

THE DESTRUCTIVE INSTRUCTOR-LEADERSHIP QUESTIONNAIRE: A Replication Study in Trinidad

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While destructive leadership has been investigated primarily in corporate contexts, research has shown that such leadership may also exist in instructor-student relationships in higher education. In light of this, researchers have very recently developed a 13-item measure of destructive instructor-leadership that is well-aligned to the theoretical model of destructive leadership. However, this measure has yet to be replicated in an independent sample or a western country, and doing so is important for a measure's generalisability. Therefore, the aims of the present study are to (1) test the factor structure of the destructive instructor-leadership questionnaire (DILQ) in an independent sample from a western country, (2) examine convergent and discriminant validity using social undermining, and (3) test criterion-related validity via outcomes that are both established and novel to instructor-leadership research. Using a sample of 194 students from Trinidad, the findings partially replicated the three-factor structure of the DILQ, including irresponsibility, victimisation, and callous communication, and showed validity overall. These findings, along with unexpected findings, limitations, and suggestions for future research are discussed.

Introduction

Leadership researchers have generally been interested in constructive leader behaviors such as transformational, authentic, ethical, and servant. However, in recent times, researchers have acknowledged that leaders can also use destructive behaviors when influencing their followers.

These destructive leader behaviors have been referred to as abusive supervision (Tepper, 2000), petty tyranny (Ashforth, 1994), tyrannical leadership (Johan Hauge et al., 2007), unsupportive managerial behaviors (Rooney & Gottlieb, 2007), despotic leadership (De Hoogh & Den Hartog, 2008), and toxic leadership (Lipman-Blumen, 2004). Evidently, researchers have used a multiplicity of constructs to describe destructive leadership. In order to address this issue, Krasikova et al. (2013) reviewed the various constructs to arrive at a unified conceptual framework. Accordingly, Krasikova et al. (2013, p. 1310) defined destructive leadership as:

volitional behavior by a leader that can harm or intends to harm a leader's organization and/or followers by (1) encouraging followers to pursue goals that contravene the legitimate interests of the organization and/or (2) employing a leadership style that involves the use of harmful methods of influence with followers, regardless of justifications for such behavior.

Destructive leadership has been investigated primarily in supervisor-subordinate relationships in the corporate context (Schyns & Schilling, 2013), but destructive leadership may also exist in a higher education context.

In a higher education institution (HEI) context, few researchers investigate the concept known as destructive instructor-leadership (Balwant, 2017; Ellis, 2000; Goodyear et al., 1992; Thweatt & McCroskey, 1996). Destructive instructor-leadership can be defined as “an instructor's sustained and volitional use of harmful behavior that involves the (a) use of harmful methods of influence in the process of leading students toward a goal and/or (b) encouragement of students towards a goal that is contradictory to the HEI's interests” (Balwant, 2017, p. 16). This definition points to four key features of destructive instructor-leadership. First, the instructor's behavior toward students is used in the *process of leading* (for example, in guiding students toward achieving learning objectives). Second, there are *two manifestations* of destructive instructor-leadership including: (1) leading followers towards goals that contradict the organisation's interests (for example, misleading guidance and feedback), and (2) using harmful actions when leading (for example,

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shouting). Thirdly, the leader *chooses* to follow the contradictory goal or use harmful methods. Finally, the leader's actions are *sustained* over a period of time (for example, each week during the semester).

Like its organisational behavior counterpart, the concept of destructive instructor-leadership has been partly examined via two concepts from the educational literature including teacher misbehavior and teacher disconfirmation. Teacher *misbehaviors* can be defined as those teacher behaviors that disrupt student learning, and the concept is composed of three dimensions including offensiveness, indolence, and incompetence (Kearney et al., 1991). *Offensiveness* refers to the tendency to verbally abuse students (for example, humiliate and insult students) (Banfield et al., 2006). *Indolence* is defined as an instructor's neglect of students (for example, arriving late to class) (Banfield et al., 2006). *Incompetence* refers to an instructor's lack of pedagogy skills (for example, monotone lecturing or providing unclear instructions) (Banfield et al., 2006). Indolence and incompetence represent an instructor's inability to achieve goals valued by the institution or to mobilise students to achieve these goals, and thus are regarded as ineffective leadership rather than destructive leadership (Krasikova et al., 2013). In contrast, offensive behavior and destructive leadership share the same conceptual space, because they both describe intentionally harmful behavior (Balwant, 2017). Like offensive behavior, teacher disconfirmation also shares the same conceptual space as destructive leadership theory.

Teacher *disconfirmation* is defined as "the process by which teachers communicate to students that they are not endorsed, recognised or acknowledged as valuable, significant individuals" (Ellis, 2000, p. 266). Disconfirmation includes the use of numerous harmful actions in the process of leading students toward a goal, and thus overlaps considerably with the second manifestation of destructive leadership as described earlier. Table 1 shows a detailed comparison of the similarities between disconfirmation behaviors as reported by Ellis (2000) and the second manifestation of destructive leadership. Evidently, both teacher misbehavior and teacher disconfirmation capture one manifestation of destructive leadership (that is, harmful methods in the influence process), but ignore the other manifestation of destructive leadership (that is, guiding students towards goals that contravene the organisation's interests).

To address the gap between education concepts that focus on 'bad' teaching and destructive instructor-leadership, Balwant (2017) conducted

a qualitative investigation of destructive instructor-leadership in a HEI context. Balwant's (2017) initial investigation and thematic framework later received partial support in a follow-up quantitative study, which showed that destructive instructor-leadership can be measured by a 13-item Destructive Instructor-Leadership Questionnaire (DILQ) that taps into three dimensions including irresponsibility, victimisation, and callous communication (Balwant et al., 2020). While Balwant's research sheds light on the concept and measurement of destructive instructor-leadership, much of this area of research remains in its infancy.

Table 1. The Association Between Disconfirmation Behaviours and Destructive Leadership Concepts

Disconfirmation behaviours	Equivalent destructive leadership concepts and/or constructs
Rudeness; embarrassing and belittling students; putting down students in class	• All are explicitly represented in Tepper's Abusive Supervision Scale. (Tepper, 2000) and the construct of petty tyranny (Ashforth, 1997). • Well-documented in the workplace bullying literature (for example, Johan Hauge et al., 2007). • Described as the undermining classification of unsupportive managerial behaviors (Rooney & Gottlieb, 2007).
Unwillingness to listen to students who disagree	• Reflected in Tepper's Abusive Supervision Scale (for example, "[t]ells me my thoughts or feelings are stupid") (Tepper, 2000, p. 189). • Clearly represented in the construct of petty tyranny as part of a forcing style of conflict resolution (that is, "forces acceptance of his or her point of view") (Ashforth, 1997, p. 127). • Lipman-Blumen (2004) also describes unwillingness to listen as a toxic behavior in which leaders stifle constructive criticism, "teaching supporters ... to comply with, rather than to question, the leader's judgment and actions" (p. 20).
Arrogance and use of intimidation	• Explicitly mentioned as a quality and a destructive behavior of a toxic leader respectively (Lipman-Blumen, 2004).

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Disconfirmation behaviours	Equivalent destructive leadership concepts and/or constructs
The teacher communicating that he/she does not have time to meet with students	- Both behaviors are also reflected in the self-aggrandisement component of petty tyranny (Ashforth, 1997). - May represent a lack of interest in the follower, and this has been reflected as part of the apathy class of unsupportive managerial behaviors (Rooney & Gottlieb, 2007). A leader who intentionally communicates his/her disregard for followers may be seen as using a destructive style. - A lack of consideration (that is, unapproachable or unfriendly) can be considered part of the construct of petty tyranny (Ashforth, 1997).
Showing favoritism to a select group of students	- Does not seem to be explicitly mentioned in the destructive leadership literature. - The closest resemblance may be bullying, because, by definition, bullying involves the social exclusion of someone (Johan Hauge et al., 2007).

One way to advance research in this important area is to further test the robustness of the DILQ. With this goal in mind, the aims of the present study are as follows:

1. Test the three-dimensional factor structure of the DILQ in an independent sample from a new country.
2. Further test convergent and discriminant validity of the DILQ by examining associations between destructive instructor-leadership and its closest counterpart called social undermining.
3. Further test criterion-related validity and incremental validity of the DILQ, and, in so doing, examine emotional exhaustion and distress, which are outcomes that are established in the destructive leadership literature (Schyns & Schilling, 2013) but novel to the instructor-leadership arena.

Factor Structure in an Independent Sample

While Balwant (2020) takes the first steps towards developing a context-sensitive measure of destructive instructor-leadership, a limitation of those findings is that they have yet to be replicated. Specifically, Balwant (2020) follows the first five of Hinkin's (1998) six-step scale development guide. Following this guide, the present paper addresses the sixth step, which is *replication*. The sixth step involves the use of an independent sample to improve the generalisability of the developed measure (Hinkin, 1998).

The DILQ was developed in a United Kingdom (UK) context, and thus it is worth investigating the equivalence of the DILQ's factor structure in a Westernised society like Trinidad that is likely to be characterised by significant cultural differences. After all, perceptions of destructive leader behaviors may vary between cultures (Aasland et al., 2010). Tepper (2007) reinforces this notion by explaining that destructive leadership may be more accepted in countries with higher power distance.

Power distance refers to "the degree of inequality in power between a less powerful individual (I) and a more powerful Other (O), in which I and O belong to the same (loosely or tight-knit) social system" (Mulder, 1977, p. 90). For instance, given that the students from Balwant's (2020) study were from the UK – a country with a moderately low power distance (*The Hofstede Centre*, 2020) – students' interpretations of destructive leader behavior may be contingent upon the power distance in the UK. In higher power-distance countries like Trinidad (*The Hofstede Centre*, 2020), certain destructive leader behaviors may be considered acceptable behavior. Consequently, students' reactions to destructive instructor-leadership in low power distance cultures may be more intense than students' reactions in higher power-distance cultures (Tepper, 2007). However, the power-distance differences between the UK and Trinidad are based on Hofstede's (2001) work, which has been subject to key criticisms. A few of these criticisms include using a niche sample to draw conclusions on a culture that applies to a population, an assumption that countries have a homogeneous culture (for example, in Hofstede's work, Great Britain is regarded as a single entity even though it is composed of at least three nations), an assumption that values at work apply to all social contexts, a reduction of national culture into rigid 'black boxes' that disregard the fluidity and elasticity of culture, and methodological issues in the calculation of power distance (Fang, 2005; Ly, 2013; McSweeney, 2002).

Despite these issues with Hofstede's framework and power distance, in particular, Van de Vliert's (2009) climato-economic theory of culture points to another key difference between Trinidad and the UK that can

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impact perceptions and/or reactions to destructive leadership. Climato-economic theory of culture proposes that climate and affluence combine to affect culture (Van de Vliert, 2009). In light of this, research has shown that destructive leadership cultures are less prevalent in less wealthy regions with mild summers and winters (for example, Trinidad¹), than in more wealthy regions with mild summers and cold winters (for example, UK), even after controlling for confounding factors such as language, religion, and political regime (Van de Vliert et al., 2010). These conditions of closer-to-optimal matching between climate demands and wealth resources (for example, UK) produce more destructive leadership than too easy climates with few weather-related expenses where overmatching occurs. According to Van de Vliert et al. (2010), optimal matching means that people experience just enough problems, which creates a fully satisfying situation. Conversely, overmatching can create frustration from too undemanding summers and winters, which is likely to be more challenging and motivating. Therefore, optimal matching produces less challenging strain than overmatching. Because challenging strain improves psychosocial functioning, closer-to-optimal matching tends to produce more destructive leadership than overmatching. Accordingly, climato-economic theory contradicts the power distance point, because destructive leader behaviors may be considered more of a norm in the UK than in Trinidad.

Overall, power distance and climato-economic theory provide contrasting viewpoints on the acceptability of destructive leadership in the UK and Trinidad. Nonetheless, both theories suggest that the UK and Trinidad have different cultures. For this reason, the first research question in the present paper is, “Will the three dimensions from the 13-item destructive instructor-leadership questionnaire (DILQ) be replicated in an independent sample from a new country?”

Convergent and Discriminant Validity in Relation to Social Undermining

In addition to the DILQ’s factor structure, further research is needed on its convergent and discriminant validity. Convergent validity is the degree to

¹ Trinidad does not have winter and summer seasons. Here, winter and summer are used to compare climate between Trinidad and the UK during those periods of the year.

which a new measure correlates with a known measure that is conceptually similar (Cooper & Schindler, 2002). Discriminant validity is the degree to which a measure can be separated from other related constructs or theories (Cooper & Schindler, 2002). Therefore, in order to test both convergent and discriminant validity, I examined social undermining because this concept is not only conceptually similar to destructive leadership but also has an established measure.

Social undermining refers to “behavior intended to hinder, over time, the ability to establish and maintain positive interpersonal relationships, work-related success, and favourable reputation” (Duffy et al., 2002, p. 332). Testing the validity of the DILQ against social undermining is perhaps the most rigorous validity test for the DILQ, because the Social Undermining Scale is regarded as the best alternative to Tepper’s (2000) abusive supervision scale – the most popular measure of destructive leadership, which formed the foundation for the DILQ. Specifically, Duffy et al.’s (2002) Social Undermining Scale is more aligned with abusive supervision than other constructs used in abusive supervision literature (Tepper, 2007). The DILQ should, therefore, be related to the Social Undermining Scale, but still be distinct enough to warrant its usage over an existing measure. Consequently, the second research question in the present paper is, “Is the DILQ distinct from the Social Undermining Scale?”

Criterion-Related and Incremental Validity in Relation to Student Outcomes

The predictive validity of the DILQ is also important when considering the relationship between destructive instructor-leadership and student outcomes in a new context. Accordingly, I examined criterion-related and incremental validity. Criterion-related validity refers to the degree to which a measure can successfully predict an outcome or estimate an existing behavior or condition (Cooper & Schindler, 2002). Incremental validity is an extension of criterion validity and refers to the degree to which a measure “adds to the prediction of a criterion above what can be predicted by other sources of data” (Hunsley & Meyer, 2003, p. 446). Therefore, not only was the relationship between destructive instructor-leadership and key student outcomes examined but also the degree to which the DILQ predicts these outcomes beyond social undermining.

Satisfaction and performance. Like Balwant (2020), the present study examines the relationship between destructive instructor-leadership and both satisfaction and individual performance. Firstly, social exchange

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theory (SET) suggests that destructive instructor-leadership may reduce students' satisfaction. SET posits that two parties are in a relationship characterised by reciprocal interdependence (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005). Destructive leader behaviors can promote low-quality social exchanges between leaders and followers which is likely to result in prolonged dissatisfaction (Wayne et al., 1997).

Secondly, the conservation of resources (COR) model may explain why destructive instructor-leadership behaviors may reduce students' academic performance. The premise of the COR model is that "people strive to retain, protect, and build resources and that what is threatening to them is the potential or actual loss of these valued resources" (Hobfoll, 1989, p. 516). Accordingly, destructive instructor-leadership is likely to cause students to experience stress, which may eat away at their available energy or resources, thus leading to detachment from the work/study role (Burris et al., 2008; Hobfoll, 1989). Students are likely to be stripped of their energies and resources, and in this state would likely (1) distance themselves from the source of distress (for example, missing classes) and/or (2) try to offset losses by directing their remaining resources towards coping strategies rather than their work/study role (for example, fostering support) (Halbesleben & Bowler, 2007). Overall, COR suggests that destructive instructor-leadership may cause students to redirect resources from the course (for example, studying) toward dealing with their destructive instructor-leader.

Emotional exhaustion and distress. In addition to satisfaction and performance, the present study also examines other established outcomes from the destructive leadership literature including emotional exhaustion and distress. Emotional exhaustion means that an individual's emotional resources are used up and they become worn out (Cole et al., 2012; Maslach & Jackson, 1981). SET explains why destructive instructor-leadership may increase students' emotional exhaustion. According to SET, destructive leaders may increase followers' emotional exhaustion, because destructive leader behaviors can promote low-quality social exchanges between leaders and followers, eventually leading to detachment (Wayne et al., 1997). As mentioned before, detachment may take the form of distancing oneself from a destructive leader to regain emotional control (Burris et al., 2008), but students may also detach themselves emotionally by becoming depersonalized in their interactions – a clear indicator of becoming worn out (Burris et al., 2008).

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Distress means that individuals feel a lack of control and experience negative affective reactions (Hewitt et al., 1992). Destructive leader behaviors can increase distress by (1) creating role conflicts (Krasikova et al., 2013) and (2) influencing justice perceptions (Tepper, 2000). These leaders can create role conflicts by leading followers towards goals that contradict the organisation's interests (Krasikova et al., 2013). Destructive leaders may also influence perceived injustice among followers, which can lead to anger, a desire for restitution, and low self-esteem, all of which can lead to psychological distress (Tepper, 2000). Student-followers may perceive injustice with respect to outcome allocation (for example, grades [distributive justice]), the procedures used to determine outcome allocation (for example, evaluation procedures [procedural justice]), and interpersonal treatment (interactional justice) (Tepper, 2000). Overall, meta-analytic evidence in the destructive leadership literature shows that such leadership is negatively related to followers' satisfaction and performance, and positively related to followers' emotional exhaustion and distress (Schyns & Schilling, 2013). Therefore, the third research question in the present paper is, "Does the DILQ predict established outcomes from the destructive leadership literature and, if so, does it predict these outcomes beyond social undermining?"

Methods

Ethical Considerations

The present study was classified as a survey for which there was a low risk of participants being identified. Hence, the Head of Department at the researcher's university determined that the project was exempt from review, which was the practice at that university at the time when data were collected. Nevertheless, the American Psychological Association's ethical principles and code of conduct for research and publication were followed. Specifically, participants were provided with an information sheet that outlined: (1) the project's purpose and expected duration, (2) participants' right to decline to participate or withdraw at any time without reason, (3) possible risks of participating (for example, discomfort if reflecting on harmful teaching experiences), (4) possible benefits of participating (for example, extra credit), (5) anonymity details (for example, deletion of student identification numbers from the dataset once extra credit has been assigned), and (6) contact information for questions about the research or to make a complaint.

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Participants

After removing missing data, outliers, and invalid responses, the final sample consisted of 194 students studying at a university located in Trinidad. Most students were from a faculty that focuses on the social sciences ($n = 175$, 90.2%). Other students were from three other faculties ($n = 19$, 9.8%) that are not disclosed to protect the identity of the university. The sample included 55 males ranging from 18 to 35 years ($M = 20.67$, $SD = 3.10$) and 137 females ranging from 18 to 52 years ($M = 21.86$, $SD = 6.01$)². Participants had to be undergraduate students to be included, and there were no other inclusion/exclusion criteria.

² Two participants did not indicate their biological gender.

Materials

Destructive Instructor-Leadership. Destructive instructor-leadership was measured by the DILQ (Balwant et al., 2020). The DILQ consisted of 13 items that were represented on a 5-point continuum with higher scores indicating more destructive instructor-leadership. An opening statement before the questions read, “Indicate how often <Name> has intentionally used these behaviors”, and was composed of three subscales, including (1) irresponsibility (4 items, for example, “<Name> threatened me”), victimisation (5 items, for example, “<Name> made negative comments about me to others”), and callous communication (4 items, for example, “<Name> displayed facial expressions that indicated disinterest in me”). Overall α for the DILQ was 0.90.

Social Undermining Scale. Social undermining was measured by the Social Undermining Scale (Duffy et al., 2002), which consisted of 13 items that were represented on a 5-point continuum with higher scores indicating more undermining behaviors. An opening statement before the questions read, “How often has <Name> intentionally ...” Sample items include: “Hurt your feelings?”, “Put you down when you questioned class procedures?”, and “Undermined your effort to be successful in the course?” ($\alpha = 0.92$).

Satisfaction. Students’ satisfaction with the course was measured by three items from the Michigan Assessment of Organizations (Bowling & Hammond, 2008). The three items were represented on a 5-point continuum with higher scores indicating greater satisfaction. Sample items include, “All in all, I was satisfied with <Name>’s course” and “In general, I did not like being in <Name>’s course” (reverse-scored) ($\alpha = 0.83$).

Emotional Exhaustion. Students’ emotional exhaustion was measured by the Oldenburg Burnout Inventory (OLBI) (Demerouti et al., 2010), and used Reis et al.’s (2015) adaptation for an academic context. The OLBI consisted of 8 items that were represented on a 5-point continuum with higher scores indicating more burnout. Sample items include: “after <Name>’s class or after studying for <Name>’s course, I usually feel worn out and weary” and “I can usually manage my study-related workload for <Name>’s course well” (reverse-scored) ($\alpha = 0.83$).

Distress. Students’ distress was measured by the Perceived Stress Scale (PSS) (Cohen et al., 1983). The PSS measured distress with 7 items (Hewitt et al., 1992) that were represented on a 5-point continuum with higher scores indicating greater stress. Sample items include: “In <Name>’s course, how often have you felt nervous and ‘stressed’?” and “In <Name>’s course, how often have you felt that things were going your way?” (reverse-scored) ($\alpha = 0.83$).

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Academic Performance. Academic performance was measured by asking students to provide their final grade percentage for the course.

Demographic. Age was measured in years and biological gender was coded as '0' for male and '1' for female.

Social Desirability. Social desirability was measured by a short-form of the Marlowe-Crowne Social Desirability Scale (SDS) (Fischer & Fick, 1993). The short-form of the SDS contained 6 true-false items, which were coded as '0' for not socially desirable behavior and '1' for socially desirable behavior. Sample items include: "I have never intensely disliked anyone" and "I sometimes feel resentful when I don't get my way" ($\alpha = 0.52$).

Positive Affect. Positive affect was measured by a short form of the Positive and Negative Affect Schedule (PANAS) (Thompson, 2007). The PANAS measured positive affect with 5 items that were represented on a 5-point continuum with higher scores indicating greater positive affect. An opening statement before the questions read, "Thinking about yourself and how you normally feel, to what extent do you generally feel ...". Sample items include: "Determined", "Attentive", and "Alert" ($\alpha = 0.87$). Positive affect was used as a marker variable in the present study.

Procedures

The questionnaire was distributed during the second semester of the academic year so that students could provide a final grade percentage from a course completed in the first semester. Prior to the questionnaire, the following were provided: a brief description of the study to students, a link to an information sheet, a link to the online questionnaire, and general instructions. The general instructions specified that the questionnaire would require students to (1) rate their least favourite instructor from the previous semester, (2) focus on one instructor who was the primary/lead instructor for the completed course and taught at least half of the classes, and (3) recall the percentage grade that they received for the course.

The online questionnaire was distributed to students enrolled in a management/business course. Specifically, the students were provided with a message and link to the questionnaire on the course's website. Additionally, as noted earlier, students were awarded one percent extra credit for participating in the study. This incentive may encourage students to engage in straight-lining to complete the questionnaire quickly. Therefore, a filtering question was used to remove participants who were not reading the questions properly. This filter question was, "Please select

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‘Agree’ for this statement”. Sixteen students answered this question incorrectly, and thus were removed from the dataset.

Data Analysis and Statistical Assumptions

Two computer programs were used to conduct data analysis. Firstly, SPSS Statistics for Windows, version 22 (IBM Corp., 2013), was used to test statistical assumptions, convergent validity, criterion-related validity, and incremental validity. Secondly, the Lavaan package (Rosseel, 2012) for R (R Core Team, 2013) was used to replicate the factor structure, test convergent and discriminant validity, and investigate common method variance.

The assumptions of normality, homoscedasticity, and linearity were examined for all of the variables. All of the variables for both the DILQ and the Social Undermining Scale were severely non-normal as expected because destructive leadership is generally rare. Homoscedasticity did not appear to be problematic. Transformations did little to improve the distributions, and thus the destructive instructor-leadership variables were dichotomized as recommended by Tabachnick and Fidell (2007). Linearity was visually inspected between each dimension of destructive instructor-leadership and the expected outcomes. Interestingly, nonlinear relationships appeared to exist between both irresponsibility and victimisation and the outcome of satisfaction. Perhaps the reason why these nonlinear relationships were uncovered was that the priming statement in the questionnaire solicited more reports of destructive instructor-leadership than in Balwant (2020). Therefore, these two potential nonlinear relationships were examined when testing criterion-related validity.

Results

Factor Structure

A confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was conducted to replicate the DILQ’s 13-item three-factor structure. Here, diagonally weighted least squares (DWLS) estimation was used, because all of the observed variables were categorical. See Table 2 for details of the replicated factor structure. Following Hair et al.’s (2009) guidelines, one incremental fit index (Comparative Fit Index [CFI]) and one absolute fit index (Root Mean Square Error of Approximation [RMSEA]) were reported. The robust fit indices indicated poor model fit ($\chi^2(62) = 95.94, p < .05$ $\chi^2/df = 1.55$, Robust CFI = 0.85, RMSEA = 0.053). Items 1, 4, and 6 were poorly

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represented by the factor structure as shown in Table 2. After deleting these items, the model fitted fairly well ($\chi^2 (32) = 44.38, p > .05, \chi^2/df = 1.39$, Robust CFI = 0.94, RMSEA = 0.045). Overall, the findings partially replicated the DILQ, because while all three dimensions were represented, three items were deleted.

Convergent Validity

Convergent validity was assessed via the correlation matrix for expected correlations between destructive instructor-leadership dimensions and social undermining, average variance extracted (AVE), and construct reliability. As expected, social undermining was significantly and positively related to irresponsibility ($r = .57, p < .001$), victimization ($r = .72, p < .001$), and callous communication ($r = .87, p < .001$). Moreover, as shown in Table 2, AVE values exceeded 50%, and construct reliability values exceeded 0.70. Convergent validity was therefore acceptable.

Discriminant Validity

Discriminant validity was examined by comparing the AVE for each of the three destructive instructor-leadership constructs with that of their squared interconstruct correlation (SIC) with the social undermining construct (three items were deleted from the social undermining construct, because they were poorly represented in a CFA model [that is, factor loadings $< .5$], and thus social undermining was best represented by 10 items). This comparison should reveal whether the destructive instructor-leadership constructs were truly distinct from the social undermining construct. The findings showed that the AVE for callous communication (.51) and victimisation (.53) had much in common with social undermining (SIC = .90 and .71 respectively), and thus there was poor discriminant validity. However, the irresponsibility construct (AVE = .60) captured phenomena that social undermining did not (SIC = .47).

Table 2. Summary of Standardised Factor Loadings for Confirmatory Factor Analysis of Destructive Leadership Items

Item Number	Item descriptions: <Instructor's name>...	13-Item Structure				10-Item Structure			
		IRR	VIC	CC	IR	IRR	VIC	CC	IR
1	Misled me.	.44			.19	-			-
2	Threatened me.	.80			.63	.85			.72
3	Partook in unethical activities with me.	.65			.43	.69			.48
4	Lied to me.	.53			.28	-			-
5	Made negative comments about me to others.		.70		.49		.76		.58
6	Invaded my privacy.		.50		.25		-		-
7	Blamed me to save himself/herself embarrassment.		.61		.37		.59		.35
8	Expressed anger at me when he/she was mad for another reason.		.80		.64		.78		.60
9	Was rude to me.		.78		.61		.78		.61
10	Displayed facial expressions that indicated disinterest in me.			.69	.48			.68	.47
11	Put me down in front of other people/students.			.83	.68			.86	.73
12	Gave me the silent treatment.			.64	.41			.70	.49
13	Ridiculed me.			.69	.48			.61	.37
Average variance extracted (%)		.38	.47	.51		.60	.53	.51	
Construct reliability		.70	.81	.81		.75	.82	.81	

Note. Loadings less than .3 are not shown. C = communalities; IRR = irresponsibility; VIC = victimisation; CC = callous communication; IR = Item reliabilities. Item reliabilities represent communalities and are calculated using squared factor loadings.

Common Method Variance

Common method variance (CMV) is defined as “variance ... attributable to the measurement method rather than to the constructs the measures represent” (Podsakoff et al., 2003, p. 879). The comprehensive CFA marker technique (Williams et al., 2010) was used to examine the potential effects of CMV on the three destructive instructor-leadership dimensions. Positive affect was selected as a marker variable, because this concept should theoretically be unrelated to the three dimensions of destructive instructor-leadership. A comparison of the Baseline model to the Method-C model showed no significant difference between the models ($\Delta\chi^2 [1] = 0.58, p > .05$) with the CFI being marginally better for the Baseline model ($\Delta\text{CFI} = .001$). Hence, there were no method effects associated with the marker variable. No significant difference was found between the Method-C and Method-U models ($\Delta\chi^2 [9] = 4.78, p > .05$). However, the Method-C model was compared to the Method-R model because the Method-C model had a marginally higher CFI than the Method-U model ($\Delta\text{CFI} = .011$). No significant difference was found between the Method-C and Method-R models ($\Delta\chi^2 [3] = 4.40, p > .05$), thus indicating that there were no biasing effects of the marker variable on the factor correlations. Overall, there was no evidence of CMV.

Criterion-Related Validity

For criterion-related validity, regression models were estimated for satisfaction, exhaustion, distress, and academic performance. Note that for the exhaustion and distress constructs, 1 item and 2 items were deleted respectively because these items loaded poorly in a CFA model (i.e., factor loadings $< .5$). The independent variables entered in each model included the three destructive instructor-leadership dimensions as well as the control variables of age, gender, and social desirability (see Table 3). For the control variables, gender was a significant predictor of distress ($\beta = 0.15, p < .05$) indicating that female students reported significantly more distress than male students. For the destructive instructor-leadership variables, callous communication was a significant and strong predictor of all of the outcomes. Unlike Balwant (2020), callous communication was now a significant predictor of academic performance. This difference may be attributed to a more comprehensive measure of academic performance in the present study (that is, percentage instead of a few grade categories). The other two dimensions of destructive instructor-leadership (that is, irresponsibility and victimisation) were not significant in any of the

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models. These findings corroborate those of Balwant (2020), and thus appear to indicate that callous communication was the only dimension of destructive instructor-leadership that was related to established outcomes from the destructive leadership literature. However, as mentioned earlier, nonlinear relationships may exist for the other two dimensions.

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Table 3. Multiple Regression Analyses Predicting Effectiveness, Satisfaction, Extra Effort, and Academic Performance with Destructive Instructor-Leadership Behavioral Dimensions

Variables	Outcome Variables Satisfaction			Exhaustion			Distress			Academic Performance		
	B	SEB	β	B	SEB	β	B	SEB	β	B	SEB	β
Constant	7.56**	1.77		19.80**	2.79		11.53**	2.66		42.60**	10.98	
Age ^a												
Gender	33.76	30.47	0.08	18.56	47.90	0.03	-11.24	45.77	0.02	259.80	188.85	0.10
Soc Des	-0.11	0.43	0.02	0.92	0.68	0.09	1.37*	0.65	0.15	1.02	2.69	0.03
Irresponsib	0.04	0.14	0.19	0.04	0.22	0.01	-0.01	0.21	0.00	-0.28	0.87	0.02
Victim	0.70	0.64	0.10	-1.22	1.01	0.11	1.13	0.96	0.11	7.19 [†]	3.97	0.17
Callous Comm	0.29	0.32	0.10	-0.90 [†]	0.51	0.19	-0.67	0.48	0.15	1.43	1.99	0.08
	1.29**	0.28	0.50	2.07**	0.44	0.52	1.48**	0.42	0.38	-5.58**	1.72	0.36
R ²	0.16			0.12			0.14			0.08		0.07
F	5.70**			4.34**			4.77**			2.66*		2.98

Note. Soc Des = social desirability; Irresponsib = irresponsibility; Victim = victimisation; Comm = communication.

^a Inverse of age was used to minimise skewness and kurtosis violations.

[†] $p < .10$. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.

Following these regression models, hierarchical regression was used to test nonlinear relationships between satisfaction and both irresponsibility and victimisation. Age, gender, social desirability, and the three destructive instructor-leadership constructs were entered in step 1, followed by irresponsibility as a squared term in step 2 (the scatterplot indicated a quadratic effect), and then victimisation as a cubed term in step 3 (the scatterplot showed two inflections) (see Table 4). The findings showed a significant R^2 change ($p < .05$) for step 2, but no significant change for step 3. Therefore, the findings suggested a nonlinear relationship between irresponsibility and satisfaction as shown in Figure 1. This nonlinear relationship was interesting, because it coincided with the affective reactions reported by Balwant (2017). Specifically, Balwant (2017) reported that while students generally respond to destructive instructor-leadership with displeasure, sometimes “students feel good, enthusiastic and comfortable in response to an instructor’s irresponsible practice[s] ... because these practices create easy opportunities for students to pass” (p. 21). Accordingly, the findings suggested that students were more satisfied when a leader used no irresponsible behaviour or high irresponsible behaviour than when a leader used moderate irresponsible behaviour.

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Table 4. Hierarchical Multiple Regression Analysis Predicting Students' Satisfaction by Age, Gender, Social Desirability, and Destructive Instructor-Leadership Behavioral Dimensions

Variable	<i>B</i>	<i>SEB</i>	β	R^2	ΔR^2
Step 1				.16***	.16***
Age	-0.04	0.04	-0.07		
Gender	-0.10	0.43	-0.02		
Social desirability	0.04	0.14	0.02		
Irresponsibility	0.70	0.64	0.10		
Victimisation	0.27	0.32	0.09		
Callous communication	-1.28***	0.28	-0.49		
Step 2				.18***	.03*
Age	-0.05	0.04	-0.09		
Gender	-0.06	0.43	-0.01		
Social desirability	0.01	0.14	0.00		
Irresponsibility	-4.02†	2.06	-0.56		
Victimisation	0.18	0.32	0.06		
Callous communication	-1.20***	0.28	-0.46		
Irresponsibility (sq.)	2.65*	1.10	0.68		
Step 3				.18***	.00
Age	-0.05	0.04	-0.09		
Gender	-0.06	0.43	-0.01		
Social desirability	0.01	0.14	0.00		
Irresponsibility	-4.02†	2.06	-0.56		
Victimisation	0.17	0.58	0.06		
Callous communication	-1.19***	0.28	-0.46		
Irresponsibility (sq.)	2.65*	1.10	0.68		
Victimisation (cub.)	0.00	0.04	0.01		

Note. sq. = squared; cub. = cubed.

† $p < .10$, * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$

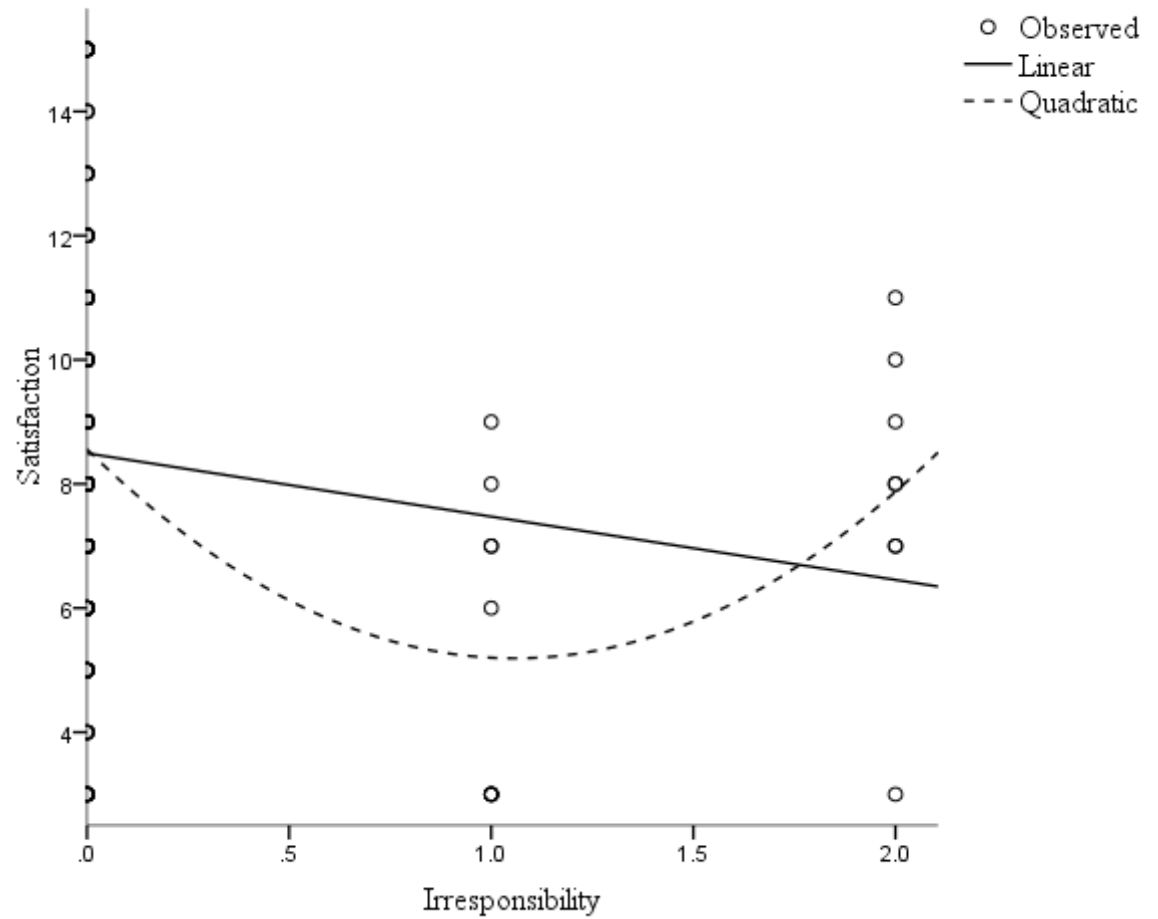


Figure 1. Nonlinear Relationship Between the Irresponsibility Dimension of Destructive Leadership and Follower Satisfaction

Incremental Validity

Hierarchical regression was used to test the incremental validity of the destructive instructor-leadership constructs beyond social undermining (see Table 5). For the hierarchical models, age, gender, and social desirability were entered in step 1, followed by social undermining in step 2, and then the three destructive instructor-leadership constructs in step 3. The incremental validity findings were fairly good, because callous communication remained a significant predictor of satisfaction, exhaustion, and academic performance, even when controlling for social undermining. Also, the nonlinear relationship between irresponsibility and satisfaction remained significant even when social undermining was a marginal predictor of satisfaction. Generally, these findings suggested that destructive instructor-leadership goes beyond social undermining in predicting certain outcomes, even with the considerable overlap between the two constructs.

One interesting finding in the hierarchical regression models was that, with the addition of social undermining as a predictor, victimisation was now a significant predictor of exhaustion and distress, but in a direction opposite to what was expected (that is, victimisation was negatively related to exhaustion and distress). These findings corresponded with reports by Balwant (2017) that students increase their attention and alertness to avoid making the instructor angry and/or the instructor embarrassing the student. Perhaps, the short-term length of a course/module does not allow enough time for consistently heightened alertness and attention to manifest into exhaustion and distress. For a summary of the findings in the present replication study, see Table 6.

Table 5. Hierarchical Multiple Regression Analyses Predicting Students' Satisfaction, Exhaustion, Distress, and Academic Performance With Social Undermining and Destructive Instructor-Leadership Behavioral Dimensions

Step	Variables	Outcome Variables							
		Satisfaction		Exhaustion		Distress		Academic Performance	
		β	ΔR^2	β	ΔR^2	β	ΔR^2	β	ΔR^2
1	Age ^a	.10		.00		-.03		.12	
	Gender	.04	.02	.05	.00	.10	.01	.06	.02
	Social desirability	.06		-.02		-.02		.01	
2	Age ^a	.08		.03		-.00		.11	
	Gender	-.01		.10		.16*		.03	
	Social desirability	.04		.01		.01		-.01	
3	Social undermining	-.32**	.10**	.33**	.10**	.38**	.14**	-.19*	.03*
	Age ^a	.09		.04		-.01		.09	
	Gender	-.02		.11		.16*		.02	
	Social desirability	.00		.01		-.00		-.02	
	Social undermining	-.20 [†]		.35**		.37**		-.17	
	Irresponsibility	-.62*		-.14		.08		.18 [†]	
	Victimisation	.12		-.28*		-.24*		.12	
	Callous communication	-.35**		.32*		.17		-.27*	
	Irresponsibility squared	.75**	.08**		.06**		.03		.04 [†]
	Total R^2	.20		.16		.18		.09	

Note.

^a Inverse of age was used to correct for skewness and kurtosis violations.

[†] $p < .10$. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.

Table 6. Summary of Hinkin's Steps that were used to Replicate the Destructive Instructor-Leadership Questionnaire (DILQ)

Step Number	Step Name	Step Description
1	Item generation	N/A
2	Questionnaire administration	The DILQ was distributed with a measure of social undermining to an independent sample in a new country. Students' satisfaction, performance, emotional exhaustion, and distress were also measured.
3	Initial item reduction	N/A
4	Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA)	The DILQ was partially replicated. Three items were poorly represented by the factor structure and had to be deleted. Therefore, <i>the three DIL dimensions were represented by a 10-item measure.</i>
5 (a)	Convergent validity	All three DIL dimensions were strongly related to social undermining in the expected direction. Factor loadings and average variance extracted were good.
5 (b)	Discriminant validity	Fairly weak discriminant validity. The AVE values for callous communication and victimization did not exceed the SIC values for social undermining. But, AVE for irresponsibility exceeded the SIC value for social undermining.
5 (c)	Criterion-related validity	Fair criterion validity. Callous communication was related to all of the outcomes identified in step 2 as expected. Additionally, an unexpected non-linear relationship between irresponsibility and satisfaction was found.
5 (d)	Incremental validity	Fairly good incremental validity. All but one of the relationships from the criterion validity tests remained significant when controlling for social undermining.

Note. DIL = destructive instructor-leadership; AVE = average variance extracted; SIC = squared interconstruct correlation.

Discussion

In this paper, the DILQ is replicated in an independent sample in a new country. To address the first research question, Hinkin's (1998) final scale development step was followed, and the findings partially replicated Balwant's (2020) findings. The findings suggest that destructive instructor-leadership can be measured by 10 items that capture three dimensions including, irresponsibility, victimisation, and callous communication. In the process of repeating the study in a new context, the importance of replication cannot be understated. Scientists continue to pay lip service to replication even though replication is the "demarcation criterion between science and nonscience" (Braude, 1979, p. 2). For this reason, there appears to be "a crisis of confidence in psychological science reflecting an unprecedented level of doubt among practitioners about the reliability of research findings which has led to the recent replication crises in fields such as psychology" (Pashler & Wagenmakers, 2012, p. 1). Therefore, calls for reform have been made in many scientific fields with one corrective strategy receiving the loudest cry – there is a need for researchers to replicate their work (Earp & Trafimow, 2015). LeBel and Peters (2011, p. 375) echo this point, stating that "[a]cross all scientific disciplines, close replication is the gold standard for corroborating the discovery of an empirical phenomenon ... and the importance of this point has been noted many times by methodologists and statisticians". In light of this, the first contribution of this study is that it attends to critical calls in science by repeating a test of the newly developed DILQ with a couple of identical outcomes to its first study.

A second contribution of the present study is that it shows that the DILQ captures phenomena beyond social undermining. Specifically, the irresponsibility dimension in the DILQ adds to existing measures (that is, abusive supervision and social undermining), and thus brings the measure of destructive instructor-leadership more in line with the conceptualisation proposed by Krasikova et al. (2013). Existing measures seem to capture only one manifestation of destructive instructor-leadership (that is, the use of harmful methods in the process of leading). In contrast, the DILQ captures both manifestations of destructive instructor-leadership by explicitly taking into account leading followers towards contradictory goals via the irresponsibility dimension. Moreover, the DILQ contributes additional variance beyond social undermining. Here, when controlling for social undermining, at least one destructive instructor-leadership

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dimension remained a significant predictor of satisfaction, exhaustion, distress, and academic performance.

A third contribution of the present paper is that it adds to the limited body of research on the darker side of instructor-leadership, and thus brings a potentially balanced perspective to the instructor-leadership literature. Investigating the destructive side of instructor-leadership is important, because destructive leadership comprises behaviors that go beyond the simple absence of constructive or effective leadership behaviors (Einarsen et al., 2007). For instance, Baumeister et al. (2001) propose that ‘bad’ events (like destructive leadership) can be more strongly related to follower outcomes than ‘good’ events (like constructive leadership), because “it is evolutionary adaptive for bad to be stronger than good” (p. 325). Baumeister et al. (2001) explain that organisms that are better attuned to bad events have an increased chance of surviving threats, and thus an improved chance of passing along genes. Therefore, investigating the dark side of instructor-leadership provides a potentially balanced view of instructor-leadership, and thus contributes to a wider understanding of leadership effectiveness (Einarsen et al., 2007).

A final contribution of the present study is that it addresses CMV, and thus provides a methodological improvement over Balwant (2020). CMV can be problematic, because it may adversely affect reliability values as well as both convergent and criterion-related validity of measures (Podsakoff et al., 2012). For these reasons, CMV was evaluated in two ways: (1) employing a marker variable technique (Williams et al., 2010) and (2) controlling for social desirability when testing criterion-related validity of the destructive instructor-leadership dimensions (Podsakoff et al., 2012). Both of these techniques minimise measurement error and, therefore, improve confidence in the resulting estimates.

Limitations and Directions for Future Research

The main limitation of this study is that the irresponsibility dimension was not entirely stable between Balwant (2020) and the present study’s findings. Specifically, two of the four items measuring irresponsibility in Balwant (2020) had weak loadings in the present study. This difference in finding may be attributed to the different cultural contexts used across both studies. Trinidad has a higher power distance culture than the UK (*The Hofstede Centre*, 2020), and thus irresponsible leader behaviors such as misleading and lying may be perceived as the cultural norm in the former

country. The meaning of misleading or lying may also vary across both cultures. Therefore, the findings suggest that few perceptions of destructive leader behaviors may well vary between cultures as indicated by Aasland et al. (2010). Consequently, further research on the applicability of the DILQ across cultures is needed.

Another limitation of the present study is that the sample is biased because of the use of convenience sampling. Convenience sampling was used because of the (1) difficulty of using randomisation for all undergraduate students in Trinidad, (2) issue of survey fatigue amongst university students, which can lead to low response rates (Adams & Umbach, 2012), and (3) sensitive nature of the topic of destructive instructor-leadership, which can lead to respondents' reluctance to participate (Pryor, 2004). Therefore, in order to achieve an adequate sample size, students in a large core course were offered an incentive (that is, one percent extra credit) for survey participation – a technique that generally increases response rates (Porter, 2004). Hence, convenience sampling seemed practical to gain theoretical insights into a fairly unexplored area of research (Saunders et al., 2009). Regardless, future quantitative studies should utilise random or cluster sampling techniques to improve the generalisability of the results. In utilising these sampling approaches, a few suggestions to increase response rates include mailing to students' e-mail accounts rather than university e-mail, designing a survey that is plain in appearance, using a prenotification message followed by the survey and cover message, utilising a prepaid financial incentive if feasible, and/or providing a statement that influences perceptions of scarcity (for example, "You have been selected as one of a small group of students to ...") (Porter, 2004).

Future studies of destructive instructor-leadership should also aim to increase variation in responses to destructive leadership. The destructive instructor-leadership variables were severely non-normal in the present study, because such leadership tends to be rare. Therefore, in future work, researchers may need to identify course characteristics that are more likely to be associated with destructive instructor-leadership and collect data from these courses. For instance, deviant/aggressive behavior is a common response to frustration resulting from goal blockage (Krasikova et al., 2013). When instructors experience goal blockage, this may result in their falling short of set goals (for example, a pass rate for the course), which may lead to judgments that an instructor is being ineffective. Therefore, goal blockage can adversely impact the instructor's self-image and perceived professional competence, which can be perceived as a threat to the instructor's ego (Baumeister & Boden, 1998).

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Instructors may then retaliate against ‘goal-blocking’ students by using harmful methods of influence, even if the blockage is unintentional (for example, students’ incompetence) (Krasikova et al., 2013). Another course characteristic may be class size given that its corporate counterpart, span of control, is related to perceptions of destructive leadership (Lundmark et al., 2020). Large class sizes may create situations in which instructors must spread their limited resources (such as time and energy) thin, thus creating physical and functional distance between instructors and students (Lundmark et al., 2020). Such high distance increases the risk of instructor-student relationships becoming distrustful as instructors spend less time with students (Schyns et al., 2010). Taken together, collecting data from courses with consistently low pass rates and large class sizes may increase the variation of destructive instructor-leadership responses.

A final suggestion for future research is to investigate the unexpected findings in the present study. The findings showed a few interesting relationships between both victimisation and irresponsibility and specific outcomes. Irresponsibility shared a nonlinear relationship with satisfaction, and victimisation was negatively related to exhaustion and distress in the hierarchical models. These unexpected findings may indicate unintended desirable effects of destructive instructor-leadership, but need to be examined in further research.

Practical Implications and Conclusion

Given that the present study is largely a replication of the DILQ in an independent sample, the practical implications are no different to those offered by Balwant (2020). Specifically, the DILQ can be used to help identify destructive instructor-leadership behaviors and then diagnose such behaviors via training (see Balwant, 2017; Balwant et al., 2020 for details on these implications). In addition, students’ feedback on the DILQ items can be provided to instructors to increase their awareness of their destructive behaviors (Balwant, 2017). Increasing instructors’ awareness can stimulate self-reflection on the differences between students’ images and the instructors’ own images of appropriate teaching, which can then act as a catalyst for changes in motivation and behavior (Schyns et al., 2011). Overall, these findings suggest that the DILQ is a fairly sound measure of destructive instructor-leadership, because the scale has appropriate psychometric properties and is better aligned with Krasikova

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et al.'s (2013) conceptualisation of destructive leadership than other measures. Still, further replication of the scale across different countries and with superior sampling techniques is needed to better understand how destructive instructor-leadership translates between national cultures.

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