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A Mediacentric Examination Of The Corporate Psychopath

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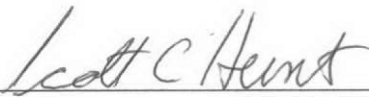
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A MEDIACENTRIC EXAMINATION OF THE CORPORATE PSYCHOPATH

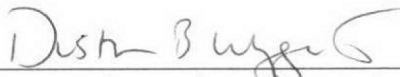
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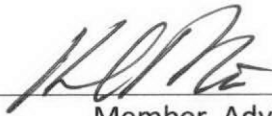
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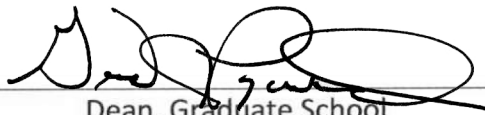
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A MEDIACENTRIC EXAMINATION OF THE CORPORATE PSYCHOPATH

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DEDICATION

This thesis is dedicated to my grandparents, John and Wilma Woody, who loved me more than any grandchild has ever been loved.

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I would like to thank my thesis committee, Dr. Scott Hunt, Dr. Dustin Wygant, and Dr. Kevin Minor for their guidance, knowledge, and patience. The road has been long, with many twists and turns along the way; yet, their commitment has been unwavering. I would like to express my love and gratitude to my husband, Nathan Brooks, who has, in essence, earned this Master's Degree right alongside me. His constant encouragement and unfaltering support have meant more than words can ever say. He deserves his own diploma. I would also like to express my love and gratitude to my parents, Jim and Brenda Woody, who, from day one, instilled in me the importance of education and the confidence to pursue my dreams. Their significant contributions to the "Mom and Pop scholarship fund" have not been forgotten. They too, have earned this degree. Above all, I thank Jesus my Savior, who loves me and died for me. Without Him, I am nothing.

ABSTRACT

The psychopathic personality disorder is an extraordinarily complex and multidimensional phenomenon. While its study has primarily focused on criminal and forensic populations, many researchers are broadening the scope of psychopathy research to include those in the corporate world. This, after striking similarities were revealed between the personalities of corporate leaders and clinically diagnosed psychopaths. One profession that may be attractive to psychopathic personalities is the media, specifically television and radio. This exploratory study utilized a blend of original and archival data. Calculated effect sizes were used to examine the existence of personality facets among three groups of media professionals and how they compare to both inmate and community samples. Research limitations and future research endeavors are further discussed within this study.

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INTRODUCTION

The psychopathic personality is an extraordinarily complex and multidimensional phenomenon. Often misunderstood and misdiagnosed, researchers and clinicians alike have long sought out its underlying causes; yet, the resulting body of research has proven to be just as varied and diverse as the disorder itself. Psychopathy, a construct first coined by the French psychiatrist Philippe Pinel (Groth, 2011), typically has been studied among offender and forensic populations. Yet, researchers have begun to shift their attention to the populace at large after a profusion of psychological and organizational studies uncovered striking similarities between the personality traits of clinically diagnosed psychopaths and high ranking business and industry leaders (Babiak & Hare, 2007). It was becoming clear psychopathy was a disorder that affected more than just the Ted Bundys and John Wayne Gacys of the world.

The entertainment and media industries play a pivotal role in putting names and faces to the “monsters” who have become popular culture’s psychopathic poster children. Dr. Robert Hare and organizational psychologist Dr. Paul Babiak put names and faces to a whole new class of “monster” – the corporate psychopath. Though the devastation is typically calculated in dollars instead of deaths, corporate psychopaths often leave behind a wide swath of “broken hearts, shattered expectations, and empty wallets...” (Hare, 1999). Theorists may never be able to conclusively determine the exact cause of psychopathy – be it a genetic abnormality (Clarke, 2005), a neurological deficiency (Ermer, et al., 2012), or survival of the fittest run amok (Dutton, 2012).

However, one talking point many psychologists, criminologists, and other “ologists” will agree on is that psychopaths *do* exist. Proven time and time again, coming into close contact with one can be dangerous, disastrous, and – in extreme cases – deadly (Hare, 1999).

The existing body of research on psychopathy is extensive; yet, it has traditionally focused on those who have violated the boundaries of cultural conformity and social acceptability. Forensic populations have afforded researchers, not only a readymade data pool, but the opportunity to probe some of society’s darkest and most deviant minds. The result: two primary schools of thought that seek to explain the origins of the disorder with a third vying for its equal share of legitimacy. It is a contemporary repackaging of the longstanding “nature versus nurture” debate, where a “predisposition for certain characteristics are present at conception, but the expression of such are environmentally regulated” (Stout, 2005). Multiple studies have been conducted on either side of the debate and offer supporting evidence for both biological and socioenvironmental causes of psychopathy. The third school of thought – tinged with evolutionary undertones – promotes an enhanced “survival of the fittest” mentality, due in part to the existence of a “warrior gene” that is often associated with psychopathic behavior (Dutton, 2012). Yet, it advocates a fusion of the biological and the environmental, contending these two seemingly competing theories are in essence two sides of the same coin.

This study focuses on the prevalence of psychopathic personality traits among members of the media and how they compare to other groups. Self-reported data from

members of two participating media outlets were compared with archival data from two previous psychopathy studies. One study examined traits associated with psychopathy as measured by the *Personality Inventory for DSM-5* (PID-5) among inmates; the other, among a non-forensic, community sample. *Cohen's d* effect sizes were used to determine the magnitude of psychopathic traits among a media population. The resulting societal implications were also examined.

The catalyst for this research was a 2012 social experiment conducted in Britain by Dr. Kevin Dutton, a research psychologist at the University of Oxford. In his book *The Wisdom of Psychopaths: What Saints, Spies, and Serial Killers Can Teach Us About Success*, he detailed the Great British Psychopath Survey. This was the first time psychopathic traits were assessed among an entire national workforce. Dutton's analyses yielded a compilation of the top professions he considered most and least attractive to psychopathic personalities. The media – television and radio – ranked number three on the list of professions most attractive (Dutton, 2012). To understand why television and radio news is such a fertile breeding ground for the corporate psychopath, it is necessary to understand the internal bureaucratization of the media, the relationship between power and profit, and the role news plays in shaping and reinforcing our cultural mentalities and sensibilities.

Psychopaths are driven by an “insatiable appetite for power and control” (Clarke, 2005) and are inherently drawn to occupations that afford them that luxury, such as the media. What more could a psychopath ask for than an industry that thrives and survives

on disseminating information to the world that is framed and filtered through the very eyes of those who first determine what is newsworthy?

Psychopaths employ a three-pronged approach to life that relies on achieving power, trust, and control. Some researchers have labeled this the “SOS” mentality, or *strive, overcome, succeed* (Dutton, 2012). They work to align themselves in a position of power (strive), a position that awards them the trust of their clients/consumers/coworkers/etc. (overcome), that will ultimately afford them control (succeed). In order to understand just how instrumental the media is in shaping our view of society, we must momentarily disregard the daily content we see displayed across our television screens and hear emanating from our speakers and probe deeper into the organization’s internal dynamics and fundamental motivations. After all, the video, the music, the graphics, even the anchors, reporters, and hosts themselves, are the resulting manifestation of an often contentious commercial bureaucracy.

The media industry, first and foremost, is a corporation and must be recognized as such (Tuchman, 1978). The population at large has long been led to believe the media’s primary function is to serve as a social institution, dedicated to informing the world of the meltdowns, mishaps, and misgivings of society around them – an obligatory role vital to democracy. To an extent, this is true; however, “what television news is presenting and what it is actually delivering are two different things” (Postman & Powers, 2008). Everything that is done within a news organization is done with the bottom line in mind. In the book *How to Watch TV News*, authors Neil Postman and Steve Powers contend entire news programs are designed to build viewership. More

viewers mean higher ratings, increased advertising dollars, higher profits, and additional programming (Postman & Powers, 2008). Garnering profit over loss is the hallmark ambition of the business world, but viewing the media from a corporate perspective reveals a certain inherent manipulation lurking behind the thin veil of journalism. Postman and Powers say, “The goal is to make as much money as possible from news departments, sometimes to the detriment of truth and journalism” (Postman & Powers, 2008). To further understand the industry and why its manipulative makeup is so intrinsically attractive to psychopathic personalities, the media should be studied as two separate organizational hierarchies: the *corporate hierarchy* (media as a corporation) and the *affiliate hierarchy* (media as a social institution.) Though not mutually exclusive, each is dynamically different and possesses its own internal culture.

The corporate hierarchy is comprised of a media affiliate’s parent company, the affiliate, and the affiliate’s viewing/listening audience. As in most corporate hierarchies, what happens at the top of the corporate chain of command inevitably trickles down to the subordinate levels, and the media is no exception. However, the distribution of power is not a one-way street. The affiliate or station occupying the middle rung is vital to the strength of the entire ladder. Whether or not the affiliate is the most *important* member of the hierarchy, it can certainly be argued it is the most *active*. Its success is paramount to the survival of the corporation as a whole. What happens within this mid-level entity not only filters down to the audience but siphons back up to the parent company as well. Delivering a solid, reliable product establishes a solid, reliable audience, as reflected by the ratings book. A solid, reliable, and loyal viewer and

listenership validates the organization's work, deeming it successful. This in turn reinforces the leadership of the parent company, and the media outlet is richly rewarded from both sides. Growing audiences mean more people will consume the news entity's version of reality, while those same numbers mean the parent company is in a much better position to meet the bottom line – the primary goal of any corporation. The parent company, as a result, will award more money, more resources, and more opportunities to the affiliate or station to at least sustain, if not surpass, its current level of productivity. This is where corporate psychopathy rears its head – its existence factors significantly into the way resources are allocated (Boddy, 2005).

News outlets are comprised of multiple departments, each one necessary to the overall functionality and success of the business. Each of those departments typically possesses its own internal hierarchy, generally comprised of a department head and one, possibly two, levels of subordinates. While not to dismiss the importance of any department, not all of them are directly involved in the daily dissemination of news. The news department is subdivided into news managers, anchors, reporters, producers, photographers, and editors. The internal working of a news organization fosters a “team work” or “group effort” mentality due to the interconnectedness of roles required to compose a solid product. A hierarchical structure does exist, but it is fluid in nature. This often makes it more difficult to clearly delineate the levels of authority. The top level of the hierarchy is occupied by the news managers. Managerial distinctions are left to the discretion of each individual station, so it is highly unlikely one will see the same managerial structure at other television stations. The management level of the

participating news department is comprised of the news director, assistant news director, assignment manager, and two executive producers. News creation and generation begins at this level. Postman and Powers contend that news is news because news directors and journalists say it is news (Postman and Powers, 2008). Therefore, the determinations that are made at the beginning of the workday set the journalistic tone for the entire day's broadcasts.

News producers occupy the second level of the hierarchy as they are the ones who steer the ship during a live broadcast and are under the direct purview of the executive producers. Their responsibilities include properly timing the show and monitoring the news rundowns to ensure all content is ready to air at the appropriate time, all while staying in constant communication with the anchors and crews live in the field. A producer must be able to multitask. Breaking news, transmission problems, equipment failure, or some unexpected event like a power outage, can upend a carefully planned newscast in an instant, and the producer must be able to compensate for any unforeseen problems.

It can be argued that on-air talent (anchors and reporters) along with news photographers, and editors collectively round out the bottom level of the hierarchy. But, depending upon the culture of the organization, on-air talent may take issue with this. Given that anchors and reporters are the "face" of a television news station, it is not uncommon for some of these people to develop an air of superiority driven by ego and a sense of self-entitlement. The level of authority among producers, anchors, reporters, photographers, and editors fluctuates depending on who is asking the questions and

who has the answers. Therefore, describing the affiliate hierarchy as a “floating hierarchy” would be a realistic interpretation. It is precisely this imprecise style of bureaucracy that proves so beneficial to psychopaths and their end game. However, if the remaining groups are ranked based on the physical contributions made to generate a final news product, it is not incorrect to place photographers and editors on the third level of the hierarchy. Anchors and reporters amass a station’s on-air talent pool and collectively round out the fourth and final level. Equally as important as the news department, is a station’s production department. Much like that of news management, how a production department is structured is specific to each station. These employees are crucial to a successful broadcast; however, they are not directly involved in the creation of news content and therefore do not meet the inclusion criteria for this research study.

LITERATURE REVIEW

The literature on corporate psychopathy and its implications is virtually as anemic as the literature on psychopathy and violent criminality is abundant. A growing interest in the prevalence of nonviolent, and often noncriminal, psychopaths and how they function and thrive in business and industrial settings has precipitated this burgeoning body of research. However, gaining access to testable populations has commonly proved problematic. Researchers largely attribute this to the lack of active cooperation from corporations and business organizations. The fear of violating privacy laws coupled with the risk of lawsuits more often than not outweighs the pursuit of academic knowledge (Babiak, 2010). A failure to embrace, or even fully grasp, the research objectives is also a factor. Dr. Robert Hare, the man largely considered to be the world's foremost expert on psychopathy, has devoted his career to interacting with and studying psychopaths in prisons, the general population, and corporate settings. Expanding upon the scientific concept of psychopathy detailed by Hervey Cleckley in his 1941 book *The Mask of Sanity* (Dein, 2012), Hare created the Psychopathy Checklist – Revised ('PCL-R'), the instrument considered to be the "gold standard" in assessing and evaluating psychopaths (Stout, 2005; Spencer, 2010). The checklist subdivides the psychopathic personality into four separate domains: 1.) interpersonal, 2.) affective, 3.) lifestyle, and 4.) antisocial. Scores range from extremely low to high; suggesting psychopathy can be understood as a continuum, identifying an individual's *degree* of psychopathy as opposed to its categorical existence. Dr. Hare continues to stress the

importance of being able to identify these social predators because of the enormous risk they pose to society; however, Hare warns the public to never attempt a psychopathic diagnosis. Because psychopathy is comprised of multiple related symptoms, people who are certainly *not* psychopaths may still possess some of the personality traits associated with the disorder (Hare, 1999). Only a properly qualified clinician can make a valid diagnosis.

The journey to identify specific causes of psychopathy is ongoing and generating valid research on both sides of the longstanding biological versus environmental debate. However, there seems to be a greater profusion of studies that focus more on the biological and neurological underpinnings of the disorder. Hervey Cleckley described psychopathy as this fascinating paradox: “a profound lack of morality and poor behavioral controls in the presence of intact general intellectual functioning and the absence of delusional or psychotic symptoms” (Ermer & Kiehl, 2010). Neurological studies of the criminal mind have provided an essential springboard for researchers to examine the underlying causes of psychopathy leading many to conclude it is a “neurodevelopmental disorder” (Gao, et al., 2009).

Biocentric criminology research suggests that a number of brain regions may contribute to the psychopathic personality. Underdevelopment or malformation of the paralimbic cortex, anterior cingulate cortex, posterior cingulate cortex, orbitofrontal cortex, insula, parahippocampal regions, and limbic structures have been implicated in the disorder. Neuroimaging and structural MRI studies among incarcerated males have shown a significant decrease in gray matter among several brain regions, especially the

paralimbic and limbic areas. Such findings suggest these regions play a significant role in understanding the neurological deficiencies associated with psychopathy (Ermer, et al., 2012). According to the aforementioned researchers, consistently identifying these structures in psychopathy makes a strong case that these regions are crucial to understanding the root cause of the disorder.

Further investigating the neurobiological abnormalities associated with psychopathy, other researchers are concluding that psychopaths suffer from poor emotional processing. Such neural deficiencies render them unable to engage in moral decision-making (Harenski, et al., 2010) which suggests impairment in a psychopath's ability to reason and interpret social exchange in the same manner as nonpsychopaths. Though not a general feature of psychopathy, this impairment can to some degree explain why psychopaths fail to conform to the same social contracts that govern normal human relationships and interactions (Ermer & Kiehl, 2010).

While the causal waters of psychopathy remain murky, what researchers and clinicians alike have found just as confounding is how society handles this destructive population. Punitively, the criminal justice system is extremely limited in its ability to rebuke psychopaths. Dr. Robert Hare states the defining characteristic of a psychopath is the lack of a conscience. Such an emotional deficiency renders them unable to experience empathy, guilt, and fear, thus bolstering their immunity to punishment. Society must determine what legitimate course of action can be taken to balance the scales of justice. Many of the correctional theories outlined by authors Francis T. Cullen and Cheryl Lero Johnson in their book *Correctional Theory: Context and Consequences*,

appear “too good to be true” with regard to a psychopath. Unfortunately, many of them are. The success of correctional methods such as restorative justice and rehabilitation are highly contingent upon the admission of guilt (Cullen & Johnson, 2012). Registering guilt is prevented by a psychopath’s lack of conscience; therefore, psychopaths believe they have nothing to feel guilty about.

Rehabilitation seeks to change offenders through a structured intervention in order to decrease the chances of recidivism (Cullen & Johnson, 2012). Billions of dollars are spent yearly in an attempt to “rehabilitate” psychopaths, but to no avail (Hare, 1999). Psychopaths do not believe they suffer from any sort of psychological or emotional problems and therefore see no reason to amend their behavior (Hare, 1999). With regard to the criminal psychopath, incapacitation appears to be the only viable punitive option. However, the lines become increasingly blurred when the focus turns to that of the corporate psychopath. There is no legal recourse, especially in the absence of criminal activity. Corporate harm is typically not defined as “real crime” partially because it is “not recognized as a widespread problem” (Clarke, 2005). The victimization of a workplace psychopath is just as personal to the victim as that of a violent criminal psychopath. However, the effects are often much less immediate and visible. That, of course, provides no consolation to the victims of a corporate psychopath, nor does it diminish the personal or professional devastation left behind. Simply stated, there are no easy answers regarding the cause of psychopathy or how to fully cope with the resulting damage. Therefore, broadening the base of psychopathic research is essential.

RESEARCH DESIGN

1. RESEARCH PARTICIPANTS

The participating television news station is categorized as a mid-market sized television station. It consists of multiple departments, but not everyone employed met the inclusion criteria for this study. Only those who actively determine, create, generate, gather, and produce daily news content were eligible for inclusion. From story ideation to story execution, each of these employees somehow contributes to the final manifestation of broadcast quality content. Those included News Managers, On-Air Talent, and News Production. All of these employees are governed by the News Department. Most television news stations have a specifically designated Production Department that works in conjunction with the News Department. However, for the purposes of this study, the producers, photographers, and editors will be collectively referred to as News Production.

Most roles within the news department are so clearly defined it was apparent as to which group each person belonged. However, a few employees have jobs that cross over between groups. These four people are known as Multi-Media Journalists, or MMJs. Often referred to as “One Man Bands,” an MMJ is a reporter who also shoots and edits his or her own video; a single person who fills the role of three different news positions. While it would have been acceptable to consider these individuals either talent or production, it was ultimately determined to categorize them as On-Air Talent.

MMJs at times function as both a photographer and an editor, but their principle role is that of a reporter.

The participating radio broadcasting group is geographically located in the same area as the participating television station, and shares much of the same viewer/listenership. The two companies are media partners and often join forces for various advertising and community ventures. Five individual radio stations are housed under the umbrella of this radio broadcasting group; however, for the purposes of this study, the radio group will be considered a single media entity, like that of the television station. The radio broadcasting group will from here on be referred to as the radio station.

Employees of the radio station were divided into the same three categories – News Managers, On-Air Talent, and News Production. Each was guided by the same inclusion criteria as that of the television station, yet the roles were not as clearly defined. There is significantly more overlap between job responsibilities. Much like the television station's Multi-Media Journalists, a number of radio employees fill several positions. Some members of management, as well as production personnel, often do small on-air segments, but that comes secondary to their principle job responsibilities. Employees were once again assigned to the appropriate group based upon their *primary* role in radio news. The three categories of radio employees mirror those of television employees, at least in terms of work function. Nonetheless, due to the inherent differences between the mediums of television and radio, the News Production

category differs the most. Instead of producers, photographers, and editors, there are radio board operators and call screeners.

A total of 69 adults participated in this study and were divided into three groups. Group One is News Managers, consisting of nine participants. Five of those were categorized as Television News Managers (two male, three female), the other four were categorized as Radio News Managers (four male). Group Two, the largest of the three groups, is News Talent, consisting of 35 participants. Within this group, 29 adults were categorized as Television Talent (14 male, 15 female). The remaining six participants were categorized as Radio Talent (five male, one female.) Group Three, the final group, is News Production and is comprised of 25 adults. The majority of the participants, 22, were categorized as Television Production (16 male, six female), while the final three were categorized as Radio Production (two male, one female.) The majority of the media study participants were male, 43 (62%) compared to 26 (38%) female. The ethnic landscape was overwhelmingly Caucasian as well – 64 (93%). Four of the remaining participants were African American, and one was Hispanic. Gender and race were only collected for general reporting purposes and are not specifically tied to the individual research participants. This was done as an added measure of confidentiality to ensure no one participant could be identified through their gender or race.

2. RESEARCH PROCEDURES

Signed written consent was obtained from the management of both the television and radio stations before the surveys were administered to eligible employees. The data

was gathered over the span of one month garnering a 95% response rate from the television station and a 74% response rate from the radio station. Each participant was verbally briefed before beginning the survey. A script was used to clearly outline the research objectives, survey instructions, and participant expectations. Reading from the script ensured each participant received the same thorough and complete information. The importance of confidentiality was stressed with the assurance no identifiers would be included. It was also explained that participation was strictly voluntary, and each person had the option to end the survey should they at any time become uncomfortable. Each participant was required to sign a written consent form before beginning the survey and subsequently received a copy of that form. Additionally, an identical blue pen was given to each participant with which to complete the survey. Providing identical ink was an added measure taken to protect the participants' identities and preserve an overall level of anonymity. Signed consent forms were then placed in separate envelopes apart from all survey response sheets. Each of the three groups within each organization had specifically marked envelopes in which consent forms and surveys were placed. It was not necessary to know which survey belonged to which person, but it was paramount to know which surveys belonged to which group so the appropriate analyses could be conducted later.

Survey research such as this is often conducted in a group setting; however, the inherent nature of news does not allow for such. A reporter or photographer can be summoned at any moment to attend to a breaking news situation or may be required to spend many hours in the field to successfully cover a story. The majority of surveys were

administered on-site at both locations during employees' working shifts – with consent from news management and human resources. However, it was simply impossible to convene large groups of eligible participants for any significant uninterrupted span of time. It became necessary to juggle overlapping shifts, lunch breaks, and the rare, but occasional, bouts of downtime. Surveys were typically being conducted concurrently, just not necessarily in the same location. Two to six people were generally completing surveys at any given time. Some participants completed their survey alone at their desks, while small groups of two or three would work in a communal area. Though not ideal, at least one third of the participants took their surveys home to complete overnight and return the next day.

3. RESEARCH MEASURES AND ANALYSES

The Personality Inventory for DSM-5, also known as the PID-5, (Krueger, et al., 2012) was administered to the 69 survey participants as part of a battery of five self-report personality measures. It is a 220-item self-report inventory developed to index the five DSM-5 Section III personality domains and their corresponding facets. These items load onto five broad domains of non-adaptive personality – emotional dysregulation, detachment, antagonism, disinhibition, and peculiarity – along with 25 domain subfacets. The factor structure and other evidence of external construct validity for this measure has been well documented (e.g., Anderson et al., 2013; Hopwood et al., 2012; Thomas et al., 2013).

These five instruments collectively paint a broad picture of psychopathy, yet allow for other more specific analyses to be conducted through the use of individual survey components. That was the decision made for this study. While all of the data gathered from the research period were coded, the analyses performed using SPSS focused solely on the self-reported data from the *Personality Inventory for DSM-5* (PID-5). This was ultimately due to the sample size of each participating media outlet. While the response rates were significant due to the size of the testable populations, the resulting small samples severely limited the options for meaningful analyses. The initial research objective was to compare the three television groups to their corresponding radio counterparts; but again, small sample sizes did not allow for this to happen. Therefore, the corresponding groups of each media outlet were combined to produce larger, more testable samples. One individual was a unique case as this person was an On-Air Talent employee of both the participating television and radio station. This participant's survey results were initially excluded from the research data to prevent possibly skewing any meaningful results. However, once it was determined the television and radio data would be combined, that person's data was then included among the On-Air Talent participants. These expanded groups were still referred to as News Managers, On-Air Talent, and News Production. Only now, they encompassed the data from both television and radio.

This study utilized a combination of original and archival data. The data from the three media groups were collected for the express purpose of this study and then compared to the data from two previously conducted psychopathy studies. The first

study examined the PID-5 personality facets among a group of 200 male inmates who were administered a battery of self-report and interview-based measures (Wygant, et al, 2016). The findings were published in the article *Examining the DSM-5 Alternative Personality Disorder Model Operationalization of the Antisocial Personality Disorder and Psychopathy in a Male Correctional Sample*. The descriptive statistics for the inmate sample are detailed in Table 1. The second study featured a community sample of 188 adults and evaluated the same thirty personality facets. The majority of these participants were recruited via online advertisements while the remainders were undergraduate college students recruited through campus advertisements (Strickland, et al., 2013). The subsequent findings were published in the article *Characterizing Psychopathy Using DSM-5 Personality Traits*. The descriptive statistics for the community sample are detailed in Table 2.

The descriptive statistics – mean and standard deviation – of both the study group (Media Sample) and the comparison group (Inmate Sample/Community Sample) were then entered into an effect size calculator that determined the magnitude, or effect size, of all the PID-5 facet traits. The resulting effect size was interpreted using Cohen’s Standard Scale and generalized as small, medium, or large.¹

¹ Tables are located in Appendix A.

RESULTS

This study uses the calculated effect size to examine how the existence of the PID-5 personality facets among the three groups of media personnel compares to the inmate and community samples. The effect size is the magnitude of the difference between groups, the main finding of a quantitative study. Effect size indices are independent of sample size making it an appropriate measure for studies that are plagued by small samples (Sullivan & Feinn, 2012). Cohen's *d* is a common index of effect size and classifies such effects as *small* ($d=0.2$), *medium* ($d=0.5$), and *large* ($d\geq 0.8$). The media groups are each entered as the study group, while the inmate and community samples are always the comparison group. This allows us to see just how different the media looks when examined alongside these two other groups of people.

The first group to be analyzed was the Media Managers. When comparing the Media Managers to the Inmates there were no discernable effects among any of the 30 PID-5 personality facets. All of the calculated effect sizes were negative. The descriptive statistics for the Media Managers and the corresponding effect sizes when compared to the Inmates are detailed in Table 3. However, when compared to the Community sample, several facets yielded measurable effects. As designated by the Cohen's *d* scale, there was a *medium* effect of 0.31 associated with Anxiousness. This demonstrates that there is a measurable degree of Anxiousness among the Media Managers sample that is greater than that of the Community sample. There was also a *small* effect of 0.01 associated with Manipulativeness; however, it is so small, it is considered trivial.

Disinhibition produced a medium effect of 0.55. Much like that of Anxiousness, the effect of Disinhibition is measurable, and is more prevalent among the Media Managers sample than the Community sample. Conversely, the facets of Negative Affectivity, Detachment, Antagonism, and Psychoticism all presented a *large* effect. The largest of these, Antagonism, was 2.88. All of these facets are present at a much higher level among the Media Managers than those within the Community sample. The descriptive statistics for the Media Managers along with the corresponding effect sizes when compared to the Community sample, are outlined in Table 4.

Media Talent, the largest of the three media groups, was the next to be analyzed. Unlike the previous group, the talent pool did yield some measurable effects when compared to the Inmate sample. Two facets were considered to have a *medium* effect – Submissiveness with an effect size of 0.54 and Attention Seeking with an effect size of 0.40. While both of these traits are measurably present in this comparison, they both are still far less among the Media Talent sample than that of the Inmate sample. The descriptive statistics of the Media Talent along with the corresponding effect sizes when compared to the Inmates are outlined in Table 5. When compared to the Community sample, there were even more measurable facets. Once again, Attention Seeking and Submissiveness were present, but this time, both only produced a *small* effect – Attention Seeking, 0.21 and Submissiveness, 0.16. Hostility and Grandiosity also yielded *small* effects of 0.13 and 0.02. All four traits were somewhat present, more so than among the Community sample; yet, most were so small their presence is trivial. As with the Media Managers, Negative Affectivity, Detachment, Antagonism, Disinhibition,

and Psychoticism all produced measurable effects. All five facets yielded a *large* effect size with Antagonism being the largest at 2.53 and Psychoticism, at 0.72, being the smallest. Again, this shows that all five of these facets are more prevalent among the Media Talent sample than among the Community sample. Table 6 details the descriptive statistics and corresponding effect sizes for the Media Talent sample compared to the Community sample.

The third and final group to be analyzed was that of Media Production. These employees had four PID-5 facets with measurable effect sizes when compared to the Inmate sample, the most of any media group. Anhedonia, Attention Seeking, and Intimacy Avoidance all had *small* effects at 0.04, 0.20, and 0.03. All facets measure so small that their presence is trivial. However, Submissiveness yielded a *large* effect size of 0.89. This is the largest effect size of any personality facet within any media group compared to the Inmate sample. While the prevalence of Submissiveness is great among the Media Production group, it is still less than that of the Inmate sample. The descriptive statistics for the Media Production, as well as the effect sizes when compared to the Inmate sample, are outlined in Table 7. All three groups evidenced more measurable effects when compared to the Community sample, but the Media Production group had overwhelmingly more than any other group. Over half of the PID-5 facets, 18 in all, yielded a measurable effect. The majority of them, 13, are either *small* or *medium* effects. That effect size information, along with the descriptive statistics for the Media Production sample are detailed in Table 8. Yet again, as with the previous two groups, Negative Affectivity, Detachment, Antagonism, Disinhibition, and Psychoticism

all yield much greater measurable effects. Much like the Media Talent group, all five also produce a *large* effect size. Negative Affectivity has by far the largest effect at 3.33. This proves the Media Production employees have a much higher prevalence of these facets than that of the Community sample.

Overall, when compared to the Inmate sample, there were far fewer measurable effects. Those present were at the individualized PID-5 facet level, and there were none at the corresponding domain level. However, when compared to the Community sample, the measurable effects were always present at the PID-5 domain level. This suggests that psychopathy is a much more generalized phenomenon within the media. Employees possess a greater prevalence of measurable psychopathic features than an ordinary community sample, but not necessarily with a great depth of specificity. The findings suggest there is a modicum of all personality facets present in some combination, and that their existence may in fact be situational in nature. However, despite the existence of these socially aversive traits, media professionals know where to draw the line. The desire for power, control, and self-gratification is compelling enough that it precipitates their choice of profession; yet, that desire is mild enough that the profession is all that is necessary to satiate it.

DISCUSSION

These findings confirm there are in fact personality differences between media personnel when examined against other testable groups. The Media sample falls somewhere between the Inmate and Community samples. There were some measureable effects when compared to the Inmate sample, yet the Media sample ultimately identified more closely with the Community sample. By comparing this unique group of individuals to samples from both a forensic and non-forensic population, we gain greater insight into where these media professionals fall along the spectrum of psychopathy – the spectrum along which each of us occupies our own place (Dutton, 2012).

In order to fully understand the societal implications of psychopathic personalities amongst members of the media, it first becomes necessary to understand how integral the industry is to our everyday existence. Society develops a complex relationship with the media; one that is predicated on a certain degree of trust. In turn, the media becomes an authoritative source regarding the public conscience. Researchers have identified three forms of media trust: trust of news information, trust of those who present the news, and trust of media corporations (Williams, 2012). Though each is distinct, all three forms factor into the degree of authority the public assigns to the media based upon a perceived level of legitimacy (Stout, 2005). The media industry prides itself on being an objective and accurate presenter of reality. News organizations admittedly receive credit for some degree of accuracy; otherwise,

they face possible legal consequences. However, the projected picture of reality is incomplete. Ultimately, there is no objectivity in news. The determination of newsworthiness is based upon the mentalities and sensibilities of the news director, or manager in charge (Postman & Powers, 2008). Ultimately, we need to become critical consumers of media rather than casual observers.

Beyond the calculated effect sizes of individualized personality facets and their respective domains, a greater finding appears regarding the construct of the successful, or functional, psychopath. The notion of their professional existence is a driving force behind this study. However, a dialectical relationship has emerged regarding this particular idea. Dr. John Clarke and Dr. Kevin Dutton are at odds regarding whether or not a psychopath serves any constructive purpose within the workplace. Dr. Clarke firmly contends, “the simple answer to whether a psychopath can be useful to a company is no” (Clarke, 2005). Dr. Dutton conversely believes there is “evidence to suggest that psychopathy, in small doses at least, can have surprising benefits” (Dutton, 2012). Both statements possess a certain degree of legitimacy; however, the primary determinant of that legitimacy is how the construct of success is measured and operationalized.

Television news is a *commercial* enterprise that survives based upon the news that is *made* and presented for public consumption (Postman & Powers, 2008). The news managers develop the policies and procedures that set the tone for the entire news department and subsequently direct subordinates to work in accordance with said tone (Postman & Powers, 2008). People in positions of authority have an inherent

responsibility to govern their employees. Yet, these roles simultaneously afford the opportunity to use the accompanying “regulations and systems built into their jobs to control other people.” They often display no remorse, are manipulative, insincere, and exhibit bullying behaviors (Clarke, 2005). As news is more often *made* than gathered, and essential to carry out the designated mission of the organization, it stands to reason those in managerial positions of power will take the necessary steps to make sure sufficient content is generated; this, with little to no regard of the systematic suffering and misery inflicted upon their coworkers in the process (Clarke, 2005). So, if success is measured in the amount of news generated, disseminated, and legitimized by a strong viewership and consistent ratings, then the “value” of psychopathic personalities in the media can be argued. However, if such success comes at the expense of the employees – loss of autonomy, lack of self-worth, professional lethargy – then a strong case can be made that psychopaths have no positive effect upon the workplace. Ultimately, “there are no human cost benefits, and psychopaths can only have a negative impact on any organization they work for (Clarke, 2005).

1. RESEARCH HURDLES AND LIMITATIONS

This study fell victim to many of the pitfalls, problems, trials, and tribulations that often plague exploratory research. Undergoing many iterations and adaptations along the way, the research objective changed multiple times. If anything, this speaks as to why the amount of corporate psychopathy literature is indeed so meager, especially among industrial and professional populations. A failure to embrace, or even fully grasp, the research goals is largely the reason many workplaces reject this type of research and refuse to participate. This was the case time and time again. Understandably, the notion of *psychopathy* can be somewhat off-putting to those who are ill-informed. However, this lack of proper understanding further confirms just how misinformed the public at large is regarding what it means to be a psychopath. The irony, of course, being that the media itself is largely responsible for perpetuating such misinformation.

The initial objective of this study was to test for the Dark Triad of Personality, a specific cluster of personality traits comprised of Narcissism, Machiavellianism, and Sub-clinical Psychopathy. The goal was to determine whether or not a higher prevalence of these traits correlated to dominance in the news market. All three television news stations within the same market were approached and presented with the opportunity to participate. Ultimately, only one agreed. Once it became clear the other two stations were not going to take part, a slight shift in the research objective became necessary. Then, other television affiliates within different news markets were approached about participating. The hope was for the study to still hone in on the Dark Triad but instead

determine whether or not a higher prevalence of these traits positively correlated with larger market size. Yet, in the end, those stations all declined to take part. It became critical at this point to branch out into other news mediums including radio and print. Finally, one radio group additionally agreed to participate. Those two media outlets became the testable population. Once again, a research shift was inevitable. It was determined the Dark Triad would remain the focus, yet the study would now compare the prevalence of those psychopathic traits between news employees of television and radio.

Employees of both participating media outlets were intrigued by the study and willingly took part. Unfortunately, enthusiasm does not compensate for low response rates. Though respectable with regard to the number of eligible participants, the resulting sample size was considered low -- at least in accordance with acceptable research standards. This unfortunate finding precipitated not just a comparative shift, but significantly changed the course of the entire study. Focusing specifically on the Dark Triad was no longer an option as the samples were not large enough to yield any results, let alone meaningful ones. At that time, the study transformed into its current state, utilized a hybrid mix of original and archival data and employed a statistical measure independent of sample size.

The greatest limitation of this study is the lack of generalizability among its findings. No systematic sampling procedure was used which means the media samples were merely convenience samples. Some interesting personality trends emerged; yet, they are specific to this sample. There was also a significant size differential between

the study groups and the Inmate sample and Community sample comparison groups. Three small employee groups from a specific profession – non-criminal samples – are being compared, first to a much larger criminal sample, and then to a much larger non-criminal sample. Learning the media samples align more closely with the Community sample is not surprising. However, these findings are not robust enough to suggest this would hold true for other professions. Comparing similarly sized groups of employees from other industries to this media sample would be a much more systematic and appropriate way to gain greater insight into the personality of the workplace psychopath. Though the scope and magnitude of this study is limited, nonetheless, it makes four notable contributions to psychopathy research.

2. RESEARCH CONTRIBUTIONS AND FUTURE ENDEAVORS

First and foremost, this study has added to the existing body of corporate psychopathy literature. The notion of successful workplace psychopaths is quite disconcerting; yet, their existence is undeniable. Very little research has been conducted in this particular area; therefore, the severity of the threat they pose is still largely unknown (Clarke, 2005). However, this study is yet another step on the path to learning more about these workplace parasites who immerse themselves in professional cultures that afford them the opportunity to “quench their insatiable appetite for power and control” (Clarke, 2005). While no definitive conclusions can be drawn as to the existence of psychopaths within these two media outlets, the findings certainly confirm that the personalities of media personnel are structured differently than those of the public at large.

This segues to the second point which is confirmation of two separate, yet interconnected notions about psychopaths. First, this aligns with Dr. Dutton's British psychopathy experiment that ranks the media as the third most attractive profession to psychopathic personalities. The presence of measurable effects among certain personality facets and domains confirms these professionals are a different breed of people operating within an unorthodox corporate bureaucracy. They desire some degree of fame and notoriety and can easily exist within a fluid and often contentious work environment, all for the sake of the win. Considering a psychopath's propensity to break the rules in order to achieve their own self-interests, the flexible authority within

a given news organization allows them to do so, while still managing to fly under the radar. Textbook bureaucracies rarely ever exist, and a news organization is anything but textbook. Instead, it is characterized by a constantly evolving and developing culture that allow psychopaths to thrive and prosper (Babiak & Hare, 2007). Secondly, this study validates the idea that psychopathy is not an either or phenomenon, but one that does in fact exist upon a continuum with varying degrees between two polar extremes. The Media sample falls within the midrange, flanked by the Inmate and Community samples. While certain facets had a measurable effect upon the Inmate sample, collectively, the Media sample identified more closely with the Community sample. It is therefore correct to say that members of the media display a greater prevalence of psychopathic personality traits than an ordinary community sample. Yet, that prevalence is not nearly as high as that of incarcerated inmates. While both declarations can be perceived as statements of the obvious, they are nonetheless important. This, especially, as researchers continue to build a dedicated body of research focusing on the phenomenon of corporate psychopathy. Confirming a current finding can be just as significant as negating another.

A third contribution of this study is the unique opportunity presented to news managers to become more effective leaders. The establishment of an empirical personality blueprint will allow professional leaders in the media industry to gain valuable insight into their staff and themselves. The power that accompanies a role in news management can reaffirm a destructive style of psychopathic leadership that serves to fulfill one's own self-interests often at the expense of morale (Gudmundsson &

Southey, 2011). Therefore, this study serves as an impetus for media leaders to reevaluate their current organizational strategies and implement changes to their management techniques and leadership styles. This, all done in a constructive effort to achieve the eventual goal – fostering a happier, healthier, more productive, and ultimately, more successful work environment.

Finally, this study opens the door for a litany of future media-driven corporate psychopathy research, as it only begins to scratch the surface of what can be done. This research offers a fresh, new perspective on the topic by analyzing a highly testable population that has thus far been overlooked. There are opportunities to analyze and compare larger markets, different geographic regions, and to introduce print and online media outlets as well. This study seeks to be the catalyst for significant forthcoming corporate psychopathy research endeavors, whether mediacentric or designed to analyze other professions deemed attractive to psychopathic personalities.

Psychopaths continue to mystify and mesmerize clinicians and scholars alike. They are undeniably a detriment to society; however, researchers like Dr. Robert Hare and Dr. Paul Babiak are awakening the public consciousness, not only to their existence, but to their devil in plain sight characteristic nature. Psychopaths are not necessarily axe-wielding murderers, but they can still wreak havoc on the safety, security, and sanity of those around them. The growing body of corporate psychopathy research is as fascinating as it is frightening, but clearly, more work needs to be done. Great power accompanies great knowledge, and when forced to survive the psychopaths next door,

at work, or at home, that knowledge may be the greatest weapon to defeat them before they defeat you.

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APPENDIX A:
Data Tables

Table 1: Descriptive Statistics for Inmate Sample

PID-5 Facet	N	Mean	Standard Deviation
PID-5 Anhedonia	200	0.92	0.57
PID-5 Anxiousness	200	1.48	0.66
PID-5 Depressivity	200	0.80	0.56
PID-5 Emotional Lability	200	1.12	0.70
PID-5 Hostility	200	1.33	0.64
PID-5 Perseveration	200	1.12	0.60
PID-5 (Lack of) Rigid Perfectionism	200	1.43	0.67
PID-5 Separation Insecurity	200	1.18	0.71
PID-5 Submissiveness	200	0.98	0.65
PID-5 Suspiciousness	200	1.50	0.50
PID-5 Withdrawal	200	1.30	0.70

Table 1 (Continued)

PID-5 Facet	N	Mean	Standard Deviation
PID-5 Attention Seeking	200	1.07	0.69
PID-5 Callousness	200	0.77	0.58
PID-5 Deceitfulness	200	0.79	0.57
PID-5 Grandiosity	200	0.94	0.63
PID-5 Manipulativeness	200	1.18	0.71
PID-5 Intimacy Avoidance	200	0.50	0.56
PID-5 Restricted Affectivity	200	1.29	0.63
PID-5 Distractibility	200	1.13	0.74
PID-5 Eccentricity	200	1.24	0.76
PID-5 Perceptual Dysregulation	200	0.67	0.53
PID-5 Risk Taking	200	1.68	0.57

Table 1 (Continued)

PID-5 Facet	N	Mean	Standard Deviation
PID-5 Unusual Beliefs/Experiences	200	0.81	0.59
PID-5 Impulsivity	200	1.33	0.71
PID-5 Irresponsibility	200	0.58	0.51
PID-5 Negative Affectivity	200	3.78	1.64
PID-5 Detachment	200	2.72	1.49
PID-5 Antagonism	200	2.91	1.55
PID-5 Disinhibition	200	3.04	1.65
PID-5 Psychoticism	200	2.72	1.65

Source: *Examining the DSM-5 Alternative Personality Disorder Model Operationalization of Antisocial Personality Disorder and Psychopathy in a Male Correctional Sample.*

Wygant, Dustin B., Sleep, Chelsea E., Applegate, Kathryn C., Sellbom, Martin, Wall, Tina D., Krueger, Robert F., & Patrick, Christopher, J. (2016).

Table 2: Descriptive Statistics for Community Sample

PID-5 Facet	N	Mean	Standard Deviation
PID-5 Anhedonia	182	0.81	0.64
PID-5 Anxiousness	180	1.17	0.75
PID-5 Depressivity	181	0.58	0.61
PID-5 Emotional Lability	184	1.02	0.69
PID-5 Hostility	182	0.88	0.58
PID-5 Perseveration	180	1.03	0.56
PID-5 (Lack of) Rigid Perfectionism	178	1.19	0.68
PID-5 Separation Insecurity	181	1.01	0.70
PID-5 Submissiveness	183	1.22	0.61
PID-5 Suspiciousness	178	0.94	0.55

Table 2 (Continued)

PID-5 Facet	N	Mean	Standard Deviation
PID-5 Withdrawal	184	0.88	0.62
PID-5 Attention Seeking	183	1.21	0.65
PID-5 Callousness	176	0.44	0.45
PID-5 Deceitfulness	183	0.76	0.57
PID-5 Grandiosity	182	0.83	0.53
PID-5 Manipulativeness	182	1.15	0.70
PID-5 Intimacy Avoidance	185	0.62	0.61
PID-5 Restricted Affectivity	182	0.98	0.60
PID-5 Distractibility	182	1.07	0.72
PID-5 Eccentricity	177	1.18	0.83

Table 2 (Continued)

PID-5 Facet	N	Mean	Standard Deviation
PID-5 Perceptual Dysregulation	180	0.80	0.60
PID-5 Risk Taking	175	1.39	0.63
PID-5 Unusual Beliefs/Experiences	184	0.85	0.67
PID-5 Impulsivity	182	0.93	0.71
PID-5 Irresponsibility	183	0.54	0.53
PID-5 Negative Affectivity	162	1.15	0.40
PID-5 Detachment	169	0.74	0.49
PID-5 Antagonism	162	0.77	0.41
PID-5 Disinhibition	162	1.22	0.42
PID-5 Psychoticism	169	0.95	0.63

Source: *Characterizing Psychopathy Using DSM-5 Personality Traits*.
Strickland, Casey M., Drislane, Laura E., Lucy, Megan, Krueger, Robert F., & Patrick, Christopher J.
(2013).

Table 3: Media Managers: Effect Size Compared to Inmate Sample

PID-5 Facet	N	Mean	Standard Deviation	Effect Size
PID-5 Anhedonia	9	0.57	0.49	-0.61
PID-5 Anxiousness	9	1.41	1.18	-0.10
PID-5 Depressivity	9	0.31	0.40	-0.89
PID-5 Emotional Lability	9	0.65	0.84	-0.67
PID-5 Hostility	9	0.80	0.88	-0.81
PID-5 Perseveration	9	0.52	0.57	-0.98
PID-5 (Lack of) Rigid Perfectionism	9	1.01	0.76	-0.63
PID-5 Separation Insecurity	9	0.46	0.58	-1.02

Table 3 (Continued)

PID-5 Facet	N	Mean	Standard Deviation	Effect Size
PID-5 Submissiveness	9	0.89	0.83	-0.13
PID-5 Suspiciousness	9	0.73	0.54	-1.55
PID-5 Withdrawal	9	0.64	0.76	-0.93
PID-5 Attention Seeking	9	0.96	0.81	-0.16
PID-5 Callousness	9	0.22	0.21	-0.96
PID-5 Deceitfulness	9	0.54	0.36	-0.44
PID-5 Grandiosity	9	0.50	0.52	-0.70
PID-5 Manipulativeness	9	1.16	0.61	-0.03
PID-5 Intimacy Avoidance	9	0.33	0.35	-0.31
PID-5 Restricted Affectivity	9	0.63	0.53	-1.05

Table 3 (Continued)

PID-5 Facet	N	Mean	Standard Deviation	Effect Size
PID-5 Distractibility	9	0.57	0.66	-0.76
PID-5 Eccentricity	9	0.77	0.96	-0.61
PID-5 Perceptual Dysregulation	9	0.32	0.51	-0.66
PID-5 Risk Taking	9	0.98	0.54	-1.23
PID-5 Unusual Beliefs/Experiences	9	0.61	0.67	-0.33
PID-5 Impulsivity	9	0.62	0.53	-1.00
PID-5 Irresponsibility	9	0.29	0.26	-0.58
PID-5 Negative Affectivity	9	2.52	2.12	-0.76
PID-5 Detachment	9	1.55	1.43	-0.79
PID-5 Antagonism	9	2.20	1.34	-0.46

Table 3 (Continued)

PID-5 Facet	N	Mean	Standard Deviation	Effect Size
PID-5 Disinhibition	9	1.47	0.99	-0.96
PID-5 Psychoticism	9	1.70	1.99	-0.61

Table 4: Media Managers: Effect Size Compared to Community Sample

PID-5 Facet	N	Mean	Standard Deviation	Effect Size
PID-5 Anhedonia	9	0.57	0.49	-0.38
PID-5 Anxiousness	9	1.41	1.18	0.31
PID-5 Depressivity	9	0.31	0.40	-0.45
PID-5 Emotional Lability	9	0.65	0.84	-0.53
PID-5 Hostility	9	0.80	0.88	-0.13
PID-5 Perseveration	9	0.52	0.57	-0.91
PID-5 (Lack of) Rigid Perfectionism	9	1.01	0.76	-0.26
PID-5 Separation Insecurity	9	0.46	0.58	-0.79
PID-5 Submissiveness	9	0.89	0.83	-0.53

Table 4 (Continued)

PID-5 Facet	N	Mean	Standard Deviation	Effect Size
PID-5 Suspiciousness	9	0.73	0.54	-0.38
PID-5 Withdrawal	9	0.64	0.76	-0.38
PID-5 Attention Seeking	9	0.96	0.81	-0.38
PID-5 Callousness	9	0.22	0.21	-0.49
PID-5 Deceitfulness	9	0.54	0.36	-0.38
PID-5 Grandiosity	9	0.50	0.52	-0.62
PID-5 Manipulativeness	9	1.16	0.61	0.01
PID-5 Intimacy Avoidance	9	0.33	0.35	-0.48
PID-5 Restricted Affectivity	9	0.63	0.53	-0.58
PID-5 Distractibility	9	0.57	0.66	-0.70

Table 4 (Continued)

PID-5 Facet	N	Mean	Standard Deviation	Effect Size
PID-5 Eccentricity	9	0.77	0.96	-0.49
PID-5 Perceptual Dysregulation	9	0.32	0.51	-0.80
PID-5 Risk Taking	9	0.98	0.54	-0.65
PID-5 Unusual Beliefs/Experiences	9	0.61	0.67	-0.36
PID-5 Impulsivity	9	0.62	0.53	-0.44
PID-5 Irresponsibility	9	0.29	0.26	-0.49
PID-5 Negative Affectivity	9	2.52	2.12	2.27
PID-5 Detachment	9	1.55	1.43	1.42
PID-5 Antagonism	9	2.20	1.34	2.88
PID-5 Disinhibition	9	1.47	0.99	0.55
PID-5 Psychoticism	9	1.70	1.99	1.01

Table 5: Media Talent: Effect Size Compared to Inmate Sample

PID-5 Facet	N	Mean	Standard Deviation	Effect Size
PID-5 Anhedonia	35	0.64	0.57	-0.49
PID-5 Anxiousness	35	1.12	0.68	-0.52
PID-5 Depressivity	35	0.37	0.47	-0.79
PID-5 Emotional Lability	35	0.81	0.60	-0.46
PID-5 Hostility	35	0.95	0.48	-0.61
PID-5 Perseveration	35	0.71	0.56	-0.67
PID-5 (Lack of) Rigid Perfectionism	35	1.03	0.70	-0.60
PID-5 Separation Insecurity	35	0.76	0.62	-0.61
PID-5 Submissiveness	35	1.32	0.54	0.54
PID-5 Suspiciousness	35	0.81	0.58	-1.36
PID-5 Withdrawal	35	0.71	0.60	-0.86

Table 5 (Continued)

PID-5 Facet	N	Mean	Standard Deviation	Effect Size
PID-5 Attention Seeking	35	1.35	0.70	0.40
PID-5 Callousness	35	0.41	0.36	-0.65
PID-5 Deceitfulness	35	0.60	0.54	-0.34
PID-5 Grandiosity	35	0.84	0.56	-0.16
PID-5 Manipulativeness	35	1.02	0.54	-0.23
PID-5 Intimacy Avoidance	35	0.40	0.52	-0.19
PID-5 Restricted Affectivity	35	0.86	0.58	-0.69
PID-5 Distractibility	35	0.81	0.60	-0.44
PID-5 Eccentricity	35	0.70	0.79	-0.70
PID-5 Perceptual Dysregulation	35	0.45	0.44	-0.43
PID-5 Risk Taking	35	1.24	0.47	-0.78

Table 5 (Continued)

PID-5 Facet	N	Mean	Standard Deviation	Effect Size
PID-5 Unusual Beliefs/Experiences	35	0.40	0.39	-0.73
PID-5 Impulsivity	35	0.80	0.55	-0.77
PID-5 Irresponsibility	35	0.37	0.41	-0.42
PID-5 Negative Affectivity	35	2.70	1.69	-0.66
PID-5 Detachment	35	1.75	1.43	-0.66
PID-5 Antagonism	35	2.45	1.32	-0.30
PID-5 Disinhibition	35	1.98	1.36	-0.66
PID-5 Psychoticism	35	1.55	1.45	-0.72

Table 6: Media Talent: Effect Size Compared to Community Sample

PID-5 Facet	N	Mean	Standard Deviation	Effect Size
PID-5 Anhedonia	35	0.64	0.57	-0.28
PID-5 Anxiousness	35	1.12	0.68	-0.05
PID-5 Depressivity	35	0.37	0.47	-0.36
PID-5 Emotional Lability	35	0.81	0.60	-0.32
PID-5 Hostility	35	0.95	0.48	0.13
PID-5 Perseveration	35	0.71	0.56	-0.58
PID-5 (Lack of) Rigid Perfectionism	35	1.03	0.70	-0.23
PID-5 Separation Insecurity	35	0.76	0.62	-0.37
PID-5 Submissiveness	35	1.32	0.54	0.16
PID-5 Suspiciousness	35	0.81	0.58	-0.24
PID-5 Withdrawal	35	0.71	0.60	-0.27

Table 6 (Continued)

PID-5 Facet	N	Mean	Standard Deviation	Effect Size
PID-5 Attention Seeking	35	1.35	0.70	0.21
PID-5 Callousness	35	0.41	0.36	-0.07
PID-5 Deceitfulness	35	0.60	0.54	-0.29
PID-5 Grandiosity	35	0.84	0.56	0.02
PID-5 Manipulativeness	35	1.02	0.54	-0.20
PID-5 Intimacy Avoidance	35	0.40	0.52	-0.37
PID-5 Restricted Affectivity	35	0.86	0.58	-0.20
PID-5 Distractibility	35	0.81	0.60	-0.37
PID-5 Eccentricity	35	0.70	0.79	-0.58
PID-5 Perceptual Dysregulation	35	0.45	0.44	-0.60
PID-5 Risk Taking	35	1.24	0.47	-0.24

Table 6 (Continued)

PID-5 Facet	N	Mean	Standard Deviation	Effect Size
PID-5 Unusual Beliefs/Experiences	35	0.40	0.39	-0.72
PID-5 Impulsivity	35	0.80	0.55	-0.19
PID-5 Irresponsibility	35	0.37	0.41	-0.34
PID-5 Negative Affectivity	35	2.70	1.69	1.95
PID-5 Detachment	35	1.75	1.43	1.37
PID-5 Antagonism	35	2.45	1.32	2.53
PID-5 Disinhibition	35	1.98	1.36	1.11
PID-5 Psychoticism	35	1.55	1.45	0.72

Table 7: Media Production: Effect Size Compared to Inmate Sample

PID-5 Facet	N	Mean	Standard Deviation	Effect Size
PID-5 Anhedonia	25	0.94	0.73	0.04
PID-5 Anxiousness	25	1.21	0.77	-0.40
PID-5 Depressivity	25	0.62	0.71	-0.32
PID-5 Emotional Lability	25	1.09	0.53	-0.04
PID-5 Hostility	25	1.12	0.56	-0.34
PID-5 Perseveration	25	1.09	0.59	-0.03
PID-5 (Lack of) Rigid Perfectionism	25	1.37	0.85	-0.10
PID-5 Separation Insecurity	25	1.05	0.59	-0.19

Table 7 (Continued)

PID-5 Facet	N	Mean	Standard Deviation	Effect Size
PID-5 Submissiveness	25	1.54	0.52	0.89
PID-5 Suspiciousness	25	1.06	0.64	-0.87
PID-5 Withdrawal	25	0.96	0.73	-0.48
PID-5 Attention Seeking	25	1.21	0.64	0.20
PID-5 Callousness	25	0.51	0.46	-0.46
PID-5 Deceitfulness	25	0.73	0.51	-0.11
PID-5 Grandiosity	25	0.81	0.56	-0.22
PID-5 Manipulativeness	25	0.96	0.68	-0.30
PID-5 Intimacy Avoidance	25	0.52	0.55	0.03
PID-5 Restricted Affectivity	25	0.84	0.64	-0.71

Table 7 (Continued)

PID-5 Facet	N	Mean	Standard Deviation	Effect Size
PID-5 Distractibility	25	1.12	0.71	-0.01
PID-5 Eccentricity	25	1.02	0.79	-0.29
PID-5 Perceptual Dysregulation	25	0.66	0.53	-0.01
PID-5 Risk Taking	25	1.00	0.45	-1.21
PID-5 Unusual Beliefs/Experiences	25	0.69	0.58	-0.20
PID-5 Impulsivity	25	0.83	0.66	-0.71
PID-5 Irresponsibility	25	0.43	0.38	-0.29
PID-5 Negative Affectivity	25	3.35	1.51	-0.27
PID-5 Detachment	25	2.42	1.67	-0.20
PID-5 Antagonism	25	2.49	1.59	-0.27

Table 7 (Continued)

PID-5 Facet	N	Mean	Standard Deviation	Effect Size
PID-5 Disinhibition	25	2.39	1.37	-0.40
PID-5 Psychoticism	25	2.37	1.64	-0.21

Table 8: Media Production: Effect Size Compared to Community Sample

PID-5 Facet	N	Mean	Standard Deviation	Effect Size
PID-5 Anhedonia	25	0.94	0.73	0.20
PID-5 Anxiousness	25	1.21	0.77	0.05
PID-5 Depressivity	25	0.62	0.71	0.06
PID-5 Emotional Lability	25	1.09	0.53	0.11
PID-5 Hostility	25	1.12	0.56	0.41
PID-5 Perseveration	25	1.09	0.59	0.10
PID-5 (Lack of) Rigid Perfectionism	25	1.37	0.85	0.25
PID-5 Separation Insecurity	25	1.05	0.59	0.05

Table 8 (Continued)

PID-5 Facet	N	Mean	Standard Deviation	Effect Size
PID-5 Submissiveness	25	1.54	0.52	0.53
PID-5 Suspiciousness	25	1.06	0.64	0.21
PID-5 Withdrawal	25	0.96	0.73	0.13
PID-5 Attention Seeking	25	1.21	0.64	0.00
PID-5 Callousness	25	0.51	0.46	0.16
PID-5 Deceitfulness	25	0.73	0.51	-0.06
PID-5 Grandiosity	25	0.81	0.56	-0.04
PID-5 Manipulativeness	25	0.96	0.68	-0.27
PID-5 Intimacy Avoidance	25	0.52	0.55	-0.17
PID-5 Restricted Affectivity	25	0.84	0.64	-0.23

Table 8 (Continued)

PID-5 Facet	N	Mean	Standard Deviation	Effect Size
PID-5 Distractibility	25	1.12	0.71	0.08
PID-5 Eccentricity	25	1.02	0.79	-0.20
PID-5 Perceptual Dysregulation	25	0.66	0.53	-0.23
PID-5 Risk Taking	25	1.00	0.45	-0.63
PID-5 Unusual Beliefs/Experiences	25	0.69	0.58	-0.24
PID-5 Impulsivity	25	0.83	0.66	-0.15
PID-5 Irresponsibility	25	0.43	0.38	-0.21
PID-5 Negative Affectivity	25	3.35	1.51	3.33
PID-5 Detachment	25	2.42	1.67	2.25
PID-5 Antagonism	25	2.49	1.59	2.51

Table 8 (Continued)

PID-5 Facet	N	Mean	Standard Deviation	Effect Size
PID-5 Disinhibition	25	2.39	1.37	1.85
PID-5 Psychoticism	25	2.37	1.64	1.71