

THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN DESTRUCTIVE LEADERSHIP AND PSYCHOLOGICAL DISTRESS IN SOUTH AFRICAN ORGANISATIONS: THE MODERATING EFFECT OF GENDER

By

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DECLARATION OF ORIGINAL AUTHORSHIP

I, Anél van Niekerk declare that the study of "the relationship between destructive leadership and psychological distress in South African organisations: the moderating effect of gender" is my own work, both in execution and in content. I declare that all resources that have been used during the completion of this study have been cited and referred to in the reference list by means of a comprehensive referencing system. All assistance that I have received during the execution of this study has been referred to in my acknowledgements. I also declare that the content of this thesis has never before been used for any other qualification at any tertiary institute globally and that the only guidance received during this study derived from my allocated supervisor.

Signature:



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ABSTRACT

Undesirable leadership behaviours such as workplace bullying, destructive or toxic leadership are reportedly on the increase with negative effects on both the well-being of employees and the organisation (Salin, 2003). Since there is limited empirical evidence regarding the relationship between destructive leadership and psychological distress, the purpose of this study was to determine whether such a relationship exists among employees in South African organisations. Furthermore, the study intended to investigate whether gender has a moderating effect on this relationship. Destructive leadership behaviour is defined 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 his/her subordinates (Einarsen, Aasland & Skogstad, 2007). With a sample ($n = 200$) of South African employees, the study adopted a correlational design and used the Destructive Leadership Behaviour Scale developed by Aasland, Skogstad and Einarsen (2008) as well as the Hopkins Symptoms Checklist-45 developed by Derogatis, Lipman, Richels, Uhlenhuth and Covi (1974) to assess the relationship between destructive leadership behaviour and psychological distress as well as the moderating effect of gender. The results indicated that two of the six hypotheses were accepted. H_2 , there is a relationship between overall destructive leadership and psychological distress, has been accepted. Furthermore H_5 , there is a significant correlation between the participants' overall destructive leadership scores and overall psychological distress, was also accepted. Finally H_6 , gender has a moderating effect on the relationship between participants overall destructive leadership scores and overall psychological distress scores, was rejected.

Keywords: *Workplace bullying, destructive leadership, psychological distress, gender, quantitative research, South Africa.*

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CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION AND BACKGROUND

1.1 BACKGROUND

Workplace bullying, specifically destructive leadership or toxic leadership is currently on the increase, which affects not only the employees but the organisation as well (Salin, 2003). Since organisations are confronted with various global challenges, such as gaining competitive advantage, leaders are required to deal with such challenges and use the opportunities provided to find solutions to such challenges (Harvey, Treadway, Heames & Duke, 2009).

Global transformation of corporate workplaces accompanied insecurity, frustration and stress (Thornton, 2004). It has been established that destructive leadership behaviour is an associated threat for various organisations (Anand, Ashforth & Joshi, 2005; Thornton, 2004). This is not surprising since such destructive leadership behaviour may pose severe consequences for the performance of the organisation (Aasland, Skogstad, Notelaers, Morten & Einarsen, 2010; Denton & Vloeberghs, 2003). Numerous organisations continuously find themselves in the undesirable position of high employee turnover due to issues related to destructive leadership behaviour (Gumbus & Lyons, 2011). Moreover, the repercussions of destructive leadership behaviour may extend beyond the organisation to issues of employee (individual) health and well-being (Keashly, 2010; Salin, 2003).

The challenge for many contemporary organisations is to reflect effective leadership in all its processes. Boseman (2008) states that effective leaders motivate their followers to perform above and beyond the call of duty in order to ensure group success. Leadership effectiveness is not about who exerts the most influence or who emerges to control the group but rather, the leader is the one who can achieve high group performance over time. Boseman (2008) suggested that effective leadership is perhaps the best source of organisational competitive advantage, as effective leadership will determine how successful their followers will be in terms of their performance and productivity. According to Robbins, Judge, Odendaal and Roodt (2009) South African organisations are faced with one primary reality: the business world is ever-changing, fast-moving and complex. South

African organisations are faced with similar situations as those experienced by international organisations (Robbins et al., 2009). Local situations may be volatile and organisations may be sensitive to local and international turmoil. The business world is ultra-competitive as a result of global competition and local deregulation (Robbins et al., 2009). South African organisations aim to increase their competitive advantage, however; this is a challenge due to the lack of effective leadership within organisations. Therefore, South African organisations need effective leadership to ensure optimal efficiency (Robbins, et al., 2009). Leaders are faced with challenges such as the status quo, creating objectives for the future and inspiring employees to achieve these objectives (Robbins, et al. 2009).

As a result, destructive leadership is receiving increased attention within organisational research (Salin, 2003). Several studies conducted have examined and considered destructive leadership and how applicable the construct is, but not specifically in an organisational context (Lipman-Blumen, 2004; Reed, 2004). However, several authors have noted the lack of current academic literature on destructive leadership (Moayed, Daraiseh & Salem, 2006; Moreno-Jiménez, Rodríguez-Muñoz, Pastor, Sanz-Vergel & Garrosa, 2009). The primary focus of academic literature has been on the characteristics of constructive leadership and the positive aspects thereof, rather than destructive leadership and its consequences (Padilla, Hogan, & Kaiser, 2007). Researchers are, however, avoiding the core problems related to the construct (Hogan & Kaiser, 2005; Kellerman, 2004) and they are not focused on the relationship between destructive leadership and employees' psychological distress. There is currently little evidence of the relationship between destructive leadership and psychological distress, thus the question arises: is there a relationship between destructive leadership and psychological distress?

It is important to note that the organisational environment affects employees' health and well-being (Cunniff & Mostert, 2012). Thus, the well-being of employees and their organisations are strongly inter-related (Grant & Mack, 2004). Consequently, it is important for organisations to focus on promoting health, specifically in multicultural environments, to ensure healthy organisations (Mayer & Krause, 2011). The correct protection policies against destructive leadership are not being implemented effectively, causing employees to experience psychological distress and ultimately resigning (Gumbus & Lyons, 2011).

Psychological distress is a well-known psychological condition. There is little research done to determine what psychological distress entails with regard to an employee's job satisfaction and job performance (Pomaki, Maes & ter Doest, 2004). Therefore the study is aimed to determine what the level of psychological distress is amongst employees in South African organisations? Furthermore, many studies have neglected to take into account how destructive leadership influence employees' different environments such as their work environment, work-life balance and their social networks (Kellerman, 2004). This affects not only employees' work behaviour but their behaviour displayed in their personal life as well (Glasø, Matthiesen, Nielsen & Einarsen, 2007). Researchers have shown that abusive leadership behaviour influences employees all over the world (Matthiesen & Einarsen, 2001; Vessey, Demarco, Gaffney & Budin, 2009). The consequences thereof include: intentions to leave the profession; physical effects like sleep and eating disorders; psychological effects like anxiety, depression and lowered self-esteem (Matthiesen & Einarsen, 2001; Vessey, Demarco, Gaffney & Budin, 2009).

It seems that if people of a certain ethnic group work in an environment in which they are the minority, they could become easy targets for destructive leaders (Lewis & Gunn, 2007). This was confirmed by Archer (1999) who stated that if a person belongs to a minority group (either gender or race), the likelihood of being influenced by destructive leadership increases radically. Researchers have agreed that women are easy targets for destructive leaders (Grainger & Fitzner, 2007; Namie, 2003; Quine, 2002), whilst one study found men were the likelier victims (Ólafsson & Jóhannsdóttir, 2004). Some studies suggest that there are no significant differences between the levels of destructive leadership experiences of men and women (Ortega, Høgh, Pejtersen & Olsen, 2009). It is important to note that gender differences in the experience of destructive leadership have also received some attention in international research (Ortega *et al.*, 2009). However, the results of these studies have been inconclusive (Cortina, Magley, Williams & Langhout, 2001; Ólafsson & Jóhannsdóttir, 2004; Ortega *et al.*, 2009). Furthermore there have only been two studies in South Africa which investigated whether one gender group experiences more destructive leadership than the other does (Pietersen, 2007; Steinman, 2003). Conversely, these studies only focused on the health and academic sectors (Pietersen, 2007). There is little evidence of how employees experience psychological distress due to their experiencing destructive leadership. Therefore, the question was

raised as to whether there are differences in males' and females' perceptions of both destructive leadership and their experience of psychological distress?

As a result the study proposed to investigate the relationship between destructive leadership and employees' psychological distress in South African organisations. Secondly, the study aims to determine the moderating effect of gender. Current academic literature regarding destructive leadership was reviewed to determine the relationship between destructive leadership and employees' psychological distress.

1.2 PROBLEM STATEMENT

The result of destructive leadership is a decrease in organisational profit and turnover; it is a serious issue which needs to be addressed (Moreno-Jiménez et al., 2009). Since there is limited empirical evidence regarding the relationship of destructive leadership and psychological distress, the study is aimed at filling that gap. A second difficulty is the lack of empirical evidence within a South African context; therefore the study is aimed at filling the gap within South African literature (Moreno-Jiménez et al., 2009). Furthermore there is a lack of literature regarding the moderating effect which gender has on the relationship of destructive leadership and psychological distress (Fajana, Oweyeni, Shadare, Elegbedee and Gbajumo-Sheriff, 2011). A final gap identified within current literature is the lack of literature providing solutions for destructive leadership (Appelbaum & Roy-Girard, 2007; Gumbus & Lyons, 2011). Therefore, the study aimed to determine if there is a relationship between destructive leadership and employees' psychological distress? Secondly, it aimed to answer the question about whether gender has a moderating effect on the relationship between destructive leadership and psychological distress? The study aimed to answer these questions with current literature and an empirical study. Finally, the study will provide recommendations for organisations to manage destructive leadership and provide support for employees threatened by psychological distress.

1.3 PURPOSE STATEMENT

The main purpose of the study is to determine the relationship between destructive leadership and employees' psychological distress, as well as the moderating effect of gender on this relationship.

1.4 RESEARCH OBJECTIVES

The study will be guided by the following specific research objectives:

- To conceptualise the theoretical relationship between destructive leadership and psychological distress;
- To conceptualise, theoretically, the moderating effect gender has on the relationship between the perceptions of destructive leadership behaviour and psychological distress;
- To determine perceptions of destructive leadership behaviour in a sample of South African employees;
- To determine the level of psychological distress in a sample of South African employees;
- To determine whether there are gender differences in the perceptions of destructive leadership behaviour in a sample of South African employees;
- To determine whether there are gender differences in the experience of psychological distress in a sample of South African employees;
- To determine whether there is a relationship between the perceptions of destructive leadership behaviour and psychological distress in a sample of South African employees;
- To determine whether gender has a moderating effect on the relationship between the perceptions of destructive leadership behaviour and psychological distress in a sample of South African employees;
- To provide recommendations on how to deal with destructive leadership behaviour and psychological distress in the workplace.

1.5 ACADEMIC VALUE AND CONTRIBUTION OF THE PROPOSED STUDY

As noted in the background section, there is little evidence of destructive leadership and the effect it has on employees' psychological distress. There was specifically a gap identified in the literature regarding the relationship between destructive leadership and employees' psychological distress. The study therefore investigated the relationship between destructive leadership and psychological distress in South African organisations. Furthermore, the study provided recommendations as to how organisations should approach the various challenges and turn destructive leadership into successful leadership.

The study aimed to help fill the gap in the literature, specifically focusing on the relationship between destructive leadership and employees' psychological distress. This was achieved through a review of the literature and by means of an empirical study within a South African sample. The first contribution was to determine if there is a relationship between destructive leaderships and employees' psychological distress. A second contribution was to determine if gender had a moderating effect on the relationship between employees' perceptions of destructive leadership and their experience of psychological distress. The study aimed to increase the theoretical and empirical research regarding employees' perceptions of destructive leadership and employees' experience of psychological distress within the South African context. Finally the study will contribute by providing recommendations to reduce the effects of destructive leadership.

1.6 DELIMITATIONS AND ASSUMPTIONS

1.6.1 Delimitations

Delimitations refer to what and where the study does not intend to investigate the topic (Leedy & Ormrod, 2010). The research study has numerous delimitations:

- Firstly, the study was focused on the relationship between destructive leadership and psychological distress. Therefore, the study could be conducted within various countries, however, for the purpose of the study it was done in a South African

context. South Africa has a diverse workforce with diverse leaders therefore South Africa is best suited for the proposed study and the study was not conducted in other countries;

- The second and final delimitation is that the study was limited to employees' psychological distress and not their general psychological well-being. Therefore the study was aimed at determining if there is a relationship between the perceptions of employees' destructive leadership and the employees' psychological distress.

1.6.2 Assumptions

Assumptions are those conditions within research which are taken for granted and without assumptions research cannot exist (Leedy & Ormrod, 2005; Leedy & Ormrod, 2010).

- The data collected within South Africa provides an accurate representation of the perceptions of destructive leadership behaviour;
- The sample used to collect data with regard to the relationship between destructive leaders and employees' psychological distress embodies the population of various South African organisations;
- The difference between males and females in leadership positions is a true reflection of how they vary in destructive behaviour;
- Females' and males' differences in their perception of destructive leadership were observed.

1.7 DEFINITION OF KEY TERMS

The following key terms are included in the proposed research study:

Workplace bullying: Workplace bullying can be defined as the repeated and persistent negative behaviour towards one or more individuals, which involves a perceived power imbalance and create a hostile work environment (Salin, 2003; Tehrani, 2001).

Destructive leadership: Destructive leadership is the systematic and frequent behaviour of a leader, manager or supervisor which violates the legitimate interest of the organisation

through undermining the subordinates or the organisation's goals, tasks, resources and effectiveness, motivation, well-being, or job satisfaction of the subordinates. Destructive leadership refers to leaders whose decisions are aimed at harming their society and organisation (Einarsen, Aasland & Skogstad, 2007; O'Connor, Mumford, Clifton, Gessner, Gessner & Conelly, 1995).

Destructive organisation: Destructive organisations can be defined as an ineffective institute and toxic to its employees (Bacal, 2000).

Psychological distress: Psychological distress is characterised by psycho-physiological and behavioural symptoms such as anxious and depressive reactions, irritability, declining intellectual capacity, tiredness, sleepiness and work absenteeism (Marchand, Demers & Durand, 2005).

1.8 CHAPTER OUTLINE

The complete content of the research study was discussed in five separate chapters dedicated to a specific function and/or phase in the research process. The following section provides a brief summary of each chapter and its purpose.

Chapter 1: Introduction

Chapter One was used by the researcher to explain the background of the study. The chapter indicated the research problem and outlined the research objectives that guided the study. Furthermore the researcher explained the academic value and intention of the study as well as the delimitations and assumptions made regarding the environment and target group. Chapter One defined all the key terms which were used throughout the study and outlined the objectives that guided the study.

Chapter 2: Literature review

Chapter Two was dedicated to an in-depth review of the existing body of knowledge related to the study. The existing literature with regard to destructive leadership, destructive leadership behaviour, psychological distress and the moderating role of gender

as well as the theoretical relationship between destructive leadership and psychological distress was reviewed and discussed.

Chapter 3: Research design and methodology

Chapter Three provided an in-depth description of the research design and methodology which was used for the empirical study. The chapter included the biographical results of the study as well as results pertaining to the instruments. Furthermore six hypotheses were formulated within this chapter which will be discussed in the chapters to follow. Within this chapter, seven key issues regarding research design and methodology were explained and described. These issues included a detailed description of the strategy of inquiry of the study, the sampling methods used to extract data from the population, the data collection methods which were used to collect data, the data analysis process, assessing and demonstrating quality and rigour throughout the study and the research ethics involved in research and relevant to this specific study.

Chapter 4: Results and discussion

Chapter Four was dedicated to the results obtained through statistical analysis. Results pertaining to the independent *t*-test and Pearson product-moment correlation tests as well as the results pertaining to the hypothesis testing were included in this chapter. Furthermore the researcher analysed and interpreted the empirical results according to the stated hypotheses to provide a holistic understanding of all the information received. In this chapter, the study indicated if the hypotheses were accepted or rejected based on the empirical results obtained in the study. Finally the chapter provided an integration of the research findings.

Chapter 5: Conclusion, limitations and recommendations

Finally Chapter Five provided the reader with the conclusion that the researcher had drawn from all the information obtained and analysed. In this chapter the researcher highlighted the limitations of the proposed study as well as provided the reader with recommendations for future research.

1.9 CONCLUSION

A comprehensive background, the problem statement, purpose statement, research objectives, academic value, delimitations and assumptions were discussed in this chapter. Furthermore, the objectives and literature referred to in this chapter provided a comprehensive background regarding the key concepts to follow in the next chapter. The chapter to follow will investigate the detail related to the literature which was applied to the specific research objectives of this study.

CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 INTRODUCTION

The theoretical background and empirical literature associated with the proposed research study will be discussed in the sections to follow. The sections to follow will define, explain and provide more information regarding key constructs used in the study. Section one is dedicated to the conceptual framework of destructive leadership and the constructs associated therewith. The second section is dedicated to the conceptual framework of psychological distress and the constructs related to psychological distress. The final section is dedicated to the theoretical relationship between destructive leadership and psychological distress.

2.2 DESTRUCTIVE LEADERSHIP

2.2.1 Conceptual foundation of destructive leadership

Destructive leadership is a concept that expands on the general theory of leadership. It is based on general leadership theories such as the managerial grid framework and the full range leadership theory. Based on these theories, this study defines destructive leadership behaviours and identifies the different destructive behaviours explained within this research field. Secondly, a conceptual model of destructive leadership behaviours is used to describe the concept that a destructive leader can show both destructive and constructive behaviour.

2.2.2 Leadership

Leadership has been defined by various researchers; according to Stogdill (1950) leadership can be illustrated as the process (act) of influencing the activities of an organised group in its efforts toward goal setting and goal achievement. Furthermore

Hemphill and Coons (1957) states that leadership refers to the behaviour of an individual when he/she is guiding the activities of a group toward a shared goal. Kouzes and Posner, (1995) identified leadership as the art of mobilizing others to want to struggle for the shared aspirations. Over the decades researchers have identified various definitions for leadership however all definitions refers to an individual striving to guide a group towards achieving the same objective.

According to Northhouse (2012) and Robbins et al. (2009) the term leadership has various definitions; however, leadership involves a process which includes various components. These components include: leaders' ability to influence, groups, and common goals (Booyse, 2001; Northhouse, 2012). Therefore this study defines leadership according to Northhouse (2012) and Robbins et al. (2009) as a process where an individual influences a group of individuals to achieve a common goal. Leaders are primarily focused to develop a vision for the future where after they align the group by communicating the vision and inspiring them to overcome any obstacles which they may come across (Cameron, Dutton & Quinn, 2003; Hartman, 1999). They are required to acknowledge the needs of their subordinates before their own. Leaders strive to develop their subordinates and to be committed, interested and caring towards them on an individual, group and organisational level (Cameron, 2012; Robbins et al., 2009).

Leadership is a process directed at subordinates (Hartman, 1999). The leadership process involves both the leader and followers, as leaders need followers and followers need leaders (Northhouse, 2012). Even though followers are involved in the leadership process it is the leader that initiates the relationship, creates communication channels and carries the burden for maintaining the relationship (Certo, 2003; Northhouse, 2012). Leaders have an ethical responsibility towards their followers and they have to attend to their needs and concerns to maintain a healthy relationship with their followers (Hollander, 1992). According to Hartman (1999) leaders and followers have to be understood in relation to each other as well as collectively. For the leadership process to be effective, the relationship between the leader and follower has to be healthy (Northhouse, 2012).

According to Buss (1961) leadership behaviour at work can be described according to three principal axes: physical versus verbal, active versus passive, and direct versus

indirect aggression. Accordingly, leadership behaviours toward employees are not necessarily active and manifest but can also be passive and indirect behaviours (Einarsen et al., 2007). Passive, physical and indirect behaviour can consist of a superior deliberately showing up late for a meeting hosted by an employee or failing to safeguard an employee's welfare in a risk exposed working environment (Neuman & Baron, 2005, p. 20). Passive, verbal, indirect leadership behaviour could consist of failing to provide an employee with important information or feedback (Neuman & Baron, 2005, p. 20) or failing to support an employee when verbally attacked by a client or customer.

Fiedler (1967) acknowledged that leaders could be effective or ineffective depending on a specific situation. However, Howard (2005) has identified that effective leadership has two primary behaviour dimensions namely; task, or behaviours which focus on the task; and behaviours that focus on the relationships between the leader and the follower (Howard, 2005). Thus, leaders' behaviours can either focus on influencing individuals to achieve goals by directives (task behaviour) or through supporting an employee (relationship behaviour) (Fiedler, 1967). It is important to understand that the foundation of effective leadership is built on these two behaviours (Howard, 2005). Leaders who display task behaviour engage in one-way communication: clearly spell out the follower's role; and tell the follower what to do where, when, and how; and then closely supervise (Fiedler, 1967). A leader who displays relationship behaviour engages in two-way communication, listens, provides support and encouragement, facilitates interaction, and involves the follower in decision making (Fiedler, 1967). Words associated with task behaviour are structure, control, and supervise; words associated with relationship behaviour are praise, listen, and facilitate (Howard, 2005).

Bennis (1997) noted that effective leadership consists of four characteristics. Firstly, leaders should provide clear direction and meaning for their subordinates. Leaders have the responsibility to keep their employees informed of organisational goals (Bennis, 1997). Secondly, trust is a key element which leaders have to generate within and amongst their subordinates; they have to behave in an honest manner which initiates a trusting working environment (Bennis, 1997). Thirdly, leaders prefer taking action and risks as they are willing to function outside of the safety circle of tradition. Finally, they always communicate hope through using efficient communication skills. Leaders always encourage others to believe that their behaviour will result in successful realisation of organisational objectives

(Bennis, 1997). According to the managerial grid developed by Blake and Mouton (1964) ineffective leadership can be described by the terms “Impoverished Management” (i.e., a minimum of concern for both production and people), “Authority–Obedience” (i.e., a high focus on production combined with minimum consideration for people), and “Country Club Management” (i.e., a maximum concern for people coupled with a minimum concern for production). Therefore it could be said that these forms of leadership may reflect ineffective leadership behaviours by showing minimal concern for either people or production.

2.2.3 The managerial grid

Blake and Mouton (1964) developed the “the managerial grid”, which is one of the most well-known behavioural approaches to management. There are two useful dimensions proposed by Blake and Mouton (1964) which are concern with the production and concern for people (Malain, Cooper & Cox, 1989). These two dimensions characterise the dilemmas which managers face. The first dimension refers to managers who have to achieve the objective of a specific project (production) and at the same time, manage their subordinates (people) (Malain et al., 1989). Therefore the dimension, concern for production, would include the results, bottom line or profits. Concern for people can be expressed in many ways. Some managers’ concerns for many people are shown in their effort to ensure that team members get their job done (Pheng & Lee, 1997). They focus on achieving their results based on trust, respect, obedience, understanding or support, and this is a manifestation of concern for people (Pheng & Lee, 1997). Depending on the character of concern, team members can respond either with enthusiasm or resentment, involvement or apathy (Pheng & Lee, 1997).

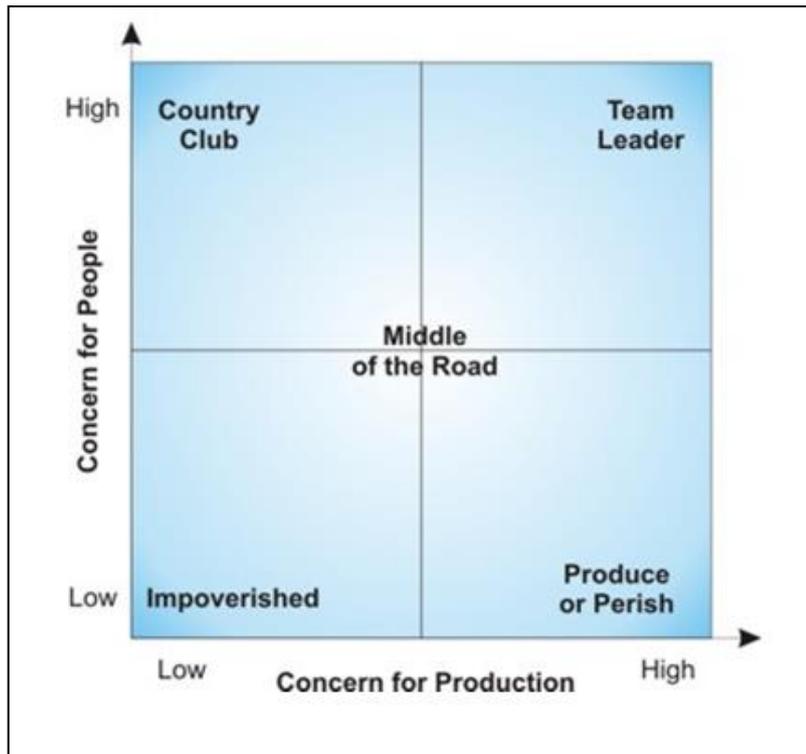


Figure 2.1: Managerial Grid Framework (Blake & Mounton, 1964)

According to Pheng and Lee (1997) the grid is designed according to a set of theories of how individuals use their intelligence and skills in working with and through other individuals for results. It forms a matrix of possible management styles as shown in Figure 2.1.

There are five important grid positions which are distinguished as being very important. These include: *Impoverished management* refers to managers who have little concern for people or productivity, they avoid taking sides and stay out of conflicts (Pheng & Lee, 1997). *Country club management* refers to managers who have great concern for people and little concern for production. These managers avoid conflicts and focus on being well liked and their goals are aimed at keeping people happy. *Authority-compliance* refers to managers who have great concern for production and little for people (Pheng & Lee, 1997). These types of managers desire tight control to get tasks done efficiently and they consider creativity and human relations unnecessary. *Middle-of-the-road management*, also referred to as organisational management, refers to managers who have medium concern for people and production and they attempt to balance the concern for both but are not committed to either (Pheng & Lee, 1997). Finally, *team management* is considered

as the ideal style. These managers have great concern for people, production and work to motivate employees to reach their highest levels of accomplishment. Managers who follow team management are flexible and responsive to change, and they understand the need for change (Pheng & Lee, 1997). Blake and Mouton (1964) concluded that the leadership style team management is the most effective for organisations.

2.2.4 The full range leadership model

Avolio and Bass (1995) introduced the full range leadership development model. The model was introduced to establish which individuals' attempts are successful and to determine if they are effective as a leader (Bass, 1995). According to Bass (1995) the model is used to define three leadership styles: laissez-faire, transactional, and transformational leadership. Avolio and Bass (1995) stated that the full range leadership development model recognises seven leadership elements and the development of transformational and transactional styles of leadership. Figure 2.2 demonstrates the degree to which each of the seven leadership styles are active, passive, effective and ineffective, and the frequency with which these behaviours are performed within the organisation. Kelloway, Sivanathan, Francis, and Barling (2005) specifically identified two types of poor leadership along the active – passive dimension. The first type consists of poor leaders who are destructive in an active manner, characterised by aggressive or abusive behaviours for example shouting, teasing, name-calling, and threatening employees with job loss and pay cuts, behaviours that are comparable to several of the destructive behaviours identified by Ashforth (1994) and Tepper (2000). However, the second type of poor leadership is characterised by passive behaviours, including elements of both laissez-faire leadership and so-called management by exception (passive) as described in the theory of transformational leadership (Bass & Avolio, 1990). The leadership process can be both active and passive. Previous research has primarily focused on active and manifest destructive behaviours as compared to passive and indirect forms in their attempt to describe destructive leaders (Einarsen et al., 2007). The seven leadership elements are categorised either as laissez-faire, transactional leadership which include management by exception (MBE) and contingent reward (CR) or transformational leadership which includes individual consideration (IC); inspirational

motivation (IM); idealised influence (II); and intellectual stimulation (IS) (Bass & Avolio, 1994).

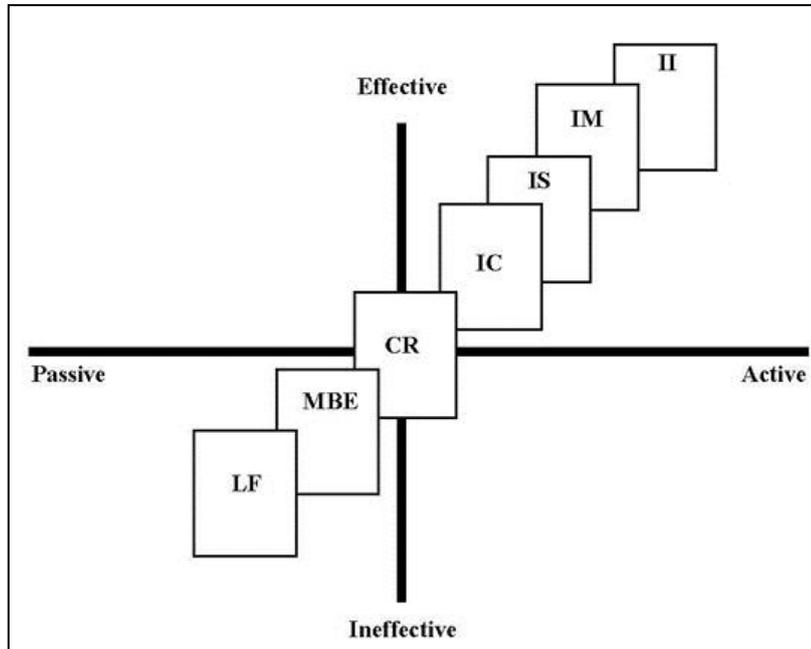


Figure 2.2: The full range leadership development model (Avolio and Bass, 1995)

2.2.4.1 Laissez-faire

The first leadership style identified in the model is referred to as laissez-faire (LF) leadership and refers to non-leadership, or leaders who avoid making decisions and neglect to provide their followers with feedback, which they only do when problems need to be corrected (Avolio & Bass, 1995; Avolio et al., 1999). Laissez-faire leadership is a passive and ineffective leadership style. It is important to note that transactional and transformational leadership styles are defined through various factors, whereas laissez-faire leadership is only associated with one factor namely an individual who avoids making decisions, renounces responsibility, and does not use authority (Avolio et al., 1999).

2.2.4.2 Transactional leadership

According Avolio and Bass (1995) transactional leadership refers to the replacement of action and rewards. Furthermore transactional leaders use the rules of the organisations to lead decisions they make. Transactional leaders provide effective feedback to followers in order to ensure successful enactment of a specific role (Avolio et al., 1999). According to Avolio and Bass (1995) there are two aspects that describe the transactional leadership style, these include: management by exception (MBE) and contingent reward (CR). A review of the active and then the passive management by exception factor will be presented, and then the same will be provided for the contingent reward.

There are two types of behaviour which describe management by exception (Bass 1988, 1990; Bass & Riggio, 2006). The first behaviour is the active observation of a leader to ensure that standards and objectives are reached. Errors or deviations from those standards by subordinates are identified and corrected by the leader. The second behaviour is a more passive behaviour (Bass & Riggio, 2006). This type of behaviour refers to leaders who will hardly intervene or only when necessary, for example, to ensure safety.

According to Avolio et al. (1999) contingent reward is described as a leader's ability to clarify role and task requirements. Firstly, leaders offer material or psychological rewards contingent on the fulfilment of contractual obligations (Avolio et al., 1999). Secondly, leaders set clearly defined expectations and finally, leaders establish agreement relating to the levels of performance (Avolio et al., 1999). Results such as follower satisfaction, performance, and trust in the leader increase when the transactions are constructive and focus on the interests of both the follower and leader (Bass & Avolio, 2000).

2.2.4.3 Transformational leadership

Transformational leadership is based on charisma which is designed to motivate and inspire other individuals (Avolio & Bass, 1995). Transformational leaders tend to redefine or change the status quo to ensure a vision of a more acceptable future state (Avolio et al., 1999). Furthermore transformational leaders help and support their followers to go beyond

their own welfares and consider the moral and ethical consequences of their actions and objectives (Avolio & Bass, 1995; Avolio et al., 1999). As transformational leaders are focused on their followers' efforts, commitment, performance and satisfaction, they are the most effective of the three styles (Avolio, 1999; Bass, 1995). There are four factors related to transformational leadership. These include individual consideration (IC); inspirational motivation (IM); idealised influence (II); and intellectual stimulation (IS) (Bass & Avolio, 2000).

The first factor associated with transformational leadership style refers to individual consideration (Bass & Avolio, 2000). Individual consideration can be defined as behaviour which recognises subordinates as individuals and which provides advice and support for subordinates to identify and create a path toward self-actualisation (Avolio & Bass, 1995). Moreover individualised consideration and contingent reward (as part of transactional leadership) can be seen as similar, as both include the act of providing feedback to subordinates (Bass & Avolio, 2000). Transformational leaders who attend to individual subordinates, however, move their subordinates to consider not only their self-interests, "but also the moral and ethical implications of their actions and goals" (Avolio & Bass, 1995, p. 202).

The second factor of transformational leadership refers to intellectual stimulation (Bass & Avolio, 2000). This includes actions which appeal to subordinates' sense of logic and analysis, by means of challenging them to find solutions to difficult problems. Subordinates are included in the process of finding solutions and are encouraged to consider alternative approaches although it might differ from their leader's ideas (Bass & Avolio, 2000). Avolio (1999) stated that "transformational leaders stimulate their followers' efforts to be innovative and creative by questioning assumptions, reframing problems, and approaching old situations with new methods and perspectives. There is no public criticism of individual members' mistakes" (p. 46).

The third factor related to transformational leadership refers to inspirational motivation. Inspirational motivation is the transformational leader's ability to motivate and energise subordinates through the creation of an achievable, but idealised vision of the future (Bass & Avolio, 2000). The leader inspires subordinates through optimism and stressing

ambitious goals which subordinates want to meet (Bass & Riggio, 2006). Transformational leaders provide “meaning and challenge to their followers’ work [through the creation of] clearly communicated expectations that followers want to meet” (Bass & Riggio, 2006, p. 6).

The final factor related to transformational leadership is idealised influence. Idealised influence is the partner of inspirational motivation as it focuses on the delivery of the well-crafted vision through the charismatic element of leadership (Bass & Avolio, 2000). Avolio et al. (1999) stated that the leader who demonstrates the behaviours of idealised influence is admired, trusted, and respected, and is considered a role model by subordinates who perceive the leader as persistent, determined, and ethical.

2.2.5 Definition of destructive leadership

Various studies indicate that destructive leadership is not a clearly defined construct (Kellerman, 2004; Kets de Vries, 2006; Lipman-Blumen, 2005), however this is slowly changing. This study defines destructive leadership according to Einarsen et al. (2007; p. 208) as “the systematic and frequent behaviour of a leader, manager or supervisor which violates the legitimate interest of the organisation through undermining the subordinate’s or the organisation’s goals, tasks, resources and effectiveness, motivation, well-being, or job satisfaction”. Destructive leadership refers to leaders whose decisions are aimed at harming their society and organisation (Einarsen et al., 2007; O’Connor, Mumford, Clifton, Gessner, Gessner & Conelly, 1995). Table 2.1 indicates the concepts associated with destructive leadership.

Table 2.1: Concepts associated with Destructive Leadership

Concept	Reference
Abusive Supervision	(Tepper, 2000)
Tyrannical leadership	(Ashforth, 1994; Ma, Karri, & Chittipeddi, 2004)
Toxic leadership	(Lipman-Blumen, 2005; Padilla, Hogan, & Kaiser, 2007; Reed, 2004)
Dark side of leadership	(Burke, 2006)
Derailed leadership	(Einarsen, Aasland, & Skogstad, 2007)
Poor leadership	(Kelloway, Sivanathan, Francis, & Barling, 2005)
Petty tyrants	(Ashforth, 1994)
Health endangering leaders	(Kile, 1990)
Bullies	(Namie & Namie, 2000)
Intolerable bosses	(Lombardo & McCall, 1984)
Psychopaths	(Furnham & Taylor, 2004)
Toxic leaders	(McCall & Lombardo's, 1983)

According to Einarsen et al. (2007), a number of concepts were identified by various researchers which cover the domain of destructive leadership aimed at employees. These are “health endangering leaders” (Kile, 1990), “petty tyrants” (Ashforth, 1994), “bullies” (Namie & Namie, 2000), “intolerable bosses” (Lombardo & McCall, 1984), “psychopaths” (Furnham & Taylor, 2004), and “harassing leaders” (Brodsky, 1976). Moreover Einarsen et al. (2007) identified destructive behaviours focused at the organisation to include (e.g., working towards goals other than those defined by the organisation). Additional examples being Lipman-Blumen's (2005) the concept of “toxic leaders” and McCall and Lombardo's (1983) the concept of leader derailment. Although there are obvious similarities among these concepts, researchers have yet to adopt a common definition or conceptual framework of destructive leadership.

According to Rayner and Cooper (2003), Tepper (2000), Zellars, Tepper and Duffy (2002) and Einarsen et al. (2007) empirical research on destructive leadership behaviours and the potentially negative effects is relatively restricted, regardless of the possibly devastating consequences for employees as well as the organisation as a whole. For instance, Ashforth (1994), describes so-called “petty tyrants” as leaders who are arbitrary, have self-aggrandising behaviour, belittle other employees, lack consideration, have a forcing style of conflict resolution, discourage initiative, and use non-contingent punishment. Nonetheless Tepper (2000) describes “abusive supervision” as superiors who are engaged in the sustained display of hostile verbal and nonverbal behaviours. However,

leadership behaviours which may have negative consequences for employees and organisations are not necessarily restricted to such active and manifest behaviours. According to Frischer and Larsson (2000) leaders' with a lack of initiative and action can also have a detrimental effect on employees' job satisfaction and efficiency.

According to Tepper (2000, p. 178) "abusive supervision" is defined as "employees' acuities of the extent to which supervisors engage in the sustained display of hostile verbal and non-verbal behaviours, excluding physical contact", whereas Hornstein (1996) refers to 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". Ashforth (1994) describes a petty tyrant as "someone who uses their power and authority oppressively, capriciously, and perhaps vindictively" (p. 126). Furthermore Kile (1990) stated that using the term health endangering leaders, defines these leaders as someone "who behaves in such a manner towards employees that the employees develop poor health, and attribute these health problems to the leader's behaviours" (p. 26). According to Lipman-Blumen (2005) "toxic leaders" refers to "leaders who act without integrity by dissembling and engaging in various other dishonourable behaviours" (p. 18), including behaviours such as "corruption, hypocrisy, sabotage and manipulation, as well as other assorted unethical, illegal, and criminal acts" (p. 18).

Destructive leadership can be characterised by a variety of characteristics, and it is important that organisations acknowledge these characteristics to prevent destructive leadership from occurring (Ajzen & Fishbein, 2005). The following main characteristics of destructive leadership were identified as charisma, personalised use of power, narcissism, negative life themes and an ideology of hate (Padilla et al., 2007; Schmidt, 2008). They show a lack of concern for the well-being of subordinates (Reed, 2004) and their personality negatively affects organisational climate (Coyne, Seigne & Randall, 2000; Walton, 2007; Reed, 2004). In addition, the subordinates of such leaders tend to accuse them of being motivated, primarily, by self-interest (Robinson, Harvey & Yupiter, 2007).

2.2.5.1 The Toxic Triangle

Organisations tend to always view leadership in a positive light and neglect to focus on the negative aspects of their destructive leadership (Gellately, 2001). The organisation accepts that leaders consist of good character and sound judgement which results in a positive ending (Pelletier, 2009). Therefore there is currently little research done on the negative effects of leadership (Gellately, 2001), since various studies focus on how organisations can improve their positive leadership. However, as destructive leadership has a negative effect on the organisation and its employees, it is important that the same attention should be given to destructive leadership as is currently given to constructive leadership (Pelletier, 2009; Bacal, 2000).

Leadership is an individual trait that requires the interpretation and structuring of beliefs and values in certain situations (Illies & Reiter-Palmon, 2008). However, these systems can either be constructive or destructive which will influence how the organisation will be lead and managed (Illies & Reiter-Palmon, 2008).

Figure 2.3 indicates the toxic triangle which is composed by Padilla, Hogan and Kaiser (2007). It is important to identify and investigate the contributions and implications of destructive leaders as indicated in figure 2.3.

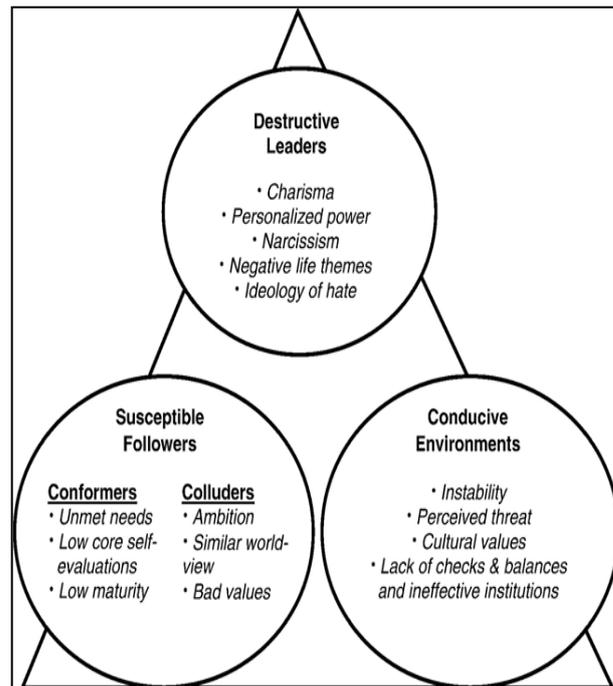


Figure 2.3: The toxic triangle: Elements in three domains related to destructive leadership (Padilla et al., 2007, p. 180)

Destructive leaders are at the top of the triangle indicating that it has an important presence in the toxic triangle (Padilla et al., 2007). Circle one indicates the characteristics which destructive leaders portray within the organisation. These characteristics include charisma, power, negative life themes and the ideology of hate (Padilla et al., 2007).

The second circle refers to the domain of susceptible followers which are divided into conformers and colluders (Padilla et al., 2007). According to Kellerman (2004) and Lipman-Blumen (2005) followers are unwilling to deny domineering leaders as they need security, group membership and predictability in a changing environment. Some followers choose to support the destructive leaders in their toxic activities (Lipman-Blumen, 2005). This is a challenge as the followers are lead at a group level; a group consisting of susceptible followers will be harmful to the organisation.

The final circle is the domain of conducive environments where the leaders, followers and their interactions are integrated (Kellerman, 2004). Leadership is influenced by the specific environmental situations with which individuals are faced. There are four environmental factors which are essential for destructive leaders. These include instability, perceived

threat, cultural values, absence of checks and balances and institutionalisation (Padilla et al., 2007).

2.3 MODELS OF DESTRUCTIVE LEADERSHIP

2.3.1 Destructive and constructive leadership behaviour model

According to Aasland, Skogstad, Notelaers, Morten and Einarsen (2010) and Einarsen et al. (2007) there are four types of destructive behaviours which are indicated in figure 2.4. These behaviours include supportive-disloyal leadership behaviour, tyrannical leadership behaviour and finally derailed leadership behaviour.

Figure 2.4 shows the model in accordance with the definition of Einarsen et al. (2007). The model displays two dimensions of subordinate- and organisation-oriented behaviours (Aasland et al., 2010). The subordinate-oriented dimension refers to leadership behaviours ranging from anti-subordinate behaviours to pro-subordinate behaviours (Einarsen et al., 2007). Furthermore anti-subordinate behaviours violate the valid interest of the organisation by undermining or damaging the motivation, well-being, or job satisfaction of subordinates, and can involve behaviours like bullying, harassment or other kinds of incivility and mistreatment of subordinates (Aasland et al., 2010). On the contrary, pro-subordinate behaviours refer to behaviours which foster the motivation, well-being, and job satisfaction of subordinates, which include taking care of and supporting subordinates (for example: listening to subordinates, attending to social relations among subordinates, giving praise when due, and showing appreciation and respect) (Aasland et al., 2010).

The second dimension refers to organisation-oriented behaviours which range from anti-organisation behaviours to pro-organisation behaviours (Einarsen et al., 2007). Anti-organisational behaviours violate the legitimate interest of the organisation and include, for example, stealing from the organisation (such as material, money or time), working towards goals that are in disagreement with those of the organisation, damaging the goal attainment of the organisation, or being involved in other forms of corruption (Einarsen et al., 2007). Pro-organisational behaviours refer to working towards the fulfilment of the organisation's goals, setting clear and unambiguous objectives, making or supporting

strategic decisions, and finally implementing organisational change (Einarsen et al., 2007). Moreover, according to Aasland et al. (2010) leaders' behaviours can also be referred to as being more or less constructive (pro-behaviours) and more or less destructive (anti-behaviours) within each of the two dimensions. By crosscutting the two dimensions, the model indicates four categories of leadership behaviours which include three that are destructive: (1) tyrannical leadership behaviour (pro-organisational oriented behaviour coupled with anti-subordinate behaviour), (2) derailed leadership behaviour (anti-organisational behaviour as well as anti-subordinate behaviour), and (3) supportive–disloyal leadership behaviour (pro-subordinate behaviour, while simultaneously displaying anti-organisational behaviour) (Aasland et al., 2010).

According to Einarsen et al. (2007) the model yields a nuanced picture of the phenomenon of destructive leadership. By giving consideration to the two dimensions (subordinate and organisation), the model further suggests a fourth type of leadership behaviour namely laissez-faire leadership behaviour which refers to leaders acting constructively on both dimensions in the model, which is pro-subordinate and pro-organisation behaviour (constructive leadership behaviour). Finally the fifth type of leadership behaviour refers to constructive leadership behaviour. In the sections to follow, the five categories will be described further (Aasland et al., 2010; Einarsen et al., 2007).

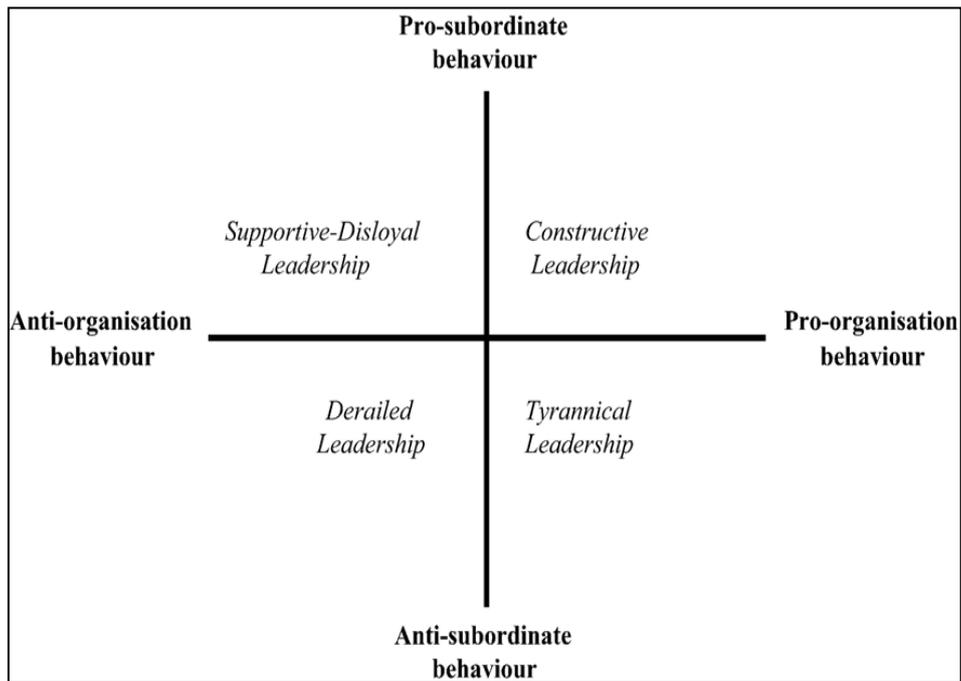


Figure 2.4: A model of Destructive and Constructive Leadership Behaviour (Einarsen et al., 2007, p. 211).

2.3.1.1 Tyrannical leadership behaviour

Tyrannical leaders typically exhibit behaviours which are pro-organisation and anti-subordinate (Aasland et al., 2010). These leaders achieve their goals at the expense of subordinates (Ma, Karri & Chittipeddi, 2004). The subordinates are usually manipulated, belittled and humiliated by the leaders to achieve the organisation’s objectives. Since these leaders are focused on the organisation they will not necessarily be evaluated as destructive leaders (Ma et al., 2004). However, the subordinates will view these individuals as destructive or as workplace bullies (Einarsen et al., 2007).

2.3.1.2 Derailed leadership behaviour

Leaders who are identified as derailed leaders exhibit anti-organisational as well as anti-subordinate behaviours (Aasland et al., 2010). Consequently these leaders will manipulate, humiliate, bully and deceive subordinates as well as engaging in anti-organisational behaviour (Einarsen et al., 2007). Anti-organisational behaviour includes fraud, being absent from work and stealing resources from the organisation (Aasland,

Skogstad & Einarsen, 2008). According to Aasland et al. (2010) some derailed leaders will also exhibit charismatic characteristics for their personal agendas.

Destructive, power-hungry leaders aim to make weak decisions to harm themselves as well as demean others (Lipman-Blumen, 2004). One of the main purposes is to be able to control others, especially those individuals who willingly aim to satisfy their leaders (Lipman-Blumen, 2004). Destructive leaders enjoy the satisfaction of manipulating their colleagues however; failure is their future (Lipman-Blumen, 2004).

According to previous studies (Kets de Vries, 2006; Lipman-Blumen, 2004) over the past decade ruthless and skilled bosses are normally in part do-gooders and saints and do not fill political or corporate leadership roles (Kets de Vries, 2006). By nature destructive leaders are driven and competitive, charismatic and self-confident, smart and cunning (Kets de Vries, 2006). Leaders should be wary that these characteristics are not transformed into destructive behaviours.

2.3.1.3 Supportive-disloyal leadership behaviour

Pro-subordinate and anti-organisational behaviours are the two main behaviours exhibited through supportive-disloyal leaders. These leaders usually motivate and support their subordinates, while stealing resources from their organisations (Aasland et al., 2010). The subordinates will usually receive more benefits than they are entitled to from supportive disloyal leaders at the expense of the organisation (Einarsen et al., 2007). Leaders will lead their subordinates to enrich themselves through the organisation through displaying the same anti-organisational behaviour (Aasland et al., 2010).

2.3.1.4 Constructive leadership behaviour

Constructive leadership forms part of the four types of leadership behaviours (Einarsen et al., 2007). However it is merely a definition since the proposed study focuses on destructive leadership. Constructive leaders are pro-subordinates as well as pro-organisation (Glasø et al., 2007). They will exhibit behaviours which will support and enhance goal attainment for the organisation, using resources optimally and enhancing the

subordinates' motivation and well-being (Aasland et al., 2010). Such leadership styles include transactional, transformational, charismatic and empowering leadership (Aasland et al., 2010).

2.3.1.5 Laissez-faire leadership behaviour

Bass and Avolio (1994) define laissez-faire leadership as “the absence of leadership, the avoidance of intervention, or both. With laissez-faire (avoiding) leadership, there are generally neither transactions nor agreements with followers. Decisions are often delayed; feedback, rewards, and involvement are absent; and there is no attempt to motivate followers or to recognize and satisfy their needs” (p. 20). Lewin, Lippitt and White (1939) stated that laissez-faire leadership signifies a leadership style where the leader has been chosen and still physically occupies the leadership position, however where he or she has more or less abdicated from the responsibilities and duties assigned to him or her. Consequently, a laissez-faire leadership style is not only a lack of presence, and therefore a type of zero leadership, but it implies not meeting the legitimate expectations of the employees or superiors involved (Einarsen et al., 2007).

2.3.2 A theoretical model of destructive leadership

Krasikova, Green and LeBreton (2013, p. 3) presents a model of destructive leadership that views destructive leadership as the “*volitional behaviour by a leader that can harm or intends to harm a leader's organization and/or followers by (a) encouraging followers to pursue goals that contravene the legitimate interests of the organization and/or (b) employing a leadership style that involves the use of harmful methods of influence with followers, regardless of justifications for such behaviour.*” This model's view of destructive leadership differs from the previous model of Einarsen et al. (2007) in the following fundamental ways:

- Destructive leadership is seen as harmful behaviour that is rooted in the process of leading. This excludes other behaviours generally regarded as counterproductive work behaviours such as theft of organisational property and gossiping about co-workers. In other words, the model suggests that deviant or counterproductive work behaviours

that are not embedded in the process of leading should not be labelled as destructive leadership behaviours (Krasikova et al., 2013).

- Destructive leadership manifests itself when a leader encourages his or her subordinates to pursue destructive goals or when using destructive methods of influence subordinates. In essence, destructive leadership “is more accurately, completely, and parsimoniously defined by recognizing that it represents the leader’s pursuit of destructive goals, the leader’s use of destructive methods of influence, or both” (Krasikova et al., 2013, p. 5).
- The “intention to harm” which is excluded by previous conceptualisations of destructive leadership is integrated in the meaning of destructive leadership in this model. Destructive leadership is seen as the voluntary behaviour of the leader to that can harm or intends to harm the organisation or subordinates.
- By viewing destructive leadership as the leader’s voluntary behaviour that can harm or is intended to harm the organisation or subordinates, Krasikova et al. (2013, p. 4) draw a distinction between destructive leadership and “acts of ineffective leadership (e.g., incompetence) that represent a leader’s inability to achieve goals valued by the organization or mobilize followers to achieve such goals.”

Figure 2.5 illustrates the theoretical model of destructive leadership proposed by Krasikova et al. (2013). The model describes destructive leadership as a product of dispositional and contextual factors and proposes the following:

First, leaders are likely to engage in DL when they experience difficulty achieving their goals (i.e., experience goal blockage) or, in the absence of goal blockage, when they are predisposed to harm others. Second, not all leaders are equally likely to experience situations of goal blockage: Some leader characteristics and contextual factors make them more likely to find themselves in such situations. In addition, when goal blockage occurs, not all leaders will react to it with DL: Some characteristics and contextual factors will make them more likely to favour destructive responses over constructive alternatives. Finally, some contextual factors are likely to determine whether leaders’ choice to pursue destructive goals or use destructive actions translates into DL (Krasikova et al. 2013, p. 9).

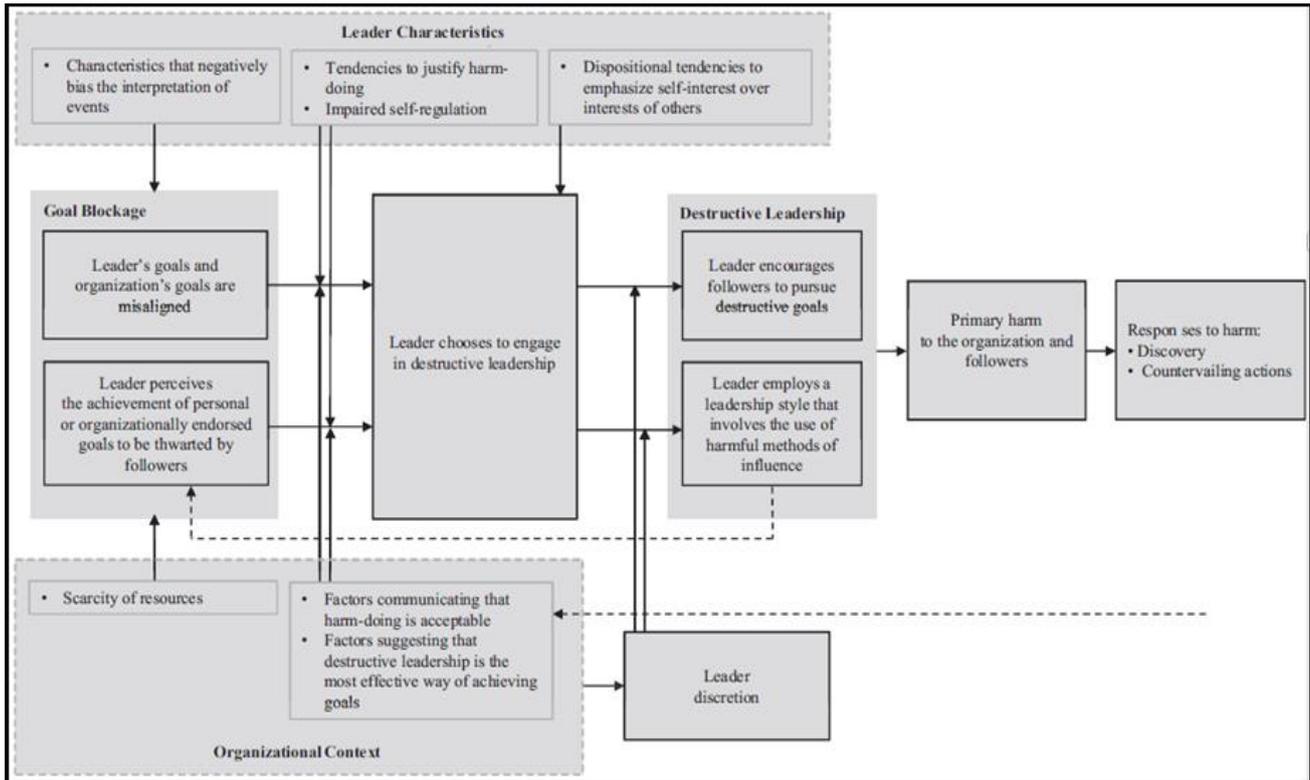


Figure 2.5: A theoretical model towards destructive leadership (Krasikova et al., 2013, p. 9).

2.3.2.1 Leadership characteristics

According to Krasikova et al. (2013) leadership characteristics include three categories. Firstly, characteristics which negatively bias the interpretation of events create goal blockage (Krasikova et al., 2013). The second characteristic is the tendency to justify harm-doing and a leader's impaired self-regulation which influences and is influenced by the organisational context (factors communicating that harm-doing is acceptable and factors suggesting that destructive leadership is the most effective way of achieving goals) (Krasikova et al., 2013). Finally leaders' dispositional tendencies to emphasize self-interest over the interest of others create leaders who choose to engage in destructive leadership (Krasikova et al., 2013).

2.3.2.2 Goal blockage

Goal blockage refers to the misalignment between leaders' goals and the goals of the organisation (Krasikova et al., 2013). This ultimately results in a leader choosing to engage in destructive leadership and encouraging their followers to pursue destructive goals

(Krasikova et al., 2013). Secondly goal blockage includes leaders' perceptions of the achievement of personal and organisationally endorsed goals to be thwarted by followers (Krasikova et al., 2013). This is increased by the scarcity of resources with regard to the organisational context. As previously mentioned this will result in leaders choosing to engage in destructive behaviour (Krasikova et al., 2013). Finally leaders will choose a specific leadership style which involves the use of harmful methods of influence (Krasikova et al., 2013).

2.3.2.3 Organisational context

The organisational context consists of three factors. These include the scarcity of resources, factors communicating that harm-doing is acceptable and factors suggesting that destructive leadership is the most effective way of achieving goals (Krasikova et al., 2013). The organisational context affects both leader characteristics and leaders' decisions to engage in destructive leadership (Krasikova et al., 2013). Finally the organisational context ultimately influences leaders' discretion which affects destructive leadership as a whole (Krasikova et al., 2013).

2.3.2.4 Destructive leadership

Destructive leadership is created by leaders' characteristics, goal blockage, the organisational context and finally leader discretion (Krasikova et al., 2013). Once destructive leadership is endorsed, primary harm is created for both the organisation and its' followers (Krasikova et al., 2013). Finally responses to harm include the discovery and countervailing actions of leaders implementing the destructive leadership (Krasikova et al., 2013).

2.4 GENDER AND DESTRUCTIVE LEADERSHIP

According to Fajana et al. (2011) there have been general misconceptions that men are more prone to be destructive in nature than women and women experience destructive leaders' acts more negatively than men. The likelihood of males being the victims of destructive leadership may be significant in an organisation that is dominated by females

(Salin, 2003). If the organisation is dominated by females it is likely that males will be at higher risk of being bullied by females.

According to the Workplace Bullying and Trauma Institute (Workplace Bullying Trauma Institute, 2010) seventy-eight percent (78%) is the percentage of females that are likely to be bullied by other females in the organisation. Furthermore fifty-five percent (55%) is the percentage of males being bullied by other males within the organisation. The Workplace Bullying Trauma Institute (2010) also found that twenty percent (20%) of female bullies choose to target males compared to female targets of seventy-nine percent (79%) and likewise male bullies choose woman targets of forty-five percent (45%) compared to male targets of fifty-five percent (55%). Although other studies confirm this tendency, it could be argued that males attack females in a higher proportion compared to females attacking males (Leymann, 1996; WBTI, 2010). This, according to Fajana et al. (2011), highlights the importance of power relationships, as females are more open to attacks than males. Therefore the study is aimed to determine the role of gender in workplace bullying, specifically destructive leadership.

2.5 RESEARCH FINDINGS OF DESTRUCTIVE LEADERSHIP

Einarsen et al. (2002); Kellerman (2004); Kelloway et al. (2006) and Tepper (2000) have expanded significantly on the variety of concepts and behavioural descriptions described under the overarching concept of destructive leadership in the past years. Einarsen et al. (2007) suggested a definition and a model, which contributes towards the destructive leadership theory and research. The proposed definition and the associated model contribute to this study's understanding of destructive leadership through proposing a broad and inclusive concept of destructive leadership behaviour (Hoobler & Brass, 2006; Einarsen et al. 2002). This includes behaviours directed at both the subordinates and toward the larger organisation (Ferris, Zinko, Brouer, Buckley & Harvey, 2007). Furthermore, the model presents a nuanced picture of destructive leadership behaviour which points out that a destructive leader could display destructive as well as constructive behaviours at the same time (Kellerman, 2004). Moreover the model presents a taxonomy of destructive behaviours which defines and distinguishes the primary forms of such behaviours. According to Einarsen et al. (2007) the model has the potential to serve as a

foundation for incorporating research on such diverse constructs as leader bullying, incivility, abuse, counterproductive behaviour, deviance, undermining, corruption, and theft.

Destructive forms of leadership behaviour are highly prevalent, specifically in their less severe forms, including the passive form of laissez-faire leadership (Aasland et al., 2010). Bearing in mind the negative consequences of destructive leadership for both the subordinates and the organisation according to several studies (Bamberger & Bacharach, 2006; Mitchell & Ambrose, 2007; Tepper, 2000), it was found that destructive leadership creates a serious problem in contemporary working life (Aasland et al., 2010). Moreover, destructive leadership behaviour comes in various shapes and forms, classified along two basic dimensions, namely pro-organisational versus anti-organisational behaviour and pro-subordinate versus anti-subordinate behaviour (Aasland et al., 2010). This entails that a leader can, over a period of time, display constructive as well as destructive behaviour (Aasland et al., 2010). Leaders who behave in a destructive manner are not exceptional, nor can they be referred to as a few deviants, at least not as experienced by their subordinates (Einarsen et al., 2007). Furthermore, destructive leadership behaviour is not a phenomenon which exists separate from constructive leadership, however it should be viewed as an integral part of what creates leadership behaviour (Einarsen et al., 2007). Thus, including this 'dark side' of leadership, a more accurate and nuanced understanding of the very phenomenon of leadership behaviour can emerge (Einarsen et al., 2007). According to Burke (2006) this in turn contributes towards the general understanding of both the nature and effectiveness of leadership, and to the development and management of leaders. There are a variety of reasons as to why leaders can behave destructively, be it their personality, incompetence, perceived injustice or threat to their identity, financial reasons and low organisational identification (Einarsen et al., 2007).

2.6 PSYCHOLOGICAL DISTRESS

2.6.1 Conceptual foundation of psychological distress

The sections to follow are dedicated to the conceptual framework of psychological distress. Psychological distress expands on the general theory of stress. A comprehensive

discussion regarding stress and the various models associated with stress will be discussed. Furthermore the cognitive-behavioural model of psychological distress and a theoretical model of psychological distress will be provided, to emphasise the foundation to psychological distress. Moreover the role of psychological distress in organisations will be described and the role of gender in psychological distress will be discussed. Finally the research findings on psychological distress will be discussed as a comprehensive conclusion of the construct.

2.6.2 The nature of stress

Stress has been described as the change in an individuals' physical or mental state in response to specific situations (stressors) which pose a challenge or threat (Krantz, Grunberg & Baum, 1985; Zimbardo, Weber, & Johnson, 2003). According to Selye (1956) stress refers to the nonspecific reaction of the body to any demand and a stressor refers to the agent (situation) which generates stress at any time. Sometimes people are challenged by difficult situations which could require a significant amount of physical and/or mental effort. For example, most parents can identify situations where they were called upon to rescue their child from getting hit by a car. This is a key example where stress was the driving force which stimulated their most primitive “fight or flight” response. It is important to note that stress can help individuals achieve their goals and drive them through difficult situations. However, stress can also become burdensome causing one to experience significant emotional distress and physical illness.

Thus, according to Selye (1980, 1987) the term eustress also refers to positive stress. Selye defined stress as “. . .the non-specific response of the body to any demand placed upon it.” (Selye, 1987, p. 17). Furthermore Selye (1964) differentiated between eustress and distress. Originally distress and eustress were integrated within the larger definition of stress. However it is important to understand that eustress and distress have always been regarded as different and distinct from each other.

Le Fevre, Matheny and Kolt (2003) stated that distress refers to the demands placed on the body, which is, in the larger sense, that which includes the physiological and the psychological aspects. Stress can be broken into eustress or distress, distress can be

represented by too much or too little demand which follows eustress and can be considered to be the amount of stress between too much or too little, an optimal level of stress (Le Fevre et al., 2003). This differentiation will lead to an idea that both under and over-stimulation can lead to distress, while moderating stress results in eustress (Le Fevre et al., 2003). However, this represents only a single aspect of eustress, and according to Selye's (1987) work, this is an implicit rather than explicit aspect of what he defined as eustress.

The manner in which a person construes stress and responds to it depends on how a distressful or eustressful nature is administered by the person (Selye, 1987). Therefore the individual tends to determine whether the stressor is perceived as eustress or distress. Harris (1970) associated eustress with pleasure and Edwards and Cooper (1988) stated that eustress is a positive discrepancy between perceptions and desires (provided that the discrepancy is salient to the individual). Eustress is primarily a result of positive perception of stressors; therefore distress is primarily a result of negative perception of stressors (Harris, 1970; Edward & Cooper, 1988). Furthermore whether a specific demand represents eustress or distress is determined by the amount of demand perceived by the individual as well as the perception of the individual regarding the demand's other characteristics.

According to various authors one can surmise that a stressor is characterised according to timing, if it is perceived or desired, or if it is beneficial or not, and if the demand is self-imposed or imposed externally it is represented by a specific individual (Le Fevre et al., 2003). Once again the question is whether a particular stress is identified as eustress or distress. This can be answered through evaluating what the demand represents for the individual. Once an individual is placed in control of the stress which they experience they will learn to react to the stressors with positive emotions (such as gratitude, hope, and goodwill) which is likely to maximise eustress and minimise distress (Le Fevre et al., 2003). On the other hand, if an individual responds to the stressor with negative emotions (such as hatred, hopelessness, anger, and the urge for revenge) it will result in the individual experiencing distress (Selye, 1987).

Stress has increased rapidly in the modern age as globalisation and competitive advantage have become primary objectives. This is not only on an organisational level but on an individual level as well. Stress influences leaders and employees, however the manner in which stress is dealt with differs from individual to individual (Ferdinand, 1988). Therefore leaders who are destructive can cause employees to experience stress within their work environment and their personal environments (Ferdinand, 1988).

Folkman and Lazarus (1988) stated that stress is created through the interaction between individuals and their environments in which they evaluate deficiencies in their coping strategies in response to a demanding situation. According to Singh and Sharma (2012) there are four processes which occur during the interaction. The first refers to the perception of the internal or the external stimulus, secondly the evaluation of the specific stimulus as a threat to wellbeing, the third is the appraisal of cognitive or physical coping resources and finally a complex set of cognitive and somatic responses known as the stress response (Golparvar, Kamkar & Javadian, 2012). Ultimately the individual's perception of the specific situation/event will determine whether the event is experienced as stressful and what are the key players during the evaluation (Singh & Sharma, 2012). An individual's cognitive capacity is the key player during the evaluation response. After the cognitive evaluation is performed the actual stress response begins. The stress response is also based on the environmental and personal characteristics of the individual (Singh & Sharma, 2012).

According to Michie (2002) individuals' behaviour can be regarded as the first sign of identifying of stress, especially when individuals change their behaviour. Severe responses to stress can be in the areas of emotions such as anxiety, depression, irritability, fatigue, behaviour for example being withdrawn, aggressive, tearful, unmotivated, rationale such as difficulties of concentration and problem solving and physical symptoms for example palpitations, nausea and headaches (Golparvar et al., 2012). In the case where stress persists, changes will occur in neuroendocrine, cardiovascular, autonomic and immunological functioning which will then lead to mental and physical ill health such as anxiety, depression and heart diseases (Michie, 2002). Expectations such as being unpredictable, uncertain, ambiguous, conflicting and the loss of performance are situations that are likely to cause stress (Singh & Sharma, 2012). Time

limited events, such as the pressures of examinations or work deadlines, or by on-going situations, such as family demands, job insecurity, or long commuting journeys can cause severe stress (Michie, 2002).

2.6.3 A model of stress

The model of stress is focused on the potential sources and the consequences which result in an individual becoming stressed (Robbins, 2003). There are three dimensions which cause stress, namely environmental, organisational and individual dimensions.

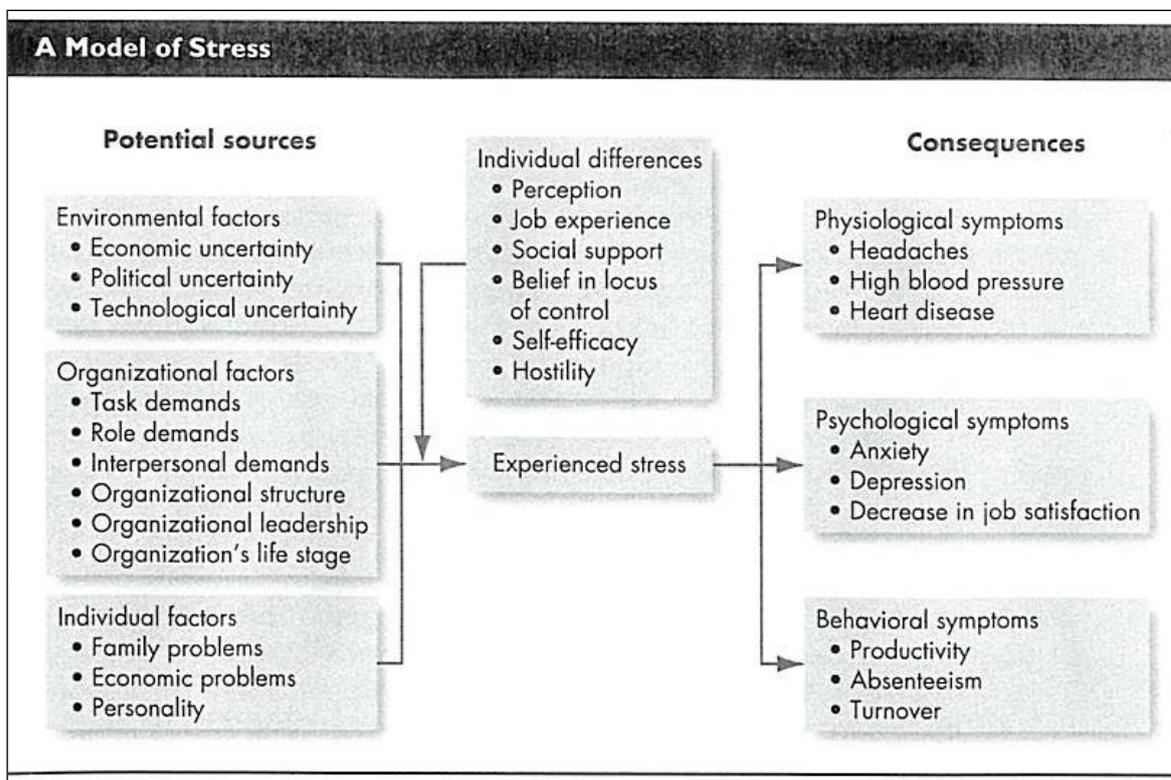


Figure 2.6: A model of stress (Robbins, 2003)

2.6.3.1 Potential Sources

There are three potential sources of stressors namely environmental factors, organisational factors and individual factors. These will now be discussed in the sections to follow.

2.6.3.2 Environmental factors

Environmental factors do not only influence the structure of an organisation but the level of stress experienced amongst employees as well (Robbins, 2003). Once changes occur in the organisation economic uncertainties are raised. Furthermore if political uncertainties increase it will most definitely increase the stress experienced by various members of the organisation (Robbins, 2003). Only if the country has a stable political system will the organisation experience stability as well. Finally technological uncertainties is the next factor which causes stress, as new innovations can cause an employee's skills and experience to become obsolete in a short time and this will create automatic stress amongst employees (Robbins, 2003).

2.6.3.3 Organisational factors

There is currently no shortage of factors within the organisation that can cause stress. For example limited time, work overload, a demanding and insensitive boss and unpleasant co-workers are just a few of these organisational factors (Robbins, 2003). Task demands are related to an employee's job, working conditions, and the physical work layout. This creates stress due to the limited time provided to complete these tasks (Robbins, 2003). Furthermore role demands refer to a person under pressure within a specified role who needs to perform a function effectively. Role overload can be experienced due to what is expected of an employee in a limited time frame (Robbins, 2003). Interpersonal demands are demands created by other employees in the organisation. This includes the lack of social support from others and poor interpersonal relationships (Robbins, 2003). Organisational structure refers to the level of differentiation in the organisation and the lack of participation in decisions which affect the employee. Moreover organisational leadership is the managerial style of the organisation, and some senior members create a culture characterised by fear, tension and anxiety which creates stress among employees in return (Robbins, 2003). Finally the organisation's life stage is a four-stage cycle which creates different problems and pressures for employees (Robbins, 2003).

2.6.3.4 Individual factors

Individual factors refer to employees' personal life where they experience problems with work-life balance (Robbins, 2003). Family problems refer to an employee experiencing marital difficulties, breaking off of a relationship, discipline problems with children, and these are only a few examples of family problems which create stress (Robbins, 2003). Economic problems are created by individuals overextending their financial resources and this creates stress for employees and distracts them from their daily activities (Robbins, 2003). Finally employees stress symptoms experienced on the job may have originated from their personality (Robbins, 2003).

2.6.3.5 Individual differences

Some individuals thrive on stress while some are overwhelmed by stress. Employees react to the response of their perceptions of reality rather than to reality itself (Robbins, 2003). Therefore perception will moderate the relationship between a potential stress condition and an employee's reaction to it. Furthermore research indicates that experience on job trends is negatively related to work stress (Robbins, 2003). People who remain in organisations longer are those individuals with more stress-resistant traits or those who are more resistant to the stress characteristics of their organisation. There is evidence which suggests that social support which is found in collegial relationships with co-workers or supervisors, can buffer the impact of stress (Robbins, 2003). Moreover those with an internal locus of control believe that they control their own destiny, whereas those with an external locus of control believe their lives are controlled by outside forces (Robbins, 2003). Research suggests that internals perceive their job to be more stressful than externals. In a stressful situation internals take control of the situation, whereas externals are more likely to be passive and feel helpless. Self-efficacy has also been shown to influence an individual's stress levels (Robbins, 2003). Individuals with strong self-efficacy react less negatively to the strain created by long working hours and work overload, than those with low levels of self-efficacy (Robbins, 2003). Finally some individuals' personalities include a high degree of hostility and anger. These individuals are chronically suspicious and mistrust others (Robbins, 2003). Individuals' who are quick to anger,

maintain a hostile outlook and project a cynical mistrust of others and are more likely to experience stress in situations (Robbins, 2003).

2.6.3.6 Physiological symptoms

Research on physiological symptoms led to the conclusion that stress creates changes in metabolism, increased heart and breathing rates, increased blood pressure, headaches and heart attacks can be caused (Robbins, 2003). Current research suggests that there is no clear link between physiological symptoms and stress, however there is a relationship between some symptoms (Robbins, 2003). The primary concern is therefore with psychological and behavioural symptoms caused by stress (Robbins, 2003).

2.6.3.7 Psychological symptoms

Stress creates dissatisfaction in most areas of an individual's life (Robbins, 2003). However stress can show itself in other psychological states as well, such as tension, anxiety, irritability, boredom and procrastination (Robbins, 2003). Research shows that in the event where an individual is placed in jobs which create multiple and conflicting demands, both stress and dissatisfaction arise (Robbins, 2003). The less control individuals have over their work, the greater the stress and dissatisfaction. Furthermore evidence suggests that jobs which provide a low level of variety, significance, autonomy, feedback and identity to employees, create stress and decrease satisfaction and involvement in the job (Robbins, 2003).

2.6.3.8 Behavioural symptoms

Behavioural symptoms caused by stress include changes in productivity, absence, turnover, changes in eating-habits, increased smoking and alcohol consumption, rapid speech, fidgeting, and sleep deprivation (Robbins, 2003). Organisations should never underestimate the cost related to job stress (Robbins, 2003). Stress has also been identified as the fastest growing reason for unscheduled work absences (Robbins, 2003).

2.6.4 The definition of psychological distress

According to Mirowsky and Ross (2002) psychological distress can be defined as a state of emotional suffering characterised by various symptoms of depression (such as loss of interest; sadness and hopelessness) and anxiety (such as restlessness and feeling tense). These symptoms are also related to somatic symptoms (such as insomnia; headaches and lack of energy) which are likely to vary across cultures (Kleinman 1991). Additional criteria have been used in the definition of psychological distress, however these criteria do not make consensus. Specifically, characteristics included in the stress-distress model suggest that the defining features of psychological distress are the exposure to a stressful event that threatens the physical or mental health, and also the inability to cope effectively with this stressor and the emotional turmoil that results from this ineffective coping (Horwitz 2007, Ridner 2004). Horwitz (2007) and Ridner (2004) argued that psychological distress disappears when the stressor disappears or when an individual comes to cope effectively with this stressor. Evidence confirms that the effect of stress on distress, however, including stress in the definition of distress, fails to recognise the presence of distress in the absence of stress.

Psychological distress is not a disease, it is rather characterised by psycho-physiological and behavioural symptoms such as anxious and depressive reactions, irritability, declining intellectual capacity, tiredness, sleepiness and work absenteeism (Marchand et al., 2005). If individuals suffer from psychological distress, it suggests that individuals have a deviation in their psyche (Marchand et al., 2005). If psychological distress is not treated, it will lead to reversible or non-reversible pathologies, for example high blood pressure, acute depression, psychometric diseases and suicide (Stransfeld, 2002). According to Stransfeld (2002) certain work conditions contribute towards psychological distress. These include factors related to skills utilisation, decision authority, psychological and physical demands, social support in the workplace and gratifications from work.

There are various studies which focused on psychological distress in the workforce, however these studies did not fill certain gaps within the field. One of the main gaps is the lack of literature on the contributions of occupations (Marchand et al., 2005). Specifically, several studies have not integrated the social environment of employees, for example

workplace challenges, family and social networks of employees (Marchand et al., 2005). The work challenges include workplace bullying, specifically destructive leadership.

According to Glasø et al. (2007) workplace bullying has a negative effect on the employees' psychological well-being. Various studies have contributed towards the available literature regarding the negative and harmful effects of destructive leaders toward employees' psychological well-being (Kellerman, 2004; Lipman-Blumen, 2005). However, this study is concerned specifically with employees' psychological distress and how destructive leaders influence this.

According to Vogel and Wei (2005) there are various studies which indicate that one third of those employees who experience psychological distress do not seek support from mental health professionals or institutions. Individuals with psychological distress tend to solve their condition through own knowledge or through a friend, where after they will only consult a mental health institution (Vogel & Wei, 2005). As a result these individuals who are bullied will not heal and may not learn how to deal with the process of being a victim (Vogel & Wei, 2005). The section to follow will describe how specific personality profiles perceive destructive leadership.

2.6.5 Theoretical models of psychological distress

2.6.5.1 The cognitive-behavioural model of psychological distress

According to Hyland and Boduszek (2012) the theoretical model described successfully encapsulates the various components of both the Rationale Emotive Behaviour Therapy (REBT) theory (irrational evaluative beliefs) and Cognitive Therapy (CT) theory (dysfunctional representational beliefs) in a parsimonious and empirically consistent manner. The model shown in figure 2.7 has been adapted from Ellis's (1958, 1962) original "ABC" model of psychological disturbance. Activating events can be either external or internal cues and trigger the activation of schematic structures (core beliefs, demandingness beliefs). When these schematic structures are activated they create systematic prejudices in information processing, leading to recognisable cognitive distortions (automatic thoughts) in conscious thought. These automatic thoughts are then

assessed by means of rational or irrational beliefs. The primary irrational appraisal mechanism being demandingness beliefs and the secondary irrational appraisal mechanisms represented by catastrophising beliefs, low frustration tolerance beliefs, and/or depreciation beliefs. Furthermore the process of irrationally appraising an individual's distorted representational automatic thoughts, which themselves arise as a consequence of the activation of underlying dysfunctional representational (core beliefs) and appraisal (demandingness beliefs) schematic structures, gives rise to the development of cognitive emotional-behavioural dysfunction. Per se, core beliefs, intermediate beliefs, and automatic thoughts create the distal cognitive causes of psychological distress, whereas irrational beliefs represent the most proximate cognitive cause of psychological distress.

It is essential to note that often many of the belief types represented in the current model can be identified and recognised in conscious thought. Furthermore the negative core beliefs, demandingness beliefs, and catastrophising beliefs are all frequently identifiable in the conscious thought and have frequently been described in the CT literature as specific categories of negative automatic thoughts (Beck, 1976, Beck & Dozois 2011; Leahy, 2003). According to the aforementioned, they argue that although this is often identifiable in the conscious thought, these thoughts are more accurately conceptualised as the conscious awareness of underlying belief processes which frequently operate at an automatic and unconscious level. Thus, this should not be classified as part of the automatic thought system but rather recognised as discrete belief processes.

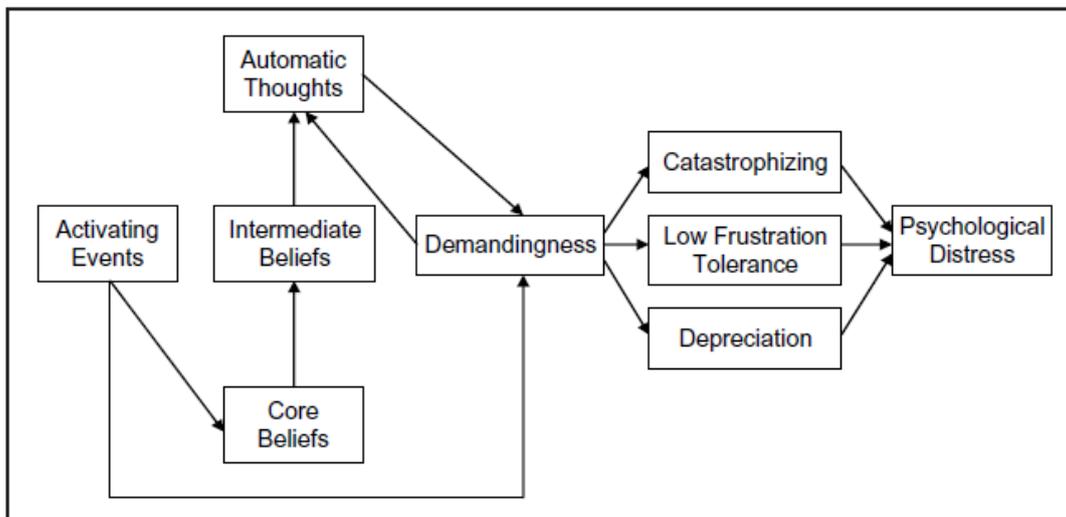


Figure 2.7: The cognitive-behavioural model of psychological distress (Hyland and Boduszek, 2012, p. 112).

2.6.5.2 A model towards psychological distress

Due to the restrictions in current research as well as the extent of psychological-distress-related problems in the organisation, it is essential to get a better understanding on how work contributes to mental health problems. In the theoretical model, the individual is hypothesised as an agent embedded in a social environment composed of situations with which he or she deals in everyday life. These relationships occur in a larger social environment characterised by a social, political, economic, and cultural context specific to a given society. The manner in which individuals relate to the social environment can be elements of pleasure and well-being or elements of frustration, strain, stress, exclusion, inequality, and suffering which can influence mental health.

Sociological theories which take micro–macro approaches (Alexander, 1987) and agency-structure approaches (Giddens, 1987) were used as a basis for the model. This defines social structures and agent factor personality as conditions of social action. The two main levels can be understood according to a dialectic placing of relationships and the reciprocity-interaction at the centre of the action (Archer, 1995). Together, this can create a set of constraints and sources which shapes the contingencies, the locations, and the opportunities that individuals have access to (Smelser, 1997). The relationships between the agent and structure may bring about unintentional consequences, to such an extent

that action can lead to results that individuals and actors had not sought or anticipated (Archer, 1995; Giddens, 1987).

Psychological distress can be viewed as an unintentional consequence of action which is affected by the constraints-resources jointly brought to bear by individuals and social structures (Pearlin & Schooler, 1978). No individual enters an organisation or becomes involved in a conjugal relationship under the assumption that doing so will create mental health problems; in the same way, social structures are not knowingly designed to produce illness (Thoits, 1999). The constraints can be compared to stressors which have the potential to influence individual abilities for adaptation (Wheaton, 1999) and to create physiological and mental inequities (D'Auria, 1997). Sources provide protection for the agent for him or her to deal with stressors in the environment; however they do not necessarily prove effective for everyone (Pearlin, 1999). Occasionally, they can have no effect, while in other cases it can allow individuals to condense the effects of constraints which could be potential sources of psychological stress for an individual (Pearlin, 1999). This suggests the existence of both additive and moderating influences on the way stress is experienced (Pearlin, 1999).

Constraints-resources occur concurrently at three levels of social life: macro-social structures, structures of daily life, and the personality of individuals (Karasek & Theorell, 1990). Macro-social structures refer to those social engagements tied to the economic, political, and cultural system and to the system of stratification, diversification, and social integration of a society at a national level (Smelser, 1997). This level creates occupational structures that take the form of a group of positions which are distinguished by the nature of the work to be accomplished, the tasks carried out, the responsibilities conferred on the individual, and the sector of activity in which the work is performed (Statistics Canada, 1993). Therefore the society includes an assortment of occupational positions in the labour market amongst which constraints-resources are unevenly distributed. Research has exposed important differences in organisational conditions by the type of occupation (MacDonald, Karasek, Punnett, & Scharf, 2001) which creates an unequal distribution of constraints-resources which gives rise to experiences of stress and fosters psychological distress amongst individuals (MacDonald et al., 2001).

Daily life includes structures such as work, family, social networks which constitute intermediate measures between individuals and macro-social structures that organise the foundation for everyday life, routines, and affective ties (Smelser, 1997). In an organisation, the constraints-resources related to psychological distress are associated with four main parameters of the organisation which include: task design (skill utilisation and decision authority), work demands (physical: from the environment and from efforts made by the individual; psychological: time pressure, quantity and conflict; contractual: hours worked and work schedule), social relations (harassment and unionisation), gratifications (job security, pay and prestige) (Smelser, 1997). Workplace constraints-resources have an influence on psychological distress which may follow a linear relationship (Smelser, 1997). Furthermore psychological distress can increase or decrease as the constraints-resources increase or decrease, and they could start to operate or have a greater influence only at a breaking point, which assumes non-linear relationships (Warr, 1987). An example of this is, the influence of psychological demands or working hours which cannot be felt except beyond a certain level; as well as, past a certain point decision authority would become too great and would form a stress factor which will lead to psychological distress (Smelser, 1997). Additionally, the impact of constraints-resources at work may differ according to the position held by the individual in the occupational structure, as this latter influence the distribution of constraints-resources for individuals in the organisation (Warr, 1987). The influence of working conditions would therefore be determined by the place that the individual held within the occupational structure (Smelser, 1997). Regarding the family and social networks of individuals outside the organisation, constraints-resources can be described by means of components which structure themselves around parental and marital status, strain in marital and parental relationships, household income levels, as well as the availability of support from the individual's social network to cope with issues from the individual's actions in society (Warr, 1987).

The final level refers to the personality of the individual, which signifies the constraints-resources that the individual organises into action and is associated to reflectiveness, rationality, creativity, demography, affect, the body, biology, representations, perceptions, motivations, habits, and attitudes (Alexander, 1987; Giddens, 1987; Smelser, 1997). From a sociological point of view, the personality of the individual is not a representation of the individual taken only on the level of characteristics or personality structure as understood

in psychology, but rather an overall representation of conditions describing the individual; which is created around the body, the mind, and the social environment (Alexander, 1987; Foucault, 1976). To describe psychological distress, the model consequently suggests that characteristics of the personality of the individual are contributing factors. It is important to acknowledge that these characteristics are associated with gender, age, physical health status, lifestyle habits (alcohol and tobacco use, physical activity), and stressful life events from childhood (Campbell, 1996).

Finally, should the relationship between the individual and social structures function according to the principle of reciprocity-interaction (both can be mutually impacted by the other) (Bu" Itmann, Kant, van den Brandt & Kasl, 2002) the influence of organisation constraints-resources could differ significantly according to the relations which the individual has with family structure or based on dimensions of the personality of the individual (Stansfeld et al., 1999). Research suggests that skill utilisation, social support in the organisation and job security might decrease psychological distress only among men (Wilkins & Beaudet, 1998), while working hours are thought to lower distress among women, in comparison with men for whom the relationship is considered non-linear (Voydanoff & Donnelly, 1999a, b).

2.6.6 Psychological distress in organisations

Some of the most common concepts used for mental health problems in the organisation include psychological distress, depression, and burnout (Dohrenwend, Shrout, Egri, & Mendelsohn, 1980). Psychological distress is more general in its definition and measurement, as it connects the various symptoms of psychic imbalance explained and assessed by two other concepts (Dohrenwend et al., 1980). It is described in terms of a set of psychophysiological and behavioural symptoms, which are not specific to a given pathology, such as anxious and depressive reactions, irritability, decline in intellectual abilities, sleep disturbances, work absenteeism, etc. (Ross, Mirowsky, & Goldsteen, 1990; Ve´zina et al., 1992). Psychological distress which is untreated could create more serious, reversible health problems (psychosomatic illnesses, arterial hypertension, severe depression and alcoholism) and with time, it can also cause permanent damage (permanent disability, premature deaths, suicide, cardiovascular and neuropsychiatric

diseases) (Ross et al., 1990). Generally, the existence of psychological distress gives a sign that something is going wrong in the individual psyche (March and, Demers, Durand, & Simard, 2003).

Rare longitudinal and numerous cross-sectional studies have emphasised two large sets of work factors to describe the appearance or aggravation of psychological distress (Vermeulen & Mustard, 2000). The first factor refers to the position of the individual within the occupational structure (Niedhammer, Goldberg, Leclerc, Bugel, & David, 1998; Vermeulen & Mustard, 2000). Various studies suggest that white- and blue-collar workers, semi-professionals, supervisors, and unskilled workers experience increased levels of psychological distress compared with professional groups such as senior executives, professionals, and middle managers (Vermeulen & Mustard, 2000). Furthermore other research indicated that lower levels of distress are linked to the rises of employment grades, in professional prestige, or in the socioeconomic status of an occupation (Fuhrer, Stansfeld, Chemali, & Shipley, 1999).

The second set of factors links psychological distress with the stress or strain caused by organisational conditions experienced by individuals in their own jobs: repetitive work (Shirom, Westman, & Melamed, 1999) and low levels of skill utilisation and decision authority (Van der Doef, Maes, & Diekstra, 2000); physical demands related to the environment and individual effort (Demerouti, Bakker, Nachreiner, & Schaufeli, 2000); psychological and emotional demands caused by workload, work pace, conflicting requests, and role ambiguity (Bu" Itmann et al., 2002); irregular schedules and long hours (Demerouti et al., 2000); weak social support (Vermeulen & Mustard, 2000) physical, sexual and psychological harassment (McDermut, Haaga, & Kirk, 2000); low rewards (Tepper, 2000) associated with job insecurity (Schmitz, Neumann, & Oppermann, 2000) and performance pay (Shirom et al., 1999). Marchand et al. (2003) suggest that occupation and work organisation conditions could play an important role in the development of psychological distress, however, at the same time, it emphasises the possible contribution of factors outside the organisation itself. Nonetheless, previous empirical research has come across considerable difficulty integrating, theoretically and empirically, the various factors making up the social environment (work, family, social networks) of everyone (Van der Doef et al., 2000). However research has not been able to

incorporate a wide range of organisational conditions that individuals are exposed to in their productive activities, just as they have not been able to take simultaneously into account occupational position and work organisation conditions (Howe, 2006; Turner et al., 1995). Additionally, they did not take into account the nonlinear relationships which have been examined for psychological demands and social support (Van der Doef et al., 2000), hours worked (Voydanoff & Donnelly, 1999a, b), age (Turner et al., 1995) and alcohol intake (Marchand et al., 2003; Peele & Brodsky, 2000).

2.6.7 Gender and psychological distress

According to Almeida and Kessler (1998) community surveys throughout the world indicated that women consistently report more extreme levels of distress and are almost two to three times more likely to report a history of affective disorder than men (Al-Issa, 1982; Bland, Newman, & Orn, 1988; Cheng, 1989; Conger, Lorenz, Elder, Simons, & Ge, 1993; Hwu, Yeh, & Cheng, 1989; Kessler & McRae, 1981; Weissman & Meyers, 1978; Wittchen, Essau, von Zerssen, Krieg, & Zaudig, 1992; Nolen-Hoeksema, 1987; Weissman & Klerman, 1985).

Amongst stress researchers, recent efforts to understand the gender-distress relationship have come from the gender role and cognitive-behavioural perspectives (Almeida & Kessler, 1998). Gender role perspectives emphasise the exposure to various types of stressors which men and women face. Gove and Tudor (1973) focused on the argument that women have higher levels of distress than men due to women's roles which are provoking more distress. According to Gove and Tudor (1973) women's gender roles are more nurturing, while men's roles are more instrumental. Therefore women typically take on social roles which require them to provide more support to others, to be more empathetic, and to extend their concern to a wider range of people in ways that increase stressors, which ultimately leads to distress (Belle, 1982; Gove, 1978; Gove & Tudor, 1973; Kessler, McLeod, & Wethington, 1985).

Cognitive-behavioural therapy (CBT)-based therapies are based upon the theory that psychological disorders are the outcome of dysfunctional cognitive processing (Ellis, 1962, 1994; Beck, 1976). David and Szentagotai (2006) described from the CBT perspective

complex human processes such as cognition, affect and behaviour are considered as being “cognitively penetrable”. This suggests that these processes are the direct result of some form of conscious or unconscious cognitive processing (Hyland & Boduszek, 2012). Furthermore, if changes are affected in a person’s cognitive processes, either through direct or indirect means, changes can be brought about in an individual’s cognitive, emotional, and behavioural responses (Hyland & Boduszek, 2012).

The rumination theory, which is rooted in a cognitive-behavioural perspective, suggests that gender differences in psychological distress are caused by the differences in how men and women respond to being in a dysphonic state (Kuhl, 1981, Nolen-Hoeksema, 1987). This theory suggests that women are more likely to ruminate on their negative emotions which thus prolongs them. According to Almeida and Kessler (1998) gender role perspectives emphasize the exposure to different types of stressors which men and women face. Thus, gender role perspectives oppose that women are more distressed than men as women's roles expose them to more stressors (Gove & Tudor, 1973; Mirowsky & Ross, 1989).

According to rumination, researchers explain how an individual responds to a dysphonic episode and how this contributes to the severity, chronicity, and recurrence of an episode (Kuhl, 1981, Nolen-Hoeksema, 1987). For example, Kuhl (1992) and Nolen-Hoeksema (1987) argued that men's responses to dysphonia tend to be more behavioural and distracting and therefore dampen their dysphonic episodes, and prolong dysphonia (Nolen-Hoeksema, 1987). Nolen-Hoeksema and colleagues have indicated that ruminative and self-focused responses to distressed states intensify and prolong a depressed mood and active distraction remediates a distressed mood (Lyubomirsky & Nolen-Hoeksema, 1993; Morrow; Nolen-Hoeksema, Morrow, & Fredrickson, 1993; Nolen-Hoeksema, Parker, & Larsen, 1994).

Furthermore, women are more prone than men to use ruminative responses however they are not less prone to use distraction (Nolen-Hoeksema et al., 1993). When women go into a dysphonic state, they are likely to continue in this state. According to Nolen-Hoeksema (1987) "the sex differences in rates of depression arise because women's ruminative response styles amplify and prolong their depressive episodes" (p. 276). Due to this view,

ruminative responses can prolong distress by "enhancing the effects of depressed mood on thinking, interfering with instrumental behaviours, and interfering with effective problem solving" (Nolen-Hoeksema, 1993, p. 311). This is in contrast to men's distracting responses that allow for positive thinking, generation of solutions and increases in positive mood. Even though this research delivers compelling evidence for the relationship between rumination and distressed mood, there is no clarity on why women ruminate more than men (Almeida & Kessler, 1998). There is a possibility that women ruminate due to the fact that sources of their stressors are different than the sources of men's (Almeida & Kessler, 1998).

2.6.8 Research findings of psychological distress

Psychological distress originated from a broad spectrum of conscious and unconscious mental activities which might be referred to simply as human experience (Glasø et al., 2007). It is important to note that psychological distress, to some degree, is essential for individuals to function (Glasø et al., 2007). Without psychological distress individuals can find themselves in situations which can threaten their lives, however most of the time they are unable to do anything about this because they fail to register the distress which such situations should produce (Marchand et al., 2005). However, there is a point, at which the experience of psychological distress could become the experience of disorder (or illness) (Vogel & Wei, 2005).

Midst the constraints and resources associated with work organisation conditions, physical and psychological demands, irregular schedules and workplace harassment arise as important causes of psychological distress (Marchand et al., 2003). Influences of work organisation conditions do not differ across occupations (Marchand et al., 2003). Family situation, support available from social networks outside work and personal characteristics of individuals are also related to psychological distress, however these factors do not moderate the effects of work organisation conditions (Vermeulen & Mustard, 2000). It should be noted that occupation and "pathogenic" work organisation conditions contribute independently to the experience of psychological distress (Vermeulen & Mustard, 2000). This is also supported by the theoretical model which conceptualises psychological distress as the product of stress produced by constraints and resources which is tolerated

simultaneously by the agent's personality, structures of daily life, and macro-social structures (Tepper, 2000). According to Almeida and Kessler (1998) women indicated a higher occurrence of high distress days and a lower occurrence of distress-free days than men. Gender differences in daily distress are attributable to women facing more onsets of distress episodes rather than being more likely to continue in a distress state from one day to subsequent days (Almeida and Kessler, 1998).

2.7 THEORETICAL RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN DESTRUCTIVE LEADERSHIP AND PSYCHOLOGICAL DISTRESS

According to Aasland, Einarsen, Skogstad and Matthiesen (2012) subordinates who are exposed to destructive leadership behaviour can be seriously affected in terms of their health and well-being. Ashforth (1994) stated that if subordinates experience a petty tyrant in a manner which involves anti-subordinate behaviour it can result in fear, anxiety, threatening the self-esteem and social esteem amongst subordinates. Furthermore Bies and Tripp (1998) stated that subordinates who perceive their superior as abusive have described thoughts and feelings of betrayal, distrust, resentment, frustration, and mental exhaustion. For example an interview-based study was conducted with 50 teachers in the United States who had been abused by school principals over a long period of time (six months to nine years) (Einarsen, 2000). This revealed that the respondents experienced shock, disorientation, humiliation, loneliness, and injured self-esteem (Blase & Blase, 2004). It was revealed that the principals' abuse of teachers was also perceived to result in severe psychological/emotional problems, including chronic fear, anxiety, anger, and depression (Blase & Blase, 2004; Van de Vliert & Einarsen, 2008). Moreover, abusive supervision has been related to several symptoms of psychological distress, including anxiety (Tepper, 2000), depression (Tepper, 2000), diminished self-efficacy (Duffy, et al., 2002), and somatic health complaints (Duffy, et al., 2002).

According to Einarsen et al. (2012) little research has been done on the relationship between supportive-disloyal leadership behaviour and subordinates' subjective health. Nonetheless, extensive research has been done on the positive influence of pro-subordinate behaviour on subordinates' well-being (Kuoppala, Lamminpää, Liira, & Vainio, 2008; Nyberg, Alfredsson, Theorell, Westerlund, Vahtera & Kivimäki, 2009; van

Dierendonck, Haynes, Borrill, & Stride, 2004). Although a leader's pro-subordinate behaviour may generate positive emotional reactions in subordinates, being exposed to anti-organisational behaviour can have a detrimental influence, depending on subordinates' appraisal of such behaviour (Einarsen et al., 2012). This will then reduce the potential positive effects of supportive-disloyal behaviour (Einarsen et al., 2012).

As a result destructive leaders are affecting employees' psychological conditions in a negative manner, specifically referring to psychological distress which creates a decrease in employee performance and productivity (Pelletier, 2009). Reduced employee performance and productivity will result in the organisation portraying a negative image nationally and globally (Einarsen, Hoel, Zapf & Cooper, 2003). Since this will affect the organisation's overall performance on a long term basis, they will become globally redundant (Pelletier, 2009).

2.8 CONCLUSION

The existing body of literature regarding destructive leadership, leadership, psychological distress and stress was discussed in this chapter. Furthermore, the literature referred to in this chapter provides a comprehensive background of the primary concepts that form the basis of this research study. The chapters to follow will investigate the detail related to the literature which was applied to the specific research objectives of this study.

CHAPTER 3: RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

3.1 INTRODUCTION

Before conducting a scientific enquiry which involves observing a phenomenon and further interpreting what was observed, important steps need to be carried out. These steps include the preliminary phase, conducting the actual enquiry which can be referred to as the research design and focussing mainly on the “why” and “how”. The design refers to a plan which determines what will be observed and analysed (Babbie, 2009). Furthermore methods described in this chapter refer to the techniques used to fulfil the plan. This chapter will cover both how the subjects for this study were selected as well as the criteria and rating systems to be used. This chapter strives to fulfil the requirement that a research design should be balanced in terms of methodological, practical, theoretical and ethical considerations. The content of this chapter can be outlined as follows: the first section describes the inquiry strategy and covers the use of quantitative research, descriptive research and applied research. This is followed by the section describing sampling approach. The data collection method is then described in the section to follow, before the overall research procedure is presented. The next section describes respectively how the data will be statistically analysed and how the quality and rigour will be assessed, before a final summary/conclusion to the chapter is presented.

3.2 RESEARCH PARADIGM

Maree (2010, p. 47) defines a paradigm as: “A set of assumptions or beliefs about fundamental aspects of reality which gives rise to a particular world view – it addresses fundamental assumptions taken on faith, such as beliefs about the nature of reality (ontology), the relationship between knower and known (epistemology) and assumptions about methodologies”. The research paradigm for this study is positivism. Positivist epistemology is grounded on objective facts which can be translated into a tangible form (Maree, 2010). Johnson and Duberley (2000) stated that positivism has become more dominant and argued that even individuals, who maintain that they do not use a positivist approach, still implement certain of its elements. Table 3.1 provides a broad definition and explanation of positivism (Carson, Gilmore, Perry & Gronhaug, 2001).

Table 3.1: Broad definition and explanation of positivism (Carson et al., 2001)

Positivism	
Definition	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Have direct access to the real world; • Single external reality.
Explanation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Possible to obtain hard, secure, objective knowledge; • Research focuses on generalisation and abstraction; • Thought governed by hypotheses and stated theories.

The study took on a positivism position whereby the social reality could be understood from an external point of view and this is based on a positivist point of view (Maree, 2010).

3.3 DESCRIPTION OF INQUIRY STRATEGY AND BROAD RESEARCH DESIGN

The study is empirical in nature, and has included and taken on the form of a quantitative nature and applied research. A cross-sectional approach will be taken based on primary data and a correlational design (non-experimental). The reason for using the specific research design will be discussed in terms of the descriptors which define them. The study has been classified as being strictly quantitative in nature.

3.3.1 Quantitative research

According to Babbie (2009) a quantitative research study includes a comprehensive literature review where the researcher becomes familiar with applicable information. Furthermore it refers to the movement through successive phases from theory to hypothesis to data collection and finally the conclusion (Babbie, 2009). Quantitative research mainly concentrates on a scientific method of theory testing (Babbie, 2009). It includes a data collection technique where variables can be assessed and data can be evaluated to understand the relationships between various variables (Creswell, 2009). Variables can be assessed through instruments such as questionnaires, and statistical

procedures can be used to evaluate the data collected (Creswell, 2009). This research started with a comprehensive literature review presented in Chapter 2. Furthermore objectives were presented to understand which variables will be assessed through the specific data collection and finally summarised through statistical analysis.

According to Creswell (2009); Leedy and Ormrod (2005); Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, (2007), surveys include the following strengths: Results will be statistically reliable in a quantitative study where the research is designed and conducted accurately. Quantitative research allows the researcher to stay at a distance which decreases contamination, for example minimising the researcher's influence on participants (Leedy & Ormrod, 2005). Moreover quantitative research works with numbers as opposed to qualitative data and it facilitates a tangible and less interpretive research environment, which helps to avoid susceptibility to bias (Creswell, 2009). As quantitative studies are numerical in nature, presentation and sharing of results becomes simpler and increases the effectiveness (Leedy & Ormrod, 2005).

Table 3.2: Descriptive and explanatory research (Cresswell, 2009)

Type of research	Characteristics	Relevance to this study	Reasoning
Descriptive	Characterises an observed phenomenon, providing more info on who, what, where, when and how	Yes	The phenomenon is the relationship between destructive leadership and psychological distress. This study specifically answers the questions "who" and "what" in the South African context, by counting and processing data from a questionnaire.
	Usually uses statistical or quantitative methods	Yes	This study uses quantitative methods and a basic statistical approach to testing hypotheses.
	Does not attempt / cannot prove causality	Yes	The Literature Review chapter does investigate and present theories indicating a causal relationship. However, the collection and processing of data to investigate the hypotheses only attempts to find a correlation and cannot prove causality in itself.
Explanatory	Answers the question of <i>why</i> an observed phenomenon occurs.	Partly	The Literature Review chapter does investigate and present theories indicating a causal relationship. However, the collection and processing of data to investigate the hypotheses only attempts to find a correlation and cannot prove causality in itself.

	Builds and elaborates on existing theories/principles	Yes	The study uses theories and previous studies to lay out some principles as a foundation. It then investigates them in the specific context of employees in South Africa.
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3.3.2 Applied research

Johnson and Christensen (2010) refer to applied research as being focused on answering practical questions to provide relative immediate solutions. The research is conducted in a realistic setting (a real world view). The objective of this research has been to provide measurable data to answer the objectives and to further provide possible practical applications and suggestions for future decision making. According to Cresswell (2009); Leedy and Ormrod (2005); Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, (2009), surveys include the following strengths: the results obtained include practical implications and provide useful suggestions for Human Resource Management. The main audience for applied research is other applied researchers, policymakers, human resource managers and/or directors. They are able to take the results obtained and further apply them to the development of interventions and programs that focus on improving organisational success. Moreover, the results can become an essential stepping stone for future research.

3.3.3 Primary data

Primary data is original and the data is purposely collected for the intended study. The data collected does not already exist. The primary measurable data was attained through a field survey using the aforementioned questionnaire and was further used to conduct statistical research to search for correlations. According to Cresswell (2009); Leedy and Ormrod (2005); Saunders et al. (2009), surveys include the following strengths: the researcher is able to handle research issues, as the design can be regulated to meet the needs of the researcher. Furthermore no existing data was found to be suitable; therefore it was necessary to generate primary data.

3.3.4 Cross sectional research

Cross-sectional analysis refers to data which is captured in a specific time period representing the state of a phenomenon (phenomena) at that specific point in time (Saunders et al., 2009). The study used a cross-sectional analysis. According to Babbie (2009) a cross-sectional analysis refers to data being collected from a sample group over a relatively brief period of time. The primary data for the proposed research study was collected at a specific point in time and was not extended over a prolonged period. According to Cresswell (2009); Leedy and Ormrod (2005); Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, (2009), surveys include the following strengths: cross-sectional research is beneficial as it allows data to be gathered from a variety of individuals over a short period of time. This is one of the simpler ways of data collection as individuals can be compared without the need to account for change as a function of time (Johnson & Christensen, 2010)

3.3.5 Correlational design

According to Fitzgerald, Rumrill and Schenker (2004) a correlational design can be defined as a process which is specifically used to explore the relationships among variables which cannot be manipulated. For the purpose of the study a correlational research design has been implemented. A correlational design is the most appropriate design for this study as it was not possible to manipulate destructive leadership behaviour and observe employees' psychological distress (Fitzgerald et al., 2004). The terms predictor and criterion have been used in the study rather than independent and dependent variables, as this is most appropriate to use when variables are not manipulated (Fitzgerald et al., 2004). The predictor refers to destructive leadership behaviour and the criterion refers to employees' psychological distress. As the primary objective of the study has been to determine the relationship between destructive leadership and psychological distress as well as the moderating effect of gender, a correlational design has been implemented accordingly.

3.4 SAMPLING

3.4.1 Target population

Maree (2010) stated that a target group is related to the unit of analysis. The population identified for the study was employees of South African organisations. Employees at all levels and in different departments have been included in the study. Participants of all demographic variables have been included to elicit all relevant information.

3.4.2 Unit of analysis

According to Maree (2010) any quantitative study gathers data by means of specific units. This includes any data which is relevant to the specific research subject. Therefore the units of analysis refer to the individuals which are included in the study. The unit of analysis used for the study is employees in South African organisations with a supervisor. Employees consisted of various demographic characteristics as this affected the results.

3.4.3 Sampling strategy

There are two kinds of sampling techniques which can be used; these include probability and non-probability sampling. Probability sampling refers to each element in the population which has a known, non-zero probability of being selected (Maree, 2008). Non-probability sampling does not use random selection of a population and it is therefore difficult to draw conclusions (Maree, 2008). For the purpose of the study the non-probability sampling technique has been used.

The sampling method which was used was a convenience sampling method. A convenience sample can be defined as a situation where the population elements are chosen based on the fact that they are easily and conveniently available (Maree, 2008). This method is cost effective as well as time effective, therefore a convenience sampling method was the ideal sampling method.

3.4.4 Sample size

A sample is a representation drawn from the population as a whole (Saunders et al., 2009). The primary concern regarding a sample size is how large the sample size is for the sample to be representative of the entire population. Due to the sample size which represents the sub group of the population, the validity of the study is impacted directly. Furthermore the precision of the statistics and the accuracy of the generalisation are increased by the size of the sample (Cresswell, 2009). Therefore a large sample decreases the sampling errors which can occur. Thus a sample size of 230 was selected for the study to increase the validity of the study.

3.4.5 Biographical and descriptive information of the sample

Primary data gathered through the survey was used to determine the biographical information of the sample. Biographical information included the applicants' age, gender, ethnicity, marital status, highest qualification and the applicants' job category. The researcher will use the biographical information to create a context for interpretation on whether gender plays a role in the relationship between destructive leadership and psychological distress. This will provide a better understanding of employees' perceptions regarding destructive leadership and their psychological distress.

The sample of this research consisted of employees at various levels in South African organisations. From the 230 questionnaires that were distributed to the sample, 200 completed questionnaires were received with only 199 usable for data analysis. This represents a response rate of 86%. The demographic analysis of the sample is discussed in the sections to follow.

Table 3.3: Demographical variables

<i>Demographics</i>		<i>N</i>	<i>Valid Percent</i>
Age	18 or younger	1	0.5
	19-25	23	11.5
	26-35	56	28.0
	36-45	40	20.0
	46-55	48	24.0
	56-65	29	14.5
	66-75	3	1.5
Gender	Male	59	29.5
	Female	141	70.5
Ethnicity	African	57	28.5
	White	119	59.5
	Asian	1	0.5
	Indian	7	3.5
	Coloured	16	8.0
Marital status	Married	103	51.5
	Divorced	20	10.0
	Single	68	34.0
	Widowed	9	4.5
Highest qualification	Matric	26	13.0
	Post Matric Certificate	14	7.0
	Diploma	59	29.5
	B Degree	50	25.0
	Honours degree	40	20.0
	Master's degree	11	5.5
Job category	Educator	144	72.0
	Human resources	6	3.0
	Security	5	2.5
	Assistant	4	2.0
	Secretary	4	2.0
	Other	37	18.5
	Male	62	31.0
	Female	138	69.0
Total		200	100.0

The data analysis summarised that the majority of the respondents were between the ages of 26 and 35 and made up 28.0% of the data, with a total of 56 respondents. Furthermore the remaining 142 respondents were represented by 71.5% of the age 18 and younger,

11.5% between the ages of 19 to 25, 20.0% between the ages of 36 to 45, 24.0% between the ages of 26-55, 14.5% between the ages of 56 to 65, and finally those between the ages of 66 to 75 represented 1.5% of the sample.

According to the data the gender distribution indicated that there were more females than males in the sample. From the 200 respondents 29.5% were male and the other 70.5% were female.

The data analysis indicated a total of 200 ethnic representations. The data revealed the respondents were predominantly located within the White (59.9%) and African (28.5%) ethnic groups. The remainder of the data was made up of a 0.5% Asian, 3.5% Indian and 8.0% Coloured ethnic representation.

The data analysis indicated that 51.1% of the respondents were married and 10.0% of the respondents were divorced. In addition 34.0% of the respondents were single and finally 4.5% were widows or widowers.

The data analysis revealed that 200 respondents indicated their highest qualifications. Most of the respondents from the data analysis indicated a highest achievement of a Diploma (29.5%) or a B Degree (25.0%). Forty respondents had obtained an Honours Degree (20.0%) and twenty six respondents had obtained a Matric (13.0%). Furthermore fourteen respondents obtained a post matric certificate (13.0%) and finally eleven respondents obtained a Masters' degree (5.5%).

The data analysis revealed that most respondents fall within the job category of Educator with 72.0%. Furthermore 3.0% of the respondents are in the category of Human Resources and 2.5% are in the Security category. The analysis indicated that respondents in the Security and Assistant categories consist of 2.0% of the sample group. Finally the remaining respondents fall into the other category with 18.5%.

The data analysis indicated that of the 200 responses to the question of whether they have a male or female supervisor; sixty two responses (31.0%) indicated that they have male supervisors. One hundred and thirty eight (69.0%) indicated that their supervisors are females.

3.5 DATA COLLECTION

3.5.1 Data collection approach

The study included structured paper and pencil questionnaires as a data gathering instrument to collect primary data from the sampling units. This type of questionnaire was used in a group administration. According to Maree (2008) a group administration of questionnaires refers to the researcher who waits while the sample of respondents complete their questionnaires. These questionnaires are cost as well as time effective and can be administered by test administrators for accuracy (Maree, 2008). A total of 230 questionnaires were distributed to the sample group of which 200 completed questionnaires were received, however only 199 of the responses were usable for data analysis. This represents 86.95% of the response rate.

The questionnaire consisted of three different sections; the biographical questionnaire, the Destructive Leadership Scale (DLS) and the Hopkins Symptoms Checklist – 45 (HSCL-45) in order to facilitate the collection of responses to the categories of questions. The first section consisted of a nominal scale in order to collect demographic variables (Maree, 2008). These variables include for example age, gender, ethnicity and the participants' profession. As previously mentioned, the questions were structured and respondents were asked to answer questions related to destructive leadership. A five point Likert scale as well as a four point Likert scale was used ranging from "1" strongly disagree to "5" strongly agree. The five main constructs covered in the second domain of the questionnaire included destructive leadership, job satisfaction and psychological distress.

The abovementioned data collection method supported the study in achieving its primary objectives, namely, to determine the relationship between destructive leadership and psychological distress in South African organisations and the moderating effect of gender. Furthermore the data collection method provided clear insight into the general nature of the research problem and determined priorities amongst research questions.

3.5.2 Data collection instruments

The study made use of three questionnaires:

- The Biographical section/questionnaire;
- The Destructive Leadership Scale (DLS) and;
- The Hopkins Symptoms Checklist-45 (HSCL-45).

3.5.2.1 Biographical section/questionnaire

The first section consisted of the demographic variables (Maree, 2008). These variables include age, gender, ethnicity, level of education, marital status, highest qualification and respondents' professions.

3.5.2.2 Destructive Leadership Scale

The Destructive Leadership Scale (DLS) was developed by Aasland et al. (2008) to measure destructive leadership behaviour and includes 22 items. A four point Likert-type scale ranging from 0 (never) to 3 (very often/almost always) was used. Thus the study used the destructive leadership scale to measure destructive leadership behaviour. Four items were used to measure tyrannical leadership behaviour. The following example was included 'has humiliated you, or other employees, if you or they fail to live up to his/her standards'.

3.5.2.2.1 Dimensions of the Destructive Leadership Scale

Derailed leadership behaviour was measured in terms of four items. An example includes 'has used his or her position in the firm to profit financially/materially at the company's expense'. Four items were used to measure employees' supportive disloyal leadership behaviour. One example includes 'has behaved in a friendly manner by encouraging you or your co-workers to extend your/their lunch break'. Laissez-faire leadership behaviour was measured by four items. These items were taken from the Multi-factor Leadership questionnaire (Bass & Avolio, 1990). An example includes 'gives recognition for good performance'. The items related to each dimension are displayed in table 3.4:

Table 3.4: Dimensions of the Destructive Leadership Scale

Dimension	Item
Supportive Disloyal leadership behaviour	1,3,6,10
Tyrannical leadership behaviour	4,8,16,21
Derailed leadership behaviour	11,13,18,21
Laissez-faire leadership behaviour	7,12,14,19
Constructive leadership behaviour	2,5,9,15,17,20

3.5.2.2.2 Administration of DLS

The DLS was administered through paper and pencil questionnaires which were distributed to participants on a self-report basis. As previously mentioned a four point Likert-type scale ranging from 0 (never) to 3 (very often/almost always) was used. A score of 2 or 3 indicated that participants' perceptions of destructive leadership were high. If participants indicated a lower score of 0 or 1 it indicated that their perceptions of destructive leadership were low.

3.5.2.2.3 Reliability of the Destructive Leadership Scale

Table 3.5: Reliability of the Destructive Leadership Scale

Dimension	Item	Cronbach's Alpha
Supportive Disloyal leadership behaviour	1,3,6,10	0.60
Tyrannical leadership behaviour	4,8,16,21	0.75
Derailed leadership behaviour	11,13,18,21	0.75
Laissez-faire leadership behaviour	7,12,14,19	0.59
Constructive leadership behaviour	2,5,9,15,17,20	0.85
Overall destructive leadership	N/A	0.56

According to Pallant (2001) a Cronbach Alpha of 0.70 or higher is considered to be acceptable. As indicated in Table 6 only tyrannical leadership behaviour; derailed leadership behaviour and constructive leadership behaviour was above 0.70 which indicated that the dimensions are reliable and measure each construct effectively. However, only supportive disloyal leadership behaviour and laissez-faire leadership behaviour was below 0.70 which indicates that these dimensions are not as reliable as the other dimensions.

3.5.2.2.4 Justification for the use of the DLS

The DLS was used as there are no instruments available in the South African context which measure destructive leadership behaviour. Furthermore the DLS had indicated acceptable Cronbach Alpha Coefficients in South African studies (Aasland et al., 2010). However, the Cronbach Alpha of the supportive–disloyal leadership behaviour subscale was found to be low, thus questioning the internal consistency of this subscale (Hinkin, 1998).

3.5.2.3 Hopkins Symptoms Checklist-45

The Hopkins Symptoms Checklist-45 (HSCL-45) was developed by Green, Walkey, McCormick and Taylor (1988) to measure psychological distress. The test consists of 45 items of the somatic, performance and general distress which respondents currently experience. Thus, the study used the HSCL-45 to measure psychological distress. A four point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (not at all) to 4 (extremely) was used.

3.5.2.3.1 Dimensions of the Psychological Distress

Twelve items were used to measure somatization, an example of which includes ‘headaches’. Eight items were used to measure obsessive-compulsive behaviour and an example includes ‘worried about sloppiness or carelessness’. Furthermore seven items were used to measure interpersonal sensitivity and one example includes ‘feeling critical of others’. Depression was measured by eleven items and an example includes ‘loss of sexual interest or pleasure’. Finally anxiety was measured by seven items and an example

of anxiety includes ‘nervousness or shakiness inside’. The items related to each dimension are displayed in table 3.6:

Table 3.6: Dimensions of the Hopkins Symptoms Checklist-45

Dimension	Item
Somatization	1,3,9,10,19,32,35,36,39,40,43,45
Obsessive-compulsive	6,7,20,29,33,34,38,42
Interpersonal Sensitivity	5,8,17,26,27,28,31
Depression	4,11,13,14,15,18,21,22,23,24,41
Anxiety	2,12,16,25,30,37,44

3.5.2.3.2 Administration of HSCL-45

The HSCL-45 was administered through paper and pencil questionnaires which were distributed to participants on a self-report basis. As previously mentioned a four point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (not at all) to 4 (extremely) was used. A score of 3 or 4 indicated that participants experienced higher levels of psychological distress. If participants indicated a lower score of 1 or 2 it indicated that they experienced less psychological distress.

3.5.2.3.3 Reliability of the Hopkins Symptoms Checklist-45

Table 3.7: Reliability of the Hopkins Symptoms Checklist-45

Dimension	Item	Cronbach’s Alpha
Somatization	1,3,9,10,19,32,35,36,39,40,43,45	0.84
Obsessive-compulsive	6,7,20,29,33,34,38,42	0.84
Interpersonal Sensitivity	4,11,13,14,15,18,21,22,23,24,41	0.82
Depression	5,8,17,26,27,28,31	0.86
Anxiety	2,12,16,25,30,37,44	0.80
Overall Psychological Distress	N/A	0.92

According to Pallant (2001) a Cronbach Alpha of 0.70 or higher is considered to be acceptable. As indicated in Table 8 each dimension is above 0.70 which indicates that all the dimensions are reliable and can measure psychological distress effectively.

3.5.2.3.4 Justification for the use of the HSCL-45

Furthermore the HSCL-45 was used as there are no instruments available in the South African context which measure psychological distress. In addition the HSCL-45 had indicated acceptable Cronbach Alpha Coefficients (Rowe, 2006).

3.5.3 Possible obstacles in data collection

The use of convenience sampling is a risk to the external validity of the proposed study. One of the risks associated with convenience sampling is the extent to which the researchers' sample is dependent on participants' response. Therefore to ensure the elimination of this risk, a large sample has been used to create an opportunity for a representative sample which will increase the external validity of the research study. One of the primary limitations of quantitative research is that quantitative research is a structured approach when collecting data. The limitation refers to the researcher who is challenged by the possibility of overlooking any data which is not specifically collected through the instruments being implemented. Furthermore written questionnaires are a limitation due to the articulacy of the target population (Greenstein, 2006). One of the primary obstacles in this research study is the unwillingness from participants to complete the questionnaires.

3.6 DATA ANALYSIS

The data analysis has been carried out by means of the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS; Version 21) program (SPSS Inc., 2013). Descriptive statistics as well as inferential statistics were used to analyse the data in terms of the sample composition, means and standard deviation of destructive leadership and psychological distress scores. The Pearson's product-moment correlation coefficients, sample t-test and multiple regression analysis have been used to draw conclusions specifying the relationship

between the variables. The significance value will be set at a 95% confidence interval level ($p < 0.05$).

3.6.1 Recording, storing and coding the data gathered

According to Babbie (2008) for a computer to recognise the data, each of the questionnaire responses provided were assigned to a numeric code. The primary purpose of numeric coding is to decrease the diversity of unconventional responses into a reduced list of characteristics. Furthermore the responses were captured into the statistical program SPSS (Version 21) in accordance with the coding system. It is important to note that all responses, documents, and codebooks which list the assignment of codes and describe the location of variables which are related to the publications and data collection instruments, were archived in a locked file for storage purposes.

3.6.2 Preparation of data analysis

The preparation of the data gathered involves preparing the data for analysis which includes the assessment of key qualities and structures of the data. There were a few factors taken into consideration, including firstly addressing possible risks of disclosure before the researcher can enter the data, secondly, determining the file formats before the data can be entered and finally archiving publications which were used. This enabled the researcher to view the data as a whole to identify the possibilities of the data. The preparation phase involved devising a framework for the data collected, to facilitate provision of a summary of what has been studied and to be readily analysed to answer the researchers' questions.

3.6.3 Techniques data analysis

As previously mentioned the statistical analysis was done by means of the SPSS program (SPSS, Version 21, 2013). Descriptive statistics, reliability analysis, inferential statistics, correlational statistics and multiple regression analysis were used to analyse the data. The reliability as well as validity of the questionnaires used was determined by the Cronbach Alpha coefficients. The Pearson product-moment correlation was used to determine if

there was a relationship between destructive leadership and employees' psychological distress.

3.7 DEVELOPMENT OF RESEARCH HYPOTHESES

For the purposes of this study six hypotheses were developed:

H₁: There are significant gender differences in the participants' overall destructive leadership scores;

H₂: There are significant gender differences in the participants' overall psychological distress scores;

H₃: There are significant gender (gender of the supervisor) differences in the participants' overall destructive leadership scores;

H₄: There are significant gender (gender of the supervisor) differences in the participants' overall psychological distress scores;

H₅: There is a significant correlation between the participants' overall destructive leadership scores and overall psychological distress;

H₆: Gender has a moderating effect on the relationship between participants' overall destructive leadership scores and overall psychological distress scores.

3.8 RESEARCH ETHICS

According to Saunders et al., (2009) research ethics can be defined as the way in which a researcher constructs and clarifies the research topic, designs the research as well as gains access, gathers data, generates and stores data, analyses data and records their research findings. If researchers are working with human beings or other living subjects it is extremely important to clearly understand and implement the ethical procedures associated with the action taking place (Leedy & Ormrod, 2010). The specific ethical considerations which relate to the proposed study will be discussed in the section to follow (Leedy & Ormrod, 2010).

3.8.1 Ethical clearance

The university's code of ethics and ethical guidelines was used as a guideline in the study. Moreover the researcher has to cooperate with members of the professional board. The research was subjected to the approval of the University of Pretoria's Economic and Management Sciences Research Ethics Committee.

3.8.2 Protection against harm

Researchers are expected to pose no psychological or physical harm towards participants taking part (Leedy & Ormrod, 2010). The standardised rule regarding participants' protection is that the study should not involve any which is appreciably greater than the normal day-to-day risks in life. In the case where participants might experience any psychological discomfort it is of extreme importance that participants are informed before the study commences (Leedy & Ormrod, 2010). The study clearly indicated that no physical harm can be caused during participation as questionnaires will be used and analysed.

3.8.3 Informed consent

Informed consent can be defined as providing participants with the option to participate and, if they decide to participate, they have the right to withdraw at any time during the study (Leedy & Ormrod, 2010). Participants should therefore participate strictly if they volunteer to take part in the study. According to Leedy and Ormrod (2010) it is important to present an informed consent form which clearly describes the nature of the research study as well as the participant taking part in the study. Therefore the study provided each participant with an informed consent form which is indicated in Appendix A.

3.8.4 Right to privacy

The study included the participation of human beings and therefore it is important that the participants' right to privacy was respected at all times (Leedy & Olmrod, 2010). The research report has not been presented in a manner which allows others to become aware

of how the participant has responded or behaved. However if the participants give their permission in writing to specific data being released, then and only then, will the data be released.

3.8.5 Respecting researcher's work

Throughout the research process the researcher is consistently working with other researchers' and authors' literature. Therefore when using the literature of other researchers, the information obtained was respected by maintaining copyright and avoiding plagiarism throughout the study.

3.8.6 Data Management

The data obtained from participants is private and confidential and therefore the data should be managed throughout the process. Thus the data management process focuses on three important areas. Firstly, only the individuals involved in the study will be allowed to assess personal information which is confirmed by an ethical oath. Secondly, the researchers were responsible for taking ownership of the data and the storage thereof. It is important to note that the data should be archived for a minimum of 5 years. Finally, confidentiality has been maintained throughout the entire process.

3.9 CONCLUSION

The most effective research design and methodology has been used to ensure that the reliability and validity of the study has increased and that it will answer the objectives accurately. Chapter 3 has been dedicated to the discussion of the specific paradigm, philosophy of the study, the strategy of inquiry, the methods of sampling, data collection and finally the analysis of the study. Furthermore the research ethics applicable to the study was discussed. This will be used as a foundation to discuss the results and conclusions of the research itself.

CHAPTER 4: RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

4.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter is dedicated to the presentation of statistical results obtained through factor descriptive statistics using SPSS (SPSS, Version 21, 2013). For the purposes of this study six hypotheses were formulated to analyse the relationship between destructive leadership and employees' psychological distress and the moderating effect of gender. Chapter 4 focuses on the presentation of the results and an analysis and interpretation thereof. An interpretation of the results for each hypothesis will now be presented and discussed. Two measures were used in this study namely, the DLS and the HSCL-45. The following section is dedicated to the discussion of the results pertaining to these instruments' adequacy for descriptive statistics of the subscales.

4.2 DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS

According to Pallant (2005) descriptive statistics can be used for the following:

- To describe the characteristics of the sample;
- To indicate whether the variables for any violation of the assumptions underlying the statistical techniques will address your research questions and;
- To address specific research questions.

For the purpose of this study descriptive statistics were used to describe the characteristics of the sample.

4.2.1 Descriptive statistics for destructive leadership

Table 4.1 represents the descriptive statistics of the DLS.

Table 4.1: Descriptive statistics for destructive leadership

<i>Destructive leadership behaviour</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Supportive-disloyal leadership behaviour	199	0.29	0.52
Tyrannical leadership behaviour	200	0.34	0.66
Derailed leadership behaviour	200	0.58	0.75
Laissez faire leadership behaviour	200	0.53	0.68
Constructive leadership behaviour	200	1.97	1.46
Overall destructive leadership behaviour	200	0.41	0.48

Generally the sample reflected a relatively low perception of destructive leadership behaviour. Furthermore in terms of supportive-disloyal leadership behaviour ($M=0.29$, $SD=0.52$), tyrannical leadership behaviour ($M=0.34$, $SD=0.66$) as well as laissez faire leadership behaviour ($M=0.53$, $SD=0.68$) participants indicated a low perception. Finally participants indicated a relatively higher perception of constructive leadership behaviours ($M=1.97$, $SD=1.46$).

4.2.2 Descriptive statistics of psychological distress

Table 4.2 represents the descriptive statistics of the HSCL-45.

Table 4.2: Descriptive statistics of psychological distress

<i>Psychological distress</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Somatization	200	1.50	0.44
Obsessive-compulsive behaviour	200	1.67	0.56
Interpersonal Sensitivity	200	1.66	0.55
Depression	199	1.56	0.50
Anxiety	200	1.46	1.49
Overall psychological distress	200	1.57	0.45

The sample reflected a relatively low level of the overall psychological distress ($M=1.57$, $SD=0.45$). Furthermore participants reflected a relatively low level of somatization ($M=1.56$, $SD=0.44$), obsessive-compulsive behaviours ($M=1.67$, $SD=0.56$), interpersonal sensitivity ($M=1.66$, $SD=0.55$), depression ($M=1.56$, $SD=0.50$) and anxiety ($M=1.57$, $SD=1.49$).

4.3 INFERENCEAL STATISTICS

According to Field (2009) inferential statistics provide ways of testing the reliability of the findings of a study and "inferring" characteristics from a small group of participants (the sample) onto much larger groups of people (the population). An example of inferential statistics is ANOVA and independent samples t -test.

4.3.1 T-Tests

According to Pallant (2005) and Field (2009) there are a number of different t -tests available in SPSS. These include the independent samples t -test which is used to compare the mean scores of two different groups of people or conditions; and the paired-samples t -test, used to compare the mean scores for the same group of people on two different occasions, or when you have matched pairs (Pallant, 2005). Both of the t -tests are used to compare the values on some continuous variable for two groups, or two occasions (Pallant, 2005). For the purpose of this study the independent samples t -test was used to compare males' and females' perceptions of destructive leadership and their experience of psychological distress.

4.3.2 Gender differences in participants overall destructive leadership scores

Table 4.3 indicates the sample's t -test results of the participants' perceptions of destructive leadership behaviour according to gender.

Table 4.3: Independent sample test for destructive leadership

<i>Destructive leadership behaviour</i>		<i>Gender</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>P</i>
Supportive-disloyal leadership behaviour	Male		58	0.35	0.57	0.30
	Female		141	0.27	0.49	
Tyrannical leadership behaviour	Male		59	0.34	0.70	0.97
	Female		141	0.34	0.63	
Derailed leadership behaviour	Male		59	0.60	0.84	0.74
	Female		141	0.56	0.71	
Laissez-faire leadership behaviour	Male		59	0.56	0.72	0.66
	Female		141	0.51	0.66	
Constructive leadership behaviour	Male		59	1.98	0.68	0.95
	Female		141	1.97	0.79	
Overall destructive leadership behaviour	Male		49	0.43	0.56	0.53
	Female		141	0.39	0.46	

p*≥0.05; *p*≥0.01; ****p*≥0.001

Male participants ($M= 0.43$, $SD= 0.56$) reported a relatively higher perception of overall destructive leadership behaviour, compared to female participants ($M= 0.39$, $SD= 0.46$). Furthermore from the table it can be derived that on average male participants reported higher perceptions of supportive disloyal leadership behaviour ($M= 0.35$, $SD= 0.57$) than female participants ($M= 0.27$, $SD= 0.49$). Male participants ($M= 0.60$, $SD= 0.71$) indicated higher perceptions in terms of derailed leadership behaviour than female participants ($M= 0.56$, $SD= 0.72$) and male participants ($M= 0.56$, $SD= 0.72$) scored higher perceptions of laissez-faire leadership behaviour than female participants ($M= 0.51$, $SD= 0.66$). In terms of constructive leadership behaviour male participants ($M= 3.97$, $SD= 1.36$) indicated higher scores compared to female participants ($M= 3.95$, $SD= 1.51$). There was, however, no significant difference between male participants' perception of destructive leadership behaviour and female participants' perception of destructive leadership behaviour ($p>0.05$).

Thus it is important to note that there were no statistically significant gender differences in participants' perceptions of overall destructive leadership ($p > 0.05$). However there, was a trend observed which formed between male participants' and female participants' perceptions of supportive disloyal leadership behaviour, derailed leadership behaviour,

tyrannical leadership behaviour, laissez-faire leadership behaviour, constructive leadership behaviour and overall destructive leadership behaviour. Male participants' perceptions were relatively higher for each of these dimensions than female participants' perceptions. Furthermore this study indicated that the majority of the participants had female supervisors and male supervisors were evenly distributed. However Salin (2003) found that males being the victims of destructive leadership may be significant in an organisation that is dominated by females. If the organisation is dominated by females it is likely that males will be at higher risk of being bullied by females (Salin, 2003). **Based on these findings H_1 (There are significant gender differences in the participants' overall destructive leadership scores) is rejected.**

4.3.3 Gender differences in participants overall psychological distress

Table 4.4 indicates the difference between male participants' and female participants' and how they experience psychological distress.

Table 4.4: Independent sample test for psychological distress

<i>Psychological distress</i>	<i>Gender</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>P</i>
Somatization	Male	59	1.33	0.29	0.00***
	Female	141	1.57	0.48	
Obsessive-compulsive behaviour	Male	59	1.58	0.48	0.13
	Female	141	1.70	0.59	
Interpersonal sensitivity	Male	59	1.50	0.46	0.01**
	Female	141	1.72	0.57	
Depression	Male	59	1.38	0.32	0.00***
	Female	141	1.64	0.55	
Anxiety	Male	59	1.31	0.36	0.00**
	Female	141	1.52	0.53	
Overall psychological distress	Male	59	1.42	0.33	0.00***
	Female	141	1.63	0.48	

* $p \geq 0.05$; ** $p \geq 0.01$; *** $p \geq 0.001$

From table 4.4 it can be derived that male participants ($M= 1.42$, $SD= 0.33$) indicated less overall psychological distress compared to females ($M= 1.63$, $SD= 0.48$). Furthermore all mean scores indicated that males experienced less somatization ($M= 1.33$, $SD= 0.29$) than females ($M= 1.58$, $SD= 0.48$) and less obsessive-compulsive behaviour ($M= 1.58$, $SD= 0.48$) than females ($M= 1.70$, $SD= 0.59$). Furthermore males indicated less interpersonal sensitivity ($M= 1.50$, $SE= 0.46$) compared to females ($M= 1.72$, $SD= 0.57$), and males ($M= 1.38$, $SE= 0.32$) indicated less depression than females ($M= 1.64$, $SD= 0.55$). Finally males indicated less anxiety ($M= 1.31$, $SD= 0.36$) than females ($M= 1.52$, $SD= 0.53$). There was a statistically significant difference between males' psychological distress compared to females in terms of overall psychological distress ($p=0.00$); somatization ($p=0.00$); interpersonal sensitivity ($p=0.01$); depression ($p=0.00$) and anxiety ($p=0.00$). However there was no significant difference between males' obsessive-compulsive behaviour compared to that of females ($p>0.05$).

Thus, it is important to note that there is a statistically significant gender difference in participant perceptions of overall psychological distress. There was a statistically significant difference between male perceptions of psychological distress compared to female participants in terms of overall psychological distress; somatization; interpersonal sensitivity; depression and anxiety. However, it should be noted that there was no significant difference between male participants' obsessive-compulsive behaviour compared to that of female participants ($p>0.05$). This is in accordance with the literature of Almeida and Kessler (1998) which stated that community surveys throughout the world suggested that females consistently report more extreme levels of distress and are almost two to three times more likely to report a history of affective disorder than males. According to Almeida and Kessler (1998) community surveys throughout the world indicated that women consistently report more extreme levels of distress and are almost two to three times more likely to report a history of affective disorder than men. Amongst stress researchers, recent efforts to understand the gender-distress relationship have come from the gender role and cognitive-behavioural perspectives (Almeida & Kessler, 1998). Gender role perspectives emphasise the exposure to various types of stressors which men and women face. Gove and Tudor (1973) focused on the argument that women have higher levels of distress than men due to women's roles which are provoking more distress. According to Gove and Tudor (1973) women's gender roles are more nurturing,

while men's roles are more instrumental. Therefore, women typically take on social roles which require them to provide more support to others, to be more empathetic, and to extend their concern to a wider range of people in ways that increase stressors, which ultimately lead to distress (Belle, 1982; Gove, 1978; Gove & Tudor, 1973; Kessler, McLeod & Wethington, 1985). **Based on these findings the H₂ (There are significant gender differences in the participants' overall psychological distress scores) is accepted.**

4.3.4 Gender differences (gender of the supervisor) in participants' overall destructive leadership scores

Table 4.5 indicates the difference between male participants' and female participants' supervisors and their leadership style.

Table 4.5: Independent sample test for destructive leadership

<i>Destructive leadership behaviour</i>	<i>Gender of supervisor</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>p</i>
Supportive-disloyal leadership behaviour	Male	61	0.44	0.57	0.01*
	Female	138	0.23	0.47	
Tyrannical leadership behaviour	Male	62	0.43	0.80	0.26
	Female	138	0.30	0.58	
Derailed leadership behaviour	Male	62	0.66	0.91	0.38
	Female	138	0.54	0.67	
Laissez-faire leadership behaviour	Male	62	0.73	0.85	0.01*
	Female	138	0.43	0.56	
Constructive leadership behaviour	Male	62	1.83	0.79	0.06
	Female	138	2.05	0.70	
Overall destructive leadership behaviour	Male	62	0.52	0.61	0.07
	Female	138	0.36	0.41	

* $p \geq 0.05$; ** $p \geq 0.01$; *** $p \geq 0.001$

From table 4.5 it can be derived that participants with a male ($M = 0.51$, $SD = 0.61$) supervisor reported higher scores of perceptions of overall destructive leadership compared to those with female ($M = 0.36$, $SD = 0.41$) supervisors. Furthermore all mean scores indicated that participants with male ($M = 0.44$, $SD = 0.57$) supervisors reported

higher perceptions of supportive disloyal leadership behaviour compared to those with female ($M= 0.22$, $SD= 0.48$) supervisors. In terms of tyrannical leadership behaviour those with male ($M= 0.43$, $SD= 0.57$) supervisors display higher perceptions compared to those with female ($M= 0.30$, $SD= 0.58$) supervisors. Moreover participants with male ($M= 0.66$, $SD= 0.91$) supervisors display higher perceptions of derailed leadership compared to those with female ($M= 0.54$, $SD= 0.67$) supervisors. In terms of laissez-faire leadership behaviour participants with male ($M= 0.74$, $SD= 0.85$) supervisors display higher perceptions compared to those with female ($M= 0.43$, $SD= 0.56$) supervisors. Finally participants with male ($M= 1.83$, $SD= 0.79$) supervisors reported lower perceptions of constructive leadership behaviour compared to those with female ($M= 2.05$, $SD= 0.70$) supervisors. There was a statistically significant difference between those with male supervisors compared to participants with female supervisors in terms of supportive disloyal leadership behaviour ($p=0.01$) and laissez-faire leadership behaviour ($p=0.01$). However there was no significant difference between participants with male supervisors compared to participants with female supervisors in terms of overall destructive leadership behaviour, tyrannical leadership behaviour, derailed leadership behaviour and constructive leadership behaviour ($p>0.05$).

Thus, there were no significant gender differences (gender of the supervisor) in the participants' overall destructive leadership scores ($p>0.05$). However there was a trend observed which formed between male participants' and female participants' perceptions of their supervisors' gender in terms of supportive disloyal leadership behaviour, derailed leadership behaviour, tyrannical leadership behaviour, laissez-faire leadership behaviour and overall destructive leadership behaviour. Males' perceptions were higher for each of these dimensions than females' perceptions of their supervisors. According to Namie (2003) 71% of workplace bullies outrank their victims, thus the positions of supervisors could be a reason for the destructive behaviour. Furthermore Fajana et al. (2011) indicated that there have been general misconceptions that men are more prone to be destructive in nature than women and women experience destructive leaders' acts more negatively than men. The literature revealed that depending on whether the organisations are male or female dominated will determine how males and females perceive destructive leadership (Salin, 2003).

Based on these findings the H₃ (There are significant gender (gender of the supervisor) differences in the participants' overall destructive leadership scores) is rejected.

4.3.5 Gender differences (gender of the supervisor) in participants overall psychological distress

Table 4.6 indicates the difference between male and female supervisors and their input in psychological distress.

Table 4.6: Independent sample test for psychological distress

<i>Psychological distress</i>	<i>Gender of supervisor</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>p</i>
Somatization	Male	62	1.56	0.49	0.27
	Female	138	1.48	0.42	
Obsessive-compulsive behaviour	Male	62	1.78	0.54	0.07
	Female	138	1.62	0.57	
Interpersonal sensitivity	Male	62	1.70	0.49	0.36
	Female	138	1.63	0.58	
Depression	Male	61	1.65	0.50	0.12
	Female	138	1.52	0.50	
Anxiety	Male	62	1.50	0.48	0.39
	Female	138	1.44	0.49	
Overall psychological distress	Male	62	1.63	0.44	0.15
	Female	138	1.54	0.45	

* $p \geq 0.05$; ** $p \geq 0.01$; *** $p \geq 0.001$

From table 4.6 it can be derived that participants with male ($M = 1.64$, $SD = 0.44$) supervisors experienced more overall psychological distress than those with female ($M = 1.54$, $SD = 0.45$) supervisors. Furthermore on average participants with male ($M = 1.56$, $SD = 0.49$) supervisors reported more somatization than those with female ($M = 1.48$, $SD = 0.42$) supervisors. Participants with male ($M = 1.78$, $SD = 0.54$) supervisors experienced more obsessive-compulsive behaviour than those with female ($M = 1.62$, $SD = 0.58$) supervisors. Moreover participants with male ($M = 1.70$, $SD = 0.49$) supervisors reported higher levels of interpersonal sensitivity than those with female ($M = 1.63$, $SD = 0.58$)

supervisors. Participants with male ($M= 1.65$, $SD= 0.50$) supervisors reported higher levels of depression than those with female ($M= 1.53$, $SD= 0.50$) supervisors. On average participants with male ($M= 1.50$, $SD= 0.49$) supervisors experienced more anxiety than those with female ($M= 1.44$, $SD= 0.49$) supervisors. However, there was no significant difference between participants with male supervisors compared to participants with female supervisors in terms of all dimensions and overall destructive leadership behaviour ($p>0.05$).

Thus, there are no significant gender differences (gender of the supervisor) in the participants' overall psychological distress scores ($p>0.05$). However there was a trend which formed between males' and females' psychological distress in terms of their supervisors' gender. Males experienced higher levels of somatization, obsessive-compulsive disorder, interpersonal sensitivity, depression, anxiety and overall psychological distress than females. This is in accordance with the literature of Ashforth (1994) which suggests that experiencing a petty tyrant in a manner which involves anti-subordinate behaviour may create fear and anxiety and threaten self-esteem and social esteem amongst subordinates. **Based on these findings H_4 (There are significant gender (gender of the supervisor) differences in the participants' overall psychological distress scores) is rejected.**

4.4 PEARSON PRODUCT-MOMENT CORRELATION

According to Pallant (2005) correlation analysis is used to describe the strength and direction of the linear relationship between two variables. Depending on the level of measurement there are various statistics available (Field, 2009). However, for the purpose of this study, the Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient was used which is designed for interval level (continuous) variables (Pallant, 2005). The Pearson correlation coefficient (r) can only range between -1 and $+1$ which indicates whether the correlation is positive or negative (Pallant, 2005).

4.4.1 Participants overall destructive leadership and overall psychological distress

Table 4.7 depicts the correlation analysis for participants' destructive leadership and psychological distress. Furthermore the table indicates the relationship between destructive leadership and psychological distress.

Table 4.7: Correlation analysis for destructive leadership and psychological distress

	<i>N</i>	<i>Gender</i>	<i>Gender of supervisor</i>	<i>SD1</i>	<i>T1</i>	<i>D2</i>	<i>LF1</i>	<i>C4</i>	<i>ODL</i>	<i>S6</i>	<i>OC7</i>	<i>IS8</i>	<i>D9</i>	<i>A10</i>	<i>OPD11</i>
Gender of supervisor	200	1.00	0.25**	-0.07	0.00	-0.02	-0.03	-0.00	-0.05	0.26**	0.10	0.18*	0.23**	0.19**	0.22**
	200	0.25**	1.00	-0.19**	-0.09	-0.07	-0.21**	0.14*	-0.15*	-0.08	-0.13	-0.06	-0.11	-0.06	-0.10
SD1	199	-0.07	-0.19**	1.00	0.18*	-0.02	0.18*	0.01	0.43**	0.11	0.17*	0.13	0.14	0.10	0.15*
T1	200	0.00	-0.09	0.18*	1.00	0.72**	0.63**	-0.38**	0.89**	0.23**	0.10	0.14*	0.22**	0.20**	0.20**
D2	200	-0.02	-0.07	-0.02	0.72**	1.00	0.62**	-0.42**	0.85**	0.05	-0.01	0.12	0.14	0.11	0.10
LF3	200	-0.03	-0.21**	0.18*	0.63**	0.62**	1.00	-0.32**	0.67**	0.25**	0.22**	0.28**	0.28**	0.30**	0.30**
C4	200	-0.00	0.14*	0.01	-0.38**	-0.42**	-0.32**	1.00	-0.39**	-0.08	-0.05	-0.15*	-0.24**	-0.18*	-0.16*
ODL5	200	-0.05	-0.15*	0.43**	0.89**	0.85**	0.67**	-0.39**	1.00	0.17*	0.10	0.16*	0.21**	0.18*	0.18**
S6	200	0.26**	-0.08	0.11	0.228	0.05	0.25**	-0.08	0.17*	1.00	0.67**	0.59**	0.70**	0.73**	0.83**
OC7	200	0.10	-0.13	0.17*	0.10	-0.01	0.22**	-0.05	0.10	0.67**	1.00	0.72**	0.72**	0.74**	0.89**
IS8	200	0.18*	-0.06	0.13	0.14*	0.12	0.28**	-0.15*	0.16*	0.59**	0.72**	1.00	0.77**	0.73**	0.88**
DEP9	200	0.23**	-0.11	0.14	0.22**	0.14	0.28**	-0.24**	0.21**	0.70**	0.72**	0.77**	1.00	0.77**	0.90**
A10		0.19**	-0.06	0.10	0.20**	0.11	0.30**	-0.18*	0.18**	0.73**	0.74**	0.73**	0.77**	1.00	0.90**
OPD11		0.22**	-0.10	0.15*	0.20**	0.09	0.30**	-0.16*	0.18**	0.83**	0.89**	0.88**	0.90**	0.90**	1.00

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

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

There was a statistically significant positive correlation between participants' gender and their level of somatization ($r=0.26$, $p=0.00$), interpersonal sensitivity ($r=0.18$, $p=0.00$), depression ($r=0.23$, $p=0.00$), anxiety ($r=0.19$, $p=0.00$) and overall psychological distress ($r=0.22$, $p=0.00$). Furthermore there was a statistically significant negative correlation between the gender of the supervisor and supportive disloyal leadership behaviour ($r=-0.19$, $p=0.00$), laissez-faire leadership behaviour ($r=-0.21$, $p=0.00$) and overall destructive leadership behaviour ($r=-0.15$, $p=0.00$). However there was a statistically significant positive correlation between the gender of the supervisor and constructive leadership behaviour ($r=0.14$, $p=0.00$).

There was a statistically significant and positive correlation between participants' overall destructive leadership scores and somatization ($r=0.17$, $p=0.00$) interpersonal sensitivity ($r=0.16$, $p=0.00$), depression ($r=0.21$, $p=0.00$), anxiety ($r=0.18$, $p=0.00$) and overall psychological distress ($r=0.18$, $p=0.00$). Furthermore there was a statistically significant positive correlation between the overall psychological distress and supportive disloyal leadership behaviour ($r=0.15$, $p=0.00$), tyrannical leadership behaviour ($r=0.20$, $p=0.00$), laissez-faire leadership behaviour ($r=0.30$, $p=0.00$) and overall destructive leadership behaviour ($r=0.18$, $p=0.00$). However there was a statistically significant negative correlation between overall psychological distress and constructive leadership behaviour ($r=-0.16$, $p=0.00$).

It is important to note that there was a statistically significant positive relationship between overall destructive leadership and overall psychological distress. From the results the relationship between destructive leadership and the psychological distress of employees was significant ($p= 0.00$). Moreover the r -value of 0.18 indicates that overall destructive leadership does act as a predictor of overall psychological distress of employees.

This is in accordance with the literature that states that destructive leadership is on the increase within organisations and this can lead to increased distress amongst employees (Salin, 2003). Pelletier (2009) found that destructive leaders are affecting employees' psychological conditions in a negative manner, specifically psychological distress which creates a decrease in employee performance and productivity. Reduced employee

performance and productivity will result in the organisation portraying a negative image nationally and globally.

In a study by Aasland et al. (2012) they suggest that exposure to destructive leadership behaviour could lead to serious effects on subordinates' health and well-being. Furthermore Ashforth (1994) suggests that experiencing a petty tyrant in a manner which involves anti-subordinate behaviour may create fear and anxiety and threaten self-esteem and social esteem amongst subordinates. In line with this, subordinates who perceive their superior as abusive have reported thoughts and feelings of betrayal, distrust, resentment, frustration, and mental exhaustion (Bies & Tripp, 1998). However, according to Aasland et al. (2012), only tyrannical and derailed leadership were related to psychological distress, whereas merely derailed and supportive-disloyal leadership were significantly associated with subordinates' reported work withdrawal. **Based on these findings H₅ (*There is a significant correlation between the participants' overall destructive leadership scores and overall psychological distress*) is accepted.**

4.5 MULTIPLE REGRESSION ANALYSIS

According to Pallant (2005) multiple regression analysis includes a variety of techniques which can be used to explore the relationship between one continuous dependant variable and a number of independent variables or predictors (usually continuous) (Field, 2009). Multiple regression analysis can also be used to answer a variety of research questions (Pallant, 2005). For the purpose of this study multiple regression analysis was used to determine if gender has a moderating effect on the relationship between participant destructive leadership and psychological distress.

4.5.1 Gender has a moderating effect on the relationship between participants' overall destructive leadership scores and overall psychological distress scores

The results of the Pearson correlation in the previous sub-section revealed statistically significant relationships between the gender of the participants and their overall psychological distress scores, and between the gender of the participants' supervisor and

their overall destructive leadership scores. The participants' overall destructive leadership scores were also significantly correlated with the participants' overall psychological distress scores. Standard multiple regression analysis was conducted to determine whether gender (and the gender of the participants' supervisor) moderates the relationship between destructive leadership and psychological distress.

The results of the multiple regression analysis with destructive leadership and gender as independent variables, and the interaction between these variables (to test for moderating effects), and psychological distress are reflected in Table 4.8. The independent variables were centred.

Table 4.8: Regression Analysis – Destructive Leadership Behaviour, Gender, and Psychological Distress

Model	Unstandardised		Standard	T	P	R	R ²	Adj	Model
	Coefficients		Coefficients						
	B	SE	Beta					R ²	Sig
Summary						0.31	0.10	0.08	0.00
Constant	1.57	0.03		51.55	0.00				
Destructive leadership	0.20	0.06	0.21	3.08	0.00				
Gender	0.22	0.07	0.22	3.24	0.00				
Destructive leadership x gender	0.21	0.13	0.11	1.60	0.11				

* $p \geq 0.05$; ** $p \geq 0.01$; *** $p \geq 0.001$

From Table 4.8 it is evident that destructive leadership, gender, and the interaction between destructive leadership and gender combined explain 10% of the variance in psychological distress. However, the variance in psychological distress explained by the interaction between destructive leadership and gender is not significant. One can therefore conclude that gender does not moderate the relationship between destructive leadership and psychological distress.

Literature indicated that if people of a certain ethnic group work in an environment in which they are the minority, they could become easy targets for destructive leaders (Lewis &

Gunn, 2007; Archer, 1999). However, literature has been inconclusive with regard to the effect gender has on destructive leadership as Grainger & Fitzner (2007), Namie, (2003) and Quine (2002) indicated that women are easy targets of destructive leadership, whilst one study found that men were the likelier victims (Ólafsson & Jóhannsdóttir, 2004). Furthermore Ortega et al. (2009) suggest that there are no significant differences between the levels of destructive leadership experiences of men and women, this is supported by the study conducted. Thus it can be said that due to the inconclusive findings on gender and destructive leadership, that gender does not have a moderating effect on the relationship between destructive leadership and psychological distress.

The results of the multiple regression analysis with destructive leadership and gender (of the supervisor) as independent variables, and the interaction between these variables (to test for moderating effects), and psychological distress are presented in Table 4.9. The independent variables were centred.

Table 4.9: Regression Analysis – Destructive Leadership Behaviour, Supervisor Gender, and Psychological Distress

Model	Unstandardised		Standard	T	P	R	R ²	Adj	Mod
	Coefficients		Coefficients						
	B	SE	Beta					R ²	el
Summary						0.22	0.05	0.03	0.02
Constant	1.58	0.03		49.95	0.00				
Destructive leadership	0.19	0.07	0.21	2.78	0.01				
Gender (Supervisor)	-0.08	0.07	-0.08	-1.13	0.26				
Destructive leadership x gender	0.18	0.13	0.11	1.40	0.16				

* $p \geq 0.05$; ** $p \geq 0.01$; *** $p \geq 0.001$

From Table 4.9 it is evident that destructive leadership, gender (of the supervisor), and the interaction between these independent variables combined explain only 5% of the variance in psychological distress. However, the variance in psychological distress

explained by the interaction between destructive leadership and gender (of the supervisor) is not significant. One can therefore conclude that the gender of the participants' supervisor does not moderate the relationship between destructive leadership and psychological distress.

Literature by Salin (2003) stated that the likelihood of males being the victims of destructive leadership may be significant in an organisation that is dominated by females. Thus it can be said that, depending on whether the organisation is led by a male or female will determine employees' perceptions, and therefore gender does not have a moderating effect on the relationship between destructive leadership and psychological distress. Furthermore there is a variety of reasons as to why leaders can behave destructively, be it their personality, incompetence, perceived injustice or threat to their identity, financial reasons and low organisational identification (Einarsen et al., 2007). Thus it does not depend on the gender of the supervisor but rather the situations with which they are confronted. **Based on the findings the H₆ (*Gender has a moderating effect on the relationship between participants overall destructive leadership scores and overall psychological distress scores*) is rejected.**

4.6 INTEGRATION OF THE RESEARCH FINDINGS

Table 4.10 indicates the integration of the research findings with regard to the six hypotheses.

Table 4.10: Integration of research findings

Hypothesis	Accepted / Rejected
There are significant gender differences in the participants' overall destructive leadership scores	Rejected
There are significant gender differences in the participants' overall psychological distress scores	Accepted
There are significant gender (gender of the supervisor) differences in the participants' overall destructive leadership scores	Rejected
There are significant gender (gender of the supervisor) differences in the participants' overall psychological distress scores	Rejected
There is a significant correlation between the participants' overall destructive leadership scores and overall psychological distress	Accepted
Gender has a moderating effect on the relationship between participants' overall destructive leadership scores and overall psychological distress scores	Rejected

As indicated in table 4.10 two of the six hypotheses were accepted. It is important to note that H₂, there is a relationship between overall destructive leadership, has been accepted. There is a statistically significant gender difference in participant perceptions of overall psychological distress. Almeida and Kessler (1998) stated that community surveys throughout the world suggested that females consistently report more extreme levels of distress and are almost two to three times more likely to report a history of affective disorder than males. Furthermore H₅, there is a significant correlation between the participants' overall destructive leadership scores and overall psychological distress, was also accepted. There was a statistically significant negative correlation between overall psychological distress and constructive leadership behaviour. This is in accordance with a study done by Aasland et al. (2012) where they suggest that exposure to destructive leadership behaviour could lead to serious effects on subordinates' health and well-being.

However H_1 , H_3 , H_4 and H_6 were rejected due to the scores being insignificant. It is important to note that H_6 , gender has a moderating effect on the relationship between participants overall destructive leadership scores and overall psychological distress scores, was rejected. No significant difference between male participants' perception of destructive leadership behaviour and female participants' perception of destructive leadership behaviour was found. Salin (2003) found that males being the victims of destructive leadership may be significant in an organisation that is dominated by females. Furthermore if the organisation is dominated by females it is likely that males will be at higher risk of being bullied by females. No significant gender differences (gender of the supervisor) in the participants' overall destructive leadership scores. According to Salin (2003) depending on whether the organisations are male or female dominated will determine how males and females perceive destructive leadership. Furthermore no significant gender differences (gender of the supervisor) in the participants' overall psychological distress scores. Ashforth (1994) suggested that experiencing a petty tyrant in a manner which involves anti-subordinate behaviour may create fear and anxiety and threaten self-esteem and social esteem amongst subordinates. The gender of the participants' supervisor does not moderate the relationship between destructive leadership and psychological distress. According to Einarsen et al., (2007) it does not depend on the gender of the supervisor but rather the situations with which they are confronted.

4.7 CONCLUSION

This chapter emphasized the results of various statistical procedures which were analysed, reported on and various observations were made. The results of the descriptive statistics, reliability analysis, Pearson-moment correlation and independent sample test were revealed. Furthermore in this section the hypothesis statements outlined in this study were either rejected or accepted based on the results obtained through statistical analysis. Based on these hypotheses certain conclusions can be made regarding the study and will be discussed in Chapter 5.

CHAPTER 5: CONCLUSION, LIMITATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 INTRODUCTION

To conclude, Chapter 5 of the research study is dedicated to a comprehensive summary of the results, underlining the most important and significant findings of the research study. Moreover, the relevant limitations associated with specific sections will be discussed as well as recommendations for future research will be provided.

5.2 OVERVIEW OF THE STUDY

This section of the research study will provide a holistic overview of the research study. The content of the research study was discussed in five separate chapters devoted to a specific function and/or phase in the research process. The following section includes a summary of each chapter.

Chapter 1: Introduction

Chapter One was used by the researcher to explain the background of the study. The chapter indicated the research problem and outlined the research objectives that guided the study. Furthermore the researcher explained the academic value and intention of the study, as well as the delimitations and assumptions made regarding the environment and target group. Chapter One defined all the key terms which were used throughout the study and outlined the objectives that guided the study.

Chapter 2: Literature review

Chapter Two was dedicated to an in-depth review of the existing body of knowledge related to the study. The existing literature with regard to destructive leadership, destructive leadership behaviour, psychological distress and the moderating role of gender, as well as the theoretical relationship between destructive leadership and psychological distress was reviewed and discussed.

Chapter 3: Research design and methodology

Chapter Three provided an in-depth description of the research design and methodology which was used for the empirical study. The chapter included the biographical results of the study, as well as results pertaining to the instruments. Furthermore six hypotheses were formulated within this chapter which were discussed in the chapters to follow. Within this chapter, seven key issues regarding research design and methodology were explained and described. These issues included a detailed description of the strategy of inquiry of the study, the sampling methods to extract data from the population, the data collection methods which were used to collect data, the data analysis process, assessing and demonstrating quality and rigour throughout the study and the research ethics involved in research and relevant to this specific study.

Chapter 4: Results and discussion

Chapter Four was dedicated to the results obtained through statistical analysis. Results pertaining to the independent *t*-test and Pearson product-moment correlation tests, as well as the results pertaining to the hypotheses testing were included in this chapter. Furthermore the researcher analysed and interpreted the empirical results according to the stated hypotheses to provide a holistic understanding of all the information received. In this chapter the study indicated whether the hypotheses were accepted or rejected, based on the empirical results obtained in the study. Finally the chapter provided an integration of the research findings.

Chapter 5: Conclusion, limitations and recommendations

Finally chapter five provides the reader with the conclusion that the researcher has drawn from all the information obtained and analysed. In this chapter the researcher highlights the limitations of the proposed study as well as provides the reader with recommendations for future research.

5.3 CONCLUSIONS DRAWN FROM THE STUDY

5.3.1 Conclusion related to the literature study

The following conclusions can be drawn from the existing literature:

5.3.1.1 **The first objective: to conceptualise the theoretical relationship between destructive leadership and psychological distress**

The first objective related to the literature review was to discuss the theoretical relationship between destructive leadership and psychological distress. A conclusion can be drawn that destructive leadership creates psychological distress, as the literature indicated that destructive leadership has increased within organisations which has led to increased distress among employees (Aasland et al., 2012; Salin, 2003). Furthermore it can be concluded that once psychological distress arises due to the destructive leadership, this creates decreased performance and productivity within the organisation (Pelletier, 2009).

5.3.1.2 **The second objective: to conceptualise, theoretically, the moderating effect gender has on the relationship between the perceptions of destructive leadership behaviour and psychological distress**

The second objective related to the literature review was to discuss the moderating effect gender has on the relationship between the perceptions of destructive leadership behaviour and psychological distress. A conclusion can be drawn that males' and females' perceptions regarding destructive leaders, depend on whether the organisation is led by a male or female (Salin, 2003). Moreover, research from the WBTI (2010) found that females are more prone to being destructive than males, thus it depends on whether the leaders are male or female. Furthermore it can be concluded that females experience more distress due to their nurturing role, whereas males are more instrumental and are therefore more likely to have a history of distress (Gove & Tudor 1973).

5.3.2 Conclusions related to the empirical study

The following conclusions can be drawn from the empirical study:

5.3.2.1 The first objective: to determine perceptions of destructive leadership behaviour in a sample of South African employees

The first objective related to the empirical study was to determine perceptions of destructive leadership behaviour in a sample of South African employees. The following conclusion was drawn from this objective: that the participants reflected a relatively low perception of destructive leadership behaviour, specifically with regard to supportive-disloyal leadership behaviour and tyrannical leadership behaviour. Furthermore it can be concluded that participants had a higher perception of constructive leadership which could be due to the majority of participants being from the educational and human resources environments.

5.3.2.2 The second objective: to determine the level of psychological distress in a sample of South African employees

The second objective related to the empirical study was to determine the level of psychological distress in a sample of South African employees. The following conclusion can be drawn from the empirical study: participants' experienced overall psychological distress; somatization; interpersonal sensitivity; depression and anxiety. However it can be concluded that participants did not experience severe levels of obsessive-compulsive behaviour.

5.3.2.3 The third objective: to determine whether there are gender differences in the perceptions of destructive leadership behaviour in a sample of South African employees

The third objective related to the empirical study was to determine whether there are gender differences in the perceptions of destructive leadership behaviour in a sample of South African employees. A conclusion can be drawn that there were no gender differences in participants' perceptions of overall destructive leadership. However, it can be concluded that there was a trend observed which formed between male participants'

and female participants' perceptions of supportive disloyal leadership behaviour, derailed leadership behaviour, tyrannical leadership behaviour, laissez-faire leadership behaviour, constructive leadership behaviour and overall destructive leadership behaviour.

Furthermore it can be concluded that there were no gender differences (gender of the supervisor) in the participants' overall destructive leadership perceptions. However it can be concluded that there was a trend observed which formed between male participants' and female participants' perceptions of their supervisors' gender in terms of supportive disloyal leadership behaviour, derailed leadership behaviour, tyrannical leadership behaviour, laissez-faire leadership behaviour and overall destructive leadership behaviour. It can be concluded that males' perceptions were higher for each of these dimensions than females' perceptions of their supervisors.

5.3.2.4 The fourth objective: to determine whether there are gender differences in the experience of psychological distress in a sample of South African employees

The fourth objective related to the empirical study was to determine whether there are gender differences in the experience of psychological distress in a sample of South African employees. A conclusion can be drawn from this that there are gender differences in participant experience of psychological distress. Furthermore it can be concluded that there was a difference between males' perceptions of psychological distress compared to that of female participants in terms of overall psychological distress; somatization; interpersonal sensitivity; depression and anxiety. It can be concluded that there was no difference between male participants' obsessive-compulsive behaviour compared to female participants.

The conclusion can be drawn that there were no gender differences (gender of the supervisor) in participants' experience of psychological distress. However it can be concluded that there was a trend which was observed between males' and females' psychological distress in terms of their supervisors' gender. Males experienced higher levels of somatization, obsessive-compulsive disorder, interpersonal sensitivity, depression, anxiety and overall psychological distress than females.

5.3.2.5 Fifth objective: to determine whether there is a relationship between the perceptions of destructive leadership behaviour and psychological distress in a sample of South African employees

The fifth objective was to determine whether there is a relationship between the perceptions of destructive leadership behaviour and psychological distress in a sample of South African employees. The conclusion can be drawn that there was a relationship between overall destructive leadership and overall psychological distress. Furthermore it can be concluded that overall destructive leadership does act as a predictor of overall psychological distress of employees.

5.3.2.6 Sixth objective: to determine whether gender has a moderating effect on the relationship between the perceptions of destructive leadership behaviour and psychological distress in a sample of South African employees

The sixth objective related to the empirical study was to determine whether gender has a moderating effect on the relationship between the perceptions of destructive leadership behaviour and psychological distress in a sample of South African employees. The conclusion can be drawn that gender did not have a moderating effect on the relationship between destructive leadership and psychological distress. Furthermore it can be concluded that gender (gender of the supervisor) did not have a moderating effect on the relationship between destructive leadership and psychological distress.

5.4 LIMITATIONS

5.4.1 Limitations in terms of literature review

There is currently limited research on destructive leadership in a South African context which limited the researcher to international research. Furthermore there was limited field research on the definition of destructive leadership within the South African context. In addition there was limited theoretical research between the relationship of destructive leadership and psychological distress within the South Africa context. This lack of scientific

information limited the researcher in determining the existence of a theoretical relationship between destructive leadership and psychological distress.

5.4.2 Limitations as a result of the research design

A cross-sectional survey was used to obtain data from the population in this quantitative research study. As the data was correlational, this implies that the relationships observed cannot be interpreted causally and will need to be replicated longitudinally. Furthermore Greenstein (2006) indicated that one of the primary limitations of quantitative research is that it is a structured approach to collecting information. The limitation thereof is that the researcher is challenged by the risk of omitting any information which is not primarily collected by the instruments used. Self-administered questionnaires were distributed at a single point in time and over a short period of time. Therefore the study only has a photograph image of the employees in South African organisations and their destructive leadership perceptions.

5.4.3 Limitations as a result of the sampling method

Due to the large size of this group, convenience sampling was used to sample the units of analysis. This method of sampling involved selecting units from the population that were easy to obtain and conveniently available (Maree, 2010). Convenience sampling is the most feasible approach to sampling in a study of this size and nature. Participation in this research study was not compulsory for employees in South African organisations; therefore the researcher relied on convenience sampling based on the willingness of employees to partake in this survey. A great threat to the external validity of this study was the use of convenience sampling. The main obstacle proved to be the willingness of employees to participate in the study. The target group was given a time frame of one month to complete the questionnaires and to give the responses back to the researcher.

5.4.4 Limitations as a result of the sample size and characteristics

According to Maree (2010) the main concern with a sample size is to ensure that the sample size is large enough to represent the whole population. The degree to which the

sample size represents the sub groups of the population has a direct impact on the validity of the study. Marsden and Wright (2010) explain that the sensitivity of a study, that is the precision of the statistics and the accuracy of the generalisations, is increased by the size of the sample. A large sample therefore decreases sampling errors. A total of 230 questionnaires were sent out to the sample of which 200 completed questionnaires were received but only 199 of these responses were usable for data analyses. These results indicate that more than half of those requested to participate in the survey returned their survey. Given the size of the selected South African organisations an increased sample size would have increased the validity of the study. Finally, due to the majority of the participants being taken from the education and human resources environment, this limits the generalisation on other employees or professions.

5.4.5 Limitations as a result of the data collection method

Self-administered questionnaires were distributed to the target group. Furthermore written questionnaires possess a limitation due to fluency of the target population (Greenstein, 2006). The data collection instruments themselves did not hold significant limitations as the DLS had indicated acceptable Cronbach Alpha Coefficients in South African studies (Aasland et al., 2010). However, the Cronbach alpha of the supportive-disloyal leadership behaviour subscale was found to be relatively low, thus questioning the internal consistency of this subscale (Hinkin, 1998). As a result, the results obtained using this subscale should be interpreted with caution and the subscale should be investigated further in future studies. The HSCL-45 had indicated acceptable Cronbach Alpha Coefficients (Rowe, 2006).

5.5 RECOMMENDATIONS

5.5.1 Theoretical recommendation

From a theoretical perspective, the following recommendations are made:

- Research on destructive leadership in South Africa is still in its infancy. According to Pietersen (2007) research on this phenomenon emerged only in 1998. Thus it can

be argued that it is essential to create an awareness of destructive leadership by means of national legislation;

- Although Section 6 of the Employment Equity Act protects employees from harassment, it seems that employees without knowledge of labour law or the effects of destructive leadership are unable to distinguish harassment from destructive leadership. Thus, employees are unaware that they can report this behaviour to managers;
- Furthermore there is currently limited literature on the moderating effect of gender internationally as well as in a South African context. Thus future researchers should consider assessing gender and the moderating effect thereof on the relationship of destructive leadership and psychological distress.

5.5.2 Methodological recommendations

From a methodological perspective, the following recommendations are made:

- Future studies should distribute questionnaires to a larger sample size as this would help with the generalisation of the results and study;
- Furthermore most of the participants came from the educational and human resource environments, therefore future studies should include a wider variety of industries;
- To determine a pattern researchers will have to distribute the survey at random future intervals to be able to prove the results as a consequent occurrence in the industry;
- The extended nature of a longitudinal study (Babbie, 2008) might eradicate the effects of external influences on the core research question and increase the validity of the study.

5.5.3 Recommendations for practice

The following recommendations for practice are offered:

- This study and previous literature emphasise the implications of a poor psychosocial work environment, organisational chaos, role conflict and poor management. They all create an ideal environment in which destructive leadership

can thrive. South African organisations should encourage workplace diversity and inspire and motivate employees to foster a culture of regard. This will go a long way to combating destructive leadership (Olender-Russo, 2009);

- Organisational indicators such as ‘transparency’ (will address destructive behaviour and not sweep it under the rug), ‘accountability’ (destructive-behaviour will have negative ramifications for the perpetrator) and ‘capacity’ (to motivate and control employees’ behaviour through rules and standards) will go a long way toward creating working environments where destructive leadership behaviour is less prevalent (Hodson, Roscigno & Lopez, 2006);
- It could be worth investigating to determine if factors outside the organisations could influence diversity experiences in them and their effects on the occurrence of destructive leadership, particularly when one considers aspects like national legislation and the political environment.

5.5.4 Recommendation for future research

The following recommendations for future research are offered:

- The results of this study have identified a few key concepts that will need additional clarifying research. Given the limited research on the instruments to measure destructive leadership behaviour and psychological distress in South Africa, further research must be done in order to validate the destructive leadership behaviour and psychological distress in South Africa;
- In order to enrich the topic, research on the specific relationship between destructive leadership and employees’ psychological distress in South African organisations must also be expanded. Steps can be taken to encourage a greater sample size to improve validity;
- To determine a pattern between males’ and females’ perceptions, future researchers will have to distribute the survey at random future intervals to be able to prove the results as a consequent occurrence in the industry.

5.6 CLOSING REMARKS

Much progress has been made in terms of creating awareness of the true job demands and job resources of academics, and more specifically academics in South Africa. In terms of destructive leadership behaviour much research must still be done to establish the exact relationship between destructive leadership behaviour and psychological distress as well as the moderating effect which gender has on the relationship between destructive leadership and employees' psychological distress. The diversity of the South African population creates an ideal environment for expanding on this topic and developing sustainable interventions.

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APPENDIX A

-Informed consent form-



Informed consent for participation in an academic research study

Dept. of Human Resource Management

THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN DESTRUCTIVE LEADERSHIP AND PSYCHOLOGICAL DISTRESS: THE MODERATING EFFECT OF GENDER

Research conducted by:

Ms. A. van Niekerk (12291987)

Cell: 083 241 6279

Dear Respondent

You are invited to participate in an academic research study conducted by Anél van Niekerk, a Masters student from the Department of Human Resource Management at the University of Pretoria.

The purpose of the study is to determine the relationship between destructive leaders and employees psychological distress.

Please note the following:

- This study involves an anonymous survey. Your name will not appear on the questionnaire and the answers you give will be treated as strictly confidential. You cannot be identified in person based on the answers you give.
- Your participation in this study is very important to us. You may, however, choose not to participate and you may also stop participating at any time without any negative consequences.
- Please answer the questions in the attached questionnaire as completely and honestly as possible. This should not take more than 30 minutes of your time.
- The results of the study will be used for academic purposes only and may be published in an academic journal. We will provide you with a summary of our findings on request.
- Please contact my supervisor, Mr. M. A. Themba (ma.themba@up.ac.za; 0124204021) if you have any questions or comments regarding the study.

Please sign the form to indicate that:

- You have read and understand the information provided above.
- You give your consent to participate in the study on a voluntary basis.

Respondent's signature

Date