

Pakistan Languages and Humanities Review www.plhr.org.pk

RESEARCH PAPER

Need for Power, Personality Traits, and Organizational Work-Related Behaviors among Employees

Muhammad Zohaib Khan*1 Dr. Iffat Batool²

- 1. Ph.D. Scholar, Department of Psychology, Government College University, (GCU) Lahore. mzohaibalikhan@gmail.com
- 2. Associate Professor, Director/Focal Person Forgiveness Unit, Department of Psychology, Government College University, (GCU) Lahore.

DOI	http://doi.org/10.47205/plhr.2022(6-III)3
ABSTRACT	

The existing study aimed to investigate the relationship between the need for power, personality traits, and organizational work-related behaviors among employees. The sample of the study N=225 was recruited through the purposive sampling technique (Emerson, 2015) from different cities in Pakistan including male (n=160) and female (n=65) employees with an age range from 30 years to 55 years (M= 41.15, SD= 7.24). Furthermore, informed consent was obtained from the organizations and the participants. Standardized research instruments were used for data collection. The results of reliability analysis showed high Cronbach's alpha coefficient estimates for the research instruments on the Pakistani employees' papulation *i.e.*, Personalized and Socialized Need for Power Scale (Moon et al., 2022) (a= .84, a= .82), HEXACO Personality (R) (Lee & Ashton, 2019) (Honesty-Humility α = .87, Emotionality α = .88, Extroversion α = .90, Agreeableness α =.88, Consciousness α = .73, Openness to Experience α = .80), Impression Management (Bolino & Turnley, 1999) (Intimidation α = .78, Self-Promotion α = .76, Ingratiation α = .70), and Counter Productive Work Behavior (Spector et al., 2006) (α = .81). The findings of correlation analysis revealed that personalized need for power positively associated with counterproductive work behavior, and two components of the impression management (self-promotion and intimidation) and negatively related to socialized need for power, honesty-humility, emotionality, extroversion, agreeableness, and one component of the impression management (ingratiation). Whereas the socialized need for power positively correlated with honesty-humility, emotionality, extroversion, agreeableness, and one component of impression management (e.g., ingratiation) further, it was negatively associated with counterproductive work behavior, and two components of impression management (e.g., self-promotion, intimidation). This research would provide help organizations identify their potential employees to enhance their work productivity and positive work-related personality traits by eliminating the undesirable factors of power. Moreover, the factorizations of the research instruments on the Pakistani employees' population would provide reliable evidence to the local researchers for their more comprehensibility. This research would provide new insight for future research on other work-related psychological models.

KeywordsCounterproductive Work Behavior, HEXACO-Personality Inventory,
Impression Management, and Personalized-Socialized Need for Power

Introduction

The term "Need Power" was introduced by one of the renowned psychologists David McClelland in 1961. McClelland was influenced by the work of pioneer psychologist Hanry Murry, who introduced the concept of psychological human needs and motivational processes in 1938. The need for power is an emotional drive to influence others, get status, control over others, and desire for winning. Individuals who have a high need for power, desire authority over other individuals (McClelland, 1987). McClelland (1961) defined that individuals' predominant motive is power, they are always motivated to control and influence other individuals in society. Furthermore, influential employees exercise their power to control the other individual according to their desires and personal motives (Manning et al., 2008). Hence, the need for power is a desire for "power either to control other people for one's goals or to achieve higher goals for the greater good" (McClelland, 1987). A recent research study defines that "the term Need for Power refers to the desire to be able to influence others is known as the need for power" (Moon et al., 2022).

David McClelland established McClelland's human motivation theory, often known as the three needs theory (McClelland, 1961). According to the human motivation theory, each individual has one of the three fundamental needs, which are also thought to be the primary motivators, such as the need for achievement, the need for affiliation, and the need for power. Using a managerial context, this human motivation model aims to explain how various motivators influence people's behaviors and activities. Further, he claimed that individuals have distinct characteristics depending on their dominant motives and these dominant motivating drivers largely depend on our culture and life experiences regardless of age and gender. McClelland states that individuals having the need for achievement have a strong desire to accomplish challenging goals with calculated risks, they want to receive regular feedback on their achievement, and these individuals often like to work alone. Individuals having a desire for affiliation do not take high risks or do not want to face uncertainty, they mostly favor collaborations rather a competition. Finally, individuals having a desire for power want to have control over others, want to influence others, always like to win arguments, and enjoy recognition, power, and status while winning competitions (McClelland, 1961, 1970, 1972, 1987, 1989).

The need for power has been conceptualized into two distinct facets, e.g., a "personalized need for power" and a "socialized need for power" (McClelland & Wilsnack, 1972; Winter & Stewart, 1978). The individuals' stronger desire to influence others, having control over others' actions/behaviors and self-serving motives have been labeled as the personalized need for power, however, for others serving and serving for the welfare of others is known as a socialized need for power. Studies differentiate that individuals either have a personalized or socialized desire for power based on a few significant features, individuals having a strong desire for personalized power are more likely to exhibit controlling behavior, influence actions, impress others, seek power and position, and arouse emotions in others. In contrast, individuals having a desire for socialized power try to help others with any personal again, they are involved in the goals that are beneficial for others, and they work for the welfare and betterment of others (Magee & Langner, 2008; McClelland, 1961, 1970; McClelland & Wilsnack, 1972; Watts et al., 2018).

The exploration of the associations between the need for power and personality traits was not given much emphasis in recent studies. The Big Five personality traits inventory distinguishes the employees in the organizations based on their personality traits (Morrell & MacKenzie, 2011). Whereas, their structure of personality traits is entirely different from their desires for power in the workplace. Moreover, the employees' orientation and the exercise of power (i.e., employees' higher levels of personalized or socialized power) may differently influence the other employees at the workplace. Additionally, Personalized-Socialized needs for power address a wider, multifaceted range of needs. Understanding how specific personality traits relate to the two aspects of the need for power can help to explain how these aspects of power shape the individuals' personalities while fulfilling their personal as well as work-related needs (Dweck, 2017). The current research primarily aims to explore the association of both components of the need for power with the HEXACO model of personality and also provide a theoretical understanding of how the desires for power are associated with different personality traits that are necessary for the leadership roles (Lee et al., 2013). Similarly, the current study also focuses on the construct of the need for power and its relationship the organizational work-related behaviors. As hypothesized that behaviors expressed by employees with higher levels of personalized-nPower and socialized-nPower will differ due to divergent motivations for obtaining power and influencing others, which stem from different goals and needs. The motivations in these two different power components in the workplace are also critical for driving different types of behaviors that attempt to meet the needs of employees (Moon et al., 2022). Furthermore, given how the employees' behaviors affect their routine lives and how the organization's work-related behaviors are associated with the personalized and socialized need for power, may have distinct implications on organizational functioning. In the first step, the researcher hypothesized that employees with higher levels of personalized need for power would be more likely to have lower Honesty-Humility, lower Agreeability, lower Emotionality, and higher Extraversion. Employees who score poorly on Honesty-Humility often feel a great sense of self-importance and are motivated by material and self-beneficial gains (Ashton & Lee, 2007; Lee & Ashton, 2004). Additionally, employees who score low on this trait exhibit less flexibility in their interactions with other employees at the workplace, which may be closely related to the antisocial behavior that has been shown in employees with a higher level of personalized need for power. With a high level of personalized need for power, employees with lower emotionality also tend to have less concern for other employees (Magee & Langner, 2008; Lee & Ashton, 2004).

Similarly, employees with a higher socialized need for power will typically have higher extraversion than those with a higher personalized need for power because they need to interact with others to spread good values, and they like to interact with the other employees in social situations (Ashton & Lee, 2007). Theory suggests that extraversion is also linked to the social status of the employees however, it is a very strong leadership skill among employees (Mitchell et al., 2021). However, contrary to our predictions of the personalized need for power, researchers believe that employees with a higher socialized need for power tend to be more agreeable and emotional. Agreeableness is a personality trait that predicts a person's propensity to cooperate with others, and emotionality is also a personality trait that influences social bonding and relationship-building, both of which are closely related to the prosocial goals of socialized need for power (Moon et al., 2022; Lee et al., 2013; McClelland et al., 1989). Given that people with higher levels of socialized nPower want to use their

power to influence others in prosocial ways, their higher levels of sincerity, fairness, and honesty-humility.

The current study focuses on the need for power and its relationship to organizational work-related behaviors. Researchers believe that employees with higher levels of Personalized-Socialized need for power will exhibit different behavior patterns due to divergent motivations for obtaining power and influencing others (Bunderson & Reagans, 2011). The motivating factors in the two main components of the need for power are indeed critical for driving different types of behaviors that attempt to meet the needs of employees (Dweck, 2017). Furthermore, given how employees' behaviors can affect their daily lives and the organization (Manning et al., 2008), behaviors related to the personalized-socialized need for power may have distinct implications for organizational structure and function (Strange & Mumford, 2022).

In the workplace, effective impression management is essential. It has a great impact on our social influence and it changes the perception of the people at work (Harris et al., 2007). The organizational and social psychologists critically examined the concept of impression management from the management's perspective. They explained that "impression management is the process whereby people seek to influence the image others to have them" (Bolino & Turnley, 1999; Rosenfeld et al., 1995). Initially, Erving Goffman a Canadian social psychologist conceptualized the notion of impression management in the 1950s. He described that "impression management is a conscious or subconscious process in which people attempt to influence the perception of other people about a person, object or even by regulating or controlling the information in social interactions" (Goffman, 1959). Goffman's primary objective was to explain that " how people in daily work situations present themselves and in so doing, what they are doing to others" he was especially interested in how a person influences and controls, how others perceive them, as well as what a people may or may not do when performing in front of them. Impression management enables us to match our desired outcomes with what we want to be seen. Most of the time, we want other people to perceive us as interesting, capable, likable, confident, and pleasant. This is closely related to the self-presentation theory (Baumeister & Hutton, 1987). Multiple impression management strategies were used to control the people at the workplace and through these strategies, people can also control the impressions of others at the same time. Jones and Pittman (1982) determined the five impression management strategies in the workplace such as selfpromotion, intimidation, ingratiation, exemplification, and supplication. These strategies can be used independently. Moon et al. (2022) studied that employees high personalized need for power are more likely to use the tactics of both self-promotion, and intimidation, they always prioritize their self-interests and want to have control over others. Whereas employees with a high need for socialized power are more linked with ingratiation, they never use intimidation to gain power and take control over others. These employees empower and influence others through their pro-social means and try to achieve collective goals for the welfare of others (McClelland, 1987).

Counterproductive work behavior defines as the employees' voluntary behaviors that harm the organization as well as the people of the organization. These behaviors included *i.e.*, workplace aggression, absenteeism, theft, workplace bullying, and workplace deviance (Spector et al., 2006). Further, counterproductive work behavior has been characterized by deliberate actions or behaviors of the employees

within the organization which is associated with harmful behaviors such as physical and verbal violence, fraud, tardiness, damaging organizational property, insulting others, influencing other employees of the organization, withdrawal, and production deviance (Lee et al., 2022). Li et al. (2020) explained the three types of counterproductive work behaviors "interpersonal", "organizational", and "supervisor". Interpersonal behaviors as the harmful behaviors exhibited by individuals in the workplace that influences other coworkers. The organizational counterproductive behaviors state those behaviors or voluntary actions that negatively affect the organizational structure and the policies. Further, supervisory counterproductive behavior is harmful influential behavior that affects the supervision role of the employees within the organization while working with the subordinates (Lebron et al., 2018; Ho, 2012; Yan et al., 2020). In addition, the association and the importance of counterproductive work behavior in the context of the personalized and socialized need for power were also studied by Moon et al. (2022), they described that employees who engage in counterproductive work behavior have a high need for personalized power, their acts are influential and harmful for the other individuals as well as organizations. However, employees with a high socialized need for power are less likely to be involved in harmful behaviors despite of that they are more prone to actions that are beneficial for the organization as well as other employees of the organization.

Rational of the Study

In Pakistan, research in the field of industrial & organizational psychology, its implications, and its relationship with other organizations related to personal variables such as personality topographies, and organizational work-related behaviors (*i.e.*, counterproductive workplace behaviors and impression management) is very rare apart from the fact that desire for power in the workplace is very common in our workplace culture. As the phenomenon of the need for power in the workplace is very common in any organization, it must hold certain consequences that affect organizational services, productivity, profitability, organizational culture, work engagement, job satisfaction as well as the workplace environment. Therefore, it is needed to explore the significant role of the desire for power, and its association with personality traits and work-related behaviors in affecting organizational life, organizational efficiency, and workplace culture could be ensured. Existing research has focused on employees of service organizations. Besides convenience and inaccessibility, several reasons would justify the decision to select services sector employees as a sample. First, these organizations are currently of interest to researchers, whereas earlier researchers focused on the manufacturing industry. Secondly, these organizations are considered the most frequently visited organizations in Pakistan and all over the world. Every single individual visits these organizations at least once in their life. Third, the constructs of desire for power, workrelated behaviors, and their association with personality traits are considered to be the most significant variables of the services-providing organizations because every service-providing organization has the prime objective to serve its customers. Therefore, research related to these variables is highly acknowledged in the field of industrial and organizational psychology. Lastly, this study would also hold an important position in identifying the positive as well as the negative role of power in the workplace in affecting important work-related behaviors and attitudes.

Objectives

The research was carried out under the aforementioned literature to achieve the following objectives:

- 1. To confirm and establish the factor structure of the Personalized and Social Need for Power Scale and HEXACO Personality Inventory on the sample of the employees.
- 2. To investigate the association of personalized and social need for power, with employees' personality characteristics, organizational work-related behaviors, and impression management.
- 3. To assess the gender difference in terms of the personalized-socialized need for power.

Material and Methods

Research Design

In contemporary research, the objectives were achieved by using the correlational research design. It was used to examine the intercorrelation of the personalized-socialized need for power with HEXACO personality characters, as well as work-related behaviors in employees. Furthermore, the correlational research design investigated the relationships among the study variables as well as collecting information from the sample employees at a given point in time (Shaughnessy et al., 2021). Cook and Cook (2008) argue that a correlational research design is ideal for this study because it addresses the non-experimental quantitative descriptive and correlational surveys. In addition, the collected information describes the particular characteristics of the population at a point.

Participants and Demographics Characteristics

The total sample was comprised of N=225 employees (including males n=160 and females n=65) with an age range from 30 to 55 (M=41.15, SD=7.24). Informed consent was obtained from the organizations and the participants. The sample was recruited through the purposive sampling technique (Emerson, 2015) by following the inclusion/exclusion sample criteria. The data frequency specified the further distribution of the demographic variables. Furthermore, data were collected from the seven different cities of Pakistan (*i.e.*, Islamabad n=33, Faisalabad n=32, Abbottabad n=24, Lahore n=35, Bahawalpur n=35 Multan n=32, Karachi n=34), academics qualification of the employees (i.e., C.A=27, ACCA=34, Master's degree=66, Bachelors=35, Post-Graduation=42, Business/Marketing Diplomas=21) and their total work experience (5-10years= 27, 10-15years=111, 15-20years= 28, 20-25years= 50, 25-30years= 07, 30-35 years= 02).

Inclusion and Exclusion Criteria

Employees who are working in the organizations (*i.e.*, private organizations, privatized organizations, government organizations, financial, and corporate sectors) with the age range from 30 years to 55 years have a minimum of five years of working experience, and academic qualification of fourteen years were included in this study. However, other sectors' employees, employees beyond this age range, with less than

five years of work experience, and education were excluded from the study. Moreover, employees having any physical or psychological disability were also excluded from the study.

Research Instruments

The data collection was done by using the following valid and reliable research instruments:

Need for Power Scale. The study was conducted by using the Need for Power Scale which was developed and validated by Moon et al. (2022). It is a self-reported measure having two distinct factors (*i.e., "personalized nPower, and socialized nPower"*). The scale consisted of eighteen items having two subscales (*i.e., Personalized Need for Power= 09 Items, Socialized Need for Power= 09 Items*). Each item of the subscale assesses both desires for power by using 5-point Likert type rating scoring ranging from 1 as *"Strongly Disagree"* and 5 as *"Strongly Agree"*. "These factors distinguished the items of the personalized and socialized need for power separately" (*example items., "I wouldn't care what I am doing as long as I can get ahead in my job" and "It is important to me that my decisions will have a positive impact on others"*). The reported Cronbach's alpha reliability estimates' evidence for both scales (Personalized Need for Power *a_{community sample} = 0.90* and Socialized Need for Power *a_{community sample} = 0.85*) indicated that the instrument is highly reliable to use in the present research.

"(See Table 1, for the individual reliabilities of each subscale on the employees' sample)"

Personality Traits. The 60-item short version of the HEXACO Personality Inventory-Revised (HEXACO-PI. R) was used to measure the personality traits of the employees (Lee & Ashton, 2019). It is a specialized instrument to measure six human personality domains "(*i.e., honesty-humility, emotionality, extroversion, agreeableness, conscientiousness, and openness to experience*)" each domain has 10 items. Participants indicated their agreement with each statement on a five-point Likert-type rating scale, ranging from 1 (*Strongly Disagree*) to 5 (*Strongly Agree*)." Furthermore, the reported validity of the HEXACO PI-R is ranging from a = .75 to a = .89 (Moon et al., 2022; Mededovic et al., 2019; Lee & Ashton, 2019).

"(See Table 2, the individual reliabilities of each personality trait on the employees' sample)"

Impression Management. The Impression Management Scale consisted of 22 items, with five-point Likert type scoring where "1= never behave this way, and 5= often behave this way" (Bolino & Turnley, 1999). The intimidation (k=05), self-promotion (k=03), and ingratiation (k=04), among the employees, were measured by using the subscales of the impression management scale (*example items.*, "Deal forcefully with colleagues when they hamper your ability to get your job done" and "Compliment your colleagues so they will see you as likable"). The reported coefficient alpha reliability estimates for Ingratiation a = .88, self-promotion a = .75, and Intimidation a = .96 indicate that both are highly valid and reliable measures to use for the employees population (Karam et al., 2016).

Counter Productive Workplace Behaviors. The counterproductive workplace behaviors among the employees were measured by using the 10-item scale (Spector et al., 2006) that comprised multiple statements measuring different aspects of the counterproductive workplace behavior (*i.e.*, withdrawal, abuse, sabotage, production deviance, and theft). Further, it is five points rating scale ranging from "1 as Never to 5

as Every day" with Cronbach's alpha reliability coefficient estimates of $\alpha_{employees}$ =0.84 and $\alpha_{employees}$ =0.85 (Moon et al., 2021; Spector et al., 2006). The scale asked participants to indicate their response to which extent they have been engaged in counterproductive workplace behaviors from the last year (*example item*, "Told people outside the job what a lousy place you work for.").

Procedure

The present research mainly emphasizes organizational employees. These employees were identified while observing the organograms of the organizations available on their websites to categorize the hierarchy of the employees. The selected sample of employees was very tied to their busy work schedules. As a result, several concurring steps have been taken. First, a preliminary meeting was held at each employee's office, during which they were told about the significance, goals, and objectives of the study, as well as their position as participants. Second, participants who accepted to participate in the study were asked to provide their responses through an online link. A user-friendly link to the survey (including a package of the consent form, demographic information form, and questionnaires) was precisely developed. Instructions were provided to the participants verbally in a voice note format and also in written form. The researcher also ensured the participants' confidentiality of their responses and their identity disclosure. The participants were informed of their right to withdraw from the study at any point. Afterward, this online link was shared with the participants, and again requested to participate in the study. For the research instrument, each statement appeared on the participant's screen along with a Likert-type assessment scale, and the participants were requested to register the appropriate response by selecting one of the desired responses. After two weeks, reminders were sent to the remaining participants who did not respond to the questionnaire link. Later, the data collection was carried out over eight weeks. For the data collection, 300 employees were chosen and approached. A total of 260 employees volunteered to take part in this study. Only 225 responses from the participants were completed and found appropriate to be utilized in this study. Incomplete forms/responses were not included in the data before further analyses. Further, these responses were extracted, analyzed, and systemized for various statistical analyses.

Ethical Considerations

The ethical approval of the study was taken from the GCU psychology department board of studies (BOS) and the approval to use the research instruments was taken from their original authors. Lastly, permission was taken from the research participants through informed consent to participate in this study. The researcher ensured the confidentiality of the responses and no physical, psychological, or financial harm came to anyone from this research.

Results and Discussion

The objectives of the present study were achieved by analyzing the employees' responses through SPSS version-23 and AMOS version-20.

Reliability Analysis of the Research Instruments and their Scales (N=225)						
Research Instruments	a					
Need for Power Scale						
Personalized Need for Power	.84					
Socialized Need for Power	.82					
HEXACO Personality (R) (HEXACO-PI.R.)						
Honesty-Humility	.87					
Emotionality	.88					
Extroversion	.90					
Agreeableness	.88					
Consciousness	.73					
Openness to Experience	.80					
Impression Management						
Intimidation	.78					
Self-Promotion	.76					
Ingratiation	.70					
Counterproductive Workplace Behavior	.81					
Nata - Cranbash's alaba Daliahilita						

Table 1Reliability Analysis of the Research Instruments and their Scales (N=225)

*Note: a***=** Cronbach's alpha Reliability

Table 1 indicates that Cronbach's alpha reliability coefficients (*a*) of the research instruments on the employees' sample of the N=225 collected from the various organizations. It indicates that the instruments (i.e., Need for Power Scale k= 18, HEXACO Personality Inventory R k= 60, Subscales of Impression Management *i.e.*, Intimidation k=05, Self-Promotion k=03, Ingratiation k=04) and Counterproductive Work Behavior have reliable alpha reliability coefficient estimates ranging from alpha=.70 to .88.

Figure 1. Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) two-factor solution to establish the psychometric properties of the Personalized and Socialized Need for Power Scale (nPower) on the employees' sample.



Note. PNP= Personalized Need for Power, and SNP= Socialized Need for Power

Table 2	2
---------	---

Intercorrelation between Personalized,	and Socialized Need	l for Power (N= 225)
Factor	1	2
1. Personalized Need for Power	-	81**
2. Socialized Need for Power		-

Note. ***p* < .01, **p*< .05

Figure 2. Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) six-factor solution to establish the psychometric properties of the HEXACO Personality Inventory-Revised (HEXACO PI-R) on the employees' sample.



Note. Hon_H= "Honesty-Humility", *Emo*= "Emotionality", *Ext*= "Extroversion", *Agr*= "Agreeableness", *Cons*= "Consciousness", and *OpE*= "Openness to Experience"

I	a	bl	le	3
---	---	----	----	---

Tuble 0	
Intercorrelation among the Domains of the HEXACO Personality	y Inventory (N=225)

Factor	1	2	3	4	5	6
1. Honesty-Humility	-	.63**	37**	.50**	.15*	14
2. Emotionality		-	38**	.38**	.16	26**
3. Extroversion			-	27**	19*	.78**
4. Agreeableness				-	.16*	.07
5. Consciousness					-	.65**
6. Openness to Exp.						-

Note. ***p* < .01, **p*< .05

Table 4

Model Fit indices of the Need for Power Scale and HEXCACO Personality Inventory (N=225)

		mvent	ory (1 1 22 0	9			
Model-Fit Indices	χ^2	df	CMID	RMSEA	CFI	GFI	TLI
Need for Power Scale	189.18	133	1.42	.04	.91	.95	.94
HEXACO.PI. R.	2835.53	1695	1.67	.05	.81	.85	.80

Note. **p* =*REMSEA* < .01, *HEXACO PI. R*= HEXACO Personality Inventory-Revised, **p*= *CMID* <3.0

The standardized model fit indices showed that the confirmatory factor analysis of the both models i.e., Need for Power Scale (*Figure-1*) and HEXACO Personality Inventory-Revised (*Figure-2*) are well fitted according to the standardized statistics parameters of the CFA models $\chi 2 = 189.18$, (*df*= 133, *N*=225), *p* <.05, RMSEA = .04, CFI = .91, GFI = .95 and TLI = .94 and $\chi 2 = 2835.53$, (*df*= 1695, *N*=225), "*p* <.05, RMSEA = .05, CFI = .81, GFI = .85 and TLI = .80. Furthermore, the values of chi-square are significant in both models because of the greater degree of freedom (χ^2/df), the obtained values" (1.42 for need for power scale and 1.67 for HEXACO Personality Inventory) are acceptable for model fit indices (Bentler, Hu & Kano, 1992; Iftikhar & Malik, 2014) (see Table 3 & 4).

Table 5 Correlation among the Personalized and Socialized Need for Power, Subdomains of HEXACO Personality Traits, Sub-domains of Impression Management Behavior, and Counterproductive Work Behavior in Employees (N=225)

				•	,							
Variables	P nPower	S nPower	Hon. H.	Emo.	Ext.	Agr.	Cons.	Opn.Exp.	CWB.	SP.	Int.	Ing.
Personalized nPower		89**	81**	65**	82**	47**	05	.15*	.49**	.53**	.54**	43**
Socialized nPower			.75**	.68**	.79**	.50**	.07	10	44**	49**	54**	.47**
Honesty-Humility				.61**	39**	.50**	.20*	20*	30**	42**	54**	.32**
Emotionality					34**	.45**	.09	12	25**	40**	50**	.35**
Extroversion						25**	15	.07	09	.20**	.25**	.06
Agreeableness							.20*	03	30**	35**	40**	.20*
Conscientiousness								.05	04	.04	.03	.05
Openness to Experienc	e								06	.20*	.15*	07
Counterproductive Work B	ehavior									.30**	.20**	30**
Self-Promotion											.40**	03
Intimidation												07
Ingratiation												
M(SD)	56.92 (16.13)	69.35 (21.01)	84.02 (21.53)	74.30 (19.43)	76.08 (11.04)	76.09 (16.01)	86.37 (7.81)	73.00 (11.43)	65.87 (15.49)	63.36 (22.01)	50.34 (20.89)	63.08 (19. 89)

Note. ***p*<.001, *The bold highlighted values in the correlation table supported the hypotheses

The Pearson correlation analysis results are shown in Table 5 which indicates the personalized need for power among employees is negatively associated with employees' need for socialized power, honesty-humility, emotionality, agreeableness, extroversion, and ingratiation. However, it is positively associated with openness to experience, counterproductive workplace behavior, self-promotion, and intimidation. In contrast, the results also indicated that employees' need for socialized power is positively associated with honesty humility, emotionality, agreeableness, extroversion, and ingratiation. Whereas, employees' need for socialized power has a negative significant correlation with counterproductive work behavior, self-promotion, and ingratiation.

Table 6
Mean Differences among male and female employees in terms of Personalized
and Socialized Need for Power (N=225)

	Μ	Male Female		nale	95 % CI				
	(n = 160)		(n = 65)						- Cohen's d
Variable	М	SD	М	SD	t(123)	sig	LL	UL	- Conen s u
Personalized	57.08	16.44	56.52	15 /5	.23	.81	-	5.24	.03
nPower	57.08	10.44	50.52	15.45	.23	.01	4.12	J.2 4	.03
Socialized	69.38	21.59	69.26	10.65	.04	.96	-	6.22	.05
nPower	09.30	21.39	09.20	19.05	.04	.90	5.97	0.22	.05

Note: ** *p* <.01, **p* <.05; *CI* = Confidence Interval. *LL* = Lower Limit. *UL* = Upper Limit The findings of the independent sample *t*-test showed that no significant

The findings of the independent sample *t*-test showed that no significant mean differences were found between male and female employees regarding the personalized and socialized need for power (t = .23, .04, p > .05).

Discussion

The primary study was conducted to investigate and validate the factors' structure of the Personalized-Socialized Need for Power Scale and HEXACO Personality Inventory on the employees' sample through confirmatory factor analysis. Further, this research aims to provide a more comprehensive understanding of the two distinct types of the need for power and explored their relationship with employees' personality traits as well as organizational work-related behaviors. The confirmatory factor analysis of the Personalized-Socialized Need for Power Scale supported a two-factor solution and the HEXACO Personality Inventory supported a six-factor solution along with a unidimensional model. Furthermore, the reliability indices of both instruments are consistent with the prior research (Moon et al., 2022; Lee & Ashton, 2019). Furthermore, the study's findings revealed that employees with a high need for personalized or socialized power have different patterns of personality traits that are related to their work-related behavior within the organization.

The second objective of the study was achieved by applying correlational analysis. Findings suggested the dissimilar associations of the two components of the need for power (personalized and socialized) with the multiple facets of the HEXACO personality traits among the employees. The employees who scored high in personalized need for power showed less honesty-humility, agreeableness, emotionality, and extroversion. On the other side employees who scored high in socialized need for power were found to be more associated with honesty-humility, emotionality, extroversion, and agreeableness. The results of our study are

consolidated with the study of Moon et al. (2022) described that employees who have a high need for personalized power have inverse associations with the multiple desirable personality traits e.g., honesty-humility, emotionality, and agreeableness. Whereas, employees with a high socialized need for power have a positive association with these traits. Additionally, McClelland and Burnham (1976) explored those managers with personalized power, who work for their self-interest and personal aggrandization whereas managers with high socialized power are found to be used their power for institutional development, and advancement rather than using it for their egocentricity. They also determined that managers with high socialized power were more prone toward the welfare of the other employees ahead of their interests. Warren (2010) defined that employees with low agreeableness and low consciousness are involved in sabotage and injustice in the organizations they usually influence other employees of the organization or sub-ordinates for attaining their personal and professional motives. McClelland (1970) determined that personalized and socialized need for power both are different dimensions of the need for power, hence, it is necessary to measure them independently. Later, Chusmir and Parker (1984) clarified that personalized vs. socialized need for power both are distinct features of power, they also explained that the socialized need for power is positively associated with desirable personality traits, these traits are generally required for good leadership/managerial skills, and organizational productivity. Moreover, the employees'/managers' lust for personalized power is harmful to the organization, and its productivity. They are involved in misconduct at the workplace and influence other employees of the organization. These are usually intricate in organizational misbehaviors, loss of interest in organizational work-related tasks, consciously violating roles, and undermining the moral standards as well as societal values (Tsiavia, 2016; Bunderson & Reagans, 2011). The results of the current study are also in line with the findings of a study conducted by Torelli and Shavitt (2010), which exhibited that people who have a high desire for personalized power work toward self-centered objectives for influencing and receiving praise from others to advance their status. Furthermore, those individuals' interests can be fulfilled by using aggressive measures, making an effort to influence others, and acting in ways that impress authorities. In contrast, individuals who have a great desire for socialized power, tend to seek prosocial social objectives for the benefit of others. By avoiding their harmful influence on others, these people provide their services only to the organizations by minimizing their desires.

The present study also investigated the relationship between counterproductive work behavior and impression management with the distinct power motives among employees. The results suggested that employees with a high desire for the personalized need for power also scored high in counterproductive work behaviors (e.g., workplace bullying, theft, fraud, absenteeism, workplace arrogance, destroying organizational property, sabotage, and workplace deviance) and undesirable facets of the impression management (e.g., self-promotion, and intimidation). In contrast, employees who scored high in socialized need for power were found to be less involved in counterproductive work behaviors and high in ingratiation while showing low intentions for self-promotion and intimidation. These findings have coincided with the study of Moon et al. (2022), who explained that employees are more likely to use the cynical strategies of impression management in their workplace to influence other employees or to achieve their motives. Furthermore, studies suggested that employees who are involved in counterproductive work behaviors are more prone to despotic leadership (e.g.

authoritarian and dominant behaviors, self-interests, and exploitation of their subordinates), organizational cynicism, unethical behavior work behaviors, antisocial behaviors, and manipulative personality (Brender-Ilan & Sheaffer, 2019; De Hoogh & Den Hartog, 2008; Murad et al., 2021; Magee & Langner, 2008; Naseer et al., 2020; Omotayo et al., 2015).

The findings of the study are mostly consistent with existing literature, objectives of the study, and research objectives, which indicated that personality traits and behavioral differences among employees are related to their needs for personalized and socialized power with different job experiences. However, findings also indicated that both genders male and female are equal in terms of personalized and socialized power in their workplace. Therefore, the result of the in-dependable sample t-test did not support the last objective of the study. Lau et al. (2021) determined that equality exists between both genders in organizations. Organizations can share equally in the distribution of power and influence. Most of them provide equal opportunities to their employees regardless of their gender and promote the process of gender equality by being fair to both genders (i.e., men and women). These organizations empower their employees through financial independence, and equal distribution of resources, opportunities, and rewards (Casteleiro & Mendes, 2022). Organizations incline to improve their national productivity, economic growth, performance, and reputation through the implementation of these substantial workplace ethics (Cherian et al., 2021). Hence, the male and female employees in the organizations have an equal distribution of power, therefore, no meaningful differences were found between them in terms of both types of power.

Conclusion

The study aims to establish the confirmatory factor structure of both scales (i.e., Personalized-Socialized Need for Power Scale, and HEXACO Personality Inventory-Revised) on the employees' sample. Furthermore, the study used scales to explore the relationship between employees' personality traits and organizational work-related behaviors. The findings are consistent with the research hypotheses and specified how distinct types of need for power are differently associated with employees' personality traits, impression management, and counterproductive workplace behaviors. Additionally, the study would help to identify the employees' desire for socialized power or the employees who exercise the socialized form of power at the workplace, these employees provide greater benefits to the organization such as the development of a greater sense of organizational citizenship behavior, work engagement, job satisfaction, job autonomy, and create a self-concept of organizational wellbeing among the other employees of the organization. Whereas, the study also helps to identify employees' desire for personalized power, and how personalized power is related to counterproductive workplace behaviors, these behaviors create workplace bullying, tardiness, psychological harassment, absenteeism, sabotage, and workplace aggression among the employees. These significant and strong implications of the study would provide the management of human resource groups to develop a need-based training program for their senior management to minimize the desire of the employees for personalized and develop or adopt the socialized form of power so that they can enhance the level of employees' loyalty, innovation, service orientation, and organizational profitability. Lastly, the current study provides the researcher with a nomological understanding of the model regarding the need for power, personality traits, and work-related behaviors among employees. Furthermore, it has provided new insight for future research on other work-related psychological models.

Recommendations

Although the existing study provides substantial insight into the different components of the need for power scale, HEXACO personality inventory, and their relationships with work-related behaviors of the employees. However, there are a few limitations of the study to be noted. The data were only collected from the services sectors' employees. Whereas, it is recommended that the data would be collected from the production as well as services sectors separately and equally to make a clear comparison of both sectors in terms of study constructs. Secondly, a short number of females participated in the study. To make a clear comparison between both genders, female employees should be encouraged to participate in future research. Lastly, only a quantitative approach was used to explore the relationship among the study variables. It is recommended that a mixed-method research design would be used for a more comprehensive understanding of these constructs at the workplace.

References

- Allen, M. W., & Caillouet, R. H. (1994). Legitimation endeavors: Impression management strategies used by an organization in crisis. *Communications Monographs*, *61*(1), 44-62.
- Baumeister, R. F., & Hutton, D. G. (1987). Self-presentation theory: Self-construction and audience pleasing. *Theories of group behavior*, 71-87.
- Bolino, M. C., & Turnley, W. H. (1999). Measuring impression management in organizations: A scale development based on the Jones and Pittman taxonomy. *Organizational Research Methods*, 2(2), 187-206.
- Brender-Ilan Y, Sheaffer Z (2019). How do self-efficacy, narcissism, and autonomy mediate the link between destructive leadership and counterproductive work behaviour. *Asia Pac Manag Rev* 24(3):212–222.
- Bunderson, J. S., & Reagans, R. E. (2011). Power, status, and learning in organizations. *Organization Science*, 22(5), 1182-1194.
- Carroll, L. (1987). A study of narcissism, affiliation, intimacy, and power motives among students in business administration. *Psychological Reports*, *61*(2), 355-358.
- Casteleiro, C., & Mendes, L. (2022). Exploring the influence of quality management systems in work engagement and psychological empowerment in private institutions of social solidarity. *Total Quality Management & Business Excellence*, 33(3-4), 243-277.
- Cherian, J., Gaikar, V., Paul, R., & Pech, R. (2021). Corporate culture and its impact on employees' attitude, performance, productivity, and behavior: An investigative analysis from selected organizations of the United Arab Emirates (UAE). *Journal of Open Innovation: Technology, Market, and Complexity*, 7(1), 1-45.
- Chusmir, L. H., & Parker, B. (1984). Dimensions of need for power: Personalized vs. socialized power in female and male managers. *Sex roles*, *11*, 759-769.

- Cook, B. G., & Cook, L. (2008). Nonexperimental quantitative research and its role in guiding instruction. *Intervention in School and Clinic*, 44(2), 98-104.
- De Hoogh AH, Den Hartog DN (2008). Ethical and despotic leadership, relationships with leader's social responsibility, top management team effectiveness and subordinates' optimism: a multi-method study. *Leadersh Q 19*(3):297–311.
- Dweck, C. S. (2017). From needs to goals and representations: Foundations for a unified theory of motivation, personality, and development. *Psychological review*, 124(6), 689-719.
- Gardner, W. L., & Martinko, M. J. (1988). Impression management in organizations. *Journal of management*, 14(2), 321-338.
- Goffman, E. (1959). *The presentation of self in everyday life*. Garden City, NY: Doubleday Anchor.
- Harris, K. J., Kacmar, K. M., Zivnuska, S., & Shaw, J. D. (2007). The impact of political skill on impression management effectiveness. *Journal of Applied psychology*, 92(1), 278.
- Higgins, C. A., Judge, T. A., & Ferris, G. R. (2003). Influence tactics and work outcomes: A meta-analysis. *Journal of Organizational Behavior: The International Journal of Industrial, Occupational and Organizational Psychology and Behavior,* 24(1), 89-106.
- Ho, V. T. (2012). Interpersonal counterproductive work behaviors: Distinguishing between person-focused versus task-focused behaviors and their antecedents. *Journal of Business and Psychology*, 27, 467-482.
- Karam, C. N. A., Sekaja, L., & Geldenhuys, M. (2016). Validation of the Bolino and Turnley impression management scale. *South African Journal of Psychology*, 46(4), 530-541.
- Lau, J. D., Kleiber, D., Lawless, S., & Cohen, P. J. (2021). Gender equality in climate policy and practice hindered by assumptions. *Nature climate change*, 11(3), 186-192.
- Lebron M, Tabak F, Shkoler O, Rabenu E (2018). Counterproductive work behaviors toward organization and leader-member exchange: the mediating roles of emotional exhaustion and work engagement. *Organ Manag J* 15(4):159–173.
- Lee, K. (2007). Empirical, theoretical, and practical advantages of the HEXACO model of personality structure. *Personality and social psychology review*, *11*(2), 150-166.
- Lee, K., & Ashton, M. C. (2004). Psychometric properties of the HEXACO personality inventory. *Multivariate behavioral research*, 39(2), 329-358.
- Lee, K., & Ashton, M. C. (2019). Not much H in the Big Five Aspect Scales: Relations between BFAS and HEXACO-PI-R scales. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 144(2019), 164-167.
- Lee, K., Ashton, M. C., Wiltshire, J., Bourdage, J. S., Visser, B. A., & Gallucci, A. (2013). Sex, power, and money: Prediction from the Dark Triad and Honesty–Humility. *European journal of personality*, 27(2), 169-184.
- Lee, S. B., Liu, S. H., & Maertz, C. (2022). The relative impact of employees' discrete emotions on employees' negative word-of-mouth (NWOM) and

counterproductive workplace behavior (CWB). *Journal of Product & Brand Management*, 31(7), 1018-1032.

- Li C, Murad M, Shahzad F, Khan MAS, Ashraf SF (2020). Dark tetrad personality traits and counterproductive work behavior among doctors in Pakistan. *Int J Health Plann Manage* 35(5):1173–1192.
- Lumby, J. (2019). Leadership and power in higher education. *Studies in Higher Education*, 44(9), 1619-1629.
- Magee, J. C., & Langner, C. A. (2008). How personalized and socialized power motivation facilitate antisocial and prosocial decision-making. *Journal of Research in Personality*, 42(6), 1547-1559.
- Manning, T., Pogson, G., & Morrison, Z. (2008). Interpersonal influence in the workplace–Part two: Some research findings–Influencing behaviour, personality and context. *Industrial and Commercial Training*, 40(5), 188-196.
- McClelland, D. C. (1970). The two faces of power. *Journal of International Affairs*, 24, 31.
- McClelland, D. C. (1987). Human motivation. Cambridge University Press, Cambridge.
- McClelland, D. C., & Mac Clelland, D. C. (1961). Achieving society (92051). Simon and Schuster.
- McClelland, D. C., & Wilsnack, S. C. (1972). The effects of drinking on thoughts about power and restraint. *The drinking man*, 123-141.
- McClelland, D. C., and Burnham, D. (1976). Power is the great motivator. *Harvard Business Review*, 54, 100-110.
- McClelland, D. C., Koestner, R., & Weinberger, J. (1989). How do self-attributed and implicit motives differ. *Psychological review*, *96*(4), 690-702.
- Mededovic, J., Colovic, P., Dinic, B. M., & Smederevac, S. (2019). The HEXACO personality inventory: Validation and psychometric properties in the Serbian language. *Journal of personality assessment*, 101(1), 25-31.
- Mitchell, T., Lemoine, G. J., & Lee, D. (2021). Inclined but less skilled? Disentangling extraversion, communication skill, and leadership emergence. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, Advance online publication.
- Moon, B., Lee, N. M. H., & Bourdage, J. S. (2022). Personalized and socialized need for power: Distinct relations to employee traits and behaviors. *Canadian Journal of Behavioural Science/Revue canadienne des sciences du comportement*, 54(1), 28-39.
- Morrell, D. L., & MacKenzie Jr, W. I. (2011). The Five-Factor Model as it Defines Personalized versus Socialized Charismatic Leaders. *Leadership & Organizational Management Journal*, 2011(2), 18-30.
- Murad, M., Jiatong, W., Shahzad, F., & Syed, N. (2021). The Influence of Despotic Leadership on Counterproductive Work Behavior Among Police Personnel: Role of Emotional Exhaustion and Organizational Cynicism. *Journal of Police and Criminal Psychology*, 36(3), 603-615.
- Murray, H. A. (1951). Some basic psychological assumptions and conceptions. *Dialectica*, 5(3-4), 266-292.

- Naseer, S., Bouckenooghe, D., Syed, F., Khan, A. K., & Qazi, S. (2020). The malevolent side of organizational identification: Unraveling the impact of psychological entitlement and manipulative personality on unethical work behaviors. *Journal of Business and Psychology*, 35(3), 333-346.
- Omotayo, O. A., Olubusayo, F. H., Olalekan, A. J., & Adenike, A. A. (2015). An assessment of workplace deviant behaviours and its implication on organisational performance in a growing economy. *Journal of Organizational Psychology*, 15(1), 90.
- Rosenberg, J., & Egbert, N. (2011). Online impression management: Personality traits and concerns for secondary goals as predictors of self-presentation tactics on Facebook. *Journal of computer-mediated communication*, 17(1), 1-18.
- Rosenfeld, P. R., Giacalone, R. A.&Riordan, C. A. (1995). *Impression management in* organizations: *Theory, measurement, and practice*. New York: Routledge.
- Rui, J. R., & Stefanone, M. A. (2013). Strategic image management online: Selfpresentation, self-esteem and social network perspectives. *Information*, *Communication & Society*, 16(8), 1286-1305.
- Shaughnessy, J. J., Zechmeister, E. B., & Zechmeister, J. S. (2012). Research methods in Psychology. 9th Ed. McGraw-Hill.
- Spector, P. E., Fox, S., Penney, L. M., Bruursema, K., Goh, A., & Kessler, S. (2006). The dimensionality of counterproductivity: Are all counterproductive behaviors created equal. *Journal of vocational behavior*, 68(3), 446-460.
- Strange, J. M., & Mumford, M. D. (2002). The origins of vision: Charismatic versus ideological leadership. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 13(4), 343-377.
- Thompson, C. C., & Unachukwu, G. O. (2022). Organizational Justice as a Correlate of Teachers' Engagement in Public Secondary Schools in Anambra State. *IJER-International Journal of Educational Research*, 5(1), 23-33.
- Torelli, C. J., & Shavitt, S. (2010). Culture and concepts of power. *Journal of personality and social psychology*, 99(4), 703.
- Tsiavia, N. (2016). Unethical pro-organizational behavior (UBP): Concept and studies evolution. *Science Journal of Business and Management*, 4(2), 34-41.
- Warren, M. A. (2010). *Identifying the relationship between employee sabotage and organizational justice* (Doctoral dissertation, Ohio University).
- Watts, L. L., Ness, A. M., Steele, L. M., & Mumford, M. D. (2018). Learning from stories of leadership: How reading about personalized and socialized politicians impacts performance on an ethical decision-making simulation. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 29(2), 276-294.
- Winter, D. G., & Stewart, A. J. (1978). The power motive. *Dimensions of personality*, 391-448.
- Yan, M., Xie, Y. P., Zhao, J., Zhang, Y. J., Bashir, M., & Liu, Y. (2020). How ingratiation links to counterproductive work behaviors: the roles of emotional exhaustion and power distance orientation. *Frontiers in Psychology*, 11, 2238.
- Ying, L., & Cohen, A. (2018). Dark triad personalities and counterproductive work behaviors among physicians in China. *The International Journal of Health Planning and Management*, 33(4), 985-998.