

# EMERGENCE OF DESTRUCTIVE LEADER: PROPOSED DEFINITION AND FORMULATION OF MODEL

Vedantam Leela\*, Pranjal Mehta\*\*, Sonam Jambhulkar\*\*\*

\*Assistant Professor, National Law University, Jodhpur, Rajasthan, India.

Email: vedantamleela25@gmail.com

\*\*V Semester BBA/LL.B (Hons), National Law University, Jodhpur, Rajasthan, India.

Email: pranjalmehta13@gmail.com

\*\*\*V Semester BBA/LL.B (Hons), National Law University, Jodhpur, Rajasthan, India.

Email: ssonam92@gmail.com

---

**Abstract** Destructive leader behaviour is instrumental in creation of toxic workplace environment. With limited literature available, we propose to provide a comprehensive definition encompassing the phenomenon of destructive behaviour which has not been defined so far. In this paper, we have highlighted the emergence of destructive leaders primarily on account of three factors, namely: (i) conducive internal workplace environment (for destructive leader to operate), (ii) destructive leaders' characteristics and traits, and (iii) the vulnerable followers. Research in previous decade reflected the researchers' belief on factors that foster destructive leaders. The conclusions of the previous research lack coherence and are disjointed, and as yet, no comprehensive model has been presented to systematically examine these factors. Therefore, the purpose of this article is to present an integrative model of destructive leader behaviour. In our proposed model, we have outlined the confluence of the three factors leading to toxic environment which further contributes to the organisational degradation. The model may provide an opportunity for future research in the field of emerging leadership on mistreatment, destructive behaviour, and non-performing organisations.

**Keywords:** Destructive Leaders, Vulnerable Followers, Selfish Agenda, Toxic Workplace Environment, and Organisation Degradation.

---

## INTRODUCTION

Although there has been little research in the area of destructive leader behaviour, last couple of decades witnessed subtle erosion in leaders' behaviour in workplaces. This observation in managerial disciplines led to a strong interest in understanding the "dark side of leadership behaviour" (Einarsen *et al.*, 2007; Padilla *et al.*, 2007; Conger, 1990). Researchers have been trying to understand a leader's behaviour towards followers in areas such as abusive supervision (Tepper, 2000), bullying, emotional abuse (Merchant and Hoel, 2003) and incivility (Namie 2003).

Leaders are known for attainment of organisational goals. The research on destructive leader behaviour reflects the conspicuous absence of effective and constructive leadership quality among senior managers which includes phenomenon like managerial incompetence and managerial malfeasance

(Hogan and Kaiser, 2005). Researchers have attempted to formulate definitions and construct models on destructive leader behaviour (Padilla *et al.*, 2007) including describing their behavioural aspects (Lipman-Blumen, 2005).

Researchers have worked on terms such as 'toxic leadership' (Benson and Hogan, 2008), 'tyranny' (Ashforth, 1994), 'leadership derailment' (Tepper, 2000), 'destructive leadership' (Einarsen *et al.*, 2007) and 'bad leadership' (Kellerman, 2004).). Apart from these, expressions like 'abuse of power', 'break rules to satisfy personal needs', 'self-aggrandisement', and 'deliberately cause damage to others' have been documented (Schilling 2009). As, the existing empirical study in this field is substantially limited, based on available literature review, we draw a broad conclusion of the presence of negative interaction between leaders and followers in the workplace leading to toxic environment and detrimental consequences for the organisation. Hence,

understanding and preventing destructive leadership may be if not more as important, as understanding and enhancing positive aspects of leadership.

The authors intend: (1) to review and propose a definition of destructive leadership behaviour that expands the scope of destructive behaviours described within the research population, (2) to propose a conceptual model of destructive leadership behaviour, (3) propose the possible ways in which toxicity is created and the resultant organisational outcomes. The proposed conceptual model would consider the (i) internal workplace environment, (ii) essential characteristic features and traits of destructive leader behaviour (iii) the followers. Thus, we intend to explore how destructive leader behaviour can create toxic workplace environment.

## A DEFINITION OF DESTRUCTIVE LEADERSHIP

Researchers have recently proposed many constructs to examine destructive leadership which is consciously done to target the followers. Some of the constructs include concept of “Fear and Intimidation” (Hornstein, 1996), “Abusive Supervision” (Tepper, 2000), “Bullies” (Namie and Namie, 2000), “Petty Tyrants” (Ashforth, 1994), “Aggression” (Neuman and Baron, 2005) and “Workplace Bullying” (Rayner *et al.*, 2002). Abusive behaviours includes public criticism, use of derogatory names, condescending tones, intimidation, tantrums, rudeness, coercion, and blaming others for mistakes they did not make (Hornstein, 1996 )

Einarsen *et al.* (2007) proposed a definition of ‘destructive leadership’ as “The systematic and repeated behaviour by a leader, supervisor or manager that violates the legitimate interest of the organisation by undermining and/or sabotaging the organisation’s goals, tasks, resources, and effectiveness and/or the motivation, well being or job satisfaction of -subordinates.” While Tepper (2000) has defined “abusive supervision” as “subordinates’ perceptions of the extent to which supervisors engage in the sustained display of hostile verbal and nonverbal behaviours, excluding physical contact,” Hornstein (1996) describes an abusive leader as “one whose primary objective is the control of others, and such control is achieved through methods that create fear and intimidation.” Although there are obvious similarities among these concepts, researchers are yet to adopt a common definition or conceptual framework of destructive leadership.

Ashforth’s (1994) petty tyranny is defined as “those who lords his or her power over others and uses their power and influence oppressively, erratically, and perhaps with a malicious intent.” Lipman-Blumen (2005) have defined

toxic leaders those “individuals who, by virtue of their destructive behaviours and their dysfunctional personal qualities or characteristics, inflict serious and enduring harm on the individuals, groups, organisations, communities and even the nations that they lead”. The toxic leaders behave in a destructive manner towards subordinates” are known for typical negative behaviours like leaders’ malfeasance, hypocrisy, as well as other varied unethical, illegal, and criminal acts”. Kellerman (2004) stated there are seven styles of bad leaderships; like incompetent, rigid, intemperate, callous, corrupt, insular, and evil whereby they put their self-interest ahead of the organisation’s legitimate interest. She elaborates that when leaders remain in positions of power for too long, they pick up bad habits; when power is centralized, it is like to be misused or abused; almost every bad leader is to some degree out of touch with reality. Padilla *et al.* (2007) argued that destructive leadership revolves between actor’s namely destructive leader and the follower; in the conducive environment.

The destructive leaders carefully manoeuvre the destined outcomes which call for untoward situations, damage or harm the interested parties, with aid and assistance of passive followers, damage the organisations in which they reside (Hogan and Kaiser, 2005; Padilla *et al.*, 2007).

While research studies on destructive leadership, Padilla *et al.*, (2007), Einarsen *et al.* (2007) and Thoroughgood (2011) appreciate each other yet the distinction can be visibly viewed, as on one side Padilla *et al.* (2007), in toxic triangle have emphasised on three contributing factors like leader behaviour, susceptible follower and the environment, while on the other side Einarsen *et al.* (2007) in their work have focussed on favourable outcomes on account of destructive leadership. Thoroughgood *et al.* (2011) in their work have considered conditions and effects for organisation’s climate, financial performance, and leader’s gender on subordinate perceptions of and reactions to aversive leadership, (a form of destructive leadership based on coercive power). In our present attempt, we consider that the dyadic relationship between destructive leaders and vulnerable followers leads to organisational devastation. Having studied the construct of destructive leadership behaviour, we intend to address the concerns of destructive leaders, followers and work environment. Having this perspective, we propose the following definition of destructive leadership which can be applied to leaders, managers, subordinates etc.

“Destructive leaders are those who systematically abuse their legitimate position, by misusing the power to promote their malicious intent and ulterior motives, maintain negative interaction with followers to control, exploit their loyalty and suppress them for attainment of their selfish agendas leading to organisational decline”.

### Includes Leader/Manager/Superior and Subordinates-Followers Relationships

The definition, we propose is built upon leaders and followers relationship.<sup>1</sup> Often leaders take liberty to misuse power (Conger, 1990) they create opportunities for personal gains (O'Conner, 1995) from organisation tasks, material and financial resources, and information sources. We have emphasised on a pattern of systematic abuse of legitimate position which encompasses mistreatment, victimisation, humiliation and incivility whereby, the leader categorically demonstrates his destructive behaviour. He also flouts the employment norms, duties and rights towards subordinates-followers and the organisation. He tries to make it a way of life. Unlike Ashforth (1994) who proposed petty tyranny and abusive supervision (Tepper, 2000; Burton and Hoobler, 2006), we include that the workplace environment primarily which consists of authority in the legitimate position, and such authority is quiet restricted in its jurisdiction, in the context of job position and superior-subordinates relationship as defined under the terms and conditions of work, nature of job, and work environment.

We present that destructive leaders behave in a subtle manner to avoid other's attention; engage in interplay and misuse of both authority and power. They influence followers by constant misuse of power (Kaiser and Hogan, 2007) and provide deliberate mistreatment (Lipman-Blumen, 2005). Leader might use various forms of mistreatments like verbal and physical abuse, demeaning language and engage in hostility towards his subordinates/ followers. Subordinates/ followers feel threatened, uncomfortable, and miserable by such mistreatments. With such repeated experiences, the followers may lose their self-esteem, self-concept and feel victimized in an employment relationship. When followers are prone to repeated abuse, they become susceptible and engage in deviant behaviour (Mitchell and Ambrose, 2007).

### Leaders Control, Exploit Their Follower's Loyalty and Suppress Them

Researchers have not discussed elaborately as to how destructive leader controls the followers. We are of the view that the definition should include how destructive leaders control their followers. The leaders play an important role in making favourable decisions for their subordinates. Ideally,

<sup>1</sup> We intend to clarify that in any organisation, there is a presence of leader/manager/superior and subordinate/follower as per the terms and conditions of work and the reporting patterns established. There could be two relationships leader- follower relationship and superior-subordinate relationship. In our paper, specific focus has been given to those leaders who are destructive in nature and have control on those followers who want to be under such leadership i.e., leader-follower relationship.

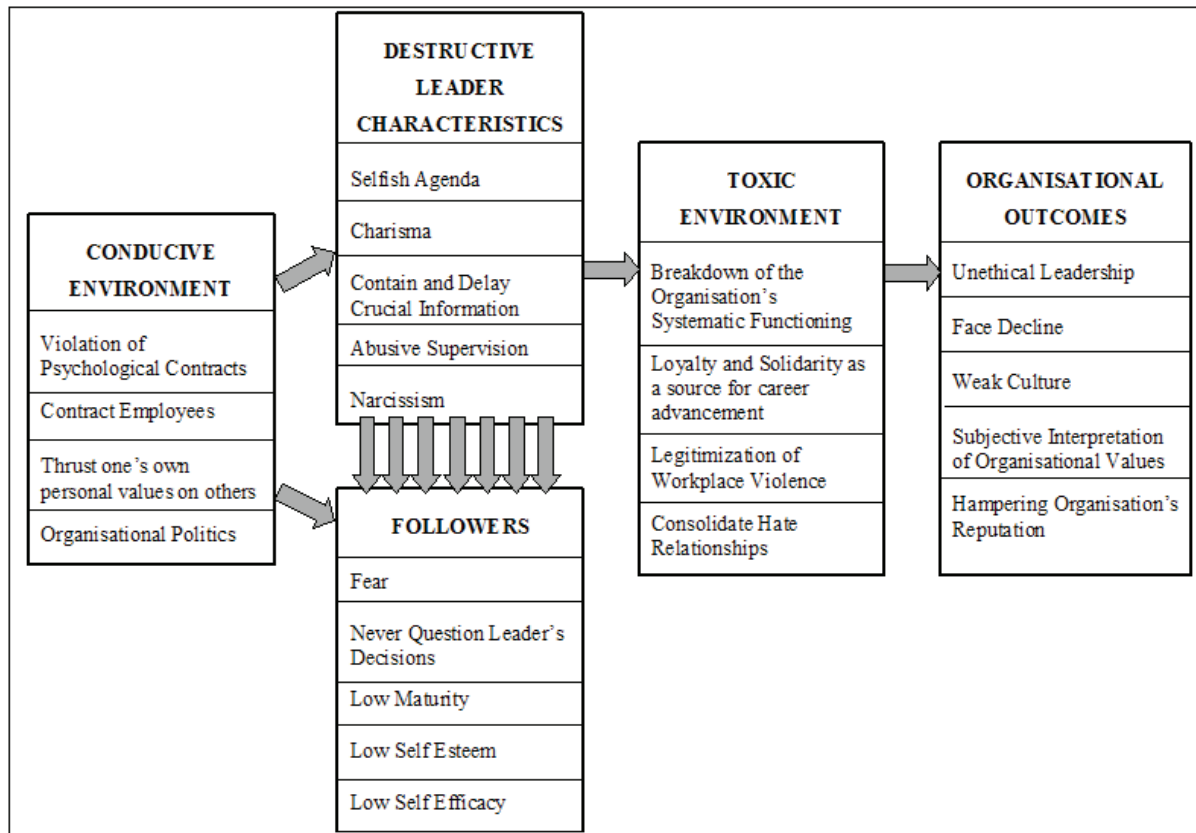
good leaders who are genuinely concerned about employees' well being, use negative reinforcement to ensure needful behavioural modification (Skinner, 1971), and appraise the subordinates to improve their performance. Such leaders act as a guiding force for subordinates. Contrarily, destructive leaders repeatedly use unwanted and unsolicited behaviour like verbal and non-verbal/physical conduct. Owing to the power differences between the offender and the target (Keashly, 1998), destructive leaders violates person's rights, harms and controls followers' actions. They directly attack the inadequacies of the target's personality (Brodsky, 1976) and therefore, the followers meekly accept leader's suppression and oppression. With fewer chances of alternate employment options and low level of skill set, in addition to the presence of other compelling factors, like economic circumstances, inherent weaknesses like low capability, low competency, the target may show reluctance to cope up emotionally (Niedl, 1995). When the followers are subjected to repeated mistreatment or unwanted behaviour, in an unavoidable situation, they remain defenceless (Niedl, 1995). Thus, power dynamics between destructive leader and followers could make followers susceptible to the destructive leader's dominance (Padilla *et al.*, 2007).

### Malicious Intent and Ulterior Motive

Destructive leaders have predetermined hidden agendas. They continue to exploit the organisational resources and followers, with a malicious intent to harm them. The execution of their action plan is conducted by the use of susceptible followers, who may or may not actually realise the malicious intent of the destructive leaders but they continue to obey the instructions as they fear and feel threatened by negative outcomes. So they compromise and blindly admire the destructive leaders' instructions or domination. The followers might regard and praise the 'gut' feelings of such leaders who fear none and do things as per their preconceived notions.

Einarsen *et al.* (2007) distinguished by stating that destructive leadership has less to do with the leaders' intentions than with the outcomes of his behaviour. On the contrary, excluding situations of one time instance and stray circumstances, we have included in our definition the strong motives like malicious intent and ulterior motive of the leader who is basically driven by the motive to harm others. We present that without such strong intent the destructive leaders will not be able to indulge in destructive acts. Destructive leaders indulge in cheating, fraud, theft, misappropriation of funds in the organisation to attain their ulterior motives. In large organisations, the acts of deviant behaviour occur on account of concerted efforts of destructive leaders and vulnerable followers. In our opinion, it is difficult to trace those significant reasons, which motivate the destructive

Figure 1: Destructive Leader Behaviour Model



leaders to indulge in such deviations. Furthermore, it is equally difficult to measure the harm that destructive leaders would cause until and unless the act has occurred.

## THE PROPOSED DESTRUCTIVE LEADER BEHAVIOUR MODEL

Leadership is described as a function of task, followers and situation. Leaders have ability to lead and direct their followers through their motivational and leadership skills. Followers' readiness (Hersey and Blanchard, 1993) must correspond with task, relationship and supportive behaviour of leader. In our model of destructive leader behaviour in Figure 1, we have categorically taken variables which identify the "cause and effect relationship" and project the outcomes. But for better understanding, we have highlighted each variable in each quadrant.

Our aim in this paper is to propose a destructive leadership model which is aligned with the definition. The proposed definition has the following important aspects: (1) create vulnerable situation for the followers and thereby condition their behaviour, (2) disrupt the goals of the organisation and (3) use the followers as means to attain his desired outcomes.

## Conducive Environmental Factors for destructive leaders

The first quadrant of destructive leader behaviour deals with factors pertaining to the flipside of a formal relationship. They have been discussed below.

### Violations of Psychological Contract

Psychological contract is derived from a legitimate employment contract, yet both are different. 'Psychological contract' (Argyris, 1960) is known for being a powerful determiner of behaviour and is linked to employment exchange concept for understanding the 'hidden' aspects of the relationship between supervisor and their employees, higher productivity and lower grievances in return for acceptable wages and job security. The mutual agreement on expectations (Schein, 1980), regarding exchanges might constitute satisfaction, challenging work, fair treatment, loyalty, and opportunity to be creative which take precedence over written agreements. Any psychological contract violation may become counterproductive when individuals threaten damage or harm others (Spector and Fox, 2002) and this opportunity is exploited by leaders.

### Contract Employees

Employment contracts generate multiple insecurities and strengthen leadership power for specific period of time during contract period. Short term contracts reinforce consideration for work-relationships and re-aligns 'organisational power relations' (Collinson, 2003). Under a contract agreement, employees are hired to deliver such services which will provide them, competitive wages, advancement opportunities and job security (Lester *et al.*, 2002). The short term contract employment in case of highly skilled professionals and technical workers creates an element of job insecurity (Lester and Kickul, 2001), threat and constant fear (Smithson and Lewis, 2000) of termination or nonrenewal of contracts.

### Thrust One's own Personal Values on Others

Destructive leaders have values like self serving bias (Maccoby, 2000) and believe that they have the power to commit to their own cause (Lord and Brown, 2004), expect unquestioning obedience (O'Connor *et al.*, 1995) and take undue credit for someone else's contributions, deliberately hide or cover up their mistakes and failures, make others the scapegoat, intolerant towards criticism and dissenting opinions (Yukl, 2004). Leader exploits personal power, exhibits greater dominance, becomes pretentious, demonstrates arrogance, draws self claimed privileges, and has selfish motives behind every action. The strength of personal values displayed by leaders, make the followers believe that it brings tangible benefits to both. Hence, for the conduct of deviant action, the follower becomes an instrument in actualising leader's goals.

### Organisational Politics

Research indicates that organisations which provide priority to high obedience, low control and high cooperation (Matthiesem and Einarsen, 2001), emphasise on due procedures (Salin, 2003) are rule-minded and methodological than organisations which emphasise on performance outcomes, which have been found conducive for destructive leaders to operate in politics. In such organisations destructive leader indulge in political games like cheating, lying, deceiving, threatening, manipulating, and fixing blame on others which create a negative outcome in the workplace (Lipman-Blumen, 2005). Ironically, the followers regard these destructive leaders as their saviour who can deal with any kind of situation. Organisational cultures which are driven by low trust, role ambiguity, ambiguous performance standards and subjective evaluation patterns, zero-sum reward policies, self-serving supervisors/managers, create breeding grounds for politicking.

Destructive leaders embrace deception as a measure to hide their lack of integrity, selfish values, insatiable ambition, and irresponsible behaviour and through this, they attain their self-designed goals. They hide their true intentions most of the time, since those intentions are socially, morally and organisationally unacceptable. This constant deceit yields an absolute contradiction to the faith, confidence and trust which is necessary for maintenance of orderliness within the organisation.

### DESTRUCTIVE LEADER CHARACTERISTICS

The second quadrant of the model describes a typical destructive leader's characteristics in the workplace. This has been discussed below.

#### Selfish Agenda

Leaders accomplish their selfish agendas through their destructive behaviour. Boddy (2009) has identified destructive leader's selfish orientation and has characterised them as self-serving, ego-centric, ruthless, shameless and yet charming, manipulative and ambitious. Their focus lies in their own objectives, and interests, as opposed to the needs of the larger social organisation (Howell and Avolio, 1992) and disqualifies the empowerment of followers/ subordinates/ employees (Conger 1990). Further the impact a destructive leader wields on his followers is substantial and this is apparent when he belittles his followers; is inconsiderate; forces an unconformable style of conflict resolution on them; is causelessly vindictive or discouraging (Ashforth 1994). Such behaviours affect the quality of life for the organisation (Kaiser and Hogan, 2007). Therefore, what is common in them is their typical concern for self-promotion and establishing a support mechanism for themselves (House and Howell, 1992) which takes precedence over the long-term well-being of the company (Atkinson and Butcher, 2003). Padilla *et al.* (2007) argued that despite such self-serving tendencies the leader's plans might turn futile in the absence of stamina and rhetorical skills. Differing from his views, we hold that the stamina and rhetoric skills are not indispensable when the remaining characteristics are present.

#### Charisma

Charisma is considered to be the central trait in all destructive leaders (Hogan *et al.*, 1990) and destructive leadership and charisma are empirically linked (Howell and Avolio, 1992). However, not all charismatic leaders are destructive but most destructive leaders are charismatic (Padilla *et al.*, 2007). Charismatic leaders are mavericks, early achievers (Viney, 1999), are characterized by self-confidence, vigour,

dramatic flair, willingness to test the limits (Paulhus, 1998), have exceptional rhetorical skill (Harvey, 2001), dominant and self-aggrandizement (House and Howell 1992). Some researchers think that the power to influence is particularly evident in charismatic leaders (Elias, 2008) but despite being chosen for leadership roles, they end up in failure owing to their arrogance (Paulhus, 1998). However, managerial competency is not a necessary trait in charismatic leaders; the facade rather than the truth enables them to establish their following in the organisation. Charismatic leaders with their promises to restore order and apparent conviction, attract all during times of uncertainty and threat (Padilla *et al.*, 2007). Followers are attracted to charismatic leaders who they believe can provide them clarity, direction, and increased self-esteem (Howell and Shamir, 2005). However, idealization of self-serving leaders can lead to unquestioning loyalty to their vision and engagement of susceptible followers leading to a vicious cycle (DeCelles and Pfarrer, 2004).

### Contain and Delay Crucial Information

The communication channels are considered to be pivotal to the organisation. The destructive leaders may establish and retain their power by blocking or delaying information. The domain of destructive leader consists of withholding information (Zellers *et al.*, 2002). They consciously indulge in delay tactics, keep individuals under pressure and seek appeasement by blackmailing them. Such informational control enables them to take on a centralized position in the organisation, and they thereby, indulge in such activities which furthers their interests. This withholding or delaying of information may be with regards to vital information for the continuation of work or containing the feedback from the employees (Einarsen *et al.*, 2007). Therefore, inevitably, by such practices followers become less empowered, less creative, and less productive (Hornstein and De Guerre, 2006).

### Abusive Supervision

Abusive supervision has been defined as exerting control through means of fear and intimidation (Hornstein, 1996). Additionally, destructive leaders create hostile work environments to maintain power distance (Hofstede, 1978). Hostility on part of the leaders either in the verbal or non-verbal forms excluding 'physical aggression' constitutes abusive supervision (Tepper *et al.*, 2007). A manifestation of this hostility, therefore, could be interpreted as vindictiveness and victimisation (Aquino, 2000). They undermine the employees, engage in public denigration, anger and impulsive outbursts (Tepper, 2007). They are known to

employ a sustained display of such negative supervisory behaviour.

### Narcissism

Several scholars have recognised narcissism as a recurring trait in destructive leadership. Destructive leadership is basically governed by narcissistic perspectives (Conger 1990). However, narcissism in itself is not a destructive trait (Maccoby 2004); when coupled with emotional intelligence and empathy, it leads to constructive organisational outcomes. This paper focuses only on destructive-narcissistic leaders who are characterised by charisma and selfish agenda. This is indicative of the inter-connection between narcissism, charisma and power abuse which is inherent in a destructive leader. Although researchers have identified various qualities of destructive leaders, we are of the view that all these qualities originate from three core traits: self-centeredness, attention-seeking, and indifference to others (Conger and Kanungo, 1998). Building linkages of cause and effect relationship, we propose that presence of self centeredness leads to qualities of dominance, arrogance and selfish pursuit of pleasure. On the other hand, repeated attempts of making one indispensable leads to display of grandiosity and entitlement (Rosenthal and Pittinsky, 2006). Similarly, indifference to others leads to haughty behaviour.

Narcissistic leaders often display an autocratic leadership style and demand unquestioning obedience from followers (O'Connor *et al.*, 1995). Their extravagant desire for power and success leads to failure in evaluating their actions or judgements (Conger, 1990). Surmising, constant self admiration and extravagance results in lack of pragmatism thus, rendering nugatory the vision of the destructive leader (Kaiser and Hogan, 2007).

### FOLLOWERS

The third quadrant is about followers who constitute an important role in actualising the intent of destructive leader behaviour. Followers, who are constantly associated with destructive leader, often remain susceptible due to following factors.

### Fear

Followers are often put to an uncertain situation and then they may remain hostile out of fear of reprisal. Followers comply (Yukl, 2004) to leaders due to fear of negative outcomes like rise in hostility (Smith *et al.*, 1993), threat of job or status (Barsky and Kaplan, 2007) and blamed for others' actions (Smith *et al.*, 1993). If fear exists it can

destroy their relationship with leader and themselves. This clearly shows that followers are subjected to higher degree of suppression and mistreatment and therefore, employees avoid disagreements with managers (Jones, 1996), which can be created by excessive use of coercion by the leader. Followers, who have low self-esteem are often prone to fear and threat of job insecurity, hostility, face embarrassment etc. by destructive leaders.

### Never Question Leader's Decision

Followers and destructive leaders collude and engage in formulating informal norms which could be of two types namely (i) reciprocal norms which states if individuals do something nice to them they would equally reciprocate (Aronson and Mettee, 1968) and (ii) destructive norms, wherein they are accountable and answerable to each other. Destructive leader exercises destructive norms, the leader-follower collude and refrain from divulging the crucial information to others and thereby followers may develop illegitimate reciprocal expectations (Gelfand *et al.*, 2004). Leaders never allow followers to question them on sharing information and allocation of duties. Followers should take the risk of questioning the leader's decisions, but instead they reinstate their belief that the leader's 'decision will do larger good', this way they try to be an 'in-member' of the core group of the leader. Hence the followers indulge in self-restraint and continue to remain passive as long as their fundamental relationship based on norms is not disturbed. Therefore, followers repose unquestionable obedience because doubting or questioning leaders is not tolerated by him.

### Low Maturity

Immature individuals are more likely to conform to authority and get influenced by destructive leaders (Argyris, 1960). Immature individuals are more dependent on authority to help them conform to the expectations of destructive leaders and owing to their social group they continue to believe that they have low self-esteem, low self- efficacy and are governed by external locus of control; thus feel unappreciated (Ashforth and Mael, 1989). Destructive leaders find avenues to control the dependent followers because of limited vision and conditioning. Thus, maturity is needed to assert one's position with high self esteem to oppose destructive leaders.

### Low Self-Esteem

People who have negative core self-evaluations, tend to dislike themselves, question their capabilities, view themselves as powerless over their environment, as they draw basic negative conclusions about themselves (Judge

and Bono, 2001). This is based on two constructs namely (i) low self –esteem and (ii) external locus of control. People with low self-esteem are more susceptible to external pressures, influenced, seek approval of others, and are more prone to conform to the beliefs and behaviour of those they respect than people who believe in them (Creed, Bloxsome and Johnston, 2001). Contrarily, people with external locus of control believe that what happened to them is controlled by outside forces which reflect formulation of negative core self-evaluations (Rotter, 1966). Such followers become susceptible to workplace pressures. Self esteem is the basic appraisal of one's overall value as human beings (Harter, 1990). Low self-esteem can be a root cause for many ills like depression, poor performance, various form of violence and aggression (Baumeister, et al., 2003). Leaders with high self-esteem prefer to have followers with low self esteem (Shamir *et al.*, 1994) because such leaders want to control, influence and manoeuvre the followers and such followers endorse such treatment (Weierter, 1997).

### Low Self-efficacy

Followers with low self-efficacy succumb to learned helplessness (Abramson *et al.*, 1978) and think of themselves as incompetent and thoroughly capable of engaging in destructive behaviour. Additionally, people with external locus of control can be prone towards cheating, committing cruel or immoral acts (Aronson and Mettee, 1968). Followers with an external locus of control prefer to stay followers only (Rotter, 1966) to be in-group and affiliate with powerful people. Thus, such people are instrumental in becoming agents to achieve desired goals of destructive leaders (Luthans *et al.*, 1998).

## TOXIC ENVIRONMENT

The forth quadrant deals with some of the factors which create toxicity. They are discussed below.

### Incrementally Destroys the Organisation's Systematic Functions

Every organisation provides opportunities to display constructive leadership in the organisation. Contrarily, leaders who display destructive behaviours, abuse the organisational structure, processes and resources for the fulfilment of their own motives, leading to organisational destruction. Such a leader is counter-productive in the organisation. The impact of the leader's destructive behaviour is felt by external stakeholders in the capacity of individuals and institutions (Kaiser and Hogan, 2007). These external stakeholders draw substantial benefits from trade-secrets, tradeoffs with suppliers and intermediaries or embezzlement

of organisations' resources (Takala, 2010). This will lead to detrimental consequences for the organisation (Whicker, 1996) as destructive leaders consciously deviate from the organisational objectives (Hogan and Kaiser, 2005).

### Loyalty and Solidarity for Career Advancement

The destructive leader survives in the organisation because of the environment and his followers. The prominent characteristics of destructive leaders: narcissism and charisma, makes followers loyal to them despite their destructive traits. Firstly, charismatic leaders are sensitive to the needs of their followers, possess rhetoric skills, grand visions and are confidence inspiring (House and Howell, 1992). Followers align with destructive leaders either to fulfil their self-interests or to find an anchor in them due to their low self esteem and low self-concept. The harmonization of the leader and the follower's beliefs leads, to strengthening of loyalty to the leader and a desire for their approval (Barbuto, 2000). Secondly, narcissistic leaders with their dominant characteristics inspire (Hogan *et al.*, 1994) and demand (Harwood, 2003) loyalty from followers. They are more likely to convince their followers to silently accept abusive supervision and take responsibility for the leader's mistakes.

Followers can be of two types namely conformers and colluders (Padilla, 2007). We argue that the reasons for their loyalties can be drawn from these very categorizations. Conformers are led by fear whereas colluders are led by the homogeneity of motives. Both are motivated by self-interest, but their concerns are different (Higgins, 1997). Fear and self-interest also evoke loyalties in the followers. Therefore, if the followers find their ends being fulfilled, they are more likely to negatively contribute under the destructive leader.

Followers need not be concentrated from the 'pocket group' of the leader's functional area, but they could be spread across the organisation. In our view, when destructive leaders, ignoring merit and performance based results, categorically prioritise loyalists during career advancement (Colligan and Higgins, 2006), it leads to toxicity.

### Legitimation of Workplace Violence

The conceptual understanding of workplace violence is where destructive leaders make inappropriate remarks, verbally abuse, oppress, humiliate, snub or show disrespect to both subordinates and followers. There could be different forms of workplace violence like abusive supervision (Tepper, 2000), social undermining (Duffy *et al.*, 2002), tyranny (Ashforth, 1994) and bullying (Hoel and Cooper, 2001). Ill-treatment develops negative attitude among subordinates

and followers. When workforce violence gets crystallised, as part of organisational functioning, it clearly shows a growing rift between the followers and subordinates. Followers with low self-esteem, low self-efficacy, and external locus of control seek protection, anticipating long term gains. This situation leads to a vicious cycle. We argue that lack of systematic process to deal with complaints and absence of legal framework to curb workplace violence against abusive supervision enables destructive leaders to continue to use this as the cultural order and legitimise the same.

### Consolidate Hate Relationships

Destructive leaders are governed by values like 'ideology of hate' (Padilla *et al.*, 2007). The destructive leader apart from holding deep rooted hate constructs against employees in the organisation fosters the same between the employees. Individuals, with destructive behaviour unduly glorify their subject expertise and seldom appreciate disciplines of others. This creates a sense of distraction and acts as a diversionary tactic whereby, the leaders driven by an egotistical need for power secure their positions in the organisation. It is proposed that these prejudices could also stem from their protective approach towards individuals of their community, religion, caste, racial and ethnic background.

Destructive leaders are primarily governed by bounded rationality (Simon, 1976) and satisfied without capturing all the complexity of decision making (Forester, 1984), resulting in groupthink (Leana, 1985). We argue that when destructive leaders promote hate ideology, and also exhibit symptoms of groupthink, they create space for toxicity. Moreover, the leaders/ managers feel contended with reviews and their typical approach is, "let things happen, we will look into it". When decisions are made out of convenience and inappropriate logic, consequences would be detrimental.

### ORGANISATIONAL OUTCOME

The fifth quadrant emphasises on the negative organisational outcomes. The concerted efforts of destructive leaders and followers could be perceived as an unbecoming act. Some of the organisational outcomes are discussed below.

### Unethical Leadership

Unethical practices are equated to corruption (Asemota, 2003) and it could be (i) use of formal position for private gains and (ii) use of unsanctioned means to achieve unsanctioned ends (Johns, 1996). If undue coercion is applied by the leader (Robertson and Rymon, 2001) to perform illegal acts, it results in unethical behaviour. Destructive leaders use

followers as agents to indulge in unethical acts without their involvement. Unethical behaviour among followers could be fostered by means of rewards, condoning non-conformers and overlooking their unethical acts (Ashforth and Anand, 2003). If the leader is unethical, it reflects through the employees' attitudes (Tepper, 2000), task and extra-role performance (Zellers *et al.*, 2002), resistance (Tepper, Duffy, and Shaw, 2001), psychological well-being (Tepper, 2000) and their personal lives (Hoobler and Brass, 2006). Leaders through illegitimate sanctions promote their own unethical behaviour, indifference, insensitivity and misuse of legitimate power (Kelman, 1973). Followers emulate the leader's unethical behaviour and continue to regard this as their value belief system.

Both employees and followers are exploited and constantly forced to indulge in sabotaging, cheating, embezzlement, fraud, insider trading and violation of confidentiality, leading to imbalances in their relationship, work attitudes (Tepper, 2000), deviance and retaliatory behaviour. Hence, followers drain their self regulatory resources (Baumeister, 2001) and end in 'identity crisis'. For example, the unethical acts of leaders in Enron, Worldcom led to the end of the organisation altogether.

### Face Decline

Leaders with risk-aversion (Thoroughgood *et al.*, 2011), strong assertion (Mark *et al.*, 1998) and self-centeredness cause drastic organisational decline. Organisational decline is an outcome of two possible reasons (i) destructive leader controls and governs the workplace environment (Langer, 1975) and (ii) learned helplessness of employees (Abramson *et al.*, 1980) who are subject to prejudices, inequitable rewards, unfair assessment, reduced innovativeness (Cameron, Whetten, and Kim, 1987), and suffer from symptoms of groupthink (Janis, 1971). Such circumstances lead to negative work environment, which is responsible for organisational decline. Dysfunctional attributes lead to loss of leader credibility because of leaders' implied failure either to protect organisational members interests or to turn around the decline (Hall and Mansfield, 1971). When shareholder's interests are not protected then they tend to withdraw their investments, leading to decline.

Satyam Computer Services Ltd, encountered 'termite effect'. It portrayed itself as financially sound and highly performing unit, but concealed the actual financial performance of the organisation. Shareholders were kept in dark and they continued to invest for years. With the outbreak of financial crisis, the real picture emerged and led to the organisation's decline.

### Weak Culture

Organisations with weak culture reflect non-alignment to core values, less commitment and low control (Kelmann *et al.*, 1986). Hence, we propose that the work environment dominated by destructive leaders, would lead to cultural clashes and will nurture weak cultures by allowing formalization of informal norms, poor rules and regulations (Martins and Martins, 2003) and contrary value belief system. Such weak culture increases frustration in employees, antagonism and indiscipline leading to outcomes like low supervisory control, increase employee unwillingness, low self direction, low morale and motivation, excessive complaints and grievances leading to increased employee turn-over. E.g., Enron weakened its system by creating a make belief system where followers were forced to accept values without questioning. Hence, employees experience low trust and low individual autonomy (Harrison and Stokes, 1992). Existence of contradicting values, leads to internal conflicts, unrest and value disintegration. It was found that the leaders in Enron were highly opportunistic and promulgated opportunism. Enron arbitrarily used employment at will policy whereby managers rewarded those who showed blind loyalty and terminated those who showed dissent.

### Subjective Interpretation of Organisational Value

People build their own way of looking at things and make their own personal construct towards the values of organisation (Kelly, 1955, Personal construct theory). Organisational values are the moral and ethical codes which determine what employees think and what they ought to do (Brown, 1995) and hence, they must be followed as they are the conscious, affective desires of institutional leaders. Due to subjective interpretation (Schutz, 1973) of values between leaders and followers, 'destructive criticism' is propagated (Kunda, 1992). When leaders constantly shift their value bases between super-ordinate values and instrumental values and manipulate them, this leads to a significant negative co-relation between the two (Hinkle, 1965). Both formal and informal relationships get affected in the organisation (Nonaka, 1994). Observing constant changes in value premising and depending upon situations, employees encounter value conflict.

### Hampering Organisational Reputation

Destructive leaders are responsible for degradation of reputation and breakdown of fiduciary relationship. Corrupt

practices leads to decline of organisational credibility and deterioration of public trust (Lederman, 1992). Due to lack of transparency and openness, in competitive environment, shareholders and stakeholders lose trust and this significantly affects the reputation of the organisation. As a result, the destructive behaviour becomes instrumental in lowering the performance of the employees and organisational reputation. This hampers the goodwill, damages the brand image and brings the downfall in the stock market.

## DISCUSSION

Destructive leadership in organisations has become a subject matter of significant research interest in recent years. While we appreciate Hogan and Hogan's (2001) description of "the dark side" of leadership, we also strongly believe that destructive leaders do manipulate and influence their 'susceptible' followers (Padilla, 2007) in order to maximize their personal goals. In this article, we have proposed a concrete model to understand the definition, suggesting that destructive leaders can be instrumental agents of organisational degradation and they develop ulterior motives to sabotage the organisation's goals and ultimately leads to organisational decline.

Every organisation believes in a formal relationship which is known as employment contract. The core issues concerning 'employment' and 'non-employment' create an environment of political behaviour. The destructive leaders exploit the organisation's internal environmental and organisational processes to create toxic workplace. The proposed model considers conducive environment, interactive antecedents of leader, followers and outcomes. Hence destructive leaders actualise their selfish goals, and hardly care for constructive use of authority, reputation, and effectiveness. The fact of the issue is that we are at a threshold stage to pinpoint the emergence of destructive leader behaviour where we advocate our comprehension of destructive leadership in organisations, which leads to toxic work environment and culminates into organisational decline. Hopefully, this conceptualization of definition and proposed model will move us further along in our understanding of this important phenomenon.

## IMPORTANCE OF THE PROPOSED MODEL

With the limited literature available in this field of research area, we found that a cross section of authors have significantly highlighted the destructive leader behaviour from a narrow perspective focussing on leader's traits like narcissism (Hogan *et al.*, 1990; House and Howell, 1992; O'Connor *et al.*, 1995), tyranny (Ashforth, 1994) and abusive supervision (Tepper, 2000). Interestingly, the contribution of Padilla highlighted the role of leader, follower and environment. In

our proposed model, we have highlighted those parameters in employment relations which act as a breeding ground for destructive leaders, possessing destructive characteristics and aptly supported by group of followers who have low self esteem, low self efficacy, low maturity and high loyalty. We strongly argue that the combination of all the three areas gives rise to two outcomes namely (i) toxic environment and (ii) organisational decline.

## PROPOSITION FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

Although we present the model of destructive leader behaviour with a reasonable degree of self-confidence, it is such a new area of scientific inquiry that empirical testing is needed to establish the validity of its linkage and place more confidence in a definitive model that indisputably articulate the exact set of antecedents and consequences of destructive leader behaviour. Unlike those who support the constructs of exclusive situational factors on destructive leaders' behaviour, we propose that destructive leader behaviour is a phenomenon of some complex intentional strategy of the leader to maximize his/ her image and reputation, seek illegitimate gains whereby he/she inherently engages in an interactive process with the targeted followers.

Additionally, a significant dimension in the future is to investigate the 'hidden agenda' of destructive leaders. Management researchers have seldom suspected the role of leader behaviour to be a destructive one. But today, managers cannot plead ignorance as in the present day context, organisations are witnessing "scams leading to financial uncertainty", "bullying behaviour", "abusive supervision" and "emotional abuse" in several areas of businesses. The authors propose to consider the universe of organisation being inclusive of institutions of higher education, corporate houses, hospitals, public utility services, public sector, private sector and others. Destructive leadership could spread throughout all these organisations and as this is a 'pervasive' phenomenon leading to ultimate destruction.

Every organisation should lay down effective measures to promote strong, independent followers who will throw a real challenge to the existence of destructive leaders. The only possible way to alleviate this problem is to develop confidence in vulnerable followers, to create healthy organisational culture and workplace practices, but this is difficult to implement. An important aspect for research and practice is the question of relativity of permissible destructive behaviour in an organisation. Nevertheless, the Human Resource Managers have to constantly monitor and measure the leaders' tendencies to become susceptible towards destructive behaviour. On a similar note, the followers need to be evaluated on their vulnerability towards destructive leaders.

## IMPLICATION FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

Research examines all the four components (i) employer-employee relationships, (ii) leaders, (iii) followers, and (iv) interplay of the three factors contributing towards creation of environments. This inquiry gives scope for several areas of future research namely:

- (i) to evaluate the destructive leader behaviour it would be appropriate to use Toxic Leadership questionnaire (Schmidt, 2008), Narcissistic Personality Inventory (Raskin and Terry, 1988), Destructive Leadership Scales (Einarsen *et al.*, 2002).
- (ii) to use a separate measurement to determine the varied degrees of behavioural dimensions for followers of low self-esteem, self-concept and self-image to predict the outcomes. Owing to the inherent misconception of the unidirectional relationship, we intend to examine the dynamics of dyadic relationships between destructive leaders and vulnerable followers.
- (iii) The toxic work environment is created due to crystallisation of destructive norms, high cohesiveness between destructive leaders and vulnerable followers. The dominance of destructive leaders is to ensure high conformity; exploit follower's loyalty and subordinate's esteem (Burton and Hoobler, 2006). Ironically, the vulnerable followers engage in self censorship leading, people to believe that they agree more than they actually do (Bernthal and Insko, 1993). Thus, we intend to focus our study on divergent forms of manifestation of toxic work environment.
- (iv) The power-play between leaders and followers in organisational context could differ depending upon the organisational cultures (Schein, 1980) and national cultures (Hofstede, 1993). We acknowledge that organisational outcomes could significantly differ in divergent environments as we are not aware of any research to prove the same. Therefore we are not sure whether the proposed organisational outcomes will universally be the same in different cultures.

## CONCLUSION

Through this proposed model, we have tried to highlight the emergence of destructive leader behaviour which is facilitated by the conducive work environment. We have tried to explore different aspects which emerge out of employer-employee relationships based on the dyadic relationship of leader-follower which culminates in destructive outcomes. Unlike basic models of leader-follower behaviour relationship, our attempt is to present a comprehensive process for scholars to understand the three dimensional perspective of the destructive leader creating toxic work

environment. Dismantling the fundamental belief that theories of leadership always paint the constructive side of leader behaviour, our attempt of presenting this model, is to ignite the curiosity in the mind of researchers to understand the convergence of destructive leader and follower, leading to negative impacts in the organisation.

## REFERENCES

- Abramson, L. Y., Garber, J., & Seligman, M. E. P. (1980). *Learned helplessness in humans: An Attributional analysis*. In Garber J. & M. E. P. Seligman (Eds.). *Human Helplessness: Theory and applications*, 3-34. New York: Academic Press.
- Abramson, L. Y., Seligman, M. E. P., & Teasdale, J. D. (1978). Learned helplessness in humans: Critique and Reformulation. *Journal of Abnormal Psychology*, 87, 49-74.
- Aquino, K. (2000). Structural and individual determinants of workplace victimization: The effects of hierarchical status and conflict management style. *Journal of Management*, 26(2), 171 - 193.
- Argyris, C. (1960). *Understanding Organisational Behaviour*. Homewood, IL: Dorsey Press.
- Aronson, E., & Mettee, D. (1968). Dishonest behaviour as a function of different levels of induced self-esteem. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 1, 121-127.
- Asemota, O. O. (2003). *Ethics and Values-are they Forgotten in the Workplace, Community and Society? Academic and Research Conference*, University of Namibia, Northern campus, Oshakati, Namibia.
- Ashforth, B. E., & Anand, V. (2003). *The Normalization Of Corruption In Organisations*. Research in Organisational Behavior, 25, 1-52. In A. P., Buttram, R. T., & Dukerich, J. M. 2001. *Collective corruption In The Corporate World: Toward A Process Model*. In M. E. Turner (Ed.). *Groups at Work: Theory and Research*, Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum 471-499.
- Ashforth, B. E. (1994). *Petty Tyranny in Organisations: Human Relations*, 47(7), 755-778.
- Ashforth, B.E., & Mael, F. (1989). Social Identify Theory and Organisation. *Academy of Management Review*, 14, 20-29
- Atkinson, S., & Butcher, D. (2003). Trust in Managerial Relationships, *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, 18(4), 282-304.
- Barbuto, J. E. Jr., (2000). Comparing leaders' ratings to targets' self-reported resistance to task assignments: an extension of Chester Barnard's zones of indifference. *Psychol Rep.*, 86(2), 611-621.
- Baumeister, R. F., Campbell, D. J., Krueger, J., & Vohs, K. D. (2003). Does high self esteem cause better performance,

- interpersonal success, happiness, or healthier lifestyles? *Psychological Science in the Public Interest*, 4, 1-44.
- Baumeister R. F., Bratslavsky, E., Finkenauer C., & Vohs K. D. (2001). Bad is stronger than good. *Review of General Psychology*, 5(4), 323-370
- Barsky, A., & Kaplan, S. A. (2007). If you feel bad, Its unfair: A quantitative synthesis of affect and organizational justice perceptions. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 92, 286-295.
- Bernthal, P. R., & Insko, C. A. (1993). Cohesiveness without groupthink: The interactive effects of social and task cohesion. *Group & Organisation Management*, 18 (1), 66-87.
- Boddy, C. R. (2009). *Corporate Psychopaths in Australian Workplaces: Their Influence on Organisational Outcomes*. Curtin University of Technology: Perth, Australia
- Brodsky, C. M. (1976). *The Harassed Worker*. Lexington Books, DC Heath and Company, Toronto
- Brown, A. D. (1995). *Organisational culture*. London: Pitman Publishing
- Burton, J., & Hoobler, J. (2006). Subordinate self-esteem and abusive supervision. *Journal of Managerial Issues*, 18(3), 340-356.
- Cameron, K. S., Whetten D. A., & Myung, U. K. (1987). Organisational dysfunctions of decline. *The Academy of Management Journal*, 30(1), 126-138.
- Colligan, T. W., & Higgins, E. M. (2005). Workplace stress: Etiology and consequences. *Journal of Workplace Behavioral Health*, 21(2), 89-97.
- Collinson, D. (2003). Identities and insecurities: selves at work. *Organisation*, 10, 527-547.
- Conger, J. (1990). The dark side of leadership. *Organisational Dynamics*, 19, 44-55.
- Conger, J., & Kanungo, R. (1998). *Charismatic leadership in organisations*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publication.
- Creed, P. A., Bloxsome, T. A., & Johnston, K. (2001). Self-esteem and self-efficacy outcomes for unemployed individuals attending occupational skills training programs. *Community, Work and Family*, 3, 285-303.
- DeCelles, K., & Pfarrer, M. (2004). Heroes or villains? Corruption and the charismatic leader. *Journal of Leadership and Organisational Studies*, 11(1), 67.
- Duffy, M. K., Ganster, D. C., & Pagon, M. (2002). Social undermining in the workplace. *Academy of Management Journal*, 45, 331-51.
- Einarsen, S., Aasland, M., & Skogstad, A. (2007). Destructive leadership behaviour: A definition and conceptual model. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 18, 207-216.
- Elias, S. (2008). Fifty years of influence in the workplace. The evolution of the French and Raven power taxonomy. *Journal of Management History*, 14(3), 267-283.
- Forester, J. (1984). Bounded Rationality and the politics of muddling through. *Public Administration Review*, January-February, 23-31.
- Gelfand, M. J., Lim, B. C., & Raver, J. L. (2004). Culture and Accountability in organizations: Variations in forms of social control across cultures. *Human Resource Management Review*, 14(1), 135-160.
- Hall, D. T., & Mansfield, R. (1971). *Organisational and individual response to external stress*. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 16, 533-547.
- Harrison, R., & Stokes, H. (1992). *Diagnosing Organisational Culture*, New York: Pfeiffer and Company.
- Harter, S. (1990). *Self and Identity Development*. In S. S. Feldman & G. Elliott (Eds.). *At the Threshold: The Developing Adolescent*, Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press. 352-387.
- Harvey, A. (2001). A dramaturgical analysis of charismatic leader discourse. *Journal of Organisational Change Management*, 14, 253-265.
- Harwood, I. (2003). Distinguishing between the facilitating and the self-serving charismatic group leader. *Group*, 27, 121-129.
- Hersey, P., & Blanchard, K. H. (1969). An introduction to situational leadership. *Training and Development Journal*, 23, 26-34.
- Higgins, E. T. (1997). Beyond pleasure and pain. *American Psychologist*, 52, 1280-1300.
- Hinkle, D. N. (1965). The change of personal constructs from the viewpoint of a theory of implications. *Unpublished Ph.D. Thesis*, Ohio State University. Reviewed by Bannister and Mair (1968).
- Hoel, H., Cooper, C. L., & Faragher, B. (2001). The experience of bullying in Great Britain : The impact of organisational status. *European Journal of Work and Organisational Psychology*, 10, 443-465.
- Hofstede., G. (1993). Cultural Constraints in Management Theories. *Academy of Management executive*, 7 (1), 81-94.
- Hofstede, G. (1978). The poverty of management control philosophy. *The Academy of Management Review* 3 (3), 450-461.
- Hogan, R., & Hogan, J. (2001). Assessing leadership: A view from the dark side. *International Journal of Selection and Assessment*, 9, 40-51.
- Hogan, R., & Kaiser, R. (2005). What we know about leadership. *Review of General Psychology*, 9(2), 169-180.

- Hogan, R. (2006). *Personality and the Fate of Organisations*, Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum.
- Hogan, R., Raskin, R., & Fazzini, D. (1990). *The Dark side of Charisma*. In K. E. Clark & M. B. Clark, *Measures of Leadership*. West Orange (Eds.), NJ: Leadership Library of America, 343–354.
- Hogan, R., Curphy, G. J. & Hogan, J. (1994). What we know about leadership: Effectiveness and personality. *American Psychologist*, 49, 493-504.
- Hoobler, J. M., & Brass, D. J. (2006). *Abusive supervision and family undermining as displaced aggression*. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 91, 1125–33.
- Hornstein, H. (1996). *Brutal Bosses and Their Prey*, New York, NY: Penguin.
- Hornstein, H. A., & De Guerre, D. W. (2006). Bureaucratic organisations are bad for our health. *Ivey Business Journal Online*, 1-4. In Agbor E. (2008). Creativity and innovation: The leadership dynamics, *Journal of Strategic Leadership*.
- House, R., & Howell, J. (1992). Personality and charismatic leadership. *Leadership Quarterly*, 3, 81–108.
- Howell, J. M., & Avolio, B. J. (1992). The ethics of charismatic leadership: Submission or liberation?. *Academy of Management Executive*, 6, 43–54.
- Howell, J. M., & Shamir, B. (2005). The role of followers in the charismatic leadership process: Relationships and their consequences. *Academy of Management Review*, 30, 96–112.
- Janis, I. L. (1971). Group Think, *Psychology Today*, 43-46. In Yers D.G. (2006). *Social Psychology* “Eight (Edn), Tata McGraw Hill, New Delhi, 311-313.
- Johns, G. (1996). *Organisational Behaviour: Understanding and Managing Life at Work*. Fourth edition, Harper Collins College Publishers, New York: 427.
- Judge, T., & Bono, J. (2001). Relationship of core self-evaluations traits-self-esteem, generalized self-efficacy, locus of control, and emotional stability—with job satisfaction and job performance: A meta-analysis. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 86, 80–92. K. Leung, K. Tong and S. S. Ho, (2004). Effect if International justice on Ego-centric Bias in resource allocation decision. *Journal of applied Psychology*, 89(3), 405-415.
- Kaiser, B. R., & Hogan, R. (2007). *The Dark Side of Discretion- Leader Personality and Organisational Decline, Research Report*. Retrieved from [http://www.hoganassessments.com/hogan\\_web/documents/dark%20side%20of%20discretion.pdf](http://www.hoganassessments.com/hogan_web/documents/dark%20side%20of%20discretion.pdf)
- Keashly, L. (1998). Emotional abuse in the workplace: Conceptual and empirical issues. *Journal of Emotional Abuse*, 1(1), 85 - 117.
- Kellerman, B. (2004). *Bad Leadership: What it is, How it Happens, Why it Matters*”. Boston, MA: Harvard Business School Press.
- Kelly, G. A. (1955). *The Psychology of Personal Constructs, I*, New York, US: Norton.
- Kelmann, R. H., Saxton, M. J., & Serpa, Roy. (1986). Issues in Understanding and Changing Culture. *California Management Review*, 28, 87-94.
- Kelman, H. C., (1973). Violence without moral restraint: Reflections on the de-humanization of victims and victimizers. *Journal of Social Issues*. 29(4), 25-61.
- Kunda, G. (1992). *Engineering Culture: Control and Commitment in a High-Tech Corporation*. Philadelphia, Temple University Press.
- Langer, E. (1975). The illusion of control. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 32, 311-328.
- Leana, C. R (1985). A Partial Test of Janis’ Groupthink Model: Effects of Group Cohesiveness and Leader Behaviour on defective decision making. *Journal of Management*, 5-17.
- Lederman, D. (1992). A painful 5-year struggle to clean up Southern Methodist’s tarnished image. *Chronicle of Higher Education*, 39(14), A25-26.
- Lester, S.W., & Kickul, J. (2001). Psychological contracts in the 21st century: What employees value most and how well organisations are responding to these expectations. *HR. Human Resource Planning*, 24(1), 10-21.
- Lester, S. W., Turnley, W. H., Bloodgood, J. M., & Bolino, M. C. (2002). Not seeing eye to eye: differences in supervisor and subordinate perceptions of and attributions for psychological contract breach. *Journal of Organisational Behavior*, 23, 39-56
- Lipman-Blumen, J. (2005). *The allure of toxic leaders. Why we Follow Destructive Bosses and Corrupt Politicians—and How we can Survive Them*, Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Lord, R. G., & Brown, D. J. (2004). Leadership processes and follower identity. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates. In Kark, R & Dijk, D.V. ,(2007). Motivation To Lead, Motivation to Follow: The Role Of The Self-regulatory Focus In Leadership Processes. *Academy of Management Review*, 32(2), 500–528.
- Maccoby, M. (2004). Narcissistic leaders: The incredible pros, the inevitable cons. *Harvard Business Review*, 82(1), 92–101.
- Martins, N., & Martins, E. (2003). *Organisational culture*, In Robbins, S.P., Odendaal A. and Roodt, G. (eds). *Organisational Behaviour: Global and Southern African Perspectives*, Cape Town: Pearson Education, South Africa

- Matthiesen, S. B., & Einarsen, S. (2001). MMPI-2 configurations among victims of bullying at work. *European Journal of Work and Organisational Psychology* 10(4), 467-484.
- Namie, G. (2003). Workplace Bullying: Escalated Incivility. *Ivey Business Journal* November, 68, 1-7.
- Namie, G., & Namie, R. (2000). *The Bully at Work. What you Can Do To Stop the Hurt and Reclaim The Dignity on the Job*. Naperville: Sourcebooks, Inc.
- Neuman, J. H., & Baron, R. M. (2005). *Aggression in the Workplace: A Social-Psychological Perspective*, In S. Fox & P. E. Spector (Eds.). *Counterproductive. Investigations of Actors and Targets*. Washington, DC: American Psychological Association.
- Nonaka, I. (1994). A dynamic theory of organisational knowledge creation. *Organisation Science*, 5, 14-37. Read in (Richard L. Daft and Karl E. Weick, (1984). Toward a Model of Organisations as Interpretation Systems. *The Academy of Management Review*, 9(2), 284-295.
- O'Connor, J., Mumford, M., Clifton, T., Gessner, T., & Connelly, M. (1995). Charismatic leaders and destructiveness: An historiometric study. *Leadership Quarterly*, 6, 529-555
- Padilla, A., Hogan, R., & Kaiser, R. (2007). The toxic triangle: Destructive leaders, susceptible followers, and conducive environments. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 18, 176-194.
- Paulhus, D. L. (1998). Intrapersonal and intrapsychic adaptiveness of trait self-enhancement: A mixed blessing? *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 75, 1197-1208.
- Raskin, R. N., & Terry, H. (1988). A Principal components analysis of the Narcissistic Personality Inventory and further evidence of its construct validity. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 54, 890-902.
- Rayner, C., Hoel, H., & Cooper, C. L. (2002). *Workplace bullying. What we know, who is to blame, and what can we do?"* London: Taylor & Francis.
- Robertson, D.C., & Rymon, T. 2001. Purchasing agents' deceptive behavior: A randomized response technique study. *Business Ethics Quarterly*, 11, 455-79.
- Rosenthal, S. A., & Pittinsky, T. L. (2006). Narcissistic leadership. *Leadership Quarterly*, 17, 617-633.
- Rotter, J.B. (1966). Generalised expectations for internal versus external control of reinforcement. *Psychological Monographs*, 80, 609.
- Schein, E. H. (1980). *Organisational Psychology*, 3rd edition. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.
- Schmidt, A. A. (2008). *Development and Validation of the Toxic Leadership Scale*. Master's Thesis, University of Maryland.
- Schutz, A. (1973). Concept and theory formation in the social sciences, In Maurice Natanson (Ed.), *Collected Papers*, 1, The Hague: Martinus Nijhoff, 48-66. Read in (Allen S. Lee, (1991) Integrating Positivist and interpretive approaches to organisational research. *Organisation Science*, 2(4), 342-365.
- Simon, H. A. (1976). *Administrative Behavior: A Study of Decision-Making Processes in Administrative Organisation*. New York: The Free Press.
- Skinner, B. F. (1971). Contingencies of reinforcement, East norwalk, CT:Appleton-century-croft. cited in Robbins, P.Stephen, Judge, A.Timothy. (2007). *Organisational Behaviour*, Prentice Hall of India, New Delhi, 56.
- Slattery, C. (2009). *The Dark Side of Leadership :Troubling Times at Top*, Retrieved from [http:// www.conference.co.nz/files/docs/darksideofleadership2.pdf](http://www.conference.co.nz/files/docs/darksideofleadership2.pdf)
- Smith, C. A., Haynes, K. N., Lazarus, R. S., & Pope, L. K. (1993). In search of the hot cognitions: Attributions, appraisals, and their relation to emotion. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 65, 916-929.
- Smithson, J., & S. Lewis (2000). Is Job Insecurity changing the psychological contract ? *Personnel Review*, 29(6), 680-702.
- Spector, P. E., & Fox, S. (2002). An emotion-centered model of voluntary work behavior: Some parallels between counterproductive work behavior (CWB) and organisational citizenship behavior (OCB). *Human Resource Management Review*, 12, 269-292.
- Takala, T. (2010). Dark leadership, charisma and trust. *Psychology*, 1, 59-53
- Tepper, B. (2000). Consequences of abusive supervision. *Academy of Management Journal*, 43(2), 178-190.
- Tepper, B. J., Duffy, M. K., & Shaw, J. D. (2001). Personality moderators of the relationship between abusive supervision and subordinates' resistance. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 86, 974-83.
- Tepper, B. J., Moss, S. E., Lockhart, D. E., & Carr, J. C. (2007). Abusive supervision, upward maintenance communication, and subordinates' psychological distress. *Academy of Management Journal*, 50, 1169-80
- Tepper, B. J., Moss, S., & Duffy, M. K. (2011). Predictors of abusive supervision: Supervisor perceptions of deep-level dissimilarity, relationship conflict, and subordinate performance. *Academy of Management Journal*, 54, 279-294.
- Tepper, B., Duffy, D., Henle, C., & Lambert, L. (2006). Procedural injustice, victim precipitation, and abusive supervision. *Personnel Psychology*, 59(1), 101-124.
- Thoroughgood, C. N., Hunter, S. T., & Sawyer, K. B. (2011). Bad apples, bad barrels, and broken followers? An empirical examination of contextual influences on follower

- perceptions and reactions to aversive leadership. *Journal of Business Ethics, Springer, 100*: 647–672.
- Thoroughgood, C. N., Padilla, A., Hunter, S.T., & Tate, B.W., (2012). The susceptible circle: A taxonomy of followers associated with destructive leadership. *The Leadership Quarterly*, doi:10.1016/j.leaqua.2012.05.007.
- Viney, J. (1999). *Drive: What makes a Leader in Business and Beyond*. London: Bloomsbury Publishing.
- Weierter, S. J. M. (1997). Who wants to play “follow the leader? A theory of charismatic relationships based on routinized charisma and follower characteristics. *Leadership Quarterly, 8*, 171-193.
- Whicker, M. L. (1996). *Toxic Leaders* (Westport, CT: Quorum Books), 11.
- Yukl, G. A. (1999). An evaluation of conceptual weaknesses in transformational and charismatic leadership theories. *Leadership Quarterly, 10*, 285–305.
- Yukl, G. A. (2004). *Use Power Effectively*, In E.A. Locke (ed), *Handbook of Principles of Organisational Behaviour*, Malden, MA, Blackweel, 242-247.
- Zellers, K. L., Tepper, B. J., & Duffy, M. K. (2002). Abusive supervision and subordinates organisational citizenship behaviour. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 87*, 1068–76