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Psychometric properties of an Italian version of the Dirty Dozen: Factor structure, reliability, validity, measurement invariance across gender --Manuscript Draft--

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Full Title:	Psychometric properties of an Italian version of the Dirty Dozen: Factor structure, reliability, validity, measurement invariance across gender
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Abstract:	The Dark Triad is a constellation of three socially undesirable personality traits: narcissism, psychopathy, and Machiavellianism. Previous research has shown that men tend to score higher than women on measures of the Dark Triad, but the validity of these results is unclear as no evidence of the measurement invariance of measures in the adult population has been provided. Here we present four studies that aimed: (a) to test the psychometric properties of an Italian version of a recently developed, concise measure of the Dark Triad: Jonason and Webster's Dirty Dozen (DD); (b) to examine the measurement invariance of the DD across gender. Results showed that the psychometric properties of the Italian DD overlap those of the original US version. We also found support for the measurement invariance of the DD over gender, with men scoring significantly higher than women on psychopathy and Machiavellianism and, to a lesser extent, on narcissism. Results were consistent with a biosocial approach to social role theory that assumes that being agentic and not being communal is considered desirable for men but not for women.
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Author Comments:	Genova, August 31, 2016 Editor-in-Chief Matthias Ziegler Department of Psychology Humboldt University Berlin Rudower Chaussee 18 D-12480 Berlin Germany Tel. +49 30 2093-9447 Fax +49 30 2093-9361 zieglema(at)hu-berlin.deOpens window for sending email Dear Prof. Ferraro,

I am enclosing a submission to Current Psychology entitled "Psychometric properties of an Italian version of the Dirty Dozen: Factor structure, reliability, validity, measurement invariance across gender". The manuscript is 27 pages long (excluding the title page) and includes four tables. The total word count is 7534. A file with supplementary information and analyses is also provided.

The paper addresses the issue of the measurement invariance across gender of a recently developed, concise measure of the Dark Triad: Jonason and Webster's Dirty Dozen (DD). As we acknowledge in the paper, the measurement invariance of the DD has already been investigated by Klimstra et al. (2014), but their results were of somehow limited generalizability, as they were obtained on samples of Dutch adolescents. We present here a study in which the measurement invariance of the DD across gender was tested in a large community adult sample. The results supported the measurement invariance of the DD over gender and showed that men scored significantly higher than women on psychopathy and Machiavellianism and, to a lesser extent, on narcissism.

As we performed the study on Italian participants, we first needed to adapt the DD into Italian. A thorough investigation of the psychometric properties of the Italian DD has been carried out and is reported in the paper. The results supported the overlapping of the psychometric properties of the Italian DD with the original.

My coauthors (Carlo Garofalo and Patrizia Velotti) and I wish for the manuscript to be given a masked review. However, we wish the paper not to be reviewed by Peter K. Jonason. We contacted him in March, 2012 to ask him about other ongoing Italian studies on the DD and he answered that there were none. He also supported us in the translation process. In 2013 he notified us that he was working at a similar project with another Italian group from the University of Enna and in 2015 he accepted to review a previous version of this manuscript for Personality and Individual Differences, apparently ignoring a clear conflict of interest - although he claimed he lost track of all these projects. Another Italian adaptation study of the DD is under revision at the Journal of Personality Assessment, and Jonason is among the authors. Notably, the other Italian colleagues (Adriano Schimmenti is the leading author) were informed by Jonason about our project only a few days ago, after we contacted him in July, 2015 to invite him to join in our paper.

None of the data from this paper were previously published, nor the manuscript is under review for publication in other journals. Please note that part of the results of the Italian adaptation of the DD were presented at a poster session at the XIX Italian Congress of Experimental Psychology, Rome, September 16-18, 2013.

My coauthors and I do not have any conflicts of interest that might be interpreted as influencing the research, and American Psychological Association ethical standards were followed in the conduct of the study. I will be serving as the corresponding author for this manuscript. All of the authors listed in the byline have agreed to the byline order and to submission of the manuscript in this form. I have assumed responsibility for keeping my coauthors informed of our progress through the editorial review process, the content of the reviews, and any revisions made. I understand that, if the manuscript is accepted for publication, the authors agree to automatic transfer of the copyright to the publisher; that the manuscript will not be published elsewhere in any language without the consent of the copyright holders; that written permission of the copyright holder is obtained by the authors for material used from other copyrighted sources; and that any costs associated with obtaining this permission are the authors' responsibility.

Sincerely,

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Introduction

In the last decade or so, three distinct, albeit overlapping, personality styles have been considered to represent the "dark side" of human nature: psychopathy, narcissism, and Machiavellianism (Paulhus & Williams, 2002). Among these personality traits, psychopathy is characterized by a constellation of affective, interpersonal and behavioral features, including: egocentricity; impulsivity and thrill-seeking; irresponsibility; shallow affectivity; lack of empathy, guilt, or remorse; pathological lying; manipulativeness; early, persistent, and versatile violation of social norms and expectations (Hare & Neumann, 2008).

Narcissism is defined by a pattern of grandiosity and inflated sense of self, entitlement, dominance, exhibitionism and superiority (Morf & Rhodewalt, 2001). Narcissism also shares with psychopathy a tendency to interpersonal exploitativeness and callousness. However, there is substantial evidence that narcissism also encompasses more vulnerable features like fragile or contingent self-esteem, emotion dysregulation, hypersensitivity to rejection and consequent social avoidance (Cain, Pincus, & Ansell, 2008). The vulnerable side of narcissism also involves the conscious experience of negative feelings like helplessness, emptiness, and shame (Velotti, Elison, & Garofalo, 2014).

Finally, Machiavellianism is defined as a duplicitous interpersonal style assumed to emerge from a broader network of cynical beliefs and pragmatic morality (Jones & Paulhus, 2009). Machiavellian individuals give higher priority to money, power, and competition than to community building, self-love, and family concerns and use manipulative interpersonal strategies such as flattery and lying to achieve their goals. Machiavellianism has been conceptualized as consisting of four basic dispositions which are likely to lead to successful interpersonal manipulation: affective detachment in interpersonal relationships; a lack of concern for conventional morality; an intact reality contact (i.e., an absence of clear psychopathology); and low ideological dedication (Jones & Paulhus, 2009).

Although these traits have been initially studied in separate fields (forensic, clinical, and social/organizational psychology, respectively), it has been highlighted the advantage of studying them simultaneously, coining the expression "Dark Triad" (DT; Paulhus & Williams, 2002). Ever since, there has been a progressive and ever-increasing growth in the amount of studies investigating psychopatic, narcissistic, and Machiavellian traits in the general population (i.e., at sub-clinical levels).

One of the most consistent findings on DT personality traits, regardless of which measures are used (DT measures or separate measures for each construct), pertains sex differences in scores on all three dimensions, with men usually scoring higher than women (Furnham & Trickey, 2011). This result has been consistently replicated for narcissism (Grijalva et al., 2015) and psychopathy scores (Cale & Lilienfeld, 2002) across different populations and with various assessment measures. Sex differences on Machiavellianism have instead been somehow inconsistent: However, even when no sex difference emerged on Machiavellianism, males reported overall higher levels of the composite DT score (Jonason & Webster, 2010; Klimstra, Sijtsema, Henrichs, & Cima, 2014).

One potentially problematic feature of these comparisons of DT scores across gender is that they have been carried out assuming that there is measurement invariance of the measures between women and men. Unless the underlying DT factors are measuring the same construct in the same way, and the measurements themselves are operating in the same way across gender, manifest mean comparisons are likely to be invalid (Millsap, 2011). Moreover, a statistically significant difference in latent means might no longer be statistically significant after correcting for measurement non-invariance.

To the best of our knowledge, the only paper that addressed this issue is a study by Klimstra et al. (2014). As a measure of DT they used the Dirty Dozen (DD, Jonason & Webster, 2010). Despite some limitations in its discriminant validity (Maples, Lamkin, & Miller, 2014; Miller et al., 2012), the DD have demonstrated a replicable 3-factor structure, adequate internal consistency, test-retest reliability and convergent validity (Jonason & Luévano, 2013; Webster & Jonason, 2013). So

far tests for sex differences on observed DD scores have always shown that men tend to score higher than women in all scales (Cohen's *d* ranging from 0.09 to 0.79), although this pattern seem to be more stable for psychopathy (see also Section 1 of the Electronic Supplementary Materials [ESM]).

Klimstra et al. (2014) found evidence of measurement invariance of the DD across gender in two samples of Dutch adolescents, and reported that boys tended to score consistently higher than girls on psychopathy, while somewhat less convincing evidence for sex differences in Machiavellianism and narcissism was found. Although this study shed some light on the measurement invariance of the DD over gender, its results are limited to an adolescent population. Hence, the issue is yet to be address on an adult population.

Since when we started this research project no validated Italian version of the DD was available, we first needed to translate it into Italian and test its psychometric properties, including factor structure, internal consistency, temporal stability of scores and construct validity, in community and student samples. Then, we tested the measurement invariance of the DD across gender in a large community adult sample. We extended previous results using a larger taxonomy of invariance models that included models that also examine the invariance of residual variances, factor variances and factor correlations.

Study 1 – Translation and investigation of the factor structure of the Italian DD

Translation of the Dirty Dozen into Italian

The Italian translation of the Dirty Dozen was carried out through a mixed forward- and back-translation procedure. Before being used in this study, the newly developed Italian version of the DD was administered to ten naïve participants in order to check the clarity and readability of the items, which were all found to be easy to understand and score. The Italian DD (DD-I) is reported in Section 2 of the ESM.

Participants and procedure

The Italian DD (DD-I) was administered to three independent samples of community participants. These participants were recruited through snowball sampling by psychology students as part of their dissertation or research training project. Sample 1 included 102 participants (mean age 40.04±14.45 years, range 18-69, Females 53%), Sample 2 included 128 participants (mean age 35.75±14.96 years, range 18-80, Females 57%), Sample 3 included 305 participants (mean age 37.34±13.30 years, range 18-74, Females 61%). All participants volunteered to participate after being presented with a detailed description of the procedure, and all were treated in accordance with the *Ethical Principles of Psychologists and Code of Conduct* (American Psychological Association, 2010). In order to be included in the study, participants had to be at least 18 years old and report never to have been diagnosed with a psychiatric disorder. They did not receive any compensation for their participation. Administration of the DD-I took place at the premises of a psychology department in North-Western Italy.

Data analysis

In testing the factor structure of the DD-I using data from Samples 1 and 2 we thus chose to use an *exploratory* approach, rather than a confirmatory one. CFA requires each indicator to load on only one factor, but, as shown by recent studies (Asparouhov & Muthén, 2009), this assumption might be too restrictive for personality research, because indicators may have secondary loadings significantly different from zero. The presence of these secondary loadings is a critical issue: It would imply that the item(s) have a weak discriminant validity, since an item that is considered an indicator of a specific construct can also be an indicator of another construct. In a CFA, the more the secondary loadings depart from zero, the more the correlations among the factors will be inflated to account for non-zero secondary loadings restricted to zero, thus yielding: biased loadings, overestimated factor correlations, distorted structural relations, and lack of fit (Asparouhov & Muthén, 2009). In their studies Jonason and Webster (2010) found some evidence of substantial (i.e., larger than |.30|) cross-loadings in the DD (see their Table 2, p. 423).

The factor structure of the DD-I was first tested in the two smaller samples using Maximum Likelihood Exploratory Factor Analysis (ML-EFA) with the *fa* function in the R package *psych* (Revelle, 2015). An oblique Promax rotation was applied. According to de Winter, Doudou and Wieringa (2009), our sample sizes were adequate: for a 3-factor structure, 12 items and factor loadings in the .60s, they recommend a minimum of 67 participants (de Winter et al., 2009, p. 155).

The optimal number of factors to extract was investigated through Parallel Analysis (PA, Horn, 1965) and Minimum Average Partial Correlation Statistic (MAP, Velicer, 1976). Analyses were performed with the *psych* (Revelle, 2015) package in R.

In order to test the similarity of the factor solutions in the two samples, we computed congruence coefficients (CCs; Tucker, 1951). In principle, we could have carried out a measurement invariance analysis in a structural equation modeling (SEM) framework (see Marsh et al. 2010), but one requirement for these methods is sufficient statistical power to adequately estimate all the model parameters and, above all, their standard errors (Muthén & Muthén, 2002). Grounding on results of preliminary factor analyses, we performed a Monte Carlo analysis as described in Muthén and Muthén (2002), and found that the criteria suggested by these authors to achieve a power of .80 power could be met only with at least 300 participants per group (Section 3 of the ESM)

CCs are a measure of factor similarity advised when data do not meet the requirements of SEM (Lorenzo-Seva & ten Berge 2006). CCs can be interpreted as a standardized measure of proportionality of elements in factor loading matrices of different samples, and they measure factor similarity independently of the mean absolute size of the loadings. CCs range from –1 to 1, with values in the range .85–.94 suggesting adequate similarity and values higher than .95 suggesting substantial equality of factor loading matrices (Lorenzo-Seva & ten Berge 2006). Although CCs are not a thorough test of measurement invariance as it would be a set of nested SEM models with different degrees of invariance, they can provide evidence of at least configural invariance (similarity of the overall pattern of parameters) across samples.

Since Sample 3 afforded sufficient statistical power, we then performed confirmatory factor analyses (CFA) on data from this sample. As more parsimonious alternatives to the 3-correlated-factor model, we tested the fit of a 1-factor model and a 3-independent-factor models. Moreover, we tested the fit of bifactor model, that outperformed the other measurement models for the DD items in a recent study (Jonason & Luévano, 2013). In this model items loaded on two types of latent factors: a latent "general", Dark Triad factor and three latent factors associated with the Dark Triad traits. For model identification purposes, all latent factors are left uncorrelated. Diagrams of these models are reported in Section 4 of the ESM.

CFA was performed with Mplus 7 (Muthén & Muthén, 1998–2012). We used the Mplus robust maximum likelihood estimator (MLR), with standard errors and tests of fit that were robust in relation to the nonnormality of observations. The goodness of fit of the CFA models was evaluated considering the comparative fit index (CFI), the Tucker-Lewis index (TLI), and the root-mean-square error of approximation (RMSEA), as operationalized in Mplus in association with the MLR estimator. Following Marsh, Hau, and Wen (2004), we considered values \geq .90 as acceptable and \geq .95 as optimal for TLI and CFI, and values \leq .08 as acceptable and \leq .06 as optimal for RMSEA.

Results and discussion

Item descriptive statistics showed that items had moderate levels of positive skewness (Sample 1: Median = 1.04, range: 0.26-1.51; Sample 2: Median = 0.67, range: 0.03-1.81) and negative kurtosis (Sample 1: Median = -0.19, range: -1.17-1.46; Sample 2: Median = -0.45, range: -0.95-2.92). More details are reported in Section 5 of the ESM.

Dimensionality analyses showed convincing evidence of the adequacy of a three-factor structure, as in both samples the scree-plot began to level off after the third factor, only the first three observed eigenvalues were higher than the simulated ones and the MAP reached its minimum at three components (Section 6 of the ESM). Hence, when performing EFAs, we set to three the number of factors to extract.

The 3-factor solution account for 55% of variance in Sample 1 and 62% of variance in Sample 2. Factor loadings and factor correlations are reported in Table 1. All items substantially loaded on the expected factor (Sample 1: Median target loading: .71, range .48-.96; Sample 2: Median target loading: .79, range .51-.94), with minimal cross-loadings (Sample 1: Median cross-loading: .01, range -.27-.33; Sample 2: Median cross-loading: .04, range -.19-.26). Congruence coefficients for the three factors were all .95.

[Table 1]

Factor correlations of Machiavellianism with the other factors was in the .50s, while the correlation of narcissism with psychopathy was somehow lower (.40 in Sample 1 and .29 in Sample 2), consistent with previous studies (Jonason & Webster, 2010). The coefficients in the two correlation matrices did not significantly differ ($X^2(6) = 3.24$, p = .222), suggesting that the pattern of association of factor scores was stable. Taken together, these results seemed to support the replicability of the expected 3-factor structure for the DD-I.

Results of the CFAs are reported in Table 2. Results suggested that the best fitting model was the bifactor model, but factor loading estimates of items 1, 4 and 5 were not statistically significant. The 3-correlated-factor model was second best-fitting model. Parameter estimates of factor loadings and factor correlations were all statistically significant (Section 7 of the ESM). The size of the factor correlations was consistent with results on samples 1 and 2.

[Table 2]

We then performed an item analysis on observed scores. We computed Cronbach's alphas, mean inter-item correlations, corrected-item total correlations, items' squared multiple correlations and alpha-if-item-deleted indices for all DD-I scales in all samples. Detailed results are reported in Section 8 of the ESM and show that, despite the relatively low number of items, DD-I scales have a high degree of internal consistency: all Cronbach's alphas were equal to or larger than .80, except the one of Psychopathy in Sample 3, which however could be considered adequate (.73). Corrected

item-total correlations were always well above .30, indicating an adequate discriminativity of DD-I items between high and low levels of the traits.

Study 2 - Temporal stability of the scores on the DD-I

Participants and procedure

The DD-I was administered twice at a 3-week interval to 164 undergraduate psychology students (mean age 22.68±5.50 years, range 19-59, Females 77%). Students were informed that the completion of the DD-I was not compulsory, that participation could not affect their final evaluation and that they could decide to retire their consent to participate at any moment without consequences.

Results and discussion

Cronbach's alphas were always equal to or higher than .80. As measures of test-retest reliability we computed intraclass correlation coefficients (ICCs). ICCs were computed as single measure using a two-way random effect model with an absolute agreement definition. The findings indicated that DD-I observed scale scores were stable over the 3-week interval (ICCs ranging from .83 to .86). Paired-sample *t*-tests also revealed that the mean difference of scores from Time 1 to Time 2 was not statistically different from zero (Section 9 of the ESM). Taken together, the results of Study 2 indicated an adequate temporal stability of DD-I scores, at least in a student population.

Study 3 – Construct validity of the DD-I

The construct validity of the DD-I was tested using a strategy similar to the one adopted by Jonason and Webster (2010). We thus administered a battery of questionnaires that included other measures of the same constructs measured by the DD-I (convergent validity) and measures of other constructs in the same nomological network of the Dark Triad (discriminant validity).

The non-Dark Triad measures included the Big Five, aggressiveness, socio-sexual orientation, self-esteem, social desirability and impression management. An association of higher scores on the DD scales with lower scores on agreeableness (Paulhus & Williams, 2002) and conscientiousness (Jonason, Li & Teicher, 2010) has been consistently replicated by previous

studies (Paulhus & Williams, 2002; Jonason, Li & Teicher, 2010). Associations of the other Big Five constructs with DD scores were found, but did not show a consistent pattern (Jonason & Webster, 2010).

Higher levels of Dark Triad traits have been found to be associated with higher levels of aggressiveness (e.g., Paulhus & Williams, 2002) and Jonason and Webster (2010) reported positive significant correlations of DD scores with scores on the Aggression Questionnaire (Buss & Perry, 1992).

Jonason and Webster (2010) did not find convincing evidence of an association of DD scores with self-esteem. Hence, we did not expect significant correlations of DD-I scores with self-esteem.

It has been found that Dark Triad traits are associated with short-term mating, especially in men (Webster & Bryan, 2007). Consistent with these results, Jonason and Webster (2010) found that DD scores were more positively associated with short-term mating than with long-term mating.

Reported forms of self-presentation as perfectionistic self-promotion, nondisclosure of imperfection, and non-display of imperfection (Sherry et al., 2006) are common in individuals with higher levels of Machiavellianism (Lopes & Fletcher, 2004) and narcissism (Rauthmann, 2011). Hence, we expected that higher scores on the DD scales measuring these constructs were associated with higher levels of impression management (IM), while it has been reported that the association of psychopathy scores with IM is weak (see, e.g., Ray et al. 2013). On the other hand, the moralistic bias, i.e., the tendency to exaggerate communion-related traits such as duty, agreeableness, and impulse control (Paulhus, 2002), should be negatively correlated with the DD scores, since it assumes high levels of ego control, achievement via conformity, nurturance, social closeness, interpersonal sensitivity, restraint, and socialization (Paulhus & John, 1998).

Participants

Measures

Sixty-six participants (mean age 32.06±12.50 years, range 20-59, Females 67%) took part to Study 3. These participants were recruited through snowball sampling by a psychology student as part of their dissertation project. Inclusion and exclusion criteria were the same of Study 1.

Italian Dirty Dozen (DD-I). As described above. Descriptive statistics and Cronbach's alpha of the DD-I and of all the other measures used in this study are reported in Table 3.

[Table 3]

Machiavellianism subscale of the Multidimensional Personality Profile (MPP-Machiavellianism; Caprara, Barbaranelli, De Carlo & Robusto, 2006). The MPP is an Italian measure of personality traits. It comprises several subscales scales, among which Machiavellianism, Social Desirability and Impression Management. The Machiavellianism subscale assesses the tendency to put one's own needs ahead of others and to use manipulation, deceit and tactics (e.g., bending the rules) to achieve one's goals.

Psychopathic Deviate scale of the Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory-2 (MMPI-PD, Butcher et al., 1989; Italian version in Pancheri & Sirigatti, 1995). The PD is a subscale of the MMPI that contains 50 true/false items and assesses the individual's degree of social deviation, lack of acceptance of authority, and amorality.

Narcissistic Personality Inventory (NPI, Raskin & Hall, 1988; Italian version in Fossati & Borroni, 2008a). The NPI is a widely used measure of narcissism. It includes 40 items and for each item participants are asked to choose one of two statements they felt applied to them more. One of the two statements reflects a narcissistic attitude more than the other.

Big Five Questionnaire (BFI, John, Donahue & Kentle, 1991; Italian version in Ubbiali, Chiorri, Hampton, & Donati, 2013). The BFI is a 44-item self-report measure of the Big Five (Extraversion [8 items], Agreeableness [9 items], Conscientiousness [9 items], Neuroticism [8

items] and Openness [10 items]) consisting of short phrases that include trait adjectives known to be prototypical markers of the Big Five.

Aggression Questionnaire (AQ, Buss & Perry, 1992; Italian version in Fossati & Borroni, 2008b). The AQ is a 29-item self-report measure of perceived levels of anger and aggression. The AQ provides a total score and scores in 4 scales: Physical Aggression (9 items), Verbal Aggression (5 items), Anger (7 items) and Hostility (8 items).

Rosenberg's Self-Esteem Scale (RSES, Rosenberg, 1965; Italian version in Prezza, Trombaccia, & Armento, 1997). RSES is a 10-item self-report measure of global self-esteem.

Sociosexual Orientation Inventory-Revised (SOI-R, Penke & Asendorpf, 2008; Italian version available at: http://www.larspenke.eu/en/translated-soi-r.html). The SOI-R is a measure of sociosexual orientation, with high scores indicating an "unrestricted" sociosexual orientation (i.e., an overall more promiscuous behavioral tendency) and low scores indicating a "restricted" sociosexual orientation. It provides a total score and three subscale scores: Behavior (3 items), Attitude (3 items), Desire (3 items).

Social Desirability subscale of the Multidimensional Personality Profile (MPP-Social Desirability; Caprara et al., 2006). The MPP-Social Desirability is an 8-item measure of the moralistic bias, i.e., a self-deceptive tendency to deny socially deviant impulses and behaviors and to claim "saint-like" attributes (Paulhus & John, 1998).

Impression Management subscale of the Multidimensional Personality Profile (MPP-Impression Management; Caprara et al., 2006). The MPP-Impression Management is a 8-item measure of the egoistic bias, i.e., a self-deceptive tendency to exaggerate one's social and intellectual status (Paulhus & John, 1998).

Procedure

All participants were tested individually and anonymously. The scales included in the battery were administered in counterbalanced fashion to control for order and sequence effects.

Results and discussion

Results are reported in Table 3. As expected, the DD-I scales correlated significantly and substantially (i.e., correlations in the .40s) with measures of the same constructs, partially supporting their convergent validity, since, especially for Machiavellianism and psychopathy, similar correlations were found also with other DT traits. They also showed significant negative correlations with agreeableness, but not with conscientiousness, albeit the effect sizes of correlations with the psychopathy and narcissism scales was comparable to those of Jonason and Webster (2010, Table 4, p. 424). Significant positive correlations were found between extraversion, on the one hand, and Machiavellianism and narcissism, on the other, consistent with Jonason et al. (2010). DD-I scales were also positively and significantly associated with AQ scales and SOI-R scores (except SOI-R-Behavior), consistent with expectations and Jonason and Webster's (2010) results. Finally, the correlations of DD-I scale scores with measures social desirability and impression management were consistent with the hypotheses, since higher Machiavellianism and narcissism scores were associated with lower levels of moralistic bias and higher levels of egoistic bias.

While the results of these study substantially met the expectations with respect to convergent validity, they seem to provide little support for the discriminant validity of the DD-I, since correlations with other constructs often were as large as the correlations with the same constructs. This is a known limitation of the DD, as other studies (e.g., Maples et al., 2014; Miller et al., 2012) raised some concerns about the construct validity of the DD, especially for the psychopathy subscale. However, it must be noted that the results presented here are consistent with the ones reported in the above-mentioned and other studies about the DD (e.g., Czarna, Jonason, Dufner, & Kossowska, 2016; Jonason et al., 2010; Küfner, Dufner, & Back, 2014). As argued by Czarna et al. (2016), such findings might be due to the fact that the original Dark Triad measures assess multiple facets of the respective constructs while the DD-I might only measure the core aspects.

Study 4 Measurement invariance of the DD-I across gender

Participants

Participants were recruited in Central Italy through a snowball sampling procedure in which students were given the DD-I to pass on to members of their families and acquaintances. The total number of participants was 974 (56.9% females). Mean age was 36.45 years (SD=13.21, range 18–80). The gender subgroups were adequately balanced on these and other background characteristics (Section 10 of the ESM). Inclusion and exclusion criteria were the same of Study 1. *Statistical Analyses*

Measurement invariance of the DD-I was tested using Multi-Group Confirmatory Factor

Analysis (MG-CFA). We first tested the ability of the *a priori* three-correlated-factor model to fit
the data in the total sample and, separately, in the groups defined by gender. We then tested
measurement invariance across gender. The hypothesized factor structure was estimated
simultaneously in the two groups defined by gender (*configural invariance model*, M0). This model
tested whether the same factor structure was maintained across groups. We then imposed equality
on factor loadings (*weak invariance model*, M1) to test whether items showed a proportional
amount of increase between women and men for the same amount of increase on the latent factor.

Latent scores could be compared only if women and men with similar levels on the construct
presented comparable scores on the items reflecting the construct; hence, item intercepts were
constrained to be invariant (*strong invariance model*, M2). Manifest scores could be compared if
the constructs were assessed with similar levels of measurement errors in women and men; hence,
item residual variances were also constrained to be invariant (*strict invariance model*, M3).

We also tested models in which latent factor variances (M4) and covariances (M5) were constrained to be invariant. M4 implied that women and men used the same range on the factor continuum to report their levels of DT traits and that same items had equal levels of reliability across gender. M5 assumed that the correlation between the same factor pairs was the same for women and men (see Section 11 of the ESM).

The goodness of fit (GOF) of the CFA models was evaluated with the same criteria of Study 1. Measurement invariance models were also compared using fit indices. We considered as evidence of invariance a change in CFI of less than .01 or a change in RMSEA of less than .015 (Chen, 2007).

Results

We first tested the fit of a three-correlated-factor CFA model in the total sample of participants and in the groups defined by gender. Results showed that the hypothesized model had an adequate fit (Table 4).

[Table 4]

We then tested the measurement invariance of the DD-I across gender. Factor loadings, item intercepts, residual variances and factor correlations of the configural invariance model (M0) are reported in Section 12 of the ESM. All parameter estimates were statistically different from zero (p<.001).

The inspection of the GOF indices for invariance models reported in Table 4 revealed that the measurement invariance of the DD-I factor model across gender was fully supported for all models. As shown in the rightmost columns of Table 4, invariance models in which the factor mean differences were estimated revealed that men scored higher than women in all factors, albeit in narcissism the difference had a smaller effect size – note that the standardized mean difference estimates reported in Table 4 are in Cohen's *d* metric.

Discussion

Previous studies had tested sex differences on the Dirty Dozen (DD) using observed scores, possibly overlooking that these comparisons might have been biased by a lack of measurement invariance of the scale. The only exception was the Klimstra et al. (2014)'s study, that found support for the measurement invariance of the DD across gender and reported that males tended to endorse higher scores in all scales. However, these results were of somehow limited generalizability, as they

were obtained on samples of adolescents. In this study we were able to replicate these results on a large adult sample and extended them by using a larger taxonomy of invariance models.

Before addressing the issue of the measurement invariance of the DD, we had to adapt the DD into Italian. We thus carried out three studies, whose results showed that the Italian DD has psychometric properties that overlap those of the US version.

The results of the measurement invariance analyses revealed that the measurement model of the DD-I and its parameters are invariant across gender. Specifically, we found that also factor variances and covariances are invariant between women and men. This means that (1) women and men used the same range on the factor continuum to report their levels of DT traits (i.e., narcissism, psychopathy, and Machiavellianism) and that the same items have the same reliability across gender; (2) the correlation between the same factor pairs for women is statistically equivalent to the correlation between the same factors pairs for men.

This result implies that mean score differences actually reflect differences in the amount of constructs as they are operationalized by the DD. Consistent with previous studies (Furnham & Trickey, 2011), we found that men's scores on all DD-I scales were statistically higher than women's, with higher effect sizes for Machiavellianism and psychopathy (0.40s) than for narcissism (0.15s). One possible explanation of this result can be the multidimensional nature of narcissism, as suggested by recent research that supports the existence of two phenotypic expressions of narcissism, characterized by grandiose and vulnerable features (Cain et al., 2008). Men usually score higher on the grandiose dimension of narcissism, whereas smaller, or even null, differences are usually found on vulnerable narcissism features (Grijalva et al., 2015). The narcissism scale of the DD has apparently the merit to capture both faces of narcissism (Maples et al., 2014), thus the smaller differences on the narcissism scale (when compared with the other two scales) could resemble the presence of both grandiose and vulnerable features which are likely to differ across gender. However, the lack of distinction between overt vs covert narcissism (Wink, 1991) is potentially problematic and deserves further investigation.

As argued by Grijalva et al. (2015), sex differences can be explained in terms of a biosocial approach to social role theory. Many of the correlates of DT traits reflect high levels of agentic characteristics rather than communal characteristics (Jones & Paulhus, 2010). Rudman, Moss-Racusin, Phelan, and Nauts (2012) found that being agentic and not being communal is considered desirable for men and undesirable for women.

As individuals might be socially penalized for deviating from gender role expectations, women may experience societal pressure for communal behaviors and face disapproval for displaying agentic behaviors. Hence, they may be less likely *to report* DT traits. Not surprisingly, "the entire construct of Machiavellianism [is considered] more appropriate for men than for women" (Wilson, Near & Miller, 1996, p. 293).

Bivariate associations of the DT traits with external correlates were meaningful and largely consistent with prior studies (Jonason & Webster, 2010). Machiavellianism, psychopathy, and narcissism were negatively related to agreeableness, confirming that a disagreeable attitude toward other might represent a shared feature of DT traits. Furthermore, Machiavellianism and narcissism, but not psychopathy, were positively associated with extraversion, paralleling findings with adolescents (Klimstra et al., 2014). However, it should be noted that the association of Machiavellianism with extraversion is not consistently found in other works (see e.g., O'Boyle, Forsyth, Banks, Story, & White, 2015). Aggression dimensions and unrestricted sexual orientation were also positively correlated with DT traits, confirming and expanding current knowledge of the potentially risky interpersonal consequences of sub-clinical levels of Machiavellianism, psychopathy, and narcissism. Finally, Machiavellianism and narcissism – but not psychopathy – were positively linked with impression management and negatively with social desirability. This could suggest that higher levels of these dark traits are associated with an increased tendency to exaggerate personal attributes and status, but not to deny antagonistic impulses.

Some limitations need to be pointed out. First, social desirability tends to be positively related to age and negatively related to undesirable self-report characteristics. Since we used a self-

report measure, this might have elicited the manipulative tendencies of people high DT traits. Second, the conciseness of the DD-I might have limited the possibility to cover the full breadth of traits and components characterizing the DT (Miller et al., 2012) and thus the possibility to disentangle specific facets of each personality style within the DT construct. However, our results are consistent with those obtained with longer measures.

Despite these limitations, this study showed that each DD-I factor actually captures the same construct among adult women and men, suggesting that sex differences in scale scores found by previous studies cannot be considered as artifacts due to measurement error. Machiavellianism, psychopathy and narcissism seem thus to have the same "faces" in both women and men, with men reporting higher levels of all traits.

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Table 1 Results of exploratory factor analyses on the Italian Dirty Dozen in samples 1 and 2 in Study 1 $\,$

	Sample 1 ($n = 102$)			Sample	Sample 2 ($n = 128$)				
Item	M	P	N	M	P	N			
DD01	.85	.01	09	.62	.07	.14			
DD02	.68	.03	.11	.89	.04	19			
DD03	.87	27	04	.81	13	.05			
DD04	.77	.09	.02	.79	01	.09			
DD05	19	.96	09	17	.70	.04			
DD06	.07	.63	.00	05	.94	09			
DD07	.04	.69	.00	.11	.71	.05			
DD08	.33	.48	.00	.26	.51	.03			
DD09	04	15	.86	.01	.00	.78			
DD10	.07	.00	.65	.04	11	.84			
DD11	.06	.06	.54	15	.04	.86			
DD12	11	.05	.73	.07	.00	.75			
r with P	.54			.49					
r with N	.53	.40		.56	.29				

Note: M = Machiavellianism; P = Psychopathy; N = Narcissism; r = Pearson's correlation

Table 2 Goodness-of-fit statistics of confirmatory factor analyses performed on data from Sample 3 (n = 305) in Study 1

Model and description	χ^2	df	CFI	TLI	RMSEA
1-factor model	370.77	54	.674	.601	.139
3-independent-factor model	225.88	54	.823	.784	.102
3-correlated-factor model	103.639	51	.946	.930	.058
Bifactor model	65.43	42	.976	.962	.043

Note. $\chi 2$ = Chi-square; df = degrees of freedom; CFI = comparative fit index; TLI = Tucker–Lewis index; RMSEA = root mean square error of approximation

Table 3 Descriptive statistics and correlations of the Italian Dirty Dozen scale scores with scores on measures of Machiavellianism, psychopathy, narcissism, personality, aggression, self-esteem, social desirability, impression management and sociosexual orientation (Study 3)

Variable	M	P	N	α	M	SD
M	1.00			.80	2.57	1.30
P	.50***	1.00		.85	2.58	1.28
N	.66***	.24	1.00	.89	3.94	1.90
Convergent validity						
MPP - Machiavellianism	.48***	.33**	.28*	.75	2.45	0.51
MMPI-PD Total Score	.25*	.41**	.15	.62	20.98	4.92
NPI	.44***	.37**	.54***	.76	11.02	5.32
Discriminant validity						
BFI - Extraversion	.28*	.17	.28*	.83	3.44	0.65
BFI - Agreeableness	31*	34**	29*	.72	3.73	0.51
BFI - Conscientiousness	07	22	23	.86	3.51	0.76
BFI - Neuroticism	.02	17	.20	.83	2.99	0.64
BFI - Openness	.03	02	.15	.87	3.84	0.69
AQ - Physical Aggression	.49***	.54***	.37**	.75	2.53	0.67
AQ - Verbal Aggression	.36**	.33**	.31*	.72	2.16	0.71
AQ - Anger	.42***	.37**	.45***	.72	2.38	0.57
AQ - Hostility	.54***	.33**	.57***	.77	2.01	0.60
Self-esteem	.08	.14	07	.87	3.04	0.53
SOI-R - Behavior	.18	.13	.23	.75	1.87	0.92
SOI-R - Attitude	.41**	.40**	.29*	.87	3.70	2.22
SOI-R - Desire	.37**	.34**	.43***	.88	3.14	2.02
SOI-R - Total score	.44***	.42**	.42***	.84	2.90	1.36
MPP - Social Desirability	34**	10	35**	.76	2.71	0.58
MPP - Impression Management	.47***	03	.58***	.71	3.44	0.44

Note: n = 66; M = Machiavellianism; P = Psychopathy; N = Narcissism; α = Cronbach's alpha; M = Mean; SD = Standard deviation; MPP = Multidimensional Personality Profile; MMPI-PD = Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory – Psychopathic Deviate; NPI = Narcissistic Personality Inventory; BFI = Big Five Inventory; AQ = Aggression Questionnaire; SOI-R = Sociosexual Orientation Inventory – Revised; * = p < .05; ** = p < .01; *** = p < .001;

Table 4 Goodness-of-fit statistics of confirmatory factor analytic and measurement invariance models in Study 4

Model and description	χ^2	df	CFI	TLI	RMSEA	M	P	N
Total group	196.303	51	.956	.943	.054	-	-	-
Women	133.011	51	.953	.939	.054	-	-	-
Men	121.359	51	.953	.939	.057	-	-	-
Invariance models								
M0 Configural	255.136	102	.953	.939	.056	-	-	-
M1 Weak	260.863	111	.954	.945	.053	-	-	-
M2 Strong	288.541	120	.949	.944	.054	.400***	.445***	.154*
M3 Strict	330.714	132	.942	.942	.056	.397***	.442***	.154*
M4 Factor variances invariant	347.337	135	.939	.940	.057	.438***	.481***	.150*
M5 Factor covariances invariant	350.252	138	.939	.940	.056	.438***	.481***	.151*

Note. χ^2 = Chi-square; df = degrees of freedom; CFI = comparative fit index; TLI = Tucker–Lewis index; RMSEA = root mean square error of approximation; M = standardized factor mean difference for Machiavellianism; P = standardized factor mean difference for Psychopathy; N = standardized factor mean difference for Narcissism. Positive standardized factor mean differences indicate higher scores in men. *** p < .001. * p < .05

RUNNING HEAD: ITALIAN VERSION OF THE DD

Psychometric properties of an Italian version of the Dirty Dozen: Factor structure, reliability,

validity, measurement invariance across gender

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Electronic Supplementary Materials for the paper Psychometric properties of an Italian version of the Dirty Dozen: Factor structure, reliability, validity, measurement invariance across gender

1. Review of sex differences (Cohen's d) in scores on the Dirty Dozen (studies are in chronological order)

Source	Participants	M	P	N
Jonason & Webster (2010)	_			
Study 1	273 psychology students (90 men, 183 women) aged 18-47 years (M=20.08, SD=3.79)	0.49	0.40	0.62
Study 2	246 psychology students (101 men, 145 women) aged 18-42 years (M=20.69, SD=3.76)	0.21	0.42	0.62
Study 3	96 undergraduate students (36 men, 60 women), aged 18-25 years (M=20.44, SD=1.43)	0.79	0.35	0.34
Study 4	470 psychology students (157 men, 312 women) aged 17-26+ years (mode=18, Median=19, M=19.00, SD=1.30)	0.05	0.46	0.09
Jonason & Krause (2013)	320 online participants (78 men, 242 women), aged 17-56 years (M=24.24, SD=7.33)	0.75	0.49	0.51
Muris, Meesters & Timmermans (2013)	117 adolescents (51 men, 66 women), aged 12-18 years (M=13.90, SD=0.96)	0.45	0.56	0.01
Webster & Jonason (2013)	544 undergraduate students (169 men, 375 women), aged 17-50 (M=20.25, SD=4.70)	0.31	0.41	0.40
Aghababaei, Mohammadtabar, & Saffarinia (2014)	223 Iranian employees (90 men, 133 women), aged 18-57 (M=31.24, SD=8.94).	0.42	0.42	0.18
Jonason, Baughman, Carter & Parker (2015)	1,389 undergraduate students (458 men, 931 women), aged 18-50 years (M=18.88, SD=2.15)	0.22	0.52	0.27
Czarna, Jonason, Dufner, & Kossowska (2016)				
Study 1	304 undergraduate students (111 men, 193 women) aged 18-54 years (M=22.24, SD=4.69)	0.44	0.54	0.02
Study 2	136 undergraduate students (53 men, 83 women), aged 18-48 years M=24.40, SD=6.60)	0.45	0.36	0.01

Note: M = Machiavellianism; P = Psychopathy; N = Narcissism. Positive ds indicate higher scores in males.

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2. Italian version of the Dirty Dozen

DD-I

Troverai qui di seguito alcune affermazioni che possono o meno descrivere il tuo modo di essere, di pensare e di comportarti. Indica per ogni affermazione il tuo grado di accordo, ossia quanto l'affermazione ti sembra appropriata a descrivere la tua personalità, ricordando che 1 = fortemente in disaccordo e 7 = fortemente d'accordo

Non ci sono risposte "giuste" o "sbagliate". la migliore risposta è sempre quella che per prima ti viene in mente, in quanto è quella che ha la maggiore probabilità di essere la più sincera e quella che più si avvicina alla tua esperienza.

1. Tendo a manipolare gli altri per ottenere ciò che voglio	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. Ho ingannato o mentito per ottenere ciò che volevo	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. Ho fatto ricorso all'adulazione per ottenere ciò che volevo	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. Tendo a sfruttare gli altri per raggiungere i miei scopi	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. Tendo a non provare rimorso	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. Tendo a non preoccuparmi della moralità delle mie azioni	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. Tendo a essere duro o insensibile	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. Tendo a essere cinico	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. Tendo a volere l'ammirazione degli altri	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. Tendo ad esigere che gli altri mi prestino attenzione	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11. Tendo a ricercare il prestigio ed un elevato status sociale	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12. Tendo ad aspettarmi un trattamento speciale da parte degli altri	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

3. Power Analysis Study 1

The power analysis for confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) models of Study 1 was carried out using the procedure described in Muthén and Muthén (2002). The method relies on Monte Carlo simulations in which data are generated from a population with hypothesized parameter values. Ten thousand samples are drawn, and a model is estimated for each sample. Parameter values and standard errors are averaged over the samples and the following criteria are examined: parameter estimate bias, standard error bias, and coverage. In this case we followed the guidelines provided by the *Mplus User's Guide* (Muthén & Muthén, 1998–2010), Example 12.12, with the following settings for starting values:

- .80 for target loadings
- .00 for cross-loadings
- 2.5 for intercepts
- 1.00 for factor variances
- .50 for factor correlations in one group
- .20 for uniquenesses (residual variances)
- .00 for factor means

Muthén and Muthén (2002) suggest considering, as a first criterion, that parameter and standard error biases do not exceed 10% for any parameter in the model. The second criterion is that the standard error bias for the parameter for which power is being assessed does not exceed 5%. The third criterion is that coverage (i.e., the proportion of the replications where a 95% confidence interval covers the true parameter value) remains between .91 and .98. Once these three conditions are satisfied, the sample size is considered to keep power close to 0.80, a commonly accepted value for sufficient power.

We tested the power achieved by 5 different sample sizes: 100, 150, 200, 350 and 300. Results are reported in Table 1 and suggested that only Sample 3 afforded a sufficient statistical power to test the expected 3-correlated-factor CFA model.

Table 1 Parameter and standard error highest absolute bias and coverage for five different sample sizes to test the factor structure of the Dirty Dozen

Criteria	n= 100	n =150	n = 200	n = 250	n = 300
Parameter bias	6.78%	4.68%	3.60%	2.88%	2.54%
Standard error bias	18.39%	14.90%	13.21%	11.19%	9.51%
Coverage range	90.90-97.60%	92.30-97.30%	93.00-97.60%	93.40-97.50%	93.50-97.60%

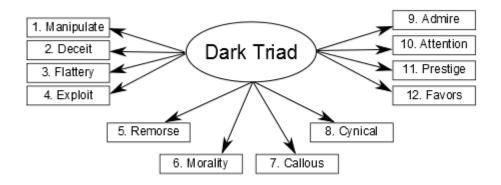
References

Muthén, B. & Muthén, L. (2002). How to use a Monte Carlo study to decide on sample size and determine power. *Structural Equation Modeling*, 4, 599–620: doi: 10.1207/S15328007SEM0904_8

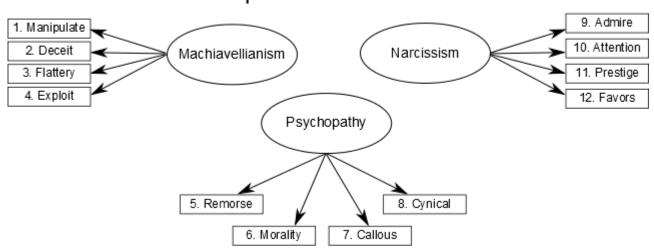
Muthén, L. K., & Muthén, B. (1998–2010). *Mplus user's guide*. Los Angeles, CA: Muthén & Muthén.

4. Confirmatory factor analysis models in Study 1

1-factor model



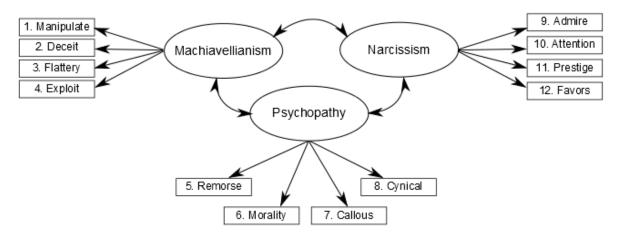
3-independent-factor model



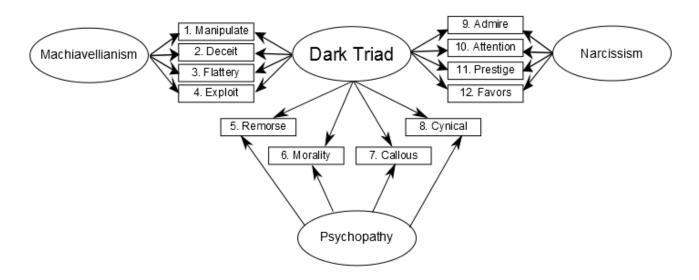
Continue

4. Confirmatory factor analysis models in Study 1 (continued)

3-correlated-factor model



Bifactor model

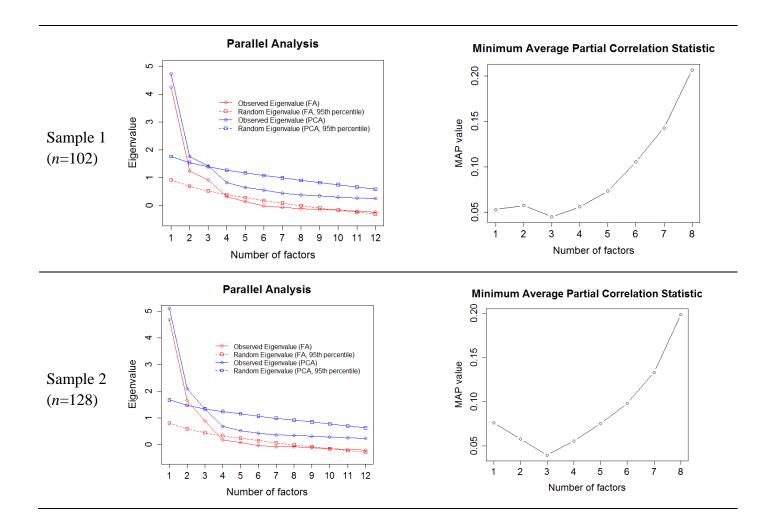


5. Item descriptive statistics for the Italian Dirty Dozen Items in all samples of Study ${\bf 1}$

Item	Min	Max	M	SD	SK	KU
		Sam	ple 1 (<i>n</i> =1	102)		
DD01	1	7	2.52	1.88	1.00	-0.21
DD02	1	7	2.34	1.72	1.14	0.26
DD03	1	7	2.25	1.78	1.33	0.59
DD04	1	7	1.93	1.42	1.51	1.46
DD05	1	7	2.50	2.00	1.07	-0.19
DD06	1	7	2.10	1.63	1.47	1.20
DD07	1	7	2.38	1.72	1.14	0.35
DD08	1	7	2.59	1.88	0.97	-0.19
DD09	1	7	3.41	2.09	0.32	-1.17
DD10	1	7	3.49	2.02	0.26	-1.14
DD11	1	7	2.99	1.98	0.53	-1.08
DD12	1	7	3.05	2.12	0.62	-1.03
		Sam	ple 2 ($n=1$	128)		
DD01	1	7	2.27	1.49	1.12	0.43
DD02	1	7	2.23	1.46	1.37	1.42
DD03	1	7	2.21	1.43	1.17	0.74
DD04	1	7	1.86	1.30	1.81	2.92
DD05	1	7	2.67	1.53	0.56	-0.45
DD06	1	7	2.30	1.54	1.03	0.18
DD07	1	7	2.41	1.53	0.77	-0.44
DD08	1	7	2.66	1.56	0.56	-0.65
DD09	1	7	3.72	1.80	0.03	-0.95
DD10	1	7	3.59	1.72	0.09	-0.94
DD11	1	7	3.17	1.68	0.38	-0.72
DD12	1	7	3.07	1.80	0.54	-0.72
		Sam	ple 3 ($n=3$	305)		
DD01	1	7	2.14	1.76	1.36	0.53
DD02	1	7	1.97	1.62	1.60	1.45
DD03	1	7	2.05	1.62	1.44	1.02
DD04	1	7	1.66	1.36	2.12	3.60
DD05	1	7	2.40	1.96	1.18	0.02
DD06	1	7	1.95	1.74	1.85	2.21
DD07	1	7	2.09	1.67	1.41	0.80
DD08	1	7	2.18	1.83	1.44	0.83
DD09	1	7	3.32	2.07	0.37	-1.24
DD10	1	7	3.17	1.91	0.38	-1.10
DD11	1	7	2.67	1.91	0.84	-0.57
DD12	1	7	2.57	1.88	0.88	-0.53
Note: Min	_ minim	um· May -		M	oon, CD	dd

Note: Min = minimum; Max = maximum; M = mean; SD = standard deviation; SK = Skewness; KU = Kurtosis

6. Analysis of the dimensionality of the item pool of the Italian Dirty Dozen in two independent samples of community participants (Study 1). FA = Factor Analysis; PCA = Principal Component Analysis



7. Parameter estimates in the 3-correlated-factor Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) model (n=305), Study 1

		CFA		
	M	P	N	RV
DD01	0.69***	0.00	0.00	.52***
DD02	0.83***	0.00	0.00	.31***
DD03	0.79***	0.00	0.00	.38***
DD04	0.77***	0.00	0.00	.41***
DD05	0.00	0.42***	0.00	.83***
DD06	0.00	0.51***	0.00	.74***
DD07	0.00	0.84***	0.00	.29***
DD08	0.00	0.81***	0.00	.34***
DD09	0.00	0.00	0.73***	.47***
DD10	0.00	0.00	0.75***	.44***
DD11	0.00	0.00	0.66***	.57***
DD12	0.00	0.00	0.73***	.47***

r with P 0.53***

r with N 0.60*** 0.39***

Note: M = Machiavellianism; P = Psychopathy; N = Narcissism; RV = Residual Variance; r = Pearson's correlation; * = p < .05; **: p < .01; ***: p < .001;

8. Results of item analyses on the Italian Dirty Dozen in Study ${\bf 1}$

Statistic	Sample 1 (<i>n</i> =102)	Sample 2 (<i>n</i> =128)	Sample 3 (<i>n</i> =305)
α	• ` ` ` `	<u> </u>	· , , ,
M	.85	.86	.84
P	.80	.82	.73
N	.78	.88	.81
Mr_{ii} (range)			
M	.59 (.5367)	.62 (.5369)	.59 (.5070)
P	.50 (.3661)	.53 (.3266)	.42 (.2970)
N	.47 (.4159)	.64 (.6068)	.51 (.4261)
<i>Mr_{it}</i> (range)			
M	.69 (.6474)	.71 (.6778)	.69 (.6374)
P	.62 (.5766)	.64 (.5375)	.53 (.4062)
N	.59 (.5265)	.73 (.7276)	.63 (.5866)
M_{SMC} (range)			
M	.50 (.4157)	.53 (.5062)	.50 (.4157)
P	.43 (.3948)	.47 (.3758)	.36 (.1852)
N	.37 (.2846)	.54 (.5258)	.41 (.3646)
α w/o (higher)			
M	.83	.84	.84
P	.77	.81	.72
N	.76	.85	.78
Scale score rs			
M with P	.46***	.45***	.46***
M with N	.42***	.50***	.50***
N with P	.31**	.26**	.33***

Note: α = Cronbach's alpha; Mr_{ii} = Mean inter-item correlation; Mr_{it} = Mean corrected item-total correlation; M_{SMC} = Mean squared multiple correlation; α w/o = alpha-if-item-deleted index; r: Pearson correlation; * = p < .05; ** = p < .01; *** = p < .001.

9. Cronbach's alpha, descriptive statistics and intraclass correlation coefficients for Italian Dirty Dozen observed scale scores in Study $2\ (n=164)$

		Time 1			Time 2			
Scale	M	SD	α	M	SD	α	<i>p</i>	ICC
M	2.52	1.26	.84	2.60	1.35	.88	.209	.83
P	2.38	1.28	.81	2.38	1.34	.83	.955	.86
N	3.59	1.36	.80	3.55	.139	.83	.533	.83

Note: M = Mean; SD = Standard deviation; α = Cronbach's alpha; M = Machiavellianism; P = Psychopathy; N = Narcissism; p: p-value of the paired-sample t-test (df=163); ICC = intraclass correlation coefficient

10. Socio-demographic differences between women and men in the sample of the paper

We tested whether the gender subgroups of the paper differed with respect to demographical variables. As shown in the table, some significant differences were found, but effect sizes were at best in the small range, suggesting that the comparisons of mean scores on the DD could have negligibly been biased (if ever) by the confounding effect of these variables.

Variable	Category	Women (n=554)	Men (n=420)	p	ES
Age (M±DS)		35.60±13.19	37.57±13.17	.021 ^a	0.15 ^b
Years of education (M±DS)		14.08±3.35	13.69±3.39	.065 ^a	0.12^{b}
Marital Status (proportion)	Single Married/Living together Divorced/Separated Widow/er	.28 .23 .04 .01*	.23 .18 .02 <.01*	.061 ^c	.09 ^d
Occupation (proportion)	Unoccupied Employed Professional Student Retired	.07* .28* .05 .15* .01*	.02* .25* .06 .08* .02*	<.001°	.19 ^d

Note: p = p-value for the statistical test; ES = effect size; M=mean; SD=standard deviation; a: independent sample t-test p-value; b: Cohen's d; c: chi-square test for the independence of categorical variables p-value; d:Cramer's V; *: column proportions statistically different (p < .05) after Bonferroni correction for multiple comparisons. Cohen's d is considered as negligible if d < |.20|, small if |.20| < d < |.50|, moderate if |.50| < d < |.80|, large if d > |.80|. Cramer's V is considered as negligible if V < |.10|, small if |.10| < V < |.30|, moderate if |.30| < V < |.50|, large if V > |.50|.

11. Measurement invariance models

Measurement invariance is usually tested with a sequence of models that impose equality constraints on the model parameters. Following Meredith (1964, 1993), the sequence of invariance testing begins with a model of *configural invariance* (M0), that is, with no invariance of any parameter estimates (i.e., all parameters are freely estimated), such that only similarity of the overall pattern of parameters is evaluated. This model tests whether the same factor structure is maintained across groups. Note that this model does not require any estimated parameters to be the same, hence it cannot be considered an actual invariance model. However, its fit has to be evaluated in order to provide both a test of the ability of the *a priori* model to fit the data in each group without invariance constraints and a baseline for comparing the other models that do impose equality constraints on the parameter estimates across groups.

The first step in invariance testing is to impose equality on factor loadings, i.e., specify a weak (or scalar) invariance model (M1). If identical items have statistically equivalent loadings, then the identical items show the same (if factor variances are fixed to 1 or constrained to be equal) or proportional (if variances are unequal) amount of increase between women and men for the same amount of increase on the latent factor (i.e., equality of scaling units; Millsap, 2011). This invariance is a prerequisite to comparisons of latent variances or relations among latent constructs. However, this model does not allow a test of differences in latent factor means, since mean differences based on latent constructs must be reflected in each of the individual items used to infer the latent constructs. It must then be shown that not only factor loadings, but also item intercepts (i.e., mean scores of individual items) are invariant over groups (strong or scalar invariance model, M2). If factor loadings and item intercepts are invariant over groups, then at all points along the factor continuum the same level of the latent factor results in statistically equivalent average scores on identical items between groups. This means that changes in the latent factor means can legitimately be interpreted as changes in the latent constructs. However, in models with freely estimated item intercepts and freely estimated latent means are not identified. Hence, the latent means are constrained to be zero in one group and freely estimated in the second group. This means that the freely estimated latent mean and its statistical significance reflect the differences between the two groups (Sörbom, 1974).

If one wants to compare (manifest) scale scores across groups, then an equality constraint must be posed also on item residual (or unique) variances (*strict measurement invariance* model, M3). This model assumes that same items have similar amounts of residual variance for both groups. We also tested models in which latent factor variances (M4) and covariances (M5) were constrained to be invariant. If latent factor variances are equal, in this case it would indicate that women and men used the same range on the factor continuum to report their levels of machiavellianism, psychopathy and narcissism and that the same items have equal levels of precision (reliability) across groups. If covariances are also invariant, the correlation between the same factor pairs for one group is statistically equivalent to the correlation between the same factors pairs for the other group.

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12. Standardized coefficients from the configural invariance model

	Women $(n = 554)$			Men $(n = 420)$				
	M	P	N	RV	M	P	N	RV
DD01	.75			.44	.74			.46
DD02	.76			.42	.76			.43
DD03	.73			.47	.73			.46
DD04	.78			.39	.79			.38
DD05		.48		.77		.54		.71
DD06		.57		.68		.65		.57
DD07		.84		.30		.81		.34
DD08		.77		.41		.78		.40
DD09			.77	.41			.77	.42
DD10			.80	.37			.77	.41
DD11			.73	.47			.62	.61
DD12			.75	.44			.70	.51
Correlation with P	.51				.57			
Correlation with N	.59	.41			.59	.37		
Factor score determinacy°	.93	.91	.93		.93	.91	.91	
Reliability (McDonald's ω)°	.81	.82	.71		.74	.79	.67	

Note. M = Machiavellianism; P = Psychopathy; N = Narcissism; I = intercept; RV = residual variance. All parameters are significant at p < .001; °: see SM for details.

Supplementary Materials - ITALIAN VERSION OF THE DD $15\,$