing strong social networks at the workplace and achieving their goals for career success. The present study builds upon this theoretical knowledge and investigates this question empirically.

This study makes an additional contribution to this area of research from a methodological standpoint. This study has a two-wave longitudinal design where data are collected from the same group of respondents at two points. This helps confirm the validity of relationships proposed in the study and control for standard method variance, which can result from getting responses from a single source using one standard methodology (Baillien et al., 2014). Most of the research conducted on ingratiation and dark personality traits is cross-sectional, which is limited in explaining a temporal relation between the predictor and outcome variables (Agarwal et al., 2012; Podsakoff et al., 2003). The method chosen for this research can provide support for causal references to the relationships proposed in the study. The sample for this study is a heterogeneous group of professionals working in

different industries, which provides a reasonable basis for the generalisability of the results given the variance in the sample (Furnham et al., 2013).

1.5 Practical Implications

This study provides knowledge-based insights into dark personality traits and their ability to manipulate supervisory relationships at the workplace to their advantage. It provides an understanding of the role of dark personality traits in achieving their goals for career success using strategic influencing behaviours at work and influencing relationships with supervisors. Supervisors within organisations hold the key to resources that are important for employee career growth. Should they become receptive to strategic influencing behaviour from employees and reciprocate that behaviour with positive reinforcement, possibly undeserving people may be promoted to higher ranks, leading to perceptions of favouritism and unfairness, thus rendering the workplace environment highly politicised. This study provides awareness of such influence behaviours and personality traits at play behind those behaviours, helping managers intervene and address those behaviours before they damage the work culture.

Another implication of this study concerns the need for organisations to address the behaviours associated with the presence of such traits among employees. An understanding of such traits is important as individuals high in these traits can manipulate the system and reach positions of power, where they can create a hostile environment for others through their unethical practices (Schyns et al., 2019). This study helps identify such toxic behaviours and recommends taking measures to ensure the organisational climate remains uncorrupted by attempting to modify such employee behaviours. These may include adequately training employees and ensuring their healthy engagement in organisational matters. A hostile working environment may result in employees exhibiting deviant behaviours, as most deviant behaviours flourish in polluted environments leading to a display of unproductive, unethical practices (Appelbaum et al., 2005). Organisations need to develop and implement such methods to help identify, control or change such behaviours before it becomes the organisation's culture. This study will help create awareness among organisational leaders regarding such manipulative behaviours exhibited by employees and the personality traits at play behind these behaviours and also make them attentive to their

own biases, which can enable such behaviours within the workplace. Detailed implications have been discussed in the discussion chapter.

1.6 Structure of the Thesis

This thesis comprises ten chapters and is structured as follows. Chapter One provides an introduction to the study topic and the logic behind choosing this topic. Chapters Two to Seven comprise the literature review. Chapter Two reviews the Ingratiation construct. Chapter Three reviews the literature on dark traits and builds hypothesis for the link between dark traits and ingratiation behaviour. Chapter Four reviews the literature on perceived LMX quality and the relationship between ingratiation and LMX. Chapter Five reviews the literature on career success and builds hypotheses for the link between perceived LMX quality and subjective and objective career success. Chapter Six reviews the literature on subjective well-being and the link between perceived LMX quality and subjective well-being. Chapter Seven forms the basis for serial mediation hypotheses explaining proposed relationships between different variables in the theoretical model. Chapter Eight outlines the research methodology. It provides an overview of the philosophical underpinnings of the research, data collection procedure, sample size, dealing with missing data, sample characteristics, measures used for different constructs, dealing with common method bias and control variables. Chapter Nine provides data analysis techniques and the results obtained from such analysis. Finally, Chapter Ten provides a discussion of the results, theoretical contributions of the study, practical implications for managerial practice and industry and recommendations for future research.

1.7 Conclusion

This chapter provides an overview of the study and proposed relationships between dark personality traits, the constructs of ingratiation and LMX and both objective and subjective outcome variables (career success, career satisfaction and well-being). In addition, this chapter provides a graphic display of the proposed theoretical model, elaborates on research objectives, and provides a summary of hypotheses. This is followed by theoretical contributions of the study, implications for practice and an outline of the thesis structure.

2 Chapter 2 – Ingratiation

2.1 Introduction

Over the years, research has identified employees as proactive participants in creating a work environment that fits their skills, competencies and preferences (Tims et al., 2015). Employees use a variety of influence behaviours to create a favourable environment which helps them achieve their objectives. A particular set of behaviours that employees use to impact their work environments is upward influence, which refers to an agent's behaviours directed toward individuals at higher levels in the organisational hierarchy (Wayne et al., 1997). One of the most effective upward influence behaviours is the ingratiation (Tedeschi & Melburg, 1984).

In 1964, Jones (1964) introduced the concept of ingratiation and defined it as “a class of strategic behaviours illicitly designed to influence a particular other concerning the attractiveness of one’s personal qualities” (Jones, 1964). Since then, a number of scholars have attempted to define the concept of ingratiation; for instance, (Wortman & Linsenmeier, 1977) defined ingratiation similarly as “a class of strategic behaviours employed by a person to make himself more attractive to another” (Wortman & Linsenmeier, 1977). Another definition of ingratiation is “a set of assertive tactics which have the purpose of gaining the approbation of an audience that controls significant rewards for the actor” (Tedeschi & Melburg, 1984). Kipnis et al. (1980) introduced ingratiation as an influence tactic used by people in organisations to enhance the target’s liking for them or to appear friendly to get their way. The central idea of these definitions is that ingratiation is an attempt to gain the approval and acceptance of other people using subtle yet persuasive cajolery.

In the organisational context, ingratiation is the most common behaviour or tactic that subordinates use to make a positive impression on their supervisors to increase the likelihood of receiving desirable rewards in the future (Bohra & Pandey, 1984; Kipnis et al., 1980). These tactics help the ingratiator gain the sympathy of or liking from the target (Wayne et al., 1994), which may translate into positive supervisory responses, such as a good performance rating (Dulebohn et al., 2005; Varma et al., 2006) and rewards in the form of salary and promotions (Higgins et al., 2003; Orpen, 1996).

The concept of ingratiation is generally considered to comprise a number of dimensions, namely self-enhancement, Other-enhancement, Opinion Conformity and Favour-rendering (Jones, 1964). Self-enhancement involves behaviours focused on presenting the self to increase one's attractiveness in the eyes of the target, by, perhaps, describing or behaving in a particular way to show positive personality characteristics. Other-enhancement involves expressing favourable opinions and evaluations of the target person by praising them or saying conformity to their views. These tactics are effective because the target person feels they need to reciprocate in the same manner. Opinion Conformity is expressing an opinion or behaving in a way that is consistent with the ideas, judgments, or behaviour of the target individual. Favour-rendering is often combined with Other-enhancement and is based on the concept that helping the target would be seen as a positive gesture, such that the target would be indebted to return the favour (Varma et al., 2006).

2.2 Classifications of Ingratiation

Studies have referred to ingratiation both as an impression management behaviour and influence behaviour, with these terms often being used interchangeably (Higgins et al., 2003; Higgins & Judge, 2004; Judge & Bretz, 1994; Wayne & Ferris, 1990). The researcher has created a diagram (Figure 2-1) explaining how both typologies define ingratiation behaviours and the conceptual overlap between them. The difference between the two is the goal linked to their use. Impression management behaviours are used to achieve personal goals. They are primarily focused on self-presentation, while influence behaviours are broader in the sense that these tactics are used both for personal and organisational goals (Bolino et al., 2016).

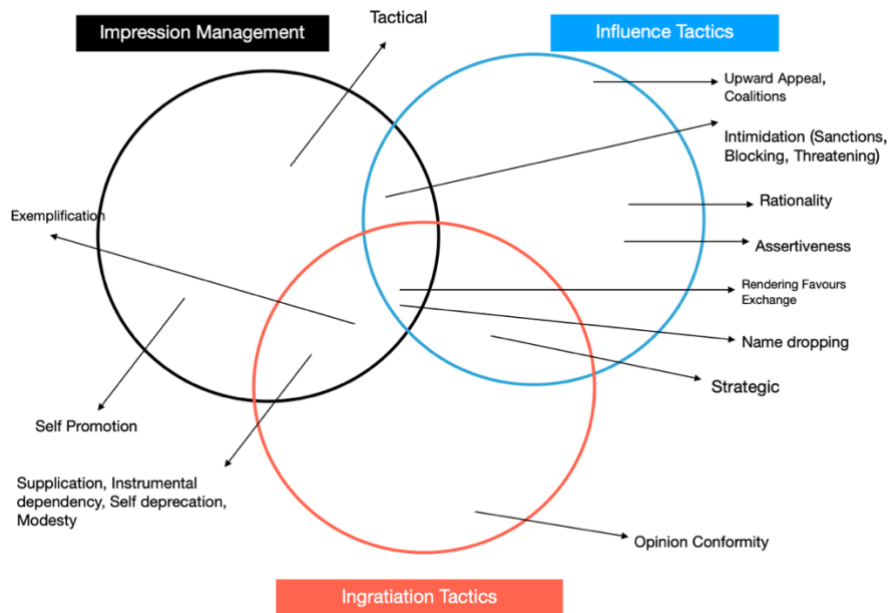


Figure 2-1 Ingratiation as an Impression Management or Influence Tactic (Author 2023)

2.2.1 Ingratiation as an Influence Tactic in the organisational context

The premise on which ingratiation is viewed as an influence tactic rests on the concept of power. Power is a valued social commodity. People are perceived and treated differently according to the power they possess (Hagberg, 2002). Scholars have argued that subordinates prefer to voice their concerns to superiors they perceive to be powerful (Detert & Burris, 2007). Thus, immediate supervisors who are deemed powerful attract a more significant amount of communication and hence ingratiation from their subordinates. French & Raven (1959) defined power as the “potential influence” one actor can exert on another. While the terms “power” and “influence” are often used interchangeably, influence is the actual manifestation of a person's inherent capacity, whereas power is the innate capacity to influence others (Fiske & Berdahl, 2007).

Social scientists have developed several classification systems to understand how people try to use power to influence others, the most popular of which is French & Raven (1959) five bases of power. Reward power entails an agent’s ability to reward the target’s desired behaviour; coercive power involves the agent’s power to punish the target for failure to comply with the desired behaviour. Legitimate power is the perception that the influencing

agent has the formal right to prescribe desired behaviour; expert power stems from the agent's expertise, skills and knowledge in a given area. Referent power is the target's identification with the influencing agent based on personal liking and respect. These powers are resources used by superiors within organisations to influence their subordinates' behaviours (Raven, 2008).

Additional classifications include the work of Etzioni (1975), who proposed different power types used within organisations to control participants. These include coercive, remunerative and normative. Coercive power involves the use of force and threats to control participants, while remunerative power involves the use of extrinsic rewards, including salary, job security, and promotions. Remunerative power is the ability to influence others by controlling material resources such as salary, benefits, pay cuts and promotions (Krott et al., 2014). Normative power involves the use of intrinsic rewards which are more symbolic than material and appeal to people's perceptions of prestige, status and self-esteem as a means of control (Etzioni & Lehman, 1980). It is more common in organisations such as churches, schools and professional associations than in commercial settings (Lunenburg, 2012). Schlenker argued that individuals would use different types of power (either reward, coercive or referral) based on the amount of control they gain from using each one (Schlenker & Tedeschi, 1972; Tedeschi, 2017).

Certain problems with these deductive classification schemes have been identified. For example, the difference between bases (source) of power and influence strategies has yet to be made explicit (Raven, 1993). Furthermore, it is assumed that when power bases are known, aligned influence tactics are to be anticipated such that a person possessing coercion power will inevitably deploy sanctions and pressure tactics. Tedeschi et al. (2011) have argued not only that this is not always the case but also that these classification systems fail to cover all the influence strategies individuals use to exert power (Tedeschi et al., 2011).

To overcome these problems, researchers devised inductive schemes to identify influence tactics (Cody et al., 1980; Falbo et al., 1980). Using this methodology, Kipnis et al. (1980) devised a list of influence tactics managers use within organisations to influence their superiors, subordinates and peers. They identified eight influence tactics, namely Assertiveness, Ingratiation, Rationality, Sanctions, Exchange, Upward Appeal, Blocking

and Coalition. These tactics were later revised and categorised into a) hard, b) soft, and c) rational tactics depending on their effectiveness in terms of compliance, commitment or resistance (Kipnis & Schmidt, 1985a; Falbe & Yukl, 1992). The agent uses hard tactics when they anticipate resistance from the target and when the target's behaviour violates organisational or social norms (Kipnis & Schmidt, 1985a). Soft tactics are used when the agent desires a personal favour from the target and may use flattery to get their way, while rational tactics are used when neither party has an advantage over others, and the use of logical reasoning and evidence are used to persuade others (Kipnis & Schmidt, 1985b). These tactics are mostly used for the benefit of the agent and the organisation.

2.2.1.1 The use of influence tactics

The choice of a particular tactic depends on several factors, including the characteristics of the influence agent (Mowday, 1978) and target person (Deluga, 1988); the goals of the influence attempt (Ansari & Kapoor, 1987; Kipnis et al., 1980; Rao et al., 1995); the influence situation (Martin, 1988), and the organisational climate (Cheng, 1983). Kapoor & Ansari (1988), in their research on influence tactics, proposed that the choice of influence strategies changes with the bases of power such that executives who perceive themselves as possessing coercion, information, reward, legitimacy or connection power bases more often use negative means of influence such as threats, challenges and damaging sanctions. The choice of influence tactic also depends on the organisational climate. If the climate is political, members will use political tactics like ingratiation and upward appeals, while if the climate is judicious, members will use tactics like rational persuasion (Ansari & Kapoor, 1987; Cheng, 1983).

Executives who were high on the need for achievement (Wu et al., 2007) and need for power (Ramlall, 2004) made greater use of rational tactics compared to those with lower needs who used exchange and challenge tactics (Kapoor & Ansari, 1988). This is consistent with (Mowday, 1978) analysis of exercise and effectiveness of influence, which showed that individuals who used influence tactics more frequently, such as school principals, in this case, had high intrinsic power motivation as well as high self-perceptions of power. The choice of the tactic was influenced by the type of decision to be affected, the influence target and the appropriate timing for the influence attempt.

People use various influence tactics depending on the goal they intend to achieve. The goal can be either personal or organisational. Personal goals may include securing benefits such as better work assignments or career advancement. Organisational goals include encouraging others to perform effectively, promoting new ideas and creativity within the workplace, and introducing new policies and procedures at work (Schmidt & Kipnis, 1984). Research shows that individuals seeking personal benefits may use soft tactics such as ingratiation, while those seeking organisational benefits may use assertive or rational tactics (Ansari & Kapoor, 1987; Kipnis & Schmidt, 1983; Mowday, 1979; Rao et al., 1995).

Deluga (1988) proposed that subordinates use different influence tactics depending upon whether the leader's approach at work is task-centred or people-oriented. The results indicated that as perceived task-centred leadership increased, employees reported significantly greater use of bargaining, assertiveness, higher authority, and coalition as strategies to influence their superiors. Further, it was observed that as the perceived level of people-centred leadership behaviour rose, subordinates reported a significantly decreased use of bargaining and higher authority as influence strategies during the first influence attempts. Similarly, transactional leadership was associated with the increased use of influence tactics by employees. Leaders who engaged in transactional or exchange relationships with employees were frequently the target of employee influence activity (Deluga, 1988).

A meta-analysis by Higgins et al. (2003) on the association between influence tactics and work-related outcomes indicated that ingratiation and rationality positively impacted individuals' performance assessments and extrinsic success (salary and promotions). Employee influence tactics indirectly impact human resource decisions, such as performance ratings, promotability assessments and compensation, by affecting managers' perceptions of the subordinate's interpersonal skills, manager liking of subordinates, and managers' perceptions of similarity to subordinates (Wayne et al., 1997).

Upward influence research indicates that the effectiveness of different influence tactics varies and that subordinates use upward influence tactics like ingratiation to receive desired outcomes, such as positive performance ratings, promotions, or salary increases (Kipnis et al., 1980). Subordinate influence attempts are aimed at affecting the manager's perceptions of their skills and competencies, enhancing the manager's effect on the employee to

influence the desired outcomes (Judge & Ferris, 1993; Wayne & Ferris, 1990), and the manager's perception of similarity between the employee and manager (Wayne & Liden, 1995).

2.2.2 Ingratiation as an Impression Management (IM) Tactic

In 1955, Goffman introduced the concept of impression management (IM) to the behavioural sciences. He suggested that people manage the impression they make in interpersonal interactions by using different strategies depending on the situation and desired outcome. Goffman framed a dramaturgical model of social interactions where people are 'actors' engaged in 'performances' in various 'settings' before the audience. The critical task of actors is to construct an identity. Through their performance, the actors (people) attempt to control the images or identities they want to portray to the relevant audience. The performance depends upon the situation's characteristics and the target audience. By interacting with and influencing the situation and audience, performers can position themselves better to achieve desired ends. Goffman also described the importance of self-presentation for defining the individual's place in the social environment, establishing the tone and direction of interaction, and explaining how roles influence performance (Lewin & Reeves, 2011).

Jones (1964) extended Goffman's work on self-presentation by suggesting that people attempt to control others' impression of their personality and social identity by presenting themselves in a certain way (Leary & Kowalski, 1990). People use a variety of attraction-seeking strategies to influence how others view them. (Jones & Pittman, 1982) used the term "strategic self-presentation" to describe such behaviour features, influenced by power enhancement motives, designed to elicit or shape others' attributions of the actor's dispositions. He introduced a taxonomy of five classes of strategic self-presentation: Ingratiation, Self-Promotion, Intimidation, Exemplification and Supplication.

Ingratiation is the strategy in which individuals use flattery or favours to elicit an attribution of likability from observers. Individuals use self-promotion to promote their abilities or accomplishments to be seen as competent by others. Exemplification is used by people who want to encourage a selfless image of themselves and would engage in helping behaviours

and go above and beyond their job responsibilities to appear dedicated, generous and self-disciplined; Intimidation is used where people signal their power or potential to punish to be seen as dangerous by their target; and individuals use Supplication for advertising their weaknesses or shortcomings to elicit an attribution of being needy from the person of target (Bolino & Turnley, 1999).

These strategies are also known as impression management tactics (Gardner & Cleavenger, 1998; Harris et al., 2013; Turnley & Bolino, 2001). Schlenker (1980) defined Impression Management as “the conscious or unconscious attempt to control images that are projected in real or imagined social interactions” (p. 6). People are motivated to create and maintain the desired image to manage how others perceive them and receive positive evaluations from them (Bozeman & Kacmar, 1997). Tedeschi & Reiss (1981) defined IM as “any behaviour by a person that has the purpose of controlling or manipulating the attributions and impressions formed of that person by others”. Wayne & Liden (1995) defined IM as “behaviours individuals employ to protect their self-images, influence the way others perceive them, or both. With minor differences, all these definitions share one common theme: people use impression management to control and maintain a specific identity (Bozeman & Kacmar, 1997).

As impression management has become a common practice within organisations, various researchers have tried to explain the concept and introduced different classification systems to explain the idea. For example, Tedeschi & Melburg (1984) classified impression management tactics as assertive and defensive. Assertive tactics are the proactive approach toward creating a positive self-image, e.g., ingratiation and self-promotion. Defensive tactics are reactive to situational demands and used passively to protect or repair an image, e.g., excuses, justifications, and apologies. IM tactics can be tactical (short-term) or strategic (long-term) in time orientation, depending upon the goal, whether long-term or short-term (Wayne & Liden, 1995).

Concurrently, Wayne & Ferris (1990) developed a trichotomy by classifying impression management tactics into job-focused, supervisor-focused, and self-focused. Job-focused tactics are oriented toward the job and include enhancements and self-promoting actions intended to make one appear more competent at one's job. Thus, such tactics motivate self-promotion (Ferris et al., 1994). Employees use such behaviours to amplify positive results

(even if they had little contribution) and underplay negative events for which they are genuinely responsible (Bolino et al., 2006; Turnley & Bolino, 2001). Alternatively, supervisor-focused tactics are directed at the supervisor and are intended to increase the supervisor's effect on the subordinate (Wayne & Ferris, 1990). These were referred to as ingratiation attempts (Ferris, Judge, et al., 1994). Finally, self-focused tactics are exhibited to create the image of a polite, friendly and dedicated person (Wayne & Ferris, 1990). However, what is the motivation behind self-focused tactics remains to be seen.

As impression management is focused on the link between an agent and a target (dyadic), most of the research in this area has focused on the use of IM in the context of interviews (e.g., Ellis et al., 2002; Higgins & Judge, 2004; Kristof-Brown et al., 2002; McFarland et al., 2003), performance appraisal (e.g., Barsness et al., 2005; Bolino & Turnley, 2003; Ferris et al., 1994; Harris, Zivnuska, et al., 2007; Treadway et al., 2007; Wayne & Liden, 1995; Wayne & Ferris, 1990; Wayne & Kacmar, 1991) and career success (e.g., Judge & Bretz, 1994; Wayne et al., 1997). Impression management has also been investigated in the context of the feedback-seeking (Ashford & Northcraft, 1992; Morrison & Bies, 1991), organisational citizenship behaviour (Bolino, 1999; Hui et al., 2000; Yun et al., 2007), and leadership and management (Gardner & Avolio, 1998; Greenberg, 1990).

IM tactics during interviews are likely to positively influence the recruiter's perceptions of the candidate's ability and skill (Higgins & Judge, 2004). Interviews allow individuals to manage their impressions and portray an image desirable to the recruiter. These tactics are likely to influence the recruiter's hiring decisions, who may consider the individual likeable and a suitable fit for the job (Kristof-Brown et al., 2002). Similarly, the use of IM tactics by employees toward their supervisors may influence the supervisor's perceptions of similarity and liking for the employee, resulting in them positively appraising the employee's performance (Wayne & Liden, 1995; Wayne & Ferris, 1990) and promoting them or increasing their pay. Judge & Bretz (1994) examined the impact of political influence behaviour, in terms of supervisor-focused tactics (ingratiation) and job-focused tactics (self-promotion), on career success. These tactics significantly predicted both intrinsic and extrinsic career success. Supervisors may also view employees' use of IM tactics as a display of organisational citizenship behaviours when employees purposefully engage in behaviours which are helpful and portray them as willing to go the extra mile for the organisation (Bolino et al., 2006). Individuals may also use IM tactics to portray the

image of a charismatic leader desirable to the organisation and its members (Gardner & Avolio, 1998).

2.2.3 Ingratiation as a Political Tactic

Political behaviour is a prevalent feature of organisational life. It is used to exert power and influence to protect the interests of individuals or groups and emerges due to differences between people (Treadway et al., 2005). Kacmar & Baron (1999) defined organisational politics as "actions by individuals which are directed towards the goal of furthering their self-interest without regard for the well-being of others or their organisation" (p. 675). While political behaviour can help individuals in career advancement, gain more control and power, and provide recognition and status (Fairholm, 2009), it can also result in loss of credibility and status, demotion, hampered performance, misuse of resources, conflict with peers and distraction from organisational goals.

Despite this, organisational members frequently use political behaviours and tactics to advance their interests. Ingratiation is one such political behaviour (Appelbaum & Hughes, 1998b). Zin and colleagues (2011) refer to it as a refined form of organisational politics (Zin et al., 2011). Ingratiation is commonly used by subordinates to control the supervisor's decisions regarding performance, pay and promotions. Though ingratiation behaviours are not considered illicit or sanctioned within the organisational sphere, they can prove detrimental to the organisation because the less deserving people receive better rewards and career growth than those who deserve but don't use political tactics to influence their bosses.

Ingratiation is considered a political tactic because the motive behind employees' pro-social behaviour towards others is unknown and because it is aimed at deceiving others into delivering positive outcomes for the perpetrator of this behaviour (Eastman, 1994). Numerous studies have examined ingratiation as political behaviour and its influence on various organisational processes and outcomes, including perceptions of politics within an organisation, career success and supervisor satisfaction (e.g., Appelbaum & Hughes, 1998a; Aryee et al., 1993; Asadullah et al., 2016; Ferris et al., 2000; Kumar & Ghadially,

1989; Orpen, 1994; Ralston, 1985; Siswanti & Muafi, 2010; Wortman & Linsenmeier, 1977; Zin et al., 2011).

This review of the literature reveals ingratiation tactics to be defined under different umbrella terms, namely influence tactics, impression management tactics and political behaviour. However, all three typologies characterise ingratiation as a soft tactic involving behaviours specifically designed to influence how others perceive them (Bolino et al., 2016). Individuals use these tactics to enhance others' liking towards them. The motivation behind these tactics is to gain others' approval and translate that into positive, tangible outcomes for themselves (Varma et al., 2006). Within organisations, employees use these tactics towards supervisors to help them get positive performance evaluations, and their chances of promotability will increase (Sibunruang et al., 2016).

2.3 Ingratiation motives

Ralston (1985b) identified various individual and situational variables contributing to a person's willingness to ingratiate. Individual factors include Locus of control (Lefcourt, 1991), Machiavellianism (Wilson et al., 1996), skill uniqueness and need for power. Locus of control is the extent to which individuals believe they have control over their lives or that their fate lies under environmental forces beyond their control (Lefcourt, 1991). Individuals with an external locus of control attribute their success and failure to external factors that they believe are out of control. Individuals with an internal locus of control believe their success or failures are due to their ability and efforts rather than external events (Pannells & Claxton, 2008). Ralston (1985) states that an individual with an internal locus of control is more likely to use ingratiation tactics to influence people due to their belief that they have control over their success or failure.

Machiavellianism is a personality trait characterised by a manipulative interpersonal style (Christie & Geis, 1970). Individuals high in Machiavellianism are clever, selfish and deceitful. They believe in exploiting others for their selfish gains and show no guilt or remorse over their actions. Machiavellians are more likely to use ingratiation tactics because of their disposition towards manipulating and controlling others (Ralston, 1985a). Similarly, individuals who think they do not possess any special skills which distinguish them from others at work may be likely to use the ingratiation

(Appelbaum & Hughes, 1998a). The need for power is another dispositional factor related to using ingratiation tactics (Kacmar et al., 2004). Individuals with a high need for power use ingratiation tactics to influence others and control their environment (Kumar & Beyerlein, 1991).

A number of situational factors identified as motives for ingratiation include the leadership style of the leader, the ambiguity of a work task, the scarcity of resources and perceptions of fairness (Erdogan & Liden, 2006; Ralston, 1985b). The superior's leadership style in the work unit impacts employees' use of ingratiation. Autocratic leaders prefer to give directions rather than involve employees in resolving issues or making decisions (Bhatti et al., 2012). They perceive their employees to be incapable of thinking independently and block any chances for employees to use their creative abilities at work, thus encouraging them to use ingratiation tactics as an indirect way to gain the approval of their leaders (Ralston, 1985b). If the leader is autocratic, employees may have less opportunity to express themselves, leading them to use tactics around their superiors to distinguish themselves from other group members.

Moreover, when management does not clearly define tasks, ambiguity and uncertainty arise (Wright & Millesen, 2008). Under these circumstances, an employee may be uncertain about whether his performance on the task will have the desired outcome. Thus, the more ambiguous a task is, the greater the possibility of an individual using ingratiation behaviour. When organisational resources are scarce and competition is high, people may use ingratiation tactics to impress their superiors who hold the key to these resources (Sibunruang et al., 2016).

Individuals also use ingratiation tactics when human resource policies and procedures are not well established, the organisational climate is political, and individuals are highly dependent on other members of the organisation for information, resources, and task completion, and the criteria for performance appraisal are subjective (Andrews et al., 2009). The lack of proper policies and procedures around hiring, appraisals and promotions creates ambiguity around organisational decision-making and perceptions of fairness. Employees may consider hiring and reward decisions as politically motivated rather than based on fair principles. This may compel employees to use ingratiation tactics toward those holding power to make decisions within the organisation (Gregg, 2011; Liden & Mitchell, 1988).

Finally perceived absence of fairness motivates ingratiation in organisations (Erdogan & Liden, 2006). When employees perceive that resources and rewards are unfairly distributed or that they are being treated unjustly, they may resort to using ingratiation tactics. The purpose of such tactics is to appear more likeable, trustworthy and friendly, which might alter the supervisor's perceptions of them and treat them more fairly in the future (Erdogan & Liden, 2006).

Another study by Liden & Mitchell (1988) outlined two leading antecedents of ingratiation behaviours. The need for humans to receive positive regard from others can result in ingratiation behaviours. Secondly, specific needs and opportunities can prompt ingratiation. These particular needs were classified by Tedeschi & Melburg (1984) as defensive and assertive. Defensive needs are prompted when an individual needs to defend himself against criticism or negative feedback and reinstate their positive self-image and self-esteem. Ingratiation behaviours used for defensive purposes are primarily short-term and focused on achieving immediate gains. For instance, after receiving negative feedback, the individual may try to rebuild their image by apologising for poor performance and promising it will not happen in future, or the individual can use excuses to justify their poor performance by blaming coworkers, faulty equipment or task ambiguity.

Assertive needs are focused on long-term goals and attaining positive reactions in the future. Ingratiation behaviours used to meet assertive needs are more proactive than reactive and may be directed at the self or the other person. Self-focused behaviours include presenting and favourably promoting yourself; job applicants use self-promotion and presentation tactics at interviews to get hired. Other focused behaviours involve enhancing one's attraction to target by praising them, complimenting them, agreeing with them and doing favours for them (Tedeschi & Melburg, 1984). Individuals attempting to ingratiate are likely to do a cost-benefit analysis of their move first. Costs of ingratiation may arise if the target person identifies the ingratiation's ulterior motives, resulting in public ridicule or even demotion of the instigator. However, perceived benefits, including pay raises and promotions, may counteract these costs and make individuals eager to use the ingratiation (Liden & Mitchell, 1988).

Another important antecedent is the target's perceived susceptibility. Individuals will engage in ingratiation if they think the target person is gullible or highly supportive and would respond positively to their overtures. They believe they can easily persuade the target because of their supportive and friendly nature. Other factors influencing the agent's decision to use ingratiation include the target's status, age, gender, and congruence in attitudes and values. The similarity in demography, status, attitudes and values with the target may cause them to use ingratiation tactics (Musser, 1982) as the similarity-attraction paradigm (Byrne, 1971) dictates that people are more attracted to those whom they think are similar to them.

Research on ingratiation and personality traits shows that high levels of Extraversion, Emotionality (a variant of Neuroticism), and Agreeableness are associated with specific aspects of the ingratiation (Bourdage et al., 2015). Extraversion is positively related to ingratiation directed towards supervisors, as extraverts value social acceptance and likability (Cable & Judge, 2003). Emotionality, characterized by a reliance on others for emotional support and forming strong emotional bonds, is likely to lead individuals to prioritise being liked through ingratiation (Lee & Ashton, 2004). Finally, individuals high in Agreeableness, known for being patient, tolerant, and forgiving, are also likely to engage in ingratiation due to their accommodating nature (Kristof-Brown et al., 2002). While there has been research examining the relationship between personality and ingratiation, the understanding of this association is still evolving, and more research is indeed needed to fully comprehend the role of personality in ingratiation attempts.

2.4 Outcomes of Ingratiation

Ingratiation is an effective strategy for gaining favour and acceptance from others (Wu et al., 2021). It involves actively trying to align oneself with the values, beliefs, and preferences of the person or group that one is trying to gain favour from (Bolino et al., 2016). Within organisations, employees may use ingratiation in order to gain favour with their superiors, improve their relationships with coworkers, or increase their chances of promotions or other opportunities (Sibunruang et al., 2016). They may also use ingratiation as a way to influence decisions or gain access to valuable resources or information (Omrane, 2015). When directed at supervisors, ingratiation may help employees receive positive performance appraisals, which increases their chances for career advancement

(Appelbaum & Hughes, 1998a). Ingratiation is used as a career management strategy by employees to influence positive perceptions of them by their supervisors. Studies show that such consequences indeed emerge from ingratiation tactics (Ralston, 1985b; Wortman & Linsenmeier, 1977). Numerous studies have found support for the positive influence of employee ingratiation tactics on supervisor's performance ratings of subordinates, (Ferris et al., 1994; Kipnis & Schmidt, 1988; Wayne & Liden, 1995; Wayne & Ferris, 1990; Wayne & Kacmar, 1991). Supervisors' liking for an employee may impair their performance judgements, resulting in biased evaluations. When evaluating performance, supervisors may recall the positive behaviour of the ingratiation while ignoring any contradictory evidence, thus giving them high-performance ratings (Wayne & Liden, 1995).

In a seminal study, Kipnis et al. (1980) experimentally manipulated the performance appraisals of three groups of workers. Group 1 comprised workers with average performance who were highly engaged in sophisticated ingratiation with their supervisors. Group 2 included workers with average performance but who used common ingratiation tactics with their supervisors. Group 3 comprised high performers who did not engage in ingratiation at all. Results of the experiment showed that workers who used high levels of ingratiation and those who were high performing received higher performance evaluations than workers with average performance who used no or low levels of ingratiation. These findings indicate that employees using ingratiation tactics can successfully influence superiors' opinions despite objective performance metrics.

Similarly, supervisors' assessments of employee promotability are susceptible to employee attempts to influence (Bretz & Judge, 1994; Thacker & Wayne, 1995). Promotion decisions within organisations are more likely based on subjective perceptions of supervisors about employee performance. Employees can influence supervisors' perceptions of themselves by creating an impression of competence (Thacker & Wayne, 1995). Employees may also portray characteristics or behaviours that are likeable to the supervisor. The supervisor may prefer to include people in their team who are similar to themselves as this can help them build coalitions and strengthen their power base within the organisation (Ferris & Judge, 1991).

Ingratiation is not only used by employees to influence their supervisors but also used by top managers and CEOs towards their peers within organisations to get recommendations for appointments on executive board seat (Stern & Westphal, 2010). Top managers and CEOs use subtle forms of ingratiation to influence their peers, which are not suspected to be nefarious (Stern & Westphal, 2010).

During job interviews, convincing the interviewer of their competency is the most crucial goal for job applicants. Research suggests that job candidates often use ingratiation tactics to attract the interviewer's attention. The idea behind using ingratiation tactics in interviews is based on two social psychology theories: the similarity-attraction effect and social identity theory. Similarity-attraction theory posits that people are attracted to those with similar opinions, values and beliefs (Byrne, 1971). Social identity theory refers to an individual's categorisation into groups based on perceived similarities and differences (Tajfel, 1978). During interviews, applicants use ingratiation tactics of opinion conformity and other enhancement to show they share similar ideals, goals, beliefs and characteristics as the interviewer.

Research shows that supervisors' perceptions of similarity and liking for the employee result in an improved interpersonal relationship between supervisor and employee, favourable performance evaluations of employee performance, and better chances of promotion at work (Deluga & Perry, 1994; Wayne et al., 1997; Wayne & Liden, 1995; Wayne & Ferris, 1990). A study by Ellis et al. (2002) showed that applicants' use of ingratiation during interviews positively influences the interviewer's evaluations of the applicant's capability. Applicants using ingratiation tactics in job interviews often make a positive impression on the interviewer. This may result in biased selection decisions, thus jeopardising the whole selection process (Varma et al., 2006).

Ingratiation can be a powerful tool for influencing others and achieving desired outcomes (Bailey, 2015). Ingratiation is powerful because it involves building relationships and creating positive feelings in others through flattering, agreeing, or conforming to their desires and expectations (Sibunruang & Kawai, 2021). It can be particularly useful in situations where one is seeking approval or trying to build trust with someone who holds a position of power or influence. When someone feels appreciated and valued by another person, they are more likely to be influenced by them and be more open to their suggestions

or requests (Kim et al., 2018). Additionally, ingratiation can be used to create a sense of indebtedness in others, making them feel obligated to return the favour or help in some way (Appelbaum & Hughes, 1998b). Existing research indicates that ingratiation is used by job applicants in interviews to make a good first impression (Amaral et al., 2019). When used to achieve short-term goals, ingratiation is called a tactical approach, also known as impression management (Bolino et al., 2016). Employees within organisations frequently use ingratiation towards their supervisors to gain their approval which may help them in achieving their goals for career success. When used to achieve long-term goals, ingratiation becomes a strategic tool to influence others and falls within the umbrella of influence tactics (Tedeschi et al., 2017). In the present study, ingratiation is studied as an influence tactic used by employees to achieve their goals for career advancement.

3 Chapter 3 Dark Personality Traits

3.1 Introduction

The concept of personality is based on the fundamental idea that people have unique characteristics (Hogan, 2007). These characteristics influence people's attitudes and behaviours and distinguish them from others in how they express themselves and live their lives (Allport, 1961; Matthews et al., 2003). Studies suggest that personality is shaped by both genetic makeup (nature) as well as environmental factors (nurture) (Eysenck, 1990), although the relative strength of these factors remains unclear (Eagly & Wood, 2013; Lock & Palsson, 2016).

A number of different approaches have been taken to understand personality. The behavioural approach to understanding personality focuses on the observable behaviours of individuals and the environmental factors that influence those behaviours (Matthews et al., 2003). This approach suggests that personality is shaped by learning through reinforcement and punishment, as well as through social and cultural experiences. According to this perspective, personality traits are not innate or fixed, but rather they are developed through the reinforcement of certain behaviours and are influenced by the environment they live in (McLeod, 2007). On the other hand, Trait-based personality research rests on the premise that personality traits are measurable, relatively stable, vary across individuals and are expressed in how people interact (McCrae & Costa, 2008).

Findings from such studies reveal that people describe the differences between individuals using certain adjectives, words and phrases (Allport & Odbert, 1936; John et al., 2008). This lexical analysis became the basis for the introduction of the Big Five Personality traits model (Fiske, 1949): Extraversion, Agreeableness, Conscientiousness, Emotional Stability (Neuroticism), and Openness to Experience, (Cobb-Clark & Schurer, 2012; Yang et al., 1999). A large body of evidence supports the validity of this framework (Judge & Zapata, 2015; Mount et al., 1994), and it has been used to examine the influence of personality on many different behavioural outcomes as well as mental and physical health (Goodwin & Friedman, 2006; Ozer & Benet-Martinez, 2006), longevity (Friedman et al., 2010; Roberts et al., 2007), job satisfaction, occupational choice and status (Borghans et al., 2008; Hogan & Holland, 2003; Ozer & Benet-Martinez, 2006; Roberts et al., 2007; Salgado, 1997), satisfaction within intimate relationships (Malouff et al., 2010).

The Big Five personality model focuses on traits representing human nature's positive or 'bright' side (Furnham, 2015). In 2002, Paulhus & Williams argued that dark traits are equally important to consider concerning a comprehensive appreciation of the spectrum of human personality. Such traits are referred to as 'dark' because they are associated with various socially and ethically aversive behaviours. These include aggression and violence (Dini & Wertag, 2018; Knight et al., 2018; Pailing et al., 2014; Paulhus et al., 2018), lack of empathy for others (Jonason & Kroll, 2015; Pajevic et al., 2018; Wai & Tiliopoulos, 2012), counterproductive behaviours at workplace (Jonason et al., 2014; O' Boyle et al., 2012; Spain et al., 2014; Spurk et al., 2016), infidelity (Jonason & Buss, 2012; Jonason & Kavanagh, 2010) and desire for power and money (Jonason & Ferrell, 2016; Kajonius et al., 2015; Lee et al., 2013).

Paulhus & Williams (2002) introduced a taxonomy of socially aversive personality characteristics named the "Dark Triad". The traits included were Narcissism, Machiavellianism and Psychopathy, existing within the subclinical range. While people with such traits often live standard, even thriving, lives (Paulhus, 2014), each of the three components of the 'Dark Triad' denotes a socially hostile and malicious character with a behavioural proclivity towards emotional coldness, aggressiveness, impulsivity, duplicity and self-promotion. Recently, a fourth trait, 'everyday sadism', was added to the triad, thus rendering the framework the 'Dark Tetrad' (Buckels et al., 2013b).

Narcissism as a personality trait refers to an inflated, grandiose image of self, an enhanced sense of entitlement, a desire to control and a constant need for admiration and approval from others (Kernberg, 1989; Morf & Rhodewalt, 2001). Narcissists are arrogant and aggressive and like to flaunt and exaggerate their accomplishments while blocking criticism. They resist taking responsibility for their failures and tend to blame others (Campbell, 1999; Resick et al., 2009). Their charismatic and confident persona is often mistaken for leadership qualities. Though they become successful in reaching top positions, they often fail to maintain that position because of their inflexible, stubborn nature (Bushman et al., 2009).

Machiavellianism is a personality trait centred on manipulation, callousness, and a cold, apathetic attitude towards others (Jones & Paulhus, 2009). Machiavellians have a cynical

and amoral view of human nature; they believe lying and deceiving others are acceptable for their benefit. Machiavellians focus on their success and tend to exploit others to get ahead (Dahling et al., 2009). They prioritise money and power over relationships. In the workplace, they are most successful in organisations with less formal, unorganised, and unstructured settings.

Psychopathy is characterised by an impulsive, antisocial, guilt-free attitude accompanied by an utter lack of regard for others. Psychopaths are apathetic; they do not hesitate to harm others for self-gain and don't feel remorse for their cruel, harmful acts (Hare & Neumann, 2009). They like breaking the rules and disrespecting the law or other people's rights. Subclinical Psychopathy has been associated with academic cheating (Nathanson et al., 2006), failure in long-term relationships (Jonason et al., 2009), having fewer sex partners, and a streak toward violent sports and games (Williams et al., 2001). At the workplace, Psychopathy is related to counterproductive work behaviours (Scherer et al., 2013) and emotional manipulation (Grieve & Mahar, 2010).

Sadism is an urge to seek pleasure by inflicting pain on others (Buckels et al., 2013b). Sadists take pleasure in emotional cruelty, manipulating others using fear as a weapon and have a predisposition for violence. The display of sadism in everyday life can be seen in trolling on social media, cyber-bullying, and using sexual violence to seek dominance over a partner (Paulhus & Dutton, 2016). Everyday Sadism is linked with workplace mistreatment of others (Min et al., 2019), bullying and interpersonal deviance at work (Mushtaq & Rohail, 2021).

The literature has established support for a conceptual overlap between the Machiavellianism and Narcissism (McHoskey, 1995) and between Narcissism and Psychopathy (Gustafson & Ritzer, 1995b) and between Everyday sadism and Machiavellianism and Psychopathy (Fernández-del-río et al., 2020b). Indeed, recent research has provided evidence for an overlap between all of the dark tetrad traits (Fernández-del-río et al., 2020a; Furnham et al., 2013). These traits share a manipulative, callous, self-centred, cold attitude, which helps them "get ahead" while disapproving of "getting along" (Rauthmann & Kolar, 2012b). All four traits are associated with low agreeableness when mapped over the Big Five Personality model (McCrae & Costa, 2008; Meere & Egan, 2017). Narcissism is the only trait positively associated with extroversion,

openness to experience and conscientiousness, while negative association for these traits was found for Machiavellianism, Psychopathy and Everyday Sadism (Fernández-del-río et al., 2020b). Only psychopathy is found to be related to low levels of neuroticism because of the psychopaths' apparent lack of anxiety (Paulhus & Williams, 2002). This shows their inability to cooperate with others, lack of honesty in interpersonal relationships, low empathy and callous disregard for others.

In addition, studies using the HEXACO model of personality (Lee & Ashton, 2005), which includes a sixth trait, Honesty-Humility, in addition to the Big Five personality model, have identified coherence among the dark triad traits with respect to the Honesty-Humility factor. People who score high on the Honesty-Humility factor are sincere in their transactions, avoid fraudulent acts, are open in their interpersonal associations, do not contest for material goods and are humble. Empirical evidence indicates that all four dark traits are negatively related to the honesty-humility factor (Fernández-del-río et al., 2020b; Lee & Ashton, 2005).

However, strong evidence has emerged that clearly differentiates each of these personality traits from one another. The Interpersonal Circumplex model of the personality (Wiggins, 2003) identifies two orthogonal axes of personality: the horizontal axis represents warmth, friendship, and solidarity at one end, with indifference and a cold attitude at the other. The vertical axis represents power, status and control at one end, with submissiveness at the other. Evidence suggests that all three dark triad traits are high on agentic values (getting ahead) and low on communion (getting along) values. Individuals who fall into this quadrant tend to be selfish, arrogant, dominant, manipulative, calculated and hostile in their interpersonal engagements (Jones & Paulhus, 2011a).

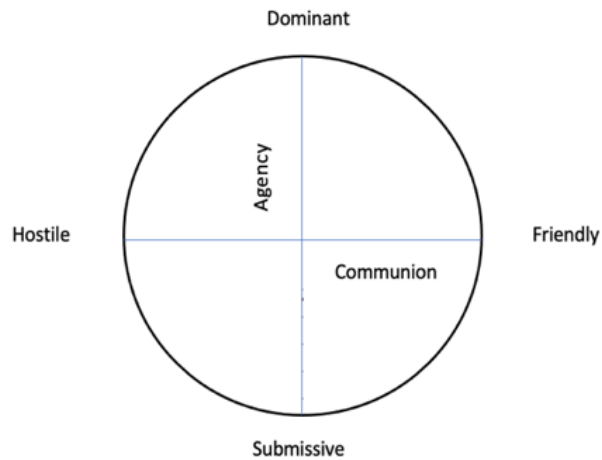


Figure 3-1 Interpersonal Circumplex (Jones & Paulhus, 2011a)

Indeed, evolutionary theorists believe that dark personality traits should be subsumed into a single construct because of their adaptive nature. For instance, Jonason et al. (2009) suggested that dark triad traits are all related to short-term mating preference and prefer casual sex behaviours. Mealey (1995) used the term “Machiavellianism” and “Psychopathy” interchangeably for cheaters. Book & Quinsey (2004) stated that individuals who use exploitation choose aggression and an unempathetic style to benefit themselves. Though they distinguished between an aggressor and an exploitative cheater, they concluded that both these strategies coevolve, thus creating an aggressive, impulsive character devoid of empathy.

3.2 The argument for differentiation between dark traits

Jones & Paulhus (2011a) argue that ample empirical evidence suggests that dark traits correlate differently with different external constructs. For example, a study by Paulhus & Williams (2002) revealed that Narcissism was positively associated with extraversion and openness, while Machiavellianism and Psychopathy traits were not. Similarly, Machiavellianism and Psychopathy were negatively associated with conscientiousness, while only Psychopathy was related to low neuroticism.

Considering outcome variables, when assessed for anti-social behaviour, psychopathy was the only trait in the dark triad related to delinquency (Williams & Paulhus, 2004), an affinity for violent games and sports (Williams et al., 2001) and flashing piercings and tattoos

(Nathanson, Paulhus, & Williams, 2006a). Similarly, when regressed for aggression, Psychopathy has been a constant predictor of aggression, violence and revenge (Reidy et al., 2008); this is in contrast with research on Machiavellianism which shows no connection with aggressive behaviour (Williams & Paulhus, 2004). Narcissism was associated with aggression only after being provoked (Bettencourt et al., 2006).

More evidence for differences within dark triad traits has been found in the field of behaviour genetics. This suggests that Machiavellian traits are not genetic but acquired from an individual's environment and have the phenotypic flexibility which helps people fit into their environment (Vernon et al., 2008). In contrast, narcissism and psychopathy have been demonstrated to have a genetic aetiology and do not possess any shared environment component. The same line of research was extended for moral reasoning and argued that Machiavellians and Psychopathy are linked to higher levels of abstract moral reasoning. Although Machiavellians do not exhibit the impaired moral reasoning of psychopaths, they can see others' perspectives, although they react selfishly nonetheless (Campbell et al., 2008).

Drawing reference from the work of Christie & Geis (1970) on 16th-century Niccolo Machiavelli's writings and Chinese philosopher Sun Tzu's *Art of the War* (500 B.C.), Jones & Paulhus (2011a) differentiated between Machiavellianism and Psychopathy. They argued that Machiavellianism describes someone who has a long-term focus and acts maturely, pragmatically and cautiously and must avoid any reckless behaviours which might prove a hurdle in their way of realising long-term goals. Machiavellians (Machs) plan, prepare and strategise for goal achievement, adapt to the situation if it favours them and build alliances to benefit their goal attainment. They think, ponder, and do a cost-benefit analysis instead of acting impulsively and should use coercive tactics to garner support. This contrasts with Psychopathy, which is linked to impulsive, erratic behaviour and a rigid attitude. Their inability to change tactics or stances makes them unable to learn from their mistakes.

With respect to distinguishing Narcissism from Machiavellianism and Psychopathy, (Jones & Paulhus, 2011a) referred to the work of Otto Kernberg (1975) and Kohut (1951), who made robust contributions to the theoretical conceptions of narcissism. They concurred that narcissism was characterised by grandiosity, a sense of entitlement, extreme selfishness

and an utter absence of empathy for others, even though they crave others' attention and admiration. Their delusions of grandeur stem from a fragile, insecure, vulnerable self. This is why they constantly need reinforcement and approval from others. Narcissists are rarely involved in criminal offences because these actions do not help reinforce their ego. Narcissists' ambiguous and elusive goals contrast with those of Machiavellians, who have long-term strategic goals, and also differ from the goals of Psychopaths, which are short-term and trivial. Several studies have supported this difference in long and short-term goals between the dark triad members. For instance, Jones & Paulhus (2010) measured the link between dark triad and mating orientation. Only Psychopathy was related to short-term mating strategy, having more casual sex, infidelity in relationships and more life partners over time.

Similarly, another study by Jones & Paulhus (2011b), measured the association between dark triad and impulsivity. Psychopathy had the strongest relationship with impulsive behaviour, followed by narcissism which had a positive but weak relationship with impulsivity. At the same time, Machiavellianism showed either a negative or no connection with different forms of impulsivity. Narcissists have rather abstract goals, i.e. status, identity, esteem etc. In contrast, Machiavellians and Psychopaths have more concrete plans like money, sex or acquiring tangible goods or services (Jones & Paulhus, 2011a). They have little concern about their self-concept, nor do they need continuous self-enhancement or have this constant need for identity and admiration from others. Though everyday sadism was not included in the study by Jones and Paulhus, recent research indicates that everyday sadism adds incremental value above dark triad traits and shows distinct correlation with behaviours such as online bullying, playing violent video games and fascination for weapons (Bonfá-Araujo et al., 2022; Fernández-del-río et al., 2020a) This research supports the differentiation argument for dark traits that though they are interrelated when studied in combination with other constructs, each trait shows distinctive correlates (Jones & Paulhus, 2011a).

3.3 Narcissism

Narcissism is derived from the Greek mythological character Narcissus, a young man who fell in love with his reflection in the water. The term Narcissism was coined by Ellis (1898) in his book 'Auto-eroticism: A psychological study to describe a clinical condition, 'perverse' self-love. Freud (1930) characterised narcissistic personality with outward

strength, arrogance and confidence. Horney (1939) further elaborated the idea of narcissism by suggesting that a narcissist's inflated view of self is based on the qualities they do not possess.

Narcissism is a personality trait associated with an aggrandised and inflated image of self about agentic characteristics like power, intelligence and physical attractiveness (Brown & Zeigler-Hill, 2004; Campbell et al., 2002). Narcissists have a ubiquitous sense of entitlement and uniqueness (Campbell et al., 2004). They use social relationships to boost and regulate their self-esteem (Campbell et al., 2006; Morf & Rhodewalt, 2001). Although they are not focused on maintaining long-term relationships, they are often very good at initiating and using connections for status, popularity and success in the short-term (Buffardi & Campbell, 2008).

In relationships, narcissists demonstrate aggressiveness, lack of commitment, social manoeuvring, urge to control and infidelity (Campbell et al., 2002). According to the American Association of Psychology (APA), people with a narcissistic personality disorder constantly need admiration, lack empathy and have a pervasive pattern of grandiosity (American Psychological Association, 2000). Notwithstanding these flaws, Narcissism is judged as a 'brighter' trait than others in Dark Triad. This may be due to people's perceptions of narcissists as charming (Back et al., 2010), attractive (Holtzman & Strube, 2011), bold (Krizan & Herlache, 2018) and having higher achievement motivation (Furtner et al., 2011) which are often seen as socially desirable characteristics (Rauthmann & Kolar, 2012a) and traits of a leader (Grijalva et al., 2015).

Narcissists have a grandiose yet vulnerable self-concept, which explains that even though they consider themselves competent and better than others, they constantly need admiration, which confirms their own bias toward being better (Morf & Rhodewalt, 2001). Although they appear confident and charismatic and often succeed in impressing others, they usually have a fragile sense of self (Campbell, 2001). This is reflected in their inability to take criticism or feedback constructively, their common emotional breakdowns at minor setbacks and their need for attention to satisfy ego needs. Although they crave external validation, they often fail to get the praise and admiration from others they desire because of their insensitive negative perspective of others (Morf & Rhodewalt, 2001). Wink (1991)

acknowledged these differences in the conceptualisation of narcissism and proposed two underlying dimensions to the trait: Grandiosity (overt) and Vulnerability (covert).

Grandiose narcissism encompasses an inflated self-image, entitlement, a strong urge for admiration, a lack of empathy for others, exhibitionist and self-promoting tendencies, dominance, and superiority (Miller et al., 2011). On the contrary, vulnerable narcissism is characterised by engrossment with fantasies of magnificence and grandeur, swinging between feelings of superiority and inferiority, and a lack of confidence (Dickinson & Pincus, 2003). Grandiose narcissism is likely to partially emerge from parental pampering and overvaluation, whereas the vulnerable state seems to emerge from parental neglect & coldness (Otway & Vignoles, 2006).

Back et al. (2013) distinguished between two distinct but positively related dimensions of narcissism: narcissistic admiration and rivalry (abbreviated as NARC). This conceptualisation is based on the idea that two different social strategies can achieve a narcissist's overall goal to maintain a grandiose self: 1) Assertive self-enhancement, i.e., the tendency to gain the admiration of others using self-promotion, and 2) Antagonistic self-protection, i.e., use self-defence as a means to avoid social failure (like revenge, devaluation of others, arrogance, hostility). This two-dimensional model helps explain why narcissism research predicts positive and negative behavioural outcomes (Watts et al., 2013). It identifies a bright side to narcissism which adverts charisma, boldness, self-confidence, charm, and social dominance, with the dark side representing antagonism, aggression, self-centeredness, and social conflict. The self-confidence and charisma of narcissists make them highly motivated and energetic and fascinate others, yet their aggression and lack of empathy for others hinder their progress and may make people wary of their behaviour.

Narcissism is of particular concern to organisations. While it has long been linked with leadership as the characteristics of self-confidence and extraversion are perceived to be traits of leaders (Lord et al., 1984), in recent decades, global corporate scandals have compelled scholars to look into the complex association between narcissism and leadership (Benson & Hogan, 2008; Conger, 2003; Tepper, 2000). The use of manipulation and deception to reach leadership positions is common among narcissists (Hogan et al., 1990; Kets de Vries & Miller, 1997). Though narcissists are successful in reaching leadership

positions because of their bold, confident and charismatic nature, they often fail to maintain that status because they lack vision, do not like to involve others in decision-making, and get angry when things don't go as they approve and would blame others for their failures (Grijalva et al., 2015). Their inability to reflect on their actions leaves no space for corrections in policy or decision-making.

Narcissists are initially liked because of their extrovert, fun, outgoing nature but become unlikeable by others in a short period (Paulhus, 1998). This is because narcissists overvalue themselves and overestimate their abilities and performance rather than their ability to manage and execute tasks (Campbell et al., 2004; Robins & Paulhus, 2001). They also like risky jobs and don't like to opt for less difficult decisions, which is why they are more likely to lose than non-narcissists. Their underperformance, matched with their inability to introspect and re-assess the strategy, makes them undesirable for a leadership position (Campbell et al., 2004; Campbell et al., 2004). Narcissists' actions and behaviours are often guided by their psychological need for recognition and admiration, which may explain why they constantly self-promote and use manipulation and deception to get leadership positions even when they do not qualify for those roles (Hogan et al., 1990; Kets de Vries & Miller, 1997). Narcissists dislike being advised to take more than due credit for successes.

In contrast, they blame others for their failures and, because of an inflated view of self, often make poor decisions and judgements with greater confidence (Hogan et al., 1990). They do not acknowledge others' contributions and are less likely to promote fair exchange relationships (Resick et al., 2009). Such dynamics explain the high turnover rate of managers working under them (Resick et al., 2009).

Narcissists are arrogant, demanding, pretentious and overbearing, yet their colourful, confident and engaging style makes them attractive to others. Their vital needs for achievement, control, power, and status serve them well in obtaining leadership positions, but their consistent inward focus on enhancing self-image usually leads in the long term to self-destruction. Because of their selfishness and egocentrism, narcissistic managers are more committed to their welfare than their team or the whole organisation. Narcissists are often described as holding contradictory intrapersonal and interpersonal processes. On the one hand, narcissism is associated with extraversion, the need for power, self-esteem and

dominance (Brown & Zeigler-Hill, 2004) while simultaneously being associated with disagreeableness, hostility, and aggressiveness on the other (Egan & Lewis, 2011).

Similarly, in their interpersonal dealings, narcissists can be charming, confident and humorous, as well as arrogant, hostile, rude and selfish (Back et al., 2010.) They may engage in interpersonal facilitation and organisational citizenship behaviours when it benefits them (Spain et al., 2014). Narcissists are approach-oriented and do good things for others to gain external validation (Bogart et al., 2004; Foster & Trimm, 2008). This explains their higher use of social influence tactics such as social comparison and reciprocity (Jonason & Webster, 2012). Jonason et al. (2012) proposed that narcissism is linked to soft tactics as narcissists focus more on their appearance and image and prefer sweet-talking.

Narcissism can be a significant predictor of counter-productive work behaviours due to the anger, aggression, bullying and violence inherited from this particular trait; (Bourdage et al., 2012; Campbell & Foster, 2002; Exline et al., 2004; Twenge & Campbell, 2003). Narcissists consider themselves superior to their coworkers, so rules about reciprocity and obligation do not apply to them (Campbell et al., 2000). They exaggerate their achievements and talents and show excessive emotions, but they often lack sincerity and are inconsiderate towards others (de Vries & Miller, 1986). Narcissists are often involved in the organisational politicking (Campbell et al., 2011) and use political strategies when faced with uncertainty, scarce resources, or organisational conflict. They focus on their reward opportunities, hoard resources at their disposal, ignore interdependencies and refuse to recognise the legitimate concerns or claims of others (Fossen & Vredenburg, 2014).

Narcissists' sense of grandiosity acts as a defence mechanism against any external threat to their self-esteem or ego (Raskin et al., 1991). This external threat could be either unfavourable or unpleasant information about their self-image or a sense of failure or shame. To maintain their sense of self-perceived superiority, narcissists can act aggressively in response to any threat to their ego (Penny & Spector, 2002). Research shows narcissists are more hostile towards others whom they perceive as competitors (Bushman & Baumeister, 1998). Their aggressive behaviour towards other members of the organisation can create envy among members who are frustrated by narcissists' inconsiderate and unpleasant behaviour (Braun et al., 2018). This can result in interpersonal

conflict among the members, which is detrimental to organisational progress (Hoel et al., 2006).

Narcissists are sensitive to criticism and are likely to respond with anger, transgressions, and retaliatory behaviour (Cohen, 2016). They have poor listening skills, lack empathy for others, disregard others' feelings and emotions and violate their dignity and rights (Doty & Fenlason, 2013; Tavanti, 2011). Narcissists are also less likely to engage in OCBs in the workplace (Judge et al., 2006), and most of their positive, altruistic behaviours are driven by self-enhancement motivations. They are less accommodative and forgiving in interpersonal relationships (Campbell & Foster, 2002; Exline et al., 2004) and exploit people who are in close relationships with them. They are involved in counterproductive work behaviours, including aggression and white-collar crimes (Bushman et al., 2003).

Narcissists are over-confident in their abilities and knowledge and are likely to make decisions based on an exaggerated sense of self which can ultimately lead to failure (Campbell et al., 2004; Paulhus et al., 2003). Most research on Narcissism has focused on leadership and its impact on the organisation. However, employees play a significant role in an organisation's success (Maxwell & Knox, 2009). Employees with narcissistic tendencies are likely to exploit others within the organisation to advance self-goals (Schyns et al., 2019). Their ability to convince others of their competence and creativity using self-enhancement behaviours and charm can be detrimental to the organisation in the long run as it increases their chances of being selected for leadership positions (Goncalo et al., 2010).

Most of the research on Narcissism is focused on leader narcissism and its effects on employee work and behavioural outcomes (e.g., Braun et al., 2018; Susanne Braun, 2017; Owens et al., 2015; Wang et al., 2018). Less attention is paid to employee narcissism and its effects (Campbell et al., 2011). The limited studies in this domain include an examination of employee narcissism and its influence on the voice (Helfrich & Dietl, 2019), creativity (Mao et al., 2021) and job satisfaction (Mathieu, 2013). Narcissistic employees are likely to engage in organisational citizenship behaviours if it helps them achieve their goals (Spain et al., 2014). This shows their ability to skillfully manipulate others to their advantage (Schyns et al., 2019). However, many questions remain unanswered concerning the impact and consequences of narcissistic employees (Schyns et al., 2019).

3.4 Machiavellianism

Niccolo Machiavelli was a political theorist and diplomat who wrote the book 'The Prince' in 1532. In the book, he advised kings and politicians on how to seize and retain power. He suggested that the powerful should use all means necessary, even if it demands cruelty, ruthlessness, and deception, to secure their power. Christie and Geis introduced Machiavellianism as a personality trait in psychology and management literature in 1970. They introduced a personality characteristic based on the principles of Machiavelli and referred to it as Machiavellianism. This trait was identified as devoid of honesty, trust, and honour and based entirely on the negative characteristics of manipulation, exploitation, and deviousness. Machiavellianism is further characterised by an *amoral* orientation, a distrust of others, insincerity, callousness, and a willingness to use unethical tactics for personal gains (Christie & Geis, 1970; Schlenker, 1980).

People with strong Machiavellian orientations exhibit social conduct based on manipulating and exploiting others (Wilson et al., 1996). They are willing to lie, cheat and deceive for personal gains. They don't trust others and are considered a threat to the organisations' social capital (Gunnthorsdottir et al., 2002; Paulhus & Williams, 2002; Ross & Robertson, 2000). Machiavellians exhibit a general lack of affect in personal relations; they try to manage and control influences in interpersonal interactions and are more persuasive and motivated in their ambitions (Bedell et al., 2006; Goldberg, 1999; Mael et al., 2001). Machiavellians' publicly expressed behaviours and the ethical identity they may portray in public are inconsistent with the privately held unethical Machiavellian norms (Den Hartog & Belschak, 2012).

Machiavellians are social chameleons who can instantly change their attitudes and behaviours according to the environment or situation at hand (Hurley, 2005). This ability to subtly manipulate others helps them to win others' trust, build powerful social networks and extract benefits from others. However, Machiavellians are often unsuccessful at maintaining relationships. Social exchange relationships are based on the principles of reciprocity and mutual trust, and loyalty. But Machiavellians establish relationships only for self-gain; they fail to reciprocate because they are not loyal in their friendships and

rather have covert agendas to fulfil. Research has found a positive association between Machiavellianism and counterproductive work behaviours (DeShong et al., 2015; O' Boyle et al., 2012). Looking through the lens of social exchange theory (Blau, 1964), O' Boyle et al. (2012) predicted a negative relationship between Machiavellianism and job performance and a positive relationship with counter-productive behaviours. Most work situations require a collaborative and cooperative environment where relationships and networking are based on mutual trust, loyalty, and support.

Machiavellians violate this basic principle of social exchange because of their inability to trust others. They only engage in short-term interactions that can help them achieve their goals and, once they are successful, turn their backs on people. They don't follow the norms of reciprocity, so they often engage in interpersonal CWBs like mistreating coworkers and deceiving others (McHoskey, 1999). Wolfson (1981) provided evidence that high Machs are less likely to engage in helping behaviours than low Machs. High Machs were less willing than low Machs to offer assistance in response to a staged accident during the study. Individuals high in Machiavellianism engaged in more interpersonal forms of CWBs like maltreatment of co-workers and betrayal (DeShong et al., 2015).

Machiavellians are likely to steal from people they trust and those they don't count. They are willing to steal others' ideas, commit intellectual property theft, violate others' privacy and access their personal information without their information (Winter et al., 2004). Machiavellians are more likely to be involved in information and profit sabotage at the workplace. They spread rumours about others in the workplace and provided misleading information about the profit and revenue (McLeod & Genereux, 2008). They are more likely to engage in corrupt behaviours if they believe this will benefit them (Giacalone & Knouse, 1990).

Moreover, Machiavellians are more likely to cheat as they don't like conforming to ethical codes set by the organisation. They were also more involved in academic cheating (plagiarising others), paying bribes or bonuses to increase sales and cheating on service guarantees (Hegarty & Sims, 1979; Wirtz & Kum, 2004). An experiment was conducted by Bloodgood et al. (2010) to examine if attending an ethics course would have an impact on Machiavellian cheating behaviour. However, their attitude towards cheating and

deceiving others remained unchanged even after the ethics session, suggesting that Machiavellians don't care about ethics.

Machiavellians choose occupations that can provide them with more resources, control and power, which is why they are often found more in management and law. Machs are more likely to thrive in organisations where the climate is more political. The ambiguity and unfair practices that feed into organisations' political environment are highly beneficial for Machs in carrying out their agendas (Dahling et al., 2009). Individuals possessing Machiavellian traits are prone to behave politically because they are ready to do everything to promote their self-interest, including cheating and manipulating others. They conceal their underlying motives by managing the impression others have of them (Ferris et al., 1994).

Individuals high in Machiavellianism are shrewd in displaying organisational citizenship behaviours (Becker & O'Hair, 2007). They only engage in selective prosocial behaviours to help them maintain a good image in others' eyes. They tend to undertake OCBs directed toward co-workers or supervisors, allowing them to manipulate others to achieve their objectives (Ferris et al., 1994). Machiavellians are highly adaptive and behave according to the situation demands (Martin et al., 1998). They are good communicators, using various persuasive strategies, such as deceit, praise, and emotional appeal, to achieve their goals (Grams & Rogers, 1990; O'Hair et al., 1981). They are less concerned about OCBs, which benefit the organisation by being more productive, responsive, and innovative (Becker & O'Hair, 2007; Grams & Rogers, 1990; Martin et al., 1998).

Individuals high in Machiavellianism engage in various influence tactics, including self-promotion, ingratiation, and intimidation, to attain desired ends (Dingler-Duhon & Brown, 1987; Harrel, 1980; Pandey & Rastogi, 1979). These tactics help them gain the trust and cooperation of others, which they use to their advantage before finally defecting. The most common tactic high Machs use is manipulation, as they appeal to others' emotions and try to plant their ideas into others' minds. Low Machs, on the other hand, try to convince others using rationality and logic, which are often not reciprocated, accordingly to (Grams & Rogers, 1990). Machiavellians are social chameleons with the ability to take on the attitudes and behaviours of others while subtly manipulating situations to their favour.

3.5 Psychopathy

Hervey Cleckley, M.D. was one of the pioneers in the field of psychopathy. He was a psychiatrist in 1930, working in a psychiatric facility where people, primarily offenders, were sent for treatment of some mental illness. Close observation of their behaviours and actions made Cleckley realise these people were good at manipulation, using their charm to deceive and take advantage of their friends, family, other patients and hospital staff. Though they showed no apparent symptoms of mental illness, they were habitual liars, dishonest and insincere in their dealings, made poor life judgments and could not reflect on their actions which often caused them to repeat the same dysfunctional and inept behaviours.

They were devoid of understanding deep human emotions like love and compassion and had little insight into how their actions or words might impact others. They had no concern for others' well-being and felt no guilt or remorse for hurting others. Cleckley concluded that psychopaths had a rare underlying disorder where the emotions and words (language) seemed to be not adequately integrated. Their choice of words, sentence composition and rhythm differed somewhat from those with no psychopathic tendencies. Cleckley named this condition semantic aphasia. He created a list of observations on the behaviours and attitudes of psychopaths, which were further developed and authenticated by Hare (2003), who also worked in the forensic field. In a quest to understand any psychological differences between psychopaths and non-psychopaths, Hare observed that psychopaths had difficulty understanding the emotions attached to words. They would listen to the most ruthless and chilling crime incidents with disinterest and dispassion.

Hare (2003) proposed a two-factor model to conceptualise psychopathy. Factor 1 is linked with interpersonal and affective components such as grandiosity, lack of remorse, lying and callousness. Factor 2 comprises an unstable and antisocial lifestyle exhibiting behaviours and traits of social deviance, e.g. impulsivity and irresponsibility (Harpur et al., 1989). Lynam and his colleagues explained that these factors could better be understood by examining the underlying personality traits for each element. They assessed that Factor 1 was negatively related to the agreeableness trait, while Factor 2 was negatively associated with both agreeableness and conscientiousness (Lynam & Derefinko, 2006; Widiger & Lynam, 1998). Factor 1 is linked to aggressive interpersonal style, callousness, and lack of

remorse, while Factor 2 is related to anti-social behaviours, negative emotionality, and impulsivity (Miller et al., 2010).

Among the three dark traits, psychopathy is the most recent addition to the subclinical sphere of psychology (Paulhus & Williams, 2002). The difference between clinical and subclinical psychopathy is not in the type of behaviours both exhibit but rather the intensity and magnitude of those behaviours (Gustafson & Ritzer, 1995b). Clinical Psychopaths exhibit anti-social and dysfunctional behaviours in the extreme, pose a threat to others and may be found in prisons or psychiatric institutions due to crimes they commit (Hare, 1999). On the other hand, subclinical psychopaths exhibit the same aberrant behaviours, but the level of intensity is low compared to clinical psychopaths (Lebreton et al., 2006). For example, while clinical psychopaths may commit serious crimes such as rape and assault, subclinical psychopaths may exhibit less extreme behaviours such as bullying, cheating etc. Though unhealthy and emotionally draining, subclinical psychopaths can maintain relationships compared to clinical psychopaths who are incapable of living among the general population (Lebreton et al., 2006; Pethman & Erlandsson, 2002).

Core elements of psychopathy include high impulsivity and thrill-seeking, low anxiety and empathy (Paulhus & Williams, 2002). Psychopaths excel in work which demands a rational, emotionless attitude and a willingness to take risks and achieve goals even at the cost of harming others (DePaulo & Wilson, 2010; Yang & Raine, 2008). They have no respect for others' rights, and their high impulsivity is central to both criminal and non-criminal expositions of psychopathy (Jones & Paulhus, 2011b). Dickman (1990) differentiated impulsivity into functional vs dysfunctional. Functional impulsivity is linked with higher extraversion, while dysfunctional impulsivity is linked to low conscientiousness. Psychopaths are common in low conscientiousness, disorganised, erratic, reckless, poor decision-making and lack of self-control (Jones & Paulhus, 2011a).

Psychopaths have many skills and tactics, making them difficult to be seen as who they are, i.e. psychopaths (Babiak & Hare, 2006). They are very competent in reading people and sizing them up for the strengths, weak spots, and vulnerabilities they possess (Hare, 1999). Psychopaths know precisely what buttons to push on a person to their advantage. They are excellent in oral communication and have an aggressive delivery style which often makes up for the lack of substance in their speech (Akhtar et al., 2013). Not all psychopaths are

criminals. While some break the law and engage in criminal activities, others are more subtle in how they act around others (Lebreton et al., 2006). Though leading everyday lives, they may be causing problems for others in covert emotional and psychologically abusive ways. Psychopaths live off the simplicity and sincerity of others, like a parasite, by taking advantage of their innocence and abusing their trust and support. They do not make reliable partners or friends and are often detached from their families and parents (Babiak & Hare, 2006).

Psychopaths are champions of impression management (Hart et al., 2019a). Their ability to understand the psyche of others, coupled with good communication skills, helps them adapt to the situation. They will quickly change their tone depending on the person they are interacting with and will say what can enhance their likeness in the eyes of the other person. This is why psychopaths are often called social chameleons (Brinke et al., 2017). A chameleon quickly changes its colour to blend with the surroundings, thus protecting itself from enemies while preying on its target insects. A psychopath, like a chameleon, is skilled at hiding their true nature, feelings and intentions from others as long as they serve the purpose (Babiak & Hare, 2006).

Psychopaths are masters in manipulation and would use every tactic and strategy which can help them achieve their goals. Psychopaths manipulate in a three-phase process which is often an automatic rather than a consciously carved-out plan (Babiak, 2015). First is the assessment phase, in which they identify their target or prey by assessing how can the other person benefit them (Patrick & Lacono, 1989). They recognise their strengths and weaknesses and size them in terms of power, money and influence. Second is the manipulation phase, where they use ingratiation and other impression management tactics to gain the target's trust (Babiak, 2015). They start manipulating the person by feeding them well-thought and fabricated information; they also constantly ask for feedback from their target, which helps them better strategise and have the upper hand over the target (Babiak, 2017). Control over their target person helps them talk around or get away with things when confronted or challenged. The third is the abandonment phase (Babiak, 2000; Delcea, 2021). When they think the target has served their purpose and is no longer of any use to the psychopath, they will turn their backs on and detach themselves like nothing ever happened between them (Babiak & Hare, 2006; Babiak, 2015:2017; Meloy, 1988).

Psychopaths have a strong sense of entitlement and grandiosity (Salekin, 2016). They think other people exist to help them and don't owe anybody anything. They feel no remorse or guilt for taking advantage of others (Dolan & Doyle, 2007; Maibom, 2005). They believe the victims of their manipulation deserve what happened to them. Irresponsibility is one of the traits of psychopaths (Kiehl, 2006; Miller & Lynam, 2015). They never take ownership of their actions. Because of their selfish, irresponsible, cold nature, they fail to engage in long-term relationships and often do not have long-term career goals (Foulkes et al., 2014a; Leedom et al., 2012). Psychopaths are impulsive, thrill-seeking risk-takers who won't hesitate to hurt their and others' lives just for chills (Hosker-field et al., 2016). Their inability to understand human emotions is often mistaken for leadership quality of not letting emotions get in the way of challenging decisions (Babiak & Hare, 2006).

Psychopathy is associated with aggressive behaviour in the workplace, including bullying, public criticism, harsh treatment of employees, rudeness, coercion, dangerous working conditions, and violations of human rights or employment laws (Boddy, 2011). In a comprehensive meta-analysis conducted by O'Boyle et al. (2011), the intricate association between dark traits and workplace deviance was examined. Psychopathy was found to be negatively related to assessments of job performance, primarily attributable to the significance of effective interpersonal connections, an aspect that is distinctly lacking in individuals with psychopathic tendencies. Furthermore, psychopathy demonstrated a positive relationship with counterproductive work behaviours (CWBs), likely owing to its connection with impulsivity and proclivities towards engaging in criminal activities.

Psychopathy is associated with unethical decision-making in the workplace (Stevens et al., 2012). Psychopathic individuals are more likely to distance themselves from their moral standards through justification mechanisms (Smith & Lilienfeld, 2013). Moreover, psychopathy is associated with abusive supervision and bullying in the workplace. A study by (Mathieu et al., 2014) revealed that employees' assessments of psychopathic attributes exhibited by their immediate supervisors had significant associations with employees' psychological distress, work-family conflict, and job dissatisfaction. Another study (Mathieu & Babiak, 2015) found that psychopathic traits exhibited by supervisors had a stronger predicted employees' job dissatisfaction, diminished work motivation, psychological distress, and intentions to leave their job. The presence of psychopathic individuals in the workplace can create a toxic organisational culture, leading to increased

stress, decreased job satisfaction, and high turnover rates among other employees (Boddy et al., 2010).

3.6 Everyday Sadism

Everyday sadism was added to Dark Triad as it predicted malevolent and antisocial behaviours above and beyond its overlap with dark triad traits (Chabrol et al., 2009). Buckels et al. (2013b) named the new constellation as Dark Tetrad which has enjoyed robust support in the literature (see Fernández-del-río et al., 2020a; March et al., 2017; Thibault & Kelloway, 2020). Inflicting pain on others or causing them harm is distressing for most people. Yet some people enjoy hurting others and keep seeking ways to indulge their proclivities (Baumeister & Campbell, 1999; Taylor, 2009). Traditionally, sadism has been studied in its extreme form within the context of criminal and sexual transgressions (Fedoroff, 2008; Gratzer & Bradford, 1995). Examples of extreme sadism, such as police brutality and military torture, have been so common and consistent across cultures over time that researchers have started calling it an evolutionary phenomenon rather than a simple act of social learning (Dutton et al., 2005). In medieval times, displaying sadistic behaviour was acceptable in many cultures. For example, in medieval France, cats were tortured for amusement. However, around the 14th century, the overt exhibition of such sadistic acts was prohibited (Pinker, 2012). Still, mild forms of sadism, also called “soft sadism”, are prevalent among modern societies and cultures and may even be distributed across populations (Pinker, 2012).

People generally think of sexual misconduct and conceive the image of a fiendish and diabolic person when they hear about the term sadism. This is because many high-profile cases of serial killers have been linked to this phrase. For instance, Gilles de Rais, the most dangerous and infamous serial killer in 15th century France, was responsible for hundreds of boys' rape, torture and murder (Marshall & Hucker, 2006). He confessed to deriving pleasure from torturing and killing others. He was hanged in 1440, and his confession transcript was burned (Paulhus & Dutton, 2016). Three centuries later, French philosopher and libertine Donatien Francois de Sade, also known as the Marquis de Sade, wrote novels extensively detailing his fantasies of sadomasochism, paedophilia, sodomy and seeking pleasure and excitement by hurting others (Proulx et al., 2006). He was imprisoned for his scandalous writings, his novels *Justine and 120 days of Sodom* were banned by the Church,

and he was executed. It is from his name, de Sade, that the term Sadism is coined for people who derive enjoyment from the suffering of others (Phillips, 2005).

Even in the modern-day, examples can be found for serial killers like Leonard Lake & Charles Ng, who killed people for sexual excitement (Stone, 2010). The news of their endeavours was sensualised and got much media coverage, which linked sadism with sexual crime (Paulhus & Dutton, 2016). Many influential writers (Fromm, 1973), have argued for the non-sexual and non-criminal conception of sadism and have called it a natural facet of human character. This approach was defended using evidence of sadistic behaviour displayed against outgroup members across different cultures and times. This includes US Army torture in Vietnam, the Polish turning against their Jewish neighbours, Japanese army Nanjing Massacre in world war II (Paulhus & Dutton, 2016). These are only a few examples of human acceptance and passion for hurting others without guilt or remorse (Dutton, 2007; Dutton et al., 2005). (Dutton, 2007) inferred that sadism is the response to a neural mechanism which derives pleasure from violence. Though suppressed in contemporary society, a mild form of sadism is still prevalent among the larger population. A typical example is the increasing rate of trolling, bullying and cybercrimes we see today (Buckels et al., 2014). Due to its presence in the broader population, Paulhus & Dutton (2016) named it “everyday Sadism”.

The appeal of sadistic behaviours in society can be seen in the popularity of violent films and video games in which fighting, and brutality take the central place (Anderson et al., 2007; Gullo, 2013). Though Roman circuses, where murderous games like gladiatorial contests were organised to entertain the public, are long gone, the appetite for sadistic acts has not subsided (Paulhus & Dutton, 2016). Realising the appeal of such behaviours, Buckels et al. (2013b) conducted experiments and survey research to collect empirical evidence for sadism in society. They used both survey questionnaires and conducted laboratory experiments to assess sadism within non-clinical samples. Survey results found a positive association between sadism and pleasure in hurting a partner during sex, the potential for partner abuse and frequent trolling on social media.

In laboratory experiments, participants were given a choice to kill bugs using a bug-crunching machine (no actual bugs were killed, just an illusion was created) or perform unsavoury tasks such as cleaning toilets or a cold presser test (Buckels et al., 2013a).

Individuals who chose the killing bugs task scored significantly high on the sadism measure. Similarly, in another experiment, participants were given tasks such as if they wanted to annoy fellow participants (who had not done anything to provoke the first person) by blasting white noise. Participants who were willing to perform this experiment also scored higher on sadism. Sadism measure was positively correlated to the Dark Triad traits of Narcissism, Machiavellianism and Psychopathy, which secured its place among the other three dark triad traits and named it “Dark Tetrad” (Buckels et al., 2013b; Chabrol et al., 2009; Paulhus, 2014).

Sadistic Personality Disorder entails an unprovoked aggressive attitude towards others, an urge to hurt and demean others for one’s pleasure and an appetite for cruelty and brutality directed toward others (Buckels, 2018). Though most people experience distress if they hurt someone (Meere & Egan, 2017), sadists enjoy and may seek opportunities to hurt others to satiate their thirst for brutality. Most of the research on sadism disorder involves the study of sexual offenders and other criminals. Very few studies have focused on the presence of such traits in non-clinical populations. In a study involving 407 undergraduate students, (O’Meara et al., 2004) found that 6.9% of the students scored high on sadistic traits, while 5.6% claimed they enjoyed hurting others. This can also be inferred from the popularity of violent video games and sports among the general population, police and military brutality incidents, juvenile delinquency and internet trolling levels (Chabrol et al., 2009; Paulhus & Dutton, 2016).

Everyday Sadism is significantly correlated to other dark traits of Narcissism ($p=0.24$), Machiavellianism ($p=0.56$) and Psychopathy ($p=0.69$) (Meere & Egan, 2017). This endorsed its inclusion in the constellation of dark personalities (Book & Quinsey, 2004; Buckels et al., 2013a). When examined in correlation with the Big Five Personality Traits (McCrae & Costa, 2008) and the HEXACO model of personality (Lee & Ashton, 2004), everyday sadism was found to be negatively associated with positive traits of Agreeableness, Conscientiousness, Emotionality and Honesty-Humility traits (Book et al., 2016). This coheres with the evidence that Sadists seek pleasure in hurting others and enjoy their suffering without regard for their well-being (Baumeister & Campbell, 1999).

Sadism is a personality trait characterised by the tendency to seek pleasure in the physical and psychological suffering of others. Some researchers argue that sadism is not

exclusively about pleasure from the suffering of others, but it may also be about gaining power and control over others (Buckels, 2018) People with sadistic personalities engage in maladaptive behaviours like cyber-bullying, trolling, unprovoked aggression, demeaning and adolescent delinquency (Buckels et al., 2019; Thomas & Egan, 2022; van Geel et al., 2017).

Sadism is also significantly related to cyberbullying behaviours (van Geel et al., 2017). This reveals sadism as a significant predictor of anti-social behaviours (Moor & Anderson, 2019). Bullies harass people they perceive as weak and enjoy watching others suffer. While some researchers argue that bullying is a strategic behaviour aimed at dominating others and seeking control (Olthof et al., 2011), mainly bullies are motivated by this inner desire to hurt others for entertainment and the sinister pleasure of seeing others suffer. Very little is known about sadistic personalities and their influence on organisational and work outcomes (Góis et al., 2020). Individuals high in sadism lack empathy for others, show aggression and impulsivity and tend to bully others. Their unethical behaviours can prove detrimental and counterproductive within organisations (Góis et al., 2020). Within the workplace, everyday sadism is found to be positively associated with counterproductive work behaviours and negatively associated with organisational citizenship behaviours (Thibault & Kelloway, 2020b), task performance (Fernández-del-río et al., 2020b) and contextual performance (Zeigler-hill & Besser, 2021). More research is required to understand the role of everyday sadism in the organisational context (Góis et al., 2020).

3.7 Dark Personality and Ingratiation

Individual differences in personality characteristics are related to using influence tactics (Costa & McCrae, 1992; Fleeson, 2001). For example, extraversion and conscientious personality traits are associated with inspirational appeal and rational persuasion tactics, respectively (Anderson et al., 2008; Cable & Judge, 2003). Moreover, as personality remains stable over time, the link between personality and influence tactics will likely stay consistent (Anderson, Spataro & Flynn, 2008). While the relationship between influence tactics and personality characteristics is well-researched, the focus of attention tends to be on the role of prosocial or 'bright' (Museum & Grum, 2021) personality traits. Less is known about the association between dark personality traits and the use of influence tactics. This

is surprising given that people high in these personality traits are not only present in the general workforce but are often successful in securing top positions within organisations (Amernic & Craig, 2010; Galperin et al., 2011).

Individuals high on the four dark traits are motivated by values of self-advancement, even at the expense of others (Jonason et al., 2015). At the core of these dark traits lies manipulation, exploitation, and callous disregard for others (Jones & Figueredo, 2013; Marcus et al., 2018). They seek power and self-achievement and are likely to use a variety of social influence tactics (Jonason et al., 2009; Jonason et al., 2012), exhibit self-serving behaviours and endorse questionable and problematic moral standards (Presson, 2014).

They are likely to use various influence tactics depending on the situation, making their intentions and actions unpredictable and undetectable. Such a protean approach towards social influence tactics helps individuals be subtle and vague in their style. The target person may often remain oblivious to the intentions behind such tactics (Jonason & Webster, 2012). In their study exploring the universal values held by people high in dark personality traits, Kajonius et al. (2015) found that people high in dark traits value attaining power, personal success, control, and dominance over resources with a disregard for welfare and cooperation with others (Balakrishnan et al., 2017).

3.7.1 Narcissism and Ingratiation

Narcissists have an agentic orientation where the focus is on self-advancement through power, status and success (Campbell & Foster, 2007; Campbell et al., 2002). Narcissists' socially extraverted demeanour makes them easily likeable (Bradlee & Emmons, 1992; Paulhus, 1998). However, their lack of interest in building quality relationships directs them to focus only on establishing superficial relations which can provide them with enhanced status and power (Campbell & Foster, 2007; Carroll, 1987). They are socially skilled and feel no hesitation or guilt in using others for their advantage (Campbell & Foster, 2007).

People high in narcissism are good at making positive impressions upon others. Their social partners perceive their confident interpersonal style as attractive, competent, and wholesome (Back et al., 2010; Holtzman & Strube, 2010; Paulhus, 1998). Research by

(Konrath et al., 2014) found that narcissists can perceive, read, understand, and communicate others' emotions effectively. In other words, narcissists commonly demonstrate high emotional competency. Emotional competency is associated with empathy, social prowess, and cooperation (Schutte et al., 2001), which are essential for building and maintaining high-quality relationships (Lopes et al., 2003; Schutte et al., 2001). However, emotional competencies can also be used to manipulate others (Konrath et al., 2014).

Narcissists likely use manipulative and controlling behaviours to maintain their power and status. Despite their emotional competence, they usually have difficulty maintaining high-quality relationships because of their aggressive nature, lack of regard for others' feelings, self-obsession, and interpersonal exploitation behaviour (Campbell et al., 2011). Although narcissists are more successful in attracting romantic partners compared to those who score low on narcissism, they usually fail in maintaining these relationships in the long run because they use these relations as a source of feeding their own need for admiration and praise and reinforce their inflated self-image rather than committing to or caring for another person in the relationship (Brunell & Campbell, 2011; Wurst et al., 2017). This may explain their use of emotional manipulation to maintain social connections (Konrath et al., 2014).

Narcissists are obsessed with portraying a grandiose image of themselves, which is why they actively engage in ingratiation tactics. To gratify their self-esteem and meet their need for social power, narcissists are likely to use assertive influence tactics, such as ingratiation (Hart et al., 2017). These tactics help them maintain their self-concept of a dominant, authoritative yet charming and likeable person (Buss & Chiodo, 1991; Hart & Adams, 2014). Narcissists are aware of social hierarchies and may use ingratiating behaviours toward those more powerful (Baumeister & Vohs, 2001). They ingratiate to build relationships with people high in social status who can help them with their goals for social power and need for admiration (Baumeister & Vohs, 2001).

3.7.2 Machiavellianism and Ingratiation

Individuals high in Machiavellianism possess the skills to control social situations effectively and interactions to their favour (Vecchio & Appelbaum, 1995). This is because of their emotional detachment from the people or situations, which makes them

unencumbered by feelings of interpersonal attachment and conscience (Christie & Geis, 1970). They are motivated by selfish interests and are more likely to cheat, lie and steal for personal gains (Cooper & Peterson, 1980; Fletcher, 1990; Flynn et al., 1987; Geis & Moon, 1981). Their emotional detachment makes them take a rational approach to situations which is why they are more likely to use any opportunity for personal gains that come their way (Mudrack, 1993). Machiavellians consider many unethical practices purely acceptable and don't hesitate to use them for personal interests (Leary et al., 1986; Vitell et al., 1991).

Individuals high on Machiavellianism tend to use ingratiation tactics to control others and exert their influence (Appelbaum & Hughes, 1998b). They use indirect and emotional tactics to influence others within the organisation (Grams & Rogers, 1990). Indirect tactics are more clandestine and disguised, while emotional tactics appeal to the target's emotional state. Because of their adaptive, flexible style and social finesse, Machs can generally quite easily adjust to interpersonal and situational demands. They try to understand their target's emotional state to develop effective relationships with them, enhancing future interactions (Grams & Rogers, 1990). They prefer using soft influence tactics such as ingratiation to avoid losing the goodwill of their colleagues (Reimers & Barbuto, 2002).

While the conceptual literature on Machiavellianism suggests a positive relationship with the ingratiation (Appelbaum & Hughes, 1998a; Reimers & Barbuto, 2002; Zin et al., 2011), only a few studies have empirically tested the relationship. In their empirical study. (J. Pandey & Rastogi, 1979) found that individuals high in Machiavellianism use more flattery, praise and conformity to the target person's ideas than those low on Machiavellianism. They use manipulation in close relationships, friends, and peers for exploitation purposes (Abell et al., 2016). Similarly, Aryee et al. (1993) found that Individuals high in Machiavellianism are likely to use more ingratiation tactics in the workplace as a career management strategy.

3.7.3 Psychopathy and Ingratiation

Psychopaths' inability to feel regret or remorse over their actions allows them to use clever manipulation and deceit to achieve their self-serving outcomes. A study by Muñoz et al. (2011) revealed that Psychopaths use subtle manipulation tactics and strategies in intimate relationships. Their lack of emotional attachment in such relationships helps psychopaths

use charm, flattery and outright lies to manipulate their target (Hyde & Grieve, 2014). Psychopathy is associated with manipulative and deceptive behaviours (Grieve & Mahar, 2010), including pathological lying, lack of honesty, unreliability, and conning others (Neumann et al., 2007).

These findings may reflect what has been termed the “darker side” of emotional intelligence (EI), where individuals high in EI use their skills negatively, such as through emotional manipulation. Emotional manipulation is the capability to manipulate others and strategically influence their emotions to achieve desirable self-serving outcomes (Austin et al., 2007; Grieve, 2011; Grieve & Mahar, 2010). Moreover, it is associated with a lack of sincerity and the ability to control emotions and desirably express them to create an impression favourable to others. For instance, (Pham et al., 2010) found that individuals scoring high on Psychopathy also scored high on emotional intelligence. Thus, it is likely that Psychopaths use their emotional intelligence for their gain (Konrath et al., 2014).

Board & Fritzon (2005) found that executives scored high on psychopathy components of interpersonal manipulation, insincerity, superficial charm and exploitativeness. Recently, researchers have started investigating how employees high in dark traits get ahead in their careers, despite exhibiting anti-social and counterproductive work behaviours. In an empirical study, (Jonason et al., 2012) found that individuals high in psychopathy traits use social influence tactics of ingratiation to convince others of their abilities and create a good impression on others while concealing their true motives. Ingratiation tactics help psychopaths establish friendships at the workplace, which they later exploit for selfish purposes. As these tactics are subtle and not easily detectable, the target person is less likely to perceive they are being exploited (Jonason et al., 2012).

These results were supported by another study (Hart et al., 2022), which found that psychopaths use ingratiation tactics to control their behaviour and present them in a way which is desirable to others. However, more research is required to understand how these tactics help psychopathic employees gain influence and power within organisations (Jensen et al., 2022). It is particularly important because while skilled at manipulation and charm, Psychopaths are characterised by callousness, lack of empathy or guilt, impulsivity, aggression and risk-taking behaviour (Dolan & Doyle, 2007). They are likely to engage in unethical and manipulative behaviours, leading to a toxic work environment and potentially causing harm to their coworkers and the organization as a whole (Smith & Lilienfeld,

2013). Additionally, they may be more likely to engage in criminal or fraudulent activities, which can damage the reputation and financial stability of the organization (Bailey, 2017). They may lack insight into their own behaviour and may thus be resistant to change.

3.7.4 Sadism and Ingratiation

Individuals high in Everyday Sadism engage in unethical practices at the workplace, including a compromise on product quality, delays in timely delivery, bring favouritism in recruitment procedures, thus increasing the chances of fraud and corruption within organisations (Kaplan et al., 2007; Krasikova et al., 2013; Trémolière & Djeriouat, 2016). However, very little attention has been paid to understanding the influence of sadism on organisational work outcomes. Limited research focuses on everyday sadism and its implications in the business area. Most of the research focused on aversive traits has been conducted on Dark Triad traits of Narcissism, Machiavellianism and Psychopathy, excluding sadism, in corporate settings (Góis et al., 2020). Hence, little is known about this aversive trait's interplay with moral issues, specifically in the workspaces (Góis et al., 2020). Limited research to date shows everyday sadism is linked with the display of deviant behaviours at the workplace, bullying and aggression towards coworkers and poor task performance at work (Fernández-del-río et al., 2020b; Mushtaq & Rohail, 2021; Zeigler-hill & Besser, 2021).

Individuals with high everyday sadism exhibit distinctive characteristics such as competitiveness, ambition, goal-oriented behaviour and a compelling drive to establish their significance while seeking dominance in the workplace (O'Meara et al., 2011). Their satisfaction is derived from exerting power and control over others, aligning with the traits of coldness, arrogance, manipulation, and aggression common to other dark personality traits (Bonfá-Araujo et al., 2022). Individuals high in this trait, akin to Machiavellianism and Psychopathy, tend to adopt a fast life strategy, characterised by a readiness to manipulate and exploit others for personal gain, along with a propensity to prioritise immediate self-gratification over long-term planning, future goals, and the well-being of others (Min et al., 2019).

In addition to these behavioural tendencies, individuals high in everyday sadism also demonstrate problematic patterns across various domains, such as social media use,

bullying, cheating, workplace mistreatment, difficulties in teamwork, and engagement in counterproductive work behaviours (Bonfá-Araujo et al., 2022). Moreover, like Machiavellianism and Psychopathy, sadism displays a negative correlation with positive personality traits such as extraversion, agreeableness, openness to experience, conscientiousness, and honesty-humility. Conversely, it is positively associated with neuroticism and counterproductive work behaviours (Fernández-del-río et al., 2020a).

The meta-analysis conducted by Bonfá-Araujo et al. (2022) underscores that individuals with high levels of sadism, akin to other dark tetrad traits, are primarily motivated by self-preservation and the pursuit of personal benefits. Their driving force lies in obtaining power and control across various life domains, including relationships, work, and social dynamics. This self-centred orientation often results in prioritising personal interests and desires over the well-being of others.

Building on empirical evidence, Jonason & Zeigler-Hill (2018) argue, based on their study assessing social motives characterising dark traits, that sadism is linked to fundamental social motives such as self-protection, group affiliation, independence, and social status. This association mirrors the patterns observed in Psychopathy and Machiavellianism. Given its inclusion in the Dark Tetrad due to its close ties with other dark traits and the manifestation of similar characteristics, this study proposes a likely positive association between everyday sadism and the use of ingratiation tactics.

3.8 Conclusion

Studies on dark personality traits have focused on the negative consequences of dark personality traits. Little is known about how people with dark traits may use their malevolent characteristics and craft to their advantage. Employees are active members of the organisation who proactively engage in and contribute to organisational goals (Campbell, 2006). However, if employees use their position within the organisation to pursue their goals and use certain strategic behaviours to influence others, deleterious consequences for the organisation and its people are likely (Schyns et al., 2019). We know, from the literature on the dark triad, that people high on dark traits are manipulative and do not hesitate to exploit others for their advantage.

The core of dark personality traits represents cold and manipulative interpersonal styles (Southard et al., 2015; Wiggins, 1995). Individuals inhibiting these traits find it challenging to collaborate with others and are unlikely to offer any support to others. This also suggests that individuals high in these traits are driven by their goals and agendas. They are invested in protecting their goals and plans even if it conflicts with others (Harkness et al., 2014). However, despite negative actions and consequences attached to these traits, individuals high in these traits are not only hired within organisations but are also often successful in getting to the top (Jonason et al., 2012). Recently researchers have started exploring the ways individuals high in dark traits get ahead within organisations. Jonason et al. (2012) proposed that individuals high in dark traits may use influence tactics within organisations to gain influence and control over others. They found that individuals high in dark traits use a variety of hard and soft influence tactics in the workplace.

Another study by Hart et al. (2019a) found individuals high in dark traits use self-presentation tactics to portray a positive image of themselves at work. However, these studies have not investigated whether these tactics are directed towards supervisors, coworkers, or subordinates. From the research on influence tactics, it is known that ingratiation is the most effective tactic when used as an upwards influence strategy (Erdogan & Liden, 2006). As hard tactics such as intimidation and threats cannot be used towards someone in a powerful position (Kimura et al., 2018), the use of soft tactics like ingratiation is quite effective in gaining the favour and acceptance of individuals higher in status or position such as supervisors and managers (Leban & Voyer, 2015). Moreover, this study also includes everyday sadism which has been left out of the investigations in the literature of dark traits. Based on this, the present study proposes that individuals high in dark traits are likely to use ingratiation tactics towards their supervisor to gain their approval.

H1:

- a) There is a positive relationship between Narcissism and Ingratiation behaviour.
- b) There is a positive relationship between Machiavellianism and Ingratiation behaviour.
- c) There is a positive relationship between Psychopathy and Ingratiation behaviour.
- d) There is a positive relationship between Everyday Sadism and Ingratiation behaviour.

4 Chapter 4 - Leader-Member Exchange

4.1 Introduction

Leader-Member Exchange theory proposes (LMX) that leaders form exchange relationships of various quality among their subordinates. Rooted in the role theory (Graen & Scandura, 1987; Graen, 1976) and social exchange theory (Erdogan & Liden, 2002; Kamdar & Dyne, 2007), LMX identifies that these relationships are marked by exchanging material resources, information and moral or emotional support between both parties (Ilies et al., 2007). Low-quality LMX relationships do not extend beyond the exchange of formally agreed to share resources within the employment contract, e.g., pay for performance. On the contrary, high-quality relationships, defined initially as in-group exchanges, are characterised by exchanging resources above and beyond the specifications of an assigned job. They embody feelings of mutual trust, respect, obligation, and reciprocity, making the relationships more social (Liden et al., 1997).

Foa & Foa (2012) categorised resources into six classes: money, goods, services, status, information, and affiliation, where affiliation refers to the expression of regard, comfort, support, and affection. They further argued that these six categories could be considered in terms of two dimensions: concrete or abstract and particular or universal. Concrete resources are tangible in nature, like goods and services, while abstract resources are more symbolic and are conveyed through verbal or other communication behaviours, e.g. status and information. Particular resources are where the identity of the source, which provides the resource, is essential, like affiliation, service, and quality, are highly detailed.

In contrast, universal resources are where the exchange source's identity is irrelevant, e.g., money, information and goods. Leader-member dyads experiencing high levels of affect, loyalty, contribution, and professional respect have relationships based on the exchange of more relational or particular resources: affiliation, status and service (Wilson et al., 2010). Low-quality relationships (out-group exchanges) involve exchanges based on formally agreed resources within the limits of the job description. Thus, social exchange relationships encompass feelings of loyalty, affective attachment, commitment and trust

between leader and member, compared to economic exchanges based on the formally agreed distribution of resources (Dulebohn et al., 2012; Graen & Uhl-bien, 1995).

A high-quality LMX relationship ensures supervisor support and guidance, feedback, social support, subordinate involvement in important decisions, better performance and satisfaction and lower turnover (Liden et al., 1997; Maslyn et al., 2017). As LMX theory suggests, leaders in organisations have more significant resources due to their relative position in the organisational hierarchy. Employees enjoying high LMX relationships have more access to valuable resources that leaders hold, making them relatively more powerful than their colleagues, thus creating an influence hierarchy within the workgroup (Sparrowe & Liden, 2005).

Role theory (Kahn et al., 1964) provides the foundation for understating how and why LMX relationships develop over time. Members of organisations accomplish their tasks based on the roles assigned to them. Roles are a set of behaviours and activities developed through a series of role episodes in which one individual develops a set of role expectations (Walker & Shore, 2015). These expectations are transmitted to other who respond accordingly or negotiates a different set of expectations. The theory suggests that personal characteristics and aspects of interpersonal relationships, such as power, dependence, and communication styles, influence the role-development process (Biddle, 2013).

LMX theorists draw on role theory to hypothesise that the development of LMX relationships has three phases: role taking, role making, and role routinisation (Dienesch & Liden, 1986; Graen & Scandura, 1987). The first phase is role taking, where an individual joins the team, and the leader assesses their capabilities and skills by comparing their responses to role expectations. In this phase, the leader takes the first step in initiating the relationship (Jha & Jha, 2013). The second phase in LMX development is role-making, where both leader and member go through a series of interactions or role episodes, actively contributing to relationship building. It is at this stage that the leader assigns a member to either in-group or out-group categories. In the routinization phase, the relationship between the leader and the member is established and remains relatively stable (Cropanzano et al., 2017).

An initial inquiry into LMX development began with research on work socialisation and vertical dyad linkages (VDL), which observed that managerial practices are usually based on dyadic interactions between managers and subordinates wherein managers form differentiated relations among their employees (Graen & Uhl-bien, 1995). Managers form high-quality relationships with subordinates who can assist them with workplace operations (Sparrowe & Liden, 2005). Later studies began exploring the attributes of LMX and the relationship between LMX and other organisational outcomes. Domains of inquiry include dyadic role-making processes, communications frequency and patterns, antecedents of LMX, follower characteristics, influence tactics and cross-cultural arena (Schriesheim et al., 1999).

LMX theory has been criticised recently by scholars for its limitations. One criticism is that it assumes a hierarchical power dynamic between leaders and followers, which may not accurately reflect the complexities of modern workplace relationships (Zagenczyk et al., 2015). Another criticism is that the theory tends to focus on individual relationships rather than group dynamics, which can be limiting in understanding how leadership impacts team performance (Power, 2013). Additionally, some argue that the theory lacks a clear explanation of how leader-member exchanges develop over time and how they may be influenced by external factors such as organisational culture and group norms. There is also concern that the theory does not adequately consider the role of diversity and inclusivity in leadership relationships, as it primarily focuses on the interactions between a single leader and individual followers (Ensari & Riggio, 2020). Some argue that the theory does not adequately consider cultural differences or the role of gender and the impact they may have on leader-member relationships (Sullivan et al., 2003).

Recent research has started addressing these issues by assessing LMX at the team level (Boies & Howell, 2006), using LMX-differentiation (Henderson et al., 2009) and social comparison (Vidyarthi et al., 2010) measures to account for differences in relationships among different employees and their leader and applying and testing lmx theory across different cultural settings (Rockstuhl et al., 2012). Though LMX measures are criticised for not adequately measuring the underlying construct, researchers have recently started interpreting existing LMX measures to assess the leader-member relationship quality (Gottfredson et al., 2020) rather than an exchange. The present research also measures

leader-member relationship quality from an employee perspective, so the criticism of LMX does not affect the way LMX is studied in the present study.

Despite criticism, the leader-member exchange theory has been supported by research and has practical implications for organisational leadership and management. For example, research has shown that leaders who engage in positive exchanges with their followers are more likely to be perceived as effective and that these exchanges can lead to increased job satisfaction, motivation, and commitment among followers. Overall, the leader-member exchange theory is effective because it provides a framework for understanding how leaders and followers interact and how these interactions can impact organisational outcomes (Volmer et al., 2022). It also offers practical guidance for leaders in building and maintaining positive relationships with their followers, which can ultimately lead to improved organisational performance. It remains a valuable and useful tool for understanding and improving leadership relationships in organisations.

4.2 Antecedents of LMX

Much research has been conducted on LMX quality since the concept gained traction. Researchers have attempted to understand LMX development over time and how different factors contribute to the development of the leader-member exchange. Some of the factors investigated include leader and member attributes, including their competence and ability (Dockery & Steiner, 1990; Dulebohn et al., 2012), similarity in those attributes such as demographic attributes of age, gender, education (Maslyn & Uhl-Bien, 2001; Vecchio & Brazil, 2007) perceived similarity in terms of liking for each other (Wayne & Ferris, 1990), expectations (Dulebohn et al., 2012; Wayne et al., 1997) and mutual trust (Sue-Chan et al., 2012) and similarity in personality traits. Studies have been conducted to understand the influence of a leader and follower's personality traits and characteristics, their behaviours and interpersonal relationship variables on the quality of LMX (Nahrgang & Seo, 2015). Personality traits investigated include the Big Five traits of extraversion and agreeableness (Bernerth et al., 2007b), locus of control (Kinicki & Vecchio, 1994), and affectivity (Engle & Lord, 1997a).

Existing research proves that leader's personality plays an important role in LMX quality. Research on Big Five and LMX shows that leaders high in agreeableness are more likely to establish and maintain good relationships with each follower because of their kind, polite

and friendly attitude towards others (Bernerth et al., 2007a; Schyns et al., 2012). Leader extraversion has also been positively associated with high-quality LMX development. Extravert leaders are sociable, outspoken and confident and seek opportunities for socialisation which are important for strong interpersonal relationships (Bernerth et al., 2007a; Dust et al., 2021; Schyns et al., 2012). Conscientious leaders are more likely to build good relationships as a means of supporting strong employee performance (Bernerth et al., 2007a). Leaders more open to experience are more likely to see and accept followers' offers for relationship exchanges as they are curious and enjoy trying new things and building new relationships (Bernerth et al., 2007a).

The present research focuses on follower personality characteristics and their influence on LMX quality.

4.2.1 Follower Characteristics and LMX Quality

Studies have shown that personality factors are significantly associated with LMX quality. The personality traits of agreeableness, extraversion and openness to experience (Goldberg, 1981) are positively related to better LMX quality (Dulebohn et al., 2012) as these traits characterise cooperation (Graziano et al., 2007), high levels of social interaction, helping behaviour (Perugini et al., 2003), creativity, and open-mindedness (Barrick & Mount, 1991). Taken together, these factors have been shown to support high-quality LMX (Erdogan & Liden, 2002). Individuals possessing these characteristics are likely to be more accepting of new challenging tasks and roles, which enables them to transcend the relationships limited to formal economic exchange and move to develop long-term quality relationships with others (Bernerth et al., 2007b).

Similarly, locus of control (Rotter, 1966) and positive affect (Berry & Hansen, 1996) positively influence LMX relationships. Individuals with an internal locus of control believe they can control their environment by influencing their interactions with others. Thus they try to interact and engage by actively seeking feedback, negotiating job roles to shape relations with their superiors and increasing their communication with superiors (Martin et al., 2005; Phillips & Bedeian, 1994).

Positive affect is the extent to which individuals feel motivated, enthusiastic, and optimistic (Watson, Clark, & Carey, 1988). Superiors view individuals high in positive affect as more

active, motivated and engaging. Thus they are more likely to assign favourable tasks to such individuals and form high-quality LMX with them (Kinicki & Vecchio, 1994; Phillips & Bedeian, 1994). Negative affect refers to subjective distress manifested in fear, anxiety, fatigue, hostility, and lethargy (Bernerth et al., 2007b; Watson, Clark, & Tellegen, 1988). People with negative affect have a pessimistic view of life; they do not trust others easily and have difficulty building effective relationships at work (Bernerth et al., 2007b; Hui et al., 1999). Because of the fear and mistrust, they cannot initiate communications, making them less favourable for the high-quality LMX relations (Hochwarter, 2005).

4.2.2 Upward influence behaviour and LMX Quality

Upward influence tactics represent another interpersonal antecedent of LMX quality. Followers proactively determine the quality of LMX by exhibiting certain behaviours that positively alter how leaders view them. Successful influence attempts, effectively executed and perceived as intended, positively change leaders' attributions of followers' behaviours (Liden & Mitchell, 1988). Leaders consciously or subconsciously remember followers' proactive behaviours and use this information to interpret follower behaviours, such as task performance (Lam et al., 2007). In a laboratory experiment, Dockery & Steiner (1990) found ingratiation and rationality tactics positively related to LMX in initial interaction, while assertiveness was negatively associated with LMX. (Deluga & Perry, 1994) found other enhancement tactics to be the strongest predictor of LMX. Wayne & Ferris (1990) found an indirect relation between influence behaviours and LMX through liking and performance ratings. Summaries of the effects of ingratiation and influence tactics on the LMX relationship find that influence tactics such as ingratiation and self-promotion positively relate to LMX quality (Dulebohn et al., 2012).

Other interpersonal constructs which act as antecedents of LMX quality include the perceived similarity and trust between leader and employee. Early work on LMX theory suggested that the degree of compatibility between leader and member would contribute to the type of relationship between leaders and members (Dienesch & Liden, 1986; Graen & Cashman, 1975). The extent to which leaders and members perceive each other to be similar impacts their liking for each other and improve their relationship quality (Dulebohn et al., 2012; Liden et al., 1993; Murphy & Ensher, 1999; Wayne & Ferris, 1990). Moreover,

trust also plays a vital role in forming relationships between leaders and members (Brower et al., 2009). People rationally judge others and consider them worthy of their trust only if the other person is capable, reliable and dependable (Lewicki et al., 2006). Initial LMX theory posited that leaders form high-quality relations with members they consider competent, responsible and trustworthy (Scandura et al., 1986). Several studies found support for a positive association between a leader's trust of followers and enhanced LMX quality (Dulebohn et al., 2012; Gómez & Rosen, 2001; Van Dam et al., 2008; Wat & Shaffer, 2005).

Dienesch & Liden (1986), in their theory of LMX development, noted that many contextual factors influence the LMX process. For example, time and resource constraints make it difficult for leaders to build high-quality LMX relations with many followers (Dansereau et al., 1975; Dienesch & Liden, 1986). Thus the span of supervision is negatively related to the quality of the LMX relationship (Green et al., 1996; Schriesheim et al., 2000; Schyns et al., 2005). The work climate in terms of cohesiveness and support also influences LMX quality, such that perceived organisational support (POS) is positively related to high LMX quality (Wayne et al., 1997; Wayne et al., 2002; Kraimer & Wayne, 2004). Organisations with a climate of teamwork, group cohesion and a strong emphasis on employee relations were also positively related to high-quality LMX relationships (Aryee & Chen, 2006; Cogliser & Schriesheim, 2000).

4.3 Consequences of LMX

Most of the research on LMX has focused on its outcomes in terms of job attitudes, perceptions and behaviours. Indeed, numerous research studies have assessed the effect of LMX on work attitudes of job satisfaction and organisational commitment (Dulebohn et al., 2012; Gerstner & Day, 1997). Job satisfaction has been repeatedly investigated as an outcome of leader-member exchange relationships. The meta-analysis by Gerstner & Day (1997) and Dulebohn et al. (2012) found a positive association between LMX and job satisfaction, with an average correlation of $r = 0.46$ and $r = 0.49$, respectively.

These meta-analyses also showed a strong positive relationship between LMX and organisational commitment, with an average correlation of $r = 0.35$ and $r = 0.47$, respectively. In a high-quality LMX, leaders provide support and guidance, involve

employees in important decisions, give them challenging tasks, and encourage and provide timely feedback, thus enhancing employees' commitment to the organisation (Dulebohn et al., 2012; Gerstner & Day, 1997).

LMX was also positively related to employee satisfaction with pay, perceptions of justice and fairness in the workplace, psychological empowerment, better job performance and low turnover intentions (Dulebohn et al., 2012). Employees in high-quality relationships receive better benefits and privileges, including more interaction, rewards and positive appraisals (Cogliser & Schriesheim, 2000; Dienesch & Liden, 1986; Roch & Shanock, 2006), thus contributing to greater satisfaction with pay (Dulebohn et al., 2012; Sparrowe, 1994). Differentiation in LMX can evoke different perceptions of justice and equality among employees (Erdogan & Bauer, 2010). Employees in high-quality relationships perceive their leaders as fair, while employees in low-quality relationships may perceive their leader to be unjust as they are not provided better access to resources, information or support which can help them complete their tasks or increase chances of career mobility (Dulebohn et al., 2012).

Employees in high-quality relationships experience a greater sense of self-efficacy and competence (Andrews & Kacmar, 2001; Aryee & Chen, 2006). This occurs as their leaders involve them in critical decisions, give them challenging tasks, introduce them to their network of peers, and give them autonomy to take decisions at work. These features increase employees' feelings of self-determination and their ability to make meaningful contributions and impact at work (Aryee & Chen, 2006; Dulebohn et al., 2012; Gómez & Rosen, 2001). Moreover, employees in high-quality LMX relationships are more likely to perform better and less likely to leave the organisation, thus enhancing the organisation's productivity and reducing turnover (Dulebohn et al., 2012; Gerstner & Day, 1997).

4.4 LMX and Ingratiation

LMX relationships are generally characterised as being initiated by leaders (Graen & Uhl-bien, 1995). Limited by resource constraints, leaders within organisations develop different relationships among their employees. High-quality relationships with leaders involve ongoing support and mentorship, which helps employees grow and succeed in their roles. This is the reason, sometimes, that employees proactively take steps to manage their relationship with the leaders by engaging in a variety of influence behaviours (Dulebohn et

al., 2012). These behaviours are used to influence their supervisors, subordinates, and peers (Kipnis et al., 1980; Liden & Mitchell, 1988). Among the influence behaviours directed at supervisors (also known as upward influence or supervisor-focused tactics), ingratiation is considered the most powerful, subtle, yet highly effective tactic (Bolino et al., 2016; Gordon, 1996; Wayne et al., 1997). The reason ingratiation is most effective among all interpersonal influence tactics is that it generates an obligation for the focus person to reciprocate the goodwill gesture by the ingratiator in a similar positive manner. Most people direct ingratiation and flattery toward those with authority and control over valuable resources the actor wants a share (Ellis et al., 2002; Turnley & Bolino, 2001).

Research indicates that the use of ingratiation tactics may likely benefit employees in the form of positive performance evaluations, and promotions (Johnson et al., 2002; Kumar & Beyerlein, 1991; Lam et al., 2007), likability by superiors, improved relationships with superiors and career advancement (Higgins et al., 2003). Successful attempts at ingratiation are likely to change supervisors' perceptions and attributions of employee behaviour (Liden & Mitchell, 1988), resulting in biased judgements. Supervisors may recall employees' positive behaviour while evaluating their performance and reciprocate by providing positive feedback and appraisal. Wayne & Liden (1995), in their longitudinal study, found that employees who used ingratiation tactics successfully received positive performance ratings. Moreover, ingratiation tactics enhanced the supervisor's liking and perceptions of similarity towards the employee, which influenced the subordinate's performance evaluation by the supervisor.

While research clearly indicates employees within organisations use ingratiation tactics towards their supervisors, only a handful of studies have investigated whether the use of ingratiation tactics helps in enhancing the relationship with the supervisor (e.g., Deluga & Perry, 1994; Dockery & Steiner, 1990; Dulebohn et al., 2012). In a laboratory study, Dockery & Steiner (1990) found that a leader's liking of an employee played an essential role in developing a high-quality leader-member exchange between leader and employee. Employees assigned importance to use upward influence tactics (ingratiation) in their initial interactions with their leaders, hoping it would help them develop better quality exchange relationships with their leaders. These results were supported by (Wayne & Ferris, 1990) experimental study, which revealed that supervisor-focused tactics indirectly, through their

influence on supervisor liking, enhance exchange quality between supervisor and employee.

Moreover, employees who used supervisor-focused tactics received better performance ratings even if their actual performance was not up to the mark. Deluga & Perry (1994) also found a positive relationship between ingratiation and LMX. The meta-analysis by Dulebohn et al. (2012) supported this positive association between ingratiation and LMX. However, all of these studies are cross-sectional in design. The current two-wave study can help determine the causal effect of Ingratiation on LMX. Moreover, while existing research points out that ingratiation tactics positively relate to LMX quality, current research aims to assess how ingratiation, through its effect on LMX quality, can help employees achieve tangible outcomes of career success. No study to date has investigated the mediating effect of LMX between ingratiation and career success. Based on the existing evidence from the literature, we propose a positive relationship between Employee Ingratiation and LMX.

H2: Ingratiation behaviour positively influences the perceived quality of leader-member exchange (LMX).

5 Chapter 5 Career Success

5.1 Introduction

Arthur et al. (2005) defined career success as “an accomplishment of desirable work-related outcomes at any point in a person’s work experiences over time (2005, p. 179). Earlier researchers (e.g., (Gutteridge, 1973) theorised career success objectively in terms of one’s salary increase and the number of promotions, as only those individuals who fulfilled these criteria were considered successful. However, research by Van Maanen & Schein (1977) and Phillips-Jones (1982) provided evidence for the multi-dimensionality of the career success construct and proposed that it be measured both objectively and subjectively. This perspective was supported by Bartolome & Evans (1980), who suggested that a person’s career success also depends on satisfaction with one’s job and life.

Later studies provided further support for this distinction by reporting that many managers and employees who had achieved objective career success were not satisfied with their accomplishments (Korman et al., 1981; Platt & Pollock, 1974). Researchers have begun to consider career success a “boundaryless” construct and include individuals’ evaluations of their success. Thus, career success is measured both in extrinsic and intrinsic terms using the measures of salary, promotions, leadership status and career satisfaction (Boudreau et al., 2001). Other researchers have used the dichotomy of objective and subjective career success instead of using the motivational basis of intrinsic and extrinsic (Breland et al., 2007b; Ng et al., 2005).

Objective or extrinsic career success was defined by Dries et al. (2008) as “observable, measurable, and verifiable attainments” (p. 254) and is measured using the factors which can be objectively assessed and evaluated, such as salary level, position in the hierarchy and the number of promotions. On the other hand, subjective or intrinsic career success is a person’s assessment of their achievements according to their success criteria. More precisely, subjective career success is “an individual’s internal apprehension and evaluation of their career across any dimensions that are important to that individual (Van Maanen & Schein, 1977). Intrinsic career success has been measured in terms of one’s satisfaction with their job and career (Boudreau et al., 2001). Intrinsic or subjective career success are

advancements in one's career which are valuable for the individual and fulfil their physiological needs, thus positively influencing their well-being and self-worth. Extrinsic career success is the tangible outcomes instrumental in helping individuals achieve their career goals.

While objective and subjective career success is studied together to measure an individual's career success, research reveals that both constructs have different antecedents and consequences. Subjective career success is predicted by two sets of variables, namely the richness of an individual's social connections and a person's individual characteristics, including extraversion, openness to experience, and conscientiousness with other individual difference traits such as proactivity, locus of control and cognitive ability (Ng et al., 2005).

Ng et al. (2005) identified four different factors contributing to individual career success. These include human capital, organisational sponsorship, socio-demographic status, and stable individual differences. Human capital refers to an individual's knowledge, skills, and experiences, which contribute to and adds value to his career advancement (Becker, 2009; Ng & Feldman, 2010). Organisational sponsorship is the extent to which an organisation provides special assistance and support to employees in facilitating their career advancement (Dreher & Ash, 1990; Yean & Yahya, 2008). Socio-demographic factors influencing career success include age, gender, race, and marital status. Stable individual difference factors include personality traits of the Big Five, proactivity (Costa & McCrae, 2008), locus of control (Spector, 1982) and cognitive ability.

Organisational sponsorship and stable individual differences variables are more likely to influence subjective career success than objective career success. These variables are considered close determinants of a person's attitude and behaviours at work based on their perceptions. While human capital factors like job experience, skillset, number of hours worked, and education are better predictors of objective career success. Socio-demographic variables are also more likely to predict objective career success better because there is evidence of discrimination based on gender and race. Women and non-white people have fewer chances of promotions and career advancement than their white male counterparts.

In addition to these factors, employee influence behaviours impact career success and can be classified into job-focused and supervisor-focused behaviours (Wayne & Ferris, 1990). Job-focused behaviours are intended to make a person look more competent at the job. In contrast, supervisor-focused behaviours involve praising the target person so they may like the person exhibiting such behaviours. In an empirical study, Judge & Bretz (1994) found that job-focused tactics were negatively related to extrinsic and intrinsic career success, while supervisor-focused tactics were positively associated with intrinsic and extrinsic career success. Employees who used ingratiation tactics (supervisor-focused) reported higher levels of intrinsic and extrinsic career success (Judge & Bretz, 1994).

5.2 Antecedents of Career Success

Studies have identified three approaches to predict career success: individual, structural, and behavioural (Aryee et al., 1994; Rosenbaum, 1989). The individual approach focuses on factors including human capital and individual motivational attributes. In this approach, individuals develop their human capital using skills, training, and education, which can help them succeed in their careers. Structural factors refer to organisational structures' role in facilitating individual career success, including promotion policies and organisation size. The behavioural factors emphasize an individual's control over their career advancement by using certain career-enhancing strategies (Ballout, 2007; Nabi, 1999).

5.2.1 Individual Characteristics and Career Success

Human capital theory (Becker, 2009) explains the influence of individual factors on career success (Ballout, 2007). This theory argues that individuals who invest in education, training and gaining new knowledge and skills are more likely to perform better and succeed in their jobs than those who invest little in their career growth (Nafuko et al., 2004). Individual factors which can predict career success include self-efficacy, self-esteem, career aspirations and work centrality (Ng et al., 2005). Individuals who believe they can execute challenging tasks, deal with different situations, and achieve designated performance levels, are likely to perform high at their jobs (Bandura et al., 1999) and consequently earn organisational rewards.

Career aspirations refer to individual motivational attributes that contribute to objective and subjective career success. Successful managers have career aspirations and goals aligned

with their values and preferences (Callanan, 2003). Similarly, work-centric individuals who assign more importance to work compared to other spheres of life (such as family, and leisure) worked more towards attaining career success (Baruch, 2004; Judge et al., 1995).

Personality attributes play an important role in an individual's career success (Judge & Kammeyer-Mueller, 2007). The research on Big Five personality traits shows that individuals high in extraversion and openness to experience are more likely to be satisfied with their careers because of their enthusiastic, bold, creative, and joyful nature, which is important for building interpersonal relations at work (Judge et al., 2002). Individuals high in conscientiousness are responsible and have a greater achievement orientation which is essential for the organisational sponsorship (Barrick & Mount, 1991; Ng et al., 2005). Similarly, proactivity is linked to subjective career success as proactive individuals are more likely to influence and manage their work environment in ways that create advancement opportunities for them (Seibert et al., 1999). They identify and pursue career opportunities, take new career initiatives which help them achieve their goals and seize any opportunity which helps them build social exchange relationships with their supervisors.

Moreover, proactive individuals are also seen as potential leaders and more likely to be sponsored by their organisation (Bateman & Crant, 1993). Individuals with an internal locus of control believe they are responsible for their success and believe in their capabilities to achieve their goals (Judge et al., 1998; Ng et al., 2005). Moreover, individuals high in cognitive ability have the potential to gain new skills and knowledge, which helps them achieve success in their careers (Dreher & Bretz, 1991). Ng et al. (2005) meta-analysis also identified that employees with good relationships with their supervisors predicted higher career success.

Recently researchers have started investigating the influence of dark personality traits on career success (see Spurk et al., 2016). These traits have been found to be associated with negative outcomes in various domains of life, including work (Cohen, 2018). Dark personality traits, such as Machiavellianism, Psychopathy and Narcissism, are associated with a lack of empathy and a tendency to manipulate and exploit others for personal gain (Nagler et al., 2014). Individuals scoring high on these traits are more likely to engage in unethical behaviours at work, such as stealing credit for others' work, bullying, or manipulating coworkers (Lyons, 2019; Madan, 2014). However, despite their malevolent

behaviour, these people are found working within organisations, sometimes in top positions (Jonason et al., 2012). How these individuals succeed in their careers, despite negative behaviours, is an area largely unexplored.

5.2.2 Individual Behaviour and Career Success

The behavioural antecedents of career success include strategies individuals implement to pursue career growth. Proactive behaviour is an important approach towards career success. Individuals who use a proactive approach towards achieving career growth are likely to succeed (Gould & Penley, 1984; Greenhaus et al., 2009). Career strategies used by individuals can help them gain visibility and power as these strategies act as signals to top management. Common career strategies used by individuals include career planning, networking and technical skills. Orpen (1994) found that managers who invested in career planning achieved higher objective and subjective career success. They received an increased salary, more promotions and were more satisfied with their careers. The results of this study were also supported in another study by Hall et al. (2004), which stated that employees who planned their careers proactively achieved higher subjective career success.

Networking behaviour has also been found to influence subjective career success (Bozionelos, 2003) positively. A study by Gould & Penley (1984) found networking resources associated with increased salary among white-collar workers. Networking and social interactions at the workplace provide employees with better access to new useful information and resources, support from colleagues and make other people at the workplace aware of your contributions. Networking increases the chances of being assigned challenging tasks, which can increase career growth (Wolff & Moser, 2009). Similarly, individuals with the necessary technical skills have better chances of excelling in their careers (Randall & Zirkle, 2005). The skilful use of technology is positively associated with perceived work effectiveness, predicting rewards, incentives and promotions for individuals (Borghans & ter Weel, 2006).

5.2.3 Organisational Context and Career Success

Organisational antecedents of career success include contextual factors that provide the necessary support structure and environment for an individual to translate their interests into goals and actions. Individuals are more likely to pursue their goals with more ardour

when environmental conditions beneficial for their growth are in place. Such conditions include organisational support and organisational socialisation. Research has demonstrated a positive association between organisational support and career success in that individuals associate organisational support with greater career advancement, promotions, and recognition (Barnett & Bradley, 2007). Support from the organisation and supervisor encourages individuals to demonstrate high performance and participate in activities that help the individual and the organisation grow (Deci & Ryan, 1985; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). Individuals who enjoy organisation support are also more satisfied with their jobs, experience less stress and are less likely to engage in withdrawal behaviours (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). Similarly, organisational socialisation is associated with increased job satisfaction, commitment to the organisation, high performance, career satisfaction and lower intentions to leave (Chao et al., 1994; Chow, 2002; Claes et al., 2006; Cooper-Thomas & Anderson, 2005; King et al., 2005; Orpen, 1995; Taormina & Law, 2000; Taormina, 1998).

5.3 Theoretical foundations of Career Success

Career success has its theoretical underpinnings in the concept of upward mobility, which means the ability or facility for people to move up to a position of increased power or status. Turner (1960) identified two forms of upward mobility: contest mobility and sponsored mobility. The contest mobility perspective entails that all people can compete in a fair environment and get ahead solely based on their skills, abilities, contributions, and achievements. No one has a preexisting advantage, and only those who work hard and put in enough effort will likely succeed. In contrast, sponsored mobility perspective advocates that only those who are chosen by the powerful and established elites are likely to get ahead because of their high potential to succeed. Such people are sponsored by the elite and provided favourable treatment and support, which aids them in winning.

This concept of career mobility overlaps with the leader-member exchange theory (Dansereau et al., 1975), which states that leaders form different relationships among their subordinates and select only a few to build high-quality relationships. Those with high-quality relationships get more support, guidance, and respect from supervisors than those in low-quality relationships. Leaders constrained by resources often cannot invest in

building a relationship with all the employees. They would choose employees whom they trust for their capability for long-term relationships.

Wayne et al. (1999) used Turner's (1960) contest and sponsored mobility systems to investigate the subjective and objective antecedents of career success. Certain motivational variables influence individuals' contest mobility (Wayne et al., 1999). Motivation variables included the desire to climb the hierarchical ladder, the number of hours invested in work and planning for a career. Individuals who plan for their careers are most likely to implement those plans; the desire for upward mobility and hard work in reciprocation for reward motivates individuals to strive for career success. Similarly, sponsored mobility is impacted by leader-member exchange and mentoring from supervisors. Individuals who enjoy high-quality relationships with their supervisors have their supervisor's trust, support, guidance and share of resources, which helps them move up the career ladder. Leader-member exchange is positively linked to salary progression, assessment of promotability and career satisfaction. Similarly, employees who receive career development training and mentoring from supervisors have more chances to excel in their careers as they are considered more desirable for promotion than those who do not receive any mentoring. Training is also linked to high career satisfaction (Kong et al., 2012) among employees.

5.4 Leader-Member Exchange and Career Success

The relationship between the quality of leader-member exchange and career mobility and success can be explained by social exchange theory (Blau, 1964) and tournament theory (Kraimer et al., 2015; Rosenbaum, 1984). Social exchange theory states that individuals form relationships with others based on the principle of reciprocation (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005). They build long-term, trustworthy relations with a selected few and expect reciprocation in similar terms. Subordinates in high-quality relationships get support and resources from supervisors in the form of greater job challenges and career and promotion opportunities, and because of this level of support and sharing of resources, they experience more job satisfaction and their commitment to the organisation (Garg & Dhar, 2014; Leow & Khong, 2015).

Tournament theory (Rosenbaum, 1979) is based on Turner (1960) upward mobility systems. Turner identified two different mobility systems while comparing American and English education systems, contest-mobility, where all qualified individuals can contest for upward mobility based on their abilities and hard work and sponsored-mobility, where people from the elite class choose other individuals based on their social status and class. (Rosenbaum, 1984) found that both contest and sponsored mobility systems were common in organisations. The contest-mobility system dominates in the early stages of an employee's tenure. In contrast, the sponsored-mobility system dominates at later stages when the employee starts moving up the hierarchical ladder. Since then, researchers have used sponsored mobility system to understand the link between leader-member exchange and career success (Wayne et al., 1999).

The sponsored mobility system contends that leaders sponsor carefully selected employees who are likely to get promotions (Rosenbaum, 1984). This is in line with the leader-member exchange theory, which assumes that leaders form high-quality relationships with only a select few employees they believe are capable, skilled, and trustworthy and provide them with support and sponsorship. A strong relationship with their immediate supervisor is the key to employee productivity and commitment to the organisation (Buckingham & Coffman, 2014). Employees who enjoy high-quality relationships with their supervisors are less likely to leave the organisation and prefer staying with it for long-term career goals (Graen et al., 1982). Indeed, leadership plays a key role in ensuring employee and team success (Han, 2010).

The current research on LMX and career success is limited in exploring the organisational context. For instance, in the context of public sector organisations, measuring career success through LMX may not be as significant as it is in private sector settings. The possible reason is that public sector organisations often prioritise egalitarian principles and standardised procedures, which can limit the extent to which LMX relationships develop and influence career advancement. Public sector organisations typically exhibit a greater centralisation of power and decision-making processes, which often result in highly formalised and structured career advancement and promotion procedures (Rasdi et al., 2012). These well-defined pathways are designed to manage stability and order within the system, where seniority is frequently emphasised and rewarded (Siddiquee, 2006). In such an environment, the interpersonal relationships between employees and their immediate

supervisors (LMX) may be overshadowed by the institutionalised processes that prioritise tenure and adherence to established hierarchies. Therefore, in public sector organisations, the significance of LMX in measuring career success may be relatively diminished compared to more dynamic and less hierarchically structured work settings.

Several studies have investigated the relationship between LMX and career satisfaction as an indicator of career success (Kraimer et al., 2015). A review of the existing research suggests a positive relationship between LMX and subjective career success in terms of career satisfaction (for example, (Breland et al., 2007a; Byrne et al., 2008; DeConinck, 2009; Dulebohn et al., 2012; Erdogan et al., 2004; Han, 2010; Joo & Ready, 2012; Liao et al., 2009; Wayne et al., 1999). Individuals who reported high-quality LMX with their supervisors reported greater satisfaction with their careers. Supportive work relationships are linked to employee intrinsic career success (Liden et al., 1997; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). High LMX relationships at the workplace provide employees with the autonomy to design their roles and experiences using open communication and negotiation, which is encouraged in high-quality relationships (Erdogan et al., 2004). Based on existing research, a positive relationship is proposed between LMX and subjective career success, in terms of career satisfaction.

The investigation of the relationship between LMX and objective career success outcomes has produced mixed results (Kraimer et al., 2015). For example, (DeConinck, 2009) found a positive effect of LMX on pay raise. These results were supported by (Dulebohn et al., 2012), in their meta-analysis of LMX, confirming a positive relationship between LMX and satisfaction with pay. (Liao et al., 2009), in their research on LMX and organisational commitment in the tourism industry, found that employees in high-quality LMX reported positive job salaries and promotions, which positively affected their commitment to the organisation. In a time-lagged study measuring the impact of LMX on promotions, (Schaubroeck & Lam, 2002) found that employees who reported high-quality LMX were promoted two months later. Similar results were supported by a time-lagged study by Wayne et al. (1999), who found a positive effect of LMX on salary progression and assessment of promotability.

However, Byrne et al. (2008), in their research on factors contributing to employee career success, found no association between LMX and salary and promotions. In another study

on the role of LMX in high-turnover environments, (Morrow et al., 2005) found that employees who reported high-quality LMX did not report any increase in pay over their tenure. LMX was unrelated to pay. (Scandura & Schriesheim, 1994), in their research on LMX and supervisor mentoring, found LMX to be unrelated to salary and promotions when controlled for supervisor mentoring. Most of these studies are cross-sectional in nature. The present two-wave study can help fill this gap by investigating the effect of LMX on objective career success at two-time points. The existing research has a limitation regarding understanding the directionality and causal effects of Leader-Member Exchange (LMX) on objective career outcomes. It is plausible that the connection between these variables operates in a bidirectional manner. In other words, promotions and salary levels could potentially influence employees' efforts to enhance their relationship with their supervisors, as suggested by (Harris et al., 2009).

Adding to this perspective, research conducted by (Volmer et al., 2011) sheds light on a reciprocal relationship between LMX and job satisfaction. Their findings revealed a robust bidirectional link between LMX and job satisfaction. This implies that the relationship between LMX and career or job outcomes may indeed be reciprocal, with positive outcomes reinforcing and further fortifying the connection between leaders and employees. Based on theoretical knowledge and the majority of studies indicating a positive association between LMX and objective career outcomes, the present study also proposed a positive relationship between LMX and objective career outcomes of a) the number of promotions received throughout the career and b) the percentage salary increase in past three years. The direction of proposed relationships is also in line with existing research (Harris et al., 2009).

H3: High quality leader-member exchange is positively associated with subordinate subjective career success in terms of career satisfaction.

H4(a): High quality leader-member exchange positively influences subordinate objective career success in terms of the total number of promotions received throughout the career.

H4(b): High quality leader-member exchange positively influences subordinate objective career success in terms of percentage salary increase in the past three years.

6 Chapter 6 Subjective Wellbeing

6.1 Introduction

Describing what constitutes a good life has been a fertile field of work for many academics and philosophers. While some have focused on pleasure, self-understanding and loving as elements of a good life (Rath et al., 2010), others have explored the defining attributes of a good life (Diener & Suh, 2003). A further stream of study considers that it is up to individual people to decide whether they are living good lives (Diener & Ryan, 2009). This approach to the nature of what it is to have a good life has evolved to be known as ‘subjective well-being’ or ‘happiness’ in colloquial terms. The concept of subjective well-being has been of specific importance to those who are interested in understanding the quality of life.

Subjective well-being (SWB) is defined as ‘People’s evaluations of their lives - evaluations that are both affective and cognitive’ (Diener et al., 2002). The affective component deals with positive (joy, excitement, glee etc.) and negative (anger, sadness, guilt etc) emotions, feelings and moods, while the cognitive component deals with a person’s perception of their satisfaction with life as whole or certain domains of it, for example, work, relationships etc. (Diener & Emmons, 1984). People experience positive subjective well-being when they feel happy or because of pleasant happenings in their lives. On the other hand, they experience negative subjective well-being when things are not good in their life, or they are unhappy, sad or angry about how their life is going (Lucas & Diener, 2008).

Subjective well-being has three defining attributes: first, it is a subjective experience; second, it involves both positive and negative emotions; third, it considers the evaluation of a person’s life as a whole, not just certain aspects of it (Diener, 1984). These attributes are characterised by the components of positive affect, negative affect and life satisfaction, respectively. The components of positive and negative affect deal with the affective dimension of the SWB (Diener & Emmons, 1984), while life satisfaction refers to the cognitive component of SWB (Andrews & Witty, 2012). How people feel and react is a reflection of events happening in their daily lives. People measure their life satisfaction against the set criteria (Shin & Johnson, 1978).

6.2 Philosophical Foundations of Well-being

Research on wellbeing has evolved into two distinct yet overlapping paradigms reflecting two distinct philosophies. In the first instance, hedonism (Kahneman et al., 1999) proposes that well-being constitutes happiness and pleasure, while eudemonism serves as the second epistemological basis and asserts that well-being is not just happiness, but also a person's self-realisation and the fulfilment of one's true potential (Waterman, 1993).

The Greek philosopher, Aristippus, referred to hedonism as the maximization of pleasure and minimisation of pain. (Kahneman et al., 1999), in their book 'Wellbeing: The Foundations of Hedonic Psychology', defined hedonic psychology as the study of "what makes experiences and life pleasant and unpleasant" (p. ix). This clear definition of the hedonic view of wellbeing has opened up avenues of investigation for researchers to evaluate wellbeing along the continuum of pleasure/pain experienced by humans. Most of the research has measured hedonic psychology using subjective well-being measures comprising components of life satisfaction, the presence of positive affect and the absence of negative affect in the life (Ryan & Deci, 2001).

Despite the widespread use of the hedonic view of well-being, many philosophers and researchers have disparaged the idea of happiness to be a principal benchmark of well-being. Aristotle considered the idea of happiness to be vulgar in that it makes people slaves to their desires (Smith & Diekmann, 2017). Instead, he argued that true happiness is in realising one's true potential and doing something worthwhile and intriguing. In taking this approach, Aristotle was proposing a Eudaimonic view of the well-being (Kashdan et al., 2008). This approach maintains that people are happier when they live according to their deeply held values (Waterman, 1993).

6.3 Theoretical foundations of well-being

Deci & Ryan (2000) introduced Self-Determination Theory (SDT) which affirms the core concept of eudaimonia, the realisation of self, as the central aspect of well-being. SDT proposes three basic psychological needs, autonomy, relatedness and competence, which are essential for individuals' psychological growth and well-being. SDT posits that fulfilment of these psychological needs fosters both subjective and eudaimonic well-being (Ryan & Deci, 2001) and is essential for human psychological growth, life satisfaction,

integrity and self-congruence (Deci & Ryan, 2000). SDT aligns well with Ryff & Singer (1998) eudaimonic wellbeing approach in that wellbeing is not merely a matter of attaining desires but living a content and fully functioning life. However, Ryan & Deci (2001), differed from Ryff and Singer's approach in that the principal factors of autonomy, competence and relatedness foster subjective and eudaimonic well-being, while Ryff & Singer (1998) used these components to define eudaimonic (psychological) wellbeing (Ryan & Deci, 2001).

6.4 Well-being in the Workplace

The concept of workplace well-being has been defined and approached differently by scholars across different fields. Grant et al. (2007), drawing on the work of (Warr, 1987), defined wellbeing as “the overall quality of an employee's experience and functioning at work” (p. 52). Building on the literature, they argue that there are three main facets of work-related well-being concerned psychological (employees' levels of satisfaction with processes and practices in the workplace), physical (employees' bodily health outcomes like stress) and social (related to interpersonal relationships, support and coordination, and fairness perceptions) functioning.

Physical well-being involves employees' bodily health at work (Testa & Simonson, 1996) in terms of any work-related injury or disease, stress caused by work, lack of support and non-provision of healthcare facilities (Danna & Griffin, 1999; Theorell et al., 1990).

Psychological well-being (PWB) involves employees' feelings and judgements of their work situation (Locke, 1976) and is defined in terms of hedonic and eudaimonic well-being (Deci & Ryan, 2000). Researchers measure employee psychological well-being using measures of job satisfaction, engagement at work, autonomy to carry out tasks and fulfilment with their efforts (Weiss, 2002; Wrzesniewski et al., 2003). Social well-being involves employees' quality of relationships with other people at work (Keyes, 1998) and is studied in terms of their interactions with peers, superiors and subordinates, the amount of support they get from their supervisor, quality of leader-member exchange, level of trust and cooperation they enjoy with their colleagues (Adler & Kwon, 2002; Kramer, 1999).

Within the organisation sciences, job satisfaction is probably the most common and the oldest operationalisation of workplace happiness and well-being (Argyle, 1989; Judge &

Watanabe, 1993; Wright, 2005). However, job satisfaction is not the same as psychological well-being as job satisfaction is a job-specific construct while psychological well-being is a more generic and broader concept which involves all the aspects of life, including one's job (Diener, 1984; Wright & Cropanzano, 2000). PWB is typically defined as the overall effectiveness of an individual's psychological functioning (Wright, 2005). Unlike job satisfaction, which has significant cognitive and affective components, PWB is primarily an affective or emotional experience (Wright & Bonett, 2007).

Literature on well-being is branched into two different perspectives: subjective well-being and psychological well-being. Subjective Well-being (SWB) deals with the hedonic aspect of well-being, which means seeking pleasure or happiness while avoiding losses or pain. It constitutes the components of positive and negative affect and satisfaction with one's life (Diener, 1984). Psychological Well-being (PWB) deals with the eudemonic aspect of well-being. It focuses on self-actualisation, realising one's true potential and living a purposeful and meaningful life (Ryff & Keyes, 1995). Whether there is, a conceptual distinction between the two constructs is still under debate. One camp argues that though SWB and PWB focus on different aspects of well-being, the common underlying feature is that both deal with the subjective nature of the well-being (Keyes et al., 2002). Other camp urges that PWB and SWB measure the concept of well-being, though both reflect different research traditions (Kashdan et al., 2008).

Chen et al. (2013) used a bifactor model to assess which argument holds weight, whether PWB and SWB are different concepts measuring the same core construct of subjective well-being or both are the same concepts with different approaches. They conducted two studies, one with a university student sample and the other with a large community sample. The results provided support for both arguments. Both PWB and SWB are strongly related to one another and thus can form a general factor for global well-being covering shared ground captured by both constructs. However, controlling for the common factors, each construct has components which have their unique variance and relate differently to external variables. Researchers have used the terms 'subjective well-being', 'psychological well-being' or 'affective well-being' for an individual's judgment of their own quality of life.

Several studies have examined the effects of subjective well-being on an individual's life in terms of health, longevity, income, productivity and social relationships (Diener et al., 2018). Longitudinal studies assessing the influence of SWB on health found a positive relationship between SWB and longevity. Individuals who report higher subjective well-being tend to live longer, healthier lives (Diener et al., 2017). Individuals who experienced stress and adversity in their lives experienced more significant levels of cardiovascular disease and poor immunity (Bhattacharyya et al., 2008; Cohen et al., 2003). In contrast, individuals who reported high SWB also exhibited healthy behaviours such as exercising (Pettay, 2008), eating a healthy diet (Blanchflower et al., 2013) and not smoking (Strine et al., 2008) and drinking less alcohol (Diener et al., 2018). On the other hand, individuals low in SWB are more likely to be depressed, overweight with a tendency to eat fatty foods, and twice as likely to smoke and drink alcohol (Grant et al., 2009; Strine et al., 2008).

Individuals experiencing high SWB also report fulfilling and positive social relationships. Their friendships are enriching, and they are also liked by other people (Moore et al., 2018). They are less likely to get divorced (Luhmann et al., 2013). In the context of workplace behaviours, happy individuals were more satisfied with their jobs and showed greater performance (Lyubomirsky et al., 2005). They were also more likely to exhibit organisational citizenship behaviours, including helping others and doing more than required for their colleagues and the organisation (Borman et al., 2001). They showed greater resilience, self-control (Lerner et al., 2012), a focus on long-term goals (Ifcher & Zarghamee, 2016) and creativity on the job. They were reported to exhibit less turnover or absenteeism from the work (Fredrickson et al., 2003).

6.5 LMX and Subjective Wellbeing

Leaders play an essential role in employees' occupational health and well-being (Inceoglu et al., 2018). Their behaviour impacts employees' performance, well-being, and work behaviour (Avolio et al., 2009). Leaders are responsible for creating a supportive environment where employees can creatively perform their tasks and duties (Skakon et al., 2010). Leaders can act as a buffer or be the source of stress for employees within organisations (Bass & Bass, 2008; Schmidt et al., 2014). Positive behaviour from leaders can enhance employee health, motivate them to perform better and increase their satisfaction with the job predicting a lower turnover rate (Lok & Crawford, 2004). On the

other hand, ineffective leadership can be a stressor if they are non-supportive, have unrealistic demands and have an uncivil or abusive attitude towards employees (Schyns & Schilling, 2013).

The leader-member exchange theory is an effective framework for understanding leadership's influence on various employee perceptual and behavioural outcomes (Gregersen et al., 2016; Montano et al., 2017). Several studies have examined the association between leader-member exchange and the well-being (Harris & Kacmar, 2006; Rousseau et al., 2008; Singh & Srivastava, 2009; Son et al., 2014; Sparr & Sonnentag, 2008). A longitudinal study by (Sparr & Sonnentag, 2008) confirmed that employees with high-quality LMX reported significantly lower levels of depression on the job compared to employees who reported low-quality LMX with their leaders. Employees with a high-quality LMX relationship experience less emotional exhaustion and burnout (Skakon et al., 2010).

Traditionally, LMX has been treated as a stable phenomenon; however, many scholars contend it has a dynamic nature (Breevaart et al., 2012; Halbesleben & Wheeler, 2015). Employees enjoying good relationships with their supervisors are less likely to be influenced by any negative events in their daily routine as supervisor support provides them security, safety and stability at their job and resources important to continue their work without any hindrance (Koopmann et al., 2016; Kühnel et al., 2012).

Research shows that good relationships with leaders are related to increased job satisfaction and lower stress levels and emotional exhaustion among employees (Audenaert et al., 2017; Brouer & Harris, 2007; Epitropaki & Martin, 2005; Mardanov et al., 2008; McGee et al., 1987). In a longitudinal study, Gregersen et al. (2016) observed that job-related resources such as role clarity, meaningfulness and predictability by the leaders were related to high-quality LMX relationships and reduced levels of burnout or emotional exhaustion. On the other hand, low-quality relationships with supervisors and lack of social support result in emotional exhaustion (Halbesleben, 2006), psychological distress (Rousseau et al., 2008) and burnout (Bakker et al., 2005; Son et al., 2014; Thomas & Lankau, 2009) among employees. Thus, the following hypothesis is stated:

H5: High quality leader-member exchange is positively associated with subordinate subjective well-being.

7 Chapter Seven Mediation Hypotheses

7.1 Mediation Effect of Ingratiation and LMX

This study proposes an indirect sequential mediation effect of ingratiation and LMX on the relationship between the personality traits of Narcissism, Machiavellianism, Psychopathy, and Sadism and both objective and subjective outcomes. Specifically, it is proposed that individuals high in dark tetrad traits use ingratiation tactics towards their supervisor to establish high-quality relationships with them, which, in turn, helps them achieve their goals for career success and subjective well-being. From the study of existing literature in Chapter three, we have learnt that individuals high in dark tetrad personality traits are likely to use influence and manipulation to fulfil their agenda. They are often likely to use charm and impression management skills to gain others' trust and convince them of their goodwill (Ames, 2009). However, little is known about how individuals high in these dark traits succeed within organisations (Jonason et al., 2012).

To investigate how individuals high in dark traits pursue their goals for success at the workplace, Jonason et al. (2012) investigated whether employees use manipulation tactics to influence others' behaviours. Narcissism and Machiavellianism were the traits found to be commonly involved in the ingratiation and flattery of others at the workplace for their personal interests. These results were further replicated in another empirical study (i.e.,

Jensen et al., 2022) and all three traits of Narcissism, Machiavellianism and Psychopathy were found to be linked with the use of charm, ingratiation, and manipulation to get their way. Machiavellianism is the trait which has been commonly associated with the use of ingratiation tactics (e.g., Fehr et al., 2013; Pandey & Rastogi, 1979; Zin et al., 2011).

However, recent research suggests that individuals high in Narcissism and Psychopathy also use ingratiation when the situation demands influencing others for personal gains (e.g., Hart et al., 2022; Hart et al., 2019). Everyday sadism remains unexplored in this regard; therefore, how these individuals behave in the workplace and whether they use manipulation tactics to achieve their goals remain unknown. Existing research shows Everyday Sadism is strongly associated with other dark traits of Machiavellianism and Psychopathy and correlates with many organisational work outcomes in a similar manner (Bonfá-Araujo et al., 2022), making it an important part of dark tetrad. Based on existing research, this study proposes a positive relationship between employee dark traits and the use of ingratiation tactics.

Literature suggests that the use of ingratiation tactics positively influences the quality of the leader-member exchange relationship (Deluga & Perry, 1994; Dulebohn et al., 2012) between employee and supervisor. We know from the literature that individuals high in dark traits use influence tactics towards others to achieve personal goals; however, whether these tactics positively influence their relationship with their supervisor remains unknown. Most of the research on LMX focuses on employees' positive personality traits. Existing literature shows that employee positive personality traits of agreeableness, extraversion and conscientiousness are linked with high-quality LMX relationships (Bernerth et al., 2007a; Nahrgang et al., 2009; Schyns, 2015b; Sears & Hackett, 2011). Employees who are emotionally stable, less neurotic and experience fewer negative emotions at work also build stable, high-quality relations with their supervisors (Bernerth et al., 2007a).

Little is known about how LMX is influenced by employees with dark personality characteristics (Schyns, 2015b). Schyns (2015b) argued that employees high in narcissism are less likely to develop good relations with the leader as they do not consider anybody else to be superior to them. However, narcissists are adept at self-enhancement (Carpenter, 2012; Grijalva & Zhang, 2016) and are likely to use this to appear more likeable to their supervisors (Den Hartog & Belschak, 2020). Narcissists are skilled at manipulating others

for personal gain (Liao, Van der Heijden, et al., 2019) and are more likely to use ingratiation tactics towards powerful others to gain cooperation and reward by association. The majority of the research studies on narcissism in the organisational context have focused on leader narcissism and its consequences for employees and the organisation (e.g., (Bell, 2017; Huang et al., 2016; Liao et al., 2019; Lyons et al., 2019). One study has found that narcissistic leaders are likely to form high-quality relationships with employees who use impression management tactics like self-promotion towards them (Den Hartog & Belschak, 2020) as they are likely to be attracted towards someone who behaves like them. However, the relationship between narcissistic employees and their leaders remains uninvestigated (Schyns et al., 2019).

It has been established that individuals high in Machiavellianism are skilled at impression management and effectively use ingratiation tactics to control others (Pandey & Rastogi, 1979). Individuals high in Machiavellianism will likely use ingratiation tactics to influence their relationship with their supervisor as they hold the key to vital resources needed for career advancement (Schyns, 2015a). However, whether Machs direct their ingratiation attempts towards enhancing the quality of their relationship with their supervisor as a means of achieving their ends remains unexplored (Schyns, 2015a).

Like Machiavellians, Psychopaths are also skilled at interpersonal manipulation (Hare, 2003) and frequently use their charm and eloquent verbiage to get their way within the workplace (Babiak & Hare, 2006; Boddy, 2006). They are likely to use a variety of self-presentation tactics, including ingratiation, to portray a positive and desirable image of themselves (Hart et al., 2022). However, Psychopaths' erratic behaviour, lack of empathy for others and lack of guilt or remorse over their hurtful actions likely makes it difficult to establish and maintain long-term relationships. Existing research is limited in understanding Psychopaths' relationships with their associates and superiors at the workplace. The present study attempts to fill this gap by investigating Psychopaths' effective use of ingratiation tactics in helping such individuals build quality relationships with supervisors in the workplace (Schyns et al., 2019; Schyns, 2015b).

Research on everyday sadism in the workplace is limited to only a handful of studies in this domain (Min et al., 2019; Thibault, 2016). Individuals high in everyday sadism, like the other three dark triad traits, follow a fast life strategy where they focus on the immediate gratification of their needs and resource gains and show a greater willingness to exploit

others for their personal gains (Min et al., 2019). Research on everyday sadism has focused on its association with negative outcomes in terms of mistreatment of coworkers, workplace incivility, unprovoked aggression, bullying and antisocial behaviour (Buckels et al., 2019; Min et al., 2019; Reidy et al., 2011). However, research is limited in understanding and exploring the interpersonal relationships of such individuals and whether they are strategic, like other dark traits, in establishing those relationships. Their strong need for dominance and control and lack of empathy for others makes them an interesting choice for the present study investigation.

7.2 Mediating effect on Career Success

Despite the positive association of dark traits with counterproductive work behaviours (Cohen, 2018; O' Boyle et al., 2012), only a handful of studies have provided empirical evidence for the relationship between dark traits and career advancement (Cohen & Özsoy, 2021). For example, in their empirical study, (Spurk et al., 2016) found that traits of Narcissism and Machiavellianism were positively related to both objective and subjective career success, while Psychopathy was negatively associated with both measures of success. (Cohen & Özsoy, 2021) found no significant relationship between dark traits and perceived career success. (Eisenbarth et al., 2018) found psychopathy dimensions of self-centred impulsivity and fearlessness to be positively related to satisfaction with career and material success, while (Paleczek et al., 2018) only found a positive relationship between narcissism and career success measures of salary and leadership position, with negative relation for psychopathy and no significant association for Machiavellianism. Thus, much ambiguity remains concerning the relationship between dark personality traits and career success (Cohen & Özsoy, 2021).

How individuals high in dark traits achieve their goals for career success can be explained by their motivation to manipulate and exploit others for selfish gains (Jones & Paulhus, 2017). Individuals high in Narcissism have a strong need for admiration and like to be associated with people who can fulfil their desire for admiration and power attainment. Machiavellians lack trust in others and believe in manipulating them for personal agendas (Sheldon & Elliot, 1999). Psychopaths use charm and lie to gain trust and convince others of their honesty and authenticity (Babiak et al., 2010). A recent theoretical study by Tariq et al. (2021) proposed exploring the role of influence tactics in dark individuals' ability to

build strong social networks at the workplace and use those networks to advance their career goals. Using this rationale, it is proposed that employees high in dark traits are likely to use ingratiation tactics to build a high-quality relationship with their supervisor, which will likely help them achieve their career success goals. As conservation of resources theory (Hobfoll, 1989) suggests that individuals strive to maintain, protect, and build their resources in order to cope with stressful situations, adapt to change, and achieve success. They are motivated to acquire and conserve resources, including personal and social resources. Using ingratiation tactics can be viewed as a way to conserve personal resources by building social capital and gaining access to resources that help them achieve their goals (Azeem et al., 2021).

H₆ – Subjective Career Success

(a) Narcissism, (b) Machiavellianism, (c) Psychopathy and (d) Everyday Sadism have an indirect effect on subjective career success through ingratiation and LMX.

H₇ – Objective Career Success

(a) Narcissism, (b) Machiavellianism, (c) Psychopathy and (d) Everyday Sadism have an indirect effect on promotions through ingratiation and LMX.

(e) Narcissism, (f) Machiavellianism, (g) Psychopathy and (h) Everyday Sadism have an indirect effect on salary increase through ingratiation and LMX.

7.3 Mediating effect on Subjective Wellbeing

Much research on dark personality traits explores their adverse consequences (Aghababaei et al., 2022; Harris, Kacmar, et al., 2007; Tokarev et al., 2017). Very few studies have considered whether dark personality traits confer any advantages to the individuals themselves. While narcissism has been demonstrated to enhance subjective well-being (Aghababaei & Blachnio, 2015; Egan et al., 2014; Limone et al., 2020; Papageorgiou et al., 2019). Research on the association between Machiavellianism and well-being shows mixed results. Sabouri et al. (2016) found a positive association between Machiavellianism and mental toughness, which is positively linked to psychological well-being (Stamp et al., 2015); however, most studies have identified negative associations between Machiavellianism and psychological well-being (e.g., (Aghababaei & Blachnio, 2015; Bartels & Pizarro, 2011; Joshanloo, 2021; Wang et al., 2019), while some others have shown no significant association between Machiavellianism and well-being (Aminuddin, 2020; Limone et al., 2020; Papageorgiou et al., 2019).

Similarly, the Psychopathy trait has been linked to negative subjective well-being (Aghababaei & Blachnio, 2015; Bartels & Pizarro, 2011; Durand, 2018; Egan et al., 2014; Joshanloo, 2021; Liu et al., 2021; Love & Holder, 2014). However, some research suggests Psychopaths experience high subjective well-being as they primarily focus on fulfilling their own needs and pay little heed to how their actions might affect others (Foulkes et al., 2014). Indeed, research on male prisoners suggested that Psychopathy is linked to lower levels of depression (Willemsen et al., 2011). However, psychopaths' impulsive and antisocial behaviour makes it difficult for them to experience positive emotions, find purpose and meaning in life and hopes for personal growth (Durand, 2018).

Research on the link between Everyday Sadism and subjective well-being is almost nonexistent. Individuals high in this trait are involved in unprovoked aggression, bullying and deviant behaviours at the workplace. They derive pleasure from the suffering and humiliation of others and have a strong need for domination and control. Research by (Fernández-del-río et al., 2020b) shows that individuals high in everyday sadism trait are low on traits of honesty-humility and agreeableness, showing that they are more selfish, hostile and less concerned with the feelings and well-being of others. They exhibit counterproductive work behaviours, mistreat coworkers (Min et al., 2019) and perform poorly at work (Fernández-del-río et al., 2020b). Research by Barry (2020) indicates that everyday sadists are generally dissatisfied with their jobs and score low on job satisfaction. However, another recent study (Womick et al., 2019a) examining the association between dark tetrad and well-being found no relationship between everyday sadism and well-being in terms of life satisfaction and meaning in life. More research is required to understand everyday sadism and its association with work and behavioural outcomes (Thibault & Kelloway, 2020a).

This study proposes an indirect relationship between personality traits of Narcissism, Machiavellianism, Psychopathy and Sadism, and Subjective Well-being through serial mediating variables of ingratiation and LMX. The study contends that these individuals are likely to use ingratiation tactics towards their supervisors to enhance their relationship and yield subjective and objective gains. It is also proposed that the use of ingratiation tactics towards supervisors will enhance the subjective well-being of employees with dark traits. conservation of resources theory (Hobfoll, 1989) suggests that individuals are motivated to

preserve the resources required to perform life activities and can get stressed if those resources are depleted or threatened (Hobfoll, 2011). Ingratiation can drain individuals' self-control resources (Vohs & Baumeister, 2004) as appearing sincere and lying and deceiving may deplete their psychological and physical resources resulting in emotional exhaustion, fatigue and stress (Yan et al., 2020). However, individuals high in dark traits thrive on the exploitation and manipulation of others. How the use of ingratiation tactics affects the subjective well-being of such individuals is an interesting dynamic to be investigated in this study.

H₈

- (a) Narcissism has an indirect effect on psychological well-being through ingratiation and LMX.
- (b) Machiavellianism has an indirect effect on psychological well-being through ingratiation and LMX.
- (c) Psychopathy has an indirect effect on psychological well-being through ingratiation and LMX.
- (d) Sadism has an indirect effect on psychological well-being through ingratiation and LMX.

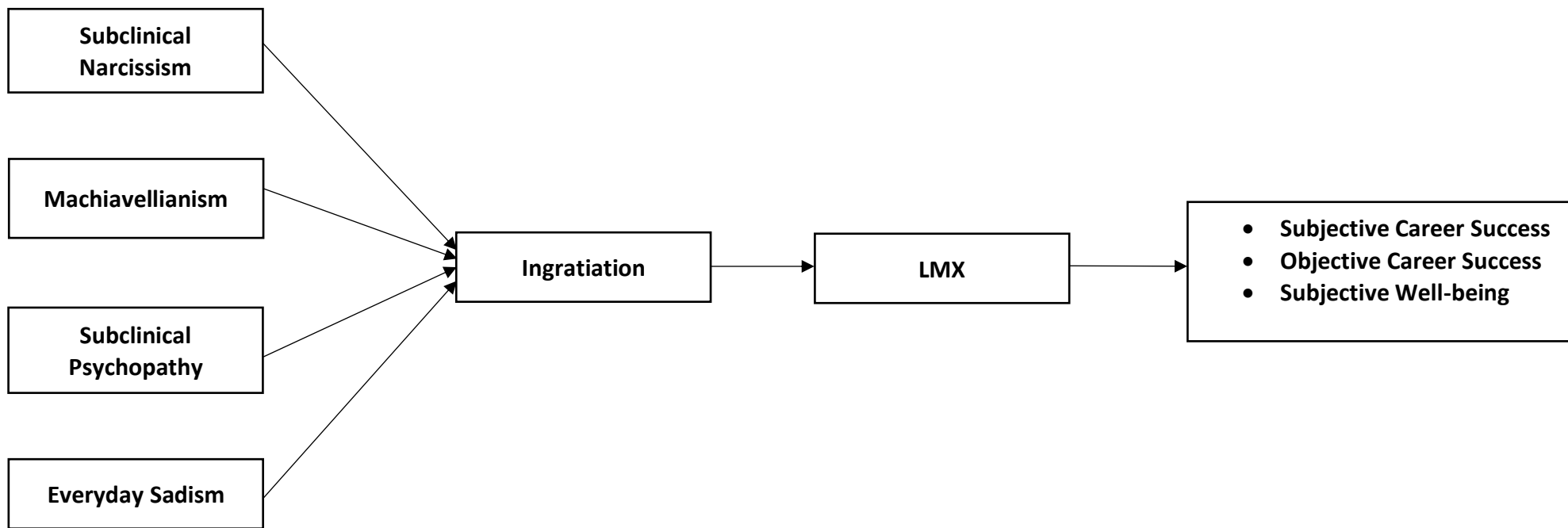


Figure 7-1 Theoretical Model of the Present Study

8 Chapter 8 Methodology

8.1 Introduction

This chapter provides information on the research methodology for this project. The philosophical underpinnings concerning research design, data collection procedure, sample size calculations and response to missing data are explained. This chapter also covers a description of the pilot study, survey design, approach to dealing with common method variance, the psychometric properties of the scales used to measure the study's constructs, sample characteristics and control variables used in the data.

8.2 Philosophical Underpinnings of Social Research

Humans attempt to make sense of things happening in their daily life using observations and reasoning based on their individual frames of reference or paradigms. Paradigms play an essential role in science as well. These paradigms are shared viewpoints that the scientific community holds based on their shared knowledge, similar educational backgrounds, and judgments on professional matters (Kuhn, 2021). While in natural sciences, paradigms can shift based on new information and facts; no paradigms are discarded altogether in social sciences. Paradigms in social sciences provide a variety of views with different insights into various complicated aspects of social life (Babbie, 2020).

Auguste Comte, a French Philosopher, challenged the idea of understanding society through the prism of religion instead of using scientific objectivity and reasoning to understand society (Babbie, 2020). Before his work, societal affairs were considered the will of God and dialogue on differences in society was dominated by religious paradigms. Comte argued that society and its intricate matters should be understood using knowledge based on inquiry and observations. He coined the term Positivism to capture his approach to understanding society through the lens of science, which later became the foundation for developments in social sciences (Babbie, 2020).

Four other philosophies, excluding Positivism, are also used in social research as foundations for scientific knowledge and discovery. These are Interpretivism, Critical realism, Postmodernism and Pragmatism. Critical realism argues that reality is external and independent, but it is complex and layered (Fleetwood, 2005) and cannot be explained based on empirical knowledge and facts but rather through our own experiences (Bhaskar & Hartwig, 2010). Interpretivism argues that social research should not be conducted along the lines of natural sciences observing a physical phenomenon. Humans are complex creatures which provide different meanings to their observed world based on their cultural backgrounds and experiences. Rich insights into humanity can be lost if we try to generalise social phenomena based on quantified objectivity. Postmodernism further criticises positivism by rejecting objective reality as something limited by the power relations (Foucault, 1991) and our categorisations and classifications based on the language (Chia, 2003), which is also inadequate to be considered a universal truth. Pragmatism contends that research theories, concepts and ideas should not provide abstract findings but practical solutions to the problem (Kelemen & Rumens, 2008). Research is conducted to identify a problem and provide functional outcomes and solutions to that problem. If there is no obvious method to solve a problem, this means there is no single definite method to deduce the outcome, and different ways can be adopted to reach a solution (Saunders et al., 2019).

Positivism, like other research philosophies, is based on three assumptions: Ontology, Epistemology and Axiology (Saunders et al., 2019). Ontology refers to the assumptions about how one sees the world and its reality. Epistemology refers to beliefs about acceptable ways of gaining knowledge, and Axiology refers to assumptions regarding values and ethics one holds and how much they influence the research conducted (Saunders et al., 2019). Positivism views social entities as real and external, which can be observed using scientific knowledge, observations, and facts, providing meaningful and generalisable information about causal explanations of different social phenomena (Crotty, 1998). Positivism takes a deductive approach toward theory where hypotheses are developed to test the existing theory, and results provided by data help further the theory's development. Positivism takes a neutral approach where the researcher has to keep his values and ethics from influencing the research outcome and produce data-driven, unbiased results (Saunders et al., 2019).

This research takes a positivist approach towards examining the influence of individual personality on their behavioural and work outcomes. Hypotheses are developed based on existing theories, and data is collected using a quantitative design (Rahi, 2017). Traditionally, personality and behavioural research have taken a positivist approach to research and theory development (Miller, 1999; Pachauri, 2001). In alignment with the mainstream approach, this study aims to contribute to existing knowledge using the foundations of positivism philosophy.

8.3 Pilot Study

A pilot study is an integral part of the research process. It is designed to help researchers validate the research instruments used, identify potential problems or inadequacies in the protocols applied and rectify them (Hassan et al., 2006). A pilot study is conducted at a smaller scale utilising a small group of participants to assess and improve the accuracy and effectiveness of methods employed before conducting the large-scale study (LaGasse, 2013; Leon et al., 2011).

For the current study, a questionnaire was distributed among a group of Masters in Business Studies students at Dublin City University Business School. Qualtrics was used to create and distribute the survey. Sixty-three students participated in the study and completed the survey. They were asked to provide feedback on the time it took to complete the survey and if they had difficulty understanding any questions or any issues with formatting. Based on their responses, a few minor changes were made to the survey, including shortening the introductory part and reducing the number of questions per page. The average response time was 15 minutes, which is appropriate for high response and completion rates (Saleh & Bista, 2017).

8.4 Sample Size

Sample size determination is important in quantitative analyses for the statistical significance testing (Little, 2013), which measures the probability of assuming the null hypothesis to be true (Shaver, 1993; Tenny & Abdelgawad, 2017). Statistical significance depends on sample size, effect size and statistical power (Wolf et al., 2013). Statistical

power measures the likelihood of significant effect size in an observed sample when one actually exists (Cohen, 1992). To achieve high statistical power and detect the smallest effect size, sample size plays a significant role (Hayat, 2010).

Calculating adequate sample size for structural equation modelling (SEM) is complex given the number of parameters estimated, potential relationship combinations among different latent variables, the number of observed factors measuring each latent variable multiplied by the number of observations in data, whether data is normally distributed and variance in estimation methodologies (Westland, 2010). Earlier researchers have used an ad hoc rule of thumb to choose ten observations for each indicator to select an adequate sample for SEM (Westland, 2015).

However, recent research has devised new techniques to calculate sample size given the inadequacy of the “rule of 10” to detect minor effects in a small sample (e.g., (Roy et al., 2018). One among them is the Daniel Soper Test (Soper, 2020), which calculates the a-priori sample size based on the algorithm provided by (Westland, 2010; Westland, 2012). This test uses information on the number of observed and latent variables, anticipated effect size and desired statistical power and calculates the required minimum sample size for the study (Westland, 2015). The researcher applied this formula to calculate the sample size in the current study. A sample size of $N=271$ was required to detect an anticipated effect size of 0.25 at the statistical power level of 0.80, with eight latent variables and 63 observed variables present in the current study (Levant et al., 2016; Roy et al., 2017). The current study had a sample size of $N=379$, which was above the minimum required sample size calculated by this formula. Given the average response rate of 52.7% in organisational research studies using a quantitative survey design (Baruch & Holtom, 2008), an initial sample of $N=550$ was reasoned to be appropriate for the current study. This decision was made to keep a margin for incomplete responses and achieve robust statistical power. Five hundred and six respondents engaged with the survey at least once by clicking on the link provided. Four hundred thirty-three responses were received in total, out of which 54 were discarded because respondents failed to engage with the survey entirely (80-100% data missing). Though listwise deletion can influence statistical power because of the non-inclusion of partial responses in the analysis, it was appropriate for the current study data sample given the large amounts of missing data in these cases (Graham, 2009).

8.5 Missing Data

The problem of missing data is common in quantitative survey designs (Rubin, 1976), with a 15-20% rate of missing data common in psychology studies (Enders, 2003). Data is said to be missing when respondents do not provide complete responses and may miss one or more items in the survey (Newman et al., 2009). Data can be missing at three levels: 1) Item level, 2) Scale level 3) Person level. At the item level, the respondent fails to respond to one or a few items in the survey. At the construct level, the respondent skips responding to a whole scale, whereas, at the person level, an individual may fail to complete and return the entire survey (Newman, 2014). Missing data could be random or systematic (Newman, 2014). According to (Rubin, 1976) typology, data can be 1) missing completely at random (MCAR), 2) missing at random (MAR), and 3) missing not at random (MNAR) (Newman, 2014; Schafer & Graham, 2002).

Data is MCAR when missing values are independent of any observed or unobserved values in the data. MAR is when data missing is dependent on observed rather than unobserved data. MNAR is when missing data is dependent on unobserved values in the data (Graham, 2009; Little & Rubin, 2019; Mack et al., 2018; Schafer & Graham, 2002). MCAR data missingness is random, while MAR and MNAR are systematic (Newman, 2014). While MCAR and MAR yield unbiased parameter estimates and are thus less problematic, MNAR produces biased parameter estimates, distorting relationship estimates among variables of interest (Graham, 2009).

To check for missing values in the data, Missing Values Analysis (MVA) was conducted in SPSS. Analysis revealed a non-significant result (Chi-square = 2304.979, $df = 2385$, $p = 0.877$), indicating data was Missing Completely at Random (MCAR). The percentage of data missing for items in the current study was less than 10% (ranging between 0.5-8.1%) (Appendix A). Statistical analysis can be biased for studies with a missingness value exceeding the 10% threshold (Bennett, 2001; Newman, 2014).

Different methods are used to deal with missing data, including listwise deletion, pairwise deletion, mean substitution, multiple imputations, and maximum likelihood (Graham, 2009). Listwise deletion reduces the sample size by removing all responses with one or

more missing data values and keeping only completed responses in the data (Newman, 2014). Pairwise deletion analyses the relationship between two variables in the data based on the presence of data value in both variables. Though this method helps maintain the statistical power of the sample, it uses different sample sizes for measuring relationships among the number of variables present in the study based on available matching data cases for each variable. This results in biased correlation and variance estimates, while standard errors are measured using an average sample size which can prove problematic in the multivariate analysis (Graham, 2009; Newman, 2014). Mean substitution replaces each missing data value with the mean of the variable, which results in the variable mean remaining the same resulting in overestimation. This results in different correlations of correlations and underestimation of variances in the data (Newman et al., 2009).

Multiple Imputation and Maximum Likelihood are modern missing data analysis techniques which help maintain sample size without deleting any cases, producing unbiased estimates, increasing statistical power, and avoiding any dangers of under/overestimation of correlation and variation estimates (Graham, 2009; Newman, 2014). The multiple Imputations method is mainly used when data is Missing at Random (MAR). In the current case, data was MCAR, so the Expectation-Maximization (EM) method based on maximum likelihood was chosen to deal with missing values that provide the best parameter estimates (Graham, 2009; Newman, 2014). This method fills the missing values based on maximum likelihood estimation using a regression-based imputation (Dong & Peng, 2013; Graham, 2009). New values are being updated for missing data based on a new regression equation created and keep repeating until the model has converged and changes in missing data from one iteration to the next are no longer significant (Graham, 2009). Results from the EM algorithm revealed no significant differences between means and standard deviations of items after dealing with missing values in the data (Appendix B).

8.6 Data Collection Procedure

This study took a quantitative approach to data collection and analysis. The survey was designed using the online data collection software Qualtrics (Carnaby & Harenberg, 2013). Before distributing the survey, ethical approval was obtained from Dublin City University Research Ethics Committee (see Appendix C). The data collection period coincided with the Covid-19 pandemic.

As this study was conducted at the individual level of analysis, team level or organisation level factors were not of interest to this study. Therefore, getting data from individuals working in various organisations, sectors, and locations was desirable. Collecting data from individuals working across different industries and locations produces a heterogenous pool that increases data variance (Yu, 2016) and promotes the generalizability of study findings (Behrend et al., 2011; Darrow & Behrend, 2017). This study controlled national culture as research indicates its influence on the use of ingratiation tactics (Erdogan & Liden, 2006).

Participants were primarily recruited from multinational organisations within the IT sector in Ireland. The survey was posted on professional and social media platforms, LinkedIn and Twitter which are becoming increasingly popular tools to attract prospective professionals to participate in empirical studies (Dusek et al., 2015; McCormick et al., 2017; Stokes et al., 2019). Professionals with a minimum of one year of experience were invited to participate in the study. An informed consent form was attached with the survey explaining the nature and purpose of the study, data confidentiality commitment and seeking voluntary participation in the survey (see Appendix D).

Independent sample t-test was conducted to see if there is any variance in data collected from different sources. Results showed there was no significance difference in variance for both groups. Group 1 (N = 270) represents data from organisations while Group 2 (N = 109) represents data collected from professional and social media.

Table 8.1 Independent Sample T-Test

Independent Sample T-Test					
Variable	F value	t	df1	df2	p-value
Narcissism	.153	1.206	1	377	.696
Machiavellianism	1.294	-0.034	1	377	.256
Psychopathy	1.841	-1.947	1	377	.176
Sadism	2.394	0.488	1	377	.123
Ingratiation	0.021	1.319	1	377	.885
LMX	1.916	1.097	1	377	.167
Subjective Career Success	3.573	3.381	1	377	.059

Psychological Wellbeing	3.159	1.799	1	377	.076
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Table 8.2 Mean and Standard Deviation for both groups

	Mean		Standard Deviation	
	Group 1	Group 2	Group 1	Group 2
Narcissism	29.18	28.39	5.782	5.678
Machiavellianism	23.57	23.60	5.903	5.363
Psychopathy	19.34	20.40	4.977	4.304
Sadism	19.60	19.20	7.552	5.908
Ingratiation	33.00	31.57	9.430	9.795
LMX	25.19	24.49	5.419	6.176
Subjective Career Success	23.28	21.75	4.189	3.389
Psychological Wellbeing	32.67	31.62	5.516	4.075

There were two phases of data collection with a three months' time lag between the two phases. This time lag is appropriate to detect changes in employee ingratiation behaviour (Bolino et al., 2014) and relationship quality between manager and employee (Bauer et al., 2006). In Phase one (T1), survey participants were requested to provide their email addresses if they wished to participate in the study's second phase. A total of 379 respondents participated in phase one; 348 provided their email addresses indicating their willingness to participate in phase 2 of data collection. I sent out the second survey to the 348 respondents. Of these, 229 completed surveys were returned for phase two, 217 of which were usable. This exceeds the minimum requirement for the anticipated effect size of 0.25 at a probability level of 0.05, with four latent variables and 31 observed factors (Soper, 2020).

A post-hoc analysis was also performed using G-Power (Faul et al., 2007) to determine the statistical power of the sample size achieved in the second phase (N=217). Analysis was performed at different effect sizes (small $\eta^2 = 0.02$, medium $\eta^2 = 0.15$ and large $\eta^2 = 0.35$) based on (J. Cohen, 1992) guidelines, with 8 main predictors and 12 predictors in total including four control variables at probability value of 95% ($\alpha=0.05$). Analysis showed that the sample (N=217) displayed significant statistical power to detect effect sizes of 0.15 and 0.35. The sample size in the second phase could not detect a small effect size of 0.02

because of the low power of 0.25. This makes sense as power is always lower for minimum effect sizes (Murphy & Myors, 1999).

Table 8.3 Post hoc Power Analysis

Post hoc power analysis – given α, sample size, and effect size				
F tests for Linear Multiple Regression: Fixed model, R2 increase Analysis				
Input		Effect		
		Small	Medium	Large
	Alpha (α)	0.05	0.05	0.05
	Effect Size f^2	0.02	0.15	0.35
	Sample Size	217	217	217
	Number of tested predictors	8	8	8
	Total number of predictors (Inc. control variables)	12	12	12
Result				
	Power (1- β)	0.25	0.99	0.99
	Critical F	1.984	1.984	1.984
	Noncentrality parameter λ	4.34	32.55	75.95

8.7 Sample Characteristics

Of the 379 respondents at T1, the majority (n = 237, 62.5%) had average experience between one year and fifteen years, were in a managerial position (n = 196, 51.7%), and were working with their respective organisation for an average of one to ten years (n = 253, 66.75%), their tenure with the current supervisor was between 0-5 years (n = 324, 85%), were working for an organisation with workforce above 1000 employees (n = 186, 49.1%) and were males (n = 239, 63.1%). At T2, 217 respondents completed the survey, of which the majority (n = 157, 72.5%) had average experience between one year and fifteen years and were in a managerial position (n = 116, 53.5%),

Table 8.4 Sample Characteristics

Gender	Number of Participants	
	Time 1	Time 2
Male	239	142
Female	132	71
Other	0	0
Prefer not to say	8	4
Experience	Number of Participants	

	Time 1	Time 2
Less than 1 year	27	11
1 – 5 years	89	74
6-10 years	80	50
11-15 years	68	33
16-20 years	39	17
21-25 years	33	14
26-30 years	24	11
31 and above	19	7

Role	Number of Participants	
Managerial	196	116
Non-managerial	183	101

Tenure with the current Organisation	Number of Participants
Less than 1 year	58
1 – 5 years	177
6-10 years	76
11-15 years	37
16-20 years	6
20 and above	25

Tenure with the current Supervisor	Number of Participants
Less than 1 year	111
1 – 5 years	213
6-10 years	37
11-15 years	6
16-20 years	5
20 and above	7

Organisation Size	Number of Participants
1-10 employees	25
11-50 employees	51
51-200 employees	47
201-500 employees	29
501-1000 employees	41
1001 and more employees	186

Industry	Number of Participants
IT	228
Telecom	25
Banking	21
Education	19

Health	14
Government	19
Insurance	17
Transport	9
Manufacturing	13
Other	14

8.8 Control variables

A central pursuit of organisational and psychological research is to identify and explain relationships between two or more hypothesized variables while simultaneously controlling the effect of extraneous or non-focal factors that may inflate the actual effect between two variables under observation (Bernierth & Aguinis, 2016). Controlling for these non-focal factors removes the additional variance associated with them, which, if uncontrolled, can distort the relationship between predictor and criterion variables (Carlson & Wu, 2012; Spector & Brannick, 2011). The present study controlled for variables including employee gender, tenure with the organisation, tenure with the supervisor, and national culture.

Gender was controlled because of documented relationship found between gender roles and sex differences in dark personality traits (Jonason and Davis, 2018). Tenure with organisation and supervisor, organisation size and experience have been controlled for in studies focused on ingratiation and leader-member exchange (Aryee et al., 1996; Deluga & Perry, 1994; Erdogan et al., 2006; Harvey et al., 2007; Liu et al., 2014; Sherony & Green, 2002; Treadway et al., 2007) as these factors may influence the magnitude of the relationship between focal variables. National culture was also controlled for its potential influence on ingratiation tactics (Erdogan & Liden, 2006).

8.9 Common Method Bias

Common method bias in research studies can influence the validity and reliability of the items or questions used to measure unobserved latent variables (Podsakoff et al., 2012). It can also affect the covariation among different latent constructs by inflating or deflating their relationship estimates (Baumgartner & Steenkamp, 2001; Podsakoff et al., 2003). Method bias is likely to occur when responding to a wide range of questions that demands high cognitive effort and does not align with the motivations or mental ability of the respondent (Krosnick, 1999). This may result in respondents being unwilling to put effort into understanding the question and providing accurate responses based on an evaluation

of all possible alternatives. Respondents are most likely to satisfice when they don't understand the question, lack experience or knowledge about the area, and are provided complex, abstract, ambiguous, or double-barreled questions to respond to (Mackenzie & Podsakoff, 2012).

Bias in measurement methods can also occur because the same source provides answers for predictor and outcome variables. Respondents likely provide consistent answers to similar questions to present themselves in a socially desirable position (Podsakoff et al., 2003). For the current study, an ex-ante approach was taken at the survey design stage to reduce common method bias. Items measuring different constructs were intermixed and positioned randomly within the questionnaire (Murray et al., 2005). Different scale anchors were used to measuring various constructs employed in the study (Podsakoff et al., 2003). The anonymity of the survey and data confidentiality conditions may have also helped reduce the social desirability of responses (van Witteloostuijn et al., 2020). The pilot study helped to improve survey content quality by using unambiguous and comprehensive language (Doty & Glick, 1998; Mackenzie et al., 2011). As the data was collected at two points, it also helped with validating responses and reducing the common method variance (Lindell & Whitney, 2001). Harman single-factor test was applied at the analysis stage as an ex-post approach to test and control for the common method variance (van Witteloostuijn et al., 2020).

8.10 Measures

Dark Tetrad – Short Dark Triad (SD3) scale developed by (Jones & Paulhus, 2014) was used to measure Narcissism, Machiavellianism and Psychopathy. This is a brief measure of dark traits which allows measuring all three traits simultaneously. Using multidimensional scales for each trait was not ideal given the limits regarding length of questionnaire and time required to complete those questions (Jones & Paulhus, 2014). Consisting of nine items each, the scale includes questions like “*People see me as a natural leader*” and “*I like to show off now and then*” to measure Narcissism. Sample items for Machiavellianism are, “*Flattery is a good way to get people on your side*” and “*I like to use clever manipulation to get my way*”. Psychopathy items included, “*People often say I am out of control*” and “*I like breaking the rules*”. Researchers have used this scale widely

to measure dark triad personality traits (e.g., (Buckels et al., 2014; Egan et al., 2015; Kajonius et al., 2015).

Everyday Sadism was measured using the Short Sadistic Impulse Scale (SSIS) developed by (O'Meara et al., 2011) The scale is composed of 10 items, including "*I have hurt people because I could*" and "*I have humiliated others to keep them in line*". The scale has been widely accepted and used in dark personality research (e.g., Buckels et al., 2014; March et al., 2017). Responses were recorded on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 = strongly disagree to 5 = strongly agree. Reliability values for these dark traits are Narcissism ($\alpha = 0.797$), Machiavellianism ($\alpha = 0.741$), Psychopathy ($\alpha = 0.702$) and Everyday Sadism ($\alpha = 0.834$). These dark tetrad scales have been used in multiple studies (e.g., (March et al., 2017; Meere & Egan, 2017; Smoker & March, 2017).

Ingratiation – Employee Ingratiation was measured using 11 item scale developed by (Kipnis et al., 1980). Sample items include, "*I made him or her or them feel important*" and "*I pretended I was letting him or her or them decide to do what I wanted*". Responses to these items were measured using a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 = Never used this tactic to 5 = Always used this tactic. Scale reliability for the current study is $\alpha = 0.899$, which is consistent with the existing literature (Erdogan & Liden, 2006; Herrmann & Werbel, 2007).

Leader-Member Exchange (LMX) – Leader-member exchange was measured using 7 item scale developed by (Graen & Uhl-bien, 1995) to assess employee relations with their supervisor. Sample items include, "*What are the chances that your immediate supervisor/manager would use their power to help you solve problems in your work?*" and "*How would you characterise your working relationship with your immediate supervisor/manager?*". Responses to the first item were measured using a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 = None to 5 = Very high, and for the second sample item using 5 - point Likert scale with values ranging from 1 = Extremely Ineffective to 5 = Extremely Effective. This scale is widely used to measure LMX (Bernerth et al., 2007a). Scale reliability for the current study is $\alpha = 0.878$, which is consistent with previous studies (Furnes et al., 2015; Volmer et al., 2011).

Career Success – Subjective career success was measured using five items scale developed by (Greenhaus et al., 1990). Items were measured on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 = strongly disagree to 5 = strongly agree. Sample items include, “*I am satisfied with the success I have achieved in my career*” and “*I am satisfied with the overall progress I have made towards meeting my promotion goals*”. Reliability for this scale is $\alpha = 0.871$, which is consistent with existing research (e.g., Seibert et al., 1999). Objective career success was measured using self-report measures of Promotion and Salary. Employees were asked to report the number of promotions they have received in their overall career on a scale of 0 to 5 or more, and the percentage increase in annual salary in the past three years (Abele & Spurk, 2009; Judge & Bretz, 1994; Seibert et al., 1999; Spurk et al., 2016; Volmer & Spurk, 2011).

Psychological Wellbeing – Wellbeing was measured using eight items Flourishing scale developed by (Diener et al., 2010). This scale assesses overall individual well-being in terms of satisfaction with life, rewarding social relationships, self-respect, optimism, engaging in others’ well-being (Diener et al., 2010). Sample items include, “*I lead a purposeful and meaningful life*” and “*My social relationships are supportive and rewarding*”. Respondents provided their scores on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 = Strongly Disagree to 5 = Strongly Agree. Cronbach alpha for this scale in the current study is $\alpha = 0.874$, which is consistent with existing studies (e.g., Bakker & Sanz-vergel, 2013; Demerouti et al., 2015).

9 Chapter 9 Analysis & Results

This chapter provides a detailed overview of the quantitative data analysis and findings. The chapter provides an understanding of the statistical tools and techniques employed to conduct the analysis. It begins with conducting reliability and validity tests for data using Cronbach's alpha and confirmatory factor analysis for phase one data. Descriptive statistics, correlation analysis and sequential mediation analysis follow further. Structural equation modelling is used to conduct confirmatory factor analysis and sequential mediation analysis. For phase two data, reliability and validity tests are run, followed by mediation analysis. Classical panel design is used to measure the effect of predictor variables (personality traits) on the mediator (ingratiation, LMX) and outcome variables (career success, psychological well-being. Data for predictor variables collected in the first phase was analysed against mediator and outcome data collected in phase two. Results for sequential mediation analysis for both phase one and phase two are presented.

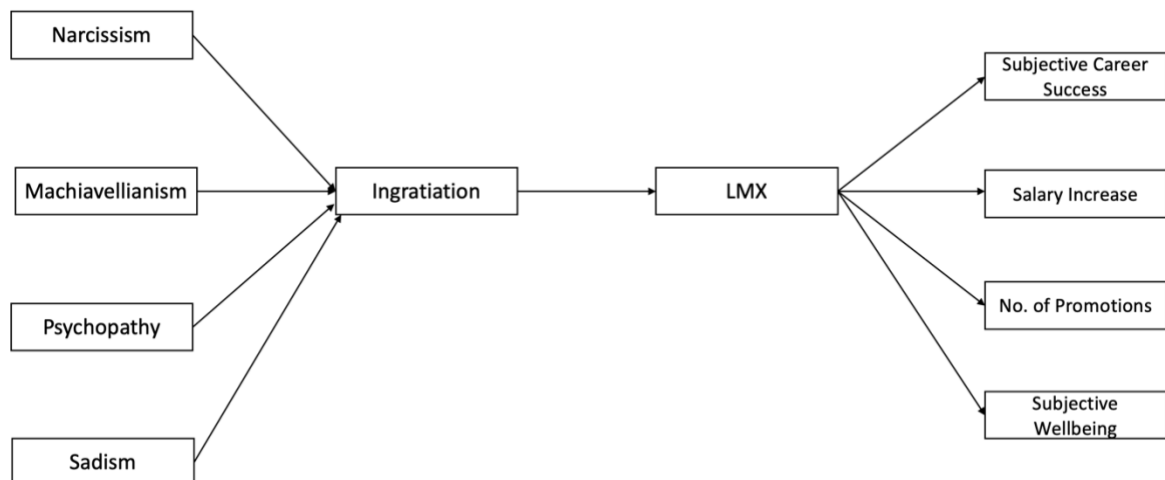


Figure 9-1 Research Model (Author 2023)

9.1 Reliability

Quantitative data collection is prone to measurement errors (Litwin & Fink, 1995). These errors could be random or systematic (Dunn, 1992). Random errors are unpredictable and

unavoidable variations in data that occur because of differences in sampling techniques and factors beyond the researcher’s control (Litwin & Fink, 1995). A systematic error occurs because of faulty equipment or flaws in the research design and is consistent across experiments (Bollen, 1993). Reliability is used to measure the extent to which a measuring instrument is free from random error and able to produce consistent results across different experimental designs (Maruyama & Ryan, 2014). Cronbach’s alpha is an internal consistency coefficient commonly used to measure the reliability of an instrument (Brown, 2002). It measures how closely correlated items in a scale are. High Cronbach’s alpha value means greater internal consistency and all items in the scale are measuring the same construct (Emerson, 2019). Low Cronbach’s alpha values show items within the scale are measuring different concepts and have a weaker correlation (Tavakol & Dennick, 2011). A Cronbach’s alpha value of 0.7 and above is considered to show good reliability of an instrument (Taber, 2018). The following table shows reliability values for constructs investigated in this study.

Table 9.1 Reliability

Variable	Cronbach α	No. of Items
Narcissism	0.797	9
Machiavellianism	0.741	9
Psychopathy	0.702	8
Sadism	0.834	9
Ingratiation	0.899	11
LMX	0.878	7
Subjective Career Success	0.871	5
Psychological Wellbeing	0.874	8

9.2 Descriptive Statistics

Descriptive statistics provides the characteristics of sample data in an organised manner (Fisher & Marshall, 2009). It is an important step in statistical analysis and provides the basis for making inferential decisions about relationships between variables in a given sample (Kaur et al., 2018). Following table shows mean, standard deviation and correlation values for variables in the study. Mean values show central tendency of data for a given

variable i.e., one value which summarizes all data values. Standard deviation shows how dispersed the data values are from mean for each data point (Schumacker & Lomax, 2004). Low standard deviation shows data is closer to the mean. Correlation matrix shows the strength of relationship between any two variables in a given sample (Steiger, 1980).

9.3 Validity

Validity is the extent to which a scale is accurately measuring what it sets out to measure (Roberts & Priest, 2006). For example, an item measuring pain should only measure pain and not any other closely related variable, like anxiety (Litwin & Fink, 1995). The validity of a construct is important to ensure data collected using a particular instrument is actually measuring the underlying concepts and that conclusions deduced from data are accurate. Confirmatory factor analysis is a commonly used technique to assess construct validity (Anderson & Gerbing, 1991).

Table 9.2 Correlation Matrix

	Mean	Std. Deviation	Narcissism	Machiavellianism	Psychopathy	Sadism	Ingratiation	LMX	Subjective Career Success	Psychological Wellbeing	Salary Increase	Promotions	Tenure with Org	Tenure with Superv	Gender	N Culture
Narcissism	28.95	5.756	...													
Machiavellianism	23.59	5.746	.270**	...												
Psychopathy	19.65	4.811	.287**	.428**	...											
Sadism	19.48	7.113	.206**	.584**	.483**	...										
Ingratiation	32.58	9.546	.232**	.342**	.134**	.256**	...									
LMX	24.99	5.648	.224**	0.022	-0.053	0.003	.212**	...								
Subjective Career Success	22.84	4.03	.237**	.119*	0.082	.218**	.252**	.308**	...							
Psychological Wellbeing	32.37	5.16	.341**	.137**	0.033	.141**	.283**	.386**	.474**	...						
Salary Increase	4.87	1.81	.145**	0.065	0.085	0.053	-0.044	.175**	.205**	.149**	...					
Promotions	4.13	1.78	.147**	0.021	-0.033	-0.052	0.057	0.179**	0.21**	0.164**	.255**	...				
Tenure with Org	2.55	1.28	-0.028	-0.043	-0.107	-0.021	0.037	-0.023	0.084	0.078	0.275**	0.051	...			
Tenure with Supervisor	1.95	0.932	0.053	-0.057	-0.047	-0.035	0.045	0.009	0.003	-0.011	0.174**	-0.033	0.576**	...		
Gender	1.41	0.608	-0.009	-0.041	-0.036	-0.056	-0.088	0.025	-0.052	0.007	-0.059	-0.04	-0.076	-0.094	...	
National Culture	11.61	3.543	-0.009	-0.009	-0.027	-0.049	-0.039	0.009	-0.005	-0.059	0.016	-0.011	-0.024	0.083	0.034	...

N = 379

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed)

9.4 Confirmatory Factor Analysis

Software R (version 4.0.2) was used to conduct data analysis for this research. The Lavaan package (version 0.6-9) was used to conduct structural equation modelling techniques of confirmatory factor analysis and path analysis. Confirmatory factor analysis is a structural equation modelling technique used to analyse measurement models. Measurement models assess the relationship between observed variables (also known as indicators or items) and unobserved latent variables (also known as factors). Intercorrelations among observed measures are explained by the underlying construct or unobserved variable, which, if partialled out, would make the intercorrelations among observed variables equal to zero. So, the confirmatory factor analysis measures how strongly observed measures of a latent factor are interrelated and how much they differ from observed measures of other latent factors. In other words, how strongly items or indicators measuring a latent factor are correlated (also known as convergent validity) and how strongly they are unrelated to indicators measuring a different latent factor (also known as discriminant validity).

For confirmatory factor analysis, robust maximum likelihood estimator (MLR) was used in R Lavaan package. Maximum likelihood estimation is used when the underlying assumption of data normality are met or when observed variables are measured on a continuous scale (Rhemtulla et al., 2012). To test goodness of fit, confirmatory factor analysis was run on measurement model. Resulting indices' values were lower than generally accepted threshold for fit indices.

Chi-square	P-value	CFI	TLI	RMSEA/p-value	90% CI Lower	90% CI Upper	SRMR
3571	0.000	0.822	0.814	0.047/1.000	0.044	0.050	0.066

Three items (two from Machiavellianism and one from Psychopathy scale) were removed because of lower (< 0.3) factor-loadings. Re-run of CFA gave following results:

Chi-square	P-value	CFI	TLI	RMSEA/p-value	90% CI Lower	90% CI Upper	SRMR
3274	0.000	0.832	0.824	0.048/1.000	0.045	0.050	0.065

To examine whether fit indices improve for the model if dark tetrad variables are removed, a new measurement model was analysed, excluding dark tetrad variables. Results showed significant improvement in the fit indices:

Chi-square	P-value	CFI	TLI	RMSEA/p-value	90% CI Lower	90% CI Upper	SRMR
873	0.000	0.910	0.902	0.056/0.196	0.051	0.061	0.062

Fit indices values for dark tetrad were consistent with those measured in various other studies by different authors (Pechorro et al., 2019), including the first original scale development study (Jones & Paulhus, 2014). The scale has been successfully translated into different languages and used effectively across multiple cultures (Atari & Chegeni, 2016; Gamache et al., 2018; Malesza et al., 2019; Özsoy et al., 2017; Pabian et al., 2015; Pechorro et al., 2019; Salessi & Omar, 2018).

In order to investigate whether traits in dark tetrad represent distinct concepts and should be treated as different constructs, different CFA models were tested using unique combinations of the four traits (see Figure 9-2 below). Five different models were generated to assess the best fitting model. Subsequent results showed that Model C was the best fitting model with highest fit indices scores. Hu and Bentler (1999) specified a cut off criteria for fit indices: CFI and TLI > 0.95, RMSEA < 0.06 and SRMR < 0.08 for a best fitting model. Keeping in view these criteria, Model C – a correlated four factor model, was an appropriate fit.

Table 9.3 CFA for Dark Tetrad

Model	Chi-square	P-value	df	CFI	TLI	RMSEA/p-value	90% CI Lower	90% CI Upper	SRMR
Narcissism	62.530	0.000	27	0.983	0.978	0.044/0.254	0.030	0.059	0.048
Machiavellianism	73.917	0.000	27	0.972	0.963	0.051/0.106	0.037	0.065	0.053
Psychopathy	71.004	0.000	20	0.939	0.915	0.062/0.024	0.047	0.078	0.060
Sadism	148.180	0.000	27	0.959	0.945	0.056/0.002	0.047	0.065	0.076
Model A	2623.241	0.000	560	0.814	0.803	0.078/0.000	0.075	0.081	0.092
Model B	1505.382	0.000	559	0.913	0.907	0.053/0.000	0.050	0.057	0.072
Model C	1265.872	0.000	554	0.936	0.931	0.046/0.006	0.043	0.050	0.064
Model D	1282.156	0.000	556	0.933	0.929	0.047/0.003	0.044	0.050	0.065
Model E	1935.668	0.000	560	0.869	0.861	0.066/0.000	0.062	0.069	0.082

Model A is a unidimensional model fitting all 35 items. Model B is a correlated two-factor model with Machiavellianism, Psychopathy and Sadism as one factor, and narcissism as a second factor. Model C is a correlated 4-factor model. Model D is a bifactor model with four specific factors. Model E is a bifactor model with two specific factors (bifactor variance of Model B).

Dark tetrad variables are measured on 5-point Likert scale. Estimator WLSM was used to conduct the analysis because the condition of normality is not met which allowed for data to be treated ordinally (Jones & Paulhus, 2014; Persson et al., 2019).

To check normality of data, R package MVN was used (Korkmaz et al., 2014). Mardia test was applied to assess multivariate normality in Narcissism, Machiavellianism, Psychopathy and Sadism separately as well combined (Persson et al., 2019). Results for skewness and kurtosis showed non-normality of data. Analysing all items for four variables together, skewness (12176.17, $p < 0.001$) and kurtosis (29.47, $p < 0.001$) results showed non-normal distribution of data.

Table 9.4 Normality of Data Test

	Test	Statistics	p-value	Result
1	Mardia Skewness	12176.1696019938	1.54105202697048e-201	NO
2	Mardia Kurtosis	29.4720877261569	0	NO
3	MVN	<NA>	<NA>	NO

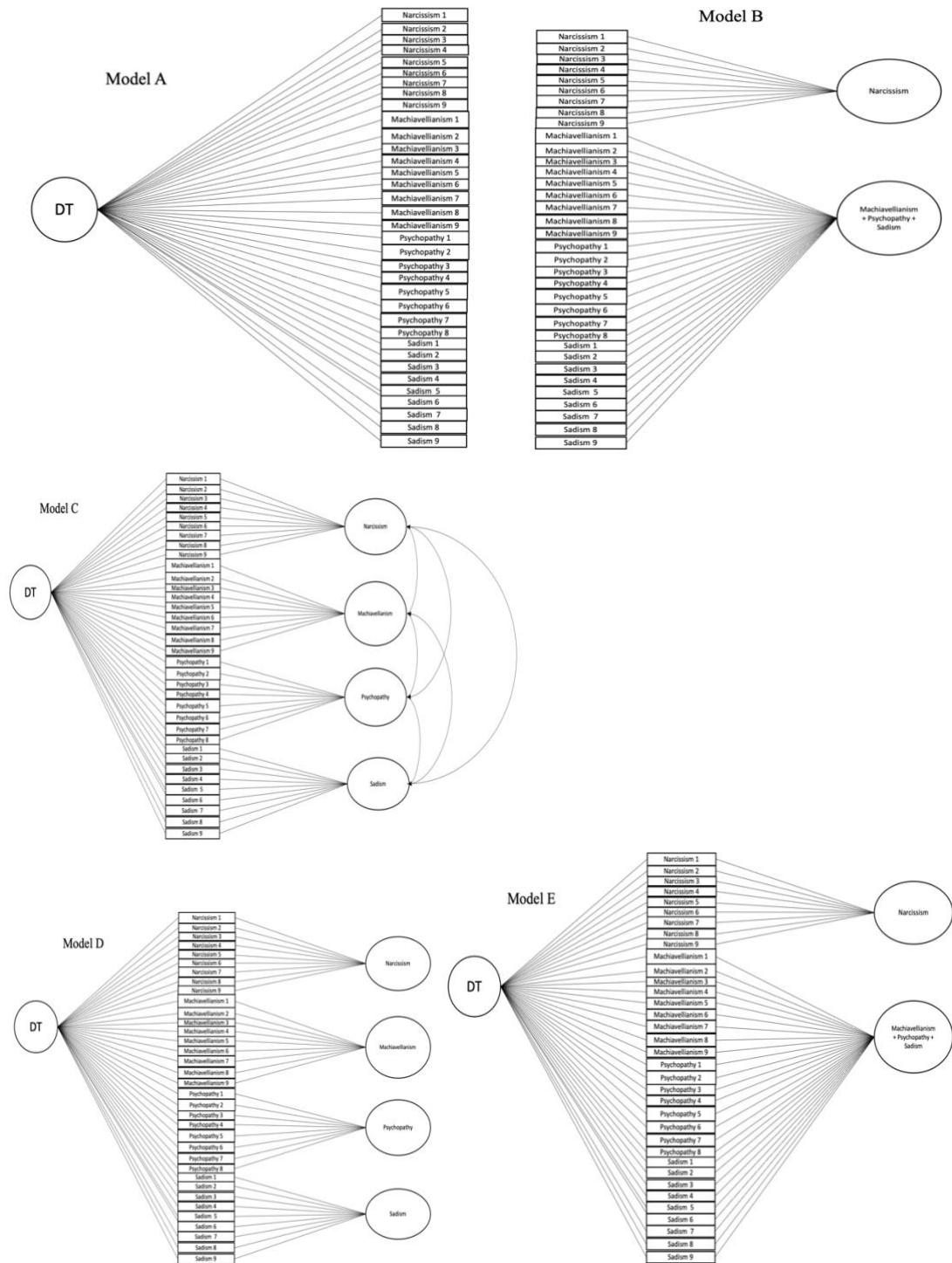


Figure 9-2 Five confirmatory factor analytic models tested for the Dark Tetrad (SD4).

Table 9.5 Factor Loadings for Items (Time 1)

Variable	Items	Factor Loadings	p-value	
Narcissism	Nar1	0.405	0.000	
	Nar2	0.694	0.000	
	Nar3	0.609	0.000	
	Nar4	0.641	0.000	
	Nar5R	0.543	0.000	
	Nar6	0.523	0.000	
	Nar7R	0.370	0.000	
	Nar8	0.556	0.000	
	Nar9R	0.559	0.000	
Machiavellianism	Mac2	0.300	0.000	
	Mac3	0.642	0.000	
	Mac4	0.393	0.000	
	Mac5	0.669	0.000	
	Mac6	0.724	0.000	
	Mac7	0.570	0.000	
	Mac8	0.648	0.000	
	Mac9	0.402	0.000	
	Psychopathy	Psyc2	0.544	0.000
Psyc3		0.470	0.000	
Psyc5		0.531	0.000	
Psyc6		0.600	0.000	
Psyc7		0.612	0.000	
Psyc8		0.365	0.000	
Sadism		Sad1	0.657	0.000
		Sad2	0.662	0.000
	Sad3	0.621	0.000	
	Sad4	0.448	0.000	
	Sad5	0.524	0.000	
	Sad6	0.466	0.000	
	Sad7	0.691	0.000	
	Sad8	0.664	0.000	
	Sad9	0.605	0.000	

Variable	Items	Factor Loadings	p-value
Ingratiation	Ing1	0.597	0.000
	Ing2	0.660	0.000
	Ing3	0.770	0.000
	Ing4	0.620	0.000
	Ing5	0.669	0.000
	Ing6	0.669	0.000
	Ing7	0.597	0.000
	Ing8	0.624	0.000
	Ing9	0.657	0.000
	Ing10	0.767	0.000
	Ing11	0.713	0.000
LMX	LMX1	0.635	0.000
	LMX2	0.758	0.000
	LMX3	0.716	0.000
	LMX4	0.759	0.000
	LMX5	0.622	0.000
	LMX6	0.755	0.000
	LMX7	0.774	0.000

Subjective Career Success			
	SC1	0.830	0.000
	SC2	0.888	0.000
	SC3	0.724	0.000
	SC4	0.745	0.000
	SC7	0.588	0.000
Psychological Wellbeing			
	PsyW1	0.506	0.000
	PsyW2	0.596	0.000
	PsyW3	0.750	0.000
	PsyW4	0.670	0.000
	PsyW5	0.718	0.000
	PsyW6	0.715	0.000
	PsyW7	0.758	0.000
	PsyW8	0.772	0.000

Three items were removed for factor loadings below 0.3. These items were Mac1R – *I am transparent about my problems* (0.102), Psyc1 – *I often take risk in situations where others would hesitate* (0.188) and Psyc4 – *I tend to fight against authorities and their rules* (0.270). After removing these factors, variable reliabilities were as follows:

Using WLSM estimator, before three items removed

Chi-square	P-value	CFI	TLI	RMSEA/p-value	90% CI Lower	90% CI Upper	SRMR
4499.538 Df 2051	0.000	0.929	0.926	0.045/0.000	0.043	0.047	0.064

Using WLSM estimator, after three items removed

Chi-square	P-value	CFI	TLI	RMSEA/p-value	90% CI Lower	90% CI Upper	SRMR
3939.071 Df 1862	0.000	0.941	0.938	0.043/0.009	0.041	0.045	0.062

Fit statistics reveal that measurement model fits the data well for this research (Chi-square (1862) = 3939.071; $p > 0.05$, CFI (The Comparative Fit Index) = 0.941, TLI (the Tucker Lewis Index) = 0.938, RMSEA (The Root Mean Square Error of Approximation) = 0.043, SRMR (Standardized Root Mean Square Residual) = 0.062). To check for common method variance, a one factor confirmatory factor analysis was conducted based on Harman's single factor analysis (Podsakoff et al., 2012; I. Shin et al., 2016). This model implies that covariance among all items in the model is explained by a single common factor. Fit analysis showed poor results (Chi-square (1890) = 14093.566; $p > 0.05$, CFI (The Comparative Fit Index) = 0.620, TLI (the Tucker Lewis Index) = 0.607, RMSEA (The Root Mean Square Error of Approximation) = 0.107, SRMR (Standardized Root Mean Square Residual) = 0.129). To compare both models, Chi-square difference test was conducted using lavaan function in R. Results revealed

multi-factor model (Model 1) fitted data better than single factor model (Model 2) as it had more free estimated parameters and less degrees of freedom (AIC/BIC values for multi-factor model are also closer to 0 compared to single factor model).

Table 9.6 Chi-Square Difference Test (Time 1)

Chi-Square Difference Test							
	Df	AIC	BIC	Chisq	Chisq diff	Df diff	Pr(>Chisq)
Model 1	1862	63832	64439	3696.1			
Model 2	1892	68829	69317	8752.9	5056.7	30	<2.2e-16***

Signif.	Codes:	0 '***'	0.001 '**'	0.01 '*'	0.05 '.'	0.1 ' '	1

9.5 Mediation/Path Analysis

Mediation is a commonly used mechanism in psychology studies to help explain psychological processes and events (Mackinnon et al., 2007). It comprises of a chain of relations in which a predictor variable affects the mediating variable which in turn affects the outcome variable. The concept of mediation follows a stimulus organism response (S-O-R) model (Hebb, 1966) where the mediating variable explains the intermediate link between a stimulus and its response. Mediating variables not only form the basis of many psychological theories but are also studied in medical research as an intervention which can change the outcome variable. For instance, information processing theory (Miller, 1956) in cognitive psychology dictates that information is processed and stored as memory which then helps in delivering a response. Similarly, the theory of planned behaviour states that intentions mediate the relationship between attitudes and behaviours (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1975). Another reason for the popularity of mediation analyses is the interest in examining the effect of a third variable on the relationship between two variables. Mediating variables help in improving our understanding of the relationship between two existing variables (Mackinnon et al., 2007). This study examines a serial mediation model, which means there is more than one mediator affecting the relationship between independent and dependent variables in a sequence (MacKinnon, 2000).

Baron & Kenny (1986) set out three criteria for mediation to be established. The first criteria were that there must be a significant effect of the independent variable on the mediator. The second criteria were that there must be a significant relationship between the

independent variable and dependent variable, and the third criterion for mediation to hold was a significant relationship between the mediator and outcome variable. This causal-step approach has been widely used by researchers in organisational and social research. However, these criteria have been met with criticism from scholars, as (Zhao et al., 2010) challenged Baron and Kenny's methodology for establishing mediation. Criticism was particularly aimed at the second criterion, which states that there should be a significant relationship between the independent (X) and dependent variable (Y) first for a mediation to occur. In other words, in the case of full mediation, the direct effect of the independent variable on the dependent variable should be zero. (Zhao et al., 2010) argued that the strength of mediation should not depend on the absence of a direct effect but on the strong presence of an indirect effect. Moreover, they argued that it is not necessary for a direct relationship between X and Y to be significant as a condition for mediation to occur. They then proposed a typology of mediation which has been used extensively in the research that followed. According to the proposed typology, mediation occurs when both direct and indirect effect are significant or only the indirect effect is significant. Mediation does not occur when only the direct effect is significant, or neither direct nor indirect effect are significant.

Bootstrapping is a powerful and widely used technique to analyse the effect of mediating variables (Williams & Mackinnon, 2008). One reason is its ability to churn out indirect effects without concerns about the distribution of data which is a requirement for other tests such as the Sobel test, which assumes normal distribution of data (Hayes, 2009) for indirect effects to be significant. Moreover, the bootstrapping approach creates many simulated samples by resampling the initial dataset, which helps in drawing inferences about the population and calculating standard error, confidence intervals and test hypotheses (Hayes, 2009). The bootstrapping test can be performed using SEM (structural equation modelling) technique in R (Preacher & Hayes, 2004:2008).

To test the mediation hypothesis, Path analysis was conducted using the lavaan package in R. To conduct path analysis; the sem function was used. This technique is particularly useful when there are multiple mediators or outcome variables (Hoyle & Smith, 1994) to test in a model. Structural model showed adequate data fit (Chi-square (1876) = 4898.604; $p > 0.05$, CFI (The Comparative Fit Index) = 0.904, TLI (the Tucker Lewis Index) = 0.900, RMSEA (The Root Mean Square Error of Approximation) = 0.054, SRMR (Standardized

Root Mean Square Residual) = 0.073). The hypothesized structural model did explain variance in ingratiation ($R^2 = 15.3\%$), in LMX ($R^2 = 10.7\%$), subjective career success ($R^2 = 25.5\%$) and psychological wellbeing ($R^2 = 23.9\%$). All path coefficients were estimated using structural equation modelling in R. The analysis provided support for H1(a) predicting a positive relationship between Narcissism and Ingratiation ($\beta = 0.150, p < 0.01$). H1(b) predicting a positive relation between Machiavellianism and Ingratiation was supported ($\beta = 0.295, p < 0.01$). A negative and insignificant relationship was found between Psychopathy and Ingratiation ($\beta = -0.076, p = 0.205$), thus hypothesis 1(c) was not supported. A positive but insignificant relationship was found between Sadism and Ingratiation ($\beta = 0.096, p = 0.126$), thus hypothesis 1(d) was not supported.

Hypothesis 2 predicting a positive association between ingratiation and leader-member exchange was supported ($\beta = 0.192, p < 0.01$). Hypothesis 3 predicting a positive association between leader-member exchange and subjective career success was supported ($\beta = 0.400, p < 0.01$). Hypothesis 4a predicting a positive association between leader-member exchange and number of promotions was supported ($\beta = 0.122, p < 0.01$). Hypothesis 4b predicting a positive association between leader-member exchange and salary increase was supported ($\beta = 0.173, p < 0.01$). Hypothesis 5 predicting a positive association between leader-member exchange and psychological wellbeing was supported ($\beta = 0.287, p < 0.01$).

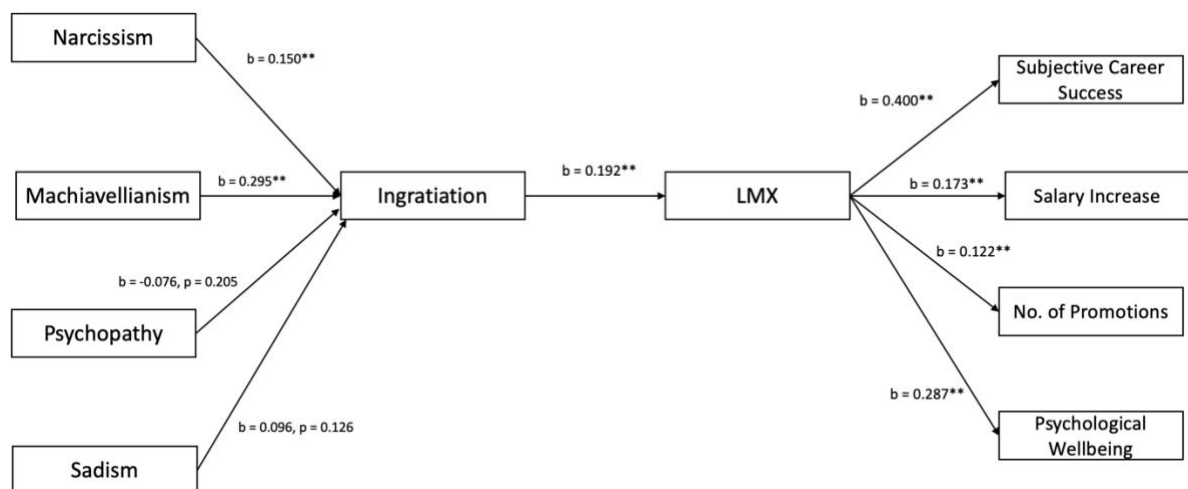


Figure 9-3 Regression Values for Relationship between Variables (Time 1)

Sequential mediation analysis was conducted to analyse serial multiple mediation model proposed in this study. This approach is particularly useful to assess complicated models

including various predictor and outcome variables through multiple mediators using bootstrap (Cheung & Lau, 2008). Bootstrapping technique (5000 boot samples) was used to test indirect effects between predictor and outcome variables via serial mediators proposed in the model, given its greater statistical power to estimate population parameters (Mackinnon et al., 2004; Mallinckrodt et al., 2006).

9.5.1 Subjective Career Success as Outcome Variable

Hypothesis 6(a) predicted that ingratiation and LMX would sequentially mediate the relationship between Narcissism and Subjective Career Success. The results supported the hypothesis ($\beta = 0.012$, $p < 0.05$) (see Table below).



	Indirect Effects			
	Estimate	CI low	CI high	P-value
Total Indirect Effect	0.116**	0.052	0.148	
Indirect Effect				
Nar → Ing → SubjCS	0.013	-0.001	0.029	0.134
Nar → lmx → SubjCS	0.092**	0.038	0.121	0.001
Nar → Ing → lmx → SubjCS	0.012*	0.003	0.020	0.025
Direct Effect				
Nar → SubjCS	0.103*	0.005	0.167	0.046
Total Effect				
Nar → SubjCS	0.220**	0.089	0.271	0.000

Narcissism and Subjective Career Success

Hypothesis 6(b) predicted that ingratiation and LMX would sequentially mediate the relationship between Machiavellianism and Subjective Career Success. The results supported the hypothesis ($\beta = 0.023$, $p < 0.05$) (see Table below).



From → To	Indirect effects			
	Estimate	CI low	CI high	P - value
Total Indirect Effect	0.035	-0.030	0.092	0.317
Indirect Effect				
Mac → Ing → SubjCS	0.025	-0.003	0.051	0.079
Mac → lmx → SubjCS	-0.013	-0.060	0.038	0.658
Mac → Ing → lmx → SubjCS	0.023*	0.007	0.037	0.012

Direct Effect				
Mac → SubjCS	-0.063	-0.161	0.061	0.338
Total Effect				
Mac → SubjCS	-0.028	-0.144	0.094	0.711

Hypothesis 6(c) predicted that ingratiation and LMX would sequentially mediate the relationship between Psychopathy and Subjective Career Success. The results did not support the hypothesis ($\beta = -0.006$, $p=0.245$) (see Table below). However, an indirect relation through LMX was found to be negative and significant, showing Psychopaths have poor quality relationship with their supervisor resulting in lower career satisfaction.



From → To	Indirect effects			P - value
	Estimate	CI low	CI high	
Total Indirect Effect	-0.084**	-0.175	-0.036	0.004
Indirect Effect				
Psyc → Ing → SubjCS	-0.007	-0.027	0.006	0.318
Psyc → lmx → SubjCS	-0.071**	-0.155	-0.029	0.011
Psyc → Ing → lmx → SubjCS	-0.006	-0.021	0.003	0.245
Direct Effect				
Psyc → SubjCS	-0.113	-0.293	0.010	0.080
Total Effect				
Psyc → SubjCS	-0.197**	-0.397	-0.078	0.003

Hypothesis 6(d) predicted that ingratiation and LMX would sequentially mediate the relationship between Sadism and Subjective Career Success. The results did not support the hypothesis ($\beta = 0.007$, $p=0.185$) (see Table below).



From → To	Indirect effects			P - value
	Estimate	CI low	CI high	
Total Indirect Effect	0.025	-0.028	0.060	0.438
Indirect Effect				
Sad → Ing → SubjCS	0.008	-0.002	0.017	0.259
Sad → lmx → SubjCS	0.010	-0.036	0.043	0.747
Sad → Ing → lmx → SubjCS	0.007	-0.002	0.013	0.185

Direct Effect				
Sad → SubjCS	0.173*	0.013	0.207	0.022
Total Effect				
Sad → SubjCS	0.198*	0.008	0.246	0.033

9.5.2 Objective Career Success as Outcome Variable

1. Total Number of Promotions – OC(a)

Hypothesis 7(a) predicted that ingratiation and LMX would sequentially mediate the relationship between Narcissism and Total number of promotions. The results did not support the hypothesis ($\beta = 0.004$, $p=0.147$ (see Table below). However, a direct positive link was found between Narcissism and total number of promotions during overall career ($\beta = 0.141$, $p<0.05$).



From → To	Path Coefficients				Indirect effects
	OC(a)	Estimate	CI low	CI high	P -value
Nar	0.141*				0.013
Mac	0.086				0.203
Psyc	-0.136*				0.027
Sad	-0.035				0.615
Ing	-0.023				0.689
lmx	0.122*				0.027
Total Indirect Effect		0.028	-0.001	0.016	0.086
Indirect Effect					
Nar → Ing → OC3		-0.003	-0.006	0.004	0.706
Nar → lmx → OC3		0.028*	0.001	0.015	0.046
Nar → Ing → lmx → OC3		0.004	0.000	0.003	0.147
Direct Effect					
Nar → OC3		0.141*	0.008	0.065	0.013
Total Effect					
Nar → OC3		0.169**	0.016	0.071	0.003

Hypothesis 7(b) predicted that ingratiation and LMX would sequentially mediate the relationship between Machiavellianism and Total number of promotions. The results did not support the hypothesis ($\beta = 0.007$, $p=0.102$) (see Table below).



	Indirect effects			P - value
	Estimate	CI low	CI high	
From → To				
Total Indirect Effect	-0.004	-0.011	0.008	0.846
Indirect Effect				
Mac → Ing → OC3	-0.007	-0.011	0.007	0.707
Mac → lmx → OC3	-0.004	-0.007	0.004	0.691
Mac → Ing → lmx → OC3	0.007	0.000	0.004	0.102
Direct Effect				
Mac → OC3	0.086	-0.010	0.057	0.204
Total Effect				
Mac → OC3	0.082	-0.011	0.055	0.214

Hypothesis 7c predicted that ingratiation and LMX would sequentially mediate the relationship between Psychopathy and Total number of promotions. The results did not support the hypothesis ($\beta = -0.002$, $p=0.339$) (see Table below). However, a direct negative relation was found between Psychopathy and number of promotions in overall career ($\beta = -0.136$, $p<0.05$), showing psychopaths reported receiving fewer promotions in their career.



	Indirect effects			P - value
	Estimate	CI low	CI high	
From → To				
Total Indirect Effect	0.013	-0.001	0.005	0.322
Indirect Effect				
Psyc → Ing → OC3	0.002	-0.003	0.006	0.770
Psyc → lmx → OC3	-0.022	-0.019	-0.001	0.080
Psyc → Ing → lmx → OC3	-0.002	-0.002	0.000	0.339
Direct Effect				
Psyc → OC3	-0.136*	-0.096	-0.005	0.027
Total Effect				

Psyc → OC3	-0.158**	-0.105	-0.013	0.009
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Hypothesis 7(d) predicted that ingratiation and LMX would sequentially mediate the relationship between Sadism and Total number of promotions. The results did not support the hypothesis ($\beta = 0.002$, $p=0.310$) (see Table below).



From → To	Indirect effects			P - value
	Estimate	CI low	CI high	
Total Indirect Effect	-0.010	-0.002	0.000	0.375
Indirect Effect				
Sad → Ing → PsyWB	-0.002	-0.004	0.002	0.738
Sad → lmx → PsyWB	0.003	-0.003	0.005	0.760
Sad → Ing → lmx → PsyWB	0.002	0.000	0.001	0.310
Direct Effect				
Sad → PsyWB	-0.035	-0.037	0.018	0.616
Total Effect				
Sad → PsyWB	-0.032	-0.036	0.019	0.648

2. Salary Increase – OC(b)

Hypothesis 7(e) predicted that ingratiation and LMX would sequentially mediate the relationship between Narcissism and salary increase. The results did not support the hypothesis ($\beta = 0.005$, $p=0.085$) (see Table below). However, indirect path through LMX (Nar → lmx → OC4) ($\beta = 0.040$, $p<0.05$) and direct effect of Narcissism on salary increase was significant ($\beta = 0.111$, $p<0.05$). Narcissists reporting high LMX quality also reported percentage increase in salary over the past three years.



	Path Coefficients		Indirect effects		
	OC4	Estimate	CI low	CI high	P -value

From → To					
Nar	0.111*				0.048
Mac	0.077				0.255
Psyc	0.006				0.926
Sad	0.015				0.829
Ing	-0.140				0.010
lmx	0.173**				0.002
Total Indirect Effect		0.024	-0.001	0.017	0.205
Indirect Effect					
Nar → Ing → OC4		-0.021	-0.006	0.004	0.056
Nar → lmx → OC4		0.040*	0.001	0.015	0.012
Nar → Ing → lmx → OC4		0.005	0.000	0.002	0.085
Direct Effect					
Nar → OC4		0.111*	0.009	0.063	0.048
Total Effect					
Nar → OC4		0.134*	0.016	0.070	0.017

Hypothesis 7(f) predicted that ingratiation and LMX would sequentially mediate the relationship between Machiavellianism and salary increase. The results supported the hypothesis ($\beta = 0.010$, $p < 0.05$) (see Table below).

Machiavellianism → Ingratiation → LMX → Salary Increase

From → To	Indirect effects			P - value
	Estimate	CI low	CI high	
From → To				
Total Indirect Effect	-0.037	-0.012	0.009	0.081
Indirect Effect				
Mac → Ing → OC4	-0.041*	-0.011	0.008	0.030
Mac → lmx → OC4	-0.006	-0.007	0.004	0.665
Mac → Ing → lmx → OC4	0.010*	0.000	0.005	0.040
Direct Effect				
Mac → OC4	0.077	-0.009	0.057	0.255
Total Effect				
Mac → OC4	0.041	-0.010	0.055	0.559

Hypothesis 7(g) predicted that ingratiation and LMX would sequentially mediate the relationship between Psychopathy and salary increase. The results did not support the hypothesis ($\beta = -0.003$, $p=0.308$) (see Table below). However, an indirect relation through LMX was found negative and significant (Psyc \rightarrow lmx \rightarrow OC4) ($\beta = -0.031$, $p<0.05$). Individuals high in Psychopathy reported poor LMX quality and lower salary.



From \rightarrow To	Indirect effects			P - value
	Estimate	CI low	CI high	
Total Indirect Effect	-0.023	-0.001	0.005	0.196
Indirect Effect				
Psyc \rightarrow Ing \rightarrow OC4	0.011	-0.004	0.006	0.281
Psyc \rightarrow lmx \rightarrow OC4	-0.031*	-0.019	-0.001	0.043
Psyc \rightarrow Ing \rightarrow lmx \rightarrow OC4	-0.003	-0.002	0.000	0.308
Direct Effect				
Psyc \rightarrow OC4	0.006	-0.095	0.002	0.927
Total Effect				
Psyc \rightarrow OC4	-0.017	-0.103	0.009	0.788

Hypothesis 7(h) predicted that ingratiation and LMX would sequentially mediate the relationship between Sadism and salary increase. The results did not support the hypothesis ($\beta = 0.003$, $p=0.240$) (see Table below).



	Indirect effects			P - value
	Estimate	CI low	CI high	
From → To				
Total Indirect Effect	-0.006	-0.003	0.000	0.690
Indirect Effect				
Sad → Ing → OC4	-0.013	-0.004	0.003	0.222
Sad → lmx → OC4	0.004	-0.003	0.005	0.746
Sad → Ing → lmx → OC4	0.003	0.000	0.002	0.240
Direct Effect				
Sad → OC4	0.015	-0.036	0.020	0.829
Total Effect				
Sad → OC4	0.009	-0.036	0.020	0.901

9.5.3 Psychological Wellbeing as Outcome Variable

Hypothesis 8a predicted that ingratiation and LMX would sequentially mediate the relationship between Narcissism and Psychological Wellbeing. The results supported the hypothesis ($\beta = 0.008$, $p < 0.05$) (see Table below). Narcissism was both indirectly and directly ($\beta = 0.247$, $p < 0.01$) positively related to psychological wellbeing.



	Indirect effects			P - value
	Estimate	CI low	CI high	
From → To				
Total Indirect Effect	0.097**	0.048	0.137	0.000
Indirect Effect				
Nar → Ing → PsyWB	0.023*	0.005	0.043	0.025
Nar → lmx → PsyWB	0.066**	0.029	0.098	0.001
Nar → Ing → lmx → PsyWB	0.008*	0.002	0.016	0.035
Direct Effect				
Nar → PsyWB	0.247**	0.127	0.311	0.000
Total Effect				
Nar → PsyWB	0.344**	0.207	0.401	0.000

Hypothesis 8b predicted that ingratiation and LMX would sequentially mediate the relationship between Machiavellianism and Psychological Wellbeing. The results supported the hypothesis ($\beta = 0.016$, $p < 0.05$) (see Table below).



From → To	Indirect effects			P - value
	Estimate	CI low	CI high	
Total Indirect Effect	0.051	-0.004	0.101	0.080
Indirect Effect				
Mac → Ing → PsyWB	0.046**	0.014	0.073	0.008
Mac → lmx → PsyWB	-0.009	-0.050	0.031	0.659
Mac → Ing → lmx → PsyWB	0.016*	0.005	0.029	0.012
Direct Effect				
Mac → PsyWB	0.013	-0.099	0.141	0.840
Total Effect				
Mac → PsyWB	0.064	-0.068	0.203	0.363

Hypothesis 8c predicted that ingratiation and LMX would sequentially mediate the relationship between Psychopathy and Psychological Wellbeing. The results did not support the hypothesis ($\beta = -0.004$, $p=0.241$) (see Table below). However, a direct negative and significant relationship was found between psychopathy and wellbeing ($\beta = -0.127$, $p<0.05$).



From → To	Indirect effects			P-value
	Estimate	CI low	CI high	
Total Indirect Effect	-0.067**	-0.149	-0.030	0.004
Indirect Effect				
Psyc → Ing → PsyWB	-0.011	-0.043	0.008	0.242
Psyc → lmx → PsyWB	-0.051**	-0.119	-0.023	0.008
Psyc → Ing → lmx → PsyWB	-0.004	-0.016	0.003	0.241
Direct Effect				
Psyc → PsyWB	-0.127*	-0.305	-0.027	0.020
Total Effect				
Psyc → PsyWB	-0.194**	-0.398	-0.103	0.001

Hypothesis 8d predicted that ingratiation and LMX would sequentially mediate the relationship between Sadism and Psychological well-being. The results did not support the hypothesis ($\beta = 0.005$, $p=0.199$) (see Table below).



From → To	Indirect effects			P-value
	Estimate	CI low	CI high	
Total Indirect Effect	0.027	-0.022	0.060	0.327
Indirect Effect				
Sad → Ing → PsyWB	0.014	-0.003	0.027	0.172
Sad → lmx → PsyWB	0.007	-0.027	0.036	0.746
Sad → Ing → lmx → PsyWB	0.005	-0.001	0.010	0.199
Direct Effect				
Sad → PsyWB	0.114	-0.045	0.186	0.188
Total Effect				
Sad → PsyWB	0.141	-0.041	0.225	0.159

9.6 Control Variables

Variables of gender, tenure with the organisation, tenure with supervisor and national culture were included as control variables in the study. Gender, National Culture and Tenure with Supervisor had no direct or indirect relation with the outcome variables of subjective and objective career success and psychological wellbeing, neither did they change the results for hypothesized effects of independent variables on outcome variables via mediators. They were hence removed from the analysis. Tenure with the organisation was the only variable which had a significant direct relationship with outcome variables of subjective career success ($\beta = 0.131$ $\rho < 0.05$), psychological wellbeing ($\beta = 0.133$ $\rho < 0.05$), and the number of promotions ($\beta = 0.271$ $\rho < 0.01$) and an insignificant relation with salary increase ($\beta = 0.113$ $\rho = 0.096$). No significant indirect effect of Tenure with Supervisor could be found for the outcome variables of subjective and objective career success and wellbeing.

From → To	Path Coefficients		Indirect effects
	SubjCS	Estimate	P -value
Direct Effect			
Gender	-0.040		0.445
National Culture	0.012		0.805
Tenure with Organisation	0.131*		0.023
Tenure with Supervisor	-0.088		0.090

Indirect Effect			
Gender → Ing → lmx → SubjCS		-0.005	0.178
National Culture → Ing → lmx → SubjCS		-0.002	0.485
Tenure with Org → Ing → lmx → SubjCS		0.001	0.882
Tenure with Supervisor → Ing → lmx → SubjCS		0.002	0.583

Psychological Wellbeing

From → To	Path Coefficients		Indirect effects
	PsyWB	Estimate	P -value
Direct Effect			
Gender	0.019		0.716
National Culture	-0.044		0.257
Tenure with Organisation	0.133*		0.017
Tenure with Supervisor	-0.094		0.092
Indirect Effect			
Gender → Ing → lmx → PsyWB		-0.006	0.160
National Culture → Ing → lmx → PsyWB		-0.003	0.489
Tenure with Org → Ing → lmx → PsyWB		0.001	0.881
Tenure with Supervisor → Ing → lmx → PsyWB		0.003	0.580

Number of Promotions (OC3)

From → To	Path Coefficients		Indirect effects
	OC3	Estimate	P -value
Direct Effect			
Gender	-0.043		0.351
National Culture	0.022		0.661
Tenure with Organisation	0.271**		0.000
Tenure with Supervisor	0.011		0.855
Indirect Effect			
Gender → Ing → lmx → OC3		-0.003	0.211
National Culture → Ing → lmx → OC3		-0.002	0.509
Tenure with Org → Ing → lmx → OC3		0.000	0.885
Tenure with Supervisor → Ing → lmx → OC3		0.001	0.605

Salary Increase (OC4)

From → To	Path Coefficients		Indirect effects
	OC4	Estimate	P -value

From → To			
Direct Effect			
Gender	-0.054		0.299
National Culture	-0.004		0.927
Tenure with Organisation	0.113		0.096
Tenure with Supervisor	-0.100		0.171
Indirect Effect			
Gender → Ing → lmx → OC4		-0.003	0.171
National Culture → Ing → lmx → OC4		-0.002	0.510
Tenure with Org → Ing → lmx → OC4		0.000	0.882
Tenure with Supervisor → Ing → lmx → OC4		0.001	0.599

PHASE 2 ANALYSIS

9.7 Phase 2 Analysis

In Phase 2, data were collected for all variables except dark personality traits of Narcissism, Machiavellianism, Psychopathy and Sadism, as research by (Rogoza et al., 2021) supports that dark personality traits remained stable over a one-year period of their longitudinal study. Evidence for two-wave panel design longitudinal studies can be found extensively in the existing literature (e.g., Geng et al., 2021; Glambek et al., 2018; Liang et al., 2012; Parmentier et al., 2019b; Smith et al., 2018; Wink et al., 2007).

This study uses a classical two-wave serial mediation model (Greenberg & Kessler, 1982; Kenny, 1975; Yao & Zhong, 2014), which is a common method to investigate the effect of one variable on another over time (Preacher, 2015; Wu et al., 2013). This technique is particularly useful for testing the stability of proposed relationships between variables of interest and the direction of influences over time (Kearney, 2017). In the current study, independent variables data collected at T1 was tested in relation to the mediator and outcome variables data collected at T2. Personality traits data for Narcissism, Machiavellianism, Psychopathy and Sadism collected at T1 was regressed against mediators Ingratiation, LMX, and outcome variables career success and wellbeing data collected at T2. Structural equation modelling technique was used to investigate this cross-lagged panel model (Halpern et al., 2016).

9.8 Confirmatory Factor Analysis

Confirmatory factor analysis was conducted to confirm the factor structure of measured variables and their relationship with underlying constructs or unobserved variables. Fit statistics reveal that the measurement model fits the data well for this research (Chi-square

(428) = 987.080; $p > 0.05$, CFI (The Comparative Fit Index) = 0.959, TLI (the Tucker Lewis Index) = 0.955, RMSEA (The Root Mean Square Error of Approximation) = 0.058, SRMR (Standardized Root Mean Square Residual) = 0.074). Fit values are well within the cut-off criteria for model fit set out by Hu and Bentler (1999) for these indices with CFI and TLI values ≥ 0.90 , RMSEA ≤ 0.06 and SRMR ≤ 0.08 (Blevins et al., 2015; West et al., 2012).

Fit Indices showing model goodness of fit

Chi-square	P-value	CFI	TLI	RMSEA/p-value	90% CI Lower	90% CI Upper	SRMR
987.080 Df 428	0.000	0.959	0.955	0.058/0.000	0.053	0.062	0.074

Items with their factor loadings are shown in the Table below.

Table 9.7 Factor Loadings excluding Dark Tetrad (Time 2)

Variable	Items	Factor Loadings	p-value
Ingratiation	Ing1	0.594	0.000
	Ing2	0.751	0.000
	Ing3	0.814	0.000
	Ing4	0.681	0.000
	Ing5	0.758	0.000
	Ing6	0.581	0.000
	Ing7	0.629	0.000
	Ing8	0.603	0.000
	Ing9	0.664	0.000
	Ing10	0.704	0.000
	Ing11	0.579	0.000
LMX	LMX1	0.679	0.000
	LMX2	0.795	0.000
	LMX3	0.681	0.000
	LMX4	0.733	0.000
	LMX5	0.703	0.000
	LMX6	0.550	0.000
	LMX7	0.687	0.000
Subjective Career Success	SC1	0.769	0.000
	SC2	0.777	0.000
	SC3	0.692	0.000
	SC4	0.729	0.000
	SC7	0.604	0.000
Psychological Wellbeing	PsyW1	0.667	0.000
	PsyW2	0.633	0.000
	PsyW3	0.789	0.000
	PsyW4	0.589	0.000
	PsyW5	0.676	0.000
	PsyW6	0.701	0.000
	PsyW7	0.629	0.000
	PsyW8	0.531	0.000

9.9 Common Method Variance

Harman's single factor analysis (Podsakoff, McKenzie & Podsakoff, 2012) was applied to test for common method variance using lavaan function in R. Fit analysis showed poor results (Chi-square (434) = 3003.959; $p > 0.05$, CFI (The Comparative Fit Index) = 0.794, TLI (the Tucker Lewis Index) = 0.779, RMSEA (The Root Mean Square Error of Approximation) = 0.128, SRMR (Standardized Root Mean Square Residual) = 0.137). Both single-factor and multiple factor model were compared to check for better fit. Chi-square difference test revealed multi-factor model fitted data better than single factor model as it had more free estimated parameters and less degrees of freedom (AIC/BIC values for the multi-factor model are also closer to 0 compared to single-factor model) (Satorra & Bentler, 2010).

Table 9.8 Chi-square Difference Test (Time 2)

Chi-Square Difference Test							
	Df	AIC	BIC	Chisq	Chisq diff	Df diff	Pr(>Chisq)
Model 1	428	16817	17046	948.68			
Model 2	434	17978	18187	2121.72	843	6	<2.2e-16***

Signif.	Codes:	0 '***'	0.001 '**'	0.01 '*'	0.05 '.'	0.1 ''	1

9.10 Mediation/Path Analysis

Path analysis using lavaan sem function in R was conducted to analyse patterns of effect among proposed variables in the model. Structural model showed adequate fit: Chi-square (430) = 1109.863; $p > 0.05$, CFI (The Comparative Fit Index) = 0.947, TLI (the Tucker Lewis Index) = 0.942, RMSEA (The Root Mean Square Error of Approximation) = 0.065, SRMR (Standardized Root Mean Square Residual) = 0.080).

Hypothesis 2 predicting a positive relationship between ingratiation and LMX was supported ($\beta = .338, p < 0.01$). Hypothesis 3 predicting a positive relationship between LMX and subjective career success was supported ($\beta = .433, p < 0.01$). Hypothesis 5 predicting a positive relationship between LMX and psychological wellbeing was also supported ($\beta = .265, p < 0.01$).

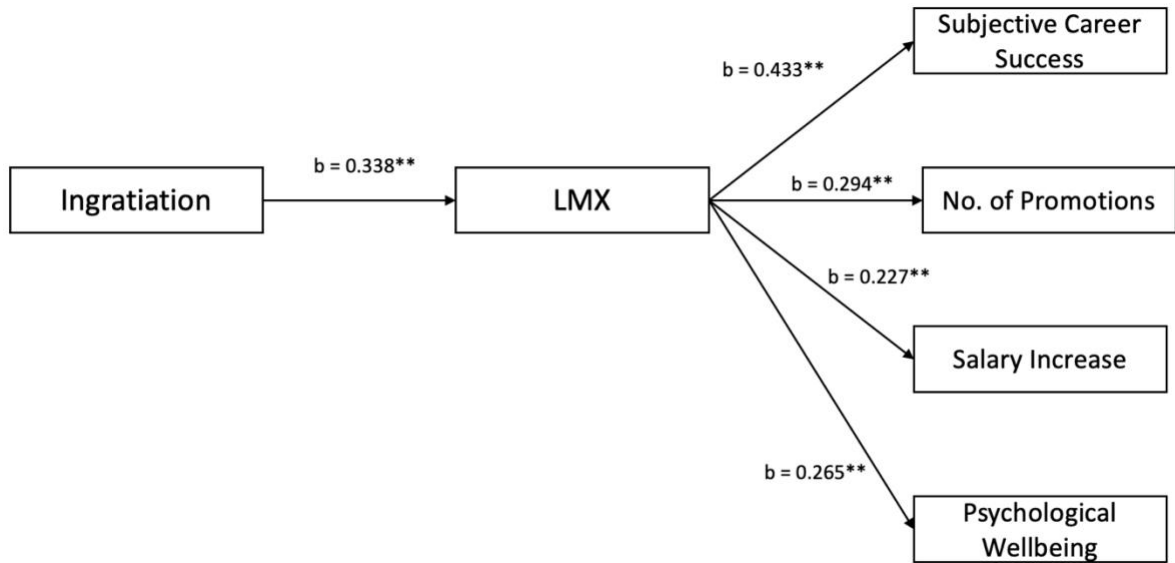


Figure 9-4 Regression Values For Model Excluding Dark Tetrad (Time 2)

Direct and Indirect Effects

	Indirect Effects			
	Estimate	CI low	CI high	P-value
Indirect Effect				
Ing → lmx → SubjCS	0.147*	0.037	0.092	0.000
Direct Effect				
Ing → SubjCS	0.218**	0.040	0.140	0.000
Total Effect				
Ing → SubjCS	0.364**	0.100	0.207	0.001
Indirect Effect				
Ing → lmx → PsyWB	0.090**	0.023	0.089	0.002
Direct Effect				
Ing → PsyWB	0.192**	0.037	0.192	0.005
Total Effect				
Ing → PsyWB	0.282**	0.094	0.245	0.000
Indirect Effect				
Ing → lmx → No. of Promotions	0.100**	0.007	0.024	0.001
Direct Effect				
Ing → No. of Promotions	0.028	-0.014	0.026	0.685
Total Effect				
Ing → No. of Promotions	0.128	0.001	0.038	0.057
Indirect Effect				
Ing → lmx → Salary Increase	0.077**	0.006	0.034	0.009
Direct Effect				
Ing → Salary Increase	-0.023	-0.040	0.027	0.743
Total Effect				
Ing → Salary Increase	0.054	-0.022	0.045	0.441

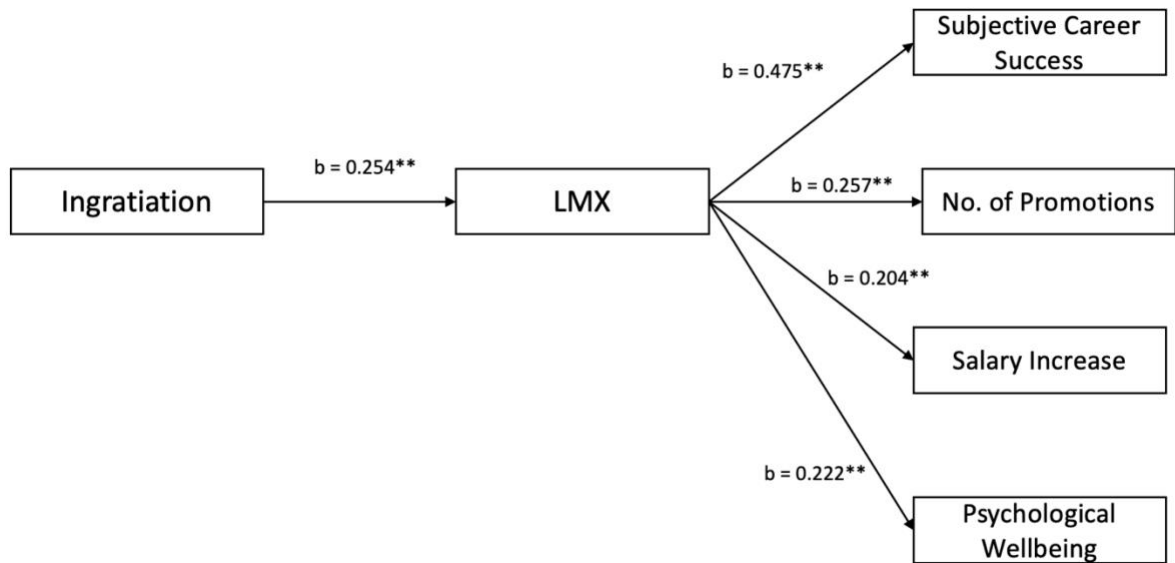


Figure 9-5 Testing same model using Phase 1 data

Direct and Indirect Effects

	Indirect Effects			
	Estimate	CI low	CI high	P-value
Indirect Effect				
Ing → lmx → SubjCS	0.121**	0.028	0.090	0.000
Direct Effect				
Ing → SubjCS	0.130*	0.002	0.121	0.040
Total Effect				
Ing → SubjCS	0.251**	0.057	0.181	0.000
Indirect Effect				
Ing → lmx → PsyWB	0.056*	0.009	0.054	0.012
Direct Effect				
Ing → PsyWB	0.184**	0.022	0.161	0.007
Total Effect				
Ing → PsyWB	0.241**	0.050	0.191	0.001
Indirect Effect				
Ing → lmx → No. of Promotions	0.065*	0.003	0.018	0.016
Direct Effect				
Ing → No. of Promotions	0.017	-0.016	0.023	0.809
Total Effect				
Ing → No. of Promotions	0.083	-0.006	0.032	0.253
Indirect Effect				
Ing → lmx → Salary Increase	0.052*	0.002	0.016	0.028
Direct Effect				
Ing → Salary Increase	-0.063	-0.029	0.012	0.357
Total Effect				
Ing → Salary Increase	-0.011	-0.023	0.022	0.882

Comparison of Time 1 and Time 2 reveals a noteworthy enhancement in the strength of relationships among variables at Time 2. Specifically, the impact of ingratiation on LMX and subsequently, the influence of LMX on subjective and objective career success, as well as psychological well-being, demonstrates a more pronounced association at Time 2. Furthermore, the proposed indirect mediation effects are also more robust for the relationships examined at Time 2. These findings bolster the validity of the proposed model and underscore the consistency in employees' use of ingratiation as a predictor of their subjective career success and psychological well-being through their relationship with their supervisor. This discovery yields significant insights into the mediating role played by the quality of LMX in the connection between ingratiation and career success and well-being.

9.11 Two-Wave Serial Mediation Model

Sequential mediation analysis was conducted using lavaan package in R. In this model, dark personality traits (Narcissism, Machiavellianism, Psychopathy, Sadism) data from first wave was analysed against mediators (ingratiation & LMX) and outcome variables (subjective career success, psychological wellbeing) data collected in second wave. In second wave, 217 responses were collected which were analysed against dark personality data for same respondents from first wave of study.

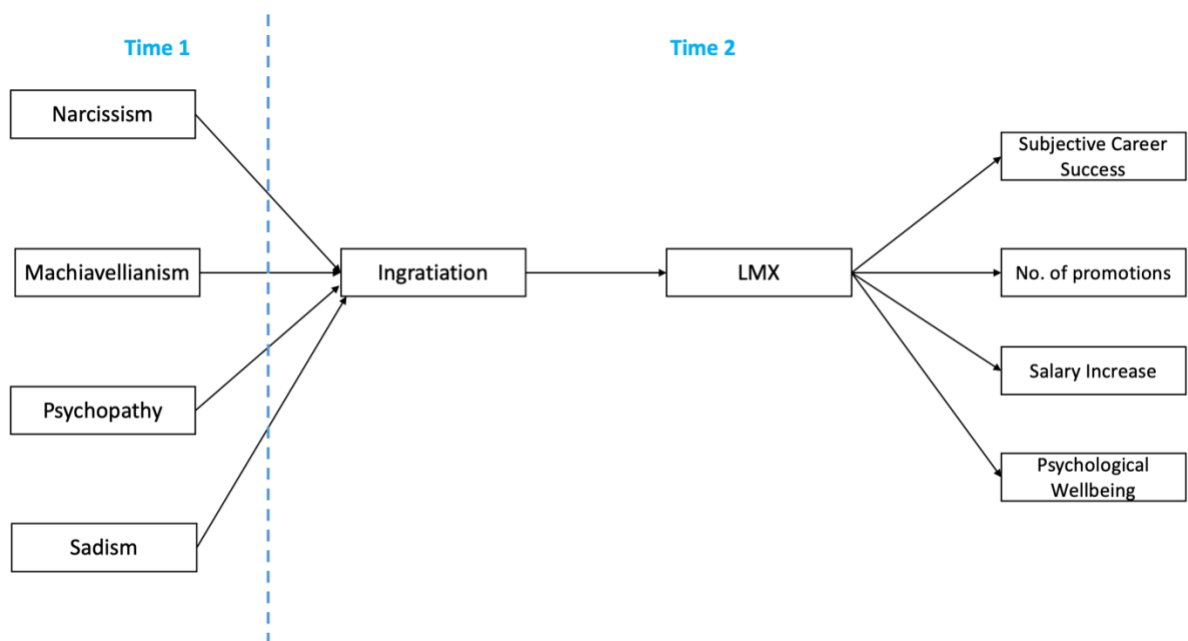


Figure 9-6 Theoretical Model for Serial Mediation

9.12 Model Testing

Confirmatory factor analysis was conducted to test for model fit.

Table 9.9 Factor Loadings for Serial Mediation Model

Variable	Items	Factor Loadings	p-value
Narcissism	Nar1	0.413	0.000
	Nar2	0.705	0.000
	Nar3	0.649	0.000
	Nar4	0.719	0.000
	Nar5R	0.522	0.000
	Nar6	0.540	0.000
	Nar8	0.650	0.000
	Nar9R	0.492	0.000
	Machiavellianism		

	Mac1R	0.326	0.000
	Mac3	0.662	0.000
	Mac4	0.427	0.000
	Mac5	0.716	0.000
	Mac6	0.732	0.000
	Mac7	0.517	0.000
	Mac8	0.736	0.000
	Mac9	0.431	0.000
Psychopathy			
	Psyc1	0.410	0.000
	Psyc2	0.605	0.000
	Psyc3	0.544	0.000
	Psyc5	0.409	0.000
	Psyc6	0.600	0.000
	Psyc7	0.601	0.000
	Psyc8	0.345	0.000
Sadism			
	Sad1	0.487	0.000
	Sad2	0.763	0.000
	Sad3	0.651	0.000
	Sad4	0.353	0.000
	Sad5	0.618	0.000
	Sad6	0.459	0.000
	Sad7	0.645	0.000
	Sad8	0.656	0.000
	Sad9	0.669	0.000

Variable	Items	Factor Loadings	p-value
Ingratiation	Ing1	0.562	0.000
	Ing2	0.635	0.000
	Ing3	0.775	0.000
	Ing4	0.709	0.000
	Ing5	0.804	0.000
	Ing6	0.608	0.000
	Ing7	0.623	0.000
	Ing8	0.557	0.000
	Ing9	0.630	0.000
	Ing10	0.694	0.000
	Ing11	0.649	0.000
LMX			
	LMX1	0.668	0.000
	LMX2	0.788	0.000
	LMX3	0.693	0.000
	LMX4	0.724	0.000
	LMX5	0.699	0.000
	LMX6	0.589	0.000
	LMX7	0.676	0.000
Subjective Career Success			
	SC1	0.732	0.000
	SC2	0.786	0.000
	SC3	0.732	0.000
	SC4	0.771	0.000
	SC5	0.563	0.000
Psychological Wellbeing			
	PsyW1	0.649	0.000
	PsyW2	0.636	0.000
	PsyW3	0.765	0.000
	PsyW4	0.599	0.000
	PsyW5	0.707	0.000
	PsyW6	0.705	0.000

	PsyW7	0.610	0.000
	PsyW8	0.549	0.000

Three items were removed for factor loadings below 0.3. These items were Mac2 – *I avoid direct conflict with others because they may be useful in the future* (0.232), Psyc4 – *I tend to fight against authorities and their rules* (0.194) and Nar7R – *I feel embarrassed if someone complements me* (0.252).

After removing these factors, variable reliabilities were as follows:

Using WLSM estimator, before three items removed

Chi-square	P-value	CFI	TLI	RMSEA/p-value	90% CI Lower	90% CI Upper	SRMR
3672.281 Df 2051	0.000	0.938	0.935	0.048/0.000	0.046	0.051	0.074

Using WLSM estimator, after three items removed

Chi-square	P-value	CFI	TLI	RMSEA/p-value	90% CI Lower	90% CI Upper	SRMR
3363.760 Df 1862	0.000	0.943	0.940	0.048/0.009	0.041	0.045	0.073

Fit statistics reveal that measurement model fits the data well for this research (Chi-square (1862) = 3363.760; $p > 0.05$, CFI (The Comparative Fit Index) = 0.943, TLI (the Tucker Lewis Index) = 0.940, RMSEA (The Root Mean Square Error of Approximation) = 0.048, SRMR (Standardized Root Mean Square Residual) = 0.073).

9.13 Common Method Variance

To check for common method variance, a one factor confirmatory factor analysis was conducted based on Harman's single factor analysis (Podsakoff et al., 2012; Shin et al., 2016). This model implies that covariance among all items in the model is explained by a single common factor. Fit analysis showed poor results (Chi-square (1890) = 7822.817; $p > 0.05$, CFI (The Comparative Fit Index) = 0.757, TLI (the Tucker Lewis Index) = 0.749, RMSEA (The Root Mean Square Error of Approximation) = 0.098, SRMR (Standardized Root Mean Square Residual) = 0.120). To compare both models, Chi-square difference test was conducted using lavaan function in R. Results revealed multi-factor model (Model 1) fitted data better than single factor model as it had more free

estimated parameters and less degrees of freedom. Moreover, AIC/BIC values for multi-factor model are also closer to 0 compared to single factor model.

Table 9.10 Chi-square Difference Test for Serial Mediation Model

Chi-Square Difference Test							
	Df	AIC	BIC	Chisq	Chisq diff	Df diff	Pr(>Chisq)
Model 1	1862	35243	35763	3469.1			
Model 2	1890	37554	37980	5836.8	1362.7	28	<2.2e-16***

Signif.	Codes:	0 '***'	0.001 '**'	0.01 '*'	0.05 '.'	0.1 ' '	1

9.14 Mediation Analysis

All path coefficients were estimated using structural equation modelling in R. The analysis provided support for H1a predicting a positive relationship between Narcissism and Ingratiation ($\beta = 0.199$, $\rho < 0.01$). H1b predicting a positive relation between Machiavellianism and Ingratiation was supported ($\beta = 0.340$, $\rho < 0.01$). A positive and significant relationship was found between Psychopathy and Ingratiation ($\beta = 0.174$, $\rho < 0.05$), thus supporting hypothesis 1c. A negative but insignificant relationship was found between Sadism and Ingratiation ($\beta = -0.090$, $\rho = 0.343$), thus hypothesis 1d was not supported.

Hypothesis 2 predicting a positive association between ingratiation and leader-member exchange was supported ($\beta = 0.251$, $\rho < 0.01$). Hypothesis 3 predicting a positive association between leader-member exchange and subjective career success was supported ($\beta = 0.404$, $\rho < 0.01$). Hypothesis 4a predicting a positive association between leader-member exchange and number of promotions was supported ($\beta = 0.262$, $\rho < 0.01$). Hypothesis 4b predicting a positive association between leader-member exchange and salary increase was supported ($\beta = 0.174$, $\rho < 0.01$). Hypothesis 5 predicting a positive association between leader-member exchange and psychological wellbeing was supported ($\beta = 0.209$, $\rho < 0.05$).

These results show increased robustness in the established connections between individuals exhibiting pronounced dark personality traits and their utilisation of ingratiatory tactics as a means to influence their rapport with their supervisors, particularly as time progresses. These empirical outcomes align with the formulated hypotheses, which infer that

individuals characterised by elevated levels of dark traits tend to persist in employing ingratiation tactics when they perceive them as instrumental in advancing their career aspirations. Furthermore, it is noteworthy that such individuals concurrently report an elevated sense of contentment in their overall life circumstances.

The findings underscore the proposition that individuals with dark traits strategically deploy ingratiation behaviours in their interactions with supervisors, recognising the instrumental value of these tactics in the pursuit of their career objectives. Moreover, the positive relationship between this strategic behaviour and heightened life satisfaction underscores the multifaceted nature of these interpersonal dynamics, shedding light on the intricate interplay between dark traits, interpersonal tactics, career advancement, and overall life contentment.

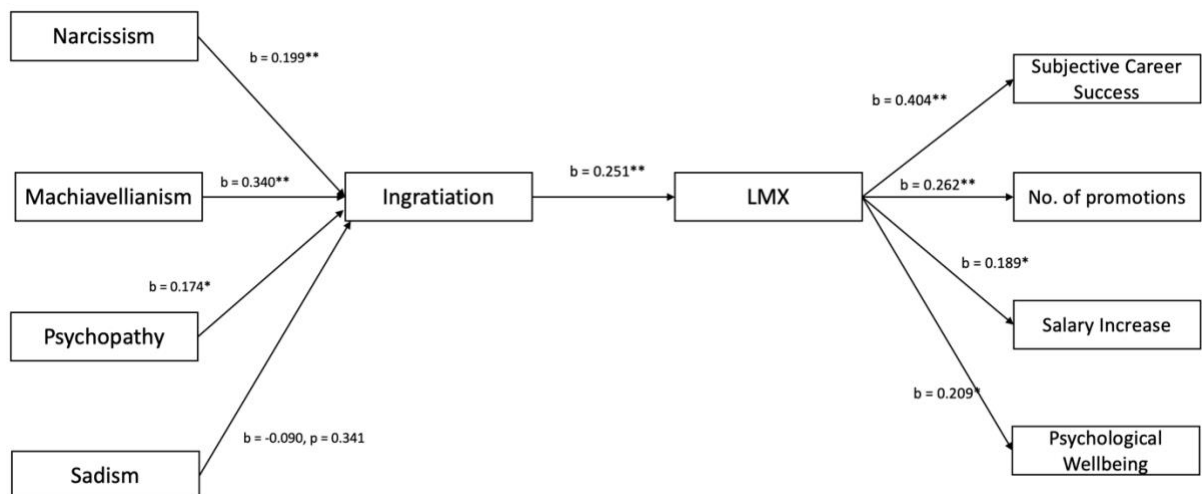


Figure 9-7 Serial Mediation Model with Regression Values

Table 9.11 Correlation Matrix for Serial Mediation Model

	Mean	Std. Deviation	Narcissism	Machiavellianism	Psychopathy	Sadism	Ingratiation	LMX	Subjective Career Success	Psychological Wellbeing	No. of Promotions	Salary Increase
Narcissism (T1)	26.05	5.614	...									
Machiavellianism (T1)	21.04	5.792	.343**	...								
Psychopathy (T1)	17.34	4.321	.380**	.494**	...							
Sadism (T1)	18.19	5.643	.218**	.531**	.653**	...						
Ingratiation (T2)	35.88	8.995	.362**	.447**	.359**	.248**	...					
LMX (T2)	24.93	5.284	.424**	.203**	.019	.034	.338**	...				
Subjective Career Success (T2)	15.73	3.757	.431**	.323*	.151*	.160*	.364**	.507**	...			
Psychological Wellbeing (T2)	28.45	5.191	.314**	.173*	.131	.091	.282**	.330**	.487**	...		
No. of Promotions (T2)	4.59	1.6	.276**	.11	.074	.008	.157*	.226**	.308**	.07	...	
Salary Increase (T2)	5.42	2.15	.184**	.084	.054	.074	.054	.219**	.170*	.025	.276**	...

N = 217

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed)

Sequential mediation analysis was conducted to analyse serial multiple mediation model proposed in this study. This approach is particularly useful to assess complicated models including various predictor and outcome variables through multiple mediators using bootstrap (Cheung & Lau, 2008). Bootstrapping technique (5000 boot samples) was used to test indirect effects between predictor and outcome variables via serial mediators proposed in the model, given its greater statistical power to estimate population parameters (Mackinnon et al., 2004; Mallinckrodt et al., 2006).

9.14.1 Subjective Career Success as Outcome Variable

Hypothesis 6a predicted that ingratiation and LMX would sequentially mediate the relationship between Narcissism and Subjective Career Success. The results supported the hypothesis ($\beta = 0.020$, $\rho < 0.05$) (see Table below).



	Indirect Effects			
	Estimate	CI low	CI high	P-value
Total Indirect Effect	0.200**	0.078	0.206	0.000
Indirect Effect				
Nar → Ing → SubjCS	0.015	-0.007	0.035	0.357
Nar → lmx → SubjCS	0.165**	0.061	0.172	0.000
Nar → Ing → lmx → SubjCS	0.020*	0.003	0.030	0.044
Direct Effect				
Nar → SubjCS	0.130	-0.011	0.179	0.077
Total Effect				
Nar → SubjCS	0.330**	0.125	0.314	0.000

Hypothesis 6b predicted that ingratiation and LMX would sequentially mediate the relationship between Machiavellianism and Subjective Career Success. The results supported the hypothesis ($\beta = 0.035$, $\rho < 0.01$) (see Table below).



From → To	Indirect effects			
	Estimate	CI low	CI high	P - value
Total Indirect Effect	0.090*	0.008	0.107	0.019
Indirect Effect				
Mac → Ing → SubjCS	0.026	-0.012	0.046	0.274
Mac → lmx → SubjCS	0.030	-0.024	0.060	0.354
Mac → Ing → lmx → SubjCS	0.035**	0.008	0.040	0.008
Direct Effect				

Mac → SubjCS	0.105	-0.023	0.164	0.151
Total Effect				
Mac → SubjCS	0.195*	0.031	0.221	0.011

Hypothesis 6c predicted that ingratiation and LMX would sequentially mediate the relationship between Psychopathy and Subjective Career Success. The results did not support the hypothesis ($\beta = 0.018$, $\rho=0.088$) (see Table below). However, a direct positive relationship was found between psychopathy and subjective career success ($\beta = 0.241$, $\rho<0.05$).



From → To	Indirect effects			P - value
	Estimate	CI low	CI high	
Total Indirect Effect	-0.082	-0.163	0.000	0.081
Indirect Effect				
Psyc → Ing → SubjCS	0.013	-0.008	0.040	0.354
Psyc → lmx → SubjCS	-0.113**	-0.187	-0.034	0.011
Psyc → Ing → lmx → SubjCS	0.018	0.000	0.036	0.088
Direct Effect				
Psyc → SubjCS	0.241**	0.078	0.332	0.002
Total Effect				
Psyc → SubjCS	0.159	-0.010	0.275	0.052

Hypothesis 6d predicted that ingratiation and LMX would sequentially mediate the relationship between Sadism and Subjective Career Success. The results did not support the hypothesis ($\beta = -0.009$, $\rho=0.363$) (see Table below).



From → To	Indirect effects			P - value
	Estimate	CI low	CI high	
Total Indirect Effect	-0.006	-0.052	0.049	0.884
Indirect Effect				
Sad → Ing → SubjCS	-0.007	-0.022	0.008	0.518
Sad → lmx → SubjCS	0.010	-0.041	0.058	0.779
Sad → Ing → lmx → SubjCS	-0.009	-0.020	0.007	0.363
Direct Effect				
Sad → SubjCS	-0.114	-0.176	0.025	0.159

Total Effect				
Sad → SubjCS	0.119	-0.195	0.037	0.179

9.14.2 Objective Career Success as Outcome Variable

1. Total Number of Promotions – OC(a)

Hypothesis 7a predicted that ingratiation and LMX would sequentially mediate the relationship between Narcissism and Total number of promotions. The results did not support the hypothesis ($\beta = 0.006$, $\rho=0.254$) (see Table below). However, a direct positive link was found between Narcissism and total number of promotions during overall career ($\beta = 0.214$, $\rho<0.01$), showing narcissists reported receiving higher number of promotions in their career.



From → To	Path Coefficients				Indirect effects
	OC3	Estimate	CI low	CI high	P -value
Nar	0.214*				0.009
Mac	0.028				0.695
Psyc	0.012				0.907
Sad	-0.076				0.434
Ing	0.042				0.615
lmx	0.262**				0.001
Total Indirect Effect		0.062	-0.002	0.039	0.084
Indirect Effect					
Nar → Ing → OC3		0.008	-0.008	0.013	0.635
Nar → lmx → OC3		0.048	-0.003	0.034	0.135
Nar → Ing → lmx → OC3		0.006	0.000	0.005	0.254
Direct Effect					
Nar → OC3		0.214**	0.013	0.107	0.009
Total Effect					
Nar → OC3		0.276**	0.036	0.120	0.000

Hypothesis 7b predicted that ingratiation and LMX would sequentially mediate the relationship between Machiavellianism and Total number of promotions. The results support the hypothesis ($\beta = 0.024$, $\rho<0.05$) (see Table below).



	Indirect effects			P - value
	Estimate	CI low	CI high	
From → To				
Total Indirect Effect	0.033	-0.008	0.029	0.294
Indirect Effect				
Mac → Ing → OC3	0.014	-0.011	0.021	0.626
Mac → lmx → OC3	0.009	-0.003	0.010	0.455
Mac → Ing → lmx → OC3	0.024*	0.020	0.029	0.042
Direct Effect				
Mac → OC3	0.028	-0.029	0.049	0.695
Total Effect				
Mac → OC3	0.062	-0.020	0.055	0.379

Hypothesis 7c predicted that ingratiation and LMX would sequentially mediate the relationship between Psychopathy and Total number of promotions. The results did not support the hypothesis ($\beta = 0.005$, $\rho=0.361$) (see Table below). However, an indirect relation through LMX was found to be negative and significant showing Psychopaths reported poor LMX quality and fewer promotions in their careers.



	Indirect effects			P - value
	Estimate	CI low	CI high	
From → To				
Total Indirect Effect	0.016	-0.005	0.009	0.617
Indirect Effect				
Psyc → Ing → OC3	0.007	-0.008	0.017	0.656
Psyc → lmx → OC3	-0.072*	-0.033	0.003	0.026
Psyc → Ing → lmx → OC3	0.005	0.000	0.008	0.361
Direct Effect				
Psyc → OC3	0.012	-0.071	0.080	0.907
Total Effect				
Psyc → OC3	-0.009	-0.079	0.070	0.931

Hypothesis 7d predicted that ingratiation and LMX would sequentially mediate the relationship between Sadism and Total number of promotions. The results did not support the hypothesis ($\beta = -0.003$, $\rho=0.581$) (see Table below).



From → To	Indirect effects			P - value
	Estimate	CI low	CI high	
Total Indirect Effect	0.007	-0.003	0.004	0.718
Indirect Effect				
Sad → Ing → OC3	-0.004	-0.009	0.005	0.735
Sad → lmx → OC3	0.003	-0.006	0.009	0.813
Sad → Ing → lmx → OC3	-0.003	-0.004	0.001	0.581
Direct Effect				
Sad → OC3	-0.076	-0.077	0.038	0.434
Total Effect				
Sad → OC3	-0.080	-0.081	0.034	0.412

2. Salary Increase – OC(b)

Hypothesis 7e predicted that ingratiation and LMX would sequentially mediate the relationship between Narcissism and salary increase. The results did not support the hypothesis ($\beta = 0.009$, $\rho=0.137$) (see Table below). However, an indirect relation through LMX was found to be positive and significant.



From → To	Path Coefficients		Indirect effects		
	OC5	Estimate	CI low	CI high	P -value
Nar	0.117				0.169
Mac	0.177*				0.022
Psyc	-0.019				0.862
Sad	0.066				0.498

Ing	-0.066				0.412
lmx	0.189*				0.018
Total Indirect Effect		0.073	-0.014	0.000	0.070
Indirect Effect					
Nar → Ing → OC4		-0.013	-0.005	0.001	0.447
Nar → lmx → OC4		0.077*	-0.011	0.001	0.028
Nar → Ing → lmx → OC4		0.009	-0.002	0.000	0.137
Direct Effect					
Nar → OC4		0.117	-0.010	0.019	0.169
Total Effect					
Nar → OC4		0.190	-0.014	0.011	0.013

Hypothesis 7f predicted that ingratiation and LMX would sequentially mediate the relationship between Machiavellianism and salary increase. The results did not support the hypothesis ($\beta = 0.016$, $\rho=0.084$) (see Table below). However, a direct significant relation was found between Machiavellianism and salary increase ($\beta = 0.177$, $\rho<0.05$)

Machiavellianism → Ingratiation → LMX → Salary Increase

From → To	Indirect effects			P - value
	Estimate	CI low	CI high	
Total Indirect Effect	0.008	-0.009	0.001	0.816
Indirect Effect				
Mac → Ing → OC4	-0.022	-0.007	0.003	0.425
Mac → lmx → OC4	0.014	-0.003	0.001	0.397
Mac → Ing → lmx → OC4	0.016	-0.003	0.000	0.084
Direct Effect				
Mac → OC4	0.184*	0.109	0.200	0.038
Total Effect				
Mac → OC4	0.017	-0.021	0.006	0.837

Hypothesis 7g predicted that ingratiation and LMX would sequentially mediate the relationship between Psychopathy and salary increase. The results did not support the hypothesis ($\beta = 0.008$, $\rho=0.216$) (see Table below).



From → To	Indirect effects			P - value
	Estimate	CI low	CI high	
Total Indirect Effect	-0.056	-0.033	0.014	0.111
Indirect Effect				
Psyc → Ing → OC4	-0.011	- 0.006	0.002	0.500
Psyc → lmx → OC4	-0.053	-0.001	0.011	0.100
Psyc → Ing → lmx → OC4	0.008	- 0.002	0.000	0.216
Direct Effect				
Psyc → OC4	-0.019	-0.040	-0.012	0.863
Total Effect				
Psyc → OC4	0.074	-0.038	0.003	0.467

Hypothesis 7h predicted that ingratiation and LMX would sequentially mediate the relationship between Sadism and salary increase. The results did not support the hypothesis ($\beta = -0.004$, $\rho=0.456$) (see Table below).



	Indirect effects			P - value
	Estimate	CI low	CI high	
From → To				
Total Indirect Effect	0.006	-0.012	0.010	0.767
Indirect Effect				
Sad → Ing → OC4	0.006	-0.001	0.003	0.629
Sad → lmx → OC4	0.005	-0.003	0.002	0.800
Sad → Ing → lmx → OC4	-0.004	0.000	0.001	0.456
Direct Effect				
Sad → OC4	0.066	-0.005	0.031	0.498
Total Effect				
Sad → OC4	0.072	-0.005	0.031	0.458

9.14.3 Psychological Wellbeing as Outcome Variable

Hypothesis 8a predicted that ingratiation and LMX would sequentially mediate the relationship between Narcissism and Psychological well-being. The results did not support the hypothesis ($\beta = 0.010$, $p=.103$) (see Table below). However, a direct positive link was found between Narcissism and Psychological well-being ($\beta = 0.168$, $p<0.05$).



	Indirect effects			P - value
	Estimate	CI low	CI high	
From → To				
Total Indirect Effect	0.125**	0.048	0.211	0.005
Indirect Effect				
Nar → Ing → PsyWB	0.029	-0.003	0.066	0.142
Nar → lmx → PsyWB	0.085*	0.018	0.161	0.030
Nar → Ing → lmx → PsyWB	0.010	0.001	0.024	0.103
Direct Effect				
Nar → PsyWB	0.168*	-0.004	0.304	0.045
Total Effect				
Nar → PsyWB	0.293**	0.143	0.396	0.000

Hypothesis 8b predicted that ingratiation and LMX would sequentially mediate the relationship between Machiavellianism and Psychological well-being. The results support the hypothesis ($\beta = 0.019$, $p<0.05$) (see Table below).



From → To	Indirect effects			P - value
	Estimate	CI low	CI high	
Total Indirect Effect	0.083*	0.013	0.132	0.012
Indirect Effect				
Mac → Ing → PsyWB	0.050	-0.005	0.098	0.078
Mac → lmx → PsyWB	0.016	-0.020	0.051	0.404
Mac → Ing → lmx → PsyWB	0.019*	0.013	0.060	0.040
Direct Effect				
Mac → PsyWB	0.001	-0.137	0.154	0.990
Total Effect				
Mac → PsyWB	0.084	-0.067	0.220	0.296

Hypothesis 8c predicted that ingratiation and LMX would sequentially mediate the relationship between Psychopathy and Psychological Wellbeing. The results did not support the hypothesis ($\beta = 0.009$, $\rho=0.155$) (see Table below).



From → To	Indirect effects			P-value
	Estimate	CI low	CI high	
Total Indirect Effect	-0.024	-0.145	0.055	0.559
Indirect Effect				
Psyc → Ing → PsyWB	0.026	-0.007	0.086	0.184
Psyc → lmx → PsyWB	-0.058	-0.165	-0.009	0.076
Psyc → Ing → lmx → PsyWB	0.009	0.000	0.029	0.155
Direct Effect				
Psyc → PsyWB	0.005	-0.213	0.216	0.954
Total Effect				
Psyc → PsyWB	-0.019	-0.248	0.275	0.834

Hypothesis 8d predicted that ingratiation and LMX would sequentially mediate the relationship between Sadism and Psychological Wellbeing. The results did not support the hypothesis ($\beta = -0.005$, $\rho=0.409$) (see Table below).



From → To	Indirect effects			P-value
	Estimate	CI low	CI high	
Total Indirect Effect	-0.013	-0.057	0.045	0.654
Indirect Effect				
Sad → Ing → PsyWB	-0.013	-0.050	0.015	0.431
Sad → lmx → PsyWB	0.005	-0.032	0.052	0.801
Sad → Ing → lmx → PsyWB	-0.005	-0.016	0.005	0.409
Direct Effect				
Sad → PsyWB	0.007	-0.176	0.186	0.946
Total Effect				
Sad → PsyWB	-0.006	-0.178	0.178	0.953

9.15 Conclusion

This chapter provided a detailed overview of data analysis conducted to test the hypothesized research model. Chapter started with providing evidence for data reliability and validity, followed by descriptive statistics and correlation analysis. Hypotheses were tested using path analysis technique. Structural equation modelling technique was used to conduct path analysis. R software was used to conduct analysis. To confirm stability of relationships, cross lagged panel design was used to conduct mediation analysis in phase two. Below is a summary of results:

Table 9.12 Summary of Hypothesized Relationships

			Phase 1	Phase 2
H1	a	There is a positive relationship between Narcissism and Ingratiation behaviour	Supported	Supported
	b	There is a positive relationship between Machiavellianism and Ingratiation behaviour	Supported	Supported
	c	There is a positive relationship between Psychopathy and Ingratiation behaviour	Not Supported	Supported
	d	There is a positive relationship between Everyday Sadism and Ingratiation behaviour	Not Supported	Not Supported
H2		Employee Ingratiation behaviour positively influences the perceived quality of leader-member exchange (LMX).	Supported	Supported
H3		High quality leader-member exchange positively influences employee subjective career success.	Supported	Supported
H4	a	High quality leader-member exchange positively influences employee objective career success in terms of total number of promotions.	Supported	Supported
	b	High quality leader-member exchange positively influences employee objective career success in terms of salary increase.	Supported	Supported
H5		High quality leader-member exchange positively influences employee psychological well-being.	Supported	Supported

H6	a	Narcissism has an indirect effect on subjective career success through ingratiation and LMX.	Supported	Supported
	b	Machiavellianism has an indirect effect on subjective career success through ingratiation and LMX.	Supported	Supported
	c	Psychopathy has an indirect effect on subjective career success through ingratiation and LMX.	Not Supported	Not Supported
	d	Sadism has an indirect effect on subjective career success through ingratiation and LMX.	Not Supported	Not Supported
H7	a	Narcissism has an indirect effect on promotions through ingratiation and LMX.	Not Supported	Not Supported
	b	Machiavellianism has an indirect effect on promotions through ingratiation and LMX.	Not Supported	Not Supported
	c	Psychopathy has an indirect effect on promotions through ingratiation and LMX.	Not Supported	Not Supported
	d	Sadism has an indirect effect on promotions through ingratiation and LMX.	Not Supported	Not Supported
	e	Narcissism has an indirect effect on salary increase through ingratiation and LMX.	Not Supported	Not Supported
	f	Machiavellianism has an indirect effect on salary increase through ingratiation and LMX.	Supported	Supported
	g	Psychopathy has an indirect effect on salary increase through ingratiation and LMX.	Not Supported	Not Supported
	h	Sadism has an indirect effect on salary increase through ingratiation and LMX.	Not Supported	Not Supported
H8	a	Narcissism has an indirect effect on psychological wellbeing through ingratiation and LMX.	Supported	Not Supported
	b	Machiavellianism has an indirect effect on psychological wellbeing through ingratiation and LMX.	Supported	Supported
	c	Psychopathy has an indirect effect on psychological wellbeing through ingratiation and LMX.	Not Supported	Not Supported
	d	Sadism has an indirect effect on psychological wellbeing through ingratiation and LMX.	Not Supported	Not Supported

10 Chapter 10 Discussion and Conclusion

The overall objective of this study was to investigate and understand the consequential effects of dark personality traits in the organisational context. Dark personality traits are associated with the display of a variety of unethical and counterproductive work behaviours, yet individuals high in these traits are not only recruited but often manage to reach the top positions within organisations. Knowledge concerning how this comes about remains limited. While some attention has been paid to the use of influence behaviours by individuals high in dark traits within organisations, whether these tactics deliver in terms of career success is unknown. The present study is a comprehensive investigation of the use of ingratiation tactics by dark individuals as a mechanism to achieve career success. Specifically, the study examines how dark individuals use ingratiation tactics to strengthen their relationship with their supervisor such that career goals are achieved.

According to the conservation of resources theory (Hobfoll, 1989), individuals may engage in ingratiation behaviour to gain access to resources that are important to them, such as social support, information, or opportunities. As supervisors within organisations hold the key to critical resources and are responsible for important employee decisions, including performance evaluations and promotions, a good relationship with supervisors can help such individuals receive positive ratings enhancing their chances of promotability. The final issue addressed by the current study concerns the effects of the use of supervisor-focused ingratiation tactics on the well-being of individuals high in dark traits. As ingratiation involves long-term strategy implementation and planning, the conservation of resources theory suggests that continuous investment and activities designed to gain supervisor approval can deplete individual resources resulting in exhaustion and burnout. As individuals high in dark traits have a disposition for manipulating and exploiting others, it is important to uncover the association between such activities and the well-being of their protagonists.

In the first instance, the study examined the association between four personality traits (Narcissism, Machiavellianism, Psychopathy and Everyday Sadism) and supervisor-focused ingratiation behaviours. The research then explored whether these ingratiation

behaviours helped employees build high-quality relationships with their supervisors. Finally, the study examined the association between these relationships and both tangible (career success) and intangible (well-being) outcomes.

A two-wave study was conducted where data was collected from 379 working professionals in Time 1. In Time 2, 217 people from the same group completed and returned the survey. Most of the studies on dark personality as well as ingratiation behaviour are cross-sectional in nature. Collecting data at two points helps validate the relationships proposed in the research and identifies possible causal relationships among variables of interest (Eveland Jr et al., 2003; Matthes, 2008). Hypotheses developed in the study were tested using sequential mediation analysis. The lavaan package in R was used to run the tests for mediation analysis.

The analysis revealed that while all four dark traits were positively correlated with the use of ingratiation tactics, only Narcissism and Machiavellianism were able to predict ingratiation behaviour at both times. Psychopathy predicted positive change in ingratiation behaviour only at T2, which coheres with psychopaths' unpredictable and erratic behaviour and their inability to stick with long-term goals. The results also confirmed the positive effect of ingratiation behaviours on leader-member exchange (LMX) quality and that LMX quality was positively related to both subjective and objective career success as well as subjective well-being.

The sequential mediation analysis revealed that employee traits of Narcissism and Machiavellianism had an indirect positive effect on subjective career success via ingratiation and LMX. No indirect effects were found for Psychopathy and Sadism. Machiavellianism was the only trait indirectly associated with objective career success ((a) salary increase) via ingratiation and LMX. No indirect effect was supported for Narcissism, Psychopathy, Sadism, and objective career success. However, a direct relationship between Narcissism and objective career success was found at T1. Similarly, an indirect effect of personality on the objective career success ((b) the number of promotions) via ingratiation and LMX was only found to be significant for Machiavellianism, which had a positive indirect effect on the number of promotions via ingratiation and LMX. A direct positive relationship was found between Narcissism and the number of promotions received throughout their career showing narcissists received a greater number of promotions in their

career, while a direct negative relationship was found between Psychopathy and the number of promotions received throughout their career, showing Psychopaths received fewer promotions in their careers.

In terms of subjective well-being, Machiavellianism was the only trait which was indirectly positively associated with subjective well-being at both T1 and T2. Narcissism was indirectly linked to subjective career success at T1, but the relationship was insignificant at T2. However, Narcissism had a direct positive effect on subjective well-being at both times. Psychopathy had a direct negative effect on subjective well-being, while Sadism had no direct or indirect link with subjective well-being. This chapter discusses the research findings in light of the prevailing literature. Theoretical and practical contributions of the study are identified, along with limitations and shortcomings. The chapter concludes with recommendations for future research.

10.1 Dark personality traits and Ingratiation Behaviour

10.1.1 Hypothesis 1(a): Narcissism and Ingratiation behaviour

The findings support the hypothesis that narcissism is positively related to engaging in ingratiating behaviours towards a supervisor. This is in line with recent studies which have started exploring the relationship between dark traits and the use of self-presentation tactics to influence others (Hart et al., 2019; Jonason et al., 2012). This positive association can be explained by the nature of narcissism, characterised by a strong need for power and willingness to exploit others for personal gains (Muris et al., 2017; Raskin & Terry, 1988; Rauthmann, 2012). Narcissists' need for admiration and acceptance from others drives them to exhibit self-enhancement behaviours (Paulhus & Williams, 2002; Raskin et al., 1991). They tend to exaggerate their abilities, talents, and accomplishments (Paulhus, 1998) to assert their desired image.

Narcissists have a strong need for power (Carroll, 1987), and they fantasise about gaining social status and control (Raskin & Novacek, 1991). They like associating with powerful people, which can help them gain status by association (Brunell et al., 2011; Campbell, 1999). They are likely to use self-presentation tactics to portray the desired image,

motivated by the willingness to achieve important personal goals (Hart et al., 2017). They are accustomed to social hierarchies and are more likely to use tactics like ingratiation towards people high in social status while demeaning others they consider lower in status than them (Baumeister & Vohs, 2001). Recent research suggests ingratiation tactics are a part of narcissistic identity presentation as they think these tactics are normative and helpful in their quest for admiration and power (Hart et al., 2022).

The positive relationship between narcissism and ingratiation behaviour was confirmed at both T1 and T2, with relationship being stronger at T2. As studies exploring the association between dark traits and the use of influence tactics have been cross-sectional in nature and correlational in design to date, this study affords greater confidence in positing a robust connection between narcissism and ingratiation behaviour. Moreover, existing studies do not focus on the target of influence tactics. The present study is among the first to investigate dark employees' use of ingratiation tactics directed at their supervisor within the workplace. While existing research on narcissism suggests that individuals high in this trait are arrogant and entitled and promote themselves by exaggerating their accomplishments and abilities (Hart et al., 2017), some studies indicate that narcissists might also use ingratiation tactics to gain others' approval, trust and admiration (Sedikides et al., 2015). The present study confirms the latter strategies of narcissists who use ingratiation tactics towards supervisors as a means of assisting them in gaining advantages.

10.1.2 Hypothesis 1(b): Machiavellianism and Ingratiation behaviour

The hypothesis that there would be a positive relationship between Machiavellianism and ingratiation behaviour was supported by the data at both T1 and T2, with relationship being stronger at T2. This is also in keeping with the prevailing literature (Appelbaum & Hughes, 1998b; Jonason & Webster, 2012; Pandey, 1981; Pandey & Rastogi, 1979; Reimers & Barbuto, 2002). In an experimental study, (Pandey & Rastogi, 1979) found that individuals high in Machiavellianism (Machs) put more effort into praising others than those low in Machiavellianism and were more likely to agree with the opinions of the target person and find opportunities to flatter them. When asked to choose only one influence tactic for their adaptive interpersonal style, individuals high in Machiavellianism chose tactics of ingratiation (charm and flattery) (Jonason & Webster, 2012).

As Machiavellianism is characterised by a duplicitous interpersonal style, an ability to manipulate others, utter disregard for others' rights or emotions, and a cynical view of the world (Muris et al., 2017), it stands to reason that these behaviours are associated with ingratiation. Machiavellians engage with others only for their own selfish gains. They engage in frequent deception such that when connecting with people, they hide their true motives, exploit them, and then move on to find the next person or group to exploit (Wilson et al., 1996).

Machiavellians' motivation to manipulate others for self-interest drives them to engage in influencing tactics to persuade others (Dahling et al., 2009; Dingler-Duhon & Brown, 1987). Depending upon their situation, Machiavellians will choose the tactic which can help them gain compliance from their target (Grams & Rogers, 1990), with ingratiation being the influence tactic of choice (Appelbaum & Hughes, 1998b). Machiavellians use ingratiation tactics to control and manipulate others (Pandey & Rastogi, 1979), and they likely favour this tactic because it helps them achieve their goals using the least obtrusive means (Kipnis & Schmidt, 1988; Reimers & Barbuto, 2002).

Machiavellians are good observers of others' emotions, needs and vulnerabilities and may use this information to control their social interactions with others (McIlwain, 2003). They can dissociate the "self" from the "role" they are playing, which helps them maintain an unempathetic attitude towards those they are exploiting and keeps them from experiencing any guilt or remorse over their actions (McIlwain, 2003).

10.1.3 Hypothesis 1(c): Psychopathy and Ingratiation Behaviour

A positive association was found between Psychopathy and Ingratiation behaviour, thus supporting this hypothesis. Recent empirical studies of the use of self-presentation tactics by individuals high in dark traits found that psychopaths are likely to use ingratiation tactics to appear likeable and competent (Hart et al., 2022; Hart et al., 2019). Interpersonal Manipulation is a significant facet of the Psychopathy (Wehner et al., 2021), and individuals high in Psychopathy present a desirable identity by controlling and

manipulating their behaviours in ways more appealing to their target (Hart et al., 2022; Schlenker, 2012).

Psychopaths often succeed in climbing the ladder of corporate success because of their charm, bold and confident communication style, excellent networking skills and ruthless opportunism (Boddy, 2006). Referred to as corporate or successful psychopaths (Boddy, 2014; Cleckley, 1988), their skilful manipulation and ability to fake emotions, along with an often charming interpersonal style, make them less discernable to others and help them gain other people's confidence (Cohen, 2018; Mahaffey & Marcus, 2006).

Subclinical Psychopaths have a strong need for power, money, status, and prestige, which draws them toward business organisations (Boddy, 2005; Hare, 2003). They often succeed in reaching top positions within organisations because of their boldness, risk-taking attitude, and charming façade, which helps them get what they want. Psychopaths are skilled at recognising others' needs and wants and can use this information to manipulate others (Boddy, 2005; Hare, 2003). Using lies and deceit, they successfully convince others of the qualities that are the hallmark of great leadership (Boddy, 2005; Hare, 2003). Psychopaths are also good at portraying a positive image of themselves to appear more likeable to others and frequently use self-presentation tactics to influence others' views of them (Paulhus & Williams, 2002).

In the present study, while Psychopathy was positively correlated to the use of ingratiation tactics at both T1 and T2, regression analysis supported the use of ingratiation tactics by psychopaths only at T2. This can be explained by Psychopaths' chronically unstable and erratic lifestyle (Vassileva et al., 2005), which makes them inconsistent in their actions and behaviours. They are unstable liars (Herpertz & Sass, 2000) who seek immediate gratification of needs and engage in future discounting (Lyons, 2015). They lack realistic long-term goals and can easily be distracted by new opportunities or experiences rather than committing to a specific plan or objective (Boddy, 2015). This can also be supported by other evidence from the present study of psychopaths' changing their jobs frequently.

10.1.4 Hypothesis 1(d): Sadism and Ingratiation behaviour

A positive correlation was found between Everyday Sadism and ingratiation tactics; however, the effects were insignificant. Research on Everyday Sadism in the organisational context is relatively new, and little is known about its influence on work outcomes (Fernández-del-río et al., 2020a). One study (Zeigler-hill & Besser, 2021) found that sadism was negatively related to task and contextual performance, which require diligent, responsible and prosocial behaviours, and positively related to counterproductive work behaviours, including bullying, theft and absenteeism. Sadists are involved in workplace mistreatment where they bully, harass, disrespect and intimidate their coworkers either directly or using digital media channels. Their motivation to cause others pain drives them to engage in uncivil behaviours at work (Min et al., 2019).

Individuals high in everyday sadism are characterised as competitive, ambitious, goal-oriented, hard-working, and driven by a desire to prove their significance and dominate others in the workplace (O'Meara et al., 2011). They seek pleasure and satisfaction from asserting power and control over others. Similar in character to the other three dark traits, individuals high in everyday sadism are considered cold, arrogant, manipulative, and aggressive (Bonfá-Araujo et al., 2022). They, like other dark traits, are also likely to adopt a fast life strategy which involves a willingness to manipulate and exploit others for personal goals and a tendency to prioritise immediate self-gratification over long-term planning, future goals, and the well-being of others (Min et al., 2019).

One possible explanation for no significant association between everyday sadism and ingratiation could be that sadists enjoy exerting power and control over others (Pfattheicher et al., 2019), which may not be compatible with trying to ingratiate themselves with those in positions of authority. The use of ingratiation tactics involves an attempt to establish a positive and friendly relationship with another person, which is incompatible with the goal of causing pain or suffering. Sadists may not be interested in building relationships based on mutual respect and positive regard, but rather seek to dominate or control others through fear and intimidation. Individuals who engage in sadistic behaviours often do so as a way of asserting dominance and control over others (O'Meara et al., 2011). Using ingratiation tactics to gain approval from others may be seen as undermining this goal and may be viewed as a threat to their sense of power.

10.2 Ingratiation and LMX

Hypothesis 2: Ingratiation and Leader-Member Exchange (LMX) Quality

The prediction of a positive effect of employee ingratiation tactics on the perceived quality of their relationship with their supervisor was supported. The results were supported at both Times 1 and 2 with stronger connection at T2, indicating a possible causal link between the two variables. This finding is in line with much previous research (Deluga & Perry, 1994; Dulebohn et al., 2012; Rai, 2009; Wayne et al., 1994). Employees using ingratiation tactics towards their supervisor reported enhanced leader-member exchange quality. This means that employees using ingratiation tactics likely believe it helps them build a quality relationship with their supervisor. In using ingratiation tactics, employees convey to their supervisors that they share their values, opinions, attitudes and interests and approach tasks in a similar fashion to themselves (Dulebohn et al., 2012). In this way, they trigger the similarity attraction paradigm (Byrne, 1971), which dictates that individuals are more attracted to others they perceive as similar to themselves (Ruijten, 2021). The perceived similarity in ideas and attitudes between employees and supervisors enhances mutual liking, which can play an important role in improving the quality of relationships between employees and supervisors (Dulebohn et al., 2012; Liden et al., 1993; Wayne & Ferris, 1990). The present study found a positive relationship between ingratiation tactics and perceptions of positive LMX quality with their supervisor.

10.3 LMX and Career Success

10.3.1 Hypothesis 3: Leader-Member Exchange (LMX) Quality and Subjective Career Success (career satisfaction)

The results supported the hypothesis of a positive association between LMX quality and subjective career success, measured in this study by career satisfaction. This result held over both T1 and T2, with T2 results comparatively stronger than T1. The positive relationship between LMX quality and subjective career success is well-established in the literature (e.g., (Byrne et al., 2008; Han, 2010; Joo & Ready, 2012; Liao et al., 2009; Park et al., 2017; Wayne et al., 1999). Most of these studies have measured subjective career

success in terms of career satisfaction. Employees in high-quality relationships are provided with the necessary support, resources, and information to help them accomplish their tasks efficiently (Law-Penrose et al., 2015). Moreover, supervisors help them build social capital by introducing them to important people within the organisation who can help employees in their career growth and personal development (Goodwin et al., 2009). This is why employees in perceived high-quality relationships report greater satisfaction with their career trajectory.

10.3.2 Hypothesis 4: Leader-Member Exchange (LMX) Quality and Objective career success (a) promotions b) salary increase.

The current study also found a positive relationship between LMX quality and two measures of objective career success: a) the number of promotions received in their overall career and b) the percentage salary increase in past three years. Employees who perceived high-quality relationships with their supervisors reported a greater number of promotions received throughout their career and a positive increase in percentage salary over the past three years. Extant research has found mixed results for the relationship between LMX and objective career success outcomes. Some studies found a positive relationship between LMX and objective career success outcomes (e.g., Carlson & Perrewé, 1999; DeConinck, 2009; Dulebohn et al., 2012; Liao et al., 2009; Schaubroeck & Lam, 2002), while others found no significant effect of LMX on objective measures of career success (e.g., (Byrne et al., 2008; Morrow et al., 2005; Scandura & Schriesheim, 1994; Wayne et al., 1999)). These inconsistent results may be explained by the cross-sectional design of many of these studies. Research indicates that LMX relationships constantly evolve, and their stability can vary over time with factors including changes in the work environment, personal circumstances, and the actions of the leader and employee, all impacting the relationship's stability (Kangas, 2013). Such variations can then influence the objective career success outcomes for employees. Therefore, analysing LMX relationship quality over a period of time was important to assess any variations in objective outcomes for employees. The present two-wave study confirms the positive effect of LMX quality on objective career success outcomes.

The positive relationship between LMX and objective career success can be explained in many ways. For example, social capital theory (Coleman, 1990) explains that established social ties and interpersonal relationships can be advantageous to people and organisations beyond the context of their origin. Social capital can help people get ahead within organisations by ‘getting along’ (Seibert et al., 2001). Networking and informal interpersonal interactions that help build social capital at the workplace can assist individuals in achieving their career goals (Seibert et al., 2001). Moreover, the social exchange theory (Blau, 1964) contends that individuals form long-term relationships with those who can provide them with valued resources and rewards. These resources may include career growth, greater job responsibility and advocacy for promotions (Kraimer et al., 2011). The present research confirms that building a high-quality relationship with their supervisor likely helps employees achieve tangible career outcomes.

The relationship between LMX and objective career outcomes exhibited greater strength at T2, indicating that employees who perceived their rapport with their supervisors as a positive factor influencing their career achievements consistently engaged in enhancing and sustaining that relationship over time. This, in turn, translated into their attainment of continued success. These findings provide strength to the existing literature supporting positive association between LMX and objective career outcomes (see Kraimer et al., 2015).

10.4 LMX and Subjective Well-being

Hypothesis 5: Leader-Member Exchange (LMX) Quality and Subjective Wellbeing

In line with many other studies, the results of this investigation supported a positive effect of perceived LMX quality on employee subjective well-being. Employees who perceived high-quality relationship with their supervisors also reported positive subjective well-being. This result held over both T1 and T2, with relationship exhibiting greater strength at T2. Leaders play an important role in employees’ occupational health, work behaviour and well-being (Avolio et al., 2009; Inceoglu et al., 2018). Leaders are responsible for creating a supportive environment where employees can effectively perform their tasks and duties (Skakon et al., 2010). They can act as a buffer or source of stress for employees within organisations (Bass & Bass, 2008; Schmidt et al., 2014). Positive behaviour from

leaders can enhance employee health, motivate employees to perform well, increase employee job satisfaction and reduce turnover rate (Lok & Crawford, 2004).

A good relationship with the leader is associated with greater job and life satisfaction for employees (González-Navarro et al., 2019; Liao et al., 2017). Employees who enjoy leader support and guidance feel a greater sense of loyalty and commitment towards their organisation; they are likely to engage better with their work and are less likely to leave the organisation (Trincherro et al., 2014). Moreover, they are also likely to experience lower levels of work overload, role ambiguity or work-life conflict (Dunegan et al., 2002; Tordera et al., 2008) as leaders provide them with better role clarity, support with challenging tasks and provide them with resources to manage their jobs better (Diebig et al., 2016). They are likely to experience less stress and lower burnout levels compared to employees in low-quality relationships (Harms et al., 2017; Son et al., 2014). Research indicates that leader support is associated with lower levels of stress and burnout among employees (Halbesleben, 2006; Harms et al., 2017).

10.5 Indirect Relationship between Dark Personality Traits and Career Success

The previous hypotheses established that employees who use ingratiation tactics towards their supervisor perceived their relationship with supervisors to be one of high quality and reported positive objective career success and positive subjective well-being. To date, research has yet to identify the nature of these relationships when the employees using ingratiation tactics are high in dark traits. Individuals high in dark traits are manipulative and exploitative, bearing negative consequences for the individuals and organisations they work with (Furtner et al., 2017). Yet they are often successful in cheating the selection process and getting hired by recruiters (Jonason et al., 2012). Recently researchers have started exploring using influence tactics by such individuals to manipulate influential others to gain power and influence within organisations (Jonason & Webster, 2012). However, research is limited in exploring the effectiveness of such influence tactics in achieving tangible outcomes for dark individuals. The present study attempts to explore how effective ingratiation tactics could be in helping dark individuals achieve their personal goals for career success. A sequential mediation model was proposed to investigate the indirect effect of dark tetrad traits on objective and subjective career success via ingratiation and

LMX. It was proposed that employees high in dark traits will use ingratiation tactics towards their supervisor to help them build a quality relationship with their supervisor, allowing them to advance their career success goals and subjective well-being.

10.5.1 Narcissism and Career Success

H6(a) Narcissism → Ingratiation → LMX → Subjective Career Success

H7(a) Narcissism → Ingratiation → LMX → Number of Promotions

H7(e) Narcissism → Ingratiation → LMX → Salary Increase

The results supported the hypothesis of Narcissism's positive effect on subjective career success via ingratiation and LMX. Thus, we can conclude that employees high in narcissism use ingratiation tactics to positively influence their relationship with their supervisor, and experience career satisfaction as a result. Narcissism was also found to be directly positively related to career satisfaction, and these results were supported at both T1 and T2. A partial mediation effect was found at T1 as there was a significant direct relationship between narcissism and career satisfaction, while at T2, the full mediation effect was supported, showing that the relationship between narcissism and career satisfaction was fully mediated by ingratiation and LMX quality. A significant positive effect of Narcissism on career satisfaction via LMX was identified at both T1 and T2 (Narcissism → LMX → Subjective Career Success). This indicates that narcissists generally enjoy a good relationship with their supervisor, which positively influences their career satisfaction. This finding is particularly important as the existing research is limited in exploring the association between narcissism and LMX (Schyns, 2015b). Future studies can further explore the important role LMX plays in contributing to the success and well-being of narcissists.

The indirect relationships between Narcissism and two measures of objective career success were explored. First, the indirect relationship between Narcissism and the number of promotions received throughout their career, via ingratiation and LMX proved to be insignificant. However, a direct positive relationship was found between Narcissism and the number of promotions at both T1 and T2. Another path from Narcissism → LMX → Number of promotions was also found to be significant. Similarly, the indirect effect of narcissism on percentage salary increase via ingratiation and LMX was found to be

insignificant. However, narcissism had a direct positive relationship with the salary increase. Moreover, the path from Narcissism → LMX → Salary increase was also found to be positive and significant. These results show that narcissists are generally successful in achieving their objective goals for career outcomes. Moreover, narcissists also reported positive LMX quality with their supervisor, which positively influenced their objective career goals.

The insignificance of the indirect relationship between Narcissism and Objective career success outcomes via ingratiation and LMX shows that narcissists, in addition to ingratiation tactics, likely use other tools to positively influence their relationship with their supervisor and achieve their goals for career success. They might use their self-confidence and grandiose sense of self-importance to convince others of their competence (O'Reilly & Chatman, 2020). Moreover, their ability to take risks and make bold decisions may help them win over their supervisors (Den Hartog & Belschak, 2020).

Existing empirical research suggests narcissists are usually successful in their careers (e.g., Paleczek et al., 2018; Spurk et al., 2016). Research shows that narcissists are driven by their desire to achieve power and success, which satisfies their ego needs and helps them dominate others (Campbell et al., 2011). They value forming alliances and friendships with people whom they deem as high in status and are likely to ingratiate them to get their acceptance (Sedikides et al., 2015). The present study confirms that narcissists have good-quality relationships with their supervisors, and they frequently use ingratiation tactics towards their supervisors to gain their approval. This is the first study showing a direct positive relationship between narcissism and perceived LMX quality. It remains unknown whether leaders or supervisors of such narcissistic employees feel the same way about their relationship. Future research can explore leaders' perspective on leader-member exchange quality with narcissistic employees. Narcissists' charm and charisma, self-confidence and drive for success can be viewed as positive traits making them more appealing and likeable to their supervisors. This can be explained by narcissists' charismatic and charming character, which makes them easy to like and get along with (Maccoby, 2017). Their ability to connect with people on a personal level makes them seem more relatable and approachable (Resick et al., 2009). Moreover, they can be persuasive and influential (Grijalva et al., 2020). Their ability to articulate their goals and strategies in a cogent way

inspires others and motivates them to get on board (Galvin et al., 2010). They can present themselves as valuable assets to the organisation, willing to take on leadership roles (Hart et al., 2017).

Overall, the results show that narcissism is positively associated with greater career satisfaction via the mediating effect of ingratiation and LMX. Narcissism is positively associated with a higher number of promotions received and a percentage salary increase. Narcissism is positively related to perceived LMX quality which positively influences objective career outcomes of promotions and salary. Employees high in narcissism succeed in achieving objective career goals, and their perceived relationship with their supervisor contributes significantly to their achievements. Moreover, narcissists use ingratiation tactics towards their supervisor, believing it helps them achieve subjective career goals; however, ingratiation had no significant effect on narcissists' objective career goals. This means that narcissists use a combination of tools to attain objective career goals. The implications of these findings for future research are addressed later.

10.5.2 Machiavellianism and Career Success

H6(b) Machiavellianism → Ingratiation → LMX → Subjective Career Success

H7(b) Machiavellianism → Ingratiation → LMX → Number of Promotions

H7(f) Machiavellianism → Ingratiation → LMX → Salary Increase

While research shows that Machiavellians are adept at ingratiation and social influence (Kuyumcu & Dahling, 2014), the present study provides evidence for its positive effect on their perceived relationship with their supervisor and satisfaction with their careers. The results supported the hypothesis (6b) that employee Machiavellianism has an indirect positive effect on subjective career success via ingratiation and LMX. Employees high in Machiavellianism use ingratiation tactics towards their supervisor, which they believe helps them in improving this relationship and accomplishing their goals for subjective career success.

Individuals high in Machiavellianism are skilled at manipulating and manoeuvring their way to success. They can read and understand an organisation's political landscape and use

this knowledge to advance their interests while still appearing to be loyal and supportive of their superiors (Lyons et al., 2010). They are also adept at using charm and charisma to win over others and gain their trust (Kessler et al., 2010). They are able to navigate complex situations, build alliances and garner support from key stakeholders (Recendes et al., 2022). Additionally, they are often seen as decisive and efficient in their work, which their supervisor can view as valuable assets (Czibor & Bereczkei, 2012).

The results at both T1 and T2 supported a full mediation effect of Machiavellianism on subjective career success via ingratiation and LMX. This is the first study which has investigated the intermediary role of ingratiation tactics and perceived LMX quality on Machiavellians' ability to succeed in their careers. The positive effect at both T1 and T2 shows stability in Machiavellians' long-term focus on achieving their goals for career success. Some researchers, (Crysel et al., 2013; Jones & Paulhus, 2011a; Leary & Hoyle, 2009), argue that Machiavellians have short-term goals because they are focused on immediate gains and are willing to sacrifice long-term consequences for their own benefit. Such studies suggest they make decisions based on what will benefit them in the present moment. At the same time, others argue that Machiavellians are strategic thinkers who plan and execute their actions carefully in order to achieve their ultimate objective (Bereczkei, 2017; Blötner & Bergold, 2021). That these relationships were measured over two points in time affords greater confidence in the conclusion that Machiavellians have long-term goals and use strategic tactics to achieve those goals.

Machiavellianism was positively related to the number of promotions via intervening variables of ingratiation and LMX. Individuals high in Machiavellianism reported the use of ingratiation tactics which enhanced their perceived relationship quality with their supervisor, resulting in a higher number of promotions received in their career. This result was supported at T2. Similarly, Machiavellianism was positively and indirectly associated with salary increase through ingratiation and LMX at T1; however, at T2, a direct relationship was found between Machiavellianism and salary increase. This shows that Machiavellians are successful in achieving their goals for career success using supervisor-focused ingratiation tactics. They are focused and shrewd individuals with clear long-term goals, and they use manipulation, charm, and deceit to achieve those goals. This study confirms their strategic and calculative actions to manipulate others for self-interest. While Narcissism was directly positively correlated with the leader-member exchange,

Machiavellianism had a positive relationship with LMX only through ingratiation. This confirms the theoretical analysis by (Schyns, 2015b) suggesting that Machiavellians might use influence tactics to positively influence the quality of their relationship with their leader, further recommending a need for empirical investigation. The present study provides confirmation that Machiavellians use ingratiation tactics to positively influence LMX quality with their supervisor, and they believe using such tactics helps positively enhance their LMX quality.

10.5.3 Psychopathy and Career Success

H6(c) Psychopathy → Ingratiation → LMX → Subjective Career Success

H7(c) Employee Psychopathy → Ingratiation → LMX → Number of Promotions

H7(g) Employee Psychopathy → Ingratiation → LMX → Salary Increase

The results of this study did not support the hypothesis that Psychopathy indirectly positively affects subjective career success via ingratiation and LMX. Instead, the results revealed that employees high in Psychopathy experience low-quality relationships with their supervisors and report lower levels of career satisfaction. One possible explanation could be that ingratiation is a long-term strategy where individuals use different tactics to convince the target person of their sincerity and capability. Psychopaths, on the other hand, are impulsive and lack self-control (Jones & Paulhus, 2011a). Their reckless and irresponsible behaviour and antagonism could be why their attempts at charming others fail and they cannot build a high-quality relationship with their supervisor.

Most of the research on Psychopaths in the business world is anecdotal and suggests a ruthless, cold, calculative personality characterised by manipulating and exploiting others without guilt or remorse. Psychopathic traits of callousness and manipulation are related to their ability to be highly manipulative and persuasive (Babiak & Hare, 2006). They may use logical fallacies, emotional appeals, or even outright lies to convince others to do their bidding. Yet their impulsivity, irresponsibility and display of erratic behaviour make them take poor decisions and exhibit poor performance at work (Babiak et al., 2010). Psychopaths' self-centred impulsivity is a toxic aspect of their personality associated with

interpersonal deviance and counterproductive behaviours within the workplace (Schuette et al., 2015). Such individuals engage in reckless behaviour without considering its consequences for themselves or others. At the workplace, they may be found littering, stealing property, missing deadlines, failing to follow instructions and rules and breaking confidentiality by sharing important information with unauthorised personnel (Blickle & Schütte, 2017; Lilienfeld et al., 2005). However, the existing research is limited in understanding Psychopaths' interpersonal relationships at work. (Schyns, 2015b) argued that Psychopaths might be able to establish good relationships in the short term with their supervisors using their charm and charisma but will dump their supervisor after they have used them to achieve their goals. The present study finds that Psychopaths generally have a poor relationship with their supervisors, resulting in lower career satisfaction and lesser chances of getting promoted.

A direct negative relationship was found between Psychopathy and the number of promotions, which shows that Psychopaths received the least number of promotions during their tenure. Moreover, Psychopaths who reported a low-quality relationship with their manager also received fewer salary raises during their tenure. This confirms that even though Psychopaths may attempt to manipulate others, their impulsive and irresponsible behaviour prevents them from succeeding in business settings. As research shows that antisociality is the core characteristic of a Psychopathic personality (Hare & Neumann, 2009). Despite their impressive communication skills and charming façade, psychopaths are viewed as poor performers because of their irresponsible and uncooperative work behaviour (Babiak et al., 2010). Psychopaths are impatient and need immediate gratification for their needs. They lack long-term vision and have problems exhibiting restraint or self-control. This might be the reason Psychopaths fail to influence their relationship with supervisors using ingratiation tactics positively. Their arrogance and aggression towards others, coupled with an inability to cooperate with team members and leave tasks unfinished, blaming others for their mistakes and lying for personal agendas (Mathieu et al., 2014), can create feelings of dislike among their supervisor, resulting in low-quality relationships.

10.5.4 Sadism and Career Success

H6(d) Sadism → Ingratiation → LMX → Subjective Career Success

H7(e) Employee Sadism → Ingratiation → LMX → Number of Promotions

H7(i) Employee Sadism → Ingratiation → LMX → Salary Increase

Although a direct positive relationship between employee sadism and subjective career success was found in T1, the results did not support the hypothesis that Sadism has an indirect positive effect on subjective career success via ingratiation and LMX. Moreover, no indirect or direct relationship was found between everyday sadism and objective career success outcomes.

Most existing research on dark personality traits and their effect on various work outcomes has excluded everyday sadism from the context (Barry, 2020), so the current understanding of this trait within the organisational context is limited. The present research shows that while individuals high in sadism show no significant association with objective goals for career success, they perceive themselves to be successful. It could be that for sadists, success is when they are able to dominate others at the workplace as they find pleasure and happiness in the suffering and humiliation of other people. Research shows they are involved in workplace bullying and mistreatment of coworkers (Min et al., 2019; Mushtaq & Rohail, 2021). The lack of clear goals and determination to achieve any positive goals can be another reason sadists are happy with their careers. Research by Zeigler-hill & Besser (2021) showed that sadists show poor task and contextual performance at work because they lack self-direction. They are unable to set clear goals for themselves, take responsibility for their actions or adapt their behaviour to the situation, which can help them achieve desired goals. These results were supported by another recent study (Fernández-del-río et al., 2020b), showing a negative association between sadism and task and contextual performance. This is among the first studies to investigate sadism and how this trait plays out within workplace dynamics. More research is needed to understand sadism and its association with different behavioural and work outcomes.

10.6 H8 - Indirect Relationship between Dark Traits and Subjective Well-being

H8(a) Narcissism → Ingratiation → LMX → Subjective Wellbeing

Dark Traits and Well-being

Research on dark traits and their well-being is scarce, with only a handful of studies investigating this relationship (see Aghababaei & Blachnio, 2015; Liu et al., 2021; Van Groningen et al., 2021). This is surprising given the importance of how well-being factors can provide insights into the psychological and emotional functioning of these individuals (Ryff & Singer, 1996). We know from the literature that ingratiation tactics can burn out employees as these tactics require long-term consistent planning and plotting, which can deplete individuals' physical and psychological resources necessary to perform at work (Klotz et al., 2018). However, individuals high in dark traits thrive in the manipulation and exploitation of others (Marcus et al., 2018). It might be the case that using manipulation strategies at work to achieve personal goals positively influences their well-being.

The results supported hypothesis H8a, that narcissism positively affects employees' subjective well-being via ingratiation and LMX. Moreover, a direct positive relationship was found between Narcissism and Psychological well-being. The results in T2 did not support the indirect association between narcissism and subjective well-being; however, a positive direct relationship was found between the two at T2. Moreover, an indirect path from Narcissism → LMX → Psychological well-being was also found to be significant in both T1 ($\beta = 0.066$, $\rho < 0.01$) and T2 ($\beta = 0.085$, $\rho < 0.05$).

The subjective well-being was measured in terms of one's satisfaction with life as a whole. The results show that narcissists report having a high-quality relationship with their supervisor as a result of their ingratiation and are likely satisfied with their lives. Narcissists at both time points, T1 and T2, reported a good quality relationship with their supervisor. This result is consistent in the context of career success as well. Narcissists, in general, enjoy a good relationship with their supervisor, believe they are successful, report receiving greater promotions and salaries and show greater satisfaction with their lives. Existing research indicates that interpersonal relationships contribute significantly to individual well-being (Liu et al., 2021). Narcissists are charming, confident, and charismatic, which helps them gain the trust and approval of others. This acceptance from others feeds their ego needs for attention and admiration resulting in greater satisfaction and happiness in

their life. The direct positive relationship between Narcissism and subjective well-being is in line with existing studies (for example, Aghababaei & Blachnio (2015)). We know from the results of this study that narcissists are often successful in achieving their goals for career success which might be another reason for their positive subjective well-being. The accomplishment of goals provides a sense of achievement and purpose, leading to greater satisfaction with their life (Anić & Tončić, 2013). Though the existing research indicates a positive association between Narcissism and subjective well-being, the present study introduces LMX as a mediator and important factor contributing to this relationship.

H8(b) Machiavellianism → Ingratiation → LMX → Psychological Wellbeing

The results supported hypothesis H8b, that Machiavellianism positively affects employees' subjective well-being via ingratiation and LMX in T1 and T2. The direct relationship between Machiavellianism and subjective well-being was insignificant, which is in line with existing studies (see Aghababaei & Blachnio, 2015; Liu et al., 2021). This indicates that Machiavellians are happy and satisfied in their lives when their strategic planning works, and they are able to achieve their personal goals using the goodwill of others. The results from this study show that Machiavellians' use of ingratiation tactics also helps them achieve goals for career success. As career success can positively enhance one's satisfaction with life (Choi & Nae, 2022), this study reveals that Machiavellians are likely happy when they achieve goals, regardless of the means used to achieve them. They view success as the ultimate goal and believe that the ends justify the means (Jones & Paulhus, 2009). They may have a sense of satisfaction when they can manipulate situations and people to get what they want, though they might not necessarily be happy in a traditional sense. Their happiness is based on the achievement of their goals and the power and control they wield (Dahling et al., 2012). The non-significance of the direct relationship between Machiavellianism and subjective well-being might indicate some mediating factors likely influencing this association, and the present study provides confirmation by investigating the mediating role of ingratiation and LMX.

H8(c) Psychopathy → Ingratiation → LMX → Psychological Wellbeing

The results did not support hypothesis H8c, that psychopathy positively affects subjective well-being via ingratiation and LMX. However, a direct negative relationship was found between Psychopathy and well-being. These findings provide continuance to existing evidence on the negative relationship between Psychopathy and happiness/well-being (e.g., Durand, 2018; Love & Holder, 2014). These studies found a negative correlation between Psychopathy and well-being regarding happiness and meaning in life.

In line with the results for career success, an indirect path from Psychopathy → LMX → Psychological well-being was also found to be negatively significant in T1. Thus, psychopathy is associated with low-quality relationships with supervisors, resulting in experiencing poor well-being. These results are in line with studies indicating that Psychopaths are generally unhappy and unsatisfied in their lives. Psychopaths have difficulty forming meaningful relationships (Viding & McCrory, 2019). Their superficial relationships and lack of genuine connection with others can leave them feeling lonely and unfulfilled (Salvatore et al., 2001). They also lack empathy and emotional connection with others, leading to feelings of isolation and emptiness (Aaltola, 2014). Additionally, their impulsive and thrill-seeking behaviour can often lead to negative consequences such as imprisonment, loss of relationships, and social rejection and resulting in dissatisfaction with their life (Lyons, 2019). While they may not experience the same level of emotional distress as others (Harenski et al., 2009), their constant search for stimulation and excitement can lead to boredom and restlessness, making them less likely to experience feelings of joy or happiness.

H8(d) Everyday Sadism → Ingratiation → LMX → Psychological Wellbeing

The results did not support the hypothesis that sadism had an indirect effect on well-being via ingratiation and LMX. No significant direct or indirect association was found between sadism and subjective well-being. A recent study Womick et al. (2019a) found no significant association between everyday sadism and well-being which strengthens the results of the present study. One possible explanation could be that the proportion of sadist individuals is comparatively low in corporate settings. It is likely that such individuals choose professions which provide them with the opportunity to fulfil their sadistic tendencies, such as law enforcement, including the military or police (Baumeister &

Campbell, 1999; Paulhus & Dutton, 2016). Research on everyday sadism in the organisational context is limited. While studies have begun to investigate the role of sadism in the workplace, most of these are focused on the negative consequences of sadism. Individuals high in everyday sadism are involved in counterproductive work behaviours, bullying, mistreatment of coworkers and workplace deviance (Min et al., 2019; Mushtaq & Rohail, 2021). Research is limited in exploring whether such individuals high in everyday sadism are successful in their careers and satisfied in general with their lives. A study by Fernández-del-río et al. (2020b) found sadism to be negatively associated with task and contextual performance at work. This is the first study exploring sadism in the context of career success and well-being. No significant association between everyday sadism and outcome variables also begs the question of whether everyday sadism offers any distinctive value in addition to dark triad traits (Bonfá-Araujo et al., 2022). Its strong close association with Psychopathy and Machiavellianism can make it difficult to observe its variance independent of rest of triad traits.

10.7 Theoretical Contributions

The present study makes several significant contributions to the existing knowledge and theory. These contributions are summarised below (see Table 10.1)

This is the first study that attempts to understand and provide a holistic view of how individuals high in dark traits succeed in their careers. Dark traits are associated with an increased likelihood of engaging in counterproductive work behaviours (Barry, 2020). Individuals high in these traits exhibit characteristics such as a lack of empathy, manipulation of others for personal gain, and a lack of concern for the negative consequences of their actions on others (Nagler et al., 2014). They frequently engage in theft, sabotage, or aggression towards coworkers (Wu & Lebreton, 2011). These behaviours can negatively affect the overall productivity and morale of a workplace. Despite these harmful and undesirable attributes, individuals high in dark traits are not only hired within organisations but are often successful in reaching top positions (Jonason et al., 2012).

The research on dark personality suggests that individuals high in dark traits are cunning, manipulative, and selfish (Jonason et al., 2010). They don't hesitate from

Table 10.1 Summary of Theoretical Contributions in the Current Study

Theoretical Relationship	Supports	Develops	New
Dark Tetrad → Ingratiation	Supports existing research on the use of influence tactics by individuals high in dark traits	Develops the research work by (Jonason et al., 2012) in confirming this relationship using two-wave study.	Investigates Everyday Sadism as part of dark tetrad and its association with ingratiation, which has not been explored before
Ingratiation → LMX Quality	Supports research that examined a positive relationship between Ingratiation and LMX Quality	Develops knowledge on LMX theory (Dansereau et al., 1975) by providing an understanding of how employees contribute to LMX.	Provides support for the causal link between ingratiation and LMX by confirming the relationship at two time points.
LMX → Subjective and Objective Career Success	Supports existing evidence on the positive relationship between LMX and a) career satisfaction, b) Number of promotions and c) salary increase	Extends knowledge on social exchange theory (Blau, 1964) by providing evidence for positive career success outcomes of LMX for employees.	Provides support for the causal link between LMX and employee career success.
LMX → Subjective Wellbeing	Supports existing evidence on the positive relationship between LMX and subjective wellbeing	Extends knowledge on LMX theory (Blau, 1964) by providing	Provides support for the causal link between LMX and employee

		evidence for LMX's positive effect on employee wellbeing	wellbeing by confirming relationship at two time points.
Narcissism → Ingratiation → LMX → Subjective Career Success	Supports the existing evidence on direct positive relationship between Narcissism and Subjective Career Success (see (Spurk et al., 2016)	Provides an integrated model to help explain how narcissists, despite negative attributes, are successful.	First study exploring the mediating effect of ingratiation and LMX on the relationship between Narcissism and Subjective Career Success. The study also provides evidence for positive mediating effect of LMX on the relationship between Narcissism and Subjective Career Success. (Narcissism → LMX → Subjective Career Success.
Machiavellianism → Ingratiation → LMX → Subjective Career Success	Supports the existing evidence on direct positive relationship between Machiavellianism and Subjective Career Success (see (Spurk et al., 2016)	Provides an integrated model to help explain how Machiavellians use ingratiation tactics to achieve their goals for career success at workplace.	First study exploring the mediating effect of ingratiation and LMX on the relationship between Machiavellianism and Subjective Career Success. A full mediation model was supported at both Times 1 and 2.

<p>Psychopathy → Ingratiation → LMX → Subjective Career Success</p>	<p>Adds to the existing literature on the relationship between Psychopathy and Subjective Career Success. Also provides support for positive relationship between Psychopathy and Ingratiation.</p>	<p>Responds to call by (Schyns, 2015b) for research into effect of dark traits on LMX by showing a negative association between Psychopathy and LMX. This shows that Psychopaths have poor quality relationship with supervisor despite using ingratiation tactics.</p>	<p>First study exploring the mediating effect of ingratiation and LMX on the relationship between Psychopathy and Subjective Career Success. The study provides evidence for negative mediating effect of LMX on the relationship between Psychopathy and Subjective Career Success.</p>
<p>Sadism → Ingratiation → LMX → Subjective Career Success</p>		<p>Responds to calls for future research into everyday sadism trait and work outcomes (Fernández-del-río et al., 2020a; Mushtaq & Rohail, 2021) Develops literature on everyday sadism at workplace.</p>	<p>First study exploring the mediating effect of ingratiation and LMX on the relationship between Everyday Sadism and Subjective Career Success.</p>
<p>Dark Tetrad → Number of Promotions</p>		<p>Develops understanding on the association between dark tetrad</p>	<p>First study exploring relationship between dark tetrad and number of promotions throughout career.</p>

		and career growth in terms of number of promotions.	Found positive relationship between Narcissism and Number of promotions and negative relationship between Psychopathy and Number of Promotions
Dark Tetrad → Salary Increase	Supports direct positive relationship between traits of Narcissism and Machiavellianism and salary increase (Spurk et al., 2016)	Develops knowledge on dark traits and objective career success outcomes. Shows positive role of LMX in the relationship between Narcissism and Salary increase. Also provides a negative mediating effect of LMX on relationship between Psychopathy and salary increase.	First study to explore indirect effect of dark tetrad on objective career success via ingratiation and LMX. Machiavellianism had an indirect positive effect on salary increase via ingratiation and LMX.
Dark Tetrad → Wellbeing	Supports positive association between Narcissism and wellbeing and negative association between Psychopathy and wellbeing, in alliance with	Develops knowledge on dark traits and wellbeing by examining intervening variables of ingratiation and LMX.	First study to explore indirect effect of dark tetrad on subjective wellbeing via ingratiation and LMX. Narcissism and Machiavellianism had a positive indirect effect on subjective

	research by (Aghababaei & Blachnio, 2015)	Provides insights into the role of LMX in association between dark traits and subjective wellbeing.	wellbeing via ingratiation and LMX.
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exploiting others for their advantage and often feeling no remorse over their actions which are hurtful to others (Brewer et al., 2015). However, little empirical research is done to understand whether these individuals succeed in their manipulation attempts. Researchers have recently started exploring the use of influence tactics as a course of action dark trait individuals might take to get ahead within organisations (see (Hart et al., 2019; Jonason et al., 2012)). While a positive correlation has been found between dark traits and the use of a number of tactics in the workplace, no study to date has investigated towards whom these influence tactics are directed and whether these tactics are effective in helping dark individuals fulfil their agendas.

The present study investigated and found that individuals high in dark traits use ingratiation tactics towards their supervisors at the workplace. The traits of Narcissism, Machiavellianism and Psychopathy were positively associated with the use of ingratiation tactics, while the relationship was insignificant for Everyday Sadism. The logic behind choosing ingratiation was its clandestine nature (Zin et al., 2011), involving actions carried out in a covert or secretive way, without the other person realising that the flattery or positive behaviour is a deliberate attempt to gain their favour. Ingratiation is a powerful tactic when used for upward influence within organisations (Thacker & Wayne, 1995). People tend to like those who make them feel good and go out of their way to help them. Moreover, ingratiation creates a sense of reciprocity where the target feels a sense of obligation to return the favour by helping the ingratiator. Employees use ingratiation tactics towards their supervisors as they hold the ultimate power and access to resources. Using hard tactics such as intimidation, coercion and blasting towards supervisors has a greater likelihood of backfiring as supervisors may consider them disrespectful and offensive or a threat to their power and position (Bolino & Turnley, 2003).

The second significant contribution of this study is the validation of a positive relationship between the use of ingratiation tactics and perceived leader-member exchange quality. Only a handful of studies have investigated this relationship to date (see Deluga & Perry, 1994; Dockery & Steiner, 1990; Dulebohn et al., 2012). The cross-sectional and correlational design of these studies leaves a gap in the exploration of this relationship over a period of time. As LMX quality evolves over time and is subject to change due to various external factors, an investigation into the influence of ingratiation tactics on LMX quality over time is warranted (Nahrgang & Seo, 2015; Wayne et al., 1994). The present two-wave

study found a consistent positive effect of ingratiation tactics on perceived leader-member exchange quality over a period of time. Employees who reported the use of ingratiation tactics also reported perceived high-quality relationship with their supervisor.

In line with existing research, the present study found a positive effect of the perceived leader-member exchange quality on employee self-reported subjective and objective career success outcomes. Employees who perceived a high-quality relationship with their supervisor also reported greater career satisfaction, achieving more promotions in their career and a percentage increase in salary over a period of time. While the relationship between LMX quality and career satisfaction is well-established, the relationship between LMX and objective career outcomes has provided mixed results (Kraimer et al., 2015). The studies that found no significant effect of LMX on objective career outcomes were mostly cross-sectional (Kraimer et al., 2015), and an exploration into this relationship over a period of time was recommended. The present study investigated the effect of LMX on objective career success across two-time points and found a positive relationship between LMX and promotions and salary.

The current study also confirmed a positive relationship between employees' perceived LMX quality and their subjective well-being in terms of satisfaction with life, and this positive relationship was supported across both waves. Much existing literature supports LMX's positive effect on employee well-being (Sonnentag & Pundt, 2016). Employees in a high-quality relationship with their supervisor feel more energetic than those in a low-quality relationship with their leader (Atwater & Carmeli, 2009). Employees consider their relationship with their supervisor as a resource and exhibit greater work engagement if they have this resource at their disposal (Bakker & Bal, 2010; Kaluza et al., 2020). Moreover, LMX is related to lower levels of burnout (Huang, Chan, Lam & Nan, 2010), emotional exhaustion, cynicism (Becker et al., 2005), work tension (Brouer & Harris, 2007), job anxiety and depression (Sparr & Sonnentag, 2008). Employees feel more active, motivated, and engaged at work if they know their supervisor is supportive and they can rely on them. Employees who report a positive relationship with their supervisor are generally more satisfied with their jobs and life (González-Navarro et al., 2019). In the current study, perceived LMX quality had a positive effect on employee subjective well-being. Employees reported increased satisfaction with their lives when they believed they had a high-quality relationship with their supervisor.

The major contribution of this study is that it is the first study which has attempted to provide an integrated model explaining the process through which individuals high in dark traits may get ahead within organisations. There has been an ongoing debate about how these malevolent characters, associated with antisocial, counterproductive, and destructive behaviours, succeed in getting hired within organisations and often reaching leadership positions within the corporate hierarchy (Jonason et al., 2012; Spurk et al., 2016). One explanation provided is that some of the characteristics these individuals display are also often seen as hallmarks of leadership (Rosenthal & Pittinsky, 2006). These include self-confidence, good communication skills, boldness, focus and risk-taking ability. (Schyns et al., 2019) argued that individuals high in dark traits might use certain strategic behaviours at the workplace to help them achieve their personal goals. Recently, studies have started investigating the association between dark traits and the use of influence tactics. However, a comprehensive study examining whether individuals high in dark traits use influence tactics at the workplace to achieve their goals for career success and whether these tactics effectively help them achieve their goals is absent from the research literature.

An extensive review of the literature revealed that certain direct relationships among a number of constructs in this study have been investigated separately in different research studies. For instance, the relationship between ingratiation and LMX (Dulebohn et al., 2012) and between LMX and outcome variables of career success (Kraimer et al., 2015) and well-being (Bernerth & Hirschfeld, 2016). This study represents the first occasion on which an integrated model investigating whether individuals using ingratiation tactics towards their supervisor achieve their career success goals has been examined. This integrated model incorporates the intermediate effect of LMX in the effectiveness of ingratiation tactics in achieving employee goals of career success and provides an answer to the ‘How ingratiation tactics help employees achieve their goals at the workplace?’. Moreover, the association between dark traits and these behaviours among employees has been similarly unexplored.

While the literature suggests that the use of ingratiation tactics and the development of leader-member exchange quality is influenced by individual characteristics such as leader and employee personality (Appelbaum & Hughes, 1998a; Nahrgang & Seo, 2015; Paulhus et al., 2013), the focus of attention has been limited to the personality traits of extraversion

and agreeableness (Nahrgang et al., 2009), locus of control (Phillips & Bedeian, 1994), positive and negative affect (Engle & Lord, 1997b) and openness to experience (Bourdage et al., 2015; Cable & Judge, 2003). However, research is limited in exploring the effect of dark personality traits on ingratiation tactics and its influence on the leader-member exchange quality (Schyns et al., 2019; Schyns, 2015b). Given the maladaptive nature of these personality traits and a disposition for manipulating and exploiting others for personal gains (Nagler et al., 2014), this has been a lacuna in the research to date. Indeed, a theoretical paper by (Schyns et al., 2019) called for the investigation into the use of certain strategic behaviours by employees high in dark traits to achieve their personal goals at the expense of organisational goals. This study responds to their call.

Finally, the question concerning the use of these tactics and their effectiveness in gaining rewards for such individuals has not been explored to this point. A theoretical review of research on dark traits by Tariq et al. (2021) suggested the need for investigation into the use of impression management tactics by individuals high in dark traits towards powerful and influential people within organisations, which might help them in achieving their goals for career success. This study responds to their call and thus contributes richly to the nomological network of these research domains.

Narcissism

In the present study, Narcissism was found to be positively associated with the use of ingratiation tactics and had positive effects on perceived leader-member exchange quality and career success. While narcissism has been studied extensively in association with self-promotion and self-aggrandisement (Carpenter, 2012; Moon et al., 2016), with the literature suggesting that narcissists use tactics like flattery and ingratiation with powerful people to gain their acceptance (Chatterjee & Pollock, 2017), the results in the present study provide empirical evidence for narcissists' effective use of ingratiation tactics towards their supervisor.

Narcissists' reports of positive LMX quality provide evidence for the effectiveness of ingratiation tactics. Moreover, narcissism was also found to be directly positively related to LMX quality. This is an important contribution, given that the research on the association between narcissism and leader-member exchange is limited (Schyns, 2015b). A positive LMX relationship confirmed in the present study provides a link for the association between narcissists and their successful careers. A good relationship with supervisor helps gain access to important resources and powerful connections, which can help individuals

in the advancement of their careers (Dulebohn et al., 2012). Narcissists' strong sense of self-confidence and their ability to skillfully present themselves as competent and capable, coupled with the ability to take risky and bold decisions, can make them appealing in the eyes of the supervisor, who may view narcissists' self-enhancement as their competence. Future studies can further explore this relationship between narcissism and LMX in terms of liking, mutual trust, and performance evaluations of the narcissist by their supervisor.

This study also contributes interesting insights into narcissists' career success. The literature suggests narcissists are usually successful in their careers (see (Hirschi & Jaensch, 2015; Paleczek et al., 2018; Spurk et al., 2016), but explanations as to the mechanisms through which narcissists likely succeed are limited. The present study provides evidence that narcissists use ingratiation tactics towards their supervisor to build strong social connections with them, which in turn helps them achieve their goals for career success.

Although a strong and consistent positive relationship was found between Narcissism, LMX and promotions and salary, ingratiation tactics were ineffective in predicting objective career success for narcissism, as revealed by the non-significant sequential mediation relationship between narcissism and objective outcomes via ingratiation and LMX. This indicates that narcissists, though they believe ingratiation tactics help them achieve career outcomes, might be employing other tactics that strengthen their relationship with their supervisor. This finding opens the door for future research into exploring what factors contribute to the positive association between narcissism and LMX, given the pivotal role of LMX in predicting positive associations between narcissism and both objective and subjective career success.

While a number of studies have noted the positive association between subjective well-being and narcissism, the present study, in addition to the direct relationship, also found an indirect relationship between narcissism and subjective well-being via ingratiation and LMX. This is an important contribution indicating the important role LMX plays in the association between narcissism, career success and well-being. The present research provides evidence that narcissists perceive they enjoy a good quality relationship with their supervisor, which helps them achieve their goals for career success and provides them with greater satisfaction in life.

Machiavellianism

With respect to the literature pertaining to Machiavellianism, the work of (Spurk et al., 2016) indicated that it is associated with favourable occupational outcomes. However, the present study did not find a direct relationship between Machiavellianism and career satisfaction. Instead, a significant indirect relation via the use of ingratiation tactics and their influence on LMX quality was found. For objective career success, Machiavellianism was found to be indirectly associated with promotion and salary via ingratiation and LMX. A direct relationship between Machiavellianism and salary increase was also found at T2. In the case of narcissism, ingratiation's effect was insignificant in predicting objective career outcomes; however, for Machiavellianism, ingratiation tactics were effective in positively influencing their perceived LMX and subsequent objective career outcomes. This study is among the first ones to provide empirical evidence for the effectiveness of ingratiation tactics in helping Machiavellians achieve their goals for career success.

Theoretical research on Machiavellianism suggests that Machiavellians' cynical view of the world and inability to emotionally connect with other people and focus on short-term goals likely make them experience unhappiness and dissatisfaction in their life (Aghababaei & Blachnio, 2015). However, empirical evidence for the relationship between Machiavellianism and well-being provides mixed results. An empirical study by (Joshanloo, 2021) showed a negative correlation between Machiavellianism and well-being. Another study (Papageorgiou et al., 2019) found a positive relationship between Machiavellianism and perceived stress, while still further studies showed no significant direct association between the two (see (Aghababaei & Blachnio, 2015; Womick et al., 2019b), indicating the presence of underlying factors which might influence this relationship. The present study supported a positive indirect relationship between Machiavellianism and subjective well-being via ingratiation and LMX. It found no significant direct relationship between Machiavellianism and subjective well-being, although however, the relationship was positive when explored via the intervening variables of ingratiation and LMX. Thus, we can conclude that Machiavellians' use of ingratiation tactics helps them achieve career goals, which can be a reason for them to experience positive subjective well-being. Studies have shown that having a fulfilling and rewarding career can contribute to a person's overall sense of happiness and well-being (Abele-Brehm, 2014; Gordon, 2021). This is because a successful career can provide a

sense of purpose, meaning, and accomplishment, which can, in turn, boost self-esteem and confidence (Abele & Spurk, 2009).

Psychopathy

To the best of the researcher's knowledge, this is the first study which shows a direct negative association between Psychopathy and LMX and its subsequent effects on career outcomes. While Psychopathy was positively associated with using ingratiation tactics, the results show that these tactics failed to improve their perceived LMX quality with their supervisor, nor yield subjective career success. Moreover, the lower LMX quality also predicted negative objective career outcomes as Psychopaths received fewer promotions in life and relatively low salaries in the past three years. Psychopathy was also found to be directly negatively associated with the number of promotions. This finding aligns with existing evidence showing a negative association between Psychopathy and objective career outcomes (see (Spurk et al., 2016).

Research shows that Psychopaths are motivated by extrinsic goals such as accumulating wealth and material belongings and having a desirable image, power, and social status (Glenn et al., 2017). These extrinsic motivations make them more competitive and exploitative, with little regard for others (Kasser & Ahuvia, 2002; Sheldon et al., 2000). They are less likely to be motivated by intrinsic goals, which involve autonomy, personal growth, having positive and satisfying relationships and leading a purposeful and meaningful life (Glenn et al., 2017). This can explain why Psychopaths though motivated to achieve their goals for career success, are unable to build a quality relationship with their supervisors. This finding contributes significantly to the literature on LMX and dark personality traits as there is limited research done on LMX in the context of dark traits (Schyns, 2015).

Psychopathy was also found to be negatively associated with subjective well-being. This is in line with existing research showing a negative association between Psychopathy and subjective well-being (see (Aghababaei & Blachnio, 2015; Joshanloo, 2021). The relationship was also found to be significant when mediated by LMX, showing that Psychopaths believe they have a poor relationship with their supervisor, and this negatively affects their perceptions of well-being. This can be explained by contradiction in

Psychopaths' values and motives. Research shows that though Psychopaths are fascinated with obtaining power and control, higher social status and wealth, they are not motivated to achieve this using their competence and ability but would rather use deception, cheating or fraud to achieve their desired goals (Glenn et al., 2017). Moreover, their lack of empathy and impulsive and aggressive behaviour (Babiak & Hare, 2006) can be a hindrance in building meaningful relationships, leading to isolation. Their inability to stay focused and change goals frequently can lead to disappointment and discontentment with their lives. These factors combined can affect their well-being (Joshanloo, 2021).

This study provides interesting insights in relation to LMX and Psychopathy. Across both waves, Psychopathy negatively predicted LMX showing Psychopaths generally have a poor relationship with their supervisor, and this relationship influenced their career and well-being outcomes negatively. Thus, the present research provides evidence for Psychopaths' inability to form genuine long-term relationships. Psychopaths' lack of empathy, guilt or remorse and highly impulsive behaviour can make it challenging for them to build a close connection with other people. Their reckless behaviour and inability to maintain an emotional connection with other people can damage the trust required to build a quality relationship. Future researchers can explore further the underlying factors which contribute to low-quality LMX for Psychopaths.

Sadism

This study provides two important insights into the trait of Everyday Sadism, a personality characteristic which remains under-investigated in the organisational literature. First, sadism was found to be correlated with the use of ingratiation tactics across both time points of data collection. This indicates that sadists, along with those possessing other dark traits, try to manipulate and exploit others for personal gain. Second, sadism was found to be directly associated with positive subjective career success in terms of career satisfaction. This is an interesting contribution to literature on everyday sadism in organisational context as a recent study concluded that, due to difficulties in personal functionality, sadists exhibit poor task and contextual performance at work, lack self-direction and have difficulty setting and accomplishing goals (Zeigler-hill & Besser, 2021). While explanations for this finding may not be immediately clear, with (Min et al., 2019) finding that sadists are involved in incivil behaviour and mistreatment of colleagues at work (Min et al., 2019). One possibility is that sadists derive a sense of satisfaction from the suffering and

humiliation of others, so experiencing a sense of domination and control at the workplace might make them satisfied with the trajectory of their careers. As career satisfaction involves satisfaction with one's goals, and sadists' main goal is to dominate and inflict pain on others. Nonetheless, more research is required in this regard to establish a valid connection between sadism and career success.

The present study did not find any significant indirect association of sadism with career success or well-being via ingratiation and LMX. One possible explanation could be the small proportion of individuals high in everyday sadism working in corporations as they are likely more attenuated to jobs which feed their need for pleasure from the suffering of others, such as military or police (Paulhus & Dutton, 2016). While existing research indicates that individuals high in sadism may be more likely to engage in aggressive or manipulative behaviour in order to get ahead. The present study could not confirm this. More research is required in this regard to better understand such individuals' motivations at work and how these motivations influence their personal goals for success.

10.8 Methodological Contributions

This study makes a number of significant methodological contributions to the field of organisational psychology. This is the first study using a two-wave longitudinal design (Bott & Duffy, 2015; Datu & King, 2018; Fomina et al., 2020; Vois & Damian, 2020) to understand the role of employees' dark personality traits in the use of ingratiation behaviours, their effects on the quality of the relationship between employees and supervisors and the resultant experience of career success and psychological well-being by such employees. Most research on dark personality traits is cross-sectional in the design (Miller et al., 2019) and does not extend beyond correlations between dark traits and outcome variables. The cross-sectional design does not help analyse the stability of the relationship over time and often proves less accurate while testing mediational hypotheses (Maxwell & Cole, 2007). The current study fills this gap in the literature by providing a longitudinal association of dark traits with work outcomes. The longitudinal design thoroughly examines the research question and increases confidence in the conclusions that can be drawn from the study, yielding more robust and generalisable literature (Orth et al., 2014). It increases the rigour of the research by reducing the potential for confounding

variables. By collecting data over a prolonged period, extraneous variables can be controlled, which might affect the outcome of the study (Cole & Maxwell, 2003).

The use of sequential analysis techniques affords some much-needed clarity concerning the mechanisms by which dark personality traits are related to career success and well-being. In their theoretical paper, (Tariq et al., 2021) called for such research designs to be undertaken, and thus, this study delivers a response to this call. The sample in this research study comprised a heterogeneous group of working professionals from different fields, including IT, Telecom, Banking, Health & Education sector. Over two-thirds (69%) of existing research on dark traits uses student samples or online crowdsourcing platforms (Miller et al., 2019), raising questions about the generalisability of findings. Moreover, most of the research on dark traits is cross-sectional in nature, which does not allow the test for stability or change in relationships over time. As both ingratiation and LMX dynamics can vary across time, analysing data over a period of time not only provides strength to the validity of proposed relationships but also accounts for any changes in the relationship between constructs over time.

Along with Neumann et al. (2022), this study is among the first to establish the construct validity of the Dark Tetrad as comprising four distinct yet related components. Prior to these studies, because of the partial conceptual overlap between dark triad traits, researchers had argued that Machiavellianism and Psychopathy should be subsumed into a single construct (e.g., (Garcia & Rosenberg, 2016; Glenn & Sellbom, 2015; Persson et al., 2019). Others have proposed that a single-factor construct should be created for the dark triad, given the coverage of Narcissism and Machiavellianism by the Psychopathy trait (Furnham et al., 2014). Moreover, these studies only speak to the dark triad, while the present study enriches the triad model to now be correctly considered a tetrad. The current study used the SD3 scale by Jones & Paulhus (2014) to measure dark traits of Narcissism, Machiavellianism and Psychopathy, while Everyday Sadism was measured using (O'Meara et al., 2011) Short Sadistic Impulse Scale. Five different models were tested to assess which fits the data best. A correlated four-factor model showed the best fit ($\chi^2 = 1265.872$, CFI = 0.936, TLI = 0.931, RMSEA, 0.046, SRMR = 0.064) values. This confirmatory factor analysis validates the claims that dark tetrad comprises four distinct

concepts of Narcissism, Machiavellianism, Psychopathy and Sadism and should not be treated as a unified one-factor model.

The sequential mediation analysis used in this study was conducted using R's structural equation modelling technique (Rosseel, 2012). This allows testing and estimating complex relationships between latent and observed variables, including both direct and indirect effects, providing valuable insights into the underlying structure of the data. R offers the flexibility and resources necessary to perform a wide range of statistical analyses. Structural equation modelling is particularly helpful when there is more than one outcome variable in the research model (Ullman & Bentler, 2012). It provides accurate results for interactions between multiple predictor, outcome and mediation variables. This is among the first studies to have tested a complex sequential mediation model to understand interpersonal dynamics and work outcomes for individuals high in dark traits.

10.9 Practical Implications

This study has many important implications for managerial practice and industry. With illuminating the nature of the dark tetrad, the study brings an awareness of these traits and what characteristics and behaviours to organisations and those who interact with these individuals at the workplace. It brings to the fore the nature of such people and the concomitant risks they bring to the organisational environment.

While it is true that individuals with certain dark traits may exhibit challenging behaviours, it's important to acknowledge that they are frequently hired and can ascend to managerial positions. This is often attributed to their adeptness at navigating interviews and employment tests by engaging in behaviour that may not accurately reflect their day-to-day interactions in the workplace (Levashina & Campion, 2006). These individuals may engage in strategic misrepresentation during interviews (Fletcher, 1990), use self-promotion and deceptive communication skills to create a positive impression (Paulhus et al., 2013), and mask their true nature to achieve their ambitions (Lebreton et al., 2006).

This study provides knowledge-based insights into how individuals high in dark traits may influence managerial actions and decisions. As they consider others weak, vulnerable and

open to exploitation (Black et al., 2014) and are skilled at reading others' internal states, which they use to their advantage (Black et al., 2014; Stoody, 2000). Supervisors within organisations often have access to important resources and can allocate them to their subordinates. Supervisors also have the authority to make decisions that affect their subordinates, such as assigning tasks, evaluating performance, and providing feedback. They also play a crucial role in communicating with higher-level management and representing the needs and concerns of their team. Individuals high in dark traits may try to influence their supervisors using ingratiation tactics which involve identifying with the supervisor's opinions and ideas, supporting them in important decisions, praising their work and accomplishments and showing genuine interest in their wellbeing. The current study shows that individuals high in Narcissism and Machiavellianism reported using ingratiation tactics to influence their relationship with their supervisor positively.

Managers must be alert to the influence tactics individuals high in dark traits may use towards them. If managers are unaware of subordinate ingratiation attempts, they may be more likely to favour certain employees over others, leading to perceptions of favouritism and unfair treatment (Erdogan & Liden, 2006). This can create an unhealthy workplace dynamic, leading to resentment and conflict among team members, negatively impacting team morale and productivity (Beugré & Liverpool, 2006). By recognising these attempts, managers can work to ensure that they treat all employees fairly and equally. Moreover, when employees feel their manager is being manipulated or swayed by ingratiation attempts, it can erode trust in the manager and the organisation (Appelbaum & Hughes, 1998a). By recognising these attempts, managers can maintain the trust of their subordinates and create a positive work environment.

Organisations should have awareness of manipulative behaviours associated with such dark traits, as individuals possessing such traits may engage in unethical or unlawful behaviours when in power, creating an unhealthy and toxic work environment. This can lead to low morale, high turnover rates, and decreased productivity within the team. In severe cases, their behaviour may even lead to legal consequences for themselves and the company. When in a leadership position, narcissistic individuals may employ subordinates with similar traits which can fulfil their ego needs for admiration and grandiosity, thus creating a culture of self-appeasement and reinforcement (Fischbacher-Smith, 2015).

Narcissistic individuals have trouble accepting feedback or criticism and become defensive or angry when confronted with negative feedback. This can make it difficult for team members to voice their concerns or offer suggestions for improvement. Moreover, they are unable to understand or care about the emotions and experiences of their team members, leading to a lack of support and understanding in the workplace. They may have difficulty delegating tasks to team members, as they may feel they are the only ones capable of completing tasks to their desired standard. This can lead to overburdened team members and a lack of development opportunities. Moreover, narcissistic individuals may be difficult to work for, leading to a high turnover rate among team members. This can be costly for the organisation to train and onboard new employees.

Similarly, Machiavellian individuals in positions of power may prioritise their interests over the team's interests and promote individual success over teamwork and collaboration, leading to a lack of cohesion within the team and potentially damaging team dynamics. Psychopathic individuals may be more impulsive and prone to rash decisions without considering the long-term consequences. This can lead to costly mistakes and adverse outcomes for the company. Moreover, psychopathic individuals in managerial positions may disregard rules and regulations, leading to unethical and potentially illegal behaviour. Their lack of empathy can create difficulty in forming genuine interpersonal relationships leading to a toxic work environment and low morale among team members. Similarly, sadists may derive satisfaction from exercising control, creating an atmosphere of fear, and engaging in abusive behaviours such as bullying, harassment, and micromanagement. This can lead to high turnover rates, reduced employee morale, increased stress levels, and diminished productivity within the organisation.

This study provides insights into individual dark personality's role in using strategic influencing behaviours at work and the success of such tactics in influencing relationships with supervisors. If a leader is responsive to strategic influencing behaviour from employees and reciprocates that behaviour with positive reinforcement, this may increase perceptions of politics within the workplace, thus negatively impacting the organisational climate (Harrell-cook et al., 1999). The consequences of such behaviours can be detrimental for the organisation as it may lead to the upper echelons of management being increasingly populated by employees characterised by dark personality traits. There is no

shortage of examples from the industry where such proved fatal for organisations (for example, Enron, Theranos, WorldCom).

A hostile working environment may result in employees exhibiting deviant behaviours, as most deviant behaviours flourish in polluted environments, leading to unproductive, unethical practices (Appelbaum et al., 2005). This study helps identify such toxic behaviours and recommends taking measures to ensure the organisational climate remains uncorrupted by attempting to modify such employee behaviours. These measures may include adequately training employees and providing healthy organisational engagement. Organisations need to develop and implement such methods, which can help identify, control or eliminate such behaviours before it becomes the organisation's culture. This study will help create awareness among organisational leaders regarding such manipulative behaviours exhibited by employees and the personality traits behind these behaviours. It will also make them attentive to their own biases, which can enable such behaviours within the workplace.

Individuals high in dark traits are skilled at adapting their influence behaviours to the changing organisational structure, policies and procedures (LeBreton et al., 2018). This can make it difficult for managers to identify such individuals and stop them from becoming a part of the organisation. However, organisations can develop non-traditional and indirect measurement techniques to identify such individuals. For instance, James & Lebreton (2010) developed a conditional reasoning test to help identify individuals with aggression predisposed to engaging in hostile behaviours. Organisations can use indirect testing methods to identify and separate individuals high in dark traits from the selection procedure (Fischbacher-Smith, 2015).

Organisations must have policies and procedures to address inappropriate or harmful behaviour and ensure that employees are aware of these policies and feel comfortable reporting any concerns they may have. In addition, organisations should consider implementing training programs or other interventions to promote ethical behaviour and positive work culture (Rossouw, 2017). Establishing a code of conduct that clearly outlines the expected behaviour of employees and the consequences for violating it, can help prevent employees from exhibiting toxic behaviours such as deceitfulness and manipulation. Encouraging open communication in the workplace can help employees feel

more comfortable speaking up if they witness unethical or inappropriate behaviour. Moreover, organisations can establish a zero-tolerance policy for behaviours associated with dark personality traits, such as bullying and aggression (Karabulut, 2016). This conveys that such behaviour will not be tolerated in the workplace. Moreover, regular performance evaluations can allow employees to discuss any concerns they may have about their behaviour or the behaviour of their coworkers. It can also help managers provide assessments based on performance and avoid being receptive to ingratiation tactics by employees (Mone et al., 2018).

Employee assistant programs can help individuals high in dark traits recognise and better manage their behaviours which can otherwise adversely affect organisations (Kirk & Brown, 2003). Trained organisational psychologists should lead these programs as they are professionally equipped with tools and techniques to help them identify such personalities and potential risks associated with their behavioural patterns. These psychologists can facilitate the reorientation of such individuals towards the display of potentially healthy behaviours. Moreover, they can help the organisation evaluate the effectiveness of the interventions and support systems for individuals high in dark traits (Cable & O'Driscoll, 2010). This can help the company fine-tune these interventions and ensure they effectively address these individuals' needs and promote positive behaviour (Kaila, 2011).

10.10 Research Limitations and Future Directions

A number of limitations in the current research can be identified and addressed in future research. Firstly, the data collected was self-report, where the same individuals provided scores for predictor, mediator, and outcome variables. This can lead to a social desirability bias as individuals might report how they portray themselves, positively (Podsakoff & Organ, 1986). However, data collected at two points with a significant time lag between two waves likely protects against such biases (Podsakoff et al., 2003). Moreover, Harman's single-factor test was applied to check for common method bias (Podsakoff et al., 2012). At T1 and T2, the fit analysis showed poor results, and a multi-factor model provided a better fit for the data than the single-factor model.

The current research relied on employees' perspectives on their use of ingratiation tactics and their perceptions of LMX quality which is in keeping with previous research (Spurk et al., 2016). Future studies are advised to incorporate the perspectives of supervisors with respect to LMX to establish the effectiveness or otherwise of ingratiation tactics and could incorporate additional outcomes such as supervisors' evaluations of employee performance. As research shows that individuals who use ingratiation tactics are more likely to be positively evaluated for their performance by their supervisor, it would be interesting to explore how supervisors evaluate an employee who is high on dark traits and whether their use of ingratiation tactics influences the supervisor's decisions.

Given the demonstrated influence of ingratiation tactics on LMX quality, studies could be undertaken to examine additional consequences of this relationship. For instance, it would be interesting to see if using ingratiation tactics and consequent LMX quality increases employee engagement at work. Research shows that employees in high-quality relationships show active engagement at work (Chaurasia & Shukla, 2014). However, we do not know if the same is true for employees high in dark traits. Research shows that individuals low in dark traits exhibit greater work engagement (Derbis, 2020). Employees high in dark traits may show reduced work engagement as they feel that because their ingratiation tactics are working and their supervisor likes them, they don't need to work as hard.

Although research indicates that dark personality traits explain significant variance in outcome variables above and beyond the Big Five (Fernández-del-río et al., 2020b; Jonason et al., 2013; Jonason et al., 2011), some facets of the dark tetrad are related to the Big Five (van Geel et al., 2017). For instance, all four dark tetrad traits are negatively related to trait agreeableness, and Narcissism and Machiavellianism are positively associated with openness. At the same time, Machiavellianism, Psychopathy and Sadism are negatively associated with conscientiousness (Paulhus et al., 2020). Controlling for the Big Five can help to isolate the effects of the dark traits, increase the validity of effects found and provide a better understanding of the unique contributions of the dark traits to the behaviours being studied.

Social role theory (Eagly, 1987) dictates that people's behaviours are shaped by their roles and the expectations and norms associated with them. Some of these roles could be gender

specific. A theoretical study by Wayne & Liden (1995) suggested women are more likely to use ingratiation tactics in the workplace as society often expects women to be more submissive and accommodating, which can lead to them using ingratiation tactics as a way to gain approval and acceptance from others. At the workplace, women may feel pressure to conform to certain expectations or to be seen as more likeable to advance their careers. In these situations, ingratiation tactics may be more appealing. However, research on social influence behaviours provides mixed results. Studies by (Asadullah et al., 2021; Dreher et al., 1989; DuBrin, 1991) found no differences in the use of ingratiation tactics among men and women, while (Rai, 2009) and (Tannen, 1994) found women to be using ingratiation tactics more compared to men. Studies on gender differences in dark personality traits suggest men are more likely to exhibit dark traits (see (Jonason & Davis, 2018; Jonason & Kavanagh, 2010; Muris et al., 2017), and gender differences are also significant in how men and women express these traits (Szabó & Jones, 2019). Gender was controlled for in the present research. Future research can investigate the role of gender differences in the association between dark traits and ingratiation tactics and the relative effectiveness of such tactics for different genders.

An important and interesting observation in the analyses of the Narcissism trait was its positive association with high-quality LMX and subsequent achievement of career success outcomes of promotions and salary increases, over and above the use of ingratiation tactics. This means that narcissists' relationship with their supervisor is likely influenced, in addition to ingratiation, by other factors. Existing research shows that narcissists use self-promotion tactics frequently to fulfil their need for attention and admiration from others (Carpenter, 2012). Moreover, narcissists are socially skilled, communicate effectively and can be very convincing in their arguments. They may also use emotional appeals to make their argument more compelling. They are more likely to win over their supervisor using logic, reasoning, and persuasive discourse. Thus, future research could explore the influence tactics of self-promotion and reasoning and their mediating role in the relationship between Narcissism and LMX.

Another interesting aspect for future research would be the supervisor's personality. Individuals with dark traits might get along well with supervisors with the same traits (Schyns, 2015b). For instance, supervisors high in Narcissism may have the same need for admiration and attention and thus can be vulnerable to the ingratiation tactics used by

employees. However, when both leader and employee are narcissists, their need to dominate others might result in poor LMX quality. Similarly, if both supervisor and employee are Machiavellians, they may try to exploit each other, resulting in a lack of trust (Belschak et al., 2018) and a likely low-quality relationship between them (Schyns, 2015b). However, if a supervisor and employee with similar personality traits also share a common goal, they might join forces and try to manipulate and exploit others for their shared goal, resulting in a good relationship between them (London, 2019; Schyns, 2015b).

On the other hand, ethical leaders (Brown & Treviño, 2006) demonstrate honesty and fairness in leadership practices, actively promote ethical values and behaviours within their organisations, and work to create a culture of integrity and transparency. Future research could examine the role of ethical leadership in relation to interactions with employees high in dark traits and whether this leadership style offsets their use of ingratiation tactics.

Another aspect that future researchers should consider with respect to dark traits and use of ingratiation tactics is the organisational context. Trait activation theory (Christiansen & Tett, 2008) suggests that people's behaviour is influenced by their traits, characteristics, and specific situations. This theory suggests that their traits do not simply determine a person's behaviour, but rather the interaction between their traits and the situation they are in that determines their behaviour. Certain situations “activate” traits in individuals. For instance, individuals high in dark traits are more likely to manifest destructive behaviours if the organisational context is conducive to low accountability, high ambiguity in role expectations, and the work climate is unethical or toxic (Boddy, 2011). Moreover, a culture of cut-throat competition and high pressure to perform may compel employees to engage in unethical behaviour to get ahead. Limited workplace autonomy and power can influence dark employees to display toxic behaviours at work. Overall, organisational context can either promote or discourage the expression of dark behaviours at work. Future research should investigate the role of the organisational context in the operationalization of dark traits and the display of ingratiation behaviours.

While measuring leader-member exchange quality with the current supervisor against the number of promotions received throughout one's career is a valuable approach to understanding the influence of current supervisor relationships on career progression, it is

essential to acknowledge that the relationship with the current supervisor may not have significant influence on previous promotions, given that these promotions occurred under different leadership contexts. However, it is equally plausible to argue that a pattern and link may exist between the two variables. Employees who have received a higher number of promotions throughout their careers might have consistently demonstrated strong interpersonal skills and positive work relationships, which likely contributed to both their past and current success. While the current supervisor's influence may not directly account for past promotions, it is conceivable that individuals with a history of successful relationships with supervisors tend to maintain this trend with their current supervisor, potentially leading to continued career advancement. Therefore, while acknowledging the limitation, it is worth exploring the possibility of a cumulative effect of positive leader-member exchanges on career progression.

The present study employed a two-wave three month lagged analysis based on evidence from the literature that such a time lag is appropriate to detect any changes in the ingratiation behaviour (Bolino et al., 2014; Shaheen et al., 2019), LMX (Yang et al., 2021), and wellbeing (De Coninck et al., 2019). While the use of a two-wave longitudinal design helped confirm the stability and validity of relationships over time (Fomina et al., 2020; Maier et al., 2019), provides support for causality, enhances confidence in data interpretation for causation (Arendt et al., 2019) and validates the proposed direction of relationships as data for mediators and outcome variables (Geng et al., 2021; Parmentier et al., 2019b), it does not confirm the causal relationships between predictor, mediator, and outcome variables (Geng et al., 2021; Jackson & Scheines, 2005). Future research should incorporate multiple waves of data to examine whether the use of ingratiation tactics by individuals high in dark traits and the subsequent effect on LMX quality remains consistent or changes over time. Future research can delve deeper into exploring the potentially reciprocal and bidirectional dynamics between LMX and career outcomes. A longitudinal investigation may unveil the possibility that this symbiotic interaction could potentially result in a reinforcing cycle of positive outcomes, fostering a more robust and mutually rewarding connection between leaders and their team members. Moreover, while most of the studies on personality use self-report data (Gawronski & De Houwer, 2014; Paulhus & Vazire, 2007), future studies can incorporate case vignettes to understand the complex dynamics of dark traits and the behaviours associated with these types of personalities (Bayes & Parker, 2017; Mikton & Grounds, 2007).

10.11 Conclusion

The present research is the first to provide an integrated model explaining how individuals high in dark traits, despite their malevolent character, get ahead in their careers and whether such individuals derive personal satisfaction. An indirect relationship between dark tetrad traits and career success via mediators of ingratiation and LMX was examined. It was proposed that individuals high in dark traits likely use ingratiation tactics towards their supervisor to positively influence their perceptions and promote a strong relationship which can eventually help them achieve their goals for career success.

The results of the present study reveal that Narcissism and Machiavellianism are the primary traits which show an indirect positive relationship with subjective career success via intervening variables of ingratiation and LMX. Individuals high in these traits reported using ingratiation tactics, positive relationships with their supervisor and greater satisfaction with their careers. Psychopathy had no indirect relationship with subjective career success at both Times 1 and 2; however, a significant indirect negative relationship was found between Psychopathy and subjective career success through LMX at both Times 1 and 2. This shows that Psychopaths perceive their relations with supervisors to be poor and are generally not satisfied with their careers. Though the relationship between Psychopathy and ingratiation was positive, the results indicate that Psychopaths are not successful in effectively using ingratiation tactics to improve relationship quality with their supervisor. This makes sense as Psychopaths are impulsive, focused on short-term goals and need immediate results, while ingratiation tactics require strategy and planning and pay off in the long run. Everyday Sadism had no indirect effect on subjective career success at both Times 1 and 2. However, a significant direct positive relationship was found between everyday sadism and subjective career success at Time 1. This confirms the overlapping yet distinct nature of these four dark traits and provides evidence for the differentiation of these traits in terms of underlying attributes. For example, while all four traits involve a lack of empathy, narcissism is primarily characterised by a sense of superiority, while psychopathy is more strongly associated with impulsive behavior. Additionally, sadism is the only trait that specifically involves pleasure in causing harm to others.

Narcissism had a direct positive relationship with objective career outcomes of promotions and salary, and LMX was a significant predictor of the positive relationship between Narcissism and objective career success. Machiavellianism was the only trait which had an indirect positive effect on the number of promotions and salary increase via ingratiation and LMX. This means that ingratiation tactics were effective in the case of Machiavellians to help them achieve their goals for career success. Psychopathy was found to be negatively associated with promotions meaning that Psychopaths received fewer promotions in their career. The relationship was also significant in the context of LMX. Psychopaths reported poor-quality relationship with their supervisor resulting in lower promotions and salary raise. Everyday Sadism was found to be unrelated to objective career outcomes. The results showed that Narcissists and Machiavellians were the only individuals who were successful in receiving a more significant number of promotions or salary raise in their careers, with Psychopaths having the least number of career promotions.

The present research also investigated whether individuals high in dark traits were more satisfied in their lives. Narcissism and Machiavellianism were the only traits indirectly positively associated with greater life satisfaction through ingratiation and LMX. Narcissism also had a direct positive relationship with subjective well-being. Psychopathy was negatively related to subjective well-being, and everyday sadism had no direct or indirect association with subjective well-being. The results show that these two traits (Narcissism and Machiavellianism) were also successful in achieving their career success goals and hence were more satisfied with their lives. Psychopaths, on the other hand, are unsuccessful in effectively using ingratiation tactics, have poor relationships with their supervisors, receive the least number of promotions in their careers and are dissatisfied with their lives.

Overall, the present study makes a number of significant contributions to the existing literature. This is the first study which shows that individuals high in dark traits successfully use influence tactics towards their supervisor to achieve their goals for career success. Narcissists and Machiavellians are often successful in using such tactics and achieving their goals for career success, while Psychopaths, though they use ingratiation tactics, likely fail to build a quality relationship with their supervisor, resulting in failure to achieve goals for career success. Psychopaths are also dissatisfied with their lives as compared to Narcissists or Machiavellians. Everyday Sadism, though positively correlated with ingratiation and

subjective career success, failed to predict career success outcomes or subjective well-being significantly. This brings the question of whether Everyday Sadism should be studied in the context of workplace relationships and outcomes, in combination with other dark traits. Future studies should further illuminate these complexities.

11 References

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Appendix A - Missing Data Analysis

Items	Missingness		
	N	Count	%
Narcissism			
N1	376	3	0.8
N2	377	2	0.5
N3	377	2	0.5
N4	376	3	0.8
N5	377	2	0.5
N6	377	2	0.5
N7	377	2	0.5
N8	377	2	0.5
N9	377	2	0.5
Machiavellianism			
M1	373	6	1.6
M2	371	8	2.1
M3	372	7	1.8
M4	372	7	1.8
M5	369	10	2.6
M6	370	9	2.4
M7	372	7	1.8
M8	371	8	2.1
M9	371	8	2.1
Psychopathy			
P1	375	4	1.1
P2	375	4	1.1
P3	376	3	0.8
P4	375	4	1.1
P5	376	3	0.8
P6	376	3	0.8
P7	376	3	0.8
P8	376	3	0.8
Sadism			
S1	364	15	4.0
S2	365	14	3.7
S3	365	14	3.7
S4	364	15	4.0
S5	363	16	4.2
S6	365	14	3.7
S7	364	15	4.0
S8	365	14	3.7
S9	364	15	4.0
Ingratiation			
I1	357	22	5.8
I2	358	21	5.5
I3	359	20	5.3
I4	359	20	5.3
I5	359	20	5.3

I6	359	20	5.3
I7	360	19	5.0
I8	356	23	6.1
I9	358	21	5.5
I10	355	24	6.3
I11	355	24	6.3
LMX			
L1	364	15	4.0
L2	365	14	3.7
L3	365	14	3.7
L4	365	14	3.7
L5	365	14	3.7
L6	366	13	3.4
L7	364	15	4.0
Subjective Career Success			
CS1	359	20	5.3
CS2	356	23	6.1
CS3	355	24	6.3
CS4	356	23	6.1
CS5	357	22	5.8
Psychological Wellbeing			
PB1	355	24	6.3
PB2	355	24	6.3
PB3	354	25	6.6
PB4	355	24	6.3
PB5	355	24	6.3
PB6	354	25	6.6
PB7	355	24	6.3
PB8	355	24	6.3

Appendix B - Maximum Likelihood Estimation, Mean and Std. Deviation Differences

Items	No. of MV	Original Mean	Original SD	New Mean	New SD
Narcissism					
N1	3	3.69	0.879	3.69	0.876
N2	2	2.85	0.976	2.85	0.974
N3	2	3.54	1.005	3.54	1.002
N4	3	3.07	1.06	3.06	1.056
N5	2	2.83	1.203	2.83	1.199
N6	2	2.28	1.112	2.28	1.109
N7	2	2.93	1.059	2.93	1.056
N8	2	2.67	0.975	2.67	0.972
N9	2	3.1	1.042	3.1	1.039
Machiavellianism					
M1	6	3.47	1.066	3.47	1.058
M2	8	3.35	1.085	3.35	1.074
M3	7	2.56	1.144	2.57	1.133
M4	7	2.88	1.184	2.88	1.173
M5	10	2.28	1.11	2.28	1.097
M6	9	2.25	1.068	2.25	1.056
M7	7	1.85	0.866	1.85	0.859
M8	8	2.6	1.262	2.6	1.249
M9	8	2.92	1.156	2.92	1.145
Psychopathy					
P1	4	3.78	0.974	3.78	0.969
P2	4	2.13	1.036	2.12	1.03
P3	3	2.62	1.084	2.62	1.08
P4	4	2.59	1.112	2.6	1.106
P5	3	2.37	1.143	2.37	1.138
P6	3	1.88	0.989	1.88	0.985
P7	3	2.23	1.113	2.23	1.108
P8	3	2.1	1.002	2.1	0.998
Sadism					
S1	15	5.13	2.219	5.14	2.18
S2	14	3.06	1.925	3.07	1.896
S3	14	2.08	1.649	2.08	1.622
S4	15	2.14	1.65	2.15	1.623
S5	16	3.39	1.967	3.4	1.932
S6	14	2.36	1.786	2.37	1.757
S7	15	1.74	1.319	1.75	1.297
S8	14	2.05	1.597	2.06	1.57
S9	15	2.5	1.849	2.5	1.815
Ingratiation					
I1	22	3.1	1.243	3.09	1.211
I2	21	2.89	1.255	2.9	1.222

I3	20	2.69	1.14	2.69	1.113
I4	20	2.89	0.957	2.89	0.936
I5	20	2.17	1.054	2.18	1.033
I6	20	3.18	1.329	3.19	1.301
I7	19	2.84	1.262	2.84	1.232
I8	23	3.39	1.223	3.39	1.197
I9	21	3.19	1.309	3.2	1.279
I10	24	3.03	1.244	3.04	1.219
I11	24	2.45	1.264	2.45	1.237
LMX					
L1	15	3.61	1.076	3.62	1.058
L2	14	3.44	1.138	3.44	1.119
L3	14	3.69	1.011	3.7	0.994
L4	14	3.52	1.044	3.53	1.027
L5	14	2.78	1.177	2.79	1.157
L6	13	5.31	1.549	5.31	1.525
L7	15	3.94	0.898	3.94	0.882
Subjective Career Success					
CS1	20	4.53	1.931	4.53	1.887
CS2	23	4.58	1.877	4.58	1.833
CS3	24	4.43	1.955	4.44	1.904
CS4	23	4.88	1.791	4.88	1.747
CS5	22	3.42	0.97	3.42	0.95
Psychological Wellbeing					
PB1	24	3.85	0.912	3.86	0.888
PB2	24	5.65	1.413	5.65	1.373
PB3	25	5.56	1.385	5.57	1.343
PB4	24	5.97	1.029	5.98	1
PB5	24	6.07	0.936	6.07	0.911
PB6	25	6.04	0.953	6.04	0.929
PB7	24	5.88	1.346	5.89	1.312
PB8	24	5.95	0.913	5.96	0.89

Appendix C - DCU Research Ethics Committee Approval

Ollscoil Chathair Bhaile Átha Cliath
Dublin City University



Ms. Adeela Farqan
DCU Business School

Dr. Melrona Kirrane
DCU Business School

27th November 2019

REC Reference: DCUREC/2019/183

Proposal Title: An exploration of factors that contribute to effective supervisor-employee relations

Applicant(s): Ms. Adeela Farqan and Dr. Melrona Kirrane

Dear Colleagues,

This research proposal qualifies under our Notification Procedure, as a low risk social research project. Therefore, the DCU Research Ethics Committee approves this project.

Materials used to recruit participants should state that ethical approval for this project has been obtained from the Dublin City University Research Ethics Committee.

Should substantial modifications to the research protocol be required at a later stage, a further amendment submission should be made to the REC.

Yours sincerely,

A handwritten signature in cursive script that reads 'Geraldine Scanlon'.

Dr Geraldine Scanlon
Chairperson
DCU Research Ethics Committee



Taighde & Nuálaíocht Tacaíocht
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Appendix D - Informed Consent Form

INFORMED CONSENT FORM

Research Title: The role of personality characteristics in employee ingratiation behaviour: Consequential effects on leader-member relations and employee outcomes

Researcher: Adeela Farqan, 2nd Year PhD student at Dublin City University (DCU) (Adeela.farqan3@mail.dcu.ie)

Academic Supervisor: Dr. Melrona Kirrane (Melrona.kirrane@dcu.ie)

Research: This study is designed to explore the effectiveness of ingratiation tactics used by employees at workplace, within the ambit of personality traits and work outcomes. The study measures the impact of ingratiation tactics on employee's career success and subjective wellbeing via their influence on interpersonal relationships within workplace.

Participation: You are invited to participate in this research. Participation is voluntary and you are free to withdraw your participation at any time without any consequence. There is no compensation offered for participating, just the researcher's sincere gratitude to those who choose to participate.

Participation is in form of completing a questionnaire (approximately 15 minutes). The data will be collected at two different time intervals. No personal data or organization data will be gathered. The data (electronic) will be uploaded to an encrypted folder on the researcher's DCU Google Drive. This storage space is only accessible through the researcher's student email account and requires a unique password. The hard copies (in case needed) would be locked in a safe locker within a locked office only accessible to researcher.

There are no risks associated with participating in this research. No sensitive or personal information will be required from participants. The data collected will be used as part of the researcher's PhD dissertation, and potentially as part of research papers submitted to academic journals. The anonymized data will then be disposed of by deleting it. Should participants be interested in the research findings, a copy of report will be made available to them.

Legal Limitations To Data Confidentiality: As part of the DCU ethics approval process, participants must be aware that confidentiality of information provided cannot always be guaranteed by researchers and can only be protected within the limitations of the law - i.e., in certain cases, it is possible for data to be subject to subpoena or mandated reporting by some professions.

Contact: If participants have any queries about this research, they may email the researcher (Adeela.farqan3@mail.dcu.ie). Alternatively, if participants have concerns about this study and wish to contact an independent person, they may contact:

The Secretary,
Dublin City University Research Ethics Committee,
C/o Research and Innovation Support,
Dublin City University, Dublin 9.
Tel: 01-7008000,
E-mail: rec@dcu.ie.

Confirmation of particular requirements as highlighted in the Plain Language Statement

Dear Participant – please complete the following (Circle Yes or No for each question)

- I have read the Plain Language Statement*
- I understand the information provided*
- I have had an opportunity to ask questions and discuss this study*
- I have received satisfactory answers to all my questions*
- I know my participation in this study is voluntary*
- I know this survey does not include my name or any identifiable details*
- I am aware, I can withdraw from the Research Study at any point.*
- I am satisfied with the data protection and safety rules mentioned by researcher*
- I know that my confidentiality of information provided is subject to legal limitations*

Signature:

I have read and understood the information in this form. My questions and concerns have been answered by the researchers, and I have a copy of the plain language statement about this study. Therefore, I consent to take part in this research project.

Participant's Signature: _____

Name in Block Capitals: _____

Date: _____

Appendix E - Research Survey

Personality and Workplace Relationships

This study explores the impact of individual personality characteristics on workplace relationships. It is an anonymous survey, and your participation is completely voluntary. Consent to participate is inferred by completing the survey.

Note: This survey is for working professionals (employees) only.

Q1 Gender

- Male
 - Female
 - Other
 - Prefer not to say
-

Q2 Your role within the organisation you are currently working for?

▼ Managerial (1) ... Non-Managerial (2)

Q3 Your tenure within your organisation?

▼ Less than one year (1) ... 20 years and more (6)

Q4 Your tenure with your current supervisor

▼ Less than one year (1) ... 20 years and more (6)

Q5 Your overall job experience (total number of years)?

Q6 Your organisation size (total number of employees in your organisation)?

- 1 - 10 employees
 - 11-50 employees
 - 51-200 employees
 - 201-500 employees
 - 501 - 1000 employees
 - 1001 and more employees
-

Q7 Industry/Sector are you working in?

- IT Sector
- Telecom
- Banking
- Education
- Government
- Health
- Insurance
- Transport
- Manufacturing
- Other (please specify in the box below) _____

End of Block: Block 9

Start of Block: Block 2

Questions 8 to 33 are measured on a scale of 1 = Strongly Disagree to 5 = Strongly Agree

Narcissism

Q8 People see me as a natural leader.

- Strongly Disagree
- Disagree
- Neither agree nor Disagree
- Agree
- Strongly Agree

Q9 I have been compared to famous people.

Q10 I like to get acquainted with important people.

Q11 Many group activities tend to be dull without me.

Q12 I am an average person.

Q13 I like to show off every now and then.

Q14 I feel embarrassed if someone compliments me

Q15 I know that I am special because everyone keeps telling me so.

Q16 I hate being the centre of attention.

End of Block: Block 2

Start of Block: Block 4

Psychopathy

Q17 I often take risks in situations where others would hesitate.

Q18 I'll say anything to get what I want.

Q19 People who mess with me always regret it.

Q20 I tend to fight against authorities and their rules.

Q21 It's true that I can be mean to others.

Q22 People often say I'm out of control.

Q23 In my opinion, payback needs to be quick and nasty.

Q24 I like breaking rules.

End of Block: Block 4

Start of Block: Block 3

Machiavellianism

Q25 I am transparent about my problems.

Q26 I avoid direct conflict with others because they may be useful in the future.

Q27 I can manipulate people.

Q28 Flattery is a good way to get people on your side.

Q29 I keep track of information that can be used against people later.

Q30 I like to use clever manipulation to get my way.

Q31 I make sure my plans benefit myself, not others.

Q32 I wait for the right time to get back at people.

Q33 There are things I hide from other people to preserve my reputation.

End of Block: Block 3

Start of Block: Block 5

LMX

Q34 Do you usually know how satisfied your immediate supervisor/manager is with what you do?

- Rarely
 - Occasionally
 - Sometimes
 - Fairly Often
 - Very Often
-

Q35 How well does your immediate supervisor/manager understand your job problems and needs?

- Not a bit
 - A little
 - A fair amount
 - Quite a bit
 - A great deal
-

Q36 How well does your immediate supervisor/manager recognize your potential?

- Not at all
 - A little
 - Moderately
 - Mostly
 - Fully
-

Q37 What are the chances that your immediate supervisor/manager would use their power to help you solve problems in your work?

- None
 - Small
 - Moderate
 - High
 - Very High
-

Q38 What are the chances that your immediate supervisor/manager would “bail you out,” at their expense?

- None
 - Small
 - Moderate
 - High
 - Very High
-

Q39 I have enough confidence in my immediate supervisor/manager that I would defend and justify their decision if he/she were not present to do so themselves.

- Strongly Disagree
 - Disagree
 - Neither agree nor disagree
 - Agree
 - Strongly agree.
-

Q40 How would you characterize your working relationship with your immediate supervisor/manager?

- Extremely Ineffective
- Worse than average
- Average
- Better than average
- Extremely Effective

End of Block: Block 5

Start of Block: Block 9

Questions 41 to 49 are measured on a scale of 1 = Strongly Disagree to 5 = Strongly Agree

Sadism

Q41 I know how to hurt someone with words alone.

Q42 Some people deserve to suffer.

Q43 I have said mean things on social media, just for kicks.

Q44 I enjoy watching violent sports.

Q45 It's funny when idiots fall flat on their face.

Q46 I really enjoy violent films and video games.

Q47 I have hurt people because I could.

Q48 I have humiliated others to keep them in line.

Q49 Sometimes, I get so angry I want to hurt people.

End of Block: Block 9

Start of Block: Block 8

Think about your general interactions with your immediate supervisor/manager. How regularly have you.....

Questions 50 to 60 are measured on a scale of 1 = Never to 5 = Always

Ingratiation

Q50 Made sure you acted in a friendly manner prior to asking for what you wanted.

- Never
- Sometimes
- Occasionally
- Most of the time
- Always

Q51 Made them feel positive about you before you made a request of them.

Q52 Praised them.

Q53 Showed them, you need their help.

Q54 Inflated the importance of what you wanted them to do.

Q55 Acted very humbly towards them while making a request.

Q56 Waited until they appeared in a receptive mood before asking for something.

Q57 Asked about something in a specifically polite way.

Q58 Sympathised with them about any added problems that your request has caused.

Q59 Made them feel important.

Q60 Pretended you were letting them decide to do what you wanted.

End of Block: Block 8

Start of Block: Block 7

Questions 61 to 64 are measured on a scale of 1 = Strongly Disagree to 5 = Strongly Agree

Subjective Career Success

Q61 I am satisfied with the success I have achieved in my career.

Q62 I am satisfied with the overall progress I have made towards meeting my promotion goals.

Q63 I am satisfied with the overall progress I have made towards meeting my goal for income.

Q64 I am satisfied with the overall progress I have made towards meeting my goal for the development of new skills.

Q65 All in all, how satisfied are you with your job?

- Not at all satisfied
- Slightly Satisfied
- Moderately Satisfied
- Very Satisfied
- Extremely Satisfied

End of Block: Block 7

Start of Block: Block 8

Objective Career Success

Q66 Total number of promotions you received in your overall career so far.

- None
- 1
- 2
- 3
- 4
- 5 or more

Q67 In the past three years, how much has your total annual salary increased?

- None
- 2%
- 3%
- 4%
- 5%
- 6% or more

End of Block: Block 8

Start of Block: Block 9

Questions 68 to 89 are measured on a scale of 1 = Strongly Disagree to 5 = Strongly Agree.

Subjective Well-being

Q68 I lead a purposeful and meaningful life.

Q69 My social relationships are supportive and rewarding.

Q70 I am engaged and interested in my daily activities.

Q71 I actively contribute to the happiness and well-being of others.

Q72 I am competent and capable in the activities that are important to me.

Q73 I am a good person and live a good life.

Q74 I am optimistic about my future.

Q75 People respect me.

End of Block: Block 9

Start of Block: Block 10

Perceptions of Politics

Q76 Favouritism, rather than merit, determines who gets ahead in this organisation.

Q77 There is no place for yes-men in this workplace: Good ideas are desired, even when it means disagreeing with superiors.

Q78 There has always been an influential group of employees in this workplace whom no one ever crosses.

Q79 Employees here usually don't speak up for fear of retaliation by others.

Q80 Employees in this organization attempt to build themselves up by tearing others down.

Q81 I have seen changes made in the policies of this organisation that only serve the purposes of a selected few.

Q82 There is a group of employees in this organization who always get things their way because no one wants to challenge them.

Q83 I can't remember when a person received a pay increase or a promotion that was inconsistent with the company's published policies.

Q84 Since I have worked in this organization, I have never seen the pay and promotion policies applied politically.

End of Block: Block 10

Start of Block: Block 11

National Culture

Q85 Managers should make most decisions without consulting subordinates.

Q86 It is frequently necessary for a manager to use authority and power when dealing with subordinates.

Q87 Managers should seldom ask for the opinions of employees.

Q88 Managers should avoid off-the-job social contact with employees.

Q89 Employees should always agree with the management decisions.

Q91 Dear Participant,

Thank you for completing the survey. Part 2 of this survey will be conducted after time gap of three months. I humbly request you to kindly provide me with your email address (in the box below) so I can email you the link for 2nd part of questionnaire. Your participation is highly valued and would really help me in my research. Thank you!

End of Block: Block 11
