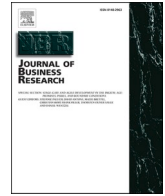




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The dark side of leadership: A systematic literature review and meta-analysis of destructive leadership research[☆]

Jeremy D. Mackey^{a,*}, B. Parker Ellen III^b, Charn P. McAllister^c, Katherine C. Alexander^a

^a Auburn University, Harbert College of Business, Department of Management, 405 W. Magnolia Avenue, Auburn, AL 36849, USA

^b Northeastern University, D'Amore-McKim School of Business, Management and Organizational Development Group, 360 Huntington Avenue, Boston, MA 02115, USA

^c Northern Arizona University, W. A. Franke College of Business, Department of Management, 101 E McConnell Drive, Flagstaff, AZ 86011, USA

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ABSTRACT

The destructive leadership literature has grown remarkably in recent years. Although the field has generated an impressive body of knowledge, we still have an incomplete understanding of destructive leadership. We conduct a systematic literature review of destructive leadership research so we can create a solid foundation for knowledge production and theory development within this literature. Further, we draw from 418 empirical samples of data ($k = 418$, $N = 123,511$) to conduct random-effects meta-analyses that estimate the magnitude and direction of relationships within destructive leadership's nomological network. Ultimately, our study leverages and integrates the many insights from the destructive leadership literature to advance knowledge, facilitate nuanced theory development, generate useful directions for future research, and create evidence-based recommendations for policy and practice.

1. Introduction

"If you only knew the power of the dark side."

~ Darth Vader

Society's fascination with Darth Vader and other notorious supervillains has generated tremendous scholarly and practical interest in understanding destructive leaders who use "the power of the dark side" to influence followers (Krasikova, Green, & LeBreton, 2013; Martinko, Harvey, Brees, & Mackey, 2013; Schyns & Schilling, 2013; Tepper, 2007; Tepper, Simon, & Park, 2017). Despite all of this interest, we still do not truly understand destructive leadership, which is a broad construct that captures styles of leadership comprised of behaviors embedded within leadership influence processes that harm followers and/or organizations (Krasikova et al., 2013). However, prior business research has demonstrated that destructive leadership is an enduring problem for organizations due to its adverse and expensive effects on followers' task performance, absenteeism, turnover, and legal actions (Tepper, Duffy, Henle, & Lambert, 2006). Altogether, prior business research consistently demonstrates that destructive leadership is costly and adversely affects important workplace outcomes that are essential

for effective organizational functioning.

However, destructive leadership research lacks a solid foundation because prior findings remain disjointed. The multitude of destructive leadership styles and theoretical foundations applied within this literature have generated confusion about the current state of knowledge in the field. This lack of clarity has resulted in the need for more parsimonious theoretical frameworks and a cohesive empirical foundation. Schyns and Schilling's (2013) highly influential meta-analysis provides the current empirical foundation for the destructive leadership literature. Their study has already generated a tremendous impact in this literature (e.g., over 750 citations in the seven years since its publication, according to Google Scholar). However, their study is missing nearly a decade worth of knowledge generation (i.e., studies available since their study searches ended in September 2010) and only examined outcomes of destructive leadership. Mackey, McAllister, Maher, and Wang (2019) updated some of Schyns and Schilling's meta-analytic findings, but only for performance-related variables. Thus, the empirical foundation for destructive leadership research has continued to focus on outcomes of destructive leadership.

We remedy this problem by conducting a systematic literature review (Snyder, 2019) that enables us to assess antecedents and outcomes

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* Corresponding author at: Auburn University, Harbert College of Business, Department of Management, Lowder Business Building, 405 W. Magnolia Avenue, Auburn, AL 36849, USA.

E-mail addresses: jmackey@auburn.edu (J.D. Mackey), p.ellen@northeastern.edu (B. Parker Ellen), katie.alexander@auburn.edu (K.C. Alexander).

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of destructive leadership so we can generate a “firm foundation for advancing knowledge and facilitating theory development” (Snyder, 2019, p. 333). Our findings expand our knowledge of the nomological networks of destructive leadership and provide more stable meta-analytic estimates than prior research so we can generate a strong, cohesive foundation from which to leverage the last 20 years of research in this area so we can meaningfully advance it forward.

The purpose of this paper is to conduct a systematic literature review of destructive leadership research that leverages meta-analytic techniques and the enormous body of empirical research available to improve our understanding of the relationships within destructive leadership’s nomological network. We use random-effects meta-analyses (Hunter & Schmidt, 2004) to evaluate relationships within destructive leadership’s nomological network that have been examined so we can address our central research question “with a power that no single study has” in order to “uncover areas in which more research is needed, which is a critical component of creating theoretical frameworks and building conceptual models” (Snyder, 2019, p. 333). We accomplish this goal by following best practice recommendations for conducting empirical forms of systematic literature review (i.e., meta-analysis; Siddaway, Wood, & Hedges, 2018; Snyder, 2019) so we can produce findings that help the field move forward in a manner that informs theory building, business research, policy, and practice.

We make an empirical contribution by conducting a meta-analysis of the destructive leadership literature that has unprecedented breadth for this literature. Our massive scope ($k = 418$, $N = 123,511$) enables us to provide a much more detailed and accurate assessment of the nomological network of destructive leadership than previously possible. Our systematic examination of the literature and the use of rigorous meta-analytic techniques enable us to make an empirical contribution that illuminates novel and nuanced insight into the magnitude of relationships within the nomological network of destructive leadership. Further, our meta-analytic findings make a theoretical contribution by serving as building blocks for nuanced theory construction and extension (Hunter & Schmidt, 2004; Snyder, 2019) within this literature as it moves forward. Finally, we make practical contributions by producing estimates that inform evidence-based practice. Overall, our contributions leverage the massive scope of our meta-analysis to conduct a systematic literature review of the destructive leadership literature so we can build the solid empirical foundation necessary to advance knowledge. The foundation we provide can facilitate nuanced theory development, generate actionable directions for future research, and create evidence-based recommendations for policy and practice from the many insights available within this literature. Ultimately, our study is necessary for this literature to reach its unrealized potential.

Below, we provide an overview of destructive leadership, destructive leadership styles, and destructive leadership’s nomological network. Then, we describe the meta-analytic method we used to explore our research question about the magnitude of relationships within destructive leadership’s nomological network. Then, we describe the results of our meta-analysis. Finally, we describe the implications of our findings, as well as identify our study’s contributions to theory, research, practice, and future research. Finally, we conclude by summarizing why our key takeaways so we can highlight why our study is important.

2. Theoretical foundations

2.1. The conceptualization of destructive leadership

The presence of destructive leadership is a reality of organizational life, as evidenced by famous destructive leaders involved in modern corporate scandals. For example, Elizabeth Holmes, the former chief executive officer [CEO] of Theranos, made false claims about her company’s blood-testing technology, engaged in wire fraud, and conspired to commit additional wire fraud that would have distributed falsified blood test results to consumers (Carreyrou, 2018; Hartmans & Leskin,

2020). Martin Shkreli is another example of a destructive leader. Shkreli is the former CEO of Retrophin and former CEO of Turing Pharmaceuticals. He received international acclaim as the “Pharma Bro” after Turing obtained the license for the drug Daraprim and raised its price per pill for consumers from \$13.50 to \$750.00. He is currently serving seven years in prison for engaging in securities fraud and conspiring to commit securities fraud (Long & Hays, 2018).

Initial conceptualizations of destructive leadership described it 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” (Einarsen, Aasland, & Skogstad, 2007, p. 208). Thought leaders in this area have argued that destructive leaders tend to control, deceive, dominate, intimidate, manipulate, and threaten their followers, as well as defraud and steal from their organizations (Krasikova et al., 2013). However, recent definitions of destructive leadership have broadened its conceptualization by emphasizing that it is comprised of negative behaviors with the intent or potential to harm followers and/or organizations that leaders embed into their influence processes. In their influential review of the destructive leadership literature, Krasikova et al. formally defined 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 justifications for such behavior” (page 1310, italics original).

2.2. Destructive leadership styles

Krasikova et al.’s (2013) definition alludes to the leadership styles that dominate most empirical examinations of destructive leadership. Extant empirical research almost exclusively examines destructive leadership as a leader-centric leadership style, which is consistent with how the majority of the broader literature examines leadership (Ashford & Sitkin, 2019). Thus, we examine destructive leader styles in our study because examining followers’ perceptions of destructive leadership styles serves as the current empirical foundation of our knowledge. The deliberately broad nature of the destructive leadership construct has led to the examination of many specific styles of destructive leadership. However, abusive supervision (i.e., “subordinates’ perceptions of the extent to which supervisors engage in *the sustained display of hostile verbal and nonverbal behaviors, excluding physical contact*”; Tepper, 2000, p. 178, italics original) has been especially influential in the literature. Reviews (e.g., Martinko et al., 2013; Tepper, 2007; Tepper et al., 2017) and meta-analyses (e.g., Mackey, Frieder, Brees, & Martinko, 2017; Zhang, Liu, Xu, Yang, & Bednall, 2019) of abusive supervision report that it has adverse effects that are consistent with the effects of the broader destructive leadership phenomenon.

However, construct proliferation (Shaffer, DeGeest, & Li, 2016) is rampant in this literature and there are ongoing debates about how confounding (Martinko, Harvey, & Mackey, 2014) the various destructive leadership styles has limited their conceptual and empirical distinctiveness (Hershcovis, 2011; Tepper & Henle, 2011). For example, destructive leadership styles include aversive leadership (i.e., leading through intimidation, threats, and punishment; Bligh, Kohles, Pearce, Justin, & Stovall, 2007), despotic leadership (i.e., leading by using personal dominance to pursue leaders’ self-interests; De Hoogh & Den Hartog, 2008), exploitative leadership (i.e., leading with the main intent to further leaders’ self-interests; Schmid, Verdorfer, & Peus, 2019), and leader narcissism (i.e., leaders’ behaviors that are “principally motivated by their own egomaniacal needs and beliefs”; Rosenthal & Pittinsky, 2006, p. 631).

Additionally, leader bullying (i.e., leaders targeting negative behaviors toward followers who have difficulty defending themselves; Einarsen & Skogstad, 1996), leader exclusion (i.e., leaders denying followers acceptance or consideration; Scott, 2007), leader incivility (i.e., leaders displaying a lack of regard for followers; Andersson & Pearson, 1999), and leader undermining (i.e., leaders hindering followers' interpersonal relationships and work-related success; Duffy, Ganster, & Pagon, 2002) are also considered destructive leadership styles. Table 1 provides complete definitions of these and several other styles of destructive leadership that have been identified in prior research.

All of the aforementioned destructive leadership styles emphasize harmful methods leaders can use to influence their followers. It is important to note the nuances of each destructive leadership style within the broader destructive leadership framework because they each have implications for theory development within this literature. For example, the theoretical mechanisms that explain why insincere leadership (i.e., leaders who use deceitful influence tactics; Schilling, 2009), corrupt leadership (i.e., leaders who lie, cheat, and/or steal; Kellerman, 2004), petty tyranny (i.e., leaders who lord their power over followers; Ashforth, 1997), and evil leadership (i.e., leading by committing atrocities; Kellerman, 2004) all impact followers' outcomes likely differ. Further, there are numerous styles of destructive leadership that broadly capture negative leader behaviors (e.g., derailed leadership and negative leadership), leaders who primarily focus on their self-interests (e.g., personalized charismatic leadership and pseudo-transformational leadership), and leaders who are generally considered poisonous to those around them (i.e., toxic leadership). Some styles of destructive leadership even capture leadership processes that benefit the organization but disregard the welfare of their followers (e.g., tyrannical leadership; Einarsen et al., 2007) or organizational outsiders (e.g., insular leadership; Kellerman, 2004).

Although there has been a great deal of rich conceptual work done to differentiate numerous styles of destructive leadership, it is important to build a cohesive literature that accounts for the theoretical foundations of various destructive leadership styles because destructive leadership is deliberately conceptualized as a broad umbrella construct that includes these various types of destructive leadership (Krasikova et al., 2013). Ultimately, Krasikova et al.'s definition of destructive leadership serves as a useful framework for understanding the unifying factor of these various leadership styles (i.e., leaders' harmful methods of influencing followers). However, it is important to determine whether our current empirical foundation is solid because research that examines destructive leadership has expanded exponentially in recent years. As a result, our empirical knowledge about destructive leadership is still incomplete because we still do not have a precise understanding of the magnitude of relationships within destructive leadership's nomological network.

2.3. Destructive Leadership's nomological network

Extant research consistently demonstrates that destructive leadership harms organizations and their members (Krasikova et al., 2013). For example, prior research has found that destructive leadership has adverse effects on followers' task performance (e.g., Tepper, Moss, & Duffy, 2011), voice (Carnevale, Huang, & Harms, 2018b), and workplace deviance (e.g., Vogel & Mitchell, 2017). Numerous theories and frameworks have informed this literature, but the application of social psychological and resource-based theories has proven especially insightful (Mackey et al., 2019). Social psychological theories explain why justice/fairness perceptions (e.g., Tepper, 2000) and social exchange perceptions (e.g., Mitchell & Ambrose, 2007) affect followers' responses to destructive leadership. In contrast, resource-based theories explain why self-regulatory resources (e.g., McAllister, Mackey, & Perrewé, 2018) and ego depletion (e.g., Lin, Ma, & Johnson, 2016) affect followers' reactions to destructive leadership. The prevalent use of social psychological and resource-based theories has contributed to our understanding of numerous relationships within destructive

Table 1
Definitions for Various Styles of Destructive Leadership.

Construct	Definition
Destructive Leadership	"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 justifications for such behavior" (Krasikova, Green, & Lebreton, 2013, p. 1310)
Abusive Supervision	"Subordinates' perceptions of the extent to which supervisors engage in the sustained display of hostile verbal and nonverbal behaviors, excluding physical contact" (Tepper, 2000, p. 178)
Aversive Leadership	"Leadership behaviors that emphasize the use of threats, intimidation, and punishment" (Bligh, Kohles, Pearce, Justin, & Stovall, 2007, p. 530)
Corrupt Leadership	"The leader and at least some followers lie, cheat, or steal to a degree that exceeds the norm, they put self-interest ahead of the public interest" (Kellerman, 2004, p. 44)
Derailed Leadership	"Leaders may display anti-subordinate behaviours like bullying, humiliation, manipulation, deception or harassment, while simultaneously performing anti-organisational behaviours like absenteeism, shirking, fraud, or theft" (Einarsen, Aasland, & Skogstad, 2007, p. 212-213)
Despotic Leadership	Leadership that is "self-aggrandizing and exploitative of others" because it "is based on personal dominance and authoritarian behavior that serves the self-interest of the leader" (De Hoogh & Den Hartog, 2008, p. 298)
Evil Leadership	"The leader and at least some followers commit atrocities. They use pain as an instrument of power. The harm done to men, women, and children is severe rather than slight. The harm can be physical, psychological, or both" (Kellerman, 2004, p. 46)
Exploitative Leadership	"Leadership with the primary intention to further the leader's self-interest. Such leaders exploit others by (1) acting egoistically, (2) exerting pressure and manipulating followers, (3) overburdening followers, or, on the other hand, (4) consistently underchallenging followers, allowing no development" (Schmid, Verdorfer, & Peus, 2019, p. 1404)
Insincere Leadership	Occurs when leaders use "a diverse set of leadership behaviours to achieve personal goals at the expense of others without direct confrontation but rather in the form of clandestine and deceitful tactics and strategies" (Schilling, 2009, p. 114)
Insular Leadership	"The leader and at least some followers minimize or disregard the health and welfare of the 'other' - that is, those outside the group or organization for which they are directly responsible" (Kellerman, 2004, p. 45)
Leader Bullying	(i.e., occurs "repeatedly over a period of time, and the person confronted has to have difficulties defending himself/herself"; Einarsen & Skogstad, 1996, p. 191)
Leader Exclusion	Leaders deny followers "acceptance into meaningful workplace relationships, activities or events" (Scott, 2007, p. 15)
Leader Incivility	Leaders' use of "low-intensity deviant behavior with ambiguous intent to harm the target, in violation of workplace norms for mutual respect. Uncivil behaviors are characteristically rude and discourteous, displaying a lack of regard for others" (Andersson & Pearson, 1999, p. 457)
Leader Narcissism	Leaders' behaviors "principally motivated by their own egomaniacal needs and beliefs, superseding the needs and interests of the constituents and institutions they lead" (Rosenthal & Pittinsky, 2006, p. 631)
Leader Undermining	Leaders' "behavior intended to hinder, over time, the ability to establish and maintain positive interpersonal relationships, work-related success, and favorable reputation" (Duffy, Ganster, & Pagon, 2002, p. 332)
Negative Leadership	

(continued on next page)

Table 1 (continued)

Construct	Definition
Personalized Charismatic Leadership	Leaders engage in “commonly disliked and denounced behaviours ranging from ineffective to destructive aspects” (Schilling, 2009, p. 103) Leaders emphasize their own self-interest and purposefully create unbalanced relationships with their followers by manipulating and disempowering them (Howell, 1988)
Pseudo-Transformational Leadership	Occurs when “leaders advance their own self-interested agendas by dominating and controlling their followers. In focusing on self-interest, pseudo-transformational leaders are more interested in becoming personal idols than in the collective ideals that might benefit their followers” (Barling, Christie, & Turner, 2008, p. 852)
Petty Tyranny	“Someone who uses their power and authority oppressively, capriciously, and perhaps vindictively. It suggests, in short, someone who lords their power over others” (Ashforth, 1997, p. 126)
Toxic Leadership	“Individuals, who by dint of their destructive behaviors and dysfunctional personal qualities generate a serious and enduring poisonous effect on the individuals, families, organizations, communities, and even societies they lead” (Lipman-Blumen, 2005, p. 30)
Tyrannical Leadership	“Tyrannical leaders may behave in accordance with the goals, tasks, missions and strategies of the organisation, but they typically obtain results not through, but at the cost of subordinates” (Einarsen et al., 2007, p. 212)

leadership’s nomological network because certain relationships have been important to examine within these theoretical frameworks.

Many other theories have also been applied within the destructive leadership literature to supplement the findings central to the social psychological and resource-based theories noted above. For example, trait activation theory has played an important role in clarifying why followers’ individual differences explain their reactions to destructive leadership (e.g., Wang, Harms, & Mackey, 2015). Further, affective events theory has helped provide a nuanced understanding of how state negative and positive affect, as well as a host of other emotional reactions, relate to followers’ perceptions of and reactions to destructive leadership (e.g., Han, Harms, & Bai, 2017). More direct connections have been established between followers’ perceptions of destructive leadership and its adverse effects on the quality of relationships between leaders and their followers (e.g., leader-member exchange; Xu, Huang, Lam, & Miao, 2012).

Finally, it is important to acknowledge the importance of followers’ perceptions of destructive leaders on their own behaviors. For example, scholars have found that social learning theory helps explain why and how followers learn and replicate negative behaviors from their leaders (e.g., Liu, Liao, & Loi, 2012), as well as why they would direct these negative behaviors toward their coworkers (e.g., Lian, Ferris, & Brown, 2012) and/or families (e.g., Hoobler & Brass, 2006). Other studies have focused on followers’ attempts to retaliate toward their leaders based on the central tenets of self-control theory (e.g., Lian, Brown, Ferris, Liang, Keeping, & Morrison, 2014). The theories noted above have had a strong influence on findings within the destructive leadership literature, but an array of other theories have also been applied in various studies too. Overall, the theories noted above provide useful explanations for why destructive leadership would be related to followers’ personalities, individual differences, attitudes, perceptions, and behaviors.

However, there is still uncertainty about our understanding of relationships within destructive leadership’s nomological network because the fragmented research in this area is not adequately integrated across the many theoretical frameworks and destructive leadership styles that have been examined. We remedy this problem by conducting a systematic literature review that can “serve as the grounds

for future research and theory” (Snyder, 2019, p. 339) in this area by generating a foundation for knowledge generation. Above, we provided an overview of the conceptualization of destructive leadership and the theoretical foundations that explain many of the findings within this literature. Below, we use meta-analysis to illuminate precise insights into the magnitude of relationships within destructive leadership’s nomological network so we can answer our Research Question:

Research Question: What is the magnitude of relationships within destructive leadership’s nomological network?

3. Method

We conducted random-effects meta-analyses of relationships within destructive leadership’s nomological network so we could answer our Research Question. We closely followed best practice recommendations (e.g., Geyskens, Krishnan, Steenkamp, & Cunha, 2009) for implementing the meta-analysis reporting standards (e.g., Kepes, McDaniel, Brannick, & Banks, 2013) while conducting our meta-analysis. Accordingly, we are explicit and transparent about how we conducted our study so our results are replicable, theoretically sound, and relevant for policy and practice.

3.1. Systematic literature search

We made systematic efforts to locate destructive leadership research that was available as of January 2020 so we could synthesize and compare evidence across studies. Our goal was to be as systematic as possible so we could create a meta-analytic data set that was representative of the empirical destructive leadership literature. We used eight literature search strategies to find empirical primary studies written in English that included at least one destructive leadership variable.

First, we used Google Scholar to systematically search for studies that cited destructive leadership measure development papers (e.g., Larsson, Brandebo, & Nilsson, 2012; Shaw, Erickson, & Harvey, 2011; Thoroughgood, Tate, Sawyer, & Jacobs, 2012). Second, we used Google Scholar to search for studies that cited measure development papers for specific styles of destructive leadership, such as abusive supervision (Tepper, 2000), aversive leadership (Pearce & Sims, 2002), despotic leadership (De Hoogh & Den Hartog, 2008), exploitative leadership (Schmid et al., 2019), narcissistic leadership (Rosenthal & Pittinsky, 2006), and petty tyranny (Ashforth, 1997). We also searched for studies that used measures of leaders’ downward-directed bullying (Einarsen, Hoel, & Notelaers, 2009), incivility (Cortina, Magley, Williams, & Languhout, 2001), undermining (Duffy et al., 2002), and narcissism (Rosenthal & Pittinsky, 2006).

Third, we conducted searches on Google Scholar for studies that examined the specific types of destructive leadership that Krasikova et al. (2013) described, Schyns and Schilling (2013) identified, and we included in Table 1. Specifically, we searched for studies with abusive, aversive, corrupt, derailed, despotic, destructive, evil, exploitative, insincere, insular, narcissistic, negative, personal(ized) charismatic, pseudo-transformational, psychopathic, toxic, and/or tyrannical leadership or supervision in the title. Fourth, we searched the reference sections of recent reviews (e.g., Krasikova et al., 2013; Martinko et al., 2013; Tepper, 2007; Tepper et al., 2017) and meta-analyses (e.g., Mackey et al., 2017, 2019; Park, Hoobler, Wu, Liden, Hu, & Wilson, 2019; Schyns & Schilling, 2013; Zhang & Bednall, 2016; Zhang et al., 2019) of destructive leadership and related topics (e.g., abusive supervision) for studies to include.

Fifth, we searched scholarly databases (i.e., ProQuest Dissertations and Theses, Web of Science, PsycINFO) for journal articles, dissertations, theses, book chapters, conference papers, technical reports, and working papers that included “destructive” or “abusive” and “leadership” anywhere in the full text of the manuscript. We used the databases listed above to conduct methodologically rigorous searches for unpublished

studies so we could limit the effects of the file drawer problem (i.e., the suppression of weak and non-significant results; Rothstein, Sutton, & Borenstein, 2005) and publication bias (i.e., a meta-analytic sample that is systematically unrepresentative of the literature; Kepes, Banks, McDaniel, & Whetzel, 2012) on our results.

Sixth, we searched for in press and online first articles available on the websites for business research journals that were included in the Financial Times 50 journal list. We also conducted these searches for journals ranked as 3, 4, or 4* journals in the "ETHICS-CSR-MAN", "HRM & EMP", "ORG STUD", and "PSYCH (WOP-OB)" sections of the Chartered Association of Business Schools Academic Journal Guide. Seventh, we searched through conference proceedings for the Academy of Management, Society for Industrial and Organizational Psychology, and Southern Management Association for the years between 2000 (i.e., when Tepper [2000] was published) and 2019 (i.e., the most recent data available as of January 2020) for conference papers that included "destructive" or "abusive" and "leadership" anywhere in the full text of the manuscript. Finally, we examined the reference lists of studies located throughout our searches so we could identify studies that could be relevant for our meta-analysis.

3.2. Inclusion criteria

We did not restrict sample inclusion based on when or where empirical studies were conducted. However, we did require studies to meet the seven quality-based inclusion criteria described below to be included in our meta-analysis. The primary purpose for the inclusion criteria was to standardize the focal variables as much as possible so we could enhance the validity of our findings (Aguinis, Dalton, Bosco, Pierce, & Dalton, 2011) and ability of others to replicate our meta-analytic data set (Aytug, Rothstein, Zhou, & Kern, 2012).

First, we only included studies that were written in English. Second, we only included studies that surveyed employed respondents. Third, we required that each study empirically measured destructive leadership in a manner that was consistent with our conceptualization of it (see Table 1). Fourth, we only included studies that reported followers' perceptions of destructive leadership, which has traditionally been operationalized from the follower's perspective (Mackey et al., 2019; Wang, Van Iddekinge, Zhang, & Bishoff, 2019). Fifth, we only included studies that reported destructive leadership variable(s) in correlation matrices. Sixth, we required that all correlations from correlation matrices were reported at the individual level of analysis. Finally, we required that the correlates we examined were consistent with the definitions of constructs reported in Supplement A so we could standardize the correlates as much as possible.

Additionally, we examined the description of each sample of data that was included in our analyses to ensure that we did not violate the assumption of sample independence required to meaningfully use Hunter and Schmidt's (2004) meta-analytic technique. We defaulted to journal articles, dissertations, theses, conference papers, book chapters, technical reports, and working papers in that order when there was data overlap across multiple primary studies. We included the earliest available data for overlapping data across studies of the same type.

We enhanced the validity of our findings by strictly adhering to our inclusion criteria. Ultimately, our search efforts identified 368 empirical studies that met our inclusion criteria. The 281 journal articles, 38 doctoral dissertations, 16 master's theses, 32 conference papers, and one unpublished report are reported in Supplement B. The 368 studies included a total of 437 independent samples without data overlap that met our inclusion criteria. We were able to incorporate 418 of these samples ($k = 418$, $N = 123,511$) into our final analyses because they reported at least one correlation that was included in the analyses reported in our tables.

3.3. Coding

Our goal was to create a low-inference coding system that would reduce uncertainty, increase transparency, and limit the need for coders to make subjective judgment calls (Aguinis, Dalton, et al., 2011). We developed a coding form in Microsoft Excel so we could standardize as much of the coding process as possible. The fourth author of this study listed the authors, years, study/sample numbers (when necessary), destructive leadership styles, correlates, and notes for primary studies in the coding form. Then, we made the coding form available to undergraduate research assistants in a folder on Google Drive, along with a Word file that summarized the coding protocol and pdf files of the primary studies listed in the coding form. Next, the second and third authors trained the research assistants how to use the protocol and coding form. The research assistants tested the coding form to ensure that they understood the coding form's functionality, which included data validation and drop-down menus so we could enhance coding accuracy. Then, two research assistants independently coded information from each study.

The coders recorded the publication types (e.g., journal article, dissertation), study designs (i.e., self-report data or dyadic data), and sample sizes (i.e., n) of the primary studies included in our meta-analysis. The coders also recorded respondents' nationalities. Next, the coders recorded several features of the destructive leadership measures, including the low scale point, high scale point, number of items, and response scale (i.e., agreement or frequency). Then, coders recorded the rating source (i.e., self- or other-rating), mean (M), standard deviation (SD), and the internal consistency (i.e., α ; we exclusively used Cronbach's alpha) of the destructive leadership measures. Also, the coders recorded the α and rating source of the correlates. Finally, the coders recorded the bivariate zero-order correlations (r) between destructive leadership and its correlates. The coders primarily reported data from correlation tables unless there was a clear and obvious error, but they supplemented this data with information from the text of the studies that we included in our meta-analyses. We defaulted to reporting information from correlation tables when the information within the text and tables was inconsistent.

After the coders initially completed the coding form, we deleted data in cells that were inconsistent between coders. Then, we highlighted the blank cells in red so the research assistants could recode the data prior to submitting their final codes. Next, the second author calculated interrater agreement between the coders, which ranged from a low of 85% for rating source to a high of 98% for publication type. Overall, we found high levels of agreement because coders agreed at least 90% of the time for 18 of the 19 coding categories. Then, the second author consulted the primary studies to resolve all coding discrepancies. Next, the first author searched for abnormalities in the coding form (e.g., studies that reported correlations in the opposite direction of expectations, extreme values), attempted to locate missing data, and prepared the data for analysis. When necessary, the first author used Mosier's (1943) Equation 8 (see Supplement C) to create composite variables for studies that reported multiple effect sizes for a specific relationship, such as when a variable was collected across multiple time periods or rating sources. Mosier's method for creating composite variables is consistent with the use of Hunter and Schmidt's (2004) meta-analytic technique for the nature of our research questions and theoretical framework. The third author verified all of the final coding information reported throughout the supplements to ensure that there were no transcription errors.

3.4. Analyses

We used Hunter and Schmidt's meta-analysis program (Schmidt & Le, 2004) to run random-effects meta-analyses that weighted the results by sample size. Random-effects models allow for population parameters (i.e., ρ) to vary across studies because the models assume that the studies included in the analyses are similar without requiring them to be

identical (Borenstein, Hedges, Higgins, & Rothstein, 2010). Thus, random-effects models were appropriate for our analyses due to our study design and Research Question.

We report several key results. First, we report the number of samples (k) and respondents (N) in each analysis. Then, we report weighted mean bivariate correlations (\bar{r}) and population correlations that correct for sampling error and measurement error (ρ), as well as their respective SD s (i.e., $SD_{\bar{r}}$ and SD_{ρ}). These corrections are important because “sample sizes are never infinite” and “there are no perfectly reliable measures” (Hunter & Schmidt, 2004, p. 31). Next, we report the percentage of variance that is attributable to artifacts for the population correlation estimates. Finally, we report the 80% credibility intervals and 95% confidence intervals for the population correlations. The credibility intervals report the approximate ρ distribution within which 80% of the obtained estimates occur (i.e., $\rho \pm [1.28 \times SD_{\rho}]$), which is useful for evaluating the precision of our point estimates (Edwards & Christian, 2014). In contrast, the confidence intervals are used to indicate the approximate ρ distribution within which we can be 95% certain that the true value exists (Hunter & Schmidt, 2004).

We used Cronbach’s alpha (α) to correct the reported correlations for measurement error because we examined correlations at the construct level (Hunter & Schmidt, 2004; Viswesvaran, Ones, Schmidt, Le, & Oh, 2014). We used the median α value available from the other studies in our meta-analysis that examined each specific relationship (see Supplement D) when α s were not reported in a primary study and when one- or two-item measures were used. We used median α values instead of mean α values because median values are less susceptible to systematic sources of error from outliers (Aguinis, Gottfredson, & Joo, 2013). The median α estimates we used were similar to the α s found in the management literature (Greco, O’Boyle, Cockburn, & Yuan, 2018) and used in meta-analyses of destructive leadership styles (e.g., abusive supervision; Mackey et al., 2017). We assumed that there was perfect reliability (i.e., $\alpha = 1.00$) for demographic information. We did not make corrections for rater source (DeSimone, 2014; LeBreton, Scherer, & James, 2014).

We conducted meta-analyses for correlates that were included in five or more empirical studies that reported at least one destructive leadership variable. We chose this threshold because Field (2005) identified five studies as the minimum sample size to have enough power to accurately conduct random-effects meta-analyses that assume effect sizes are approximately normally distributed. We reported correlations and effect sizes throughout our study without statistical significance tests so we did not mix meta-analysis with null hypothesis significance testing (Hunter & Schmidt, 2004).

4. Results

Our meta-analytic results include data from 418 samples of empirical data ($k = 418$, $N = 123,511$) from working adults. We report the 1,944 correlations and their corresponding input values for the analyses in Supplement E so our data set is explicit, transparent, and replicable. Overall, our data set is representative of the extant empirical literature that examines destructive leadership in the workplace from followers’ perspectives.

For the first part of our empirical literature review, we sought to determine which styles of destructive leadership have been empirically examined and the extent to which extant empirical research utilizes each of the destructive leadership styles so we could provide information about how destructive leadership has been empirically examined. We found empirical studies that included aversive ($k = 7$, $N = 1,926$), derailed ($k = 2$, $N = 4,187$), despotic ($k = 4$, $N = 2,166$), exploitative ($k = 3$, $N = 852$), negative ($k = 1$, $N = 131$), and tyrannical ($k = 1$, $N = 2,539$) leadership. We also found empirical studies that included leader bullying ($k = 1$, $N = 252$), exclusion ($k = 1$, $N = 252$), incivility ($k = 4$, $N = 959$), narcissism ($k = 5$, $N = 1,244$), and undermining ($k = 18$, $N = 4,929$). Additionally, we found studies that included abusive supervision

($k = 385$, $N = 114,196$), petty tyranny ($k = 2$, $N = 1,736$), and general measures of destructive leadership ($k = 12$, $N = 4,488$). Seven of the studies included in the counts above ($k = 7$, $N = 5,652$) examined multiple styles of destructive leadership, which we labeled “composite”. Overall, we identified 13 different styles of destructive leadership that inform empirical findings within its literature. Our results demonstrate that the majority of empirical destructive leadership studies examine abusive supervision. We provide a summary of the destructive leadership style(s) that were examined in each primary study in Supplement F.

Our Research Question asked: “What is the magnitude of relationships within destructive leadership’s nomological network?” We used a multi-step process to answer our Research Question. First, we examined the overall results of our random-effects meta-analyses. Table 2 provides an overview of the relationships in destructive leadership’s nomological network that have been included in at least five independent samples of empirical data. The correlates include followers’ demographic information, Big Five personality factors, individual differences, perceptions of leadership styles, attitudes and perceptions, and behaviors, as well as a few leader variables. Below, we report our point estimates of effect sizes (i.e., ρ), the heterogeneity of our point estimates (i.e., SD_{ρ}), the precision of our point estimates (i.e., 80% credibility intervals; Edwards & Christian, 2014), and the sample sizes (i.e., k and N) for each analysis.

We found many interesting results. First, all of the followers’ demographic variables that we examined were weakly associated with destructive leadership ($-0.03 \leq \rho \leq 0.06$) despite their widespread use as control variables (e.g., age: $k = 190$; sex: $k = 206$). However, there were some attitudes (e.g., job satisfaction; $\rho = -0.41$, $SD_{\rho} = 0.15$, 80% credibility interval: $[-0.60, -0.22]$, $k = 52$, $N = 17,717$), perceptions (e.g., perceived organizational support; $\rho = -0.43$, $SD_{\rho} = 0.17$, 80% credibility interval: $[-0.66, -0.21]$, $k = 19$, $N = 4,756$), and behaviors (e.g., counterproductive work behavior [CWB]; $\rho = 0.43$, $SD_{\rho} = 0.15$, 80% credibility interval: $[0.24, 0.62]$, $k = 64$, $N = 21,893$) that were meaningfully associated with destructive leadership. Further, destructive leadership was strongly and negatively related to several other forms of leadership perceptions, such as ethical leadership ($\rho = -0.63$, $SD_{\rho} = 0.22$, 80% credibility interval: $[-0.91, -0.34]$, $k = 18$, $N = 8,186$) and leader-member exchange (LMX; $\rho = -0.52$, $SD_{\rho} = 0.15$, 80% credibility interval: $[-0.72, -0.33]$, $k = 32$, $N = 9,077$). Finally, destructive leadership was meaningfully related to followers’ task performance ($\rho = -0.23$, $SD_{\rho} = 0.16$, 80% credibility interval: $[-0.43, -0.03]$, $k = 60$, $N = 16,379$) and organizational citizenship behavior (OCB; $\rho = -0.24$, $SD_{\rho} = 0.13$, 80% credibility interval: $[-0.41, -0.07]$, $k = 32$, $N = 7,281$).

In tandem with Table 2, the comparison of studies shown in Table 3 demonstrates that we were able to include many more correlates, utilize much larger sample sizes (i.e., ks), and provide more robust estimates (i.e., ρ instead of \bar{r}) with indices of heterogeneity (i.e., SD_{ρ}) than Schyns and Schilling’s (2013) assessment of the destructive leadership literature. Mackey et al. (2019) included large samples, but they conceptualized CWB and OCB much more broadly than we did. In contrast, we were more narrowly focused and considered some of the types of extra-role behaviors they included in these estimates (e.g., creativity, voice) as distinct constructs. Thus, Mackey et al. provided estimates of eight broadly defined performance variables, whereas we provide estimates of 84 distinct relationships. In summary, our study replicates and extends findings from previous meta-analyses for a small portion of the relationships we examine and generates new meta-analytic estimates for over 70 new relationships, including antecedents, within destructive leadership’s nomological network.

Finally, we conducted supplementary analyses for studies that examined abusive supervision (see Supplement G) because this was the dominant measure of destructive leadership used throughout the primary studies included in our meta-analysis. We offer both a broad view of destructive leadership and a narrow view of abusive supervision for the collective empirical evidence we synthesized. Thus, we provide not only a systematic literature review of the destructive leadership

Table 2
Meta-Analytic Results.

Analysis	<i>k</i>	<i>N</i>	\bar{r}	<i>SD_r</i>	ρ	<i>SD_ρ</i>	80% Credibility Interval (ρ)	95% Confidence Interval (ρ)	% Variance Attributable to Artifacts
Followers' Demographic Information									
Age	190	63,879	-0.02	0.10	-0.02	0.09	(-0.14, 0.10)	(-0.03, 0.00)	28%
Education	62	20,850	-0.03	0.11	-0.03	0.10	(-0.16, 0.10)	(-0.06, 0.00)	24%
Hours Worked Per Week	14	10,221	0.06	0.04	0.06	0.01	(0.04, 0.07)	(0.04, 0.08)	92%
Marital Status	8	4,514	-0.03	0.07	-0.03	0.06	(-0.11, 0.04)	(-0.08, 0.02)	36%
Position	17	4,546	0.02	0.09	0.02	0.07	(-0.07, 0.12)	(-0.02, 0.07)	44%
Sex	206	64,712	-0.03	0.12	-0.03	0.11	(-0.17, 0.11)	(-0.05, -0.01)	24%
Tenure with Job	25	8,795	0.00	0.08	0.00	0.07	(-0.08, 0.08)	(-0.03, 0.03)	42%
Tenure with Leader	74	20,992	0.03	0.09	0.04	0.07	(-0.06, 0.13)	(0.01, 0.06)	41%
Tenure with Organization	100	25,963	0.01	0.08	0.01	0.05	(-0.06, 0.07)	(-0.01, 0.02)	60%
Tenure with Work Group	5	1,258	0.05	0.22	0.05	0.23	(-0.24, 0.34)	(-0.16, 0.25)	8%
Work Experience	8	2,720	0.01	0.09	0.01	0.08	(-0.09, 0.10)	(-0.06, 0.07)	37%
Leader Variables									
Leader Age	21	5,356	-0.04	0.14	-0.04	0.12	(-0.20, 0.12)	(-0.10, 0.02)	22%
Leader Sex	35	7,561	-0.06	0.14	-0.06	0.12	(-0.22, 0.09)	(-0.11, -0.02)	25%
Leader Tenure with Org.	9	2,056	0.01	0.06	0.01	0.00	(0.01, 0.01)	(-0.03, 0.06)	100%
Leader Interactional Justice	6	1,262	-0.43	0.18	-0.47	0.18	(-0.69, -0.24)	(-0.61, -0.32)	11%
Followers' Big Five Personality Factors									
Agreeableness	23	6,911	-0.13	0.09	-0.15	0.09	(-0.26, -0.04)	(-0.19, -0.11)	38%
Conscientiousness	27	7,779	-0.15	0.12	-0.18	0.12	(-0.33, -0.02)	(-0.23, -0.13)	24%
Extraversion	18	5,409	-0.03	0.09	-0.03	0.08	(-0.13, 0.06)	(-0.08, 0.01)	45%
Neuroticism	28	7,948	0.17	0.17	0.20	0.18	(-0.03, 0.44)	(0.13, 0.27)	12%
Openness to Experience	12	4,150	-0.06	0.11	-0.08	0.11	(-0.22, 0.06)	(-0.15, -0.01)	27%
Followers' Individual Differences									
Core Self-Evaluation	11	2,545	-0.20	0.12	-0.24	0.11	(-0.38, -0.09)	(-0.31, -0.16)	30%
Moral Identity	8	1,930	-0.18	0.14	-0.22	0.14	(-0.40, -0.04)	(-0.33, -0.11)	22%
Narcissism	6	1,238	0.06	0.14	0.08	0.15	(-0.11, 0.26)	(-0.05, 0.21)	24%
Negative Affectivity	45	14,754	0.32	0.13	0.36	0.13	(0.19, 0.53)	(0.32, 0.40)	15%
Positive Affectivity	16	3,544	-0.17	0.14	-0.19	0.14	(-0.37, -0.02)	(-0.27, -0.12)	23%
Power Distance Orientation	15	4,473	0.09	0.14	0.10	0.16	(-0.10, 0.31)	(0.02, 0.19)	16%
Proactive Personality	5	2,951	-0.05	0.05	-0.06	0.03	(-0.09, -0.02)	(-0.10, -0.01)	74%
Psychological Capital	7	3,212	-0.26	0.21	-0.29	0.22	(-0.57, 0.00)	(-0.46, -0.12)	4%
Self-Esteem	15	7,431	-0.15	0.10	-0.17	0.11	(-0.31, -0.03)	(-0.23, -0.11)	18%
Social Desirability	6	1,459	0.03	0.17	0.04	0.19	(-0.20, 0.28)	(-0.12, 0.20)	15%
Trait Anger	5	1,391	0.12	0.04	0.13	0.00	(0.13, 0.13)	(0.08, 0.18)	100%
Followers' Perceptions of Leadership Styles									
Authoritarian Leadership	8	1,190	0.42	0.15	0.47	0.16	(0.27, 0.68)	(0.35, 0.59)	19%
Ethical Leadership	18	8,186	-0.57	0.21	-0.63	0.22	(-0.91, -0.34)	(-0.73, -0.52)	2%
Leader-Member Ex. (LMX)	32	9,077	-0.47	0.15	-0.52	0.15	(-0.72, -0.33)	(-0.58, -0.47)	10%
Transactional Leadership	7	2,156	0.11	0.29	0.12	0.33	(-0.31, 0.54)	(-0.13, 0.37)	4%
Transformational Leadership	15	3,922	-0.32	0.19	-0.34	0.20	(-0.60, -0.09)	(-0.45, -0.24)	9%
Followers' Attitudes and Perceptions									
Anger	10	2,512	0.39	0.18	0.42	0.18	(0.18, 0.65)	(0.30, 0.54)	9%
Anxiety	11	2,961	0.24	0.09	0.27	0.08	(0.16, 0.37)	(0.21, 0.33)	39%
Burnout	9	3,816	0.41	0.10	0.46	0.08	(0.36, 0.57)	(0.40, 0.52)	25%
Commitment									
Affective Commitment	21	7,722	-0.25	0.12	-0.29	0.13	(-0.46, -0.13)	(-0.35, -0.23)	16%
Organizational Commit.	10	2,859	-0.28	0.11	-0.31	0.10	(-0.43, -0.19)	(-0.38, -0.24)	29%
Depression	11	4,863	0.28	0.07	0.31	0.06	(0.24, 0.39)	(0.27, 0.36)	42%
Emotional Exhaustion	42	13,953	0.37	0.12	0.42	0.13	(0.26, 0.58)	(0.38, 0.46)	15%
Engagement	15	3,608	-0.22	0.10	-0.24	0.08	(-0.34, -0.14)	(-0.29, -0.19)	41%
Fear of Leader	5	1,427	0.46	0.16	0.52	0.18	(0.29, 0.76)	(0.36, 0.69)	8%
Frustration	5	1,339	0.33	0.10	0.40	0.11	(0.26, 0.54)	(0.29, 0.51)	27%
Job Insecurity	5	5,547	0.29	0.07	0.35	0.08	(0.25, 0.46)	(0.28, 0.43)	16%
Job Satisfaction	52	17,717	-0.37	0.15	-0.41	0.15	(-0.60, -0.22)	(-0.45, -0.37)	11%
Job Tension	23	6,467	0.31	0.10	0.36	0.09	(0.24, 0.47)	(0.31, 0.40)	31%
Justice Perceptions									
Distributive Justice	12	4,572	-0.26	0.10	-0.28	0.09	(-0.40, -0.16)	(-0.34, -0.22)	23%
Interactional Justice	17	4,170	-0.49	0.17	-0.54	0.17	(-0.76, -0.32)	(-0.62, -0.46)	9%
Interpersonal Justice	10	2,723	-0.56	0.15	-0.61	0.17	(-0.83, -0.40)	(-0.72, -0.51)	7%
Procedural Justice	15	4,937	-0.31	0.10	-0.34	0.10	(-0.47, -0.21)	(-0.40, -0.28)	22%
Organizational Justice	9	2,269	-0.36	0.21	-0.41	0.20	(-0.66, -0.16)	(-0.54, -0.28)	9%
Negative Affect	21	5,557	0.39	0.14	0.43	0.14	(0.25, 0.60)	(0.36, 0.49)	15%
Organizational Identification	7	2,739	-0.27	0.11	-0.31	0.11	(-0.45, -0.16)	(-0.40, -0.22)	18%
Org.-Based Self-Esteem	7	2,111	-0.27	0.12	-0.29	0.13	(-0.45, -0.12)	(-0.39, -0.18)	16%
Ostracism	5	2,678	0.61	0.19	0.63	0.19	(0.39, 0.87)	(0.46, 0.80)	2%
Perceived Org. Support	19	4,756	-0.39	0.17	-0.43	0.17	(-0.66, -0.21)	(-0.52, -0.35)	10%
Positive Affect	9	3,041	-0.16	0.10	-0.18	0.09	(-0.29, -0.07)	(-0.25, -0.11)	31%
Psych. Contract Breach	9	2,224	0.37	0.11	0.42	0.11	(0.27, 0.56)	(0.33, 0.50)	23%

(continued on next page)

Table 2 (continued)

Analysis	<i>k</i>	<i>N</i>	\bar{r}	$SD_{\bar{r}}$	ρ	SD_{ρ}	80% Credibility Interval (ρ)	95% Confidence Interval (ρ)	% Variance Attributable to Artifacts
Psychological Distress	8	3,794	0.33	0.14	0.37	0.14	(0.19, 0.55)	(0.27, 0.47)	9%
Resource Management Ability	5	867	-0.30	0.10	-0.35	0.07	(-0.44, -0.26)	(-0.44, -0.26)	55%
Self-Efficacy	7	2,265	-0.16	0.11	-0.18	0.11	(-0.32, -0.05)	(-0.27, -0.10)	25%
Supervisor Org. Embodiment	7	1,246	-0.29	0.14	-0.32	0.12	(-0.48, -0.16)	(-0.42, -0.21)	27%
Trust in Leader	11	3,560	-0.46	0.14	-0.51	0.15	(-0.71, -0.32)	(-0.61, -0.42)	10%
Turnover Intention	54	18,868	0.35	0.15	0.40	0.15	(0.21, 0.58)	(0.35, 0.44)	11%
Work-Family Conflict	17	7,604	0.29	0.16	0.33	0.17	(0.11, 0.54)	(0.25, 0.41)	8%
Followers' Behaviors									
Aggression	6	1,810	0.44	0.14	0.49	0.16	(0.28, 0.69)	(0.35, 0.62)	10%
Bullying	8	2,920	0.56	0.19	0.60	0.19	(0.36, 0.84)	(0.47, 0.73)	4%
Creativity	16	5,080	-0.18	0.12	-0.20	0.12	(-0.36, -0.04)	(-0.27, -0.13)	19%
Counterproductive Work Behavior (CWB)									
CWB-General	64	21,893	0.39	0.16	0.43	0.15	(0.24, 0.62)	(0.39, 0.47)	10%
CWB-Interpersonal	30	9,244	0.34	0.16	0.39	0.15	(0.19, 0.58)	(0.33, 0.44)	12%
CWB-Organizational	55	18,158	0.38	0.15	0.43	0.15	(0.24, 0.62)	(0.39, 0.47)	11%
CWB-Leader	30	9,618	0.49	0.14	0.56	0.15	(0.37, 0.75)	(0.50, 0.61)	9%
Helping Behavior	5	1,132	-0.19	0.14	-0.22	0.13	(-0.38, -0.06)	(-0.34, -0.09)	25%
Organizational Citizenship Behavior (OCB)									
OCB-General	32	7,281	-0.21	0.13	-0.24	0.13	(-0.41, -0.07)	(-0.29, -0.19)	22%
OCB-Interpersonal	15	4,342	-0.17	0.14	-0.19	0.14	(-0.37, -0.01)	(-0.26, -0.11)	17%
OCB-Organizational	15	3,727	-0.22	0.11	-0.25	0.11	(-0.39, -0.11)	(-0.31, -0.19)	29%
Silence	9	2,509	0.27	0.10	0.31	0.09	(0.19, 0.43)	(0.24, 0.38)	32%
Spousal Undermining	5	878	0.35	0.09	0.37	0.06	(0.30, 0.45)	(0.29, 0.45)	58%
Task Performance	60	16,379	-0.20	0.15	-0.23	0.16	(-0.43, -0.03)	(-0.27, -0.18)	15%
Voice	9	2,931	-0.23	0.15	-0.26	0.15	(-0.46, -0.07)	(-0.37, -0.16)	14%
Work Effort	10	2,786	-0.21	0.10	-0.23	0.09	(-0.35, -0.11)	(-0.30, -0.16)	32%

Note. *k* = number of studies included in the analysis. *N* = total sample size of all studies included in the analysis. \bar{r} = average weighted bivariate correlation across studies. $SD_{\bar{r}}$ = standard deviation of the average weighted bivariate correlations across studies. ρ = the population estimate that corrects the zero-order bivariate correlation for measurement and sampling error across studies. SD_{ρ} = standard deviation of the population correlation estimates across studies. Ex. = Exchange. Org. = Organizational. Commit. = Commitment. Psych. = Psychological. Sex was coded such that male = 0 and female = 1. Marital status was coded such that single = 0 and married = 1.

literature, but we also update Mackey et al.'s (2017) meta-analysis on abusive supervision. The results for abusive supervision studies were similar to the overall results. Mackey et al.'s study searches ended three years before ours and did not include unpublished studies, which enabled us to meaningfully update their findings with a much larger and more inclusive meta-analytic data set (Mackey et al.: *k* = 140; our *k* = 384 for abusive supervision) so we could examine 84 relationships within abusive supervision's nomological network instead of only the 36 relationships that Mackey et al. included in their study.

Additionally, we conducted sub-group moderator analyses (Gonzalez-Mulé & Aguinis, 2018) for the relationships reported in Supplement G. Specifically, we report the results for each relationship based on (1) Tepper's (2000) full 15-item measure of abusive supervision and (2) Mitchell and Ambrose's (2007) five-item measure. Although Tepper's measure includes a wide variety of abusive supervisory behaviors, Mitchell and Ambrose's widely-used adaptation only focuses on active-aggressive abusive supervision. Thus, there is a subtle, but important, difference between the content domain of the abridged and full versions of the abusive supervision scale that are often used in this stream of research. These differences manifested in a few key differences between results obtained across the five-item and 15-item measures, such as the results for self-esteem ($\rho_{15\text{-item}} = -0.13$; $\rho_{5\text{-item}} = -0.34$), leader-member exchange ($\rho_{15\text{-item}} = -0.57$; $\rho_{5\text{-item}} = -0.34$), interactional justice ($\rho_{15\text{-item}} = -0.59$; $\rho_{5\text{-item}} = -0.36$), and OCBs toward organizations ($\rho_{15\text{-item}} = -0.30$; $\rho_{5\text{-item}} = -0.07$). However, the results across the sub-group moderator analyses were similar across most variables.

5. Discussion

We drew data from 418 empirical studies (*k* = 418, *N* = 123,511) that examined destructive leadership to conduct random-effects meta-analyses so we could engage in an empirical literature review that

improves our understanding of destructive leadership. Our explicit, transparent, and replicable data set included the broad array of destructive leadership styles examined in prior empirical research (see Table 1) so we could examine the magnitude of relationships within its nomological network (see Table 2). Our study makes an important contribution to business research and the destructive leadership literature because "building your research on and relating it to existing knowledge is the building block of all academic research activities" (Snyder, 2019, p. 333). Our results support the prevailing wisdom that destructive leadership is adversely associated with followers' perceptions and behaviors, but our addition of the last decade's worth of data to the empirical foundation for this literature also generates more precise estimates of relationships within destructive leadership's nomological network, which refines our understanding of destructive leadership.

Our systematic approach to examining the destructive leadership literature enabled us to answer our Research Question: "What is the magnitude of relationships within destructive leadership's nomological network?" We also uncovered numerous areas for further development that can lead to meaningful theoretical development. For example, we found that numerous styles of destructive leadership have been empirically examined. However, it was clear that empirical research examined fewer styles of destructive leadership than conceptual research has described, which means that the breadth and depth of the conceptualization of destructive leadership may not be adequately integrated into its measurement across studies. Also, the heterogeneity (i.e., SD_{ρ}) in our results suggests that broadly assuming destructive leadership is "bad" for followers and organizations is insufficient for generating a precise understanding of why, how, and the extent to which destructive leadership impacts followers. Thus, our study advances destructive leadership research by providing the precision, scope, and depth necessary to identify and explain findings within its literature.

Table 3
A Comparison of Results between Our Study and Prior Meta-Analyses.

	Our Study		Schyns & Schilling (2013)		Mackey et al. (2019)	
	k	$\rho(SD_\rho)$	k	\bar{r}	k	$\rho(SD_\rho)$
Individual Differences						
Negative Affectivity	45	0.36 (0.13)	15	0.34		
Positive Affectivity	16	-0.19 (0.14)	8	-0.09		
Attitudes and Perceptions						
Job Satisfaction	51	-0.41 (0.15)	21	-0.34		
Job Tension	23	0.36 (0.09)	24	0.24		
Justice Perceptions			12	-0.32		
Distributive Justice	12	-0.28 (0.09)				
Interactional Justice	17	-0.54 (0.17)				
Procedural Justice	15	-0.34 (0.10)				
Organizational Justice	9	-0.41 (0.20)				
Turnover Intention	54	0.40 (0.15)	11	0.31		
Behaviors						
CWB-General	64	0.43 (0.15)	19	0.38	83	0.45 (0.14)
CWB-Interpersonal	30	0.39 (0.15)			31	0.38 (0.11)
CWB-Organizational	55	0.43 (0.15)			55	0.40 (0.15)
CWB-Leader	30	0.56 (0.15)			31	0.56 (0.13)
OCB-General	32	-0.24 (0.13)			64	-0.23 (0.13)
OCB-Interpersonal	15	-0.19 (0.14)			22	-0.25 (0.12)
OCB-Organization	15	-0.25 (0.11)			37	-0.24 (0.14)
Task Performance	60	-0.23 (0.16)	12	-0.20	54	-0.23 (0.16)

Note. k = number of studies included in the analysis. \bar{r} = average weighted bivariate correlation across studies. ρ = the population correlation estimate that corrects the zero-order bivariate correlation for measurement and sampling error across primary studies. SD_ρ = standard deviation of population correlation estimates. CWB = counterproductive work behavior. OCB = organizational citizenship behavior. Some of Mackey et al.'s (2019) estimates have higher sample sizes than ours because they conceptualized CWB and OCB much more broadly than we did. In contrast, we were more narrowly focused and considered some of the types of extra-role behaviors they included in these estimates (e.g., creativity, voice) as distinct constructs.

Throughout the sections below, we expand on our study's contributions to theory, business research, policy, and practice so scholars and practitioners can push our understanding of destructive leadership forward toward reaching its unrealized potential.

5.1. Contributions to theory and business research

We make important contributions by conducting a systematic literature review that provides novel insight into the magnitude of relationships within destructive leadership's nomological network. First, we make an empirical contribution by conducting the most complete meta-analysis of destructive leadership research to date. Our motivation for this contribution is to advance the conversation in the destructive leadership literature by underpinning its fragmented foundation with a solid layer of empirical knowledge. Our approach has been successfully applied to other literatures in other meta-analyses (e.g., Hughes-

Morgan, Kolev, & McNamara, 2018; Rauch, Rosenbusch, Unger, & Frese, 2016) because meta-analytic results estimate true relationships that are of scientific and practical interest. Indeed, meta-analytic findings have "become essential in the evolution of knowledge about management" (Combs, Crook, & Rauch, 2019, p. 1) because they generate impactful insights that do not suffer from the methodological limitations present in all primary studies (Hunter & Schmidt, 2004). Up-to-date meta-analyses are important because their findings tend to be highly influential; also, techniques for explicitly and transparently reporting meta-analytic procedures keep improving in ways that enhance the robustness and validity of meta-analytic findings (Aytug et al., 2012). Plus, future research in this burgeoning area can leverage the impressive body of knowledge summarized in our results to determine how to move this field forward, rather than rely on single primary studies to provide insights. Thus, our systematic evaluation of the magnitude of relationships within its nomological network provides an important update necessary for this literature to move toward its unrealized potential.

Second, we make a contribution by illuminating that abusive supervision and the theories extensively applied within this literature provide the primary theoretical foundation for our understanding of destructive leadership. Our study provides empirical evidence that much of destructive leadership research actually examines *subordinates'* negative perceptions of their *supervisors* instead of how destructive *leaders* impact *followers* and their organizations. Thus, our study demonstrates that much of our understanding of destructive leadership is rooted in the relationship between subordinates and their supervisors instead of the process of influence that traditionally dominates leadership research (Ashford & Sitkin, 2019). This contribution generates a solid foundation that facilitates theory development (Snyder, 2019). Thus, our study makes important empirical and theoretical contributions that resolve debates about relationships within destructive leadership's nomological network while also identifying debates that need to be started or given additional attention.

We are able to make important theoretical and empirical contributions because our meta-analytic literature review re-stabilizes the foundation for the destructive leadership literature. Despite the utility and influence of Schyns and Schilling's (2013) meta-analysis, it is important to update this aging foundation (e.g., Schyns & Schilling; $k = 57$; our study: $k = 418$) because the cumulative evidence in this literature has amassed to the point where fragmentation could inhibit cohesive knowledge production. Further, our unprecedented scope and systematic searches enabled us to examine narrow variables instead of lumping them into composites like prior meta-analyses did (e.g., Mackey et al., 2017, 2019; Schyns & Schilling, 2013). Thus, we substantively improve the foundation for our understanding of destructive leadership's nomological network broadly and abusive supervision's nomological network narrowly. Accordingly, our results make practical contributions that stem from good science that generates meaningful insights for evidence-based practice.

5.2. Limitations

We discuss our study's limitations below so we can properly contextualize our findings. First, our meta-analytic data were limited by the quality and accuracy of the information reported in the primary studies that we included in our analyses (Banks et al., 2016; O'Boyle, Banks, & Gonzalez-Mulé, 2017). Thus, we carefully evaluated studies during the literature search, coding process, and analyses to ensure our results were not biased by misreported information or transcription errors.

Second, it was evident that not all studies followed best practice recommendations for data screening (DeSimone & Harms, 2018; DeSimone, Harms, & DeSimone, 2015; Wood, Harms, Lowman, & DeSimone, 2017) and data preparation (Aguinis, Hill, & Bailey, in press) because information was inconsistently reported across the text and tables in some studies. We standardized our coding process by defaulting to

information reported in correlation tables. However, inconsistent reporting is usually problematic for meta-analyses, especially ours because nonresponse bias is prevalent in destructive leadership and other CWB research, which results in lower response rates for this type of research that can attenuate observed relationships reported in primary studies (Greco, O'Boyle, & Walter, 2015). Additionally, destructive leadership and other related variables, such as abusive supervision (e.g., Mackey et al., 2017) and workplace deviance (e.g., Mackey, McAllister, Ellen, & Carson, in press) tend to be low base-rate phenomena with problematic skew and response bias. All of these issues affect the measurement of destructive leadership, which impacts the resultant knowledge we generated from research that examines it.

Third, it is possible that our meta-analytic data set was not accurately representative of the empirical destructive leadership literature if unpublished data that were not available to us systematically differed from the studies that we were able to include in our analyses (i.e., the file drawer problem; Kepes et al., 2012; Rothstein et al., 2005). We strived to limit publication bias and the file drawer problem by including a large sample of studies and conducting extensive searches for unpublished data. This enabled us to incorporate 38 doctoral dissertations, 16 master's theses, 32 conference papers, and one unpublished report into our study.

Fourth, we did not correct for direct or indirect range restriction because we did not have enough information to determine if either existed or what effect they would have had on our findings (Hunter, Schmidt, & Le, 2006). Fifth, our data precluded us from making inferences about causality because the inclusion criteria limited our data set to studies with field data instead of experimental manipulations. Accordingly, we emphasize that our results are intended to be characteristic of the observed correlations reported across a representative sample of empirical studies that examine employed followers' perceptions of destructive leadership. Sixth, we found evidence of heterogeneity across some of the relationships we examined. However, the magnitude of many of our meta-analytic results was consistent with estimates from other meta-analyses of social psychological phenomena (Paterson, Harms, Steel, & Credé, 2016). Altogether, the limitations noted above are common for meta-analyses.

Finally, our focal variable (i.e., destructive leadership) had some limitations that likely impacted our conclusions. We included many different measures of destructive leadership into our study, and each has important conceptual and empirical distinctions. It is clear from our findings that this literature is reliant on *Tepper's (2000)* measure of abusive supervision to assess destructive leadership. However, we found studies that used other measures of destructive leadership, so variations in the measurement of destructive leadership across studies could impact the validity of our inferences about findings across this literature. It is possible that differences across these measures impacted the precision (i.e., 80% credibility intervals) and/or heterogeneity (i.e., SD_T and SD_p) of our results. Ultimately, it is important to consider the alignment between the conceptualization and operationalization (Heggestad, Scheaf, Banks, Hausfeld, Tonidandel, & Williams, 2019) of destructive leadership throughout this literature while evaluating our findings.

5.3. Actionable agenda for future business research

It is evident from the thousands of studies we searched through and hundreds of empirical destructive leadership studies we found that this area is of considerable scholarly and practical interest. Below, we describe how researchers can use the meta-analytic building blocks we provide to improve the field (DeSimone, Köhler, & Schoen, 2019). Overall, we encourage researchers to leverage the data available in our supplements to further engage in the storytelling process that explains why observed relationships exist (Shepherd & Suddaby, 2017) as they provide depth that thickens the plotlines in new and existing theoretical stories.

First, it would be informative for future research to instigate needed

debates about why substantial heterogeneity in findings exists across some of our estimates, especially for relationships that have large SD_T values, large SD_p values, and/or wide 80% credibility intervals. For example, why is there so much heterogeneity in the observed relationship between destructive leadership and followers' task performance ($\rho = -0.23$, $SD_p = 0.16$, 80% credibility interval: $[-0.43, -0.03]$, $k = 60$, $N = 16,379$)? Future research is needed to offer a parsimonious theoretical explanation for this finding.

To this end, we recommend examining destructive leaders' motives for engaging in behavior that is perceived as destructive. Prior research has argued that destructive leaders sometimes engage in strategic expressions of hostility (Tepper, Duffy, & Breaux-Soignet, 2012) and/or strategic bullying (Ferris, Zinko, Brouer, Buckley, & Harvey, 2007) with performance promotion motives (Liu et al., 2012). Thus, it is possible that some destructive leadership perceptions capture leaders who engage in destructive actions with constructive intentions. This might explain why we do not see a stronger relationship between destructive leadership and followers' task performance ($\rho = -0.23$), as well as why there is so much heterogeneity in this relationship ($SD_p = 0.16$). There may be some level of destructive leadership that is actually functional as a means of motivating followers if properly implemented. Future research that examines curvilinear effects of destructive leadership on followers' task performance could examine this possibility.

Additionally, future research could generate a nuanced understanding of how much of destructive leadership is in the eye of the beholder. Our findings demonstrate that followers' trait negative affectivity ($\rho = 0.36$, $SD_p = 0.13$, 80% credibility interval: $[0.19, 0.53]$, $k = 45$, $N = 14,754$) and state negative affect ($\rho = 0.43$, $SD_p = 0.14$, 80% credibility interval: $[0.25, 0.60]$, $k = 21$, $N = 5,557$) are both related to destructive leadership perceptions. Thus, some subordinates may be primed to perceive destructive leadership. Accordingly, it is important for future research to examine how followers' personality traits affect their perceptions of destructive leadership, especially because we found that the Big Five personality factors were generally weak predictors of destructive leadership ($-0.18 \leq \rho \leq 0.20$). Instead, we encourage future research to explore the role of the Dark Triad (i.e., Machiavellianism, narcissism, and psychopathy), as well as other "dark" personality traits, such as schadenfreude (Van Dijk, Ouwerkerk, Goslinga, & Nieweg, 2005) and sadism (Min, Pavisic, Howald, Highhouse, & Zickar, 2019).

Next, additional empirical destructive leadership research is needed to examine the nuances of abusive supervision measures. Specifically, additional research is needed to understand the theoretical, conceptual, and empirical differences between findings from *Mitchell and Ambrose's (2007)* five-item measure of active-aggressive abusive supervision versus *Tepper's (2000)* full 15-item measure of abusive supervision. The results of sub-group moderator analyses in Supplement G show that results from studies that employ these different measures are usually similar (e.g., job satisfaction: $\rho_{15\text{-item}} = -0.34$; $\rho_{5\text{-item}} = -0.35$), but that they are sometimes notably different (e.g., LMX: $\rho_{15\text{-item}} = -0.57$; $\rho_{5\text{-item}} = -0.34$). Thus, we call for additional research to generate meaningful nuances to our knowledge by determining which relationships and to what extent our understanding of abusive supervision (specifically) and destructive leadership (broadly) is impacted by the use of different measures.

Additionally, examining styles of destructive leadership other than abusive supervision is important because abusive supervision focuses on supervisors/managers, whereas (destructive) leadership is a process of influence that can come from formal/designated and informal/non-designated sources (Ashford & Sitkin, 2019). Although we were able to include empirical studies with 13 different styles of destructive leadership in our meta-analysis, many of them were only examined in a few studies. We encourage future research to compare results across destructive leadership styles to evaluate how findings from specific destructive leadership styles (e.g., leader narcissism; Carnevale, Huang, & Harms, 2018a) generalize across broad assessments of destructive leadership. The rampant construct proliferation that is present in this

area (see Table 1) has contributed to the inconsistent study designs applied in the destructive leadership literature.

The important conceptual distinctions between various forms of destructive leadership are evident when examining the definitions of the various styles of destructive leadership reported in Table 1. For example, destructive leadership can be relatively covert (e.g., leader exclusion) or overt (e.g., evil leadership). Further, leaders can engage in behaviors with ambiguous intent (e.g., leader incivility) or clear intent (e.g., aversive leadership). Additionally, destructive leadership can be conceptualized in specific (e.g., lying, cheating, and stealing in corrupt leadership) or broad (e.g., insincere leadership) terms. Thus, the conceptualization and operationalization of destructive leadership has important implications for study findings. The five-item and 15-item measures of abusive supervision are, by far, the most widely used measures in this stream of research. However, the results in Supplement G demonstrate that even these two measures do not always generate consistent results. Thus, additional research is needed to determine the extent to which the conceptualizations and operationalizations of destructive leadership variables are valid, as well as the extent to which they overlap. Ultimately, it would be useful to generate evidence-based recommendations for how to create a cohesive body of research.

Also, we recommend that researchers leverage our findings when evaluating potential substantive and control variables for future studies. We hope that our findings help researchers identify followers' workplace attitudes (e.g., turnover intention), perceptions (e.g., job tension), and behaviors (e.g., CWB) that are meaningfully associated with destructive leadership and theoretically relevant to their research questions.

Next, we encourage future research to continue to expand on some of the promising avenues that have emerged recently. For example, research is beginning to explore how traditionally positive leader traits, attitudes, and behaviors can have destructive consequences (e.g., humility and humor; Yam, Christian, Wei, Liao, & Nai, 2018; Zapata & Hayes-Jones, 2019). Conversely, additional research is needed to expand on what we know about the positive sides of traditionally dark leader traits (e.g., the Dark Triad and beyond; Harms & Spain, 2015; Spain, Harms, & LeBreton, 2014), attitudes, and behaviors (e.g., moral cleansing; Liao, Yam, Johnson, Liu, & Song, 2018). Additionally, research is needed to improve our limited understanding of the antecedents of leaders' destructive behaviors, such as their envy (e.g., Yu, Duffy, & Tepper, 2018), stress (e.g., Harms, Credé, Tynan, Leon, & Jeung, 2017), socioeconomic status (e.g., Martin, Côté, & Woodruff, 2016), and state levels of cognitive resources (e.g., sleepiness; Barnes, Lucianetti, Bhave, & Christian, 2015). Our findings reported in Table 2 can provide a foundation for examining leader and follower characteristics that could be used to build more robust theories of the antecedents of destructive leadership, as well as integrate findings from these emerging areas.

Finally, we recommend that researchers improve our understanding of the full experience of destructive leadership, which encompasses leaders, followers, and organizations. This combination of contextual features is labeled the "Toxic Triangle", which consists of destructive leaders, susceptible followers, and conducive environments (Padilla, Hogan, & Kaiser, 2007; Thoroughgood, Sawyer, Padilla, & Lunsford, 2018). At a broad conceptual level, "authoritarians", "lost souls", "bystanders", "opportunists", and "acolytes" are theorized to either cooperate (i.e., collude) with destructive leaders or comply (i.e., conform) with them (Thoroughgood, Padilla, Hunter, & Tate, 2012) in unstable organizations that lack institutional checks and balances (Padilla et al., 2007). However, empirical research has not yet developed a solid understanding of how the defining features of "authoritarians" (i.e., followers influenced by legitimate power), "lost souls" (i.e., followers who have unmet needs that are influenced by referent power), "bystanders" (i.e., manipulative followers who are influenced by coercive power), "opportunists" (i.e., ambitious followers who are influenced by reward power), and "acolytes" (i.e., followers who are influenced by expert

power because their goals align with their leaders' goals) contribute to the destructive leadership process (Thoroughgood et al., 2012).

Similarly, empirical research has not yet developed a solid understanding of how the defining features of conducive environments contribute to destructive leadership processes. Thoroughgood et al. (2018) provided a useful conceptual summary of the key features that produce conducive organizational environments, which include lack of internal and external checks and balances, organizational instability, ongoing complexity and dynamism, and reduced scrutiny. However, the scant empirical research that examines how susceptible followers and conducive organizational environments contribute to destructive leadership processes that enable, tolerate, and sometimes even promote destructive leadership is problematic for this literature. Although there are some examples of scholars examining the Toxic Triangle in extreme contexts (e.g., the Penn State scandal; Thoroughgood & Padilla, 2013), we advocate for research that validates measures of conducive environments and various types of susceptible followers that can be applied broadly so we can systematically improve our understanding of the Toxic Triangle as it operates in a variety of organizational settings.

5.4. Implications for practice

Our meta-analytic results have clear and important implications for evidence-based practice (Aguinis, Banks, Rogelberg, & Cascio, 2020; Ones, Viswesvaran, & Schmidt, 2017) and consulting (De Fuentes & Porcuna, 2016). Prior business research has reported adverse associations between destructive leadership and workplace outcomes. Our results support the prevailing wisdom, but we also provide refined estimates of the magnitude of these relationships. Our findings are important for practitioners and consultants because they stem from collective empirical evidence that is less subject to context-specific biases than the results from individual primary studies. Further, we provide important information about how consistently our results apply across studies (i.e., when SD_r and SD_p values are low and 80% credibility intervals are narrow) so we can demonstrate that destructive leadership has many meaningful effects on followers' workplace attitudes, perceptions, and behaviors that are of utility and interest for practitioners and consultants.

We encourage practitioners to consider that it likely is difficult to make sweeping generalizations about which employees will likely perceive that they experienced destructive leadership because we found weak results for demographic variables ($-0.03 \leq \rho \leq 0.06$). Instead, our results suggest that followers' attitudes, perceptions, and behaviors are more meaningfully associated with destructive leadership, so this may be a useful starting point for evaluating follower characteristics that are associated with destructive leadership. For example, we found that destructive leadership was strongly associated with CWBs toward leaders ($\rho = 0.56$, $SD_p = 0.15$, 80% credibility interval: [0.37, 0.75], $k = 30$, $N = 9,618$) and coworkers ($\rho = 0.39$, $SD_p = 0.15$, 80% credibility interval: [0.19, 0.58], $k = 30$, $N = 9,244$), so CWBs may be an indicator of the presence of followers' perceptions of destructive leadership. Finally, we encourage organizational leaders to be aware of the meaningful relationships between destructive leadership and followers' task performance ($\rho = -0.23$, $SD_p = 0.16$, 80% credibility interval: [-0.43, -0.03], $k = 60$, $N = 16,379$) and OCBs ($\rho = -0.24$, $SD_p = 0.13$, 80% credibility interval: [-0.41, -0.07], $k = 32$, $N = 7,281$) because these behaviors are critical for effective organizational functioning.

6. Conclusion

Our motivation for this study was to conduct a systematic literature review that improves our understanding of the magnitude of relationships within destructive leadership's nomological network. We drew from 418 empirical studies ($k = 418$, $N = 123,511$) that examined destructive leadership so we could conduct meta-analyses that enabled us to improve our understanding of destructive leadership. Overall, we

found that numerous styles of destructive leadership are investigated in this literature, destructive leadership has many meaningful relationships with antecedents and outcomes throughout its nomological network, and that the majority of empirical studies rely on examining abusive supervision. Darth Vader likely would have warned us that we did not truly know “the power of the dark side” of destructive leadership prior to our study. However, our systematic literature review builds the solid empirical foundation necessary to advance knowledge within the destructive leadership literature by generating building blocks for nuanced theory development, identifying useful directions for future business research, and facilitating evidence-based recommendations for policy and practice that leverage and integrate the many insights from this literature.

Declaration of Competing Interest

The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

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Appendix A. Supplementary material

Supplementary data to this article can be found online at <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jbusres.2020.10.037>.

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Dr. Jeremy D. Mackey is a Dean's Fellow and Associate Professor of Management in the Harbert College of Business at Auburn University. He earned a Ph.D. in Business Administration from Florida State University and a B.S. in Business Administration from Virginia Tech. His research has been published in numerous academic journals, including the *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *Strategic Management Journal*, *Journal of Management*, and *Personnel Psychology*. His current research interests include destructive leadership, interpersonal mistreatment, meta-analysis, and measure development. Professor Mackey's research examines why and how interpersonal mistreatment affects professional relationships and counterproductive work behavior. Much of his current research focuses on how to use meta-analysis and measure development to meaningfully advance our understanding of interpersonal mistreatment at work. He has taught courses about organizational behavior and human resource management.

Dr. B. Parker Ellen III is an Assistant Professor in the Management and Organizational Development Group of the D'Amore-McKim School of Business at Northeastern University. He earned a Ph.D. in Business Administration from Florida State University, M.S. in

Managerial Sciences from Georgia State University, and a B.S. in Civil Engineering from Auburn University. His research has been published in numerous academic journals, including the *Journal of Management*, *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, *Journal of Management Studies*, and *The Leadership Quarterly*. Professor Ellen researches organizational behavior topics related to social influence in organizations. His primary focus areas are leadership and organizational politics. He has taught courses on organizational behavior, negotiation, and leadership.

Dr. Charn P. McAllister is an Assistant Professor in the Department of Management in the W. A. Franke College of Business at Northern Arizona University. He earned a Ph.D. in Business Administration from Florida State University, M.A. in Humanities from American Military University, and a B.S. in Engineering Psychology from the United States Military Academy at West Point. His research has been published in numerous academic journals, including the *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *Journal of Management*, and *Personnel Psychology*. His current research interests include interpersonal mistreatment, political skill, and stress. Professor McAllister's research focuses on the various ways employees attempt to navigate and thrive in the workplace. He has taught courses on leadership, negotiations, and organizational behavior.

Ms. Katherine C. Alexander is a Ph.D. student in the Department of Management in the Harbert College of Business at Auburn University. She earned a M.B.A. from Auburn University and a B.S. in Economics, Philosophy, and Political Economy from the University of Alabama at Birmingham. Her research has been published in the *Journal of Business Ethics*. Her current research interests include interpersonal mistreatment, insubordination, destructive leadership, and meta-analysis. Overall, Katie's research examines destructive leadership and its impacts in organizations. Her research has resulted in the development of a measure of insubordination that can facilitate the development of a new research stream. She also conducts meta-analyses of interpersonal mistreatment topics that refine our understanding of its true impacts on perpetrators and victims. She has taught courses on the principles of management.