

THE DARK SIDE OF ORGANIZATIONAL LEADERSHIP IN BRAZIL: PERCEPTION, CAUSES, AND CONSEQUENCES

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ABSTRACT

Effective leaders and good leadership behavior, and practices are well-researched areas in leadership and management. However, the dark side of leadership in Brazil has often been lamented in the literature and subjected to limited scholarly inquiry. This study surveyed 216 managers who participated in strategic management or project management executive certificate programs through a prestigious Brazilian professional development organization to assess their perception and experience of destructive leadership behavior. The paper identifies and analyzes the common perception, causes, and consequences of negative leadership in Brazil.

To the best of the authors' knowledge, this study is among the first empirical studies to explore the dark side of organizational leadership in Brazil, focusing on its perception, causes, and consequences. The research is another plea to contribute to the leadership literature by providing empirical findings on the subject and its implications for leaders, practitioners, organizations, and those in charge of leadership development. It also addresses the study's limitations, implications, and directions for future research.

Keywords: *The dark side of leadership, Leadership, negative leadership, destructive leadership, derailment characteristics, and Brazil.*

INTRODUCTION

As commonly understood, a leader's success is determined by meeting followers' expectations. In this sense, effective/ethical leadership is a value-driven approach to leadership (Pucic, 2015). In a value-driven approach, a leader can affect followers' motivation, thinking, and behaviors by influencing an individual's self-concept and beliefs (Den Hartog & Belschak, 2012; Shamir, House, & Arthur, 1993).

While leadership is widespread in research and academic, and organizational circles, there are still gaps in the literature regarding its dark side, particularly in Brazil, that need to be studied. For instance, Allas (in Brady, 2021) indicated, "There are a lot of very good bosses, and then there are a lot of very bad bosses. And even exceptionally good bosses do not necessarily realize that their impact on the people who work with them goes well beyond the business. The impact [bosses have] inside the workplace bleeds into a person's overall life satisfaction...."

(Para. 10). These displayed behaviors have often been characterized by labels that are not related to leadership, such as destructive, abusive, uncivil, negative, or other labels (e.g., Conger & Riggio, 2007; Tepper, 2000; Schyns & Schilling, 2013).

Although a large number of scholars have argued that the ethical component of leadership should be emphasized and present in the daily life of an organization and its people (e.g., Bass & Steidlmeier, 1999; Brown, Treviño, & Harrison, 2005; Ogunfowora, 2009; Toor & Ofori, 2009; Yesiltas et al., 2017), however, there still exists a dark side of leadership that exemplifies unethical, yet destructive and toxic leadership that abuses others (Northouse, 2022).

On the dark side of leadership, research has focused chiefly on person-oriented and high-intensity ‘harmful behavior’ of the abusive supervisor (e.g., Almeida et al., 2021; Tepper et al., 2017). However, the impact of harmful behavior has mostly been neglected.

Regardless of their ranks, the organization and its employees have mutual expectations and exchange relationships. It is given that the organization expects its employees to be committed to its goals and objectives and be responsible for their actions. Similarly, employees require leadership that values their contributions, treats them ethically, and provides a safe and stress-free environment. Contrary to that belief, real-life instances showed that some negative leadership traits, behaviors, and other situational factors could contribute to individual and organizational ineffectiveness. Thus, examining destructive leadership behaviors in this study through examining followers' perceptions forms the foundation of this empirical study and adds to the knowledge of this phenomenon.

The current study has been designed in such a way as to provide study respondents with the ultimate freedom to discuss their perceptions of the dark side of a leader's behavior rather than limiting the respondents to pre-established categories that might frame their way of thinking.

Researchers studying the negative side of leadership have proposed several concepts that could fall within the scope of destructive leadership aimed at subordinates. These concepts include but are not limited to “abusive supervisors” (e.g., Mackey et al., 2020; Tepper, 2000), “bullies” (e.g., Mathisen et al., 2011), “self-centeredness” (e.g., Cramwinckel, et al., 2013; Schmid et al., 2019), and “derailed leaders” (e.g., Inyang, 2013), “failed leader” (e.g., Ghazzawi, 2023), and “psychopaths” (e.g., Landay et al., 2019).

In this study, destructive leadership is defined as “Subordinates’ perceptions of the extent to which a supervisor’s behavior negatively affects their psychological, physiological, or behavioral being and how that behavior could lead to impediments in their own and/or their organization’s performance” (Ghazzawi, 202, p. 74).

Thus, this paper focuses on the broad questions of what behavior makes a leader destructive, what subordinates do not like about this type of leadership, and what the consequences are for them and their organizations. Accordingly, this article provides a context for understanding the dark side of leadership, adds to the literature on this leadership type, and sheds light on its impact on people and organizations, as little research has examined this relationship in Brazil.

The article is divided into five sections. After this brief introduction, the next section reviews the literature. Section three presents the study's research methodology. Section four

presents the findings and discussions of the study sample's conceptualization of the negative leader, what causes such behavior, and its consequences on people and organizations. Finally, section five provides conclusions, implications, and suggestions for future research.

LITERATURE REVIEW

The meaning of being "good" reflects morality, and in addition, it reflects leadership effectiveness. Toor and Ofori (2009) suggested that the expected definition of a leader is the same as the one about "what is good leadership or what is ethical leadership." Brown (2007) asserted that the normative approach to leadership in business ethics can usually be formed by focusing on how employees should be treated in the workplace. Moreover, when it comes to leadership acceptance, effectiveness, or ineffectiveness, researchers over the years have agreed and to a certain extent that some relationship exists between personality traits and her/his leadership ability or its lacking (e.g., Gehring, 2007; Kornør & Nordvik, 2004; Nordvik & Brovold, 1998; Zaccaro, 2007).

Past research assumed that regardless of a leader's situation, innate abilities shape human personality and behavior (Kolp & Rea, 2006). A good deal of researchers asserted that traits did play a leadership ability; however, there was no clear indication of its extent role (e.g., Gehring, 2007; Kenny & Zaccaro, 1983; Kirkpatrick & Locke, 1991; Kolp & Rea, 2006; Kornør & Nordvik, 2004; Zaccaro, 2007).

Over the years, several theories that focus on the relationship between leaders and subordinates have emerged to explain this complex construct from various perspectives and different explanations. These theories range from the trait to the behavioral approach, the leader-member exchange, the least preferred coworker (LPC), situational Leadership, and the path-goal (George & Jones, 2012; Greenberg, 2011).

Personality Traits and Leadership

A sheer amount of literature focuses on personality and its effect on leadership emergence. A few available studies have been conducted to determine which individual traits influence leadership emergence beyond the established personality factors (Ensari, Riggio, Christian, & Carslaw, 2011). Researchers studying traits and their relevance to leadership have established that some traits, such as knowledge of the task, intelligence, self-confidence, dominance, honesty, integrity, energy level, stress tolerance, and emotional maturity, have the most substantial relationship to leadership effectiveness (e.g., Bass & Stogdill, 1990; Stogdill, 1974).

Thus, Capowski (1994) suggested ten traits that are the essential attributes of leadership. These are vision, integrity, trust, selflessness, commitment, creative ability, toughness, communication, risk-taking, and visibility. However, the relationship between personality traits and leadership has been inconsistent and has been reviewed by some leadership researchers with skepticism (e.g., Anderson, 2006; Lord, De Vader, & Alliger, 1986; Zaccaro, Foti, & Kenny, 1991) or concluded that only few personality traits are associated with effective leadership (e.g., House & Aditya, 1997).

Similarly, other studies have identified personality traits known as the Big Five traits, which most psychologists agree constitute someone's personality in a hierarchy (Digman, 1990; George & Jones, 2012). As the Big Five Personality Traits have become a focal research theme, a stream of personality studies have validated that traits were relevant to leadership effectiveness (e.g., Benoliel & Somech, 2012; Hendricks & Payne, 2007; Hoogh, Den Hartog, & Koopman, 2005; Kalshoven, Den Hartog, & De Hoogh, 2011).

While the trait approach to leadership assumes that effective leaders possess some innate traits that help them achieve goals, not all effective leaders possess such traits. Additionally, even for those who do, there are no guarantees that they will be effective.

The Behavioral Approach to Leadership

Other scholars have suggested that a person's behavior impacts the leader's ability to lead or mislead (e.g., Schaubroeck, Lam, & Cha, 2007; Schuleigh, Malouff, Schutte, & Loi, 2019; Waldman, Ramirez, House, & Puranam, 2001). On the other hand, other researchers have argued that the situation and/or the followers impact the leader's style and behavior when leading others (e.g., Atwater, 1988; Bass & Stogdill, 1990; Thompson & Vecchio, 2009).

Tortorella and Fogliatto (2017) suggested that more excellent leadership experience, which is closely related to leaders' age, may entail enhanced interpersonal skills that favor the leader's choice of behaviors that more effectively support lean manufacturing implementation in Brazil.

In a follow-up study, Tortorella et al. (2018) study on the impact of leadership style on lean manufacturing implementation in Brazil suggested that a task-oriented leadership style makes leaders more likely to achieve higher levels of lean manufacturing as opposed to a relationship-oriented style as a highly relation-oriented leader tend to be more of a delegator and facilitators which as opposed to someone who drives the highly specified activities.

Regardless of these varied suggestions or controversies, the current research will provide an in-depth assessment and analysis regarding the interaction between the dark side of leadership and other variables and/or traits, as suggested by the study sample.

Despite the universal characterizations of leadership, cultural differences might play a role in the leader's style and behavior and, accordingly, should not be ignored (e.g., Cervo et al., 2016; Tsai, 2011).

On the other hand, Tortorella et al. (2017) indicated that more excellent leadership experience, closely related to leaders' age, may entail enhanced interpersonal skills that might favor the leader's choice of behaviors. On the other hand, Tannenbaum and Schmidt (1973), for example, proposed a model focused on how much decision-making is centralized in a group of employees versus by the leaders. For example, some leaders may have a dominant role in decision-making, while others may allow the group to make decisions independently, within prescribed limits.

A few field studies in Brazil highlighted the significance of transformational leadership and its positive impact on Brazilian corporations. Transformational leadership builds commitment to supporting employees in achieving their goals (e.g., Cavazotte et al., 2012;

Chammas et al., 2019). Additionally, it was asserted that leaders must adapt their leadership behavior to the startups' environmental conditions (Chammas et al., 2017).

Contingency, Situation, and Leadership

Research investigating traits and leadership indicated that while there is some consistent relationship between personality and leadership, leadership is not about passive possession of some traits; it is more relevant to the situations the leader is in. Said studies treated leadership as an interactive construct (e.g., Fiedler, 1981; Podsakoff et al., 1993; Yukl & Van Fleet, 1992).

The contingency theory model of leadership effectiveness was based on Fiedler (1978). It has been the basis for an extensive body of research, and numerous studies support its propositions and findings (e.g., Hersey & Blanchard, 1982; Mitchell et al., 1970). As the leadership and followership relationship is unclear, the behavioral approach to leadership ignores the situation in which leadership takes place, as the leader-follower relationship is unclear (Fiedler, 1967; George & Jones, 2012).

According to Fiedler (1967), leadership effectiveness is a product of individual-specific characteristics and the situation the leader is in. Fiedler (1981) asserted that a leader might be successful in a leadership role or not; it all depends on the situation, as opposed to only the personality or skills she/he has. Accordingly, effectiveness is a product of the interaction between the leadership style and the degree to which the situation enables the leader to exert influence.

Accordingly, the situational approach addresses the specific two questions of why a leader could be more effective than someone else in a particular situation while both possess the same personal characteristics and experiences and why a leader is effective in a particular situation and not in another one (e.g., Fiedler 1981; George & Jones, 2012). Similarly, validating the situational relationship, the organization's culture might influence a leader's behavior and style. According to Hofstede et al. (2010), culture plays a significant role within the organization, as leaders and subordinates within an organizational setting are inseparable. This relationship is based on the common values they share. Hofstede, Hofstede, and Minkov (2010) argued that when people are asked to describe their leadership qualities, it seems as if they have been asked to describe their organizational culture.

The situational approach to leadership identified two types of leadership styles: relationship-oriented and task-oriented. Leaders may fall into one of these styles. A leader who is characterized by being relational is usually liked by subordinates, forms a good relationship with them, and wants them to perform at a higher achievement level (Fiedler 1967). In contrast, a task-oriented leader focuses on subordinates performing at an elevated level, while the intention of a good relationship is unimportant or has a second priority.

There was a continuous stream of research to validate further and/or improve the situational contingency theory of leadership (e.g., Hersey & Blanchard, 1982; Mitchell et al., 1970). For instance, Hersey and Blanchard (1982) suggested that subordinate maturity moderates the relationship between leader tasks and relationship behaviors. This means that leadership depends on followers' maturity, which is their readiness and willingness to assume responsibility for their behavior (Hersey & Blanchard, 1982).

When validating this theory, research findings showed mixed results. While some research findings provided some support for the situational theory (e.g., Avery & Ryan, 2002; Bosse et al., 2017; Sims, Faraj, & Yun, 2009; Walter, 1980), others produced little or no support for this claim (e.g., Blank, Green, & Weitzel, 1990; Goodson, McGee, & Cashman, 1989). Others suggested that the theory, as initially formulated, has little descriptive utility (e.g., Fernandez & Vecchio, 1997); it could be applicable only for certain types of subordinates (e.g., Vecchio, 1987), or it is characterized by "Logical and internal inconsistencies, conceptual ambiguity, incompleteness, and confusion associated with multiple versions of the model" (Graeff, 1997, p. 153), and the magnitude of its overall results on subordinates' performance was not significant (e.g. Graeff, 1983; Norris & Vecchio, 1992).

Finally, it is important to touch on the Path-Goal Theory with its premise that the extent to which certain leadership styles (i.e., directive, supportive, participative, and achievement-oriented) help in clarifying the paths of the subordinates based on their characteristics and on the contextual demands within which they have to operate (e.g., Avolio, Kahai, & Dodge, 2000; Hernandez et al., 2011).

The Impact of Culture on Leadership in Brazil

To better understand and explain leadership in Brazil, it will be appropriate to briefly touch on the country's culture. Rooted in Portuguese culture and language, Brazil's culture is a high-power distance culture (Cervo, 2016; De Hilal, 2009; Hofstede, 2011).

Power Distance has been defined by Hofstede (2011) as:

The extent to which the less powerful members of organizations and Institutions (like the family) accept and expect that power is distributed unequally. This represents inequality (more versus less) but is defined from below, not from above. It suggests that a society's level of inequality is endorsed by the followers as much as by the leaders. Power and inequality, of course, are extremely fundamental facts of any society. All societies are unequal, but some are more unequal than others (Hofstede, 2011: P. 9)

As a high-power distance culture, Casado (2018) asserted that Brazil is a land of contrasts, and its society has been characterized by a blind culture, which resulted in new cultural practices and identities. This hybrid culture resulted from the interaction and mixing of various cultural backgrounds since the Portuguese colonization of Brazil in 1500 through migration and trade (Freyre, 1984). This colonization by the Portuguese was done in an exploitative agrarian model, where slaves constituted the primary labor force (Cavazotte et al., 2014). Cavazotte et al. (2014) suggested that the roots of power distance germinated from a societal model that was a top-down one, based on the model of the colony's native country, with little or no regard for democracy or participation by ordinary citizens in running collective affairs.

Hess and Da Matta (1995) suggested that despite its Western-like society and institutions, Brazil is a nation where Western culture has meshed with non-Western cultures and values for centuries. Others described the Brazilian national culture as "complex and multi-faceted" (e.g., Caldas, 1997, p. 81). In a study in a large International Brazilian bank, Da Hilal (2002) identified

paradoxical aspects that legitimize Brazilian Bank leadership; the first one is based on hierarchical authority supported by a set of clearly defined norms and rules, whereas the second one is the fact that the authority of the leaders prevailed over the rules. This paradox might manifest as a potential source of organizational conflict.

A society with high power distance implements hierarchical orders where each member has their place. On the other hand, people in a society with low power distances strive for equal power distribution. Accordingly, the authoritarian behavior of people in a high-power society might indicate a conflictive situation. However, Brazilians have a repugnance or an intense disgust toward conflict. A revulsion of conflict does not mean that such perception eliminates it. Like all hierarchical societies, Brazil has an elevated level of conflict (De Hilal, 2009).

However, the family has always had a stronger expression in Brazilian society. De Hilal (2009) summed up the interplay between the culture and the behavior in Brazilian society that might have an impact on leadership behavior:

The home is the place where people find their identity, while the street is the place of individual anonymity. There is, therefore, a double-edged ethic that operates simultaneously and that determines different behaviors that apply to the street (where behavior is free of the sense of loyalty, free of the meaning of us, ruled by the criteria of individualism, bylaws, and by the rules of the market) and to the home (where behavior is ruled by personal relations, the sense of loyalty, and emotions through reciprocity and friendship. People can express different or even contradictory opinions and behaviors depending on whether they position themselves in the street or in the home (De Hilal, 2009, pp. 96-97).

Cavazotte et al. (2014) observed that Brazilian leaders are expected to exhibit charisma and value-based leadership. However, these same leaders are often characterized by "personalism," prioritizing allegiance to individuals rather than principles. This personalism manifests in "particularism," where the interests of their specific group supersede broader organizational goals. Furthermore, a "paternalistic" approach is frequently adopted, restricting the autonomy and responsibilities of subordinates. Within this context, personal connections often moderate the rule of law, reinforcing a substantial distinction between in-group and out-group members.

A case in point is that organizational leaders in Brazil tend to treat their subordinates according to masculine-type controls with authority. At the same time, they also treat them based on the feminine-type controls using seduction (e.g., De Hilal, 2009; Motta et al., 2001).

On a positive note, Brazil has shown progress toward economic development, creating more jobs and opportunities and enjoying better social mobility. Additionally, the proportion of the population with complete higher education increased from 6.8% in 2000 to 18.4% in 2022 (IBGE, 2025).

The current study seeks to make two contributions. The first is to review and expand the extant literature on destructive leadership. The second is to explore and validate the characteristics of destructive leadership and its consequences for organizations in Brazil. This country has not received much research on this subject.

RESEARCH METHOD

It is important to acknowledge the importance of followers' perceptions of destructive leaders on their behaviors. Therefore, a database containing 2,888 prospective participants in executive business certificate training programs in the US, the UK, and Italy in 2022 and 2023 was used to send an email soliciting their participation in this study. All executive certificate programs were delivered in English and focused on business themes. Accordingly, participants are proficient in English, even though they are Brazilians.

Participants and Setting

A significant part of the study included a survey that targeted 2,888 individuals from various organizations in Brazil. Of the 2,888 targeted, 269 responses were received, a 9.31% response rate. However, the authors decided that 216 responses were valid after eliminating responses deemed invalid (i.e., fifty-three responses) for reasons that included incomplete information or others that came from people who were not Brazilians. Based on that, the valid response rate was almost 7.5%.

The survey contained a questionnaire with a cover letter explaining the purpose of the research and instructions on how to complete it. The instructions also mentioned the anonymity of data and the voluntary nature of participation in the study. Additionally, respondents were assured that their information would be kept confidential. Table 1 depicts the demographic characteristics of respondents.

All participants were asked to provide information regarding their age group, gender, industry, number of employees, and years of experience at the time of data collection. Responses showed that participants were 49.44% female and 50.46% male. While the more significant part of the respondents came from the age that ranges between 26 to 35 years old (i.e., 43.06%), 16.20% were from the age brackets of under 25, 21.30% were from 36 to 45 years, 12.50% were from 45 to 55, and 6.94% were in the age group of 55 or older.

Table 1: Demographic characteristics

Items	Frequency (N=216)	(%)
<u>Gender</u>		
Male	109	50.46
Female	107	49.44
<u>Age</u>		
Twenty-five and under	35	16.20
26-35	93	43.06
36-45	46	21.30
45-55	27	12.50
Over fifty-five	15	6.94
<u>Sector</u>		
Education	12	5.55
Service	101	46.76
Technology	43	19.91
Manufacturing	56	25.93
Non-Profit	4	01.85
<u>Rank within the Organization</u>		
Employee	80	37.04
Middle Management	74	34.26
Upper Management	49	22.69
Other Rank	13	6.02
<u>Number of Employees</u>		
Below one hundred	77	35.64
100-499	44	20.37
500-999	17	07.87
1000-4999	22	10.19
5000-9999	14	06.48
Above 10000	42	19.45
<u>Years of Experience</u>		
less than 5	94	43.52
5-10	58	26.85
11-15	31	14.35
16-20	16	7.41
Above 20	17	7.87
Total	216	100%

Out of 216 respondents, 5.55 % worked in the education sector, 46.76 % in the service industry, 19.91 % in technology, 25.93 % in manufacturing, and 1.85 % worked for non-profit organizations. As for participants' ranks within their organizations, 37.04 % were employees, 34.26 % were middle managers, 22.69 % were upper managers, and 6.02 % had various ranks.

When asked about the size of their organization as measured by the number of employees who work there, it revealed that 35.64 % work for an organization with less than 100 employees, 20.37 % work in an organization with 100 to 499 employees, 7.87 % of the respondents work in organizations with 500 to 999 employees, 10.19% work in larger organizations with 1000 to 4999 employees, 6.48 % in organizations with 5000 to 9999 employees, and 19.45% work for

larger firms that employ over 10000 employees. 43.52% had less than 5 years of work experience, 26.85% had between five and ten years of industry experience, 14.35% had between eleven and fifteen years of experience, 7.41 % worked between sixteen and twenty years, and 7.87% had over twenty years of industry experience.

The Instrument

This study examined the common perception, causes, and consequences of negative leadership in Brazil. The research method for this paper is based on empirical analysis and descriptive statistics. The study utilized text mining to explore the consequences of destructive leadership.

Table 2: Negative Leadership Behavior

	Leader's Behavior	5 Strongly Agree	4 Agree	3 Neutral	2 Disagree	1 Strongly Disagree
1	Autocratic Behavior					
2	Poor Communication					
3	Unable to Effectively Deal with Subordinates					
4	Poor Ethics/Integrity					
5	Inability to Use Technology					
6	Inconsistent/Erratic Behavior					
7	Poor Interpersonal Behavior					
8	Micromanagement					
9	Poor Personal Behavior					
10	Excessive Political Behavior					
11	Lack of Strategic Skills					

Source: Erickson, A., Shaw, J., & Agape, Z. (2007). An empirical investigation of the antecedents, behaviors, and outcomes of bad Leadership. *Journal of Leadership Studies*, 1(3), 26–43. doi:10.1002/(ISSN)1935-262X

The Destructive Leadership Questionnaire (DLQ) 11 categories measuring destructive leadership behavior survey developed by Erickson et al., (2007) was used utilizing a Likert-type scale anchored with five frequency adverbs: 5 Strongly Agree; 4 Agree; 3 Neutral; 2 Disagree; and 1 Strongly Disagree (please refer to Table 2).

In addition to the above table, three specific questions were asked participants to respond to these were (1) "Have you encountered a leader or a superior that you classify her/him as destructive?" and (2) "What would you think are the consequences of having a negative leader for you and your organization?"

Participants were asked to refer to Table 2, which describes the leader's behavior. Participants were also encouraged to add other behaviors they encountered but listed in the provided Table 2. The questions provided to participants were reviewed, and feedback was

received from three academicians with expert knowledge about leadership and organizational behavior.

Methodology Used to Analyze the Consequences of Destructive Leadership

This study applied text-mining techniques to analyze unstructured textual responses regarding the consequences of destructive leadership. The analysis was conducted using Text Explorer in JMP Pro 18, a tool designed to process and extract meaningful patterns from unstructured text sources such as survey comment fields, incident reports, and open-ended responses.

First, data preparation and cleaning were conducted to enhance consistency and accuracy in the dataset. This involved translating seven responses from Portuguese to English to create a uniform linguistic base for analysis. Additionally, non-informative words, such as common stop words, were reviewed to prevent distortions in frequency-based insights.

Second, the dataset was processed using Text Explorer to standardize word variations and refine text consistency. The "Stem for Combining" feature was applied to group related words under a single root form, ensuring that terms such as "stress," "stressed," "stressing," and "stressful" were consolidated under "stress" to improve consistency. Additionally, recoding techniques were used to refine the dataset by standardizing semantically equivalent terms. For example, "unmotivated" was recoded into "demotivated" and "anxious" into "anxiety," ensuring that related concepts were treated as a single entity. This process enhanced the interpretability of frequency-based analysis while reducing redundancy in the dataset.

Third, semantically similar terms were manually reviewed and categorized into broader thematic groups to facilitate meaningful insight extraction. For instance, terms associated with psychological distress, such as "anxiety," "depression," and "stress," were grouped into a unified category, "Anxiety, Depression, and Stress," with their frequencies combined. This categorization was guided by term frequency distribution and expert judgment, ensuring that the aggregation of terms remained analytically meaningful while preserving the intent of participant responses.

By leveraging Text Explorer's text-mining capabilities, this study systematically transformed qualitative responses into structured insights, providing a clearer understanding of destructive leadership's psychological and workplace consequences.

Common Method Bias and Sample Limitations

As with many survey-based studies, this research carries potential sample limitations and standard method bias risks. The survey targeted 2,888 individuals from various organizations in Brazil, with 216 valid responses (7.5% response rate) after excluding incomplete or ineligible responses. While the sample includes participants from multiple organizations, responses were self-reported and collected simultaneously, which may introduce recall bias, attribution errors, or consistency bias.

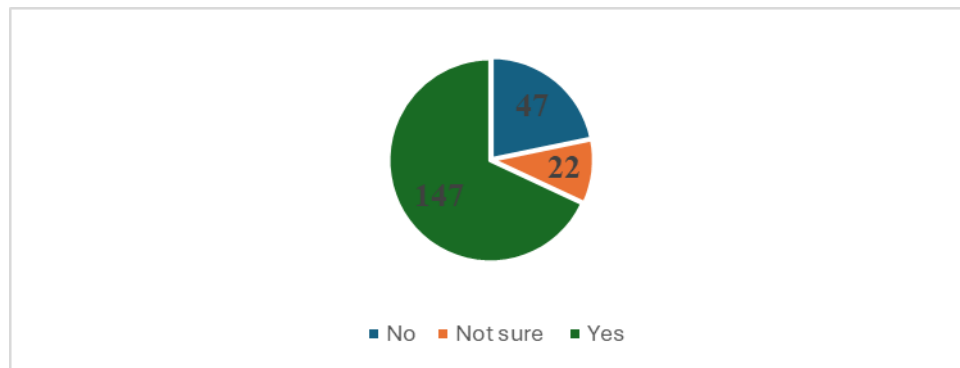
Although efforts were made to mitigate bias by ensuring anonymity, emphasizing voluntary participation, and clarifying the research purpose in a cover letter, relying on self-

reported data from a single respondent type per case may introduce perceptual bias. As a result, participants' responses could reflect subjective interpretations rather than objective assessments of destructive leadership behaviors. Future research could address these concerns by incorporating multi-source data collection (e.g., supervisor and peer ratings) or longitudinal designs to mitigate the potential influence of standard method variance (CMV).

FINDING AND DISCUSSIONS

Figures 2 and 3 display data summaries reflecting the guiding research questions and respondents' responses, i.e., (1) The encounter with a leader or a superior that the respondent classified her/him as destructive and (2) the consequences of having a negative leader on the person and the organization as believed by the study participant.

Figure 1: Encounter with a Destructive Leader



After removing those participants who stated that they did not encounter a destructive leader (47 participants) and those who stated they were not sure (22 participants), the study analysis revealed that 147 out of 216 (68%) of the participants encountered a leader who is considered destructive. Please refer to Figure 1.

Destructive Leadership and Demographics

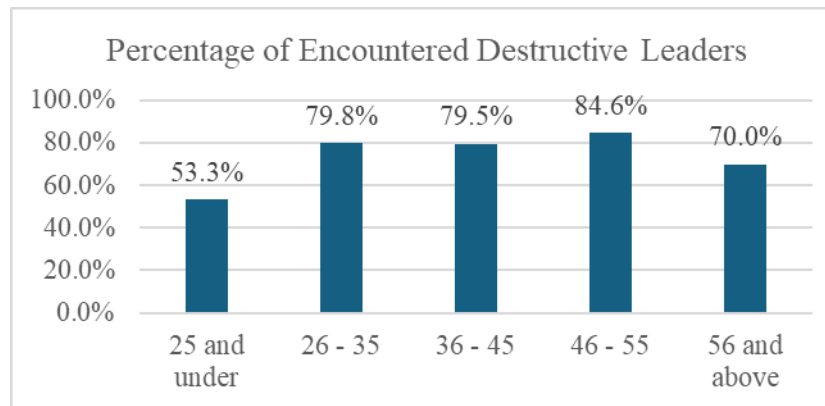
Based on the provided data regarding the encounter with a destructive leader connected to the provided demographics in Table 1, the study utilized the contingency analysis of independence to statistically test and determine if two categorical variables are related. Accordingly, such tests help analyze the encounter of destructive leaders as related to the demographics, including management rank, gender, age, length of work experience within the same organization, the number of employees, and the type of organization.

Based on the analysis, a significant finding of the study is that the encounter with a destructive leader is significantly associated with age. Pearson's Chi-squared test shows that

there was a significant association between encountering a destructive leader and age at the 5% significance level. $X^2(8, N = 216) = 22.68, p = 0.004$.

Figure 2 shows a reverse U-curve shape that summarizes the relationship between the various study age groups and the destructive leadership encountered. The same figure suggests that the percentage of participants who encountered destructive leaders increases with age until age 56. After the age of fifty-six, the chance of encountering destructive leadership is reduced. The study did not show any significant analysis with other demographics other than age.

Figure 2: Age and Destructive Leadership



It is important to note that the characteristics of the study sample, which is composed of professional respondents where many were exposed to foreign cultures, possibly foreign business leaders, and/or work for global organizations, could have impacted the results where they can have less tolerance to a destructive leader and a high-power distance culture. Employees and managers who frequently travel abroad on business and/or encounter foreign business leaders might be facing cultural differences that alter their beliefs and expectations of their leaders.

On the other hand, it is possible that older employees “above 56” might be more tolerant of the unequal distribution, as some of them might be serving in some leadership positions and are becoming a part of this cultural imbalance. According to the above finding, future research studying age and organizational positions might shed light on the interplay between these relationships.

Characteristics of a Destructive Leader as Perceived by the Followers

Figure 3 shows the respondents' rating of destructive leaders based on the 11-item leader's behavior provided in Table 2. In addition, Figure 3 shows the rating of the destructive behavior by subordinates.

Autocratic Behavior

Study analysis shows that 172 out of the 216 participants, or 79.6%, agree or strongly agree that a destructive leader behaves in an autocratic way. Please refer to Sub-Figure 3.1. This leadership style is characterized by the desire of the leader to use power and authority in working with others (e.g., concentrated in the leader, whereas authoritarian leadership reflects a domineering style that has negative implications. According to Harms et al. (2018), an autocratic leader is impersonal, dictates the group's activities, is dismissive of feedback, and disregards followers' opinions.

Poor Ethics/Integrity

The above results are consistent with other studies' findings; for example, Van Vught et al. (2004) asserted that an autocratic style could threaten the stability of a group. Similarly, Oh et al. (2023) concluded that this style of leadership negatively impacts an organization's trust, and Luqman et al. (2020) suggested that an autocratic style of leadership demotivates and negatively impacts employee commitment, which results in employee counterproductive work Behavior. Accordingly, it is no surprise that the study respondents rated this style negatively.

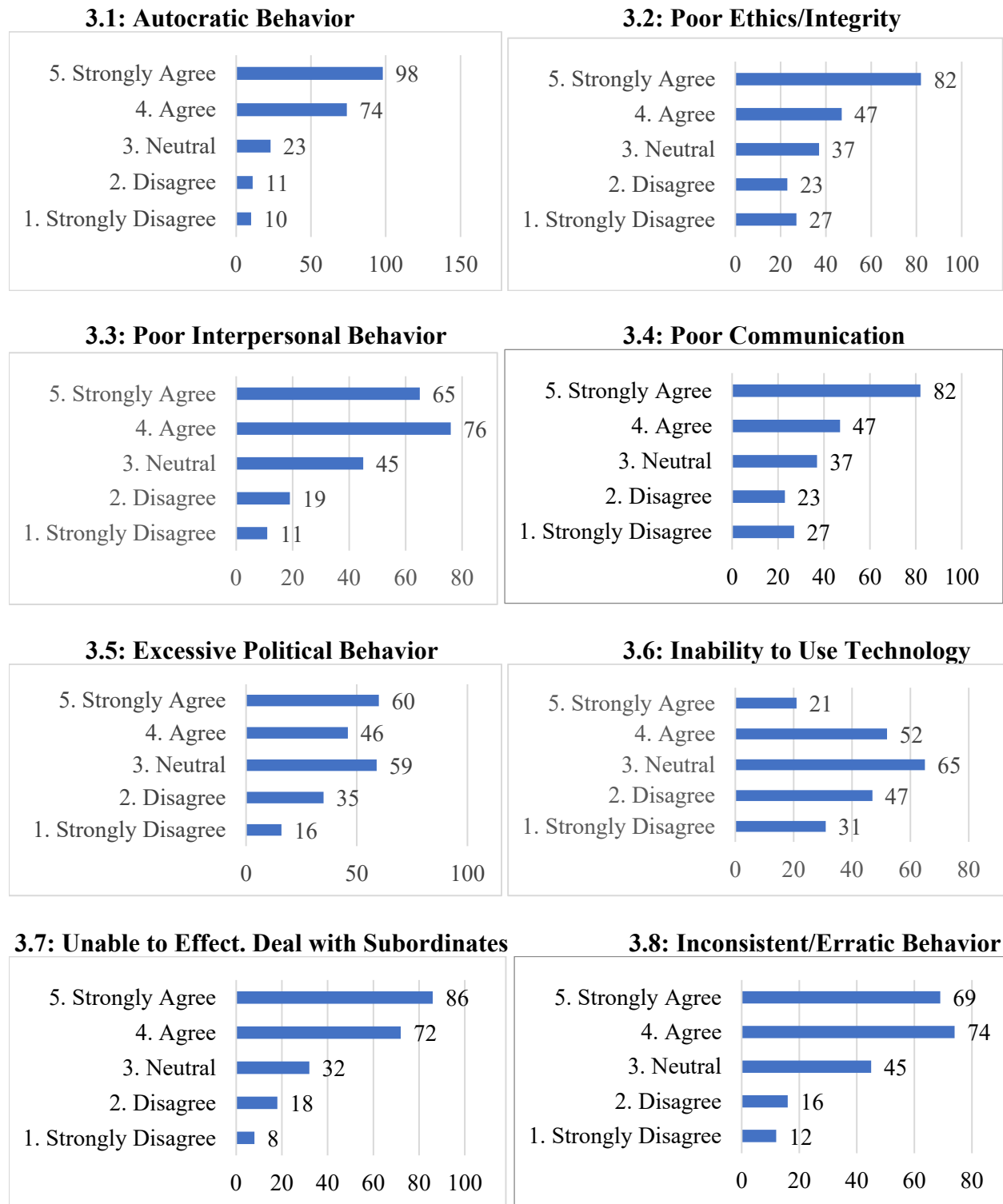
As shown in Sub-Figure 3.2, 129 out of the 216 participants, or about 60%, agree or strongly agree that a destructive leader has poor ethics/integrity. Sajari et al. (2017) posited that ethics and integrity are integral components of good corporate governance. In addition, integrity or ethical behavior is not limited only to corruption or fraudulent behavior; it is also the quality or characteristic of the leadership behavior; it encompasses the leader's moral values, standards, and the rules that are accepted by the organization's members and society as a whole.

This result aligns with other studies that suggested that leaders can influence employees' perceptions of the organization's ethical climate through their ethical leadership behavior (e.g., Demirtas & Akdogan, 2015; Yesiltas, 2017). The absence of this kind of exchange relationship or the presence of poor ethics and integrity by the leader might lead to employees' lack of identification with their organization, which could cause various adverse impacts, including dissatisfaction and the lack of commitment (see also Al-Jabari & Ghazzawi, 2019).

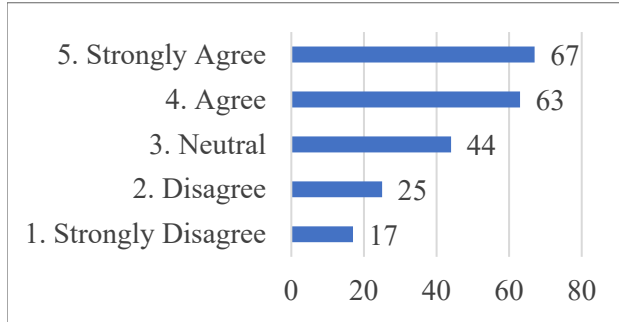
Poor Interpersonal Behavior

It is not surprising that 141 out of the 216 study participants, or about 65%, agree or strongly agree that a destructive leader is someone who has poor interpersonal behavior. This is consistent with the findings of Kessler et al. (2013), which state that poor interpersonal behavior from the leader leads to interpersonal conflict with coworkers and supervisors and to counterproductive work behavior directed toward the organization or other people. Similarly, research studies asserted that destructive leadership can be associated with the personal traits of leaders, which affect the interpersonal and organizational dimensions. This poor interpersonal behavior reflects their personality characteristics (e.g., Aravena, 2019; Kaiser, 2015).

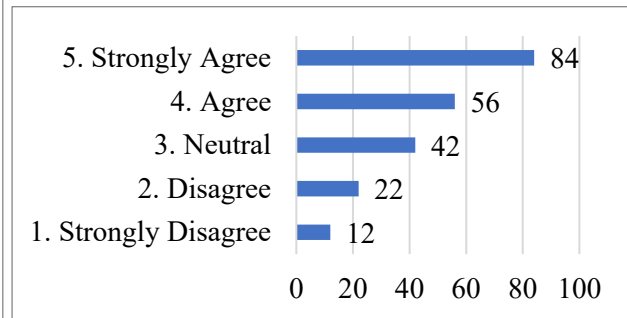
Figure 3: Respondents' Rating of Destructive Leader Characteristics*



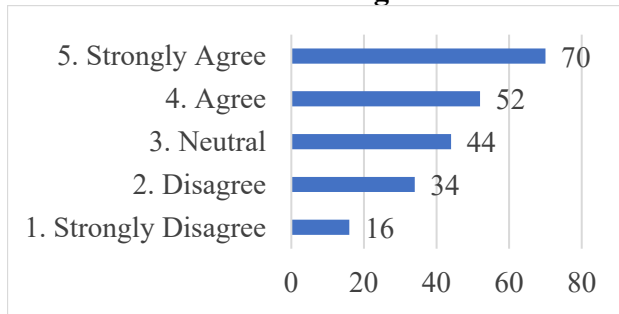
3.9: Poor Personal Behavior



3.10: Micromanagement



3.11: Lack of Strategic Skills



* The numbers in the above figures are the actual numbers of respondents who answered each category. Accordingly, the number of occurrences is the same as the number of respondents.

Poor Communication

129 out of the 216 study participants, or about 60%, agree or strongly agree that a destructive leader is someone who has poor communication. Research studies confirmed that communication is one of the most important determinants of Leadership (e.g., Clements, 2015; Giudici & Filimonau, 2019). According to Arsovski & Nikezić (2012), leaders spend 70-90% of their time communicating.

The lack of effective communication brings about various organizational problems, leading to confusion and failure of various organizational priorities, including planning, goals, and objectives. Leaders' poor communication impacts employees' confidence, negatively impacting performance and productivity (e.g., Dlamini et al., 2022; Kalogiannidis, 2020). It also negatively impacts employees' motivation and satisfaction (e.g., Rajhans, 2012; Saputra, 2021). In addition to the consequences of leadership, poor communication, as evidenced by research, is the possibility of turnover intention and turnover (e.g., Efobi, 2022; Hayes et al., 2006; Nwagbara, 2013).

Excessive Political Behavior

Excessive political behavior creates a negative image in the employees' eyes and minds, as evidenced through research (e.g., Iqbal, 2016). Political behaviors shift employees' focus from work activities to non-work behaviors. Political behaviors have been defined through two approaches: means and ends. While the means approach defines organizational politics as action(s) taken through sanctioned or not sanctioned by someone and constitutes assertiveness, rationality, exchange of benefits, blocking, coalition, and ingratiation, the end approach of organizational politics takes into account those actions that are self-serving and against the interest of the organization (Iqbal, 2017). These self-serving actions lead to dissatisfaction and deviant organizational behavior (e.g., Hussain, 2020).

In this study, 106 out of the 216 study participants, or about 49%, agree or strongly agree that a destructive leader is someone who practices excessive political behavior. Chang et al. (2009) suggested that a positive relationship exists between perceived organizational politics and other constructs such as strain, turnover intentions, job satisfaction, affective commitment, task performance, and organizational citizenship behaviors. The same study concluded that work attitudes mediated the effects of perceived politics on employee turnover intentions. Similarly, De Clercq and Belausteguigoitia (2017) suggested that organizational politics negatively affect the individual and the organization as it might reduce employees' engagement in organizational citizenship behavior.

Inability to Use Technology

Unsurprisingly, only seventy-three out of the 216 study participants, or about 34%, agree or strongly agree that a destructive leader cannot use technology. Research investigating leadership and the ability to use technology concluded that the leader's inability to access technological knowledge is not a predictor of leadership competency (e.g., Gençer & Samur, 2016). However, the use of technology will help create and identify knowledge (e.g., Kumar, 2014).

Good leadership requires technical/applied knowledge and expertise in the field, as opposed to technological knowledge, unless technology is the focus of this applied knowledge. Regardless, literature did not support a positive relationship between the inability to use technology and destructive leadership.

Unable to Effectively Deal with Subordinates

As dealing with subordinates is a key leadership function, study results confirmed that 158 out of the 216 study participants, or about 73%, agree or strongly agree that a destructive leader is someone unable to deal with subordinates effectively. McCartney & Campbell (2006) suggested that a failed leader is someone who is not able to deal with subordinates and build a team due to poor selection of team members; she/he is unable to mold the members into a team and cannot enact paradoxical skill sets to deal with various organizational issues. Alvesson &

Sveningsson (2003) asserted that the inability to deal with subordinates' results in subordinates avoiding communicating problems with the leader, and they are inclined to deal with their leader.

Inconsistent/Erratic Behavior

This characteristic is synonymous with a leader's unpredictable or illogical behavior (e.g., Souba & Souba, 2018). Behaviors include but are not limited to changing priorities, unclear expectations, reactive management style through putting out fires as opposed to making rational decisions, and being overly critical and short-tempered, which might create uncertainty for employees (e.g., Hogan et al., 2011; Kotter, 1999). It is not surprising that 66%, or 143 out of the 216 study participants, agree or strongly agree that a destructive leader is someone with inconsistent/erratic behavior, as this behavior is typical among destructive leaders.

Poor Personal Behavior

Poor personal behavior can be associated with the personal traits of leaders, which adversely affect interpersonal relationships and organization. In this study, 130 out of the 216 study participants, or about 60%, agree or strongly agree that a destructive leader is someone with poor personal behavior. Behaviors such as being unprofessional, arrogant, inconsistent in their actions, and engaging in negative gossip behavior about others (e.g., De Clercq, 2021) along with bullying and having a bad attitude (e.g., Dellasega, 2020), excessive control and abuse of power (e.g., Aravena, 2019) are a few examples of such poor personal behavior by leaders that negatively impact employee motivation and job satisfaction.

Micromanagement

140 out of the 216 study participants, or about 65%, agree or strongly agree that a destructive leader is someone with a micromanagement style. Micromanagement is a toxic management style where the leader "manager" oversees the most minor details of the work. Employees are subjected to a strict managerial/operational process where their thoughts, feelings, and actions are closely scrutinized, which impacts their integrity and self-confidence. It also results in uncertainty and negatively impacts performance (e.g., Allcorn, 2024; Ghazzawi, 2023).

Lack of Strategic Skills

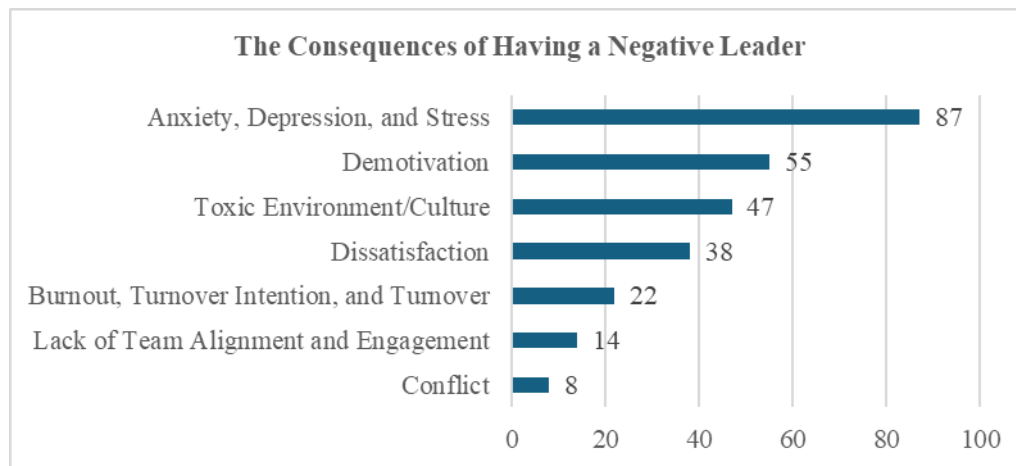
122 out of the 216 study participants, or about 56%, agree or strongly agree that a destructive leader lacks Strategic skills. Aravena (2019) concluded that poor strategic skills contribute to the subordinate's perception of destructive leadership behavior. The organizational factors that hinder the effectiveness of the leader include but are not limited to the lack of planning and control, lack of synergy between performance and goals, lack of cognitive complexity, the lack of problem-solving ability, the lack of higher cognitive capacities, and the lack of intellectual capacities (e.g., Mumford et al., 2007).

The Consequences of Destructive Leadership

Figure 4 presents the frequency of terms associated with the consequences of destructive leadership, derived from an analysis of responses from 216 participants. To provide a clearer understanding of recurring themes, related terms were grouped. For instance, mentions of "anxiety," "stress," and "depression" were consolidated into a single category to reflect their combined frequency.

It is important to note that the values in the chart represent the total number of mentions in the dataset, meaning that a single participant may have referenced the same consequence multiple times. The discussion in this study focuses on the most frequently mentioned consequences, as identified through the text-mining analysis.

Figure 4: Consequences of Destructive Leadership



Anxiety, Depression, and Stress

Among the most frequently mentioned consequences, anxiety, depression, and stress appeared eighty-seven times in participant responses. These issues often arise from a range of factors, from subtle behaviors like unjustified reprimands by a leader to more pervasive ones. Bullying from the leader or work overload are just examples leading to these factors (Jacobs, 2019). Similarly, Pyc (2017) concluded that negative employee outcomes, anxiety, and depression are linked to negative supervisors.

The prevalence of these terms suggests that destructive leadership poses a critical risk to psychological well-being. Organizations should prioritize mental health interventions and supportive leadership training to mitigate these adverse effects.

Demotivation

The theme of demotivation appeared fifty-five times in the dataset, emphasizing its significance because of destructive leadership. According to Musah (2023), “*Effective leadership and a well-motivated workforce can never be downplayed if an organization must meet its set goals*” (183). Destructive leadership disrupts motivation, leading to reduced commitment, engagement, energy, and innovation (e.g., Al-Jabari & Ghazzawi, 2019; Musah, 2023).

In a study relevant to design management and projects, Oyedele (2013) concluded that the underlying demotivation is a result of seven factors that include: (1) organizational injustice, (2) project-induced stress, (3) dysfunctional design team, (4) poor interpersonal relationships, (5) perceived career decline, (6) negative leadership behaviors, and (7) poor organizational culture.

This study’s findings align with Oyedele’s conclusions, reinforcing that destructive leadership exacerbates multiple demotivating factors, eroding workplace productivity and employee engagement. Addressing this issue requires leadership strategies that promote fairness, recognition, and a supportive organizational culture.

Toxic Environment

The term "toxic environment" appeared forty-seven times across participant responses, making it one of destructive leadership's most frequently mentioned consequences. This aligns with research by Padilla et al. (2007), which describes a toxic environment as characterized by four factors: (1) an unstable working environment might lead to apathy, disengagement, and unilateral decision-making; (2) perceived imminent threat. This is a natural consequence of a toxic environment, as employees are unaware of the future, (3) cultural values. The absence of a culture that emphasizes cooperation, group loyalty, identity, and solidarity leads to dysfunction and conflict, and (4) the absence of checks and balances and institutionalization.

According to Finkelstein and Hambrick (1990), managers and leaders should be free to an extent from institutional constraints and need discretion to do their Jobs. However, this freedom allows destructive leaders to abuse their power (see also Padilla et al., 2007). To counteract these effects, leaders must foster workplace positivity and create a positive environment.

Job Dissatisfaction

The theme of "job dissatisfaction" appeared thirty-eight times in the dataset. This finding aligns with research by Qian et al. (2017), who concluded that abusive supervision was positively related to job dissatisfaction.

The lack of job satisfaction creates a negative attitude toward the job and the organization, reducing employee commitment (e.g., George & Jones, 2012; Ghazzawi, 2023). Similarly, De Clercq et al. (2019) asserted that subordinates who interact with an abusive leader are more likely to be unhappy and experience dissatisfaction with their jobs. Such dissatisfaction leads to a lower propensity for undertaking voluntary efforts to assist others in their organization.

Burnout, Turnover Intention, and Turnover

Mentions of "burnout," "turnover intention," and "turnover" collectively appeared twenty-two times in the dataset. This suggests that these consequences remain significant, although less frequent than other themes.

According to Ghazzawi (2023), when subordinates deal with a superior/leader who is not compassionate or supportive, their emotional dissonance is a more significant source of stress. The consequences of prolonged burnout might lead to mental and physical health issues. Physical health issues include high blood pressure, heart disease, and respiratory problems, among others.

These health-related consequences might also lead to turnover intention and turnover. Turnover intention is defined as the cognitive precursor of exiting behavior from an organization; turnover is the voluntary act/behavior of someone exiting the organization (e.g., Coomber & Barriball, 2007; George & Jones, 2012; Ghazzawi, 2023).

Lack of Team Alignment and Engagement

Mentions of "lack of team alignment and engagement" were recorded fourteen times in the data. While less frequently mentioned, this theme reflects the broader impact of destructive leadership on organizational cohesion. Employees' alignment and engagement with their organization, and therefore performance, have always been related to their identification with their leader or organization (e.g., Yesiltas, 2017).

Destructive leadership contributes to this misalignment or disengagement because of the lack of trust, communication, and low morale exist in this organizational culture. As trust is most meaningful in situations where one part, i.e., the employee, is at risk or vulnerable to another party, the employer becomes critical in relationships between leaders and followers. Followers lacking trust in their leader tend to be less aligned and less engaged (e.g., Bligh, 2017).

Similarly, the lack of communication between the leaders and followers creates a sense of disintegration. A Good leader must build and maintain positive relationships, facilitate positive communications, and inject a sense of purpose and meaning in the members' tasks, so engagement and alignment are the foundation of the relationship (e.g., Ghazzawi, 2023; Komives et al., 2013).

The lack of trust, communication, and other underlying organizational factors contribute to followers' low morale. Komives et al. (2013) suggested that a leader who projects negative energies reduces people's morale level and brings about unneeded distractions and drama, which naturally leads to a lack of alignment and engagement on the part of the followers.

Conflict

The theme of "conflict" appeared only eight times in the dataset, making it the least frequently mentioned consequence of destructive leadership. While existing research has extensively examined conflict management styles at the individual and small group level (e.g.,

Saeed et al., 2014) or on the task conflict and emotional conflict (e.g., Xin & Pilled 2003) or specific leadership style and conflict resolution (e.g., Jit et al., 2016), there is a lack of research that focuses on the conflict as a consequence of having a destructive leader. A study of destructive leadership on followers' conflict might be a suggested future study.

CONCLUSION

The dark side of leadership in Brazil has often been lamented in the literature and has been subjected to limited scholarly inquiry. This study is among the first empirical studies to explore this dark side of organizational leadership in Brazil, focusing on its perception, causes, and consequences.

What is clear from this study is that 68% of the participants encountered a leader who is considered destructive. A significant finding of the study is that the encounter with a destructive leader is significantly associated with age, as study results showed a reverse U-curve, suggesting that the percentage of participants who encountered destructive leaders increases until age 56. After the age of fifty-six, the chance of encountering destructive leadership is reduced. Other than age, the study did not show any significant analysis with other demographics.

As to how people described a destructive leader, 79.6% of the study participants believed that a destructive leader behaves in an autocratic way, 60% stated poor ethics/integrity, 65% suggested poor interpersonal behavior, 60% suggested poor communication, 49% suggested the practicing of excessive political behavior, 34% believed the lacks the use of Technology, 73% suggested said pattern of leadership cannot effectively deal with subordinates, 66% believed this leader is someone with inconsistent/erratic behavior, 60% stated poor personal behavior, 65% describe this behavior is connected to micromanagement style, and 56% suggested the lack of Strategic skills when commenting on the leader's destructive behavior.

Regarding the consequences of destructive leadership behavior, the dataset revealed frequent mentions of anxiety, depression, and stress, with these themes appearing eighty-seven times. Demotivation was another significant consequence, mentioned fifty-five times, followed by toxic environments, which were cited forty-seven times. Job dissatisfaction was experienced thirty-eight times, while burnout, turnover intention, and turnover collectively appeared twenty-two times. Less frequently mentioned were the lack of alignment and engagement (14 mentions) and conflict (8 mentions), suggesting these themes, while present, were less prominent in the responses. These results emphasize destructive leadership's widespread and multifaceted impact on employees and workplace dynamics.

MANAGERIAL AND PRACTICAL IMPLICATIONS

As this study clearly shows, leadership is a complex entity. Therefore, effective leadership is needed for employee motivation, well-being, satisfaction, empowerment, and sustainable organizational growth. The presence of ineffective/destructive leadership leads to anxiety, depression, stress, demotivation, the creation of a toxic environment, employee-job dissatisfaction, burnout, turnover intention and turnover, and misalignment, disengagement, and conflict.

Accordingly, the study findings have important implications for organizational leaders and academics. They could help foster effective leadership that benefits employees and avoid destructive leadership behavior. Current research focuses on the need for a more proactive approach to identifying leadership competencies and developing effective organizational leaders.

Therefore, the study findings have important implications for organizational leaders and academics who identify leaders who have a positive impact on their subordinates and minimize the existence of destructive leaders in an organization; these implications include the following:

- (1) **Rigorous Interviews:** These interviews are needed for managerial and leadership positions that not only assesses technical skills (i.e., the specialized/relevant job knowledge and skills required to perform the job), but also leadership ability, potential, and ethical character. These interviews could utilize special techniques such as scenarios, meaning structured interviews/situational behavior types of interviews requesting that simulate a potential situation the interviewee might face and the behavioral reaction to these specific situations (e.g., Heimann et al., 2020; Randall, 2006). Additionally, if an internal job interview is conducted, this method ensures the promotion of positive role models.
- (2) **Reference Check:** While a thorough reference checking of potential applicants for leading positions confirm that submitted information on resumes and employment applications, such as employment dates, titles, duties, and other information, is also helpful in predicting performance, leadership behavior, and potential. A thorough check will help identify positive applicants and the possibility of weeding out negative ones.
- (3) **Provide Leadership Development:** To cultivate leadership qualities, leadership development is continuously needed for all sorts of positions in the organization. Such training and development should focus on positive styles of leadership, ethical decision-making, empowerment, and a leader's emotional intelligence, among other things that are needed by the organization.
- (4) **The Creation of an Open Culture:** An Open Culture encourages subordinates to provide honest feedback to the leader directly or through anonymous organizational-supported methods and/or open communication channels. This open culture ensures that organizational values and principles are reinforced.
- (5) **Ensure Consequences for Destructive Leadership Behaviors:** A final implication is for the organization to act when a leader or a manager exhibits destructive behavior by quickly taking disciplinary action against the person. Doing so reinforces organizational values and reassures the organization's positive/ethical culture, as action is more powerful than words.

LIMITATIONS AND DIRECTIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

The current study attempts to contribute to the literature on the dark side of leadership, but it has several limitations, and subsequently, the study conclusions are made with caution.

One limitation of the study might be a respondent bias, based on the belief that some study participants might not be able to assess the questions objectively and thoroughly before responding. Therefore, the study results could have been overstated.

Another study limitation is its generalizability since its sample resided in Brazil, i.e., South America, because of this geographical and, in turn, cultural limitation, comparative future research in various countries in South America and other geographical regions is needed to enhance the generalizability of the results and allow for future meta-analyses.

A third and final limitation of the study is related to its use of a convenient sample of 216 managers who participated in executive certificate programs in strategic management or project management. Based on this fact, the current study can make no claims to the representations or generalizability of its results, as other research studies with a larger and random demographic sample in Brazil might produce different results.

Future research using a quantitative approach may empirically test the factors influencing the likelihood of encountering destructive leadership. Demographic factors (e.g., management rank, gender, age, organization type, number of employees, and years on the job) may predict exposure to destructive leaders. In addition, individuals' perceptions of destructive leadership behaviors may shape their likelihood of identifying such leaders.

A logistic regression model can be applied, with the log odds of encountering destructive leadership as the dependent variable and demographics and perceived leader behaviors as independent variables. A survey-based study across diverse organizations would provide insights into how individual and contextual factors influence destructive leadership experiences.

To strengthen validity, longitudinal designs could track whether perceptions of destructive leadership change over time. Additionally, multi-source data collection incorporating self-reports, peer evaluations, and organizational assessments would reduce common method bias and enhance reliability.

Future research would benefit from comparative studies and semi-structured interviews with focus groups of employees, managers, and leaders to further enhance the depth of understanding. These qualitative approaches could provide contextual insights into how destructive leadership manifests across different organizational settings.

In addition, while people over fifty-six showed more tolerance to destructive types of leadership, future research where age, organization position, and gender are the dependent variables could provide a better clue to such a relationship.

Future research could also explore cross-cultural comparisons of leadership and effectiveness, examining how nationality influences perceptions and outcomes. Comparing results between countries like Brazil and the USA or Brazil and other Latin American nations would be particularly valuable. Such studies could illuminate culturally specific leadership behaviors and inform the best practices for managing diverse teams within multinational corporations operating in these regions. Understanding these nuances would be crucial for optimizing international leadership development programs and maximizing organizational performance in global contexts, especially for transnational organizations.

Finally, given that only a few participants cited inter-organizational conflict, future studies should explore whether distinct types of leadership behaviors lead to inter-organizational

conflict. By integrating these methodological approaches, future research can clarify how personal, organizational, and contextual factors contribute to the perception and prevalence of destructive leadership.

Despite these limitations, the study results do, however, provide important findings and valuable contributions to the ongoing research and literature on the dark side of leadership.

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