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Destructive leader behavior : assessing public school leader behaviors and workplace attitudes

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ABSTRACT

DESTRUCTIVE LEADER BEHAVIOR: ASSESSING PUBLIC SCHOOL LEADER BEHAVIORS AND WORKPLACE ATTITUDES

Daniel S. Woestman, Ed.D.
Department of Leadership, Educational Psychology, and Foundations
Northern Illinois University, 2014
Patrick Roberts, Chair

The primary purpose of the planned study was to investigate professional educators in northern Illinois to determine the relationship between manifestations of destructive leader behaviors (DLB) and K-12 workplace attitudes: subordinate likelihood of leaving, job satisfaction, levels of stress, and ability to perform work duties. The study demonstrated the presence of destructive leadership at all levels of educational leadership. Subordinate-directed behavior was perceived more than organization-directed behavior and sexual harassment. Specific behaviors were found to be predictors of subordinate high job stress, low job satisfaction, high likelihood of leaving, and low perceived ability to perform work duties.

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DESTRUCTIVE LEADER BEHAVIOR: ASSESSING PUBLIC SCHOOL LEADER
BEHAVIORS AND WORKPLACE ATTITUDES

BY

DANIEL SCOTT WOESTMAN

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DOCTOR OF EDUCATION

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Doctoral Director:
Teresa Wasonga

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DEDICATION

To my beautiful wife Sarah, who has supported me in all I desire to do. I hope this is a work she can be proud of; it was a team effort in many ways.

To my amazing children, Jackson, Parker, and Elly. I hope this shows their parents' value of education, hard work, and finishing what you start.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

Background

The research on negative leadership qualities in the general population is revealing. For example, between 60% and 75% of employees reported that their immediate supervisor was the most stressful aspect of their job (Hogan, Raskin, & Fazzini, 1990). In another research study, 60% of employees claim their supervisor showed destructive behaviors consistently (Aasland, Skogstad, Notelaers, Nielsen, & Einarsen, 2010). Incompetent management has been found in some sectors to be as high as 60% (Einarsen, Matthiesen, & Skogstad, 2010), and it is estimated that between one third and one half of individuals placed in executive positions are later seen as disappointments to their supervisors (White & Devries, 1990). Despite these findings, studies that focus on destructive leadership, especially in the education sector, are limited. On the other hand, numerous studies focusing on great and successful leadership in schools are readily accessible (Heck & Hallinger, 2005; Leithwood & Duke, 1998; Spillane, Halverson, & Diamond, 2004). Although significant voice is evident in the studies of destructive leadership in the private sector (Einarsen et al., 2010), there are few similar voices in educational leadership. There is much more to learn from the effects of destructive leadership alongside great leadership research, especially in the education sector.

There is historical support for the notion of investigating negative leadership. Over half a century ago, Getzels and Guba (1957) argued that behavior expectations for all roles in organizations fall somewhere between “required” to “prohibited” (p. 426). In practice, organizations often frame such *required* expectations for a worker through job descriptions and company goals, leaving the *prohibited* behaviors to policies, legal memos, and social taboos. Although Getzels and Guba do not give a specific definition of their terms *required* or *prohibited*, they do explain that one role of an administrator is “to integrate the demands of the institution and the demands of the staff members in a way that is at once organizationally productive and individually fulfilling” (p. 430). We can build on that definition to describe required behavior as actions that facilitate the fulfillment of both institutional and individual demands, and define *prohibited* behavior as actions that reduce either the institutional productivity or individuals’ satisfaction. Research in educational leadership has focused almost exclusively on actions and priorities that are considered *required* to fulfill institutional and individual demands at the expense of studying the *prohibited* behaviors that reduce organizational productivity and individual satisfaction.

Ignoring these prohibited behaviors leaves a major gap in a significant part of employee work-life research. A recent study asked active-duty Army majors, “Have you ever seriously considered leaving your service or agency because of the way you were treated by a supervisor?” (Reed, 2010, p. 61). Over half of the respondents explained that they, in fact, had. Such findings are a concrete example of possible prohibited behavior impact, because supervisor actions seem to be connected to diminishing work-related satisfaction. The fact that 61% of employees in this specific study are reporting to be subject to some type of

destructive behavior highlights the need for more studies on the impact of destructive leadership on subordinates in the workplace. Because schools have supervisor/subordinate relationships (Wayne & Ferris, 1990), educational leadership research can benefit from such studies.

Organizational leadership studies outside of education have begun to address the concept of destructive leadership with a goal of understanding leader behavior and how to make it better (Aasland et al., 2010; Padilla, Hogan, & Kaiser, 2007; Reed & Bullis, 2009; Thoroughgood, Tate, Sawyer, & Jacobs 2012). For the purposes of this discussion, the term *leader* applies to “anyone in a leadership, supervisory, or managerial position” (Thoroughgood et al., 2012, p. 232). Research suggests that leaders engaging in destructive leadership behaviors (DLBs) have problems with interpersonal relationships, fail to meet objectives, struggle building a team, and have difficulty adapting (Velsor & Leslie, 1995). It has also been established that subordinates of leaders who engage in destructive behaviors show higher levels of stress (Hauge, Skogstad, & Einarsen, 2010; Lutgen-Sandvik, Tracy, & Alberts, 2007), lower job satisfaction (Tepper, Duffy, Hoobler, & Ensley, 2004), and higher turnover (Yagil, 2006). Despite these findings, existing educational leadership research has continued to utilize frameworks that focus on required behaviors of educational leaders (behaviors that are assumed to provide positive outcomes) over prohibited behaviors that leaders should avoid (such as avoidance, privacy invasion, failure to defend others, and public criticism of subordinates). The current study attempts to address the gap in educational leadership literature focusing on destructive leadership behaviors and their impact on workplace attitudes of professional educators in their work setting.

Conceptual Framework

The conceptual framework for the current study largely duplicates a concept introduced by Thoroughgood, et al. (2012) that combines past studies of negative, dark, abusive, and destructive leadership with counterproductive work behavior studies to create a broad construct of Destructive Leader Behavior (DLB). This construct gives a comprehensive definition to actions that may be included in a conceptual model of leadership proposed by Einarsen, Aasland, and Skogstad (2007) that acknowledges a full spectrum of leader impact that ranges from destructive to constructive, arguing the destructive leadership is significantly different from ineffective leadership. Although previous models of negative leader behavior have focused most often on subordinate-directed actions, DLB includes additional types of behaviors. Specifically, the DLB construct includes three categories of behaviors: organization-directed behavior (behaviors targeting the organization, such as *litters the work environment* and *violates company policy*), subordinate-directed behavior (behaviors targeting individual people, such as *avoids addressing important issues* and *invades subordinates' privacy*), and sexual harassment (such as *brings pornography to work* and *engages in romantic relationships at work*).

When describing DLB, Thoroughgood et al. (2012) utilizes four assumptions regarding behaviors included in the DLB construct. To begin, the DLB construct uses the term *leader* to apply to “anyone in a leadership, supervisory, or managerial position” (p. 231). This means that leaders’ actions toward other leaders may be manifestations of DLB.

However, for the purposes of this study, the term *leader* is applied specifically to supervisors and their relationship to subordinates.

Second, destructive leadership is a form of leadership manifested through behaviors that would be considered by most to be “harmful and deviant toward followers and/or the organization” (Thoroughgood, 2012, p. 231). As such, actions that are merely displeasing, but have no harmful consequence would not be considered DLB manifestations. As an example, a subordinate may not like the color blue, but if her boss paints the offices blue it is not considered a DLB manifestation. Likewise, a supervisor who allows his team more autonomy might watch his team struggle as they learn new roles in an organization, but most would not consider such an allowance to be a DLB manifestation. Additionally, categorizing a behavior as inherently harmful would keep single isolated actions or incidents from being included or excluded as manifestations of DLB. An example of this would be a supervisor who threatens a subordinate. Although this might increase efficiencies in the short term, most would agree that threatening a subordinate is inherently destructive and might have negative long-term effects. The ability to see actions as inherently destructive or inherently constructive, regardless of individual contexts, allows for a broad application of the construct across different types of organizations.

Furthermore, manifestations of DLB are not inclusive of behaviors exhibited as a result of low capacity or poor performance. “DLB is a unique form of harm doing that is unequivocally tied to the leader’s voluntary engagement in such behavior” (Thoroughgood et al., 2012, p. 231). This assumption safeguards the construct from measuring behavior that is connected to incompetence and good intentions. A supervisor who acts within the DLB

framework is aware that what they are doing, be it actively or passively, is harmful; they may be motivated to act destructively, or not be interested in being constructive.

Finally, DLB utilizes Buss's (1961) taxonomy of aggressive behaviors to be inclusive of actions that are active or passive, physical or verbal, direct or indirect. This is a change from past research that has largely ignored passive and indirect actions, focusing primarily on active and direct activities. For example, passive actions such as neglecting to protect a subordinate in a dangerous work environment, keeping information from an employee, or other laissez-faire leadership actions, are included in the definition of DLB, answering the call for research to include a broader approach to investigating destructive leadership, as opposed to relying primarily on active manifested behaviors (Einarsen et al., 2007).

In the initial study of DLB by Thoroughgood et al. (2012), the purpose was two fold: to determine the dimensional structure of DLB, and to develop a measure of the construct. In order to determine the DLB structure, the authors used inductive and deductive methods to develop an inventory of destructive leader behaviors. Multidimensional scaling is a way to measure the similarity between different sets of data. Confirmatory analysis is a method to test whether data fit into a hypothesis. Both tools were used to determine the dimensions of the inventory. Although most research in destructive leadership has focused on subordinate-directed, eventually damaging, norm-violating behavior, the DLB construct approaches the topic more comprehensively by including other types of behaviors, such as stealing company funds, using company funds, ignoring phone calls, and violating company policy.

In determining the validity of the construct, researchers collected evidence regarding the relationship of the DLB construct to workplace attitude outcomes of subordinate job

satisfaction (Asbill, 1994), leader liking (Dienesch & Liden, 1986; Engle, 1997), and likelihood of leaving (Goddard & Goddard, 2006). When measured, all three categories of DLB: organization-directed, subordinate-directed, and sexual harassment were negatively correlated with job satisfaction and liking for leader, and positively correlated with turnover intentions. Of the three different categories of behaviors, subordinate-directed behaviors were the most powerful predictors of subordinate workplace attitudes, which is why most previous constructs have focused on such behavior. However, organization-directed behaviors were strongly predictive of workplace deviance of subordinates, providing support for a broad-reaching and comprehensive construct (Thoroughgood et al., 2012).

The second part of the conceptual framework takes into consideration past research on employee stress and organizational effectiveness. Although stress was not measured or included in the original construct supplied by Thoroughgood et al. (2012), literature on job stress supports including such an outcome. Job stress as a workplace attitude has been connected to subordinate-directed behavior (Hauge et al., 2010), organization-directed behavior (Fox, Spector, & Miles, 2001), and sexual harassment (Schneider, Swan, & Fitzgerald, 1997), allowing an appropriate fit into this study's framework. And although ability to perform duties was also not measured or included in the original construct, Getzels and Guba include organizational effectiveness as a major issue connected to their original assertion of the spectrum of leadership behaviors. Figure 1-1 shows the hypothesized relationships between the constructs in this study (destructive leadership behaviors of leaders and work place attitudes of subordinates)

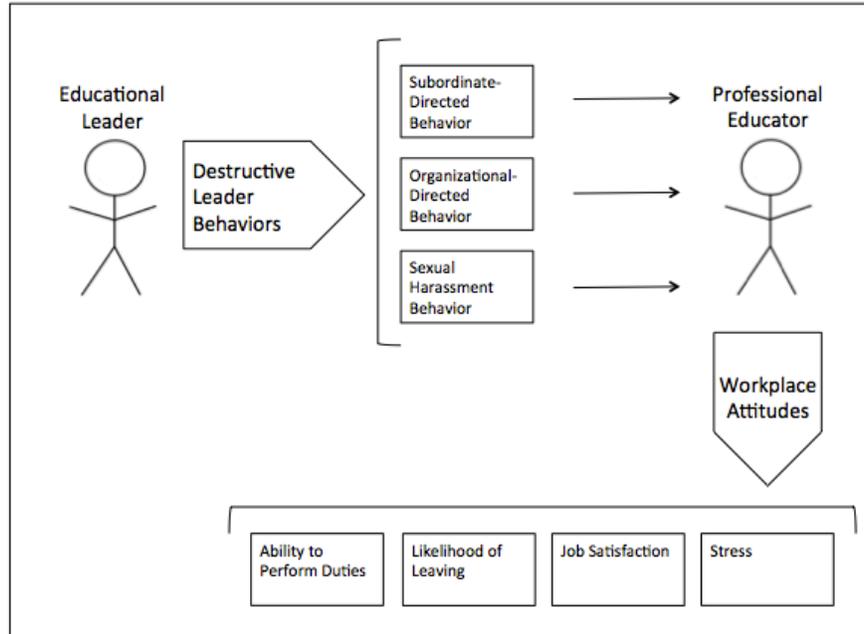


Figure 1-1: Conceptual Framework for Current Study

Statement of the Problem

Psychological research has shown that the impact of negative experiences is stronger than the impact of positive experiences. For example, humans bias the process of negative information over positive information (Smith et al., 2006), and people are more likely to avoid a loss than they are to be attracted to a gain of similar amounts (Kahneman & Tversky, 1984). In addition, the mental and emotional impact of bad events wears off more slowly than those of good events (Brickman, Coates, & Janoff-Bulman, 1978), and negative feedback is noticed more quickly and results in stronger responses than positive feedback (Baumeister, Bratslavsky, Finkenauer, & Vohs, 2001).

Baumeister et al. (2001) argue that bad events generally have a stronger impact than good because negative elements trigger a fundamental signal to adapt for survival, while positive elements trigger a signal of continuity and stability. Because of this inherent fundamental human reaction, they argue that bad has been found “to be stronger than good in a disappointingly relentless pattern” and that such a finding “may be one of the most basic and far-reaching psychological principles” (p. 362). Although it is essential to determine how leaders can positively impact educational settings, research has neglected what may be an educational leader’s most impactful behaviors on an organization: destructive leadership. Furthermore, as school leaders’ role as change agent takes a more prominent position (Egley, 2003), it is imperative to recognize the place of negative leadership as a possible variable in the changes of a school environment.

Despite these findings and the fact that destructive leadership has found an important place in recent leadership studies, such movements have not permeated into the educational leadership sector. Traditionally, theorists and researchers in educational leadership studies have relied heavily on colleagues outside of the educational domain to introduce management and leadership principles and then bring in those principles that are transferable to school systems (Heck & Hallinger, 2005). However, destructive leadership research has yet to spill into educational leadership literature, leaving a dearth of knowledge that could not only help researchers understand educational leadership but also help practitioners in the field hone their craft.

With a scarcity of research on destructive leadership in education, we have been left to assume that such behavior is merely an absence of constructive leadership (Kelloway,

Sivanathan, Francis, & Barling, 2005; Padilla et al., 2007). Although leadership studies have focused consistently on the constructive aspects of leadership, researchers in the last decade have argued that destructive leadership is more than merely an absence of constructive qualities (Brown & Treviño, 2006; Skogstad, Einarsen, Torsheim, Aasland, & Hetland, 2007). Indeed, ineffective leadership must be viewed as not merely a lack of positive behaviors, but also a display of specifically destructive behaviors (Toor & Ogunlana, 2009). It can be inferred that the abundance of research on required leadership behaviors has enabled leaders in public school settings to try to modify their behavior to mirror commonly accepted leadership qualities. Such alignment, though guided heavily by positive and constructive leadership research, overlooks lessons and opportunities that may be created by research in destructive behaviors. Currently, there is little for public school leaders to learn in terms of the types of behaviors that should be discouraged in the work place/schools among leaders and followers.

Significance of the Study

The results of the study are significant because they begin to bridge the void of destructive leadership research as discussed. Looking at levels of subordinate likelihood of leaving, job satisfaction, levels of stress, and employee ability to perform is a significant step toward understanding the educational leader and organization as a whole, and not just as a productive force. Specifically, understanding which types of destructive leader behaviors have significant relationships with specific workplace attitudes allows researchers to determine

which work in destructive leadership should be prioritized, and allow practitioners to examine their own practices with a more powerful lens of understanding.

Furthermore, because of the recent changes in Illinois law surrounding teacher evaluation, principals continue to have more high-stakes interactions with teachers through new supervision and evaluation systems. Educators may see an increase in interactions with their supervisors and increased informal and formal assessments of their performance. Because of these increased interactions, for example, teachers who have felt bullied or otherwise poorly treated may find that these increased interactions heighten the impact of their negative interactions. As much as 80% of bullying cases in the workplace are reported to be enacted by supervisors (Einarsen, Hoel, Zapf, & Cooper, 2003b). Furthermore, studies of workplace bullying have found that higher degrees of such bullying were not only correlated with higher levels of stress and lower levels of job satisfaction (Lutgen-Sandvik et al., 2007) but also have been found to be a significant predictor of anxiety and depression above other job stressors (Hauge et al., 2010). As such, the destructive impact of such principal-teacher interactions should be studied, and the current shift into the new evaluation provides a timely focus on the influence of such interactions.

In addition, teacher turnover creates a multitude of problems in many schools, including discontinuity, teacher shortages, and loss of teacher leadership (Allensworth, Ponisciak, & Mazzeo, 2009). In a study of first-year teachers, after controlling for school and teacher characteristics, teachers' perception of their school administrator was the only factor that significantly predicted teacher retention decisions (Boyd, Grossman, Ing, Lankford, & Wyckoff, 2011). And over 40% of teachers who had left or considered leaving the teaching

profession after their first year identified dissatisfaction with the administration as the most important factor (Boyd et al., 2011). The impact of turnover demands further investigation into causes of its patterns and existence.

Finally, the DLB measure created by Thoroughgood et al., first published in April 2012, calls future researchers to examine its ability to predict various organizational outcomes. The current study provides a necessary answer to that call.

Purpose of the Investigation

The primary purpose of the planned study is to investigate professional educators in northern Illinois to determine the relationship between manifestations of DLB and K-12 workplace attitudes: subordinate likelihood of leaving, job satisfaction, levels of stress, and ability to perform work duties. The investigation relies on a list of behaviors constructed to measure DLB levels developed by Thoroughgood et al. (2012).

Research Questions

The study uses six research questions to guide its research. They are as follows:

RQ 1: To what extent are DLB manifestations perceived to be evident among educational leaders?

RQ2: To what extent do professional educators believe manifestations of DLB impact their ability to perform work duties?

RQ 3: What are the differences in the extent to which DLB manifestations are perceived to be evident among various leadership positions: assistant principal, principal, assistant superintendent, superintendent, other building-level position, and other district-level position?

RQ 4: What are the relationships among the three categories of DLB?

RQ 5: What are the relationships between perceived DLB manifestations and workplace attitudes toward likelihood of leaving, job satisfaction, levels of stress, and ability to perform work duties?

RQ 6: What are the best models predicting workplace attitudes toward likelihood of leaving, job satisfaction, levels of stress, and ability to perform work duties?

Limitations of the Study

Respondents in the study were delimited to public schools teachers and administrators in graduate-level education courses in Illinois.

Respondents' individual interpretation of various terms, including *seriously considering*, *transforming*, and *satisfaction*, may have impacted the results of their surveys.

The data collection forced survey participants to remember specifics from past experiences.

Definition of Terms

Destructive leader behavior: Voluntary actions by a leader that are considered to be harmful to an individual or organization (Thoroughgood et al., 2012).

Educational leader: A supervisor to a professional educator.

Leader: Anyone in an organization with a leadership, supervisory, or managerial position (Thoroughgood et al., 2012).

Organization-directed behavior: Behavior from an individual toward the organization for which the individual works.

Professional educator: A certified teacher or administrator currently employed in a public school.

Sexual harassment: Unwelcome sexual advances, requests for sexual favors, or other verbal or physical sexual contact (Schneider et al., 1997).

Subordinate-directed behavior: Behavior from a leader toward individuals or groups over which the leader has stewardship.

Summary

This chapter introduced a conceptual framework for DLB in public school systems as well as a brief review of the current void in destructive leadership studies in the education field. After introducing the purpose of the anticipated study, it outlined research questions, limitations, and assumptions of the study. Definitions of terms were then included for a better

understanding of DLB. The following chapter is dedicated to a more in-depth review of the literature surrounding traditional educational leadership and DLB.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

Educational leadership literature was originally designed around heroic stories told by practitioners and their suggestions for practice based on empirical evidence (Heck & Hallinger, 2005). Although the movement surrounding this field of study eventually demanded the development of research that was based on the scientific principles of theories and experiments (Halpin, 1958), there has been a continuance of focus on what the “heroes” of present-day schools are doing and the actions and priorities “required” for good leadership. This focus ignores the complete role behavioral spectrum that Getzels and Guba (1957) introduced in their organizational role theory that ranges from “required” to “prohibited” (p. 426). This range acknowledges that certain expectations for any role include behaviors that are absolutely essential and behaviors that are absolutely forbidden, with an understanding that most behaviors fall somewhere between those two extremes.

Although Getzels and Guba (1957) do not define either the terms “required” or “prohibited,” they do define a role of an administrator as “to integrate the demands of the institution and the demands of the staff members in a way that is at once organizationally productive and individually fulfilling” (p. 430). Therefore we can connect the two strands and define required behavior as actions that facilitate the fulfillment of both institutional and

individual demands and define prohibited behavior as actions that reduce either the institutional productivity or individuals' satisfaction.

Traditional educational leadership studies, as a whole, do not address the “prohibited” behaviors connected with leadership that Getzels and Guba (1957) discuss. Instead they assume that, in contrast with Getzels and Guba’s argument, the opposing end of the behavioral spectrum is simply the omission or absence of “required” behaviors or simply leadership deficiencies. This might be a vital point of research that has, to this point, been silent, for although an educational leader might be implementing best practices surrounding behaviors he or she believes are “required” of a good leader, he or she may at the same time be practicing unknown negative or “prohibited” behaviors that have an equal or larger impact on his or her abilities to lead effectively. A thorough investigation of research outside the educational leadership literature has shown that bad emotions, events, and relationships have more impact than good ones (Baumeister et al., 2001), showing the importance of not ignoring the prohibited behaviors. For an educational leader, one “prohibited” behavior might possibly have more impact than five combined “required” behaviors, but we do not know the impact or comparison because we have not traveled into this line of research in the educational leadership sciences.

Traditional Educational Leadership Frameworks

The model proposed by Getzels and Guba (1957) was an attempt to explain what they believed to be the primary framework for understanding the interrelationships in

organizational administration. They focused on balancing the needs and personalities of people in institutions with the roles and expectations of organizations in a ways that maximize productivity for the institution and fulfillment for the individuals. Even within the works of Getzels and Guba (1957), the primary focus is on fulfillment and maximization. There is no evidence of consideration of “prohibited” behaviors and their possible reductions and deteriorations beyond the basic assertions that such behaviors exist.

This focus has been repeated since Getzels and Guba introduced their theoretical model. Almost 20 years ago, Hallinger called for the development of theoretical models to address the complexity of the school leader’s role through examining best practices and the effect of principals on student achievement. What Hallinger did not suggest was research surrounding worst practices or practices that should be avoided in educational leadership. Leithwood and Duke (1998) answered Hallinger’s call by reviewing educational leadership articles from the span of a decade to create an outline of basic conceptual educational leadership models that were repeated through the literature in an attempt to create a broad understanding of principal frameworks available at the time. These included instructional leadership, transformational leadership, participative leadership, and managerial leadership. All of these deliver a focus on positive behavior among leaders.

Instructional Leadership

Instructional leadership applies to a form of educational leadership when the principal primarily focuses on aspects of teachers and the organization that influence student learning,

student growth, curriculum, and teacher instruction. Instructional leadership is connected with strategies that: (a) define the mission, (b) manage instructional programs, and (c) promote school climate (Hallinger & Murphy, 1985). Hallinger and Murphy connected those strategies to eight specific examples of practice that promoted instructional leadership, which included actions such as being involved in curricular decisions, supervising teachers, and receiving instructional and curriculum in-service training. Instructional leadership has been connected with high levels of student achievement and other positive outcomes in a school (Leithwood & Duke, 1998). Also, Waters, McNulty, and Marzano's (2005) 21 responsibilities of a school leader includes involvement in curriculum, instruction, and assessment and knowledge of curriculum, instruction, and assessment.

Instructional leadership has clear connections to previously standardized general leadership understandings. As an example, instructional leadership literature promotes goal setting and strategic thinking as required behaviors (Hallinger, 2003; Hallinger & McCary, 1990). Latham and Yukl (1975) conducted a review of the research regarding goal setting in non-educational organizations and found sources reaching back as far as 1966, when French, Kay, and Meyer studied self-rated and superior-rated goals. Instructional leadership, and such practices connected to its theories, are clear instances of the behaviors considered to be required in the general leadership realm influencing educational leadership priorities.

Transformational Leadership

Transformational leadership describes principals who are focused primary on building vision and capacity in the organization through raising others to higher levels of motivation (Abu-tineh, Khasawneh, & Omary, 2009). Principals who practice transformational leadership are interested in building the commitment and productivity of others in the school, with the belief that such priorities will be followed by a second order effect of improved teaching by staff (Hallinger, 2003). Hallinger acknowledges directly that transformational leadership was first present in general leadership studies starting in the 1970s (Hallinger, 2003) and was adapted by Leithwood and Murphy (Hallinger & Murphy, 1985).

Transformational leadership practices have been tied to positive changes in schools (Leithwood & Duke, 1998) and include behaviors such as fostering group goals, modeling desired behavior, providing intellectual stimulation, knowing the problems of the school, being approachable, seeking new ideas, and developing human resources. These are all positive behaviors that would be categorized as “required” to various degrees for transformational leadership to exist.

In the recent past, constructs similar to transformational leadership have arisen and become expansive, such as adaptive leadership. Adaptive leadership acknowledges the demand for new strategies and competencies in an evolving marketplace, driving the need for leaders to push people and organizations to change to add previously untapped value. Adaptive leaders consistently observe and interpret surroundings before designing interventions to address identified challenges. (Heifetz, Grashow, & Linsky, 2009)

Participative Leadership

Participative and distributed leadership models have been studied extensively and examined from multiple angles. Such democratic efforts focus on sharing responsibilities, decision making power, and resources among multiple people (Leithwood & Duke, 1998) (Spillane, Halverson, & Diamond, 2001; Spillane et al., 2004). Roots for the acceptance of participative leadership may be found in the classic Theory Y concept, in which decisions are delegated and employees are allowed participation and are thus empowered in an organization (Lunenburg & Ornstein, 2011). Hallinger and Heck (2010) found a direct effect of such collaborative leadership on the internal academic capacity, which in turn lead to higher rates of learning.

Unfortunately, even Spillane et al. (2004), in their description of distributed leadership, argue that distributed leadership is best understood by considering regular leadership, as opposed to practices leaders should avoid and from which they should protect their subordinates from experiencing. Although Spillane et al. acknowledges that the tasks associated with educational leadership need more in-depth analysis, such analysis in regard to destructive leadership is difficult to find in the educational leadership sector. The models of distributed leadership in education, and the models built on the beliefs of distributed leadership, are weakened without a full acknowledgement of the destructive practices that happen within organizations, and more specifically among groups of people that should be working together in a distributed model that promotes democracy.

Managerial Leadership

Managerial leadership argues against the precept that leadership and management clash, and embraces the idea that principals can impact their schools by focusing on tasks, functions, and behaviors that will keep the organization running smoothly such as supervision, teacher selection, and student testing (Leithwood & Duke, 1998). Recent work supports the argument that principals have the most significant influence over organizational issues such as structures, cultures, policies, and standard operating procedures (Leithwood, Patten, & Jantzi, 2010). By definition, this view seems to give primary attention to what a principal should do to keep a school running smoothly, as opposed to what they should not do to help a school run well.

The Leadership Gap

This review of traditional educational leadership frameworks reveals a focus on what qualities educational leaders must have, and what actions they are “required” to do to be a heroic leader that is capable of building something great. Lost in this literature is the recognition of what leaders must not do that they are currently doing and the implications of such “prohibited” behaviors on an organization.

This gap in the literature forces the question: what is it that we are silent about? If being approachable is a practice of the aforementioned transformational leadership model, what does it mean to not be approachable, and what impact does such a disposition have?

Many educational leadership studies attempt to further the understanding of effective leadership by creating lists of to-dos, such as the seven dispositions of co-creative leaders (Wasonga & Murphy, 2007), which include the required behaviors of collaboration, patience, and humbleness. The emphasis of the behaviors on such lists infers that educational leaders exist who do not have those dispositions. In regard to the previous example, it is an acknowledgement that some educational leaders make decisions alone and are impatient and prideful. If, in fact, these behaviors do exist in educational leaders, research is silent on the impact they are having on staff and the achievement of students, and researchers have been silent about the impact of making decisions alone, the impact of being impatient, and the impact of being prideful. If bad is really stronger than good (Baumeister et al., 2001), then this silence must be investigated and researched in the educational leadership sector to see if such behaviors do exist and what their impact is.

According to Thoroughgood et al. (2012), these behaviors do exist in many sectors of leadership. Thoroughgood et al. (2012). define such behaviors as DLB. Organizational leadership studies in other domains have long addressed this specific concept of destructive leadership, which is built on concepts ranging from incivility and undermining to petty tyranny and abusive supervision (Aasland et al., 2010; Padilla et al., 2007; Reed & Bullis, 2009; Thoroughgood et al., 2012). Ironically, although the aforementioned educational leadership frameworks have their roots in traditional leadership studies, the influence of destructive leadership literature on educational leadership investigations has been basically non-existent.

The possible impact of destructive leadership on an organization can be seen through the lens of organizational justice theory. Organizational justice theory includes the perceived fairness of the methods an organization and individuals in the organization use to make decisions (Tepper, Duffy, Henle, & Lambert, 2006), the perceived fairness of the treatment people receive when processes are implemented (Bies & Moag, 1986), and the perceived fairness of the explanations people receive when processes are implemented (Greenberg, 1990). Including organizational justice theory into an interpretation of educational leadership would mean that principals must not only make decisions that positively impact the programs of a school, but they must also balance those decisions with staff perceptions of the decision, the explanation of that decision, and the execution of the decision. Educational leadership does not address, as a whole, the balancing act that leaders must play when dealing with those perceptions and the impact that perceived injustices among staff can have on an organization, because educational leadership does not address the behaviors on the prohibited end of the spectrum.

As the level of perceived injustice increases, so do actions intended to harm either an organization or the individuals in that organization (Fox et al., 2001). Such counterproductive work behavior (CWB) includes an expansive list of not only shocking actions such as aggression, destruction of property, misuse of information or resources, theft, and using drugs or alcohol at work but also less grandiose activities, including failure to follow instructions, doing work intentionally incorrectly, and inappropriate verbal actions (Fox et al., 2001; Gruys, 2003). Levels of perceived justice have also been found to be significantly related to trust in management and intention to turnover (Alexander & Ruderman, 1987). So although a

principal believes he or she is improving curriculum or school culture, he or she may be inadvertently increasing the likelihood that some staff members leave. Even Hallinger (2003) admits that instructional decisions a principal makes must be dependent on school context. For a principal to weigh those decisions and their possible outcomes, even after years of research on educational leadership, he or she has no place to turn in the educational sector to see impacts of perceived injustice surrounding his or her decision making, explanations, and execution. Bringing in already understood theories of leadership from general destructive leadership research can easily fill such a gap.

Destructive Leadership

The DLB concept introduced by Thoroughgood et al. (2012) uses a three-factor model to categorize manifestations of DLB into three categories of behaviors: organization-directed behavior (behaviors targeting the organization, such as *litters the work environment* and *violates company policy*), subordinate-directed behavior (behaviors targeting individual people, such as *avoids addressing important issues* and *invades subordinates' privacy*), and sexual harassment (such as *brings pornography to work* and *engages in romantic relationships at work*). The model combines past studies of negative, dark, abusive, and destructive leadership to create a broad construct of DLB.

Destructive Leader Behaviors Inventory: Background

In the initial study of DLB by Thoroughgood et al. (2012), the purpose was two-fold: to determine the dimensional structure of DLB, and to develop a measure of the construct. In order to determine the DLB structure, the authors used inductive and deductive methods to develop an inventory of destructive leader behaviors. Multidimensional scaling and confirmatory analysis were then used to determine the dimensions of the inventory in order to compare data and assess fit to the hypothesis. The final inventory includes behaviors identified through surveys as being “harmful or deviant in some way at work” (p. 234) as well as behaviors identified from existing measures or constructs of DLB and destructive workplace behavior (Table 2-1).

Construct	Referent Source
Abusive supervision	Tepper (2000)
Leader bullying	Fox and Stallworth (2005); Einarsen and Hoel (2001)
Counterproductive work behavior	Fox, Spector, and Miles (2001); Gruys and Sackett (2003)
Dark leadership	Conger (1990)
Incivility	Cortina, Magley, Williams, and Langhout (2001)
Personalized leadership	Popper (2002)
Petty tyranny	Ashforth (1987)
Supervisor undermining	Duffy, Ganster, and Pagon (2002)
White-collar crime	Holtgreter (2005)
Workplace aggression	Greenberg and Barling (1999); Straus (1979)
Workplace deviance	Bennett and Robinson (2000)

Table 2-1: Existing Measures and Constructs (Thoroughgood et al., 2012)

Existing Construct 1: Abusive Supervision

Tepper defines abusive supervision as “subordinates’ perceptions of the extent to which supervisors engage in the sustained display of hostile verbal and nonverbal behaviors, excluding physical contact” (Tepper, 2000, p. 178). Actions that would define a principal as non-approachable, such as being rude, inconsiderate, or publicly critical, fall into the category of abusive supervision (Bies, 2002; Tepper, 2000). Abusive supervision behaviors are always hostile toward others, which differs from other destructive behaviors that may or may not be categorized as hostile. Abusive supervision is not necessarily deviant if it falls within organizational expectations, and it is not necessarily aggressive but rather may include behaviors of indifference (Tepper, 2000). Inherent to this definition is the understanding that abusive supervision is a subjective assessment made by subordinates, that abusive supervision is a description of sustained behaviors over time, and that abusive supervision occurs for a purposeful reason (Tepper, 2000, 2007).

Tepper’s (2000) landmark framework for the consequences of abusive leadership relies on the interplay of interactional justice, procedural justice, and distributive justice with individual workplace measurements and abusive behaviors from supervisors. To test his framework, Tepper utilized random-digit dialing to find a sample of individuals who were employed full-time and had a direct supervisor. Tepper surveyed the sample at two different times. The first survey measured abusive supervision, perceived mobility, and organizational justice. The second survey, which was collected six months later, measured voluntary turnover, job satisfaction, life satisfaction, organizational commitment, conflict between work

and family, and psychological distress. Tepper found relationships between abusive supervision and subordinates' work attitudes, psychological distress, and work-family conflict.

Studies have reported that subordinates with abusive supervisors have higher levels of resistance (Tepper, Duffy, & Shaw, 2001), lower levels of organizational compliance (Zellars, Tepper, & Duffy, 2002), less commitment to their organization (Aryee, Chen, Sun, & Debrah, 2007), higher turnover, more negative attitudes about their job, more negative attitudes about their life, higher levels of conflict between work and family, higher levels of psychological distress (Tepper, 2000; Yagil, 2006), and lower job satisfaction (Tepper et al., 2004). Furthermore, studies show consequences of abusive supervision for subordinates include problem drinking (Bamberger, 2006) and workplace aggression (Dupré, Inness, Connelly, Barling, & Hopton, 2006).

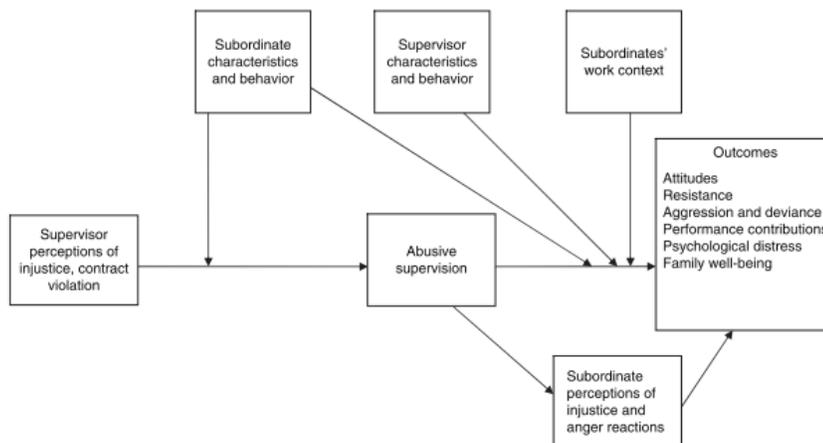


Figure 2-1: Abusive Supervision Model (Tepper, 2007)

It would seem obvious, then, that a principal who is deciding whether or not being approachable is a priority must not only understand what comes with being approachable, but also what comes with being non-approachable. In addition, the principal must understand what not to do in order to be considered approachable. If such a principal were to rely only on educational leadership literature, being non-approachable would paint a simplified picture that depicts a lower level of transformational leadership. Incorporating learnings from destructive leadership studies would paint a much more detailed picture, including the possible ramifications explained above. Although little has been done in the educational realm around abusive supervision, the groundwork in general destructive leadership studies could easily be built upon, and would add much value to the existing research.

Existing Construct 2: Leader Bullying

Bullying in the workplace has been defined as extended exposure to negative behaviors from coworkers or superiors at work, and includes actions such as criticism, belittling, gossiping, and social isolation (Notelaers, Vermunt, Baillien, Einarsen, & De Witte, 2011). More than the actions, however, bullying in the workplace is categorically unique in regard to the repetition, length, and variety of actions (Einarsen et al., 2003a). Some situations of workplace bullying can last months, others years, and can have detrimental effects on both the individuals being bullied and the organization as a whole (Crawford, 2001; Einarsen, Hoel, & Notelaers, 2009). In a study exploring exposure to workplace bullying, only 30.5% of respondents reported that they had not been bullied, while the rest reported a spectrum of

negative acts at work from limited work criticism (27.2%) to being victims of severe workplace bullying (3.6%) (Notelaers et al., 2011).

Furthermore, studies of workplace bullying have found that higher degrees of such bullying were correlated not only with higher levels of stress and lower levels of job satisfaction (Lutgen-Sandvik et al., 2007) but have also been found to be a significant predictor of anxiety and depression above other job stressors (Hauge et al., 2010).

Although these types of studies and results would seem necessary to a full understanding of workplace dynamics, they are primarily found in general leadership studies and are mostly absent from educational leadership literature. Although building a positive environment in an educational environment through models such as participative, distributed, or co-creative leadership has its scientific roots in general leadership studies, this level of research into the destructive possibilities of opposing behaviors has thus far been missing. This speaks again to the silence of contrasting leader behaviors: if participative and distributed leadership has been such a focus in educational leadership literature, we are acknowledging that a contradictory set of behaviors exist at the same time that have been left unexamined. Although this does not negate the validity of such participative models, it leaves a void that disallows full understanding by both academics and practitioners. This void could be filled if educational leadership studies began to delve into theories of destructive leadership.

Existing Construct 3: Counterproductive Work Behavior

CWB is behavior intended to harm either an organization or the individuals in that organization and includes aggression, destruction of property, misuse of information or resources, theft, failure to follow instructions, doing work incorrectly, being unsafe, using alcohol or drugs at work, and inappropriate verbal actions (Gruys, 2003). CWB as a broad framework has been connected with organizational aggression, antisocial behavior, delinquency, deviance, retaliation, revenge, and bullying (Fox et al., 2001). Spector and Fox (2002) propose that CWB is an outcome of the interplay among an individual's interpretation of the work environment, emotions, and control perceptions, and is the opposite of Organizational Citizenship Behavior (OCB). Specifically, job stressors, job constraints, and perceived injustice contribute to negative emotions and CWB (Fox et al., 2001).

Existing Construct 4: Dark Leadership

Leadership studies from the private-sector assert that the qualities generally accepted as necessary also have the potential to harm organizations and individuals (Conger, 1990). Judge, Piccolo, and Kosalka (2009) identify the "dark side" of these desirable traits (Table 2-2), explaining that factors such as situational context and leader decisions create this paradox of traits that are both "bright" traits with a "dark" side. For example, principal supervisors who are using a managerial focus might be looking to bring stability, but such perceived stability might be interpreted as apathy or disinterest, which may lead to distrust or a lower

credibility (Judge et al., 2009). In addition, superintendents who are attempting to build standard operating procedures might be hindering their organization's ability to change, innovate, and take risks (Judge et al., 2009).

Bright Trait	Dark Side
Conscientiousness	Less willing to innovate or take risks Avoid innovation Resist change Inflexible about procedures and policies Critical of team performance
Extraversion	Behave in bold, aggressive, and grandiose ways Less likely to solicit input from subordinates Shallow discussions with many people lead to non-clear focus for followers Hasty decision makers
Agreeableness	Avoid interpersonal conflict Overly sensitive to others' feelings Not honest in evaluations and appraisals Less likely to propose process innovations
Emotional stability	Interpreted to be apathetic or disinterested Fail to express positive and negative emotion, leading to poor follower trust May be regarded as less credible
Openness to experience	Easily distracted pursuing short term strategies Lack of commitment Lack focus on strategic objectives Inability to provide simple and clear instructions
Intelligence	Treated as outsiders Disinterested in simple and mundane problems Less effective when quick and decisive action is needed
Charisma	Manipulative Discourage critical thinking

Table 2-2: Dark Side Of Bright Traits (Judge et al., 2009)

Traits from the “dark side” of leadership have been found to be connected with perceived unfairness (Tepper et al., 2006), abusive supervisory patterns (Aryee et al., 2007), low trust in management (Alexander & Ruderman, 1987), poor levels of job satisfaction (Alexander & Ruderman, 1987), using drugs at work (Gruys, 2003), stress (Tepper, 2000), bullying (Fox et al., 2001), and lack of commitment to an organization (Duffy, Ganster, & Pagon, 2002).

Unfortunately, a principal who is looking to incorporate basic management principles into his or her leadership style must turn to general leadership studies in order to gain a fuller understanding of how such actions may impact staff, as described above. The educational leadership realm is fairly empty in regard to the negative consequences that the dark or destructive side of these actions and priorities might have.

Existing Construct 5: Incivility

Andersson and Pearson define incivility in the workplace as an action of rudeness or discourteousness, partnered with disregard, that violates the norms of social interaction. Examples of workplace incivility include interruption, dirty looks, and not listening. Specifically, it is comprised of low-intensity actions with an ambiguous intent to harm (Andersson & Pearson, 1999). The ambiguous quality applied to the understanding of such actions may make incivility most closely related to petty tyranny. But while petty tyranny applies to actions related to abuse of authority, incivility is authority neutral.

In a study examining the effects of incivility in the workplace, Cortina, Magley, Williams, and Langhout (2001) found that experiences of such incivility were connected with less satisfaction in the workplace. A sample of federal court system employees (n=1662) with a response rate of 71% was surveyed using tools from The Workplace Incivility Scale, an abbreviated version of the Job Descriptive Index (Roznowski, 1989), an abbreviated version of the Mental Health Index (Veit & Ware, 1983), a subscale of the Retirement Descriptive Index (Smith, Kendall, & Hulin, 1969), and a revision of the Perception of Fair Interpersonal

Treatment Scale (Donovan, Drasgow, & Munson, 1998). The results of the study show that although 71% of employees reported some experience of incivility in their work environment in the previous five years, such experiences brought less satisfaction with employees' jobs, supervisors, coworkers, pay, benefits, and promotional opportunities. Employees experiencing incivility wanted to quit their job more often, and reported higher levels of psychological distress (Cortina et al., 2001).

Cortina et al. (2001), argue that although such connections among low-intensity incidents may seem counterintuitive, they are in line with Lazarus and Folkman's (1984) findings that daily hassles, which they define as small irritations that may cause distress, are more predictive of psychological and somatic symptoms than life events.

Existing Construct 6: Personalized Leadership

Personalized leaders can be understood as an opposite of socialized leaders. Although personalized leaders are largely narcissistically motivated and seek out opportunities for self-interest and personal gain, socialized leaders have a more advanced ability and desire to empathize, give, and contribute to society (House & Howell, 1992; Howell & Avolio, 1992). Narcissistic individuals are likely to experience anger, frustration, hostility, and eventual aggression in the workplace. Such workers are also more likely to engage in CWB (Penney, 2002).

Furthermore, Popper found that avoidant attachment was associated with high levels of personalized leaders (Popper, 2002). Avoidant attachment in leadership has been connected

to the inability of followers to see their leader as a provider of security and low levels of mental health in followers (Davidovitz, Mikulincer, Shaver, Izsak, & Popper, 2007).

Existing Construct 7: Petty Tyranny

Ashforth (1997, 2003) proposed a model of top-down leadership he termed petty tyranny, with the hope to stimulate further general research in ineffective leadership. In Ashforth's proposed model, behaviors that are considered to make a petty tyrannical leader include belittling subordinates, lack of consideration, a forcing style of conflict resolution, discouraging initiatives, and no contingent punishment (see Figure 2-3).

Past research has shown a connection between behaviors associated with petty tyranny and subordinate fear, anxiety, and stress. Nurses reported higher levels of stress when their supervisors were verbally abusive and publicly criticized them (Motowidlo, Packard, & Manning, 1986), and Baron (1988) found that destructive criticism created more anger and tension than positive criticism.

In a more recent examination of the precursors and consequences of petty tyranny, Ashforth (1997) examined in depth the assumptions of subordinate dissatisfaction with and lack of performance for leaders who are considered petty tyrants. Ashforth tested his own model, specifically the predispositions and effects, through a survey of business students enrolled in evening courses at Concordia University who fit three criteria: (a) they were currently employed, (b) they had been working for the same supervisor for at least five months, and (c) they had a coworker who had worked for that same supervisor also for at least

five months. The survey participants were given a survey for themselves and their coworkers to complete that collected data regarding their supervisors' petty tyranny practices and the effect of their supervisors' practices. A third survey was given to each participant for the respective supervisor to complete, which collected data regarding the predispositions section of Ashforth's model. The findings were strong in favor of the consequences proposed through Ashforth's model. A regression analysis showed strong support for low leader endorsement, high helplessness/work alienation, and some support for high frustration/ stress/reactance and low self-esteem/performance.

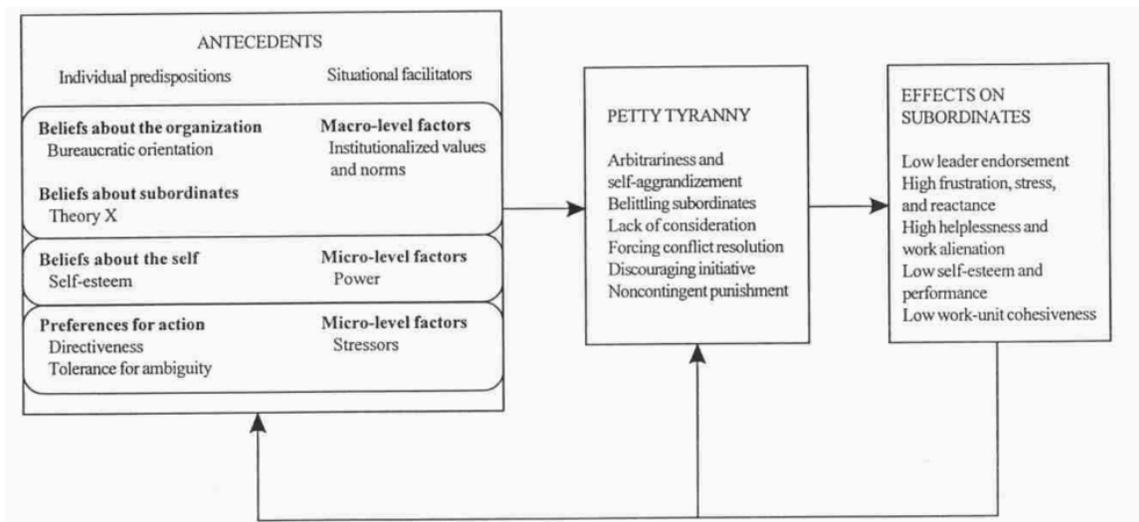


Figure 2-2: Antecedents and Effects of Petty Tyranny (Ashforth, 1997)

The discussion revolving around petty tyranny should force a principal to think about his or her attempts to be an educational leader. Although he or she may need to define goals, make curricular decisions, and expect teachers to use best practices, he or she should also

understand what actions he or she should avoid that could show his leadership style to be tyrannical. As an example, although instructional leadership has long been regarded as a foundational leadership model in schools since Leithwood and Duke's (1998) study, it has been deemed as a top-down approach by some (Barth, 1990; Day, Harris, & Hadfield, 2001). For instance, Hallinger and McCary (1990) explain that to encourage collegiality as a norm, instructional leaders should intervene directly, set aside time for faculty to problem solve, plan, and interact. As principals intervene to rearrange allocated time and facilitate group problem-solving, they are likely to make decisions that may seem by some to be inconsiderate of their day-to-day planning needs. The impact of such perceptions by subordinates has not yet been studied in schools and may leave a principal incorrectly assessing the benefits and costs of his actions.

Existing Construct 8: Supervisor Undermining

Duffy et al. (2002) describe social undermining in the workplace as behavior intended to hinder, over time, the ability to establish and maintain positive interpersonal relationships, work-related success, and favorable reputation. Social undermining as a construct was introduced first by Vinokur and van Ryn in 1993, and included displays of three types of behavior: anger or dislike, criticism, and actions that hinder the attainment of instrumental goals (Vinokur, Price, & Caplan, 1996; Vinokur & van Ryn, 1993). The definition provided by Duffy et al., acknowledges that behaviors can only be seen as undermining if they are perceived to be intentional and when the behaviors weaken another in degrees, as opposed to

having an immediate and extreme effect. Undermining may occur in the form of direct action, or passive withholding.

In the study by Duffy et al. (2002), Slovenian police officers participated in focus groups and a 15-page questionnaire that resulted in a list of 72 undermining behaviors. Through an exploratory principal component analysis and a confirmatory factor analysis, a list of 26 undermining items was finalized. Thirteen of these items were considered supervisor-undermining behaviors, and 13 were coworker-undermining behaviors. Previously created measures were used to determine levels of social support, self-efficacy, organizational commitment, counterproductive work behaviors, and somatic complaints.

Through regression analysis, results of the study showed high levels of supervisor undermining to be associated with negative work-related outcomes: levels of self-efficacy, organizational commitment, active and passive counterproductive behaviors, and somatic complaints. It is significant to note that an association was not found among coworker undermining and self-efficacy, organizational commitment, and passive counterproductive behaviors. Supervisor undermining was also found to be more strongly related to work outcomes than social support. Furthermore, employees who saw their supervisors as sources of both high support and high undermining had lower levels of job efficacy, organizational commitment, well-being, and counterproductive behaviors (see Figure 2-4); the authors termed this “supervisor exacerbation”.

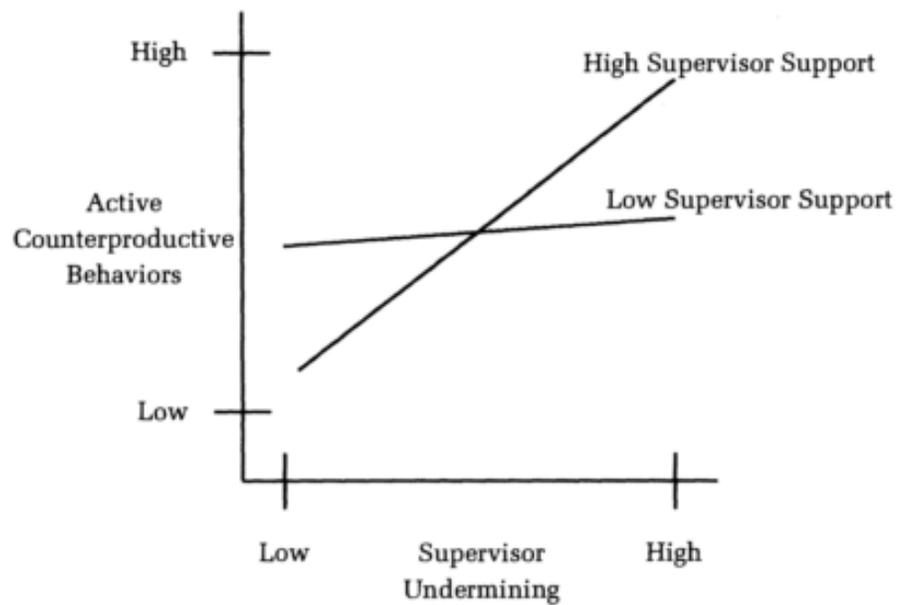


Figure 2-3: Supervisor Exacerbation (Duffy et al., 2002)

Existing Construct 9: White-Collar Crime

White-collar crime was first defined by Sutherland (1949) as crime “committed by a person of respectability and high social status in the course of his occupation” (p. 9). Sutherland’s definition has been added upon in recent years so as to include females, individuals with lower educational and status levels, and crimes committed outside of the workplace (Holtfreter, 2005). Strader (2002) describes white-collar crime as crime that does not necessarily involve force; is not directly related to narcotic possessions, sale, or distribution; is not directly related to organized crime activities, national policies of immigration civil rights, or national security; or is not considered a common theft of property.

The impact of white-collar crime is generally accepted to include monetary loss by an organization.

Existing Construct 10: Workplace Aggression

Anderson and Bushman (2002) define aggression using three qualities: (1) an action that is directed toward another individual with the intent to cause harm; (2) the actor believes the action will cause harm to the target; and (3) the actor believes the target will be motivated to avoid the action. This definition is inclusive of both physically violent actions and psychological aggression, and may be impulsive or premeditated. This definition is not inclusive of accidents (Anderson & Bushman, 2002; Wiley, Greenberg, & Barling, 1999). Being subjected to aggression has been found to be a significant predictor of frustration and stress at work, and being the target of aggression is related to engaging in aggression (Glomb & Liao, 2003), creating a cycle of frustration and stress at work.

Existing Construct 11: Workplace Deviance

Bennet and Robinson (2000) continued their research in the area of workplace deviance by developing a measurement of workplace deviance to be used in the workplace. Through a series of three studies, they constructed a final measure using a two-factor solution that included 12 items of organizational deviance and 7 items of interpersonal deviance. Scores on the developed 19-item workplace deviance scale predictably showed positive

correlations to accepted scales that measure similar constructs, such as property and production deviance (Hollinger & Clark, 1982, 1983a, 1983b), physical and psychological withdrawal and antagonistic work behaviors (Lehman & Simpson, 1992), and neglect (Bennett & Robinson, 2000). This correlation gives the workplace deviance measurement convergent validity.

Bennett and Robinson (2000) conducted a survey of 1,000 individuals in Toledo, Ohio, through a random sampling procedure. Of the 542 responses, 352 were completed and usable, resulting in a response rate of 43%. Responses were measured against theoretically related constructs, which included frustration; procedural, distributive, and interactional justice; normlessness; Machiavellianism; and citizenship behavior.

The results showed that frustration, normlessness, perceived injustice, and Machiavellianism showed significant positive association with interpersonal deviance. Perceived injustice and Machiavellianism were strongly connected to organizational deviance. The connections contribute to the argued validity of the measurement instrument.

The authors argue that their results give proof to the usefulness in utilizing self-reported data to measure workplace deviance as the report rate for given deviant behaviors was, in their opinion, higher than expected. They also argue that the validity of their instrument support the practice of utilizing measures to investigate complete constructs related to deviant workplace behaviors and may paint a more accurate picture of such behavior, as opposed to the practice of investigating more individual and specific behaviors.

Summary of Existing Constructs

In sum, there were 11 existing constructs from the literature that were reviewed. They included Abusive Supervision, Leader Bullying, Counterproductive Work Behavior, Dark Leadership, Incivility, Personalized Leadership, Petty Tyranny, Supervisor Undermining, White-collar crime, Workplace Agression, and Workplace Deviance. These constructs were the foundation for Thoroughgood et al.'s (2012) broad construct of DLB.

Destructive Leadership Behavior: Impact

From the reviewed literature, a pattern is revealed in terms of the effects of destructive leadership on workers' likelihood of leaving, job satisfaction, stress, and organizational effectiveness. In addition, a recent study asked active-duty Army majors if they had "ever seriously considered leaving your service or agency because of the way you were treated by a supervisor" (Reed, 2010 p. 61); over half of the respondents responded that they, in fact, had. Findings that 61% of employees in a given organization experienced destructive leadership, which led to their consideration of leaving, create recognition for the need for similar studies in educational organizations (schools), where similar supervisor and subordinate relationships exist and where the topic of teacher turnover is constant. Examining destructive leadership in schools can provide a means to examine that venue of studies.

Furthermore, job satisfaction has been studied with regard to teacher and principal relations and principal styles. Studies have shown that principal actions in line with

transformational theories have the most satisfied teachers (Bogler, 2001) but also that workplace environment and relationships are significant factors in determining job satisfaction for teachers (Kim & Loadman, 1994; Sergiovanni, 1967). Destructive leadership studies have a significant amount of research not only to support but also to add to current understandings of job satisfaction by focusing not on the lack of behavior by leaders but on the destructive actions that are related to low job satisfaction.

The research on negative leadership qualities and stress in the general population is revealing. Between 60% and 75% of employees reported that their immediate supervisor was the most stressful aspect of their job (Hogan et al., 1990). With such a statistic, it is shocking that more has not been done in the educational leadership sector with regard to the relationship between teacher stress and principal actions.

Destructive Leadership Behavior: An Inclusive Model

Thoroughgood et al. (2012) combine past studies in destructive leadership, many of which have been reviewed above, to create the broad construct of DLB and its corresponding measurement tool. Most notably may be Einarsen et al.'s (2007) proposed model of leadership behavior (see Figure 2-5). In this model, Einarsen et al. acknowledge the difference between being an ineffective leader and being a destructive leader, extending the continuum to measure leader impact into negative dimensions.

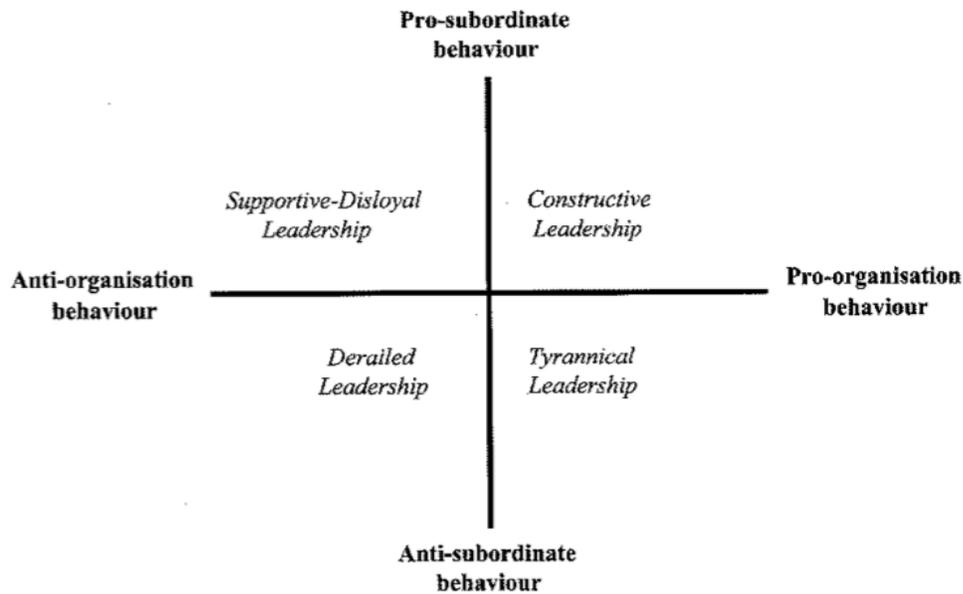


Figure 2-4: Einarsen's Destructive/Constructive Leadership Behavior Model (2007)

The Destructive Constructive Leadership Model (DCL) asserts that leaders regularly act in one of five categories. Pro-subordinate and pro-organization actions are categorized as constructive leadership behavior. This, for example, would be seen through a leader who acts in ways that benefit both the organization and individual workers in the organization. Anti-organization and anti-subordinate actions are identified as derailed leadership behavior and are shown through actions that negatively impact both the organization as a whole and individual workers in the organization. Actions that support either the organization or an individual but work against the other are categorized accordingly as either supportive-disloyal or tyrannical. DCL also acknowledges a fifth type of leadership action: laissez-faire. DCL differentiates itself from many leadership frameworks by acknowledging and providing a

method of reporting negative leadership behaviors. DCL exists on the assumption that all behaviors of leaders occur across a range of positive and negative behaviors.

The model proposed by Einarsen et al. (2007) acknowledges both institutional and individual aspects of an organization as previously discussed in regard to Getzels and Guba's (1957) role parameters. As such, a leader may act destructively toward the organization but constructively toward an individual, may act destructively only toward an/many individuals, or act destructively toward both individuals and the organization.

Although previous models of negative leader behavior have focused most often on subordinate-directed actions, DLB follows Einarsen et al.'s (2007) leadership model and brings in additional types of actions. The DLB construct includes three categories of behaviors: organization-directed behavior (behaviors targeting the organization, such as *litters the work environment* and *violates company policy*), subordinate-directed behavior (behaviors targeting individual people, such as *avoids addressing important issues* and *invades subordinates' privacy*), and sexual harassment (such as *brings pornography to work* and *engages in romantic relationships at work*). The behaviors manifested in the previously reviewed existing constructs can be categorized into these three categories of behaviors (see Figure 2-6). Specifically, the reviewed concepts fit into organization-directed Behaviors and Subordinate-Directed Behaviors, with an acknowledgement that sexual harassment behaviors are manifested through subordinate-directed behaviors but are unique enough to warrant a separate category of action.

Organization-Directed Behaviors	Counterproductive Work Behavior Personalized Leadership White-Collar Crime Workplace Deviance
Subordinate-Directed Behaviors	Abusive Supervision Counterproductive Work Behavior Leader Bullying Dark Leadership Incivility Petty Tyranny Supervisor Undermining Workplace Aggression

Figure 2-6: Mapping of Reviewed Constructs onto DLB Behavior Types

When describing DLB, Thoroughgood et al. (2012) utilize four assumptions to combine past destructive leadership studies and define behaviors included in the DLB construct. To begin, DLB includes only acts that would be considered by most to be “harmful and deviant toward followers and/or the organization” (p. 231). As such, actions that are merely displeasing, but have no harmful consequence would not be considered DLB. As an example, a subordinate may not like the color blue, but if her boss paints the offices blue, it is not considered DLB. Likewise, a supervisor who allows his team more autonomy might watch his team struggle more than in the past as they learn new roles in an organization, but most would not consider such an allowance as DLB. Categorizing a behavior as inherently harmful would also keep single isolated actions or incidents from being included or excluded from the DLB framework. An example of this would be a supervisor who threatens a subordinate. Although this might increase efficiencies in the short term, most would agree that threatening a subordinate is inherently destructive. The ability to see actions as inherently

destructive or inherently constructive, regardless of individual contexts, allows for a broad application of the construct across various types of organizations.

Secondly, DLB is not inclusive of behaviors exhibited as a result of low capacity or poor performance. “DLB is a unique form of harm doing that is unequivocally tied to the leader’s voluntary engagement in such behavior” (Thoroughgood, et al., p. 231). This assumption safeguards the construct from measuring behavior that is connected to incompetence and good intentions. A supervisor who engages in DLB is aware that what they are doing, be it actively or passively, is harmful. This may include being motivated to act voluntarily destructively or lacking the motivation to act in a constructive way.

Furthermore, DLB utilizes Buss’s (1961) taxonomy of aggressive behaviors to be inclusive of actions that are active or passive, physical or verbal, direct or indirect. Research has called for a need to include a broader approach to investigating destructive leadership, as opposed to relying primarily on active manifested behaviors (Einarsen et al., 2007). DLB conversely uses a broad construct that would include, for example, neglecting to protect a subordinate in a dangerous work environment, or keeping information from an employee. Including passive actions would result in the acceptance of laissez-faire leadership and management-by-exception -- behaviors that would have been excluded otherwise.

Finally, the DLB construct uses the term *leader* to apply to “anyone in a leadership, supervisory, or managerial position” (Thoroughgood, et al., p. 232). Because leaders have more access to power and resources, that power allows them to have greater impact on people and organizations. This means that leaders may show destructive leader behaviors toward

other leaders. However, for the purposes of this study, the term *leader* is applied specifically to supervisors of participants.

In determining the validity of the construct, the authors collected evidence regarding the relationship of the DLB construct to workplace attitude outcomes of subordinate job satisfaction (Asbill, 1994), leader liking (Dienesch & Liden, 1986; Engle, 1997), and likelihood of leaving (Goddard & Goddard, 2006). When measured, all three categories of DLB: organization-directed, subordinate-directed, and sexual harassment, were negatively correlated with job satisfaction and liking for leader, and positively correlated with turnover intentions. Of the three different categories of behaviors, subordinate-directed behaviors were the most powerful predictors of subordinate workplace attitudes, which is why most previous constructs have focused on such behavior. However, organization-directed behaviors were strongly predictive of workplace deviance of subordinates, providing support for a broad-reaching and comprehensive construct (Thoroughgood et al., 2012).

Utilizing the DLB model as a construct to investigate destructive leadership practices in schools is appropriate not only because of this overall comprehensive nature, but because the initial measurement of the DLB model was developed to look at job satisfaction, stress, and likelihood of leaving. Although most research in destructive leadership has focused on subordinate-directed, eventually damaging, norm-violating behavior, the DLB construct approaches the topic more comprehensively by included other types of behaviors, such as stealing company funds, using company funds, ignoring phone calls, and violating company policy.

Summary

This chapter focused on the review of traditional educational leadership literature and the lack of migration of destructive leadership findings into educational leadership studies. The conversation then moved to a discussion of the DLB model and how it was constructed using a combination of past destructive leadership constructs and resulted in a framework that could be appropriately used in an educational leadership study. The following chapter introduces the research design and methodology.

CHAPTER 3

RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

Overview

The review of literature examined historical theories of educational leadership, and discussed the absence of destructive leadership in those theories. The seven historical theories reviewed were Instructional Leadership, Transformational Leadership, Participative Leadership, Managerial Leadership, Contingent Leadership, Invitational Leadership, and Co-Creating Leadership. All the historical educational leadership theories were found to lack an overall inspection of destructive leadership. The 12 existing constructs that framed the actions included in the DLB construct were reviewed, as well as the DLB construct and the resulting three-factor solution used to categorize DLB manifestations. Although significant voice is evident in the studies of destructive leadership in the private sector (Einarsen et al., 2010), there are few similar voices in educational leadership. There is much more to learn from the effects of destructive leadership alongside great leadership research, especially in the education sector. The primary purpose of the planned study is to investigate professional educators in northern Illinois to determine the relationship between manifestations of DLB and K-12 workplace attitudes: subordinate likelihood of leaving, job satisfaction, levels of stress, and ability to perform work duties. The study is significant because it attempts to fill a

gap left by historical educational leadership theories by investigating professional educators in northern Illinois to determine the relationship between manifestations of DLB and K-12 workplace attitudes: subordinate likelihood of leaving, job satisfaction, levels of stress, and ability to perform work duties.

The six research questions that guided the study are as follow:

RQ 1: To what extent are DLB manifestations perceived to be evident among educational leaders?

RQ2: To what extent do professional educators believe manifestations of DLB impact their ability to perform work duties?

RQ 3: What are the differences in the extent to which DLB manifestations are perceived to be evident among various leadership positions: assistant principal, principal, assistant superintendent, superintendent, other building-level position, and other district-level position?

RQ 4: What are the relationships among the three categories of DLB?

RQ 5: What are the relationships between perceived DLB manifestations and workplace attitudes toward likelihood of leaving, job satisfaction, levels of stress, and ability to perform work duties?

RQ 6: What are the best models predicting workplace attitudes toward likelihood of leaving, job satisfaction, levels of stress, and ability to perform work duties?

Design

The primary purpose of the conducted study was to investigate professional educators in northern Illinois to determine the relationship between manifestations of DLB and K-12 workplace attitudes toward likelihood of leaving, job satisfaction, levels of stress, and ability to perform work duties. The current study relied on quantitative data to measure the independent variables of leader behaviors and perceptions of those behaviors and the dependent variables of workplace attitudes. Quantitative designs allowed the researcher to study levels of, and relationships among, the variables through statistical methods and to identify trends and patterns in the observed relationships (Bryman et al., 1984).

Such methodology provides not only an ability to use mathematical techniques to make conclusions regarding trends and patterns, but such an approach is easily replicated, as it is considered to be more generalizable than qualitative research (Bryman, British, & Mar, 1984). A quantitative approach was chosen as a preferred method of data collection because of its ability to collect data efficiently from a large sample size and to apply detailed statistical analysis on an objective set of data (Cresswell, 2009). Quantitative research uses inquiry strategies such as surveys to collect data on predetermined instruments that can result in findings that are predictive, explanatory, and confirming (Williams, 2007).

In this study, dependent variables included job satisfaction (Asbill, 1994), job stress (Lutgen-Sandvik et al., 2007), likelihood of leaving (Goddard & Goddard, 2006), and perceived ability to perform work duties. In addition to demographic information, the survey used the 28 behaviors from the DLB measure as independent variables that measure the

overall presence of destructive leadership behaviors, categorized into three categories: subordinate-directed behaviors, organization-directed behaviors, and sexual harassment behaviors (Thoroughgood et al., 2012).

Sample and Participants

The population of the study consisted of employed professional educators in Illinois schools. The sample of the study was limited to currently employed certified teachers and administrators in graduate-level courses at a post-secondary academic institution in the state of Illinois, where permission was given by course instructors for the survey instrument to be completed. The population was chosen for the following benefits: first, sampling a population of graduate-level professional educators increased the likelihood that participants were in an advanced stage of personal learning and reflection, had advanced levels of experience in their occupation and with educational leaders, and brought an overall advanced perspective to the survey; and second, surveying students in graduate-degree-level courses allowed solitary perspectives on multiple leaders from various schools and districts. This is in contrast to a snowball survey or site-based surveys that would more likely provide multiple perspectives on fewer supervisors.

Data Collection Instrument

Demographic information was collected for each participant and the respective school. Demographic information included: (a) respondent's gender, (b) respondent's age, (c) respondent's years as a certified educator and years in the classroom, (d) respondent's years in current job, (e) respondent's job title, (f) respondent's supervisor job title.

Question 1 was created using one item from a section of Asbill's (1994) Invitational Leadership Survey. Asbill's survey was designed to determine relationships among teacher job satisfaction, principal effectiveness, and specific principal attributes and practices (Egley, 2003). The question asked respondents to rate their job satisfaction on a 5-point Likert-type scale of 1 (*not at all satisfied*) to 5 (*extremely satisfied*).

Question 2 was created using an item from a section of a survey created by Lutgen-Sandvik et al. (2007) to determine workplace bullying prevalence, perception, degree, and impact. The question asked respondents to rate their job stress on a 5-point Likert-type scale of 1 (*very unstressful*) to 5 (*very stressful*).

Questions 3 and 4 used a modified measure of teacher turnover created by Goddard and Goddard (2006) which asked participants the following question: "*How seriously are you considering leaving your current job?*" Those who responded affirmatively were asked if they would be seeking another teaching job or if they would be seeking a non teaching job. Goddard and Goddard refer to these two categories of participants as "movers" and "shakers," respectively. Their study of 112 individuals found that early career teachers who responded

that they were seriously considering leaving their current job had significantly higher levels of burnout, as measured by the Maslach Burnout Inventory (Maslach, Jackson, & Leiter, 1996).

The survey used the 28 behaviors from the DLB measure as Questions 5-32. The DLB measure created by Thoroughgood et al., was first published in April 2012 with a call for future researchers to examine its ability to predict organizational outcomes. It consists of 28 items that measure the overall presence of destructive leadership behaviors, categorized into three categories: subordinate-directed behaviors, organization-directed behaviors, and sexual harassment behaviors. The 28-item measure was a product of four consecutive studies. Study 1 utilized data from 210 individuals and past destructive leadership research to create a bank of 92 possible behaviors that could be used to measure DLB. Study 2 called on 26 subject-matter experts in the industrial psychology and organizational behavior fields to conduct an exploratory analysis to classify the 92 behaviors, which resulted in eight categories, and to reduce the number of behaviors by five within each of the eight categories -- 40 behaviors. The 40 behaviors were then used in Study 3 to collect data from 410 individuals for a confirmatory factor analysis, which resulted in the three-factor dimension, and a reduction of the behaviors to 38. Study 4 tested the validity of the instrument. Study 4 also reduced the measure to 28 behaviors through factor loadings, modification indices, and subject matter-experts' reviews.

Thoroughgood et al.'s (2012) study showed the overall reliability of the measure and the reliability of the subordinate-directed behavior factor have a Cronbach's Alpha of .96. The reliability of the organization-directed factor has a Cronbach's Alpha of .91, and of the sexual harassment factor has a Cronbach's Alpha of .80. The final three-factor model (subordinate-

directed, organization-directed, and sexual harassment) contained adequate fit to the data: scaled $\chi^2(662) = 1876.83$, RMSEA = .07, FI = .96; SRMR = .10. The three-factor model also contained adequate internal-consistency reliability ($\alpha = .92, .88, \text{ and } .64$ for subordinate-directed, organization-directed, and sexual harassment factors, respectively).

The survey used the 28 behaviors from the DLB measure as Questions 5-32, each of which required two different responses. The first response to each behavior mirrored the original DLB measure (Thoroughgood et al., 2012), asking each participant to rate the extent that their current supervisor participated in the given behavior on a 5-point Likert-type scale of 1 (*never*), 2 (*seldom*), 3 (*occasionally*), 4 (*often*), and 5 (*very often*). The second response to each behavior asked each participant to rate how the given behavior impacted their ability to perform work duties on a 5-point scale ranging from -2 (*very negatively*) to +2 (*very positively*). In addition to the scales, respondents were able to optionally designate an example behavior they had observed that fit the described supervisor behavior. This description was asked for with the hopes of providing a more meaningful discussion of the results.

The word “falsely” was removed from Question 11 as it was deemed repetitive and unnecessary. The behavior “Brings inappropriate material to work (e.g., pornography)” was modified to “Shares/uses inappropriate material at work (e.g., sexual or harassing jokes)” as it was deemed to be more inclusive. Statements on the original DLB measure were altered to use “organization” in lieu of “company” for Questions 23, 25, 26, 28, and 29. “Organization” was used as an attempt to identify the overall structure of the organization within which the participant was an employee, either school districts or schools, in the same manner that the original DLB measure attempted to do for company employees. Because both “company” and

“organization” are terms used to identify the overall structure of the organization within which an employee works, it is assumed that the reliability of the questions did not change because of this substitution.

Data Collection and Analysis Procedure

The study collected and examined quantitative data through volunteer surveys distributed to professional educators in Illinois graduate education courses. The data collection occurred in four steps.

Step 1: The researcher contacted professors at post-secondary institutions in order to explain the purpose of the study, determine which courses the professors taught that would have eligible participants, and to request permission to utilize students in those courses who were willing to volunteer as participants in the survey.

Step 2: The researcher introduced, distributed, and collected the survey responses from willing participants in the course. Survey response data was transferred to Microsoft Excel for storage purposes.

Step 3: Descriptive statistics were used to determine levels of the practice of DLB among educational leaders as perceived by professional educators and the levels of workplace attitudes toward likelihood of leaving, job satisfaction, levels of stress, and ability to perform work duties. Descriptive statistics allowed the collected data to be summarized and presented in a manner that provided the ability of the viewer of the data to see general patterns within the given data (Field & Hole, 2003).

Analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used to compare the differences in perceived practices of DLB in different professional educator groups. Such an ANOVA is appropriate because of the multiple educator groups being compared. Using an ANOVA allows the researcher to bypass the Type I error rate inflation that would occur if multiple *t*-tests were used to compare the groups (Field & Hole, 2003).

Correlational statistics was used to determine the relationships among the three categories of DLB and the relationships between DLB behaviors and workplace attitudes toward likelihood of leaving, job satisfaction, levels of stress, and ability to perform work duties. Correlational statistics were used to determine relationships among given scores, as opposed to the previously mentioned ANOVA, which measures differences in given scores. Using a correlations test allowed the researcher to observe systematic relationship between the noted levels (Field & Hole, 2003).

Regression analysis was used to test the ability of perceived manifestations of DLB to predict workplace attitudes toward likelihood of leaving, job satisfaction, levels of stress, and ability to perform work duties.

Summary

This chapter focused on the research design and methodology of the study. It reviewed the research questions, population sample and participants, the data collection instrument, and analysis procedures. The following chapter reviews and presents the research findings and a summary of the data analysis.

CHAPTER 4

DATA ANALYSIS AND FINDINGS

Overview

The primary purpose of the planned study was to fill a gap left by historical educational leadership theories by investigating professional educators in northern Illinois to determine the relationship between manifestations of DLB and K-12 workplace attitudes: subordinate likelihood of leaving, job satisfaction, levels of stress, and ability to perform work duties. This chapter contains the review and analysis of data collected through the survey instrument described in the previous chapter in order to answer the following research questions:

RQ 1: To what extent are DLB manifestations perceived to be evident among educational leaders?

RQ2: To what extent do professional educators believe manifestations of DLB impact their ability to perform work duties?

RQ 3: What are the differences in the extent to which DLB manifestations are perceived to be evident among various leadership positions: assistant principal, principal, assistant superintendent, superintendent, other building-level position, and other district-level position?

RQ 4: What are the relationships among the three categories of DLB?

RQ 5: What are the relationships between perceived DLB manifestations and workplace attitudes toward likelihood of leaving, job satisfaction, levels of stress, and ability to perform work duties?

RQ 6: What are the best models predicting workplace attitudes toward likelihood of leaving, job satisfaction, levels of stress, and ability to perform work duties?

Analysis Procedures

All of the data were analyzed using SPSS Version 20.0. SPSS is a statistical software package used to provide data analysis. Pallant's (2010) guide to SPSS was used as a reference for analysis procedures. Descriptive statistics were used to generally summarize the data collected through the survey. Descriptive statistics were used to answer Questions 1 and 2. Question 3 was answered using an ANOVA to measure the differences of DLB manifestations among various professional educator groups. Correlational statistics were used to answer Questions 4 and 5.

A total of 191 professional educators responded out of 228 who received the survey, which gives a return rate of 84%. Adequate response rates have been identified as acceptable at the 70% mark (Fink, 2003). The average age of respondents was 32.17. Respondents had an average of 12.62 years of experience in the field of education. Approximately 67% of the participants were female, and 32.5% were male. Forty-four percent identified themselves as teachers, 39% as other building-level staff, and 16% as district-level staff. Twenty-two

percent of respondents reported that they came from a district with fewer than 1,000 students, 42% from districts with between 1,000 and 10,000 students, and 36% from districts with over 10,000 students.

The survey asked educators to respond to 28 behaviors from the DLB measure. Each participant rated the extent to which their current supervisor is engaged in the given behavior on a 5-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (*never*) to 5 (*very often*). Before scoring, participant responses were reversed so low values represent a perceived manifestation of destructive leader behaviors. The 28 behaviors were categorized into the three categories of DLB manifestations: subordinate-directed behavior, organization-directed behavior, and sexual harassment. Means for each category were calculated for respondents to provide a DLB category score, with lower category scores signifying more evidence of destructive leadership. A total DLB score was also calculated for each respondent from the mean of the three DLB category scores. A lower DLB score signified more evidence of destructive leadership.

Participants rated the extent to which each of the 28 leadership behaviors impacted their ability to perform work duties on a 5-point Likert-type scale ranging from -2 (*very negatively*) to 2 (*very positively*). Before scoring, participant responses -2, -1, 0, 1, and 2 were converted to 1, 2, 3, 4, and 5 so low values showed negative impact. Means for each DLB category were calculated for respondents to provide separate Ability to Perform scores, with lower Ability to Perform scores signifying negative impact. A total Ability to Perform score was also calculated for each respondent from the mean of the three category scores, with lower Ability to Perform scores signifying negative impact.

Research Question 1

The first research question addressed the perceived presence of DLB manifestations in educational leaders.

Descriptive statistics were used to determine the levels of DLB and DLB category scores. The mean for the DLB score and the three DLB category scores (subordinate-directed, organization-directed, or sexual harassment) are presented for all respondents in Table 4-1. Of the three behavior categories, the category that had the least desirable level of DLB among all the respondents was *subordinate-directed* (M=4.05). The category that had most desirable level of DLB was *sexual harassment* (M=4.91). The mean DLB for all respondents was 4.59.

The female respondent group (N=129) and male respondent group (N=62) results are presented in Table 4-2. The teacher respondent group (N=106) and non-teacher respondent group (N=84) are presented in Table 4-3. All groups followed the same pattern discussed previously: the lowest DLB category was consistently *subordinate-directed*. *Sexual harassment* DLB scores were consistently the highest. Females were more likely than males to perceive destructive leader behaviors, and teachers were more likely than non-teachers to perceive destructive leader behaviors.

DLB Behavior Category	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Subordinate-Directed	1.50	5.00	4.05	.78
Organization-Directed	3.00	5.00	4.81	.32
sexual harassment	1.75	5.00	4.91	.39
Average Behavior Rate	2.91	5.00	4.59	.40

Table 4-1: Levels of Destructive Leader Behavior: All Respondents (n=191)

Gender	DLB Behavior Category	Min	Max	Mean	Std. Deviation
Female	Subordinate-Directed	1.50	5.00	3.96	.82
Female	Organization-Directed	3.00	5.00	4.80	.34
Female	sexual harassment	1.75	5.00	4.88	.45
Female	DLB	2.91	5.00	4.55	.43
Male	Subordinate-Directed	2.07	5.00	4.23	.66
Male	Organization-Directed	3.64	5.00	4.84	.30
Male	sexual harassment	3.75	5.00	4.97	.17
Male	DLB	3.40	5.00	4.68	.32

Table 4-2: Levels of Destructive Leader Behavior: Female Respondents (n=129) vs. Males Respondents (n=62)

Position	DLB Behavior Types	Min	Max	Mean	Std. Deviation
Teacher	Subordinate-Directed	1.50	5.00	3.90	.84
Teacher	Organization-Directed	3.00	5.00	4.75	.37
Teacher	sexual harassment	1.75	5.00	4.88	.51
Teacher	Average Behavior Rate	2.91	5.00	4.51	.46
Non-Teacher	Subordinate-Directed	2.00	5.00	4.15	.72
Non-Teacher	Organization-Directed	3.36	5.00	4.86	.28
Non-Teacher	sexual harassment	3.50	5.00	4.93	.26
Non-Teacher	Average Behavior Rate	3.40	5.00	4.65	.34

Table 4-3: Levels of Destructive Leader Behavior: Teacher Respondents (n=106) vs. Non-Teacher Respondents (n=84)

Research Question 2

The second questions addressed the level of perceived impact of DLB manifestations on their ability to perform work duties.

Descriptive statistics were used to determine the levels of Ability to Perform Work Duties scores for each DLB category. The mean for the Ability to Perform Work Duties scores are presented for all respondents in Table 4-4. Of the three behavior categories, the DLB category that had the least desirable Ability to Perform Work Duties score was *subordinate-directed* (M=4.05). The DLB category that showed the most desirable Ability to

Perform Work Duties score was *sexual harassment* (M=4.91). The mean Ability to Perform Work Duties score for all respondents was 4.59.

DLB Behavior Category	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Subordinate-Directed	1.43	5.00	3.48	.93
Organization-Directed	1.36	5.00	3.88	.92
sexual harassment	1.00	5.00	3.88	1.04
Overall Ability to Perform	1.52	5.00	3.75	.88

Table 4-4: Levels of Ability to Perform Work Duties: All Respondents (n=191)

The female respondent group (N=129) and male respondent group (N=62) results are presented in Table 4.5. The teacher respondent group (N=106) and non-teacher respondent group (N=84) are presented in Table 4.6. All groups followed the same pattern discussed previously: the lowest Ability to Perform Work Duties mean was consistently *subordinate-directed*. *Sexual harassment* scores were the most desirable. Females were more likely than males to have low Ability to Perform Work Duties scores, and teachers were more likely than non-teachers to have low Ability to Perform Work Duties scores.

Gender	DLB Behavior Category	Min	Max	Mean	Std. Deviation
Female	Subordinate-Directed	1.43	5.00	3.42	.98
Female	Organization-Directed	1.36	5.00	3.83	.94
Female	sexual harassment	1.00	5.00	3.87	1.06
Female	Overall Ability to Perform	1.52	5.00	3.71	.92
Male	Subordinate-Directed	2.00	4.00	3.61	.82
Male	Organization-Directed	2.36	5.00	3.97	.89
Male	sexual harassment	2.00	5.00	3.91	.99
Male	Overall Ability to Perform	2.45	5.00	3.83	.79

Table 4-5: Levels of Ability to Perform Work Duties: Female Respondents (n=129) vs Males Respondents (n=62)

Research Question 3

The third research question addressed differences in the extent to which DLB manifestations were perceived to be evident among various supervisor positions, as reported by their subordinate respondents.

Position	DLB Behavior Types	Min	Max	Mean	Std. Deviation
Teacher	Subordinate-Directed	1.43	5.00	3.38	.95
Teacher	Organization-Directed	2.46	5.00	3.86	.91
Teacher	sexual harassment	1.00	5.00	3.92	1.03
Teacher	Overall Ability to Perform	2.28	5.00	3.72	.88
Non-Teacher	Subordinate-Directed	2.00	5.00	3.56	.92
Non-Teacher	Organization-Directed	1.36	5.00	3.90	.93
Non-Teacher	sexual harassment	1.00	5.00	3.86	1.05
Non-Teacher	Overall Ability to Perform	1.53	5.00	3.78	.89

Table 4-6: Levels of Ability to Perform Work Duties: Teacher Respondents (n=106) vs Non-Teacher Respondents (n=84)

A one-way between-groups ANOVA was conducted to explore the differences among perceived levels of DLB. Respondent data was divided into six groups according to the respondent's supervisor job title (assistant principal, principal, other building-level, assistant superintendent, superintendent, other district-level). Descriptive data for the six groups are presented in Table 4-7. Although Leven's test showed a violation of the assumption for homogeneity of variances, Welch's test showed a statistically significant difference at the $p < .05$ level in DLB scores for the six supervisor groups: $F(5, 24.27) = .00$ $p = .05$. The effect size was moderate, calculated using eta squared (eta squared = .09). The magnitude of the

differences of the means was interpreted using Cohen's (1988) guidelines. Post-hoc comparisons using the Tukey HSD test indicated that the mean score for Principal supervisors ($M = 4.49$, $SD = .46$) was significantly different from Assistant Superintendent supervisors ($M = 4.86$, $SD = .17$). Other supervisor groups did not differ significantly from each other.

In addition, an independent-samples t -test was conducted to compare perceived destructive leader behaviors among building-level supervisors ($N = 105$) and district-level supervisors ($N = 82$). Descriptives for the two groupings are presented in Table 4-8. Significance level of Levene's test showed the variance for the two groups was not the same ($p = .004$). Equal variance was not assumed. There was a significant difference in DLB scores for building-level supervisors ($M = 4.50$, $SD = .44$) and district-level supervisors ($M = 4.71$, $SD = .31$). The magnitude of the differences in the means (mean difference = $-.21$, 95% CI: $-.32$ to $-.10$) was small ($\eta^2 = .02$). The magnitude of the differences of the means was interpreted using Cohen's (1988) guidelines.

Furthermore, an independent-samples t -test was conducted to compare perceived destructive leader behaviors perceived by females ($N = 129$) and males ($N = 62$). Descriptives for the two groupings were presented in Table 4-2. Significance level of Levene's test showed that the variance for the two groups was not the same ($p = .006$). Equal variance was not assumed. There was a significant difference in DLB scores for females ($M = 4.54$, $SD = .43$) and males ($M = 4.68$, $SD = .32$). The magnitude of the differences in the means (mean difference = $-.13$, 95% CI: $-.24$ to $-.03$) was small ($\eta^2 = .01$). The magnitude of the differences of the means was interpreted using Cohen's (1988) guidelines.

Supervisor Group	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Other Building Level	12	4.05	4.83	4.55	.26
Assistant Principal	4	3.47	4.97	4.46	.68
Principal	89	2.91	5.00	4.49	.46
Other District Level	29	4.19	5.00	4.67	.23
Assistant Superintendent	22	4.36	5.00	4.86	.17
Superintendent	31	3.40	5.00	4.64	.40
Total	187	2.91	5.00	4.59	.40

Table 4-7: Levels of Destructive Leader Behavior in Supervisors

Supervisor Grouping	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Building Level	105	4.50	.44
District Level	82	4.71	.31

Table 4-8: Levels of Destructive Leader Behavior in Supervisor Groupings

Descriptive statistics were used to determine the levels of perceived leadership among the supervisor groupings of building and district-level supervisors. The mean scores for the three DLB category scores and the DLB scores are presented for all respondents in Table 4-9. Of the three behavior categories, the category of leadership behavior that had the lowest mean or level of DLB category among building-level and district-level supervisors was *subordinate-directed* (M = 3.87, M = 4.28). The DLB category that showed the least evidence of perceived manifestations among both building and district-level supervisors was *sexual harassment* (M = 4.88, M = 4.95). The mean DLB for all respondents was 4.59.

Research Question 4

The fourth research question addressed the relationship between perceived manifestations among the various categories of DLB. The relationship between each DLB category score (subordinate-directed, organization-directed, or sexual harassment) and overall DLB score was investigated using Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient. The

strengths of the relationship between the variables utilized Cohen's (1988) guidelines, shown in Table 4-10. There was a significant large, positive relationship between the overall DLB score and each DLB category score, and between the DLB subordinate-directed score and the DLB organization-directed score. Other relationships were moderately positive. All behavior categories were associated with higher levels of other behavior categories, as shown in the correlational coefficients presented in Table 4-10. In other words, individuals who had less desirable levels of subordinate-directed destructive behaviors also had less desirable levels of organization-directed destructive behaviors, etc.

Location	DLB Behavior Types	Min	Max	Mean	Std. Deviation
Building	Subordinate-Directed	1.50	5.00	3.87	.82
Building	Organization-Directed	3.00	5.00	4.74	.37
Building	sexual harassment	1.75	5.00	4.88	.47
Building	Average Behavior Rate	2.91	5.00	4.50	.44
District	Subordinate-Directed	2.07	5.00	4.28	.65
District	Organization-Directed	3.64	5.00	4.90	.23
District	sexual harassment	3.50	5.00	4.95	.23
District	Average Behavior Rate	3.40	5.00	4.71	.31

Table 4-9: Levels of Destructive Leader Behavior in Building-Level Supervisors (n=105) vs District-Level Supervisors (n=82)

Scale	1	2	3	4
1. Average DLB: Subordinate-Directed	-	.67 **	.30 **	.92 **
2. Average DLB: Organization-Directed		-	.32 **	.80 **
3. Average DLB: sexual harassment			-	.60 **
4. Average DLB				-

** p <.01 (2-tailed)

* p <.05 (2-tailed)

Table 4-10: Correlational Coefficients between DLB Scores

In addition, the relationship among perceived manifestations of DLB (as measured by the DLB score) and perceived impact of behaviors on respondents' ability to perform work duties (as measured by the Ability to Perform score) was investigated using Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient. The strengths of the relationship between the variables utilized Cohen's (1988) guidelines. There was a significant moderate, positive relationship between the overall DLB score and Ability to Perform score ($r=.367, p < .01$). The data show that individuals who perceived more destructive leadership behaviors reported that those leadership behaviors impacted their ability to perform work duties.

The fifth research question addressed the relationships between perceived DLB manifestations and workplace attitudes (subordinate likelihood of leaving, job satisfaction, levels of stress, ability to perform work duties).

The survey asked educators to respond to the following questions: “How seriously are you considering leaving your current job?” “Overall, how do you rate your satisfaction with your job?” and “How stressful do you find your work environment?” The responses were completed on a Likert scale ranging from 1 (*not at all*) to 5 (*strongly/extremely*). Before scoring, participant responses were reversed for likelihood of leaving and job stress so all values show less desired levels.

The relationship between DLB rates and likelihood of leaving was investigated using Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient. The strengths of the relationship among the variables utilized Cohen’s (1988) guidelines. There was a significant moderate, positive correlation between DLB rates and likelihood of leaving, as shown in Table 4-11, with perceived destructive leadership behavior associated with higher likelihood of leaving.

The relationship between DLB rates and job satisfaction was investigated using Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient. The strengths of the relationship among the variables utilized Cohen’s (1988) guidelines. There was a significant moderate, positive correlation among DLB rates and low job satisfaction, as shown in Table 4-11, with perceived destructive leadership behavior associated with lower levels of job satisfaction.

The relationship between DLB rates and stress level was investigated using Pearson

product-moment correlation coefficient. The strengths of the relationship among the variables utilized Cohen's (1988) guidelines. There was a significant small positive correlation between DLB rates and job stress (see Table 4-11), with perceived destructive leadership behavior associated with the higher levels of job stress.

The relationship between DLB rates and ability to perform work duties (through the Ability to Perform score) was investigated using Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient. The strengths of the relationship among the variables utilized Cohen's (1988) guidelines. There was a significant large positive correlation between DLB rates and Ability to Perform scores, as shown in Table 4-11, with perceived DLB associated with higher belief that the given behavior impacts their ability to perform their job.

Scale	1	2	3	4	5
1. DLB	-	.43 **	.31 **	.47 **	.51 **
2. High likelihood of leaving rate		-	.44 **	.44 **	.22 **
3. High stress level			-	.29 **	.16 *
4. Low job satisfaction rate				-	.33 **
5. Ability to perform					-

** p <.01 (2-tailed)
* p <.05 (2-tailed)

Table 4-11: Correlations Between Behavior Levels and Workplace Attitudes

For all four workplace attitudes (likelihood of leaving, job satisfaction, levels of stress, ability to perform job), correlation between attitudes and perceived DLB levels was significant and ranged from small to large.

Research Question 6

The sixth question addressed the predictors of DLB manifestations on respondents' workplace attitudes toward likelihood of leaving, job satisfaction, levels of stress, and ability to perform work duties. Multiple regression analysis was used to test if the ability of perceived manifestations of DLB to predict workplace attitudes toward likelihood of leaving, job satisfaction, levels of stress, and ability to perform work duties.

Multiple regression analysis was used to assess the ability of each DLB category scores to predict workplace attitudes toward likelihood of leaving, job satisfaction, levels of stress, and ability to perform work duties using the DLB categories as predictors.

Total variance explained by the model for job satisfaction was 23%, $F(3,187) = 18.169, p < .001$. Total variance explained by the model for job stress level was 10%, $F(3,186) = 6.756, p < .001$. Total variance explained by the model for likelihood of leaving was 20%, $F(3,187) = 15.844, p < .001$. Total variance explained by the model for ability to perform work duties was 32%, $F(3,187) = 29.343, p < .001$. Beta and significance levels of each predictor for each model are shared in Table 4-12. The subordinate-directed DLB levels provided the only significant unique predictor of job satisfaction, job stress level, and

likelihood of leaving. Subordinate-directed and sexual harassment DLB levels were significant unique predictors of ability to perform work duties.

Outcome	Job Satisfaction	Job Stress Level	Likelihood of Leaving	Ability to Perform Work Duties
Predictors	β	β	β	β
Subordinate-Directed DLB Score	.358**	.268*	.409**	.610**
Organizational-Directed DLB Score	.125	.032	.050	-.159
Sexual harassment DLB Score	.059	.059	.019	.132*

** $p < .001$

* $p < .05$

Table 4-12: Regression Analysis for DLB Levels Predicting Workplace Attitudes

Multiple regression analysis was then used to assess the ability of each subordinate-directed behavior to predict workplace attitudes toward likelihood of leaving, job satisfaction, levels of stress, and ability to perform work duties. Subordinate-directed behavior has been defined by the author as behavior from a leader toward individuals or groups over which the leader has stewardship.

Total variance explained by the subordinate-directed behaviors model for job satisfaction was 29%, $F(14,176) = 5.194, p < .001$. Total variance explained by the model for job stress level was 17%, $F(14,175) = 2.597, p < .01$. Total variance explained by the model for likelihood of leaving was 26%, $F(14,176) = 4.433, p < .001$. Total variance explained by the model for ability to perform work duties was 35%, $F(14,176) = 6.870, p < .001$. Beta and significance levels of each predictor for each model are shared in Table 4-13. Variables that provided statistically significant unique contributions to the models included: avoids addressing issues, fails to give subordinates credit for jobs requiring a lot of effort, ignores phone calls and/or e-mails, insults or criticizes subordinates in front of others, invades subordinates' privacy, and is confrontational when interacting with subordinates.

Multiple regression analysis was then used to assess the ability of each sexual harassment behavior to predict workplace attitudes toward ability to perform work duties.

Total variance explained by the sexual harassment behaviors model for ability to perform work duties was 7.5%, $F(3,187) = 5.072, p < .01$. Beta and significance levels of each predictor for the model are shared in Table 4-14. The behavior that provided significant statistical contribution to the model was shares/uses inappropriate material at work (e.g. sexual or harassing jokes).

Outcome	Job Satisf action	Job Stress Level	Likelihood of Leaving	Ability to Perform Work Duties
Predictors	β	β	β	β
Avoids addressing important issues	.148	.059	-.035	.179*
Denies subordinates of things they are entitled to (e.g., lunch breaks, vacation time)	-.114	-.005	-.068	.004
Disciplines subordinates a long time after the rule infraction occurs	.060	-.133	-.059	-.043
Discounts feedback or advice from subordinates	-.087	-.089	-.019	.081
Fails to defend subordinates from attacks by others	.124	.097	.039	.094
Fails to give subordinates credit for jobs requiring a lot of effort	.109	.183	.257*	.150
Accuses or punishes subordinates for something they were not responsible for	.173	-.052	.038	.014
Ignores phone calls and/or e-mails	.083	-.026	.038	.203*
Inadequately explains performance reviews	-.097	-.004	.023	-.002
Insults or criticizes subordinates in front of others	.199*	.096	.222*	.187*
Invades subordinates' privacy	.150	.180*	.108	.060
Is confrontational when interacting with subordinates	.064	.235**	.058	.038
Says one thing and does another	-.048	.023	-.022	.035
Shows no clear standards for administering rewards and punishments	-.052	-.072	.057	-.177

**p < .01

*p < .05

Table 4-13: Regression Analysis for subordinate-directed behaviors predicting Workplace Attitudes

Outcome	Job Satisf action	Job Stress Level	Likelihood of Leaving	Ability to Perform Work Duties
Predictors	β	β	β	β
Shares/uses inappropriate material at work (e.g., sexual or harassing jokes)	.295	.083	.348	.259*
Engages in romantic and/or sexual relationships with others from work	.050	.065	-.083	.019
Hints that sexual favors will result in preferential treatment	-.161*	.018	-.138	.001

* $p < .05$

Table 4-14: Regression Analysis for Sexual Harassment Behaviors Predicting Workplace Attitudes

Summary

The results of the descriptive statistics performed from the study show that DLB does exist in school systems at various levels and with various levels of correlation with workplace attitudes. DLB is perceived most through subordinate-directed actions, and least through sexual harassment. DLB is perceived more by female than male subordinates and more by teachers than non-teacher subordinates. DLB was also reported by respondents to impact their ability to perform job functions.

Bi-variate analysis through *t*-test usage showed a significant difference in levels of perceived DLB between building- (N = 105) and district- (N = 82) level supervisors, with

DLB perceived more among building-level supervisors. In both district and building leader groups, subordinate-directed behavior was perceived more often than other categories of behaviors.

Correlation coefficients showed that there were significant large positive relationships between each of the DLB categories (subordinate-directed, organization-directed, and sexual harassment) and the overall DLB level. The correlational analysis showed there were a significant relationships between each behavior category and the average of all behavior categories. There was also a significant relationship among each of the behavior categories. In other words, individuals who had less desirable levels of subordinate-directed behaviors also were more likely to have less desirable levels of organization-directed behaviors and sexual harassment behaviors.

Correlation coefficients were also used to show the relationships between perceived DLB manifestations and workplace attitudes (subordinate likelihood of leaving, job satisfaction, levels of stress, ability to perform work duties). Results showed a significant correlation between perceived DLB manifestations and each of the four workplace attitudes. Perceived DLB manifestations were correlated with higher likelihood of leaving, lower job satisfaction, higher levels of stress, and belief that leader behaviors negatively impact ability to perform work duties.

In addition, specific behaviors that provided statistically significant unique contributions to the models included avoids addressing issues, fails to give subordinates credit for jobs requiring a lot of effort, ignores phone calls and/or e-mails, insults or criticizes subordinates in front of others, invades subordinates' privacy, is confrontational when

interacting with subordinates, and shares/uses inappropriate material at work (e.g., sexual or harassing jokes). 81

This chapter focused on the review and presentation of the research findings and a summary of the data analysis. The next chapter summarizes the study and provides conclusions and recommendations for future research, policy, and practice.

CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION

Overview

The purpose of this chapter is to provide an overview of the findings; explain the analysis of the results of this study in relation to destructive leader behaviors that are related to workplace attitudes; and to make recommendations for policy, practice, and future research.

Over half a century ago, Getzels and Guba (1957) argued that behavior expectations for all roles in organizations fall somewhere between “required” to “prohibited” p. 430). In practice, organizations often frame such *required* expectations for a worker through job descriptions and company goals, leaving the *prohibited* behaviors to policies, legal memos, and social taboos. However, research in the area of psychology and human behavior has shown that humans bias the process of negative information over positive information. For example, negative information plays a larger role in decision making than positive information, and negative stimuli attract more attention than positive stimuli (Smith et al., 2006). Baumeister et al. (2001) argue that bad events generally have a stronger impact than good because negative elements trigger a fundamental signal to adapt for survival and positive elements trigger a signal of continuity and stability. Because of this inherent fundamental

human reaction, they argue that bad has been found “to be stronger than good in a disappointingly relentless pattern” and that such a finding “may be one of the most basic and far-reaching principles” (p. 362) when studying psychological phenomena. Although it is essential to determine the actions and behaviors of school leaders that have the most impact on educators, the field has generally left out destructive behaviors that may possibly be the most impactful on the organization. Furthermore, as school leaders’ roles as change agent take a more prominent position (Egley, 2003), it is imperative to recognize the place of negative leadership as a possible variable in the productivity and changes in the school environment.

The reviewed research shows that more attention needs to be paid in regard to the negative aspects of leadership in order to better construct the makeup of *prohibited* leader behaviors. Unfortunately, despite limited research in the area of destructive leadership in schools, and despite the fact that analyses of destructive leadership in other fields have found significant impact on organizations and employees (Baron, 1988; Cortina et al., 2001; Hauge et al., 2010; Lutgen-Sandvik et al., 2007; Reed & Bullis, 2009), studies have not been done to determine the role of destructive leadership in regard to teacher turnover, teacher stress levels, and educator job satisfaction. Traditionally, theorists and researchers in educational leadership studies have relied heavily on colleagues outside the educational domain to introduce successful management and leadership principles and then bring in those principles that are transferable to school systems (Heck & Hallinger, 2005). However, destructive leadership research has yet to be explored in educational leadership, leaving a dearth of knowledge that could not only help researchers understand these behaviors in educational leadership but also assist practitioners in the field to hone their craft.

Findings and Discussion

Destructive leadership in the current study was defined as voluntary actions by a leader that are considered to be harmful to an individual or organization. Findings are discussed in the areas of presence, perceived impact, workplace attitudes, and subordinate-directed destructive behavior.

Presence and Perceived Impact of Destructive Leadership

Results showed that women tended to see more destructive behavior in their leaders than men (women $M=4.55$, men $M=4.68$) and teachers saw more destructive behavior in their leaders than non-teachers (teachers $M=4.51$, non-teachers $M=4.65$). When divided into the three different categories (subordinate-directed, organization-directed, and sexual harassment), destructive behavior directed at subordinates ($M=4.05$) was seen more than destructive behaviors directed at the organization ($M=4.81$). Sexual harassment behaviors ($M=4.91$) were seen least of all. This pattern was seen not only in the aggregate, but also among males, females, non-teachers, and teachers: destructive behaviors directed at subordinates were consistently the most common of all destructive behaviors. In addition, the study showed that respondents who saw more destructive behaviors in their leaders also reported that their leaders' behaviors negatively impacted their ability to do their job.

These results show not only the existence of destructive leader behavior in educational settings, but they also show a perceived impact on educators by leaders. In addition, the

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results show that all different types of leaders in educational settings practice some destructive behaviors (other building-level, M=4.55, assistant principal, M=4.46, principal, M=4.49, other district-level, M=4.67, assistant superintendent, M=4.86, superintendent, M=4.64), and all different types of subordinates are experiencing the practice of destructive behaviors (teacher respondents, M=4.51, non-teacher respondents, M=4.65), making destructive leadership a necessary part of future educational leadership research. Indeed, Einarsen, Aasland, and Skogstad (2007) call for a conceptual model of leadership behavior that includes not only constructive attributes but also destructive. The present study also provides a significant contribution in support of the work of Thoroughgood et al. (2012). Their attempt to create the first multidimensional construct of DLB, acknowledging and capturing the multiple types of DLB, not only served as the basis for but found validation in the current study.

Although the study found DLB to be present in educational settings, its presence was markedly lower than that of Thoroughgood et al.'s (2012) study, which included respondents from university undergraduate courses as well as employees from professional and business services, government, information services, health care, and financial services in addition to education. Reversed mean scores from Thoroughgood et al. are shown in comparison with the current study in Table 5-1.

The lower presence of DLB in the current study may be a factor of the respondents' workplaces, possibly showing that although destructive leader behaviors are present in schools, they are less prevalent than in the general workforce. This may be due to the self-selection of individuals into the profession who value appropriate interactional behaviors; teachers already recognize the nature of teaching demands an orientation toward care (Vogt,

2002). The current study validates this perspective on educators, showing that they portray less destructive behaviors toward other professionals and may be considered to be more caring individuals.

The lower presence of DLB in the current study may also be a result of the common practice in states to require educators to have background and criminal checks before they may be certified to work in schools. This practice may be keeping individuals with DLB patterns from even entering the education field. The current study data may validate the practice of requiring such background checks, as DLB seems to be less prevalent in schools.

DLB Behavior Category	Mean Thoroughgood	Mean Current Study
Subordinate-Directed	2.90	4.05
Organization-Directed	3.52	4.81
sexual harassment	3.77	4.91
Average Behavior Rate	3.24	4.59

Table 5-1: Levels of Destructive Leader Behavior: Thoroughgood et al. (2012) vs. Current Study

DLB and Workplace Attitudes

The findings from the current study not only show the existence of “prohibited” actions in educational settings but also show significant moderate positive correlations to all

four workplace attitudes measures (likelihood of leaving $r=.43, p < .01$; job stress $r=.31, p < .01$; low job satisfaction $r=.47, p > .01$; low ability to perform work duties $r=.51, p < .01$). The correlations between low workplace attitudes and DLB support past research surrounding destructive leadership outside of educational settings and show the applicability of such research in the educational leadership realm. Thoroughgood et al. (2012) based their work with the DLB construct on previous research that linked destructive behaviors and, subordinate job satisfaction (Asbill, 1994), leader liking (Dienesch & Liden, 1986; Engle, 1997), and likelihood of leaving (Goddard & Goddard, 2006). In their study, all three categories of DLB -- organization-directed, subordinate-directed, and sexual harassment, were significantly negatively correlated with job satisfaction (organization-directed $r = .24, p < .01$; subordinate-directed $r = .38, p < .01$; sexual harassment $r = .11, p < .01$) and liking for leader (organization-directed $r = .34, p < .01$; subordinate-directed $r = .51, p < .01$; sexual harassment $r = .18, p < .01$), and significantly positively correlated with turnover intentions (organization-directed $r = .27, p < .01$; subordinate-directed $r = .36, p < .01$; sexual harassment $r = .15, p < .01$). Indeed, comments from the survey showed that respondents who perceive DLB call their environment toxic, believe they cannot speak with leaders unless they have union representation present, or do not believe they can speak with leaders at all, and admit to self medication to deal with the stress of working for such a leader. This is a stark contrast to the positive comments left for leaders who reportedly inspired, motivated, and found support with their teams.

In addition, the findings from the current study support past research that subordinates with abusive supervisors have less commitment to their organization (Aryeet al., 2007),

experience higher turnover, have worse attitudes about their job and life, experience higher levels of conflict between work and family, and have higher levels of psychological distress (Tepper, 2000; Yagil, 2006) and lower job satisfaction (Tepper et al., 2004).

For example, Ayree et al.'s (2007) study surveyed telecommunication employees and their supervisors in southeastern China to measure perceptions of interactional justice, authoritarian leadership style, abusive supervision, perceptions of procedural justice, citizenship behavior, and organizational commitment. Using moderated regression, the study found that abused subordinates had lower levels of affective organizational commitment. Yagil's (2006) study surveyed 249 Israeli employees through a convenience sample from health, education, communication, government, and other work settings that measured abusive supervision, supportive supervision, worker burnout, and worker responses. The results show that abusive supervision elicited negative behaviors from employees, undermined work habits and production, and was positively related to emotional exhaustion.

The results from the current study support past research on workplace bullying that has found higher degrees of such bullying to be positively correlated not only with higher levels of stress and lower levels of job satisfaction (Lutgen-Sandvik et al., 2007), but also as a significant predictor of anxiety and depression (Hauge et al., 2010). Furthermore, these findings support past research that positively correlates with traits from the "dark side" of leadership to low levels of subordinate job satisfaction (Alexander & Ruderman, 1987), subordinate stress (Tepper, 2000), and lack of commitment to an organization (Duffy et al., 2002). Although the specific constructs of leader bullying and the "dark side" of leadership were not measured directly as part of the current study, Thoroughgood et al.'s (2006)

inventory was constructed from behaviors identified as being “harmful or deviant in some way at work” (p. 234), as well as behaviors identified from existing measures or constructs of DLB and destructive workplace behavior (see Figure 2-6), including leader bullying and the “dark side” of leadership.

Johnson, Kraft, & Papay (2012) and colleagues found that work context is one of the strongest predictors of job satisfaction. Of all the work conditions inspected, those that mattered the most included principal leadership and school culture. These had more impact on teacher job satisfaction and intention to stay at school than salary, planning time, school facilities, and instructional resources. The current study adds to this research, going beyond just the role of leadership in educator workplace attitudes. Specifically, the current study addresses the aforementioned gap in leadership studies; although Johnson et al. have shown the importance of principal leadership in job satisfaction, specific destructive actions by principals has found little focus in research until now, leaving educational leaders to misunderstand their own actions and the impact they may be having on staff.

Furthermore, the study supports previous research in the areas of job satisfaction with regard to teacher and principal relations and principal styles. Studies have shown that principal actions not only impact teacher satisfaction (Bogler, 2001) but also that workplace environment and relationships are significant factors in determining job satisfaction for teachers (Kim & Loadman, 1994; Sergiovanni, 1967). The current study not only supports, but also adds to current understandings of job satisfaction by focusing not on the lack of behavior by leaders, but on the destructive actions that are related to low job satisfaction.

This study sought to explore whether specific destructive leader behaviors predicted workplace attitudes. Of the three different categories of behaviors in Thoroughgood et al.'s (2012) study, subordinate-directed behaviors were the most powerful predictors of subordinate workplace attitudes, which they contend is why most previous constructs such as abusive supervision (Aryee et al., 2007; Tepper, Henle, Lambert, Giacalone, & Duffy, 2008; Tepper, 2000, 2007), supervisor undermining (Duffy et al., 2002; Duffy, Ganster, Shaw, Johnson, & Pagon, 2006; Vinokur & van Ryn, 1993), petty tyranny (Ashforth, 1997, 2003), and workplace bullying (Einarsen et al., 2009; Hauge et al., 2010; Lutgen-Sandvik et al., 2007) have been the focus of destructive leadership research over the years. The current study clearly shows subordinate-directed DLB as a category was a significant predictor of low job satisfaction ($\beta=.358$, $p<.001$), high job stress ($\beta=.268$, $p<.05$), likelihood of leaving ($\beta=.409$, $p<.001$), and ability to perform work duties ($\beta=.610$, $p<.001$). Specific behaviors that provided statistically significant unique contributions to the models were: avoids addressing issues, fails to give subordinates credit for jobs requiring a lot of effort, ignores phone calls and/or e-mails, insults or criticizes subordinates in front of others, invades subordinates' privacy, and is confrontational when interacting with subordinates. Indeed, school-level dysfunction has been identified as a major and consistent source of stress for teachers, including lack of support, lack of feedback, and lack of communication. (Pithers, 1995; Shernoff, Mehta, Atkins, Torf, & Spencer, 2011; Smylie, 1999). In the current study, regression analysis showed that subordinate-directed DLB, or voluntary harmful actions by a

leader, had the largest impact on perceived ability to perform work duties ($\beta=.610$, $p<.001$),⁹¹ giving support to respondent comments that such leaders made it difficult to do their job.

The aforementioned explicit leader behaviors that best predict negative subordinate workplace attitudes in the educational setting provide significant findings, as they give DLB specific application to the educational workplace, and should be used to reframe discussions around educational environments. For example, failing to give subordinates credit for jobs requiring a lot of effort was a unique contributor to an employee's likelihood of leaving ($\beta=.257$, $p<.05$); this should be discussed in regard to larger subjects of merit pay and teacher retention. In addition, because insulting or criticizing subordinates in front of others is a unique significant predictor of staff perception on their ability to perform work duties ($\beta=.187$, $p<.05$), high likelihood of leaving ($\beta=.222$, $p<.05$), and low job satisfaction ($\beta=.199$, $p<.05$), then such behavior should be addressed among educational leaders and policy makers.

Based on the findings of the current study, the way that educational leaders are valued and assessed needs to shift. Currently, administrators are evaluated by their accomplishments: what they do, processes they put in place, projects they complete, and statistics that improve. These measurements, although meaningful, do not begin to address the current study's data showing destructive behavior to be so intertwined with stress, satisfaction, likelihood of leaving, and ability to perform. It is the author's suggestion that perhaps the wrong attributes of leaders are being measured and the wrong behaviors are being valued.

The findings question the commonly perceived role of educational leaders in K-12 systems. Although Getzels and Guba's (1957) role requirements include "prohibited"

behaviors, traditionally, educational leadership programs do not include topics on “prohibited” behaviors. They work to address the traditional expectations of their role, focusing on the behaviors conventionally perceived to be required for a school leader to succeed. This may lead those leaders to misunderstand the impact of their efforts; such leaders may work tirelessly to fulfill expectations, with their constructive work only being overshadowed by their misunderstood destructive behaviors.

As an example, principals are often seen primarily as the instructional leaders of a school. Hallinger and Murphy (1985) connect instructional leadership strategies to practices such as being involved in curricular decisions, supervising teachers, and receiving instructional and curriculum in-service training. If a principal is primarily concerned about implementing instructional strategies, but continuously criticizes teachers in group settings, a behavior that is a significant predictor of staff perception on their ability to perform work duties ($\beta=.187, p<.05$), high likelihood of leaving ($\beta=.222, p<.05$), and low job satisfaction ($\beta=.199, p<.05$), then the work of that principal in instructional areas may not provide the desired outcomes. The data from the study implies that regardless of such a principal’s valiant efforts to practice the best instructional leader practices, teachers may still believe that they cannot fully perform the work expected of them, may experience dissatisfaction with their job, and may be looking to leave. This is merely one example of a larger issue, in the author’s opinion, that all the effort put into productive practices may be muted by the ignorance of leaders who are not aware they are practicing destructive behaviors. If more energy is put into educating leaders in the field of the consequences, and holding them accountable for such actions, then such destructive behaviors need not offset constructive efforts.

The current study produced two main findings of significance. First, destructive leadership behaviors exist in all areas of educational organizations, and have significant positive correlations to high job stress, low job satisfaction, greater likelihood of leaving, and low ability to perform work duties. Therefore, as curriculum is developed for educational leadership programs, certifications, and professional development, every effort should be made to include concepts that address destructive behaviors. This may mean a realignment of priorities in coursework, and an acknowledgment that some curricular and instructional theories need to be pushed aside to make room to give direct time to understanding and developing practical leadership skills and concepts, such as addressing conflict, prioritizing issues, organizational systems, time-management, respecting staff privacy, and appropriate public actions.

Curriculum adoption should include the following three aspects: first, a review of the general psychology literature surrounding the impact of negative versus positive experiences; second, a review of the behaviors that are identified in the DLB framework (Thoroughgood et al., 2012) and the specific behaviors that the current study identifies to predict negative workplace attitudes; third, as part of discussions about any educational leadership framework or theory, a review of the possible negative impact that prioritizing such actions may have on schools. The author is not recommending that the discussion of destructive or negative leadership take the place of studying transformational leadership or instructional leadership. Rather, the author is proposing that a better balance be sought, with a recognition that all

leadership theories have positive and negative aspects to them. Good leadership is a constant weighing of the various types of impact decisions have on multiple groups and stakeholders.

In addition, teacher and principal evaluations should be written to allow discussion around destructive behaviors in the workplace. With what is now known about the impact of destructive behavior on professional educators, formal evaluations should not continue to include only items that show positive actions and values. They should also begin to include measurement on destructive behaviors. Such discussions could depend on metrics from internal or 360 surveys. Care with such should be given to protect the anonymity of survey respondents, as leaders who manifest destructive behaviors are probably more likely to react negatively to those who identify their actions to others.

Second, some subordinate-directed destructive behaviors are highly significant predictors of poor workplace attitudes surrounding job stress, job satisfaction, likelihood of leaving, and ability to perform work duties. The policy implications of these findings are significant in an era of increasing discussion surrounding teacher turnover and teacher effectiveness. Policymakers should not ignore the possible impact of a leader on a teacher's decision to stay or move on, and other incentives may not be as impactful as desired without recognition of such. Because the survey allowed participants to respond through written comments, some of those comments show the respondents' view: comments describing destructive leadership focused often around terms of frustration, lack of trust, and low morale. Clearly, if the topic of teacher turnover is to be addressed, the impact of destructive leadership needs to be part of the conversation. In fact, a recent study asserted that schools with high

teacher turnover may be able to reduce their rate by focusing on improving leadership (Hanushek, Kain, & Rivkin, 2004).

In addition, with the recent policy changes in Illinois law surrounding teacher evaluation, policymakers should not ignore the relationship between a leader and a teacher's ability to increase student achievement. Not only should further discussion be had surrounding the merit of such teacher evaluation, but discussions should also include the requirement of school leaders to discuss staff evaluations with their subordinates. Principals will continue to have high-stakes interactions with teachers through new supervision and evaluation systems. Educators may see an increase in interactions with their supervisors and increased informal and formal assessments of their performance, making the need to understand the impact of negative interactions imperative in the short term. Indeed, many of the comments written on the surveys indicated frustrations with communication and lack of trust, two things on which teacher evaluations depend. Indeed, comments from the survey showed that respondents who perceive DLB believe they cannot speak with leaders unless they have union representation present or do not believe that they can speak with leaders at all. Discussions around this impact primarily need to occur inside school systems with current employees but should also be acknowledged in administrator preparatory programs.

Limitations and Recommendations for Future Research

Limitations to the study include the fact that respondents were only public schools teachers and administrators in graduate-level education courses in Illinois; reliance on

respondents' individual interpretation of various terms, including *seriously considering*, *transforming*, and *satisfaction*; and reliance on respondents memory of specifics from past experiences. Limitations to quantitative research in general include the lack of collaborative discussions with respondents, the lack of responsiveness to individuals when using a predetermined survey instrument, low levels of context or setting integration, and dependence on a predetermined theory or explanation (Creswell, 2009).

The current study did not allow the author to compare perceptions among subordinates in the same workplace environments. One recommendation for future research would be to examine the various levels of DLB and perceptions in specific settings to determine how various employees perceive the same leader, or how elementary schools traditionally perceive principal actions in comparison to middle or high schools.

Although respondents were able to rate the impact of their leaders' actions, they were not able to rate their self-efficacy; in this way, all respondents were treated similarly and assumed to have an equal viewpoint and interpretation of their supervisor. An additional recommendation for future research would be to examine any relationships between self-efficacy of subordinates and perceived levels of DLB. Such a study would allow a researcher to investigate whether individuals with high levels of self-efficacy are less likely to perceive DLB or believe such behavior impacts their ability to perform at work.

Respondents in the study were delimited to public schools teachers and administrators in graduate-level education courses in Illinois. One recommendation for future research would be to expand the number types of participants to solidify the findings. In addition, future research could expand the investigation of DLB to measure the relationship between DLB

manifestations and other educational outcomes, specifically student achievement. The current⁹⁷ study supported the notion that DLB exists in educational leaders, and that it has a relationship with and impact on subordinates, but it only begins the conversation of student-level impact through indirect means and inferences. Much research has been funded on the possible positive impact of principals on student achievement; more should be funded to investigate the possible negative impacts of principals on student achievement.

The current study measured specifically only a handful of possible dependent variables in the education work sector: job stress, job satisfaction, likelihood of leaving, and ability to perform work duties. Previous studies in negative leadership have found staggering results when utilizing an expanded list of dependent variables, including aggression, destruction of property, misuse of information or resources, theft, using drugs or alcohol at work (Fox et al., 2001; Gruys, 2003), depression (Hauge et al., 2010), low self-esteem (Ashforth, 1997), conflict between work and family, and psychological distress (Tepper, 2000). Because the results of the current study have supported Thoroughgood et al.'s (2012) broad construct of DLB, there may also be important results when investigating such an expanded -- and seemingly more personal -- list of dependent variables. Further studies might add to the research of negative leadership in education by examining more relationships and impact of negative leadership for subordinates.

The current study queried respondents only in regard to perceived DLB. A final recommendation, and perhaps of the author's greatest interest, would be to compare the impact of positive versus negative leadership actions to investigate the possibility that, in an educational setting, a larger focus on keeping destructive leadership behaviors out of the

workplace may be just as important or more important than pushing productive leadership behaviors into the workplace. This could address directly the assertion of Baumeister et al. (2001), namely that bad has been found “to be stronger than good in a disappointingly relentless pattern” and that such a finding “may be one of the most basic and far-reaching psychological principles” (p. 362). Any of these recommendations would answer the call from Thoroughgood et al. (2012) on future researchers to examine its ability to predict differing organizational outcomes.

Summary

Due to the discussed void in literature surrounding the destructive behaviors of educational leaders, the design and results of the study are significant. The study design begins to address the divide and fill this aspect of educational leadership literature by acknowledging the importance of destructive leadership as its own meaningful topic. The study results, specifically the data surrounding subordinate likelihood of leaving, job satisfaction, levels of stress, and ability to perform, is a significant step toward understanding the whole impact of an educational leader, not just as a productive force.

Researchers in the last decade have argued that destructive leadership is more than merely an absence of constructive qualities (Brown & Treviño, 2006; Skogstad et al., 2007) and that ineffective leadership must be viewed as not merely a lack of positive behaviors but also a display of specifically destructive behaviors (Toor & Ogunlana, 2009). Ironically, half a century earlier, Getzels and Guba (1957) argued that behavior expectations for all roles in

organizations fall somewhere between “required” and “prohibited” (p. 426). The results of the study support these assertions of not only the previous decade, but also those 50 years old, showing that the issues that are deeply integrated into bad leadership are more than just less effective staff relations. Staff working for leaders with destructive leader behaviors have concerns and problems that others do not, and the subordinates of those leaders believe that those behaviors are getting in the way of their effectiveness.

This study was an attempt to add to the literature in the educational leadership field with regard to destructive leadership in light of an obvious gap. The findings of the study provide what may have been a previously discarded discussion on the destructive impact that educational leaders may have on their subordinates. The author recommends that the topic not be further ignored, but rather included in a broader discussion of leadership in the future.

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