

**The moderating effect of self-efficacy on the relationship between destructive leadership
and job performance**

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Abstract

The relationship between destructive leadership and job performance yields heterogeneous results. Building on previous research exploring self-efficacy in this context, this study explores the moderating effect of self-efficacy on the relationship between destructive leadership and job performance. High self-efficacy employees are more resilient to stress thereby being better equipped to deal with stress inducing leader behaviour. Stress leads to a reduction in job performance. Thus self-efficacy buffers the negative effect of destructive leadership on job performance. We conducted a multi-sourced cross-sectional field study of Dutch employee and leader dyads. Participants largely came from personal networks and local businesses ($N=90$). A questionnaire was used to assess the dyads in self-efficacy, destructive leadership and job performance. The study does support the negative effect of destructive leadership on job performance however it does not support the moderating effect of self-efficacy as well as the positive effect self-efficacy tends to have on job performance outcomes.

Keywords: destructive leadership, self-efficacy, job performance, leader, employee

The moderating effect of self-efficacy on the relationship between destructive leadership and job performance

Destructive leadership is defined by systematic and recurrent conduct by a superior which damages the business interests (Einarsen et al., 2007). Previous studies across different countries, industries and cultures suggest that at least one-third of employees report that they regularly experience destructive leadership (see Aasland et al., 2010; Lundmark et al., 2021; Mebratie & Shanbel, 2024). The adverse effects of destructive leadership on employee outcome metrics such as job performance, job satisfaction, turnover and counterproductive work behaviours have been thoroughly established (Mackey et al., 2021; Li et al., 2023; Schyns & Schilling, 2013). Thus, a substantial proportion of organisations and employees struggle with the negative effects of destructive leadership on the psychological and financial health of organisations. Hence, understanding how the effect of destructive leadership on employee outcomes works is crucial to curtail its effect.

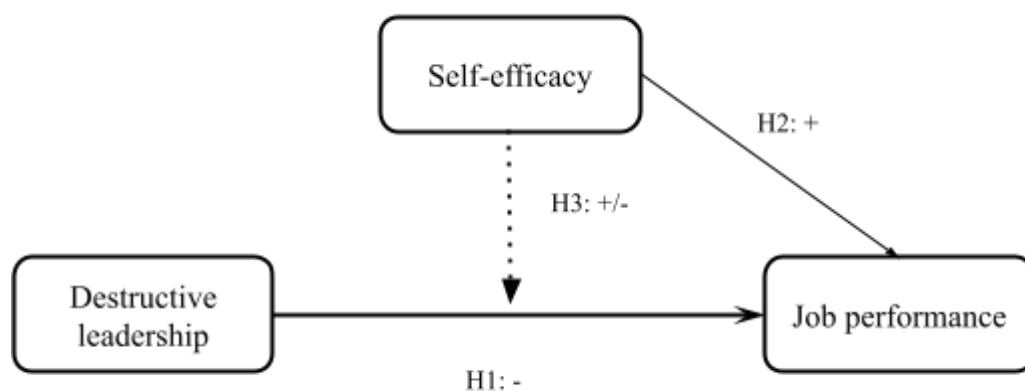
Despite that, there has been limited research on how destructive leadership specifically impacts job performance (Li et al., 2023). As Mackey et al. (2021) suggest in their meta-analysis, the heterogeneous findings for the relationship between destructive leadership and job performance still lack a theoretical framework. Tepper et al. (2012) proposes that destructive leadership might be strategically used to increase job performance. Another approach suggests that self-efficacy might shield the employee and by extension their performance from the adverse effects of destructive leadership. However so far research on self-efficacy, destructive leadership and job performance either looked at correlations (Aydinay et al., 2021) or utilised self efficacy as a meditation variable for counterproductive work behaviour (Brender-Ilan & Scheaffer, 2019). Counterproductive work behaviour has been consistently linked to decreased job performance (Rotundo & Specter, 2010; Marcus et al., 2016). However, previous research is consistent in the limited effect of destructive

leadership on self-efficacy. With studies suggesting no significant relationship (Aydinay et al., 2021) or a low correlation (Brender-Ilan & Scheaffer, 2019) between destructive leadership and self-efficacy. Therefore, it might be more appropriate to consider self-efficacy as a moderating variable for the effect of destructive leadership on job performance.

The model consists of the main effect; destructive leadership negatively affects job performance. Additionally self-efficacy we expect self-efficacy to have a positive effect on job performance. The main effect is moderated by self-efficacy (as shown in Figure 1). Thus we propose that high self-efficacy diminishes the negative effect of destructive leadership on job performance. Conversely, we suggest low self-efficacy is associated with an increased negative effect of destructive leadership on job performance. In order to assess this proposition we conducted a multi sourced cross-sectional field study of Dutch companies. Our sample consists of N=90 interview pairs by a leader and subordinate each. We will utilise multiple linear regression to model and assess the relationships. Thereby we will provide a reference point for future research when modelling the inner works of destructive leadership and job performance. In addition this research will point to new leveraging points for practitioners to curb the negative effect of destructive leadership on job performance.

Figure 1

Research Model



Theory development and hypothesis

Destructive leadership and job performance

Abusive leadership and its consequences on employee outcomes have been extensively studied (Tepper, 2000; Brodsky, 1976; Lombardo et al., 1988). However in 2007 Einarsen et al. provided a comprehensive review of previous negative leadership behaviour studies, coined the term destructive leadership and suggested a concise framework of destructive leadership. Their framework characterises recurrent conduct by a superior within an organisation that damages the organisation. They further point out that destructive leadership impacts the organisation's interest through a multitude of processes. They are broadly defined as eroding or subverting organisational outcomes such as labour assignment and employee outcomes such as employee effectiveness, well-being, motivation and job satisfaction (Einarsen et al., 2007). Part of destructive leadership is behaviour which increases employee stress and thereby a decrease in higher level cognitive functioning such as long term planning and strategic thinking for employees (Brender-Ilan & Scheaffer, 2019). This translates to reduced job performance.

Hypothesis 1: Destructive leadership is negatively associated with job performance.

Job performance and self-efficacy

Job performance contains three elements: in-role behaviour, organisational citizenship behaviour focussed on individuals and organisational citizenship behaviour focussed on the organisation (Koopmans et al., 2011). All three are combined to measure overall job performance for this study. This is based on previous work by Williams & Anderson (1991) measuring job performance. Previous research is consistent in supporting a positive association between self-efficacy and job performance (Mackey et al., 2021). Bandura (1977) proposed self-efficacy as a cognitive model of self-perception specifically in regards to performance accomplishments. He argues that a higher belief in personal capabilities leads to

an increased willingness to engage in challenging activities. This in turn enables them to perform better. In our study the variable self-efficacy measures the employees perceived competence in dealing with the tasks and demands in a manner that produces the desired results (Rigotti et al., 2008). Therefore we expect a positive effect of self-efficacy on job performance.

Hypothesis 2: Self-efficacy is positively associated with job performance.

Self-efficacy as a moderator

In order to provide a theoretical framework for the heterogeneous findings by Mackey and colleagues (2021) we will explore the moderating effect of self- efficacy on our performance measure. Previous research exploring the effect of self-efficacy on the relationship between destructive leadership and parts of job performance suggests self-efficacy as a mediating variable (Brender-Ilan & Scheaffer, 2019). They suggest that destructive leadership affects self-efficacy, reducing it and thereby increasing the long term stress exposure of the employees reducing their performance. Although their model is overall significant, the correlation between destructive leadership and self-efficacy is low whilst another study suggests no significant relationship (Aydinay et al., 2021). Since the predictive power of a mediating model is partially reliant on the correlation between independent and mediating variables the findings by Brender-Ilan and Scheaffer (2019) provide evidence for a weak or partial mediating effect of self-efficacy on the relationship between destructive leadership and job performance. Multon et al. (1991) suggests that high self-efficacy increases the resilience and persistence of individuals when faced with increased stress thereby enabling those to endure more stress and accomplish more challenging tasks. This suggests that self-efficacy could act as a buffer towards stress. Reducing the extent to which the employee is affected by the stress inducing behaviours from their leader. Therefore moderating the effect of destructive leadership on job performance. This suggests that employees scoring

high on self-efficacy are less affected by the negative effect of destructive leadership on job performance. Conversely, employees scoring low on self-efficacy will have a larger negative effect of destructive leadership on their job performance.

H3: Self-efficacy is moderating the effect of destructive leadership on job performance.

H3a: Employees with high self-efficacy scores have a weaker negative effect of destructive leadership on job performance.

H3b: Employees with low self-efficacy scores have a stronger negative effect of destructive leadership on job performance.

To summarise, although self-efficacy seems to be a partial mediator, our theoretical framework supports self-efficacy being suited as a moderating variable. In this study we will assess the effect of destructive leadership and self-efficacy on job performance in dyads as well as the moderating effect of self-efficacy on the relationship between destructive leadership and job performance through multiple linear regression analysis.

Methods

Participants

The participants were recruited by students from the University of Groningen in two stages. One in 2023 and one between February and April 2024. In both stages they were recruited from within the students personal networks as well as by conventional lead generation approaches such as email invitations and direct door-to-door pitches. The sample consists of pairs of Dutch speaking leaders and followers. The effective sample size is 90 pairs out of the 225 leader responses and the 233 employee responses. We discarded responses for non-consent, non-completion by one or both members of the pair as well as for participants that did not provide a matching code corresponding to their partner. Additionally pairs where one or both participants work less than seventeen hours were removed. With the

main reason of removal being the lack of the matching code. The leader's mean age is 41.9 years (SD: 12.59) and employees' mean age is 33.69 years old (SD: 12.28). Leaders have 37.82 working hours per week (SD: 7.54) and subordinates 31.74 (SD: 7.46) working hours per week. The gender distribution is 32 female leaders and 58 male leaders as well as 51 female subordinates and 39 male subordinates. The most common industries were healthcare (13.3%), horeca (10.55%) and construction (7.8%). The frequency of leader-employee interactions was distributed as follows: every day (26.7%), a few times per week (57.8%) and a few times per month (14.4%).

Designs and Procedure

This study is a multi-sourced cross-sectional field study. Participation was voluntary and confidential. The participants either received a link to the questionnaire or were presented with the questionnaire in person. The questionnaires differ whether the participant is a leader or subordinate and take ten to fifteen minutes to complete. Before filling in the survey participants were asked to read and sign an informed consent form. To be able to match leaders with followers, participants were tasked with creating a letter code, a combination of the last two letters of the employee last name the last two letters of the of the leader's last name (eg. de Vries and de Jong esng). The questionnaire includes multiple scales measuring relationship characteristics of the pairs including common scales that both participants fill in thinking of their partner such as task interdependence and individual scales where they either self-report or report observations about the workplace or partner. At the end of the questionnaire respondents provided demographic information about themselves such as age, working hours, tenure, industry and the amount of interactions between the partners per week followed by a debrief of the study. Finally participants were provided with a contact email where they can send questions or notes on the study.

Measures

Destructive leadership

Destructive leadership was measured through a set of 12 questions assessing specific constructs based on the destructive leadership questionnaire (DLQ) researched by Erickson et al. (2007) and designed by Shaw et al. (2011). The questions were translated into Dutch and adapted to fit a dyadic study (see appendix A). They used a cognitive schema approach to evaluate the employee's perception of their leader. By assessing the employees cognitive framework of their leader they are able to provide DLQ-scores that correspond to a more or less destructive leader and leadership style. The DLQ provides twenty-two behaviour focussed factors and four personality focussed factors. These factors are assessed through statements combined with a Likert scale from one to seven to gauge whether the statement is perceived to be applicable by the employee. We decided to measure factors one (making decisions based on poor information) and four (micromanaging and controlling). Examples for scale one are: my superior reacts without thinking, my superior does not know what goes on in their team. Examples for scale four are: "My superior wants to control me, my superior does not trust me with important tasks". These factors focus mainly on the less aggressive types of behaviour exhibited by the leader. This decision was made by the supervisory staff accompanying the bachelor thesis research in order to keep the questionnaire concise. We will refer to the construct measured by these two factors as destructive leadership. The DLQ has a Cronbach alpha of: .9 with an inter-item correlation of .44 and hence is reliable.

Self-efficacy

Self-efficacy is measured using the employee reported shortened occupational self-efficacy scale (SOSES) developed by Rigotti et al. (2008) and translated into Dutch (see appendix B). It contains a total of six employee self report items and has been found to be a

consistent predictor of scores on the longer twenty items occupational self-efficacy scale in European countries (Schyns & Collani 2002). These six items are statements about an individual's occupational self-efficacy beliefs that are assigned a value between one and seven on a Likert scale to represent whether the statement fits the individual's perception. Examples of the SOSES are: "I can remain calm when facing difficulties in my job because I can rely on my abilities, when I'm confronted with a problem at work I can usually find multiple solutions". The SOSES has a Cronbach alpha of .91 and an inter-item correlation of .64 and is therefore reliable.

Job performance

The employee's job performance is measured by a leader-reported set of questions adapted from Williams & Anderson (1991). The items were translated to Dutch and adapted for the dyadic assessment (see appendix C). The scale consists of three factors IRB (in-role behaviour), OCBI (organisational citizenship behaviour directed at individuals) and OCBO (organisational citizenship behaviour directed at the organisation) including a total of 21 items. Each factor is assigned seven statements that are assessed through a seven point Likert scale. The leader is presented with the statements and asked to indicate to which extent they agree with the statements when applied to the follower. Examples for the questions are: "Adequately completes the assigned duties, (IRB), helps others who have been absent (OCBI), and takes undeserved work breaks (OCBO)". The job performance scale has a Chronbach alpha of .76 and an inter-item correlation of .15. Thus the scale is reliable and a lower inter-item correlation is in line with the different aspects of job performance being measured and therefore acceptable.

Results

Descriptives

Table 1 contains descriptive statistics and bivariate correlations for the studied variables. The correlation between destructive leadership and job performance is negative and significant at $r=-.28$ $p<0.01$ at $\alpha<.05$. This aligns with our main effect and is consistent with previous research on destructive leadership and job performance. Additionally self-efficacy is not significantly correlated with job performance contrary to previous research (Mackey et al., 2021) at $r=.14$ $p=1.88$ at $\alpha<.05$. Contrary to previous research our data provided a stronger correlation between destructive leadership and self-efficacy. The correlation of $r=.46$ at $p<.001$ is stronger compared to $r=.16$ (Mackey et al., 2021) or no significant relationship at $\alpha<.05$ (Aydinay et al., 2021).

Self-efficacy and destructive leadership have a moderate correlation of $r=-.46$ $p<.01$ at $\alpha<.05$. Additionally the low destructive leadership scores with a mean of 1.95 with an standard deviation of .98 contradict findings of multiple previous prevalence studies (Aasland et al., 2010; Lundmark et al., 2021; Mebratie & Shanbel, 2024). Therefore the following regression analysis should be considered to represent mostly low destructive leadership leader-follower interactions.

The distribution of residuals in our multiple linear regression is approximately normal (see appendix D. normality). There is a slight right skew in the data but that is within the acceptable range. The assumption of equal variance of residuals or homoscedasticity is also met as the residuals have a mostly even distribution along the axis of predicted values (see appendix D. homoscedasticity). As our dataset contains high self-efficacy and low destructive leadership values we only get a few cases of low job performance predicted. Still those that we do get are similar in variance to those with high job performance. Thus the assumption is sufficiently met. The independence of observations is guaranteed by our dyadic design where each observation is independent. There might be cases where a leader filled in multiple questionnaires with a few employees. However to minimise the risk of having dependent

observations we limited each leader to a maximum of filling out the survey three times. Lastly the linearity of the relationship between destructive leadership, job performance and self-efficacy seems appropriate given our correlation however it is important to keep in mind that we have few high destructive leadership scores and therefore the linearity can only be properly assessed for low destructive leadership environments.

Table 1

Means, Standard Deviations, Sample Sizes and Correlations of Study Variables

<i>Variables</i>	Mean	SD	N	1	2	3
Job performance	5.82	.80	90	1.00		
Destructive leadership	1.95	.98	90	-.28**	1.00	
Self-efficacy	5.68	1.04	90	.14	-.46**	1.00

*Note: *Correlation significant at $\alpha < .05$, **Correlation significant at $\alpha < .01$*

Table 2 reports the linear regression results of the moderation analysis of destructive leadership and self-efficacy on job performance. Our first hypothesis; a negative effect of destructive leadership on job performance is present with a coefficient of $-.24$ at $t = -2.41$ and $p = .02$ at $\alpha < .05$. This still holds when applying the Bonferroni correction to account for our three coefficients. The Bonferroni correction provides an $\alpha < .01667$ whilst the p-value for destructive leadership is $p = .0165$. This finding is in line with previous research supporting a negative effect of destructive leadership on job performance. It is notable that the effect is still significant despite low power and the applied correction. This means that effect is quite strong in our data. Self-efficacy as an individual predictor has failed to provide significant results with a coefficient of $.05$ at $t = .49$ $p = .62$. This is contrary to previous findings and our second hypothesis. Despite this our moderation effect the interaction term of destructive leadership and self-efficacy is non-significant with a coefficient of $.05$ and a t-value of $.49$ corresponding

to $p=.48$ at $\alpha<.05$. The model has an R^2 of .08 at an F-value of 2.55 and $p=.06$ at $\alpha<.05$. Thus it does not account for a large amount of variance (only 8%) of job performance.

Table 2

*Regression Results of Moderation Analysis on Job Performance; Destructive leadership (DL), Interaction effect between Destructive leadership and Self-efficacy (DL*SE)*

	Coefficient	se	t	p
Constant	5.98	.68	8.78	<.01
DL	-.24	.1	-2.41	.02
Self-Efficacy	.05	.11	.49	.62
DL*SE	-.04	.06	-.71	.48

Note: N=90, $\alpha<.05$

Supplementary Analysis

Since the direction of each effect is in line with the hypotheses (H1, H2, H3ab) we decided to test the statistical power of our design to explore if the lack of significance might be due to a small sample size. We compared the full model with the predictors destructive leadership, self-efficacy and the interaction effect (self-efficacy*destructive leadership) to the nested simple linear regression model with the predictor destructive leadership at $\alpha<.05$. Table 3 presents the results of the power analysis. The results of the power analysis given a desired power of .8 show that a sample size of $N=453$ would be required to correctly reject the null hypothesis 80% of the time. Large sample size requirements are not surprising as statistical power is notoriously low for interaction effects (Aiken & West, 1991). This is because testing an interaction effect in multiple linear regression utilises a product of two variables which tends to follow a non-normal distribution (McClelland & Judd, 1993). This is the case for our analysis (see appendix E). Therefore even though our statistical tests reject the null hypothesis the statistical power suggests that we run a 76.4% risk of falsely rejecting

the null hypothesis. This does however show the strength of the negative effect of destructive leadership on job performance in our sample as it is still significant. Further studies with appropriate sample size and therefore power might be able to resolve this and provide a clearer conclusion.

Table 3

*Power Analysis of Multiple Linear Regression Comparing predictors DL, SE and DL*SE to DL*

Power	N	Full Model	Nested Model	Sig
.24	90	3 Predictors $R^2=.08$	1 Predictor $R^2=.07$.05
.8	453	3 Predictors $R^2=.08$	1 Predictor $R^2=.07$.05

Note: Model does not contain the intercept (however including it does not change N=453)

Discussion

Our study investigated the effect of destructive leadership, self efficacy and their interaction effect on job performance. We proposed destructive leadership tends to increase stress and thereby reduce the job performance of the individual. We found a significant negative effect for destructive leadership on job performance. Self-efficacy has consistently been linked to an increase in job performance because the belief in one's capabilities boosts job performance. However no significant effect for self-efficacy was found. Lastly, we hypothesised self-efficacy also boosts persistence towards stressors thereby moderating the effect of destructive leadership on job performance. The interaction effect also was not significant.

Theoretical implications

The significant negative effect of destructive leadership on job performance is in line with consistent previous research findings (see Li et al., 2023; Marcus et al., 2016; Schyns &

Schilling, 2013). This is in line with the theory suggesting subversive leadership behaviour exposes employees to increased stress (Wu et al., 2018) which causes a reduction in long-term and strategic thinking (Brender-Ilan & Scheaffer, 2019) which is important for some aspects of job performance. Specifically reviewing the dyadic context it is notable that an increased employee perception of the leader as destructive relates to the leader's perception of a lower performing employee. This implies that the leader could be aware of the reduction in job performance however they do not attribute it to their leadership style or willingly ignore it. Here the findings of our study tie back in with the theory which suggests a systematic approach and malintent or at least disregard for the consequences of the leaders actions (Einarsen et al., 2007). A recent study adds upon that by suggesting that active destructive leadership behaviour is largely explained by personality traits of the leaders themselves (Tafvelin et al., 2023). This means that they engage in this behaviour because of their personality and might be less likely to identify themselves as part of the problem because of the self-serving bias.

It is further notable that there was no significant effect of self-efficacy on job performance. This is contrary to the consistent findings of previous studies (Multon et al., 1991) and inconsistent with theory (Bandura, 1977). In theory self-efficacy would improve the employees motivation to engage in challenging tasks and thereby improve their job performance. Even though the effect is not significant it is still in the direction expected; positive. However if future studies with adequate sample size do find similar results this undermines the mediating effect of self-efficacy proposed by Brender-Ilan and Scheaffer (2019) as the effect of the mediator on the dependent variable is crucial for a strong mediating model. It is notable though that our data provided a stronger correlation between destructive leadership and self-efficacy compared to previous studies (Brender-Ilan & Scheaffer, 2019; Mackey et al., 2021; Aydinay et al., 2021). This indicates that there might be a stronger effect

of destructive leadership on job performance in our data of Dutch employees. In turn the effect of destructive leadership on self-efficacy might be larger in a Dutch population.

The moderating effect of self-efficacy on the effect of destructive leadership on job performance was not significant. Thus our data does not align with theory by Multon et al., (1991) which suggests that self-efficacy increases stress resilience and theory by Brender-Ilan & Scheaffer (2019) which implies that the stress experienced through destructive leadership does inhibit long-term planning and strategic thinking skills. A potential explanation is offered by Mackey et al., (2021) who proposes that destructive leadership might be strategically used to improve job performance by exerting pressure on the employee. As they found some positive effects of destructive leadership specifically on in-role behaviour. Hence there is some evidence that task specific performance can increase through job performance. Therefore exploring the individual aspects of job performance and their relations to destructive leadership might give insight to some confounding aspects of the destructive leadership and job performance dynamics.

Practical Implications

Our study shows that the negative effect of destructive leadership on job performance holds in the context of a Dutch sample. As there is limited previous research on destructive leadership and job performance in the Netherlands this enables Dutch practitioners to utilise an evidence based approach when assessing influences of destructive leadership on job performance. Measuring employee stress might also be a useful indicator of the presence of destructive leadership according to the theory (Wu et al., 2018) and our data. Additionally the dyadic approach suggests that leaders are poorly equipped to properly attribute reduced job performance to their own destructive leadership behaviour. Or if they do properly attribute it they do not act upon knowing their negative impact on the company. Therefore, monitoring of

destructive leadership is crucial to identify it and take appropriate steps. As active destructive leadership behaviour is caused by leader personality (Tafvelin et al., 2023) it is crucial to assess an individual's personality before hiring or promoting.

Limitations and Future Directions

The peer reviewed scales held their high reliability and therefore we are confident that our variables were measured appropriately. The dyadic approach utilised helps us assess the leader-employee dynamics in a way that is closest to how we all experience the workplace: as individuals interacting with each other. Therefore our study is well suited to properly assess how individual employees and leaders experience the workplace and shape that experience for each other. Whilst it does limit the ability to draw inferences for larger workplace units, this study enables practitioners to understand and improve dyadic leader-employee relationships. Additionally the sample contains a diverse range of demographics such as gender, age, working hours and industries. Thus external validity of this study for the broader Dutch population is strong. The sample also contains participants from the years 2023 as well as 2024. Capturing a broader timeframe helps our study to be more resistant to macroeconomic trends that might affect the perceptions and behaviours within the Dutch workplace.

However the study is also limited by a WEIRD sample of the Dutch population. It is western, educated, industrialised, rich and democratic. Hence, our findings might not be applicable in other cultures or socioeconomic realities. Additionally our independent variable destructive leadership was only measured along two out of 26 factors from the peer reviewed source measure thus not accounting for a large portion of destructive leadership behaviours. In line with that, the destructive leadership scores were quite low (only seven exceeded the scale middle point of 3.5) and do not correspond to the prevalence rates of previous studies of around 30% (Aasland et al., 2010; Lundmark et al., 2021; Mebratie & Shanbel, 2024). This

might be due to the above mentioned reduced measure of destructive leadership as well as the sampling bias and selection of an employee to fill in the questionnaire by the leader.

Therefore inferences for high destructive leadership environments should be interpreted with caution. The variable stress which the theory hinges on is not measured. Although there is a consistent scientific body of literature suggesting destructive leadership corresponds to increases in stress (Wu et al., 2018) as we did not measure stress we cannot say whether it is the case in our sample. This limits our theoretical implications until further research has been conducted.

Future research should expand the measure for destructive leadership by including more scales from Shaw and colleagues (2011). Additionally the reduction of sampling bias should be attempted. Particularly a more random assignment of leader and followers would be useful to minimise the effects of sampling bias. Furthermore, increased sample size should be employed to achieve an analysis with sufficient power. Lastly, the inclusion of a measure of employee stress would add to the model as the theoretical framework largely rests upon the effect of destructive leadership on job performance being partially mediated by employee stress levels. Thus measuring stress directly might suggest self-efficacy as a redundant predictor or find that both play a crucial role together. Future research might also look into the effects of destructive leadership on the different aspects of job performance. There might be a difference in how destructive leadership influences in-role behaviour versus organisational citizenship behaviour. As stress caused by destructive leadership can inhibit some cognitive functioning (Brender-Ilan & Scheaffer, 2019) it could be that some aspects are more or less affected by it.

Conclusion

Our study suggests that destructive leadership negatively affects the job performance of employees. However both a positive effect of self-efficacy as well as the moderating effect on job performance were not sufficiently evidenced. The dyadic approach presents a realistic picture of employee-leader dynamics and offers some further insight about diagnosing destructive leadership as well as how destructive leadership correlates with self-efficacy.

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Appendix

A.) Measure: Destructive leadership

De volgende vragen gaan over uw leidinggevende.

Geef alstublieft aan in hoeverre u het eens bent met de stellingen.

[1 Helemaal mee oneens; 7 Helemaal mee eens; 4 niet mee eens, niet mee oneens]

Mijn leidinggevende:

1. .. reageert vaak zonder na te denken.
2. .. heeft geen idee wat er zich in ons team afspeelt.
3. .. is onwetend over zaken die zich afspelen in zijn/haar directe omgeving.
4. .. reageert impulsief.
5. .. heeft niet genoeg aandacht voor wat werkelijk belangrijk is.
6. .. controleert mij continu.
7. .. wil totale controle over mij uitoefenen.
8. .. is autoritair.
9. .. vertrouwt er niet op dat ik mijn werk op een correcte manier uitvoer.
10. .. wil controle over mij uitoefenen.
11. .. geeft mij geen belangrijke taken omdat hij/zij mij niet vertrouwt.
12. .. deelt geen macht met mij.

Translated to english:

The following questions are about your leader.

Please indicate to what extent you agree with the statements.

[1 Strongly disagree; 7 Completely agree; 4 neither agree nor disagree]

My superior:

1. .. often reacts without thinking.

2. ..has no idea what's going on in our team.
3. .. is ignorant about matters happening in his/her immediate environment.
4. ..reacts impulsively.
5. ..doesn't pay enough attention to what's really important.
6. ..checks me all the time.
7. .. wants to exercise total control over me.
8. .. is authoritarian.
9. ..does not trust me to do my job correctly.
10. ..wants to control me.
11. ..does not give me important tasks because he/she does not trust me.
12. ..shares no power with me.

B.) Measure: Self-efficacy

De volgende vragen gaan over uw werk.

Geef alstublieft aan in hoeverre u het eens bent met de stellingen.

[1 Helemaal mee oneens; 7 Helemaal mee eens; 4 niet mee eens, niet mee oneens]

1. Ik kan kalm blijven wanneer ik geconfronteerd word met moeilijkheden in mijn werk, omdat ik kan terugvallen op mijn vaardigheden
2. Wanneer ik geconfronteerd word met een probleem in mijn werk, dan vind ik meestal meerdere oplossingen
3. Wat er ook gebeurt in mijn werk, ik kan het meestal wel aan
4. De ervaringen die ik in het verleden in mijn werk heb opgedaan, hebben me goed voorbereid op mijn werk in de toekomst
5. Ik haal de doelstellingen die ik aan mezelf stel in mijn werk
6. Ik voel me in staat om de eisen van mijn werk het hoofd te bieden

Translated to english:

The following questions are about your work.

Please indicate to what extent you agree with the statements.

[1 Strongly disagree; 7 Completely agree; 4 neither agree nor disagree]

1. I can remain calm when faced with difficulties in my work because I can rely on my skills
2. When I am confronted with a problem in my work, I usually find several solutions
3. Whatever happens in my job, I can usually handle it
4. The experiences I have gained in my work in the past have prepared me well for my work in the future
5. I achieve the goals I set for myself in my work

I feel able to cope with the demands of my job

C.) Measure: Job performance

De volgende vragen gaan over uw medewerker.

Geef alstublieft aan in hoeverre u het eens bent met de stellingen.

[1 Helemaal mee oneens; 7 Helemaal mee eens; 4 niet mee eens, niet mee oneens]

Mijn medewerker:.....

1. Voert de opgedragen taken naar behoren uit
2. Voldoet aan de verantwoordelijkheden vermeld in de functiebeschrijving
3. Voert de taken uit die van hem/haar verwacht worden
4. Voldoet aan de formele prestatie-eisen van de functie
5. Houdt zich/haar bezig met activiteiten die rechtstreeks van invloed zijn op zijn/haar prestatiebeoordeling
6. Verwaarloost aspecten van het werk dat hij/zij verplicht is uit te voeren
7. Faalt in het uitvoeren van essentiële taken
8. Helpt anderen die afwezig zijn geweest
9. Helpt anderen die een zware werklast hebben
10. Assisteert mij bij mijn werkzaamheden (wanneer niet gevraagd)
11. Neemt de tijd om te luisteren naar problemen en zorgen van collega's
12. Doet zijn/haar uiterste best om nieuwe medewerkers te helpen

13. Heeft persoonlijke belangstelling voor andere werknemers
14. Geeft informatie door aan collega's
15. Aanwezigheid op werk is boven de norm
16. Geeft van te voren aan wanneer hij/zij niet kan komen werken
17. Neemt te veel werkpauses
18. Besteed veel tijd aan persoonlijke telefoongesprekken
19. Klaagt over onbelangrijke dingen op het werk
20. Bewaart en beschermt eigendommen van de organisatie
21. Houdt zich aan informele regels die zijn opgesteld om de orde te handhaven

Translated to english:

The following questions are about your employee.

Please indicate to what extent you agree with the statements.

[1 Strongly disagree; 7 Completely agree; 4 neither agree nor disagree]

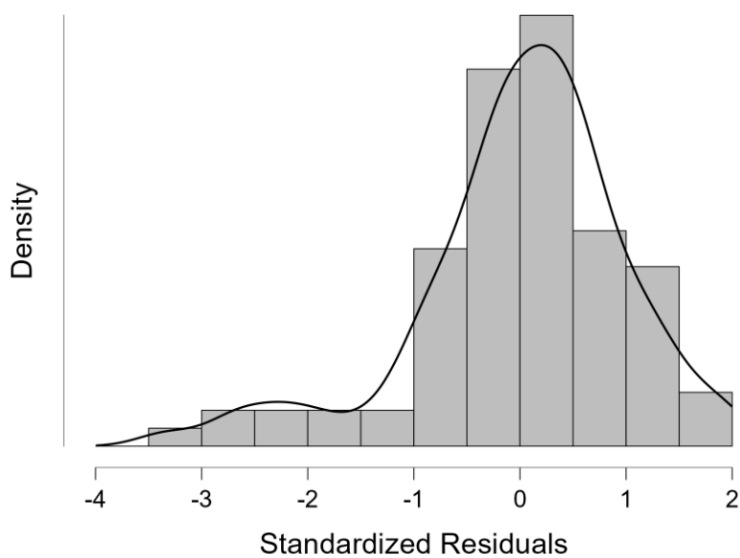
My employee:.....

1. Performs assigned tasks properly
2. Fulfils the responsibilities stated in the job description
3. Performs the tasks expected of him/her
4. Meets the formal performance requirements of the position
5. Engages in activities that directly affect his/her performance rating
6. Neglects aspects of the work he/she is required to perform
7. Fails to perform essential duties
8. Helps others who have been absent
9. Helps others who have a heavy workload
10. Assists me in my work (when not requested)
11. Takes the time to listen to colleagues' problems and concerns
12. Does his/her utmost to help new employees

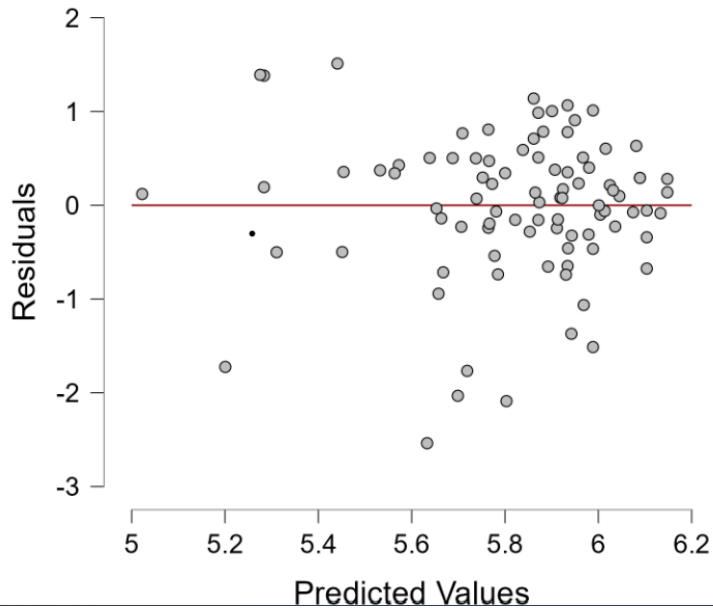
13. Takes personal interest in other employees
14. Passes on information to colleagues
15. Attendance at work is above standard
16. Indicates in advance when he/she cannot come to work
17. Takes too many work breaks
18. Spend a lot of time on personal phone calls
19. Complains about unimportant things at work
20. Stores and protects organisational property
21. Adheres to informal rules established to maintain order

D.) Assumption Checks

Normality of residuals.



Homoscedasticity



E.) Distribution of interaction effect

