

Organizational Tolerance of Destructive Leader Behavior:  
The Social Acceptance of Tyrannical Leadership

Submitted by  
Veronica Emilia Nuzzolo

A Dissertation Presented in Partial Fulfillment  
of the Requirements for the Degree  
Doctorate of Philosophy

Grand Canyon University

Phoenix, Arizona

November 21, 2017

ProQuest Number: 10256951

All rights reserved

INFORMATION TO ALL USERS

The quality of this reproduction is dependent upon the quality of the copy submitted.

In the unlikely event that the author did not send a complete manuscript and there are missing pages, these will be noted. Also, if material had to be removed, a note will indicate the deletion.



ProQuest 10256951

Published by ProQuest LLC (2017). Copyright of the Dissertation is held by the Author.

All rights reserved.

This work is protected against unauthorized copying under Title 17, United States Code  
Microform Edition © ProQuest LLC.

ProQuest LLC.  
789 East Eisenhower Parkway  
P.O. Box 1346  
Ann Arbor, MI 48106 – 1346

© by Veronica Emilia Nuzzolo, 2017

All rights reserved.

GRAND CANYON UNIVERSITY

Organizational Tolerance of Destructive Leader Behavior:

The Social Acceptance of Tyrannical Leadership

by

Veronica Emilia Nuzzolo

Approved

November 21, 2017

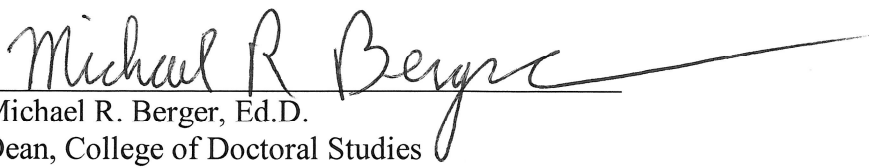
DISSERTATION COMMITTEE:

Adamavi Ahyee, Ph.D., Dissertation Chair

P.J. Verrecchia, Ph.D., Committee Member

Laurel Stanley Ph.D., Committee Member

ACCEPTED AND SIGNED:

  
Michael R. Berger, Ed.D.  
Dean, College of Doctoral Studies

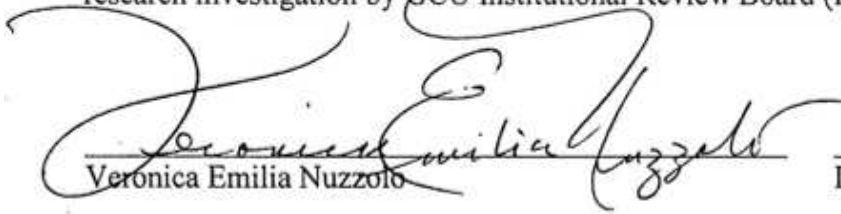
11/21/17  
Date

GRAND CANYON UNIVERSITY

Organizational Tolerance of Destructive Leader Behavior:

The Social Acceptance of Tyrannical Leadership

I verify that my dissertation represents original research, is not falsified or plagiarized, and that I have accurately reported, cited, and referenced all sources within this manuscript in strict compliance with APA and Grand Canyon University (GCU) guidelines. I also verify my dissertation complies with the approval(s) granted for this research investigation by GCU Institutional Review Board (IRB).

  
Veronica Emilia Nuzzolo

5-13-2017  
Date

## Abstract

The purpose of this quantitative correlational study was to consider that destructive leader behaviors are not solely derived by personality traits but to identify if and to what extent a relationship exists between destruction leader behavior and tolerant organizational culture in the United States. Whereas organizational culture drives functional or dysfunctional behaviors and outcomes, for the purposes of this study organizational tolerance of destructive leader behavior will drive organizational culture. Recognizing that current studies on the forms of destructive leadership fail to identify specifics of the phenomenon, the theories selected to guide this study attempt to encompass the constructs of destructive leadership as they relate to the perception of tolerant organizational culture. The final analysis of the study includes data from an online survey of 119 workers. Results of a reliability analysis showed the 5-item measure of destructive leader behavior was reliable ( $\alpha = .84$ ). Two point-biserial correlations indicated that neither of the correlations were significant (all  $p$ -values  $> .05$ ), indicating destructive leader behavior was not significantly correlated with organizational tolerance. Destructive leader behavior was not significantly correlated with whether or not the leader was protected ( $r_{pb} = .11, p = .349$ ), or whether or not the leader was punished ( $r_{pb} = -.15, p = .393$ ). Spearman correlations between destructive leader behavior and whether or not the leader was protected ( $r_s = .13, p = .279$ ), and whether or not the leader was punished ( $r_s = -.20, p = .247$ ) were also not significant suggesting that further research into perceived organizational support of destructive leadership practices is warranted.

*Keywords:* Tyrannical leadership, destructive leader behavior, perceived organizational support, ethical dissonance, organizational culture, organizational tolerance.

## **Dedication**

This study is dedicated to all who have been subject to or witness to destructive personalities and behaviors that have been tolerated and condoned within his or her environment. My hope is that continued research in this field will provide valuable information so that engaging in proactive behaviors can assist in providing safe, positive and productive environments free from incivility and destructive behavior.

## Acknowledgments

I would like to express my deepest gratitude and appreciation to my committee chair, my friend, Adamavi Ahyee, Ph.D., whose continued faith in my ability to complete this project never wavered. I thank P.J. Verrecchia, Ph.D., for his support in assisting me to overcome numerous obstacles that I faced during this research project. Without their guidance, encouragement, and true friendships this research project would not have been possible.



## Table of Contents

List of Tables .....	xii
List of Figures .....	xiii
Chapter 1: Introduction to the Study.....	1
Introduction.....	1
Background of the Study .....	4
Problem Statement .....	7
Purpose of the Study .....	9
Research Question(s) and Hypotheses.....	11
Advancing Scientific Knowledge .....	13
Significance of the Study .....	15
Rationale for Methodology .....	16
Nature of the Research Design for the Study.....	18
Definition of Terms.....	19
Assumptions, Limitations, Delimitations .....	21
Summary and Organization of the Remainder of the Study .....	22
Chapter 2: Literature Review .....	24
Introduction to the Chapter and Background to the Problem .....	24
Theoretical Foundations and/or Conceptual Framework.....	29
Review of the Literature .....	38
Methodology .....	84
Instrumentation .....	85
Summary.....	87

Chapter 3: Methodology .....	90
Statement of the Problem.....	91
Research Question(s) or Hypotheses .....	93
Research Methodology .....	95
Research Design.....	98
Population and Sample Selection.....	101
Instrumentation .....	103
Validity .....	105
Reliability.....	106
Data Collection and Management.....	106
Data Analysis Procedures .....	107
Ethical Considerations .....	112
Limitations and Delimitations.....	113
Limitations. ....	113
Delimitations.....	113
Summary .....	115
Chapter 4: Data Analysis and Results.....	117
Introduction.....	117
Descriptive Data.....	118
Data Analysis Procedures .....	120
Results.....	124
Summary .....	129
Chapter 5: Summary, Conclusions, and Recommendations.....	131
Introduction.....	131

Summary of the Study .....	132
Purpose of the study .....	133
Review of the literature.....	133
Research questions.....	135
Summary of Findings and Conclusion.....	136
Research Question 1.....	137
Research Question 2.....	138
Conclusions.....	139
Implications.....	142
Theoretical implications.....	142
Practical implications.....	143
Future implications .....	144
Recommendations.....	145
Recommendations for future research .....	146
Recommendations for future practice.....	147
References.....	149
Appendix A Survey Questions and Variables .....	181
Appendix B IRB Approval Letter.....	183
Appendix C Informed Consent .....	184
Appendix D Copy of Instruments and Permissions Letters to Use the Instruments.....	188
Appendix E Copy of Instruments and Permissions Letters to Use the Instruments .....	200
Appendix F G*Power Analysis Power of 0.95 .....	202
Appendix G G*Power Analysis Power of 0.8 .....	204
Appendix H G*Power Analysis Post Hoc for Point Biserial Correlation .....	206

Appendix I G*Power Analysis Post Hoc for Logistic Regression .....	207
Appendix J Frequencies and Percentages for Demographic Characteristics.....	208
Appendix K Frequencies and Percentages for Organizational Tolerance and Intent to Leave.....	210
Appendix L Exploratory Factor Analysis.....	212
Appendix M Rotated Factor Loadings for Exploratory Factor Analysis.....	213
Appendix N Descriptive Statistics for Destructive Leader Behavior Composite Score..	214
Appendix O Reliability Coefficient for Destructive Leader Behavior .....	215
Appendix P Correlations Between Destructive Leader Behavior and Organizational Tolerance Variables .....	216
Appendix Q Binary Logistic Regression Predicting Whether or Not Leader Was Protected .....	217
Appendix R Binary Logistic Regression Predicting Whether or Not Leader Was Punished.....	218
Appendix S Scree Plot for Exploratory Factor Analysis .....	219

### List of Tables

Table 1	Frequencies and Characteristics of Demographic Characteristics.....	119
Table 2	Frequencies and Percentages for Organizational Tolerance and Intent to Leave .....	120
Table 3	Eigenvalues for Exploratory Factor Analysis.....	124
Table 4	Rotated Factor Loadings for Exploratory Factor Analysis.....	126
Table 5	Descriptive Statistics for Destructive Leader Behavior Composite Score .....	126
Table 6	Reliability Coefficient for Destructive Leader Behavior .....	127
Table 7	Correlations Between Destructive Leader Behavior and Organizational Tolerance .....	128
Table 8	Binary Logistic Regression Predicting Whether or Not Leader Was Protected.	129
Table 9	Binary Logistic Regression Predicting Whether or Not Leader Was Punished.	129

**List of Figures**

Figure 1. Scree plot for exploratory factor analysis.....	124
---	-----

## Chapter 1: Introduction to the Study

### Introduction

The purpose of this quantitative correlational study was to consider that destructive leader behaviors are not solely derived by personality traits but was to identify if and to what extent a relationship exists between destruction leader behavior and tolerant organizational culture in the United States. Through this study, the researcher reviewed theories of destructive leader behavior, practices, and social factors that influence destructive leader behavior. When focusing on destructive leader behaviors, researchers have primarily emphasized and diagnosed the symptoms of destructive behaviors as individual characteristics and personality traits, without considering environmental factors, such as tolerant organizational culture as causation (Appelbaum & Roy-Girard, 2007; Buttigieg, Bryant, Hanley, & Liu, 2011; Einarsen, Hoel, & Notelaers, 2009; Gumbus & Lyons, 2011; Padilla, Hogan, & Kaiser, 2007).

Little research exists in this area; therefore, through this quantitative correlational study, the researcher attempted to explore this gap by assessing the relationship between destructive leader behavior and tolerant organizational culture. Tolerant organizational cultures, according to Tepper, Moss, and Duffy (2011), are characterized by the social norms, which legitimize destructive leadership as a means of exercising authority. A relational view entails leadership as a phenomenon generated from the interactions among people acting in context, not as a trait, or behavior of an individual leader (Fairfield & Uhl-Bien, 2012).

Research inventory developed for measuring perceived exposure to destructive leader behavior, bullying, and victimization at work has lacked a standardized

measurement tool (Hoel, Rayner, & Cooper, 1999). Thus, incomparable measures and operationalization's have been used in research on workplace bullying (Einarsen, Raknes, & Matthiesen, 1994). Einarsen, Aasland, and Skogstad (2007) did note that little to no action will be taken against a tyrannical leader and destructive leader behavior, regardless that the subordinates perceive these leaders as destructive or as workplace bullies. This lack of action is because the tyrannical leader is focused on the success of the organization and still meets organizational goals, thus creating a tolerant organizational culture.

This examination was an extension of the theories and assumptions that destructive leadership practices derive from individual personality traits without considering social factors, organizational culture and lack of organizational accountability that drives a tolerant organizational culture. To determine if a significant correlation exists between destructive leader behavior and tolerant organizational culture, the researcher examined organizational tolerance of destructive leader behavior. The research questions and hypotheses pertained to the predictor variables—gossip, ridicule, exclusion, and hostility—that the researcher correlated with the predictor variable organizations protecting the bully. Specifically, the researcher correlated Variables 1–26 with Variable 27, as stated in the Negative Acts Questionnaire-Revised (NAQ-R) to determine the extent of antisocial behaviors in the workplace (Einarsen et al., 2009). Variable 27, “Does the bully have protection?” measures organizational tolerance of destructive leader behavior (see Table 1). This analytical review of mistreatment helped to identify if the perceived victims could obtain help from the organization. In this analysis, the variable was the destructive leader behavior composite score. The other



variables presented in the NAQ-R were the responses to the questions, “Did or does your leader have someone who provides protection?” and “If you were subject to destructive leader behavior was your bully was punished?” These two questions operationalized organizational tolerance in this study.

Researchers have not thoroughly investigated the relationship between the destructive leader and tolerant organizational culture, which supported the need for this study. Over three quarters of articles in scholarly journals consistently overlook the role of organizational culture and followers (Porter & McLaughlin, 2006), focusing instead on leader personality traits and behaviors (Kaiser, & Craig, 2013; Thoroughgood, Padilla, Hunter, & Tate, 2012). In the existing literature, researchers primarily focused on how destructive leadership practices have a direct effect on subordinates, the subordinate’s perception of the organization, job satisfaction, productivity and engagement, and the financial consequences of bad behavior (Chekwa & Thomas, 2013; McTernan, Dollard, & LaMontagne, 2013; Neall & Tuckey, 2014; Rasool, Arzu, Hasan, Rafi, & Kashif, 2013). Researchers also reflected on the need to include social factors, such as organizational culture, to yield concrete results (Appelbaum & Roy-Girard, 2007; Buttigieg et al., 2011; Einarsen et al., 2009; Padilla et al., 2007). Gumbus and Lyons (2011) suggested a lack of evidence exists proving that companies are or are not supporting zero tolerance policies and solutions to destructive behaviors. In a 2012 survey conducted by the Workplace Bullying Institute, 62% of participants stated their company did not have zero tolerance policies in regards to workplace bullying (as cited in Namie, 2012a).

Organizational culture is a key factor in understanding destructive leader behavior. The organizational culture may be the primary factor creating the behavior of its members that promotes destructive leadership behavior and practices. Specifically, the researcher attempted to determine the relationship between a tolerant organizational culture and destructive leader behavior and practices. The intent was that the findings of this empirical research would validate the need to consider that destructive leader behaviors are not solely derived by personality traits, as the researcher further examines tolerant organizational cultures.

This study added to the body of existing research via examination of the relationship between organizational tolerance of destructive behavior and by assisting processes that guide policy recommendations to include zero tolerance and organizational accountability. This chapter includes the background of the study, a statement of the problem, the purpose of the study, the research questions that framed the study, and the significance of the study. The researcher explains how the findings of this study advanced scientific knowledge and provides the rationale for the research methodology, definitions of terms used in the research, and the assumptions, limitations, and delimitations of the study.

### **Background of the Study**

Researchers have primarily based leadership theories on personality traits and individual characteristics. These traits and qualities have since determined the popular concepts of leadership, such as transformational, ethical, and tyrannical leadership styles. A review of the literature revealed that a primary cause of destructive leader behavior is a conducive environment or a tolerant organizational culture, where destructive leader

behavior or subordinate abuse is present (Appelbaum & Roy-Girard, 2007; Buttigieg, et al., 2011; Einarsen et al., 2009; Gumbus & Lyons, 2011; Padilla et al., 2007). The origin of bullying is derived from the “school yard bully,” who attempted to intimidate a weaker person with verbal threats and aggressive behaviors. Namie (2014a) described destructive leader behavior and bullying as destructive, verbally aggressive, and threatening, or perceived to be threatening, toward employees or a person who would use that power to abuse subordinates.

Per Hauge, Skogstad, and Einarsen (2009), people engage in bullying at work. Hauge et al. researched which individual and situational variables predict destructive leader behavior or practices, or bullying in the workplace. These researchers believed that dysfunctional tolerant organizational cultures create negative environments that lead to destructive leader behavior (Hauge et al., 2009). Hauge et al. stated that the gap in previously conducted studies is the individual variables combined with the situational variables, such as tolerant organizational culture that contributed to destructive leader behaviors and that more research needs to be devoted to the reasons why perpetrators can engage in destructive behaviors. Buttigieg et al. (2011) hypothesized that tolerant organizational culture also causes destructive leader behavior, bullying and discriminatory behaviors. To understand the underlying causes and consequences of destructive leader practices, Buttigieg et al. examined common denominators of bullying and discrimination, including the differences in title, power, organizational culture, and the similarities of negative behaviors.

Destructive leadership is a phenomenon that frequently occurs in organizations and possesses many different attributes contingent on culture. Aasland, Skogstad,

Notelaers, Nielson, Morten, and Einarsen (2010) stated that “between 33.5% and 61% of all respondents reported their immediate superiors as showing some form of consistent and frequent destructive leadership during the last six months” (p. 446). Significant components of destructive leader behavior are organizational culture, ethical dissonance, and the organization’s disregard of accountability (Gumbus & Lyons, 2011). This study was aimed at determining the relationship between the destructive leader and tolerant organizational culture. The assumption that a specific response to situational circumstances is why behaviors may become abusive has been inconclusive. Situational circumstances and culture require future research to explain whether destructive behaviors are trait driven or learned social behaviors influenced by tolerant organizational cultures (Buttigieg et al., 2011; Einarsen et al., 2009; Padilla et al., 2007).

Schyns and Schilling (2013) conducted a meta-analysis of destructive leadership and the outcomes and consequences of destructive leader behavior and practices. The researchers concluded that destructive leadership could be the result of individual leaders or could be part of an organizational culture (Schyns & Schilling, 2013). Qureshi, Rasli, and Zaman (2014) suggested that organizational climate is a primary force driving an organization’s behavior. The climate of an organization provides the foundation to many psychological phenomena, including destructive leader behavior and workplace bullying (Qureshi et al., 2014). As previously stated, culture an organization’s processes, practices, and ideals that constitute the set of norms, values, and beliefs that define the organization’s social structure and culture (Schein, 2010). Tolerant organizational cultures, according to Tepper et al. (2011), are characterized by the social norms, which legitimize destructive leadership as a means of exercising authority, and Johnson,

Dakens, Edwards, and Morse (2008) describe culture as patterns of behavior that are encouraged, discouraged, or tolerated by people and systems over time. Taylor (2016) describes tolerating destructive behavior as being an enemy of good culture. What one is willing to tolerate will determine the culture that is created within the organization. “Walk past point-scoring, blame, or arrogance and they will become prevalent in your culture. Master the art of not tolerating such things, and you will witness rapid culture change (pg.1).”

A relational view entails leadership as a phenomenon generated from the interactions among people acting in context, not as a trait, or behavior of an individual leader (Fairfield & Uhl-Bien, 2012). Per Schyns and Schilling (2013), in terms of strength of effects, rather than an isolated phenomenon, destructive leader behaviors emerge with ease. The Schyns and Schilling (2013) meta-analysis has shown many gaps in the existing literature regarding the relationship between destructive leader behavior and tolerant organizational culture.

### **Problem Statement**

Researchers have not identified if, and to what extent, a relationship exists between destructive leader behavior and tolerant organizational culture. Organizations often plead ignorance regarding destructive leader behaviors, citing individual personality traits versus tolerant organizational culture as the factors contributing to destructive leader behaviors (Gumbus & Lyons, 2011). When focusing on destructive leader behaviors, researchers have primarily emphasized and diagnosed the symptoms of destructive behaviors as individual characteristics and personality traits, without considering environmental factors such as tolerant organizational culture as causation

(Appelbaum & Roy-Girard, 2007; Buttigieg, et al., 2011; Einarsen et al., 2009; Gumbus & Lyons, 2011; Padilla et al., 2007). Through quantitative study, the researcher explored the correlation between destructive leader behavior and tolerant organizational culture.

Destructive leader behaviors that can be observed by employees are listed as variables 1–26 of the NAQ-R (see Appendix A). The thought is a tolerant organizational culture creates negative environments that lead to the destructive leader behavior and the bullying of subordinates. Hauge et al. (2009) stated that the gap in the literature pertains to individual variables combined with situational variables, such as tolerant organizational culture, which contributes to destructive leader behavior and bullying. In addition, more researchers need to analyze the reasons why perpetrators can engage in destructive leader behavior and bullying practices (Hauge et al., 2009).

Destructive leader behavior and practices are less likely to be detected, reported, or prevented within tolerant organizational cultures than in nontolerant organizational cultures. Indvik and Johnson (2012) and Chekwa and Thomas (2013) suggested that the number of employees failing to report subordinate abuse is on the rise. Namie (2014b) reported that approximately 37 million U.S. employees were subjected to destructive leader behavior and workplace bullying. Conducting this quantitative study helped to determine if destructive leader behavior manifests in the environment as learned social behaviors created by tolerant organizational culture and demands. Significant components of tolerant organizational culture and destructive leader behavior are organizational ethical dissonance and the organizations blatant disregard of accountability (Gumbus & Lyons, 2011). Therefore, to diminish or stop destructive leader behavior and practices, the researcher plans to determine the relationship between

a destructive leader and a tolerant organizational culture. Virtually any person has the capability of being “transformed into a criminal wrongdoer given the right institutional pressures, rewards, and sanctions” (Zyglidopoulos & Fleming, 2008, p. 267). Further, Zyglidopoulos and Fleming (2008) proposed that ethical dissonance may also be a contributing factor when determining the role of a tyrannical leader or destructive leader behavior. These findings are in alignment with the conclusions of Zimbardo (2004), and Padilla et al. (2007).

Prior empirical researchers (Buttigieg et al., 2011; Einarsen et al., 2009; Padilla et al., 2007) validated the need to recognize that destructive leader behaviors are not solely derived from personality traits. Historically, researchers assumed destructive leader behavior was attributed to the individual leader’s personality traits (Furnham, 2010). Even though destructive leadership is an ongoing issue, defining destructive leadership is not easy. A gap in understanding exists regarding the overall concept of destructive leadership behavior (Mawritz, Mayer, Hoobler, Wayne, & Marinova, 2012; Namie, 2014a; Schyns & Schilling, 2013; Thoroughgood, Tate, Sawyer, & Jacobs, 2012a). Based on this analysis and review, the researcher also discusses future recommendations, including the identification of what type of organizational culture tolerates destructive leadership.

### **Purpose of the Study**

The purpose of this quantitative correlational study was to consider that destructive leader behaviors are not solely derived by personality traits but to identify if and to what extent a relationship exists between destruction leader behavior and tolerant organizational culture in the United States. When focusing on destructive leader

behaviors, researchers have primarily emphasized and diagnosed the symptoms of destructive behaviors as individual characteristics and personality traits, without considering environmental factors such as tolerant organizational culture as causation (Appelbaum & Roy-Girard, 2007; Buttigieg, et al., 2011; Einarsen et al., 2009; Gumbus & Lyons, 2011; Padilla et al., 2007). The researcher explored the correlation between destructive leader behavior and tolerant organizational culture. The study followed a quantitative correlational design to determine the association between destructive leader behaviors and tolerant organizational cultures in addition to operationalizing organizational tolerance by asking “Did or does your leader have someone who provides protection?” and “If you were subject to destructive leader behavior was your bully punished?”

The target population of this study consisted of 150 or more current and former employees of organizations nationwide. Participants for this research study consisted of individuals who represent diverse, entry- to mid-level employees, and first-level supervisors who may have experienced or witnessed destructive leader behavior. Identifying criterion variables that could contribute to destructive leader behavior, such as gossip, ridicule, exclusion, and hostility, were correlated with the predictor variable, organizations protecting the bully, and provided critical knowledge that assisted in the attempt to identify tolerant versus nontolerant organizational cultures. A quantitative correlational design was appropriate for this study to measure associations between variables. This study contributes to the existing research by adding information regarding (a) the relationship between organizational culture and tolerance of destructive leader



behavior, and (b) the necessary processes to guide policy recommendations to include zero tolerance and organizational accountability.

### **Research Question(s) and Hypotheses**

A lack of consensus is present in the literature regarding the predictive relationships between destructive leader behavior and tolerant organizational culture. The focus of this quantitative study was to assess this relationship. The research questions and hypotheses pertained to the predictor variables—gossip, ridicule, exclusion, and hostility—that the researcher correlated with the predictor variable organizations protecting the bully. Specifically, the researcher correlated Variables 1–26 of the NAQ -R with Variable 27. Variable 27, “Does the bully have protection?” measures organizational tolerance of destructive leader behavior (see Table 1). This analytical review of mistreatment helped to identify if the perceived victims could obtain help from the organization. In this analysis, the variable was the destructive leader behavior composite score. The other variables were the responses to the questions, “Did or does your leader have someone who provides protection?” and “If you were subject to destructive leader behavior was your bully was punished?” These two questions operationalized organizational tolerance in this study. Researchers have not thoroughly investigated the relationship between the destructive leader and tolerant organizational culture, which supported the need for this study.

The researcher collected anonymous data through a confidential online survey. The sample population for this research included current and former employees of organizations nationwide. Based on a G\*Power at an alpha level of .05, moderate effect size of 0.3, and power of .8 for correlations, the desired sample size is 82 participants.

Based on a G\*Power at an alpha level of .05, moderate effect size of 0.3, and power of .95 for correlations, the desired sample size was 134 participants, and based on a G\*Power at an alpha level of .05, moderate effect size of 0.3, and power of .95 for logistic regression, the desired sample size was 170 participants.

Through this quantitative correlational study, the researcher explored the correlation between destructive leader behavior and tolerant organizational culture. The following research questions guided this quantitative study.

RQ1: Is there a significant correlation between destructive leader behavior and tolerant organizational culture?

H<sub>01a</sub>: There is no statistically significant correlation between destructive leader behavior and whether or not the leader was protected.

H<sub>A1a</sub>: There is a statistically significant correlation between destructive leader behavior and whether or not the leader was protected.

H<sub>01b</sub>: There is no statistically significant correlation between destructive leader behavior and whether or not the leader was punished.

H<sub>A1b</sub>: There is a statistically significant correlation between destructive leader behavior and whether or not the leader was punished.

RQ2: Does destructive leader behavior predict tolerant organizational culture?

H<sub>02a</sub>: Destructive leader behavior does not statistically significantly predict whether or not the leader was protected.

H<sub>A2a</sub>: Destructive leader behavior statistically significantly predicts whether or not the leader was protected.

H<sub>02b</sub>: Destructive leader behavior does not statistically significantly predict whether or not the leader was punished.

H<sub>A2b</sub>: Destructive leader behavior statistically significantly predicts whether or not the leader was punished.

### **Advancing Scientific Knowledge**

To better demonstrate the concept and effect of destructive leadership practices and the influence of tolerant organizational culture, the following theoretical models directed this study: Allport and Odbert's (1936) trait theory, Bandura's (1999) social cognitive theory, and the toxic triangle (Padilla et al., 2007). Trait theory is the theory of personality, which proposes that individuals are biologically predisposed to specific personality traits, such as narcissism, resulting in predictable behavior (Miller & Campbell, 2008). Researchers have consistently used trait theory as a basis and foundation for the examination of leadership styles, destructive leadership behaviors, and toxic organizational cultures (Boddy, 2014; Mathisen, Einarsen, & Mykletun, 2011; Seigner, Coyne, Randall, & Parker, 2007).

The second model, social cognitive theory, is based on the premise that personality development comprises learned behaviors displayed in particular social situations (Bandura, 1999). The social-cognitive perspective, as explained by Bandura (1999), expands the original learning theory of personality, which entails that personality is learned in social situations through interaction and observation. Bandura explained the basic principles of learning suggest all behavior is in response to environmental stimuli, and that the responses to various stimuli are learned from past experiences and are

dictated by present circumstance. Swearer, Wang, Berry, and Myers (2014) believed the premise of the application of social cognitive theory is critical in the workplace.

The third model from Padilla et al. (2007) is the toxic triangle. The researchers defined destructive leadership as the examination of personality traits, destructive practices, conducive followers, and environments (Padilla et al., 2007). Padilla et al. described elements related to destructive leadership and environmental factors, suggesting that trait-driven behaviors are contingent on organizational tolerance of destructive behavior. To better illustrate the concept and effect of destructive leadership practices and the influence of tolerant organizational culture, Padilla, et al.'s model of the toxic triangle can identify the environmental dynamics that influence and promote destructive behavior. This model also allows researchers to examine negative behaviors that are tolerated and exist in organizational culture (Padilla et al., 2007). The elements of this model relate to destructive leadership and may identify and define the root causes of the occurrences of destructive leader behaviors (Padilla et al., 2007). This process is completed by examining the leader, the follower, and environmental factors, such as tolerant organizational cultures (Padilla et al., 2007).

Understanding the basic concepts of existing models provides insight regarding the relationship and influences that determine the leader-follower relationship and can assist in understanding how destructive leaders gain control and assert power toward subordinates. To identify the environmental dynamics that influence and promote destructive leader behavior and practices, the researcher used these theories to analyze concepts of tolerant organizational culture. Gaps in the literature exist pertaining to the relationship between the organization, tolerant organizational culture, and destructive

leader behavior. Therefore, the researcher investigated the relationship between organizational tolerance or non-tolerance and destructive leader behavior. Furthermore, the researcher provided recommendations regarding how organizations can reduce destructive leadership practices.

Through this review, the researcher sought to fill the gap in the literature by specifically addressing the relationship between an organization's tolerance of the destructive leader. The first contribution was to identify if organizational culture drives functional or dysfunctional behaviors and outcome. The results of this study have the potential to lead to positive social change by providing organizations with more information regarding the relationships between destructive leader behaviors and tolerant organizational cultures (Furnham, 2010; Hogan, Hogan, & Kaiser, 2011). These findings also serve to inform organizational executives and human resource professionals regarding zero tolerance policies and encourage improvement of effective leadership intervention and development programs for identification of destructive leader behavior.

### **Significance of the Study**

The significance of this research was to expand and extend previous theories and assumptions that destructive leadership practices derive from individual personality traits without considering tolerant organizational culture and a lack of organizational accountability. To determine if a significant correlation exists between destructive leader behavior and tolerant organizational culture, Appelbaum and Roy-Girard (2007) recommended a quantitative study to examine the level of organizational tolerance of destructive leader behavior.

By identifying organizational factors that influence abusive behaviors and factors that contribute to the identification of targeted employees, victims provided critical knowledge to highlight tolerant versus nontolerant organizational cultures. In addition, this study produced positive social organizational change by providing human resources with more information regarding the relationship between destructive leaders and the environment. Potential contributions include assisting executives and human resource personnel in personality assessment, intervention strategies, or the implementation of executive coaching and mentoring programs.

The findings of this empirical research validate the need to consider destructive behaviors are not solely derived from personality traits, and to further examine tolerant organizational cultures. This study furthered existing research by improving the understanding of the role organizational culture has on destructive behaviors through an examination of the relationship between organizational tolerance of destructive leader behavior. This study added value to the existing literature by contributing to policy recommendations including zero tolerance and organizational accountability, to enable early identification of destructive leader practices that have the potential to create a toxic organizational culture.

### **Rationale for Methodology**

A quantitative methodology was most appropriate for this study, as the primary goal was to assess the relationship between destructive leader behavior and tolerant organizational culture. Babbie, Wagner, and Zaino (2015) described quantitative research as an approach that relies on the collection and analysis of numerical data. Researchers use this process to describe, explain, predict, or control variables and phenomena of

interest. Using quantitative methods for this study allowed for precise identification of experiences (Babbie, 2012; Bruce, Pope, & Stanistreet, 2013) that employees perceived as abusive and tolerated within the organization. Quantitative methods also allow researchers to test statistical hypotheses regarding the relationship of a set of quantitative variables (Gaskin & Happell, 2014).

The researcher collected the data for the variables of interest through an online survey from at least 150 workers who were employed for at least six months. Gaskin and Happell (2014) defined surveys as an information collection method used to describe, compare, or explain individual and societal knowledge, feelings, preferences, and behavior. The researcher then statistically analyzed the results of the online survey to determine the extent to which destructive leader behavior is contingent on tolerant organizational culture. Quantitative research is conclusive as researchers attempt to quantify the problem, identify evidence regarding cause-and-effect relationships, test specific hypotheses, examine specific relationships, and understand how prevalent the phenomenon is by looking for projectable results to a larger population (Gaskin & Happell, 2014).

If strong relationships are found, future researchers could use this qualitative study to analyze specific relations in-depth by studying instances of subordinate abuse. Qualitative research generates data pertaining to human groups in social settings, with the aim to produce a better understanding through firsthand experience, observations, conversations, and interviews. However, for this study, a quantitative approach was appropriate because qualitative analysis would not have allowed the researcher to address the need to look at relationships between variables to address the research questions.

### **Nature of the Research Design for the Study**

Through this quantitative correlational study, the researcher explored the correlation between destructive leader behavior and tolerant organizational culture. A quantitative study was selected because the researcher aimed to describe trends and explain relationships, and this method allowed for measurement of perceptions, beliefs, and attitudes. Quantitative methodology was most appropriate for this study because the primary goal was to assess the relationships among the numerically expressed variables. A nonexperimental design was used because the researcher did not introduce any interventions to the participants nor experiment any methodology with any of the study participants. Quantitative methodologies are based on objective measurement and statistical analysis of numeric data to explain phenomena (Mustafa, 2011).

The variables in this study were measured using survey instruments with numerical Likert scales. The researcher distributed a close-ended survey to gain quantifiable data to understand further the perceived abusive experience and the participants' interpretation of the experience. The survey was designed to prompt honest responses from the participant. The survey questions enabled the participants to assess what they believed to be the degree of harassment or harmfulness of the leader's behavior. To discourage careless or overemotional responses, the researcher measured questions regarding a participant's perception of behavioral issues using a Likert-type scale, associating these opinions on a scale ranging from 1 (very helpful) to 10 (very harmful).

The researcher collected all anonymous data via a confidential online survey. The sample population for this research included current and former employees of



organizations nationwide. Participants for this research study consisted of previously or presently employed individuals who represent diverse entry- to mid-level employees and first-level supervisors who may have experienced or witnessed destructive leader behavior. Based on a G\*Power at an alpha level of .05, moderate effect size of 0.3, and power of .8 for correlations, the minimum desired sample size is 82 participants. Based on a G\*Power at an alpha level of .05, moderate effect size of 0.3, and power of .95 for correlations, the desired sample size was 134 participants, and based on a G\*Power at an alpha level of .05, moderate effect size of 0.3, and power of .95 for logistic regression, the desired sample size was 170 participants.

### **Definition of Terms**

The researcher operationally defined the following terms relevant to the study.

**Aggression.** Aggression is a form of retaliatory behavior by an employee against another employee in an organization, with the intent to cause harm (Hepburn & Enns, 2013).

**Bullying.** Defined as (a) behavior perceived as intentionally negative and malicious, whether physical or emotional, from one or more persons; (b) perceived negative behavior that is persistent and consistent; and (c) perceived behavior driven by a bully's desire to control (Einarsen, Hoel, Zapf, & Cooper, 2003)

**Charisma.** Inspires unquestioning loyalty and devotion in the followers without regard to their own self-interest (Miller & Campbell, 2008).

**Culture.** A system of implicit and explicit representations and meanings learned and revealed to members through accepted behavior and the unwritten rules of an organization. Culture includes the organization's processes and practices, and the set of

norms, values, and beliefs that define the organization's social structure and culture (Schein, 2010).

***Destructive leadership.*** This leadership involves direct and indirect behaviors exhibited by leaders; behaviors are harmful towards followers and the organization (Thoroughgood et al., 2012).

***Leadership.*** The actions of any person who guides a team of subordinates to accomplish their work. The process of instructing and providing accountability within the organization regarding a final product or service produced by an organization (Tepper et al., 2011).

***Leadership styles.*** Different styles of leadership exist based on the market, environment, and the individuals' competencies; for example, some styles include autocratic, charismatic, coaching, cross-cultural, emergent, exchange, facilitative, influence tactics, laissez-faire, participative, servant, situational, strategic, team, transformational, transactional, bureaucratic, task-oriented, people oriented, relations oriented, and visionary (Tepper et al., 2011).

***Narcissism.*** A personality trait involving characteristics of extraversion, aggressiveness, self-assuredness, and the need to be admired (Miller & Campbell, 2008).

***Negative acts.*** This study involved use of items from the revised Negative Acts Questionnaire-Revised (NAQ-R) to determine the extent of antisocial behaviors in the workplace (Einarsen et al., 2009).

***Organizational culture.*** Shared assumptions used by group members to solve problems, adapt to internal and external forces, and guide ways of thinking, acting, and

feeling. Culture is the patterns of behavior that are encouraged, discouraged, or tolerated by people and systems over time (Schein, 2010; Johnson et al., 2008).

***Reciprocal determinism.*** A person's behavior both influences and is influenced by personal factors and the social environment (Bandura, 1999).

***Tolerance.*** The ability or willingness to tolerate something, in particular the existence of opinions or behavior that one does not necessarily agree with, "the tolerance of corruption" (Oxford, 2017).

***Tolerant organizational culture.*** Characterized by the social norms, legitimizes destructive leadership as a means of exercising authority. A relational view entails leadership as a phenomenon generated from the interactions among people acting in context, not as a trait or behavior of an individual leader (Tepper et al., 2011; Fairfield & Uhl-Bien, 2012).

***Tyrannical leadership.*** Abusive leadership to which supervisors engage in the sustained display of hostile verbal and nonverbal behaviors, excluding physical contact (Tepper et al., 2011).

***Workplace bullying.*** Persistent abuse, offense, intimidation, incivility, insult, abuse of power, and punitive sanctions to victims (Paull & Omari, 2015).

### **Assumptions, Limitations, Delimitations**

**Assumptions.** Assumptions are facts associated with research (Leedy & Ormrod, 2013) that ensure the validity of the research (Foss & Hallberg, 2014). The researcher holds the following assumptions for this study.

- It was assumed that the participants have integrity and possess the ability to ethically report alleged incidents of abuse.

- It was assumed that survey participants were not deceptive and answered the questions honestly and to the best of their abilities.
- It was assumed that self-reporting surveys and questionnaires always have limitations, such as personal emotions, bias, and discrepancies in the accuracy that one perceives and reports as destructive behaviors.
- It was assumed that the data collection instruments would allow the researcher to collect valid and reliable data.

**Limitations.** This study had some boundaries and weaknesses that may have

limited the scope. The researcher did not have control of all the limitations:

1. The study was limited to employees' perceptions of destructive leader behavior and not their general well-being.
2. Participants chosen for the study could choose not to complete the survey.
3. Participants who volunteered for this survey may harbor resentment toward corporations that they believe or perceive to be tolerant of destructive leader behavior.
4. The sample size must adequately represent the population to ensure truthful reporting.

**Delimitations.** Delimitations affect the general latitude of a study (Vladu, Matis,

& Salas, 2012). The researcher set the following delimitations to this study.

1. The researcher used a convenience sample of volunteer respondents. Consequently, the external validity of the findings may have been affected, and the research findings may have limited generalizability.
2. Participants were limited to those who were employed for 6 months or more. The results cannot be extrapolated to those with less service.
3. The study population may not include employees who were subject to or a witness to destructive leader practices.

### **Summary and Organization of the Remainder of the Study**

Chapter 1 detailed the nature and background of the study. The researcher explained gap in research exists regarding the understanding of the relationship between destructive leader behavior and tolerant organizational culture. Chapter 1 provided a brief

explanation of destructive leader behavior and practices. The researcher identified the research problem as not knowing the extent to which destructive leader behavior is attributed to tolerant organizational culture. Organizations often plead ignorance regarding destructive leader behaviors, citing individual personality traits versus tolerant organizational culture; this premise guided the direction of the study. To fill this gap and determine if a significant correlation exists between destructive leader behavior and a tolerant organizational culture, the researcher conducted a quantitative study to examine organizational tolerance of destructive leader behavior.

The remainder of the study is organized as Chapter 2 through Chapter 5. Chapter 2 presents an in-depth review of the existing knowledge relating to the study. Existing literature includes information regarding organizational culture, tolerance, destructive leader behavior, and psychological perspectives of destructive behavior. Chapter 3 provides a detailed discussion of the design and methodology used for this quantitative study. The researcher addresses the sampling methods, data collection, and the data analysis processes relevant to this study. Chapter 4 outlines the final study results. In this chapter, the researcher presents and analyzes the findings and concludes if the hypotheses were accepted or rejected based on the results obtained during the final statistical analysis. Chapter 5 provides an interpretation and discussion of the results. This chapter includes a detailed summary of the limitations of the study as well as recommendations for future research.

## Chapter 2: Literature Review

### Introduction to the Chapter and Background to the Problem

The purpose of this quantitative correlational study was to consider that destructive leader behaviors are not solely derived by personality traits but to identify if and to what extent a relationship exists between destructive leader behavior and tolerant organizational culture in the United States. This chapter consists of a comprehensive review of literature focusing on key factors of destructive leader behavior and tolerant organizational culture. The discussion includes the history of trait theory, destructive leader behavior, and organizational tolerance of destructive leader behavior. The researcher details literature relevant to the study of the association between destructive leader behavior and organizational tolerance. The chapter also presents the definition of organizational tolerance and destructive leader behavior for the specific purpose of this study.

This literature review is divided into five sections. The first section includes an exploration of personality traits versus learned social behaviors, and what it means to possess specific traits indicative of destructive leader behaviors versus the destructive behaviors being a product of a tolerant organizational culture. The second section provides an overview of leadership theories and an assessment of the effectiveness of constructive versus destructive leader practices. The third section presents an in-depth examination of organizational culture and the tolerance of destructive leader behavior. The fourth section includes the outcomes of destructive leader behavior and practices, such as workplace bullying and the financial consequence of destructive behaviors. The final

section brings together research in the two areas—organizational culture and accountability.

The researcher conducted the literature review through the following electronic databases and portals, ProQuest, Academic Search Premier, EBSCO, and Google Scholar. The following keywords were used, *charisma, destructive leadership, workplace bullying, organizational culture, narcissism, trait theory, social cognitive theory, and bystander*. The researcher obtained various materials from the Society for Industrial-Organizational Psychology, and the American Psychological Association (APA).

This review is an extension of the theories and assumptions that destructive leadership practices derive from individual personality traits without considering tolerant organizational culture and a lack of organizational accountability (Appelbaum & Roy-Girard, 2007; Buttigieg et al., 2011; Einarsen et al., 2009; Gumbus & Lyons, 2011; Padilla et al., 2007). To determine if a significant correlation exists between destructive leader behavior and tolerant organizational culture, the researcher conducted this quantitative study to examine organizational tolerance of destructive leader behavior, “did or does your leader have someone who provides protection?” and “if you were subject to destructive leader behavior was your bully was punished?” are the two questions that operationalized organizational tolerance in this study. The objective of this review was to propose the most effective method for organizations to integrate organizational prevention of destructive leader behavior and practices into the organizational culture. The researcher gathered the components by examining existing literature from the behavioral sciences field, including psychological behavior, leadership behavior, and organizational behavior.

Researchers have indicated that areas of future study should include social factors, such as organizational culture, to yield concrete results (Buttigieg et al., 2011; Einarsen et al., 2009; Padilla et al., 2007). Appelbaum and Roy-Girard (2007) and Gumbus and Lyons (2011) also suggested lack of evidence exists, proving companies are supporting zero tolerance policies and solutions to destructive behaviors. These researchers also agreed that existing research has failed to focus on the reason why most organizations neglect the problem when made aware of its existence. The findings of this empirical research validate the need to consider that destructive behaviors are not solely derived from personality traits and require further examination of tolerant organizational cultures.

Destructive behavior and leadership theories have been primarily based on personality traits and individual characteristics. These traits and qualities have since determined the popular concepts of leadership, such as transformational, ethical, and tyrannical leadership styles. Gholamzadeh and Khazaneh (2012) conducted an evaluation of the relationship between destructive leader behavior and three leadership styles—transformational, transactional, and laissez-fair. The researchers found a significant positive correlation between both transactional and laissez-fair leadership styles and destructive behavior, and a significant negative correlation between transformational leadership and destructive leader behaviors (Gholamzadeh & Khazaneh, 2012).

A review of the literature revealed that a primary cause of destructive leader behavior is a conducive environment or a tolerant organizational culture, where destructive leader behavior or subordinate abuse is present. Subordinate abuse of others, or bullying, starts with the school yard bully who used verbal threats and aggressive behaviors to intimidate a weaker person. Namie (2014a) described destructive behavior



and bullying as (a) a leader figure who is destructive, verbally aggressive, and threatening or perceived to be threatening toward employees; (b) a person who would abuse that power; and (c) a person in the position of authority who abuses subordinates. Per Hauge et al. (2009), people engage in bullying of others at work. The researchers questioned what individual and situational variables predict destructive leader behavior, practices, or the bullying of others in the workplace (Hauge et al., 2009). Hauge et al. believed that stressful workplace conditions (dysfunctional tolerant organizational culture) create negative environments that lead to destructive leader behavior.

Hauge et al. (2009) contended the gap in previously conducted studies includes the individual variables combined with situational variables, such as tolerant organizational culture, that contributed to workplace bullying. The researchers also suggested that more research needs to be devoted to the reasons why perpetrators can engage in bullying practices (Hauge et al., 2009). Buttigieg et al. (2011) hypothesized that bullying and discriminatory behaviors are also caused by organizational culture. To understand the underlying causes and consequences of bullying behaviors, Buttigieg et al. examined common denominators of bullying and discrimination, such as the differences in title, power, and organizational culture, and the similarities of negative behaviors.

Destructive leadership is a phenomenon that occurs frequently in organizations and possesses many different attributes contingent on culture. Aasland et al. (2010) stated that “between 33.5% and 61% of all respondents reported their immediate superiors as showing some kind of consistent and frequent destructive leadership during the last six months” (p. 446). A significant component of destructive leader behavior is a tolerant organizational culture comprised of ethical dissonance and blatant disregard of

accountability (Gumbus & Lyons, 2011). Therefore, this study was aimed at determining the relationship between the destructive leader and a tolerant organizational culture. The assumption that specific responses to situational circumstances is a realistic perspective regarding why behaviors may become abusive has been inconclusive and requires future research to explain if destructive behaviors are trait driven or learned social behaviors in tolerant organizational cultures (Buttigieg et al., 2011; Einarsen et al., 2009; Padilla et al., 2007).

Schyns and Schilling (2013) conducted a meta-analysis of destructive leadership and the outcomes and consequences of destructive leader behavior and practices. The researchers concluded that destructive leadership could be the result of individual leaders or destructive leadership could be part of an organizational culture (Schyns & Schilling, 2013). As previously stated, culture represent an organization's processes, practices, and values that constitute the set of norms, values, and beliefs that define the organization's social structure and culture (Schein, 2010). Tolerant organizational cultures, per Tepper et al. (2011), are characterized by the social norms that legitimize destructive leadership as a means of exercising authority.

In terms of strength of effects, culture, rather than an isolated phenomenon, allows destructive leader behavior to emerge with ease, and Schyns and Schilling (2013) identified various gaps in the existing literature regarding the relationship between destructive behavior and tolerant organizational culture. Most researchers have focused on destructive leader practices and how destructive leadership behavior has a direct influence on subordinates (Neill & Tuckey, 2014); however, Rasool et al. (2013) and

Chekwa and Thomas (2013) agreed that the inclusion of organizational culture represents an existing gap in the literature.

### **Theoretical Foundations and/or Conceptual Framework**

The theories selected to guide this study related to power, culture, and leadership. These theories relate to critical factors regarding the problem of destructive leader behavior. Destructive behavior is a precise behavior geared toward power in the workplace, subjecting subordinates to bad and, often, abusive leader behavior. Destructive leaders are manipulative and demeaning, and force out the organization's best talent (Diekmann, Walker, Galinsky, & Tenbrunsel, 2013).

The theoretical models guiding this study were Allport and Odbert's (1936) trait theory, Bandura's (2001) social cognitive theory, and the toxic triangle (Padilla et al., 2007). Trait theory is the theory of personality, which proposes that individuals are biologically predisposed to specific personality traits, such as narcissism, that result in predictable behavior (Miller & Campbell, 2008). Researchers have consistently used trait theory as a basis and foundation for the examination of leadership styles, destructive leadership behaviors, and toxic organizational cultures (Boddy, 2014; Mathisen et al., 2011; Seigner et al., 2007).

Social cognitive theory is based on the premise that personality development comprises learned behaviors displayed in particular social situations (Bandura, 1999). The social-cognitive perspective, as explained by Bandura (1999), expands the original learning theory of personality, which theorizes that personality is learned in social situations through interaction and observation. The basic principles of learning when determining personality development and the concept of behaviorism suggests that all

behavior is in response to environmental stimuli and that the responses to various stimuli are learned from past experiences and are dictated by present circumstance.

To better illustrate the concept and influence of destructive leadership practices and the effect of tolerant organizational culture, Padilla et al.'s (2007) model of the toxic triangle attempts to identify the environmental dynamics that influence and promote destructive behavior and negative behaviors that exist in tolerant organizational culture. The elements of this model relate to destructive leadership to identify and define the root causes of the behaviors (Padilla et al., 2007). This process occurs by examining the leader, the follower, and the environmental factors (organization culture and tolerance). Padilla et al. described elements related to destructive leadership and environmental factors, suggesting that trait driven behaviors are contingent on organizational tolerance of destructive behavior.

**Trait theory.** In previous research on destructive leadership, researchers identified narcissism and charisma as central characteristics of destructive behavior (Howell & Avolio, 1992; Hogan, Raskin, & Fazzini, 1990). Furnham (2010) explained that when a leader fails to meet the demands of his or her position, destructive leader behaviors are based on three components or the “dark triad of personality” (p. 17). Those three components are (a) arrogance, or self-centeredness and self-enhancement; (b) cynicism, or being manipulative and emotionally cold; and (c) impulsive thrill seeking, or being engaged in illegal, dangerous, and antisocial behavior (Furnham, 2010). O'Boyle, Forsyth, Banks, and McDaniel (2012) also agreed that the dark triad components of personality affect organizational culture.

Genetic or biological factors of personality focus on biological and physiological factors as determinants of behavior. Trait theory represents the consistencies in a person's behavioral patterns, such as thinking, acting, and feeling, that are relatively consistent in people in different situations and those traits determine specific characteristic responses. Allport and Odbert (1936) explained the biological principles and factors of personality. Allport and Odbert disagreed with the negative views of humanity that Freudian psychoanalytical perspectives portrayed (Freud, 1989). Freud (1989) maintained that individuals possess certain traits deep within one's psyche that naturally predetermine or create one's personality with social neurosis, which instills an environment of anxiety within the person. The persons born with these traits have natural narcissistic, authoritarian, and abusive tendencies. In response, Allport and Odbert (1936) rejected the theory that the unconscious was central to understanding personality. The researchers believed that to understand healthy behavior, one must focus on the individual's life in the present, not his or her childhood experiences. In defining personality, Allport and Odbert stressed that individual uniqueness is derived from the person's capacity to adapt to the environment. Allport and Odbert concluded that the ability to adapt is derived by genetic, biological personality traits.

The trait approach includes three basic assumptions. These assumptions are that specific genetics or traits are relatively consistent and can be predicted over time, across situations, and that people with the same traits will differ depending on the level of trait possessed. Allport and Odbert (1936) originally described trait theory as consistent central and secondary traits. The researchers identified 4,500 words or traits that could be used to describe a person; this method of determining personality was referred to as the

Lexical Approach (Allport & Odbert, 1936). Using factor analysis, Fiske (1949) then created a five-factor model to classify individual behavior. Fiske identified these five factors of personality as extroversion, agreeableness, conscientiousness, emotional stability, and culture. This five-factor model, now referred to as the Big Five, includes agreeableness, conscientiousness, extraversion, neuroticism, and openness as distinct personality traits. Harms, Spain, and Hannah (2011) established that the dark side of leadership emerges when trait driven personalities are under pressure and then create unhealthy, unsafe psychosocial climates.

Ilies, Gerhardt, and Le (2004) concluded that only 17% of leadership abilities can be attributed to heredity and characteristic traits. The researchers focused on the Big Five personality traits. These five traits are emotional stability, extraversion, openness, agreeableness, and conscientiousness. The researchers calculated the conclusion of 17% by combining these traits with cognitive abilities (Ilies et al., 2004). From this data, Ilies et al. concluded that a basis exists for the genetic component theories of leadership, and the data also revealed that a significant majority of leaders acquire skills through learning.

Gentry, Deal, Stawiski, and Ruderman (2012) indicated that “mades” (individuals who learned leadership skills) and “borns” (individuals who inherited leadership skills) do have different opinions regarding the acquisition of leadership traits. Borns were less supportive of training and development than makes, and makes placed more emphasis on training and development. Gentry et al. also discussed that beliefs and perceptions of the leader affect how one will evaluate leadership skills and potential. People who believe that leaders are born and not made will focus on selecting the right people versus focusing on the development of existing employees. People who believe leaders can be

made believe that experience will result in better leadership abilities, and this perception of leadership results with an increased focus on training and development.

Kirkpatrick and Locke (1991) also discussed the perception of leader confidence, indicating that both leader confidence and the follower's perception of this confidence are important factors of successful leadership. Kirkpatrick and Locke concluded that confident leaders are assertive and decisive and this personality trait gains the confidence of the followers. This characteristic trait is essential in the decision-making process. The researchers stated that if the outcomes of the decision were poor, the leader's level of self-confidence could cause the leader to admit mistakes made and use these instances as a learning opportunity to gain further trust from the membership (Kirkpatrick & Locke, 1991). Kirkpatrick and Locke found that born leader traits assist the leader to continue to acquire the necessary skills through learning to formulate and implement a vision that others will follow. The individual characteristic traits matter when defining leadership potential.

Kirkpatrick and Locke (1991) found that hereditary traits are vital components of successful leaders and honing these leadership skills comes with experience and time. Regardless if leaders are made or possess a combination of traits and cognition, leaders possess characteristics lacking in other people. Leadership is demanding and requires a dedication and commitment that most people are not willing to give. This particular drive is a born trait that separates the leader from the other workers. To face the daily challenges and to continue to motivate people requires a special talent that is not equally present among all individuals. Using the knowledge to further train and develop these

natural born leaders will further ensure successful healthy leadership practice (Kirkpatrick & Locke, 1991).

**Social cognitive theory.** Bandura (2001) indicated that people can be described in terms of the basic way they behave. The researcher discussed the importance of nature and nurture, or innate characteristics and external influences (Bandura, 2001). The primary question posed by researchers is, are human traits innate or the product of experience, or are people inherently good? The nurture side of the debate pertains to the importance of the environment in development, the environment as the world outside of the individual, and all the experiences this entails. The environment, the external factor consists of all stimuli an individual is exposed to daily, including family, friends, community, culture, ethnicity, and economic status.

Padilla et al. (2007) theorized that the environment influences and shapes the individual, regardless of biological components. Regarding the social-cognitive perspective, Bandura (1999) concluded that personality development comprises learned behaviors that are displayed in particular social situations. This perspective expands the original learning theory of personality, which theorizes that personality is learned in social situations through interaction and observation. The basic principles of learning and the concept of behaviorism suggest that all behavior is in response to environmental stimuli and that the responses to various stimuli are learned from past experiences and are dictated by present circumstance (Bandura, 1999).

Bandura (1999, 2001) indicated that people learn what they consider to be appropriate responses by observation. By watching others, in addition to thinking and reasoning, personality develops and changes over time. Bandura (1999, 2001) stated that



personality development requires constant interaction of thought, environment, and behavior, and that one component alone could not explain personality. Bandura's reciprocal determinism theory concluded that all the stated elements and not just one element shape personality. Bandura's perspective suggests that thought, environment, and behavior are interdependent and equally important and can only be understood through the combination of biological traits and life experience. Bandura's concept of reciprocal determinism defines personality. Mischel and Shoda's (1995) cognitive affective theory strengthened this perspective by indicating that cognition variables coupled with situational variables produces behavior.

Bandura (1999) and Mischel and Shoda (1995) concluded that unlike the standard behavioral approach to personality that neglected to include unconscious processes, experiences, and genetic or biological issues, the social-cognitive approach involves all concepts of personality development. The social-cognitive approach expands all theories—psychoanalytical, behavioral, and genetic or trait—encompassing all relevant factors, including socially important principles. Bandura (1999) indicated that people learn what they consider to be appropriate responses through observation. By watching others in addition to thinking and reasoning, personality develops and changes over time. Bandura stated that personality development requires constant interaction of thought, environment, and behavior, and that one component alone does not explain personality. This social cognitive theory subscribes to the model of interaction, which indicates that mental events are brain activities, not immaterial entities existing apart from neuro-biological systems. Bandura also explained how cognitive processes begin with brain activity and that activity will influence behavior depending on the social situation. Social cognitive

theory explains the psychosocial functioning in terms of reciprocal causation (Bandura, 1999). The term reciprocal causation coined by Bandura indicates that functional dependence exists between biological and social events, suggesting that destructive leader behavior and practices are influenced by the environment, specifically how conducive the environment is.

Bandura (1999, 2001) originally proposed and maintained that humans are a product of the environment as well as influencers of the same environment. Human behavior can change the environment contingent on the way that one perceives the current environment. The interaction among personal, behavioral, and environmental factors is known as reciprocal determinism (Bandura, 1989). Reciprocal determinism suggests that all three factors affect the cognitive process and all three factors are necessary components for behavioral choice. One significant outcome of reciprocal determinism is bystander agency (Bandura, 1989). The premise of bystander agency is that bystanders are not merely products of the environment, but affect the environment and choose how to behave, indicating that behavior is not predetermined by personality traits but rather a learned social behavior. This social learning or social cognitive theory “describes how workplace incivility has the potential to spiral into increasingly aggressive behavior” (Boddy, 2014, p. 108).

**Toxic triangle theory.** Padilla et al. (2007) offered a more detailed definition of destructive leadership behaviors, as well as the followers and situations that can contribute to the overall environment of the destructive leader. Padilla et al. proposed that the definition of leadership, as stated by Einarsen, Aasland, and Skogstad (2007), needs to be expanded to include three critical elements—destructive leaders, susceptible

followers, and conducive environments. Einarsen et al. solely focused on destructive behaviors specific to the leader and did not take into consideration the dynamic and the relationship between all components: leader, followers, and culture. Padilla et al. (2007) theorized that five criteria need to be met to define destructive leadership. The criteria include (a) destructive leadership is not entirely destructive; (b) destructive leadership involves coercion, control, and manipulation rather than commitment and persuasion; (c) destructive leaders are selfish and self-serving and do not consider the long-term well-being of the organization; (d) outcomes will compromise the long-term success of the organization and will affect the emotional well-being of employees; and (e) destructive leader behavior cannot survive in nontolerant environments. Organization outcomes depend on susceptible followers and conducive environments (Einarsen et al., 2007; Hogan et al., 2011; Nielsen & Knardahl, 2015; Padilla et al., 2007; Thoroughgood et al., 2012). Mehta and Maheshwari (2013) also agreed that destructive or toxic leadership is a negative experience for the follower, which is harmful to any organization.

Researchers have indicated that long-term patterns of destructive leadership practices are counter-productive (Boddy, 2014; Einarsen et al., 2007; Hogan et al., 2011; Nielsen & Knardahl, 2015; Padilla et al., 2007; Thoroughgood et al., 2012). Thus, the continued tolerance of destructive leader behavior is prompting more research with an increased focus on learned social behaviors and ethical dissonance in the workplace. These theoretical models, trait, social cognitive, and the toxic triangle guided the research questions and the examination of the leader's relationship with the organization. To better understand if destructive leader behavior is derived from individual personality traits or is a learned behavior fostered in a tolerant organizational culture, a grasp of these models

enables one to understand how destructive leaders gain and assert power toward subordinates and the environment (Zehndorfer, 2013).

Studies examined for this discussion have supported the conclusion that traditional leadership styles are derived from individual personality traits. By examining if there is a significant correlation between destructive leader behavior and tolerant organizational culture the researcher attempted to provide an understanding of leadership behavior and the relationship of these leaders within the organizational culture. The researcher sought to determine if significant evidence exists that organizations are nontolerant and enforce zero tolerance policies, and if destructive leader behavior and bullying predict organizational tolerance. To assume that specific behavioral responses to environmental circumstances are realistic perspectives of why leader behaviors are destructive have not been conclusive. Further research is required to explain if destructive behaviors are learned social behaviors in tolerant organizational cultures.

### **Review of the Literature**

This literature review is divided into five main sections. The first section details personality traits versus learned social behaviors and what it means to possess specific traits indicative of destructive leader behaviors. The second section provides an overview of leadership theories and an assessment of the effectiveness of constructive versus destructive leader practices. The third section is an in-depth examination of organizational culture and the tolerance of destructive leader behavior. The fourth section presents the outcomes of destructive leader behavior and practices, such as workplace bullying and the financial consequence of destructive behaviors. The final section brings together research in the two areas, organizational culture and accountability.

The purpose of this quantitative correlational study was to consider that destructive leader behaviors are not solely derived by personality traits but to identify if and to what extent a relationship exists between destructive leader behavior and tolerant organizational culture in the United States. Identification of destructive leader behaviors, tolerant, and conducive organizational cultures that breed destructive leaders may assist in enhancing organization employment practices and social or interpersonal relationships that could assist in saving a leader's career from derailment and poor organizational outcomes (Furnham, 2010). To determine factors that drive personality, researchers examine biological and social factors of personality development.

Psychologists offer different perspectives regarding the development of personality (Miller & Campbell, 2008). Debated frequently is nature versus nurture, as this question is often asked regarding the development of personality, i.e., is personality contingent on biology and genetics (nature), or learned via exposure to different environmental factors (nurture). Trait theorists believe people are born with personality traits that result in foreseeable behaviors and motivations (Miller & Campbell, 2008).

Controversy exists regarding the belief that leaders are born with qualities that make them successful as leaders, versus leadership, like many other characteristics, being learned and developed through life (Douglas, 2012). Identifying trait characteristics of born leaders, and learned characteristics from made leaders, is essential in understanding what drives leadership behaviors. Biological and trait theorists contended that biological genetic and hereditary traits determine an individual's predisposition to behavior.

Social dynamics could potentially identify causes of destructive leader behavior and considering the broader effect that destructive leadership behaviors and practices can

have on an organization, these protective interests represent the highest priority for determining the rationale for this study. Buttigieg et al. (2011) identified an absence of research regarding the relationship between destructive leadership behaviors and tolerant organizational culture. Thus, through this investigation, the researcher seeks to determine if destructive leadership behaviors are a function of organizations promoting and breeding a culture of tyrannical leaders and destructive practices, as Namie's (2014b) Workplace Bullying Institute (WBI)-Zogby Survey indicated.

The literature also revealed that the organizational culture or environment has not been generally supportive when working with a destructive leader. Gelfand, Leslie, Keller, and de Dreu (2012) stated that "employees generally interact with leaders who model behaviors they deem appropriate" (p.1132). Nontolerant and supportive organizational cultures enhance positive environments. However, destructive leader practices have a negative effect on positive organizational culture. Schein (2010) suggested that the personality of the leader affects the development of organizational culture. Tolerant organizational cultures identify management processes by the standards of behavior that subordinates accept from their leaders.

Hauge et al. (2009) hypothesized that individual personality traits, coupled with situational variables, can predict destructive personalities that lead to abusive and bullying behaviors. Hauge et al. also suggested that a stressful work environment is a key factor contributing to destructive behaviors. Hauge et al. argued that the limitations and gaps in previously conducted studies included the lack of attention given to individual personality traits and the specific personal reasons why destructive leaders abuse their subordinates. Vie, Glasø, & Einarsen (2010) agreed and concluded that individual

personality traits are contributing factors of destructive behavioral practices in the workplace. The researchers hypothesized that destructive leaders possess specific anger and anxiety traits (Vie et al., 2010). Vie et al. explored deeper into the personality traits of those individuals who reported victimization of abusive leaders. For example, the researchers sought to answer how these differences in personality traits contributed to either bullying behaviors or victim behaviors (Vie et al., 2010). The results of the Vie, et al. study indicated that further study of personality traits, such as extroversion, conscientiousness, and group and social behaviors, is necessary to obtain more conclusive evidence.

Buttigieg et al. (2011) hypothesized that bullying and discriminatory behaviors are also triggered by environmental factors. The researchers attempted to determine the underlying cause and consequence of abusive and bullying behaviors (Buttigieg et al., 2011). To answer this question, the researchers compared common denominators of bullying and abusive behaviors (Buttigieg et al., 2011). Variables examined consisted of personality traits, position, and organizational environments. Buttigieg et al. indicated that abusive and bullying behavior within organizations is a subset of discriminatory practices in organizations.

Hauge et al. (2009) discovered that 2.9% of employees reported that they had been a perpetrator, whereas 1.9% reported being abused. The higher percentage of variables indicated moderate to weak relationships with being a perpetrator. The researchers identified significant relationships between being a perpetrator and being a target of bullying were identified (Hauge et al., 2009). Role conflict and interpersonal conflicts showed weak but significant correlations that bullying males were also more

likely than females to bully in the workplace (Hauge et al., 2009). Hauge et al. indicated that role and personal conflicts are also causes of frustration that can be confused with workplace bullying. The researchers answered their question by identifying important factors related to engaging in the bullying of others in the workplace (Hauge et al., 2009).

Vie et al. (2010) documented results from previous studies by Einarsen et al. (2003, 2009) that concurred with research conducted by Glasø, Nielsen, Einarsen, Haugland, and Matthiesen (2009). Vie et al.'s analysis indicated that exposure to a negative work environment is a main predictor of bullying. Results of both investigations indicated that the relationship between exposure to bullying behavior and self-labeling reports rejects the hypothesis that trait anxiety determines self-labeling processes.

Vie et al. (2010) concluded that personality traits and environmental factors need further research to accurately determine why people do not self-report as victims of workplace bullying. Although the researchers' conclusion involved rejecting the initial hypothesis, the results answered the inquiry whether personality traits are factors related to workplace bullying (Vie et al., 2010). Buttigieg et al. (2011) concluded that many of the theories and hypotheses regarding workplace bullying have been subject to empirical investigations. Buttigieg et al. concluded that the status and level of power that the perpetrator possesses has a significant effect on workplace bullying and discrimination practices. Vie et al. (2010) and Buttigieg et al. (2011) concluded that a larger population needs to be investigated to obtain more significant results. These findings indicated that power in the workplace is derived from several different factors, such as gender, age, ethnicity, and perceptions of vulnerability of victims. Investigations concluded that many similarities of causes and consequences of bullying and discrimination exist. The



researchers also agreed that future research on social identity theories will help explain the workplace bullying phenomenon. The researchers answered their question and identified alternate factors and theories related to destructive leader behavior in the form of workplace bullying.

The examination of personality types and the relationship with the organization is a critical component when assessing if organizations are promoting and breeding a culture of tyrannical leaders and practices or if destructive leadership practices are derived specifically from individual personality traits. Researchers, such as Harms et al. (2011), Einarsen et al. (2007), and Tepper et al. (2011), focused on variables associated with destructive leader behavior, such as a leader's abnormal or antisocial personality, such as the leader's inborn traits or the ability to learn destructive social behavior. Bahreinian, Ahi, and Soltani (2012) found that personality type and task leadership styles versus people-oriented leadership styles resulted in the conformation that both extroversion and intuition were highly correlated with a people-oriented leadership style, while sensing was highly correlated with a task-oriented leadership style. This conclusion indicated that personality styles influence a leader's behavior (Bahreinian et al., 2012). However, a lack of academic research exists on the predictive relationships between destructive leader practices and tolerant organizational cultures. Through this study, the researcher examined the relevancy of the organizational culture/environment and the predictive relationship within the organization.

**Defining destructive leadership.** Researchers have investigated destructive leader behavior, workplace harassment, workplace bullying, and subordinate abuse in organizations since 1980, and to date, researchers have failed to agree on a definitive

definition of this phenomenon (Chirilă & Constantin, 2013). Sercombe and Donnelly (2013) stated that researchers continue to fail at finding an acceptable and precise definition for this incivility in the workplace. Researchers and scholars alike agree that this abuse, however defined, is a critical issue and may have detrimental effects on everyone involved (Jenkins, Winefield, & Sarris, 2013; Tuckey & Neall, 2014).

The leader is the person with position authority who directs the populace or the workforce by telling others what to do, how to do it, and when to do it (Tepper et al., 2011). Destructive leader behavior is subtle and is not the abusive conduct that one may envision (Davidson & Harrington, 2012). Several researchers have identified various types of destructive leaders in the workplace (Boddy, 2014; Wiedmer, 2011; Zuckerman & Grind, 2014). A high number of these destructive leaders are the supervisors or managers responsible for the organization (Chan & McAllister, 2014). Chiaburu, Muñoz, and Gardner (2013) proposed that destructive leaders are highly career-oriented but ruthless, unethical, and exploitative employees. Pate, Morgan-Thomas, and Beaumont (2012) concluded that managers are the most frequently reported perpetrators in organizations.

Destructive leadership practices and abusive behaviors in the workplace became noteworthy with the demise of Enron (McLean & Elkind, 2013). Sparking a newly renowned interest in the psychology of organizational culture, behavior, and leadership Enron is an example of Padilla et al.'s (2007) analysis that the leader is a person, not leadership. Research in leadership has progressed, and the definition of leadership now includes new aspects of personality traits and behaviors. Bennis (1989) described leadership as one's capacity to create a compelling vision, to translate it into action, and

then possess the ability to sustain it. Bennis also indicated that the effectiveness of a leader depends on his or her relationship with subordinates as well as the ability to envision the organization's future, communicate this vision, and motivate, inspire, and move the team forward. However, contrary to trait theory, leaders are not born with the skills needed to create a compelling vision, translate it into action, or sustain it, but rather they develop these characteristics (Bennis, 1989).

The necessary drive and focus to develop these skills requires intelligence and hard work, but above all else, ambition. Einarsen et al. (2007) defined destructive leadership as, "The systematic and repeated behavior by a leader, supervisor or manager that violates the legitimate interest of the organization by undermining the organization's goals, tasks, resources, and effectiveness and/or the motivation, well-being or job satisfaction of subordinates" (p. 208). Not necessarily narcissistic, but consistent with their selfish orientation, destructive leaders are typically self-promoting and concerned with building support for themselves rather than pro-social causes (Howell & Avolio, 1992). In addition, the destructive leader lacks self-control and displays self-centered behavior, a desire for attention, and self-gratification. These destructive behaviors contribute to the engagement of continued bad behavior (Gilbert, Carr-Ruffino, Ivancevich, & Konopaske, 2012).

Destructive leadership or abusive supervision is defined as the subordinate's perception of employee mistreatment (Thoroughgood, et al., 2012). Tepper et al. (2011) described destructive leadership as a display of hostility toward the employee coupled with verbal and nonverbal abusive behaviors. Einarsen et al. (2007) argued that destructive leadership practices will have a negative effect on the subordinate and the

organization. This destructive or tyrannical leadership style is often described as pro-organization and anti-subordinate behavior resulting in successful performance (in terms of meeting organizational goals) through tactics that are at the expense of the subordinate, humiliation, manipulation, and belittlement; the prevalence rate for this style was 3.4% (Aasland et al., 2010). However, Einarsen et al. (2007) noted that little to no action will be taken against a tyrannical leader, regardless that the subordinates perceive these leaders as destructive or as workplace bullies. This lack of action is because the tyrannical leader is focused on the success of the organization and still meets organizational goals (Einarsen et al., 2007); however, Peterson (2014) disagreed and stated that the demise of the tyrannical leader is necessary for organizational success.

Kets de Vries (2010) studied the general attitudes, beliefs, and feelings of leaders and surmised that some leaders arouse primal feelings in their followers. Kets de Vries stated, “a consequence of reawakening primitive emotions in followers is that leaders can be pathologically destructive or intensely inspirational” (p. 7). Furnham (2010) also studied leader derailment and observed that “destructive management is not altruistic and it pays more attention to the leader’s wants than the followers’ needs” (p. 22). Furnham indicated that destructive results are not outcomes specific to destructive leaders, because vulnerable supporters also play a role in the extent that a leader can misbehave.

To determine further the nature and causes of destructive leader practices and behavior, Hauge et al. (2009) reported that people abuse others at work and thus examined individual and situational variables that may predict bullying of others in the workplace. The researchers believed that stressful workplace conditions create negative environments that lead to bullying (Hauge et al., 2009). Hauge et al. stated that the gap in

previously conducted studies is the individual and situational variables that contribute to workplace bullying and that more research needs to be devoted to the reasons why perpetrators engage in bullying. Hauge et al. explored these situational variables to determine possible causes that lead to undesirable behaviors in the workplace.

Vie et al. (2010) concurred that individual variables contribute to destructive behavior in the workplace and hypothesized that the undesirable behavior of workplace bullying is because of certain personality traits, such as anger or anxiety. The purpose of Vie et al.'s study was to examine the exposure to negative behaviors and the employees who identified as victims of workplace bullying. The research questions presented were (a) what personality traits allow one to self-identify as a victim of workplace bullying? and (b) is this behavior moderated by the target's personality or organizational position? (Vie et al., 2010). After examining trait anger and trait anxiety, Vie et al. examined the personalities of those who identified as victims. The researchers concurred that further studies of personality traits, such as extroversion, conscientiousness, and situational factors (e.g., group and social support), are needed to provide more conclusive evidence as to why some people fail to report destructive leader behavior.

Buttigieg et al. (2011) hypothesized that bullying and discriminatory behaviors are caused by the same environmental factors. The researchers sought to understand what the underlying causes and consequences were of the experienced bullying behaviors (Buttigieg et al., 2011). To answer these questions, Buttigieg et al. analyzed common denominators of bullying and discrimination, such as differences, power and organizational characteristics, and the similarities of negative behaviors. Buttigieg et al. indicated that bullying is a subset of discriminatory practices and behavior, but they are

different in nature. The researchers also studied the consequences of behaviors to identify theoretical explanations for both destructive behaviors (Buttigieg et al., 2011). Buttigieg et al. concluded that social dynamics could have potentially identified cause and effect. Study limitations, such as environmental factors, were taken into consideration as an influence on one's ability to accurately self-report. Buttigieg et al. agreed that the relationship between traits and environments needs to be examined.

Krasikova, Green, and LeBreton (2013) argued that certain individual characteristics may be the difference between destructive or ineffective leadership. The researchers concluded that it is important to identify the choices made by leaders, and suggested that, consciously or unconsciously, these choices lead to destructive outcomes for the organization and its constituents (Krasikova et al., 2013). Einarsen et al. (2007) concluded that the definition of destructive leadership does not include intent. Destructive leaders may not intend harm, but because of the self-serving nature, they inadvertently do cause harm. Sheard, Kakabadse, and Kakabadse (2013) also stated that persons with these personalities do not intend to harm others, but their thoughtlessness and insensitivity has a negative effect on others.

Destructive narcissistic leaders fall into this category, and even though these leaders may be charismatic and may not intend harm, because they are not aware of the consequences of their actions and choices that inevitably lead to destructive outcomes (Lutgen-Sandvik, 2013; Nielsen, 2013). Krasikova et al. (2013) also noted that the focus of the destructive leader will always be personal goals and personal agenda. Outcomes of destructive leadership methods can include both positive and negative results; however, the higher percentage of destructive leadership interactions included abusive behaviors,

such as dominance, coercion, and manipulation rather than influence, persuasion, and commitment. When used effectively, leadership has the power to achieve that which a single individual could never imagine to accomplish on his or her own (Cleavenger & Munyon, 2013).

**Individual personality traits or learned social behavior.** Historically, researchers assumed that destructive leader behavior was attributed to the individual leader and the individual's personality traits (Appelbaum & Roy-Girard, 2007; Buttigieg et al., 2011; Einarsen et al., 2009; Gumbus & Lyons, 2011; Padilla et al., 2007). In November 2011, it was reported that alleged incidents of sexual abuse had taken place on the campus of Pennsylvania State University. In June of 2012, Jerry Sanduski, the former assistant football coach was convicted of 45 counts of sexual abuse. Alderfer's (2013) article regarding the Pennsylvania State University incident stated that this tragedy represented another reminder that leadership includes three crucial elements—leaders, followers, and environments, or the toxic triangle. This most recent scandal is an example of how a conducive environment, lack of checks and balances, and destructive leader practices create disaster. However, per Thoroughgood and Padilla (2013) researchers consistently underestimate the role of organizational culture and continue to focus on traits and behaviors.

Researchers Kirkpatrick and Locke (1991) indicated that leaders are born with qualities that make them successful as leaders. Other researchers, such as Bandura (1989, 1999, 2001) believe that leadership, like many other characteristics, can be learned and developed through life. Identifying trait characteristics of born leaders, and learned characteristics from made leaders, is essential in understanding what drives personality or

if leadership skills are learned social behaviors that develop within an organizational culture. Researchers have thoroughly analyzed the debate regarding whether a person can learn how to be a successful leader or if a person must possess natural leadership ability.

Kirkpatrick and Locke (1991) researched characteristic traits in leadership. The researchers found that certain personality traits do not guarantee successful leadership qualities, but evidence shows that effective leaders do possess traits that others do not (Kirkpatrick & Locke, 1991). These key leadership traits consist of drive, motivation, ambition, energy, tenacity, and desire. Kirkpatrick and Locke concluded that skills and behaviors can be learned through training and development and experience. These learned skills consist of knowledge of the industry and technical knowledge from formal training and job experience. Other learned leadership traits are task-specific and possessing self-confidence that comes from mastering the various skills that one is exposed to over time (Kirkpatrick & Locke, 1991). These growth and knowledge skills are learned skills that both borns and made can benefit from.

Destructive organizational outcomes are derived from the destructive leader as well as the product of susceptible followers and conducive environments. Andreassen, Ursin, Eriksen, and Pallesen (2012) stated that organizational culture allows destructive narcissistic behaviors to exist at several levels within an organization. Destructive practices are more likely to be exhibited by individuals in authoritative positions. Cilliers (2012) indicated that destructive leader behavior begins with the organizational culture and ends with the narcissistic leader thriving in a toxic and demoralizing work environment.



**Narcissism in leadership.** The Diagnostic Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders (DSM) is the most widely accepted nomenclature used by clinicians and researchers for the classification of mental disorders. The American Psychiatric Association's DSM-V alternative (2013) describes narcissism as a personality disorder in which a person displays patterns of grandiosity, need for admiration, and lack of empathy. Narcissistic personality disorder is diagnosed if five or more of the following criteria are present: (a) "a grandiose sense of self-importance;" (b) a preoccupation with "fantasies of unlimited success, power or brilliance, beauty, or ideal love;" (c) a belief that he or she is special and should only associate with similarly special people; (d) "requires excessive admiration;" (e) "has a sense of entitlement;" (f) "takes advantage of others to achieve his or her own ends;" (g) "lacks empathy;" (h) envies others or believes others envy him or her; and (i) displays arrogant or haughty behaviors. (American Psychiatric Association, 2013, pp. 761–781). However, Meier and Semmer (2012) stated that only licensed clinicians should be formally diagnosing disorders.

Harms et al. (2011) suggested that a lack of empirical studies exist regarding "narcissism, psychopathy, and Machiavellianism as the most widely studied subclinical traits" (p. 496). The dark side of personality is another way of describing the destructive or toxic behaviors in individuals. Tepper et al. (2011) described tyrannical or abusive leadership as a consistent display of hostile verbal and nonverbal behavior, and leading through fear and intimidation. The researchers further suggested that tyrannical leaders are narcissistic, abusive, and controlling with no regard to the psychological safety and well-being of subordinates (Tepper et al., 2011). These leaders are controlling and create an organizational culture built on fear and intimidation that inevitably becomes a tolerant

organizational culture (Tepper et al., 2011). Subordinates are and continue to remain the target of these destructive behavioral and business practices; the follower becomes the constant victim.

Tepper et al. (2011) and Einarsen et al. (2007) agreed that tyrannical leaders are goal-oriented, goal-directed narcissists whose sole focus is the bottom line. These personality types have no empathy and will meet his or her bottom line at the expense of all subordinates. To increase productivity, Tepper et al. and Einarsen et al. suggested that the tyrannical leader will shame and publicly humiliate employees and are not against using manipulation and coercion. These tactics may increase productivity, but Tepper et al. cautioned that this is only temporary and the increase in productivity is not maintainable.

Several theories attempt to explain how narcissism evolves. Holtzman, Vazire, and Mehl (2010) studied of the behaviors of narcissists in everyday life and confirmed narcissists exhibit specific behaviors that are congruent with theories of narcissism. Because some level of narcissism is required in leadership positions (Kets de Vries, 2005; Lubit, 2002), this is a common personality trait among top organizational leaders. As the level of narcissism moves toward the pathological side, behaviors become more pronounced and detrimental to the organization; because the leader is desperate to fulfill personal needs of power, prestige, and superiority, he or she will take whatever steps are necessary to make it happen (Kets de Vries, 2005; Lubit, 2002). Researchers have suggested that an established connection exists between narcissism and destructive leader behavior (Baughman, Dearing, Giammarco, & Vernon, 2012). These researchers also

supported the theory that narcissism is a common trait in destructive leaders and a correlation exists between destructive leader personalities and organizational culture.

Lubit (2002) identified unhealthy narcissistic traits, such as grandiosity, to be problematic. The sense of entitlement a narcissist has and the lack of values and respect toward others can also significantly damage an organization (Lubit, 2002). Establishing that a certain degree of narcissism is essential for functioning in the business world, the positive, healthy narcissist can create inspiring visions for his or her employees and the organization. Kets de Vries and Miller (1985) stated, “narcissism is a strange thing, a double-edged sword. Having either too much or too little of it can throw a person off balance. The same trait that can serve the narcissistic leader can become destructive” (p.1730). Kets de Vries and Miller also understood that a certain degree of narcissism is natural and even healthy, and that moderate levels of self-esteem can contribute to positive behaviors in the workplace, such as assertiveness, confidence, and creativity, which are desirable qualities in leadership.

Researchers found that narcissism can be productive in certain situations and environments (O’Reilly, Doerr, Caldwell, & Chatman, 2013). Sheard et al. (2013) stated, “amongst those who have some narcissistic tendencies, we find some of the greatest leaders,” and Tavanti (2011) indicated that most productive leaders display signs of destructive and toxic qualities. Kets de Vries and Miller (1985) also identified that the destructive narcissist’s ego, self-centeredness, grandiosity, lack of empathy, and exploitation can have devastating consequences in the workplace. These narcissistic traits and disposition, combined with a position of power, will allow the narcissist to believe that he or she is untouchable. Famous narcissists who believed they were untouchable are

Stalin, Hitler, and Qaddafi. In the 21st century, some business executives—such as Enron’s Kenneth Lay, Jeffrey Skilling, and most recently Bernie Madoff—rose to power at no cost and with no regard for humanity, as sociopaths who appear to be the face of new leadership.

Maccoby (2004) supported the premise that pros and cons exist when dealing with narcissistic leaders, and stated that even Freud realized that narcissism has a dark side. Maccoby explained that, per Freud, narcissists are isolated emotionally, distrustful, and perceived threats will trigger their rage and that these traits are why a higher percentage of people view narcissists in a negative way. However, narcissism can be useful, and sometimes necessary; even Freud changed his opinion regarding narcissism, recognizing that everyone displays some narcissistic traits. Kohut (1971) expanded on Freud’s theories to develop methods to treat narcissistic behaviors. Kohut used narcissism as a model to explore how one develops a sense of self. If a person displays narcissistic behavioral traits, Kohut’s therapy method and model allows the narcissist to suppress his or her feelings of low self-esteem. Allowing the narcissist an opportunity to speak highly of him or herself can eliminate his or her sense of worthlessness (Kohut, 1971).

In addition to the sense of worthlessness and insecurity that contributes toward the narcissist abusing others, Maccoby (2004) stated that the narcissist has a fragile ego. The narcissistic leader has destructive behaviors and a preoccupation with how to maintain and use power. Although they make highly capable leaders, they do not learn from others or previous experience. Consequently, these leaders are prone to fail and will do so in a grandiose fashion. The perception of disrespect or threat to his or her self-image will

provoke the narcissist to, as coined by Kohut (1971), “rage,” thus abusing and emotionally damaging anyone in his or her path.

**Charisma in leadership.** One primary topic of influence theories is charismatic leadership. Charismatic theorists argue that leaders have a higher probability of being destructive, especially if influenced by internal, opportunistic motives; these charismatic leaders are often labeled as personalized (Reiter-Palmon, & Ilies, 2004). Samnani and Singh (2013) explored charismatic leaders and personalized behaviors. Samnani and Singh specifically examined how these leaders instill group pressure to conform, creating the potential for followers to comply with destructive behaviors. The researchers concluded that personalized charismatic leaders can trigger negative consequences for the victim, the group, and the organization (Samnani & Singh, 2013).

In the 21st century, most theorists accept this view and agree that charismatic leaders are the result of follower perception and reaction, but also indicated that the influence determined by leader characteristics and behavior, as well as the context of the situation. Hogan et al. (1990) suggested charisma also occurs when a charismatic personality emerges during a crisis and possesses the ability to propose a new vision. These charismatic personalities can influence and exert tremendous amounts of power over followers. Researchers Reiter-Palmon and Ilies (2004) and Samnani and Singh (2013) presented theories regarding charisma when discussed in the context of leadership. House (1977) indicated that charisma has a distinct effect on followers, the leader follower-relationship becomes stronger, the leader asserts dominance and influence, and the leader can manipulate the follower to support his or her new vision.

Most researchers identified charisma as a central characteristic of destructive leader behavior (Hogan et al., 1990; Howell & Avolio, 1992). However, researchers have also suggested that not all charismatic leaders are destructive, although they still can be dangerous (Yukl, 1999). Howell and Avolio (1992) observed that “the risks involved in charismatic leadership are at least as large as the promises” (pp. 43–44). Not all charismatic leaders are destructive, but most destructive leaders are charismatic.

Yukl (1999) reviewed charismatic leadership and proposed that some charismatic leaders are not destructive, but can still be dangerous. Yukl also noted that some charismatic leaders have been romanticized, making these leaders and this leadership style popular. However, Yukl cautioned that some self-serving charismatic leaders abuse power, including “exaggerating positive achievements and taking unwarranted credit, covering up mistakes and failures, blaming others for mistakes, and limiting communication of criticism and dissent” (p. 296). This diffusion of responsibility or destructive behavior may be the reason that no direct link exists between upper-level executive’s charisma and organizational performance. Nonetheless, destructive leaders typically are charismatic and do have the potential to abuse.

**Organizational culture.** When researching destructive leader behaviors and practices, researchers primarily focused on individual personality traits versus organizational culture results (Appelbaum & Roy-Girard, 2007; Buttigieg et al., 2011; Einarsen et al., 2009; Padilla et al., 2007). Whereas personality traits and characteristics are essential in the identification of specific personality types, failure to identify conducive environments, or tolerant organizational cultures, allows one to examine potential moderating effects of the behaviors of the leader. In the literature, researchers

such as Appelbaum and Roy-Girard (2007), Buttigieg et al. (2011), and Einarsen et al. (2009) studied the dysfunctional behavior of the individual and not the role of the organization. The conclusions of this research suggested that the appropriate setting is what allows the individual to display the bad behavior. Organizational culture differs from workplace to workplace and is dependent on the employees and the accepted values, policies, and practices within the organization (Ho, 2012; Kochan, 2013).

Schein (2010) described organizational culture as the shared assumptions used by group members to solve problems, adapt to internal and external forces, and guide ways of thinking, acting, and feeling. Tipu, Ryan, and Fantasy (2012) further explained organizational culture as values, behaviors, and processes used within the organization. Organizational structure and hierarchy play a critical role in defining that nature of relationships in the workplace. The dynamics of an organization's culture involve relationships in which the understanding and distinction of acceptable behaviors may not be clear (Swearer & Hymel, 2015).

An organizational should create a culture that promotes a code of conduct. A strong organizational culture will define acceptable behavior so that people are aware of acceptable and unacceptable behaviors in that environment. A destructive, toxic leader will destroy a positive environment, create conflict, and form a culture of chaotic behavior that victimizes subordinates through destructive behavior (Harrington, Warren, & Rayner, 2013; Yang, Caughlin, Gazica, Truxillo, & Spector, 2014). The possible cause and effect relationship between destructive leader behavior and practices and organizational tolerance is examined in this literature review as an attempt to explain if organizations are breeding tyrannical leaders. Places and situations will vary and some

organizational cultures are more conducive to destructive practices than others are. Destructive leaders cannot survive in a healthy organization. Harvey, Treadway, Heames, and Duke (2009) reported that people feel the need to dominate others and that the work environment provides them with the perfect opportunity to exercise their need to control. And Harvey et al. remained concerned that destructive leader behavior, such as bullying, appears to be tolerated, and is therefore becoming embedded in many organizational cultures. Destructive leaders do not discriminate and this social problem is not confined to any industry.

Organizational cultural factors may enable destructive leaders to thrive, and in some environments, may explain why organizations reward bullying. Einarsen, et al. (1994) produced the first quantitative study related to destructive leader behavior in the form of workplace bullying that provides the empirical support for the role of the environment. The researchers identified four main reasons for the continued existence of workplace dysfunction and destructive leader behavior and practices: organizational culture, working environment, uncertainty, and enabling organizational structure (Einarsen et al., 1994). Schein (2010) defined organizational culture as:

The pattern of basic assumptions that a given group has invented, discovered, or developed in learning to cope with its problems of external adaptation and internal integration, a pattern of assumptions that has worked well enough to be considered valid and, therefore, to be taught to new members as the correct way to perceive, think, and feel in relations to those problems. (p. 14)

From the perspective of the organization, the potential for bias includes the lack of addressing destructive leader behavior, and practices may specifically relate to the



organizational culture and acceptable norm. Schein (2010) suggested that organizational culture rewards leaders, regardless of counterproductive workplace behaviors, indicating that an organizational tolerance exists for destructive leader behavior and practice. The continued tolerance of destructive leadership behaviors is prompting more research with an increased focus on learned social organizational behaviors, ethical dissonance, and tolerance in the workplace (Namie, 2014a). The existing research indicates that the well-being of employees and the well-being of organizations are strongly interrelated.

Researchers suggested that future studies need to include social environmental (organizational) factors to yield concrete results (Buttigieg et al., 2011; Padilla et al., 2007; Vie, et al., 2010).

Buttigieg et al. (2011) studied the psychological perspective that destructive leadership behaviors are primarily associated with personality traits. Buttigieg et al. concluded that theories and hypotheses (i.e., individual personality traits regarding destructive leadership practices and workplace bullying) have been subject to many empirical investigations, but researchers have failed to include environmental or organizational factors and take into consideration the environmental or organizational culture. Strained or nonexistent relationships between leaders and followers and the absence of an appropriate support systems conflicts with and assists in the creation of a tolerant organizational culture (Baillien, Bollen, Euwema, & De Witte, 2014; Leon-Perez, Medina, Arenas, & Munduate, 2015; McVicar, Munn-Giddings, & Seebohm, 2013).

**Tolerant organizational culture.** Many reasons exist regarding why destructive leaders continue to thrive—personality, susceptible followers, conducive environments,

and ultimately a poor psychosocial work environment create a breeding ground for tyrannical leadership. Almadi, Cathers, and Chow (2013), Kalliath and Kalliath (2012), and Tambur and Vadi (2012) stated that ineffective management, organizational conflict, poor communication, and weak leadership create tolerant organizational cultures in which destructive leaders thrive. In an analysis of destructive leader behavior in the military, Doty and Fenlason (2013) stated that if destructive bullying leaders were not an accepted part of the culture, they would be extinct. Pilch and Turska (2015) discussed types of cultural norms that support destructive leader behavior. The first culture supports aggressive behavior under the guise of motivation, and the second allows and tolerates disrespectful behaviors that support incivility and rude behaviors (Pilch & Turska, 2015). However, the gap in current literature pertains to the absence of understanding regarding how organizations manage destructive leaders and conducive environments. Dinh and Lord (2012) suggested that the influence of followers and intrapersonal dynamics are also important factors when trying to understand how destructive leaders can influence an organization's culture and outcomes. Dinh and Lord also implied that the witnesses to destructive leader behavior were more likely to leave the job than those directly targeted.

Destructive leader behavior is not a phenomenon that exists without tolerant organizational cultures. Culture and the inclusion of the dark side of leader behavior contribute to the general understanding of destructive practices and to the development of constructive leaders (Namie, 2014a). Through the WBI-Zogby Survey, Namie (2014b) concluded that 72% of workplace bullies are leaders, and that bullies derive most of their support from human resources. Participants in the study indicated, "it's a club, a clique that circles the wagons in defense when one of their own is accused" (Namie, 2014b).

Participants reported that some executives commanded bullies to target particular employees. Conclusions of the survey included responses indicating that bullies are simply "good soldiers following orders in a blind fashion," and "supervisory training is nearly nonexistent with no budget and few good skills taught." The participants of the survey suggested executives blame the problem on a "few bad apples," deflecting blame for systemic causes and denying responsibility for systemic cures. Cowan (2012) explained that generally, the human resources department is responsible for hiring, training and development, managing and addressing issues, and ultimately terminating employees. However, research is limited regarding the interaction between human resources and the destructive leader.

The destructive, toxic, charismatic, or narcissistic leader is the choice for some organizations. Despite the significant costs and negative consequences associated with workplace bullying, many employers seem uninterested or unwilling to effectively deal with the problem and often condone destructive practices after being made aware of its existence (Harvey et al., 2009). This finding is supported by results of a study by Namie (2012a), who discovered that when destructive practices occur, 44% of employers failed to do anything about it, 18% made conditions worse for the victim, and only 32% successfully ended bullying. Per Hoel and Beale (2006), one reason human resources often fails is because the human resource representatives are not able to help victims because their allegiance must be to the organization; these employees simply cannot be neutral.

Mayer and Krause (2011) suggested that the organization should focus on senior leaders who enable the destructive leaders under their control. By doing nothing to stop

or prevent destructive leader behavior, organizations develop a toxic culture that allows, and in some cases encourages, the bad behavior. Mayer and Krause attempted to answer why destructive behaviors are still condoned within organizational cultures when a positive organizational culture promotes good health and research indicates that long-term patterns of destructive leadership practices are counter-productive. Destructive leaders produce negative consequences for their followers and organizations, but continue to remain in a leadership position because they produce the desired outcome for the organization. Per Lipman-Blumen (2005), it becomes difficult to reprimand or discipline destructive leaders when they produce good results.

The bottom line is the organizational culture that breeds this tyrannical leader. Organizations cultivate and enable tolerant cultures when no intervention exists. Lipman-Blumen suggested that when others run interference for the destructive leader, they believe that this action is in the best interest of the organization, or the bottom line. Boddy (2014) concurred that many organizations are solely driven and focused on the bottom line and therefore overlook destructive behaviors and will reward the behavior if the leader continues to contribute to the financial success of the organization.

When focusing on destructive leadership, researchers have continued to place emphasis on the individual personality traits and not the organizational culture (Padilla et al. (2007). Although recognizing a personality is helpful in identifying a destructive leader, a dearth of information exists pertaining to identify how the culture enables the behavior. According to Padilla et al., culture is a key component in understanding, predicting, and determining behavior and outcomes. An organization's culture may have a moderating effect on the behavior of its members and may ultimately serve to promote

destructive leader behavior and toxic culture. Lutgen-Sandvik and McDermott (2008) stated that many organizations adhere to and believe in a more traditional classical approach to management and culture. This traditional perspective follows a stringent hierarchy or chain of command, and this organizational culture is void of the presence of executive-level management and creates the ideal setting for susceptible followers and conducive environments.

Kaiser and Craig (2013) reported that most previous research regarding destructive leadership fell under the category of person factors, specifically personality traits associated with the individual leader. Kaiser and Craig determined that their review of literature indicated that more research was conducted on person factors than situational factors. Kaiser and Craig concluded that Padilla et al. (2007) proposed three components are necessary to fully understand the phenomenon of destructive leadership: the interplay between toxic leaders, susceptible followers, and conducive environments.

Destructive leadership cannot be entirely understood without considering the organizational culture or environment, or situational triggers that may cause abusive behavior. Padilla et al. (2007) cautioned that assuming specific responses to situational circumstances are a realistic perspective regarding why behaviors may become abusive is not conclusive and does not explain destructive behaviors.

Viewing destructive leaders as predetermined by character traits may not provide a complete and accurate description of the circumstance. A re-examination is necessary of Buttigieg et al.'s (2011) perspective that many theories and hypotheses pertaining to destructive leadership practices have been subject to investigation but failed to include specific environmental factors. Social scientists Bandura (1999, 2001) and Zimbardo

(2004) maintained that it may not be the person who is corrupt, but rather that the person is developing a penchant for corruption and destruction when placed in an organizational structure that encourages destructive practices. If destructive behaviors, such as tyranny and the misuse of authority are allowed to become part of the culture and environment and supported by the organization, dysfunction will become normalized as a way of doing business for the organization. Feldt et al. (2013) and Fischer and Martinez (2013) described destructive leader behavior as a feature of the organization in which employees are over-worked and conflict management is ineffective or nonexistent.

These factors, coupled with poor morale, lack of communication, lack of organizational support or change, and an increase in tolerant organizational environments allow the destructive leader to thrive (Almadi et al., 2013; DeTienne, Agle, Phillips, & Ingerson, 2012; Kalliath & Kalliath, 2012; Tambur & Vadi, 2012). When these environmental factors become the social norm, corrupt behavior becomes acceptable behavior (Campbell & Göritz, 2014). All group members then display attitudes reflective of the organizational culture, and this will dictate if the culture includes respect and commitment toward one another (Domínguez, 2013).

**Consequences of tolerant culture.** One direct consequence of destructive leader behavior and workplace bullying is exclusion (Berthelsen, Skogstad, Lau, & Einarsen, 2011). Exclusion is a precursor to dissatisfaction and an employee's decision to leave the organization (Glambek, Matthiesen, Hetland, & Einarsen, 2014; Kuyper, 2015; Trépanier, Fernet, & Austin, 2015). Employees subjected to destructive leader behavior are critical of those employees who cannot endure similar distressing events (Ruttan, McDonnell, & Nordgren, 2015). Destructive leader behavior affects up to 15% of

employees and has a negative influence on the members within the group (Bashir, Hanif, & Nadeem, 2014; Glambek et al., 2014; Harrington et al., 2013; Johnson, 2015).

Consequences of these destructive practices among the group members consist of employee physical and emotional health, reduced productivity, increased legal expenses, and consequent organizational cultural and reputational damage (Bartlett & Bartlett, 2011). Mental effects of destructive leader behavior include anxiety, stress, post-traumatic stress disorder, low self-esteem, and concentration disorders (Appelbaum, Semerjian, & Mohan, 2012a; Branch, Ramsay, & Barker, 2013; Cassidy, McLaughlin, & McDowell, 2014).

Organizational culture can also be considered the social structure of an organization. Culture involves social norms that include tolerated behaviors. Schein (2010) theorized that a major component of establishing organizational culture was the decision-making process. Sims (2003) referred to this decision-making process as “embedded patterns of, how we do things around here” (p. 107) and continues to explain that circumstances that may stem from a bad organizational structure are political infighting, poor teamwork, and inevitably unethical behavior in the workplace. Furnham (2010) studied leadership derailment and observed that destructive management is not altruistic, “It pays more attention to the leader’s wants than the followers’ needs” (p. 22). Furthermore, destructive results do not just result from destructive leaders, as vulnerable supporters also cause these results. A leader’s degree of selfishness affects followers, and in turn, the followers’ responses constitute a form of feedback that either moderates or exacerbates destructive leader behavior (Furnham, 2010).

The assumption that specific behavioral responses to situational circumstances are a realistic perspective regarding why leader behaviors are destructive is inconclusive and requires further research to explain if destructive behaviors are trait driven or learned social organizational behaviors contingent on a tolerant versus nontolerant organizational culture. Organizations that are highly competitive or that maintain tyrannical authoritarian styles of management tend to have more incidents of destructive leader behavior and practices (Seigner et al., 2007). Authoritarian management styles are a component of a bureaucratic organization. Specifically, Seigner et al. stated that the manager is encouraged to be dominant toward subordinates or inferiors and to be submissive toward superiors. Potential long-term effects of destructive behaviors in leadership create a negative organizational culture that can threaten the sustainability of the organization. All the literature reviewed for this examination revealed prior researchers determined destructive leadership practices are on the rise, affecting both employees and organizations. Padilla et al. (2007) stated that the definition of destructive leadership should emphasize negative outcomes that personally compromise the quality of life for members of the organization and the fate of the organization, rather than insinuating that destructive leaders are predetermined by the character traits of the individual leader.

Aasland et al. (2010) and Vie et al. (2010) reported that destructive leadership practices and behaviors have severe consequences that negatively affect organizations. Gumbus and Lyons (2011) also concluded that psychological perspectives of the relationship and effects of destructive leaders and practices in organizations can affect the company by resulting in high employee turnover, high absentee rates, and a rise in health



insurance related claim. Gumbus and Lyons also suggested that if employees are experiencing psychological trauma or distress and are ultimately leaving the organization, the company is not enforcing zero tolerance policies. Cunniff and Mostert (2012) supported this argument and concluded that a negative organizational culture affects employee health and well-being.

Through the review of literature, the researcher identified that destructive leader behavior has a negative effect on subordinates and the organization (Mehta & Maheshwari, 2013). The destructive leader thrives in tolerant organizational cultures. These leaders are aggressive, abusive, selfish, and lack integrity. Destructive toxic leaders are not interested in mentoring and developing subordinates. These leaders enjoy controlling and use their authority and power to insult and abuse (Mehta & Maheshwari, 2014). Yen, Tian, and Sankoh (2013) concluded that consequences exist for tolerating destructive leader behavior. Yen et al. stated that the effect of destructive or toxic leadership behaviors pose a serious problem for organizations; such problems include decreased productivity, efficiency, innovation, and emotional problems, including anxiety and depression. Yin et al. reported that these consequences are just some of the symptoms that the organization and its members are subjected to.

***Subordinate abuse.*** No one specific definition of the term workplace bully exists. Researchers in the literature have referenced bad leader behavior, destructive leader behavior, toxic leadership, and in many instances workplace bullying. Per Wiedmer (2011), bullying is “pervasive, targeted, and planned by malicious individuals who seek power, control, domination, and subjugation” (p. 1). Salin and Hoel (2013) concluded that even though men hold most managerial positions, more men than woman have

reported being victims of abuse in the workplace. This relates to Baack's (2012) research, who found that one of the five types of workplace bullying is the threat to status. Baack concluded that five types of workplace bullying exist: (a) threats to professional status, (b) threats to personal standing, (c) isolation, (d) overwork, and (e) destabilization. Boddy (2014) and Boddy, Miles, Sanyal, and Hartog (2015) suggested that destructive leaders are prolifically destructive and frequently target multiple victims. Workplace bullying is a unique destructive behavior and practice, whereas these abusive acts or negative behaviors are intentional and persist during prolonged periods of time. Workplace bullying is morally reprehensible (Guest & Woodrow, 2012). Appelbaum et al. (2012a) reported that 1.7 million Americans experienced bullying at work in a 6-month period.

Hauge et al. (2009) explored destructive leader practices and concluded that destructive behavior includes subordinate abuse or workplace bullying. Supporting these theories of abuse are examples of bullying behaviors from a previous study by Einarsen et al. (2003, 2009). In this research study, the researcher conducted further exploration of social skills, self-esteem, personality factors, and organizational factors to determine if these personality traits dictate negative work behaviors. Vie et al. (2010) reinforced Einarsen et al.'s (2009) study by confirming that individual variables contribute to destructive behavior in the workplace. Vie et al. explained that destructive behavior consisted behavior that was moderated by the bullies' personality and his or her organizational positions as causes of bullying personalities.

The origin of bullying is derived from the school yard bully who attempted to intimidate a weaker person with verbal threats and aggressive behaviors. Namie (2014a) described destructive behavior and bullying as traits of a leader figure as destructive, verbally aggressive, and threatening or perceived to be threatening toward employees, or

a person who would abuse that position of authority to mistreat subordinates. Namie's (2012b) poll conducted by the Workplace Bullying Institute concluded that internally, human resources fail to resolve abusive behaviors. Participants' results from the survey indicated that (a) 11.5% chose not to report the bullying; (b) 30.9% indicated that the organization took no action; (c) 37.3% stated that the human resources department was not helpful and retaliation occurred; (d) 18.2% reported human resources was not helpful and job loss occurred; and (e) only 1.9% indicated human resources was helpful, resulting in justice and complete satisfaction (Namie, 2012b). Namie's current WBI-Zogby (2014b) survey validated these human resource concerns and the researcher determined workplace abuse and bullying continues to occur in the workplace. Survey results showed that 72% of these abusers consisted of leaders possessing organizational support and that executives diffusing responsibility suggested that the problem was individual, deflecting blame for systemic causes and denying responsibility for systemic cures (Namie, 2014b).

Berry, Gillespie, Gates, and Schafer (2012) found that 88 out of 197 (44.7%) participants in their study reported that they had experienced some form of bullying at the workplace in a 6-month period. Perceived victims of abuse report bullying as social exclusion and isolation (Wu, Lyons, & Leong, 2015). Bullying techniques can range from subtle and innocuous incivilities to potentially violent situations. Wu et al. also reported other bullying behaviors consisted of verbal abuse, shouting, insulting, and in some instances threatening speech. Bullying behaviors are different in situations where both parties are of equal status and position, and the behavior is perceived as a disagreement (Björkelo, 2013; Kumar, Jain, & Kumar, 2012). These relationships are imperative to the

group dynamic, whereas the social hierarchy of the group is what determines the place of the group members (Schumann, Craig, & Rosu, 2014). Positional power is an important factor when destructive leaders determine who they will attempt to control (Bartlett & Bartlett, 2011). The perceived severity of abuse or bullying depends on the power imbalance between perpetrator and victim (Meglich, Faley, & DuBois, 2012).

The effect of subordinate abuse within organizations begins with the psychological abuse subordinates perceive as life altering changes. Before assessing the presence or influence of trauma, Van der Kolk (2005) stated that it is essential for all parties to understand what constitutes a reasonable definition of trauma from abuse or maltreatment. Van der Kolk then explained that the critical issue in defining trauma and methods of resolving it deals with the debilitating nature of the loss of control in the event at issue, which individuals experience. The lack of a personal sense of control regarding the event in question is the central determinant of its traumatic influence on the individual, solidifying Buttigieg et al.'s (2011) assumption that emotions and environmental conditions can influence and affect one's ability to accurately report the abuse. Referring to Hauge et al. (2009), people engage in bullying of others at work. The researchers examined what individual and situational variables predict bullying of others in the workplace (Hauge et al., 2009). Stressful workplace conditions create negative environments that lead to bullying (Hauge et al., 2009). Hauge et al. also stated that the gap in previously conducted studies is the individual and situational variables that contribute to workplace bullying and that more research needs to be devoted to the reasons why perpetrators engage in bullying. Hauge et al. explored these situational

variables to determine possible causes that lead to undesirable behaviors in the workplace.

Per Elgin (1988) “Verbal abuse is considered a form of workplace violence that leaves no visible scars. However, the emotional damage to the inner core of the victim’s self can be devastating” (pp. 5–7). The effects of abusive and bullying behaviors include feelings of abuse, devaluation, and humiliation and unlike verbal abuse, Estrin (1996) stated that “bystanders understand and sympathize on physical abuse, but warns to make no mistakes, verbal abuse does exist and exacts a huge penalty” (pp. 78–79). Estrin concluded that social workplace behaviors, such as gossiping, isolation, yelling, and the blatant refusal to treat an employee as a person, can become an enjoyable habit of the abusers. Unlike physical abuse, the bystander effect is commonplace during a verbal assault.

Taking environment into consideration, Buttigieg et al. (2011) concluded that the theories and hypotheses (i.e., individual personality traits regarding destructive leadership practices and workplace bullying) have been subject to many empirical investigations but failed to include environmental or organizational factors. Buttigieg et al. also concluded that status and level of power that the perpetrator possesses must be taken into consideration, as this may also influence destructive behavior and why these practices continue to exist within organizational cultures. When organizations do not address destructive leader behavior, bullying becomes an acceptable norm in the organization and is the reason why particular organizations become a preferred employer for certain employees (Kossek, Kalliath, & Kalliath, 2012).

Poilpot-Rocaboy (2006) also concluded that organizational culture may include destructive leader behavior and practices as acceptable behaviors. Hornstein (2003) stated that when destructive leaders are rewarded, “they are free to do unto subordinates what subordinates are not free to do unto them, and stifle employees’ voices by autocratically exercising their power, (which sends) the workforce messages that erode affiliation and increase alienation” (p. 4). Most researchers indicated that destructive leadership is a problem that consists of several contributing factors, including personality, the environment, and in cases of bullying, the victim (Namie, 2014a). Padilla et al. (2007) theorized that the interactions and relationships between the three components—leader, followers, and the environment (organization)—result in either productive or destructive behaviors. The key to destructive leader behavior and practices, such as subordinate abuse, is the environment. Researchers suggest that these bullying behaviors can only occur in organizations that view destructive leader behavior as acceptable and that organizational culture drives the sustainability of destructive leader behavior (D’Cruz & Noronha, 2014; Harvey et al., 2009; Padilla et al., 2007; Poilpot-Rocaboy, 2006).

***Psychosocial consequence of destructive leaders.*** The destructive leader presents bullying behavior when the interactions involve dominance over one or more persons within the group. Without this form of authority, abusive bullying attempts would be unsuccessful (Hall & Lewis, 2014; Rodkin, Espelage, & Hanish, 2015). Ertureten, Cemalcilar, and Aycan (2013) concluded that a significant relationship exists between positive organizational culture, job satisfaction, turnover intention, and destructive leader behavior. A stressful organizational culture results in decreased productivity levels, high turnover rates, and additional organizational expenses, such as paid absence expenses,

increased health costs, and potential legal expenses (Galanaki & Papalexandris, 2013; Giorgi, Shoss, & Leon-Perez, 2015; Vickers, 2014; Walinga & Rowe, 2013).

Einarsen et al. (2009) concluded 75% of the targets of bullying experience the same symptoms as victims of traditional trauma and 65% of those targets still have symptoms 5 years later. The targets of workplace bullying can experience the same symptoms as Vietnam veterans, holocaust survivors, or even child abuse survivors, and they can remain traumatized throughout the whole of their lives (Einarsen et al., 2009). Mellington (as cited in Gregor, 2015) indicated that workplace bullying could affect the victim, creating mild annoyances that create psychological, social, and economic trauma. Researchers identified depression, anxiety, and low self-esteem as some of the symptoms of abuse

Mellington examined the influence on health when subordinates were exposed to destructive leader behavior and bullying practices (Gregor, 2015). Mellington suggested that a direct negative relationship exists between destructive behavior and health (Gregor, 2015). Subordinates who indicated that they were subject to destructive bullying behavior reported poor health depending on the degree of harassment and the severity of the perceived incident (Gregor, 2015). Per Emdad, Alipour, Hagberg and Jensen (2013) destructive leader behaviors generate symptoms of depression in both targets and witnesses. The researchers stated that studies have shown that working in an environment with a negative atmosphere, such as caused by a dysfunctional organizational culture, causes depression and a variety of other health concerns (Emdad et al., 2013).

Aasland et al. (2010), Vie et al. (2010), and Appelbaum, Semerjian, and Mohan (2012b) reported that destructive leadership behavior and practices have severe

consequences that negatively affect organizations. Gumbus and Lyons (2011) agreed and further found that psychological perspectives of the relationship and the effect of destructive leaders and practices in organizations can also affect the company by resulting in high employee turnover, high absentee rates, and a rise in health insurance related claim. Gumbus and Lyons also suggested that if employees are experiencing psychological trauma or distress and are ultimately leaving the organization, that the company is not enforcing zero tolerance policies. Targets of abuse also report negative lifestyle changes that include an increase in smoking, alcohol, drug abuse, sleep disruption, and an increase in the use of sleep-inducing medications (Bartlett & Bartlett, 2011).

Cunniff and Mostert (2012) concluded that a negative organizational culture affects employee health and well-being, and measures to prevent these psychological outcomes need to be in place. The World Health Organization (2012) reported the effects of abusive behaviors as stress, fatigue, and other physical symptoms that produce counterproductive work behaviors, such as diminished productivity and higher absenteeism rates, resulting in negative economical outcomes for organizations. Namie (2014a) also concluded that emotional traumas are costing organizations millions of dollars per year.

Continued abuse within the workplace affects morale, health, and eventually has an adverse effect on productivity and the organization's bottom line. Most researchers have concluded that destructive leader behavior, when not confronted, is more likely to reoccur in the workplace (Glasø & Notelaers, 2012; Hodgins, Mac Curtain, & Mannix-McNamara, 2014). Companies need to intervene before they experience the increased costs of condoning destructive leader behavior in the workplace. Geller (2015) suggested that to establish a positive psychosocial environment, leaders need to develop,



implement, and maintain policies and procedures that ensure employee health, well-being, and safety. Zero tolerance policies will help discourage incivility and destructive leader behaviors.

***Financial effect of destructive leaders.*** Destructive leaders cost organizations millions of dollars by having a negative effect on employee health, productivity, and retention. Destructive leadership can be detrimental to the followers and expensive to an organization. Per Ballinger, Craig, Cross, and Gray (2011), the estimated turnover costs per employee can be as high as 500% of the single employee wage. Tepper et al. (2011) stated that destructive leadership can lead to “annual losses of an estimated \$23.8 billion in increased health care costs, workplace withdrawal, and lost productivity” (p. 279) because of the consequences of followers’ perceptions of toxic leadership.

Berry, Carpenter, and Barratt (2012) estimated that destructive leader behaviors or counterproductive work behavior costs organizations billions of dollars in addition to having negative consequences on employees, such as decreased job satisfaction, increased health-related issues, and turnover intent. Whitaker (2012) estimated destructive leader behaviors cost organizations both time and money, including approximately 13% of managers’ time spent dealing with the conflict and as much as a month and a half of nonproductive time spent per manager. Understanding destructive leadership is necessary for best practices and overall organizational savings (Aasland et al., 2010; Thoroughgood et al., 2012a).

These researchers recognized destructive leader behavior has a cost to an organization and is a problem that continues to affect employees and the organization. Destructive leadership affects an organization’s financial position by forcing out the

organization's talent base in addition to creating and fostering negative problematic cultures. Researchers indicated that destructive leader behavior influences the victim's turnover intention (Dumay & Marini, 2012; Houshmand, O'Reilly, Robinson, & Wolff, 2012). The followers' attitudes and perceptions also influence the exiting organizational culture and destructive behaviors in the absence of organizational effectiveness.

Followers may inevitably abandon the organization because of their perceived belief in the existence of abusive or toxic supervision (Martinko, Sikora, Harvey, Brees, & Mackey, 2013).

In addition, these personalities are capable of reckless, and even unethical, business decisions. Einarsen et al. (2007) defined destructive leadership as "the systematic and repeated behavior by a leader, supervisor or manager that violates the legitimate interests of the organization by undermining and/or sabotaging the organizations goals, tasks, resources, and effectiveness and/or motivation, well-being or job satisfaction of subordinates" (p. 208). Lubit (2002) concluded that problems arise when grandiosity results in the devaluation of subordinates. The sense of entitlement and lack of values can significantly damage an organization. These abusers compromise the organization's long-term performance by driving away the organization's most talented workers, and workplace violence creates and fosters negative problematic cultures; therefore, these abusers become capable of reckless and unethical business decisions.

Destructive leadership practices are on the rise, affecting both employees and organizations, and psychological traumas cost organizations millions of dollars in illnesses related to counter-productivity and a high increase in absenteeism, diminished productivity, employee turnover, and medical and legal costs. In addition, behavior that

causes emotional distress for victims may be the subject of criminal proceedings (Eisenberg, 2015; Namie, 2014a; Valentine, Fleischman, & Godkin, 2015). Namie (2014b) concluded that 82% of employees who believed they had been bullied terminated employment, 38% of employees who believed they were being abused in the workplace were out for health reasons, and 44% of employees believed they were targeted and abused and were subject to subpar performance appraisals and reviews that were manipulated by the leader. In addition, reported information included costs associated with high turnover rates, projected as costing employers from 25% to 200% of annual compensation, depending on job title. The APA (2013) reported that job stress costs for U.S. organizations are estimated at approximately \$300 billion a year in absenteeism, diminished productivity, employee turnover, and medical and legal costs.

The financial outcomes of destructive leadership practices within this leader-subordinate exchange consist of an increase in absenteeism, counter-productive work behaviors, and decrease in job satisfaction, high turnover rates, and the potential risk for lawsuits (Dumay & Marini, 2012; Vickers, 2015). Skogstad, Einarsen, Torsheim, Aasland, and Hetland (2007) researched the economic influence of subordinate abuse. Skogstad et al.'s research consisted of a survey to examine abusive behaviors that included topics, such as leadership styles, abusive personality types, and the supportive or nonsupportive leader and work environment. The researcher concluded that 84% of the respondents experienced abusive leadership practices and most respondents intended to leave the job (Skogstad et al., 2007).

Current costs of destructive leadership behavior are estimated at billions of dollars each year (Burton, Hoobler, & Scheuer, 2012; Spurgeon, Mazelan, & Barwell, 2012).

Productivity and performance improves in positive organizational cultures (McVicar et al., 2013), and the financial implications of destructive leader practices are high.

Akakandelwa and Jain (2013), Devonish (2014), and Walinga and Rowe (2013) stated that it is baffling that destructive leader practices continue to be an accepted practice and business leaders need to understand workplace stress in general, and bullying.

**Organizational accountability.** Zero tolerance policies will not assist in reducing destructive practices if organizations are encouraging and condoning destructive behavior. Understanding the conditions that create and contribute to the sustainability of destructive leader practices is crucial in reducing this cultural problem. Although consistent research exists regarding destructive leaders, the primary focus is on the individual leader's personality traits. A dearth of literature exists regarding the organizational culture condoning and tolerating bad behaviors, specifically pertaining to why executive-level leaders fail to address the problem even when they are aware that it exists within their organization (Harvey et al., 2009).

Harvey et al. (2009) suggested that policies need to be in place to regulate behavior, as the most destructive practices stem from supervisors. Harvey et al. found that 50.6% of the participants were unaware of their organization's policies pertaining to workplace violence. These researchers concluded that it is the organization's responsibility to have policies in place that clearly identify reporting structures to enable employees to safely report destructive leader behavior. Appelbaum and Roy-Girard (2007) and Gumbus and Lyons (2011) also suggested that a lack of evidence exists proving that companies are or are not supporting zero tolerance policies and solutions to destructive behaviors.

When an organization lacks accountability for destructive leader behavior and practices, the organization is at risk for destructive practice. An effective accountable organizational culture will offset negative leader behavior and will diminish the capacity for a destructive leader to thrive. Lipman-Blumen (2005) inferred that a lack of accountability also leads to unethical and moral leadership failures. Effective accountability processes also offset unethical behavior and assist in promoting moral leadership. Thoroughgood et al. (2012) attempted to understand the destructive leader-victim relationship by investigating the personalities of the self-reported victim. Thoroughgood et al. agreed that future initiatives need to include an aspect of organizational, culture specifically organizational tolerance and accountability. Destructive leader behavior is an organizational social problem and organization's need to be responsible and ensure the implementation of prevention programs to discourage tolerant organizational culture (Swearer et al., 2014).

Organizations that are proactive in ensuring a positive work environment actively support the concept of positive organizational support. Arnold and Dupré (2012) described organizational support as (a) employee work efforts supported by management, (b) organizational cultures where workers are treated the same, and (c) environments where employees are encouraged and rewarded for contributing to the organization. This perception of organizational support is imperative when creating a functional organizational culture void of destructive leader behavior. Positive perceptions and emotions encourage employee devotion and increase efficiency and the overall relationships between employees and the managers (Newman, Thanacoody, & Hui, 2012). Organizations need to be accountable for the behavior of all employees. With

appropriate intervention, destructive leader behavior can be reduced and relationships among workers improved (Cooper-Thomas et al., 2013). Nelson (2014) also suggested that in addition to recognition, reporting destructive behaviors is key in coping with destructive leader practices.

**Employee responsibility.** Researchers have continued to try and determine the role of the employee and the relationship between the destructive leader and the subordinate. Some researchers sought to answer if employees are responsible to help in the deterrence of destructive leader behavior or if the company is obligated to ensure a safe work environment (Vartia, 2012). Vartia then identified employees who were subjected to destructive leader behavior and workplace bullying, producing higher levels of stress. In addition, those who were witness to these events also experienced the same increased stress levels and decreased work satisfaction (Vartia, 2012). The behavior displayed by both victim and witness suggests that these destructive practices are not solely interpersonal matters, but also organizational issues that affect all who are exposed. Per Lipman-Blumen (2005) and Padilla et al. (2007), followers play a role in supporting destructive leader behavior. The researchers suggested that three categories of employees or followers exist: (a) benign, passive, and conforming bystanders; (b) colluding associates; and (c) malevolent and conspiring employees who are self-serving and overly ambitious, with the largest percentages of followers being bystanders (Lipman-Blumen, 2005; Padilla et al., 2007). To diffuse or diminish destructive leader behavior, subordinates must learn how not to be a bystander.

Bandura's (1999) social cognitive theory allows researchers to better understand the bystander effect. Bandura's (1989) theory of reciprocal determinism proposes that

humans can make intentional decisions and will act, regardless of the circumstance. This theory of human agency is the application of the interaction of social cognitive theory and observation. The bystander effect entails that active participants and onlookers exist. Bandura's (1999) concept of moral disengagement involves the role of the onlooker as a moral disengagement, or the process of justifying one's actions or lack thereof, when witnessing an event. If employees continue to disengage, this diffusion of responsibility will allow the undesirable acts to continue to exist within the organizational culture.

**Maintaining a nontolerant culture.** Maccoby (2004) discussed how assumptions have been made that a positive relationship exists between individual personality traits, such as narcissism and charisma, and destructive leader behavior. Researchers have determined that targets of destructive leader behavior often refer to the perpetrators as narcissists or psychopaths, insinuating that specific personality traits are responsible for the behavior of the individual (Caponecchia, Sun, & Wyatt, 2012). These dark triad personality traits may be responsible for destructive leader behavior; however, the tolerant organizational culture makes the destructive social interaction possible (Krasikova et al., 2013).

Effective leaders build trust in their organizations, which is related to positive organizational change (Cegarra-Leiva, Sánchez-Vidal, & Cegarra-Navarro, 2012; Yildiz & Öncer, 2012). Woodrow and Guest (2014) found that researchers have frequently suggested methods to counter destructive leader behavior. However, little research is available regarding interventions and measures that organizations actually use to deter destructive leader practices. Beck and Harter (2013) published the results of a 5-year study and concluded only 18% of managers are qualified and capable of developing

productive teams and organizational cultures. Educating and communicating the organization's policy, procedures, and code of conduct is essential in developing well-rounded employees. Without these education processes, policies will remain meaningless if the implementation and support is poor (Woodrow & Guest, 2014). Strong leadership is needed to obtain a healthy ethical environment. Leadership by example is critical to avoid any unethical behavior and the potential for in-fighting and poor teamwork, as well as undesirable or unethical behavior. Upper-level management needs to demonstrate proper ethical and moral behavior to ensure that the organization's behavioral trends are positive and ethical (Cegarra-Leiva et al., 2012; Yildiz & Öncer, 2012).

Destructive leader behavior and practices only exist if the culture tolerates and allows the destructive behavior. Various factors, such as organization, social, personal, interpersonal, conflicts, and differences in opinions or values, allow the destructive leader to behave negatively. An effective accountable process that encourages ethical and moral leadership is needed to maintain and sustain a nontolerant organizational culture (Baer & Brown, 2012; Bernhard & O'Driscoll, 2011; Chang, Chiang, & Han, 2012). Individual accountability and responsible ethical actions are essential in any organization. Ethical behavior allows people to be creative and focus on successfully completing the job. Having an ethical culture within the workplace will not only give employees a healthy and well-rounded workplace, it will ultimately define jobs based on positive results, which will contribute to moving an organization towards its mission and purpose and lead to a successful organization. Psychological ownership implies that individuals are psychologically intertwined and emotionally attached with their organization.



Previous researchers have examined the positive effect of psychological ownership on employee behaviors and attitudes (Baer & Brown, 2012; Bernhard & O'Driscoll, 2011; Chang et al., 2012). Productivity, engagement, and ownership are stressful and interrelated per Briggs, Brough, and Barbour (2014). When an organization attempts to engage workers in an environment with severe stressors brought on by destructive leader behavior, the organization becomes counterproductive. Productivity and engagement becomes predicated by the employee's perception of the organization itself, the leadership team, managers, and the organizational culture. When a positive organizational culture is in place, work engagement and productivity will increase.

Executive management need to safeguard against not recognizing the consequences of destructive leader behavior. Organizations need to be observant and aware. To ensure that this process is maintained, Treadway, Shaughnessy, Breland, Yang, and Reeves (2013) suggested frequent, consistent, and focused feedback sessions. Positive approaches, such as coaching and open lines of communication, are more effective ways to resolve conflict (Fredericksen & McCorkle, 2013).

Ensuring that effective policies are in place to address destructive leader behavior and practices, such as reporting processes, sanctions, and identification of destructive personalities during the hiring process, can help maintain positive organizational cultures (Devonish, 2013). Grimmelikhuijsen and Welch (2012), Cicala, Bush, Sherrell, and Deitz (2014), and Ferry and Eckersley (2015) all agreed that transparency initiatives need to be put into place to assist in monitoring internal organizational issues. Transparency within the organization will allow for full disclosure of relevant information to reduce undesirable behaviors. According to Rasool et al. (2013), maintaining a nontolerant

organizational culture requires strong commitment from the organization. When an organization ensures employee safety, health, and well-being, these actions demonstrate that the organization values the employees, resulting in stronger long-term organizational commitment.

Zahaeri and Shurbagi (2012) and Ashraf and Khan (2014) researched transformational leadership and concluded that this leadership style promotes participation and improves employee relationships and performance. These researchers stated that transformational leadership may help diminish negative attitudes and destructive leader behavior and foster a positive organizational culture. By creating a positive nontolerant culture, destructive leader behavior is no longer considered the norm, thus eliminating tolerant organizational cultures (Laschinger & Fida, 2014). A positive organizational culture promotes employee dedication and loyalty and assists in establishing positive long-term relationships with managers (Newman et al., 2012). When long-term trusting relationships are created, organizational trust is built, resulting in positive outcomes for both the employees and the organization (Neves & Eisenberger, 2014).

### **Methodology**

The purpose of this quantitative correlational study was to consider that destructive leader behaviors are not solely derived by personality traits but to identify if and to what extent a relationship exists between destructive leader behavior and tolerant organizational culture in the United States. When focusing on destructive leader behaviors, researchers have primarily emphasized and diagnosed the symptoms of destructive behaviors as individual characteristics and personality traits, without

considering environmental factors such as tolerant organizational culture as causation (Appelbaum & Roy-Girard, 2007; Buttigieg, et al., 2011; Einarsen et al., 2009; Gumbus & Lyons, 2011; Padilla et al., 2007). The researcher explored the correlation between destructive leader behavior and tolerant organizational culture. The study followed a quantitative correlational design to determine the association between destructive leader behaviors and tolerant organizational cultures in addition to operationalizing organizational tolerance by asking “Did or does your leader have someone who provides protection?” and “If you were subject to destructive leader behavior was your bully was punished?”

A quantitative methodology was most appropriate for this study, as the primary goal was to assess the relationship between destructive leader behavior and tolerant organizational culture. Babbie, Wagner, and Zaino (2015) described quantitative research as an approach that relies on the collection and analysis of numerical data. Researchers use this process to describe, explain, predict, or control variables and phenomena of interest. Using quantitative methods for this study allowed for precise identification of experiences (Babbie, 2012; Bruce, Pope, & Stanistreet, 2013) that employees perceived as abusive and tolerated within the organization. Quantitative methods also allow researchers to test statistical hypotheses regarding the relationship of a set of quantitative variables (Gaskin & Happell, 2014).

### **Instrumentation**

Most prior studies on destructive leader behavior, destructive leadership practices, violence in the workplace, and workplace bullying were survey studies. Researchers often measured participant experiences using the Negative Acts Questionnaire (NAQ; ©

Einarsen, Raknes, Matthiesen & Hellesøy, 1994; Hoel, 1999). The purpose of this study was for the researcher to identify an association between destructive leader behavior and organizational tolerance of destructive behavior. The researcher examined the effect of organizational culture on leader behavior. Specifically, the researcher determined the relationship between the variables of organizational culture, leader behavior, and the follower perception of the severity of the transgression.

The NAQ-R was distributed to gain quantifiable data to further understand the perceived abusive experience and the participants' interpretation of the experience. Per Mertler and Charles (2011), a correlational study is an appropriate design to focus on the relationship between destructive leader behavior and organizational tolerance. The researcher performed extensive nonparametric correlation analysis on the data to analyze the significance of the relationship between factors and individual variables, and to analyze how the responses support the research hypothesis. The researcher examined all questions to determine their correlation between the predictor variable (organizations protecting the bully) and the criterion variables, such as gossip, ridicule, exclusion, and hostility (see Table 1).

For these reasons, The NAQ-R research inventory developed for measuring perceived exposure to bullying and victimization work was replicated. Using the NAQ-R to generate data to effectively determine destructive leader predictors this researcher was then able to run a multiple regression analysis to examine the extent to which destructive leader behaviors, organizational tolerance, and environmental influence were significant predictors of employee perception of organizational tolerance of destructive leadership practices.

The target population of this study consisted of 174 current and former employees of organizations nationwide. Participants for this research study consisted of individuals who represent diverse, entry- to mid-level employees, and first-level supervisors who may have experienced or witnessed destructive leader behavior. Identifying criterion variables that could contribute to destructive leader behavior, such as gossip, ridicule, exclusion, and hostility, were correlated with the predictor variable, organizations protecting the bully, and provided critical knowledge that assisted in the attempt to identify tolerant versus nontolerant organizational cultures.

### **Summary**

Chapter 2 presented the background of destructive leader behavior. This examination was an extension of the theories and assumptions that destructive leadership practices derive from individual personality traits, without considering organizational culture, tolerance, and a lack of organizational accountability. Much of the existing literature pertained to how destructive leadership practices have a direct influence on subordinates, the subordinate's perception of the organization, job satisfaction, productivity and engagement, and the financial consequences of bad behavior (Chekwa & Thomas, 2013; Neall & Tuckey, 2014; Rasool et al., 2013). Researchers also reflected the need to include social factors, such as organizational culture, to yield concrete results (Buttigieg et al., 2011; Einarsen et al., 2009; Padilla et al., 2007). Appelbaum and Roy-Girard (2007) and Gumbus and Lyons (2011) suggested that a lack of evidence exists, proving that companies may not support zero tolerance policies and solutions to destructive behaviors.

Hauge et al. (2009) concluded that people engage in bullying of others at work. The researchers sought to find what individual and situational variables predict bullying of others in the workplace (Hauge et al., 2009). The researchers believed that stressful workplace conditions (dysfunctional organizational culture) create negative environments that lead to bullying (Hauge et al., 2009). Hauge et al. stated that the gap in previously conducted studies is the individual variables combined with situational variables, such as organizational culture, that contribute to workplace bullying. The researchers suggested that more research needs to be devoted to the reasons why perpetrators can engage in bullying practices (Hauge et al., 2009). Destructive personalities, behaviors, and characteristics result in unhealthy business practices, and is conclusive evidence of organizational culture that promotes both positive and negative behaviors. The assumption that specific responses to situational circumstances are a realistic perspective of why behaviors may become abusive is not conclusive and does not explain destructive behaviors. Leaders prone to undesirable behaviors should not be accepted or tolerated in the workplace. To enhance the understanding of destructive leadership personalities and behaviors, future researchers need to include the examination of negative personality traits and behaviors. Through this study, the researcher attempted to determine if tolerant organizational culture drives destructive leadership behavior, dysfunctional behaviors, environments, and outcomes.

Considering the broader influence that destructive leadership personalities and practices can have on an organization, these protective interests represent the highest priority for determining the rationale for this study. Identifying destructive behaviors and environmental factors that influence abusive behaviors and identifying factors that

contribute to the identification of targeted victims will provide critical knowledge that can begin to bridge the gap between bully and victim (D’Cruz & Noronha, 2014; Hershcovis, Reich, Parker, & Bozeman, 2012). Future initiatives should include an aspect of accountability for both subordinate and manager. Corporate policies advocating zero tolerance policies may help reduce the number of leaders prone to destructive behaviors. A significant component of destructive leader behavior is organizational ethical dissonance, or the organization’s blatant disregard of accountability; therefore, this study was aimed at determining the relationship between the destructive leader and a tolerant organizational culture, as suggested by Gumbus and Lyons (2011). To assume that specific responses to situational circumstances is a realistic perspective of why behaviors may become abusive has been inconclusive and requires future research to explain if destructive behaviors are trait driven or learned social behaviors in tolerant organizational cultures (Buttigieg et al., 2011; Einarsen et al., 2009; Padilla et al., 2007).

The findings of this empirical research validate the need to consider that destructive behaviors are not solely derived by personality traits and that further examination of tolerant organizational cultures is warranted. Chapter 3 details the research method and design, the population and sample, the data collection instrument and procedure, the statistical analysis plan, ethical considerations, and the study limitations and delimitations.

## Chapter 3: Methodology

### Introduction

The purpose of this quantitative correlational study was to consider that destructive leader behaviors are not solely derived by personality traits but to identify if and to what extent a relationship exists between destructive leader behavior and tolerant organizational culture in the United States. The researcher examined theories of destructive leader practices and factors that affect destructive leader behavior. When focusing on destructive leader behaviors, researchers have primarily emphasized and diagnosed the symptoms of destructive behaviors as individual characteristics and personality traits, without considering environmental factors such as tolerant organizational culture as causation (Appelbaum & Roy-Girard, 2007; Buttigieg, et al., 2011; Einarsen et al., 2009; Gumbus & Lyons, 2011; Padilla et al., 2007).

This chapter consists of a description of the research design of the quantitative study. The chapter includes an explanation of the setting, sampling, power analysis, proposed instrumentation, and the data collection procedures. In addition, the researcher discusses the statistical analysis procedures. At the end of the chapter, the researcher explains the measures taken to protect the rights of the participants.

The researcher collected the primary data for this research through an online survey instrument, created by Einarsen et al. (2009), from 174 anonymous participants. The sample for this research included current and former employees of organizations nationwide. Participants for this research study consisted of individuals who represent diverse, entry- to mid-level employees, as well as first-level supervisors, who may have experienced or witnessed destructive leader behavior. The researcher analyzed the data in



SPSS using Pearson's correlation analysis and multiple linear regression analysis to determine the relationship between survey response variables to answer the research hypotheses.

The formation of this research study involved the selection of the research method and design, the identification of the study population, the selection of the sampling procedure, the selection of the data collection method and instrument, and the selection of the statistical analysis procedures. In this chapter, the researcher describes, in detail, all the components necessary for the chosen methodology. The chapter also includes ethical considerations, study limitations and delimitations, and summary.

### **Statement of the Problem**

Researchers have not identified if, and to what extent, a relationship exists between destructive leader behavior and tolerant organizational culture. Organizations often plead ignorance regarding destructive leader behaviors, citing individual personality traits versus tolerant organizational culture as the factors contributing to destructive leader behaviors (Gumbus & Lyons, 2011). When focusing on destructive leader behaviors, researchers have primarily emphasized and diagnosed the symptoms of destructive behaviors as individual characteristics and personality traits, without considering environmental factors such as tolerant organizational culture as causation (Appelbaum & Roy-Girard, 2007; Buttigieg, et al., 2011; Einarsen et al., 2009; Gumbus & Lyons, 2011; Padilla et al., 2007). Through quantitative study, the researcher explored the correlation between destructive leader behavior and tolerant organizational culture.

Destructive leader behavior can be measured by outward manifestations of destructive behavior observed by employees, listed as Variables 1–26 in Table 1. Hauge

et al. (2009) theorized stressful workplace conditions (dysfunctional tolerant organizational culture) created negative environments that lead to the bullying of subordinates. Hauge et al. also believed that the gap in the literature pertains to the individual variables combined with situational variables, such as organizational culture, that contribute to destructive leader behavior and bullying.

Destructive leader practices are less likely to be detected, reported, or prevented within tolerant organizations, rather than in nontolerant organizational cultures. Namie (2014a) reported that approximately 37 million U.S. employees were subjected to destructive leader behavior and workplace bullying. Chekwa and Thomas (2013) and Indvik and Johnson (2012) suggested that this number is on the rise. This quantitative study is important, as the results determined if destructive personalities are trait driven or learned social behaviors contingent on tolerant organizational culture. A significant component of destructive leader behavior is organizational ethical dissonance, or the organization's lack of accountability. Therefore, to diminish or stop destructive leader practices, the researcher aimed to determine the relationship between the destructive leader and a tolerant organizational culture.

In prior empirical studies, researchers (Buttigieg et al., 2011; Einarsen et al., 2009; Padilla et al., 2007) validated the need to recognize that destructive leader behaviors are not solely derived from personality traits. These researchers assumed destructive leader behavior was attributed to the individual leader's personality traits. Although destructive leadership is an ongoing issue, defining destructive leadership is not easy. A gap exists in understanding the overall concept of destructive leadership behavior (Mawritz et al., 2012; Namie, 2014a; Schyns & Schilling, 2013; Thoroughgood et al.,

2012a). Based on this analysis and review, the researcher also discusses future recommendations for researchers, including the identification of the type of tolerant organizational culture that supports destructive leadership.

### **Research Question(s) or Hypotheses**

In the literature, a lack of consensus exists pertaining to the predictive relationships between destructive leader behavior and organizational tolerance. The focus of this quantitative study was to assess the relationship between destructive leadership behaviors and organizational tolerance. The research questions and hypotheses pertained to the criterion variables, which included gossip, ridicule, exclusion, and hostility that were correlated with the predictor variable of organizations protecting the bully. Specifically, the researcher correlated Variables 1–26 with Variable 27: “Did (does) the Bully have someone who provides protection against punishment?” (see Table 1). Variable 27 measures organizational tolerance of destructive leader behavior. This analytical review of mistreatment helped the researcher identify if the perceived victims could obtain help from the organization. In this analysis, one variable was the destructive leader behavior composite score. The other variables were the responses to the questions, “Did or does your leader have someone who provides protection?” and “If you were subject to destructive leader behavior was your bully was punished?” These two questions operationalized organizational tolerance in this study. The relationship between the destructive leader and organizational tolerance has not been thoroughly investigated in prior research and was examined here to determine if organizational cultures are creating destructive leaders.

The researcher collected all data anonymously. The sample for this research included current and former employees of organizations nationwide. Participants for this research study consisted of individuals who represent diverse, entry- to mid-level employees, as well as first-level supervisors who may have experienced destructive leader behavior. Based on a G\*Power at an alpha level of .05, moderate effect size of 0.3, and power of .8 for correlations, the desired minimum sample size is 82 participants. Based on a G\*Power at an alpha level of .05, moderate effect size of 0.3, and power of .95 for correlations, the desired sample size is 134 participants, and based on a G\*Power at an alpha level of .05, moderate effect size of 0.3, and power of .95 for logistic regression, the desired sample size was 170 participants (Appendix F, Appendix G, Appendix H, and Appendix I).

Through this quantitative correlational study, the researcher explored the correlation between destructive leader behavior and tolerant organizational culture. The following questions guided this quantitative study.

RQ1: Is there a significant correlation between destructive leader behavior and tolerant organizational culture?

H<sub>01a</sub>: There is no statistically significant correlation between destructive leader behavior and whether or not the leader was protected.

H<sub>A1a</sub>: There is a statistically significant correlation between destructive leader behavior and whether or not the leader was protected.

H<sub>01b</sub>: There is no statistically significant correlation between destructive leader behavior and whether or not the leader was punished.

H<sub>A1b</sub>: There is a statistically significant correlation between destructive leader behavior and whether or not the leader was punished.

RQ2: Does destructive leader behavior predict tolerant organizational culture?

H<sub>02a</sub>: Destructive leader behavior does not statistically significantly predict whether or not the leader was protected.

H<sub>A2a</sub>: Destructive leader behavior statistically significantly predicts whether or not the leader was protected.

H<sub>02b</sub>: Destructive leader behavior does not statistically significantly predict whether or not the leader was punished.

H<sub>A2b</sub>: Destructive leader behavior statistically significantly predicts whether or not the leader was punished.

### **Research Methodology**

Most prior studies on destructive leader behavior, destructive leadership practices, violence in the workplace, and workplace bullying were survey studies. Researchers often measured participant experiences using the NAQ-R created by Einarsen et al. (2009). The purpose of this study was for the researcher to identify an association between destructive leader behavior and organizational tolerance of destructive behavior. The researcher examined the effect of organizational culture on leader behavior. Specifically, the researcher determined the relationship between the variables of organizational culture, leader behavior, and the follower perception of the severity of the transgression.

Per Leedy and Ormrod (2013), quantitative research is a research strategy often involving the collection of numeric data. The researchers further stated that quantitative

research is highly influenced by science (Leedy & Ormrod, 2013). When conducting quantitative research, it is important for the researcher to maintain objective throughout the process (Leedy & Ormrod, 2013). Other concepts that characterize the quantitative research approach are measuring, causality, generalization, and replication (Leedy & Ormrod, 2013). Leedy and Ormrod described quantitative research as an approach to research that relies on the collection and analysis of numerical data. This process is used to describe, explain, predict, or control variables and phenomena of interest (Leedy & Ormrod, 2013). Using quantitative methods for this study allowed the researcher to specifically identify experiences that employees perceived as abusive and tolerated within the organization and to test statistical hypotheses pertaining to the relationship of a set of quantitative variables (Leedy & Ormrod, 2013). The researcher used a quantitative study to examine the relationship between destructive leader behavior and organizational tolerance. The researcher selected a quantitative study because of the useful approach in describing trends and explaining relationships. A quantitative approach also allows for measurement of perceptions, beliefs, and attitudes.

The researcher distributed the NAQ-R, a close-ended survey, to gain quantifiable data to further understand the perceived abusive experience and the participant's interpretation of the experience. Mertler and Charles (2011) reported that survey results may be accepted at face value, and that no reason exists to do otherwise, as no social pressures are put on respondents to give what they may perceive as acceptable or desired responses. Mertler and Charles cautioned that survey research is not a replacement for direct observation. However, survey research does provide an excellent source of personal information for examination (Mertler & Charles, 2011).

The researcher then used factors or individual question responses to look at correlations to answer the research questions. The researcher performed extensive nonparametric correlation analysis on the data, and examined the significance of the relationship between factors and individual variables to understand how the responses support the research hypothesis. The researcher used a correlational design to look at the relationships of variables. A correlational design was appropriate for answering the research questions because a correlational study allowed the researcher to quantify the value and significance of the relationships between variables and interest. The researcher correlated predictor variables, including gossip, ridicule, exclusion, and hostility, with the variable, protecting the bully. The researcher examined all questions to identify their correlation with the predictor variable, organizations protecting the bully. Correlations helped the researcher to assess common themes in behavior within the environment (organizational culture). The quantitative study shows patterns of concern, such as gossip, ridicule, exclusion, and hostility that the researcher correlated with the variable, protecting the bully (see Table 1), which affects a positive organizational culture.

Leedy and Ormrod (2013) suggested that using a survey and conducting a correlational analysis of the responses is the ideal method, because other methods, such as direct observations or interviews, would not provide objective quantifiable data from participants, which could then be used by the researcher to analyze the research questions. The researcher used the NAQ-R survey instrument, which consists of 22 items, accompanied with 10 items from Namie's Protect the Bully instant survey poll (see Appendix D), to collect data from employees working in the United States regarding their perceptions of negative workplace practices and company involvement, or lack thereof.

## Research Design

The researcher analyzed demographic information of the participants and the results for each question using descriptive statistics. The researcher applied frequency analysis to summarize data by counting the number of times each category of a particular variable occurs (see Table 1). The researcher conducted a frequency analysis to analyze the distribution of variables, such as job title, gender, and age, by presenting headcounts and percentages. The researcher processed these comparisons with frequency analysis, or descriptive statistics, through the examination of differences in data, such as employment status and job title.

The researcher performed factor analysis in SPSS on the survey question bank to determine if the question responses fall under the expected factors. For example, the researcher expected that the questions about abusiveness would fall under one factor. Then, the researcher used factors or individual question responses to look at correlations to answer the research questions. By using factor analysis, the researcher identified underlying dimensions and negative acts of leader behavior and classified the data into categories. By running factor analysis, the researcher more easily identified correlations between items that are otherwise not directly observable (Gaskin & Happell, 2014).

The researcher performed extensive nonparametric correlation analysis on the data, analyzing the significance of the relation between factors and individual variables to examine how the responses support the research hypothesis. The researcher examined all questions for their correlation with the predictor variable, organizations protecting the bully. The researcher examined the pattern at the intersection of two measures (organizational tolerance versus intolerance) using a scatter plot. The researcher used



correlations to determine common themes in destructive leader behavior within the environment (organizational culture).

This study was designed to focus on the relationship between destructive leader behavior and tolerant organizational culture. The NAQ-R was distributed to gain quantifiable data to further understand the perceived abusive experience and the participants' interpretation of the experience. Per Mertler and Charles (2011), a correlational study is an appropriate design to focus on the relationship between destructive leader behavior and organizational tolerance. The researcher performed extensive nonparametric correlation analysis on the data to analyze the significance of the relationship between factors and individual variables, and to analyze how the responses support the research hypothesis. The researcher examined all questions to determine their correlation between the predictor variable (organizations protecting the bully) and the criterion variables, such as gossip, ridicule, exclusion, and hostility (see Table 1).

Correlations helped the researcher to assess common themes in destructive leader behavior within the environment (organizational culture). Leedy and Ormrod (2013) suggested that using a survey and conducting a correlational analysis of the responses is the ideal method because other methods, such as direct observations or interviews, would not provide objective quantifiable data from participants that could be used by a researcher to analyze the research questions. This research design, consisting of descriptive statistics, factor analysis, and correlation analysis, was appropriate for this study because the results added to previous research on destructive leader behavior, practices, or bullying. The ANOVA was not appropriate for this study because an ANOVA tests for differences among two or more groups, instead of between two or more

groups, against one criterion variable. Future researchers can apply this survey questionnaire to their studies to determine if relationships exist between destructive leader behavior and organizational tolerance changes. The design achieved optimal results for this study because this proven measure was developed and designed to evaluate similar instances of destructive practices.

The researcher used this data analysis process to apply statistical techniques to analyze the outcome of the data collected from the survey. The desired outcome was for the researcher to find results of the data that formulate logical conclusions for the two hypotheses discussed. The researcher used SPSS Version 21, Licensed to Grand Canyon University for student use, to complete the data analysis. SPSS is a computer software package designed to perform statistical operations and to facilitate data analysis (Babbie et al., 2015). The researcher analyzed the results of the survey using SPSS techniques, descriptive statistics, factor analysis, and correlation analysis.

Post hoc refers to analyses conducted after an initial omnibus test (e.g., analysis of variance) to determine what significant differences exist between pairs of groups or what significant relationships exist between pairs of variables (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2012). It is appropriate to conduct post hoc analyses when the results of an omnibus test are significant and there are multiple pairwise comparisons or pairs of variables that can be further assessed for statistical significance. Because there were no significant results for omnibus tests in this study, post hoc analyses were not necessary to conduct.

The researcher used a nonexperimental design, as this study does not involve any experimental treatment or intervention. The study design included administering the

survey instrument to a variety of employees, which allowed the inclusion of different industries and organizational cultures. The sample for this research included current and former employees of organizations nationwide. Participants for this research study consisted of individuals may have experienced or witnessed destructive leader behavior.

Participants received an email link to [www.surveymonkey.com](http://www.surveymonkey.com) with instructions regarding how to access the questionnaire. Survey Monkey advised the participants regarding how to complete the survey process and electronically return responses to the researcher. The survey is confidential and the participants may opt out at any time. If a strong relationship is found, future researchers could conduct a qualitative study to examine the specific relationships by studying instances of alleged abuse, using case studies and interviews. However, for this study, only a quantitative approach was appropriate to examine the relationships between variables to address the research questions, “Is there a significant correlation between destructive leader behavior and organizational tolerance?” and “Does destructive leader behavior predict organizational tolerance?”

### **Population and Sample Selection**

The sample for this research included the general population which is all current and former employees of similar organizations nationwide. The approximate number in the general population is very large. The target population is the group of 174 people from which the sample was recruited. Thirty-five respondents did not agree to the consent form and therefore did not continue to the rest of the survey. An additional 20 respondents did not complete the NAQ-R. These respondents were excluded from the final sample which consisted of 119 participants who satisfactorily completed surveys.

Participants for this research study consisted of individuals who may have experienced or witnessed destructive leader behavior. The sample for a correlational study should be randomly selected, if possible, with criteria (Gaskin & Happell, 2014). Based on a G\*Power at an alpha level of .05, moderate effect size of 0.3, and power of .8 for point biserial correlations, the minimum desired sample size is 82 participants. Based on a G\*Power at an alpha level of .05, moderate effect size of 0.3, and power of .95 for a point biserial correlations, the desired sample size is 134 participants, and based on a G\*Power at an alpha level of .05, moderate effect size of 0.3, and power of .95 for a z test for logistic regression, the desired sample size was 170 participants (Appendix F, Appendix G, Appendix H, and Appendix I).

The data collection procedure for this study consisted of an anonymous survey conducted through Survey Monkey. Survey Monkey is an Internet provider of survey services, and administered the instrument, coordinated the participation requests, and assembled the data into a usable format. The researcher provided the same survey to all participants. The researcher collected the data during a period of approximately two months. The researcher used a confidential online survey and offered the survey to a voluntary sample of participants who have been or are currently employed, and who may have been a victim of, exposed to, or a witness of destructive leader behavior. The researcher provided a consent form that described the purpose of the study to all participants (see Appendix C). The researcher invited participants to take the survey being conducted to examine the relationship between destructive leader behavior and organizational tolerance. Although the NAQ-R measures workplace bullying incidences within the last six months, participants were still asked if they have been employed

within this time frame. Only those individuals who answer *yes* were invited to complete the entire survey. The researcher calculated mean scores for the scales to capture the overall perception of incidents of abuse and the organizations' willingness to intervene. The researcher used correlational analyses to test the hypotheses of the current study. The researcher conducted extensive nonparametric correlation analysis on the data to analyze the significance of the relationship between factors and individual variables, which supported the research hypotheses. The researcher examined all questions for their correlation with the predictor variable, organizations protecting the bully. The researcher examined the pattern at the intersection of two measures (organizational tolerance versus intolerance) by using a scatter plot. This comparison identified differences in organizational tolerance and ethical dissonance between the groups. The comparison also provided insight regarding whether a tolerant culture has an influence on driving destructive leadership practice (see Table 1). In this analysis, one variable was the destructive leader behavior composite score. The other variables were the responses to the questions, "Did or does your leader have someone who provides protection?" and "If you were subject to destructive leader behavior was your bully was punished?" These two questions operationalized organizational tolerance in this study.

### **Instrumentation**

The data collection procedure for this study consisted of the survey instrument created by Einarsen et al. (2009), the NAQ-R. Permission to use this instrument was granted in accordance with the guidelines set forth by the publishers, found on their website (<http://www.uib.no/en/rg/bbrg/44045/naq>), and the researcher received written permission from Namie (see Appendix E). The NAQ-R consists of 22 items,

accompanied with 10 items from Namie's Protect the Bully instant survey poll (see Appendix D). Survey items were measured on a 5-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 – Never to 6 - Daily. Using these instruments, the researcher explored the correlation between tolerant organizational culture and destructive leader behavior and practices. The researcher measured the relationship between destructive leader behavior and organizational tolerance. The quantitative research questions and hypotheses were aimed at addressing this relationship.

The NAQ-R survey is anonymous and was conducted through Survey Monkey. The targeted population of employees was entry- to mid-level employees, as well as first-level supervisors, who may have experienced or witnessed destructive leader behavior. All participants received the same survey. The researcher collected the data during a period of approximately one month. Survey Monkey includes an export feature that creates files in the .sav format. This feature enabled the researcher to import data directly from Survey Monkey into SPSS for data exploration and descriptive analysis. This exploration of data involved appropriate data checks for outliers, missing data, and any other data issues to ensure accurate reporting measures. The researcher also performed a descriptive analysis of data during data exploration to get an initial sense for each question, including the mean response and variability of responses.

To ensure a thorough investigation was conducted by the researcher, a quantitative approach allowed for the measurement and comparison between tolerant, instead of nontolerant, organizational culture and destructive leader behavior. The NAQ-R survey instrument collected data on negative workplace practices and company involvement, or lack thereof. The NAQ-R has significant internal consistency, with a

reported Cronbach's alpha of .90 and is considered by many researchers to be a valid and reliable tool to measure workplace bullying (Einarsen et al., 2009; see Table 1).

### **Validity**

Validity refers to whether the survey measures what it is intended to measure. Yin (2014) believed that the fundamental tests to establish validity are construct, internal, and external validity. The NAQ-R portrays significant criterion validity and construct validity. The survey is designed to measure destructive leader behavior, or bullying. Per Einarsen et al. (2003, p. 22), workplace bullying is defined as "harassing, offending, socially excluding someone or negatively affecting someone's work." For the label bullying (or mobbing) to be applied to a particular activity, interaction or process, it must occur repeatedly and regularly (e.g., weekly) and during a period of time (e.g., about six months).

The Bergen Bullying Research Group (2014) specifically stated that the items in the NAQ survey were written in behavioral terms, with no direct reference to bullying. By removing the reference to bullying, the survey enables participants to respond to items without having to label themselves as victims (Bergen Bullying Research Group, 2014). However, after responding to this section of the survey, the definition of bullying is introduced with the question, "Do you consider yourself to be a victim of workplace abuse?" The Bergen Bullying Research Group indicated that the scale has satisfactory reliability and constructs validity.

The Bergen Bullying Research Group concluded that the internal stability of the scale is high, ranging from .87 to .93, as measured by Cronbach's alpha. The Bergen Bullying Research Group also concluded the scale correlates with measures of job

satisfaction ranging from  $r = -.24$  to  $r = -.44$ , with measures of psychological health and well-being ranging from  $r = -.31$  to  $r = -.52$ , and with measures of psychosomatic complaints,  $r = .32$ . The Bergen Bullying Research Group stated the NAQ is not a diagnostic instrument, but an inventory strictly made for measuring frequency, intensity, and prevalence of workplace bullying.

### **Reliability**

Reliability refers to how well another researcher could repeat the survey and obtain the same results; the survey should not yield inconsistent results on the same population, if repeatedly administered. The researcher used items from the NAQ-R (Einarsen et al., 2009) to determine the extent of destructive leader behavior. This scale has satisfactory reliability and construct validity. Einarsen et al. (2009) showed that internal stability of the scale is high, ranging from .87 to .93, as measured by Cronbach's alpha. The NAQ-R has significant internal consistency with a reported Cronbach's alpha of .90 and is considered a valid and reliable tool to measure workplace bullying (Einarsen et al., 2009).

### **Data Collection and Management**

The data collection procedure for this study consisted of an anonymous survey instrument. Einarsen et al.'s (2009) NAQ-R collects data on negative workplace practices and company involvement, or lack thereof. With these instruments, the researcher explored the correlation between tolerant organizational culture and destructive leader behavior and practices with data collected through Survey Monkey. The target population was employees who work in entry- to mid-level positions, or first-level supervisors. A



quantitative approach allowed the researcher to thoroughly measure and compare tolerant organizational culture and destructive leader behavior.

The researcher collected the data during a period of approximately two months. Survey Monkey provides users with an export feature that creates files in the .sav format. This feature enabled the researcher to import data directly from SurveyMonkey into SPSS for data exploration and descriptive analysis. This exploration of data ensured appropriate data checks for outliers, missing data, and any other data issues. The researcher performed a descriptive analysis during data exploration to get an initial sense for the mean response and variability of responses. The researcher has stored and will keep collected data confidential on a secure computer. Informed consent was delivered before access to the survey. The researcher will keep collected data for approximately three years, per appropriate ethical guideline suggestions, and then destroy the data.

### **Data Analysis Procedures**

RQ1: Is there a significant correlation between destructive leader behavior and tolerant organizational culture?

H<sub>01a</sub>: There is no statistically significant correlation between destructive leader behavior and whether or not the leader was protected.

H<sub>A1a</sub>: There is a statistically significant correlation between destructive leader behavior and whether or not the leader was protected.

H<sub>01b</sub>: There is no statistically significant correlation between destructive leader behavior and whether or not the leader was punished.

H<sub>A1b</sub>: There is a statistically significant correlation between destructive leader behavior and whether or not the leader was punished.

RQ2: Does destructive leader behavior predict tolerant organizational culture?

H<sub>02a</sub>: Destructive leader behavior does not statistically significantly predict whether or not the leader was protected.

H<sub>A2a</sub>: Destructive leader behavior statistically significantly predicts whether or not the leader was protected.

H<sub>02b</sub>: Destructive leader behavior does not statistically significantly predict whether or not the leader was punished.

H<sub>A2b</sub>: Destructive leader behavior statistically significantly predicts whether or not the leader was punished.

The researcher correlated predictor variables, including gossip, ridicule, exclusion, and hostility, with the criterion, organizations protecting the bully. The researcher used SPSS to analyze survey responses in accordance with the proposed research plan. The sample consisted of 174 responses from participants. Survey questions consisted of yes/no, true/false, Likert scale, and questions with multiple fixed responses that the respondent selected from, such as the type of company they work for. Through SPSS, the researcher descriptively analyzed individual question responses, including a frequency of responses and a check for missing and abnormal data patterns. The researcher designed the survey so that multiple questions for each thematic concept, such as social exclusion, could be cross-checked with other questions for that concept. This design served as a measure of consistency and reliability.

After performing the descriptive analysis of questions and basic check of consistency and reliability, the researcher conducted further analysis to examine how the participants answered the survey questions. Prior to addressing the research questions and

hypotheses, the researcher conducted an exploratory factor analysis on the NAQ-R items to test for validity in the data and to determine the final set of items to be used in measuring destructive leader behavior. Exploratory factor analysis is appropriate when the goal is to reduce a large set of survey items into a set of factors (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2012). The exploratory factor analysis was conducted using principal components extraction and a varimax rotation on the 22 NAQ-R items. The researcher followed Osborne and Costello's (2009) recommendations in evaluating the results of the factor analysis. Factors with eigenvalues less than 1.00 were eliminated, and the final set of factors was determined by examination of a scree plot. The number of points that occur above the bend in the scree plot indicates the ideal number of factors to retain (Osborne & Costello, 2009). Osborne and Costello also suggested items with factor loadings less than .32 or items that cross-load on other factors should be eliminated. The researcher computed a composite score representing destructive leader behavior by summing the responses on the final set of items determined by the factor analysis. To check for outliers in these scores, standardized values for the destructive leader behavior composite scores were computed. Tabachnick and Fidell (2012) suggested standardized values with magnitudes higher than 3.29 should be considered outliers. Based on this criterion, two outliers were identified and removed prior to the analyses of the research questions.

Next, the researcher conducted a Cronbach's alpha reliability analysis on the final set of NAQ-R items retained as a result of the factor analysis. The Cronbach's alpha coefficient was evaluated as recommended by George and Mallery (2010), who suggested coefficients of .7 or higher indicate acceptable reliability. To address Research Question 1, Is there a significant correlation between destructive leader behavior and

tolerant organizational culture, the researcher conducted two point-biserial correlations. A point-biserial correlation analysis is appropriate when the goal of the researcher is to determine the correlation between variables when at least one of the variables is dichotomous. In this analysis, one variable was the destructive leader behavior composite score. The other variables corresponded to organizational tolerance and included the responses to the questions, “Did or does your leader have someone who provides protection?” and “If you were subject to destructive leader behavior was your bully punished?” These two questions operationalized organizational tolerance in this study. For the purposes of the analysis, the responses to these questions were coded as yes = 1 and no = 0; participants who did not respond or answered N/A to these questions were excluded analysis-by-analysis. Before interpreting the results of the analysis, the researcher tested the assumptions of normality and homoscedasticity. Normality was tested using a Shapiro-Wilk test on the continuous variable (destructive leader behavior). The results of the test were significant ( $p < .001$ ), indicating that the distribution of destructive leader behavior scores was significantly different from a normal distribution; therefore, this assumption was not met. Homoscedasticity was tested using Levene’s test. The results of the Levene’s test were not significant for both pairs of variables (all  $p$ -values  $> .05$ ), indicating this assumption was met. Because the assumption of normality was not met, Spearman correlations were reported in addition to the point-biserial correlations because the Spearman correlations do not carry this assumption.

To address Research Question 2, Does destructive leader behavior predict tolerant organizational culture, two binary logistic regressions were conducted. A binary logistic regression is the most appropriate analysis to use when the goal of the researcher is to

determine if a predictor variable predicts a dichotomous criterion variable. In this analysis, the predictor variable was the destructive leader behavior composite score. The criterion variables corresponded to organizational tolerance and included the responses to the questions, “Did or does your leader have someone who provides protection?” and “If you were subject to destructive leader behavior was your bully was punished?” For the purposes of the analysis, the researcher coded the responses to these questions as yes = 1 and no = 0; participants who did not respond or answered N/A to these questions were excluded analysis-by-analysis.

A separate binary logistic regression was conducted for each criterion variable. Before interpreting the results of the analysis, the researcher tested the assumptions of a discrete criterion variable, at least one predictor variable, independence of observations, no outliers, and a linear relationship between the continuous predictor variable and the logit transformed criterion variable. Because each criterion variable was coded as dichotomous and there was at least one predictor variable, the assumption of a discrete criterion variable and at least one predictor variable was met. Independence of observations was ensured during data collection. The assumption of no outliers was tested by computing standardized values for the destructive leader behavior composite scores, as previously described. Two outliers were identified and removed prior to the analysis. The last assumption was tested using the Box-Tidwell procedure, which involves assessing the interaction between the continuous predictor variable and the natural log-transformed predictor variable. This interaction was not significant in either regression ( $p$ -values > .05), indicating that this assumption was met.

### **Ethical Considerations**

The core principles of this research included respect for persons, beneficence, and justice, per the Belmont Report (1979). The APA (2013) recommends that professional researchers, psychologists, consultants, therapists, and others remain neutral to be effective in their jobs. Because human participants were involved in this study, the researcher sought approval from the University Institutional Review Board (IRB) to conduct a voluntary and anonymous survey administered through SurveyMonkey.com (see Appendix C).

To guarantee participant privacy and confidentiality, the researcher did not request identification. The researcher will store all data for a period of 4–6 years in a password-protected private computer, used only by the researcher. Data were gathered only used by the researcher for this study and were not given to any organization that a participant was affiliated with. Organizational affiliation was anonymous.

Professional attitudes of social psychologists are reflected in their own personal morals and values. Because of this professional and personal segment of psychologists' lives can become interrelated. The researcher agreed to remain neutral and not allow personal feelings or opinions motivate his or her work ethic, especially when conducting research. In addition, this provided the opportunity for full disclosure, obtaining informed consents, and assuring confidentiality and anonymity. Reporting accurate results, regardless of the outcome, was a primary goal of this research study. According to research by Bakker and Wicherts (2014), 18% of statistical results in psychological literature are incorrectly reported; these errors are often in line with researchers' expectations and are a result of specific biases toward the researcher's

expectations. Bakker and Wicherts also reported that prior studies have shown scientists are subject to confirmation bias in analyzing their data; researchers' reactions to empirical results depend on whether the results support their hypotheses.

Because human participants were involved in this study, the researcher obtained approval from the IRB. This survey was voluntary, anonymous, and conducted through Survey Monkey. Informed consent was obtained prior to participants accessing the survey that explained the purpose of the study and indicated the participants' agreement to voluntarily participate in the study.

### **Limitations and Delimitations**

**Limitations.** This study had the following limitations, of which the researcher had no control.

1. The definitions provided to the participants to help them determine if they had been exposed to destructive leader behavior may have been leading or confusing for those participating in the study.
2. The study was limited to employees' perceptions of destructive leader behavior, and not their general well-being.
3. Participants chosen for the study could choose not to complete the survey.
4. Participants who volunteered for this survey may have harbored resentment toward corporations they believed to tolerate destructive leader behavior.
5. The sample size had to adequately represent the population to ensure truthful reporting.

**Delimitations.** The researcher set the following delimitations to this study.

1. The researcher used a convenience sample of volunteer respondents. Consequently, the external validity of the findings may have been affected, and the research findings may have limited generalizability.
2. Participants were limited to those who have been employed for 6 months or more. The results cannot be used from those with less service.
3. The study population may not have included employees who were subject to or a witness to destructive leader practices.

The researcher conducted this quantitative study during the winter of 2016 and collected anonymous, voluntary participants to complete a survey consisting of closed-ended questions. This study offers additional insight into organizational tolerance of destructive leader behavior and whether organizational tolerance directly or indirectly affects civility in the workplace. The focus of the study was on the relationship between organizational tolerance and destructive leader behavior. Questions on the survey revealed the perceived relationships between the organization and the leader, as well as the organization and the subordinate. The researcher contributed to closing the gap in the literature by using generated data to examine destructive leader behavior and the lack of organization involvement. This study furthered existing research by adding the examination of the relationship between organizational tolerance of destructive behavior to the existing literature. The researcher encourages companies to use processes that guide policy recommendations to include zero tolerance and organizational accountability.



## Summary

The methods described in this chapter are prevalent to quantitative research. The survey that the researcher used in this study provided calculable data, even though the participants were not questioned through an in-depth interview process. The researcher described various components and elements of destructive leader behaviors in Chapter 1. Specifically, the researcher discussed organizational tolerance of destructive leader behavior. With this examination of previously conducted research, the researcher identified why destructive practices in leadership are an important social and organizational concern.

Through an in-depth review of existing literature, the researcher provided clarity regarding the concept of destructive leader behavior and practices, and regarding the relationship between destructive behavior and organizational tolerance in Chapter 2. The literature review consisted of a complete analysis of how destructive leader behavior and practices continue to exist within organizations. The information presented by the researcher justified and validated the need for this research study. In Chapter 3, the researcher provided a detailed summation of the selected approach for this research study. The researcher analyzed information regarding the appropriateness of specific methods and identified and designed the best methods to use for this analysis, including an explanation of the population, sample size, sample selection, the data collection process, data analysis, and the rationale for the study. The researcher restated the problem statement, the research problem, questions and hypotheses, descriptions and justification of the research methods, instrumentation, and research design. Chapter 3 also included ethical considerations and the study limitations and delimitations.

Destructive leader practices cannot thrive in healthy organizational cultures; however, these destructive bullying behaviors are becoming tolerable and inevitable as a standard occupational hazard. The value of investigating organizational tolerance of destructive leadership is that the generated data contributes to closing the gap in literature by examining destructive leader behavior and the lack of organization involvement. The information presented in Chapter 4 includes the researcher's application of quantitative data to interpret the relationship between destructive leadership and organizational tolerance.

## Chapter 4: Data Analysis and Results

### Introduction

Researchers have not identified if, and to what extent, a relationship exists between destructive leader's individual personality traits or tolerant organizational culture. The purpose of this quantitative correlational study was to consider that destructive leader behaviors are not solely derived by personality traits but to identify if and to what extent a relationship exists between destructive leader behavior and tolerant organizational culture in the United States. The methodology of this study consisted of an online survey of workers. The survey included the NAQ-R to measure destructive behavior of workplace leaders. The survey enabled the researcher to address the following research questions and hypotheses:

RQ1: Is there a significant correlation between destructive leader behavior and tolerant organizational culture?

H<sub>01a</sub>: There is no statistically significant correlation between destructive leader behavior and whether or not the leader was protected.

H<sub>A1a</sub>: There is a statistically significant correlation between destructive leader behavior and whether or not the leader was protected.

H<sub>01b</sub>: There is no statistically significant correlation between destructive leader behavior and whether or not the leader was punished.

H<sub>A1b</sub>: There is a statistically significant correlation between destructive leader behavior and whether or not the leader was punished.

RQ2: Does destructive leader behavior predict tolerant organizational culture?

H<sub>02a</sub>: Destructive leader behavior does not statistically significantly predict whether or not the leader was protected.

H<sub>A2a</sub>: Destructive leader behavior statistically significantly predicts whether or not the leader was protected.

H<sub>02b</sub>: Destructive leader behavior does not statistically significantly predict whether or not the leader was punished.

H<sub>A2b</sub>: Destructive leader behavior statistically significantly predicts whether or not the leader was punished.

This chapter contains the data analysis conducted to address the research questions and the findings of the study. Specifically, this chapter begins with the descriptive statistics of the study, followed by a description of the data analysis procedures. Then the results of the data analysis are presented. Finally, this chapter concludes with a summary.

### **Descriptive Data**

A total of 174 individuals responded to the survey. Thirty-five respondents did not agree to the consent form and therefore did not continue to the rest of the survey. An additional 20 respondents did not complete the NAQ-R. These respondents were excluded from the final sample, leaving a final total of 119 participants that were included in the data analysis.

Table 1 displays frequencies and percentages for the demographic characteristics of the sample. On average, the participants in the final sample had been in their current position for 9.86 years ( $SD = 11.43$ ). A majority of the participants were women ( $n = 84$ , 70.6%). The largest proportion of participants were either intermediate ( $n = 26$ , 21.8%),

middle management ( $n = 24$ , 20.2%), or owner/executive/C-level workers ( $n = 25$ , 21.0%). The job function reported by the largest proportion of participants was administrative ( $n = 16$ , 13.4%). Finally, a slight majority of the participants reported that their organization was private ( $n = 60$ , 50.4%).

Table 1

*Frequencies and Characteristics of Demographic Characteristics*

Variable	<i>n</i>	%
Gender		
Female	84	70.6
Male	34	28.6
No response	1	0.8
Job level		
Entry Level	11	9.2
Intermediate	26	21.8
Middle Management	24	20.2
Owner/Executive/C-Level	25	21.0
Senior Management	17	14.3
Other	16	13.4
Job function		
Administrative	28	23.5
Business related	21	17.6
Consulting and Services	9	7.6
Health Care	19	16.0
Science and Education	23	19.3
Art/Creative/Design	3	2.5
Other	11	9.2
I am currently not employed	4	3.4
No response	1	0.8
Organization type		
Private	60	50.4
Public	57	47.9
No response	2	1.7

*Note.* Percentages may not sum to 100.0% due to rounding error.

Table 2 displays the frequencies and percentages for the participants' responses to questions about organizational tolerance and their intent to leave. When asked if someone

provides protection for their leader, the largest proportion of participants answered yes ( $n = 41, 34.5\%$ ). About one-third of the participants reported a higher-ranking manager provided protection ( $n = 40, 33.6\%$ ), 30.3% ( $n = 36$ ) reported an executive or owner provided protection, 27.7% ( $n = 33$ ) reported human resources provided protection, and 32.8% ( $n = 39$ ) reported a supervisor provided protection. When asked, “If you were subject to destructive leader behavior was your bully punished?” most of the participants answered N/A ( $n = 71, 59.7\%$ ). Only 10 participants (8.4%) reported they did not know if their bully was punished, while a further 12 (10.1%) reported they did know their bully was punished. Most participants reported they were not thinking about leaving their organization ( $n = 71, 59.7\%$ ), they were not planning to look for a new job ( $n = 74, 62.2\%$ ), and they did not intend to ask people about new job opportunities ( $n = 66, 55.5\%$ ). Finally, most participants answered no ( $n = 61, 51.3\%$ ) to the prompt “I do not plan to be at this organization much longer.”

Table 2

*Frequencies and Percentages for Organizational Tolerance and Intent to Leave*  
(see Appendix K).

### **Data Analysis Procedures**

Prior to addressing the research questions and hypotheses, the researcher conducted an exploratory factor analysis on the NAQ-R items to test for validity in the data and to determine the final set of items to be used in measuring destructive leader behavior. Exploratory factor analysis is appropriate when the goal is to reduce a large set of survey items into a set of factors (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2012). The exploratory factor analysis was conducted using principal components extraction and a varimax rotation on the 22 NAQ-R items. The researcher followed Osborne and Costello’s (2009)

recommendations in evaluating the results of the factor analysis. Factors with eigenvalues less than 1.00 were eliminated, and the final set of factors was determined by examination of a scree plot. The number of points that occur above the bend in the scree plot indicates the ideal number of factors to retain (Osborne & Costello, 2009). Osborne and Costello also suggested items with factor loadings less than .32 or items that cross-load on other factors should be eliminated. The researcher computed a composite score representing destructive leader behavior by summing the responses on the final set of items determined by the factor analysis. To check for outliers in these scores, standardized values for the destructive leader behavior composite scores were computed. Tabachnick and Fidell (2012) suggested standardized values with magnitudes higher than 3.29 should be considered outliers. Based on this criterion, two outliers were identified and removed prior to the analyses of the research questions.

Next, the researcher conducted a Cronbach's alpha reliability analysis on the final set of NAQ-R items retained as a result of the factor analysis. The Cronbach's alpha coefficient was evaluated as recommended by George and Mallery (2010), who suggested coefficients of .7 or higher indicate acceptable reliability.

**Research Question 1 is: Is there a significant correlation between destructive leader behavior and tolerant organizational culture?** To address Research Question 1, the researcher conducted two point-biserial correlations. A point-biserial correlation analysis is appropriate when the goal of the researcher is to determine the correlation between variables when at least one of the variables is dichotomous. In this analysis, one variable was the destructive leader behavior composite score. The other variables corresponded to organizational tolerance and included the responses to the questions,

“Did or does your leader have someone who provides protection?” and “If you were subject to destructive leader behavior was your bully was punished?” These two questions operationalized organizational tolerance in this study. For the purposes of the analysis, the responses to these questions were coded as yes = 1 and no = 0; participants who did not respond or answered N/A to these questions were excluded analysis-by-analysis. Before interpreting the results of the analysis, the researcher tested the assumptions of normality and homoscedasticity. Normality was tested using a Shapiro-Wilk test on the continuous variable (destructive leader behavior). The results of the test were significant ( $p < .001$ ), indicating that the distribution of destructive leader behavior scores was significantly different from a normal distribution; therefore, this assumption was not met. Homoscedasticity was tested using Levene’s test. The results of the Levene’s test were not significant for both pairs of variables (all  $p$ -values  $> .05$ ), indicating this assumption was met. Because the assumption of normality was not met, Spearman correlations were reported in addition to the point-biserial correlations because the Spearman correlations do not carry this assumption.

**Research Question 2 is: Does destructive leader behavior predict tolerant organizational culture?** To address Research Question 2, two binary logistic regressions were conducted. A binary logistic regression is the most appropriate analysis to use when the goal of the researcher is to determine if a predictor variable predicts a dichotomous criterion variable. In this analysis, the predictor variable was the destructive leader behavior composite score. The criterion variables corresponded to organizational tolerance and included the responses to the questions, “Did or does your leader have someone who provides protection?” and “If you were subject to destructive leader



behavior was your bully was punished?" For the purposes of the analysis, the researcher coded the responses to these questions as yes = 1 and no = 0; participants who did not respond or answered N/A to these questions were excluded analysis-by-analysis. A separate binary logistic regression was conducted for each criterion variable. Before interpreting the results of the analysis, the researcher tested the assumptions of a discrete criterion variable, at least one predictor variable, independence of observations, no outliers, and a linear relationship between the continuous predictor variable and the logit transformed criterion variable. Because each criterion variable was coded as dichotomous and there was at least one predictor variable, the assumption of a discrete criterion variable and at least one predictor variable was met. Independence of observations was ensured during data collection. The assumption of no outliers was tested by computing standardized values for the destructive leader behavior composite scores, as previously described. Two outliers were identified and removed prior to the analysis. The last assumption was tested using the Box-Tidwell procedure, which involves assessing the interaction between the continuous predictor variable and the natural log-transformed predictor variable. This interaction was not significant in either regression ( $p$ -values > .05), indicating that this assumption was met.

The results of a priori and post hoc power analyses for the logistic regression are presented in Appendix F, Appendix G, and Appendix I. The final sample size obtained for the analysis was 119 participants. The post hoc power analysis for the logistic regression revealed that a power of .30 was achieved with a sample size of 119.

## Results

**Exploratory factor analysis.** The researcher conducted an exploratory factor analysis on the 22 NAQ-R items. Table 3 presents the eigenvalues for the factor analysis and Figure 1 presents the scree plot. Three factors had eigenvalues higher than 1.00, and together these factors accounted for 65.96% of the variance in the data. However, an examination of the scree plot revealed a 1-factor solution was most appropriate for the data.

Table 3

### *Eigenvalues for Exploratory Factor Analysis*

Factor	Eigenvalue	% of Variance	Cumulative %
Factor 1: Destructive Leader Behavior	11.87	53.96	53.96
Factor 2: Undefined	1.50	6.83	60.78
Factor 3: Undefined	1.14	5.17	65.96

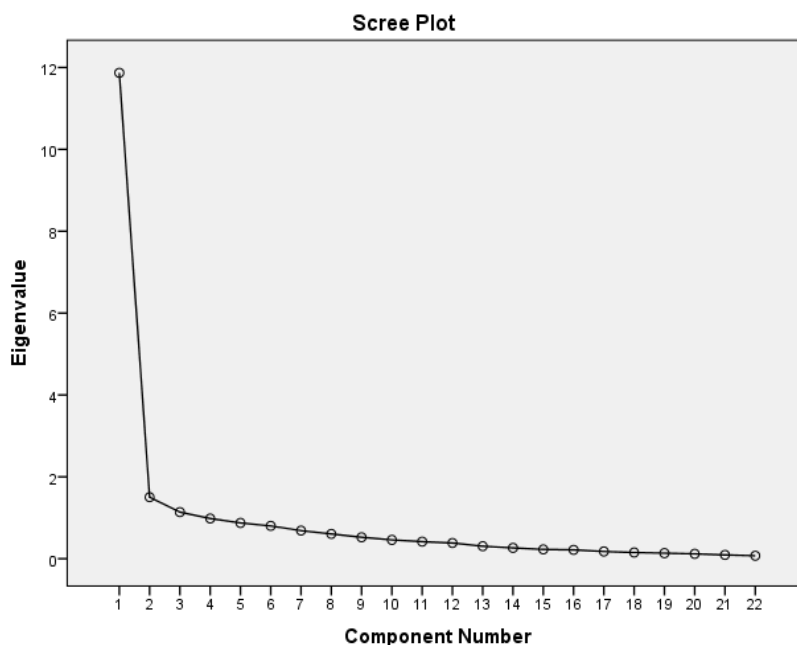


Figure 1. Scree plot for exploratory factor analysis.

Table 4 displays the rotated factor loadings for the exploratory factor analysis. Because the scree plot supported a 1-factor solution, items that did not load strongly on Factor 1 or cross-loaded on other factors were eliminated from the final set of items. This resulted in a final set of five items: NAQ1 (“Someone withholding information which affects your performance”), NAQ2 (“Being humiliated or ridiculed with connection to your work”), NAQ5 (“Spreading of gossip and rumors about you”), NAQ12 (“Being ignored or facing hostile reaction when you approach”), and NAQ21 (“Being exposed to an unmanageable workload”). The researcher summed the responses to these items to create a composite score representing destructive leader behavior. Table 5 displays descriptive statistics for the composite score.

Table 4

*Rotated Factor Loadings for Exploratory Factor Analysis*

Question	Factor		
	1	2	3
NAQ1: Someone withholding information which affects your performance	.54		
NAQ2: Being humiliated or ridiculed with connection to your work	.86		
NAQ3: Being ordered to do work below your level of competence	.38	.68	
NAQ4: Having key areas of responsibility removed or replace with more trivial or unpleasant tasks		.81	
NAQ5: Spreading of gossip and rumors about you	.70		
NAQ6: Being ignored or excluded	.57	.40	
NAQ7: Having insulting or offensive remarks made about your person (i.e. habits and background), your attitudes or your private life	.79		.40
NAQ8: Being shouted at or being the target of spontaneous anger (or rage)	.58		.41
NAQ9: Intimidating behavior such as finger-pointing, invasion of personal space, shoving, blocking/barring the way	.39		.67
NAQ10: Hints or signals from others that you should quit your job	.46		.72
NAQ11: Repeated reminders of your errors or mistakes	.40	.67	
NAQ12: Being ignored or facing hostile reaction when you approach	.81		
NAQ13: Persistent criticism of your work and effort	.63	.52	.34
NAQ14: Having your opinions and views ignored	.63	.55	
NAQ15: Practical jokes carried out by people you don't get on with			.82
NAQ16: Being given tasks of unreasonable or impossible targets or deadlines		.52	.48
NAQ17: Having allegations made against you	.63		.56
NAQ18: Excessive monitoring of your work	.35	.78	
NAQ19: Pressure not to claim something which by right you are entitled (e.g. sick leave, holiday entitlement, travel expenses)	.40	.55	.34
NAQ20: Being the subject of excessive teasing and sarcasm	.37		.75
NAQ21: Being exposed to an unmanageable workload	.44		
NAQ22: Threats of violence or physical abuse or actual abuse			.56

*Note.* Loadings less than .32 are not displayed.

Table 5

*Descriptive Statistics for Destructive Leader Behavior Composite Score*

Variable	Min.	Max.	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Destructive Leader Behavior	5.00	22.00	8.61	3.69

**Reliability analysis.** The researcher conducted a Cronbach's alpha reliability analysis on the final set of items included in the destructive leader behavior measure.

Table 6 displays the reliability coefficient. The reliability for destructive leader behavior exceeded .7, demonstrating adequate reliability for this measure.

Table 6

*Reliability Coefficient for Destructive Leader Behavior*

Variable	Number of Items	Cronbach's Alpha
Destructive Leader Behavior	5	.84

**Research Question 1.** Is there a significant correlation between destructive leader behavior and tolerant organizational culture?

H<sub>01a</sub>: There is no statistically significant correlation between destructive leader behavior and whether or not the leader was protected.

H<sub>A1a</sub>: There is a statistically significant correlation between destructive leader behavior and whether or not the leader was protected.

H<sub>01b</sub>: There is no statistically significant correlation between destructive leader behavior and whether or not the leader was punished.

H<sub>A1b</sub>: There is a statistically significant correlation between destructive leader behavior and whether or not the leader was punished.

Table 7 displays the results of the point-biserial correlations between destructive leader behavior and the questions used to operationalize organizational tolerance.

Destructive leader behavior was not significantly correlated with whether or not the leader was protected ( $r_{pb} = .11, p = .349$ ), or whether or not the leader was punished ( $r_{pb} = -.15, p = .393$ ). Spearman correlations between destructive leader behavior and whether or not the leader was protected ( $r_s = .13, p = .279$ ), and whether or not the leader was punished ( $r_s = -.20, p = .247$ ) were also not significant. These results indicate no

significant correlations exist between destructive leader behavior and the organizational tolerance variables. Therefore, the null hypotheses ( $H_{01a}$  and  $H_{01b}$ ) were not rejected.

Table 7

*Correlations between Destructive Leader Behavior and Organizational Tolerance*

<i>Variables</i>		
Variable	Correlation with Destructive Leader Behavior	Sig.
Was leader protected?	.11	.349
Was leader punished?	-.15	.393

**Research Question 2.** Does destructive leader behavior predict tolerant organizational culture?

$H_{02a}$ : Destructive leader behavior does not statistically significantly predict whether or not the leader was protected.

$H_{A2a}$ : Destructive leader behavior statistically significantly predicts whether or not the leader was protected.

$H_{02b}$ : Destructive leader behavior does not statistically significantly predict whether or not the leader was punished.

$H_{A2b}$ : Destructive leader behavior statistically significantly predicts whether or not the leader was punished.

The results for the binary logistic regression model predicting whether or not the leader was protected were not significant,  $\chi^2(1) = 0.93$ ,  $p = .336$ , Nagelkerke  $R^2 = .02$ , indicating destructive leader behavior did not significantly predict whether or not the leader was protected. Table 8 displays the full results of this regression. The results for the binary logistic regression model predicting whether or not the leader was punished also were not significant,  $\chi^2(1) = 0.81$ ,  $p = .367$ , Nagelkerke  $R^2 = .03$ , indicating

destructive leader behavior did not significantly predict whether or not the leader was punished. Table 9 displays the full results of this regression. Together, these results indicate destructive leader behavior did not predict the organizational tolerance variables. Therefore, the null hypotheses (H<sub>0</sub>2a and H<sub>0</sub>2b) were not rejected.

Table 8

*Binary Logistic Regression Predicting Whether or Not Leader Was Protected*

Independent Variable	B	S.E.	Wald	df	Sig.	Exp(B)
Destructive Leader Behavior	0.06	0.07	0.88	1	.347	1.07

Note.  $\chi^2(1) = 0.93, p = .336$ , Nagelkerke  $R^2 = .02$ .

Table 9

*Binary Logistic Regression Predicting Whether or Not Leader Was Punished*

Independent Variable	B	S.E.	Wald	df	Sig.	Exp(B)
Destructive Leader Behavior	-0.08	0.09	0.76	1	.385	0.92

Note.  $\chi^2(1) = 0.81, p = .367$ , Nagelkerke  $R^2 = .03$ .

Post hoc refers to analyses conducted after an initial omnibus test (e.g., analysis of variance) to determine what significant differences exist between pairs of groups or what significant relationships exist between pairs of variables (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2012). It is appropriate to conduct post hoc analyses when the results of an omnibus test are significant and there are multiple pairwise comparisons or pairs of variables that can be further assessed for statistical significance. Because there were no significant results for omnibus tests in this study, post hoc analyses were not necessary to conduct.

### Summary

The final analysis of the study includes data from an online survey of 119 workers. First, the researcher conducted an exploratory factor analysis and reliability analysis. The results of the factor analysis supported one 5-item factor from the NAQ-R

questions used to measure destructive leader behavior. The results of the reliability analysis showed the 5-item measure of destructive leader behavior was reliable ( $\alpha = .84$ ). Research Question 1 was, Is there a significant correlation between destructive leader behavior and tolerant organizational culture? This question was addressed by conducting two point-biserial correlations. Neither of the correlations were significant (all  $p$ -values  $> .05$ ), indicating destructive leader behavior was not significantly correlated with organizational tolerance. Therefore,  $H_{01a}$  and  $H_{01b}$  were not rejected.

Research Question 2 was, does destructive leader behavior predict tolerant organizational culture? This question was addressed by conducting two binary logistic regressions. Neither of the binary logistic regressions were significant (all  $p$ -values  $> .05$ ), indicating destructive leader behavior did not predict organizational tolerance. Therefore,  $H_{02a}$  and  $H_{02b}$  were not rejected. A limitation emerged from the data analysis that the majority of participants answered one of the organizational tolerance questions (i.e., whether or not the leader was punished) as N/A. This response indicates most participants felt this question was not applicable to them. Because participants who answered N/A were excluded from the analysis, this may have limited the potential to find statistically significant results for this question. In addition, a limitation for logistic regression is that the sample size was only 119 that only yields a power of 0.3 which is very low from the standard statistical power of 0.8. Chapter 5 includes a discussion of these results as they relate to previous literature, as well as implications and directions for future research.



## Chapter 5: Summary, Conclusions, and Recommendations

### Introduction

Chapter 5 provides a detailed overview and interpretation of the research questions used to guide the study, highlights of the study's background, and future recommendations. An overview of significant points of the literature review is followed by a review of the methodology used in this study, the findings, and the results of the analysis conducted. The chapter concludes with the implications of the study and recommendations for sustaining healthy organizational cultures.

Through this quantitative correlational study, the researcher intended to determine the factors that influence destructive leader behavior. The purpose of this quantitative correlational study was to consider that destructive leader behaviors are not solely derived by personality traits but to identify if and to what extent a relationship exists between destructive leader behavior and tolerant organizational culture in the United States. To explore the correlation between destructive leader behavior and tolerant organizational culture, the researcher used the NAQ-R survey instrument, which consists of 22 items, accompanied with 10 items from Namie's Protect the Bully instant survey poll (see Appendix D), to collect data from employees working in the United States regarding their perceptions of negative workplace practices and company involvement, or lack thereof. The researcher correlated predictor variables, including gossip, ridicule, exclusion, and hostility, with the variable, protecting the bully. The researcher examined all questions to identify their correlation with the predictor variable, organizations protecting the bully.

The final analysis of the study includes data from an online survey of 119 workers. First, the researcher conducted an exploratory factor analysis and reliability analysis. The results of the factor analysis supported one 5-item factor from the NAQ-R questions used to measure destructive leader behavior. The results of the reliability analysis showed the 5-item measure of destructive leader behavior was reliable ( $\alpha = .84$ ). Exploratory factor analysis is appropriate when the goal is to reduce a large set of survey items into a set of factors (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2012). Then, the researcher conducted conducting two point-biserial correlations to answer research question one. Research question two was addressed by conducting two binary logistic regressions.

Accordingly, this chapter presents the summary of findings, discussion, and the conclusions this study generated. Discussion includes the study's limitations and recommendations for future studies.

### **Summary of the Study**

The purpose of this quantitative correlational study was to consider that destructive leader behaviors are not solely derived by personality traits but to identify if and to what extent a relationship exists between destruction leader behavior and tolerant organizational culture in the United States. When focusing on destructive leader behaviors, researchers have primarily emphasized and diagnosed the symptoms of destructive behaviors as individual characteristics or traits, and not environmental factors, such as tolerant organizational culture as causation (Appelbaum & Roy-Girard, 2007; Buttigieg, et al., 2011; Einarsen et al., 2009; Gumbus & Lyons, 2011; Padilla et al., 2007). This study is significant because it contributes to literature regarding the social factors that influence perception of destructive leader behavior.

Chapter 5 begins with a recapitulation of the research questions used to guide the study, highlights of the study's background, and future recommendations. An overview of significant points of the literature review is followed by a review of the methodology used in this study, the findings, and the results of the analysis conducted. The chapter concludes with the implications of the study and recommendations for sustaining healthy organizational cultures.

**Purpose of the study.** The purpose of this quantitative correlational study was to consider that destructive leader behaviors are not solely derived by personality traits but to identify if and to what extent a relationship exists between destruction leader behavior and tolerant organizational culture in the United States. With this study, the researcher explored theories of destructive leader practices and social factors that influence destructive leader behavior. Little research exists in this area; therefore, through this quantitative correlational study, the researcher attempted to explore this gap by assessing the relationship between destructive leaders and tolerant organizational culture.

**Review of the literature.** This examination was an extension of the theories and assumptions that destructive leadership practices derive from individual personality traits, without considering tolerant organizational culture and a lack of organizational accountability. Much of the existing literature pertained to how destructive leadership practices have a direct influence on subordinates, including the subordinates' perceptions of the organization, job satisfaction, productivity and engagement, and the financial consequences of bad behavior (Chekwa & Thomas, 2013; Neall & Tuckey, 2014; Rasool et al., 2013). Researchers also cited the need to include social factors, such as organizational culture, to yield concrete results (Buttigieg et al., 2011; Einarsen et al.,

2009; Padilla et al., 2007). Appelbaum and Roy-Girard (2007), and Gumbus and Lyons (2011) suggested a lack of evidence exists, proving companies may not support zero tolerance policies and solutions to destructive behaviors.

The theories selected to guide this study relate to tolerance, culture, and perception. These theories relate to critical factors regarding the problem of destructive leader behavior. Destructive behavior is a precise behavior geared toward power in the workplace, subjecting subordinates to bad and, often, abusive leader behavior. Destructive leaders are manipulative and demeaning, and force out the organization's best talent (Diekmann et al., 2013).

The theoretical models that directed this study were Allport and Odbert's (1936) trait theory, Bandura's (2001) social cognitive theory, and the toxic triangle model (Padilla et al., 2007). Trait theory is the theory of personality, which proposes individuals are biologically predisposed to specific personality traits, such as narcissism, that result in predictable behavior (Miller & Campbell, 2008). Researchers have consistently used trait theory as a basis and foundation for the examination of leadership styles, destructive leadership behaviors, and toxic organizational cultures (Boddy, 2014; Mathisen, et al., 2011; Seigner et al., 2007).

Social cognitive theory is based on the premise that personality development comprises learned behaviors displayed in particular social situations (Bandura, 1999). The social-cognitive perspective, as explained by Bandura (1999), expands the original learning theory of personality, which theorizes personality is learned in social situations through interaction and observation. The basic principles of learning when determining personality development and the concept of behaviorism suggests all behavior is in

response to environmental stimuli and the responses to various stimuli are learned from past experiences and are dictated by present circumstance.

To better illustrate the concept and influence of destructive leadership behavior and practices and the effect of tolerant organizational culture, Padilla et al. (2007) model of the toxic triangle attempts to identify the environmental dynamics that influence and promote destructive behavior and negative behaviors that exist in organizational culture. The elements of this model relate to destructive leadership to identify and define the root causes of the behaviors (Padilla et al., 2007). This process occurs by examining the leader, the follower, and the environmental factors (tolerant organizational culture). Padilla et al. described elements related to destructive leadership and environmental factors, suggesting trait-driven behaviors are contingent on organizational tolerance of destructive behavior.

**Research questions.** Two research questions guided this quantitative study.

RQ1: Is there a significant correlation between destructive leader behavior and tolerant organizational culture?

RQ2: Does destructive leader behavior and bullying predict tolerant organizational culture?

**Instrument and sample.** Respondents completed an online survey instrument through Survey Monkey. The data collection procedure for this study consisted of the survey instrument created by Einarsen et al. (2009), the NAQ-R. The NAQ-R consists of 22 items, accompanied with 10 items from Namie's Protect the Bully instant survey poll (see Appendix D). These surveys all assess three underlying factors: personal bullying, work-related bullying, and physically intimidating forms of bullying. Using these

instruments, the researcher explored the correlation between tolerant organizational culture and destructive leader behavior and practices. The researcher measured the relationship between destructive leader behavior and tolerant organizational culture. The quantitative research questions and hypotheses are aimed at addressing this relationship.

This exploration of data involved appropriate data checks for outliers, missing data, and any other data issues to ensure accurate reporting measures. The researcher also performed a descriptive analysis of data during data exploration to get an initial sense for each question, including the mean response and variability of responses.

To ensure a thorough investigation, the researcher used a quantitative approach that allowed for the measurement and comparison between tolerant, instead of nontolerant, organizational culture and destructive leader behavior.

### **Summary of Findings and Conclusion**

The design of this study was a nonexperimental quantitative study with a correlational design. Data collected pertained to employee perception of destructive leader behavior and organizational tolerance of destructive leader practices, using the NAQ-R and Namie's Protect The Bully instant poll. The researcher analyzed data to measure the extent of the relationship between destructive leader behavior and tolerant organizational culture. When focusing on destructive leader behaviors, researchers have primarily emphasized and diagnosed the symptoms of destructive behaviors as individual characteristics or traits, and not environmental factors, as causation or if this were statistically significant predictors of employee perception of destructive leader behavior and tolerant organizational culture. The following section provides a summary of the findings and conclusions related to the two hypotheses of this study.

**Research Question 1.** Is there a significant correlation between destructive leader behavior and tolerant organizational culture? Research Question 1 focused on the relationship of destructive leader behavior and organizational tolerance. The results from the correlational analyses indicated a significant statistical relationship did not exist between the two variables. The results from this study did not identify if destructive leader behavior results from tolerant organizational culture. Research Question 1 was, Is there a significant correlation between destructive leader behavior and tolerant organizational culture? This question was addressed by conducting two point-biserial correlations. Neither of the correlations were significant (all  $p$ -values  $> .05$ ), indicating destructive leader behavior was not significantly correlated with organizational tolerance. Therefore,  $H_{01a}$  and  $H_{01b}$  were not rejected.

**Research Question 2** was, does destructive leader behavior predict tolerant organizational culture? This question was addressed by conducting two binary logistic regressions. Neither of the binary logistic regressions were significant (all  $p$ -values  $> .05$ ), indicating destructive leader behavior did not predict organizational tolerance. Therefore,  $H_{02a}$  and  $H_{02b}$  were not rejected. A limitation emerged from the data analysis that the majority of participants answered one of the organizational tolerance questions (i.e., whether or not the leader was punished) as N/A. This response indicates most participants felt this question was not applicable to them. Because participants who answered N/A were excluded from the analysis, this may have limited the potential to find statistically significant results for this question.

In this analysis, one variable was the destructive leader behavior composite score. The other variables were the responses to the questions, “Did or does your leader have

someone who provides protection?” and “If you were subject to destructive leader behavior was your bully was punished?” These two questions operationalized organizational tolerance in this study. For the purposes of the analysis, the responses to these questions were coded as yes = 1 and no = 0; participants who did not respond or answered N/A to these questions were excluded analysis-by-analysis. Before interpreting the results of the analysis, the researcher tested the assumptions of linearity and homoscedasticity. Linearity was tested by examination of a scatterplot (see Figure 1). The scatterplot did not display any curvilinear trends, so this assumption was met. Homoscedasticity was tested using Levene’s test. The results of the Levene’s test were not significant for both pairs of variables (all  $p$ -values  $> .05$ ), indicating this assumption was also met.

Table 7 displays the results of the point-biserial correlations between destructive leader behavior and the questions pertaining to organizational tolerance. Destructive leader behavior was not significantly correlated with whether or not the leader was protected ( $r_{pb} = .11, p = .349$ ), or whether or not the leader was punished ( $r_{pb} = -.15, p = .393$ ). These results indicate no significant correlations existed between destructive leader behavior and tolerant organizational culture. Therefore, the null hypotheses H<sub>0</sub>1a: There is no statistically significant correlation between destructive leader behavior and whether or not the leader was protected, and H<sub>0</sub>1b: There is no statistically significant correlation between destructive leader behavior and whether or not the leader was punished, were not rejected.

**Research Question 2.** Does destructive leader behavior predict tolerant organizational culture? Research Question 2 focused on the relationship between



destructive leader behavior and bullying predict organizational tolerance. The results from the correlational analyses indicated a significant statistical relationship did not exist between the two variables. The results for the binary logistic regression model predicting whether or not the leader was protected were not significant,  $\chi^2(1) = 0.93, p = .336$ , Nagelkerke  $R^2 = .02$ , indicating destructive leader behavior did not significantly predict whether or not the leader was protected. Table 8 displays the full results of this regression. The results for the binary logistic regression model predicting whether or not the leader was punished also were not significant,  $\chi^2(1) = 0.81, p = .367$ , Nagelkerke  $R^2 = .03$ , indicating destructive leader behavior did not significantly predict whether or not the leader was punished. Table 9 displays the full results of this regression. Together, these results indicate destructive leader behavior did not predict the organizational tolerance variables. Therefore, the null hypotheses ( $H_{02a}$  and  $H_{02b}$ ) were not rejected.

**Conclusions.** Through this study, the researcher sought to determine if a correlation exists between destructive leader behavior and tolerant organizational culture in the United States. Following a thorough review of the literature regarding destructive leader behavior and tolerant organizational culture, the researcher confirmed the data indicated responses to questions about organizational tolerance and participants' intent to leave. When asked if someone provides protection for their leader, the largest proportion of participants answered yes ( $n = 41, 34.5\%$ ). About one-third of the participants reported a higher-ranking manager provided protection ( $n = 40, 33.6\%$ ), 30.3% ( $n = 36$ ) reported an executive or owner provided protection, 27.7% ( $n = 33$ ) reported human resources provided protection, and 32.8% ( $n = 39$ ) reported a supervisor provided protection. When asked, "If you were subject to destructive leader behavior was your bully punished?"

most of the participants answered N/A ( $n = 71$ , 59.7%). Only 10 participants (8.4%) reported they did not know if their bully was punished, while 12 (10.1%) reported they did know their bully was punished. Most participants reported they were not thinking about leaving their organization ( $n = 71$ , 59.7%), they were not planning to look for a new job ( $n = 74$ , 62.2%), and they did not intend to ask people about new job opportunities ( $n = 66$ , 55.5%). Finally, most participants answered no ( $n = 61$ , 51.3%) to the prompt “I do not plan to be at this organization much longer.”

One consensus among researchers who have studied destructive leader behavior is that virtually any person has the capability of being “transformed into a criminal wrongdoer given the right institutional pressures, rewards, and sanctions” (Zyglidopoulos & Fleming, 2008, p. 267). Further, Zyglidopoulos and Fleming (2008) proposed ethical dissonance may also be a contributing factor when determining the role of a tyrannical leader or destructive leader behavior. These findings are also in alignment with the conclusions of Einarsen et al. (2007), Padilla et al. (2007), Tepper et al., (2011), and Zimbardo (2004).

Although literature specific to tyrannical leadership is limited, Skogstad et al. (2007) noted tyrannical leadership predicted a decrease in subordinate job satisfaction during a 6-month period. The results of these research hypotheses support previous findings that no nonexperimental correlational studies determined the specific results of the relationship between destructive leader behavior and individual personality traits or tolerant organizational culture. Schyns and Schilling (2013) conducted a meta-analysis of destructive leadership and the outcomes and consequences of destructive leader behavior and practices. The researchers concluded destructive leadership could be the result of

individual leaders or could be part of an organizational culture (Schyns & Schilling, 2013). Qureshi et al. (2014) suggested tolerant organizational climate is a primary force driving an organization's behavior. The climate of an organization provides the foundation to many psychological phenomena, including destructive leader behavior and workplace bullying (Qureshi et al., 2014).

The findings of this empirical research validate the need to consider destructive behaviors are not solely derived from personality traits and require further examination of tolerant organizational culture. The significance of this study encompasses wellbeing concerns for both employees and organizations. The researcher attempted to address a relatively limited area of research. Limited literature regarding tyrannical leadership is available, and the literature on the concept of destructive leader behavior and perceived organizational support still requires additional research. The findings in Chapter 4 revealed evidence relating to the perception of tolerant organizational culture support the destructive personality. When asked if someone provides protection for their leader, the largest proportion of participants answered yes ( $n = 41, 34.5\%$ ). About one-third of the participants reported a higher-ranking manager provided protection ( $n = 40, 33.6\%$ ), 30.3% ( $n = 36$ ) reported an executive or owner provided protection, 27.7% ( $n = 33$ ) reported human resources provided protection, and 32.8% ( $n = 39$ ) reported a supervisor provided protection. Few studies exist that pertained to the relationship between destructive leadership, the environment, and the perceived organizational support of destructive behaviors. More research is needed to validate assumptions that destructive leadership practices are derived from more than individual personality traits and that one must consider conducive environments, the perception of tolerance, and the lack of

organizational accountability as influences that can breed tyrannical personalities in leadership.

### **Implications**

This section presents the implications of this study developed from the summary of findings. The implications are a retrospective examination derived from the results of the study and are presented in three subsections: theoretical implications, practical implications, and future implications.

**Theoretical implications.** Through this study, the researcher attempted to determine a positive correlation between specific factors that determined employee perception of destructive leader behavior. The theoretical models that drove this study were Allport and Odbert's (1936) trait theory, Bandura's (2001) social cognitive theory, and the toxic triangle (Padilla et al., 2007).

In an attempt to explain the effects of destructive leaders, the theory of the toxic triangle (Padilla et al., 2007) included three major components of destructive behavior: destructive leaders, susceptible followers, and conducive environments. Padilla et al. (2007) stated a confluence exists between the three components. The first component of the triangle pertains to behavior and personality. Characteristics or traits as described by Allport and Odbert (1936), such as charisma and narcissism, are indicative of the first component of the toxic triangle. The second element illustrates the relationship between a destructive leader, his followers, and the effect on each other, also described by Bandura (2001) as social cognitive theory or reciprocal determinism. The third part of the toxic triangle presents factors of the environment influencing toxic or destructive leader behavior in conducive or tolerant organizational cultures. By attempting to understand

how a leader can become a destructive leader, Padilla et al. (2007, p. 185) highlighted the importance of the “conducive environment.”

The results of this study supported the basic tenets of the toxic triangle. In this context, it is still not evident that individual personality traits or tolerant organizational cultures are statistically significant predictors of employee perception of destructive leader behavior. One major fact is even if a leader has some specific negative characteristics, it does not mean he or she will be a destructive leader (Padilla et al., 2007). Therefore, the purpose of this part of the theory was to identify and explain how a leader with or without “dark side” traits shapes a work environment, or rather how the environment can influence and shape a leader into developing toxic behavior.

One limitation to the study was employees’ perceptions of destructive leader behavior. The researcher used scales that require self-reporting and are contingent upon the individual’s experience of destructive leader behavior, which varies from individual to individual. The second weakness was the smaller sample size with regard to the larger population of employees in the United States. Accordingly, the results of this study cannot necessarily be generalized because they are specific to this study’s particular data. Duplicating this study with a larger sample size will assist in strengthening results and increase the generalizability of the findings whereas In a limitation for logistic regression is that the sample size was only 119 that only yields a power of 0.3 which is very low from the standard statistical power of 0.8. In addition, further study needs to be done to identify specific components of behavior and organizational culture.

**Practical implications.** This study pertained to employee perception of destructive leader behavior and the perception of organizational tolerance of bad leader

behavior. Prior to this study, a moderate amount of empirical research existed regarding organizational tolerance of tyrannical leadership styles. Krasikova et al. (2013) used a different approach to this phenomenon and argued destructive leaders possess certain characteristics, such as volitional behavior, that set these destructive leaders apart from bad or ineffective leadership ability or style.

What makes this assumption noteworthy is the concept of choice—the choice made by leaders that the end justifies the means, or the bottom line. This type of tolerant organizational culture can lead to the creation of tyrannical leaders. According to Krasikova et al. (2013), the leader possesses enough power and influence to encourage and convince followers to pursue goals that conflict with legitimate interests of the organization. Personality traits may influence and facilitate destructive leader behavior; however, destructive leader practices cannot thrive in healthy organizational cultures. These destructive bullying behaviors are becoming tolerable and inevitable as a standard occupational hazard. The value of investigating organizations that tolerate destructive leadership is that the generated data contributes to closing the gap in literature by examining destructive leader behavior and the lack of organization accountability.

**Future implications.** This study provides insight into destructive leadership and the devastating consequences that can follow as a result. Future researchers need to examine the true nature of the relationship between tyrannical leaders and tolerant organizational culture.

Additionally, future research regarding tolerant organizational culture and employee perceptions of perceived organizational support is needed to determine the overall perception of ethical dissonance between the individual and the organization.

Ultimately, the goal of future researchers should be to determine the commitment of the organization to resolve any dissonance so that all employees can be active participants in reducing conducive environments (Padilla et al., 2007; Zyglidopoulos & Fleming, 2008). In addition, a variety of organizational cultures should be tested, including union versus nonunion environments. The perception of perceived organizational support may be the indirect effect of a lack of support or reporting measures within the organizational structure.

Although contemporary examples may not be as large, severe, or public as the Enron case, many lessons still exist regarding destructive leader behavior and organizational culture that can be learned. Therefore, further research into the effects of tyrannical leadership and tolerant organizational culture is encouraged.

### **Recommendations**

The purpose of this section is to offer suggestion for future research. Organizational leaders must recognize that confronting the phenomenon of destructive leader behavior and practices is of paramount importance to combat destructive leader behavior. These recommendations may increase the validity that the effects of destructive leader behavior and conducive environments are interrelated, affecting both employee and organization.

The researchers proposed the following recommendations.

- Increase the sample size.
- Use mixed methods, incorporate qualitative methods.
- Use a phenomenological research design, face-to-face interviews.
- Track organizational progress through a longitudinal study.

**Recommendations for future research.** The first recommendation for future researchers is to increase the sample size of future studies. This study had a final sample of 119 participants that resulted in an acceptable number of participants for multiple regression analysis. Participants only included employees who have been employed for a minimum of 6 months. Increasing the sample size will increase statistical validity and provide more accurate results (Coakes & Steed, 1997; Lipsey & Wilson, 1993).

Vartia (2012) posited destructive leader behavior affects everyone, including those who are witnesses to the abuse. The second recommendation is for future researchers to use a mixed methods approach and perform a qualitative analysis using a phenomenological design that will allow the researcher the opportunity to engage in face-to-face interviews. The interview process will allow the participants to explain, expand upon, and express opinions. Conducting face-to-face interviews will alleviate the use of self-reported tests. The risk of personal bias or answering based on alleged knowledge or perception of destructive behaviors or perceived organizational support has its limitations and weaknesses. Moreover, self-reported questionnaires omit the opportunity for explanation and in-depth examination of a particular experience. Survey questionnaires, such as the Likert-style scale, limit explanation.

To fill a gap in the literature regarding the role of organizations in influencing destructive leader behavior, the role of organizational culture and destructive leaders needs further in-depth study. Thus, the third recommendation is the enactment of a longitudinal study of organizations that includes assessment periods to identify leadership issues. These encounters will increase employee commitment and lower abusive behaviors and turnover (Kehoe & Wright, 2013). In addition, a longitudinal study allows



the researcher to follow both employee and leadership from the inception through the conclusion of the negative experience. A longitudinal study is also beneficial as employee perceptions of the leader's behavior, leadership style, and the organizational culture may change over time (Zydzianaite & Suominen, 2014).

**Recommendations for future practice.** Leadership roles facilitate the achievement of organizational goals. The construct of ethical dissonance is significant for both the decision-making and interpersonal influences that link behavior and outcomes. The consequences of destructive leadership behaviors, tyrannical leadership, affect 13.6% of U.S. employees while at the same time costing U.S. corporations billions of dollars annually in legal, property, and employee expenses (Thoroughgood et al., 2012a).

Mehta and Maheshwari (2013) concluded toxic leadership is harmful and senior managers must hold destructive leaders accountable for his or her bad behaviors. Employees who observe and experience legitimate concern from leadership will remain committed to the organization. Senior management must decide on the style of leadership that the organization wants to promote to potentially reduce an organizational culture of destructive leader behavior. Kang, Gatling, and Kim (2015) reported with full leadership support, employees may become responsible and powerful as they realize their leaders value them and care for their wellbeing.

The ability to recognize and identify the signs of destructive leadership will help assist senior managers, followers, and the organization in creating a more productive and affable organizational culture. An initial assessment of personality could be determined by implementing assessments, such as Myers-Briggs MBTI and the Jung Typology Test. Personality testing can be used as an initial tool to determine if destructive dark side traits

exist in the candidate. Manifestations of destructive behavior are most likely to occur because of the interrelationship between the individual and the environment. A better understanding of personality and the characteristics of a conducive environment will reduce the likelihood of occurrences of destructive leader behavior. Managers of all levels should be educated on and possess an enhanced awareness of the current leadership styles employed within the organization.

Mehta and Maheshwari (2013) confirmed destructive leader behaviors are classified in several ways, such as abusive, tyrannical, destructive, bullying, unethical or bad, and toxic (p. 3), but the organizational side of these destructive leader behaviors has yet to be uncovered. Implementing training, mentorship, support systems, and safe reporting measures are the tools necessary to decrease destructive leader behavior and conducive environments. Developing intervention strategies, such as coaching opportunities, ensures leadership involvement. These training sessions can challenge leadership and employees to learn how to improve relationships in the workplace. Coaches can monitor any issues that may be causing problems and can act to address the problem. Coaching is a valuable tool when assessing employee issues. In addition, coaching creates trust between subordinates and leadership. Establishing this relationship is critical to determine why conflict exists. These new relationships can provide leadership a new perspective on the behavioral patterns of tyrannical leaders and destructive leader behavior. These steps toward transparency for organizations will help to reduce and diminish opportunity of destructive leader behavior.

## References

- Aasland, M. S., Skogstad, A., Notelaers, G., Morten, B. N., & Einarsen, S. (2010). The prevalence of destructive leadership behaviour. *British Journal of Management*, *21*, 438–452. doi:10.1111/j.1467-8551.2009.0672.x
- Akakandelwa, A., & Jain, P. (2013). A comparative study of perceived work related stress among library staff in two academic libraries in Southern Africa. *Library Management*, *34*, 569–584. doi:10.1108/LM-03-2013-0018
- Alderfer, C. (2013). Not just football: An intergroup perspective on the Sandusky scandal at Penn State. *Industrial and Organizational Psychology: Perspectives on Science and Practice*, *6*. doi.org/10.1111/iops.12023
- Allport, G. W., & Odbert, H. S. (1936). Trait-names: A psycho-lexical study. *Psychological Monographs*, *47*(211). doi.org/10.1037/h0093360
- Almadi, T., Cathers, I., & Chow, C. M. (2013). An Arabic version of the effort-reward imbalance questionnaire: Translation and validation study. *Psychological Reports*, *113*, 275–290. doi:10.2466/08.14.PR0.113x10z7
- American Psychiatric Association. (2013). *Alternative DSM-5 model for personality disorders* (5th ed.). Washington, DC: Author.
- Andreassen, C., Ursin, H., Eriksen, H. R., & Pallesen, S. (2012). The relationship of narcissism with workaholism, work engagement, and professional position. *Social Behavior & Personality*, *40*(6), 881–890. doi.org/10.2224/sbp.2012.40.6.88
- Appelbaum, S. H., & Roy-Girard, D. (2007). Toxins in the workplace: Effect on organizations and employees. *Corporate Governance*, *7*, 17–28. doi:10.1108/14720700710727087

- Appelbaum, S. H., Semerjian, G., & Mohan, K. (2012a). Workplace bullying: Consequences, causes and controls (Part one). *Industrial and Commercial Training, 44*, 203–210. doi:10.1108/00197851211231478
- Appelbaum, S. H., Semerjian, G., & Mohan, K. (2012b). Workplace bullying: Consequences, causes and controls (Part two). *Industrial and Commercial Training, 44*(6), 337–344. doi:10.1108/00197851211254770
- Arnold, A. K., & Dupré, E. K. (2012). Perceived organizational support, employee health and emotions. *International Journal of Workplace Health Management, 5*(2), 139–152. doi.org/10.1108/17538351211239171
- Ashraf, F., & Khan, M. A. (2014). Does emotional intelligence moderate the relationship between workplace bullying and job performance? *Asian Business & Management, 13*, 171–190. doi:10.1057/abm.2013.5
- Baack, D. (2012). *Management communication*. San Diego, CA: Bridgepoint Education.
- Babbie, E. R. (2012). *The practice of social research*. Belmont, CA: Wadsworth.
- Babbie, E., Wagner, W. E., III, & Zaino, J. (2015). *Adventures in social research: Data analysis using IBM SPSS Statistics* (9th ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Baer, M., & Brown, G. (2012). Blind in one eye: How psychological ownership of ideas affects the types of suggestions people adopt. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes, 118*(1), 60–71. doi.org/10.1016/j.obhdp.2012.01.003
- Bahreinian, M., Ahi, M., & Soltani, F. (2012). The relationship between personality type and leadership style of managers: A case study. *Mustang Journal of Business & Ethics, 3*, 94–111.

- Baillien, E., Bollen, K., Euwema, M., & De Witte, H. (2014). Conflicts and conflict management styles as precursors of workplace bullying: A two-wave longitudinal study. *European Journal of Work & Organizational Psychology, 23*, 511–524. doi:10.1080/1359432X.2012.752899
- Bakker, M., & Wicherts, J. M. (2014). Outlier removal, sum scores, and the inflation of the Type I error rate in independent samples *t* tests: The power of alternatives and recommendations. *Psychological Methods, 19*, 409–427. doi:10.1037/met0000014
- Ballinger, G., Craig, E., Cross, R., & Gray, P. (2011). A stitch in time saves nine: Leveraging networks to reduce the costs of turnover. *California Management Review, 53*(4), 111–133. doi.org/10.1525/cmr.2011.53.4.111
- Bandura, A. (1989). Social cognitive theory. In R. Vasta (Ed.), *Annals of child development: Six theories of child development* (Vol. 6, pp. 1–60). Greenwich, CT: JAI Press.
- Bandura, A. (1999). A social cognitive theory of personality. In L. Pervin & O. John (Ed.), *Handbook of personality* (2nd ed., pp. 154-196). New York: Guilford Publications. (Reprinted in D. Cervone & Y. Shoda [Eds.], *The coherence of personality*. New York: Guilford Press.
- Bandura, A. (2001). Social cognitive theory and clinical psychology. In N. J. Smelser & P. B. Baltes (Eds.), *International encyclopedia of the social and behavioral sciences* (Vol. 21, pp. 14250–14254). Oxford, England: Elsevier Science.

- Bartlett, J. E., & Bartlett, M. E. (2011). Workplace bullying: An integrative literature review. *Advances in Developing Human Resources, 13*, 69–84.  
doi:10.1177/1523422311410651
- Bashir, A., Hanif, R., & Nadeem, M. (2014). Role of personal factors in perception of workplace bullying among telecommunication personnel. *Pakistan Journal of Commerce & Social Sciences, 8*, 817–829.
- Baughman, H. M., Dearing, S., Giammarco, E., & Vernon, P. A. (2012). Relationships 132 between bullying behaviors and the dark triad: A study with adults. *Personality and Individual Differences, 52*(5), 571–575.  
doi:10.1016/j.paid.2011.11.020
- Beck, R., & Harter, J. (2013). Why great managers are so rare. *Gallup Business Journal*, 1–27. Retrieved from <http://businessjournal.gallup.com/content/167975/why-great-managersrare.aspx>
- Belmont Report (1979). The Belmont Report: Ethical principles and guidelines for the protection of human subjects of research. Retrieved December 13, 2016, from [hhs.gov/ohrp/humansubjects/guidance/belmont.html](http://hhs.gov/ohrp/humansubjects/guidance/belmont.html)
- Bennis, W. (1989). *On becoming a leader*. New York, NY: Addison Wesley.
- Bergen Bullying Research Group. (2014). NAQ. Retrieved from <http://www.uib.no/en/rg/bbrg/44045/naq>
- Bernhard, F., & O'Driscoll, M. P. (2011). Psychological ownership in small family-owned businesses Leadership style and nonfamily-employees' work attitudes and behaviors. *Group & Organization Management, 36*(3), 345–384.  
<http://dx.doi.org/10.1177/1059601111402684>

- Berry, C. M., Carpenter, N. C., & Barratt, C. L. (2012). Do other-reports of counterproductive work behavior provide an incremental contribution over self-reports? A meta-analytic comparison. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 97*(3), 613–636. doi.org/10.1037/a0026739
- Berry, P. A., Gillespie, G. L., Gates, D., & Schafer, J. (2012). Novice nurse productivity following workplace bullying. *Journal of Nursing Scholarship, 44*(1), 80–87. doi.org/10.1111/j.1547-5069.2011.01436.x
- Berthelsen, M., Skogstad, A., Lau, B., & Einarsen, S. (2011). Do they stay or do they go? A longitudinal study of intentions to leave and exclusion from working life among targets of workplace bullying. *Journal of Manpower, 32*, 178–193. doi:10.1108/01437721111130198
- Bjørkelo, B. (2013). Workplace bullying after whistleblowing: Future research and implications. *Journal of Managerial Psychology, 28*, 306–323. doi:10.1108/02683941311321178
- Boddy, C. R. (2014). Corporate psychopaths, conflict, employee affective well-being and counterproductive work behavior. *Journal of Business Ethics, 121*, 107–121. doi:10.1007/s10551-013-1688-0
- Boddy, C. R., Miles, D., Sanyal, C., & Hartog, M. (2015). Extreme managers, extreme workplaces: *Capitalism, organisations and corporate psychopaths. Organization, 22*(4), 530–551. doi.org/10.1177/1350508415572508
- Branch, S., Ramsay, S., & Barker, M. (2013). Workplace bullying, mobbing and general harassment: A review. *International Journal of Management Reviews, 15*, 280–299. doi:10.1111/j.1468-2370.2012.00339.x

- Briggs, A., Brough, P., & Barbour, J. P. (2014). Enhancing work-related attitudes and work engagement: A quasi-experimental study of the impact of an organizational intervention. *International Journal of Stress Management*, *21*, 43–68.  
doi.org/10.1037/a0034508
- Bruce, N., Pope, D., & Stanistreet, D. (2013). *Quantitative methods for health research*. Sussex, England: Wiley.
- Burton, J. P., Hoobler, J. M., & Scheuer, M. L. (2012). Supervisor workplace stress and abusive supervision: The buffering effect of exercise. *Journal of Business & Psychology*, *27*, 271–279. doi:10.1007/s10869-011-9255-0
- Buttigieg, D., Bryant, M., Hanley, G., & Liu, J. (2011). The causes and consequences of workplace bullying and discrimination: Results from an exploratory study. *Labour & Industry*, *22*, 117–141. doi.org/10.1080/10301763.2011.10669432
- Campbell, J. L., & Göritz, A. S. (2014). Culture corrupts! A qualitative study of organizational culture in corrupt organizations. *Journal of Business Ethics*, *120*, 291–311. doi:10.1007/s10551-013-1665-7
- Caponecchia, C., Sun, A. Z., & Wyatt, A. (2012). ‘Psychopaths’ at work? Implications of lay persons’ use of labels and behavioural criteria for psychopathy. *Journal of Business Ethics*, *107*(4), 399–408. doi:10.1007/s10551-011-1049-9
- Cassidy, T., McLaughlin, M., & McDowell, E. (2014). Bullying and health at work: The mediating roles of psychological capital and social support. *Work & Stress*, *28*, 255–269. doi:10.1080/02678373.2014.927020
- Cegarra-Leiva, D., Sánchez-Vidal, M. E., & Cegarra-Navarro, J. G. (2012). Understanding the link between work life balance practices and organizational



- outcomes in SMEs: The mediating effect of a supportive culture. *Personnel Review*, 41, 359–379. doi:10.1108/00483481211212986
- Chan, M., & McAllister, D. (2014). Abusive Supervision through the Lens of Employee State of Paranoia. *Academy of Management Review*, 39, 1, 44–46. doi.org/10.5465/amr.2011.0419
- Chang, A., Chiang, H. H., & Han, T. S. (2012). A multilevel investigation of relationships among brand-centered HRM, brand psychological ownership, brand citizenship behaviors, and customer satisfaction. *European Journal of Marketing*, 46(5), 626–662. doi.org/10.1108/03090561211212458
- Chekwa, C., & Thomas, E., Jr. (2013). Workplace bullying: Is it a matter of growth? *Journal of Diversity Management*, 8(1), 44–50. doi.org/10.19030/jdm.v8i1.7853
- Chiaburu, D. S., Muñoz, G. J., & Gardner, R. G. (2013). How to spot a careerist early on: Psychopathy and exchange ideology as predictors of careerism. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 118(3), 473–486. doi.org/10.1007/s10551-012-1599-5
- Chirilă, T., & Constantin, T. (2013). Understanding workplace bullying phenomenon through its concepts: A literature review. *Procedia-Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 84, 1175–1179. doi:10.1016/j.sbspro.2013.06.722
- Cicala, J. E., Bush, A. J., Sherrell, D. L., & Deitz, G. D. (2014). Does transparency influence the ethical behavior of salespeople? *Journal of Business Research*, 67(9), 1787–1795. doi.org/10.1016/j.jbusres.2013.12.011
- Cilliers, F. (2012). A systems psychodynamic description of organizational bullying experiences. *South African Journal of Industrial Psychology*, 38(2), 1–11. doi:10.4102/sajip.v38i2.994

- Cleavenger, D. J., & Munyon, T. P. (2013). It's how you frame it: Transformational leadership and the meaning of work. *Business Horizons*, 56(3), 351–360.  
doi.org/10.1016/j.bushor.2013.01.002
- Coakes, S., & Steed, L. (1997). *SPSS: Analysis without anguish*. Brisbane: John Wiley and Sons.
- Cooper-Thomas, H., Gardner, D., O'Driscoll, M., Catley, B., Bentley, T., & Trenberth, L. (2013). Neutralizing workplace bullying: the buffering effects of contextual factors. *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, 28(4), 384–407. doi.org/10.1108/jmp-12-2012-0399
- Cowan, R. L. (2012). It's complicated: Defining workplace bullying from the human resource professional's perspective. *Management Communication Quarterly*, 26(3), 377–403. doi.org/10.1177/0893318912439474
- Cunniff, L., & Mostert, K. (2012). Prevalence of workplace bullying of South African employees. *SA Journal Of Human Resource Management*, 10(1).  
doi:10.4102/sajhrm.v10i1.450
- Davidson, D., & Harrington, K. V. (2012). Workplace bullying: It's not just about lunch money anymore. *Southern Journal of Business and Ethics*, 4, 93–99.
- D'Cruz, P., & Noronha, E. (2014). Workplace bullying in the context of organizational change: The significance of pluralism. *Industrial Relations Journal*, 45, 2–21.  
doi:10.1111/irj.12039
- DeTienne, K., Agle, B., Phillips, J., & Ingerson, M. C. (2012). The impact of moral stress compared to other stressors on employee fatigue, job satisfaction, and turnover:

An empirical investigation. *Journal Business Ethics*, 110, 377–391. doi:10.1007/s10551-011-1197-y

- Devonish, D. (2013). Workplace bullying, employee performance and behaviors: The mediating role of psychological well-being. *Employee Relations*, 35(6), 630–647. doi.org/10.1108/er-01-2013-0004
- Devonish, D. (2014). Job demands, health, and absenteeism: Does bullying make things worse? *Employee Relations*, 36, 165–181. doi:10.1108/ER-01-2013-0011
- Diekmann, K. A., Walker, S. D. S., Galinsky, A. D., & Tenbrunsel, A. E. (2013). Double victimization in the workplace: Why observers condemn passive victims of sexual harassment. *Organization Science*, 24, 614–628. doi:10.1287/orsc.1120.0753
- Dinh, J. E., & Lord, R. G. (2012). Implications of dispositional and process views of traits for individual difference research in leadership. *Leadership Quarterly*, 23, 651–669. doi.org/10.1016/j.leaqua.2012.03.003
- Domínguez, E. S. (2013). Work stressors and creativity. *Management*, 16, 479–504. doi.org/10.3917/mana.164.0479
- Douglas, C. (2012). The moderating role of leader and follower sex in dyads on the leadership behavior-leader effectiveness relationships. *Leadership Quarterly*, 23, 163–175. doi:10.1016/j.leaqua.2011.11.013
- Doty, J., & Fenlason, J. (2013, January-February). Narcissism and toxic leaders. *Military Review*, 55–60. Retrieved from [http://usacac.army.mil/CAC2/MilitaryReview/Archives/English/MilitaryReview\\_201302\\_28\\_art012.pdf](http://usacac.army.mil/CAC2/MilitaryReview/Archives/English/MilitaryReview_201302_28_art012.pdf)

- Dumay, J., & Marini, L. (2012). Bullying in context: a risk management perspective. *Journal of Human Resource Costing & Accounting*, 16, 281–301.  
doi.org/10.1108/14013381211317257
- Einarsen, S., Aasland, M. S., & Skogstad, A. (2007). Destructive leadership behaviour: A definition and conceptual model. *Leadership Quarterly*, 18, 207–216.  
doi.org/10.1016/j.leaqua.2007.03.002
- Einarsen, S., Hoel, H., & Notelaers, G. (2009). Measuring exposure to bullying and harassment at work: Validity, factor structure and psychometric properties of the Negative Acts Questionnaire-Revised. *Work & Stress*, 23(1), 24–44.  
doi:10.1080/02678370902815673
- Einarsen, S., Hoel, H., Zapf, D., & Cooper, C. (2003). *Bullying and emotional abuse in the workplace*. London, England: Taylor & Francis.
- Einarsen, S., Raknes, B. I., & Matthiesen, S. M. (1994). Bullying and harassment at work and their relationships to work environment quality an exploratory study. *European Work and Organizational Psychologist*, 4, 381–401.  
doi.org/10.1080/13594329408410497
- Eisenberg, A. K. (2015). Criminal infliction of emotional distress. *Michigan Law Review*, 113, 607–662.
- Elgin, S. H. (1988), The gentle art of defending yourself against verbal abuse. *O.R. Manager*, 4 (5), 5–7.
- Emdad, R., Alipour, A., Hagberg, J., & Jensen, I. B. (2013). Comment on “Can observations of workplace bullying really make you depressed? A response to Emdad et al. 2013” by Nielsen and Einarsen. *International Archives of*

*Occupational & Environmental Health*, 86, 723–724. doi:10.1007/s00420-013-0869-6

- Ertureten, A., Cemalcilar, Z., & Aycan, Z. (2013). The relationship of downward mobbing with leadership style and organizational attitudes. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 116, 205–216. doi:10.1007/s10551-012-1468-2
- Estrin, C. B. (1996). Emotional abuse in the workplace: Breaking the code of silence. *Legal Assistant Today*, 78–79.
- Fairfield, G., & Uhl-Bien, M. (2012). Organizational discourse analysis (ODA): Examining leadership as a relational process. *Leadership Quarterly*, 23(6), 1043–1062. doi.org/10.1016/j.leaqua.2012.10.005
- Feldt, T., Huhtala, M., Kinnunen, U., Hyvonen, K., Mäkikangas, A., & Sonnentag, S. (2013). Long-term patterns of effort-reward imbalance and over-commitment: Investigating occupational well-being and recovery experiences as outcomes. *Work & Stress*, 27, 64–87. doi:10.1080/02678373.2013.765670
- Ferry, L., & Eckersley, P. (2015). Accountability and transparency: A nuanced response to Etzioni. *Public Administration Review*, 75, 11–12. doi.org/10.1111/puar.12303
- Fischer, F. M., & Martinez, M. C. (2013). Individual features, working conditions and work injuries are associated with work ability among nursing professionals. *Work: A Journal of Prevention, Assessment and Rehabilitation*, 45, 509–517. doi:10.3233/WOR-131637
- Fiske, D. W. (1949). Consistency of the factorial structures of personality ratings from different sources. *Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology*, 44, 329–344. doi.org/10.1037/h0057198

- Foss, N. J., & Hallberg, N. L. (2014). How symmetrical assumptions advance strategic management research. *Strategic Management Journal*, 35, 903–913.  
doi:10.1002/smj.2130
- Fredericksen, E. D., & McCorkle, S. (2013). Explaining organizational responses to workplace aggression. *Public Personnel Management*, 42(2), 223–238.  
doi.org/10.1177/0091026013487050
- Freud, S. (1989). Part five: Transitions and revisions, In P. Gay (Ed.), *The Freud reader*. New York, NY: Norton & Company.
- Furnham, A. (2010). *The elephant in the board room*. Basingstoke: Palgrave Macmillan.  
doi.org/10.1057/9780230281226
- Galanaki, E., & Papalexandris, N. (2013). Measuring workplace bullying in organisations. *International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 24, 2107–2130. doi:10.1080/09585192.2012.725084
- Gaskin, C. J., & Happell, B. (2014). On exploratory factor analysis: A review of recent evidence, an assessment of current practice, and recommendations for future use. *International Journal of Nursing Studies*, 51(3), 511–521.  
doi.org/10.1016/j.ijnurstu.2013.10.005
- Gelfand, M. J., Leslie, L. M., Keller, K., & de Dreu, C. (2012). Conflict cultures in organizations: How leaders shape conflict cultures and their organizational-level consequences. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 2012, Vol. 97, No. 6, 1131-1147.  
doi: 10.1037/a00299993.

- Geller, E. S. (2015). Seven life lessons from humanistic behaviorism: How to bring the best out of yourself and others. *Journal of Organizational Behavior Management*, 35, 151–170. doi:10.1080/01608061.2015.1031427
- Gentry, W., Deal, J., Stawiski, S., & Ruderman, M. (2012). *Are leaders born or made?* Center for Creative Leadership. Retrieved from <http://www.ccl.org/leadership/pdf/research/areleadersbornormade.pdf>
- George, D., & Mallery, P. (2010). *SPSS for Windows step by step: A simple guide and reference, 18.0 update* (11th ed.). Boston, MA: Allyn and Bacon.
- Gholamzadeh, D., & Khazaneh, A. T. (2012). Surveying the relationship between leadership styles, organizational health and workplace bullying. *Journal of Global Strategic Management*, 6, 5. doi.org/10.20460/jgsm.2012615770
- Gilbert, J. A., Carr-Ruffino, N., Ivancevich, J. M., & Konopaske, R. (2012). Toxic versus cooperative behaviors at work: The role of organizational culture and leadership in creating community-centered organizations. *Leadership & Entrepreneurship: Virginia Beach, VA*, 29.
- Giorgi, G., Shoss, M. K., & Leon-Perez, J. M. (2015). Going beyond workplace stressors: Economic crisis and perceived employability in relation to psychological distress 106 and job dissatisfaction. *International Journal of Stress Management*, 22, 137–158. doi:10.1037/a0038900
- Glabek, M., Matthiesen, S. B., Hetland, J., & Einarsen, S. (2014). Workplace bullying as an antecedent to job insecurity and intention to leave: A 6-month prospective study. *Human Resource Management Journal*, 24, 255–268. doi:10.1111/17488583.12035

- Glasø, L., Nielsen, M. B., Einarsen, S., Haugland, K., & Matthiesen, S. B. (2009). Grunnleggende antagelser og symptomer på posttraumatisk stresslidelse blant mobbeofre *Tidsskrift for Norsk Psykologforening*, 46, 153–160.
- Glasø, L., & Notelaers, G. (2012). Workplace bullying, emotions, and outcomes. *Violence and Victims*, 27(3), 360-377. doi.org/10.1891/0886-6708.27.3.360
- Gregor, S. (2015). Fighting back: Workplace bullying in Australia. *Australian Psychological Society*. Retrieved from <http://www.psychology.org.au/publications/>
- Grimmelikhuijsen, S. G., & Welch, E. W. (2012). Developing and testing a theoretical framework for computer-mediated transparency of local governments. *Public Administration Review*, 72(4), 562–571. doi.org/10.1111/j.1540-6210.2011.02532.x
- Guest, D. E., & Woodrow, C. (2012). Exploring the boundaries of human resource managers' responsibilities. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 111, 109–119. doi:10.1007/s10551-012-1438-8
- Gumbus, A., & Lyons, B. (2011). Workplace harassment: The social costs of bullying. *Journal of Leadership, Accountability and Ethics*, 8, 72–89.
- Hall, R., & Lewis, S. (2014). Managing workplace bullying and social media policy: Implications for employee engagement. *Academy of Business Research Journal*, 1, 128–138.
- Harms, P. D., Spain, S. M., & Hannah, S. T. (2011). Leader development and the dark side of personality. *Leadership Quarterly*, 22, 495–509. doi:0.1016/7.leaqua.2011.04.007



- Harrington, S., Warren, S., & Rayner, C. (2013). Human resource management practitioners' responses to workplace bullying: Cycles of symbolic violence. *Organization*, 2–22. doi:10.1177/1350508413516175
- Harvey, M., Treadway, D., Heames, J. T., & Duke, A. (2009). Bullying in the 21st century global organisation: An ethical perspective. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 85(1), 27–40. doi.org/10.1007/s10551-008-9746-8
- Hauge, L. J., Skogstad, A., & Einarsen, S. (2009) Individual and situational predictors of workplace bullying: Why do perpetrators engage in bullying of others? *Work & Stress: An International Journal of Work, Health & Organizations*, 23(4).
- Hepburn, C. G., & Enns, J. R. (2013). Social undermining and well-being: The role of communal orientation. *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, 28, 354–366. doi:10.1108/JMP-01-2013-0011
- Herscovis, M. S., Reich, T. C., Parker, S. K., & Bozeman, J. (2012). The relationship between workplace aggression and target deviant behavior: The moderating roles of power and task interdependence. *Work and Stress*, 26, 1–20. doi:10.1080/02678373.2012.660770
- Ho, V. (2012). Interpersonal counterproductive work behaviors: Distinguishing between person-focused versus task-focused behaviors and their antecedents. *Journal of Business & Psychology*, 27, 467–482. doi:10.1007/s10869-012-9256-7
- Hodgins, M., Mac Curtain, S., & Mannix-McNamara, P. (2014). Workplace Bullying and Incivility: A Systematic Review of Interventions. *International Journal of Workplace Bullying Health Management*, 7(1), 54–72. doi.org/10.1108/ijwhm-08-2013-0030

- Hoel, H., Rayner, C., & Cooper, C. L. (1999) Workplace bullying. In C. L. Cooper and I. T. Robertson (eds.), *International review of industrial and organizational psychology*, vol. 14 (pp. 195–230). Chichester, UK: Wiley.
- Hogan, J., Hogan, R., & Kaiser, R. B. (2011). Management derailment. *APA Handbook of Industrial and Organization Psychology*, 3, 555–575. doi:10.1037/12171-015
- Hogan, R., Raskin, R., & Fazzini, D. (1990). The dark side of charisma. In K. Clark, & M. Clark (Eds.), *Measures of leadership* (pp. 343-354). West Orange, NJ: Leadership Library of America.
- Hoel, H., & Beale, D. (2006). Workplace bullying, psychological perspectives and industrial relations: Towards a contextualized and interdisciplinary approach. *British Journal of Industrial Relations*, 44(2), 239–262. doi:10.1111/j.1467-8543.2006.00496
- Holtzman, N. S., Vazire, S., & Mehl, M. R. (2010). Sounds like a narcissist: Behavioral manifestations of narcissism in everyday life. *Journal of Research in Personality*, 44(4), 478–484. doi:10.1016/j.jrp.2010.06.001
- Hornstein, H. A. (2003). Workplace incivility: An unavoidable product of human nature and organizational nurturing. *Ivey Business Journal*, 68(2), 1–7.
- House, R. J. (1977). A 1976 theory of charismatic leadership. In J. G. Hunt & L. L. Larson (Eds.), *Leadership: The cutting edge*. Carbondale: Southern Illinois University Press.
- Houshmand, M., O'Reilly, J., Robinson, S., & Wolff, A. (2012). Escaping bullying: The simultaneous impact of individual and unit-level bullying on turnover intentions. *Human Relations*, 65(7), 901–918. doi.org/10.1177/0018726712445100

- Howell, D. C. (2013). *Statistical methods for psychology* (8th ed.). Belmont CA: Wadsworth Cengage Learning.
- Howell, J. M., & Avolio, B. J. (1992). The ethics of charismatic leadership: Submission or liberation? *Academy of Management Executive*, 6, 43–54.  
doi.org/10.5465/ame.1992.4274395
- Ilies, R., Gerhardt, M. W., & Le., H. (2004). “Individual Differences in Leadership Emergence: Integrating Meta-Analytic Findings and Behavioral Genetics Estimates.” *International Journal of Selection and Assessment*, 12(3), 207–219.  
doi.org/10.1111/j.0965-075x.2004.00275.x
- Indvik, J., & Johnson, P. R. (2012). Lawsuits walk in on two feet: The bully in the workplace. *Journal of Organizational Culture, Communications & Conflict*, 16(2), 73–77.
- Jenkins, M. F., Winefield, H., & Sarris, A. (2013). Perceptions of unfairness in the management of bullying complaints: exploring the consequences. *International Journal of Business Administration*, 4(4),16. doi:10.5430/ijba.v4n4p16
- Johnson, J., Dakens, L., Edwards, P., & Morse, N. (2008). *SwitchPoints: Culture Change On The Fast Track For Business Success*. WILEY: John Wiley & Sons, Inc.
- Johnson, S. L. (2015). Creating effective anti-bullying policies. *Nursing Management*, 46(5), 40–45. doi:10.1097/01.NUMA.0000463885.99823.d9
- Kaiser, R. B., & Craig, S. B. (2013). *Destructive leadership in and of organizations*. In D.V. Day (Ed.), *The Oxford handbook of leadership and organizations*. Oxford, England: Oxford University Press.

- Kalliath, T., & Kalliath, P. (2012). Changing work environments and employee wellbeing: An introduction. *International Journal of Manpower*, 33, 729–737. doi:10.1108/01437721211268285
- Kang, H. J., Gatling, A., & Kim, J. (2015). The impact of supervisory support on organizational commitment, career satisfaction, and turnover intention for hospitality frontline employees. *Journal of Human Resources in Hospitality & Tourism*, 14(1), 68–89. doi:10.1080/15332845.2014.904176
- Kehoe, R. R., & Wright, P. M. (2013). The impact of high-performance human resource practices on employees' attitudes and behaviors. *Journal of Management*, 39, 366–391. doi:10.1177/0149206310365901
- Kets de Vries, M. F. R. (2005). Leadership group coaching in action: The zen of creating high performance teams. *Academy of Management Executive*, 19(1), 61–76. doi:10.5465/AME.2005.15841953
- Kets de Vries, M. (2010). *Reflections on leadership and career development*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.
- Kets de Vries, M. F. R., & Miller, D. (1985). Narcissism and leadership: An object relations perspective. *Human Relations*, 38(6), 583–601. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1177/001872678503800606>
- Kirkpatrick, S. A., & Locke, E. A. (1991). *Leadership: do traits matter?* *Academy of Management Executive*, 1991 Vol.5 No. 2, Retrieved June, 2013 from [http://sbuweb.tcu.edu/jmathis/Org\\_Mgmt\\_Materials/Leadership - Do Traits Matgter.pdf](http://sbuweb.tcu.edu/jmathis/Org_Mgmt_Materials/Leadership - Do Traits Matgter.pdf)

- Kochan, F. (2013). Analyzing the relationships between culture and mentoring. *Mentoring & Tutoring: Partnership in Learning*, 21, 412-430.  
doi:10.1080/13611267.2013.855862
- Kohut, H. (1971). *The analysis of the self: A systematic analysis of the treatment of the narcissistic personality disorder*. Chicago, IL: University of Chicago Press.
- Kossek, E. E., Kalliath, T., & Kalliath, P. (2012). Achieving employee well-being in a changing work environment: An expert commentary on current scholarship. *International Journal of Manpower*, 33, 738–753. doi:10.1108/01437721211268294
- Krasikova, D. V., Green, S. G., & LeBreton, J. M. (2013). Destructive leadership: A theoretical review, integration, and future research agenda. *Journal of Management*, 39(5), 1308–1338. doi:10.1177/0149206312471388
- Kumar, G., Jain, A., & Kumar, B. (2012). Bullying in the workplace: Recognition and management. *Obstetrician & Gynaecologist*, 14, 130–135.  
doi:10.1111/j.17444667.2012.00103.x
- Kuyper, L. (2015). Differences in workplace experiences between lesbian, gay, bisexual, and heterosexual employees in a representative population study. *Psychology of Sexual Orientation and Gender Diversity*, 2, 1–11. doi:10.1037/sgd0000083
- Laschinger, H. K. S., & Fida, R. (2014). A time-lagged analysis of the effect of authentic leadership on workplace bullying, burnout, and occupational turnover intentions. *European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology*, 23, 739–753.  
doi:10.1080/1359432X.2013.804646

- Leedy, P. D., & Ormrod, J. E. (2013). *Practical research: planning and design* (10th ed.). New York, NY: Pearson.
- Leon-Perez, J. M., Medina, F. J., Arenas, A., & Munduate, L. (2015). The relationship between interpersonal conflict and workplace bullying. *Journal of Managerial Psychology, 30*, 250–263. doi:10.1108/JMP-01-2013-0034
- Lipman-Blumen, J. (2005). The allure of toxic leaders: Why followers rarely escape their clutches. *Ivey Business Journal 69*, 3.
- Lipsey, M. W., & Wilson, D. B. (1993). The efficacy of psychological, educational, and behavioral treatment: Confirmation from meta-analysis. *American Psychologist, 48*(12), 1181–1209. doi.org/10.1037//0003-066x.48.12.1181
- Lubit, R. (2002). The long-term organizational impact of destructively narcissistic managers. *Academy of Management Executive, 16*(1), 127–138. doi.org/10.5465/ame.2002.6640218
- Lutgen-Sandvik, P. (2013). *Adult bullying-A nasty piece of work: Translating decade of research on non-sexual harassment, psychological terror, mobbing, and emotional abuse on the job*. St. Louis, MO: ORCM Academic Press.
- Lutgen-Sandvik, P., & McDermott, V. (2008). The constitution of employee-abusive organizations: A communication flows theory. *Communication Theory, 18*(2), 304–333. doi:10.1111/j.1468-2885.2008.00324
- Maccoby, M. (2004). Narcissistic leaders: The incredible pros, the inevitable cons. *Harvard Business Review*. Retrieved from <https://hbr.org/>

- Martinko, M., Sikora, D., & Harvey, P., Brees, R., & Mackey, J. (2013). A review of abusive supervision. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 34(S1), S120–S137. doi:10.1002/job.1888
- Mathisen, G., Einarsen, S., & Mykletun, R. (2011). The relationship between supervisor personality, supervisors' perceived stress and workplace bullying. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 99(4), 637–651. doi:10.1007/s10551-010-0674-z
- Mawritz, M. B., Mayer, D. M., Hoobler, J. M., Wayne, S. J., & Marinova, S. V. (2012). A trickle-down model of abusive supervision. *Personnel Psychology*, 65(2), 325–357. doi.org/10.1111/j.1744-6570.2012.01246.x
- Mayer, C. H., & Krause, C. (2011). Promoting mental health and salutogenesis in transcultural organisational contexts. *International Review of Psychiatry*, 23(6), 495–500. doi.org/10.3109/09540261.2011.636549
- McLean, B., & Elkind, P. (2013). *The smartest guys in the room: The amazing rise and scandalous fall of Enron*. London, England: Penguin.
- McTernan, W., Dollard, M., & LaMontagne, A. (2013). Depression in the workplace: An economic cost analysis of depression-related productivity loss attributable to job strain and bullying. *Work & Stress*, 27, 321–338. doi:10.1080/02678373.2013.846948
- McVicar, A., Munn-Giddings, C., & Seebohm, P. (2013). Workplace stress interventions using participatory action research designs. *International Journal of Workplace Health Management*, 6, 18–37. doi:10.1108/17538351311312303

- Meglich, P. A., Faley, R. H., & DuBois, C. L. Z. (2012). The influence of actions and actors on the perceived severity of workplace bullying. *Journal of Management Policy & Practice, 13*, 11–25.
- Mehta, S., & Maheshwari, G. C. (2013). Consequences of toxic leadership on employee job satisfaction and organizational commitment. *Journal Contemporary Management Research, 8*(2), 1–23. Retrieved from <http://www.cmr-journal.org/>
- Mehta, S., & Maheshwari, G. C. (2014). Toxic leadership: Tracing the destructive trail. *International Journal of Management, 5* (10), 18–24.
- Meier, L. L., & Semmer, N. K. (2012). Lack of reciprocity and strain: Narcissism as a moderator of the association between feeling under-benefited and irritation. *Work & Stress, 26*(1), 56–67. doi.org/10.1080/02678373.2012.657038
- Mertler, C. A., & Charles, C. M. (2011). *Introduction to educational research*. Boston: Pearson/Allyn & Bacon.
- Miller, J., & Campbell, W. (2008). Comparing clinical and social-personality conceptualizations of narcissism. *Journal of Personality, 76*(3), 449–476. doi:15310.1111/j.1467-6494.2008.00492.x
- Mischel, W., & Shoda, Y. (1995). A cognitive-affective system theory of personality: Reconceptualizing situations, dispositions, dynamics, and invariance in personality structure. *Psychological Review, 102*(2), 246–268. doi.org/10.1037//0033-295x.102.2.246
- Mustafa, R. F. (2011). The P.O.E.Ms of educational research: A beginner's concise guide. *International Education Studies, 4*(3), 23–30. doi.org/10.5539/ies.v4n3p23



- Namie, G. (2012a). The WBI website 2012 instant poll B - Employer workplace bullying policies. *Workplace Bullying Institute*. Retrieved from <http://www.workplacebullying.org/multi/pdf/WBI-2012-IP-B.pdf>
- Namie, G. (2012b). The WBI website 2012 instant poll C - Aftermath from requesting help from human resources. *Workplace Bullying Institute*. Retrieved from <http://www.workplacebullying.org/multi/pdf/WBI-2012-IP-C.pdf>
- Namie, G. (2014a). The Healthy Workplace Campaign: Healthy Workplace Bill: 2013-2014 Legislative Activity. Retrieved from <http://www.healtyworkplacebill.org/states/ca/california.php>
- Namie, G. (2014b). 2014 WBI U.S. Workplace Bullying Survey February: 2014 Workplace Bullying Institute. Retrieved from <http://www.workplacebullying.org>
- Neall, A. M., & Tuckey, M. R. (2014). A methodological review of research on the antecedents and consequences of workplace harassment. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, 87(2), 225–257. doi.org/10.1111/joop.12059
- Nelson, A. (2014). How to handle a bully. *NZ Business*, 28(5), 62.
- Neves, P., & Eisenberger, R. (2014). Perceived organizational support and risk taking. *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, 29(2), 187–205. doi.org/10.1108/jmp-07-2011-0021
- Newman, A., Thanacoody, R., & Hui, W. (2012). The effects of perceived organizational support, perceived supervisor support and intra-organizational network resources on turnover intentions: A study of Chinese employees in multinational enterprises. *Personnel Review*, 41(1) 56–72. doi.org/10.1108/00483481211189947

- Nielsen, M. B. (2013). Bullying in work groups: The impact of leadership. *Scandinavian Journal of Psychology, 54*, 127–136. doi:10.1111/sjop.12011
- Nielsen, M. B., & Knardahl, S. (2015). Is workplace bullying related to the personality traits of victims? A two-year prospective study. *Work & Stress, 29*, 128–149. doi:10.1080/02678373.2015.1032383
- O’Boyle, E. R., Forsyth, D. R., Banks, G. C., & McDaniel, M. A. (2012). A meta-analysis of the Dark Triad and work behavior: A social exchange perspective. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 97*(3), 557–579. doi:10.1037/a0025679
- O’Reilly, C. A., III, Doerr, B., Caldwell, D. F., & Chatman, J. A. (2013). Narcissistic CEOs and executive compensation. *Leadership Quarterly*. Retrieved from [http://haas.berkeley.edu/faculty/papers/chatman\\_narcissism.pdf](http://haas.berkeley.edu/faculty/papers/chatman_narcissism.pdf)
- Osborne, J. W., & Costello, A. B. (2009). Best practices in exploratory factor analysis: Four recommendations for getting the most from your analysis. *Pan-Pacific Management Review, 12*(2), 86-89. doi.org/10.4135/9781412995627.d8
- Padilla, A., Hogan, R., & Kaiser, R. B. (2007) The toxic triangle: Destructive leaders, susceptible followers, and conducive environments. *Leadership Quarterly, 18*, 176-194. doi.org/10.1016/j.leaqua.2007.03.001
- Pate, J., Morgan-Thomas, A., & Beaumont, P. (2012). Trust restoration: An examination of senior managers attempt to rebuild employee trust. *Human Resource Management Journal, 22*(2), 148–164. doi.org/10.1111/j.1748-8583.2012.00194.x
- Paull, M., & Omari, M. (2015). Dignity and respect: important in volunteer settings too! *Equality, Diversity & Inclusion, 34*, 244–255. doi:10.1108/EDI-05-2014-0033

- Peterson, R. S. (2014) Beyond control. *Business Strategy Review*, 25(1), 79–81.  
doi:10.1111/j1467-8616.2014.01037
- Pilch, I., & Turska, E. (2015). Relationships between Machiavellianism, organizational culture, and workplace bullying: Emotional abuse from the target's and the perpetrator's perspective. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 128(1), 83–93. doi: 10.1007/s10551-014-2081-3
- Poilpot-Rocaboy, G. (2006). Bullying in the workplace: A proposed model for understanding the psychological harassment process. *Research and Practice in Human Resource Management*, 14(2), 1–17.
- Porter, L., & McLaughlin, G. (2006). Leadership and the organizational context: Like the weather? *The Leadership Quarterly*, 17, 559-576.  
doi.org/10.1016/j.leaqua.2006.10.002
- Qureshi, M. I., Rasli, A., & Zaman, K. (2014). A new trilogy to understand the relationship among organizational climate, workplace bullying and employee health. *Science Direct*. doi:10.1016/j.aebj.2014.05.009
- Rasool, F., Arzu, F., Hasan, A., Rafi, A., & Kashif, A. R. (2013). Workplace bullying and intention to leave: The moderating effect of the organizational commitment. *Information Management and Business Review*, 5(4), 175–180.
- Reiter-Palmon, R., & Ilies, J. J. (2004). Leadership and creativity: Understanding leadership from a creative problem-solving perspective. *Psychology Faculty Publications*. Paper 31. <http://digitalcommons.unomaha.edu/psychfacpub/31>

- Rodkin, P. C., Espelage, D. L., & Hanish, L. D. (2015). A relational framework for understanding bullying: Developmental antecedents and outcomes. *American Psychologist, 70*, 311–321. doi:10.1037/a0038658
- Ruttan, R. L., McDonnell, M., & Nordgren, L. F. (2015). Having “been there” doesn’t mean I care: When prior experience reduces compassion for emotional distress. *Journal of Personality & Social Psychology, 108*, 610–622. doi:10.1037/pspi0000012
- Salin, D., & Hoel, H. (2013). Workplace bullying as a gendered phenomenon. *Journal of Managerial Psychology, 28*(3), 235–251. doi.org/10.1108/02683941311321187
- Samnani, A., & Singh, P. (2013). When leaders victimize: The role of charismatic leaders in facilitating group pressures. *Leadership Quarterly, 24*(1), 189-202. doi:10.1016/j.leaqua.2012.10.006
- Schein, E. H. (2010). *Organizational culture and leadership* (4th ed.). San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.
- Schumann, L., Craig, W., & Rosu, A. (2014). Power differentials in bullying: Individuals in a community context. *Journal of Interpersonal Violence, 29*, 846–865. doi:10.1177/0886260513505708
- Schyns, B., & Schilling, J. (2013). How bad are the effects of bad leaders? A meta-analysis of destructive leadership and its outcomes. *Leadership Quarterly, 24*(1), 138–158. doi.org/10.1016/j.leaqua.2012.09.001
- Seigner, E., Coyne, I., Randall, P., & Parker, J. (2007). Personality traits of bullies as a contributory factor in workplace bullying: An exploratory study. *International Journal of Organization Theory and Behavior, 10*(1), 118–132.

- Sercombe, H., & Donnelly, B. (2013). Bullying and agency: Definition, intervention and ethics. *Journal of Youth Studies, 16*, 491–502.  
doi:10.1080/13676261.2012.725834
- Sheard, A. G., Kakabadse, N., & Kakabadse, A. (2013). Destructive behaviors and leadership: The source of the shift from a functional to dysfunctional workplace? *International Journal of Social Science Studies, 1*(1), 73–89.  
doi.org/10.11114/ijsss.v1i1.31
- Sims, R. R. (2003). *Ethics and corporate social responsibility: Why giants fall*. Westport, CT: Praeger.
- Skogstad, A., Einarsen, S., Torsheim, T., Aasland, M., & Hetland, H. (2007). The destructiveness of Laissez-faire leadership behavior. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology, 12*(1), 80–92. doi.org/10.1037/1076-8998.12.1.80
- Spurgeon, P., Mazelan, P., & Barwell, F. (2012). The organizational stress measure: An integrated methodology for assessing job-stress and targeting organizational interventions. *Health Services Management Research, 25*, 7–15.  
doi:10.1258/hsmr.2011.011016.
- Swearer, S. M., & Hymel, S. (2015). Understanding the psychology of bullying: Moving toward a social-ecological diathesis–stress model. *American Psychologist, 70*, 344–353. doi:10.1037/a0038929
- Swearer, S. M., Wang, C., Berry, B., & Myers, Z. R. (2014). Reducing bullying: Application of social cognitive theory. *Theory Into Practice, 53*, 271–277.  
doi:10.1080/00405841.2014.947221

- Tabachnick, B. G., & Fidell, L. S. (2012). *Using multivariate statistics* (6th ed.). Boston, MA: Pearson.
- Tambur, M., & Vadi, M. (2012). Workplace bullying and organizational culture in a posttransitional country. *International Journal of Manpower*, *33*, 754–768.  
doi:10.1108/01437721211268302
- Tavanti, M. (2011). Managing toxic leaders: Dysfunctional patterns in organizational leadership and how to deal with them. *Human Resource Management*, *6*, 127–136.
- Taylor, C. (2016). *Walking the Talk: Building a Culture for Success*. Random House
- Tepper, B. J., Moss, S. E., & Duffy, M. K. (2011). Predictors of abusive supervision: Supervisor perceptions of deep-level dissimilarity, relationship conflict, and Subordinate performance. *Academy of Management Journal*, *43*, 279–294.  
doi:0.5465/AMJ.2011.60263085
- Thoroughgood, C. N., & Padilla, A. (2013). Destructive leadership and the Penn State Scandal: A toxic triangle perspective. *Industrial and Organizational Psychology*, *6*, 144–149. doi:10.1111/iops.12025.v
- Thoroughgood, C. N., Padilla, A., Hunter, S. T., & Tate, B. W. (2012). The susceptible circle: A taxonomy of followers associated with destructive leadership. *Leadership Quarterly*, *23*, 897–917. doi.org/10.1016/j.leaqua.2012.05.007
- Thoroughgood, C. N., Tate, B. W., Sawyer, K. B., & Jacobs, R. (2012a). Bad to the bone: Empirically defining and measuring destructive leader behavior. *Journal of Leadership and Organizational Studies*, *19*, 230–255.  
doi.org/10.1177/1548051811436327

- Tipu, S. A. A., Ryan, J. C., & Fantazy, K. A. (2012). Transformational leadership in Pakistan: An examination of the relationship of transformational leadership to organizational culture and innovation propensity. *Journal of Management & Organization, 18*, 461–480. doi:10.5172/jmo.2012.18.4.461
- Tolerance. (2017). In *OxfordDictionaries.com*. Retrieved from <https://en.oxforddictionaries.com/definition/tolerance>
- Treadway, D. C., Shaughnessy, B. A., Breland, J. W., Yang, J., & Reeves, M. (2013). When bullying pays off: Political skill and the job performance of bullies. *Journal of Managerial Psychology, 28*(3), 273–289. doi.org/10.1037/e518362013-424
- Trépanier, S., Fernet, C., & Austin, S. (2015). A longitudinal investigation of workplace bullying, basic need satisfaction, and employee functioning. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology, 20*, 105–116. doi:10.1037/a0037726
- Tuckey, M. R., & Neall, A. M. (2014). Workplace bullying erodes job and personal resources: Between and within person perspectives. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology, 19*, 413–424. doi:10.1037/a0037728
- Van der Kolk, B. (2005). Developmental trauma disorder. *Psychiatric Annals, 35*, 439–448. doi.org/10.1037/e517292011-309
- Valentine, S., Fleischman, G., & Godkin, L. (2015). Rogues in the ranks of selling organizations: Using corporate ethics to manage workplace bullying and job satisfaction. *Journal of Personal Selling & Sales Management, 35*, 143–163. doi:10.1080/08853134.2015.1010542

- Vartia, M. (2012). Consequences of workplace bullying with respect to well-being of its targets and the observers of bullying. *Scandinavian Journal of Work Environment and Health* 27, 63–69. doi.org/10.5271/sjweh.588
- Vickers, M. H. (2014). Workplace bullying as workplace corruption: A higher education, creative nonfiction case study. *Administration & Society*, 46, 960–985. doi:10.1177/0095399713498750
- Vickers, M. H. (2015). Telling tales to share multiple truths: Disability and workplace bullying—A semi-fiction case study. *Employee Responsibilities & Rights Journal*, 27, 27–45. doi:10.1007/s10672-014-9246-1
- Vie, T. L., Glasø, L., & Einarsen, S. (2010). Does trait anger, trait anxiety, or organizational position moderate the relationship between exposure to negative acts and self labeling as a victim of workplace bullying? *Nordic Psychology*, 62, 67–79. doi.org/10.1027/1901-2276/a000017
- Vladu, A. B., Matis, D., & Salas, O. A. (2012). True and fair view and creative accounting conceptual delimitations based on Papineau’s tree methodology. *Annales Universitatis Apulensis: Series Oeconomica*, 14, 104–115.
- Walinga, J., & Rowe, W. (2013). Transforming stress in complex work environments: Exploring the capabilities of middle managers in the public sector. *International Journal of Workplace Health Management*, 6, 66–88. doi:10.1108/17538351311312420
- Whitaker, T. (2012). Social workers and workplace bullying: Perceptions, responses and implications. *Work*, 42, 115–123.



- Wiedmer, T. L. (2011). Workplace bullying: Costly and preventable. *Delta Kappa Gamma Bulletin*, 77(2), 35–41.
- Woodrow, C., & Guest, D. E. (2014). When good HR gets bad results: Exploring the challenge of HR implementation in the case of workplace bullying. *Human Resource Management Journal*, 24, 38–56. doi:10.1111/1748-8583.12021
- World Health Organization. (2012). *Occupational health*. Retrieved from [http://www.who.int/occupational\\_health/topics/stressatwp/en](http://www.who.int/occupational_health/topics/stressatwp/en)
- Wu, I. C., Lyons, B., & Leong, F. L. (2015). How racial/ethnic bullying affects rejection sensitivity: The role of social dominance orientation. *Cultural Diversity and Ethnic Minority Psychology*, 21, 156–161. doi:10.1037/a0037930
- Yang, L., Caughlin, D. E., Gazica, M. W., Truxillo, D. M., & Spector, P. E. (2014). Workplace mistreatment climate and potential employee and organizational outcomes: A meta-analytic review from the target's perspective. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, 19, 315–335. doi:10.1037/a0036905
- Yen, T. Q., Tian, Y., & Sankoh, F. P. (2013). The impact of prevalent destructive leadership behaviour on subordinate employees in a firm. *American Journal of Industrial and Business Management*, 3, 595–600.  
<https://doi.org/10.4236/ajibm.2013.37069>
- Yildiz, M. L., & Öncer, A. Z. (2012). Narcissism as a moderator of the relationship between organizational trust and organizational citizenship behaviour. *International Journal of Business and Social Science*, 3(21), 212–222.
- Yin, R. K. (2014). *Case study research: Design and methods*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

- Yukl, G. (1999). An evaluation of conceptual weaknesses in transformational and charismatic leadership theories. *Leadership Quarterly*, 10(2), 285–305.  
doi.org/10.1016/s1048-9843(99)00013-2
- Zahaeri, I. B., & Shurbagi, A. M. A. (2012). The effect of organizational culture and the relationship between transformational leadership and job satisfaction in petroleum sector of Libya. *International Business Research*, 5(9), 89–97.  
doi:10.5539/ibr.v5n9p89
- Zimbardo, P. G. (2004). A situationist perspective on the psychology of evil: Understanding how good people are transformed into perpetrators. In A. Miller (Ed.), *The social psychology of good and evil: Understanding our capacity for kindness and cruelty*. New York, NY: Guilford Press.
- Zehndorfer, E. (2013). *Leadership: A critical introduction*. London, England: Routledge.
- Zuckerman, G., & Grind, K. (2014). A bully boss bitten by a runaway ego. *Business Management Daily*, 29(1)
- Zydzianaite, V., & Suominen, T. (2014). Leadership styles of nurse managers in ethical dilemmas: Reasons and consequences. *Contemporary Nurse*, 48, 150–167.  
doi:10.5172/conu.2014.48.2.150
- Zyglidopoulos, S. C., & Fleming, P. J. (2008). Ethical distance in corrupt firms: How do innocent bystanders become guilty perpetrators? *Journal of Business Ethics* 78(1-2), 265–274. doi.org/10.1007/s10551-007-9378-4

**Appendix A**  
**Survey Questions and Variables**

<b>Survey Question</b>	<b>Variable</b>
I am thinking about leaving this organization.	V1_Leaving
I am planning to look for a new job.	V2_NewJob
I intend to ask people about new job opportunities.	V3_Oppportunity
I don't plan to be at this organization for much longer	V4_Plan
Someone withholding information which affects your performance	V5_InfoWithhold
Being humiliated or ridiculed in connection with your work	V6_Ridiculed
Being ordered to do work below your level of competence	V7_Low
Having key areas of responsibility removed or replaced with more trivial or unpleasant tasks	V8_Replace
Spreading of gossip and rumors about you	V9_Gossip
Being ignored or excluded	V10_Exclusion
Having insulting or offensive remarks made about your person, your attitudes, or your private life	V11_Insults
Being shouted at or being the target of spontaneous anger	V12_Shouting
Intimidating behaviors such as finger-pointing, invasion of personal space, shoving, blocking your way	V13_Intim
Hints or signals from others that you should quit your job	V14_Quit
Repeated reminders of your errors or mistakes	V15_Errors
Being ignored or facing a hostile reaction when you approach	V16_Hostile
Persistent criticism of your errors or mistakes	V17_Picky
Having your opinions ignored	V18_OpinionNo

<b>Survey Question</b>	<b>Variable</b>
Practical jokes carried out by people you don't get along with	V19_Joke
Being given tasks with unreasonable deadlines	V20_Deadlines
Having allegations made against you	V21_Allegation
Excessive monitoring of your work	V22_Monitoring
Pressure not to claim something to which by right you are entitled (e.g.sick leave, holiday)	V23_NoClaim
Being the subject of excessive teasing and sarcasm	V24_Teasing
Being exposed to an unmanageable workload	V25_Workload
Threats of violence or physical abuse or actual abuse	V26_Violence
Did (does the Bully have someone who provides protection against punishment?	V27_Protection

**Appendix B****IRB Approval Letter**

**GRAND CANYON**  
UNIVERSITY™

---

3300 West Camelback Road, Phoenix Arizona 85017 602.639.7500 Toll Free 800.800.9776  
www.gcu.edu

DATE: December 3, 2016

TO: Veronica Emilia Nuzzolo  
FROM: Grand Canyon University Institutional Review Board

STUDY TITLE: [949337-1] Organizational Tolerance of Destructive Leaders and the Acceptance of Tyrannical Leadership Practices

IRB REFERENCE #: 949337-1  
SUBMISSION TYPE: New Project

ACTION: DETERMINATION OF EXEMPT STATUS  
DECISION DATE: December 3, 2016

REVIEW CATEGORY: Exemption category # [7.2]

Thank you for your submission of New Project materials for this research study. Grand Canyon University Institutional Review Board has determined this project is EXEMPT FROM IRB REVIEW according to federal regulations.

We will put a copy of this correspondence on file in our office.

If you have any questions, please contact Cynthia Bainbridge at 602-639-6884 or [cynthia.bainbridge@gcu.edu](mailto:cynthia.bainbridge@gcu.edu). Please include your study title and reference number in all correspondence with this office.

## Appendix C

### Informed Consent

Dear Participant:

You are invited to participate in a research study investigating if organizations condone destructive leader behavior and practices. The purposes of this form is to provide you, a prospective participant, information that will allow you to make an informed decision as to whether or not to participate in this research and to record the consent of those who agree to be involved in the study. This study is being conducted by Veronica Emilia Nuzzolo, a graduate student at Grand Canyon University under the supervision of Adamayi Ahyee, PhD. This study is a requirement for a Ph.D. in General Psychology with an emphasis in Organizational Psychology.

The purpose of this study is to learn if organizations are tolerant of destructive leaders and if organizations adhere to zero tolerance policies. If you decide to participate, then as a study participant you will join a study which is being offered as an online survey in which you answer questions that are designed to learn how your company deals with aggressive managers. Please refer to this definition of destructive/toxic managerial behavior when you answer the questions: “the systematic and repeated behavior by a leader or manager that undermines the interests of the organization by sabotaging the organization’s goals, tasks, resources, and effectiveness and/or the motivation, well-being or job satisfaction of his/her subordinates” (From Einarsen, Aasland, and Skogstad, 2007). If you say YES, then your participation in taking the survey will last approximately 10-20 minutes. If you agree to participate you will be one of approximately 135 subjects participating in this survey.

This is a random study being conducted by Survey.monkey and you are invited to participate if you are now or have ever been employed for a minimum of six months.

There is no compensation for responding nor is there any known risk. In order to ensure that all information will remain confidential, please do not include your name.

Organizations are anonymous, neither interview subjects nor their organizations will be identified in the resulting paper or data sets. If you choose to participate in this project, please answer all questions as honestly as possible. Participation is strictly voluntary and you may refuse to participate at any time by simply opting out of the study. If you wish to withdraw from the study you may stop filling out the survey before completing it.

To reiterate, there are no known risks from taking part in this study, but in any research, there is some possibility that you may be subject to risks that have not yet been identified. If you experience any emotional triggers, feel that you are in crisis and need immediate support or intervention, please seek immediate help and call 911. The possible/main benefits of your participation in the research are based on incentives provided by Survey Monkey. The data collected will also provide useful information regarding organizational tolerance of bad leader behavior. If the researchers find new information during the study that would reasonably change your decision about participating, then they will provide this information to you.

In order to ensure that all information will remain confidential, please do not include your name. Organizations are anonymous, neither interview subjects nor their organizations will be identified in the resulting paper or data sets. All information obtained in this study is strictly confidential. The results of this research study may be used in reports, presentations, and publications, but the researchers will not identify you. In order to

maintain confidentiality, you will not be asked to provide your name and no one will be able to identify you. Your demographic information and the answers you provide will be completely anonymous. All data for this study will be kept for three years after the completion of the study and then destroyed.

Participation is strictly voluntary and you may refuse to participate at any time by simply opting out of the study. If you wish to withdraw from the study you may stop filling out the survey before completing it.

There is no compensation for responding. The researchers want your decision about participating in the study to be absolutely voluntary. Any type of incentives received for participation in this study is strictly offered through Survey Monkey and not Veronica Emilia Nuzzolo or Grand Canyon University. Completion and return of the questionnaire will indicate your willingness to participate in this study.

If you have any questions, please feel free to contact me, Veronica Emilia Nuzzolo, at [REDACTED]. If you have other questions or concerns regarding the study and would like to talk to someone other than the researcher(s), you may also contact the faculty advisor at [REDACTED]. Any questions you have concerning the research study or your participation in the study, before or after your consent, will be answered by contacting Veronica Emilia Nuzzolo at [REDACTED] or call [REDACTED].

If you have questions about your rights as a subject/participant in this research, or if you feel you have been placed at risk, you can contact the Chair of the Institutional Review Board, through the College of Doctoral Studies at (602) 639-7804.

This form explains the nature, demands, benefits and any risk of the project. By checking “Yes” on this form you agree knowingly to assume any risks involved.



Remember, your participation is voluntary. You may choose not to participate or to withdraw your consent and discontinue participation at any time without penalty or loss of benefit. In checking “Yes” on this consent form, you are not waiving any legal claims, rights, or remedies. A may print a copy of this consent form for your own records if desired. By checking yes or no below you are indicating your acceptance or refusal to participate in the above study.

**Yes**, I agree to participate in this study.

**No**, I do not agree to participate in this study and wish to withdraw.

## Appendix D

### Copy of Instruments and Permissions Letters to Use the Instruments

Demographics:

1. Are you male or female?

Male

Female

2. Which of the following best describes your current job level?

Owner/Executive/C-Level

Senior Management

Middle Management

Intermediate

Entry Level

Other (please specify)

3. Which of the following best describe your job function?

Accounting

Administrative

Advertising / Marketing

Analyst

Art/Creative/Design

Business Development

- Consulting
- Customer Service
- Distribution
- Health Care Provider (Doctor)
- Health Care Provider (Nurse)
- Health Care Provider (Dentist, Orthodontist, Endodontist)
- Health Care Provider (Dental Hygienist)
- Health Care Provider (Other)
- Education
- Engineering
- Finance
- General Business
- Human Resources
- Information Technology
- Legal
- Management
- Manufacturing
- Production
- Product Management
- Project Management

- Public Relations
- Purchasing
- Quality Assurance
- Research
- Sales
- Science
- Strategy/Planning
- Supply Chain
- Training
- I am currently not employed
- Other (please specify)

4. Is your organization public or private?

- Public
- Private

5. About how long have you been in your current position?

Years

Months

**Have You Been Subject to Destructive Leader Behavior?**

6. Someone withholding information which affects your performance

- DAILY
- WEELY
- MONTHLY
- OCCASIONALLY
- NEVER

7. Being humiliated or ridiculed with connection to your work

- DAILY
- WEEKLY
- MONTHLY
- OCCASIONALLY
- NEVER

8. Being ordered to do work below your level of competence

- DAILY
- WEEKLY
- MONTHLY
- OCCASIONALLY
- NEVER

9. Having key areas of responsibility removed or replace with more trivial or unpleasant tasks

- DAILY

- WEEKLY
- MONTHLY
- OCCASIONALLY
- NEVER

10. Spreading of gossip and rumors about you

- DAILY
- WEEKLY
- MONTHLY
- OCCASIONALLY
- NEVER

11. Being ignored or excluded

- DAILY
- WEEKLY
- MONTHLY
- OCCASIONALLY
- NEVER

12. Having insulting or offensive remarks made about your person (i.e. habits and background), your attitudes or your private life

- DAILY
- WEEKLY

- MONTHLY
- OCCASIONALLY
- NEVER

13. Being shouted at or being the target of spontaneous anger (or rage)

- DAILY
- WEEKLY
- MONTHLY
- OCCASIONALLY
- NEVER

14. Intimidating behavior such as finger-pointing, invasion of personal space, shoving, blocking/barring the way

- DAILY
- WEEKLY
- MONTHLY
- OCCASIONALLY
- NEVER

15. Hints or signals from others that you should quit your job

- DAILY
- WEEKLY
- MONTHLY

OCCASIONALLY

NEVER

16. Repeated reminders of your errors or mistakes

DAILY

WEEKLY

MONTHLY

OCCASIONALLY

NEVER

17. Being ignored or facing hostile reaction when you approach

DAILY

WEEKLY

MONTHLY

OCCASIONALLY

NEVER

18. Persistent criticism of your work and effort

DAILY

WEEKLY

MONTHLY

OCCASIONALLY

NEVER



19. Having your opinions and views ignored

- DAILY
- WEEKLY
- MONTHLY
- OCCASIONALLY
- NEVER

20. Practical jokes carried out by people you don't get on with

- DAILY
- WEEKLY
- MONTHLY
- OCCASIONALLY
- NEVER

21. Being given tasks of unreasonable or impossible targets or deadlines

- DAILY
- WEEKLY
- MONTHLY
- OCCASIONALLY
- NEVER

22. Having allegations made against you

- DAILY

- WEEKLY
- MONTHLY
- OCCASIONALLY
- NEVER

23. Excessive monitoring of your work

- DAILY
- WEEKLY
- MONTHLY
- OCCASIONALLY
- NEVER

24. Pressure not to claim something which by right you are entitled (e.g. sick leave, holiday entitlement, travel expenses)

- DAILY
- WEEKLY
- MONTHLY
- OCCASIONALLY
- NEVER

25. Being the subject of excessive teasing and sarcasm

- DAILY
- WEEKLY

- MONTHLY
- OCCASIONALLY
- NEVER

26. Being exposed to an unmanageable workload

- DAILY
- WEEKLY
- MONTHLY
- OCCASIONALLY
- NEVER

27. Threats of violence or physical abuse or actual abuse

- DAILY
- WEEKLY
- MONTHLY
- OCCASIONALLY
- NEVER

**Does Your Organization Tolerate Destructive Leader Behavior?**

28. Did or Does your leader have someone who provides protection

- YES
- NO
- N/A

29. Protection comes from a higher ranking manager

YES

NO

N/A

30. Protection comes from an executive or owner

YES

NO

N/A

31. Protection comes from Human Resources

YES

NO

N/A

32. Protection comes from a Supervisor

YES

NO

N/A

33. If you were subject to destructive leader behavior was your bully was punished

YES

NO

N/A

34. I do not know if my bully was punished

YES

NO

N/A

**Future Intent:**

35. I am thinking about leaving this organization

YES

NO

N/A

36. I am planning to look for a new job

YES

NO

N/A

37. I intend to ask people about new job opportunities

YES

NO

N/A

38. I do not plan to be at this organization much longer

YES

NO

## Appendix E

### Copy of Instruments and Permissions Letters to Use the Instruments

The Negative Acts Questionnaire (NAQ; © Einarsen, Raknes, Matthiesen & Hellestøy, 1994; Hoel, 1999) is a research inventory developed for measuring perceived exposure to bullying and victimisation at work. Bullying research has lacked a standardised measurement tool (cf. Hoel, Rayner, & Cooper, 1999). Thus, incomparable measures and operationalisations have been used in research on workplace bullying. As a consequence, we do not know if the same phenomenon has been measured across different studies. As no standard measure of workplace bullying exist in this field, we propose that the NAQ should be used in future studies allowing better comparisons of survey results from different national cultures and organisational settings. The NAQ is free to use for non-commercial research projects.

**From:** WBI

**Sent:** Wednesday, November 18, 2015 11:33 AM

**To:** [REDACTED]

Veronica,

As you may know, the exact wording of all of our survey questions and potential responses are contained in our research reports.

You have our permission to use in your doctoral project. Good luck.

Respectfully,

Gary Namie, PhD

Director, Workplace Bullying Institute

[workplacebullying.org](http://workplacebullying.org)

360.656.6630

Name:  
Veronica Emilia Nuzzolo  
Email:

[REDACTED]

Message:

I am doing dissertation research, PhD psychology/ORG Psych, I would like permission to have a copy of and use your survey in conjunction with the NAQ-R,,

Response is greatly appreciated, Best Regards  
Veronica Emilia Nuzzolo

The screenshot shows an email client interface. On the left is a navigation pane with folders like Drafts, Sent Mail, and Folders. The main area displays an email from 'WBI survey' dated 'Nov 18'. The email content is as follows:

WBI  
[REDACTED]

WBI survey

Veronica,

As you may know, the exact wording of all of our survey questions and potential responses are contained in our research reports.

You have our permission to use in your doctoral project. Good luck.

Respectfully,

Gary Namie, PhD  
Director, Workplace Bullying Institute  
[workplacebullying.org](http://workplacebullying.org)  
[360.656.6630](tel:360.656.6630)

Name:  
Veronica Emilia Nuzzolo

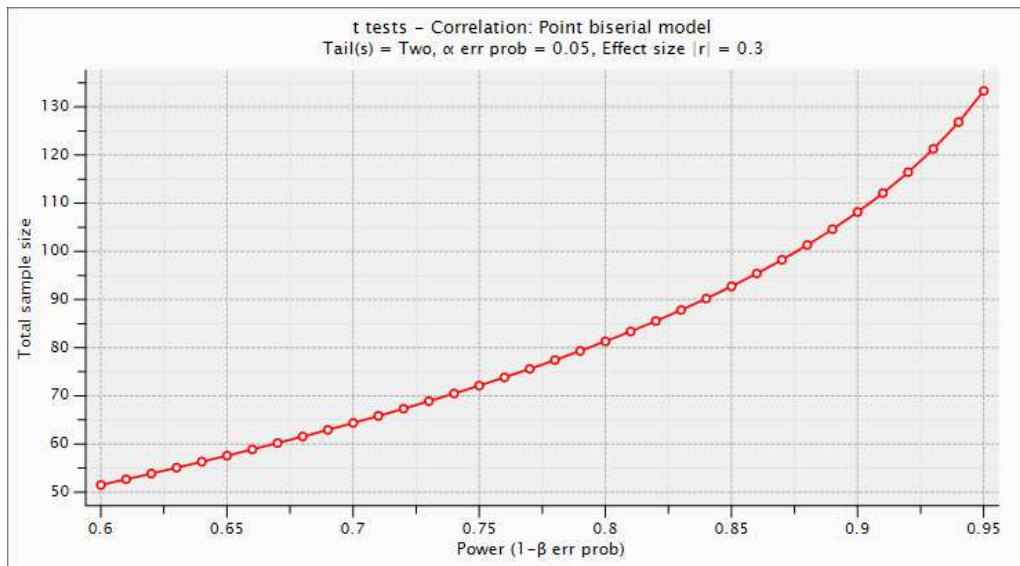
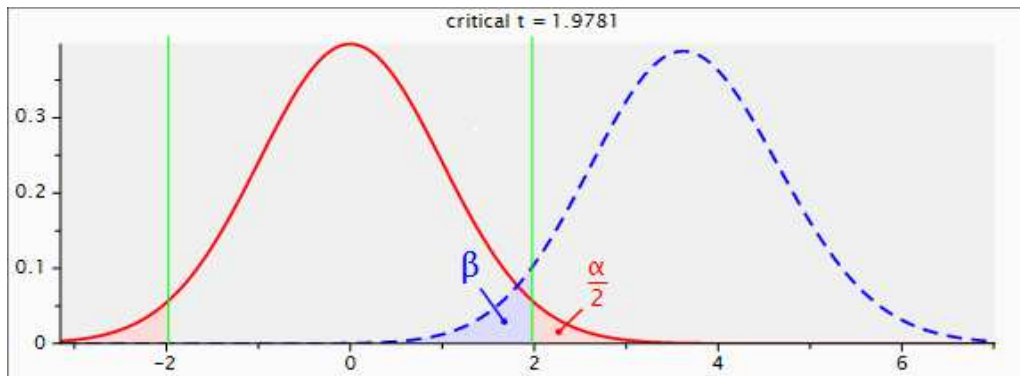
Email:  
[REDACTED]

Message:  
I am doing dissertation research, PhD ORG Psych, I would like permission to have a copy of and use your survey in conjunction with the NAQ-R,,

Response is greatly appreciated, Best Regards  
Veronica Emilia Nuzzolo

## Appendix F

### G\*Power Analysis Power of 0.95



#### t tests - Correlation: Point biserial model

**Analysis:** A priori: Compute required sample size

**Input:** Tail(s) = Two

Effect size  $|r|$  = 0.3

$\alpha$  err prob = 0.05

Power ( $1-\beta$  err prob) = 0.95

**Output:** Noncentrality parameter  $\delta$  = 3.640432

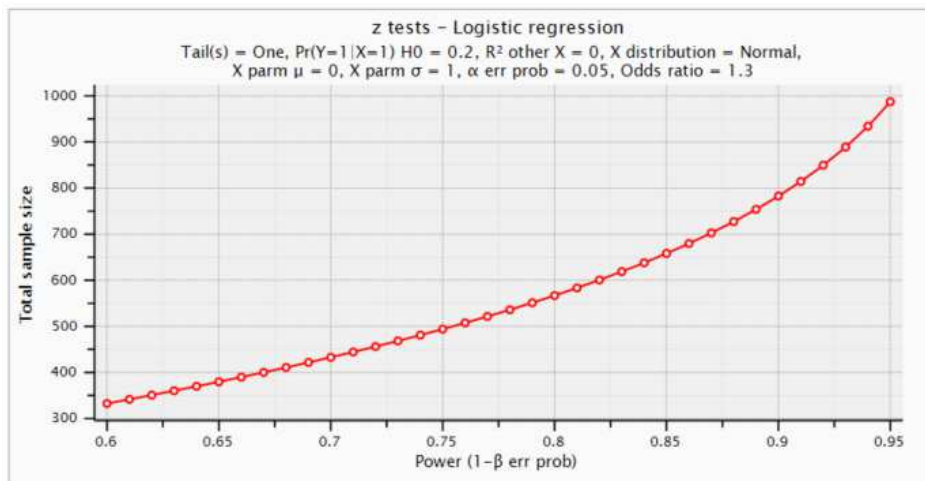
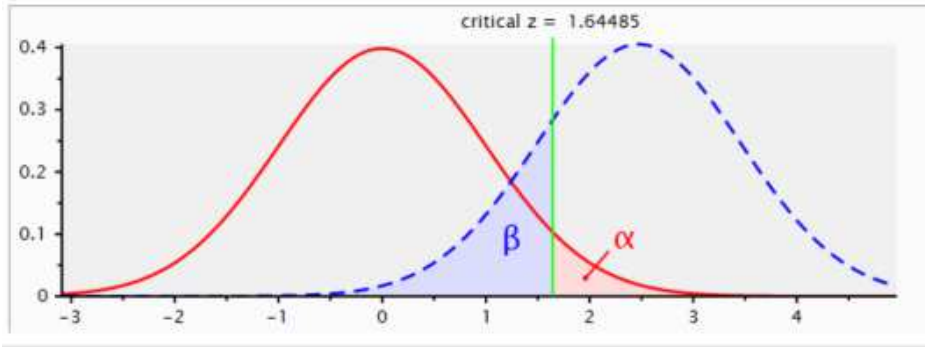
Critical t = 1.978099

Df = 132

Total sample size = 134

Actual power = 0.950922





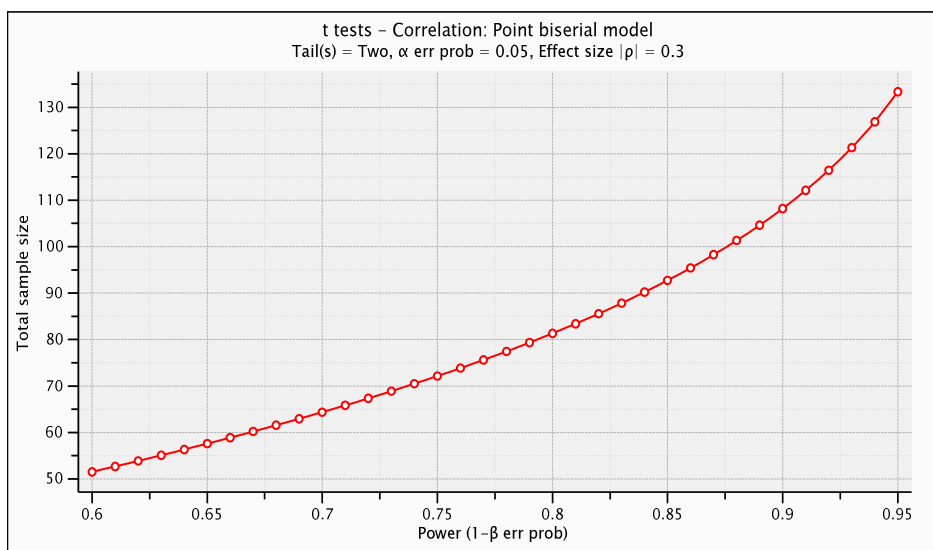
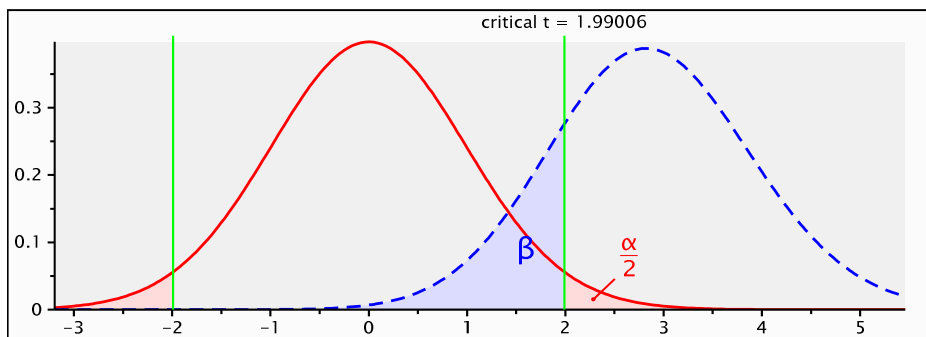
### z tests – Logistic regression

**Analysis:** A priori: Compute required sample size

<b>Input:</b>	Tail(s)	= One
	Odds ratio	= 1.3
	Pr(Y=1 X=1) H0	= 0.2
	$\alpha$ err prob	= 0.05
	Power	= 0.95
	R <sup>2</sup> other X	= 0
	X distribution	= Normal
	X parm $\mu$	= 0
	X parm $\sigma$	= 1
<b>Output:</b>	Critical z	= 1.6448536
	Total sample size	= 988
	Actual power	= 0.9501283

## Appendix G

### G\*Power Analysis Power of 0.8

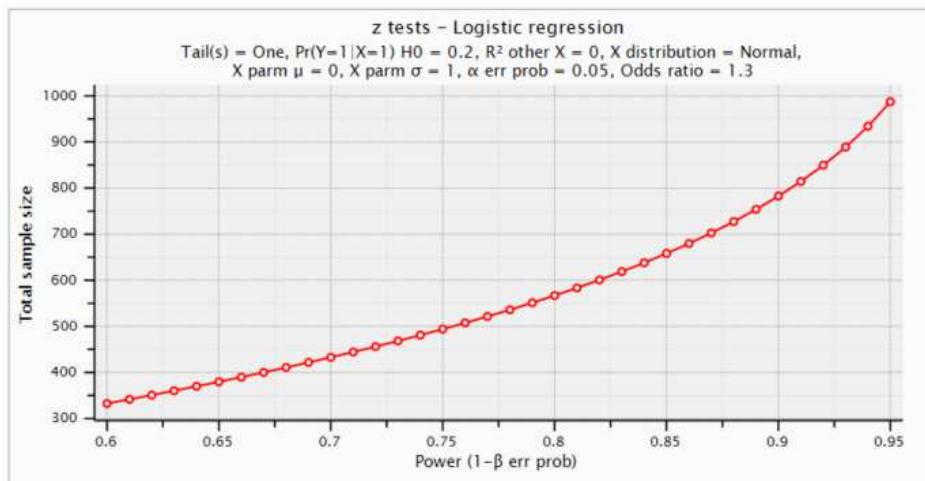
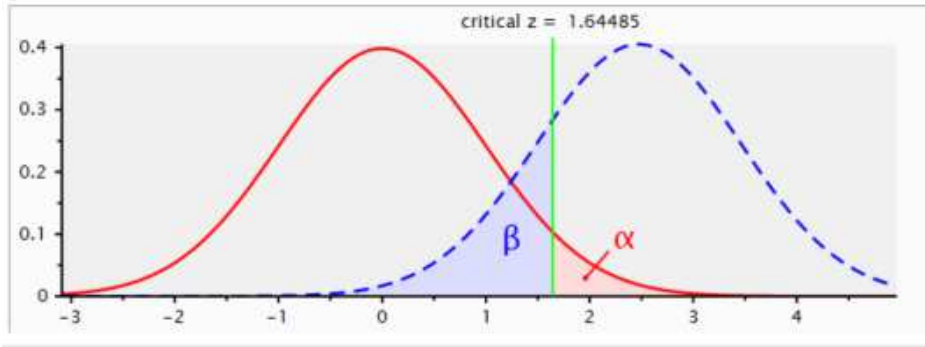


#### t tests - Correlation: Point biserial model

**Analysis:** A priori: Compute required sample size

**Input:** Tail(s) = Two  
Effect size  $|\rho|$  = 0.3  
 $\alpha$  err prob = 0.05  
Power (1- $\beta$  err prob) = 0.8

**Output:** Noncentrality parameter  $\delta$  = 2.8477869  
Critical t = 1.9900634  
Df = 80  
Total sample size = 82  
Actual power = 0.8033045



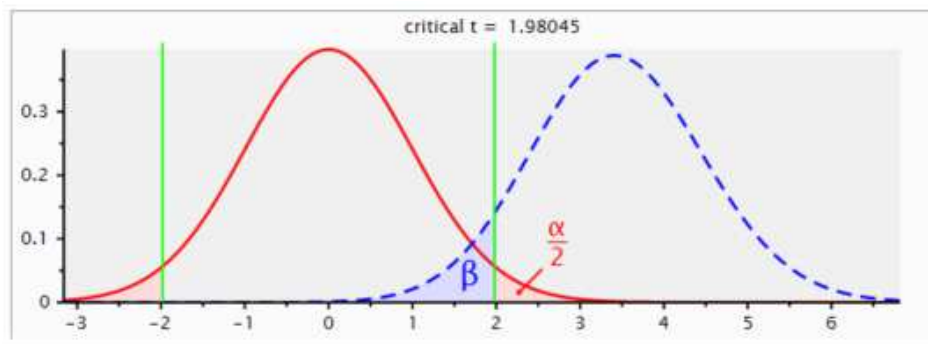
### z tests – Logistic regression

**Analysis:** A priori: Compute required sample size

<b>Input:</b>	Tail(s)	= One
	Odds ratio	= 1.3
	Pr(Y=1 X=1) H0	= 0.2
	$\alpha$ err prob	= 0.05
	Power	= 0.80
	R <sup>2</sup> other X	= 0
	X distribution	= Normal
	X parm $\mu$	= 0
	X parm $\sigma$	= 1
<b>Output:</b>	Critical z	= 1.6448536
	Total sample size	= 568
	Actual power	= 0.8005867

## Appendix H

### G\*Power Analysis Post Hoc for Point Biserial Correlation



#### t tests - Correlation: Point biserial model

**Analysis:** Post hoc: Compute achieved power

**Input:** Tail(s) = Two

Effect size  $|\rho|$  = 0.3

$\alpha$  err prob = 0.05

Total sample size = 119

**Output:** Noncentrality parameter  $\delta$  = 3.4306312

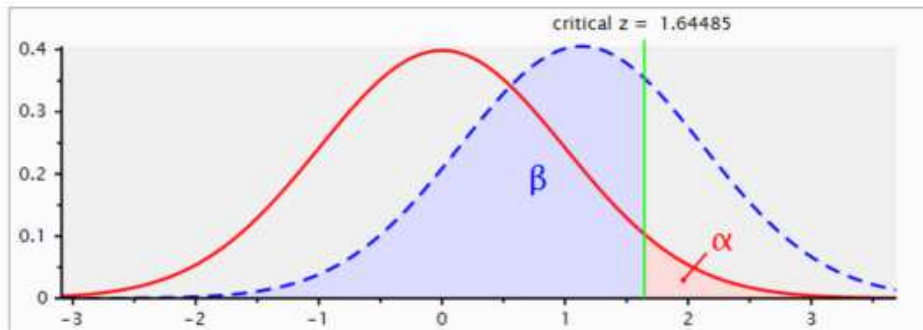
Critical t = 1.9804476

Df = 117

Power = 0.9254015

## Appendix I

### G\*Power Analysis Post Hoc for Logistic Regression



#### z tests – Logistic regression

**Analysis:** Post hoc: Compute achieved power

<b>Input:</b>	Tail(s)	= One
	Odds ratio	= 1.3
	Pr(Y=1 X=1) H0	= 0.2
	$\alpha$ err prob	= 0.05
	Total sample size	= 119
	R2 other X	= 0
	X distribution	= Normal
	X parm $\mu$	= 0
	X parm $\sigma$	= 1
<b>Output:</b>	Critical z	= 1.6448536
	Power	= 0.3012515

## Appendix J

### Frequencies and Percentages for Demographic Characteristics

Table 1 *Frequencies and Percentages for Demographic Characteristics*

Variable	Frequency	Percent
Gender		
Female	84	70.6
Male	34	28.6
No response	1	0.8
Job level		
Entry Level	11	9.2
Intermediate	26	21.8
Middle Management	24	20.2
Owner/Executive/C-Level	25	21.0
Senior Management	17	14.3
Other	16	13.4
Job function		
Administrative	16	13.4
Advertising / Marketing	1	0.8
Analyst	2	1.7
Art/Creative/Design	3	2.5
Business Development	1	0.8
Consulting	3	2.5
Customer Service	5	4.2
Education	11	9.2
Engineering	2	1.7
Finance	1	0.8
General Business	5	4.2
Health Care Provider (Doctor)	3	2.5
Health Care Provider (Nurse)	5	4.2
Health Care Provider (Other)	11	9.2
Human Resources	5	4.2
I am currently not employed	4	3.4
Information Technology	8	6.7

Management	7	5.9
Production	3	2.5
Public Relations	1	0.8
Quality Assurance	2	1.7
Sales	5	4.2
Strategy/Planning	1	0.8
Supply Chain	1	0.8
Training	1	0.8
Other	11	9.2
No response	1	0.8
Organization type		
Private	60	50.4
Public	57	47.9
No response	2	1.7

*Note.* Percentages may not sum to 100.0% due to rounding error.

## Appendix K

### Frequencies and Percentages for Organizational Tolerance and Intent to Leave

Table 2 *Frequencies and Percentages for Organizational Tolerance and Intent to Leave*

Question	Frequency	Percent
Did or does your leader have someone who provides protection?		
NO	32	26.9
YES	41	34.5
N/A	38	31.9
No response	8	6.7
Protection comes from a higher ranking manager.		
NO	28	23.5
YES	40	33.6
N/A	43	36.1
No response	8	6.7
Protection comes from an executive or owner.		
NO	32	26.9
YES	36	30.3
N/A	44	37
No response	7	5.9
Protection comes from human resources.		
NO	38	31.9
YES	33	27.7
N/A	40	33.6
No response	8	6.7
Protection comes from a supervisor.		
NO	34	28.6
YES	39	32.8
N/A	38	31.9
No response	8	6.7
If you were subject to destructive leader behavior was your bully punished?		
NO	27	22.7
YES	12	10.1
N/A	71	59.7
No response	9	7.6
I do not know if my bully was punished.		
NO	18	15.1
YES	10	8.4
N/A	82	68.9
No response	9	7.6



---

I am thinking about leaving this organization.		
NO	71	59.7
YES	24	20.2
N/A	16	13.4
No response	8	6.7
I am planning to look for a new job.		
NO	74	62.2
YES	23	19.3
N/A	14	11.8
No response	8	6.7
I intend to ask people about new job opportunities.		
NO	66	55.5
YES	30	25.2
N/A	15	12.6
No response	8	6.7
I do not plan to be at this organization much longer.		
NO	61	51.3
YES	25	21.0
N/A	25	21.0
No response	8	6.7

---

*Note.* Percentages may not sum to 100.0% due to rounding error.

**Appendix L**  
**Exploratory Factor Analysis**

Table 3 *Eigenvalues for Exploratory Factor Analysis*

Factor	Eigenvalue	% of Variance	Cumulative %
Factor 1	11.87	53.96	53.96
Factor 2	1.50	6.83	60.78
Factor 3	1.14	5.17	65.96

## Appendix M

### Rotated Factor Loadings for Exploratory Factor Analysis

Table 4

#### *Rotated Factor Loadings for Exploratory Factor Analysis*

Question	Factor		
	1	2	3
NAQ1: Someone withholding information which affects your performance	.54		
NAQ2: Being humiliated or ridiculed with connection to your work	.86		
NAQ3: Being ordered to do work below your level of competence	.38	.68	
NAQ4: Having key areas of responsibility removed or replace with more trivial or unpleasant tasks		.81	
NAQ5: Spreading of gossip and rumors about you	.70		
NAQ6: Being ignored or excluded	.57	.40	
NAQ7: Having insulting or offensive remarks made about your person (i.e. habits and background), your attitudes or your private life	.79		.40
NAQ8: Being shouted at or being the target of spontaneous anger (or rage)	.58		.41
NAQ9: Intimidating behavior such as finger-pointing, invasion of personal space, shoving, blocking/barring the way	.39		.67
NAQ10: Hints or signals from others that you should quit your job	.46		.72
NAQ11: Repeated reminders of your errors or mistakes	.40	.67	
NAQ12: Being ignored or facing hostile reaction when you approach	.81		
NAQ13: Persistent criticism of your work and effort	.63	.52	.34
NAQ14: Having your opinions and views ignored	.63	.55	
NAQ15: Practical jokes carried out by people you don't get on with			.82
NAQ16: Being given tasks of unreasonable or impossible targets or deadlines		.52	.48
NAQ17: Having allegations made against you	.63		.56
NAQ18: Excessive monitoring of your work	.35	.78	
NAQ19: Pressure not to claim something which by right you are entitled (e.g. sick leave, holiday entitlement, travel expenses)	.40	.55	.34
NAQ20: Being the subject of excessive teasing and sarcasm	.37		.75
NAQ21: Being exposed to an unmanageable workload	.44		
NAQ22: Threats of violence or physical abuse or actual abuse			.56

*Note.* Loadings less than .32 are not displayed.

## Appendix N

### Descriptive Statistics for Destructive Leader Behavior Composite Score

Table 5 *Descriptive Statistics for Destructive Leader Behavior Composite Score*

Variable	Min.	Max.	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Destructive Leader Behavior	5.00	22.00	8.61	3.69

**Appendix O****Reliability Coefficient for Destructive Leader Behavior**Table 6 *Reliability Coefficient for Destructive Leader Behavior*

Variable	Number of Items	Cronbach's Alpha
Destructive Leader Behavior	5	.84

## Appendix P

### Correlations Between Destructive Leader Behavior and Organizational Tolerance

#### Variables

Table 7 *Correlations Between Destructive Leader Behavior and Organizational Tolerance Variables*

Variable	Correlation with Destructive Leader Behavior	Sig.
Was leader protected?	.11	.349
Was leader punished?	-.15	.393

## Appendix Q

### Binary Logistic Regression Predicting Whether or Not Leader Was Protected

Table 8 *Binary Logistic Regression Predicting Whether or Not Leader Was Protected*

Independent Variable	<i>B</i>	S.E.	Wald	<i>df</i>	Sig.	Exp(B)
Destructive Leader Behavior	0.06	0.07	0.88	1	.347	1.07

Note.  $\chi^2(1) = 0.93, p = .336$ .

## Appendix R

### Binary Logistic Regression Predicting Whether or Not Leader Was Punished

Table 9 *Binary Logistic Regression Predicting Whether or Not Leader Was Punished*

Independent Variable	<i>B</i>	S.E.	Wald	<i>df</i>	Sig.	Exp(B)
Destructive Leader Behavior	-0.08	0.09	0.76	1	.385	0.92

*Note.*  $\chi^2(1) = 0.81, p = .367.$



## Appendix S

### Scree Plot for Exploratory Factor Analysis

Figure 1. Scree Plot for Exploratory Factor Analysis

