Organizational Life History Theory: Psychopathy, White-Collar Crimes and Organizations Analyzed Through Evolutionary Psychology

Teoria da História de Vida Organizacional: Psicopatia, Crimes do Colarinho-Branco e as Organizações

Teoría Organizacional de la Historia de Vida: Psicopatía, Delitos de Cuello Blanco y Organizaciones

Theoretical Essays

Rodrigo Prado Pereira[1]
https://orcid.org/0009-0005-8131-5104
E-mail: rodrigo.rpp.1979@gmail.com

Pedro Afonso Cortez[2]
https://orcid.org/0000-0003-0107-2033
E-mail: cor.afonso@gmail.com

[1] Tuiuti University of Paraná (UTP), Curitiba, PR, Brazil

[1] Anti-Corruption and Financial Crimes Division, Federal Police Superintendency in the State of Paraná, Federal Police Department (PF), Brazil

[2] Federal University of Uberlândia (UFU), Uberlândia, MG, Brazil

Editor in charge:
Mary Sandra Carlotto

How to cite:
Pereira, R. P., & Cortez, P. A. (2025). Organizational Life History Theory: Psychopathy, White-Collar Crimes and Organizations Analyzed Through Evolutionary Psychology. *Revista Psicologia: Organizações e Trabalho, 25*, e26030. https://doi.org/10.5935/rpot/2025.26030

Abstract: This article presents the Organizational Life History Theory (LHT-O), developed from an in-depth exploration of the complex systemic correlations between the manifestation of psychopathic personality traits, white-collar crimes, and the behavior of business organizations from the perspective of evolutionary psychology. The manifestation of psychopathic traits is analyzed as an evolutionary adaptive strategy used by individuals to ensure their survival. The discussion addresses how organizations, when operating in highly competitive environments, may act in ways that activate psychopathic personality traits in their employees in order to achieve profit and performance goals. White-collar crimes may result from the manifestation of psychopathic traits within the corporate environment. Understanding the subclinical manifestations of psychopathy in organizations may illuminate patterns of corruption, fraud, and systemic abuse that directly impact the public and private sectors.
Keywords: psychopathy, deviant behavior, money laundering, financial crimes, organizations.

Resumo: Este artigo apresenta a Teoria da História de Vida Organizacional (THV-O) elaborada a partir do aprofundamento das complexas correlações sistêmicas da manifestação dos traços de personalidade psicopáticos, dos crimes do colarinho-branco e do comportamento das organizações empresariais sob a perspectiva da psicologia evoluticionista. A manifestação dos traços de psicopatia é analisada como uma estratégia adaptativa evolutiva que indivíduos utilizem para garantir a sua sobrevivência. Discute-se sobre a atuação das organizações, quando inseridas em ambientes de muita competitividade, podem atuar no sentido de ativar traços de personalidade psicopática em seus colaboradores para atingirem seus objetivos de lucro e resultados. Os crimes do colarinho branco podem ser o resultado da manifestação de traços psicopáticos no ambiente corporativo. Compreender as manifestações subclínicas da psicopatia nas organizações pode esclarecer padrões de corrupção, fraude e abuso sistêmico que impactam diretamente os setores público e privado.
Palavras-chave: psicopatia, comportamento desviante, lavagem de dinheiro, crimes financeiros, organizações.

Resumen: Este artículo presenta la Teoría de la Historia de Vida Organizacional (THV-O), elaborada a partir del análisis profundo de las complejas correlaciones sistémicas entre la manifestación de los rasgos de personalidad psicopáticos, los delitos de cuello blanco y el comportamiento de las organizaciones empresariales desde la perspectiva de la psicología evolucionista. La manifestación de rasgos de psicopatía se analiza como una estrategia adaptativa evolutiva que los individuos utilizan para garantizar su supervivencia. Se discute cómo las organizaciones, al operar en entornos de alta competitividad, pueden actuar de forma que activen rasgos de personalidad psicopática en sus empleados para alcanzar sus objetivos de lucro y resultados. Los delitos de cuello blanco pueden ser el resultado de la manifestación de rasgos psicopáticos en el entorno corporativo. Comprender las manifestaciones subclínicas de la psicopatía en las organizaciones puede esclarecer patrones de corrupción, fraude y abuso sistémico que afectan directamente a los sectores público y privado.
Palabras clave: psicopatía, comportamiento desviado, lavado de dinero, delitos financieros, organizaciones.

Introduction

Personality refers to the characteristic patterns of thought, feeling and action of an individual. It is broadly manifested through cognitive, affective, interpersonal, and behavioral components, and is responsible for consistent behavioral patterns over time and across situations (Bleidorn et al., 2019; Bleidorn et al., 2022; Lynam et al., 2018). Personality develops over time, becoming relatively stable in adulthood. However, external influences can lead to changes in personality traits as they modify individuals' life trajectories, altering their relatively stable patterns of thoughts, feelings, and behaviors (Bleidorn et al., 2024). Individuals tend to select social roles that appear to align with their dispositional functioning; in other words, people seek environments that facilitate the continuity of their behavioral patterns over time (Costa et al., 2019; Lou et al., 2022; Pires et al., 2024).

From the perspective of Evolutionary Psychology, personality traits result from the interaction between genetic and environmental (social and cultural) factors over time. These traits are not fixed and can change according to environmental demands and the selective pressures an individual faces in different contexts (Bleidorn et al., 2024; Buss, 2019; Pires et al., 2024). Genetic and environmental factors are not static components whose relative influences remain stable over time but are dynamic resources whose interactions depend on the developmental context (Maung, 2021). A practical example would be an environment experiencing resource scarcity, such as food. This scarcity might favor a risk-taking personality trait, providing a competitive advantage to individuals who venture widely in search of food to avoid starvation. However, in times of food abundance, selection would favor a more cautious personality trait that reduces the risks associated with indiscriminate exploration of the environment. These optimal level variations can create heritable individual differences in personality (Larsen & Buss, 2021).

Evolutionary Psychology is an approach that uses adaptationist assumptions to investigate the human mind and behavior, distinguishing itself from biological determinism by integrating the influence of culture and the social environment with evolutionary predispositions. Rather than being limited to identifying specific adaptations, Evolutionary Psychology also considers the byproducts and historical remnants of selective processes, emphasizing the importance of an interdisciplinary analysis to understand the proximate mechanisms, ontogenetic development, adaptive value and phylogenetic history of human behaviors and traits (Yamamoto & Valentova, 2018). According to Buss (2019), Evolutionary Psychology focuses on the psychological mechanisms of the human mind, the evolutionary process of adaptations in information processing and particularly how these mechanisms are activated, and behaviors are generated through correlation. These mechanisms possess the following properties: (i) they exist to solve specific survival or reproduction problems, (ii) they are designed for specific and not general activation, (iii) they are triggered by cognitive perception, (iv) they are internally processed to correlate with an adaptive problem to be addressed, (v) decision rules are activated, (vi) behavior is manifested, and (vii) this behavior is directed towards solving an adaptive problem.

These theoretical models suggest that the origin of personality derives from the evolution of the human species, as it represents the product of the interaction between a constantly changing environment and an organism in flux (*innate* versus *acquired*) (Dåderman & Basinska, 2021; Penke et al., 2007; Penke & Jokela, 2016). Organism modifications are fundamentally the result of the *theory of natural selection* and the *theory of sexual selection*, which, in essence, posit that the primary objectives of organisms are to survive and partially replicate their genetic copies (Buss, 2019). Charles Darwin's *theory of natural selection* (1871/2009) describes how organisms undergo variations and if these variations are suited to the external environment, they are transmitted to descendants across generations. This transmission enables greater reproductive success, which, over time, selects these variations to persist over others, primarily due to their competitive advantage. The *theory of sexual selection* (Darwin, 1871/2009) explains that certain evolutionary adaptations facilitate more successful mating, aiding in both intrasexual and intersexual competition (Larsen & Buss, 2021). Essentially, organisms develop strategies to survive and reproduce, and the most efficient strategies result in more offspring, increasing the likelihood that these strategies and evolutionary adaptations will be passed on to future generations (Buss, 2019).

Thus, individual personality structures have some explanations from the perspective of evolutionary psychology, emphasizing that they result from environmental differences acting on the psychological mechanisms of the human species (Larsen & Buss, 2021; Međedović, 2025; Penke et al., 2007). Some differences may arise from *contingencies between traits*, as the expression/manifestation of a trait may depend not only on the environment but also on the individual’s genetic characteristics. This can be illustrated as follows: the competitive advantage displayed by an individual with an explosive temperament will differ depending on whether they are large and strong or small and weak (Bouchard & Loehlin, 2001). The *theory of frequency-dependent selection* is also highlighted, which posits that the return of each adaptive strategy decreases as its frequency increases relative to other strategies in the population, taking into account the broader social and ecological context (Ayala & Campbell, 1974; Buss, 2009; L. G. Glenn et al., 2011). The adaptive advantage of an individual trait will be inversely correlated with its saturation in the environment where the organism exists. An example would be mating strategies and their frequency

of use by other group members: when everyone employs the same strategy, its efficiency decreases significantly (Gangestad & Thornhill, 2008; Larsen & Buss, 2021; Smith, 1982).

Finally, one of the potential variations in individual personality differences may be influenced by the *optimal level of a personality trait*, which can vary over time and across contexts. In other words, a trait may be advantageous in a certain environment but may lose its adaptive advantage entirely in another (Garland Jr et al., 2021; Parker & Smith, 1990; Veller et al., 2016). Personality traits develop throughout the life cycle, achieving stability at a certain stage of adulthood (Bleidorn, 2024; Bleidorn et al., 2019). Individuals tend to seek environments that facilitate the continuity of their functioning patterns over time. However, under environmental pressures, individuals can make certain adjustments (Graham & Lachman, 2014), primarily explained by the interplay between individual functioning and the environment. These personality changes are responses to significant events and act as open systems capable of making adjustments and adaptations whenever necessary throughout the life cycle (Pires et al., 2024).

Altruism Explained by Evolutionary Psychology

The importance of altruism for the evolution of the human species transcends merely addressing antisocial behavior (Bramoullé & Kranton, 2024; Ge et al., 2012; Oda & Matsumoto-Oda, 2022; Smirnov, 2025; Wu et al., 2024). Altruism is directly correlated with cooperative alliances and humanity's capacity to organize into groups, allowing for synergy and resource sharing that maximize the survival and reproduction of group members (Trivers, 1971). According to theories in evolutionary psychology, individuals use altruistic behavior as an evolutionary adaptive strategy to gain access to resources that would not be directly available otherwise (Buss, 2019; Hertler et al., 2018; Pfattheicher et al., 2022). The alternatives available to individuals who prove incapable of developing altruism or cooperative alliances are deceit or aggression (Ashton et al., 2014; L. G. Glenn et al., 2011; Hamilton, 1964; Trivers, 1971; E. O. Wilson, 2000).

One of the theories supporting this hypothesis is *multilevel selection* (Darwin, 1871/2009; Williams, 1966), which suggests that some personality traits are of limited individual utility but are significantly important for the group. A group composed of courageous, understanding and loyal members, who are always willing to defend and work collaboratively toward collective goals rather than individual interests, is more likely to succeed when competing with another group under similar conditions for resources. Selfish and contentious individuals will not unite, and without unity, nothing can be accomplished (Darwin, 1871/2009). Group selection theory introduces the concept of multilevel selection, emphasizing the existence of *intragroup* and *intergroup* selection: within a group, individuals compete for resources and reproductive opportunities (intragroup). However, when competition between groups becomes imminent (intergroup), group members have no choice but to unite and compete as a whole, combining forces synergistically (Sober & Wilson, 2011). In this way, one of nature's most important forces is human cooperation, which can be harnessed for either construction or destruction (Haidt, 2012).

However, for reciprocal altruism to evolve, humans developed mechanisms to detect and avoid cheaters, focusing on five key cognitive abilities (Buss, 2019; Xia et al., 2023): (i) refined ability to recognize human faces (Axelrod & Hamilton, 1981; Wedekind, 2000; Wilmer, 2017); (ii) ability to remember interaction histories with different individuals (Buss, 2019; Klein, 2024); (iii) capacity to communicate one's own values to others, including advancements in language, emotional expressions, and non-verbal behaviors (Waal, 2005); (iv) ability to model others' values, identifying the resources they need to offer them appropriately (White & Burton, 2022; Wegrzyn et al., 2017); (v) capability to conceptualize the costs and benefits of resource exchanges (Cosmides & Tooby, 1989; 1992; Tramacere & Mafessoni, 2024). These abilities evolved to enhance the detection of cheaters—those who gain benefits without bearing the cost in social exchanges. Empirical evidence shows that humans are better at recognizing the faces of known cheaters compared to those of known cooperators (Keven, 2024; King et al., 2017; Kroneisen, 2023; Mealey et al., 1996).

Evolutionary psychology suggests that organisms unable to employ altruistic strategies for resource sharing and maximizing their ability to survive and leave descendants become vulnerable to two residual strategies: deceit or aggression – *cheater-hawk strategy* (Buss, 2019; Keven, 2024; King et al., 2017; Kroneisen, 2023; Zeigler-Hill & Young, 2024). Those who fail to develop group cooperation will inevitably resort to one of these strategies to access resources that are not directly available (Larsen & Buss, 2021; Melis & Raihani, 2023). Both deceit and aggression, including physical violence, are significant sources of social suffering, and humanity has been developing rules to control such behavior in societal contexts (Furnham et al., 2013; Paulhus, 2014).

The Manifestation of Psychopathy Traits in Evolutionary Psychology

Psychopathy is a multidimensional personality disorder that manifests as a constellation of socially undesirable behaviors, evident in the interpersonal, affective, and cognitive domains. It involves, among other factors, impulsivity, sensation seeking, lack of remorse, lack of empathy, manipulation, and social dominance (Alho et al., 2022; Hare, 2022; Lilienfeld, 2022; Rodríguez et al., 2018). The focus of the analysis of this construct considers that the manifestation of these

psychopathic personality traits is capable of producing social suffering, as they consist of enduring patterns of experience and behavior that markedly deviate from the norms and expectations of the individual's social group, leading to distress either for the person or for those around them (Farrington & Bergstrøm, 2022; Hare, 1999; Larsen & Buss, 2021).

Psychopathy can be understood as a particular personality pattern, as all definitions of psychopathic traits refer to personality traits. Of the 16 characteristics attributed to psychopathy by Cleckley (1941/1988), ten can be considered personality traits, while the remaining six refer to more specific behaviors or states influenced by personality dispositions—for example, inadequately motivated antisocial behavior, rarely attempted suicide, and an impersonal, trivial, and poorly integrated sex life. Science has been moving away from a taxonomic/typological view of the construct in favor of a dimensional perspective, encompassing its full multidimensionality as a spectrum. It is proposed that there is no strict division between 'psychopaths' and 'non-psychopaths,' but rather individuals who may exhibit greater or lesser degrees of personality traits associated with the construct (Nowakowski, 2022).

The perception of the psychopathy construct has followed controversial and stereotyped paths, with the term historically used to describe what are now understood to be distinct disorders, along a trajectory marked by changing and uncertain diagnostic labels (Hare, 2022). In the early 19th century, the work of Philippe Pinel introduced the term "mania without delirium" to describe patients who exhibited extremely violent behaviors but had a clear understanding of their actions (Pinel, 1801/1962). In the following decades, researchers such as Benjamin Rush (1812), James Cowles Prichard (1835), Julius Ludwig August Koch (1891), Henry Maudsley (1897), Richard von Krafft-Ebing (1904), and Emil Kraepelin (1915) published scientific works that deterministically linked the disorder to moral insanity, perversion, imbecility, moral depravity, personality defect, and criminal behavior (Arrigo & Shipley, 2001).

In 1941, Cleckley broke with this tradition by publishing The Mask of Sanity, in which he described individuals with psychopathic traits who are able to maintain an external appearance that makes them seem "normal" and functional to laypeople—including those with financially successful careers—sometimes even to the point of being admired personalities (Cleckley, 1941/1988; Mathieu, 2022). For the first time, the focus shifted away from criminality, introducing the idea that there are differences in the manifestation of traits, thus initiating a dimensional view of the construct. These hypotheses were later strengthened by the research of Robert Hare, who proposed a correlated two-factor model: Factor 1—Interpersonal/Affective, and Factor 2—Lifestyle/Antisocial (Hare, 2003).

Hare's two-factor theoretical model (Hare, 1991) describes traits and behaviors such as glibness, superficial charm, a grandiose sense of self-worth, pathological lying, deceitful/manipulative behavior, lack of remorse or guilt, shallow affect, callousness and lack of empathy, failure to accept responsibility for one's actions, need for stimulation, parasitic lifestyle, lack of realistic long-term goals, impulsivity and irresponsibility, poor behavioral controls, early behavioral problems, juvenile delinquency, and criminal versatility (Hare, 1999). Further research using Hare's psychometric instruments, such as the *Psychopathy Checklist-Revised* (PCL-R) (Hare, 1991), identified three latent classes within the construct. These classes respectively describe individuals with high psychopathy traits who (i) rely on manipulation and fraud, (ii) engage in aggression and physical force, and (iii) fit the definitions of antisocial personality disorder (Hare, 2020). Although Hare's theoretical model maintained a taxonomic view, he simultaneously provided empirical tools that supported Cleckley's earlier proposition that individuals who manifest these traits differ from one another and cannot be treated categorically—particularly by demonstrating that individuals who score high primarily on Factor 1 (interpersonal/affective) express their psychopathic personality traits differently from those who score high on Factor 2 (lifestyle/antisocial) (Mokros et al., 2015).

The two-factor theoretical model proposed by Levenson et al. (1995) describes the manifestation of psychopathy in terms of primary and secondary psychopathy. Primary psychopathy is characterized by traits such as selfishness, lack of empathy, manipulation, and an indifferent interpersonal style, whereas secondary psychopathy is marked by impulsivity, emotional instability, self-destructive behaviors, and high levels of anxiety and negative emotions. The *Levenson Self-Report Psychopathy Scale* (Anestis et al., 2017; Levenson et al., 1995; Rodríguez et al., 2018) was one of the first self-report instruments designed to assess psychopathy in non-institutionalized samples.

Evidence suggests that the construct of psychopathy should be addressed as a health issue rather than merely as a criminal or antisocial problem, in order to avoid scientific stereotypes and democratize research agendas (Tamatea, 2022). The manifestation of psychopathic traits is influenced by genetic, social, familial, neurobiological, cognitive, and environmental factors (Alho et al., 2022), with research highlighting that an individual may exhibit such traits in one environment but not in another (Ene et al., 2022; Krupp et al., 2013; Paulhus, 2014; Nowakowski, 2022). Environmental factors are considered significant in the analysis of psychopathic trait expression, as evidence indicates that individuals with a genetic predisposition to these traits will only develop them in disadvantaged environments (Alho et al., 2022), and that the development of these traits during

childhood is closely related to the environmental context in which the child is raised (Nentjes et al., 2022).

Considering that this constellation of socially undesirable personality traits does not fit within a fixed or exhaustive list and, due to its multidimensionality, may manifest in configurations that make linear comparisons between individuals difficult, future research must avoid the mistake of addressing the construct in isolation (Lilienfeld, 2022). The low correlations between psychometric instruments used to assess psychopathic traits are, in part, the result of a preference for describing these phenomena as behavioral deviations rather than as measurements of the core affective and interpersonal features of psychopathy (Sellbom et al., 2018). Advancing knowledge in this area requires a deeper exploration of the phenomenon, particularly through its subclinical manifestations, as empirical evidence suggests that psychopathic traits, symptoms, and behaviors may be adaptive for ensuring human and genetic survival (Buss, 2019; Del Giudice, 2014; Ene et al., 2022; Farrington & Bergstrøm, 2022; L. G. Glenn et al., 2011; Kowalski et al., 2021; McCuish et al., 2022; Silva et al., 2015).

The manifestation of psychopathy traits has been extensively studied in psychology over the past decades (Hare, 2022). However, recent scientific findings emphasizing the multidimensionality of this construct (Nowakowski, 2022), which correlate both genetic and biological factors as well as socio-environmental precursors (Alho et al., 2022), align closely with the theories and explanatory models of evolutionary psychology (Ene et al., 2022; L. G. Glenn et al., 2011). From the perspective of evolutionary psychology, psychopathy does not seem to meet the criteria for dysfunction in the biological sense (Barr & Quinsey, 2004; Crawford & Salmon, 2002; Jurjako, 2019; Krupp et al., 2012; Mealey, 1995; Zeigler-Hill & Young, 2024). Biologically, dysfunction is a scientific term referring to the failure of a mental mechanism to perform a natural function for which it was designed by evolution (Hunt & Jaeggi, 2022; Pullman et al., 2021). The hypothesis suggests that psychopathy may have evolved due to selective pressures and could, therefore, represent an evolutionary adaptation, especially when considering subclinical psychopathy. If psychopathy were a completely dysfunctional mechanism, it is unlikely that it would have been selected over the course of evolution (Krupp et al., 2013; Palmen et al., 2021).

One of the theories used to support this hypothesis is Life History Theory (Hertler et al., 2018). According to this theory, when organisms are in environments with limited resources, trade-offs are made. The effort to solve one adaptive problem excludes the effort to solve another adaptive problem (Ene et al., 2022; L. G. Glenn et al., 2011). The main trade-offs in Life History Theory are: (a) effort for continuous survival versus effort for reproduction, (b) parental effort versus mating effort, (c) quality versus quantity of offspring, and (d) future reproduction versus present reproduction (Del Giudice et al., 2015).

When an individual is in an environment with abundant resources, there is a perception of security and a psychological disposition toward long-term planning, primarily because their survival is not under immediate threat. This leads to the development of a long-term mating strategy, characterized by high cooperation and low risk, with significant investment in parental care. This approach is described as the "slow" Life History strategy (Buss, 2019; Hertler et al., 2018). Conversely, when resources are scarce, there is a perception of insecurity regarding the individual's survival. This uncertainty promotes a series of trade-offs in the allocation of energy to address evolutionary adaptive problems, leading to what is described as the "fast" Life History strategy (Figueredo et al., 2022). In such situations, there is less future-oriented planning, short-term mating efforts increase, risk-taking behaviors rise and self-control diminishes, often accompanied by a predisposition toward selfishness. Individuals exhibit lower levels of attachment, higher impulsivity, abandonment of cooperative relationships, and a preference for physical traits in mate selection (Buss, 2019; Del Giudice et al., 2015; Hertler et al., 2018).

This theory allows the allocation of organism strategies along a continuum from "slow" to "fast," capturing patterns initially described by the *r/K selection* models. *K-selection* is characterized by slow growth, delayed reproduction, and low fertility, while *r-selection* is characterized by rapid growth, early reproduction and high fertility (Del Giudice et al., 2015). Organisms that reach sexual maturity and reproduce early, produce many offspring and invest little in parental care exhibit a "fast" Life History strategy or *r-selection* on the *r/K continuum* (Pazhouhi et al., 2024). Conversely, organisms that develop more slowly, delay reproduction, have fewer offspring and invest heavily in parental care exhibit a "slow" Life History strategy or *K-selection* on the *r/K continuum* (Figueredo et al., 2014). This theory applies to all living organisms, including humans (Figueredo & Salmon, 2022).

Based on Life History Theory, researchers propose the hypothesis that the manifestation of psychopathic personality traits may represent an efficient evolutionary adaptive strategy (Del Giudice, 2014). This strategy allows individuals to access resources from others through deceit and aggression, referred to as the *cheater-hawk strategy* (Zeigler-Hill & Young, 2024), particularly in relationships influenced by frequency-dependent dynamics (Brazil et al., 2021; Buss, 2019; Ene et al., 2022; Farrington & Bergstrøm, 2022; L. G. Glenn et al., 2011; McCuish et al., 2022; Silva et al.,

2015). Individuals with psychopathic traits exploit others' reciprocity mechanisms, breaking social bonds or contracts without offering a reciprocal exchange.

The measurement of an individual's sociosexuality provides insight into which Life History strategy they are employing. From an evolutionary perspective, sociosexuality refers to an individual's tendency to pursue sexual experiences in a more casual manner, without necessarily involving deep emotional connections or formal commitments. This tendency is influenced by factors such as personality, culture and social context (Figueredo et al., 2012; Karinen et al., 2021). This concept is directly linked to an individual's reproductive strategy, as investing in a greater number of sexual partners maximizes the dissemination of their genes. Individuals with high levels of sociosexuality exhibit behaviors closely aligned with the "fast" Life History strategy or *r-selection* (Ene et al., 2022).

Scientific evidence suggests a positive correlation between sociosexuality and the manifestation of high psychopathic personality traits in individuals. Psychopathic men tend to become sexually active at an earlier age, engage with a larger number of sexual partners, father more illegitimate children and are more likely to abandon their wives (Rowe, 1995). They are also more prone to using sexual coercion and rape to gain sexual access to women (Lalumiere et al., 2005), employ physical aggression to acquire reproductively relevant resources (Brazil et al., 2021; Book & Quinsey, 2004; Pitchford, 2001), and exhibit an enhanced ability to identify exploitable victims (Buss & Duntley, 2008). Additionally, psychopathic individuals have a sharper memory for recalling vulnerable, sad and helpful women compared to non-psychopathic men (Book et al., 2007; Camilleri et al., 2010; K. Wilson et al., 2008).

Another analysis supporting the hypothesis that the manifestation of psychopathy traits may represent an efficient evolutionary adaptive strategy is the examination of behavior in relation to *inclusive fitness theory* (Hamilton, 1984). This theory holds that traits facilitating reproduction do not necessarily affect only the production of offspring, but also consider evolutionary advantages in taking the risk of protecting or defending genetic descendants (Larsen & Buss, 2021). An individual can increase the likelihood that their offspring will reach adulthood and reproduce not only by generating more children, but also through protective behaviors toward the children who have already been born. *Inclusive fitness theory* posits that those who provide greater protection to their offspring maximize the chances that they will reach reproductive maturity (Hamilton, 1984). This behavior is similar to *parental attachment theory* (Bowlby et al., 1979), which posits that attachment behaviors are biological mechanisms that promote proximity between infants and their caregivers, enhancing protection against predators and other risks (Simpson, 1999). Parental attachment is viewed as an evolutionary adaptation, given that human infants are highly dependent at birth (Fearon & Roisman, 2017). The emotional bond between parents and children helps ensure protection and nourishment, increasing the likelihood of survival and reproduction (Buss, 2019; Figueredo & Salmon, 2022). Empirical evidence indicates that secure parental attachment in childhood negatively correlates with the development of psychopathy and callous-unemotional behavior (Hertler et al., 2021; Hyde et al., 2016; McDonald et al., 2011). Individuals who exhibit high psychopathy traits tend to show low levels of parental attachment, suggesting a "fast" Life History strategy or *r-selection*.

According to Life History Theory, the absence of care for one's own children or parental care is compensated by having a greater number of offspring. Individuals who do not allocate resources, such as their own time, to care for and ensure the safety of their genetic descendants reduce the chances of these descendants reaching adulthood when compared to individuals who adopt this strategy (Larsen & Buss, 2021). To compensate, they choose to have a larger number of descendants, which suggests a "fast" Life History strategy or *r-selection*. As a direct result of this lack of parental involvement, behavioral variations directly linked to the reproduction of the offspring emerge. The meta-analysis conducted by Xu et al. (2018) suggests that parental absence is also associated with the early onset of sexual behavior, marriage and reproduction in both men and women.

However, it is noted that this strategy is effective only as a minority within a population, because as the expansion of other individuals employing these strategies is allowed, mechanisms for identifying cheating are enhanced in individuals who engage in altruistic and cooperative coalition behaviors, thereby weakening cheating strategies (Jurjako, 2019). In this way, the tendency for psychopathic traits to be effective as an adaptive evolutionary strategy is maximized in large societies or populations where relationships are potentially numerous and short-term, allowing the cheating mechanism not to be used twice on the same person. In smaller societies, this strategy is ineffective because the group will quickly identify the cheater and enforce punishment as a means of creating barriers to the emergence of new cheaters (Haidt, 2012).

Evolutionary psychology also presents two evolutionary models that support the hypothesis that psychopathy may be an evolutionary adaptation rather than a pathology (Ene et al., 2022): *the balancing selection model* and *the contingent shifts model* (Buss, 2019). *The balancing selection model* comprises two strategies associated with the manifestation of psychopathic traits, namely: (i) *frequency-dependent selection* and (ii) *the optimal level of a personality trait* (de Vries et al., 2016;

L. G. Glenn et al., 2011). *Frequency-dependent selection* suggests that psychopathic traits have been selected because they provide a fitness advantage in specific environments, provided the number of individuals employing this strategy remains relatively low. Individuals displaying psychopathic traits primarily rely on deceit to access necessary resources without committing to the reciprocal obligations of long-term relationships gained through cooperative alliances. At high frequencies, cheaters become easily detectable and are more likely to encounter other cheaters, which would undermine the effectiveness of this strategy (Brazil et al., 2019). *The optimal fitness level* emphasizes the importance of analyzing the benefits and costs associated with the manifestation of psychopathic traits. This analysis can provide evidence of adaptive evolutionary capacity, as in environments where benefits outweigh costs, there is a competitive advantage. In resource-scarce environments with a high population density, such as large-scale modern societies where many interactions between individuals may be one-off encounters, strategies involving deceit and manipulation prove to be efficient (L. G. Glenn et al., 2011).

The contingent shifts model, or *adaptive calibration model*, describes how various physical and psychological mechanisms exhibit flexible responses, reacting immediately to environmental changes or the specific characteristics of the environment. For instance, the immune system's ability to respond flexibly to a disease (Buss, 2019; L. G. Glenn et al., 2011). One mechanism that regulates this conditional evolutionary adaptability is the Stress Response System, which not only responds to immediate challenges but also uses environmental information to modify the individual's developmental trajectory, aligning with the local social and physical environmental conditions (Del Giudice et al., 2011; Ellis et al., 2013). According to Ellis & Del Giudice (2019), the Stress Response System (SRS) has three biological functions: (i) to coordinate the organism's allostatic response to physical and psychosocial challenges, (ii) to encode and filter environmental information, mediating the organism's openness to environmental inputs, and (iii) to regulate a range of life history traits and behaviors.

Organizational Environment and Psychopathy

"Not all psychopaths are in prison. Some are in the Boardrooms." – Robert Hare (Babiak et al., 2010)

The organizational environment features social dynamics arranged to maximize outcomes related to productivity, efficiency and quality. Organizations have adopted team-based designs to maximize the value of their human capital, gaining the flexibility to compose and reconfigure employee competencies in line with task demands. Consequently, they must develop mechanisms for mediating conflicts among the actors involved (Mathieu et al., 2017). Conflict is inherently inevitable in organizations due to the teamwork required for the full development of their activities. However, not all conflict is detrimental to organizational activities. When conflict is defined in terms of opposing interests, it is often confused with competition, the latter being intrinsically related to incompatible goals (Mathieu et al., 2018). The meta-analysis published by De Wit et al. (2012) identified that some types of conflict can be constructive, contributing to organizational success because their benefits outweigh their costs. Through these conflicts, conventional thinking is challenged, threats and opportunities are identified, and new solutions are forged (Mathieu, 2018; Tjosvold et al., 2014). However, some conflicts can result in significant causes of distress, social disruption and culturally maladaptive behaviors, primarily driven by manipulative, deceitful, impulsive, insensitive, authoritarian and irresponsible behaviors. These behaviors are characterized by disregard for norms and ethics, as well as a focus on the pursuit of power and status (Guenole, 2014; Harms et al., 2024).

Researchers such as Bennet and Robinson (2000) have investigated behaviors responsible for causing psychosocial harm and financial losses within organizations, categorizing these as workplace deviant behaviors. These deviant behaviors, also known as counterproductive behaviors, can be defined as any voluntary acts carried out by employees that harm or intend to harm the organization or the people working within it. Examples of such behaviors include theft, fraud, absenteeism, procrastination, substance abuse, retaliation, revenge, and sexual harassment, among others (Bennett et al., 2024; Mackey et al., 2019).

Another definition of workplace deviant behavior can be described as the actions of individuals or groups within an organization that constitute a voluntary violation of norms, guidelines, customs, or even regulations, with these deviations being either positive or negative (Sodré, 2018). The analysis of such behaviors identifies four categories of deviations: (i) *property deviations*, defined as serious behaviors causing harm to the organization, including intentional damage to organizational resources, misappropriation of assets, and accepting bribes (passive or active corruption); (ii) *production deviations*, described as less severe behaviors causing harm to the organization, such as resource wastage, intentional reduction of work output, or failure to comply with work schedules; (iii) *political deviations*, characterized as less severe behaviors against organizational members, placing them at a personal or political disadvantage; and (iv) *personal aggression*, defined as severe

negative, aggressive, or hostile behaviors against organizational members, including verbal abuse, moral harassment, and sexual harassment.

The two-factor model proposed by Bennet and Robinson (2000) considers actions aimed at harming the organization – Counterproductive Work Behavior – Organization (CWB-O) – and actions against individuals – Counterproductive Work Behavior –Interpersonal(CWB-I). However, recent scientific evidence supports the hypothesis that a three-factor model described as productivity, interpersonal, and violation successfully categorizes behaviors that negatively impact workplace dynamics in organizations within the Brazilian cultural context (Cortez et al., 2024). Results indicate that workplace deviant behavior has systemic correlations with criminal behaviors in organizations, which are not yet fully understood. These findings highlight the necessity of analyzing these phenomena jointly to advance scientific knowledge, particularly considering personality traits.

Further studies on deviant behavior in organizations, particularly through the manifestation of personality traits that cause social distress and injustice, provide evidence suggesting that the organizational environment is highly attractive for the development of psychopathic personality traits (Babiak & Hare, 2006; Fritzon et al., 2020; Mathieu, 2022). Researchers like Croom et al. (2021) identified statistically significant higher levels of psychopathic traits in business and organizational samples. Studies even correlate psychopathic personality traits with entrepreneurship. Primary psychopathy, associated with variations of normal personality traits, significantly correlates ($r = 0.21$; $p < 0.01$) with entrepreneurial skills, such as entrepreneurial awareness, creativity, opportunism, and vision (Akhtar et al., 2012). Certain traits comprising primary psychopathy, such as being insensitive, fearless, and seemingly charming, are positively related to business success, conflating these behavioral manifestations with a supposed cultural adaptation to competitive opportunities and innovation (Bronchain et al., 2020; Kranefeld, 2023; Silverio et al., 2023; Wallace et al., 2024).

Individuals with psychopathic traits may have a privileged relationship with corporate crimes or white-collar crimes (Boddy, 2009; Clarkson & Darjee, 2021; Collins & Schmidt, 1993; Mathieu, 2022), with descriptions of the evolutionary process of individuals exhibiting high psychopathic traits within companies (Babiak, 2016). These individuals are adept at gaining employment, and once in a position, organizational structures and criminal systems enable them to exploit others or commit corporate crimes without fear of facing consequences, making corporate crimes the "perfect crime" for these individuals (Laurijssen et al., 2024; Mathieu, 2022).

Personality traits such as boldness, fearlessness, and ruthlessness, manifested through sensation-seeking, high risk tolerance, emotional coldness and an absolute focus on results, often attract companies requiring strong leadership and guidance (Croom et al., 2021). Consequently, individuals with high psychopathic traits, such as emotional insensitivity, need for stimulation, lack of empathy and remorse, a willingness to lie and manipulate and a propensity for risk-taking (Babiak & Hare, 2006), may exhibit competitive advantages in organizational environments (Mathieu, 2022; Palmen et al., 2021). These advantages are particularly aligned with management theories, especially when instrumental rationalism surpasses the capacity for humanization within organizations, acquiring a technical and instrumental dimension (Cortez et al., 2019).

These principles, essential to organizations, describe the relationship between humans and nature, where the means to achieve predetermined ends and the application of technical rules prevail (Weber, 1930/2013). To achieve profit, organizations tend to produce excesses rooted in traditional maximalism, which not only leads to suffering but also destroys the internal and external environments of the company (Mozzato & Grybovski, 2013). Structurally, this instrumental aspect of formal rationality aligns with the productive demands of capitalism. By reducing humans and nature to mere variables in the calculation and technical assessment of success and profit (Balenciaga, 2008; Valle, 2017), organizations suppress emotional and psychological aspects as mechanisms for individual decision-making (Swedberg, 2014). By suppressing these aspects, individuals within social environments are subjected to an inability to balance rational and emotional aspects, both of which are indispensable for physical and mental health (Haidt, 2001).

When individuals are pressured to act while neglecting their emotions, the corporate environment promotes the selection of individuals capable of culturally adapting to these demands (Ene et al., 2022). The cultural basis of congruent norms exerts pressure that may elicit responses from adaptive capacities promoted by biological evolution. Here, the similarities between the manifestation of psychopathic personality traits and the roots of management theory stand out (Boddy, 2023): psychopathy is characterized primarily by the cognitive inability to combine emotional reasoning with behavior (Rodríguez et al., 2018), while classical management pursues instrumental rationalism, fostering rational decision-making processes at the organizational level that disregard the emotional aspects of stakeholders (Weber, 1930/2013). Decisions motivated by emotional aspects are considered less effective than purely rational decisions, as they fail to maximize profits and material outcomes (Valle, 2017).

This analogy suggests an explanation for the affinity between psychopathy and the essence of capitalism, as evidenced in scientific research (Arfeli & Gradella Junior, 2023; Balenciaga, 2008; Boddy et al., 2022; Spash, 2022). Babiak et al. (2010) identified a higher incidence of psychopathic

traits in the corporate environment: approximately 3.9% of managers scored over 30 points on the Psychopathy Checklist-Revised (Hare, 2003) in a sample of 203 managers and executives, compared to an estimated 1% in the general population. Boddy (2009; 2011) and Boddy et al. (2010) found that the higher the position in the corporate hierarchy, the greater the likelihood of encountering corporate psychopaths: 3.5% at the senior level versus 1% at the junior level. Moreover, the higher the organizational rank, the more likely individuals reported having interacted with someone displaying psychopathic traits (Boddy et al., 2010). Blickle et al. (2006) and Barnard (2008) found that fraudsters with high psychopathic traits exhibit low behavioral self-control, high hedonism and high narcissism, manifested primarily through highly refined interpersonal skills, such as the ability to persuade, flatter, embarrass, avoid, calm, and manipulate their victims during fraud schemes. In the corporate world, psychopathic behavior among senior employees, including bullying, manipulation and selfishness, can cascade throughout the organization, fostering a corporate culture that rewards such psychopathic behaviors (Boddy, 2011). Hare et al. (2012) highlighted that managers with high psychopathic traits scored highly on Factor 1 (Interpersonal/Affective) and low on Factor 2 (Lifestyle/Antisocial). While Factor 2 is largely associated with genetic factors, Factor 1 strongly correlates with environmental factors such as physical appearance, social skills and connections, intelligence, education, family and political ties, as well as financial and legal resources for protection.

Durand (2019b) developed and validated the *Durand Adaptive Psychopathic Traits Questionnaire* (DAPTQ) to measure adaptive psychopathic traits such as leadership, fearlessness, and creativity. Individuals scoring highly on this instrument are described using the term "successful psychopath," as they exhibit several essential psychopathic traits (e.g., lack of empathy, high dominance) but do not display generalized traits found in secondary psychopathy, such as aggressive behaviors. According to Lilienfeld et al. (2015), three explanatory models were developed to explain the behavior of the successful psychopath ("functional psychopath"). The first, *the differential severity model*, considers successful psychopathy to be a milder manifestation of psychopathic personality, differing only in intensity. The second, *the moderated expression model*, views successful psychopathy as an atypical manifestation of the psychopathic personality due to protective factors (e.g., resilience to stress or social charm) that moderate the effects of dysfunctional traits related to the construct. The third, *the differential configuration model*, conceptualizes the multidimensional aspect of psychopathy and the sharing of common traits that comprise both successful psychopathy (e.g., boldness and extroversion) and dysfunctional psychopathy (e.g., lack of empathy and impulsivity). Durand (2019a) defines the construct of adaptive psychopathic traits across nine dimensions: leadership, logical thinking, composure, creativity, fearlessness, financial intelligence, focus, extroversion, and management.

Successful psychopathy has been associated with factors such as fearlessness, stress immunity, leadership, pride, aversion to punishment during conflict and stable socioeconomic status (Wallace et al., 2024). These individuals may have been influenced by positive environmental factors, such as better education, higher socioeconomic status and access to a business network, enabling them to be selected by the corporate environment. They exploit weaknesses in communication, organizational systems and processes, interpersonal conflicts, and general stressors in the organizational environment, promoting fraud, abuse and conflicts (Babiak & Hare, 2006).

A process model has also been developed to identify at least five stages in the careers of corporate psychopaths: (i) *entry into the organization* – Psychopaths thrive by manipulating their self-image during admission interviews and lying on their CVs; (ii) *evaluation* – Psychopaths analyze the organization to identify those who can be manipulated, creating a network and image that they will use for future manipulations; (iii) *manipulation* – This stage involves generating conflicts and misinformation to advance their careers, exploiting their targets and publicly discrediting potential rivals; (iv) *confrontation* – Victims, upon discovering they are being manipulated, attempt to report to subordinates, but their reputations have already been tarnished and lack support; (v) *ascension* – Psychopaths eliminate competition and rise within the organizational hierarchy (Babiak, 2016). These strategies are primarily maximized through the rebalancing of empathy domains.

Empathy, crucial for human interaction, is a multidimensional construct with two core domains: (i) *cognitive*—the ability to understand and infer others' mental and emotional states, and (ii) *affective*—the capacity to adopt others' mental perspectives and feel their emotions (Campos et al., 2022; Cox et al., 2012). Psychopathy is associated with deficits in affective empathy, while individuals with psychopathic personality traits often retain intact cognitive empathy abilities (Dadds et al., 2009; Mullins-Nelson et al., 2015; Murphy & Lilienfeld, 2019). Although some evidence suggests that a lack of empathy may not be a core feature of psychopathy but rather a related or correlated phenomenon potentially moderated by other factors (Međedović et al., 2018), interpersonal and affective traits appear to emerge as the primary dimension for explaining affective empathy deficits, whereas impulsive and antisocial traits are less informative for distinguishing between cognitive and affective empathy (Campos et al., 2022).

Empathy deficits in groups with high levels of psychopathy were more pronounced in the affective domain compared to cognitive empathy, displaying a pattern of goal-directed attention that

leads them to ignore peripheral emotional cues and the suffering of others. This reduces their capacity to pause and process others' negative emotions—a fundamental step for empathy and the inhibition of violence (Campos et al., 2022; Rijnders et al., 2021). The dissociation between empathy domains highlights the emotion paradox: whether cognitive processing can compensate for affective empathy deficits in individuals with certain psychopathic traits (Campos et al., 2022), since affective and cognitive components may not integrate effectively, resulting in a lack of empathy and egocentric behavior (Rijnders et al., 2021). This gap between empathy domains may be mitigated through the development of cognitive empathy (recognizing another's feelings) as a means to compensate for the lack of affective empathy (feeling what the other feels), allowing individuals with high psychopathic traits to display emotions without genuinely experiencing them (Dadds et al., 2009).

While the dissociation between empathy domains is widely discussed, recent studies suggest that the behavioral dimension of empathy may serve as a compensatory or performative route in individuals with elevated psychopathic traits (Campos et al., 2022; Cheng et al., 2021). Behavioral empathy manifests through observable actions of care, support, or socially appropriate responses, even in the absence of genuine emotional resonance (Genzer et al., 2023; Vallete d'Osia & Meier, 2024). Individuals with impaired affective empathy but preserved cognitive empathy can simulate empathic behaviors as an adaptive or strategic mechanism, using their emotional recognition skills to generate positive—or manipulative—social impact depending on their goals (Kahhale et al., 2024; Openhaim et al., 2024). This highlights the instrumental use of empathy in corporate environments, particularly in the ascent of individuals who exhibit manipulative tendencies and lack remorse (Mathieu et al., 2013; Mathieu, 2022).

In parallel, compassionate empathy, which merges cognitive understanding of another's suffering with a sincere motivation to alleviate it, has been proposed as an ethical counterbalance to the split between empathy domains (Decety & Jackson, 2004; Decety & Jackson, 2006; Sinclair et al., 2016; Singer & Klimecki, 2014). Closely related is somatic empathy, which encompasses involuntary bodily responses—such as muscle tension or mimicry—to the emotional states of others, emphasizing the sensorimotor dimension of empathic experience (Chen et al., 2019; Levenson & Ruef, 1992; Preckel et al., 2018; Raine et al., 2022). These forms integrate with the dual-route model of empathy, a neuropsychological framework proposing that both fast, emotional (affective/somatic) and slow, deliberative (cognitive) pathways operate in tandem (Heyes, 2018; Yu & Chou, 2018). While this model explains the internal processing of empathy, behavioral empathy refers to the external expression of these processes through observable actions—such as helping, supporting, or manipulating others—and is shaped by the degree to which cognitive and affective components are integrated (Batchelder et al., 2017; Bensalah et al., 2016; Cameron et al., 2019; Vallete d'Osia & Meier, 2024). In individuals with psychopathic traits, behavioral empathy may emerge strategically from intact cognitive pathways, even in the absence of genuine emotional resonance (Campos et al., 2022; Dadds et al., 2009). Understanding these nuanced distinctions across empathy profiles is critical for distinguishing authentic prosocial behavior from calculated social manipulation in leadership and power structures (Rijnders et al., 2021).

Crucially, broader sociocultural and developmental factors—including trauma, poverty, and systemic violence—play a foundational role in shaping empathic capacities with direct implications for behavior in workplace settings (Larsen et al., 2025). As Santos et al. (2023) demonstrate in their study of children with neurodevelopmental conditions in impoverished and violent Brazilian contexts, empathy cannot be conceptualized solely as an individual trait or leadership competency. Instead, it must be understood within a matrix of early survival strategies, intergenerational adversity, and chronic social neglect. When individuals shaped by such environments enter organizational spaces, they may exhibit emotional detachment, hypervigilance, or reactive aggression—not as indicators of psychopathy, but as adaptive responses to prolonged exposure to threat and institutional failure. These individuals may also carry residual resentment or operate with guarded interpersonal scripts, which inhibit prosocial behaviors commonly expected in collaborative and emotionally intelligent work environments.

Thus, in organizational psychology, understanding empathy—especially its deficits, suppression, or strategic performance—requires bridging neuropsychological and socio-developmental frameworks (Cox et al., 2012; Decety & Jackson, 2004). What may superficially present as a lack of emotional engagement or manipulative behavior in professional contexts could, in fact, stem from deeper histories of social exclusion and adaptive distrust (Međedović et al., 2018). Recognizing this interplay between structural violence and workplace behavior enables more just and effective interventions, particularly in leadership development, conflict resolution, and occupational mental health (Vallete d'Osia & Meier, 2024). This broader perspective does not excuse harmful conduct, but reframes certain empathic impairments such as survivorship logic, calling for systemic responses that go beyond individual diagnostics to address the environmental conditions under which empathy can be cultivated—or foreclosed either (Heyes, 2018).

At this point, however, it becomes necessary to critically evaluate the explanatory limitations of simplified ethological and psychobiological models, which often seek to universalize behavioral tendencies through evolutionary narratives detached from sociocultural specificity. While

evolutionary psychology offers valuable insights into the adaptive nature of psychopathic traits, particularly in high-risk or resource-scarce environments, it risks becoming reductionist when it overlooks how historically situated institutions, normative pressures, and economic systems modulate the expression of these traits in organizational life (Cantor, 2001; Olding, 1985). Similarly, behavioral economics and classical work and organizational psychology often operate on oversimplified assumptions of rationality or fixed personality structures, ignoring how empathy, trust, or moral disengagement are dynamically shaped by institutional logics, power asymmetries, and cultural economies of affect (Zagaria et al., 2021).

To overcome such epistemological myopia, we propose a transdisciplinary integration grounded in Organizational Life History Theory (LHT-O). This framework embraces the foundational contributions of evolutionary psychology—acknowledging psychopathy as a potential fast life strategy under specific environmental contingencies (Ene et al., 2022; Hertler et al., 2018; Zeigler-Hill & Young, 2024)—while explicitly incorporating socio-institutional, developmental, and cultural mediations (DiMaggio & Powell, 2005; Edwards et al., 2024; Puente-Palacios et al., 2016; Pires et al., 2024). Although these domains often harbor ontological and methodological tensions, they can be articulated through a praxis-centered approach that foregrounds contextual adaptation, meaning-making, and structural determinants.

In this view, organizations are not merely neutral environments but selective ecologies that can amplify or suppress certain behavioral phenotypes, including those aligned with subclinical psychopathy—based on performance incentives, hierarchies, and regulatory climates (Morgan, 2011). The organizational context thus operates not only as a setting but as a co-evolving system, capable of shaping individual life history strategies in ways that blur the lines between adaptation, opportunism, and ethical erosion (Golden, 1992; Friedman & Olekalns, 2021). This lens enables a transition to a more structural analysis of corporate behavior and criminality, in which white-collar crimes are no longer treated as moral failures of isolated individuals, but as emergent phenomena within institutional ecosystems designed to reward instrumental rationality and strategic empathy suppression (Clarkson & Darjee, 2022; Clinard et al., 1979; Ribeiro et al., 2019).

Corporate Crimes and Criminal Organizations

The general folk psychology term for corporate crimes, 'white-collar crime,' was first used by Edwin Sutherland when he published a multidisciplinary sociological review aimed at integrating the perspective of economists, accustomed to business relations, with that of sociologists, experienced in criminology (Sutherland, 1940). The scientific contribution of this publication lay in its attempt to conceptualize crimes committed by individuals from high socioeconomic levels, who used their professional roles, such as executives or entrepreneurs, to facilitate their illicit acts by leveraging their status to conceal wrongdoing (Araujo et al., 2020). This definition’s introduction helped understand how significant social inequalities can produce social suffering, particularly as the State struggles to combat crimes committed by individuals from higher socioeconomic classes as efficiently as those perpetrated by the proletariat (Oliveira, 2019). The evolving science now defines white-collar crimes as illegal and unethical acts that violate fiduciary responsibilities and public trust, committed by an individual or organization, typically during legitimate occupational activities, by a person of high or respectable social status, for personal or organizational gain (Ribeiro et al., 2019).

The term "corporate crime" describes a specific type of white-collar crime occurring in a complex context involving diverse relationships among company directors, executives, managers of one or more businesses, economic groups, or subsidiaries (Clinard et al., 1979). These unlawful or anti-legal acts can be categorized into crimes committed for personal gain by individuals in professional roles and crimes committed by companies for the benefit of the organization itself, indirectly benefiting the responsible administrator (Kramer, 1984). Broadening the analysis of anti-legal corporate behavior, financial crimes can be divided into two categories: (i) *corporate crimes*, committed for the corporation’s benefit, and (ii) *occupational crimes*, committed against the corporation for the benefit of the perpetrator, encompassing not only crimes by the corporation but also crimes against it (Oliveira & Silveira, 2021). Another critical aspect relates to the intentionality of corporate crime – whether the crime results from corporate and managerial decisions or individual misconduct or negligence. Theories of organizational crime propose a division: (i) crime occurs when an organization encounters obstacles to legitimate opportunities for achieving its objectives, and (ii) crime occurs when illegitimate opportunities are available to organizational actors to achieve the organization’s goals (Kramer, 1984).

The term "financial crime" also describes complex forms of money laundering, using sophisticated legal arrangements to reintegrate proceeds from criminal activities into the financial system, benefiting the perpetrators. Although not exclusively reliant on corporate involvement, money laundering through businesses significantly increases the chances of impunity (Moro et al., 2019). Money laundering comprises a set of commercial or financial operations aiming to integrate illicit resources, goods and values into a country’s economy, either temporarily or permanently, effectively transforming funds from criminal activities into legitimate-looking money.

By definition, money laundering applies to financial resources of illicit origin, thereby necessarily presupposing that another crime occurred prior to the laundering process – the predicate offence (Moro et al., 2019). This strategy, designed to benefit from the proceeds of crimes, is employed by individuals involved in terrorism, drug trafficking, human trafficking, environmental crimes, corruption, armed robbery and a wide range of offences where unlawful conduct results in illicit financial gains (Vecchio & Manke Vieira, 2020). The organizational context and its legal structures that underpin corporate operations create a complex accounting environment which, by skirting the boundaries of legal frameworks, becomes an attractive setting for money laundering opportunities, particularly due to its high level of specialization or vertical integration. Consequently, there is a correlation whereby the more socially reprehensible the predicate crime committed, the greater the need for a money laundering structure capable of safeguarding the proceeds of the crime and ultimately maintaining the impunity of the perpetrators.

The justification for bringing this scope to light becomes significant when considering that corporate crimes involve a chain of agents, including the State (Oliveira & Silveira, 2021). One theory posits that criminal behavior within corporations transcends the product of human relationships and interactions in specific contexts, constituting a legitimate activity of the legal entity while transgressing laws in the interest of profit maximization. At the same time as they conceal illegalities, omit illicit profits, destroy evidence and corrupt state agents to prevent the application of laws, organizations create highly complex structures to transform the proceeds of these crimes into forms that can be reintegrated into the national financial system, facilitating money laundering (Oliveira, 2019). Global investigations into the role of complex offshore company structures located in tax havens highlight their facilitation of concealing corruption payments, which significantly contributes to the social costs of corruption, estimated at 5% of annual global GDP (O'Donovan et al., 2019). Notably, there is an increasing influence of businesses on democracy, encroaching upon the three spheres fundamental to functional democracy: the political sphere of decision-making, the public sphere of deliberation and the private sphere of citizen interests (Nyberg, 2021).

Corruption is also often associated with the concept of financial crimes, mainly because individuals engaging in such conduct typically rely on money laundering to utilize the resources obtained. The direct correlation between committing a crime and benefiting from its products is highly significant, discouraging criminal behavior when there is uncertainty about the ability to enjoy such benefits (Moro et al., 2019). This is further reinforced by research suggesting that the decision to commit a crime is based on evaluating the costs and benefits across five dimensions: (i) the effort required to commit the crime, (ii) the risks of being detected, (iii) the rewards associated with the crime, (iv) the conditions supporting the crime, and (v) the excuses offenders may use to justify their actions (Benson & Simpson, 2009). In general terms, corruption can be understood as the materialization of corporate strategies aimed at influencing regulatory environments by utilizing surplus capital accumulated through historical activities. This process erodes democratic processes and undermines public trust (Lacerda et al., 2019; Oliveira & Silveira, 2021).

Business organizations are structured entities oriented towards the objectives of producing goods and services, resulting in positive financial returns for their operators. The State organizes and defines the boundaries of these economic activities through legal frameworks, determining what is permitted and what is prohibited, primarily through the enactment of criminal laws and tax policies (Andrade, 2020). The boundaries distinguishing legal from illicit business activities are essentially the limits that the State, as legislator, is capable of imposing based on its perception of the population's social welfare (Medeiros & Silveira, 2017). Companies constantly push these legal boundaries, seeking to position themselves in highly profitable market niches, even attempting to influence the State to revise established legal limits, thereby expanding their operational reach (Oliveira, 2019). Researchers have highlighted that businesses are increasingly allocating financial resources to activities aimed at influencing public policies (Alzola, 2013), with the objective of creating competitive advantages in terms of direct corporate profits or securing favorable policy changes (Nyberg, 2021). These arguments warrant empirical consideration, as researchers have identified significant neglect by forensic psychology in studying white-collar crimes (Clarkson & Darjee, 2022).

Organizational Life History Theory

Haidt (2012) proposes innovative ways to understand the functioning of business organizations, drawing an analogy with the functioning of superorganisms, which aim, as basic principles, to survive and promote the synergy of their resources to ensure their survival. Morgan (2011) developed metaphors to deepen the understanding of organizations, including associating them with living organisms. This interdisciplinary perspective, partially guided by evolutionary psychology theories, also finds its foundation in General Systems Theory, which provides an analysis of the complexity of studied relationships, particularly based on the premise that *the whole is greater than the sum of its parts*—a concept derived from Gestalt (Von Bertalanffy, 1968). According to Von Bertalanffy (1968, 1972), if science knew all the parts that comprise a system and all the relationships among them, the system's behavior could be studied based on the behavior of its parts.

However, as there is a gap in this knowledge, it is essential to understand phenomena as open systems, i.e., systems that interact with each other and with their environments, to map correlations and describe phenomena in a way that creates multidimensional scientific perspectives.

One of the main purposes of General Systems Theory is to integrate individual branches of science, bringing us closer to the unity of science, particularly by observing the trend of integrating natural and social sciences (Bertalanffy, 1968). Initially developed in the biological sciences, General Systems Theory adapted to the social sciences, becoming one of the foundations for the development of the Systems Approach in Administration (Neves & Maciel, 2022; J. P. de Oliveira & Portela, 2006). These premises were used to develop theories such as the Theory of Complex Adaptive Systems (Lansing, 2003), which describes how systems composed of interconnected agents can adapt and evolve in response to environmental changes. Thus, organizations are analyzed as complex, open systems composed of subsystems that interact with each other and with the environment in which they operate to ensure their survival (Santos & Alvares, 2022). This includes drawing analogies between living systems (organisms) and organized systems (organizations), using concepts of ecology and sustainability within companies (Kuzma et al., 2017). Before systemic analysis, child psychologists studied children, sociologists studied families, administrators studied organizations, anthropologists studied societies, economists studied economies, and political scientists studied broad governmental structures (Hertler et al., 2018).

The Organizational Life History Theory (LHT-O) builds its premises on multidisciplinary approaches across various scientific fields, utilizing General Systems Theory and drawing from theoretical models in biology, psychology, social sciences and law. This systemic approach aims to uncover the complex ways in which the parts interrelate and mutually influence one another, particularly because, whatever personality may be, it is undoubtedly part of a system (Allport, 1961). This multidisciplinary perspective is supported by scientific research suggesting the need for greater balance between internal and ecological validity in applied psychology research. It has been noted that, due to low ecological validity, many studies are not adopted by professionals in real-world contexts (Banks et al., 2016; Fischer & Ashkenazi, 2024). Researchers propose increasing ecological validity—and, consequently, the likelihood of practical application—by involving professionals from diverse fields of expertise, thereby offering greater insights into the ecological deficiencies of research proposals.

Developing this multidisciplinary systemic analysis, the Organizational Life History Theory (LHT-O) seeks to explain the complex dynamics through which organizations impact the psychological aspects of their human resources. By considering organizations as open systems that resemble living organisms, the theory proposes analyzing them through the lens of Life History Theory (Hertler et al., 2018), which posits that organisms in resource-scarce environments make trade-offs in the effort allocated to solving adaptive evolutionary challenges. In essence, when placed in a high-stress and uncertain environment, an individual may focus all their energy on survival, temporarily abandoning any efforts not aligned with this immediate goal. Based on these arguments, the hypothesis is developed that organizations, as superorganisms, also allocate their resources analogously, influenced by the environment in which they operate. Life History Theory has been adopted to deepen knowledge in specific scientific fields, such as LHT-E (Life History Theory in Evolutionary Biology) and LHT-P (Life History Theory in Psychology) (Frankenhuis & Nettle, 2020; Silva Junior et al., 2024; Yang et al., 2024). This article proposes applying Life History Theory to the analysis of organizations (LHT-O).

The LHT-O (Organizational Life History Theory) posits that the analysis of constructs such as the manifestation of psychopathic traits and deviant workplace behavior must consider the characteristics of the environment in which the organization itself operates. Companies situated in environments with low competition, expanding markets to explore and significant barriers to entry—defined as "blue oceans" (Kim & Mauborgne, 2005)—can, by analogy, be considered environments with "low stress" and "resource abundance." These organizations would behave like organisms employing a "slow" life history strategy. This means the focus shifts away from prioritizing profit and immediate outcomes—that is, "survival." Instead, the focus turns towards long-term investment, much like organisms that adopt this strategy.

Conversely, companies operating in external environments without entry barriers, characterized by high competition and saturated markets—defined as "red oceans" (Kim & Mauborgne, 2005)—can, by analogy, be considered environments with "high stress" and "resource scarcity". These organizations would behave like organisms employing a "fast" life history strategy. This means prioritizing the allocation of resources exclusively for immediate survival, which, in the case of companies, translates to an exclusive focus on profit and operational results. Companies with these characteristics could, in theory, benefit from internal collaborators exhibiting high psychopathic traits.

The concept underpinning the Organizational Life History Theory (LHT-O) is *emergence* within organizations. This refers to the process by which individual characteristics, behaviors, or patterns combine and transform into collective or organizational phenomena. This process occurs when the qualities or actions of individuals within an organization coalesce to form patterns that are distinct

and more complex than the sum of their individual parts (Cortez & Zerbini, 2020). This process of emergence highlights the complexity arising from the dynamic nature that characterizes organizations at the micro, meso and macro levels. It refers to the transformation of micro-level phenomena into collective constructs (meso or macro levels) (Puente-Palacios et al., 2016). Behavior ceases to belong to individual members and becomes an element permeating all members, affecting organizational culture and climate. Complementing this, another concept supporting LHT-O is the theory of organizational isomorphism (DiMaggio & Powell, 1983). Organizations exhibit tendencies to converge their practices, structures and cultures due to pressures exerted by the environment in which they operate (DiMaggio & Powell, 2005). Also noteworthy is the Principal–Agent Theory, which provides additional support for LHT-O by presenting the conflicts between the interests of actors within the system (organization versus manager versus shareholders versus employees). These conflicts can activate psychopathic personality traits (Berle & Means, 1991/2017).

Organizations are components of the system in which individuals exhibiting psychopathic traits are embedded. It is essential to consider the active role companies play in selecting these individuals to join their workforce and the impact of the organizational environment on the development or activation of psychopathic personality traits (Debusscher et al., 2016). Certain traits associated with successful psychopathy, such as fearlessness and boldness, are positively correlated with performance in high-pressure environments (Wallace et al., 2024) and with competitiveness (Colangelo et al., 2023). By selectively recruiting individuals who exhibit strong psychopathic personality traits and subjecting them to high-stress situations, intense competition, and constant risk of dismissal, organizations may contribute to the creation of an organizational culture that actively fosters social suffering and a sense of injustice within the society in which they operate. This dynamic is particularly evident through the concepts of emergence within organizations and organizational isomorphism. It reaches extreme levels when considering that the capitalist model underlying our society associates with the idea that individuals who do not produce do not exist (Arfeli & Gradella Junior, 2023; Balenciaga, 2008). When an organization employing a "fast" Life History strategy places its employees under constant pressure to meet targets and avoid dismissal, it may promote the activation of psychopathic personality traits as a survival strategy for individuals.

In general, companies operating in external environments characterized by resource abundance, barriers to entry for new competitors (Azevedo et al., 2002), expanding markets, and low competition - essentially low-stress environments (Yunus & Sijabat, 2021) - are likely to allocate resources directly towards the well-being of their employees. This aligns with the "slow" Life History Theory and its negative correlation with the manifestation of psychopathic traits (Figueredo et al., 2006; A. L. Glenn & Raine, 2009; Jonason et al., 2010). However, companies operating in high-stress external environments marked by resource scarcity, high competitiveness, market saturation and an absence of entry barriers for new competitors may behave like organisms prioritizing survival. This corresponds to the "fast" Life History Theory and its positive correlation with the manifestation of psychopathic traits. As highlighted by Cortez and Pereira (forthcoming), the analysis of the interplay between individual and organizational characteristics should not overlook the active role of corporations in attracting individuals predisposed to manifesting subclinical psychopathic personality traits, particularly when these traits are desirable within the prevailing institutional cultural standards. Maung (2021) noted that systemic theories can facilitate understanding of how psychopathy is caused by capturing the dynamic and contingent ways in which various factors interact. This includes multifactorial causality and the complexity of psychopathic trait development, as well as the potential to develop interventions that are crucial for addressing the moral, legal and social challenges posed by psychopathy. The process proposed by LHT-O is presented in Figure 1.

At the micro level (individual), the activation of psychopathic personality traits may originate from genetic, social, family, neurobiological, cognitive and environmental factors. Through organizational isomorphism, these psychopathic personality traits can manifest as primary psychopathy traits, generally defined as successful psychopathy, or as secondary psychopathy traits, typically characterized as unsuccessful psychopathy. The process of organizational emergence facilitates the transformation of individual behavior, influencing organizational culture and climate. At the macro level (institutional), environmental factors demonstrate the ability to influence the activation of Organizational Fast Life History (LHT-O), as presented in Table 1.

To further substantiate this integrative approach, Figure 2 illustrates the systemic structure diagram proposed by Organizational Life History Theory (LHT-O), which highlights the dynamic interactions between individual dispositions, organizational cultures, and macrostructural forces. Rather than treating psychopathy as a static trait inherent to the individual, LHT-O reframes it as a contingent expression shaped by multilevel environmental pressures. The model is structured across three analytic levels—micro, meso, and macro—each representing a distinct but interdependent domain of influence.

Figure 1

Process proposed by LHT-O

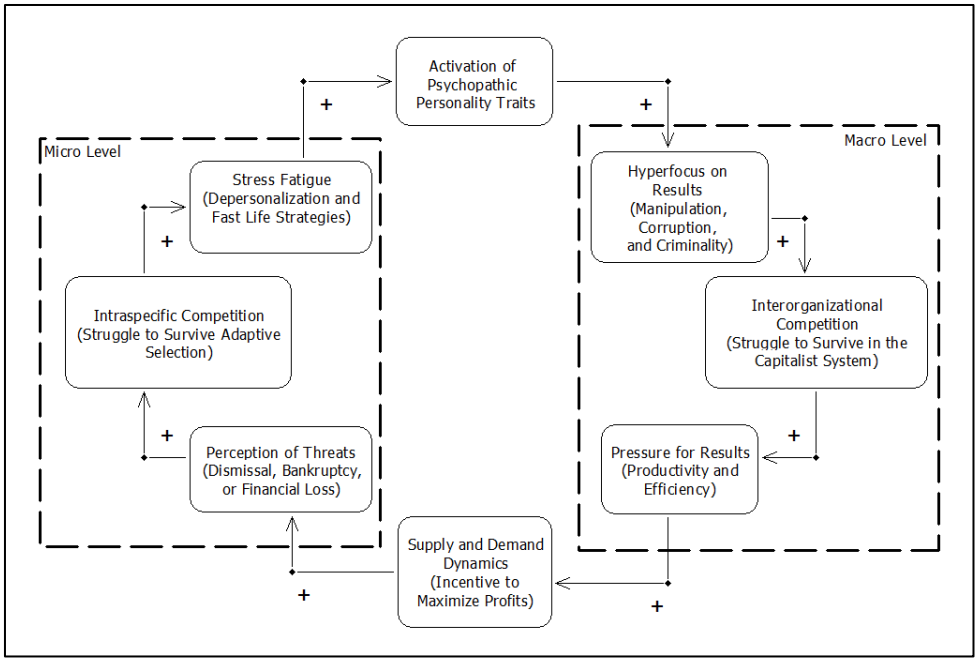
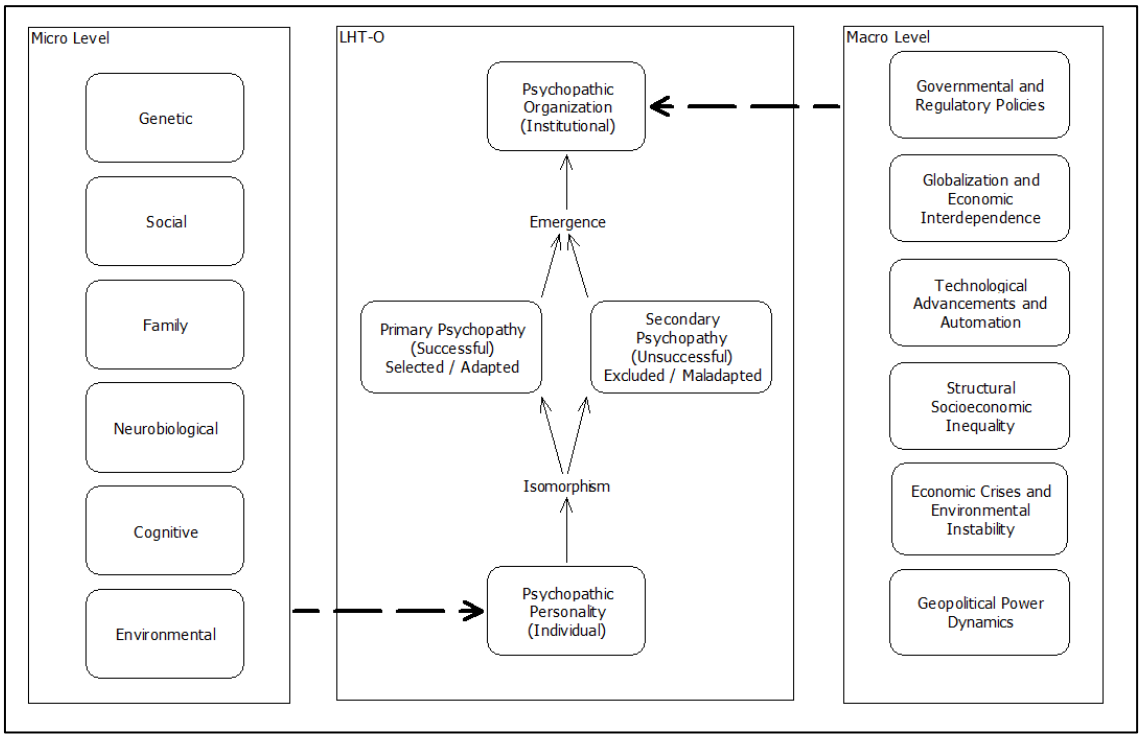


Figure 2

LHT-O structure diagram



At the micro level, psychopathic traits emerge from a complex interplay of genetic, social, family, neurobiological, cognitive, and environmental factors (Alho et al., 2022). These dimensions represent not fixed determinants, but dynamic variables that can predispose individuals to antisocial or emotionally dysregulated behaviors, particularly when embedded in adverse or unpredictable early environments (Ene et al., 2022; Krupp et al., 2013; Paulhus, 2014; Nowakowski, 2022). Importantly, such traits may remain latent or socially compensated unless activated by contextual stressors or institutional affordances (Nentjes et al., 2022).

Table 1. *Macro-level factors influencing organizations (LHT-O).*

v	Factors
Governmental and Regulatory Policies	Flexible labor legislation: Increases job precariousness and competition.
	Aggressive tax incentives: Favor organizations prioritizing profit over ethics.
	Lack of antitrust regulation: Enables monopolies and predatory practices.
Globalization and Economic Interdependence	Pressure for international competitiveness: Demands cost-cutting and extreme optimization.
	Business offshoring: Creates uncertainty and stress in local markets.
	Transnational cultural standards: Normalize aggressive behaviors as "efficient."
Technological Advances and Automation	Replacement of human labor: Intensifies intraspecific competition for qualified positions.
	Big Data and organizational surveillance: Facilitate manipulation of stakeholders and consumers.
	Pace of innovation: Requires constant adaptation, reinforcing traits like impulsiveness and unscrupulousness.
Structural Socioeconomic Inequality	Income concentration: Creates rigid hierarchies where upward mobility depends on exploitative behaviors.
	Unequal access to resources: Generates conflicts over opportunities (e.g., education, credit).
	Marginalization of groups: Encourages predatory competition among the most vulnerable.
Economic Crises and Instability	Recessions and inflation: Amplify perceptions of danger (e.g., mass unemployment).
	Financial speculation: Rewards risk-taking without ethical considerations.
	Boom and bust cycles: Normalize "survival of the most ruthless."
Consumer Culture and Social Values	Cult of individualism: Reduces cooperation and fosters rivalry.
	Valuation of material success: Associates psychopathic traits (e.g., excessive ambition) with "effective leadership."
	Normalization of exploitation: Justifies unethical practices as "market strategies."
Geopolitical Power Dynamics	Trade wars: Increase pressure for market domination.
	Economic colonialism: Exports predatory capitalist models to developing countries.
	Transnational corporate alliances: Create oligopolies that eliminate ethical competitors.

The meso level, represented at the center of the model, captures the organizational dynamics that modulate, select, or suppress these traits. Through a process of organizational isomorphism (DiMaggio & Powell, 2005), individuals whose psychological profiles align with institutional norms and reward structures—such as competitiveness, emotional detachment, or dominance—are selectively retained and even promoted. This selection process differentiates between what the model terms primary psychopathy (successful) and secondary psychopathy (unsuccessful) (Colangelo et al., 2023; Lilienfeld et al., 2015; Wallace et al., 2024). The primary psychopathy is socially adapted and instrumentalized within high-performance settings, while the secondary psychopathy is marginalized due to its overt 'maladaptiveness' and behavioral dysregulation (Levenson et al., 1995; Rodríguez et al., 2018). Over time, these selective processes give rise to emergent organizational phenomena, whereby individual traits are scaled up into institutional logics, norms, and cultures—leading, in some cases, to the formation of psychopathic organizations that operate with systemic disregard for ethical, emotional, or prosocial considerations (Cortez & Zerbini, 2020; Puente-Palacios et al., 2016).

The macro level contextualizes these organizational phenomena within broader structural conditions. These include deregulated labor markets, technological acceleration, economic inequality, geopolitical instability, and cultural ideologies of meritocracy and hyper-individualism (Ribeiro et al., 2019). Such environments function as stress-saturated ecologies that favor fast life strategies, characterized by short-termism, low investment in social bonds, and opportunistic exploitation of resources, including human capital (Babiak & Hare, 2006; Fritzon et al., 2020; Mathieu, 2022). In this sense, the macrostructure not only permits but incentivizes organizational climates that are more likely to activate psychopathic strategies for survival and dominance.

Thus, LHT-O advances a systemic ontology of psychopathy-in-context, bridging dispositional and structural accounts of deviant workplace behavior. It elucidates how individual traits, once viewed as pathological deviations, may in fact be institutionally produced, socially rewarded, and economically functional under specific organizational and societal configurations (Boddy, 2009; Clarkson & Darjee, 2021; Collins & Schmidt, 1993; Mathieu, 2022). This explanatory model enables a shift from pathologizing individuals to interrogating the environments that nurture and normalize their most adaptive—but ethically corrosive—traits. In doing so, it offers a powerful lens for rethinking not only corporate misconduct and white-collar crime, but also the latent pathologies of the systems in which they flourish.

Final Considerations

Psychology has increasingly focused on the study of personality traits responsible for social suffering, with psychopathy emerging as a central construct in contemporary debates. This article proposed the Organizational Life History Theory (LHT-O) as a transdisciplinary framework that integrates insights from evolutionary psychology, organizational studies, behavioral economics, and criminological sociology to understand how certain organizational ecologies foster or suppress subclinical psychopathy and deviant behaviors.

By linking macro-level institutional pressures, meso-level organizational cultures, and micro-level psychological traits, LHT-O provides a systemic perspective on how behavioral phenotypes emerge within specific environments. Organizations are not neutral arenas, but active ecologies that reward traits—such as emotional detachment, risk-seeking, and instrumental empathy—when survival and performance are prioritized over ethics and humanization. Importantly, this framework allows us to problematize the costs of psychopathy in organizational contexts, moving beyond the individual level to expose the structural, psychosocial, and financial consequences. These include toxic leadership cultures, normalization of unethical practices, impaired employee well-being, increased turnover, reputational damage, and economic losses related to fraud, corruption, and disengagement. In this sense, subclinical psychopathy represents not only an ethical and health issue, but also a significant organizational risk factor with measurable systemic impacts.

The reflection posed here—whether individuals with psychopathic traits infiltrate organizations, or whether organizations themselves cultivate and benefit from these traits—is reframed by the LHT-O as a false dichotomy. The theory suggests a mutually reinforcing relationship, wherein organizational environments shaped by high competitiveness, deregulation, and instrumental rationality may simultaneously attract, select, and reinforce behaviors aligned with fast life strategies and psychopathic phenotypes.

Ultimately, this article aims to contribute to a more integrated and ecologically valid understanding of deviant organizational behavior. By situating psychopathy within an evolutionary-organizational matrix, the LHT-O offers new directions for prevention, intervention, and policy regulation, particularly in leadership development, corporate governance, and occupational mental health. Future research should expand empirical applications of the model and deepen the analysis of contextual variables that shape the trajectory of personality expression within modern institutions and society.

References

Akhtar, R., Ahmetoglu, G., Chamorro-Premuzic, T. (2012). Greed is good? Assessing the relationship between entrepreneurship and subclinical psychopathy. *Personality and Individual Differences, 54*, 420-425. http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.paid.2012.10.013

Aktipis, A., de Aguiar, R., Flaherty, A., Iyer, P., Sonkoi, D., & Cronk, L. (2016) Cooperation in an uncertain world: for the maasai of east africa, need-based transfers outperform account-keeping in volatile environments. *Human Ecology, 44*, 353–364. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10745-016-9823-z

Alexander, R. D. (1987/2017). *The biology of moral systems* (1st Edition). Routledge. https://doi.org/10.4324/9780203700976

Allport, G. W. (1961) *Pattern and growth in personality*. Harvard University Press.

Alho, L., Paulino, M., Marques, P. B., & Meloy, J. R. (2022). The emergence and development of psychopathy. *Psycopathy and Criminal Behavior: Current Trends and Challenges* (1ª Ed, 17-42). *Academic Press.* https://doi.org/10.1016/B978-0-12-811419-3.00020-0

Alzola, M. (2013). Corporate Dystopia. *Business & Society, 52*(3), 388-426. https://doi:10.1177/0007650312474952

Andrade, R. C. O. L. de, (2020) Atuação empresarial ilícita, organização criminosa e o desenvolvimento econômico. *Revista Espaço Acadêmico, 19*(*221*), 50-65. https://periodicos.uem.br/ojs/index.php/EspacoAcademico/article/view/52608

Anestis, J. C., Green, B. A., Arnau, R. C., & Anestis, M. D. (2017). Psychopathic personality traits in the military: an examination of the levenson self-report psychopathy scales in a novel sample. *Assessment*, *26*(4), 670-683. https://doi.org/10.1177/1073191117719511

Araújo, J. G. N. de, Soeiro, T. de M., Matos, F. J. S. de, & Bautista, D. C. G. (2020). Jeitinho brasileiro, corrupção e contabilidade. *Revista Evidenciação Contábil & Finanças, 8*(2), 43–55. https://doi.org/10.22478/ufpb.2318-1001.2020v8n2.48165

Arfeli, G. F. M., & Gradella Júnior, O. (2023). Psicopatia como ideologia: um instrumento de manutenção da sociedade capitalista. *Revista Psicologia E Saúde*, *15*(1). https://doi.org/10.20435/pssa.v15i1.1831

Arrigo, B. A., & Shipley, S. (2001). The confusion over psychopathy (i): historical considerations. *International Journal of Offender Therapy and Comparative Criminology, 45*(3), 325-344. https://doi.org/10.1177/0306624X01453005

Ashton, M., Lee, K., & De-Vries, R. E. (2014). The HEXACO honesty-humility, agreeableness, and emotionality factors: a review of research and theory. *Personality and Social Psychology Review*, *18(*2), 139-52. https://doi.org/10.1177/1088868314523838

Axelrod, R., & Hamilton, W. (1981). The evolution of cooperation. *Science, 211*(4489), 1390–1396. https://doi.org/10.1126/science.7466396

Ayala, F. J., & Campbell, C. A. (1974). Frequency-dependent selection. *Annual Review of Ecology, Evolution, and Systematics, 5*. https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev.es.05.110174.000555

Azevedo, G. M. de, Silva, G. S. F. e, Carvalho, H. F., & Silva, J. F. da (2002) Dissuasão de entrada, teoria dos jogos e Michael Porter – convergências teóricas, diferenças e aplicações à administração estratégica. *Caderno de Pesquisas em Administração. 9*(3). http://www.cyta.com.ar/ta0204/v2n4a1/v2n4a1.htm

Babiak, P. (2016). Psychopathic manipulation at work. In C. B. Gacono (Ed.), *The clinical and forensic assessment of psychopathy: A practitioner's guide* (pp. 353–373) https://doi.org/10.4324/9781315764474

Babiak, P., & Hare, R. D., (2006) *Snakes in suits: when psychopaths go to work*. HarperCollins.

Babiak, P., Neumann, C. S., & e Hare, R. D. (2010). *Corporate psychopathy: talking the walk*. Wiley InterScience. https://doi.org/10.1002/bsl.925

Balenciaga, I. J. (2008). Psicopatía: pandemia de la modernidad. *Nómadas: Revista Crítica de Ciencias Sociales y Jurídicas, 19*. http://www.ucm.es/info/nomadas/19/ijbalenciaga.pdf

Banks, G. C., Pollack, J. M., Bochantin, J. E., Kirkman, B. L., Whelpley, C. E., & O´Boyle, E. H. (2016). Management's Science–Practice Gap: A Grand Challenge for All Stakeholders. *Academy of Management Journal, 59*(6). https://doi.org/10.5465/amj.2015.0728

Barnard, J. W. (2008). Securities fraud, recidivism, and deterrence. *Faculty Publications, 161*, 189–227. https://scholarship.law.wm.edu/facpubs/161

Barr, K. N., & Quinsey, V. L. (2004). Is psychopathy a pathology or a life strategy? Implications for social policy. In: C. Crawford, & C. Salmon (Eds.), *Evolutionary psychology, public policy, and personal decisions* (pp. 293–317). Psychology Press.

Bennett, R. J., & Robinson, S. L. (2000). Development of a measure of workplace deviance. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 85*(3), 349–360. https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.85.3.349

Bennett, R. J., Galperin, B. L., Wang, L., & Shukla, J. (2024). Norm-violating behavior in organizations: a comprehensive conceptual review and model of constructive and destructive norm-violating behavior. *Annual Review of Organizational Psychology and Organizational Behavior, 11*, 481-507. https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev-orgpsych-110721-043001

Benson, M. L., & Simpson, S. S. (2009/2018). *White collar crime: An opportunity perspective*. Routledge.

Berle, A. A., & Means, G. C. (1991/2017). *The modern corporation and private property*. Routledge. https://doi.org/10.4324/9781315133188

Bleidorn, W. (2024). Toward a theory of lifespan personality trait development. *Annual Review of Developmental Psychology, 6*(1), 455-478. https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev-devpsych-010923-101709

Bleidorn, W., Hill, P. L., Back, M. D., Denissen, J. J. A., Hennecke, M., Hopwood, C. J., Jokela, M., Kandler, C., Lucas, R. E., Luhmann, M., Orth, U., Wagner, J., Wrzus, C., Zimmermann, J., & Roberts, B. (2019). The policy relevance of personality traits. *American Psychologist, 74*(9), 1056–1067. https://doi.org/10.1037/amp0000503

Bleidorn, W., Schwaba, T., Zheng, A., Hopwood, C. J., Sosa, S. S., Roberts, B. W., & Briley, D. A. (2022). Personality stability and change: A meta-analysis of longitudinal studies. *Psychological Bulletin, 148*(7-8), 588–619. https://doi.org/10.1037/bul0000365

Blickle, G., Schlegel, A., Fassbender, P., & Klein, U. (2006), Some Personality Correlates of Business White-Collar Crime. *Applied Psychology*, *55*, 220-233. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1464-0597.2006.00226.x
Boddy, C. R. (2009). *Corporate psychopaths in Australian workplaces: their influence on organizational outcomes*. Curtin University of Technology: Perth, Western Australia. http://hdl.handle.net/20.500.11937/2594
Boddy, C. R. P., Ladyshewsky, R., & Galvin, P. (2010). Leaders without ethics in global business: Corporate psychopaths. *Journal of Public Affairs, 10*(3*), 121–138.* https://doi.org/10.1002/pa.352
Boddy, C. R. (2011). *Corporate psychopaths: Organizational destroyers*. Basingstoke: Palmgrave Macmillan. ISBN 978-0-230-28472-2. https://doi.org/10.1057/9780230307551
Boddy, C. R. (2023). Is the Only Rational Personality that of the Psychopath? Homo Economicus as The Most Serious Threat to Business Ethics Globally. *Humanistic Management Journal, 8*, 315–327. https://doi.org/10.1007/s41463-023-00150-y
Boddy, C. R., Taplin, R., Sheehy, B. and Murphy, B. (2022), Finding psychopaths in white-collar jobs: a review of the evidence and why it matters. *Society and Business Review, 17*(2), 217-235. https://doi.org/10.1108/SBR-05-2021-0060
Bonfá-Araújo, B., Machado, G. M., Lima-Costa, A. R., Otoni, F., Nadeem, M., & Jonason, P. K. (2025). Testing the distinction between sadism and psychopathy: A metanalysis. *Personality and Individual Differences, 235*. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.paid.2024.112973
Book, A. S., & Quinsey, V. L. (2004). Psychopaths: cheaters or warrior-hawks? *Personality and Individual Differences, 36*(1), 33–45. https://doi.org/10.1016/s0191-8869(03)00049-7
Book, A. S., Quinsey, V. L., & Langford, D. (2007). Psychopathy and the Perception of Affect and Vulnerability. *Criminal Justice and Behavior*, *34*(4), 531-544. https://doi.org/10.1177/0093854806293554
Bouchard, T.J., Loehlin, J.C. (2001). Genes, evolution, and personality. *Behavior Genetics, 31*, 243–273. https://doi.org/10.1023/A:1012294324713
Bourke, A. F. G. (2011). The validity and value of inclusive fitness theory. *Proceedings of the Royal Society B*. http://doi.org/10.1098/rspb.2011.1465
Bowlby, J. (1979). The Bowlby-Ainsworth attachment theory. *Behavioral and Brain Sciences, 2*(4), 637–638. http://doi.org/10.1017/S0140525X00064955
Bramoullé, Y., & Kranton, R. E. (2024). Altruism networks and economic relations. *Journal of Economic Behavior & Organization, 226*. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jebo.2024.106687
Batchelder, L., Brosnan, M., & Ashwin, C. (2017). The development and validation of the Empathy Components Questionnaire (ECQ). *PLoS ONE, 12*(1). https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0169185
Bensalah, L., Caillies, S., & Anduze, M. (2016). Links among cognitive empathy, theory of mind, and affective perspective taking by young children. *The Journal of Genetic Psychology, 177*(1), 17–31. https://doi.org/10.1080/00221325.2015.1106438
Brazil, K.J., Book, A.S., Volk, A.A. (2019). Evolutionary forensic psychology. In: T. Shackelford & V. Weekes-Shackelford (Eds), *Encyclopedia of Evolutionary Psychological Science*. Springer, Cham. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-319-16999-6_2842-1
Brazil, K. J., Dias, C. J., & Forth, A. E. (2021). Successful and selective exploitation in psychopathy: Convincing others and gaining trust. *Personality and Individual Differences, 170.* https://doi.org/10.1016/j.paid.2020.110394
Bronchain, J., Raynal, P., & Chabrol, H. (2020). Heterogeneity of adaptive features among psychopathy variants. *Personality Disorders: Theory, Research, and Treatment*, *11*(1), 63-68. https://psycnet.apa.org/buy/2019-58551-001
Buss, D. M. (2009). How Can Evolutionary Psychology Successfully Explain Personality and Individual Differences? *Perspectives on Psychological Science, 4*(4), 359–366. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1745-6924.2009.01138.x
Buss, D. (2019). *Evolutionary psychology: the new science of the mind* (6th Edition). Routledge.
Buss, D. M., & Duntley, J. D. (2008). Adaptations for exploitation. *Group Dynamics: Theory, Research, and Practice, 12*(1), 53–62. https://doi.org/10.1037/1089-2699.12.1.53
Cameron, C. D., Hutcherson, C. A., Ferguson, A. M., Scheffer, J. A., Hadjiandreou, E., & Inzlicht, M. (2019). Empathy is hard work: People choose to avoid empathy because of its cognitive costs. *Journal of Experimental Psychology: General, 148*(6), 962–976. https://doi.org/10.1037/xge0000595
Camilleri, J. A., Kuhlmeier, V. A., & Chu, J. Y. Y. (2010). Remembering helpers and hinderers depends on behavioral intentions of the agent and psychopathic characteristics of the observer. *Evolutionary Psychology, 8*(2), 303-316. https://doi.org/10.1177/147470491000800213
Campos, C., Pasion, R., Azeredo, A., Ramião, E., Mazer, P., Macedo, I., & Barbosa, F. (2022). Refining the link between psychopathy, antisocial behavior, and empathy: A meta-analytical approach across different conceptual frameworks. *Clinical Psychology Review, 94*(1). https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cpr.2022.102145
Cantor, C. H. (2001). Evolution, biological reductionism and closed minds. *British Journal of Psychiatry, 179*(4), 370-371. https://doi.org/10.1192/bjp.179.4.370-a
Chen, F. R., Fung, A. L. C., & Raine, A. (2019). The cognitive, affective, and somatic empathy scales (CASES): Cross-cultural replication and specificity to different forms of aggression and victimization. *Journal of Personality Assessment, 103*(1), 80–91. https://doi.org/10.1080/00223891.2019.1677246
Cheng, C., Guo, P., Yang, L., & Wang, M. (2021). A cognition-affective processing framework of psychopathy based on the triarchic model. *Advances in Psychological Science, 29*(9), 1628–1646. https://doi.org/10.3724/SP.J.1042.2021.01628
Clarkson, R., & Darjee, R. (2022). White-collar crime: a neglected area in forensic psychiatry? *Psychiatry, Psychology and Law*, *29*(6), 926–952. https://doi.org/10.1080/13218719.2021.1995522
Cleckley, H. M. (1941/1988) *The mask of sanity: an attempt to clarify some issues about the so-called psychopathy personality (5th ed.).* Mosby.
Clinard, M. B., Yeager, P. C, Brissette, J, Petrashek, D & Harries, E. (1979). *Illegal corporate behavior*. Washington: U. S.: Department of Justice. https://www.ncjrs.gov/pdffiles1/Digitization/57893NCJRS.pdf
Colangelo, J., Smith, A., Buadze, A., & Liebrenz, M. (2023). Beyond a Game: A Narrative Review of Psychopathic Traits in Sporting Environments. *Sports*, *11*(11), 228. https://doi.org/10.3390/sports11110228

Cortez, P. A., Miranda, J., & Pereira, R. (2024) Propriedades psicométricas da escala de comportamento desviante no trabalho - versão reduzida (WDS-SF). *Interamerican Journal of Forensic Psychology, 1*(1), 64-77. https://doi.org/10.35168/2966-3466.UTP.ijfp.Y.Vol1.N1.pp64-77

Cortez, P. A., & Pereira, R. P. (no prelo). Personalidade Sombria nas Organizações e no Trabalho. In B. Bonfá-Araujo, A. R. Lima-Costa, & R. P. Monteiro (Orgs.), *O lado sombrio da humanidade: Explorando a personalidade sombria e seu impacto na sociedade* (pp. prelo). Editora.

Cortez, P. A., & Zerbini, T. (2020). Fundamentos, aplicações e metodologias para a gestão baseada em evidências. In: A. Caetano, J. Neves, & J. M. C. Ferreira. (Org.). *Psicossociologia das Organizações - Fundamentos e Aplicações*. 1ed. Lisboa: Edições Sílabo, 625-650.

Cortez, P. A., Zerbini, T., & Veiga, H. M. da S. (2019) Práticas humanizadas de gestão de pessoas e organização do trabalho: para além do positivismo e do dataísmo. ENSAIO. *Trabalho, Educação e Saúde, 17*(3). https://doi.org/10.1590/1981-7746-sol00215

Cosmides, L., & Tooby, J. (1989). Evolutionary psychology and the generation of culture, part II. *Ethology and Sociobiology, 10*(1-3), 51–97. https://doi.org/10.1016/0162-3095(89)90013-7

Cosmides, L., & Tooby, J. (1992). Cognitive adaptations for social exchange. In J. H. Barkow, L. Cosmides, & J. Tooby (Eds.), *The adapted mind: Evolutionary psychology and the generation of culture,* 163–228. Oxford University Press. https://www.cep.ucsb.edu/wp-content/uploads/2023/05/Cogadapt.pdf

Costa, P. T., McCrae, R. R., & Löckenhoff, C. E. (2019). Personality across the life span. *Annual Review of Psychology, 70*, 423-448. https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev-psych-010418-103244

Collins, J. M., & Schmidt, F. L. (1993). Personality, integrity, and white collar crime: a construct valid study. *Personnnel Psychology, Inc.*, *46*(2). https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1744-6570.1993.tb00875.x

Cox, C. L., Uddin, L. Q., Di Martino, A., Castellanos, F. X., Milham, M. P., Kelly, C. (2012). The balance between feeling and knowing: affective and cognitive empathy are reflected in the brain's intrinsic functional dynamics. *Social Cognitive and Affective Neuroscience, 7*(6), 727–737. https://doi.org/10.1093/scan/nsr051

Crawford, C., & Salmon, C. (2002) Psychopathology or adaptation? genetic and evolutionary perspectives on individual differences and psychopathology. *Neuroendocrinology Letters Special Issue, 23*(4). https://www.nel.edu/userfiles/articlesnew/NEL231002R04.pdf

Croom, S., Fritzon, K., & Brooks, N. (2021). Personality differences and buyer-supplier relationships: Psychopathy in executives, gender differences and implications for future research. *Journal of Purchasing and Supply Management, 27*(4), 100721. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.pursup.2021.100721

Dadds, M. R., Hawes, D. J., Frost, A. D. J., Vassallo, S., Bunn, P., Hunter, K., & Merz, S. (2009). Learning to 'talk the talk': The relationship of psychopathic traits to deficits in empathy across childhood. *Journal of Child Psychology and Psychiatry, 50*(5), 599–606. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1469-7610.2008.02058.x

Dåderman, A. M., & Basinska, B. A. (2021). Evolutionary benefits of personality traits when facing workplace bullying. *Personality and Individual Differences, 177*. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.paid.2021.110849

Darwin, C. (1871/2009) *The descent of man and selection in relation to sex.* Volume 1. Cambridge University Press, New York. ISBN 978-1-108-00509-8.

Debusscher, J., Hofmans, J., & De Fruyt, F. (2016). Do personality states predict momentary task performance? The moderating role of personality variability. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology, 89*(2), 330-351. https://doi.org/10.1111/joop.12126

Decety, J., & Jackson, P. L. (2004). The functional architecture of human empathy. *Behavioral and Cognitive Neuroscience Reviews, 3*(2), 71-100. https://doi.org/10.1177/1534582304267187

Decety, J., & Jackson, P. L. (2006). A social-neuroscience perspective on empathy. *Current Directions in Psychological Science, 15*(2), 54–58. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.0963-7214.2006.00406.x

Del Giudice, M. (2014). An Evolutionary Life History Framework for Psychopathology. *Psychological Inquiry, 25*(3–4), 261–300. https://doi.org/10.1080/1047840X.2014.884918

Del Giudice, M., Ellis, B. J., & Shirtcliff, E. A. (2011) The adaptive calibration model of stress responsivity. *Neuroscience & Biobehavioral Reviews. 35*(7), 1562-1592. ISSN 0149-7634. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.neubiorev.2010.11.007

Del Giudice, M., Gangestad, S. W., & Kaplan, H. S. (2015). Life history theory and evolutionary psychology. In D. M. Buss (Ed.), *The handbook of evolutionary psychology – Vol 1*: Foundations (2nd ed.) (pp. 88-114). New York: Wiley. https://doi.org/10.1002/9781119125563.evpsych102

De Vries, R. E., Tybur, J. M., Pollet, T. V., & van Vugt, M. (2016). Evolution, situational affordances, and the HEXACO model of personality. *Evolution and Human Behavior, 37*(5), 407–421. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.evolhumbehav.2016.04.001

De Wit, F. R. C., Greer, L. L., & Jehn, K. A. (2012). The paradox of intragroup conflict: A meta-analysis. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 97*(2), 360–390. https://doi.org/10.1037/a0024844

DiMaggio, P. J., & Powell, W. W. (1983). The Iron Cage Revisited: Institutional Isomorphism and Collective Rationality in Organizational Fields. *American Sociological Review, 48*(2), 147-160. https://doi.org/10.2307/2095101

DiMaggio, P. J., & Powell, W. W. (2005). A gaiola de ferro revisitada: isomorfismo institucional e racionalidade coletiva nos campos organizacionais. *RAE - Revista de Administração de Empresas, 45*(2), 74-89. https://periodicos.fgv.br/rae/article/view/37123

Dubar, R. I. M., (2018). The anatomy of friendship. *Trends in Congnitive Sciences, 22*(1). https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tics.2017.10.004

Durand, G. (2019a). Incremental Validity of the Durand Adaptive Psychopathic Traits Questionnaire Above Self Report Psychopathy Measures in Community Samples. *Journal of Personality Assessment* , *101*(5). https://doi.org/10.1080/00223891.2018.1464456

Durand, G. (2019b). The Durand Adaptive Psychopathic Traits Questionnaire: Development and Validation. *Journal of Personality Assessment*, *101*(2). https://doi.org/10.1080/00223891.2017.1372443

Edwards, T., Coller Porta, X., & Rees, C. (2024). Difusión e isomorfismo en las organizaciones: El caso de las multinacionales. *Revista Española de Investigaciones Sociológicas, 86*(1), 79–94. https://doi.org/10.5477/cis/reis.86.79

Ellis, B. J., Del Giudice, M., & Shirtcliff, E. A. (2013). Beyond allostatic load: The stress response system as a mechanism of conditional adaptation. In T. P. Beauchaine & S. P. Hinshaw (Eds.), *Child and adolescent psychopathology* (2nd ed.) (pp. 251-284). New York: Wiley. https://marcodg.net/wp-content/uploads/2014/04/ellis_etal_2013_beyond_allostatic-load_chapter.pdf
Ellis, B. J., & Del Giudice, M. (2019) – Developmental adaptation to stress: an evolutionary perspective. *Annual Review of Psychology. 70*(1), 111-139. https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev-psych-122216-011732
Ene, I., Wong, K., & Salali, G. (2022). Is it good to be bad? An evolutionary analysis of the adaptive potential of psychopathic traits. *Evolutionary Human Sciences, 4*(37). https://doi.org/10.1017/ehs.2022.36
Farrington, D. P., Bergstrøm, H. (2022). The development of psychopathy through the lifespan and its relation to offending. *Psycopathy and Criminal Behavior: Current Trends and Challenges.* (1ª Ed, pp. 105-125). Academic Press. https://doi.org/10.1016/B978-0-12-811419-3.00014-5
Fearon, R. M. P., & Roisman, G. I. (2017). Attachment theory: progress and future directions. *Current Opinion in Psychology, 15*. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.copsyc.2017.03.002
Figueredo, A. J., Gladden, P. R., & Beck, C. J. A. (2012). Intimate partner violence and life history strategy. In T. K. Shackelford, & A. T. Goetz (eds), *The Oxford Handbook of Sexual Conflict in Humans*, Oxford Library of Psychology. Oxford Academic. https://doi.org/10.1093/oxfordhb/9780195396706.013.0005
Figueredo, A. J., Vasquez, G., Brumbach, B. H., Schneider, S. M. R., Sefcek, J. A., Tal, I. R., Hill, D., Wenner, C. J., & Jacobs, W. J. (2006) Consilience and life history theory: From genes to brain to reproductive strategy. *Developmental Review, 26*(2), 243−275. ISSN 0273-2297. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.dr.2006.02.002
Figueredo, A. J., Wolf, P. S. A., Olderbak, S. G., Gladden, P. R., Fernandes, H. B. F., Wenner, C., Hill, D., Andrzejczak, D. J., Sisco, M. M., Jacobs, W. J., Hohman, Z. J., Sefcek, J. A., Kruger, D., Howrigan, D. P., MacDonald, K., & Rushton, J. P. (2014). The psychometric assessment of human life history strategy: A meta-analytic construct validation. *Evolutionary Behavioral Sciences, 8*(3), 148–185. https://doi.org/10.1037/h0099837
Figueredo, A. J., & Salmon, C. A. (2022). Individual Differences in Sexual Psychology. In T. K. Shackelford (Ed.), *The Cambridge Handbook of Evolutionary Perspectives on Sexual Psychology* (pp. 390–413). chapter, Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
Fisher, R., & Ashkenazi, T. (2024). Sobre a necessidade de mais equilíbrio entre validade interna e ecológica na pesquisa em psicologia aplicada. *Interamerican Journal of Forensic Psychology, 1*(1), 90-94. https://seer.utp.br/index.php/IJFP/article/view/e202405
Frankenhuis, W. E., & Nettle, D. (2020). Current debates in human life history research. *Evolution and Human Behavior, 41*(6). https://doi.org/10.1016/j.evolhumbehav.2020.09.005
Friedman, R., & Olekalns, M. (2021). From shared climate to personal ecosystems: Why some people create unique environments. *Organizational Psychology Review, 11*(4), 365–389. https://doi.org/10.1177/20413866211013415
Fritzon, K., Brooks, N., & Croom, S. (2020) *Corporate psychopathy: investigating destructive personalities in the workplace*. Ed. Palgrave Macmillan. ISBN 978-3-030-27187-9 https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-030-27188-6
Furnham, A., Richards, S. C., & Paulhus, D. L. (2013). The dark triad of personality: a 10 years review. *Social and Personality Psychology Compass, 7*(3), 199-216. https://doi.org/10.1111/spc3.12018
Gangestad, S. W., & Thornhill, R. (2008). Human oestrus. *Biological Sciences, 275*, 991–1000. https://doi.org/10.1098/rspb.2007.1425
Garland Jr, T., Downs, C. J., & Ives, A. R. (2021). Trade-offs (and constraints) in organismal biology. *Physiological and Biochemical Zoology, 95*(1). https://doi.org/10.1086/717897
Ge, Z., Zhang, Z., Lü, L., Zhou, T., & Xi, N. (2012) How altruism works: An evolutionary model of supply networks. *Physica A: Statistical Mechanics and its Applications, 391*(3), 647-655. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.physa.2011.08.063
Genzer, S., Ben Adiva, Y., & Perry, A. (2023). *Empathy: From perception to understanding and feeling others' emotions*. Cambridge University Press. https://doi.org/10.1017/9781009281072
Gilbert, R., Nichola, R., Redouan, B., Manrique, H. M., Andrea, F., Flóra, S., & Barclay, P. (2021). The benefits of being seen to help others: indirect reciprocity and reputation-based partner choice. *Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society Biological Sciences, 376*. http://doi.org/10.1098/rstb.2020.0290
Gintis, H., Smith, E., & Bowles, S. (2001). Costly signaling and cooperation. *Journal of Theoretical Biology, 213*, 103–119. https://doi.org/10.1006/jtbi.2001.2406
Glowacki, L., & Lew-Levy, S. (2022). How small-scale societies achieve large-scale cooperation. *Current Opinion in Psychology, 44*, 44-48. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.copsyc.2021.08.026
Glenn, A. L., & Raine, A. (2009) Psychopathy and instrumental aggression: Evolutionary, neurobiological, and legal perspectives. *International Journal of Law and Psychiatry. 32*(4), 253-258, ISSN 0160-2527. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijlp.2009.04.002
Glenn, L. G., Kurzban, R., & Raine, A. (2011) Evolutionary theory and psychopathy. *Aggression and Violent Behavior*, *16*(5), 371-380. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.avb.2011.03.009
Golden, K. (1992). The individual and organizational culture: Strategies for action in highly-ordered contexts. *Journal of Management Studies, 29*(1), 1–21. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-6486.1992.tb00649.x
Grafen, A. (1990). Biological signals as handicaps. *Journal of Theoretical Biology, 144*, 517–546. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0022-5193(05)80088-8
Graham, E. K., & Lachman, M. E. (2014). Personality traits, facets and cognitive performance: Age differences in their relations. *Personality and Individual Differences, 59,* 89–95. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.paid.2013.11.011
Guan, K., Chen, Y., Zheng, W., Zeng, L., & Ye, H. (2022). Costly signals can facilitate cooperation and punishment in the prisoner's dilemma. *Physica A: Statistical Mechanics and its Applications, 605*. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.physa.2022.127997
Guenole, N. (2014). Maladaptive personality at work: exploring the darkness. *Industrial and Organizational Psychology, 7*(1), 85–97. https://doi.org/10.1111/iops.12114
Haidt, J. (2001). The emotional dog and its rational tail: A social intuitionist approach to moral judgment. *Psychological Review*, *108*(4), 814–834. https://doi.org/10.1037/0033-295x.108.4.814

Haidt, J. (2012). *The righteous mind: Why good people are divided by politics and religion.* Pantheon/Random House.
Hamilton, W. D. (1964). The genetical evolution of social behaviour. I. *Journal of Theoretical Biology, 7*(1), 1–16. https://doi.org/10.1016/0022-5193(64)90038-4
Hare, R. D. (1991). Psychopathy Checklist—Revised [Database record]. APA PsycTests. https://doi.org/10.1037/t01167-000
Hare, R. D. (1999). *Without conscience: The disturbing world of the psychopaths among us*. The Guilford Press.
Hare, R. D. (2003). The Hare Psychopathy Checklist-Revised (PCL-R) (2nd ed.). Toronto, Ontario, Canada: Multi-Health Systems.
Hare, R. D. (2020). The PCL-R assessment of psychopathy. In A. R. Felthous & H. Saß. (Eds) *The Wiley International Handbook on Psychopathic Disorders and the Law,* 63–106. Ed. John Wiley & Sons Ltd. https://doi.org/10.1002/9781119159322.ch4
Hare, R. D. (2022). Foreword. *Psycopathy and Criminal Behavior: Current Trends and Challenges.* (1ª Ed, xxix-xxxv). Academic Press. https://doi.org/10.1016/B978-0-12-811419-3.00008-X
Hare, R. D., Neumann, C. S., & Widiger, T. A. (2012). Psychopathy. In T. A. Widiger (Ed.), *The Oxford handbook of personality disorders* (pp. 478–504). Oxford University Press. https://doi.org/10.1093/oxfordhb/9780199735013.013.0022
Harms, P. D., Landay, K., & Fezzey, T. (2024). *Explorations of the Shadow Realm: Examining the Role of Dark Personality in the Workplace*. In Oxford University Press.
Henrich, J., & Muthukrishna, M. (2021). The origins and psychology of human cooperation. *Annual Review of Psychology, 72*, 207-240. https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev-psych-081920-042106
Hertler, S. C., Figueredo, A. J., Peñaherrera-Aguirre, M., Fernandes, H. B. F., Menie, M. A. W. of. (2018) *Life history evolution: a biological meta-theory for the social sciences*. 1st Edition. Palgrave MacMillan Cham. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-319-90125-1
Hertler, S., Cabeza de Baca, T., Peñaherrera-Aguirre, M., Fernandes, H. B. F., & Figueredo, A. J. (2021). Life History Evolution Forms the Foundation of the Adverse Childhood Experience Pyramid. *Evolutionary Psychological Science, 8*, 89–104. https://doi.org/10.1007/s40806-021-00299-5
Heyes, C. (2018). Empathy is not in our genes. *Neuroscience & Biobehavioral Reviews, 95,* 499-507. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.neubiorev.2018.11.001
Hunt, A. D., & Jaeggi, A. V. (2022). Specialised minds: extending adaptive explanations of personality to the evolution of psychopathology. *Evolutionary Human Sciences*, *4*(26). https://doi.org/10.1017/ehs.2022.23
Hyde, L. W., Waller, R., Trentacosta, C. J., Shaw, D. S., Neiderhiser, J. M., Ganiban, J. M., Reiss, D., & Leve, L. D. (2016). Heritable and nonheritable pathways to callous-unemotional behaviors. *American Journal of Psychiatry, 173*(9), 903–910. https://doi.org/10.1176/appi.ajp.2016.15111381
Jonason, P. K., Koenig, B. L., & Tost, J. (2010). Living a Fast Life. *Human Nature, 21*(4), 428–442. https://doi.org/10.1007/s12110-010-9102-4
Jurjako, M. (2019). Is psychopathy a harmful dysfunction? *Biology and Philosophy, 34*(1), 1–23. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10539-018- 9668- 5
Kahhale, I., Hanson, J. L., Raine, A., et al. (2024). Associations between subtypes of empathy and aggression in high-risk adolescents. *Journal of Psychopathology and Behavioral Assessment, 46*, 62–75. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10862-023-10112-1
Karinen, A. K., Tybur, J. M., & de Vries, R. E. (2021). The disgust traits: self–other agreement in pathogen, sexual, and moral disgust sensitivity and their independence from HEXACO personality. *Emotion, 23*(1), 75–86. https://doi.org/10.1037/emo0000795
Keven, N. (2024). Can episodic memory deter cheating and promote altruism?. *Synthese, 203*(132). https://doi.org/10.1007/s11229-024-04560-9
Kim, W. C., & Mauborgne, R. (2005). *Blue ocean strategy: How to create uncontested market space and make the competition irrelevant* (1ª ed.). Harvard Business School Press.
King, A. J., Kosfeld, M., Dall, S. R. X., Greiner, B., Kameda, T., Khalmetski, K., Leininger, W., Wedekind, C., & Winterhalder, B. (2017). Exploitative Strategies. In L.A. Giraldeau, P. Heeb, & M. Kosfeld (Eds), *Investors and Exploiters in Ecology and Economics: Principles and Applications*. Ed. Cambridge. MIT Press. https://doi.org/10.7551/mitpress/9780262036122.003.0012
Klein, S. B. (2024). Consider the source: an examination of the effects of externally and internally generated content on memory. *Psychology of Consciousness: Theory, Research, and Practice, 11*(3), 311–323. https://doi.org/10.1037/cns0000339
Kowalski, C. M., Rogoza, R., Saklofske, D. H., & Schermer, J. A. (2021). Dark triads, tetrads, tents, and cores: why navigate (research) the jungle of dark personality models without a compass (criterion)?. *Acta Psychologica, 221*. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.actpsy.2021.103455
Kramer, R. C. (1984). Corporate criminality: the development of an idea. In E. Hochstedler (Ed), *Corporation as Criminal* (pp. 13-37). Beverly Hills: Sage Publications.
Kranefeld, I. (2023). Psychopathy in positions of power: The moderating role of position power in the relation between psychopathic meanness and leadership outcomes. *Personality and Individual Differences, 200*. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.paid.2022.111916
Kroneisen, M. (2023). Context matters: The influence of the social situation on source memory. *Culture and Evolution, 20*(1), 111-123. https://doi.org/10.1556/2055.2023.00039
Krupp, D. B., Sewall, L. A., Lalumière, M. L., Sherif, C., & Harris, G. T. (2012). Nepotistic patterns of violent psychopathy: Evidence for adaptation? *Frontiers in Psychology*, *3*. https://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2012.00305.
Krupp, D. B., Sewall, L. A., Lalumière, M. L., Sheriff, C., & Harris, G. T. (2013) Psychopathy, adaptation and disorder. *Frontiers in Psychology, 4*(1). https://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2013.00139
Kuzma, E. L., Doliveira, S. L. D., & Silva, A. Q. (2017) Competências para a sustentabilidade organizacional: uma revisão sistemática. *Cadernos EBAPE BR, 15*(spe), 428-444. https://doi.org/10.1590/1679-395160726

Lacerda, L. P. de, Motta, R. G., & Santos, N. M. B. F. dos. (2019) Uma análise do crime corporativo de corrupção a partir da teoria dos custos de transação. *Revista Pensamento & Realidade, 34*(3), 78-91. https://doi.org/10.23925/2237-4418.2019v34i3p78-91

Lalumiere, M. L., Harris, G. T., Quinsey, V. L., & Rice, M. E. (2005). *The causes of rape: Understanding individual differences in male propensity for sexual aggression*. Washington, DC: American Psychological Association. https://doi.org/10.1037/10961-000

Lansing, J. S. (2003). Complex adaptive systems. *Annual Review of Antropology, 32*. https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev.anthro.32.061002.093440

Larsen, R. J., & Buss, D. M. (2021) *Personality psychology: domains of knowledge about human nature*. McGraw Hill. 7th Ed. ISBN 978-1-260-57042-7

Larsen, R. R., McLaren, S. A., Griffiths, S., & Jalava, J. (2025). Do psychopathic persons lack empathy? An exploratory systematic review of empathy assessment and emotion recognition studies in Psychopathy Checklist samples. *Psychology, Public Policy, and Law, 31*(2), 115–133. https://doi.org/10.1037/law0000435

Laurijssen, L. M., Wisse, B., Sanders, S., & Sleebos, E. (2024). How to Neutralize Primary Psychopathic Leaders' Damaging Impact: Rules, Sanctions, and Transparency. *Journal of Business Ethics, 189*, 365–383. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10551-022-05303-x

LeBreton, J. M., Shiverdecker, L. K., & Grimaldi, E. M. (2018). The dark triad and workplace behavior. *Annual Review of Organizational Psychology and Organizational Behavior, 5*(1), 387–414. https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev-orgpsych-032117-104451

Levenson, M. R., Kiehl, K. A., & Fitzpatrick, C. M. (1995). Assessing psychopathic attributes in a noninstitutionalized population. *Journal of personality and social psychology*, *68*(1), 151–158. https://doi.org/10.1037//0022-3514.68.1.151

Levenson, R. W., & Ruef, A. M. (1992). Empathy: A physiological substrate. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 63*(2), 234–246. https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-3514.63.2.234

Lilienfeld, S. O. (2022). Afterword—psychopathy: key unresolved questions. *Psycopathy and Criminal Behavior: Current Trends and Challenges* (1ª Ed, 483-489). Editora Academic Press. https://doi.org/10.1016/B978-0-12-811419-3.00004-2

Lilienfeld, S. O., Watts, A. L., & Smith, S. F. (2015). Successful psychopathy: A scientific status report. *Current Directions in Psychological Science, 24*, 298–303. http://doi.org/10.1177/0963721415580297

Liu, Y., Zhou, B., Ouyang, Y., Yang, B., & Xie, Q. (2023). Development and validation of chinese form sort dark tetrad (C-SD4). *Heliyon, 9*(1), https://doi.org/10.1016/j.heliyon.2023.e12929

Luo, J., Zhang, B., Cao, M., & Roberts, B. W. (2023). The Stressful Personality: A Meta-Analytical Review of the Relation Between Personality and Stress. *Personality and Social Psychology Review*, *27*(2), 128-194. https://doi.org/10.1177/10888683221104002

Lynam, D. R., Miller, J. D., & Derefinko, K. J. (2018). Psychopathy and personality: An articulation of the benefits of a trait-based approach. In C. Patrick (Ed.), *Handbook of psychopathy* (pp. 259–280). New York, NY: Guildford Press.

Mackey, J. D., McAllister, C. P., Ellen, B. P., & Carson, J. E. (2019). A meta-analysis of interpersonal and organizational workplace deviance research. *Journal of Management, 47*(3), 597-622. https://doi.org/10.1177/0149206319862612

Mathieu, C., Hare, R. D., Jones, D. N., Babiak, P., & Neumann, C. S. (2013). Factor structure of the B-Scan 360: A measure of corporate psychopathy. *Psychological Assessment, 25*(1), 288–293. https://doi.org/10.1037/a0029262

Mathieu, C. (2022). Psychopathy and corporate crime. *Psycopathy and Criminal Behavior: Current Trends and Challenges (1ª Ed, 403-421). Academic Press*. https://doi.org/10.1016/B978-0-12-811419-3.00010-8

Mathieu, J. E., Gallagher, P. T., Domingo, M. A., & Klock, E. A. (2018). Embracing Complexity: Reviewing the Past Decade of Team Effectiveness Research. *Annual Review of Organizational Psychology and Organizational Behavior, 6*(1). https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev-orgpsych-012218-015106

Mathieu, J. E., Hollenbeck, J. R., van Knippenberg, D., & Ilgen, D. R. (2017). A century of work teams in the Journal of Applied Psychology. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 102*(3), 452–467. https://doi.org/10.1037/apl0000128

Maung, H. H. (2021) Psychopathic personalities and developmental systems. *Philosophical Psychology, 34*(4), 502-528, https://doi.org/10.1080/09515089.2021.1916453

McAndrew, F. T. (2002). New evolutionary perspectives on altruism: Multilevel-selection and costly-signaling theories. *Current Directions in Psychological Science, 11*, 79–82. https://doi.org/10.1111/1467-8721.00173

McCuish, E., Lussier, P., & Corrado, R. (2022). Psychopathy and sexual offending over the life course: An exploratory longitudinal investigation. *Psychopathy and Criminal Behavior: Current Trends and Challenges (1ª* Ed, 333-356). *Academic Press*. https://doi.org/10.1016/B978-0-12-811419-3.00003-0

McDonald, R., Dodson, M. C., Rosenfield, D., & Jouriles, E. N. (2011). Effects of parenting intervention on features of psychopathy in children. *Journal of Abnormal Child Psychology, 39*(7), 1013–1023. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10802-011-9512-8

Meade, A. W., Pappalardo, G., Braddy, P. W., & Fleenor, J. W. (2018). Rapid response measurement: development of a faking-resistant assessment method for personality. *Organizational Research Methods, 23*(1), 181-207. https://doi.org/10.1177/1094428118795295

Mealey, L. (1995). The sociobiology of sociopathy: An integrated evolutionary model. *The Behavioral and Brain Sciences, 18*, 523–599. https://doi.org/10.1017/S0140525X00039595

Mealey, L., Daood, C., & Krage, M. (1996). Enhanced memory for faces of cheaters. *Ethology and Sociobiology, 17*, 119–128. https://doi.org/10.1016/0162-3095(95)00131-X

Međedović, J. (2025). Reproductive ecology of dark personalities: Dark Tetrad traits, criminal career, and fertility. *Personality and Individual Differences, 233*. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.paid.2024.112883

Međedović, J., Bulut, T., Savić, D., & Đuričić, N. (2018). Delineating psychopathy from cognitive empathy: The case of Psychopathic Personality Traits Scale. *European Journal of Analytic Philosophy, 14*(1), 53–62. https://doi.org/10.31820/ejap.14.1.3

Medeiros, C. R. de O., & Silveira, R. A. da, (2017) Organizações que matam: uma reflexão a respeito dos crimes corporativos. *Organizações & Sociedade, 24*(80). https://doi.org/10.1590/1984-9230802
Melis, A.P., & Raihani, N.J. (2023). The cognitive challenges of cooperation in human and nonhuman animals. *Nature Reviews Psychology, 2*, 523–536. https://doi.org/10.1038/s44159-023-00207-7
Miller, G. F. (2007). Sexual selection for moral virtues. *Quarterly Review of Biology, 82*, 97–125. https://doi.org/10.1086/517857
Mokros, A., Hare, R. D., Neumann, C. S., Santtila, P., Habermeyer, E., & Nitschke, J. (2015). Variants of psychopathy in adult male offenders: A latent profile analysis. *Journal of Abnormal Psychology*, *124*(2), 372–386. https://doi.org/10.1037/abn0000042.
Morgan, G. (2011). Reflections on Images of Organization and Its Implications for Organization and Environment. *Organization & Environment*, *24*(4), 459-478. https://doi.org/10.1177/1086026611434274
Moro, S. F., Portella, I., & Ferrari, F. J. (2019) Lavagem de dinheiro e suas gerações. *Relações Internacionais no Mundo Atual, 4*(25). http://dx.doi.org/10.21902/Revrima.v4i25.3950
Moshagen, M., Zettler, I., & Hilbig, B. E. (2020). Measuring the dark core of personality. *Psychological Assessment, 32*(2), 182–196. https://doi.org/10.1037/pas0000778
Mozzato, A. R., & Grybovski, D. (2013) Abordagem crítica nos estudos organizacionais: concepção de indivíduo sob a perspectiva emancipatória. *CADERNOS EPABE.BR FGV, 11*(4), 503-519, https://doi.org/10.1590/S1679-39512013000400003
Mullins-Nelson, J. L., Salekin, R. T., & Leistico, A.-M. R. (2006). Psychopathy, empathy, and perspective-taking ability in a community sample: Implications for the successful psychopathy concept. *International Journal of Forensic Mental Health, 5*(2), 133–149. https://doi.org/10.1080/14999013.2006.10471238
Murphy, B. A., & Lilienfeld, S. O. (2019). Are self-report cognitive empathy ratings valid proxies for cognitive empathy ability? Negligible meta-analytic relations with behavioral task performance. *Psychological Assessment, 31*(8), 1062–1072. https://doi.org/10.1037/pas0000732
Nentjes, L., Garofalo, C., & Kosson, D. S. (2022). Emotional functioning in psychopathy: A critical review and integration with general emotion theories. *Psychopathy and Criminal Behavior.* https://doi.org/10.1016/B978-0-12-811419-3.00006-6
Neves, L. de L., & Maciel, S. de A. (2022) Teoria geral dos sistemas (tgs): uma revisão sistemática dos cursos stricto sensu brasileiros. *Encontro Internacional De Gestão, Desenvolvimento E Inovação (EIGEDIN), 6*(1). https://periodicos.ufms.br/index.php/EIGEDIN/article/view/16854
Nowak, M. A. (2006). Five Rules for the Evolution of Cooperation. *Science, 314*,1560-1563. https://doi.org/10.1126/science.1133755
Nyberg, D. (2021). Corporations, Politics, and Democracy: Corporate political activities as political corruption. *Organization Theory, 2*(1). https://doi.org/10.1177/2631787720982618
Nowakowski, K. (2022). Concept of psychopathic positive-adjustment traits: a brief review of theory and research. *Annals of Psychology, 25*(3), https://doi.org/10.18290/rpsych2022.0011
Oda, R., & Matsumoto-Oda, A. (2022). Hexaco, dark triad and altruism in daily life. *Personality and individual differences*, *185*. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.paid.2021.111303
O'Donovan, J., Wagner, H. F., & Zeume, S. (2019) The value of offshore secrets: evidence from panama papers. *The Review of Financial Studies, 32*(11), 4117–4155. https://doi.org/10.1093/rfs/hhz017
Olding, A. (1985). Reductionism and natural selection. *Synthese, 65*(3), 407–410. https://doi.org/10.1007/BF00485491
Oliveira, J. P. de, & Portela, L. O. V. (2006) A cidade como um sistema: reflexões sobre a teoria geral de sistemas aplicada à análise urbana. *Perspectivas Contemporâneas, 1*(2). https://revista2.grupointegrado.br/revista/index.php/perspectivascontemporaneas/article/view/376
Oliveira, C. R. de (2019). Crimes corporativos: o espectro do genocídio ronda o mundo. *Revista de administração de empresas FGV EAESP, 59*(6). http://dx.doi.org/10.1590/S0034-759020190610
Oliveira, C. R. de, & Silveira, R. A. da. (2021). Um ensaio sobre crimes corporativos na perspectiva pós-colonial: Desafiando a literatura tradicional. *Revista de Administração Contemporânea*, *25*(4). https://doi.org/10.1590/1982-7849rac2021190144.por
Openhaim, E. W., Amram, Y., & Glicksohn, J. (2024). Empathy and the Dark Triad: A difference of 180 degrees. *Journal of Individual Differences, 45*(3), 176–184. https://doi.org/10.1027/1614-0001/a000422
Palmen, D., Kolthoff, E. W., & Derksen, J. (2021). The need for domination in psychopathic leadership: A clarification for the estimated high prevalence of psychopathic leaders. *Aggression and Violent Behavior, 61*. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.avb.2021.101650
Parker, G. A., & Smith, J. M. (1990). Optimality theory in evolutionary biology. *Nature, 348*(6296), 27–33. https://doi.org/10.1038/348027a0
Paulhus, D. L. (2014). Toward a Taxonomy of Dark Personalities. *Current Directions in Psychological Science*, *23*(6), 421-426. https://doi.org/10.1177/0963721414547737
Pazhouhi, S., Garza, R., & Pazhoohi, F. (2024). Association of life history strategy and mate retention behavior in men and women. *Personality and Individual Differences, 225*. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.paid.2024.112685
Penke, L., Denissen, J. J. A., & Miller, G. F. (2007). The evolutionary genetics of personality. *European Journal of Personality*, *21*(5), 549-587. https://doi.org/10.1002/per.629
Penke, L., & Jokela, M. (2016). The evolutionary genetics of personality revisited. *Current Opinion in Psychology, 7*, 104–109. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.copsyc.2015.08
Pfattheicher, S., Nielsen, Y. A., & Hielmann, I. (2022). Prosocial behavior and altruism: A review of concepts and definitions. *Current Opinion in Psychology, 44*, 124-129. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.copsyc.2021.08.021
Pinel, P. (1801/1962). *A treatise on insanity*. *History of medicine series*. 14. New York Academy of Medicine. Hafner Publishing Company. Original work published in 1801.
Pires, J. G., Nunes, C. H. S. da S., Nunes, M. F. O., & Roettgers, C. (2024). Consistência no Ranqueamento dos Traços de Personalidade ao Longo do Tempo. *Psicologia: Teoria E Pesquisa, 40*. https://doi.org/10.1590/0102.3772e40301.pt
Pitchford, I. (2001). The origins of violence: Is psychopathy an adaptation? *Human Nature Review*, *1*, 28–36.

Preckel, K., Kanske, P., & Singer, T. (2018). On the interaction of social affect and cognition: Empathy, compassion and theory of mind. *Current Opinion in Behavioral Sciences, 19*, 1–6. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cobeha.2017.07.010

Puente-Palacios, K. E., Porto, J. B., Martins, M. C. F. (2016). A emersão na articulação de níveis em psicologia organizacional e do trabalho. *Revista Psicologia: Organizações e Trabalho, 16*(4), 358-366. https://doi.org/10.17652/rpot/2016.4.12603

Pullman, L. E., Refaie, N., Lalumière, M. L., & Krupp, D. B. (2021). Is psychopathy a mental disorder or an adaptation? evidence from a meta-analysis of the association between psychopathy and handedness. *Evolutionary Psychology, 19*(4). https://doi.org/10.1177/14747049211040447

Raine, A., Chen, F. R., & Waller, R. (2022). The cognitive, affective and somatic empathy scales for adults. *Personality and Individual Differences, 185*. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.paid.2021.111238

Ribeiro, R., Guedes, I. S., & Cruz, J. N. (2019). White-collar offenders vs. common offenders: A comparative study on personality traits and self-control. *Crime, Law and Social Change, 72*(5), 607–622. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10611-019-09844-7

Rauthmann, J. F., & Sherman, R. A. (2023). Patterned person-situation fit in daily life: Examining magnitudes, stabilities, and correlates of trait-situation and state-situation fit. *European Journal of Personality*, *37*(5), 501-523. https://doi.org/10.1177/08902070221104636

Rijnders, R. J. P., Terburg, D., Bos, P. A., Kempes, M. M., & van Honk, J. (2021). Unzipping empathy in psychopathy: Empathy and facial affect processing in psychopaths. *Neuroscience and Biobehavioral Reviews, 131*, 1116–1126. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.neubiorev.2021.10.020

Rodrigues, A. M. M., Barker, J. L., & Robinson, E. J. H. (2023). The evolution of intergroup cooperationPhil. *Philosophical Transations of The Royal Society Biological Sciences, 378*. http://doi.org/10.1098/rstb.2022.0074

Rodríguez, J. M. A., Riquelme, A. A. A., & Fernández, M. E. P. (2018). Análisis psicométrico de la escala de psicopatía de Levenson. *Psicopatología Clínica, Legal y Forense*, *18,* 134-151. https://dialnet.unirioja.es/servlet/articulo?codigo=7165690

Rowe, D. C. (1995). Evolution, mating efort, and crime. *Behavioral and Brain Sciences*, *18*, 573-574. https://doi.org/10.1017/S0140525X00039959

Santos, A. C. C. dos, & Alvares, L. M. A. de R., (2022) Bases biológico-cultural da linguagem: um olhar sobre o indivíduo, o nicho e a linguagem nas organizações. *AtoZ: novas práticas em informação e conhecimento, 11*, 1-14. http://dx.doi.org/10.5380/atoz.v11i0.81119

Santos, G. N., Lima-Costa, A. R., Otoni, F., Veiga, H. M. D. S., Peres, R. S., Azevedo, A. V., Antunes, M. C., Bonfá-Araujo, B., & Cortez, P. A. (2023). Unveiling empathy: transforming child neurodisability in the brazilian context of poverty and violence. *Developmental Medicine and Child Neurology, 66*(4), 541–542. https://doi.org/10.1111/dmcn.15784

Sellbom, M., Lilienfeld, S. O., Fowler, K. A., & McCrary, K. L. (2018). The self-report assessment of psychopathy: Problems, pitfalls, and promises. In C. J. Patrick (Ed.), *Handbook of psychopath* (pp. 211–258). 2nd. Edition. New York, NY: The Guilford Press.

Silva Junior, M., Barbosa, L., & de Souza, M. L. R. S. (2024). Teoria da história de vida: uma perspectiva evolucionista para a compreensão do desenvolvimento humano. *Psicologia USP, 35*. https://doi.org/10.1590/0103-6564e230050

Silva, D. R., Rijo, D., Salekin, R. T. (2015) The evolutionary roots of psychopathy. *Aggression and Violent Behaviour*, *21,* 85-96. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.avb.2015.01.006

Silverio, S. A., Lyons, M. T., & Burton, S. P. (2023). Dangerously Intelligent: A Call for Re-Evaluating Psychopathy Using Perceptions of Intelligence. *Journal of Intelligence*, *11*(2), 25. https://doi.org/10.3390/jintelligence11020025

Sinclair, S., Beamer, K., Hack, T. F., McClement, S., Raffin Bouchal, S., Chochinov, H. M., & Hagen, N. A. (2016). Sympathy, empathy, and compassion: A grounded theory study of palliative care patients' understandings. *Palliative Medicine, 31*(5), 437–447. https://doi.org/10.1177/0269216316663499

Singer, T., & Klimecki, O. M. (2014). Empathy and compassion. *Current Biology, 24*(18), R875–R878. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cub.2014.06.054

Smirnov, O. (2025). High cost of survival promotes the evolution of cooperation. *Games*, *16*(1), 4. https://doi.org/10.3390/g16010004

Smith, J. M. (1982) *Evolution and the theory of games*. Cambridge University Press. 1st Ed. https://doi.org/10.1017/CBO9780511806292

Simpson, J. A. (1999). Attachment theory in modern evolutionary perspective. In J. Cassidy & P. R. Shaver (Eds.), *Handbook of attachment: Theory, research, and clinical applications* (pp. 115–140). The Guilford Press.

Sober, E., & Wilson, D. S. (2011). Adaptation and natural selection revisited. *Journal of Evolutionary Biology*, *24*(2), 462–468. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1420-9101.2010.02162.x

Sodré, R. J. M. (2018). Sobre corruptos, corrompidos e culpados: relatos de servidores públicos sobre práticas de corrupção. *Revista De Contabilidade E Organizações*, *11*(31), 21-30. https://doi.org/10.11606/rco.v11i31.134465

Spash, C. L. (2022). Conservation in conflict: Corporations, capitalism and sustainable development. *Biological Conservation, 269*. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.biocon.2022.109528

Sutherland, E. H. (1940) White-collar criminality. *American Sociological Review. 5*(1), 1-12. https://doi.org/10.2307/2083937

Swedberg, R. (2014) *Theorizing in Social Science: the context of discovery*. Ed. Stanford University Press. Stanford, California.

Tamatea, A.J. (2022). Humanising Psychopathy, or What It Means to Be Diagnosed as a Psychopath: Stigma, Disempowerment, and Scientifically-Sanctioned Alienation. In: Malatesti, L., McMillan, J., Šustar, P. (eds) *Psychopathy. History, Philosophy and Theory of the Life Sciences*, vol 27. Springer, Cham. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-030-82454-9_3

Tjosvold, D., Wong, A. S. H., & Feng Chen, N. Y. (2014). Constructively Managing Conflicts in Organizations. *Annual Review of Organizational Psychology and Organizational Behavior, 1*(1), 545–568. https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev-orgpsych-031413-091306
Tramacere, A., & Mafessoni, F. (2024). Cognitive twists: The coevolution of learning and genes in human cognition. *Review of Philosophy and Psychology, 15*(1), 189–217. https://doi.org/10.1007/s13164-022-00670-w
Trivers, R. L. (1971). The evolution of reciprocal altruism. *The Quarterly Review of Biology, 46*(1), 35–57. https://doi.org/10.1086/406755
Valle, U. (2017). Racionalização e monetarização: Categorias da globalização. *Caderno CRH, 30*(80), 315-332. https://doi.org/10.9771/ccrh.v30i80.20048
Vallette d'Osia, A., & Meier, L. L. (2024). Empathy in the workplace: Disentangling affective from cognitive empathy. *Occupational Health Science, 8*, 883–904. https://doi.org/10.1007/s41542-024-00197-9
Vecchio, F. B., & Manke Vieira, D. (2020). Compliance Tributário e o Crime de Lavagem de Dinheiro: Análise Legal das Medidas Éticas e Sancionatórias. *J² - Jornal Jurídico, 2*(2), 17–30. https://doi.org/10.29073/j2.v2i2.220
Veller, C., Haig, D., & Nowak, M. A. (2016). The Trivers–Willard hypothesis: sex ratio or investment? *Proceedings of the Royal Society B: Biological Sciences, 283*. https://doi.org/10.1098/rspb.2016.0126
Von Bertalanffy, L. (1968) *General System Theory: fundations, development, applications*. George Braziller.
Von Bertalanffy, L. (1972). The History and Status of General Systems Theory. *The Academy of Management Journal*, *15*(4), 407–426. https://doi.org/10.2307/255139
Waal, F. B. M. de. (2005). *Our inner ape: a leading primatologist explains why we are who we are*. Riverhead Books. Press by Penguin Books Ltd.
Wallace, L., Cunningham, C., & Fido, D. (2024). *Successful Psychopathy Predicts Variation in Ambition and Motivations for Life Success*. Oxford University. https://doi.org/10.31234/osf.io/mp7u3
Weber, M. (1930/2013) *A Ética Protestante e o Espírito do Capitalismo* (Tradução: M. Moraes). Marin Claret.
Wedekind, C. (2000). Cooperation Through Image Scoring in Humans. *Science, 288*(5467), 850–852. https://doi.org/10.1126/science.288.5467.8
Wegrzyn, M., Vogt, M., Kireclioglu, B., Schneider, J., & Kissler, J. (2017). Mapping the emotional face. How individual face parts contribute to successful emotion recognition. *PLOS ONE, 12*(5). https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0177239
Williams, G. C. (1966). *Adaptation and natural selection*. Princeton, NJ: Princeton University Press.
Wilson, K., Demetriof, S., & Porter, S. (2008). A pawn by any other name? Social information processing as a function of psychopathic traits. *Journal of Research in Personality*, *42*, 1651–1656. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jrp.2008.07.006
Wilson, E. O. (2000). *Sociobiology: the new synthesis - 25th anniversary edition*. Harvard University.
Woo, S. E., Hofmans, J., Wille, B., & Tay, L. (2024) Person-centred modeling: techniques for studying associations between people rather than variables. *Annual Review of Organizational Psychology and Organizational Behavior, 11*(1), 453–80. https://www.annualreviews.org/content/journals/10.1146/annurev-orgpsych-110721-045646
Yamamoto, M.E. (2019). Cooperation from an Evolutionary Perspective. In S. Koller (Eds.), *Psychology in Brazil*. Springer, Cham. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-030-11336-0_18
Yamamoto, M. E., & Valentova, J. V. (2018). *Manual de psicologia evolucionista*. EDUFRN. https://repositorio.ufrn.br/jspui/handle/123456789/26065
Yu, C.-L., & Chou, T.-L. (2018). A dual route model of empathy: A neurobiological prospective. *Frontiers in Psychology, 9*. https://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2018.02212
Yunus, M., & Sijabat, F. N. (2021). A Review On Blue Ocean Strategy Effect On Competitive Advantage And Firm Performance. *Academy of Strategic Management Journal, 20*(1), 1–10. https://www.abacademies.org/articles/a-review-on-blue-ocean-strategy-effect-on-competitive-advantage-and-firm-performance-10115.html
Xia, C., Wang, J., Perc, M., & Wang, Z. (2023) Reputation and reciprocity. *Physics of Life Reviews, 46*, 8-45. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.plrev.2023.05.002
Xu, Y., Norton, S., & Rahman, Q. (2018). Early life conditions, reproductive and sexuality-related life history outcomes among human males: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *Evolution and Human Behavior, 39*, 40–51. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.evolhumbehav.2017.08.005
Wegrzyn, M., Vogt, M., Kireclioglu, B., Schneider, J., & Kissler, J. (2017). Mapping the emotional face. how individual face parts contribute to successful emotion recognition. *PLoS ONE, 12*(5). https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0177239
White, D., & Burton, A.M. (2022). Individual differences and the multidimensional nature of face perception. *Nature Reviews Psychology, 1*, 287–300. https://doi.org/10.1038/s44159-022-00041-3
Wilmer, J. B. (2017). Individual Differences in Face Recognition: A Decade of Discovery. *Current Directions in Psychological Science*, *26*(3), 225-230. https://doi.org/10.1177/0963721417710693
Wu, J., Li, L., & Lin, T. (2024). Corporate altruism, dual innovation and competitive advantage. *Finance Research Letters, 68*. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.frl.2024.105985
Yang, A., Zhu, N., Lu, H. J., & Chang, L. (2022). Environmental risks, life history strategy, and developmental psychology. *PsyCh Journal, 11*(4), 433-447. https://doi.org/10.1002/pchj.561
Zagaria, A., Andò, A., & Zennaro, A. (2021). Toward a cultural evolutionary psychology: Why the evolutionary approach does not imply reductionism or determinism. *Integrative Psychological and Behavioral Science, 55*(2), 225–249. https://doi.org/10.1007/s12124-021-09613-z
Zahavi, A. (1977). The cost of honesty. *Journal of Theoretical Biology, 67*(3), 603–605. https://doi.org/10.1016/0022-5193(77)90061-3
Zeigler-Hill, V., & Young, G. R. (2024). An Evolutionary Perspective on Psychopathy. In L. Al-Shawaf & T. K. Shackelford (Eds.), *The Oxford Handbook of Evolution and the Emotions* (Oxford Academic). https://doi.org/10.1093/oxfordhb/9780197544754.013.64

Contribution:
Rodrigo Prado Pereira: conceptualization, investigation, methodology, project administration, writing – original draft.
Pedro Afonso Cortez: conceptualization, investigation, methodology, supervision, writing – review & editing.

Data availability:
The contents underlying the research text are contained in the manuscript.
Conflicts of interest:
The authors declare that there are no conflicts of interest in carrying out and communicating this research.

Submitted in: April 22th, 2025
Reviewed in: May 13th, 2025
Accepted in: May 13th, 2025
Published in: July 6th, 2025