International Journal on Leadership
10 (1) 2022, 01-13
http://publishingindia.com/ijl/

Prevalence of Destructive Leadership Behaviour and its Determinants in Northwest Ethiopia

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Abstract

Destructive leadership behaviours and their effects on the organisation have received little attention in terms of research and theory development. As a result, the goal of this research is to look into the prevalence and determinants of destructive leadership behaviour in the Awi Zone. The study used cross-sectional data collected from 947 employees in Northwest Ethiopia, using a stratified sampling technique, to achieve its objectives. After the data was analysed through descriptive statistics, it was found that approximately 65% of the public-sector employees in the Awi Zone are vulnerable to destructive leadership. Personal behaviour, ineffective decision-making, management incompetency, and political behaviour were identified as determinants of destructive leadership behaviour. Finally, the researcher recommended that organisations be selective in their hiring and promotion practices, because personal behaviour is the most important factor in destructive leadership behaviour. Furthermore, organisations need to intentionally and consistently promote an environment in which employees feel free to speak up about their leaders' behaviour, which they believe violates not only their own, but also the company's values.lores the possibilities/opportunities for further research on employee voice and leader–member exchange within other disciplines, and to show how this could lead to a better understanding of the concepts of employee voice and leader–member exchange.

Keywords: Awi, Determinants, Factor Analysis, Leadership Behaviour, Prevalence

Introduction

Most academicians, organisations, and executives have historically sought to enhance overall organisational performance via studies of good, powerful, visionary, and charismatic management, according to Burke et al. (2006). Understanding and fending off damaging management, on the other hand, can be as important, if now no longer greater so, as knowledge and enhancing superb factors of leadership (Ashforth, 1987).

Several authors and practitioners have currently referred to as for a closer exam of the traits and results related to such damaging management conduct with the aid of using exploring it as a "darkish side" of management so one can make contributions to a higher knowledge of management effectiveness and development (Einarsen et al., 2010). Those researchers and practitioners actually use the concept that damaging management is substantial within side the administrative center and aren't always constrained to the absence of powerful management conduct (Kelloway et al., 2006).

Different researchers have proposed some standards that arguably fall within the area of destructive leadership, which is directed at the subordinates, such as "abusive supervisors" (Hornstein, 2016; Tepper, 2000), "health endangering leaders" (Kile, 1990, as mentioned in the works of Quangyen Tran et al., 2014), "petty tyrants" (Ashforth, 1987), and "bullies" (Brodsky, 1976).

According to Quangyen Tran et al. (2014), damaging leadership is described as a leader's, supervisor's,

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or manager's systematic and repeated conduct that undermines and/or sabotages the organisation's goals, tasks, resources, and effectiveness, in addition to the motivation, well-being, or job satisfaction of subordinates. Destructive leaders may also make repeated mistakes and/or act aggressively towards subordinates via sabotage, theft, and corruption (Kelloway et al., 2006).

Furthermore, Lipman-Blumen (2005) defines destructive leaders as "leaders who act without integrity through lying, cheating, and stealing, in addition to other unethical, unlawful, and crook acts"; and Kellerman (2004) defines them as "leaders who act without integrity by dissembling and tasty in numerous other dishonorable behaviors like corruption, hypocrisy, sabotage and manipulation, in addition to different diverse unethical, and unlawful behaviours".

In addition, in the Awi Zone, the Injibara University held a workshop for leaders, titled 'Enhancing leadership competence' (2019). When a sequence of questions have been given out and ratings have been tallied, the bulk of the participants on this training described themselves as democratic; however, when the series of questions were given out and ratings were tallied, their leadership style fell into the autocratic group. As a result of this disparity, the researcher came to the belief that even leaders are ignorant of their own actions, and that they will engage in destructive leadership behaviour towards their subordinates.

Further, while the prevalence of destructive leadership behaviour has been studied in a number of countries, Ethiopia has yet to be investigated. As a result, this is the first empirical research paradigm to investigate the prevalence and content of destructive leadership in the Awi work culture.

Therefore, the objectives of this study are to:

- Look into the prevalence of destructive leadership behaviour in the Awi Zone.
- Identify the destructive leadership behaviours that happened most frequently in the study area's organisations.
- Identify the most significant factors influencing the extent of destructiveness in organisational leadership in the research area.

Materials and Methods

Research Approach and Design

Because the data was collected through a questionnaire, a quantitative research approach was used in this study. In addition, to describe the leadership behaviour in the study area, the research design used was descriptive, and regression and factor analysis were used.

Population and Sampling Procedure

The participants in this study were all employees of public organisations in the Awi Zone, including all woredas and town administrations.

There were a total of 28,663 government workers, according to the Awi Zone administration human resource development office (2020). The researcher chose 1,069 samples from this entire target population using Yamane's formula, as shown in equation (1). Finally, depending on their woreda and town administration, stratified sampling procedures were employed to calculate the sample size, and convenience sampling was utilised to choose samples from each woreda and town administration.

Table 1: Sample Size Determination

Sr. No.	*Districts*	*Number of Employees*	*Proportion*	*Sample Selected from Each District*
1	Dangila	4656	0.16	171
2	Fagta Lo-coma	2823	0.09	93
3	Guagussa Shikudad	2116	0.07	75
4	Ankesha	2137	0.07	75
5	Ayo Gua-gussa	2120	0.07	75
6	Guangua	2744	0.09	93
7	Zigem	2520	0.08	85
8	Jawi	2856	0.09	93
9	Banja	2113	0.07	29
10	Injibara	3151	0.11	75
11	Chagni	1427	0.05	53
Total		28663		1069

Source: Awi Zone administration human resource development office (2020).

At a confidence level of 97% and a precision level of 0.03, the sample size was estimated using the Yamane (1967) sample size determination formula, as follows:

$$n = \frac{N}{1+N(e)^2} = \frac{28663}{1+28663(0.03)^2} = 1069 \quad (1)$$

The overall sample size was 1,069 as a result of the above calculation. Finally, according to their proportion, a structured questionnaire was distributed to employees in each strata.

Data Collection Methods

Primary and secondary data sources were used by the researcher. The respondents' primary data was collected using a structured questionnaire (adapted from Erickson, 2015). The Likert scale was used as the measurement method; this consists of statements in which respondents rate their level of agreement or disagreement on a five-point scale, where 0 = Do not engage in this behaviour, 1 = Very infrequently engage, 2 = Occasionally engage, 3 = Frequently engage, and 4 = Very frequently engage. Secondary data was gathered from books, journals, articles, and reports, to supplement the primary data.

Reliability and Validity

The issue of measure consistency is at the heart of reliability (Patton, 2002). It was considered and tested in this study using SPSS software and the Cronbach's alpha method. A score of 0.7 or higher indicates an acceptable level of internal consistency (Nunnally and Bernstein, 1994, as cited by Saleem et al., 2021). In this regard, the Cronbach's alpha value for this study is 0.73, indicating that the items representing destructive leadership behaviour have a high level of overall internal consistency.

"Validity is about how well a test does the job it is employed to do," according to Cureton (1951). This statement states that the term validity refers to the extent to which any measuring instrument measures what it is designed to measure. This study tested its face (content) validity in this regard. The questionnaires for 50 respondents were pre-tested, before being administered, to avoid ambiguity, confusion, and poorly prepared items.

Data Analysis

As a result, 947 cases out of a total of 1,069 were processed in this study. Due to missing values, the remaining cases were excluded from the analysis (list-wise exclusion of cases).

Using SPSS software version 20 and frequency distribution tables, descriptive analysis was used to describe the characteristics of destructive leadership behaviour. The technique of principal component analysis (PCA) was also used because it is a useful multivariate technique of analysis in the variable reduction procedure (i.e., when we have data on a large number of redundant variables) (Jolliffe, 2002). Then, using regression analysis, it was possible to predict how subordinates felt about their bosses, as measured by an overall good-bad scale. Importantly, the PCs are thus used as input variables for the upcoming regression analysis, which will be used to further analyse the data.

In general, the model can be represented as:

$$PC_i = a_{i1}x_1 + a_{i2}x_2 + \ldots\ldots + a_{ik}x_{ik} \quad (2)$$

Where, i = 1 …… k; a_{i1} … … … a_{ik} = the component loading which represents the i^{th} PC and the 1^{st} …….. k^{th} Constraint; and $x_1 - x_k$ = the k variables or factors.

Ethical Considerations

To protect the research subjects, the researcher noticed ethical concerns. Before respondents consent to engage in the study, the researcher sorts their informed consent. The researcher also informs them that they have the right to leave the study at any point during the data gathering process. Furthermore, the researcher guaranteed respondents of confidentiality and anonymity, as well as the fact that the information gathered was solely for academic purposes and would not be shared with anyone else.

Results and Discussion

Results of Descriptive Statistics

According to Table 2, 12.9% of the respondents confirm that their leaders do not engage in destructive

leadership behaviour; 22% of the time leaders engage in destructive leadership behaviour very infrequently, 27.2% occasionally engage, 21.3% frequently engage, and 16.6% of the time leaders engage in destructive leadership behaviour very frequently. As a result, it can be concluded that 65% of the total employees are exposed to destructive leadership behaviour in the workplace.

Table 2: Frequency of Destructive Leadership Behaviour through Multiple Response Method

Destructive Leadership Frequencies				
		Responses		*Per cent of Cases*
		N	*Per cent*	
Destructive Leadership Behaviour[a]	Do not Engage in this Behaviour	2681	12.9%	283.1%
	Very Infrequently Engage	4576	22.0%	483.2%
	Occasionally Engage	5658	27.2%	597.5%
	Frequently Engage	4427	21.3%	467.5%
	Very Frequently Engage	3454	16.6%	364.7%
Total		20796	100.0%	2196.0%
a. Group				

The destructive leadership questionnaire (DLQ) is one of a number of surveys that ask subordinate employees to identify specific destructive behaviours that a leader exhibits, to identify a dysfunctional or toxic leadership. The short version of the DLQ lists 22 discrete behaviours that are frequently cited as characteristics of destructive leaders, and employees rate the frequency with which they engage in these behaviours (Do It) or have seen others engage in them (Seen It), with 0 indicating that you do not engage in this behaviour, 1 indicating that you engage in this behaviour very infrequently, 2 indicating that you engage in this behaviour occasionally, 3 indicating that you engage in this behaviour frequently, and 4 indicating that you engage in this behaviour very frequently.

Table 3: Descriptive Results of Destructive Leadership Behaviour

	Mean	*Std. Deviation*
Make decisions without adequate information	2.0591	1.25108
Ineffective in negotiation	2.0634	1.23300
Unable to deal with new technology and change	2.3495	1.81062
Ineffective at coordinating and managing	2.1404	1.25177
Fail to seek appropriate information	2.1859	1.49463
Act in an insular manner	2.3263	1.91967
Communicate ineffectively	2.0412	1.34258
Exhibit a lack of skills to do their job	2.1943	1.55595
Unable to prioritise and delegate	2.1098	1.28932
Unable to understand a long-term view	2.0222	1.71039
Unable to make an appropriate decision	2.0961	1.29246
Micro-manage and over-control	1.9366	1.20876
Unclear about expectations	2.0971	1.64280
Unable to develop and motivate subordinates	2.1763	1.40354
Play favourites	2.1457	1.74236
Tell people only what they want to hear	1.9609	1.30520
Lie or engage in other unethical behaviours	1.9578	1.30955
Act inappropriately in interpersonal situations	2.0000	1.25754
Engage in behaviours that reduced their credibility	2.0265	1.27573
Exhibit inconsistent, erratic behaviour	2.1996	1.43809
Unwilling to change their mind	1.9683	1.27798
Acting in a brutal or bullying manner	2.1098	1.36885

The more destructive the leader, the higher the score (greater than 2). As shown in Table 3, all leaders in the Awi Zone exhibit destructive leadership, with the exception of those elements of micro-manage and over-control (mean score 1.9366 (SD = 1.20876), tell people only what they want to hear (mean score 1.9609 (SD = 1.30520), lie or engage in other unethical behaviours (mean score 1.9609 (SD = 1.3095), and unwillingness to change their mind (mean score 1.9683 (SD = 1.27798).

Results of Multivariate Analysis

Component Factor Analysis

When we use multiple measures to overcome measurement error by multivariable measurement, factor analysis is an interdependent technique whose primary purpose is to

define the underlying structure among the variables in the analysis; and the researchers even strive for correlation among the variables.

As the variables become more correlated, the researcher will need to find new ways to manage them, such as grouping highly correlated variables together, labelling or naming the groups, and possibly even developing a new composite measure to represent each group of variables and test hypotheses about which variables should be grouped together on a factor, or the exact number of factors (Mikaela et al., 2019).

The goal of factor analytic techniques is to find a way to condense (summarise) the information contained in a large number of original variables into a smaller number of new, composite dimensions or variates (factors), with the least amount of information loss. In other words, to find and define the fundamental constructs or dimensions assumed to underpin the original variables (Kim & Mueller, 1978).

Deviations from normality, homoscedasticity, and linearity are statistically significant only to the extent that they reduce the observed correlations. If a statistical test is used to determine the significance of the factors, only normality is required; however, these tests are rarely used. In fact, because the goal is to identify interrelated sets of variables, some degree of multi-collinearity is desirable. As you can see in Table 4, all of the variable correlations are less than 0.8, indicating that there is no multi-collinearity to perform the factor analysis.

The only time high correlations are not indicative of a bad correlation matrix is when two variables are highly correlated and have significantly higher loadings on that factor, than on other variables. Then their partial correlation may be high because the other variables do not explain them very well, but they do explain each other. This is also to be expected when a factor only has two highly loaded variables. A high partial correlation is one that has both practical and statistical significance, and partial correlations above 0.7 are considered high.

Another way to see if factor analysis is appropriate is to look at the entire correlation matrix. One such measure is the statistical test for the presence of correlations among variables. It indicates that at least some of the variables in the correlation matrix have statistically significant correlations.

The measure of sampling adequacy is a third way to quantify the degree of inter-correlations among variables and the appropriateness of factor analysis (MSA). This index ranges from 0 to 1, with 1 indicating that each variable is perfectly predicted by the other variables, with no errors. The following guidelines can be used to interpret the measure: Meritorious is a score of 0.80 or higher; middling is a score of 0.70; mediocre is a score of 0.60; miserable is a score of 0.50; and unacceptable is a score of 0.50 or lower (Nkansah, 2011).

Before proceeding with factor analysis, the researcher should always have an overall MSA value of at least 0.50. If the MSA value falls below 0.50, the variable-specific MSA values can be used to identify variables that should be deleted in order to achieve a 0.50 overall value. However, KMO is 0.785 in this study, and Bartlett's Test of Sphericity (Bartlett, 1951) is significant (less than 0.05).

Table 4: Measure of Sampling Adequacy Result

KMO and Bartlett's Test		
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy		.785
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	2321.521
	Df	190
	Sig.	.000

As indicated in Table 5, the loading coefficients for the items unable to deal with new technology and change; act insularly; tell people only what they want to hear; exhibit inconsistent, erratic behaviour; and act in a brutal or bullying manner are all less than 0.4 in principal component analysis.

As a result, the researcher removed the items with lower loading from the list and ran the analysis again, finding that the six factors had better explanatory power.

Table 5: Loadings of Constructs

Pattern Matrix[a]						
	Component					
	1	*2*	*3*	*4*	*5*	*6*
Make decisions without adequate information	.111	.149	−.238	.811	−.083	−.119
Ineffective in negotiation	.001	−.055	.172	.780	.017	−.108
Unable to deal with new technology and change	−.226	.318	.252	.251	.027	.331
Ineffective at coordinating and managing	−.035	.240	.406	.171	.141	−.001
Fail to seek appropriate information	−.073	−.036	.866	−.023	−.151	.040
Communicate ineffectively	.236	−.073	.633	−.156	.214	−.084
Exhibit a lack of skills to do their job	−.048	.149	−.059	−.147	.714	.070
Unable to prioritise and delegate	.410	.255	.024	.059	.240	−.328
Unable to understand a long-term view	.001	.151	.077	.014	.573	−.113
Unable to make an appropriate decision	−.069	.018	−.017	.130	.583	.251
Micro-manage and over-control	−.060	.561	−.222	.196	.198	.116
Act in an insular manner	.266	.236	.091	−.0178	−.240	.000
Unclear about expectations	.104	.550	.033	.078	.118	−.060
Unable to develop and motivate subordinates	.197	.488	.105	−.212	.094	.145
Play favourites	−.014	.102	−.046	−.198	.101	.827
Tell people only what they want to hear	.370	−.028	.225	.098	−.126	.385
Lie or engage in other unethical behaviours	.516	.329	−.021	.104	−.324	.141
Act inappropriately in interpersonal situations	.722	.007	.015	.035	−.005	−.076
Engage in behaviours that reduced their credibility	.613	.267	−.123	−.189	−.033	.133
Exhibit inconsistent, erratic behaviour	.312	−.454	−.154	.125	.248	.293
Unwilling to change their mind	.479	−.159	.096	.234	.043	−.038
Act in a brutal or bullying manner	.375	.344	−.304	.114	−.222	−.303
Extraction method: Principal component analysis. Rotation method: Promax with Kaiser normalisation[a].						
a. Rotation converged in ten iterations.						

As shown in Fig. 1, all of the remaining 17 items are condensed into six factors, with eigenvalues greater than one (as cited in Golub & Vorst, 2000).

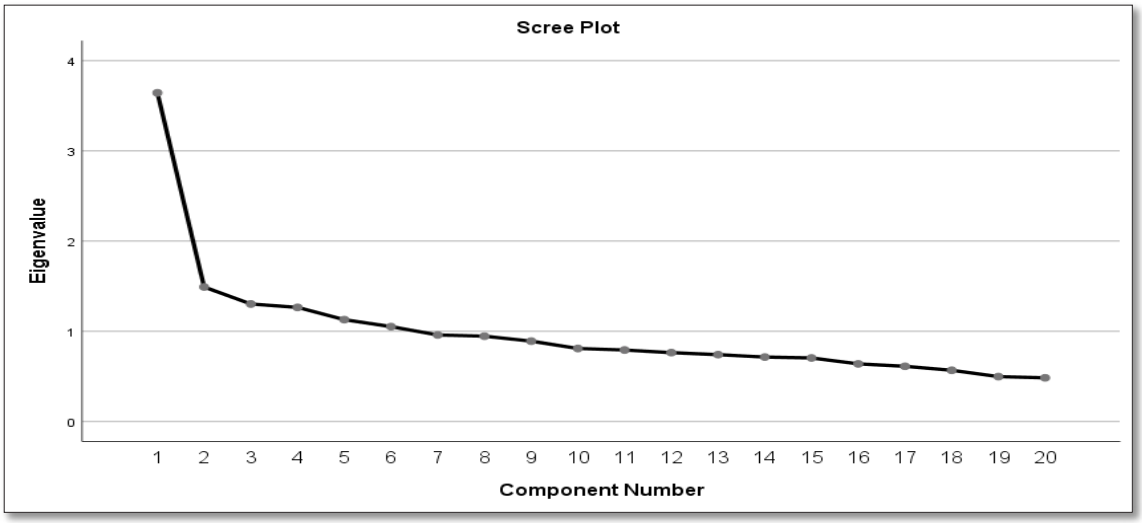

Fig. 1: Result of Eigenvalue

Examining the eigenvalues associated with the factors can help you decide how many to extract to represent the data. The first six factors will be rotated based on the criterion of retaining only factors with eigenvalue 1 or greater. These six factors account for 18.59 per cent, 8.36 per cent, 7.75 per cent, 6.90 per cent, 6.46 per cent, and 5.94 per cent of the total variance. This means that these six factors account for nearly 54% of the total variance. The remaining variables combine to account for only about 46% of the variation.

As a result, a six-factor model may be sufficient to represent the data. According to the scree plot in Fig. 1, a six-factor model should be adequate to represent the data set.

Table 6: Total Variance in Principal Component Analysis

Total Variance Explained							
Component	*Initial Eigenvalues*			*Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings*			*Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings*[a]
	Total	*% of Variance*	*Cumulative %*	*Total*	*% of Variance*	*Cumulative %*	*Total*
1	3.162	18.597	18.597	3.162	18.597	18.597	2.425
2	1.422	8.366	26.963	1.422	8.366	26.963	1.789
3	1.318	7.751	34.714	1.318	7.751	34.714	1.626
4	1.174	6.906	41.620	1.174	6.906	41.620	1.603
5	1.098	6.460	48.080	1.098	6.460	48.080	1.497
6	1.010	5.944	54.023	1.010	5.944	54.023	1.508
7	.932	5.485	59.508				
8	.844	4.965	64.473				
9	.822	4.838	69.312				
10	.784	4.613	73.925				
11	.773	4.545	78.469				
12	.749	4.409	82.878				
13	.677	3.985	86.863				
14	.641	3.770	90.633				
15	.561	3.302	93.935				
16	.537	3.159	97.094				
17	.494	2.906	100.000				
a. When components are correlated, sums of squared loadings cannot be added to obtain a total variance.							

Component factor analysis is critical when variables become correlated, as explained in the previous section of this paper, and to group highly correlated variables together, labelling, or naming the groups. Those highly correlated variables were grouped and labelled in the following way, based on the eigenvalue result.

Table 7: Grouping Constructs using Eigenvalue

Pattern Matrix[a]						
	Component					
	1	*2*	*3*	*4*	*5*	*6*
Act inappropriately in interpersonal situations	.737					
Ineffective at coordinating & managing	.633					
Lie or engage in other unethical behaviours	.590					
Engage in behaviours that reduced their credibility	.523					
Unwilling to change their mind	.475					

Pattern Matrix[a]						
	Component					
	1	2	3	4	5	6
Unclear about expectations		.643				
Unable to develop and motivate subordinates		.615				
Micro-manage and over-control		.459				
Fail to seek appropriate information		.382				
Communicate ineffectively			.785			
Make decisions without adequate information			.764			
Ineffective in negotiation				.838		
Play favourites				.702		
Unable to understand a long-term view					.688	
Exhibit a lack of skills to do their job					.684	
Unable to make an appropriate decision						.715
Unable to prioritise and delegate						.651
Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis. Rotation Method: Promax with Kaiser Normalisation.						
a. Rotation converged in seven iterations.						

As indicated in Table 7, items like act inappropriately in interpersonal situations; ineffective at coordinating and managing; lie or engage in other unethical behaviours; engage in behaviours that reduced their credibility; and unwilling to change their mind were labelled as personal behaviour. Items like unclear about expectations; unable to develop and motivate subordinates; micro-manage and over-control; and fail to seek appropriate information were labelled as management incompetency. Items like communicate ineffectively and make decisions without adequate information were labelled as poor communication. Items like ineffective in negotiation and play favourites were labelled as poor in negotiation. Items like unable to understand a long-term view and exhibit a lack of skills to do their job were labelled as ineffective in decision-making. Items like unable to make an appropriate decision and unable to prioritise and delegate were labelled as political behaviour.

Table 8: Component Correlation Matrix under Eigenvalue

Component Correlation Matrix						
Component	1	2	3	4	5	6
1	1.000	.302	.158	.143	.223	.164
2	.302	1.000	−.024	−.056	.116	.180
3	.158	−.024	1.000	.131	.045	.162
4	.143	−.056	.131	1.000	.176	.065
5	.223	.116	.045	.176	1.000	−.053
6	.164	.180	.162	.065	−.053	1.000
Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis. Rotation Method: Promax with Kaiser Normalisation.						

As shown in Table 8, the six factors are not strongly correlated (all coefficients are less than 0.20), so the varimax (orthogonal) matrix should be interpreted. If the oblimin rotated matrix is to be interpreted, the pattern matrix or the structure matrix must be interpreted as well. The correlations between variables and factors are shown in the structure matrix; however, these can be muddled by factor correlations. The pattern matrix is a tool for interpreting factors that show uncontaminated correlations between variables and factors.

Multiple Regression Analysis

Assumptions of Linear Regressions

Let us begin with the normality. The residuals of your regression have to follow a normal distribution so one can make legitimate inferences from it. We can infer if the residuals are normally distributed by looking at a normal Predicted Probability (P-P) plot. If they are, the diagonal normality line, as shown in Fig. 2, will be followed. The little circles will not follow the normality line if the data is not normal.

Homoscedasticity is the alternative assumption. It refers to whether or not the residuals are evenly distributed, or in the event that they generally tend to cluster at a few values at the same time, as opposed to spreading extensively at others. If your data looks like a shotgun blast of randomly distributed data, it is homoscedasticity.

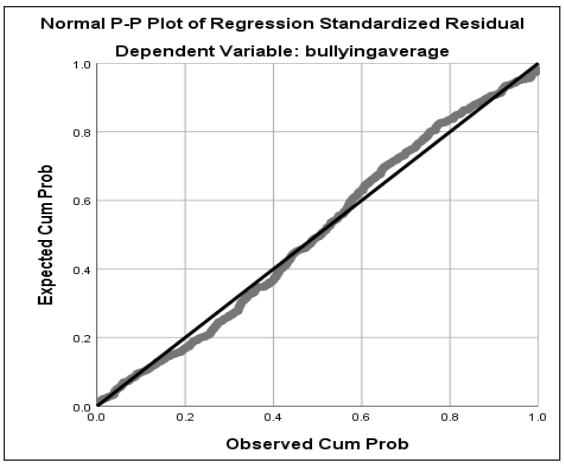

Fig. 2: The Normality Plot

In the output, the residuals scatter-plot will seem simply beneath the normal P-P plot. Ideally, you may have something just like the plot in Fig. 3. The data looks as if it was shot out of a shotgun; there may be no discernible pattern, and points are evenly distributed above and beneath 0 at the X-axis, in addition to the left and right of 0 at the Y-axis.

The predictor variables in the regression have a straight-line relationship with the outcome variable, which is called linearity. You do not need to worry about linearity in case your residuals are normally distributed and homeostatic, which is true for this analysis.

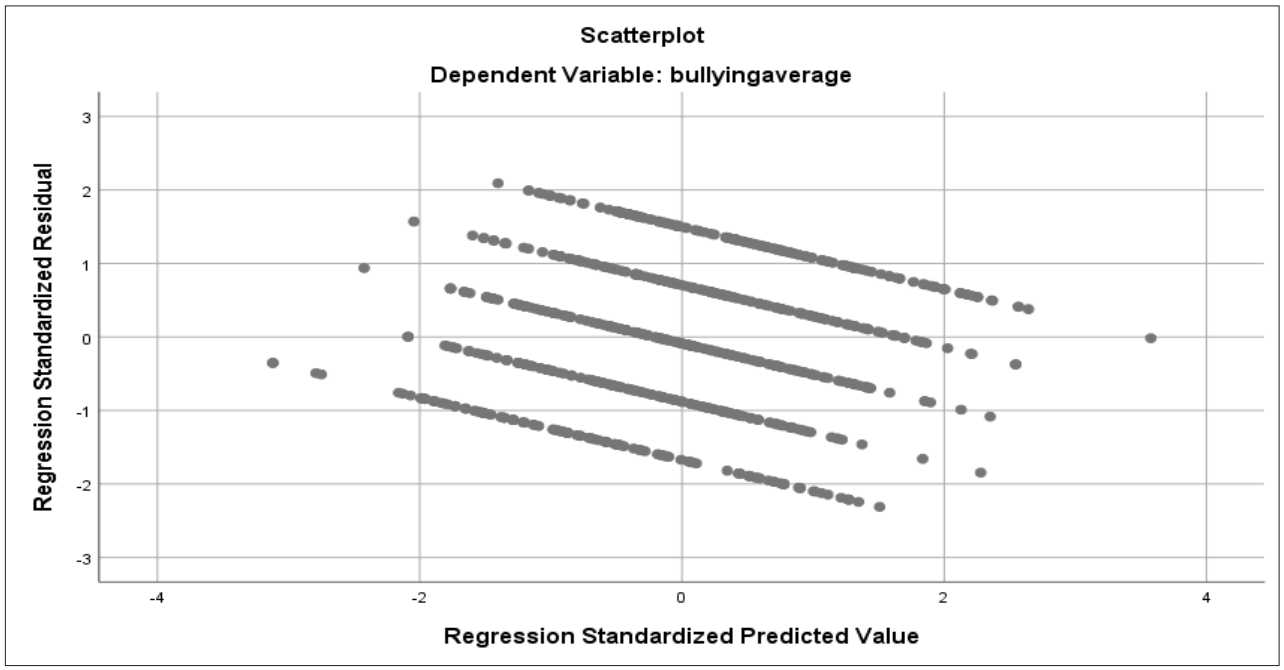

Fig. 3: The Homoscedasticity Plot

When your predictor variables are highly correlated with each other, you have got multi-collinearity. Correlation coefficients and variance inflation factor (VIF) values are approaches to test for multi-collinearity. Simply throw all of your predictor variables right into a correlation matrix and look for coefficients with magnitudes of 0.80 or higher to see if it is true. Your predictors might be strongly correlated if they are multi-collinear.

However, the usage of VIF values, which I will show the way to generate, is an easier way to test. You need those values to be much less than 10.00, and the best-case situation could be in the event that they had been much less than 5.00.

Table 9: Coefficients and Collinearity Statistics of the Model

Coefficients[a]								
Model		Unstandardised Coefficients		Standardised Coefficients	t	Sig.	Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	2.110	.027		77.593	.000		
	Personal behaviour	.807	.030	.590	26.999	.000	.828	1.208
	Management incompetency	.285	.029	.208	9.759	.000	.867	1.153
	Unable to negotiate	−.150	.028	−.110	−5.344	.000	.938	1.066
	Poor communication	−.047	.028	−.034	−1.662	.097	.932	1.073
	Ineffective decision-making	.230	.028	.168	8.092	.000	.913	1.095
	Political behaviour	−.594	.028	−.434	−20.939	.000	.919	1.088

a. Dependent Variable: bullying average (destructive behaviour).

The relevant information for calculating the expected responsibility attribution is provided in the coefficients table (see Table 10). An examination of this table indicates that each one of the six predictor variables had been entered into the prediction equation, indicating that personal behaviour, ineffective decision-making, negotiation problem, management incompetency, and political behaviour are significant predictors of the bullying destructive leadership behaviour. Adjusted R Square is 63.0% (i.e., this per cent of destructive leadership is defined by the factors included in this model).

The explanatory powers of the variables used in the model are equal to 63 per cent, based on the R-squared values. This means that the variables used in this study's model successfully explain 63 per cent of the changes in leadership behaviour. However, other factors not included in the study's models are responsible for the remaining 37% of the changes.

R-square, also known as the coefficient of determination, is a measure of the strength of the computed prediction equation. The square of the correlation coefficient between Y, the observed value of the dependent variable, and Y', the predicted value of Y from the fitted regression line, is R-square in the regression model. An R-square of 0 indicates that the predictor and dependent variables have no linear relationship.

Table 10: Regression Model of the Study

Model Summary[b]				
Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.794[a]	.630	.627	.83556

a. Predictors: (Constant), political behaviour, ineffective decision-making, unable to negotiate, poor communication, management incompetency, personal behaviour.

b. Dependent Variable: bullying average (destructive behaviour).

Predict the level of destructiveness from these six factors, use the values presented in the unstandardised coefficients column form. Using the Constant and B (unstandardised coefficient) values, the prediction equation would be:

$$Y' = A + B1X1 + B2X2 + \ldots BnXn \qquad (3)$$

$$\text{Bullying} = 2.11 + (0.87 \times PB) + (0.29 \times MI) + (-0.15 \times UN + (-0.05 \times PC) + (0.23 \times ID) + (-0.59 \times PLb)$$

Where, Y' = the predicted dependent variable, A = constant, B = unstandardised regression coefficient, and X = value of the predictor variable.

The Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) is used to test the hypothesis that there is no linear relationship between the predictors and dependent variable, i.e., R-square = 0. The results of this test are presented in the ANOVA table in this study (see Table 11). The F value is used to see if the regression model fits the data well. The hypothesis that R-square = 0 is rejected if the probability associated with the F statistics is small. The computed F statistic for this result is 265.546, with an observed significance level of less than 0.001. As a result, the hypothesis that there is no linear relationship between the predictor and dependent variables is rejected (F (943) = 265.546, p.001).

Furthermore, the model's overall significance, as measured by their respective F-Statistics, F (943) = 265.546, p.001, indicates that the model is well fitted at the 1% level of significance. The results of R-squared and F-statistics show that the research model is well-fitted and that the mentioned factors have a significant impact on the behaviour of leaders in the Awi Zone.

Table 11: The ANOVA of the Study

ANOVA[a]						
Model		Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	1112.365	6	185.394	265.546	.000[b]
	Residual	654.178	937	.698		
	Total	1766.542	943			

a Dependent Variable: bullying average (destructive behaviour).

b Predictors: (Constant), political behaviour, ineffective decision-making, unable to negotiate, poor communication, management incompetency, personal behaviour.

As a result, the researcher can identify possible determinant factors of destructive leadership behaviour that affect success, and analyse the way (direction of relationship) in which dependent variables are related to independent variables in the following section of the analysis.

At P < 0.01, there is a positive significant difference between personal behaviour, ineffective decision-making, management incompetency, and political behaviour. However, at the 1% significance level, the difference between political behaviour and negotiation problem is negative. Poor communication, on the other hand, has a negative correlation with destructive leadership behaviour, but the correlation is statistically insignificant at a 5% alpha level.

Table 12: Correlation Coefficient of the Study

Correlations							
		Personal Behaviour	Management Incompetency	Unable to Negotiate	Poor Communication	Ineffective Decision-Making	Political Behaviour
Personal behaviour	Pearson correlation	1	.302**	.158**	.143**	.223**	.164**
Management incompetency	Pearson correlation	.302**	1	−.024	−.056	.116**	.180**
Unable to negotiate	Pearson correlation	.158**	−.024	1	.131**	.045	.162**
Poor communication	Pearson correlation	.143**	−.056	.131**	1	.176**	.065*
Ineffective decision-making	Pearson correlation	.223**	.116**	.045	.176**	1	−.053
Political behaviour	Pearson correlation	.164**	.180**	.162**	.065*	−.053	1
	N	947	947	947	947	947	947

**Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

*Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Conclusions and Recommendations

Conclusions

The prevalence of destructive leadership behaviour in the Awi Zone was investigated in this study. The focus of the discussion was on the most significant findings related to the impact of destructive leadership in the Awi Zone. Political behaviour, ineffective decision-making, inability to negotiate, poor communication, management incompetence, and personal behaviour are examples of these.

Data were collected based on a structured person-assisted questionnaire, from employees of the public organization in all woredas of the Awi Zone. Analysis was done using descriptive statistics and inferential statistics (i.e., correlation and a multiple linear regression); factor analysis was used to identify the determinant of destructive leadership behaviour in the zone.

More than 65% of the employees in the zone are vulnerable to destructive leadership behaviour, according to the descriptive statistics. The first six factors (political behaviour, ineffective decision-making, unable to negotiate, poor communication, management incompetency, and personal behaviour) are retained for rotation, based on factor analysis, and account for 18.59%, 8.36%, 7.75%, 6.90%, 6.46%, and 5.94% of the total variance, respectively. This means that these six factors account for nearly 54% of the total variance.

Personal behaviour, ineffective decision-making, management incompetence, and political behaviour all have a positive significant difference at P0.01, according to the regression results. However, at the 1% significance level, political behaviour and negotiation problem are negative. Poor communication, on the other hand, has a negative correlation with destructive leadership behaviour, but the correlation is statistically insignificant at a 5% alpha level.

Recommendations

After all, as evidenced by this and other researches in the field, harmful leadership is common, and dealing with problematic leaders is a difficult task. The organisation can, however, take a number of steps to prevent, manage, and hopefully eliminate this toxic leadership style. It was thought that the best way for organisations to avoid destructive leadership is for them to be selective in their hiring and promotion practices (personal behaviour is the most important factor in destructive leadership behaviour), as well as to clearly state and model the positive leadership values and behaviours that the organisation values.

Furthermore, businesses should actively and consistently foster a climate in which workers feel free to speak out about circumstances that they believe violate not just theirs, but also the company's values. Senior management is responsible for aiding those who have reported such problems and ensuring that they are addressed properly and quickly, once they have been raised.

Recommendation for Future Researches

Even if this study effort contributed to the notion, it is not without flaws. For example, this study focused solely on government personnel, which is on the other side of the private sector leadership. As a result, future researchers might include the private sector to provide a more complete picture of the prevalence of destructive leadership in the Awi Zone as a whole. The lack of data gathering tools, other than questionnaires, is another problem of this study. Other researchers can utilise other data gathering methods than what was employed in this case.

Disclosure of Interest Statement

There is no conflict of interest in publishing this research work.

Acknowledgement

I would want to express my gratitude to everyone who supported me during the research process, particularly the government employees in the Awi Zone, who gave up their time to participate in the study and share their perspectives and practices; and Assistant Professor Adino Andargie, Department of Economics, at Injibara University.

Feb, 2022

Injibara, Ethiopia

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