5-14-2021

Exploring the Collision of Instructional Leadership and Destructive Leadership

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ACCEPTANCE

This dissertation, EXPLORING THE COLLISION OF INSTRUCTIONAL LEADERSHIP AND DESTRUCTIVE LEADERSHIP, by AMANDA B. MERRITT, was prepared under the direction of the candidate's Dissertation Advisory Committee. It is accepted by the committee members in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree, Doctor of Education, in the College of Education and Human Development, Georgia State University.

The Dissertation Advisory Committee and the student's Department Chairperson, as representatives of the faculty, certify this dissertation has met all the standards of excellence and scholarship as determined by the faculty. The Dean of the College of Education and Human Development concurs.

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EXPLORING THE COLLISION OF INSTRUCTIONAL LEADERSHIP AND DESTRUCTIVE LEADERSHIP

by

AMANDA B. MERRITT

Under the Direction of Dr. Yinying Wang

ABSTRACT

Purpose: The purpose of this study was to examine the extent to which principals who exhibit destructive leadership behaviors also exhibit instructional leadership behaviors as perceived by teachers. This study focused on two research questions: a) To what extent do principals who exhibit destructive leadership behaviors also exhibit instructional leadership behaviors? b) Which instructional leadership behaviors are more common in principals who also exhibit destructive leadership behaviors?

Theoretical framework: This study was theoretically grounded in instructional leadership and destructive leadership. Instructional leadership involves establishing school goals; managing curriculum, instruction, and assessment; developing systems of accountability; and promoting a positive school climate. Destructive leadership involves abusive supervision, bullying, narcissism, laissez faire leadership, and toxic leadership.

Methods: In this quantitative study, 163 current K-12 public school teachers in the U.S. completed an online survey that included 25 items to measure principals' destructive leadership

and 20 items to measure instructional leadership. Data analysis included a correlational analysis to determine correlations between the dimensions of instructional leadership and the dimensions of destructive leadership and an analysis of variance to determine which dimensions of instructional leadership occur more often in principals who exhibit destructive leadership behaviors.

Results: A negative correlation was found between destructive leadership and instructional leadership. The strongest correlation was between promoting a positive school climate and laissez faire leadership, and the weakest correlation was between developing systems of accountability and abusive supervision. Although a comparative analysis of frequencies by dimensions revealed a principal could display instructional and destructive leadership simultaneously, it was counterproductive for instructional leaders to exercise destructive leadership.

Implications: This study for the first time investigated what instructional leadership should not include. Theoretically, the findings draw attention to the co-existence of destructive leadership and instructional leadership. This study also has implications for practitioners and policymakers. By better understanding the difference between destructive and instructional leadership and the extent to which principals can display both types of behaviors, they can help reduce the incidence of teachers' exposure to destructive leadership behaviors. This could decrease teachers' stress, increase their job satisfaction, and decrease teacher turnover.

INDEX WORDS: destructive leadership, instructional leadership, abusive supervision, bullying, narcissism, toxic leadership, laissez faire leadership, school goals, instruction, school climate, accountability

EXPLORING THE COLLISION OF INSTRUCTIONAL LEADERSHIP AND DESTRUCTIVE LEADERSHIP

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AMANDA B. MERRITT

A Dissertation

Presented in Partial Fulfillment of Requirements for the

Degree of

Doctor of Education

in

Educational Leadership

in

Educational Policy Studies

in

the College of Education and Human Development

Georgia State University

Atlanta, GA

2021

DEDICATION

This dissertation is dedicated to my husband and two children. The last three years have been a family effort.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I could not have persevered through this experience without the support, encouragement, and love of my family. My husband, Curtis, urged me to begin this program, not knowing where it would lead. He believed God had a plan and this was the right next step. He has encouraged me along the way, reminding me of our goals and the importance of this work. My children, Ginny and Bo, have been my source of laughter and joy when I needed a break. I pray I have been a good example of patience and perseverance through this season. I also must acknowledge my parents, who have always encouraged my independence and curiosity. My dad paved this road for me, providing an example of hard work and servant leadership for which I will always be grateful.

The professors of the Educational Policy Studies Department in the College of Education and Human Development at Georgia State University have been a tremendous source of knowledge, encouragement, and professionalism. I appreciate the high quality instruction and thought-provoking courses I experienced through this program. My dissertation committee, chaired by Dr. Yinying Wang, encouraged me to explore a topic for my study that often makes people uncomfortable but would add to the body of knowledge. Their guidance and support were invaluable.

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1 A REVIEW OF THE DIMENSIONS OF INSTRUCTIONAL LEADERSHIP AND DESTRUCTIVE LEADERSHIP

Many school and district leaders receive training on how to be instructional leaders. Some states include *instructional leadership* in the title of their educational leadership standards (e.g., the Alabama Standards for Instructional Leaders). The most recent nationally recognized leadership standards (i.e., the 2015 Professional Standards for Educational Leaders) include the core components of instructional leadership described by Hallinger and Murphy (1985) – define the school mission, manage instruction, and promote a school climate. Instructional leaders also create and monitor accountability systems (Akram et al., 2017; Hallinger, 2011a; Hallinger & Murphy, 1985; Porter et al., 2008) provide feedback to teachers on curriculum and instructional practices (Akram et al., 2017; Hayes & Irby, 2020; Urick et al., 2018); and provide teachers professional development (Akram et al., 2017; Hallinger, 2011a; Hallinger, 2011b; Hallinger & Murphy, 1985, Hallinger et al., 2013; Hayes & Irby, 2020).

Principals' instructional leadership behaviors can have positive influences on teachers, students, and the school community. Teachers report an increase in efficacy when they believe principals are instructional leaders (Fackler & Malmberg, 2016; Ma & Marion, 2019; Nelson, 2008; Zheng et al., 2019). Principals' instructional leadership behaviors can also lead to improved school climate (Bellibas & Liu, 2016; Gawlik, 2018; Hallinger & Murphy, 1985; Hallinger et al., 2013; Hattie, 2009; Parlar, & Cansoy, 2017). School climate is positively related to whether teachers trust principals (Ma & Marion, 2019). Empirical evidence also indicates improving school climate can lead to improved student achievement (Sebastian & Allensworth, 2019).

Though principals are encouraged to act as instructional leaders to improve teachers' efficacy (Fackler & Malmberg, 2016; Nelson, 2008) and the climate and culture of their school (Gawlik, 2018; Hallinger & Murphy, 1985; Hallinger et al., 2013; Hattie, 2009; Parlar & Cansoy, 2017), principals can exhibit destructive leadership behaviors such as toxic leadership (Aravena, 2019), bullying (de Wet, 2014; Klein & Bentolila, 2019; Woestman & Wasonga, 2015), and abusive supervision (Aravena, 2019; Blasé & Blasé, 2002; Blasé et al., 2008; Woestman & Wasonga, 2015). By the nature of their jobs, principals are in positions of power in their schools. Those with power can display destructive leadership behaviors such as narcissism (Mead et al., 2018) and abusive supervision (Lian et al., 2012; Zhang & Badnall, 2016).

Destructive leadership can have harmful effects on employees and the organizational health of a school or company. Subordinates can experience decreased job satisfaction (Barnes & Spangenburg, 2018; Cemaloglu, 2011; Çoğaltay et al., 2016; Hauge et al., 2007; Schyns & Schilling, 2013; Woestman & Wasonga, 2015), increased job stress (Einarsen et al., 2003; Hauge et al., 2007; Schmidt, 2008; Woestman & Wasonga; 2015), and decreased innovation (Hou, 2017). Destructive leadership can also negatively impact employees as a collective. As team members experience destructive leadership behaviors of a supervisor, they can develop common negative emotional behaviors such as anger, finger pointing, and complaining attitudes (Hou, 2017). The harmful effects of destructive leadership can impact not only teachers and the school community, but it can also negatively impact teachers' families (e.g., increase in family conflict; Blasé et al., 2008).

Little to no research exists that examines the overlap of instructional leadership and destructive leadership though principals' positions make it possible for them to exhibit these

behaviors simultaneously. Knowledge of the extent of this overlap can help policymakers and practitioners reduce the incidence of teachers' exposure to destructive leadership behaviors.

Research Questions

The purpose of this study was to examine the extent to which principals who exhibit destructive leadership behaviors also exhibit instructional leadership behaviors as perceived by teachers. This study focused on two research questions.

1. To what extent do principals who exhibit destructive leadership behaviors also exhibit instructional leadership behaviors?
2. Which instructional leadership behaviors are more common in principals who also exhibit destructive leadership behaviors?

Theoretical Framework

The theoretical framework for this study included two theories that are arguably contradictory – instructional leadership and destructive leadership. This study examined the extent to which these theories can overlap. I chose these theories to comprise my theoretical framework because they are at the core of the problem I wanted to study. This study required an understanding of the dimensions of instructional and destructive leadership before I could explore the potential overlap of the constructs regarding principals' behaviors.

I used the following definition for instructional leadership, which includes components supported by multiple researchers: principals who act as instructional leaders (a) establish school goals with student learning as the focus, (b) ensure teachers use high quality curriculum, instruction, and assessment, (c) promote a positive school climate for students and staff, and (d) develop systems of accountability that put student learning at the center of decision making. Table 1 shows the research that supports the components of this definition.

Table 1

Research Supports for Instructional Leadership

Component of Instructional Leadership	Research
Establish school goals with student learning as the focus	Hallinger (2011a); Hallinger & Murphy (1985); Hattie (2009); Ma & Marion (2019); Urick et al. (2018)
Ensure teachers use of high-quality curriculum, instruction, and assessment	Hallinger (2011a); Hallinger & Murphy (1985); Hayes & Irby (2020); Ma & Marion (2019)
Promote a positive school climate for students and staff	Hallinger (2011a); Hallinger & Murphy (1985); Hattie (2009); Leithwood et al. (2006); Ma & Marion (2019)
Develop systems of accountability that puts student learning at the center of decision making (i.e., monitors student progress)	Akram et al. (2017); Hallinger (2011a); Hallinger & Murphy (1985); Porter et al. (2008)

For my definition of destructive leadership, I used Einarsen's et al. (2007) definition: destructive leadership is "the systematic and repeated behaviour by a leader, supervisor or manager that violates the legitimate interest of the organisation by undermining and/or sabotaging the organisation's goals, tasks, resources, and effectiveness and/or the motivation, well-being, or job satisfaction of subordinates" (p. 208). I chose this definition as it addressed the impact of destructive leadership on subordinates as well as on the organization. It also aligns with the definition used by Shaw et al. in their 2011 study, which used the Destructive Leadership Questionnaire (DLQ) to assess followers' perceptions of their leaders' behaviors. Shaw's et al. definition states destructive leadership is "a systematic and repeated set of behaviours by a leader that have a significant negative (i.e., destructive) impact on organizational and/or employee outcomes" (p. 576).

Literature Review

Most empirical literature about leadership focuses on constructive leadership behaviors (e.g., instructional leadership, transformational leadership) rather than destructive leadership behaviors. Evaluations of K-12 school leaders, such as Georgia's Leader Keys Effectiveness System (LKES), encompass these constructive behaviors. National leadership organizations include in their practitioner journals strategies for being an effective, positive leader (e.g., ASCD's March 2019 issue of *Educational Leadership* titled "The Power of Instructional Leadership").

Researchers have paid less attention to destructive leadership behaviors (e.g., abusive supervision, bullying, and toxic leadership) in K-12 schools. Though school principals are encouraged to be constructive leaders as a best practice, they are in positions of power as leaders. Leaders can exhibit destructive leadership behaviors (Blasé et al., 2008; Burns, 2017; Klein & Bentolila, 2019; Krasikova et al., 2013; Schyns & Schilling, 2013; Shaw et al., 2011).

Though a large amount of literature exists that focuses on instructional leadership, a substantial amount less exists that explores destructive leadership in K-12 schools. There is little, if any, that examines an overlap of the two theories. A review of the extant literature is necessary before an overlap of the constructs can be considered.

Instructional Leadership

Decades of research indicates principals who act as instructional leaders can improve teaching and learning (Hallinger, 2011a, 2011b; Hallinger & Murphy, 1985; Hattie, 2009; Horng & Loeb, 2010; Leithwood et al., 2006; Marzano et al., 2005). Some researchers focused on small samples while others conducted reviews of multiple meta-analyses. Researchers have identified similar characteristics and actions of instructional leaders, though they have focused

on different aspects. It is evident, however, that instructional leadership is a theory that has become firmly engrained in K-12 educational practices (Hallinger, 2011b).

In 1985, Hallinger and Murphy conducted a study to describe the instructional management behaviors of 10 elementary school principals. The researchers collected data through questionnaires and a review of artifacts (e.g., supervisory assessments based on observations, principal newsletters). The results of the study indicated principals are more involved in managing curriculum and instruction than other research had previously indicated. The researchers also identified three main actions of principals who are instructional leaders: (a) define the school mission, (b) manage the instructional program, and (c) develop the school learning climate program.

Horng and Loeb (2010) expanded the definition of instructional leadership beyond a principal's role in ensuring quality curriculum and instruction in the classroom to include effective organizational management. The researchers conducted multiple studies that included comprehensive interviews of principals, observations, and surveys of principals, assistant principals, and teachers. The results indicated (a) schools with higher growth in student achievement had principals who were strong organizational managers and (b) effective organizational managers were strategic in how they supported and retained good teachers and either developed or removed poor ones.

Other researchers have argued for different dimensions of instructional leadership. After an analysis of decades of literature, Akram et al. (2017) asserted principals' instructional leadership has seven dimensions: providing instructional resources, maintaining visibility, providing professional development for staff, maximizing instructional time, monitoring student progress, providing feedback to teachers on their instruction, and managing implementation of

curriculum. Urick et al. (2018) also noted providing feedback to teachers on instruction is an important component of instructional leadership. Porter et al. (2008) argued instructional school leaders focus on instruction and curriculum as well as build connections with external communities and develop systems of accountability. Hayes and Irby (2020) defined instructional leadership as "principals' abilities to build instructional capacity of teachers via a variety of means, such as providing mentors and coaches, offering targeted professional development, and giving constructive feedback from classroom observations" (p. 134).

Reviews of multiple analyses indicated principals who are instructional leaders possess specific characteristics or display certain behaviors. Marzano et al. (2005) conducted a meta-analysis of the research on school leadership covering 35 years to provide both a global look at the data into school leadership as well as practical advice for school leaders. The meta-analysis revealed 21 specific behaviors of principal leadership, or *responsibilities*. Each of these 21 responsibilities appear in other research on principal leadership, but the meta-analysis conducted by Marzano et al. showed a statistically significant relationship between the responsibilities and student achievement. Principals who seek to implement second-order change initiatives that result in a paradigm shift for teachers need seven of the 21 responsibilities, including knowledge of curriculum, instruction, and assessment (Marzano et al., 2005). Thus, they must act as instructional leaders.

Leithwood et al. (2006) followed up Marzano's et al. (2005) research by conducting another review of the literature around what makes a successful school leader. The researchers listed seven claims evident from their literature review, two of which are "school leadership is second only to classroom teaching as an influence on pupil learning" (p. 3) and "school leaders improve teaching and learning indirectly and most powerfully through their influence on staff

motivation, commitment, and working conditions" (p. 3). Leithwood et al. concluded that school leaders have a responsibility to lead well.

Common Themes. Though many researchers borrow Hallinger and Murphy's (1985) definition of instructional leadership, others have built upon it by adding more dimensions or decomposing the construct by restructuring components of each dimension. A review of the literature indicated four common themes of instructional leadership. Principals who act as instructional leaders (a) establish school goals with student learning as the focus, (b) ensure teachers use high quality curriculum, instruction, and assessment, (c) promote a positive school climate for students and staff, and (d) develop systems of accountability that put student learning at the center of decision making.

Establish school goals with student learning as the focus. Effective instructional leaders establish school goals (Gawlik, 2018; Hallinger, 2011a; Hallinger, 2011b; Hallinger & Murphy, 1985, Hallinger et al., 2013; Ma & Marion, 2018; Porter, 2008; Rigby, 2016; Urick et al., 2018). This dimension of instructional leadership includes establishing a vision for teaching and learning (Rigby, 2016) and communicating school goals with various stakeholders (Hallinger, 2011a; Hallinger, 2011b; Hallinger & Murphy, 1985, Hallinger et al., 2013). Porter et al. (2008) noted having school goals is not enough to constitute an effective school leader – effective school leaders have goals that include high standards and rigorous learning for students.

Ensure teachers use high quality curriculum, instruction, and assessment. High quality curriculum involves "ambitious academic content" (Porter et al., 2008, p. 13) in all core content classes. High quality instruction maximizes student academic learning (Porter et al., 2008). High quality assessment supports student learning and provides meaningful information to teachers and students (National Council of Teachers of Mathematics, 2014). Effective school

leaders ensure every student receives access to high quality curriculum, instruction, and assessment (NPBEA, 2015). They also ensure the alignment of curriculum, instruction, and assessment (Meyers & Nulty, 2009).

Promote a positive school climate for students and staff. A positive school climate involves safety for students and staff (Bellibas & Liu, 2018; Wang & Degol, 2015) and an environment that values teaching and learning (Bellibas & Liu, 2018; Parlar & Cansoy, 2017; Wang & Degol, 2015). Effective school leaders create a culture of collaboration in which teachers share ideas and instructional strategies, develop assignments together, and analyze student work (Porter et al., 2008). Teachers receive support through professional learning opportunities (Hallinger, 2011a; Hallinger, 2011b; Hallinger & Murphy, 1985, Hallinger et al., 2013; Hayes & Irby, 2020) and formative feedback from principals (Akram et al., 2017; Hayes & Irby, 2020; Urick et al., 2018). Principals who act as instructional leaders maintain high visibility and protect instructional time from interruptions (Gurley et al., 2016; Hallinger, 2011a; Hallinger, 2011b; Hallinger & Murphy, 1985, Hallinger et al., 2013).

Develop systems of accountability that put student learning at the center of decision making. Effective instructional leaders promote a sense of individual and collective responsibility for ensuring students meet learning goals (Goddard et al., 2015). They do this through providing time for teachers to analyze student work together, challenging staff members who attribute student failure to others, and advocating for student ownership of learning (Porter et al., 2008). They monitor student progress (Gurley et al., 2016; Hallinger, 2011a; Hallinger, 2011b; Hallinger & Murphy, 1985, Hallinger et al., 2013), using their findings to inform instructional decision making and to provide feedback to students and teachers (Akram et al., 2017; Şişman, 2016).

Impact of Instructional Leadership. In his 2009 book *Visible Learning: A Synthesis of Over 800 Meta-Analyses Relating to Achievement*, Hattie outlined 138 themes that emerged from the literature. From the research he examined on school leadership, he found principals and school leaders have an effect size of $d = .36$, which is four-hundredths of a point away from what Hattie calls the *zone of desired effects*. The meta-analyses he conducted included 491 studies and more than one million people. Many of the studies included a focus on instructional leadership, transformational leadership, or both. Hattie defined instructional leaders as those who "have their major focus on creating a learning climate free of disruption, a system of clear teaching objectives, and high teacher expectations for teachers and students" (p. 83). The research Hattie synthesized indicated instructional leadership behaviors have a greater impact on student achievement than transformational leadership behaviors. Promoting challenging goals, creating a school culture in which teachers are free to question, analyze, and support each other, and focusing on instructional strategies have a greater impact on student achievement than transformational behaviors such as inspiring energy, commitment, and a moral purpose.

Hallinger (2011a) examined 40 years of research on the impact school leaders have on student learning. This research focused on leadership for learning, which incorporates traits of instructional leadership, transformational leadership, and shared leadership. The results of his 2011 analysis indicated the importance of the principal. Hallinger noted principals need the ability to clearly articulate their values and beliefs, cooperate well with others, build capacity in their staff for continuous improvement, and empower others through shared leadership.

With the role of the principal being so important, it is no surprise that educational leaders and researchers espoused the benefits of instructional leadership as a theory and practice for several decades, noting how it enhances teachers' efficacy (Fackler & Malmberg, 2016; Ma &

Marion, 2019; Nelson, 2008; Zheng et al., 2019), positively impacts student achievement (Gaffney & Faragher, 2010; Hattie, 2009; Horng & Loeb, 2010; Maponya, 2020; Marzano et al., 2005), and improves the culture of schools (Bellibas & Liu, 2016; Gawlik, 2018; Hallinger & Murphy, 1985; Hallinger et al., 2013; Hattie, 2009; Parlar & Cansoy, 2017). School principals who act as instructional leaders frame and communicate the school goals with stakeholders, focus on instruction and curriculum, and promote a school climate (Hallinger & Murphy, 1985; Hallinger et al., 2013).

Research also indicates instructional leadership can have a positive impact on student engagement. In her 2008 case study of two elementary schools, Nelson examined how the interactions between teachers and school leaders affect teachers' efficacy and student engagement. She used distributed, transformational, and instructional leadership theories as the framework for the qualitative study. Three themes emerged from the case study – (a) school leaders fostered enthusiasm for the school community, which was represented in teachers' passion; (b) leaders and teachers valued affirming and precise feedback; and (c) leaders and teachers created customized supports for students. The study's findings indicated teachers perceived high self-efficacy due to the positive school culture created by their principals, which increased student engagement.

Most research on instructional leadership indicates teachers' perceptions of principals as instructional leaders often differ from principals' perceptions of themselves, with principals scoring themselves higher than how teachers rate them (Hallinger, 2011b; Hallinger et al, 2013). Hallinger (2011b) argued this trend suggests teachers' perceptions of principal behaviors should be the preferred source of data on principal leadership behaviors rather than principals' self-perceptions. However, Gurley et al. found no significant difference overall in principal and

teacher perceptions in their 2016 study. When they analyzed the results from individual schools, some principals rated themselves higher than their teachers rated them while other principals rated themselves lower than teachers' perceptions did. The authors recommended further study into why some principals rate themselves as more frequently exhibiting instructional leadership behaviors than teachers report and why other teachers and principals report opposite beliefs.

Though most research on instructional leadership indicates the construct positively impacts teachers, students, and the school community, some research reveals there can be a negative side to instructional leadership. Neumerski et al. (2018) examined how multiple-measure teacher evaluation systems impact the role of a school principal. They found that though principals engage in monitoring teachers' instructional practices and providing them feedback, the new evaluation systems (i.e., systems of accountability) created tension between principals and teachers. This negatively impacted the relationships between principals and their teachers.

Destructive Leadership

Though school principals are encouraged to be instructional leaders as a best practice, they are in positions of power as leaders. Leaders can exhibit destructive leadership behaviors (Blasé et al., 2008; Burns, 2017; Krasikova et al., 2013; Schyns & Schilling, 2013; Shaw et al., 2011). Like many constructive leadership theories, such as instructional leadership, destructive leadership does not have a common definition that is agreed upon by researchers. Seeking to develop a definition of destructive leadership, Einarsen et al. (2007) reviewed literature focused on a number of concepts they argued fell within the theory, including *abusive supervisors*, *petty tyrants*, *derailed leaders*, *bullies*, *psychopaths*, and *toxic leaders*. They proposed destructive leadership as "the systematic and repeated behaviour by a leader, supervisor or manager that

violates the legitimate interest of the organisation by undermining and/or sabotaging the organisation's goals, tasks, resources, and effectiveness and/or the motivation, well-being, or job satisfaction of subordinates" (p. 208).

Multiple researchers built upon the work of Einarsen et al. (2007). Shaw et al. (2011) defined the construct as "a systematic and repeated set of behaviours by a leader that have a significant negative (i.e., destructive) impact on organizational and/or employee outcomes" (p. 576). Krasikova et al. (2013) described destructive leadership as

> volitional behavior by a leader that can harm or intends to harm a leader's organization and/or followers by (a) encouraging followers to pursue goals that contravene the legitimate interests of the organization and/or (b) employing a leadership style that involves the use of harmful methods of influence with followers, regardless of the justifications for such behavior. (p. 1310)

This definition extends Einarsen's et al. (2007) view by (a) focusing specifically on leadership behaviors, (b) distinguishing between actions that encourage followers to pursue destructive goals and destructive actions that influence followers, and (c) defining destructive leadership as volitional. Einarsen et al. argued against destructive leadership as an intentional leadership style, stating that what makes leaders destructive has little to do with their intent and more to do with their behaviors.

Thoroughgood et al. (2016) noted previous research defined destructive leadership in terms of the leaders' actions and behaviors and argued for a more balanced definition that considered the characteristics of the followers and organizational outcomes. Calling destructive leadership a social process, they defined the theory as

> a complex process of influence between flawed, toxic, or ineffective leaders, susceptible followers, and conducive environments, which unfolds over time and, on balance, culminates in destructive group or organizational outcomes that compromise the quality of life for internal and external constituents and detract from their group-focused goals or purposes. (p. 633)

Some researchers divide destructive leadership into categories. In his 2017 review of literature on harmful leadership styles, Burns argued three categories of destructive leadership emerged from the research – abusive leadership, toxic leadership, and bullying. Other researchers equate toxic leadership to destructive leadership rather than relate it as a subcategory of the construct. In his 2008 thesis, Schmidt argued that toxic leadership should be a specific construct.

> Great leaders make bad decisions, and some of the most ill-intentioned people have superior leadership abilities. Leaders suffering from anxiety and/or personality disorders can seek treatment from licensed professionals. But toxic leadership can and should be universally recognized as a unique set of leadership behaviors that negatively impact the subordinate group in predictable ways. These distinctions are critical because they create boundaries around the construct of toxic leadership and enable the development of valid measurement tools to empirically investigate it. (Schmidt, 2008, p. 3)

As Schmidt (2008) conducted his mixed methods study, he used the words *destructive* and *dysfunctional* rather than *toxic* to describe leadership behaviors to participants. His study examined how military personnel and civilians view toxic leadership behaviors at work. Phase 1 was qualitative; 23 military personnel (2 officers, 19 officers-in-training, and 2 ROTC midshipmen in the U.S. Navy or Marine Corps) participated in focus groups or individual

interviews. Phase 2 was quantitative; 218 people ranging from students to law clerks to educators to chief financial officers completed a survey. The study resulted in common themes across focus groups and interviews, including abusive supervision, authoritarianism, and narcissism among leaders in the military.

Some researchers even distinguish between destructive leadership and destructive leadership behaviors. In their 2013 meta-analysis of studies examining destructive leadership, Schyns and Schilling argued *destructive leadership* should be limited to actions that target followers and *destructive leadership behaviors* could be any harmful behavior by a leader (e.g., stealing from the organization).

Common Themes. Though definitions of destructive leadership in empirical literature vary, several common themes exist in the research focused on the construct, including abusive supervision, bullying, toxic leadership, narcissism, and laissez faire leadership. Researchers often equate these topics to destructive leadership or consider them subtopics of destructive leadership. As with destructive leadership, none of these topics have a common definition used consistently by researchers.

***Abusive supervision*.** Abusive supervision, or abusive leadership, encompasses behaviors by leaders that cause a subordinate to experience "psychological-emotional, physical-physiological, personal, and/or professional harm to oneself" (Blasé et al., 2008, p. 265). According to Blasé and Blasé (2002), there are three levels of abusive behaviors exhibited by school leaders. Level 1 behaviors (i.e., indirect, moderately aggressive) include discounting teachers' thoughts, needs, and feelings; isolating and abandoning teachers; withholding resources and denying approval, opportunities, and credit; favoring select teachers; and offensive personal conduct. Level 2 behaviors (i.e., direct, escalating aggressive) include spying, sabotaging,

stealing, destroying teacher instructional aids, making unreasonable demands, and criticism. Level 3 behaviors (i.e., direct, severely aggressive) include lying, explosive behavior, threats, unwarranted reprimands, unfair evaluations, mistreating students, forcing teachers out of their jobs, preventing teachers from leaving/advancing, sexual harassment, and racism. Abusive leaders can also withhold important information from subordinates, destroy subordinates' work when deemed unsatisfactory, and intimidate subordinates (Barnes & Spangenburg, 2018).

Abusive supervision can have many negative effects on employees including employees' humiliation (Blasé & Blasé, 2002; Blasé et al., 2008), lack of trust in superiors (Barnes & Spangenburg, 2018; Blasé et al., 2008), decreased loyalty to the organization (Barnes & Spangenburg, 2018), decreased job satisfaction (Barnes & Spangenburg, 2018), decreased self-esteem (Barnes & Spangenburg, 2018; Blasé & Blasé, 2002; Blasé et al., 2008), increased deviant behavior at work (e.g., being disobedient with coworkers and causing harm to amenities and tools; Haider et al., 2018), damaged relationships with coworkers (Blasé & Blasé, 2002; Blasé et al., 2008), and increased intent to the leave the organization (Barnes & Spangenburg, 2018; Blasé & Blasé, 2002; Haider et al., 2018). More extreme behaviors like making unreasonable demands and having an explosive temper does not always result in more harm to employees than less severe behaviors (e.g., favoring one employee over another; Blasé & Blasé, 2002). Workplace bullying is also more likely to occur in schools with incompetent and abusive leaders (de Wet, 2014).

Bullying. Einarsen et al. (2003) described workplace bullying as repeated behaviors, defining the construct as

> repeated actions and practices that are directed against one or more workers; that are unwanted by the victim; that may be carried out deliberately or unconsciously, but clearly

> cause humiliation, offense, and distress; and that may interfere with work performance and/or cause an unpleasant working environment. (p. 9)

They noted bullying is consistent exposure to negative and aggressive behaviors of a supervisor that is primarily psychological in nature. De Wet (2014) defined workplace bullying in terms of positional power, stating workplace bullies hold positional power over their victims.

Einarsen et al. (2003) argued that though researchers disagree on whether bullying must be intentional, the leader's intent to harm someone does not change the situation for the employee. This is in line with the argument Einarsen et al. made in 2007 in their article *Destructive Leadership Behaviour: A Definition and Conceptual Model* in which they argued destructive leadership is free of intent as it has more to do with a leader's actions rather than their intention behind the actions.

Destructive leadership behaviors along with role and interpersonal conflicts are strong predictors of workplace bullying (Hauge et al., 2007). In their 2007 study, Hauge et al. noted not only are overt destructive leadership behaviors (e.g., tyrannical leadership) related to bullying, but so are more covert destructive leadership behaviors (e.g., passive and avoidant leadership behaviors, or laissez faire leadership). They concluded that workplace bullying can arise not only from a lack of constructive leadership behaviors by managers, but also from active and passive forms of destructive leadership.

Workplace bullying can negatively impact employees' emotional well-being. Perceived victims of bullying report they feel humiliated (De Vos & Kirsten, 2015; de Wet, 2014; Einarsen et al., 2003), discriminated against (de Wet, 2014), and isolated by those who held power over them (De Vos & Kirsten, 2015; de Wet, 2014). Employees who perceive exposure to workplace bullying also report its negative impact on their psychological relationship to work, noting a

decrease in job satisfaction (Cemaloglu, 2011; Hauge et al., 2007) an increase in job stress (Hauge et al., 2007), and reduction of trust in their principal (Klein & Bentolila, 2019).

Workplace bullying can negatively impact not only the employee, but also the health of an organization. Cemaloglu (2011) examined the relationship between two types of constructive leadership (i.e., transformational and transactional) and their impact on organizational health and workplace bullying in primary and secondary schools in Turkey. The researcher found (a) teachers who believe they have been exposed to workplace bullying perceive their work environments more negatively compared to their peers who were not exposed to bullying and (b) as organizational health (i.e., the ability of an organization to adapt to current needs, meet its goals, and ensure cohesiveness amongst its members) increases, workplace bullying decreases. Workplace bullying also decreases as principals exhibit more transformational leadership behaviors.

Some researchers argue workplace bullying can have both negative and positive effects. Ferris et al. (2007) defined leader bullying as such a practice.

> Leader bullying represents strategically selected tactics of influence by leaders designed to convey a particular image and place targets in a submissive, powerless position whereby they are more easily influenced and controlled, in order to achieve personal and/or organizational objectives. In this sense, bullying behavior becomes simply one of many potential "masks" that astute, calculative leaders can don in order to effectively orchestrate specific outcomes. (Ferris et al., 2007, p. 197)

Ferris's et al. (2007) definition encompassed aggression, anger, and other negative and emotionally laden behaviors as well as actions that are more subtle (e.g., making implicit threats). They argued leaders use these behaviors and actions to influence employees to perform

a task and to reinforce the leaders' power. Ferris et al. also reasoned a positive aspect of bullying could be that employees (a) increase productivity to meet the bully's demands or to avoid being bullied or (b) choose to the leave the organization opening a position to a more qualified candidate. They argued politically skilled leaders understand how to leverage bullying behaviors to meet their personal goals or the goals of the organization.

Toxic leadership. Toxic leaders demean and ridicule followers, lack integrity, and promote inequity within an organization (Pelletier, 2010). Schmidt (2008) defined toxic leaders as "narcissistic, self-promoters who engage in an unpredictable pattern of abusive and authoritarian supervision" (p. 57). Building upon Schmidt's work, Green (2014) described the construct in terms of the harm done to the organization, stating toxic leadership "causes, either abruptly or gradually, systemic harm to the health of an organization, impairing the organization from meeting its mission" (p. 18).

The behaviors of toxic leaders can encompass aspects of other destructive leadership themes including abusive supervision and narcissism as well authoritarian leadership, self-promotion, and unpredictability (Schmidt, 2008). Green (2014) categorized the behaviors of toxic leaders into three categories: egotistical behaviors, controlling/micromanaging behaviors, and personality. Table 2 highlights the specific behaviors relative to each of Green's categories. Green noted that some of the categories overlap.

The behaviors of toxic leaders can harm their subordinates both emotionally/psychologically and physically. Exposure to toxic leadership can lead to employees' decreased job satisfaction and satisfaction with their direct supervisor as well as increased intention to leave their current positions (Schmidt, 2008). The negative effects of toxic leadership can impact employees beyond the immediate physiological and psychological

Table 2

Toxic Leader Behaviors

Egotistical behavior characteristics	**Controlling/micromanaging behavior**	**Personality**
Drastically changes his/her demeanor when his/her supervisor is present	Is not considerate about subordinates' commitments outside of work	Allows his/her current mood to define the climate of the workplace
Denies responsibility for mistakes made in his/her unit	Controls how subordinates complete their tasks	Allows his/her mood to affect his/her vocal tone and volume
Accepts credit for successes that do not belong to him/her	Does not permit subordinates to approach goals in new ways	Causes subordinates to try to "read" his/her mood
Acts only in the best interest of his/her next promotion	Will ignore ideas that are contrary to his/her own[1]	Affects the emotions of subordinates when impassioned
Will only offer assistance to people who can help him/her get ahead	Is inflexible when it comes to organizational policies, even in special circumstances[2]	Varies in his/her degree of approachability[2]
Has a sense of personal entitlement	Determines all decisions in the unit whether they are important or not	
Assumes that he/she is destined to enter the highest ranks of the organization	Varies in his/her degree of approachability[2]	
Thinks that he/she is more capable than others		
Believes that he/she is an extraordinary person		
Thrives on compliments and personal accolades		
Will ignore ideas that are contrary to his/her own[1]		

Note: [1] Denotes an item that appears in both the first and second columns. [2] Denotes an item that appears in both the second and the third columns. Adapted from "Toxic Leadership in Educational Organizations" by J. E. Green, 2014, *Educational Leadership Review*, *15*(1), p. 25-26.

responses. In Brown's 2019 qualitative study, 11 of the 13 participants indicated they experienced long-lasting physiological or psychological distress while working for a toxic leader, including mental stress, high blood pressure, medical complications, weight gain, and excessive

smoking and drinking alcohol. Though participants experienced negative effects of working for a toxic leader, most noted perseverance in maintaining a positive attitude toward the mission of their organization despite decreased levels of trust in leaders.

Narcissism. Narcissistic leaders are characterized by their propensity toward grandiosity (Hellmich & Hellmich, 2009; Miller et al., 2012; Perry, 2015), need for admiration from others (Hellmich & Hellmich, 2009), and lack of empathy (Hellmich & Hellmich, 2009; Perry 2015). They see themselves as privileged and more powerful than others (Perry, 2015). They tend to promote their own achievements and dress well, calling attention to themselves (Perry, 2015). Perry (2015) argued narcissism is part of the *dark triad* of personality traits of sociopaths along with psychopathy and Machiavellianism. He found that sociopathic leaders can negatively impact organizations by placing little value on relationships and collaboration. By focusing on their own accomplishments, these types of leaders can foster mediocrity within their organizations rather than a desire for excellence.

In Chapter 5 of *Ethical Decision-making in Community Colleges: Not Losing Our Way*, Hellmich and Hellmich (2009) describe how narcissists seek out organizations with specific characteristics that will allow their self-centered, egotistical behaviors. "Narcissistic leaders want to be in professional environments that permit narcissism to flourish. They look for organizations that will tolerate, if not value, their narcissistic traits; they avoid or leave organizations with thriving mission-centric cultures" (p. 60). Hellmich and Hellmich called narcissism an "institutional weed" (p. 62), noting that leadership positions tend to attract narcissistic candidates.

Laissez faire leadership. Laissez faire leaders are characterized by their physical or emotional absence. They avoid making decisions, fail to give feedback to subordinates, or fail to

acknowledge or intervene in workplace conflict (Bass & Avolio as cited in Hauge et al., 2007). They are disengaged, stifle dissent (e.g., criticize employees when they share concerns) and can be rigid (e.g., refuse to update procedures and processes; Pelletier, 2010).

Characteristics of laissez faire leadership are evident in other forms of destructive leadership. In her 2010 study of toxic leader behaviors, Pelletier analyzed multiple studies, noting Lipman-Blumen (2005) described ignoring subordinates' comments and ideas, curbing dissent, and being rigid as aspects of toxic leadership while Lewin et al. (1939) described those behaviors as laissez faire leadership. Pelletier argued laissez faire leadership falls under the construct of toxic leadership, stating "leaders who incorporate laissez faire styles of leadership are toxic in that they can deflate the motivation of the work group or inhibit employees from voicing concerns or ideas" (p. 381).

Employees who report working for a laissez faire leader can experience decreased job satisfaction (Barnett, 2017; Cansoy, 2018) as well as decreased motivation at work (Kadi, 2015). They can also experience decreased levels of organizational trust (Kars & Inandi, 2018). Employees' perception of laissez faire leadership can differ based on gender. In his 2015 study, Kadi examined teachers' perceptions of principals' leadership styles and their organizational socialization levels. He found male teachers were more likely to score principals higher on laissez faire behaviors than female teachers.

Impact of Destructive Leadership. While constructive leadership behaviors can have positive effects on subordinates (e.g., instructional leadership can positively influence employees' job satisfaction; Duyar et al., 2013), the opposite is true for destructive leadership. Schyns and Schilling (2013) conducted a meta-analysis of literature on destructive leadership, which confirmed several of their hypotheses – destructive leadership can negatively impact

positive leader-related concepts (e.g., trust), positive organization-related concepts (e.g., employee intent to remain in his/her job), positive follower-related concepts (e.g., self-esteem), and positive job-related concepts (e.g., job satisfaction). Schyns and Schilling also found destructive leadership influences how followers feel about their leader (e.g., followers resist leaders' directives).

Çoğaltay et al. (2016) also noted the negative impact destructive leadership can have on employees' job satisfaction. They reviewed 22 studies found in several databases (i.e., the Council of Higher Education (YÖK), the Turkish National Academic Network and Information Center (ULAKBİM), and Google Scholar) with keywords such as *leadership, job satisfaction, vocational satisfaction,* and *work satisfaction*. The results of their meta-analysis showed exposure to constructive leadership behaviors positively influenced teachers' job satisfaction while exposure to destructive leadership behaviors negatively influenced their job satisfaction.

Exposure to destructive leadership can impact employees' work practices on an individual level as well on the organizational level. Hou (2017), who defined destructive leadership as the intentional or unintentional "power-based negative or improper behavior by an organization's leader toward the organization's internal or external stakeholders" (p. 1115), examined the influence of destructive leadership on the innovative behavior of millennials in China. Participants included 223 employees from three companies. The results indicated participants' perceived exposure to destructive leadership negatively impacted their innovative practices at work. Hou also found destructive leadership negatively impacted employees at the individual level as well as at the group level, meaning when group members experienced negative leadership behaviors, they developed common negative emotional behaviors (e.g., anger, blame, complaints).

Destructive Leadership in K-12 Education. Though little research exists on destructive leadership in K-12 education, that which does indicates some destructive leadership behaviors by principals are more prevalent than others. Aravena (2019) sought to identify the most common destructive leadership behaviors by elementary public-school principals in Chile as perceived by teachers. He used a three-question survey to gather qualitative data about whether teachers believed they worked for a destructive leader, which behaviors teachers perceived as destructive leadership behaviors, and which type of destructive leadership behaviors they had experienced. Aravena found that respondents reported autocratic leadership behaviors (e.g., excessive control, abuse of power, and being the center of attention) and poor communication skills as more common than other destructive leadership behaviors such as poor ethics/integrity, erratic behavior, and micromanagement.

Education researchers have found destructive leadership behaviors can negatively impact teachers just as they impact employees in other fields. Blasé et al. conducted a study in 2008 to identify teachers' perceptions of the major sources and intensity of mistreatment by their school-level principal, the effects of mistreatment, how teachers' perceptions varied among demographic groups, teachers' coping skills, and teachers' perceptions of contributing factors (e.g., school politics and teachers' demographics). In their non-experimental quantitative study, they surveyed 172 elementary, middle, and high school teachers in the United States through a self-administered questionnaire posted at the web site for the National Association for the Prevention of Teacher Abuse (www.endteacherabuse.org). The researchers designed the survey, the *Principal Mistreatment/Abuse Inventory*, based on empirical and methodological literature on mistreatment and abuse. The results of the study indicated participating educators experienced a wide range of abusive behaviors directed toward them by their principals (e.g., intimidation,

unreasonably demands, and unjust criticism). These abusive behaviors resulted in serious or extensive harm (i.e., psychological/emotional and physical/physiological) to the teachers, their work, or their families.

Woestman and Wasonga (2015) examined destructive leadership behaviors and their impact on attitudes in K-12 schools. They surveyed 191 K-12 educators engaged in graduate-level courses at a postsecondary institution in Illinois. They found (a) destructive leadership behaviors existed at all K-12 school leadership levels, (b) principals experienced high levels of destructive leadership behaviors compared to teachers, superintendents, and other district leaders, (c) women experienced higher levels of destructive leadership behaviors compared to men, and (d) destructive leadership behaviors had a negative correlation with job satisfaction, job stress, and consideration for leaving their current job.

Conclusion

Principals are encouraged to be instructional leaders, yet by the nature of their jobs, they are in positions of power. Those with power can display destructive leadership behaviors (Lian et al., 2012; Mead et al., 2018; Zhang & Badnall, 2016). Little research exists that examines the overlap of instructional leadership and destructive leadership. More research is needed to determine the extent to which principals who exhibit destructive leadership also exhibit instructional leadership behaviors. This data could help school leaders reduce the incidence of teachers' exposure to destructive leadership behaviors.

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2 AN EXPLORATION OF THE OVERLAP OF INSTRUCTIONAL LEADERSHIP AND DESTRUCTIVE LEADERSHIP

For decades, instructional leadership has been touted as a theory and practice that benefits teachers and students. Researchers and authors describe effective school leaders as those who exhibit instructional leadership behaviors such as defining and sharing a mission for the school (Gawlik, 2018; Hallinger, 2011a; Hallinger, 2011b; Hallinger & Murphy, 1985, Hallinger et al., 2013; Ma & Marion, 2018; Porter et al., 2008; Rigby, 2016; Urick et al., 2018), focusing on curriculum and instruction (Akram et al., 2017; Hallinger, 2011a; Hallinger & Murphy, 1985; Horng & Loeb, 2010; Ma & Marion, 2019; Meyers & Nulty, 2009; National Policy Board for Educational Administration [NPBEA], 2015; Porter et al., 2008; Urick et al., 2018), and creating a positive school climate and culture (Gawlik, 2018; Hallinger, & Murphy, 1985; Hallinger et al., 2013; Hattie, 2009; Parlar, & Cansoy, 2017). These behaviors positively impact teachers and students through increased teacher efficacy (Fackler, & Malmberg, 2016; Ma & Marion, 2019; Nelson, 2008; Zheng et al., 2019), teachers' job satisfaction (Çoğaltay et al., 2016; Duyar et al., 2013), and student achievement (Hattie, 2009; Maponya, 2020; Marzano et al., 2005).

Though school principals can positively influence teachers and students, principals have power and authority as leaders. Leaders can display destructive leadership behaviors like abusive supervision (Lian et al., 2012; Zhang & Badnall, 2016) and narcissism (Mead et al., 2018). The purpose of this study was to examine the extent to which principals who exhibit destructive leadership behaviors also exhibit instructional leadership behaviors as perceived by teachers. Few researchers have examined the overlap of constructive leadership behaviors (e.g., instructional leadership) and destructive leadership behaviors. This study helps fill this gap in the literature.

Research Questions and Hypotheses

The purpose of this study was to examine the extent to which principals who exhibit destructive leadership behaviors also exhibit instructional leadership behaviors as perceived by teachers. The theoretical framework of this study included two constructs – instructional leadership and destructive leadership. Two research questions guided this study.

1. To what extent do principals who exhibit destructive leadership behaviors also exhibit instructional leadership behaviors?
2. Which instructional leadership behaviors are more common in principals who also exhibit destructive leadership behaviors?

I analyzed Research Question 1 using a correlational analysis guided by eight hypotheses. Though there are five dimensions to destructive leadership, I argued four of the five involve active behaviors, such as holding grudges and taking credit for subordinates' work (Shaw et al., 2011; Shaw et al., 2014). The four active dimensions of destructive leadership are abusive supervision, bullying, narcissism, and toxic leadership. Laissez faire leadership involves more passive behaviors, such as avoiding making decisions (Al-Malki & Juan, 2018). I hypothesized principals who exhibit active destructive leadership behaviors are more likely to exhibit instructional leadership behaviors related to the instructional leadership dimensions of establishing school goals; managing curriculum, instruction, and assessment; and developing systems of accountability as opposed to the instructional leadership dimension of promoting a positive school climate. Principals who micromanage teachers (i.e., toxic leadership) could be hyperfocused on every teacher analyzing student data on a regular basis (i.e., developing systems of accountability).

- Hypothesis 1: Active destructive leadership behaviors will be positively related to establishing school goals.
- Hypothesis 2: Active destructive leadership behaviors will be positively related to managing curriculum, instruction, and assessment.
- Hypothesis 3: Active destructive leadership behaviors will be positively related to developing systems of accountability.
- Hypothesis 4: Active destructive leadership behaviors will be negatively related to promoting a positive school climate.

Principals who exhibit laissez faire leadership behaviors are likely to provide little oversight and supervision (Kars & Inandi, 2018) and avoid taking corrective action (Barnett, 2017). Laissez faire leadership is a passive leadership style (Hauge et al., 2007; Shaw et al., 2014) that Aasland et al. found to be more prevalent over other destructive leadership styles in their 2010 study. I hypothesized principals who act as laissez faire leaders are less likely to exhibit behaviors of instructional leaders. Though promoting a positive climate might not require much oversight while the other dimensions of instructional leadership require some amount of supervision, instructional leadership assumes principals are active participants in school processes.

- Hypothesis 5: Passive destructive leadership behaviors will be negatively related to establishing school goals.
- Hypothesis 6: Passive destructive leadership behaviors will be negatively related to managing curriculum, instruction, and assessment.
- Hypothesis 7: Passive destructive leadership behaviors will be negatively related to developing systems of accountability.

- Hypothesis 8: Passive destructive leadership behaviors will be negatively related to promoting a positive school climate.

I also examined the relationship of instructional leadership dimensions and destructive leadership dimensions by conducting a comparative analysis of the frequencies of each dimension (i.e., comparing the number and percent of respondents who positively rated their principals in one dimension of instructional leader and one dimension of destructive leadership).

For Research Question 2, I examined the means for each dimension and the individual behaviors evident in the survey to determine which instructional leadership behaviors were more often exhibited by principals who displayed destructive leadership behaviors. I also conducted an analysis of variance and chi square test to verify significant differences between demographic variables and the dimensions of instructional leadership and destructive leadership.

Researchers have examined how instructional leadership relates to other constructive leadership theories such as transformational leadership (Finley, 2014) and distributed leadership (Bellibas & Liu, 2018). Little to no research exists that explores the overlap of instructional leadership and destructive leadership. Yet principals are in positions of power, and power can lead to destructive leadership behaviors (Mead et al, 2018). This study helped to fill this gap in the literature.

Methodology

The current study was quantitative in design because its purpose was to examine the relationship between two variables (i.e., principals' destructive leadership behaviors and their instructional leadership behaviors; Creswell, 2014). It was also the best design for answering my research questions. My research questions could be answered best using quantitative survey items, which asked respondents to report the extent to which their current or former principal

exhibited specific behaviors. The survey included items based on instructional leadership behaviors and separate items based on destructive leadership behaviors.

Data Collection Tool

I designed a quantitative survey to collect data on the extent to which principals who exhibit destructive leadership behaviors also exhibit instructional leadership behaviors as perceived by teachers. This included items informed by the Vanderbilt Assessment of Leadership in Education (VAL-ED; Porter et al., 2008) and Shaw's et al. (2011) Destructive Leadership Questionnaire (DLQ). I used the VAL-ED for items that focused on instructional leadership behaviors of principals and the DLQ for items that assessed the extent of principals' destructive leadership behaviors. I chose these two surveys as the foundation for the items in my survey for several reasons. The VAL-ED is a commonly used assessment to measure principal performance (Condon & Clifford, 2012). It also has high reliability compared to other principal leadership assessments like Hallinger and Murphy's (1985) Principal Instructional Management Rating Scale (PIMR) and Kouzes and Posner's (2002) Leadership Practices Inventory (Condon & Clifford, 2012). The DLQ is also a reliable and valid tool (Shaw et al., 2011). Using two previously validated survey instruments saved me time and resources (Boynton & Greenhalgh, 2004). It also allowed me to compare the results of my survey to previous research on instructional leadership and destructive leadership (Boynton & Greenhalgh, 2004).

My survey contained three sections: (a) demographics, (b) instructional leadership behaviors, and (c) destructive leadership behaviors. The demographic items included respondents' gender, ethnicity, years of teaching experience, degree level, and years worked for the principal; principals' gender; school size; school Title I status; and school categorization based on teachers' perception of student success. The items in the second section assessed

teachers' perceptions of principals' instructional leadership behaviors using the five-point Likert scale used in the VAL-ED (1 represents *ineffective*, 2 represents *minimally effective*, 3 represents *satisfactorily effective*, 4 represents *highly effective*, 5 represents *outstandingly effective*). The items in the third section assessed teachers' perceptions of principals' destructive leadership behaviors using the six-point Likert scale used in the DLQ (1 represents *strongly disagree*, 2 represents *disagree*, 3 represents *somewhat disagree*, 4 represents *somewhat agree*, 5 represents *agree*, 6 represents *strongly agree*). I also provided a seventh response option of *I don't know* in the third section as Shaw et al. (2011) provided this option in the DLQ.

I created the survey using the Georgia State University (GSU) Qualtrics software program online. I chose this platform for two reasons.

(a) GSU has a license for students to use this platform, which ensured the data was secure.

(b) Qualtrics provided all data in a downloadable Microsoft Excel or CSV file, which I could then import into SPSS and run statistical analyses.

The survey took respondents an average of five to six minutes to complete, according to Qualtrics.

As the survey items I used for the current study are not my own, I requested and received permission to use them. Resonant Education, which currently manages the VAL-ED, agreed to my use of the assessment's items (see Appendix A). I received permission to use items from the DLQ from Anthony Erickson, one of the questionnaire's co-authors (see Appendix B). I did not use either survey in its entirety. Rather, I selected survey items from the VAL-ED and DLQ that aligned to the definitions and characteristics of instructional leadership and destructive leadership outlined in the literature review.

Data Collection Process

I anticipated it would be difficult to convince a school district to participate in this study given my research questions assume some principals are destructive leaders. I reached out to the Professional Association of Georgia Educators (PAGE) on May 18, 2020, and again on May 21, requesting the non-profit assist me in acquiring survey respondents through an email campaign. The director of Communications and Media Relations for PAGE responded on May 22, stating "the parameters of our Communications plan preclude the sharing of your survey with our members via PAGE platforms."

Upon receiving PAGE's refusal, I developed a social media campaign to attain study participants. On July 15, 2020, I created a business page on Facebook titled "Amanda Merritt – Doctoral Student." On July 16, I posted a link to my survey on the business page using the following language.

> Are you a current K-12 public school teacher who has experienced the bullying, abusive, or toxic behaviors of a principal? Share your experiences by participating in this study. I am a Georgia State University doctoral student studying the relationship between principals' destructive and instructional leadership behaviors. The anonymous survey takes 10-15 minutes. Access the link here:
>
> https://gsu.qualtrics.com/jfe/form/SV_emTNz9lvF9D3JlP

I then shared this post on my personal Facebook page and requested all of my contacts to share the business page post. The analytics from the post indicated the post reached 2,726 people with 264 engagements and 24 shares. On July 25, I created a new post, using the same language from the July 16 post. I then boosted this post, selecting an audience with three characteristics: (a) live in the United States, (b) aged 22 to 65-plus, and (c) have indicated

Teacher as an interest. I chose these characteristics because I wanted a sample that included teachers from anywhere in the United States, and most teachers are in the age 22-65 bracket. This post reached 7,106 people with 1,414 engagements and 17 shares. On August 1, I created another post with the same language as the first two posts and boosted it to an audience with the same characteristics as the second post. This post reached 1,721 people with 269 engagements and 4 shares. After less than three weeks as an active online survey, I closed the survey collection in the Qualtrics software program on August 3 with 344 responses.

My survey posts were shared 49 times (45 times via my business Facebook page and four times via my personal page) over the 19-day period the survey was open. Researchers have used a technique called snowball sampling for other studies focused on destructive leadership (Balwant, 2017; Blasé & Blasé, 2002; Martin, 2014; Roberge, 2013; Shaw et al., 2011; Woolgar, 2019). Snowball sampling is a non-random sampling method (Sedgwick, 2013) that involves study participants recruiting other participants (Trochim & Donnelly, 2008). It is appropriate for researchers to use this method when it is difficult to access subjects with specific characteristics (Naderifar et al., 2017). One drawback of snowball sampling is that the method is prone to selection bias (Sedgwick, 2013). Given that the current study was representative of a phenomenon rather than a specific population, I believed this drawback was permissible.

Sample

Sample size. I used the software program G*Power to conduct a priori power analysis, which calculated an appropriate sample size for this study. In G*Power, I selected *Correlation: bivariate normal model* for the statistical two-tailed test and input a significance level of 0.05, a power of 0.95, a hypothesis correlation of 0.31, and a null hypothesis correlation of 0. I chose a correlation of 0.31 because correlations of 0.3 through 0.7 indicate a moderate relationship

between variables (Ratner, 2009). G*Power indicated 129 participants would be the minimum appropriate sample size.

Though I received 344 responses to my survey, the final sample size was much smaller. However, it was larger than the recommended minimum sample size I calculated using G*Power. I narrowed the sample first by removing all respondents who answered *no* to my qualifying question: "Are you a current classroom teacher in a public school in the United States?" I then removed all respondents who left no more than two responses blank. I recoded all *I don't know* responses for destructive leadership items as blank responses, which is the same method Shaw et al. (2011) used when examining the DLQ for the first time. I then removed all respondents who did not either *somewhat agree*, *agree*, or *strongly agree* with at least half (i.e., 13) of the destructive leadership survey items since my research questions assume the principal about whom the teacher is answering questions is a destructive leader.

The final sample size was 163 self-selected current classroom teachers in the United States. The survey respondents represented at least 39 states with the most hailing from Georgia (20 or 12.3%) and Florida (18 or 11%). Eight respondents (4.9%) did not indicate their state. Table 3 shows the number of respondents from each of the 39 states.

The gender demographics for the survey indicated 151 (92.6%) were female and 11 (6.7%) were male. One respondent (0.6%) did not identity as either male or female. The ethnicity demographics indicated 151 (92.6%) were White/Non-Hispanic, four (2.5%) were Hispanic/Latino, three (1.8%) were Black, three (1.8%) were multi-racial, one (0.6%) was Native American, and one (0.6%) was Asian American. Respondents also reported the number of years they have served as an educator, with eight (4.9%) indicating 0-3 years, 25 (15.3%) indicating 4-7 years, 13 (8%) indicating 7-10 years, 31 (19%) indicating 10-15 years, 30 (18.4%) indicating

Table 3

Respondents by State

	n = 163	%
Alabama	7	4.3
Alaska	1	.6
Arkansas	3	1.8
California	8	4.9
Colorado	1	.6
Connecticut	2	1.2
Delaware	1	.6
Florida	18	11.0
Georgia	20	12.3
Idaho	1	.6
Illinois	2	1.2
Iowa	3	1.8
Kansas	3	1.8
Kentucky	3	1.8
Louisiana	2	1.2
Maryland	6	3.7
Massachusetts	4	2.5
Michigan	2	1.2
Mississippi	3	1.8
Missouri	3	1.8
Montana	1	.6
North Carolina	8	4.9
North Dakota	2	1.2
Nebraska	4	2.5
New Mexico	3	1.8
New York	4	2.5
Ohio	2	1.2
Oklahoma	4	2.5
Oregon	1	.6
Pennsylvania	5	3.1
South Carolina	3	1.8
Tennessee	5	3.1
Texas	8	4.9
Virginia	6	3.7
Vermont	2	1.2
Washington	1	.6
West Virginia	3	1.8
No response	8	4.9

15-20 years, and 56 (34.4%) indicating 21 or more years. Forty-eight respondents (29.4%) reported their highest level of education was a bachelor's degree, 97 (59.5%) had earned a master's degree, 14 (8.6%) had earned a specialist's degree, and four (2.5%) had earned a doctorate. Table 4 shows the demographic breakdown of participants.

Respondents also reported information regarding their principal. Ninety-seven respondents (59.5%) reported the principal about whom they answered the survey items was female while 66 (40.5%) reported their principal was male. Respondents noted the number of

Table 4

Respondent Demographics

	n = 163	%
Gender		
Male	11	6.7
Female	151	92.6
No response	1	0.6
Ethnicity		
Black	3	1.8
Hispanic/Latino	4	2.5
White/Non-Hispanic	151	92.6
American Indian	1	0.6
Asian American	1	0.6
Multi-racial	3	1.8
Years as an educator		
0-3 years	8	4.9
4-7 years	25	15.3
7-10 years	13	8.0
10-15 years	31	19.0
15-20 years	30	18.4
21 or more years	56	34.4
Highest degree		
Bachelor's degree	48	29.4
Master's degree	97	59.5
Specialist's degree	14	8.6
Doctorate	4	2.5

Table 5

Number of Years Respondent Worked for Principal

	n = 163	%
0-2 years	74	45.4
3-5 years	66	40.5
5-10 years	17	10.4
11 or more years	6	3.7

years they worked for the principal (see Table 5). Seventy-four (45.4%) worked for the principal for only 0-2 years while 66 (40.5%) worked for the principal for 3-5 years, 17 (10.4%) worked for the principal for 5-10 years, and six (3.7%) worked for the principal for 11 or more years.

Respondents served as educators in a wide variety of school settings (see Table 6). Forty-five (27.6%) classified their school as small (i.e., fewer than 100 students per grade level) while 53 (32.5%) indicated their school was medium-sized (i.e., between 100 and 250 students per grade level) and 64 (39.3%) indicated their school was large (i.e., more than 250 students per grade level). One respondent (0.6%) did not respond to this item. Most respondents (105 or 64.4%) reported their school was classified as Title I; 53 (32.5%) reported their school was not a Title I school. Four respondents (2.5%) were unsure if their school was Title I, and one respondent (0.6%) did not respond to this survey item. More than half of respondents (84 or 51.5%) classified their school as average regarding student success while 51 (31.3%) classified their school as failing and 28 (17.2%) classified their school as high achieving.

Sample limitations. By the study's design, the sample was representative of a phenomenon rather than a population, which limited the ability to make generalizations about the total population of K-12 public school teachers in the U.S. The requirement that respondents believed they had been exposed to the destructive leadership behaviors of a current or former principal limited the number of potential participants. Some respondents might have had a

Table 6

School Demographics

	n = 163	%
What was/is the size of this school?		
Small (fewer than 100 students per grade level)	45	27.6
Medium (between 100 and 250 students per grade level)	53	32.5
Large (more than 250 students per grade level)	64	39.3
No response		0.6
	1	
Was/Is this school a Title I school?		
Yes	105	64.4
No	53	32.5
I don't know	4	2.5
No response		.6
	1	
How would you characterize this school in terms of student success?		
Failing school	51	31.3
Average school	84	51.5
High-achieving school	28	17.2

negative bias against the principal about whom they answered survey items, which might have caused them to limit favorable ratings on instructional leadership items. Since the survey was posted online, which allowed anyone to access it, and responses were anonymous, there was an assumption that respondents answered truthfully. It is possible, however, that retired teachers, private school teachers, and non-educators completed the survey. At least one respondent completed the survey based upon her interactions with an assistant principal, as indicated by a comment she left on a social media post for the survey. Another respondent commented she answered about her former public school principal though she is now a private school teacher.

Data Analysis

The purpose of the current study was to examine the extent to which principals who exhibit destructive leadership behaviors also exhibit instructional leadership behaviors as perceived by teachers. This study focused on two research questions.

1. To what extent do principals who exhibit destructive leadership behaviors also exhibit instructional leadership behaviors?
2. Which instructional leadership behaviors are more common in principals who also exhibit destructive leadership behaviors?

Research Question 1. To answer Research Question 1, I used several statistical analyses to examine the quantitative data from the survey.

(a) Cronbach's alpha: I tested the reliability of survey items by determining Cronbach's alpha in SPSS. Though previous researchers had tested the reliability of the two surveys from which I borrowed items, I needed to test the reliability again since I used only certain items from the two surveys.

(b) Correlational analysis: I conducted a correlational analysis in SPSS to determine possible correlations between the dimensions of instructional leadership and the dimensions of destructive leadership to determine whether a correlation existed between particular principal behaviors. I created scatter plots to verify the correlational relationships determined by SPSS.

(c) Significance: I assessed the significance of the correlational relationships to determine if there was a significant relationship between instructional leadership behaviors and destructive leadership behaviors at the .01 and .05 levels.

(d) Comparative analysis of frequencies: I further assessed the relationship of instructional leadership dimensions and destructive leadership dimensions by examining the frequencies of each dimension using Microsoft Excel. I calculated the means for each dimension for every respondent and calculated the number of respondents who at least *somewhat agreed* ($\bar{x}$ = 3.5) or at least *agreed* ($\bar{x}$ = 4.5) their

principal displayed destructive leadership behaviors and reported their principal was at least *minimally effective* ($\bar{x}$ = 1.5) or at least *satisfactorily effective* ($\bar{x}$ = 2.5) as an instructional leader.

Research Question 2. For Research Question 2, I again used SPSS and Excel to conduct multiple analyses of the survey data.

(a) Descriptive statistics: I used SPSS to calculate the mean, standard deviation, and variance for each survey item as well as each dimension of instructional leadership and destructive leadership. The means showed which behaviors principals displayed most often based upon teachers' perceptions. The standard deviation and variance indicated the variability of the data. I calculated the descriptive statistics in Excel to verify the SPSS calculations.

(b) ANOVA: To compare the means of the dimensions of instructional leadership and destructive leadership, I conducted an analysis of variance, or ANOVA. I chose the ANOVA rather than a *t*-test because the *t*-test is intended to compare only two means; my data analysis process included more than two means. Before I conducted an ANOVA, I changed the means to dichotomous data with "0" representing mean values of less than 1.5 (i.e., *not effective*) and "1" representing mean values of 1.5 or larger (i.e., at least *minimally effective*) for instructional leadership and "0" representing mean values of less than 3.5 (i.e., *disagree*) and "1" representing mean values of 3.5 or larger (i.e., at least *somewhat agree*) for destructive leadership. I recalculated the dichotomous values for instructional leadership with "0" representing mean values of less than 2.5 (i.e., *not effective*) and "1" representing mean values of 2.5 or larger (i.e., at least *satisfactorily effective*) to determine the difference between

principals deemed at least *satisfactorily effective* as instructional leaders versus those deemed at least *minimally effective*.

(c) Chi square: I conducted a chi square test to determine whether there was an association between demographic data and the dimensions of instructional leadership and destructive leadership. Chi square is an appropriate test when examining categorical variables.

Results

Research Question 1

To answer Research Question 1, I used data from the second (i.e., instructional leadership) and third (i.e., destructive leadership) sections of the survey.

Cronbach's alpha for reliability. Though the authors of the VAL-ED and DLQ previously tested the reliability of the survey items, I tested them again using Cronbach's alpha since I used only selected items from their surveys. I also combined the survey items into different categories for instructional and destructive leadership. Table 7 shows reliability statistics for dimensional clusters of survey items. The Cronbach's alpha ratings for all instructional leadership dimensions were acceptable since they were greater than 0.70, which is widely considered desirable (Taber, 2018), with *developing systems of accountability* rating .793; *managing curriculum, instruction, and assessment* rating .793; *promoting a positive school climate* rating .773; and *establishing school goals* rating .859.

Two of the destructive leadership dimensions showed high reliability (Taber, 2018): bullying rated .793 and narcissism rated .754. Two other destructive leadership dimensions showed acceptable but moderate reliability with Cronbach's alpha of .652 (laissez faire leadership) and .602 (toxic leadership; van Griethuijsen et al., 2014; Taber, 2018). The fifth

Table 7

Reliability Statistics for Leadership Dimensions

	Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items
Destructive Leadership			
Abusive Supervision	.458	.473	5
Bullying	.793	.799	5
Laissez Faire Leadership	.652	.666	5
Narcissism	.754	.762	5
Toxic Leadership	.602	.637	5
Instructional Leadership			
Accountability	.793	.797	5
Curriculum, Instruction, and Assessment	.793	.793	5
School Climate	.773	.776	5
School Goals	.859	.859	5

dimension of destructive leadership – abusive supervision – showed low reliability with a Cronbach's alpha of .458 (Taber, 2018). I examined the reliability for abusive supervision if I removed one of the survey items related to that dimension to determine if one item decreased the reliability. Removing any of the abusive supervision items would have decreased the reliability so I left all five items in the dimension as I conducted my other statistical analyses. Tables 8-12 display the reliability statistics for each survey item.

Table 8

Reliability Statistics for Destructive Leadership: Abusive Supervision

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Squared Multiple Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
DLASMean	19.77	7.622	.397	.181	.290
DLASSelfcontrol	20.32	6.895	.339	.173	.321
DLASFavorite	19.00	9.894	.229	.087	.422
DLASDivide	19.22	9.605	.158	.069	.453
DLASRarePredict	20.34	8.240	.141	.035	.495

Table 9

Reliability Statistics for Destructive Leadership: Bullying

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Squared Multiple Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
DLBullyPressure	21.01	8.539	.628	.396	.736
DLBullyBrutal	20.71	9.298	.606	.369	.745
DLBullyx2	20.81	8.988	.590	.364	.749
DLBullyGrudge	20.45	10.756	.517	.286	.777
DLBullyNoRespect	21.21	8.542	.564	.338	.762

Table 10

Reliability Statistics for Destructive Leadership: Laissez Faire Leadership

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Squared Multiple Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
DLLFNoClue	18.65	11.203	.518	.338	.544
DLLFNoAttention	18.07	13.809	.421	.232	.606
DLLFNoExpect	19.01	12.487	.354	.129	.624
DLLFMyWork	19.18	11.930	.315	.108	.652
DLLFNoSupervision	18.85	11.233	.470	.265	.567

Table 11

Reliability Statistics for Destructive Leadership: Narcissism

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Squared Multiple Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
DLNarArrogant	20.73	9.107	.584	.393	.687
DLNarSelfCenter	20.59	9.924	.568	.362	.698
DLNarNoEmIntl	21.08	9.743	.385	.196	.765
DLNarPromoteSelf	21.02	9.532	.499	.277	.718
DLNarInconsiderate	20.89	9.141	.603	.373	.681

Table 12

Reliability Statistics for Destructive Leadership: Toxic Leadership

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Squared Multiple Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
DLToxMicromanage	19.58	14.159	-.018	.021	.760
DLToxUnethical	19.61	10.494	.514	.492	.463
DLToxNoIntegrity	19.79	9.714	.577	.502	.419
DLToxTakeCredit	19.54	11.101	.421	.224	.514
DLToxBlame	19.42	11.904	.466	.251	.507

Correlational analysis and significance. I conducted a correlational analysis to determine possible correlations between the dimensions of instructional leadership and the dimensions of destructive leadership. Eight hypotheses guided my correlational analysis. Four of the eight hypotheses focused on the relationship between *active* destructive leadership behaviors (i.e., abusive supervision, bullying, narcissism, and toxic leadership) and instructional leadership behaviors. The other four focused on *passive* destructive leadership behaviors (i.e., laissez faire leadership) and instructional leadership behaviors.

- Hypothesis 1: *Active* destructive leadership behaviors will be positively related to establishing school goals.
- Hypothesis 2: *Active* destructive leadership behaviors will be positively related to managing curriculum, instruction, and assessment.
- Hypothesis 3: *Active* destructive leadership behaviors will be positively related to developing systems of accountability.
- Hypothesis 4: *Active* destructive leadership behaviors will be negatively related to promoting a positive school climate.
- Hypothesis 5: *Passive* destructive leadership behaviors will be negatively related to establishing school goals.

- Hypothesis 6: *Passive* destructive leadership behaviors will be negatively related to managing curriculum, instruction, and assessment.
- Hypothesis 7: *Passive* destructive leadership behaviors will be negatively related to developing systems of accountability.
- Hypothesis 8: *Passive* destructive leadership behaviors will be negatively related to promoting a positive school climate.

I used the means of each instructional leadership and destructive leadership dimension as well as Spearman's *rho* to determine the correlation between each dimension. Spearman's rho is a more appropriate measure of correlation compared to Pearson's *r* because the data is ordinal (i.e., non-parametric) in nature rather than nominal and continuous (i.e., parametric; Hauke & Kossowski, 2011; Mittag, 1993; Statistics Solutions, n.d.). Table 13 shows the correlation between each dimension. I also tested the significance of the correlational analysis to determine if there was a significant relationship between instructional leadership behaviors and destructive leadership behaviors at the .05 and .01 levels. Table 14 shows the extent to which the correlational analysis supported each hypothesis.

Table 13

Correlation of Dimensions of Destructive Leadership and Instructional Leadership (Spearman's rho)

	DLAS	DLBL	DLLF	DLNAR	DLTOX	ILACC	ILCIA	ILCLIM	ILGOAL
Destructive Leadership (DL)									
Abusive Supervision (AS)	1.000								
Bullying (BL)	.574**	1.000							
Laissez Faire Leadership (LF)	.203**	.185*	1.000						
Narcissism (NAR)	.488**	.584**	.270**	1.000					
Toxic Leadership (TOX)	.492**	.634**	.285**	.685**	1.000				
Instructional Leadership (IL)									
Accountability (ACC)	-.149	-.216**	-.482**	-.334**	-.335**	1.000			
Curriculum, Instruction, and Assessment (CIA)	-.245**	-.411**	-.467**	-.453**	-.449**	.717**	1.000		
School Climate (CLIM)	-.169**	-.350**	-.515**	-.360**	-.347**	.719**	.724**	1.000	
School Goals (GOAL)	-.179*	-.358**	-.474**	-.460**	-.460**	.838**	.765**	.762**	1.000

Note. * denotes correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed). ** denotes correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Table 14

Hypotheses and Results

Hypothesis	Correlation (Spearman's *p*)	Result
H1: *Active* destructive leadership behaviors will be positively related to establishing school goals.	*p* (school goals & abusive supervision) = -.179* *p* (school goals & bullying) = -.358** *p* (school goals & narcissism) = -.460** *p* (school goals & toxic leadership) = -.460**	Not supported
H2: *Active* destructive leadership behaviors will be positively related to managing curriculum, instruction, and assessment (CIA).	*p* (CIA & abusive supervision) = -.245** *p* (CIA & bullying) = -.411** *p* (CIA & narcissism) = -.453** *p* (CIA & toxic leadership) = -.449**	Not supported
H3: *Active* destructive leadership behaviors will be positively related to developing systems of accountability.	*p* (accountability & abusive supervision) = -.149 *p* (accountability & bullying) = -.216** *p* (accountability & narcissism) = -.334** *p* (accountability & toxic leadership) = -.335**	Not supported
H4: *Active* destructive leadership behaviors will be negatively related to promoting a positive school climate.	*p* (school climate & abusive supervision) = -.169** *p* (school climate & bullying) = -.350** *p* (school climate & narcissism) = -.360** *p* (school climate & toxic leadership) = -.347**	Supported
H5: *Passive* destructive leadership behaviors will be negatively related to establishing school goals.	*p* (school goals & laissez faire leadership) = -.474**	Supported
H6: *Passive* destructive leadership behaviors will be negatively related to managing curriculum, instruction, and assessment.	*p* (school goals & laissez faire leadership) = -.467**	Supported
H7: *Passive* destructive leadership behaviors will be negatively related to developing systems of accountability.	*p* (school goals & laissez faire leadership) = -.482**	Supported
H8: *Passive* destructive leadership behaviors will be negatively related to promoting a positive school climate.	*p* (school goals & laissez faire leadership) = -.515**	Supported

Note. * denotes correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed). ** denotes correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Hypothesis 1: Active destructive leadership behaviors will be positively related to establishing school goals. The correlations between establishing school goals and the four active destructive leadership behaviors were -.179 (abusive supervision), -.358 (bullying), -.460 (narcissism), and -.460 (toxic leadership), which did not support Hypothesis 1. Though the correlation between school goals and abusive supervision was weak, the relationship was negative. The correlation between establishing school goals and bullying, narcissism, and toxic leadership fell in the moderate range (Ratner, 2009).

Hypothesis 2: Active destructive leadership behaviors will be positively related to managing curriculum, instruction, and assessment. The correlations between managing curriculum, instruction, and assessment and the four active destructive leadership behaviors were -.245 (abusive supervision), -.411 (bullying), -.453 (narcissism), and -.449 (toxic leadership), which did not support Hypothesis 2. The correlation between curriculum, instruction, and assessment and abusive supervision was weak while the correlation between managing curriculum, instruction, and assessment and bullying, narcissism, and toxic leadership were moderate (Ratner, 2009).

Hypothesis 3: Active destructive leadership behaviors will be positively related to developing systems of accountability. The correlations between developing systems of accountability and the four active destructive leadership behaviors were -.149 (abusive supervision), -.216 (bullying), -.334 (narcissism), and -.335 (toxic leadership), which did not support Hypothesis 3. The correlations between accountability and abusive supervision as well as bullying were weak. The correlation between developing systems of accountability and narcissism and toxic leadership were on the low end of the moderate range (Ratner, 2009).

Hypothesis 4: Active destructive leadership behaviors will be negatively related to promoting a positive school climate. The correlations between promoting a positive school climate and the four active destructive leadership behaviors were -.169 (abusive supervision), -.350 (bullying), -.360 (narcissism), and -.347 (toxic leadership), which supported Hypothesis 4. The correlation between school climate and abusive supervision was weak while the correlation between school climate and bullying, narcissism, and toxic leadership fall were on the low end of the moderate range (Ratner, 2009).

Hypothesis 5: Passive destructive leadership behaviors will be negatively related to establishing school goals. The correlation between establishing school goals and the passive destructive leadership behavior of laissez faire leadership was -.474, which supported Hypothesis 5. This relationship was significant at the .01 level. It was also the strongest negative correlation between establishing school goals and any of the destructive leadership behaviors.

Hypothesis 6: Passive destructive leadership behaviors will be negatively related to managing curriculum, instruction, and assessment. The correlation between managing curriculum, instruction, and assessment and the passive destructive leadership behaviors of laissez faire leadership was -.467, which supported Hypothesis 6. This relationship was significant at the .01 level. It was also the strongest negative correlation between managing curriculum, instruction, and assessment and any of the destructive leadership behaviors.

Hypothesis 7: Passive destructive leadership behaviors will be negatively related to developing systems of accountability. The correlation between developing systems of accountability and laissez faire leadership was -.482, which supported Hypothesis 7. This relationship was significant at the .01 level. It was the strongest negative correlation between developing systems of accountability and any of the destructive leadership behaviors.

Hypothesis 8: Passive destructive leadership behaviors will be negatively related to promoting a positive school climate. The correlation between promoting a positive school climate and laissez faire leadership was -.515, which supported Hypothesis 8. This relationship was significant at the .01 level. It was the strongest negative correlation between promoting a positive school climate and any of the destructive leadership behaviors. It was also the strongest negative correlation between any of the instructional leadership dimensions and destructive leadership dimensions.

Scatter plots relating the means of instructional leadership dimensions to the means of destructive leadership dimensions for each survey respondent confirmed the negativity of each correlation. The plot for school climate versus laissez faire leadership showed a tighter cluster of data points than the other plots, which validates this relationship having the strongest negative correlation of -.515. Figures 1-4 show the scatter plots.

Comparative analysis of frequencies by dimensions. Though the correlational relationship between each dimension of destructive leadership and the dimensions of instructional leadership were negative, an analysis of the frequencies by each dimension indicated many principals displayed both types of behaviors. Tables 15-19 show the frequencies for each dimension.

Abusive supervision and instructional leadership. More than half of survey respondents at least *somewhat agreed* ($\bar{x}$ = 3.5) their principal displayed abusive supervision behaviors and were at least *minimally effective* ($\bar{x}$ = 1.5) at developing systems of accountability (105 respondents or 64.42%); managing curriculum, instruction, and assessment (97 respondents or 59.51%); promoting a positive school climate (95 respondents or 58.28%); and establishing school goals (99 respondents or 60.74%). Not quite 20% of respondents at least *somewhat*

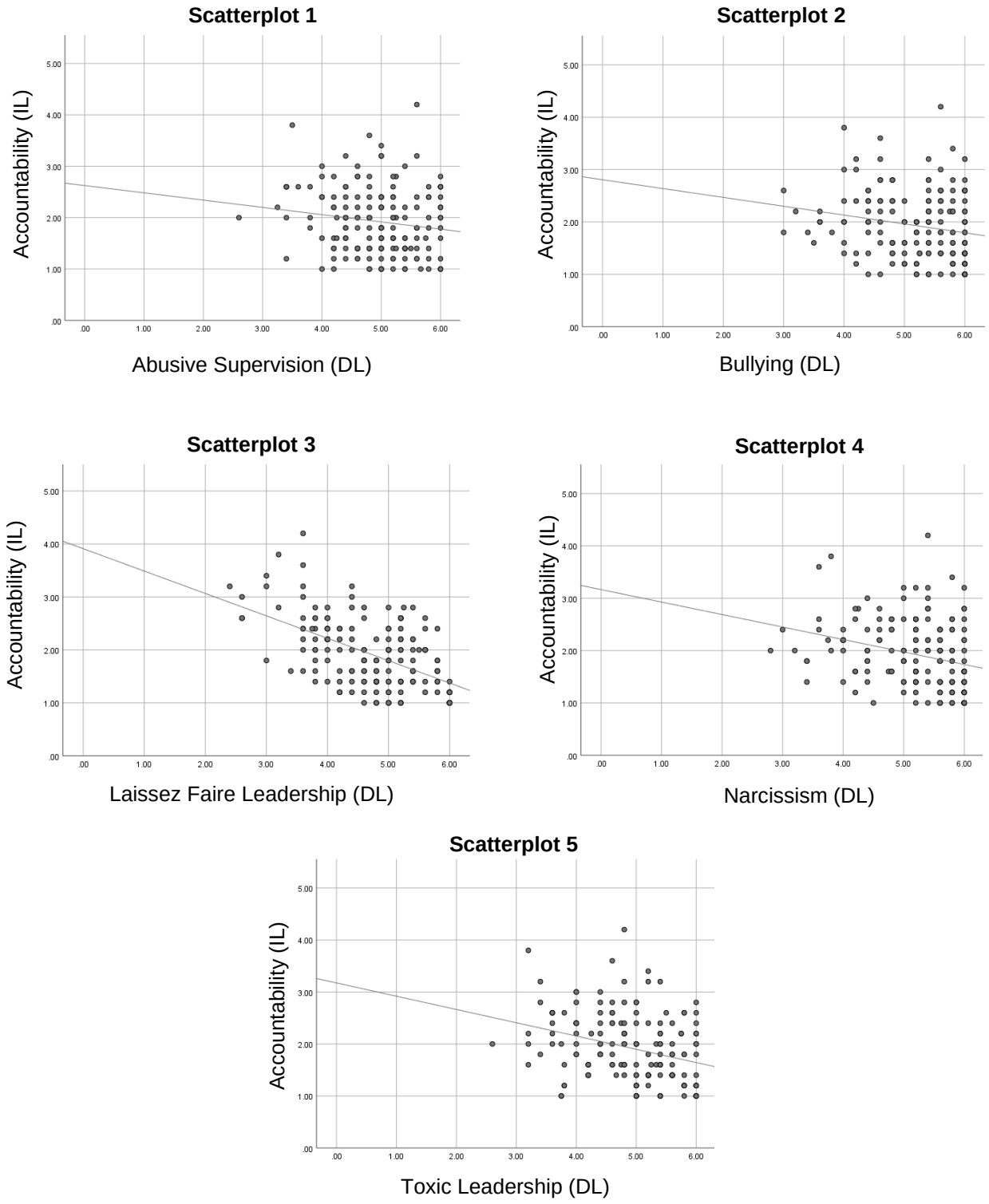

Figure 1. Scatterplots 1-5 show the relationship between the instructional leadership dimension of developing systems of accountability and the five destructive leadership dimensions. The mean values of each dimension for 163 survey respondents inform each point. The scatterplots show a negative correlation between the variables.

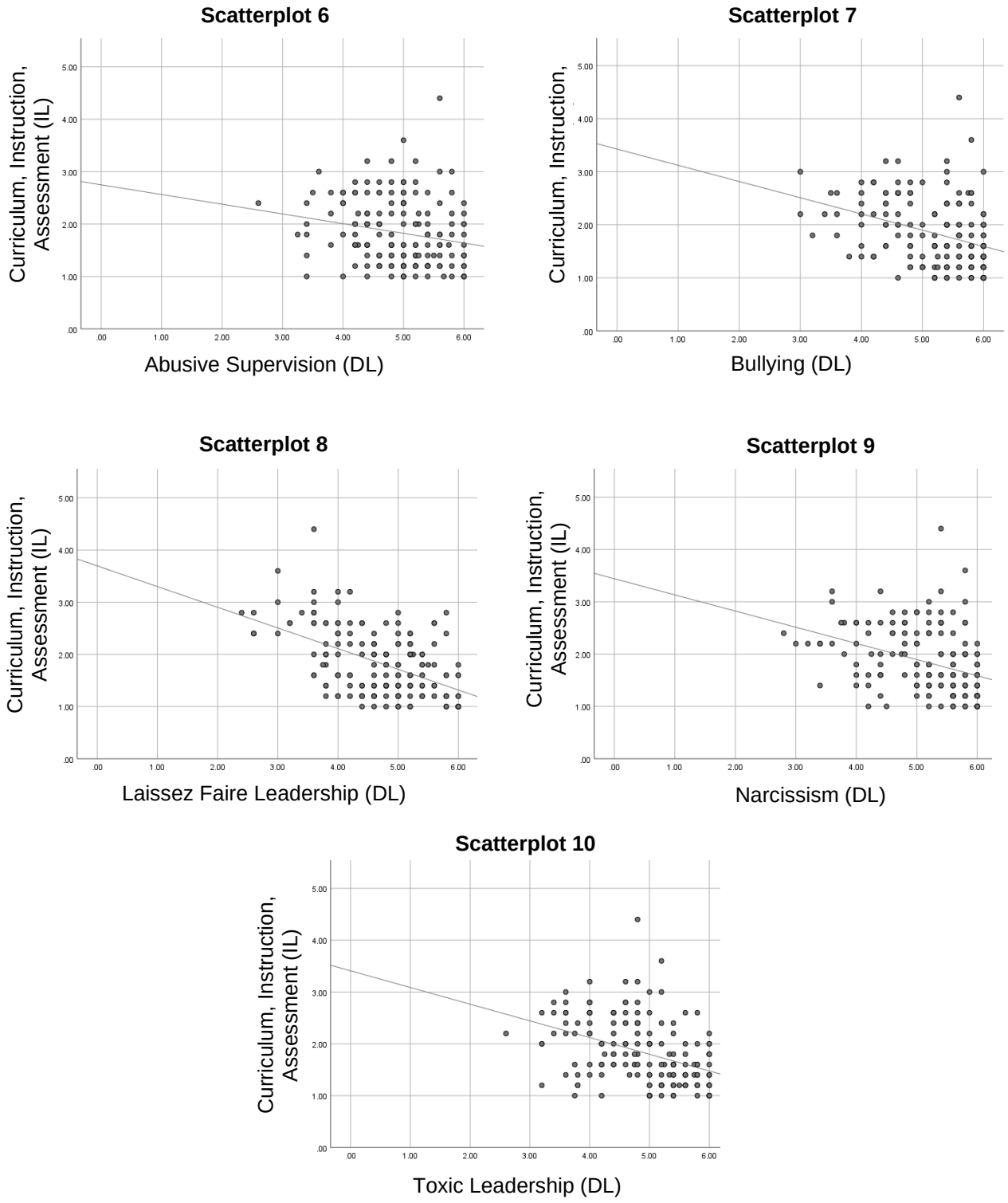

Figure 2. Scatterplots 6-10 show the relationship between the instructional leadership dimension of managing curriculum, instruction, and assessment and the five destructive leadership dimensions. The mean values of each dimension for 163 survey respondents inform each point. The scatterplots show a negative correlation between the variables.

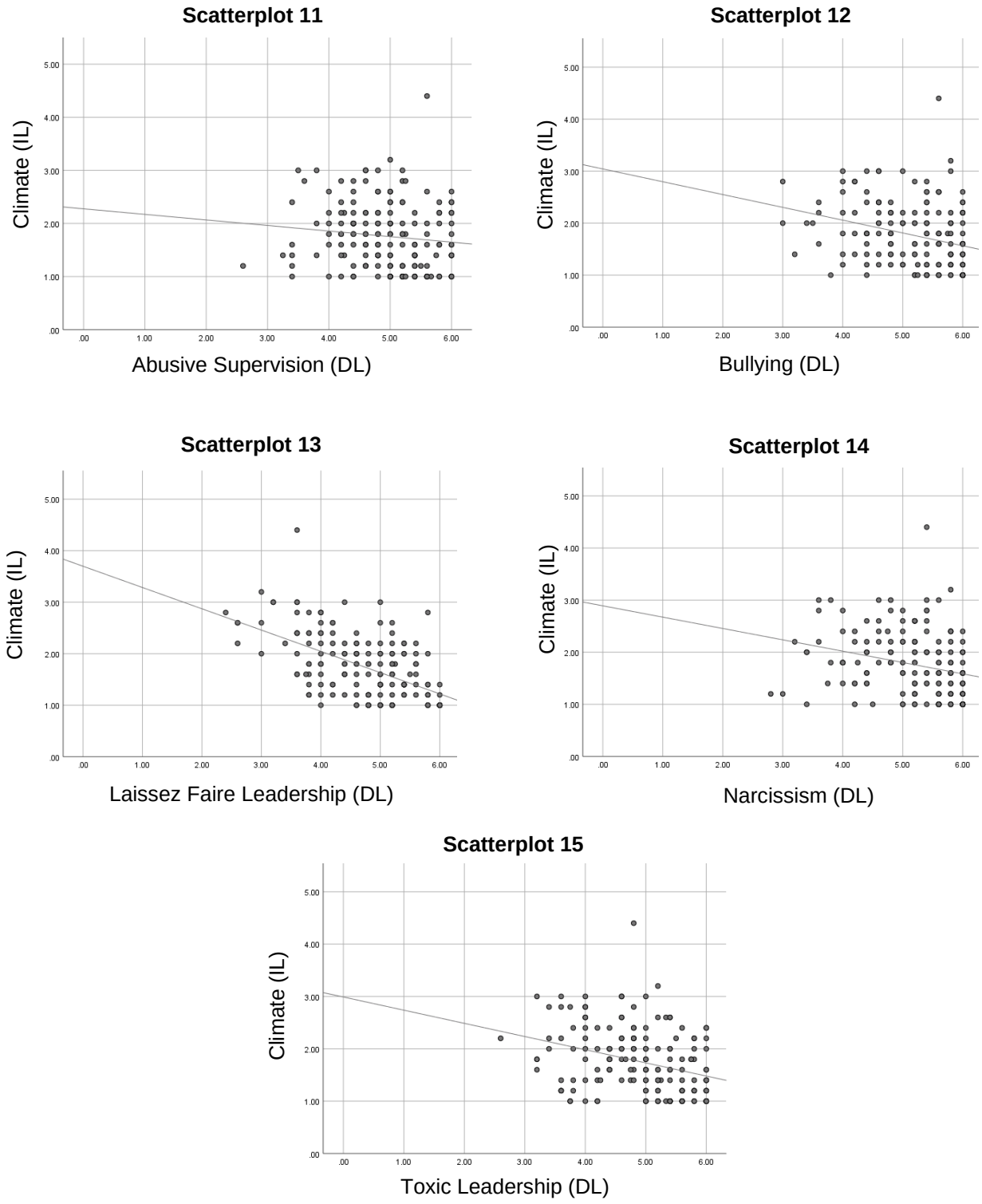

Figure 3. Scatterplots 11-15 show the relationship between the instructional leadership dimension of promoting a positive school climate and the five destructive leadership dimensions. The mean values of each dimension for 163 survey respondents inform each point. The scatterplots show a negative correlation between the variables.

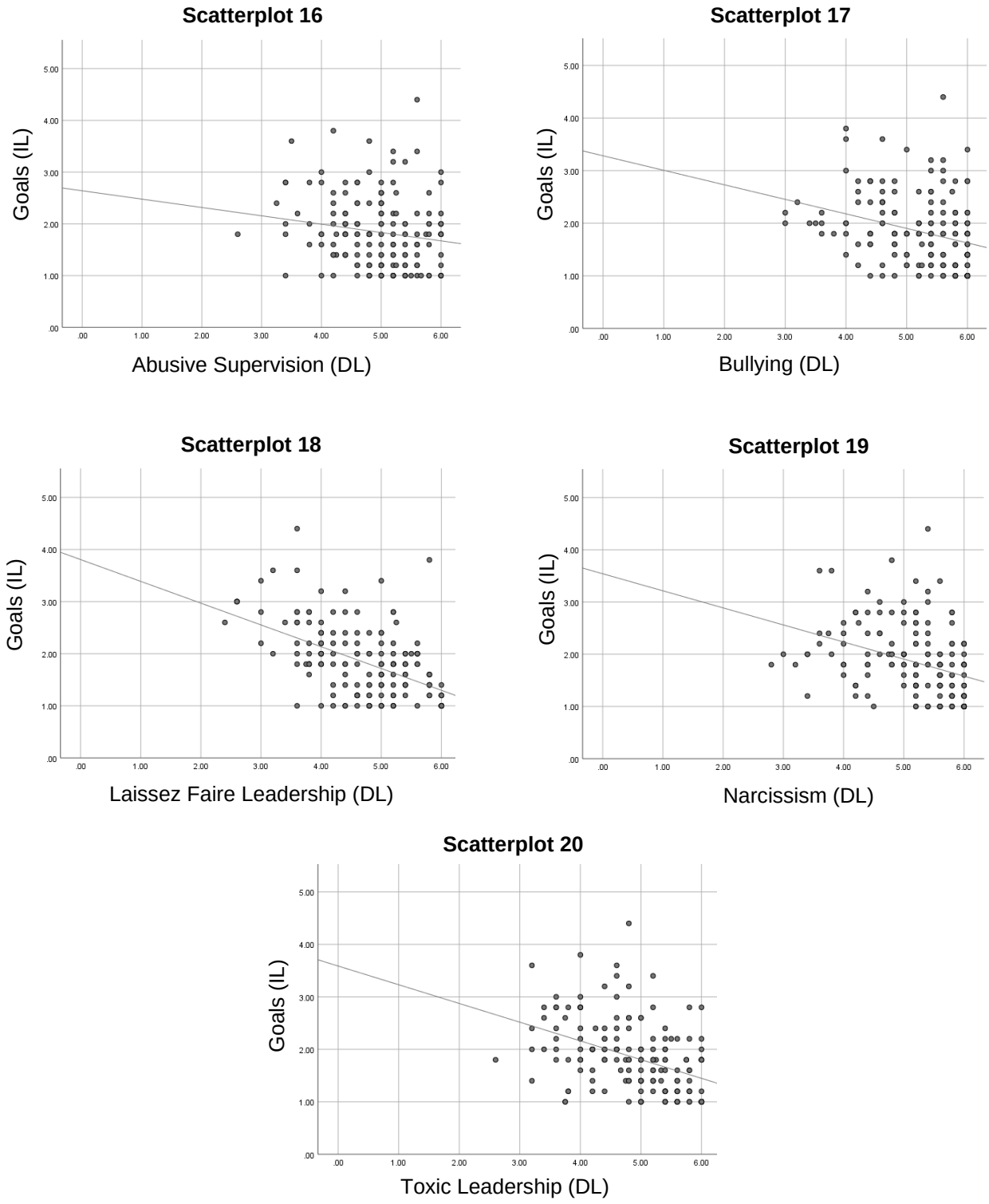

Figure 4. Scatterplots 16-20 show the relationship between the instructional leadership dimension of establishing school goals and the five destructive leadership dimensions. The mean values of each dimension for 163 survey respondents inform each point. The scatterplots show a negative correlation between the variables.

Table 15

Comparison of Abusive Supervision and Instructional Leadership Dimensions

	At least *somewhat agreed* principal displayed abusive supervision behaviors				At least *agreed* principal displayed abusive supervision behaviors			
	Principal is at least *minimally effective* in instructional leadership dimension		Principal is at least *satisfactorily effective* in instructional leadership dimension		Principal is at least *minimally effective* in instructional leadership dimension		Principal is at least *satisfactorily effective* in instructional leadership dimension	
	n	Percent	n	Percent	n	Percent	n	Percent
Accountability	105	64.42	29	17.79	76	46.63	20	12.27
CIA	97	59.51	30	18.40	66	40.49	19	11.66
Climate	95	58.28	22	13.50	67	41.40	15	9.20
Goals	99	60.74	26	15.95	71	43.56	18	11.04

Note. Total n = 163 survey respondents. Percentages are based on the number of survey respondents a) whose mean rating for their principals' abusive supervision behaviors was at least a 3.5 (*somewhat agree* or higher) or at least 4.5 (*agree* or higher) and b) who indicated their principal was *at least minimally effective* ($\bar{x}$ = 1.5) or *at least satisfactorily effective* ($\bar{x}$ = 2.5) at being an instructional leader.

Table 16

Comparison of Bullying and Instructional Leadership Dimensions

	At least *somewhat agreed* principal displayed bullying behaviors				At least *agreed* principal displayed bullying behaviors			
	Principal is at least *minimally effective* in instructional leadership dimension		Principal is at least *satisfactorily effective* in instructional leadership dimension		Principal is at least *minimally effective* in instructional leadership dimension		Principal is at least *satisfactorily effective* in instructional leadership dimension	
	n	Percent	n	Percent	n	Percent	n	Percent
Accountability	107	65.64	31	19.02	85	52.15	25	15.34
CIA	98	60.12	29	17.79	75	46.01	20	12.27
Climate	94	57.67	21	12.88	74	45.40	14	8.59
Goals	101	61.96	28	17.18	77	47.24	20	12.27

Note. Total n = 163 survey respondents. Percentages are based on the number of survey respondents a) whose mean rating for their principals' bullying behaviors was at least a 3.5 (*somewhat agree* or higher) or at least 4.5 (*agree* or higher) and b) who indicated their principal was *at least minimally effective* ($\bar{x}$ = 1.5) or *at least satisfactorily effective* ($\bar{x}$ = 2.5) at being an instructional leader.

Table 17

Comparison of Laissez Faire Leadership and Instructional Leadership Dimensions

	At least *somewhat agreed* principal displayed laissez faire leadership behaviors				At least *agreed* principal displayed laissez faire leadership behaviors			
	Principal is at least *minimally effective* in instructional leadership dimension		Principal is at least *satisfactorily effective* in instructional leadership dimension		Principal is at least *minimally effective* in instructional leadership dimension		Principal is at least *satisfactorily effective* in instructional leadership dimension	
	n	Percent	n	Percent	n	Percent	n	Percent
Accountability	101	61.96	24	14.72	56	34.36	10	6.13
CIA	92	56.44	23	14.11	53	32.52	6	3.68
Climate	87	53.37	15	9.20	45	27.61	4	2.45
Goals	95	58.28	20	12.27	51	31.29	6	3.68

Note. Total n = 163 survey respondents. Percentages are based on the number of survey respondents a) whose mean rating for their principals' laissez faire leadership behaviors was at least a 3.5 (*somewhat agree* or higher) or at least 4.5 (*agree* or higher) and b) who indicated their principal was *at least minimally effective* ($\bar{x}$ = 1.5) or *at least satisfactorily effective* ($\bar{x}$ = 2.5) at being an instructional leader.

Table 18

Comparison of Narcissism and Instructional Leadership Dimensions

	At least *somewhat agreed* principal displayed narcissistic behaviors				At least *agreed* principal displayed narcissistic behaviors			
	Principal is at least *minimally effective* in instructional leadership dimension		Principal is at least *satisfactorily effective* in instructional leadership dimension		Principal is at least *minimally effective* in instructional leadership dimension		Principal is at least *satisfactorily effective* in instructional leadership dimension	
	n	Percent	n	Percent	n	Percent	n	Percent
Accountability	106	65.03	32	19.63	83	50.92	25	15.34
CIA	97	59.51	30	18.40	75	46.01	21	12.88
Climate	94	57.67	22	13.50	75	46.01	17	10.43
Goals	100	61.35	28	17.18	78	47.85	20	12.27

Note. Total n = 163 survey respondents. Percentages are based on the number of survey respondents a) whose mean rating for their principals' narcissistic behaviors was at least a 3.5 (*somewhat agree* or higher) or at least 4.5 (*agree* or higher) and b) who indicated their principal was *at least minimally effective* ($\bar{x}$ = 1.5) or *at least satisfactorily effective* ($\bar{x}$ = 2.5) at being an instructional leader.

Table 19

Comparison of Toxic Leadership and Instructional Leadership Dimensions

	At least *somewhat agreed* principal displayed toxic leadership behaviors				At least *agreed* principal displayed toxic leadership behaviors			
	Principal is at least *minimally effective* in instructional leadership dimension		Principal is at least *satisfactorily effective* in instructional leadership dimension		Principal is at least *minimally effective* in instructional leadership dimension		Principal is at least *satisfactorily effective* in instructional leadership dimension	
	n	Percent	n	Percent	n	Percent	n	Percent
Accountability	103	63.19	29	17.79	68	41.72	18	11.04
CIA	95	58.28	27	16.56	61	37.42	14	8.59
Climate	89	54.60	20	12.27	61	37.42	12	7.36
Goals	98	60.12	25	15.34	63	38.65	14	8.59

Note. Total n = 163 survey respondents. Percentages are based on the number of survey respondents a) whose mean rating for their principals' toxic leadership behaviors was at least a 3.5 (*somewhat agree* or higher) or at least 4.5 (*agree* or higher) and b) who indicated their principal was *at least minimally effective* ($\bar{x}$ = 1.5) or *at least satisfactorily effective* ($\bar{x}$ = 2.5) at being an instructional leader.

agreed their principal exhibited abusive supervision behaviors and were at least *satisfactorily effective* ($\bar{x}$ = 2.5) at developing systems of accountability (29 respondents or 17.79%); managing curriculum, instruction, and assessment (30 respondents or 18.40%); promoting a positive school climate (22 respondents or 13.50%); and establishing school goals (26 respondents or 15.95%).

By increasing the level of agreeability for abusive supervision, the percentages slightly decreased. A little less than 50% of respondents *agreed* ($\bar{x}$ = 4.5) their principal displayed abusive supervision behaviors while also being at least *minimally effective* at developing systems of accountability (76 respondents or 46.63%); managing curriculum, instruction, and assessment (66 respondents or 40.49%); promoting a positive school climate (67 respondents or 41.40%); and establishing school goals (71 respondents or 43.56%). About one-tenth of respondents *agreed* their principal exhibited abusive supervision behaviors and were at least *satisfactorily effective* at developing systems of accountability (20 respondents or 12.27%); managing curriculum, instruction, and assessment (19 respondents or 11.66%); promoting a positive school climate (15 respondents or 9.20%); and establishing school goals (18 respondents or 11.04%).

Bullying and instructional leadership. About two-thirds of survey respondents at least *somewhat agreed* ($\bar{x}$ = 3.5) their principal displayed bullying behaviors and were at least *minimally effective* ($\bar{x}$ = 1.5) at developing systems of accountability (107 respondents or 65.64%); managing curriculum, instruction, and assessment (98 respondents or 60.12%); promoting a positive school climate (94 respondents or 57.67%); and establishing school goals (101 respondents or 61.96%). Fewer respondents at least *somewhat agreed* their principal exhibited bullying behaviors and were at least *satisfactorily effective* ($\bar{x}$ = 2.5) at developing systems of accountability (31 respondents or 19.02%); managing curriculum, instruction, and

assessment (29 respondents or 17.79%); promoting a positive school climate (21 respondents or 12.88%); and establishing school goals (28 respondents or 17.18%).

The percentages slightly decreased by increasing the level of agreeability for bullying. About half of respondents *agreed* ($\bar{x}$ = 4.5) their principal displayed bullying behaviors while also being at least *minimally effective* at developing systems of accountability (85 respondents or 52.15%); managing curriculum, instruction, and assessment (75 respondents or 46.01%); promoting a positive school climate (74 respondents or 45.40%); and establishing school goals (77 respondents or 47.24%). Between 8% and 16% of respondents *agreed* their principal exhibited bullying behaviors and were at least *satisfactorily effective* at developing systems of accountability (25 respondents or 15.34%); managing curriculum, instruction, and assessment (20 respondents or 12.27%); promoting a positive school climate (14 respondents or 8.59%); and establishing school goals (20 respondents or 12.27%).

Laissez faire leadership and instructional leadership. A little more than half of survey respondents at least *somewhat agreed* ($\bar{x}$ = 3.5) their principal displayed laissez faire leadership behaviors and were at least *minimally effective* ($\bar{x}$ = 1.5) at developing systems of accountability (101 respondents or 61.96%); managing curriculum, instruction, and assessment (92 respondents or 56.44%); promoting a positive school climate (87 respondents or 53.37%); and establishing school goals (95 respondents or 58.28%). About one-tenth of respondents at least *somewhat agreed* their principal exhibited laissez faire leadership behaviors and were at least *satisfactorily effective* ($\bar{x}$ = 2.5) at developing systems of accountability (24 respondents or 14.72%); managing curriculum, instruction, and assessment (23 respondents or 14.11%); promoting a positive school climate (15 respondents or 9.20%); and establishing school goals (20 respondents or 12.27%).

By increasing the level of agreeability for laissez faire leadership, the percentages decreased by about 50%. About one-third of respondents *agreed* ($\bar{x}$ = 4.5) their principal displayed laissez faire leadership behaviors while also being at least *minimally effective* at developing systems of accountability (56 respondents or 34.36%); managing curriculum, instruction, and assessment (53 respondents or 32.52%); promoting a positive school climate (45 respondents or 27.61%); and establishing school goals (51 respondents or 31.29%). Few respondents *agreed* their principal exhibited laissez faire leadership behaviors and were at least *satisfactorily effective* at developing systems of accountability (10 respondents or 6.13%); managing curriculum, instruction, and assessment (6 respondents or 3.68%); promoting a positive school climate (4 respondents or 2.45%); and establishing school goals (6 respondents or 3.68%).

Narcissism and instructional leadership. More than half of survey respondents at least *somewhat agreed* ($\bar{x}$ = 3.5) their principal displayed narcissistic behaviors and were at least *minimally effective* ($\bar{x}$ = 1.5) at developing systems of accountability (106 respondents or 65.03%); managing curriculum, instruction, and assessment (97 respondents or 59.51%); promoting a positive school climate (94 respondents or 57.67%); and establishing school goals (100 respondents or 61.35%). Almost 20% of respondents at least *somewhat agreed* their principal exhibited narcissistic behaviors and were at least *satisfactorily effective* ($\bar{x}$ = 2.5) at developing systems of accountability (32 respondents or 19.63%); managing curriculum, instruction, and assessment (30 respondents or 18.40%); promoting a positive school climate (22 respondents or 13.50%); and establishing school goals (28 respondents or 17.18%).

The percentages somewhat decreased by increasing the level of agreeability for narcissism. Slightly more than 50% of respondents *agreed* ($\bar{x}$ = 4.5) their principal displayed

narcissistic behaviors while also being at least *minimally effective* at developing systems of accountability (83 respondents or 50.92%). Slightly less than 50% agreed their principal displayed narcissistic behaviors while managing curriculum, instruction, and assessment (75 respondents or 46.01%); promoting a positive school climate (75 respondents or 46.01%); and establishing school goals (78 respondents or 47.85%). A little more than 10% of respondents *agreed* their principal exhibited narcissistic behaviors and were at least *satisfactorily effective* at developing systems of accountability (25 respondents or 15.34%); managing curriculum, instruction, and assessment (21 respondents or 12.88%); promoting a positive school climate (17 respondents or 10.43%); and establishing school goals (20 respondents or 12.27%).

Toxic leadership and instructional leadership. The majority of survey respondents at least *somewhat agreed* ($\bar{x}$ = 3.5) their principal displayed toxic leadership behaviors and were at least *minimally effective* ($\bar{x}$ = 1.5) at developing systems of accountability (103 respondents or 63.19%); managing curriculum, instruction, and assessment (95 respondents or 58.28%); promoting a positive school climate (89 respondents or 54.60%); and establishing school goals (98 respondents or 60.12%). Fewer respondents at least *somewhat agreed* their principal exhibited toxic leadership behaviors and were at least *satisfactorily effective* ($\bar{x}$ = 2.5) at developing systems of accountability (29 respondents or 17.79%); managing curriculum, instruction, and assessment (27 respondents or 16.56%); promoting a positive school climate (20 respondents or 12.27%); and establishing school goals (25 respondents or 15.34%).

Increasing the level of agreeability for toxic leadership showed a decrease in the percentages. A little more than one-third of respondents *agreed* ($\bar{x}$ = 4.5) their principal displayed toxic leadership behaviors while also being at least *minimally effective* at developing systems of accountability (68 respondents or 41.72%); managing curriculum, instruction, and

assessment (61 respondents or 37.42%); promoting a positive school climate (61 respondents or 37.42%); and establishing school goals (63 respondents or 38.65%). About one-tenth of respondents *agreed* their principal exhibited toxic leadership behaviors and were at least *satisfactorily effective* at developing systems of accountability (18 respondents or 11.04%). Slightly fewer respondents *agreed* their principal exhibited toxic leadership behaviors and were at least *satisfactorily effective* at managing curriculum, instruction, and assessment (14 respondents or 8.59%); promoting a positive school climate (12 respondents or 7.36%); and establishing school goals (14 respondents or 8.59%).

Research Question 2

To answer Research Question 2, I used data from the second (i.e., instructional leadership) and third (i.e., destructive leadership) sections of the survey.

Descriptive statistics. I examined the descriptive statistics of each dimension of instructional leadership and destructive leadership to determine which leadership dimensions were more prevalent in the principals about whom survey respondents answered questions. Table 20 shows the mean, standard deviation, and variance for each dimension. For instructional leadership, which used a five-point Likert scale (1 represents *ineffective*, 2 represents *minimally effective*, 3 represents *satisfactorily effective*, 4 represents *highly effective*, 5 represents *outstandingly effective*), respondents rated their principals higher on developing systems of accountability ($\bar{x} = 1.9276$) than managing curriculum, instruction, and assessment ($\bar{x} = 1.8368$); promoting a positive school climate ($\bar{x} = 1.7607$); and establishing school goals ($\bar{x} = 1.8454$). For destructive leadership, which used a six-point Likert scale (1 represents *strongly disagree*, 2 represents *disagree*, 3 represents *somewhat disagree*, 4 represents *somewhat agree*, 5 represents *agree*, 6 represents *strongly agree*), respondents rated their principals highest on the

Table 20

Descriptive Statistics by Dimension

Dimension	N	Mean	Standard Deviation	Variance
Destructive Leadership				
Abusive Supervision	163	4.9246	.69334	.481
Bullying	163	5.2034	.74699	.558
Laissez Faire Leadership	163	4.6902	.82906	.687
Narcissism	163	5.1905	.75753	.574
Toxic Leadership	163	4.8833	.79507	.632
Instructional Leadership				
Accountability	163	1.9276	.65162	.425
Curriculum, Instruction, and Assessment	163	1.8368	.63722	.406
School Climate	163	1.7607	.62770	.394
School Goals	163	1.8454	.68179	.465

active destructive leadership behaviors of bullying ($\bar{x} = 5.2034$), narcissism ($\bar{x} = 5.1905$), abusive supervision ($\bar{x} = 4.9246$), and toxic leadership ($\bar{x} = 4.8833$) compared to the passive destructive leadership behaviors of laissez faire leadership ($\bar{x} = 4.6902$).

I also examined the descriptive statistics for each survey item to determine which individual leadership behaviors were more prevalent based on teachers' perceptions. Tables 21-22 shows the mean, standard deviation, and variance for each survey item. The destructive leadership behavior with the highest mean was "My principal tends to show excessive favoritism" ($\bar{x} = 5.64$) while the instructional leadership behavior with the highest mean was "Monitors disaggregated test results" ($\bar{x} = 2.23$).

Table 21

Descriptive Statistics by Instructional Leadership Item

	Mean	Standard Deviation	Variance
Developing systems of accountability: How effective is your principal at ensuring the school …			
Monitors student learning against high standards of achievement?	2.12	.926	.857
Monitors disaggregated test results?	2.23	.977	.954
Develops a plan for individual and collective accountability among faculty for student learning?	1.63	.753	.567
Allocates time to evaluate student learning?	1.91	.876	.768
Challenges faculty who attribute student failure to others?	1.75	.876	.767
Managing curriculum, instruction, and assessment: How effective is your principal at ensuring the school …			
Implements a rigorous curriculum in all classes?	1.95	.881	.775
Supports teachers to teach curriculum consistent with state and national content standards?	2.07	.906	.822
Supports collaboration among faculty to improve instruction that maximizes student learning?	1.77	.850	.723
Supports teachers' opportunities to improve their instructional practices?	1.69	.813	.661
Evaluates teachers' instructional practices?	1.71	.853	.728
Promoting a positive school climate: How effective is your principal at ensuring the school …			
Plans programs and policies that promote discipline and order?	1.69	.909	.826
Plans for a positive environment in which student learning is the central focus?	1.65	.813	.661
Builds a culture that honors academic achievement?	1.96	.916	.838
Allocates resources to build a culture focused on student learning?	1.87	.828	.685
Assesses the culture of the school from students' perspectives?	1.64	.858	.737
Establishing school goals: How effective is your principal at ensuring the school …			
Plans rigorous growth targets in learning for all students?	1.96	.849	.720
Creates buy-in among faculty for actions required to promote high standards of learning?	1.50	.773	.597
Creates expectations that faculty maintain high standards for student learning?	2.11	.949	.901
Encourages students to successfully achieve rigorous goals for student learning?	1.96	.874	.764
Challenges low expectations for students with special needs?	1.70	.803	.645

Note. Items assessed principals' instructional leadership behaviors as perceived by teachers on a five-point Likert scale (1 represented *ineffective*, 2 represented *minimally effective*, 3 represented *satisfactorily effective*, 4 represented *highly effective*, 5 represented *outstandingly effective*). Items originally appeared in the Vanderbilt Assessment of Leadership in Education (VAL-ED; Porter et al., 2008).

Table 22

Descriptive Statistics by Destructive Leadership Item

	Mean	Standard Deviation	Variance
Abusive Supervision			
My principal could best be described as mean.	4.86	1.230	1.514
My principal lacks self-control.	4.32	1.468	2.155
My principal tends to show excessive favoritism.	5.64	.777	.604
My principal tends to act in ways that divide employees against each other.	5.41	1.030	1.060
I can rarely predict how my principal is likely to behave.	4.39	1.463	2.140
Bullying			
My principal places brutal pressure on subordinates.	5.04	1.072	1.149
Anyone who challenges my principal is dealt with brutally.	5.31	.981	.962
I have often seen my principal bully another employee.	5.25	1.029	1.060
My principal holds grudges.	5.58	.719	.516
My principal rarely shows a level of respect for others.	4.84	1.170	1.369
Laissez Faire Leadership			
My principal does not have a clue what is going on in classrooms.	4.79	1.288	1.660
My principal does NOT pay enough attention to what really matters.	5.38	.892	.795
I rarely know what my principal expects of me.	4.44	1.300	1.689
I rarely know what my principal thinks of my work.	4.28	1.485	2.205
My principal does not provide an appropriate level of supervision and oversight.	4.56	1.404	1.972
Narcissism			
My principal is arrogant.	5.34	1.052	1.108
My principal is self-centered.	5.46	.911	.830
My principal lacks emotional intelligence.	4.98	1.171	1.372
My principal spends too much time promoting himself.	5.03	1.093	1.195
My principal is an inconsiderate person.	5.16	1.048	1.098
Toxic Leadership			
My principal is a micro-manager.	4.94	1.532	2.346
My principal acts in an unethical manner.	4.81	1.235	1.524
My principal rarely acts with a high level of integrity.	4.69	1.302	1.695
My principal often takes credit for the work that others have done.	4.92	1.266	1.602
My principal blames others for his/her own mistakes.	5.08	1.033	1.067

Note. Items assessed principals' destructive leadership behaviors as perceived by teachers on a six-point Likert scale (1 represented *strongly disagree*, 2 represented *disagree*, 3 represented *somewhat disagree*, 4 represented *somewhat agree*, 5 represented *agree*, 6 represented *strongly agree*). Respondents also had a seventh response option of *I don't know*, which was used in the original survey – the Destructive Leadership Questionnaire (Shaw et al., 2011).

The standard deviation and variance ratings showed a larger range of variability for the dimensions of destructive leadership compared to instructional leadership. Laissez faire leadership items, which had the lowest mean, had the largest variability in responses with a standard deviation of .82906 and variance of .687 followed closely by toxic leadership with a standard deviation of .79507 and variance of .632. Narcissism had a standard deviation of .75753 and variance of .574, and bullying items had a standard deviation of .74699 and variance of .558. Abusive supervision items had the lowest variability for the destructive leadership dimensions with a standard deviation of .69334 and variance of .481.

Items aligned to establishing school goals had the greatest variability for the instructional leadership items, with a standard deviation of .68179 and variance of .465. Items related to developing systems of accountability had a standard deviation of .65162 and variance of .425 while items related to managing curriculum, instruction, and assessment had a standard deviation of .63722 and variance of .406. Items connected to promoting a positive school climate had the lowest variability for all items in the survey with a standard deviation of .62770 and variance of .394.

Analysis of variance. To compare the means of the dimensions of instructional and destructive leadership, I conducted an analysis of variance, or ANOVA, twice. I first examined the means for instructional leadership that indicated teachers perceived their principal as at least *minimally effective* ($\bar{x}$ = 1.5) as an instructional leader. I then examined the means for instructional leadership that suggested teachers perceived their principal as at least *satisfactorily effective* ($\bar{x}$ = 2.5) as an instructional leader. For both ANOVAs, I used the means for destructive leadership that indicated teachers at least *somewhat agreed* ($\bar{x}$ = 3.5) their principal

displayed destructive leadership behaviors. I also conducted post hoc testing when ANOVAs produced significant differences.

For principals who were at least *minimally effective* as instructional leaders, significant differences existed for several variables. The difference in gender of the principal was significant for laissez faire leadership ($p = .043$). I could not run post hoc testing for this relationship since the survey only provided two categories for gender of the principal. For years working for the principal, the difference was significant for three instructional leadership dimensions: developing systems of accountability ($p = .029$); managing curriculum, instruction, and assessment ($p = .021$); and establishing school goals ($p = .042$). A Tukey post hoc test revealed no significant difference between the groups of years working for the principal regarding developing systems of accountability and establishing school goals. However, a Tukey post hoc test indicated a significant difference between working for the principal for 0-2 years and 3-5 years regarding managing curriculum, instruction, and assessment ($p = .045$). The difference in levels of student success were significant when compared to managing curriculum, instruction, and assessment ($p = .047$) and promoting a positive school climate ($p = .038$). A Tukey post hoc test indicated a significant difference between failing schools and high-achieving schools regarding managing curriculum, instruction, and assessment ($p = .041$) and promoting a positive school climate ($p = .028$).

For principals who were at least *satisfactorily effective* as instructional leaders, a significant difference occurred when comparing years of teaching to the principal establishing school goals ($p = .009$). A Tukey post hoc test indicated a significant difference between teaching for 11-15 years and 16-20 years ($p = .05$) and teaching 16-20 years and 21 or more years ($p = .003$). When examining the gender of the principal, the difference was significant for

developing systems of accountability (p = .047) and for laissez faire leadership (p = .043). Again, I could not run post hoc testing for this relationship since the survey only provided two categories for gender of the principal. The difference was significant overall when promoting a positive school climate was compared with years working for the principal (p = .049). However, a Tukey post hoc test did not reveal a significant difference amongst the groups for years working for the principal. The difference was significant when comparing levels of student success and two dimensions of instructional leadership: managing curriculum, instruction, and assessment (p = .033) and promoting a positive school climate (p = .002). Regarding managing curriculum, instruction, and assessment, a Tukey post hoc indicated a significant difference between failing schools and high-achieving schools (p = .041) and between average-achieving schools and high-achieving schools (p = .043). Post hoc testing also revealed a significant difference between failing schools and high-achieving schools (p = .001) and average-achieving schools and high-achieving schools (p = .025) regarding promoting a positive school climate.

Chi square. I conducted a chi square test to determine whether there was an association between demographic data and the dimensions of instructional leadership and the dimensions of destructive leadership. Chi square is an appropriate test when examining categorical variables. As I did for ANOVA, I conducted two chi square tests. I first examined the means for instructional leadership that indicated teachers perceived their principal as at least *minimally effective* ($\bar{x}$ = 1.5) as an instructional leader. I then examined the means for instructional leadership that suggested teachers perceived their principal as at least *satisfactorily effective* ($\bar{x}$ = 2.5) as an instructional leader. For both chi square tests, I used the means for destructive leadership that indicated teachers at least *somewhat agreed* ($\bar{x}$ = 3.5) their principal displayed destructive leadership behaviors.

For principals who were at least *minimally effective* as instructional leaders, chi square tests showed a significant difference for only two comparisons when the expected cell count assumption was less than 20% and the significance level was .05 or less. A significant difference existed when comparing student success levels with managing curriculum, instruction, and assessment (p = .048) and promoting a positive school climate (p = .038).

For principals who were at least *satisfactorily effective* as instructional leaders, chi square tests showed a significant difference for three comparisons when the expected cell count assumption was less than 20% and the significance level was .05 or less. A comparison of the principal's gender and developing systems of accountability showed a significant difference (p = .046). A significant difference existed when comparing student success levels with managing curriculum, instruction, and assessment (p = .033) and promoting a positive school climate (p = .002).

Social Media Comments

Though this study centered around two research questions that were best answered by a quantitative survey, multiple people left comments on the Facebook posts that were worth mentioning. One person commented that the survey should have been open to all school employees, not just teachers. "The next study should be open to public school employees. … It is only open to teachers not support staff," she commented. This indicated the destructive leadership behaviors of principals not only impact classroom teachers, but also other staff, which might include secretaries, custodians, cafeteria workers, and instructional coaches.

Two people commented the survey should have been open to staff who experienced the destructive leadership behaviors of superintendents. This suggested that destructive leadership in K-12 education can exist at the district level, not just the school level.

Several other people commented that the survey should have been open to private school teachers, noting that destructive leaders do not just work in public schools in the U.S. One person noted, "It's only for PUBLIC school teachers. It happens in private school, too." Another commenter wrote, "Private school principals do this very, very often. Because their employees are 'at will,' they have nothing to lose." In response to another post about being bullied by a principal, another person wrote,

> So was I. It was a private Catholic school. I reported the details to the priest and the superintendent. I was told 'the principal can do whatever he wants.' Still have trouble reconciling the abuse with a Christian 'leader.' And he has sabotaged all effort at finding another job. I've listed it as a hostile work environment.

Some people left comments on the Facebook posts describing the impact a principal's destructive leadership behaviors had on their careers or well-being, which aligned with previous research that principals' destructive leadership behaviors can negatively impact teachers (Berkovich & Eyal, 2016; Blasé & Blasé, 2002; Blasé et al., 2008; Çoğaltay et al., 2016). One person reported that she left education for a time.

> Bullying caused me to leave my chosen field within education for several years. I'm so glad I am back in it and in a situation where I don't report to a principal though I am a classroom teacher. People don't quit jobs … they quit bosses. While not entirely true for education, it definitely plays a role.

Another person noted, "I was bullied so much that I was diagnosed with PTSD as were several colleagues." A school district-level employee shared the negative impact a principal's abusive behavior on his own career.

I was a bus driver and witnessed a principal abuse a teacher. My sister is a teacher and I told her about it. Fast forward a year he has been fired and applied at my sister's school. She was on the hiring board. Needless to say he didn't get the job.

One commenter indicated the study should be open to former teachers who left education because of the destructive leadership behaviors of principals for whom they worked. "It would be nice if this study was open to those of us who left the classroom after being bullied by admin," she noted.

Two people left positive notes about their principals, which indicated not all teachers who saw the Facebook posts matched the criteria for inclusion in this study. One teacher noted, "I'm so lucky. I've had the best principals in the world." Another expressed concern that her principal might one day leave her school. "My principal is absolutely amazing. I'm so worried for when she leaves eventually," she said.

Online Surveys as a Data Collection Tool

This study also showed the effectiveness of using an online survey as a tool to collect data about a heard-to-reach population, which supports previous research (Wright, 2005; Xu et al., 2019). Destructive leadership is not spoken about much in the education arena, and little research exists about it in K-12 education schools compared to other areas such as business, healthcare, and the military. More research needs to be done on this topic, and online surveys can help researchers find study participants.

Discussion

The purpose of this study was to examine the extent to which principals who exhibit destructive leadership behaviors also exhibit instructional leadership behaviors as perceived by teachers. This study confirmed previous research that principals behaving as destructive leaders

in K-12 education continues to be a current issue (Berkovich & Eyal, 2017; Blasé & Blasé, 2002; Blasé et al., 2008; Milley, 2017; Sam, 2020; Woestman, 2014; Woestman & Wasonga, 2015). The results of this study also indicated that principals can indeed exhibit both instructional and destructive leadership behaviors. However, teachers are more likely to perceive principals as less effective instructional leaders if they feel more strongly that principals display destructive leadership behaviors. The results of this study not only have theoretical implications but also implications for practitioners and policymakers.

Theoretical Implications

Since the 1980s, many researchers have cited Hallinger and Murphy's (1985) research on instructional leadership in K-12 education. Their definition of instructional leadership focused on three aspects of a principal's job – defining the school mission, managing instruction, and promoting a school climate. Though their work is foundational to current descriptions of instructional leadership, recent research has indicated Hallinger and Murphy's definition lacked some details. It missed some key aspects of how principals support teachers with their classroom duties. The current study took into account research from the last 40 years on instructional leadership and expanded the definition of this construct to include more precise language and current practices that a principal employs as the leader of a school's instructional program. A principal who acts as an instructional leader a) establishes school goals with student learning as the focus; b) ensures teachers use high-quality curriculum, instruction, and assessment; c) promotes a positive school climate for students and staff; and d) develops systems of accountability that puts students at the center of decision making.

As with instructional leadership, researchers have used various definitions to describe destructive leadership. Some researchers considered destructive leadership as synonymous with

other constructs such as toxic leadership (Schmidt, 2008), while some argued destructive leadership is a larger construct that encompasses toxic leadership, abusive supervision, and bullying (Burns, 2017; Einarsen et al., 2007). The current study supported research that destructive leadership is a broad theory that encompasses principals' behaviors that can be categorized as toxic leadership, abusive supervision, bullying, narcissistic, or laissez faire. However, given the study's focus on teachers' perceptions of principals' behaviors, it did not confirm whether destructive leadership is volitional, as argued by Krasikova et al. (2013), or unintentional, as asserted by Einarsen et al. (2007).

Of greater theoretical importance, this study indicated principals can display both instructional leadership and destructive leadership behaviors. However, as principals increase their instructional leadership behaviors, they are less likely to be perceived by teachers as displaying destructive leadership behaviors. This was evident from both the correlational analysis as well as the comparative analysis of frequencies.

It is also worth noting that principals who displayed laissez faire leadership appeared to be less effective as instructional leaders than principals who displayed other destructive leadership behaviors. Laissez faire leadership had the largest negative correlation coefficients related to all four dimensions of instructional leadership when compared to the other dimensions of destructive leadership. An examination of the frequencies also indicated principals with higher laissez faire leadership scores rated lower on instructional leadership compared to the other dimensions of destructive leadership. Narcissism and bullying appeared to have less of an impact on how teachers rated their principals on instructional leadership compared to toxic leadership and abusive supervision, based on the frequencies analysis. However, the correlation coefficients for narcissism and toxic leadership are very close.

Leadership Practice Implications

Educational leaders and researchers across the United States have espoused the importance of instructional leadership for decades. Many states, including Alabama, Georgia, and Virginia, include instructional leadership components in their state leadership standards. Alabama even included *instructional leadership* in the title for its leadership expectations for principals (i.e., Alabama Continuum for Instructional Leader Development).

Discussion around instructional leadership often centers on what the construct is but rarely includes what it is not. As evidenced by this study, it is possible for a principal to display instructional leadership behaviors while at the same time displaying behaviors that are *not* instructional leadership (i.e., destructive leadership behaviors). Principals and those who train and manage principals (e.g., university professors and superintendents) need to understand the difference between instructional leadership and destructive leadership, the extent to which principals can display both types of behaviors, and how to avoid exhibiting destructive leadership.

Instructional leadership involves establishing school goals; managing curriculum, instruction, and assessment; promoting a positive school climate; and developing systems of accountability. Yet while displaying instructional leadership behaviors such as building a culture that honors academic achievement (i.e., promoting a positive school climate), a principal could also take credit for the work that others have done (i.e., destructive leadership – toxic leadership). A principal could place brutal pressure on subordinates (i.e., destructive leadership – bullying) while ensuring the school implements a rigorous curriculum in all classes (i.e., instructional leadership – manages curriculum, instruction, and assessment). Principals and those who train and manage principals need to understand the difference between instructional

leadership and destructive leadership. Effective leadership involves not only the presence of constructive behaviors but also the absence of destructive ones.

Though the results of the current survey indicated a negative correlation existed between principals' displaying destructive leadership behaviors and instructional leadership behaviors as perceived by teachers, they also showed it was possible for a principal to display both types of behaviors. The correlations alone could be interpreted to mean principals cannot display both destructive leadership behaviors and instructional leadership behaviors. However, by examining the percentages of respondents who affirmed each survey item, it was evident that principals can indeed display both types of behaviors as perceived by teachers. More than 50% of teachers at least somewhat agreed that their principals displayed a particular set of destructive leadership behaviors and was at least minimally effective as an instructional leader. Between 40% and 50% of teachers agreed or strongly agreed that their principal displayed destructive leadership behaviors and was at least minimally effective as an instructional leader. On average, 11-13% of teachers agreed or strongly agreed their principal exhibited abusive supervision, bullying, or narcissistic behaviors while also exhibiting effective instructional leadership behaviors. This data indicated principals can display both instructional and destructive leadership behaviors concurrently. Principals and those who train and manage principals need to understand the extent to which principals can display both types of behaviors. This knowledge and awareness might impact principals' actions and thus lessen teachers' exposure to destructive leadership.

Principals, university faculty, and district leaders also need to understand that principals' destructive leadership remains an issue in K-12 educational settings, which the current study indicated, confirming previous research (Berkovich & Eyal, 2017; Blasé & Blasé, 2002; Blasé et al., 2008; Milley, 2017; Sam, 2020; Woestman, 2014; Woestman & Wasonga, 2015). One

hundred sixty-three teachers from 39 states completed the survey indicating a principal for whom they worked was a destructive leader. These teachers had varied backgrounds in education, from the number of years they served as teachers to their degree level. They represented different ethnicities and genders. The teachers taught in urban, suburban, and rural school districts. Their schools varied by size, student achievement, and percent of low-income students. Yet all of them shared a common experience – they all worked for a destructive leader. These results indicated that principals' destructive leadership occurs in various types of K-12 educational settings. Principals and other educational leaders need to understand that few if any educational settings are immune to this type of leadership so they can watch for the signs of destructive leadership behaviors and work to mitigate them.

Principals and those who train and manage principals need training around these topics. More importantly, they need to become comfortable discussing destructive leadership and its negative effects on teachers and staff. Destructive leadership is a topic rarely discussed in K-12 education in the United States. It is a topic that can make people uncomfortable. If school leaders are going to avoid displaying these negative behaviors, they need to better understand their own propensity toward destructive leadership.

Policy Implications

Policymakers serve as advocates for best practices in educational leadership. Through their decision making, they use mandates, incentives, and capacity building to motivate people to action (McDonnell & Elmore, 1987; Schneider & Ingram, 1990). Policymakers of multiple levels influence what happens at the school level. National and state policymakers set policies around a variety of topics including student achievement and principal leadership standards while local policymakers influence curriculum, school zoning, and principal assignments.

Policymakers serve an important role in K-12 education in the United States, especially regarding policies around principal leadership and effectiveness.

Policy implementation, however, is also a key factor in principal leadership and effectiveness. Implementation is impacted by implementers' understanding of the policy details and demands (Spillane et al., 2006). For principals and those who train and manage principals to understand the difference between instructional leadership and destructive leadership, the extent to which principals can display both types of behaviors, and how to avoid exhibiting destructive leadership, policymakers need to enact policies that support and encourage these actions. They might consider policies that explicitly describe a) what effective instructional leadership is and is not and b) how destructive leadership behaviors can decrease a principal's effectiveness as an instructional leader. They also might consider providing funding for principals' training around these topics.

Policymakers might consider how current policies influence the collision of principals' instructional leadership and destructive leadership behaviors. For example, in schools and districts under state take-over, there could be a hyper-focus on student achievement. Principals might feel pressured to ensure an increase in test scores, which might lead to micromanaging behavior (i.e., destructive leadership – toxic leadership; DuFour & Mattos, 2013). Principals who micromanage teachers could also create expectations that faculty maintain high standards for student learning (i.e., instructional leadership – establishes school goals) and monitor student learning against high standards of achievement (i.e., instructional leadership – develops systems of accountability). This collision of instructional leadership and destructive leadership could lessen the principal's effectiveness and negatively impact teachers and staff. By creating policies that recognize the possibility principals can display both instructional and destructive leadership

behaviors, policymakers might be able to help decrease the likelihood that principals will display negative behaviors.

Limitations

The findings of this study indicate principals can exhibit both destructive leadership behaviors and instructional leadership behaviors. However, as with all research, there are limitations to this study. The Cronbach's alpha ratings were acceptable but moderate for two dimensions of destructive leadership – toxic leadership and laissez faire leadership. Cronbach's alpha for abusive supervision was low at .458. Better ratings might have been achieved had the survey items been created specific for this study rather than borrowed from existing surveys and reorganized to match this study's theoretical framework.

Teachers who have experienced principals' destructive leadership behaviors are a hard-to-reach population, which warrants using an online survey (Wright, 2005; Xu et al., 2019). However, using an online survey results in several limitations. The researcher must trust that respondents are part of the desired population – in this case, that they are current K-12 public school teachers in the United States who have experienced the destructive leadership behaviors of a principal. The researcher must also trust that respondents answer items truthfully. Based upon comments left on one of the Facebook posts about the survey, at least two respondents should not have completed the survey. At least one respondent did not answer about her principal, noting, "I answered about my assistant principal who made the primary decision to force me out of my school at the end of the school year." Another respondent commented that she answered about her former public school principal though she is now a private school teacher.

The findings of this study are from the perspective of teachers about whom little is known regarding their relationship with the principals about whom they answered survey questions. Little is also known about the circumstances under which they chose to stay or leave working for their principal. These teachers might have a negativity bias toward their principal given they reported their principal exhibited destructive leadership behaviors. This might have influenced how they rated their principal on instructional leadership items. It is also not known whether teachers in the same school as the survey respondents had similar experiences with principals' destructive leadership behaviors.

Another limitation of this study centers around the sample. The sample for this study is not representative of the total population of K-12 teachers in the U.S. Rather, this study is representative of the phenomenon of destructive leadership in schools. Thus, the results of this study cannot be generalized to the total population of K-12 teachers in the United States.

Also, the survey included only limited data about the principal about whom respondents answered questions. Respondents provided only the gender of their principal. Gathering data about the ethnicity of the principal as well as the number of years served as a school principal might provide more meaningful data about the types of principals who are more likely to display destructive leadership behaviors.

Recommendations for Future Research

Though this study confirmed previous research that destructive leadership exists in K-12 public schools in the U.S. (Berkovich & Eyal, 2017; Blasé & Blasé, 2002; Blasé et al., 2008; Milley, 2017; Sam, 2020; Woestman, 2014; Woestman & Wasonga, 2015), little is known about the overlap of constructive leadership and destructive leadership. This study is one of the few studies to examine the extent to which a principal could exhibit both constructive leadership

behaviors (i.e., instructional leadership) and destructive leadership behaviors as perceived by teachers. The findings provide evidence that principals can display both instructional leadership and destructive leadership behaviors. These results bring to question to what extent principals can display other constructive leadership behaviors, such as transformational, transactional, distributive, and social justice leadership, while also displaying destructive leadership behaviors. Understanding this overlap could help educational policymakers as well as practitioners consider strategies to ensure principals act as satisfactorily effective constructive leaders, which might lessen the likelihood teachers will perceive them as destructive leaders.

Most K-12 education research involving destructive leadership at the school level involves examining principals' behaviors. Few studies examine how assistant principals display destructive leadership, though they too are in leadership positions. One commenter on Facebook noted her negative experience with an assistant principal. This study could be repeated with the slight change of investigating assistant principals' behaviors.

Future researchers could also adapt this study to examine the destructive leadership behaviors of superintendents. Limited research exists investigating destructive leadership at the district level. Researchers could consider the extent to which superintendents act as instructional leaders at the district level while also displaying destructive leadership behaviors. They might also consider the experiences of all district-level staff as well as principals who serve under superintendents.

This study did not examine the negative impact principals' destructive leadership behaviors can have on classroom teachers. However, based on the response rate to this survey, the comments on the Facebook posts, and the fact that 45.4% of respondents only worked for the principal about whom they answered questions for two years or less, destructive leadership

behaviors can have immediate and lasting effects on teachers. They can also impact support staff, such as secretaries, custodians, and instructional coaches. More needs to be studied about the negative impact destructive leadership can have on all employees in a school. Researchers might also consider how destructive leadership indirectly impacts school culture mediated by teacher turnover and job satisfaction as well as its impact on student engagement and achievement.

This study also did not examine instructional leadership and destructive leadership from the perspective of the principal who exhibited those behaviors. As noted by Ferris et al. (2007), leaders can strategically display bullying behaviors to produce immediate compliance from employees and motivate low-achieving employees to leave the organization. Future researchers might consider studying the overlap of instructional leadership and destructive leadership in a particular school in which a new principal has been charged with turning around a failing school. A study like this might provide a better understanding of how turnaround principals use destructive leadership to motivate teachers and staff to change their behaviors.

Future researchers might consider examining to what extent principal preparation programs develop leaders' capacity to recognize destructive leadership behaviors in themselves and others and take corrective actions to mitigate those behaviors. An important step in lessening teachers' exposure to destructive leadership behaviors is the recognition and acknowledgement that those behaviors. Researchers might also consider studying how policymakers, such as the Council of Chief State School Officers, encourage supervisors of principals to hold principals accountable for their destructive leadership behaviors.

Conclusion

The purpose of this study was to examine the extent to which principals who exhibit destructive leadership behaviors also exhibit instructional leadership behaviors as perceived by teachers. This study affirmed previous research that destructive leadership is a current issue in K-12 education in the United States (Berkovich & Eyal, 2017; Blasé & Blasé, 2002; Blasé et al., 2008; Milley, 2017; Sam, 2020; Woestman, 2014; Woestman & Wasonga, 2015). This study also expanded the empirical literature on the overlap of instructional leadership and destructive leadership. Few, if any studies, preceded this study on the topic.

The results of this study indicated that a) principals can display both instructional leadership behaviors and destructive leadership behaviors as perceived by teachers and b) teachers are more likely to see principals as more effective instructional leaders if they display fewer destructive leadership behaviors. This information is important for policymakers, practitioners, and those who train principals to become effective educational leaders, such as university faculty. Policymakers and trainers of principals might reconsider how they define an effective instructional leader, including in their definition and guidance negative behaviors that impact instructional leader effectiveness. For example, they might include in their guidance to practitioners that effective instructional leaders show respect for staff members (the opposite of bullying), do not micromanager staff (the opposite of toxic leadership), and do not show favoritism amongst staff (the opposite of abusive supervision). Practitioners, or acting principals, might also want to consider how their actions are viewed by teachers as destructive as this can impact teacher stress (Einarsen et al., 2003; Hauge et al., 2007; Schmidt, 2008; Woestman & Wasonga; 2015), intent to leave their school (Barnes & Spangenburg, 2018; Blasé & Blasé, 2002; Ferris et al., 2007; Haider et al., 2018; Schmidt, 2008) and job satisfaction

(Barnes & Spangenburg, 2018; Barnett, 2017; Cansoy, 2018; Cemaloglu, 2011; Çoğaltay et al., 2016; Hauge et al., 2007; Schmidt, 2008; Schyns & Schilling, 2013; Woestman & Wasonga, 2015). Principals can decrease the likelihood teachers will view their actions as destructive by consistently displaying instructional leadership.

Destructive leadership in K-12 education is a serious issue that must be studied more as well as talked about more by policymakers, practitioners, and trainers of principals. Exhibiting instructional leadership behaviors is not enough for principals. They must also consider how their actions can be perceived by teachers as abusive, bullying, narcissistic, laissez faire, and toxic. They can work to reduce teachers' exposure to destructive leadership behaviors and thus decrease the likelihood of teacher stress, turnover, and poor job satisfaction.

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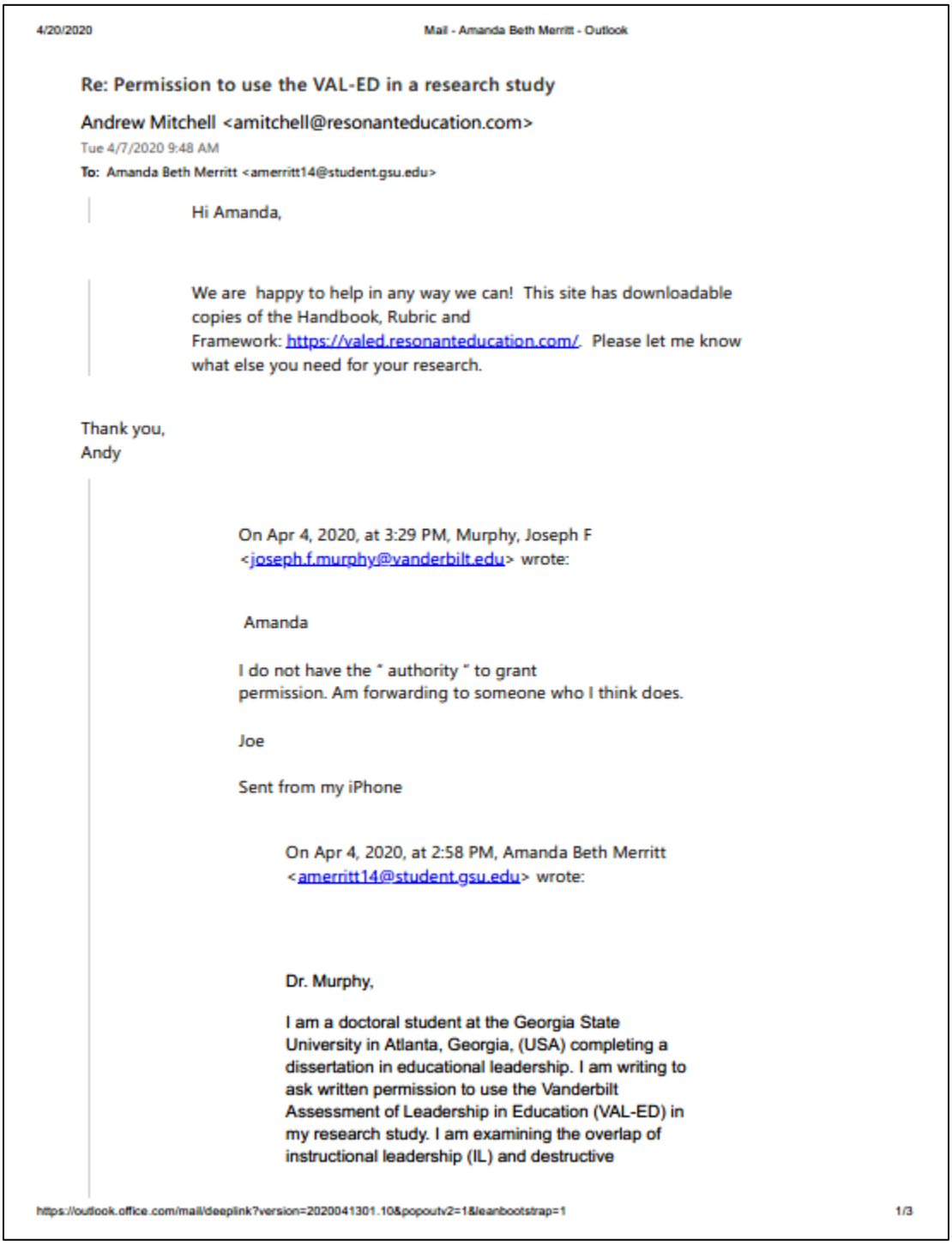
Appendices

Appendix A: Permission to Use Items from the Vanderbilt Assessment of Leadership in Education (VAL-ED)



4/20/2020 Mail - Amanda Beth Merritt - Outlook

Re: Permission to use the VAL-ED in a research study

Andrew Mitchell <amitchell@resonanteducation.com>
Tue 4/7/2020 9:48 AM
To: Amanda Beth Merritt <amerritt14@student.gsu.edu>

> Hi Amanda,
>
> We are happy to help in any way we can! This site has downloadable copies of the Handbook, Rubric and Framework: https://valed.resonanteducation.com/. Please let me know what else you need for your research.

Thank you,
Andy

> On Apr 4, 2020, at 3:29 PM, Murphy, Joseph F <joseph.f.murphy@vanderbilt.edu> wrote:
>
> Amanda
>
> I do not have the " authority " to grant permission. Am forwarding to someone who I think does.
>
> Joe
>
> Sent from my iPhone
>
> > On Apr 4, 2020, at 2:58 PM, Amanda Beth Merritt <amerritt14@student.gsu.edu> wrote:
> >
> > Dr. Murphy,
> >
> > I am a doctoral student at the Georgia State University in Atlanta, Georgia, (USA) completing a dissertation in educational leadership. I am writing to ask written permission to use the Vanderbilt Assessment of Leadership in Education (VAL-ED) in my research study. I am examining the overlap of instructional leadership (IL) and destructive

https://outlook.office.com/mail/deeplink?version=2020041301.10&popoutv2=1&leanbootstrap=1 1/3

leadership (DL). My research is being supervised by my professor, Dr. Yinying Wang, assistant professor.

I would appreciate receiving copies of the VAL-ED, the standard instructions for administering the questionnaire, and scoring procedures.

I plan to use a selection of items from the VAL-ED that align to instructional leadership behaviors. I will use an online survey to gather teachers' perceptions of the behaviors of a current or former principal who they believe is a destructive leader. I will conduct a correlational analysis to determine the relationship between the DL behaviors and IL behaviors.

In addition to using the instrument, I also ask your permission to reproduce it in my dissertation appendix. The dissertation will be published in the GSU Institutional Repository at https://scholarworks.gsu.edu/.

I would like to use items from the DLQ under the following conditions:

- I will use the VAL-ED only for my research study and will not sell or use it for any other purposes.
- I will include a statement of attribution and copyright on all copies of the instrument. If you have a specific statement of attribution that you would like for me to include, please provide it in your response.
- At your request, I will send a copy of my completed research study to you upon completion of the study and/or provide a hyperlink to the final manuscript.

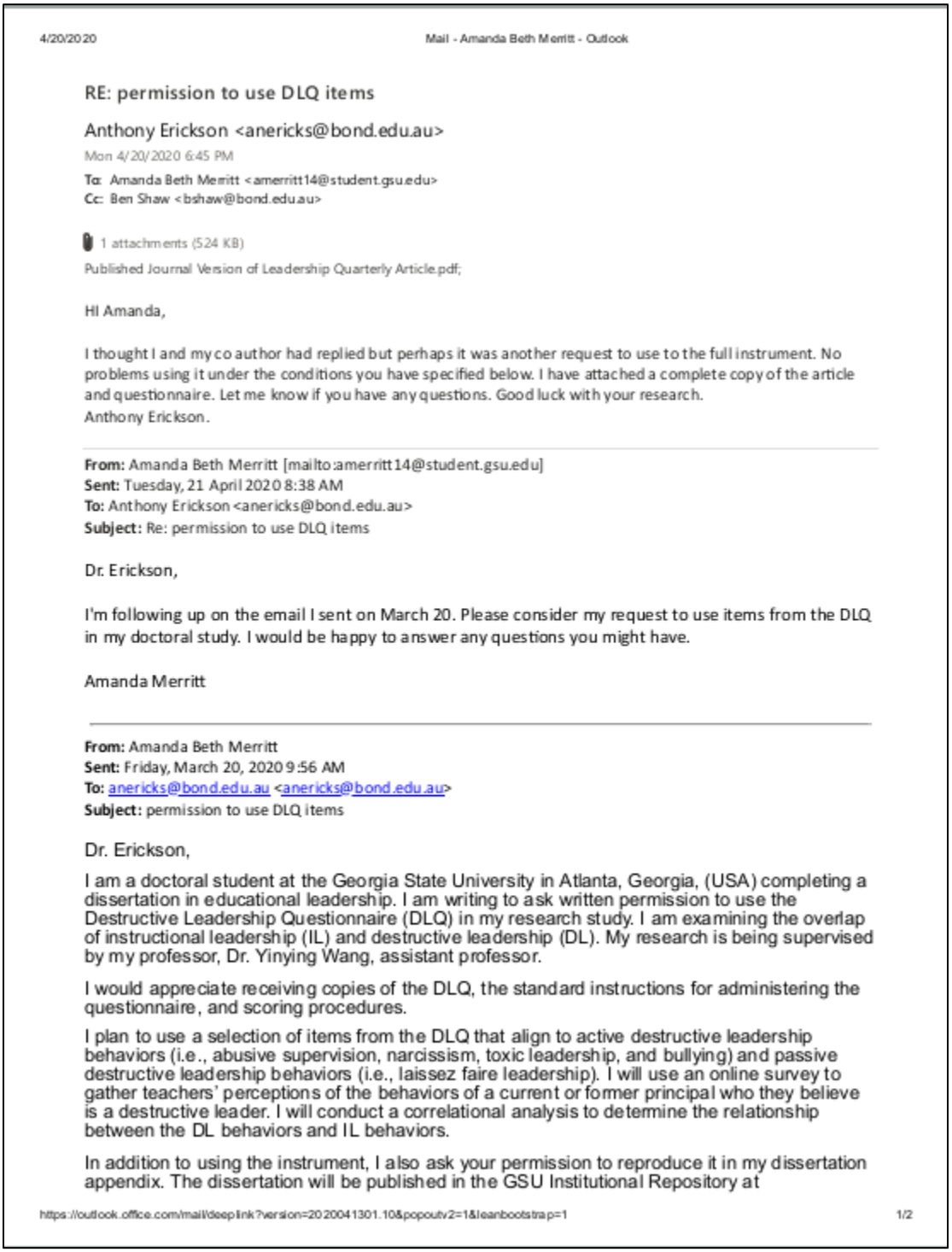
If you do not control the copyright for these materials, I would appreciate any information you can provide concerning the proper person or organization I should contact.

If these are acceptable terms and conditions, please indicate so by replying to me through email at amerritt14@student.gsu.edu.

Sincerely,

Amanda Merritt

Appendix B: Permission to Use Items from the Destructive Leadership Questionnaire (DLQ)



4/20/2020 Mail - Amanda Beth Merritt - Outlook

RE: permission to use DLQ items

Anthony Erickson <anericks@bond.edu.au>

Mon 4/20/2020 6:45 PM

To: Amanda Beth Merritt <amerritt14@student.gsu.edu>
Cc: Ben Shaw <bshaw@bond.edu.au>

1 attachments (524 KB)

Published Journal Version of Leadership Quarterly Article.pdf;

HI Amanda,

I thought I and my co author had replied but perhaps it was another request to use to the full instrument. No problems using it under the conditions you have specified below. I have attached a complete copy of the article and questionnaire. Let me know if you have any questions. Good luck with your research.
Anthony Erickson.

From: Amanda Beth Merritt [mailto:amerritt14@student.gsu.edu]
Sent: Tuesday, 21 April 2020 8:38 AM
To: Anthony Erickson <anericks@bond.edu.au>
Subject: Re: permission to use DLQ items

Dr. Erickson,

I'm following up on the email I sent on March 20. Please consider my request to use items from the DLQ in my doctoral study. I would be happy to answer any questions you might have.

Amanda Merritt

From: Amanda Beth Merritt
Sent: Friday, March 20, 2020 9:56 AM
To: anericks@bond.edu.au <anericks@bond.edu.au>
Subject: permission to use DLQ items

Dr. Erickson,

I am a doctoral student at the Georgia State University in Atlanta, Georgia, (USA) completing a dissertation in educational leadership. I am writing to ask written permission to use the Destructive Leadership Questionnaire (DLQ) in my research study. I am examining the overlap of instructional leadership (IL) and destructive leadership (DL). My research is being supervised by my professor, Dr. Yinying Wang, assistant professor.

I would appreciate receiving copies of the DLQ, the standard instructions for administering the questionnaire, and scoring procedures.

I plan to use a selection of items from the DLQ that align to active destructive leadership behaviors (i.e., abusive supervision, narcissism, toxic leadership, and bullying) and passive destructive leadership behaviors (i.e., laissez faire leadership). I will use an online survey to gather teachers' perceptions of the behaviors of a current or former principal who they believe is a destructive leader. I will conduct a correlational analysis to determine the relationship between the DL behaviors and IL behaviors.

In addition to using the instrument, I also ask your permission to reproduce it in my dissertation appendix. The dissertation will be published in the GSU Institutional Repository at

https://outlook.office.com/mail/deeplink?version=20200413 01.10&popoutv2=1&leanbootstrap=1 1/2

https://scholarworks.gsu.edu/.

I would like to use items from the DLQ under the following conditions:

- I will use the DLQ only for my research study and will not sell or use it for any other purposes.
- I will include a statement of attribution and copyright on all copies of the instrument. If you have a specific statement of attribution that you would like for me to include, please provide it in your response.
- At your request, I will send a copy of my completed research study to you upon completion of the study and/or provide a hyperlink to the final manuscript.

If you do not control the copyright for these materials, I would appreciate any information you can provide concerning the proper person or organization I should contact.

If these are acceptable terms and conditions, please indicate so by replying to me through e-mail at amerritt14@student.gsu.edu.

Sincerely,

Amanda Merritt