

TOWSON UNIVERSITY  
OFFICE OF GRADUATE STUDIES

Wrath of the Narcissists: Vulnerable Narcissism

Predicts Greater Spiteful Punishment

of a Third-party Transgressor

by

Drew M. Parton

A thesis presented to the faculty of Towson University  
in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of

MASTER OF ARTS

Department of Psychology

Towson University

Towson, MD 21252

May, 2018

TOWSON UNIVERSITY  
OFFICE OF GRADUATE STUDIES

THESIS APPROVAL PAGE

This is to certify that the thesis prepared by [INSERT Student's Name] Drew Parton

\_\_\_\_\_ entitled [INSERT Title of Thesis] \_\_\_\_\_

Wrath of the Narcissists: Vulnerable narcissism predicts greater

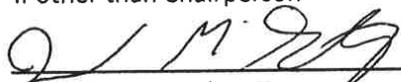
spiteful punishment of a third-party transgressor

has been approved by the thesis committee as satisfactorily completing the thesis requirements for the degree \_ [INSERT Type of Degree] Master of Arts

(for example, Master of Science)

 MIKE ENT 4/19/18  
Chairperson, Thesis Committee Signature      Type Name      Date

\_\_\_\_\_  
Dissertation Advisor Signature,      Type Name      Date  
if other than Chairperson

 Jared McGinley 4/19/18  
Committee Member Signature      Type Name      Date

 Justin Buckingham 4/19/18  
Committee Member Signature      Type Name      Date

\_\_\_\_\_  
Committee Member Signature      Type Name      Date

Janet V. Dehany Janet V. Dehany 4-30-18  
Dean of Graduate Studies      Type Name      Date

## Acknowledgements

The author wishes to thank his committee members: Dr. Michael Ent, Dr. Justin Buckingham, and Dr. Jared McGinley for their guidance and assistance during the formulation of this project. He would also like to acknowledge the research grants from the Towson University Graduate Student Association, without which, the project would not have been funded. Additionally, the author would like to thank his colleagues for their constant support throughout his graduate program. A special thanks is given to his friend Fernanda Chardulo Dias De Andrade, and his girlfriend Catherine Butt for their invaluable help with writing and editing.

## Abstract

# Wrath of the Narcissists: Vulnerable Narcissism Predicts Greater Spiteful Punishment of a Third-party Transgressor

Drew M. Parton

Self-enhancement motivations underlie a bevy of behaviors with the purpose of achieving and maintaining high, healthy self-esteem. However, in individuals with especially favorable self-views (i.e., narcissists), self-enhancement is taken to a dangerous extreme. Narcissists have been shown to self-enhance through aggression, social dominance, and derogation after threats to their self-esteem. Research distinguishes between two types of narcissism: grandiose (associated with exhibitionism, vanity, and self-obsession) and vulnerable narcissism (associated with entitlement, resent, and defensiveness). The present study investigated another possible self-enhancement method of narcissists: spiteful punishment. Spiteful punishments (defined as punishments with the chief purpose being to inflict harm upon a party) may be a possible way for narcissists to assert social dominance over an individual after a threat to their self-esteem. The present study investigated how vulnerable and grandiose narcissists choose to punish after a self-threat and after a neutral condition. Participants ( $N = 454$ ) completed the Narcissistic Personality Inventory and the Maladaptive Covert Narcissism Scale, and then were either given negative feedback on an intelligence test, or a neutral task. They then read a vignette about an office bully and rated their endorsement of a series of punishments. Results showed that vulnerable narcissists consistently endorsed more spiteful punishment compared to grandiose narcissists and non-narcissists, regardless of self-threat. This suggests that vulnerable narcissists have a base-line degree of antisocial self-enhancement. Spiteful punishment may allow vulnerable narcissists to covertly aggress and reassert social dominance.

## Table of Contents

<b>INTRODUCTION .....</b>	<b>1</b>
SELF-ENHANCEMENT AND SELF-PROTECTION .....	1
THREATENED EGOTISM, NARCISSISM, AND AGGRESSION .....	3
RETRIBUTIVE PUNISHMENT .....	10
PRESENT RESEARCH .....	13
<b>METHOD.....</b>	<b>16</b>
PARTICIPANTS.....	16
MATERIALS.....	16
PROCEDURE.....	20
<b>RESULTS .....</b>	<b>22</b>
NARCISSISM MEASURES .....	22
ENDORSEMENT OF PUNISHMENT .....	22
SECONDARY ANALYSES .....	25
GENDER DIFFERENCES EXPLORATORY ANALYSES .....	28
<b>DISCUSSION .....</b>	<b>29</b>
SUMMARY OF RESULTS.....	29
NARCISSISTIC SELF-ENHANCEMENT .....	32
LIMITATIONS AND FUTURE DIRECTIONS.....	33
CONCLUSIONS.....	35
<b>APPENDICES .....</b>	<b>36</b>
APPENDIX A: INFORMED CONSENT .....	36
APPENDIX B: MALADAPTIVE COVERT NARCISSISM SCALE .....	37
APPENDIX C: NARCISSISTIC PERSONALITY INVENTORY .....	39
APPENDIX D: SELECTED REMOTE ASSOCIATES TEST ITEMS.....	41
APPENDIX E: JAMES VIGNETTE .....	42
APPENDIX F: SPITEFUL AND STRATEGIC PUNISHMENTS .....	43
APPENDIX G: DEBRIEFING SCRIPT .....	44
APPENDIX H: INSTITUTIONAL REVIEW BOARD PROTOCOL APPROVAL .....	45
<b>REFERENCES .....</b>	<b>46</b>
<b>CURRICULUM VITAE.....</b>	<b>63</b>

## **Chapter One:**

### **Introduction**

One of the cornerstone ideas in psychology is the notion that individuals have a desire – a need – to feel positive about themselves (Allport, 1937). And while individuals generally seek out opportunities to enhance their self-worth, inevitably, they will encounter negative events that undermine their sense of self-worth. When threatened, people engage in a variety of compensatory and self-defensive behaviors to maintain a stable sense of self-worth.

Self-enhancement behaviors can be seen in a variety of shapes, including social comparison, self-serving biases, and positivity biases (Campbell & Sedikides, 1999; Suls, Martin & Wheeler, 2002). However, for certain individuals, self-enhancement can take a darker side. Narcissists, those who have excessively favorable self-views and self-obsession, have been shown to self-enhance through aggression, social dominance, and derogation of others after threats to their self-esteem (Bushman & Baumeister, 1998; Kernis & Sun, 1994; Raskin, Novacek, & Hogan, 1991a). In line with these previous findings, the present paper investigated another possible self-enhancement method of narcissists: spiteful punishment. Spiteful punishments (defined as punishments designed to inflict harm upon a party) may be a possible way for narcissists to assert social dominance over an individual after a threat to their self-esteem. The primary hypothesis was that under self-threat (vs. no threat), individuals high in narcissism would show greater endorsement of spiteful punishment of a transgressor.

### **Self-Enhancement and Self-Protection**

There are many interrelated theories of self-worth and identity maintenance.

However, for the present research, I will primarily focus on the concepts of self-enhancement and self-protection outlined by Alicke and Sedikides (2009). Self-enhancement and self-protection are both motivational biases involving modifying self-construals to cast the self in a positive light.

Alicke and Sedikides (2009) define self-enhancement as the active process of emphasizing one's positive qualities and minimizing negative qualities, and self-protection motivations as framing possible self-threats to minimize their negative impacts. Self-enhancement is a baseline regulatory process of maintaining high, stable self-esteem. Self-protection, on the other hand, is a defensive response to self-esteem threats. In essence, self-enhancement is a *proactive* process, and self-protection is a *reactive* process.

While some argue for the ubiquity of these self-maintenance motivations (Sedikides & Gregg, 2008), individuals differ in their self-enhancement and self-protection motivations. Older theories of self-enhancement (e.g., Shrauger, 1975) proposed that those with low self-esteem would be more likely to show self-enhancement biases than those with high self-esteem, as they would assumedly want to improve their self-image. However, further research has shown that individuals with high trait self-esteem seem to engage in more self-enhancement than those with low self-esteem (Tice, 1991; Wheeler & Miyake, 1992). Those with high trait self-esteem are more likely to engage in explicit, direct self-enhancement, while those with low self-esteem are more likely to indirectly self-enhance. Following self-threat, high self-esteem individuals are more likely to downwardly social compare and derogate individuals to self-enhance (Crocker et al., 1987; Vohs & Heatherton, 2004). High self-esteem individuals tend to

self-enhance and self-protect by focusing directly on their own positive attributes. In contrast, low self-esteem people tend to indirectly self-enhance by focusing on favorable inter-personal relations. Low self-esteem individuals are more likely to upwardly compare to more favorable individuals, and more likely to seek social interaction to bolster their sense of self-esteem after a threat (Wood et al., 1994). Research has shown that high self-esteem individuals are more likely to self-enhance by directly exaggerating their positive qualities and downplaying their faults (e.g., self-serving bias; Brown, Collins, & Schmidt, 1988; Crocker et al., 1987).

Some theories have offered an ethological argument for such self-esteem boosting strategies. Maintaining stable and positive self-esteem offers a buffer against anxiety, motivates goal pursuit, enhances task persistence, and motivates social interaction (Di Paula & Campbell, 2002; Greenberg et al., 1992; Leary et al., 1995; Sommer & Baumeister, 2002). Taylor and colleagues have shown that self-enhancement is positively related psychological adjustment, mental health and well-being (Taylor & Armor, 1996; Taylor et al., 2000; Taylor et al., 2003a; Taylor et al., 2003b). However, there seems to be a curvilinear relationship, as research has found that those who engage in self-enhancement to an extreme degree are just as psychologically maladjusted as those who do not self-enhance (Taylor et al., 2003a; Baumeister, 1989; Colvin, Block, & Funder, 1995). Self-esteem management is usually cast in a positive light – a motivational process to obtain and maintain high, healthy self-esteem. However, when taken to an extreme, these self-esteem maintenance processes can be dangerously anti-social.

### **Threatened Egotism, Narcissism, and Aggression**

Research into the concept of threatened egotism has shown that those with high

self-esteem respond with aggression and hostility to self-threats (Baumeister, Smart, & Boden, 1996). While the original studies of threatened egotism suggested that it was related to threatened high self-esteem, further studies have found that threatened egotism is uniquely tied to an especially inflated, but unstable, sense of self-worth (Baumeister, Bushman, & Campbell, 2000; Campbell et al., 2000). Such a response is consistent with narcissistic personality type, and the American Psychiatric Association definition of Narcissistic Personality Disorder. Freud (1914/1957) was one of the first psychologists to detail narcissism as a personality profile; he described it as an intense and overwhelming sense of self-love. Narcissists have a grandiose, unfounded sense of self-worth that tends to be unstable and vulnerable to negative feedback. They feel entitled to special treatment and authority, and have a constant need for affection and admiration (American Psychiatric Association, 2013). Narcissists engage in self-enhancement to such an extreme degree that even under self-threat, when they would be expected to engage in self-protective damage control, they engage in active self-enhancement behaviors instead (Morf, Horvath, & Torchetti, 2011).

Evidence suggests that in general, threats impact self-worth more than affirmations (Leary et al., 1998; Woolfolk et al., 1995), and narcissists show increased emotional reactivity to both positive and negative events (Rhodewalt & Morf, 1998). By nature of their over-inflated sense of self-esteem, narcissists encounter more threatening information, making them especially defensive. Narcissists have an attentional and attribution bias, wherein they are more likely to construe ambiguous feedback as negative feedback (McCullough et al., 2003). So for narcissists, anything but overt praise may constitute a threat. Narcissists do not necessarily have more social interactions, and

perhaps do not even have more negative interactions than non-narcissists. However, each of those negative interactions has an especially profound impact on narcissists' sense of self-worth. Thus, they may be naturally defensive. In support of this, a bevy of research has linked threatened narcissists to reactive aggression.

Theories on self-threat responses have proposed two different functions of aggressive responses. Some individuals may aggress after threat in order to communicate frustration to the source of the threat, and alter their opinion (Petriglieri, 2011). Aggressive responses to threat may also be a self-protection attempt to establish dominance over another individual (Morf & Rhodewalt, 1993). Findings showing that individuals derogate others to re-affirm their self-esteem seem to support this perspective (Fein & Spencer, 1997).

In Bushman and Baumeister's (1998) first study, participants received feedback on an essay that they wrote. One group of participants received negative feedback from a confederate, while the other received positive feedback on their essay. They then completed the competitive reaction-time task (e.g., Taylor, 1967) designed to measure aggression against the confederate who ostensibly rated their essay. In the paradigm, participants are told that they will be playing a game against a partner. The goal of the game is to push a button faster than their partner, and whoever is slower would be blasted with white noise. Participants are then able to set the intensity of the noise that their partner would receive. Aggression is measured by the intensity of the noise that participants set before the first trial. Results of the study showed that participants high in trait narcissism who received negative feedback were more aggressive towards the confederate (compared to threatened low-narcissists, and non-threatened groups). Their

second study looked at threatened egotism and displaced aggression. Participants completed the same measures and the same feedback manipulation. But in the competitive reaction time task, they were either paired against the confederate who rated their essay or an unrelated individual. Results showed that threatened narcissistic participants aggressed against the essay rater (direct aggression), but not against the unrelated individual (displaced aggression).

While this original study found no evidence of displaced aggression, several further studies have shown that threatened narcissists will aggress against innocent bystanders when they cannot aggress against the source of the self-threat (Martinez et al., 2008; Twenge & Campbell, 2003; Hart, Adams, & Tortoriello, 2017). Martinez et al. (2008) utilized a similar essay-writing task as Bushman and Baumeister (1998), except they told participants that their essay would be graded using an objective measure. Thus, the criticism that they would be given could not be attributed to a bias from the rater. Participants were then told that they scored worse than a confederate (self-threat), better than a confederate (self-enhancement), or that they would be told their score at the end of the experiment (delayed feedback). Participants then competed against the confederate in a modified version of the competitive reaction-time task. Since the threat to participants' self-worth did not come from their opponent, increased aggression would not hold communicative value to convey displeasure or alter the evaluation of the threat. Results showed that participants high in narcissism aggressed more against the confederate after negative feedback than those low in narcissism. These results show that when narcissists are unable to aggress towards the source of the self-threat, they will lash out against an unrelated party. In addition, the relationship between narcissism and displaced aggression

was strongest when participants were told that they would not receive their scores until the end. The authors attributed this finding to the attentional bias that high narcissists have towards possibly threatening information. Narcissists tend to be especially attentive to ambiguously critical feedback (McCullough, et al., 2003). In this experiment, narcissists may have automatically assumed that the upcoming feedback would be negative.

Narcissistic provoked aggression seems to be specifically a social comparison response. Barry, Chaplin, and Grafeman (2006) outlined three different types of standards of comparison. The normative standard compares one's performance against others; the ipsative standard compares one's current performance against the past performance; and the idealized standard compares current performance to what one thinks or expects to perform. Importantly, their results showed that narcissists only aggress after threats to the normative standard (i.e., performing worse than another person). This suggests that provoked narcissistic aggression is concerned with self-esteem boosting through social dominance. High narcissists are much more likely to derogate others after self-threat compared to low narcissists (Kernis & Sun, 1994), and other studies have shown that narcissism is highly correlated with social dominance needs (Raskin, Novacek, & Hogan, 1991a; Raskin, Novacek, & Hogan, 1991b; Ruiz, Smith, & Rhodewalt, 2001).

Much of the research on threatened egotism has treated narcissism as a unidimensional construct. But some have suggested that narcissism involves two separate, but related facets: grandiose narcissism and vulnerable narcissism (Wink, 1991). The grandiose dimension involves feelings of exhibitionism, superiority, and overconfidence. The vulnerable dimension is the resentment, defensiveness, and insecurity that typify the fragile self-worth of narcissists (Cain, Pincus, & Ansell, 2008).

Kernis, Grannemann, and Barclay (1989) showed that it was not high self-esteem, per se, but *unstable* high self-esteem that was linked to hostility. They equipped participants with beepers for a week that would go off every two hours, at which point they would rate their state self-esteem. The researchers measured stability of self-esteem by calculating the standard deviation of the mean state self-esteem for the week. Greater standard deviation would indicate more unstable self-esteem. At the end of the week, they measured trait anger and hostility. Results showed that participants with high, but unstable self-esteem showed greater trait hostility than stable participants or unstable low self-esteem participants. While this study did not manipulate any sort of self-threat, it suggests that those with an unstable self-esteem may be naturally more hostile. Further research has shown that unstable high self-esteem is typical of high narcissists (Zeigler-Hill, 2006; Jordan et al., 2003). Self-threats may cause that hostility to bubble to the surface. Further contributing to the unleashing of “narcissistic rage” may be an impaired capacity for self-regulation that is common in narcissists, and related to reactive aggression (Kohut, 1972; DeWall et al., 2007). Thus, not only are narcissists more likely to view negative experiences as more threatening, they also become angrier from threats, and are less able to control this anger. This intense anger may then provoke greater reactive aggression.

The Narcissistic Personality Inventory (NPI; Raskin & Hall, 1979), the most widely used measure of narcissism, captures only the grandiose dimension. Studies have shown (e.g., Rasmussen, 2016) that while higher scores on the NPI do predict greater provoked aggression, the relationship is better predicted by measures of vulnerable narcissism, such as the Hypersensitive Narcissism Scale (HSNS, Hendin & Cheek, 1997)

or its updated version, the Maladaptive Covert Narcissism Scale (MCNS; Cheek, Hendin, & Wink, 2013).

Correlations between the NPI and provoked aggression have been somewhat mixed, with some studies finding a coefficient of .40 (Reidy et al., 2008), and others finding .20 (Besser & Zeigler-Hill, 2010). However, this may be explained by differing measures of narcissism and aggression. A meta-analysis conducted by Rasmussen (2016) of studies investigating threatened narcissism and aggression found that 60 out of 86 studies analyzed used only the NPI to measure trait narcissism. Rasmussen (2016) found that, across studies, the average correlation coefficient between vulnerable narcissism and provoked aggression was significantly greater than the average correlation between grandiose narcissism and provoked aggression.

One possible explanation for the conflicting results across threatened narcissism research is specific domains of narcissism. Factor-analyses of the NPI have identified between four and nine different factors of the scale (Raskin & Hall, 1979; Emmons, 1984). The most widely used subscale set (Raskin & Terry, 1988) categorizes the NPI into seven different subscales: vanity (concerned with one's physical appearance), exhibitionism (one's need to "show-off" their good qualities), superiority (one's need to be better than peers, and recognized for their achievements), entitlement (one's belief that they deserve praise and power), exploitativeness (one's ability and desire to manipulate others), authority (one's desire to be in charge and have power), and self-sufficiency (one's belief that they are always capable of achieving goals without help). Follow-up studies have shown that it is specifically the exploitativeness and entitlement factors that link NPI scores to hostility and aggression (Archer, 2009; Dickinson & Pincus, 2003;

Exline et al., 2004; Fossati et al., 2010; Okimoto, Reid et al., 2008; Ruiz et al., 2001).

Some research has shown that vulnerable narcissism predicts trait hostility and aggression, while grandiose narcissism does not (Okada, 2010). Thus, further research should include the vulnerable dimension of narcissism in order to gain a more nuanced perspective of the relationship between threatened narcissism and aggression. The present research will utilize a measure of vulnerable narcissism (MCNS) as well as a measure of grandiose narcissism (NPI) to investigate relationships between threatened narcissism and reactive aggression.

From this body of research, it is clear that threatened narcissism provokes increased direct and displaced aggression, and an increased need for social dominance as self-enhancement. Many studies have used paradigms such as the competitive reaction time task to measure aggression, which may limit the generalizability in terms of aggressive responses. However, the present study proposes a unique method of measuring displaced aggression: the endorsement of spiteful punishments.

### **Retributive Punishment**

Legal scholars and philosophers have generally made the distinction between restorative and retributive justice. While the specific characteristics of restorative and retributive justice are still widely debated, we can generally organize them by which side of the social dyad they focus on (Wenzel et al., 2008). Restorative justice focuses on the victim of the transgression, and stresses the individual contextual nature of justice. It may involve re-affirming a shared value consensus and focusing on resolving the misdeed by interacting with the victim and perpetrator. Retributive justice focuses on punishing the transgressor, and may involve inflicting negative outcomes upon them, above and beyond

mere compensation.

A recent study proposed a distinction between two types of punishment: strategic and spiteful punishment (Gill & Cerce, 2017). Strategic punishments are concerned with mitigating or eliminating the social threat that the transgressor poses. They may reflect a motivation to change the transgressor's behavior, or isolate them away from society. Spiteful punishments reflect a desire to inflict harm and suffering on the transgressor—irrespective of the communicative value of the punishment, or its possible behavior change. It is best captured by the adage “pay evil unto evil.”

While some argue that punishment may be an interpersonal pro-social response (see research on “altruistic punishment,” e.g., Fehr & Gächter, 2002) there is clear evidence that spiteful punishment may stem from hostility. Gollwitzer, Meder, & Schmitt (2011) showed that participants who were wronged by a transgressor were just as satisfied when the transgressor suffered randomly as they were when they had directly revenged themselves. This suggests punishments are satisfying even if they do not lead to positive behavioral changes in the transgressor. Transgressor-directed anger has also been strongly linked to harsher retributive punishment of third-party transgressors (e.g., Golberg, Lerner, & Tetlock, 1999; Lerner, Goldberg, & Tetlock, 1998; Nelissen & Zeelenberg, 2009; Quigley & Tedeschi, 1996). Additionally, PET scans have shown that punishing a transgressor is linked with increased activation in areas of the dorsal striatum—a brain region associated with reward and pleasure (De Quervain et al., 2004).

Research into “covert retributivism” has shown that when they can disguise their retributive motivations, individuals will endorse cruel and harmful punishments of a transgressor (Fincher & Tetlock, 2015). In their first study, Fincher and Tetlock (2015)

had participants assume the role of a judge sentencing criminals to one of two prisons. In the high ambiguity condition, the two prisons differed on five different dimensions: cost, security, recidivism, rate of GED completion, and prisoner harm (e.g., “there is a great deal of gang violence within the inmate population and as a result there are many brutal beatings, occasional rapes, and related hospitalizations”). In the “low ambiguity” condition, participants selected their preference based on only three conditions: cost, security, and prisoner harm. Pretests had shown that both prisons were equally desirable. Fincher and Tetlock randomly manipulated between subjects which prison (A or B) was most associated with prisoner harm. Since this random assignment was between-subjects, and counterbalanced, the researchers could assess overall desires to inflict harm upon the criminal. Participants selected which prison they preferred, and then which of the factors they claimed was the most important factor for their decision. Results showed that, overall, participants selected A and B equally. In the “low ambiguity” condition, only 18.4% of participants selected the violent prison. When participants could not easily explain away their decision (i.e., they had fewer factors to attribute their decision to), they favored the less violent prison. However, when participants could safely attribute their decision to multiple factors, they were much more likely to prefer the more violent prisons. Participants in the high ambiguity condition selected the violent prison 68% of the time. When asked which of the five factors most affected their decision in the “high ambiguity” condition, participants named cost and security as the key factors. However, even though the majority of participants chose the violent prison, only 5% of participants listed it as a justification—and 35% of participants gave non-violence as a justification for choosing the non-violent prison. These results show that individuals have a strong

desire to punish—and inflict substantial harm upon a transgressor, especially if they can do so covertly.

Hostility is thus related to retributive punishments, and given that spiteful punishments hold no communicative value, and are unlikely to change the transgressor's behavior, it stems to reason that spiteful punishments may be a sort of “righteous aggression.” Aggression and violence towards a transgressor is more socially acceptable, and for some, even obligated. Thus, the reactive aggression typical of threatened narcissism may be pronounced when they can justify it as punishing a deserving party.

Gill and Cerce (2017) proposed that spiteful punishments reflect a cultural need for vengeance or “just desserts.” However, their spiteful/strategic punishment paradigm may be used to test a novel measure of threatened egotism aggression. Narcissism has been linked to aggression, anger, and a need for social dominance. Punishing a transgressor after a self-threat may serve to re-affirm their damaged self-worth by asserting dominance. Some evidence has shown that threatened narcissists will aggress against third parties unrelated to the self-threat (Martinez et al., 2008; Twenge & Campbell, 2003). This may be especially true for individuals that may “deserve” aggression. Narcissists can thus mask their self-esteem increasing social dominance by claiming that the aggression is appropriate punishment for a transgressor.

### **Present Research**

The present research attempted to extend the existing literature regarding aggressive responses to threatened egotism by utilizing the spiteful and strategic punishment paradigm designed by Gill and Cerce (2017) as a novel measure of displaced covert aggression. Participants were randomly assigned to either the *self-threat* condition

or the *no threat* condition. Participants in the *self-threat* condition completed a measure of intelligence, and received false feedback showing that they scored low on intelligence. In the *no threat* condition, participants completed a neutral task that did not involve evaluative feedback. All participants then read a vignette about a social transgression, and were asked to rate their endorsement of a series of strategic and spiteful punishments for the transgressor. Since narcissism is multidimensional, a measure of grandiose narcissism (NPI) and a measure of vulnerable narcissism (MCNS) were used.

Given the body of research connecting threatened egotism and aggression, the primary hypotheses were that in the *no threat* condition, high and low vulnerable narcissistic participants would not differ in their endorsements of spiteful or strategic punishment. However, it was predicted that participants high in vulnerable narcissism in the *self-threat* condition would favor more spiteful punishment than threatened low narcissistic participants (Hypothesis 1). Similarly, it was expected that in the *no threat* condition, participants high in grandiose narcissism would not differ from low grandiose narcissism participants in their endorsement of spiteful punishments. But in the *self-threat* condition, participants high in grandiose narcissism would show greater endorsement of spiteful punishment compared to participants low in grandiose narcissism. This will be analyzed using total NPI scores (Hypothesis 2a) and NPI subscales separately (Hypothesis 2b). Some research has identified that narcissistic entitlement is the strongest predictor of threatened egotism aggression (e.g., Reidy et al., 2008), so the *Entitlement* subscale of the NPI was paid special attention. Some research has shown that vulnerable narcissism is a stronger predictor of reactive aggression than grandiose narcissism (e.g., Hendin & Cheek, 1997). Thus, it was proposed that vulnerable

narcissism would predict more of the variance in spiteful punishments than grandiose narcissism (Hypothesis 3).

In addition, several secondary hypotheses were tested. Strategic and spiteful punishments are not necessarily reciprocal. Just because an individual endorses greater spiteful punishment does not necessarily mean that they will endorse less strategic punishment. However, strategic punishments may not allow vulnerable narcissists to exert social dominance over the transgressor like spiteful punishments may. Therefore, it was expected that participants higher in narcissism would be less in favor of strategic punishment after self-threat compared to those lower in narcissism and non-threatened participants. Vulnerable narcissism (hypothesis 4) and the NPI subscales (hypothesis 5) were used to predict endorsement of strategic punishment. Threatened egotism research has found that narcissists aggress to restore damaged self-esteem after a threat. This would therefore suggest that threatened vulnerable narcissists should show increased implicit self-esteem after given the ability to punish (hypothesis 6). Prior studies have shown that men and women differ in reactive aggression and covert aggression, with women showing more covert aggression, and greater provoked aggression (Archer, 2004; Lagerspetz, Bjorkqvist, & Peltonen, 1988). Furthermore, the effect of the presence of provocation on reactive aggression seems to be greater in women than men (Bettencourt & Miller, 1996). Thus, there may be gender differences in threatened narcissistic aggression. As a post-hoc exploratory analysis, men and women were analyzed separately. Given the paucity of research on gender differences in threatened egotism, these analyses were exploratory, with no specific hypotheses.

## Chapter Two:

### Method

#### Participants

Participants consisted of 493 individuals recruited through Amazon's Mechanical Turk program and were paid \$0.50 for their participation. A total of 30 participants were excluded from analyses for failing the suspicion probe, 6 for incomplete data, 1 for completing the survey in only four minutes (greater than two standard deviations below the mean), and 2 for values greater than two standard deviations above the mean on NPI scores. This left a final sample of 454 participants (260 women, 189 men, 3 other/non-binary, 2 not disclosed). Participants were aged 18 to 74 ( $M = 37.21$ ,  $SD = 12.05$ ). The majority of participants were white, with 73% identifying as Caucasian, 11% identifying as African American, 6% as Hispanic, 9.5% as Asian, 1% as Native American, and 0.5% as Middle-Eastern.

#### Materials

**Maladaptive Covert Narcissism Scale (MCNS; Cheek, Hendin, & Wink, 2013; see Appendix B).** The MCNS is an extension of the earlier Hypersensitive Narcissism Scale (HSNS; Hendin & Cheek, 1997), a widely used and reliable measure of vulnerable narcissism (Fossati et al., 2009). The MCNS is a self-report measure tapping into the covert (i.e., vulnerable) dimension of narcissism; it was expanded to include the entitlement/exploitativeness dimension of covert narcissism, and has been previously used to predict hostility in threatened narcissists (Graf, 2017). It consists of 23 statements reflecting fragile and vulnerable self-esteem (e.g., "I am especially sensitive to success and failure," "I dislike being with a group unless I know that I am appreciated by at least one of those present"). Participants were asked to rate how representative each statement

is of themselves from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 5 (*strongly agree*) (Cronbach's  $\alpha = .95$ ).

**Narcissistic Personality Inventory (NPI; Raskin & Hall, 1979; see Appendix C).** The NPI is a measure of the grandiose dimension of narcissism. It consists of 40 pairs of statements. Each pair consists of one narcissistic statement (e.g., "I think that I am a special person") and one non-narcissistic statement (e.g., "I am no better or worse than most people"). Participants are asked to select which of the two sentences most applies to them. The NPI was divided into seven subscales based on the factor analysis of Raskin and Terry (1988): *vanity* (e.g., "I like to look at myself in the mirror;" 4 items, Cronbach's  $\alpha = .60$ ), *exhibitionism* (e.g., "I like to be the center of attention;" 6 items, Cronbach's  $\alpha = .72$ ), *superiority* (e.g., "I know that I am good because people tell me so;" Cronbach's  $\alpha = .70$ , 5 items), *entitlement* (e.g., "I insist upon getting the respect that I deserve;" Cronbach's  $\alpha = .63$ , 5 items), *exploitativeness* (e.g., "I find it easy to manipulate people;" Cronbach's  $\alpha = .58$ , 4 items), *authority* (e.g., "I like to take responsibility for making decisions;" Cronbach's  $\alpha = .78$ , 8 items), and *self-sufficiency* (e.g., "I always know what I'm doing in a situation;" Cronbach's  $\alpha = .64$ , 5 items). NPI scores were calculated for each subscale, as well as an overall score of grandiose narcissism (Cronbach's  $\alpha = .92$ ).

**Negative feedback manipulation.** Participants assigned to the *self-threat* condition ( $n = 193$ ) completed a task framed as a measure of "cognitive ability and creativity." This task included 20 items of the Remote Associations Test (RAT; Mednick, 1967; Backman & Tuckman, 1972; see appendix D). The RAT is a test of creativity originally designed to select for high-achievement children, though it has been since used as an effective means to administer negative intelligence feedback in self-threat

paradigms (e.g., Bongers, Dijksterhuis, & Spears, 2009; Heatherton & Vohs, 2000; Major et al., 1998; McFarlin & Blascovich, 1981). Each item in the RAT presents the participant with three words as part of an associative cluster (e.g., “base,” “snow,” “dance”). The participant is tasked with coming up with a fourth word that links the three prior words (in this example, “ball”).

The task consisted of five easy items and 15 difficult RAT items as pre-tested by Bowden & Jung-Beeman (2003). Easy items were defined as the five items with the highest percentage of correct responses (ranging from 82-96%). Difficult items were defined as the 15 items with the lowest percentage of correct responses (ranging from 1-7% of participants). To increase the credibility of the test and the feedback, a mix of easy and difficult items were used so that participants would respond correctly to some items, but still struggle with the majority of the items.

Participants were given three practice items with feedback before taking the full test. Participants were given 20 seconds to solve each item – further increasing the difficulty of the test. The timer for each item was displayed for the participants, and after 20 seconds, the page automatically advanced to the next item. Participants were told that the questions had been pre-tested with undergraduate students. Beneath each question in the RAT, participants were told the percentage of other participants who responded correctly. In reality, these percentages were made up, and purposefully inflated (ranging from 80%-99%). This was done to further induce self-threat, as participants who could not solve the item would likely think that they were worse than most at the task.

After taking the exam, participants received their accurate overall score for the test. Participants were then falsely told that the average score on the test was 17 out of 20.

It was assumed that given the difficulty of the items, participants would score low. Thus, participants can be given accurate feedback, but still score low enough that it would make an effective self-threat. This method was suggested by McFarlin and Blascovich (1984) in order to reduce participants' suspicions about the test's validity.

Participants in the *no threat* condition ( $n = 261$ ) were asked to read through the same sets of words as in the RAT, and were asked to select which word they liked best from each set (adapted from Park, Crocker, & Kiefer, 2007). Similarly to the RAT items, participants were given 20 seconds for each item, after which the page automatically advanced.

**Name-Letter Task (NLT; Hoorens, 2014).** The NLT is a commonly used measure of implicit self-esteem (e.g., Hoorens, 2014). The name-letter effect has shown that individuals tend to prefer letters in their initials compared to other letters (Nuttin, 1985). In the consent form, participants were asked to supply their first and last initials. Participants were shown each letter in the alphabet (the order was randomized), and asked to rate how much they liked the letter on a scale from 1 (*not at all*) to 5 (*a great deal*). Initial preference scores were calculated using an algorithm created by LeBel and Gawronski (2009), which calculates a participant's rating for their first and last initial and compares it to all other participants' ratings for that letter. It then calculates an index for initial preference, wherein greater values mean greater preference for their initials. The NLT showed moderate reliability (Cronbach's  $\alpha = .61$ , 2 items).

**Social transgressor vignette and punishment options (Gill & Cerce, 2017; see Appendix E and F).** The social transgression vignette was adapted from Gill and Cerce (2017). It describes a man named James, who is a bully in the workplace: humiliating and

insulting his co-workers (Appendix E). The original vignette contained wording that suggested that James himself was a narcissist (e.g., “For James, bullying is a choice. His choice is driven mainly by a desire to be superior to others”). This language was removed from the vignette in the present study. The vignette was chosen because it is a mundane social transgression, compared to criminal violations, and thus more representative of normal social judgments that individuals make. Following the vignette, participants read a series of possible punishments for James, including four spiteful punishments (e.g., “I wish someone would ‘put James in his place’ and make him look foolish in front of everyone”) and four strategic punishments (e.g., “James should be required to see a psychologist who specializes in office bullying; the goal would be to help James see how his behavior affects others.”). Participants were asked to rate their endorsement of each using a Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 5 (*strongly agree*; see Appendix F). Endorsement ratings were summed across the four items for a total spiteful punishment score (ranging from 4-20) and a total strategic punishment score (ranging from 4-20). Both spiteful (Cronbach’s  $\alpha = .89$ ) and strategic punishments (Cronbach’s  $\alpha = .82$ ) showed good reliability.

### **Procedure**

After accepting the assignment through Amazon Mechanical Turk, participants were directed to the Qualtrics survey page. Participants were asked to sign their initials on the consent form (Appendix A). This was used to calculate their name-letter preference. Participants then completed the MCNS and the NPI. They were then randomly assigned the *self-threat* condition or the *no threat* condition. Participants in the *self-threat* condition completed a 20-item version of the RAT. After which, they received

their score and were told that the average score was 17 out of 20 correct responses. In the *no threat* condition, participants were presented with the RAT item words, and asked to select for each set, which of the three they liked most. Following this, all participants completed the NLT. Participants then read the vignette about James, and selected the degree to which they endorsed the series of spiteful and strategic punishments.

Afterwards, participants completed the NLT again. Finally, participants were asked what they thought the hypotheses of the study were, if they had taken the RAT before, and how they felt about the feedback they had been given on the tests. These questions served as suspicion probes for the study. Participants who had taken the RAT before and/or suspected that the feedback was false were eliminated from the study. After the suspicion probe, participants were debriefed (Appendix G).

## Chapter Three:

### Results

#### Narcissism Measures

NPI items were re-coded such that the narcissistic response was always scored as 1, and the non-narcissistic response was always scored as 0. The *Vanity*, *Exhibitionism*, *Superiority*, and *Entitlement* subscales were positively skewed, and were Log-transformed. All NPI subscales were moderately correlated with each other (coefficients ranged from .41-.63). *Exhibitionism* ( $r = .10, p < .001$ ) and *Superiority* ( $r = .12, p = .011$ ) weakly correlated with MCNS scores. The *Entitlement* subscale moderately correlated with MCNS scores ( $r = .34, p < .001$ ). This makes sense, since the MCNS was created by adding the entitlement dimension to the older Hypersensitive Narcissism Scale (Hendin & Cheek, 1997). However, it is important to note that with such a large sample size, these  $p$ -values may be inflated.

Men scored significantly greater than women on the *Exhibitionism* [ $t(453) = 2.54, p = .012$ ], *Superiority* [ $t(453) = 4.79, p < .001$ ], *Entitlement* [ $t(453) = 3.88, p < .001$ ], *Authority* [ $t(453) = 3.91, p < .001$ ], and *Self-Sufficiency* subscales [ $t(453) = 2.40, p = .017$ ]. MCNS scores did not differ between women ( $M = 66.42, SD = 19.96$ ) and men ( $M = 65.89, SD = 22.61$ ),  $t(453) = 0.26, p = .793$ .

#### Endorsement of Punishment

Spiteful endorsement and strategic punishment endorsement were not correlated ( $r = -.05, p = .332$ ), suggesting that these processes are not necessarily reciprocal. There were no gender differences for spiteful punishments,  $t(453) = 1.53, p = .127$ . Women ( $M = 17.96, SD = 2.63$ ) did endorse strategic punishment more than men ( $M = 17.11, SD =$

2.70),  $t(453) = 3.93, p < .001, d = .32$ . Power analyses showed that the desired sample size given a medium effect size, .80 power, and an  $\alpha$  of .05, was 168 participants. Given that the dataset was more than double that, in order to avoid inflated  $p$  values, the total dataset was split into a training ( $n = 221$ ) and a validation ( $n = 233$ ) sample based on a random selection of 50% of the total cases. This serves as an internal replication for performed analyses, as suggested by Hair and colleagues (2009).

**Spiteful punishment.** A hierarchical linear regression was conducted using condition (dummy-coded, 0 = *no threat*) and MCNS scores (mean-centered) in the first step, and the MCNS x Condition interaction in the second step predicting total spiteful punishment. In the training sample, step one significantly predicted spiteful punishment,  $F(2, 218) = 48.96, p < .001, R^2 = .31$ . When looking at individual predictors, only the MCNS score was significant, with greater vulnerable narcissism predicting greater endorsement of spiteful punishment ( $\beta = 0.56, p < .001$ ). Step two, including the MCNS x Condition interaction, was also significant,  $F(3, 217) = 33.87, p < .001, R^2 = .32$ . However, there was no significant effect of MCNS x Condition ( $\beta = 0.14, p = .092$ ). This finding replicated across the validation sample, where step one explained 17% of the variance,  $F(2, 230) = 23.60, p < .001$ . Again, only MCNS was a significant predictor ( $\beta = 0.41, p < .001$ ) with no significant MCNS x Condition interaction in step two ( $\beta = 0.11, p = .150$ ). The MCNS-Spiteful punishment relationship was stable across both samples (average  $R^2 = .25$ ).

A hierarchical regression was used to predict spiteful punishment from total NPI scores (mean-centered), condition (dummy-coded, 0 = *no threat*), and their interaction. In the training sample, step one (which included only NPI scores and participant condition)

was not significant,  $F(2, 218) = 1.76, p = .175, R^2 = .02$ . The addition of the NPI x Condition interaction in step two was also non-significant,  $F(3, 217) = 1.26, p = .289, R^2 = .02$ . The validation sample showed the same pattern of results, with neither step significantly predicting spiteful punishment.

Because NPI subscales were only moderately correlated, and several of the subscales were skewed, the NPI subscales were then analyzed individually. NPI subscales (mean-centered), condition (dummy-coded, 0 = *no threat*), and the NPI subscales x Condition interaction were entered into a hierarchical linear regression predicting total spiteful punishment. In the training sample, step one, including the NPI subscales and Condition significantly predicted spiteful punishment,  $F(8,212) = 2.16, p = .032, R^2 = .08$ . Amongst individual predictors, only Log-transformed *Entitlement* was a significant predictor of spiteful punishment ( $\beta = 0.28, p = .010$ ). Step two, including interactions, was not significant,  $F(15, 205) = 1.43, p = .134$ . These results were partially replicated in the validation sample. Step one significantly predicted spiteful punishment,  $F(8,224) = 3.93, p < .001, R^2 = .12$ . Here, both Log-transformed *Entitlement* ( $\beta = 0.26, p = .003$ ) and Log-transformed *Superiority* ( $\beta = -0.18, p = .045$ ) were significant predictors. Here, step two was overall significant,  $F(15, 224) = 2.33, p = .004, R^2 = .14$ . However, there were no significant interactions in step two, contradicting the second hypothesis. In both the training and validation samples, narcissistic entitlement predicted greater spiteful punishment regardless of condition. In the validation sample, narcissistic superiority predicted less spiteful punishment. Across both samples, NPI subscales significantly predicted spiteful punishment (average  $R^2 = .12$ ).

In order to compare correlation coefficients between the final MCNS model and

the final NPI subscale model, correlation coefficients for each model were averaged between the training and validation models (average MCNS  $r = .50$ ; average NPI  $r = .34$ ). These average correlation coefficients were subjected to Fisher's  $r$  to  $z$  transformation to derive a  $z$  score for the comparison. A two-sample  $z$  test found that the average correlation coefficient for the final MCNS model was significantly greater than the average correlation coefficient for the final NPI subscales model,  $z = 2.07$ ,  $p = .019$ . This suggests that the MCNS model was a stronger predictor of spiteful punishment than the NPI model, supporting hypothesis 3.

### **Secondary Analyses**

**Strategic punishment.** A hierarchical linear regression was conducted using MCNS (mean-centered) subscales and condition (dummy-coded, 0 = *no threat*) in step one and the MCNS x Condition interaction added in step two as predictors of total strategic punishment. In the training sample, step one was significant,  $F(2, 218) = 4.94$ ,  $p = .008$ ,  $R^2 = .04$ . MCNS was the only significant predictor ( $\beta = -0.21$ ,  $p = .002$ ). Step two was also significant,  $F(3, 217) = 3.65$ ,  $p = .013$ ,  $R^2 = .05$ . However, the MCNS x Condition interaction was not significant ( $\beta = 0.10$ ,  $p = .300$ ). These results were replicated in the validation sample. Step one was significant,  $F(2, 230) = 6.29$ ,  $p = .002$ ,  $R^2 = .05$ . Again, only MCNS was a significant predictor ( $\beta = -0.22$ ,  $p = .001$ ). Step 2 was also significant,  $F(3, 229) = 4.89$ ,  $p = .003$ ,  $R^2 = .05$ , the MCNS x Condition ( $\beta = 0.12$ ,  $p = .154$ ) was not. Across both the training and validation samples, greater MCNS scores weakly predicted less endorsement of strategic punishments. However, self-threat condition did not impact the endorsement of strategic punishment, disconfirming hypothesis four.

NPI subscales (mean-centered), Condition (dummy-coded, 0 = *no threat*), and their interactions were entered into a hierarchical regression predicting total strategic punishment. In the training sample, step one included only the NPI subscales and Condition and was significant,  $F(8, 212) = 6.00, p < .001, R^2 = .19$ . Log-transformed *Exhibitionism* ( $\beta = -0.46, p < .001$ ) and Log-transformed *Superiority* ( $\beta = 0.21, p = .024$ ) were the only significant individual predictors. Step two was also significant,  $F(15, 205) = 3.60, p < .001, R^2 = .21$ . However, no interaction terms were significant. These results differed in the validation sample. While step one was significant overall,  $F(8, 224) = 3.56, p = .001, R^2 = .11$ , only Log-transformed *Exhibitionism* was a significant predictor ( $\beta = -0.20, p = .024$ ). Log-transformed *Superiority* was not significant ( $\beta = -0.02, p = .243$ ) here. Step two was also significant overall,  $F(15, 217) = 2.47, p = .002, R^2 = .15$ , but no individual interactions were significant predictors. Across training and validation samples, the *Exhibitionism* subscale of the NPI predicted less endorsement of strategic punishment. However, the presence of self-threat had no effect on strategic punishment for any dimension of grandiose narcissism, contradicting hypothesis five.

After examining these results, post-hoc theorizing proposed that because men scored higher on *Exhibitionism* compared to women, and men were overall less in favor of strategic punishment compared to women, the link between *Exhibitionism* and strategic punishment may be confounded by gender. As a post-hoc test, a step-wise regression was tested. Gender was entered as a covariate in step one, and Log-transformed *Exhibitionism* was added in step two. Results found that gender significantly predicted strategic punishment in step one,  $F(1, 447) = 253.51, p < .001, R^2 = 0.36$ . Once

accounting for participant gender, adding in Log-transformed *Exhibitionism* did not significantly improve the model,  $\Delta F(1, 446) = 2.00, p = .158$ .

**Name-Letter Task.** Initial preference scores were calculated using an algorithm that compares participants liking for their first and last initials to all other participants' liking for those letters. A greater index means a greater preference for their initials, and thus greater implicit self-esteem. An independent *t*-test comparing initial preference directly after the self-threat manipulation found that participants who experienced the self-threat showed lower ( $M = 0.23, SD = 1.14$ ) initial preference than participants in the control group ( $M = 0.92, SD = 1.01$ ),  $t(453) = 6.87, p < .001$ .

Initial preference change scores were calculated by subtracting initial preference scores at time one (i.e., after the manipulation/before punishment) from initial preference scores at time two (i.e., after punishment). A hierarchical linear regression was conducted entering Condition (dummy-coded, 0 = *no threat*) and MCNS scores (mean-centered) in step one, and adding the Condition x MCNS interaction in step two to predict initial preference change. Step one overall significantly predicted initial preference change,  $F(2, 453) = 7.37, p = .001, R^2 = .04$ . When looking at individual predictors, only Condition was significant ( $\beta = 0.19, p < .001$ ). Step two, including the MCNS x Condition interaction, was also significant,  $F(3, 452) = 6.60, p < .001, R^2 = .05$ . Condition was a significant predictor ( $\beta = 0.19, p < .001$ ), and so was the MCNS x Condition interaction ( $\beta = 0.14, p = .027$ ). This was further split by condition. In the *no threat* condition, MCNS did not significantly predict initial preference change,  $F(1, 260) = 1.09, p = .297, R^2 = .01$ . In the *self-threat* condition, MCNS scores borderline predicted initial preference

change such that greater MCNS scores predicted increases in initial preference after punishment  $F(1, 192) = 3.81, p = .053, R^2 = .02$ . This partially supports hypothesis six.

### **Gender Differences Exploratory Analyses**

In order to have adequate sample sizes for each gender, the training and validation samples were collapsed. Separate hierarchical regressions were conducted for women and men using MCNS (mean-centered) and condition (dummy-coded, 0 = *no threat*) in step one, and their interaction added in step two. For women, step one was significant,  $F(2, 257) = 44.29, p < .001, R^2 = .26$ . MCNS significantly predicted greater spiteful punishment ( $\beta = 0.51, p < .001$ ) but condition did not ( $\beta = 0.01, p = .971$ ). Step two was also significant,  $F(3, 256) = 33.96, p < .001, R^2 = .29$ . More importantly, the MCNS x condition interaction was significant ( $\beta = 0.22, p = .002$ ). When further split by condition, female vulnerable narcissists endorsed more spiteful punishments in the *self-threat* compared to in the *no threat* condition.

In men, step one was significant,  $F(2, 186) = 25.99, p < .001, R^2 = .22$ , with only MCNS significantly predicting spiteful punishment ( $\beta = 0.45, p < .001$ ). While step two was also overall significant,  $F(3, 185) = 17.40, p < .001$ , there was no significant MCNS x Condition interaction ( $\beta = 0.05, p = .540$ ).

## Chapter Four:

### Discussion

Research into threatened egotism has shown that when threatened, narcissists tend to react aggressively against the source of the threat and third-party members in order to re-assert their social dominance. Some studies have shown that it is a particular sub-type of narcissism, vulnerable narcissism, which is most strongly linked to reactive aggression. The present study attempted to investigate one possible way for narcissists to covertly aggress and re-assert dominance: punishment of another individual. More specifically, the primary hypothesis was that vulnerable narcissists who experienced a self-threat would be more in favor of spiteful punishment than non-threatened narcissists and non-narcissists.

### Summary of Results

Results showed that, overall, participants higher in vulnerable narcissism were more in favor of spiteful punishment (compared to those low in vulnerable narcissism) regardless of condition. NLT scores were lower for participants after the *self-threat* manipulation compared to the *no threat* manipulation, suggesting that the RAT was a viable self-esteem threat. These results show that while the vulnerable narcissists may have been threatened after the RAT, this self-threat did not affect their endorsement of spiteful punishment, contradicting hypothesis 1.

Total NPI scores did not significantly predict spiteful punishment in either the presence or absence of self-threat, contradicting hypothesis 2a. When looking at NPI subscales, only the *Entitlement* subscale of the NPI significantly predicted spiteful punishment. This is in line with some research showing that narcissistic entitlement is

linked to aggression and spiteful behavior (Reidy et al., 2008; Marcus, Zeigler-Hill, Mercer, & Norris, 2014). However, self-esteem threat did not seem to affect the endorsement of spiteful punishment among those with greater narcissistic entitlement, contradicting hypothesis 2b. The vulnerable narcissism model using MCNS scores significantly a greater proportion of the variance in spiteful punishment than the grandiose narcissism model using the NPI did. This might suggest that vulnerable narcissists favor covert aggression more than grandiose narcissists do.

Further exploratory analyses based on post-hoc hypotheses investigated possible gender differences in punitiveness for threatened narcissists. While results have shown no gender differences in vulnerable narcissism, aggression and threatened egotism seem to differ between men and women (e.g., Barnett & Powell, 2016; Charbonnier, 2017). In the present study, men vulnerable narcissists were more in favor of spiteful punishment (compared to those lower in vulnerable narcissism) regardless of condition. However, for women, there was also an interaction of self-threat and vulnerable narcissism: female vulnerable narcissists were especially in favor of spiteful punishment after a threat. Charbonnier (2017) found that contingent self-esteem and narcissistic entitlement were the strongest predictors of physical aggression in women. Contingent self-esteem involves one's self-worth being highly dependent on external factors such as social approval, and has been linked to vulnerable narcissism (Zeigler-Hill, Clark, & Pickard, 2008). Because women engage in more covert aggression than overt aggression compared to men (Archer, 2004), a covert aggression paradigm like spiteful punishment may best capture reactive aggression in female vulnerable narcissists. This may also explain why men showed no effect of threat on spiteful punishment, as men tend to show

more overt aggression (especially overt reactive aggression) than covert aggression, compared to women (Archer, 2004). In other words: it is not necessarily that men vulnerable narcissists do not demonstrate reactive aggression to threats, but that they may not demonstrate covert reactive aggression to threats, instead favoring overt aggression. Thus, a covert aggression paradigm such as this may not be appropriate for men's more overt aggression.

Research has shown that not only do narcissists engage in aggression after threat, but also that they generally endorse others' violent behavior (Blinkhorn, Lyons, & Almond, 2016). This may be another explanation for vulnerable narcissists' overall endorsement of spiteful punishment. Since the present punishment paradigm involves endorsing another person's spitefulness (and not personally engaging in spiteful punishment), narcissists might thus be in favor of other's violent behavior. It is possible that narcissists endorse others' violent behavior to either experience social dominance vicariously, or to justify their own aggression.

Vulnerable narcissism was also associated with lower endorsement of strategic punishment (compared to those lower in vulnerable narcissism) for both conditions. While spiteful punishment and strategic punishment were not correlated, it could be that strategic punishment does not bolster the fragile self-esteem of vulnerable narcissists in the same way that spiteful punishment does. The endorsement of strategic punishment may be driven by empathy for the transgression victim, and a desire to rehabilitate the transgressor. It may have been the case that participants high in vulnerable narcissists lacked the empathy that would otherwise have motivated them to favor strategic

punishment. However, given the relatively low  $R^2$  values of the models, these results should be considered carefully.

Exhibitionism also negatively predicted the endorsement of strategic punishment. Given the paucity of research into the exhibitionism domain of narcissism, and the brand new paradigm designed by Gill and Cerce (2017), it is difficult to speculate on possible explanations. However, post-hoc analyses found that once gender was accounted for, this was not significant. Since men overall endorsed less strategic punishment, and scored higher than women on narcissistic exhibitionism, this effect may thus have been confounded by gender differences in exhibitionism and strategic punishment.

Initial preference scores were significantly lower after the condition manipulation for participants in the self-threat condition compared to the no-threat condition. This suggests that the RAT was a successful self-esteem threat. Furthermore, exploratory analyses found that for participants who had experienced a self-threat, being given the opportunity to punish improved their implicit self-esteem. This appeared to be especially so for participants high in vulnerable narcissism (compared to low in vulnerable narcissism). Though negative RAT feedback threatened their self-esteem, the ability to punish an individual seemed to repair their damaged self-esteem. However, it should be noted that these results were only borderline significant, and showed an almost nonexistent effect size. Thus, these results should be considered skeptically.

### **Narcissistic Self-Enhancement**

Threatened egotism research has found that narcissists will aggress to reassert dominance in response to self-threats. The present study showed that vulnerable narcissists consistently engaged in social aggression regardless of self-esteem threat.

These findings suggest that narcissists engage in self-enhancement, even under circumstances where they would be expected to self-protect. This goes along with some researchers' conceptualization of narcissism as a disorder of pathological self-enhancement (Morf, Horvath, & Torchetti, 2011). Given their fragile sense of self-esteem, vulnerable narcissists may especially need to self-enhance, which can take the form of anti-social behavior.

Most threatened egotism research has used measures of overt aggression (e.g., noise blasts in a competitive reaction time game; Bushman & Baumeister, 1998), and shown that narcissists engage in more overt aggression after self-threats compared to without threat. However, the present study found that those high in narcissism—especially vulnerable narcissism—will engage in greater covert aggression (compared to those low in narcissism) regardless of whether their self-esteem has been threatened or not.

### **Limitations and Future Directions**

Results showed that NPI scores were not predictors of punishment. This may be due to the problematic nature of the scale. While the NPI is one of the most commonly used measures of narcissism, it is not without its faults. While originally designed to have seven subscales (Raskin & Hall, 1979), different factor analyses have identified anywhere from four to nine separate factors (Emmons, 1984; Raskin & Hall, 1979). These widely varying factor loadings threaten the interval validity of the scale. There are also possible problems with the construction of the scale. The NPI consists of pairs of statements, one that is supposed to indicate a narcissistic attitude, and one that is a non-narcissistic attitude. However, this binary choice may not accurately capture participants'

actual attitudes as they are forced to pick a statement even if neither accurately captures their personality. Furthermore, the two opposing statements do not represent two ends of a continuum. For example, one pair of NPI statements is “I am assertive”/“I wish I was more assertive.” There exists no possible option for individuals who are knowingly not assertive, but have no desire to be. Thus, a participant is forced to choose between two statements that are inaccurate. Future research may benefit from a different measure of narcissism such as the Pathological Narcissism Inventory (Pincus, 2013), another well-validated measure that may be better at capturing grandiose narcissism.

Results showed that vulnerable narcissism is a stronger predictor of covert aggression than grandiose narcissism. However, as there was no overt punishment option, it is difficult to discern if vulnerable narcissists show greater threatened egotism aggression overall or merely in covert aggression. Another key benefit of this study is a possible new covert aggression paradigm. The James vignette task (Gill & Cerce, 2017) was originally conceptualized as a measurement of punitiveness and forgiveness. However, spiteful punishment may be a form of covert aggression against a perceived deserving target. Some researchers (Ritter & Eslea, 2005; Tedeschi & Quigley, 1996) have criticized the external validity of common aggression measures (e.g. hot-sauce paradigm, Competitive Reaction Time Game, Point Subtraction Aggression Paradigm). This spiteful punishment paradigm may be a more naturalistic method to measure covert aggression.

Though this study showed no gender differences in vulnerable narcissism, exploratory analyses found gender differences in covert aggression amongst threatened vulnerable narcissists. Results found an effect of self-threat on spiteful punishment

among women high in vulnerable narcissism, but not among men high in vulnerable narcissism. While implicit self-esteem scores suggest that the RAT manipulation successfully induced self-threat across genders, studies have shown that women invest greater contingent self-esteem in intelligence compared to men (Crocker, Karpinski, Quinn, & Chase, 2003). Thus, an intelligence threat such as the RAT may have been more effective for women than for men. Future research should try and discern if the gender differences lie in the type of self-threat or the type of reactive aggression measured (i.e., covert versus overt aggression).

Overall, the majority of the NPI subscales were unrelated to spiteful punishment. And *Entitlement* only weakly predicted spiteful punishment. This seems to contradict the threatened egotism research. However, the nature of the self-threat in this study may have influenced these null findings. Research has shown that public self-threats provoke reactive aggression in grandiose narcissists, but private self-threats do not (Ferriday, Vartanian, & Mandel, 2011). Since the negative feedback manipulation was shared only with the participant, the private self-threat may not have affected grandiose narcissists.

## **Conclusions**

Research into threatened egotism has shown that when narcissists experience a self-threat, they react with aggression. The present study found that participants high in vulnerable narcissism endorsed greater spiteful punishment than those low in vulnerable narcissism in both the absence and presence of self-threat. This suggests that vulnerable narcissists engage in consistent self-enhancement to an almost pathological degree with possibly antisocial effects.

## Appendices

### Appendix A: **Informed Consent**



#### **Informed Consent Form**

**Primary Investigator:** Drew Parton, Psychology department

#### **Purpose of this study:**

This study is designed to investigate relationships between personality traits and social judgments.

#### **Procedure:**

During the study, you will be asked to fill out questionnaires regarding personality traits and personal judgments.

#### **Possible Risks:**

The study poses minimal risks to you. If you experience distress when answering certain questions or performing certain tasks, you can discontinue the study at any time without penalty. You may also skip any questions you do not want to answer.

#### **Benefits:**

Results and analyses from these data will help expand current research about relationships between personality and social judgments. You may request to receive a synopsis of the results of the study when data collection is completed by making a request to the investigator. The study is expected to last approximately 15 minutes, and you will be compensated 0.50 USD for your participation.

#### **Voluntary:**

Participation in this study is completely voluntary. If at any point you wish to stop, you can withdraw from this study with no penalization to you. You may also choose not to answer questions that may discomfort you.

#### **Confidentiality:**

All information collected during the study period will be kept strictly confidential. Your responses will be coded using unique identification numbers. No publications or reports from this project will include identifying information on any participant.

#### **Contact information:**

If you have any questions or concerns regarding your rights as a participant, you are encouraged to contact the chairperson of the Towson University Institutional Review Board:

Dr. Elizabeth Katz  
Towson University Office of University Research Services  
8000 York Road  
Towson, Maryland 21252  
Phone: (410) 704-2236

If you have questions regarding the study or if you wish to withdraw your consent, please contact the principle investigator: Drew Parton, Towson University (dparto1@students.towson.edu) or the faculty advisor, Dr. Michael Ent (ment@towson.edu)

#### **Consent:**

By signing this consent form, I am indicating my understanding that (a) I certify that I am over the age of 18, (b) I am participating in a research study; (c) my participation is completely voluntary and that I can withdraw my consent at any time without penalty; and (d) I do not have to answer any questions I do not want to answer.

### Appendix B: Maladaptive Covert Narcissism Scale

*Please answer the following questions by deciding to what extent each item is characteristic of your feelings and behavior. Fill in the blank next to each item by choosing a number from the scale printed below.*

*Please use the following scale:*

<b>1</b> -----	<b>2</b> -----	<b>3</b> -----	<b>4</b> -----	<b>5</b>
<b>Disagree</b>	<b>Disagree</b>	<b>Neither agree</b>	<b>Agree</b>	<b>Agree</b>
<b>Strongly</b>	<b>Somewhat</b>	<b>Nor disagree</b>	<b>Somewhat</b>	<b>Strongly</b>

- \_\_\_\_\_ 1. I can become entirely absorbed in thinking about my personal affairs, my health, my cares, or my relations to others
- \_\_\_\_\_ 2. My feelings are easily hurt by ridicule or by the slighting remarks of others
- \_\_\_\_\_ 3. When I enter a room, I often become self-conscious and feel that the eyes of others are on me
- \_\_\_\_\_ 4. I dislike sharing the credit of an achievement with others
- \_\_\_\_\_ 5. I feel that I have enough on my hands without worrying about other people's troubles
- \_\_\_\_\_ 6. I feel that I am temperamentally different from most people
- \_\_\_\_\_ 7. I often interpret the remarks of others in a personal way
- \_\_\_\_\_ 8. I easily become wrapped up in my own interests and forget the existence of others
- \_\_\_\_\_ 9. I dislike being with a group unless I know that I am appreciated
- \_\_\_\_\_ 10. I am secretly annoyed when other people come to me with their troubles, asking me for my time and sympathy
- \_\_\_\_\_ 11. I am jealous of good-looking people.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 12. I tend to feel humiliated when criticized.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 13. I wonder why other people aren't more appreciative of my good qualities.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 14. I tend to see other people as being either great or terrible.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 15. I sometimes have fantasies about being violent without knowing why.

- \_\_\_\_\_ 16. I am especially sensitive to success and failure.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 17. I have problems that nobody else seems to understand.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 18. I try to avoid rejection at all costs.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 19. My secret thoughts, feelings, and actions would horrify some of my friends.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 20. I tend to become involved in relationships in which I alternately adore and despise the other person.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 21. Even when I am in a group of friends, I often feel very alone and uneasy.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 22. I resent others who have what I lack.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 23. Defeat or disappointment usually shame or anger me, but I try not to show it.

### Appendix C: Narcissistic Personality Inventory

*You will see pairs of statements. For each pair, please choose which one is closest to your feelings.*

I have a natural talent for influencing people	I am not good at influencing people
Modesty doesn't become me	I am essentially a modest person
I would do almost anything on a dare	I tend to be fairly cautious
When people compliment me, I sometimes get embarrassed	I know that I am good because people tell me so
The thought of ruling the world frightens me	If I ruled the world, it would be a better place
I can usually talk my way out of situations	I try to accept the consequences of my behavior
I prefer to blend in with the crowd	I like to be the center of attention
I will be a success	I am not too concerned about success
I am no better or worse than most people	I think I am a special person
I am not always sure if I would make a good leader	I see myself as a good leader
I am assertive	I wish I was more assertive
I like to have authority over other people	I don't mind following orders
I find it easy to manipulate people	I don't like it when I find myself manipulating people
I insist upon getting the respect that I deserve	I feel that I usually get the respect that I deserve
I don't particularly like to show off my body	I like to show off my body
I can read people easily	People are sometimes hard to understand
If I feel competent, I am willing to take responsibility for making decisions	I like to take responsibility for making decisions
I just want to be reasonably happy	I want to amount to something great
My body is nothing special	I like to look at my body
I try not to be a show off	I will usually show off if I get the chance
I always know what I'm doing in a situation	Sometimes I am not sure of what I am doing
I sometimes depend on others to get things done	I can always get things done by myself
I will never be satisfied until I get what I deserve	I take my satisfactions as they come
Compliments embarrass me	I like to be complimented
I have a strong will for power	Power does not interest me much
I like to look at myself in the mirror	I do not often look at myself in the mirror
I like to be the center of attention	It makes my uncomfortable to be the center of attention
I can live my life in any way I want to	People can't always live their lives in terms of the way they want

Being an authority does not mean that much to me	People usually recognize my authority on matters
I would prefer to be leader	I am okay with following with others
I am going to do great things	I hope that I am going to be successful
People often question what I say	I can make anybody believe anything I want
I am a born leader	Leadership is a quality that takes a long time to develop
I wish that someone would some day write my biography	I don't like people prying into my life
I get upset when people don't notice how I look	I don't mind blending into the crowd
I feel that I am more capable than other people	There is a lot that I can learn from others
I am much like everybody else	I am an extraordinary person
Sometimes I tell good stories	Everybody likes to hear my stories
I expect a great deal from other people	I like to do things for other people
I don't care about new fads and fashions	I like to start new trends

## Appendix D: Selected Remote Associates Test items

### **Practice:**

- snow/basket/room (ball)
- loser/throat/spot (sore)
- cream/skate/cube (ice)

### **Easy:**

- duck/fold/dollar (bill)
- rocking/wheel/high (chair)
- dew/comb/bee (honey)
- cottage/swiss/cake (cheese)
- political/surprise/birthday (party)

### **Difficult:**

- cracker/fly/fighter (fire)
- tooth/potato/heart (sweet)
- mail/board/lung (black)
- cut/cream/war (cold)
- hammer/ache/fore (head)
- foul/ground/mate (play)
- wise/work/tower (clock)
- cry/front/ship (battle)
- forward/flush/razor (straight)
- land/hand/house (farm)
- break/bean/cake (coffee)
- fork/dark/man (pitch)
- end/line/lock (dead)
- illness/bus/computer (terminal)
- roll/bean/fish (jelly)

## Appendix E: **James vignette**

James is the Vice President of a moderately sized company who will often humiliate and harass members of his staff. He says unkind things and implies that employees are unintelligent or incompetent. Employees avoid James as much as possible so that they will not be his next target. Unfortunately, there are few avenues for change in the company as James is the owner's son and employees are hesitant to file complaints against him. He thinks that putting others down is "good sport" and that it is funny when other people are embarrassed. He often plans his insults in advance, timing them<sup>[1]</sup> to achieve maximum impact. On occasions when others have asked James to reflect on what he is doing, this has produced no positive effect.

Appendix F: **Spiteful and strategic punishments**

*Please fill-in-the-blank before each statement with the number that best indicates the extent to which you agree or disagree. Please use the following scale:*

1-----	2-----	3-----	4-----	5
<b>Disagree</b>	<b>Disagree</b>	<b>Neither agree</b>	<b>Agree</b>	<b>Agree</b>
<b>Strongly</b>	<b>Somewhat</b>	<b>Nor disagree</b>	<b>Somewhat</b>	<b>Strongly</b>

**Spiteful Punishments**

- \_\_\_\_\_ It would be great to learn that one of James' coworkers spilled water on his laptop, destroying its contents. [L] [SEP]
- \_\_\_\_\_ I would be happy to hear that a project that James had been working on for over a year was "accidentally" erased from his hard drive by a coworker. [L] [SEP]
- \_\_\_\_\_ It would be great if his coworkers changed the clock in his office, making him late for a meeting. [L] [SEP]
- \_\_\_\_\_ I wish someone would "put James in his place," and make him look foolish in front of everyone. [L] [SEP]

**Strategic Punishments**

- \_\_\_\_\_ James should receive a clear warning from a superior: You will not be eligible for a raise until you start treating others with respect. [L] [SEP]
- \_\_\_\_\_ James should be required to see a psychologist who specializes in office bullying; the goal would be to help James see how his behavior affects others. [L] [SEP]
- \_\_\_\_\_ James should be required to attend an office etiquette seminar so he can learn how to appropriately treat his coworkers. [L] [SEP]
- \_\_\_\_\_ For every complaint filed against James, he should be required to meet with a human resources representative to discuss with him ways to change his behavior.

## Appendix G: Debriefing Script

The study you just participated was investigating the relationships between trait narcissism and punishment of transgressor while under self-esteem threat.

Previous research has shown that narcissists tend to become hostile and aggressive when their self-esteem is threatened. This experiment measured the endorsement of harmful and rehabilitative punishments.

You completed two measures of narcissism: The narcissistic personality inventory, and the maladaptive covert narcissism scale. Half of participants then complete an intelligence test, while the other half completes a word-liking task. Participants who took the intelligence test are all falsely told that they had scored poorly. This arbitrary negative feedback was used to elicit self-esteem threat. All participants then read about an office bully, and rate their endorsement of a series of punishments. It is expected that under self-esteem threat, those high in trait narcissism will favor more spiteful and harmful punishments than those low in narcissism and those not threatened.

During the study, we deceived you by not revealing the true purpose of the study. We were concerned that if we had told you the actual purpose of the study, you would have altered your performance on the dependent measure tasks. We apologize for this, but we felt that deception was necessary in order to properly investigate this phenomenon. We, as well as the American Psychological Association, take deception very seriously and only use it when necessary. Deception is not used without careful consideration for the safety and feelings of the participants involved.

It is important to understand that deception is not used lightly in the field of psychology and would ideally not be used. However, some times it must be used when it is likely that knowing the truth would affect the participant's responses.

If you have any concerns about our use of deception or the use of deception in scientific studies in general, you may contact the chairperson of the Towson University Institutional Review Board:

Dr. Elizabeth Katz  
Towson University Office of University Research Services  
8000 York Road  
Towson, Maryland 21252  
Phone: (410) 704-2236

If you have questions regarding the study or if you wish to withdraw your consent, please contact the principle investigator: Drew Parton, Towson University, [dparto1@students.towson.edu](mailto:dparto1@students.towson.edu).

## Appendix H: Institutional Review Board protocol approval



Drew Parton <dparto1@students.towson.edu>

---

### IRB Approval 1712026874

---

IRB <irb@towson.edu>

Thu, Dec 14, 2017 at 11:19 AM

To: "Parton, Drew" <dparto1@students.towson.edu>

Cc: IRB <irb@towson.edu>, "Ent, Michael" <ment@towson.edu>

The IRB has approved your protocol "Does Threatened Egotism Provoke Increased Spiteful Punishment of a Social Transgressor?" as exempt, **effective 12/14/2017 and expiring 12/13/2018.**

Your IRB protocol can now be viewed in MyOSPR. **Student investigators: protocols can be viewed by your faculty advisor.** For more information, please visit: <http://www.towson.edu/academics/research/sponsored/myospr.html>

***Please Note:*** Formal approval letters are now provided upon request. If you would like to have one drafted, please notify the IRB staff.

If you should encounter any new risks, reactions, or injuries to subjects while conducting your research, please notify [IRB@towson.edu](mailto:IRB@towson.edu). If your research has been approved as expedited and will extend beyond one year in duration, you will need to submit an annual renewal notice. Should there be substantive changes in your research protocol, you will need to submit another application.

**Regards,**

**Towson IRB**

## References

- Alicke, M., & Sedikides, C. (2009). Self-enhancement and self-protection: What are they and what do they do? *European Review of Social Psychology*, 20, 1-48. doi: 10.1080/10463280802613866
- Allport, G. W. (1937). *Personality: A psychological interpretation*. New York, Holt.
- American Psychiatric Association. (2013). *Diagnostic and statistical manual of mental disorders: DSM-5*. Washington, D.C: American Psychiatric Association.
- Archer, J. (2004). Sex-differences in aggression in real-world settings: A meta-analytic review. *Review of General Psychology*, 8(4), 291-322.
- Barnett, M.D., & Powell, H.A. (2016). Self-esteem mediates narcissism and aggression among women, but not men: A comparison of two theoretical models of narcissism among college students. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 89, 100-104. doi: 10.1016/j.paid.2015.09.042
- Barry, C.T., Chaplin, W.F., & Grateman, S.J. (2006). Aggression following performance feedback: The influences of narcissism, feedback valence, and comparative standard. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 41, 177-187. doi: 10.1016/j.paid.2006.01.008
- Baumeister, R. F. (1989). The optimal margin of illusion. *Journal of Social and Clinical Psychology*, 8(2), 176-189. doi: 10.1521/jscp.1989.8.2.176
- Baumeister, R.F., Bushman, B.J., & Campbell, W.K. (2000). Self-esteem, narcissism, and aggression: Does violence results from low self-esteem or from threatened egotism? *Current Directions in Psychological Science*, 9(1), 26-29. doi: 10.1111/1467-8721.00053

- Baumeister, R.F., Smart, L., & Boden, J.M. (1996). Relation of threatened egotism to violence and aggression: The dark side of high self-esteem. *Psychological Review*, *103*(2), 5-33.
- Baumeister, R.F., & Tice, D.M. (1985). Self-esteem and responses to success and failure: subsequent performance and intrinsic motivation. *Journal of Personality*, *53*(3), 450-467. doi: 10.1111/j.1467-6494.1985.tb00376.x
- Bettencourt, B.A., & Miller, N. (1996). Gender differences in aggression as a function of provocation: A meta-analysis. *Psychological Bulletin*, *119*(3), 422-447.
- Blascovich, J., & Tomaka, J. (1991). The Self-Esteem Scale. In J. P. Robinson, P. R. Shaver, & L. S. Wrightsman (Eds.), *Measures of personality and social psychological attitudes* (pp. 115-160). New York: Academic Press.
- Blinkhorn, V., Lyons, M., & Almond, L. (2016). Drop the bad attitude! Narcissism predicts acceptance of violent behavior. *Personality and Individual Differences*, *98*, 157-161. doi: 10.1016/j.paid.2016.04.025
- Bongers, K.C.A., Dijksterhuis, A., Spears, R. (2009). Self-Esteem Regulation after Success and Failure to Attain Unconsciously Activated Goals. *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology* *45* (3), 468-477. doi: 10.1016/j.jesp.2008.12.007
- Bowden, E.M., & Jung-Beeman, M. (2003). Normative data for 144 compound remote associate problems. *Behavior Research Methods, Instruments, & Computers*, *35*(4), 634-639. doi: 10.3758/BF03195543
- Brown, J. D., Collins, R. L., & Schmidt, G. W. (1988). Self-esteem and direct versus indirect forms of self-enhancement. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *55*(3), 445-453.

- Bushman, B.J., & Baumeister, R.F. (1998). Threatened egotism, narcissism, self-esteem, and direct and displaced aggression: Does self-love or self-hate lead to violence? *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *75*(1), 219-229.
- Cai, H., Brown, J. D., Deng, C., & Oakes, M. A. (2007). Self-esteem and culture: Differences in cognitive self-evaluations or affective self-regard? *Asian Journal of Social Psychology*, *10*(3), 162-170. doi: 10.1111/j.1467-839X.2007.00222.x
- Cain, N. M., Pincus, A. L., & Ansell, E. B. (2008). Narcissism at the crossroads: Phenotypic description of pathological narcissism across clinical theory, social/personality psychology, and psychiatric diagnosis. *Clinical Psychology Review*, *28*, 638 – 656. doi: 10.1016/j.cpr.2007.09.006
- Campbell, W. K., & Sedikides, C. (1999). Self-threat magnifies the self-serving bias: A meta-analytic integration. *Review of General Psychology*, *3*(1), 23-43.
- Campbell, W.K., Reeder, G.D., Sedikides, C., & Elliot, A.J. (2000). Narcissism and comparative self-enhancement strategies. *Journal of Research in Personality*, *34*, 329-347. doi: 10.1006/jrpe.2000.2282
- Carlsmith, K.M., Darley, J.M., & Robinson, P.H. (2002). Why do we punish? Deterrence and just desserts as motives for punishment. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *83*(2), 284-299.
- Charbonnier, J. (2017). *Female Aggression as an Interactive Effect of Internal Locus of Control and Pathological Narcissism: A Multiple Regression Analysis* (Doctoral dissertation). Retrieved from ProQuest.

- Cheek, J. M., Hendin, H. M., & Wink, P. M. (2013). An expanded version of the hypersensitive narcissism scale: The maladaptive covert narcissism scale. *In meeting of the Association for Research in Personality, Charlotte, NC.*
- Colvin, C. R., Block, J., & Funder, D. C. (1995). Overly positive self-evaluations and personality: negative implications for mental health. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 68*(6), 1152.
- Crocker, J., Karpinski, A., Quinn, D. M., & Chase, S. K. (2003). When grades determine self-worth: consequences of contingent self-worth for male and female engineering and psychology majors. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 85*(3), 507.
- Crocker, J., McGraw, K.M., Thompson, L.L., & Ingerman, C. (1987). Downward comparison, prejudice, and evaluations of others: Effects of self esteem and threat. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology 5*, 907–916.
- Cullen, F. T., Jonson, C. L., & Nagin, D. S. (2011). Prisons do not reduce recidivism: The high cost of ignoring science. *The Prison Journal, 91*(3), 48-65. doi: 10.1177/0032885511415224
- DeWall, C.N., Baumeister, R.F., Stillman, T.F., & Gailliot, M.T. (2007). Violence restrained: Effects of self-regulation and its depletion on aggression. *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology, 43*, 62-76. doi: 10.1016/j.jesp.2005.12.005
- De Quervain, D. J., Fischbacher, U., Treyer, V., & Schellhammer, M. (2004). The neural basis of altruistic punishment. *Science, 305*(5688), 1254. doi: 10.1126/science.1100735

- Di Paula, A., & Campbell, J. D. (2002). Self-esteem and persistence in the face of failure. *Journal Of Personality And Social Psychology*, 83(3), 711-724.  
doi:10.1037/0022-3514.83.3.711
- Emmons, R.A. (1984). Factor analysis and construct validity of the Narcissistic Personality Inventory. *Journal of Personality Assessment*, 48(3), 291-300. doi: 10.1207/s15327752jpa4803\_11
- Exline, J. J., Baumeister, R. F., Bushman, B. J., Campbell, W. K., & Finkel, E. J. (2004). Too proud to let go: Narcissistic entitlement as a barrier to forgiveness. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 87(6), 894–912.
- Farrington, D.P., Langan, P.A., & Wikstrom, P.H. (1994). Changes in Crime and Punishment in America, England and Sweden Between the 1980s and the 1990s. *Studies on Crime and Crime Prevention*, 3, 104-131.
- Fehr, E., & Gächter, S. (2002). Altruistic punishment in humans. *Nature*, 415(6868), 137-140. doi: 10.1038/415137a
- Ferriday, C., Vartanian, O., & Mandel, D. R. (2011). Public but not private ego threat triggers aggression in narcissists. *European Journal of Social Psychology*, 41(5), 564-568. doi: 10.1002/ejsp.801
- Fein, S., & Spencer, S.J. (1997). Prejudice as self-image maintenance: Affirming the self through derogating others. *Journal of Personality And Social Psychology*, 73(1), 31-44.
- Fincher, K.M., & Tetlock, P.E. (2015). Brutality under cover of ambiguity: Activating, perpetuating, and deactivating covert retributivism. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, 41(5), 629-642. doi: 10.1177/0146167215571090

- Fowler, J. H., Johnson, T., & Smirnov, O. (2005). Human behaviour: Egalitarian motive and altruistic punishment. *Nature*, *433*(7021), E1-E1. doi:10.1038/nature03256
- Freud, S. (1957). On Narcissism: An introduction. In J. Strachey (Ed. and Trans.), *The standard edition of the complete psychological works of Sigmund Freud* (pp.67-104). London: Hogarth Press. (Original work published 1914).
- Fossati, A., Borron, S., Grazioli, F., Dornetti, L., Marcassoli, I., Maffei, C., & Cheek, J. (2009). Tracking the hypersensitive dimension in narcissism: Reliability and validity of the Hypersensitive Narcissism Scale. *Personality and Mental Health*, *3*, 235-247. doi: 10.1002/pmh.92
- Garland, D. (2001). *The culture of control: crime and social order in contemporary society*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press.
- Garland, D. (2005). Capital punishment and American culture. *Punishment & Society*, *7*(4), 347-376. doi: 10.1177/14624745050507097
- Gill, M.J., & Cerce, S.C. (2017). He never willed to have the will he has: Historicist narratives, “civilized” blame, and the need to distinguish two notions of free will. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *112*(3), 361-382.
- Goldberg, J.H., Lerner, J.S., & Tetlock, P.E. (1999). Rage and reason: The psychology of the intuitive prosecutor. *European Journal of Social Psychology*, *29*, 781-795. doi: 10.1002/(SICI)1099-0992
- Gollwitzer, M., Meder, M., & Schmitt, M. (2011). What gives victims satisfaction when they seek revenge? *European Journal of Social Psychology*, *41*, 364-374. doi: 10.1002/ejsp.782

- Graf, K. (2017). *Self-regulation of negative feedback in vulnerable narcissistic people* (unpublished doctoral dissertation). University of Hamburg, Hamburg, Germany.
- Greenberg, J., Solomon, S., Pyszczynski, T., Rosenblatt, A., Burling, J., Lyon, D., & ... Pinel, E. (1992). Why do people need self-esteem? Converging evidence that self-esteem serves an anxiety-buffering function. *Journal Of Personality And Social Psychology*, 63(6), 913-922.
- Grijalva, E., Newman, D. A., Tay, L., Donnellan, M. B., Harms, P. D., Robins, R. W., & Yan, T. (2015). Gender differences in narcissism: A meta-analytic review. *Psychological bulletin*, 141(2), 261-310. doi: 10.1037/a0038231
- Hair, J.F., Black, W.C., Babin, B.J., & Anderson, R.E. (2009). *Multivariate Data Analysis* (7th ed.). London, UK.
- Hart, W., Adams, J.M., & Tortoriello, G. (2017). Narcissistic responses to provocation: an examination of the rage and threatened-egotism accounts. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 106, 152-156. doi: 10.1016/j.paid.2016.10.049
- Heatherton, T.F., & Vohs, K.D. (2000). Interpersonal evaluations following threats to self: Role of self-esteem. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 78(4), 725-736.
- Heine, S. J., & Lehman, D. R. (1997). The cultural construction of self-enhancement: An examination of group-serving biases. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 72(6), 1268-1283.
- Heine, S. J., Lehman, D. R., Markus, H. R., & Kitayama, S. (1999). Is there a universal need for positive self-regard? *Psychological Review*, 106(4), 766.

- Hendin, H.M., & Cheek, J.M. (1997). Assessing hypersensitive narcissism: A re-examination of Murray's narcissism scale. *Journal of Research in Personality*, 31(4), 588-599. doi: 10.1006/jrpe.1997.2204
- Henrich, J., McElreath, R., Barr, A., Ensminger, J., Barrett, C., Bolyanatz, A., & Ziker, J. (2006). Costly punishment across human societies. *Science*, 312(5781), 1767-1770. doi: 10.1126/science.1127333
- Hoorens, V. (2014). What's really in a name-letter effect? Name-letter preferences as indirect measures of self-esteem. *European Review of Social Psychology*, 25(1), 228-262. doi: 10.1080/10463283.2014.980085
- Jordan, C.H., Spencer, S.J., Zanna, M.P., Hoshino-Browne, E., & Correll, J. (2003). Secure and defensive high self-esteem. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 85(5), 969-978. doi: 10.1037/0022-3514.85.5.969
- Kernis, M. H., Grannemann, B. D., & Barclay, L. C. (1989). Stability and level of self-esteem as predictors of anger arousal and hostility. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 56(6), 1013.
- Kohut, H. (1972). Thoughts on narcissism and narcissistic rage. *The Psychoanalytic Study of the Child*, 27(1), 360-400. doi: 10.1080/00797308.1972.11822721
- Kurman, J. (2003). Why is self-enhancement low in certain collectivist cultures?: An investigation of two competing explanations. *Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology*, 34(5), 496-510. doi: 10.1177/0022022103256474

- Lagerspetz, K.M.J., Bjorkqvist, K., & Peltonen, T. (1988). Is indirect aggression typical of females? Gender differences in aggressiveness in 11- to 12-year-old children. *Aggressive Behavior, 14*, 403-414. doi: 10.1002/1098-2337(1988)14:6<403::AID-AB2480140602>3.0.CO;2-D
- Latimer, J., Dowden, C., & Muise, D. (2005). The effectiveness of restorative justice practices: A meta-analysis. *Prison Journal, 85*, 127-144. doi: 10.1177/0032885505276969
- Leary, M. R., Tambor, E. S., Terdal, S. K., & Downs, D. L. (1995). Self-esteem as an interpersonal monitor: The sociometer hypothesis. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 68*(3), 518.
- Leary, M. R., Haupt, A. L., Strausser, K. S., & Chokel, J. T. (1998). Calibrating the sociometer: The relationship between interpersonal appraisals and the state self-esteem. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 74*(5), 1290.
- Lebel, E.P., & Gawronski, B. (2009). How to find what's in a name: Scrutinizing the optimality of five scoring algorithms for the name-letter task. *European Journal of Personality, 23*, 85-106. doi: 10.1002/per.705
- Lerner, J. S., Goldberg, J. H., & Tetlock, P. E. (1998). Sober second thought: The effects of accountability, anger, and authoritarianism on attributions of responsibility. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin, 24*(6), 563-574. doi: 10.1177/0146167298246001
- Major, B., Spencer, S., Schmader, T., Wolfe, C., & Crocker, J. (1998). Coping with negative stereotypes about intellectual performance. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin, 24*(1), 34-50. doi: 10.1177/0146167298241003

- Marcus, D.K., Zeigler-Hill, V., Mercer, S.H., & Norris, A.L. (2014). The psychology of spite and the measurement of spitefulness. *Psychological Assessment, 26*(2), 563-574. doi: 10.1037/a0036039
- Martinez, M.A., Zeichner, A., Reidy, D.E., & Miller, J.D. (2008). Narcissism and displaced aggression: Effects of positive, negative, and delayed feedback. *Personality and Individual Differences, 44*(1), 140-149. doi: 10.1016/j.paid.2007.07.012
- Mayer, J. D., & Gaschke, Y. N. (1988). The experience and meta-experience of mood. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 55*, 102-111.
- McCullough, M. E., Emmons, R. A., Kilpatrick, S. D., & Mooney, C. N. (2003). Narcissists as “victims”: The role of narcissism in the perception of transgressions. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin, 29*(7), 885-893. doi: 10.1177/0146167203029007007
- McFarlin, D. B., & Blascovich, J. (1981). Effects of self-esteem and performance feedback on future affective preferences and cognitive expectations. *Journal Of Personality And Social Psychology, 40*(3), 521-531. doi:10.1037/0022-3514.40.3.521
- McFarlin, D.B., & Blascovich, J. (1984). On the remote associates test (RAT) as an alternative to illusory performance: A methodological note. *Basic and Applied Social Psychology, 5*(3), 223-229. doi: 10.1207/s15324834basp0503\_5
- Mednick, S. A. (1967). *The remote associates test*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company.

- Morf, C. C., & Rhodewalt, F. (2001). Unraveling the paradoxes of narcissism: A dynamic self-regulatory processing model. *Psychological Inquiry*, *12*, 177-196. doi: 10.1207/S15327965PLI1204\_1
- Morf, C.C., Horvath, S., & Torchetti, L. (2011). Narcissistic self-enhancement: Tales of (successful?) self-portrayal. In M.D. Alicke & C. Sedikides, *Handbook of self-enhancement and self-protection* (pp. 399-424). New York: Guilford Press.
- Nelissen, R.M.A., & Zeelenberg, M. (2009). Moral emotions as determinants of third-party punishment: Anger, guilt, and the functions of altruistic sanctions. *Judgment and Decision Making*, *4*(7), 543-553.
- Nuttin, J. M. Jr. (1985). Narcissism beyond Gestalt and awareness: The name letter effect. *European Journal of Social Psychology*, *15*, 353–361.  
doi:10.1002/ejsp.2420150309
- Okada, R. (2010). The relationship between vulnerable narcissism and aggression in Japanese undergraduate students. *Personality and Individual Differences*, *49*, 113-118. doi: 10.1016/j.paid.2010.03.017
- Okimoto, T. G., Wenzel, M., & Feather, N. T. (2012). Retribution and restoration as general orientations towards justice. *European Journal of Personality*, *26*, 255–275. doi: 10.1002/per.831
- Paolacci, G., Chandler, J., Ipeirotis, P.G., 2010. Running experiments on Amazon Mechanical Turk. *Judgment and Decision Making* *5*, 411–419.
- Papps, B.P., & O'Carroll, R.E. (1998). Extremes of self-esteem and narcissism and the experience and expression of anger and aggression. *Aggressive Behavior*, *24*, 421-438. doi: 10.1002/(SICI)1098-2337(1998)24:6<421::AID-AB3>3.0.CO;2-3

- Park, L. E., & Maner, J.K. (2009). Does self-threat promote social connection? The role of self-esteem and contingencies of self-worth. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 96*(1), 203-217. doi: 10.1037/a0013933
- Petriglieri, J.L. (2011). Under threat: Responses to, and the consequences of threat to individual's identities. *The Academy of Management Review, 36*(4), 641-662. doi: 10.5465/amr.2009.0087
- Pincus, A. L. (2013). The Pathological Narcissism Inventory. In J. S. Ogrodniczuk (Ed.), *Understanding and treating pathological narcissism* (pp. 93-110). Washington, DC, US: American Psychological Association. doi:10.1037/14041-006
- Quigley, B. M., & Tedeschi, J. T. (1996). Mediating effects of blame attributions on feelings of anger. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin, 22*(12), 1280-1288. doi: 10.1177/01461672962212008
- Rand, D.G. (2012). The promise of Mechanical Turk: How online labor markets can help theorists run behavioral experiments. *Journal of Theoretical Biology, 299*, 172-179. doi: 10.1016/j.jtbi.2011.03.004
- Raskin, R. N., & Hall, C. S. (1979). A narcissistic personality inventory. *Psychological Reports, 45*(2), 590. doi: 10.2466/pr0.1979.45.2.590
- Raskin, R., Novacek, J., & Hogan, R. (1991a). Narcissism, self-esteem, and defensive self-enhancement. *Journal of Personality, 59*(1), 19-38. doi: 10.1111/j.1467-6494.1991.tb00766.x
- Raskin, R., Novacek, J., & Hogan, R. (1991b). Narcissistic self-esteem management. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 61*(6), 911-918.

- Raskin, R., & Terry, H. (1988). A principal-components analysis of the Narcissistic Personality Inventory and further evidence of its construct validity. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *54*(5), 890-902.
- Rasmussen, K. (2016). Entitled vengeance: A meta-analysis relating narcissism to provoked aggression. *Aggressive Behavior*, *42*, 362-379. doi: 10.1002/ab.21632
- Reidy, D. E., Zeichner, A., Foster, J. D., & Martinez, M. A. (2008). Effects of narcissistic entitlement and exploitativeness on human physical aggression. *Personality and Individual Differences*, *44*, 865–875. doi: 10.1016/j.paid.2007.10.015
- Rhodewalt, F., Madrian, J. C., & Cheney, S. (1998). Narcissism, self- knowledge organization, and emotional reactivity: The effect of daily experiences on self-esteem and affect. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, *24*, 75-87. doi: 10.1177/0146167298241006
- Rhodewalt, F., & Morf, C. C. (1998). On self-aggrandizement and anger: A temporal analysis of narcissism and affective reactions to success and failure. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *74*(3), 672. doi: 10.1037/0022-3514.74.3.672
- Ritter, D., & Eslea, M. (2005). Hot sauce, toy guns, and graffiti: A critical account of current laboratory aggression paradigms. *Aggressive Behavior*, *31*(5), 407-419. doi: 10.1002/ab.20066.
- Ritter, K., Dziobek, I., Preißler, S., Rüter, A., Vater, A., Fydrich, T., ... & Roepke, S. (2011). Lack of empathy in patients with narcissistic personality disorder. *Psychiatry research*, *187*(1), 241-247. doi: 10.1016/j.psychres.2010.09.013.

- Robbins, J. E. (2007). *Narcissism and same versus opposite sex of target as predictors of vindictiveness and aggression (Masters thesis)*. Stephen F. Austin State University, Nacogdoches, Texas.
- Ruiz, J.M., Smith, T.W., & Rhodewalt, F. (2001). Distinguishing narcissism and hostility: Similarities and differences in interpersonal circumplex and five-factor correlates. *Journal of Personality Assessment*, 76(3), 537-555. doi: 10.1207/S15327752JPA7603\_12
- Russen, K. (2016). Entitled vengeance: A meta-analysis relating narcissism to provoked aggression. *Aggressive Behavior*, 42, 362-379. doi: 10.1002/ab.21632
- Sedikides, C., & Gregg, A. (2008). Self-enhancement: Food for thought. *Perspectives on Psychological Science*, 3(2), 102-116. doi: 10.1111/j.1745-6916.2008.00068.x
- Sedikides, C., Gaertner, L., & Toguchi, Y. (2003). Pancultural self-enhancement. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 84(1), 60-79. doi: 10.1037/0022-3514.84.1.60
- Solheim, J.S. (1989). A cross-cultural examination of use of corporal punishment on children: A focus on Sweden and the United States. *Child Abuse & Neglect*, 6(2), 147-154. doi: 10.1016/0145-2134(82)90007-2
- Sommer, K.L., & Baumeister, R.F. (2002). Self-evaluation, persistence, and performance following implicit rejection: the role of trait self-esteem. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, 28(7), 926-938. doi: 10.1177/014616720202800706
- Stucke, T.S., & Sporer, S.L. (2002). When grandiose self-image is threatened: Narcissism and self-concept clarity of negative emotions and aggression following ego-threat. *Journal of Personality*, 70(4), 509-532. doi: 10.1111/1467-6494.05015

- Suls, J., Martin, R., & Wheeler, L. (2002). Social comparison: Why, with whom, and with what effect? *Current directions in psychological science*, *11*(5), 159-163. doi: 10.1111/1467-8721.00191
- Taylor, S. E., & Armor, D. A. (1996). Positive illusions and coping with adversity. *Journal of Personality*, *64*(4), 873-898. doi: 10.1111/j.1467-6494.1996.tb00947.x
- Taylor, S.E., Kemeny, M.E., Reed, G.M., Bower, J.E., & Gruenewald, T.L. (2000). Psychological resources, positive illusions, and health. *American Psychologist*, *55*(1), 99-109.
- Taylor, S. E., Lerner, J. S., Sherman, D. K., Sage, R. M., & McDowell, N. K. (2003a). Portrait of the self-enhancer: well adjusted and well liked or maladjusted and friendless? *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *84*(1), 165.
- Taylor, S. E., Lerner, J. S., Sherman, D. K., Sage, R. M., & McDowell, N. K. (2003b). Are self-enhancing cognitions associated with healthy or unhealthy biological profiles? *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *85*(4), 605-615.
- Tedeschi, J. T., & Quigley, B. M. (1996). Limitations of laboratory paradigms for studying aggression. *Aggression and Violent Behavior*, *1*(2), 163-177. doi: 10.1016/1359-1789(95)00014-3
- Tice, D.M. (1991). Esteem protection or enhancement? Self-handicapping motives and attributions differ by trait self-esteem. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology* *60*, 711–725.
- Tonry, M. (2009). Explanations of American punishment policies. *Punishment & Society*, *11*(3), 377-394. doi: 10.1177/1462474509334609

- Twenge, J.M., & Campbell, W.K. (2003). "Isn't it fun to get the respect that we're going to deserve?" Narcissism, social rejection, and aggression. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, 29(2), 261-272. doi: 10.1177/0146167202239051
- Vohs, K.D., & Heatherton, T.F. (2004). Ego threat elicits different social comparison processes among high and low self-esteem people: Implications for interpersonal perceptions. *Social Cognition*, 22(1), 168-191. doi: 10.1521/soco.22.1.168.30983
- Wenzel, M., Okimoto, T.G., Feather, N.T., & Platow, M.J. (2008). Retributive and restorative justice. *Law and Human Behavior*, 32(5), 375-389. doi: 10.1007/s10979-007-9116-6
- Wheeler, L., & Miyake, K. (1992). Social comparison in everyday life. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 62(5), 760-774.
- Wink, P. (1991). Two faces of narcissism. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 61, 590-597.
- Wood, J.V., Giordano-Beech, M., Taylor, K.L., Michela, J.L., & Gaus, V. (1994). Strategies of social comparison among people with low self-esteem: Self-protection and self-enhancement. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 67(4), 713-731.
- Woolfolk, R. L., Novalany, J., Gara, M. A., Allen, L. A., & Polino, M. (1995). Self-complexity, self-evaluation, and depression: An examination of form and content within the self-schema. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 68(6), 1108.

- Worthen, B.R. & Clark, P.M. (1971). Toward an improved measure of remote associational ability. *Journal of Educational Measurement*, 8, 113-123. doi: 10.1111/j.1745-3984.1971.tb00914.x
- Wylie, R.C. (1989). *Measures of self-concept*. Lincoln: University of Nebraska Press.
- Zeigler-Hill, V. (2006). Discrepancies between implicit and explicit self-esteem: Implications for narcissism and self-esteem instability. *Journal of Personality*, 74(1), 119-144. doi: 10.1111/j.1467-6494.2005.00371.x
- Zeigler-Hill, V., Clark, C. B., & Pickard, J. D. (2008). Narcissistic subtypes and contingent self-esteem: Do all narcissists base their self-esteem on the same domains?. *Journal of Personality*, 76(4), 753-774. doi: 10.1111/j.1467-6494.2008.00503.x

## Curriculum Vitae

**Drew M. Parton**

### Education:

**Master of Arts in Experimental Psychology**, May 2018  
Towson University, Towson, Maryland; GPA: 3.97

**Bachelor of Science in Psychology and minor in Philosophy**, May 2014  
St. Lawrence University, Canton, New York; GPA: 3.60  
Graduated Magna Cum Laude with honors in Psychology and Philosophy

**High School Diploma**, June 2010  
Saucon Valley High School, Hellertown, Pennsylvania, GPA: 3.52

### Awards and Honors:

Graduate Student Association Research grant, Towson University, 2017  
Graduate Student Association Travel grant, Towson University, 2017  
Psi Chi Honors Society in Psychology  
Phi Sigma Tau Honors Society in Philosophy  
President's Scholarship for academic achievement, St. Lawrence University, 2010-2014  
Dean's List, St. Lawrence University, Fall 2011–Spring 2014  
Nominated for James H.L. Roach award for psychology, St. Lawrence University, 2014

### Professional and Work Experience:

**Research assistant**, February 2018-Present  
Brain-Computer Interface Project, Army Research Laboratory, Aberdeen, MD  
*Responsibilities:* Conducted cognitive and neuroscience research as part of applied-neuroscience. Cleaned physiological data signals and analyzed statistics.  
*Supervisors:* Greg Lieberman, Ph.D.; Brent Lance

**Graduate researcher**, July 2016–May 2018  
Emotion Science Laboratory, Towson University, Towson, Maryland  
*Responsibilities:* Conducted quantitative research using physiological and biological measures. Lead research teams and trained undergraduate research assistants.  
*Supervisor:* Jared J. McGinley, Ph.D.

**Teaching Assistant**, August 2016-May 2018

Towson University, Towson, Maryland

*Responsibilities:* Graduate student teaching assistant for undergraduate Human Development course (Psyc 203) and Psychology of Aging course (Psyc 405). Helped develop lesson plans and course curriculum. Assisted in the design and grading of student exams

*Supervisor:* Margaret E. Faulkner, Ph.D.; Kim Shifren, Ph.D.

**Research Assistant**, September 2014-May 2016

Morality and Blame Laboratory, Lehigh University, Bethlehem, Pennsylvania

*Responsibilities:* Collaborated with faculty and graduate students on research projects. Helped collect and analyze quantitative and qualitative data.

*Supervisor:* Michael Gill, Ph.D.

**Research Experience:****Wrath of the narcissists: Vulnerable narcissism predicts spiteful punishment of a transgressor**, June 2017–Present

Towson University, Towson, Maryland

*Responsibilities:* Principle investigator in master's thesis research project

*Purpose:* To investigate how narcissists who received a self-esteem threat choose to punish other individuals

*Supervisor:* Michael Ent, Ph.D.

**Physiological activity during recall of social experiences**, November 2017-Present

Towson University, Towson, Maryland

*Responsibilities:* Designed, conducted, and analyzed research project as principle investigator.

*Purpose:* To investigate if individuals produce similar physiological responses when they witness someone be ostracized as when they are ostracized themselves, and if trait empathy moderates this.

*Supervisor:* Jared J. McGinley, Ph.D.

**“I avenge; others aggress”: A victim-perpetrator asymmetry in judging whether a transgression was motivated by revenge**, May 2017–Present

Towson University, Towson, Maryland

*Responsibilities:* Designed study, conducted research, and

*Purpose:* To analyze how individuals differently attribute harm to revenge motivations when they commit harm, and when others commit harm

*Supervisor:* Michael Ent, Ph.D.

**Palpitations, perspiration, and pity: The physiological and affective consequences of social inclusion, rejection, and vicarious ostracism, January 2017-May 2017**

Towson University, Towson, Maryland

*Responsibilities:* Designed study, conducted research, analyzed data, reported results, and presented project.

*Purpose:* To test if individuals show similar physiological stress responses when they are personally socially rejected, and when they witness another person be socially rejected

*Supervisor:* Jared J. McGinley, Ph.D.

**At the heart of harm: Resting heart rate variability and action-based aversion to simulated harmful actions August 2016–May 2017**

Towson University, Towson, Maryland

*Responsibilities:* Designed study, conducted research, analyzed data, reported results, and presented project as primary investigator as part of first year graduate project.

*Purpose:* To test if resting HRV can predict individual's empathic aversive response to simulated acts of harm

*Supervisor:* Jared J. McGinley, Ph.D.

**The sweet taste of nature: Biophilia, glucose, and ego depletion**

May 2013–May 2014

St. Lawrence University, Canton, New York

*Responsibilities:* Designed study, conducted research, analyzed data, Designed study, conducted research, analyzed data, reported results, and presented project as primary investigator as part of undergraduate honors project.

*Purpose:* To investigate if viewing scenes of nature can help improve inhibition after self-regulatory fatigue

*Supervisor:* Mark A. Oakes, Ph.D.

**Presentations and Publications:**

**Parton, D.M.,** Carson D., Elsayed, S., Elzein, S., McGriff, B., Pearce, M., Fernandez, X., Small, E., Sunju-Abbey, E., Ent, M.R., & McGinley, J.J. (April, 2018).

*Physiological responses to personally experienced and vicariously experienced social ostracism.* Poster presented at Towson University Psychology Department PGSA Conference, Towson, MD.

**Parton, D.M. & Ent, M.R.** (April, 2018). *Wrath of the Narcissists: Vulnerable narcissism predicts greater spiteful punishment of a third-party transgressor.*

Talk presented at Towson University Psychology Graduate Student Association, Towson, MD. (Manuscript in progress).

- McGinley, J.J., Sagan, O., **Parton, D.M.**, & Rompilla, D.R. (October 2018). *Escaping the file drawer: Is heart rate variability always useful as a biomarker for self-regulation?* Symposium to be presented at Society for Psychophysiological Research international conference.
- McGinley, J.J., **Parton, D.M.**, Rompilla, D.B., & Sagan, O. (May, 2018). *Eight cases of non-significant relationships between resting heart rate variability and individual difference measures.* Poster to be presented at the 30th annual convention for the Association for Psychological Science, San Francisco, CA.
- Parton, D.M.** (February, 2018). *The “need to know” dilemma: When should researchers break confidentiality for the participant’s sake?* Talk presented at Towson Psychology Graduate Student Association symposium: “Ethics in Modern Psychological Research”
- Parton, D. M.** & Ent, M. (March, 2018). *“I avenge; others aggress”: A victim-perpetrator asymmetry in judging whether a transgression was motivated by revenge.* Presented at Eastern Psychological Association annual meeting, (Manuscript in preparation)
- Parton, D. M.**, & McGinley, J.J. (2018). *Cardiovascular concomitants of moral aversion to simulated harm.* (Manuscript in preparation).
- Parton, D. M.** & McGinley, J. J. (October, 2017). *At the heart of harm: Resting heart rate variability and action-based aversion to simulated harmful actions.* Presented at Society for Psychophysiological Research international conference.
- Parton, D. M.**, Workman, B., Miller, J., Roberts, K., Weldon, B., & McGinley, J.J. (March, 2017). *Can resting HRV index moral aversion to harm?* Presented at Towson University Research and Creative Inquiry Forum.
- Carson, D., Chen, B., **Parton, D. M.**, & McGinley, J.J. (March, 2017). *Palpitations, perspiration, and pity: The physiological and affective consequences of social inclusion, rejection, and vicarious ostracism.* Presented at Towson University Research and Creative Inquiry Forum
- Parton, D. M.**, & Oakes, M. A. (April, 2014). *The sweet taste of nature: Biophilia, glucose, and ego depletion.* Presented at St. Lawrence Festival of Science.

**Professional Affiliations:**

- Society for Psychophysiological Research, 2016-Present
- Eastern Psychological Association, student affiliate, 2013-Present
- Psi Chi Psychology honorary society, 2013-Present

**Certification:**

Social & Behavioral Research – Basic/Refresher, *Collaborative Institutional Training Initiative*, 2018

Responsible Conduct of Research for Students, *Collaborative Institutional Training Initiative*, 2016

**University Involvement:**

Towson University Psychology Graduate Student Association, program representative, 2017

St. Lawrence University faculty search committee, student representative, 2014

Psi Chi community service committee, member, 2013-2014

**Computer skills:**

Proficient in Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS), R studio, Magnum Opus, K-H Coder, Qualtrics, Biopac Acknowledge, Microsoft Excel, Microsoft PowerPoint, Microsoft Word.

