



UNIVERSITY OF  
THESSALY

Πρόγραμμα Μεταπτυχιακών Σπουδών στην *Εφαρμοσμένη*  
*Οικονομική*

Τμήμα Οικονομικών Επιστημών

Πανεπιστήμιο Θεσσαλίας

**THE EFFECTS OF DESTRUCTIVE LEADERSHIP  
ON EMPLOYEE JOB APATHY: THE MEDIATING  
ROLE OF WORK MOTIVATION AND THE  
MODERATING EFFECTS OF CSE**

**Author: Nikolaos Plakaros**

**Supervisor: Associate Professor Victoria Bellou**

**Volos, 2021**

## **Υπεύθυνη δήλωση**

Βεβαιώνω ότι είμαι συγγραφέας αυτής της διπλωματικής εργασίας και ότι κάθε βοήθεια την οποία είχα για την προετοιμασία της είναι πλήρως αναγνωρισμένη και αναφέρεται στη διπλωματική εργασία. Επίσης έχω αναφέρει τις όποιες πηγές από τις οποίες έκανα χρήση δεδομένων, ιδεών ή λέξεων, είτε αυτές αναφέρονται ακριβώς είτε παραφρασμένες. Επίσης βεβαιώνω ότι αυτή η πτυχιακή εργασία προετοιμάστηκε από εμένα προσωπικά ειδικά για τις απαιτήσεις του προγράμματος μεταπτυχιακών σπουδών στην Εφαρμοσμένη Οικονομική του Τμήματος Οικονομικών Επιστημών του Πανεπιστημίου Θεσσαλίας. Βόλος, Ιούνιος 2021.

## Contents

List of Figures.....	6
List of Tables .....	6
Abstract.....	7
Περίληψη .....	8
Introduction.....	9
Chapter 1 .....	11
Destructive Leadership.....	11
<i>1.1 What is Leadership</i> .....	11
<i>1.2 Trait, Behaviour and Contextual Leadership</i> .....	12
<i>1.2.1 Trait Approach</i> .....	12
<i>1.2.2 Behaviour Approach</i> .....	13
<i>1.2.3 Contextual Leadership</i> .....	14
<i>1.3 Destructive Leadership</i> .....	15
<i>1.4 Conceptual Models of Destructive Leadership</i> .....	16
<i>1.4.1 Seven Types of Bad Leadership</i> .....	16
<i>1.4.2 Model of Einarsen, Aasland and Skogstad</i> .....	17
<i>1.4.3 An extension of Einarsen’s, Aasland’s and Skogstad’s model</i> .....	19
<i>1.4.4 Clusters of Destructive Leadership</i> .....	20
<i>1.5 Antecedents of destructive leadership</i> .....	21
<i>1.6 Consequences of destructive leadership</i> .....	23
<i>1.6.1 Individual level – Work-related outcomes</i> .....	23
<i>1.6.2 Individual level – Non work-related outcomes</i> .....	24
<i>1.6.3 Organisational level</i> .....	24
Chapter 2. Job Apathy .....	25
<i>2.1 Job apathy</i> .....	25
<i>2.2 Types of job apathy</i> .....	26
<i>2.3 Antecedents of job apathy</i> .....	27
<i>2.4 Consequences of job apathy</i> .....	27
<i>2.5 Job apathy, work engagement and professional burnout</i> .....	29
<i>2.6 Job apathy and demographic characteristics</i> .....	30
Chapter 3. Work Motivation .....	32

3.1 <i>Self-Determination Theory on work motivation</i> .....	32
3.1.2 <i>Psychological needs</i> .....	33
3.2 <i>Dimensions of Self-Determination Theory</i> .....	34
3.2.1 <i>Intrinsic Motivation</i> .....	34
3.2.2 <i>Extrinsic Motivation</i> .....	34
3.2.3 <i>Amotivation</i> .....	35
<b>Chapter 4. Core Self-Evaluation</b> .....	37
4.1 <i>The concept of Core Self Evaluation</i> .....	37
4.2 <i>Trait Indicators</i> .....	37
4.2.1 <i>Self-esteem</i> .....	37
4.2.2 <i>Generalized self-efficacy</i> .....	38
4.2.3 <i>Neuroticism</i> .....	39
4.2.4 <i>Locus of control</i> .....	39
4.2.5 <i>Other Traits</i> .....	40
<b>Chapter 5. Hypotheses development</b> .....	41
5.1 <i>Destructive leadership and job apathy</i> .....	41
5.2 <i>Destructive leadership and work motivation</i> .....	41
5.3 <i>Work motivation and job apathy</i> .....	42
5.4 <i>Work motivation as a mediator</i> .....	42
5.5 <i>The moderation effects of CSEs</i> .....	43
<b>Chapter 6. Methodology</b> .....	46
6.1 <i>Data collection and sample</i> .....	46
6.2 <i>Measures</i> .....	47
6.2.1 <i>Destructive leadership</i> .....	47
6.2.2 <i>Job apathy</i> .....	47
6.2.3 <i>Work motivation</i> .....	48
6.2.4 <i>Core self-evaluation</i> .....	48
6.3 <i>Translation</i> .....	48
<b>Chapter 7. Results</b> .....	49
7.1 <i>Psychometric Assessment of Scales</i> .....	49
7.2 <i>Descriptive Statistics and Correlations</i> .....	55
7.3 <i>Main Results</i> .....	56

<b>Chapter 8. Discussion</b> .....	64
<i>8.1 Theoretical Implications</i> .....	64
<i>8.2 Practical Implications</i> .....	66
<i>8.4 Limitations</i> .....	66
<i>8.5 Future Research</i> .....	67
<b>Chapter 9. Conclusion</b> .....	68
<b>References</b> .....	69
<b>Appendix</b> .....	81

## List of Figures

Figure 1. The integrative framework linking context to leadership, Oc, 2018, p. 220.....	15
Figure 2. A model of constructive and destructive leadership behaviour (Einarsen et al., 2007) .....	18
Figure 3. Self-determination theory of work motivation, Gagne and Deci, 2005, p. 386	36
Figure 4. Proposed model .....	45
Figure 5. Scree plot of the PCA on the destructive leadership scale .....	50
Figure 6. Scree plot of the PCA on the job apathy scale .....	51
Figure 7. Scree plot of the PCA on the MWMS .....	53
Figure 8. Moderation effects of CSE on the relationship between destructive leadership and inherently autonomous motivation .....	58
Figure 9. Moderation effects of CSE on the relationship between destructive leadership and amotivation .....	59
Figure 10. Moderation effects of CSE on the relationship between destructive leadership and job apathy .....	60
Figure 11. Revised model. Note. ** $p < 0.01$ ; * $p < 0.05$ .....	61

## List of Tables

Table 1. Rotated Component Matrix on Job Apathy Scale .....	51
Table 2. Rotated Component Matric on MWMS.....	54
Table 3. Means and Pearson's Correlations between main variables .....	55
Table 4. Regression outcomes .....	57
Table 5. Direct and Indirect Effects of Destructive Leadership on Job Apathy .....	60
Table 6. Hypotheses overview .....	62

## Abstract

This study investigates the relationship between destructive leadership and employee job apathy, testing work motivation, as described by self-determination theory, as a possible mediator and the construct of core self-evaluation (CSE) as a possible moderator. To test these relationships, a quantitative study was conducted using an online questionnaire in a convenience sample of 115 Greek employees. The analysis shows that the relationship between destructive leadership and job apathy is partially mediated by inherently autonomous motivation and amotivation. Additionally, CSE moderates the aforementioned relationships, such that destructive leadership affects more the individuals with low scores of CSE, compared to individuals with moderated CSE values. The effects of destructive leadership are not significant for the individuals with high scores of CSE. Finally, implications for organisations and suggestions for future research are discussed.

Key words: destructive leadership, job apathy, work motivation; self-determination theory, core self-evaluation

## Περίληψη

Η παρούσα εργασία μελετά τη σχέση μεταξύ καταστροφικής ηγεσίας και εργασιακής απάθειας, ελέγχοντας την εργασιακή παρακίνηση, όπως περιγράφεται από τη θεωρία αυτοκαθορισμού, ως μεσολαβητή και την κύρια αυτοαξιολόγηση ως ρυθμιστικό παράγοντα. Προκειμένου να εξεταστεί η ανωτέρω σχέση, διενεργήθηκε μία ποσοτική μελέτη μέσω ενός ερωτηματολογίου, που διαμοιράστηκε διαδικτυακά σε ένα δείγμα ευκολίας, το οποίο απαρτίζεται από 115 εργαζομένους στην Ελλάδα. Η ανάλυση δείχνει ότι η καταστροφική ηγεσία επηρεάζει την εργασιακή απάθεια, τόσο άμεσα, όσο και έμμεσα, μέσω της εργασιακής παρακίνησης. Επιπλέον, η κύρια αυτοαξιολόγηση ρυθμίζει τις προαναφερθείσες σχέσεις, έτσι ώστε η καταστροφική ηγεσία επηρεάζει περισσότερο τα άτομα με χαμηλό σκορ στην κλίμακα της κύριας αυτοαξιολόγησης, συγκριτικά με τα άτομα με μέτριο σκορ σε αυτή την κλίμακα. Η επίδραση της καταστροφικής ηγεσίας στα άτομα με υψηλό σκορ στην κύρια αυτοαξιολόγηση δεν είναι στατιστικά σημαντική. Τέλος, αναφέρονται οι επιπτώσεις των ευρημάτων για τους οργανισμούς, καθώς και προτάσεις για περαιτέρω έρευνα.

Λέξεις κλειδιά: Καταστροφική ηγεσία, εργασιακή απάθεια, εργασιακή παρακίνηση, θεωρία αυτοκαθορισμού, κύρια αυτοαξιολόγηση.

## Introduction

The scientific literature on leadership has been largely focused on the good and effective side of leadership, and this has created a misleading positive bias, as leadership has been traditionally associated with something positive (Kellerman, 2004). Nevertheless, if we want to gain a deeper understanding of leadership as a concept, all angles of leadership should be examined, including bad or failed leadership (Erickson et al. 2007). One of the aspects of bad leadership is destructive leadership, which as a concept, according to Shaw et al. (2011), incorporates abusive supervision, narcissistic and emergent leadership, toxic leadership and strategic bullying.

On the other hand, despite being evident in organisations, job apathy has been largely ignored by scientific literature (Schmidt et al., 2017). Job apathy is considered a state of diminished motivation towards one's work, and it was introduced in the management science by Schmidt et al. (2017). The researchers based the concept on general apathy, which is a psychological disorder studied by psychologists, and they described job apathy as a form of selective apathy. In selective apathy, individuals can function well in most aspects of their life, but they are apathetic towards one specific aspect (Marin, 1990).

In this study, the relationship between destructive leadership and job apathy will be investigated. It is expected that destructive leadership will be negatively associated with job apathy. Additionally, since job apathy is described as a state of diminished motivation (Schmidt et al., 2017), and destructive leadership is associated with the subordinate's lowered motivation (Erickson et al., 2007), it is expected that the investigated relationship will be mediated by work motivation. More specifically, this study approaches work motivation through the lens of self-determination theory, which divides work motivation into autonomous motivation, controlled motivation and amotivation.

Moreover, the construct of core self-evaluation (CSE) is used in this study as a possible moderator in the aforementioned relationship. CSE is a latent construct that refers to major appraisals individuals make regarding their self-worth, competence and capabilities (Judge et al., 1997). Individuals with a high score on CSE are well adjusted, positive, self-assured, competent, they believe in themselves (Judge et al. 2003) and they

report having more rewarding jobs (Bono and Judge 2003). Therefore, based on previous literature (Harris et al., 2009; Zhang et al., 2014; Lopez et al., 2020), it is expected that high values of CSE will buffer the negative effects of a destructive supervisor to the subordinate's motivation and apathy.

This study makes three significant contributions. Firstly, since job apathy is relatively new as a concept, and there are only three scientific studies to date (Schmidt et al., 2017; Uguw et al., 2019; Zolotareva, 2020), this study offers some new insights on the antecedents of job apathy, by researching the relationship of job apathy with both destructive leadership and work motivation. Secondly, this study also advances the scientific knowledge on destructive leadership, as it shows the deleterious effects of destructive leaders, and it identifies the paths through which it can affect job apathy. Finally, the use of CSE as a moderator, has some interesting insights both for future research, as well as for organisations, as it offers a possible way to mitigate the negative effects of destructive leaders.

The following sections are as follows. Initially, a thorough literature review is presented in chapters one through four. In chapter five, the hypotheses development is discussed, and chapter six includes the methodology and the scales used in the quantitative analysis. Chapter seven includes the results of the analysis, and chapter eight focuses on discussing these results, while the limitations of the study and some suggestions for future research are mentioned. Finally, chapter 9 is the conclusion.

# Chapter 1

## Destructive Leadership

### *1.1 What is Leadership*

There are today thousands of studies regarding leadership (Winston and Patterson 2006). One of the criticisms leadership has been subject to, is that as a concept, it is “too loosely defined” (Podolny et al., 2004, p.2). In fact, Kruse (2013) in his article at Forbes, admitted that even though he has written a few books on leadership, he never paused to actually define the concept. However, only after providing a definition of a word, subject, or in this case concept, can we have a common understanding about the issue (Whitfield, 2012).

The simplest definition of leadership is only three words. According to Summerfield (2014, p. 252), in its essence, leadership should “make things better”. However, this is a too simplistic and maybe even utopian perspective on leadership. On the other hand, Winston and Patterson (2006) provided an integrative definition of leadership, reviewing 160 earlier definitions. Their definition is 701 words, or more than a page long, and emphasizes that a leader should be humble, concerned for others and use ethical means to influence and motivate his/her followers, as well as to convey a vision of the future, which is in line with the follower’s beliefs and values. However, Vroom and Jago (2007, p. 18) offer an integrated and yet simple definition of leadership. According to the researchers, “leadership is a process of motivating people to work together collaboratively to accomplish great things”.

The aforementioned definitions have something in common; they all refer to “good” and “effective” leadership. This may have contributed to what Kellerman (2004) describes as a confusing and misleading positive bias, as leadership has been traditionally associated with something positive. Nevertheless, in order to gain a deeper understanding of leadership as a concept, all angles of leadership should be examined, including bad or failed leadership (Erickson et al. 2007). In fact, it is evident in the scientific literature that “leaders are not always interested in effecting change for the purpose of benefiting the organization and its members as a whole; rather, the leader may be more interested in

personal outcomes” (O’Connor et al., 1995, p. 529). Therefore, it is important that the destructive side of leadership is examined, as only then it is possible to acquire a deeper understanding of leadership as a concept (Burke 2006). In this chapter, after a brief distinction between trait, behaviour and contextual leadership, a definition for destructive leadership is provided along with some conceptual models. Finally, the antecedents and the consequences of leadership will be discussed.

## ***1.2 Trait, Behaviour and Contextual Leadership***

### ***1.2.1 Trait Approach***

Early leadership studies generally followed a trait approach (Antonakis and House 2013). According to trait theory, leadership depends on the personality and traits of the leader (Judge et al. 2002), including physical and personality characteristics, values and competencies. Based on this approach, traits are associated with certain behaviours, which remain the same across situations and time, and in that sense, leadership was considered a unidimensional personality trait (Fleenor 2006). Thus, early researchers tried to establish a difference in personality and traits between leaders and followers, and they argued that certain characteristics could distinguish the former from the latter regardless of the context (Fleenor 2006).

However, most studies failed to establish a consistent relation between personality traits and leadership (Judge et al. 2002), and therefore many researchers concluded that the trait approach is outdated (Van Seters and Field 1990), too simplistic (Conger and Kanungo, 1998), and futile (House and Aditya,1997). On the other hand, in a widely cited paper, Kirkpatrick and Locke (1991) defend the trait approach, arguing that there are some characteristics, such as drive, motivation, honesty, integrity and self-confidence, that make leaders differ from other people and at the same time acknowledge that traits alone cannot sufficiently explain leadership. Thus, even though traits have been used to later studies, they do not have a central role and they are just being used as explanatory variables; thereby trait theory has become extinct (Van Seters and Field 1990). Nevertheless, Judge et al. (2002) performed a meta-analysis studying 222 correlations reported in previous studies,

and found a multiple correlation of leadership with the five-factor model. This, according to the researchers, indicates a strong support for the trait perspective of leadership.

### ***1.2.2 Behaviour Approach***

Trait approach to leadership was succeeded by a behavioural approach, following a completely new direction. This approach focuses on what leaders do, and has several advantages compared to the trait approach, as it has strong empirical support and it also has practical implications, as it can be implemented in a real world setting (Van Seters and Field 1990). One of the first studies that approached leadership as a behaviour is that of (Lewin 1951), who studied three leadership styles, namely authoritarian, democratic and laissez-faire. The main studies in that period, performed by the Ohio State University and the University of Michigan, focused on identifying the different dimensions that explain the leader's behaviour. In the former, consideration for people and initiating structure were considered the most important dimensions, whereas in the latter, a distinction was made between an employee-centred focus and a production-centred focus (Deckard 2011). These belong to what Van Seters and Field (1990, p. 31) call as "Early Behaviour Period".

In what the researchers call "Late Behaviour Period" (p. 31), many leadership theories were developed, with the most prominent being the Managerial Grid Model, the Four-Factor Theory, the Action Theory of Leadership and the Theory of X and Y (Van Seters and Field 1990). In this period, it became clear that there is not a direct causality between leader's actions and subordinates' behaviour, but rather the leaders provide the context in which their subordinates act (Bass, 1981, cited in Van Seters and Field, 1990).

Among the different behavioural approaches to leadership, arguably one of the most significant theories is the full-range leadership theory (Lord et al., 2017), which is an integration of transformational, transactional and laissez-faire leadership (Antonakis and House 2013). Burns (1978) mentions that leaders who are transformational offer a long-term purpose to their followers, which serves their intrinsic needs. On the other hand, leaders who are transactional focus on a cost-benefit exchange (Bass, 1985), providing their followers something they desire, usually in the form of rewards, so they can count on their compliance. Finally, Bass and Avolio (1994) argue that some supervisors adopt a nonleadership style, namely laissez-faire leadership. According to full-range leadership

theory, leaders should exhibit more often transformational behaviour, then transactional and finally, only occasionally laissez-fair leadership (Antonakis and House, 2013). Finally, destructive leadership, which is in the scope of this study, mainly adopts a behavioural oriented approach.

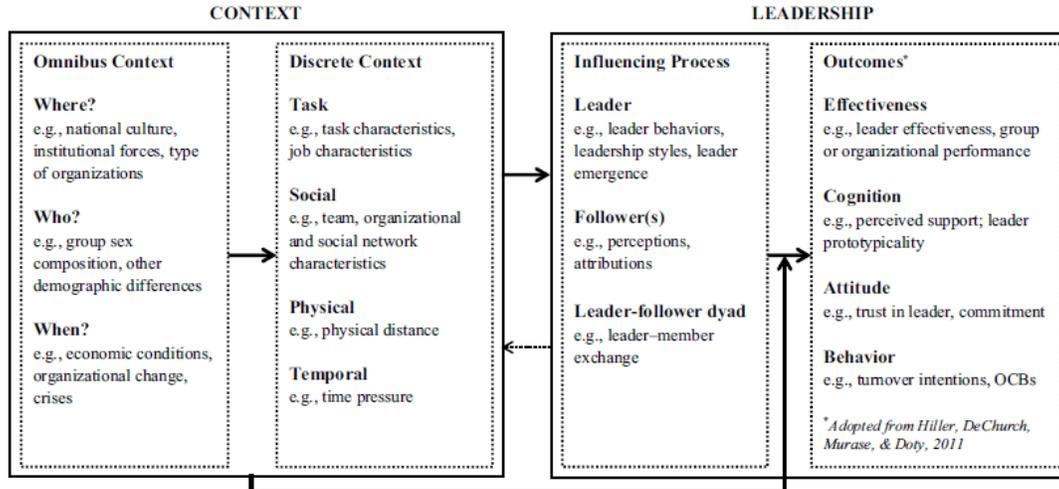
### ***1.2.3 Contextual Leadership***

Contextual leadership has its roots in the contingency theory of Fiedler (1978), who argued that the effective leadership depends on the situation. In that sense, contextual leadership argues that the leader's behaviour should be adapted according to the situation. Following the contingency theory, almost all definitions of leadership have included the relevance of the context (Oc, 2018) and according to Bass (2009), context seems to be one of the three significant components that define leadership.

Researchers are not in agreement regarding the contexts of leadership relevant for contextual leadership. Porter and McLaughlin (2006) argues that there should be seven components, namely culture/climate, goals/purposes, people/composition, processes, state/condition, structure and time, while Liden and Antonakis (2009) added to that the component of social networks.

In his systematic review, Oc (2018) presents an integrative framework adapted from Johns (2006) to link context with leadership. As it can be seen in Figure 1, the omnibus context affects the discrete context. The former includes the place, the people and conditions that happen in a specific time period, while the latter includes the tasks, some social aspects, and a physical and temporal dimension. The combination of the omnibus and discrete context provides the general context of leadership, and this context affects both the leadership and how the influencing process results in specific outcomes. Finally, leadership also affects the context, creating a cycle relationship.

Figure 1. The integrative framework linking context to leadership, Oc, 2018, p. 220



### 1.3 Destructive Leadership

There are several studies researching the dark side of leadership. Tepper (2000) studied the consequences of abusive supervision, which is defined as the ongoing expression of hostile, nonphysical behaviour from the supervisor, as perceived by the employees. Paunonen et al. (2006) researched narcissism and emergent leadership in military cadets, Lipman-Blumen (2005) and Reed (2004) researched the effects of toxic leadership, while Ferris et al. (2007) studied the effects of leader's strategic bullying. All the aforementioned studies fall into the category of destructive leadership, as Shaw et al. (2011) argue that the concept of destructive leadership has been used to describe toxic leadership, abusive supervision, narcissistic leadership as well as bullying.

The most widely used definition of destructive leadership is that offered by Einarsen et al. (2007) and adopted by many researchers (Erickson et al., 2007; Skogstad et al., 2007; Aasland et al., 2010; Pelletier, 2010; Rafferty and Restubog, 2011; Shaw et al., 2011, 2014; Fosse et al., 2019; Bellou and Dimou 2021). Einarsen et al. (2007, p. 208) define destructive leadership as:

The systematic and repeated behaviour by a leader, supervisor or manager that violates the legitimate interest of the organisation by undermining and/or sabotaging the organisation's goals, tasks, resources, and effectiveness and/or the motivation, well-being or job satisfaction of subordinates.

Building on the work of Einarsen et al. (2007), Krasikova et al. (2013, p. 1310) propose destructive leadership is defined as:

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

This definition is similar to the definition of Einarsen et al. (2007), but it views the construct of destructive leadership as a harmful behaviour which is embedded in the leadership process and it does not include ineffective leadership behaviour.

However, Schyns and Schilling (2013, p. 141) departed from destructive leadership as a construct and focused more on the behaviour of the destructive leader, defining destructive leadership as “a process in which over a longer period of time the activities, experiences and/or relationship of an individual or the members of a group are repeatedly influenced by their supervisor in a way that is perceived as a hostile and/or obstructive”. Nevertheless, Thoroughgood et al. (2018) expanded on Schyns and Schilling (2013) and strongly criticized the earlier definitions of Einarsen et al. (2007) and Krasikova et al. (2013), as according to the researchers, they follow a leader-centric approach, and they fail to include the systems leaders operate in, the attitude of their followers and a dynamic time frame. Thus, Thoroughgood et al. (2018, p. 633) define destructive leadership as:

A complex process of influence between flawed, toxic, or ineffective leaders, susceptible follower, and conducive environments, which unfolds over time and, on balance, culminates in destructive group or organisational outcomes that compromise the quality of life for internal and external constituents and detract from their group-focused goals or purposes.

## ***1.4 Conceptual Models of Destructive Leadership***

### ***1.4.1 Seven Types of Bad Leadership***

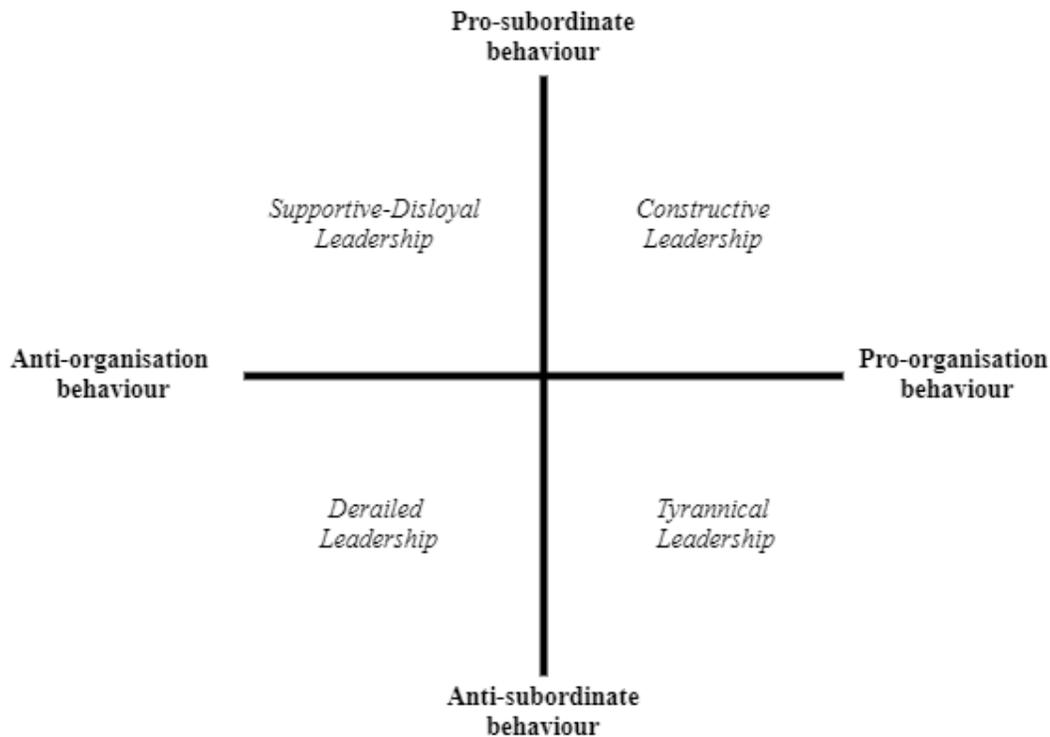
Kellerman (2004) distinguishes between two categories of bad leaders, those who are incompetent and those who are unethical. According to the researcher, there are seven common types of bad leaders: (1) the incompetent leader, who lacks the will to move

towards positive change, (2) the rigid leader, who displays reluctance towards change, (3) the intemperate, who lacks self-control, (4) the callous leader, who does not care and ignore other people's need, (5) the corrupt leader, who can be described as a liar, cheater and egotistical, (6) the insular leader, who only cares about those inside the group and finally (7) the evil leader, who exerts psychological and/or physical abuse. The first three types fall into the incompetent leader category, while the last four are associated with unethical behaviours and are the most threatening for both organisations and employees (Kellerman, 2004).

#### ***1.4.2 Model of Einarsen, Aasland and Skogstad***

Based on the definition of Einarsen et al. (2007), a leader may act in a destructive way towards one dimension and in a constructive way towards the other. For example, a leader may bully and harass subordinates, but still remain focused on achieving the organisational goals. Therefore, Einarsen et al. (2007) propose the model depicted in Figure 1, which contains all four different types of leaders, based on their behaviour towards the organisation and the subordinates. Thus, according to Einarsen et al. (2007), three of the four types of leadership are destructive, namely tyrannical leadership, derailed leadership, and supportive-disloyal leadership, and only one type is positive, namely the constructive leadership.

Figure 2. A model of constructive and destructive leadership behaviour (Einarsen et al., 2007)



Tyrannical leadership is quite similar to what Tepper (2000) describes as abusive supervision. The tyrannical leader hurts the motivation, well-being and job satisfaction of subordinates, without undermining the organisational goals. It is noteworthy that this kind of leadership may be evaluated differently from subordinates and superiors (Einarsen et al., 2007). Subordinates may feel that this leader is a bully, while the senior management has a favourable opinion for this leader, since his/her behaviour is constructive towards the organisation. This is the main reason why the senior management may exhibit tolerance towards tyrannical leadership behaviour (Ma et al. 2004).

Derailed leadership, as depicted in Figure 1, has both anti-organisation and anti-subordinate behaviour. Based on this, these kinds of leaders share the “dark side” of both tyrannical and supportive-disloyal leadership, as they can show bullying, abusive and manipulative behaviour towards subordinates, and at the same time hurt the organisation. Derailed leadership, as described by Einarsen et al. (2007), has its origins from McCall’s and Lombardo’s (1983) concept of a derailed leader. A common theme for these leaders is that they focus on their personal gain (Conger 1990) and they fail to adapt to new situations (McCall and Lombardo 1983), as well as to learn from their mistakes (Shackleton, 1995).

The next category, supportive-disloyal leaders, describes those leaders who care for their subordinates, but harm the organisation. This is the least studied form of destructive leadership (Einarsen et al., 2007) and it mainly, but not restrictively, refers to theft, fraud and embezzlement. In fact, apart from theft towards personal gain, it is established in the literature that, in some cases, superiors urge or allow with their behaviour their subordinates to steal the firm's products and/or supplies (Altheide et al., 1978, cited in Einarsen et al., 2007; Ditton, 1977, cited in Einarsen et al., 2007). However, in other cases they may actively sabotage and undermine the goals of the organisation (Einarsen et al., 2007).

The opposite type of leader, compared to the aforementioned types, is the constructive leader. Leaders who fall into this category have a legitimate interest towards the organisation and they try to support the organisation's goals and vision. At the same time, these leaders care about their subordinates, and they strive to reinforce their motivation, well-being as well as job satisfaction (Einarsen et al., 2007).

### ***1.4.3 An extension of Einarsen's, Aasland's and Skogstad's model***

Skogstad et al. (2007) expanded the conceptualization of Einarsen et al. (2007), and they proposed an addition of a fifth type of destructive leadership, namely laissez-faire leadership. In fact, this type of leadership behaviour had been mentioned in the study of Einarsen et al. (2007) as a potential type that could be included in their model, but they concluded that more research was necessary. Laissez-faire leadership, as a part of destructive leadership, is based on the argument that not only active, but also passive and indirect behaviour should be considered destructive (Skogstad et al. 2007). These leaders do not show interest either towards the organisation or their subordinates, and they end up harming both the former and the latter (Aasland et al., 2010). As proposed by Einarsen et al. (2007), the laissez-faire type of leader is placed in the middle of the framework depicted in Figure 1.

In their study, Aasland et al. (2010) performed a survey in a representative sample of 2539 Norwegian employees and they reported that the most prevalent type of destructive leadership was the laissez-faire leadership behaviour, followed by supportive-loyal and

derailed, while the tyrannical leadership behaviour was the least prevalent. Nevertheless, it should be noted that destructive leadership should not be considered as an either-or phenomenon, but as an integral part of leadership behaviour (Aasland et al., 2010).

#### ***1.4.4 Clusters of Destructive Leadership***

Shaw et al. (2011) performed an empirical analysis, and based on the qualitative research of Erickson et al. (2007), they constructed a destructive leadership questionnaire. However, one of the goals of their study was to identify categories of destructive leaders. In that sense, their work seems similar to what Kellerman (2004) did with the seven types of bad leadership. Nevertheless, it should be noted that Kellerman (2004) used anecdotal data, while Shaw et al. (2011) based the following categories on their empirical research and they identified seven clusters.

The first cluster describes worse than average leaders, who base their decisions on inadequate information, show unethical behaviour, resist change and do not have the ability to prioritize and delegate. These leaders are more commonly (managing) directors, (section) managers, assistant professors and head of schools.

The second cluster refers to leaders who have some good qualities, and some pretty bad ones. In general, they lack the common skills expected from a leader, as they cannot negotiate, they are underqualified for the job, they do not see the long-term view and they cannot motivate their subordinates. Business managers, deans, heads of department and professors are the most common positions that were observed in this cluster.

In the third cluster, leaders perform way better than leaders from other clusters, but they have a tendency to micromanage and overcontrol. This type of leader is more commonly observed in (general) management, director, CEO and academic head department positions.

The fourth cluster is made up by leaders who cannot deal with interpersonal conflict, discriminate between their subordinates and exhibit inconsistent and erratic behaviour. They usually work as professors, head of school, (branch) managers and department chairs.

In the fifth cluster, leaders can be described as average, and generally they tend to not seek information from others, are perceived somewhat stubborn and ineffective. These leaders can hold positions like dean, team leader, department chair or head, and manager.

Leaders who belong to the sixth cluster are narrow minded towards other groups in organisation and they tend to micromanage and bully their subordinates. They mainly work as (acting) managers, directors, primary school principals and operations manager.

Finally, the seventh cluster includes leaders who act in an extremely brutal and bullying manner and they exhibit many unethical behaviours. Arguably, leaders in this cluster are perceived as the most destructive, and they can hold a broad range of key positions, like (centre) manager, general manager, CEO and (associate) professor.

### ***1.5 Antecedents of destructive leadership***

Krasikova et al. (2013) following their definition of destructive leadership, offer a theoretical model investigating the antecedents of destructive leadership. The researchers connect destructive leadership behaviour with leader's personal goals, arguing that the wider the gap between the personal goals of the leader and the organisational goals, the higher the chance of exhibiting destructive leadership behaviour. The same can happen if the leader thinks that followers are an obstacle of achieving his/her goals.

Additionally, leaders who tend to negatively interpret the events and who experience restrictions in the resources they are provided with, have a stronger feeling of goal blockage, which results in a higher chance of employing a destructive leadership style. This is also the case when leaders tend to put emphasis on their own interests, disregarding the interests of others, and when leaders have high discretion, meaning that they have control over their actions.

Moreover, the researchers mention some settings that moderate the relationship between the perception of goal blockage and destructive leadership. Firstly, the tendency of a leader to justify harmful behaviour in case his or her interests are disregarded, as well as leader's self-regulation impairment can lead to a higher chance of a leader to react to goal blockage by exhibiting destructive leadership behaviour. Secondly, the acceptance of

harmful behaviours within the organisation and the suggestions that these behaviours can be more effective towards goal achievement increase the likelihood of destructive leadership behaviour when experiencing goal blockage.

Building on Krasikova's framework, Mackey (2021) performed a meta-analysis using the predator predation paradigm to understand how destructive leaders choose their preys. In his study, the researcher reports that destructive leaders choose their preys based on their performance and on their negative behaviours. To be more specific, leaders display their destructive side to those employees who perform poorly, and especially to those who have counterproductive work behaviour towards their fellow employees (organisational deviance) and the organisation (organisational deviance). However, the researcher does not mention the possibility of reverse causality, as counterproductive work behaviours can also be considered as a consequence of destructive leadership (Mackey et al., 2020).

Additionally, Notelaers et al. (2010) tried a job characteristics approach to explain workplace bullying, using the Warr's vitamin model. As mentioned before, Shaw et al. (2011) argue that workplace bullying fall into destructive leadership, and under the model of Einarsen et al. (2007) it would fall into tyrannical leadership.

Notelaers et al. (2010) used more than 6000 self-administered questionnaires from 16 Belgium companies. In their results, they report that most job characteristics have a significant effect on workplace bullying. To elucidate, some characteristics can reduce bullying, such as an increase in participation, in skill utilization and in feedback. On the contrary, most characteristics are positively related with bullying, with role conflicts and role ambiguity having the larger effects. Smaller, yet significant, effects have the workload, the cognitive demands, changes in the job and finally job insecurity.

Overall, job characteristics explain 30% of the variance in reported exposure to bullying. However, it should be noted that the sample used in this study is not considered by the researchers to be a representative one, and although there is a significant correlation, this does not mean that there is a causal effect and it does not provide a definitive answer about the direction of causality.

Regarding another subcategory of destructive leadership that would fall under tyrannical leadership in Einarsen's model, Courtright et al. (2016) performed two studies to assess whether the family-work conflict (FWC) is an antecedent of abusive supervision. According to the researchers, the FWC can deplete the self-regulation resources of supervisors that could otherwise inhibit abusive behaviour. Indeed, this is supported by their results, as FWC has a positive effect on abusive behaviour, while ego depletion (as a proxy for the self-regulation resources) is a mediator. Finally, this effect is higher for females and for situations in which the supervisor has a lower chance of being punished for his/her behaviour.

## ***1.6 Consequences of destructive leadership***

### ***1.6.1 Individual level – Work-related outcomes***

Destructive leadership is likely to have negative consequences for the subordinates (Krasikova et al. 2013). Among the most examined negative consequences is on job satisfaction. More specifically, in their meta-analysis, Schyns and Schilling (2013) reported a negative correlation between destructive leadership and job satisfaction. Similar results showed the meta-analysis of Mackey et al. (2020), as well as the study of Fors Brandebo et al. (2019).

Similarly, destructive leadership has a negative correlation with many of the outcomes that are considered to help organisations achieve their goals. For example, destructive leadership is negatively related with work engagement, perceived organisational support, trust in leader, organisational citizenship, task performance, work effort (Mackey et al., 2020), perceived meaningfulness of work (Fors Brandebo et al., 2019) and perceived autonomy (Dolce et al. 2020).

On the other hand, destructive leadership has a positive correlation with many concepts that may harm the organisational goals. To be more specific, destructive leadership has a positive correlation with job insecurity, job tension, negative affect and breach of psychological contract (Mackey et al., 2020)

### ***1.6.2 Individual level – Non work-related outcomes***

Despite the consequences on work related outcomes, destructive leadership seems to have many undesirable consequences on the non-work-related outcomes. In a recent study, Dolce et al. (2020) researched the effects of destructive leadership on recovery strategies and exhaustion during the COVID-19 pandemic in a remote working convenience sample of 716 participants in France. In their results, they report that employees with a destructive leader required higher levels of cognitive demands and had been working more during non-work hours. This, in turn, had a negative effect on recovery strategies and thus, a higher chance of emotional exhaustion.

Additionally, having a destructive leader relates to increased stress levels, anger, burnout and psychological distress (Mackey et al., 2020) as well as lowered motivation and self-esteem (Erickson et al., 2007)

### ***1.6.3 Organisational level***

In some cases, in the short run, destructive leadership may appear constructive for the organisation (Ma et al., 2004). An example for this is the tyrannical leadership as defined by Einarsen et al. (2007) in their model, as this type of leader actively tries to promote the goals of the organisation at the expense of his/her subordinates. However, in the long run, the detrimental consequences of destructive leadership will become evident (Einarsen et al., 2007).

As in the previous sections, destructive leadership relates to outcomes that can harm the organisation. Among the most significant relationships reported in the literature are the positive relationship with counterproductive work behaviours (Mackey et al., 2020) and the turnover intentions (Schyns and Schilling, 2013). This indicates that employees may actively try to harm the organisation, while, at the same time, they want to leave their positions; this, in turn, is expected to have an impact on organisational performance (Schyns and Schilling, 2013).

## Chapter 2. Job Apathy

### 2.1 Job apathy

Apathy is a concept researched by psychologists and it can be considered a psychological disorder. The first to propose apathy as a psychological disorder was Marin (1990), who argued that apathy is a distinct disorder, and not a part of other psychological disorders, like depression. According to Marin (1990) apathy is characterized by diminished motivation, which is not due to reduced levels of consciousness, cognitive impairment, or emotional distress. On the other hand, Stuss et al. (2000, p. 342) defined apathy as “an absence of responsiveness to stimuli as demonstrated by a lack of self-initiated action”. A yet more complete definition is that of Sockeel et al. (2006, p. 579), who define apathy as “a set of behavioural, emotional and cognitive features such as reduced interest in participation in the main activities of daily life, a lack of initiative, a trend towards early withdrawal from initiated activities, indifference, and flattening of affect”.

It should be noted that not every form of apathy is a disorder. Brodaty et al. (2010) refer to an increase in apathy in otherwise healthy elder individuals, which can be attributed to cognitive decline. Another form of apathy is the selective or relative apathy. To elucidate, Marin (1990) argues that selective or relative apathy is seen in normal individuals and it expresses the lack of motivation or interest of an individual towards a particular activity. Building upon selective apathy, Schmidt et al. (2017) introduced the concept of job apathy.

The first time apathy in workplace came up in the literature was by Spector (1975), who reported behavioural reactions of employees to organisational frustration. One of these reactions was apathy about the job, which was measured as using drugs in the workplace, doing mistakes on purpose, taking undeserved breaks and having a nice feeling when things go the wrong way. The second time was in the study of Ladebo (2005), who used a job satisfaction scale, which was divided into three categories, one of which was job apathy. In this study, job apathy was measured as boredom in the job, isolation from colleagues,

incompetence of the employees to choose their own tasks, lack of intrinsic motivation and a lack of desire to even show up at work.

Despite being mentioned in previous studies, Schmidt et al. (2017) were the first to conceptualize and study job apathy in depth. In fact, this was the first time that apathy was introduced as a concept in management studies, using the concept in a different way compared to psychologists. Schmidt et al. (2017) define job apathy as “a state of diminished motivation towards one’s job” (p. 486). Individuals who exhibit high levels of job apathy are characterized by emotional detachment towards their job and their organization, as well as amotivation towards their job tasks. As, in that sense, job apathy is a form of selective apathy, individuals may be passionate about many aspects of their life, like their family or their favourite sports club, but not about their work. Finally, Schmidt et al. (2017), building on the research of Bakker et al. (2006), argue that apathetic attitudes, like similar concepts, as employee engagement, job satisfaction and burnout, can be highly contagious in the work place.

## ***2.2 Types of job apathy***

Schmidt et al., (2017), based on the categories proposed for clinical apathy by Sockeel et al. (2006), initially categorized job apathy into apathetic emotion, apathetic thought and apathetic action. However, their analysis indicated that apathetic emotions and apathetic thoughts should be merged into one dimension, and therefore job apathy has two dimensions, apathetic cognition and apathetic action.

As mentioned above, apathetic cognition is a combination of apathetic emotions and thoughts. Apathetic emotions are associated with low investments of emotional energy in the work setting, as well as an apathetic reaction to both success and failure. Additionally, apathetic thoughts refer to the lack of interest towards the job and the existing working conditions (Schmidt et al. 2017). This diminished interest is associated with limited cognitive effort on the job, a lack of strategies for improving the job performance, and reduced mental attention in the way that job tasks are approached. Thus, apathetic cognition as a concept includes a state of diminished motivation, a mental check out and an emotional detachment from work, as well as a passive mood.

The second dimension is apathetic action. This refers to individuals who exert only the amount of effort that is needed in order to not get fired. In that sense, individuals with high scores in apathetic action do not invest more energy to their job than is necessary (Schmidt et al. 2017). In general, this concept entails individuals being satisfied with producing work of average quality and a reluctance in exerting significant effort in anything work related. This reluctance is associated with both projects individuals are already working on, and with projects that can be assigned to them.

### ***2.3 Antecedents of job apathy***

Negative affectivity is associated with feelings of distress, discomfort and dissatisfaction that an individual reports, as well as poor self-concept (Watson and Clark 1984). Moreover, high levels of trait negative affectivity are associated with stress as well as various aversive mood states (Watson et al. 1988), while apathy can be a coping mechanism for high levels of stress (Marin 1990). Schmidt et al. (2017) argue that individuals with high negative affectivity may choose job apathy as a defence mechanism, and thus they indirectly suggest that negative affectivity may be one of the causes of job apathy. However, they did not test for a causal relationship, but they found a positive relationship between trait negative affectivity and job apathy.

Another potential antecedent of job apathy, stated by Schmidt et al. (2017), is cynicism. Cynicism is associated with lack of trust about the motivations and honesty of others and individuals with high levels of cynicism exert the minimal amount of effort in work settings and are not particularly interested in reaching high performance (Kaplan et al. 2004). Schmidt et al. (2017) argue that this lack of motivation to reach a high performance, which in this setting is perceived as a result of cynicism, can cause job apathy. In their research, Schmidt et al. (2017) reported a positive correlation between these two concepts.

### ***2.4 Consequences of job apathy***

One of the possible consequences of job apathy is organisation withdrawal. Organisation withdrawal can be divided into work and job withdrawal, with the former describing behaviours like lateness and absenteeism and the latter associated with turnover and retirement intentions (Hulin and Hanisch 1991). Schmidt et al. (2017) argue that job

apathy may lead to organisation withdrawal. This can happen with apathetic employees withdrawing their efforts from the work, either consciously, or unconsciously. The conceptual link Schmidt et al. (2017) offer between job apathy and organisational withdrawal is rather weak, however a positive relationship was reported in their results.

Moreover, job apathy can have an effect on organisational deviance, which results in devious behaviours of employees against their own organization, including slowing down their working pace, incurring damages to the company's properties and offering confidential information to third parties (Berry et al. 2007). The scientific literature offers multiple pathways in which motivation affects organisational deviance (Kaplan, 1975; Diefendorff and Mehta, 2007), and Schmidt et al. (2017) argue that job apathy can influence organizational deviance in multiple ways, but mainly through the decrease in motivation. Their results showed a positive correlation between these two concepts.

Yet another possible consequence of job apathy is a decrease in personal initiative. Personal initiative is an active approach of the employee towards the fulfilment of organisational goals (Fay and Frese 2001) and this is the opposite of the behaviour of apathetic employees. Thus, Schmidt et al. (2017) reported a negative relation of job apathy and personal initiative and like organisational deviance, one could argue that the negative effect of job apathy to personal initiative is mediated by motivation, as job apathy decreases the employee's motivation.

In addition, the relation between job apathy and job satisfaction is noteworthy. Ladebo (2005) associated lower levels of what they called job apathy with higher job satisfaction measured by the job satisfaction index. Schmidt et al. (2017) conceptualized job apathy in a different way, however they argue that job apathy would have a negative effect on job satisfaction. Based on the argument of Schmidt et al. (2017), Zolotareva (2020) researched the relation between these two concepts. Measuring job satisfaction with the Job Satisfaction Components Questionnaire, she reported a negative relation of job apathy with all dimensions of job satisfaction, namely salary satisfaction, satisfaction with the organisation of work, satisfaction with leadership, satisfaction with team and satisfaction with the process and content of work.

## *2.5 Job apathy, work engagement and professional burnout*

As mentioned before, Schmidt et al. (2017) were the first to conceptualize job apathy and to connect it to the field of management studies. However, in order to better understand how job apathy is a unique concept and not just an absence of work engagement, the relation between job apathy, work engagement and professional burnout should be examined.

The relation between these three concepts may be complicated. According to Schaufeli et al. (2002) job engagement has three main components, namely vigor, dedication and absorption. Vigor describes having significant amount of energy and psychological resilience in the workplace, while dedication describes those employees who are enthusiastic and proud towards their job. Finally, absorption describes high levels of concentration and a state of flow in the work environment. Engagement is perceived as the opposite of the spectrum of job burnout (Kim et al. 2009), which can be described as a disruption of engagement with the job (Schaufeli et al. 2002). Job burnout has three dimensions, namely emotional exhaustion, depersonalization and diminished personal accomplishment (Maslach et al. 2001).

In the scientific literature, many studies can be found researching the positive side of job involvement, in particular proactive behaviours and job engagement, while for the negative side, the literature is focused mainly on job burnout and less on psychological detachment (Schmidt et al. 2017). However, Schmidt et al. (2017) assert that both burnout and psychological detachment capture the stress of the employees, and thus they leave out some important factors on the negative side of job involvement. According to the researchers, these factors can be described by job apathy.

Studies in job apathy and work engagement found a significant relation between these two concepts. Zolotareva (2020) reported a significant negative relationship of job apathy with all three dimensions of work engagement, while Ugwu et al. (2019) found that this negative relation was stronger for those who perceived their leader as engaging in unethical behaviours, reporting that perceived leader integrity can moderate the relation between job apathy and work engagement. Moreover, Schmidt et al. (2017) researched thoroughly the relation between these constructs. Their analyses suggested that these

constructs have a strong correlation, but each one is unique. In addition, they found that job apathy had incremental validity beyond engagement in various workplace constructs, such as organization withdrawal, personal initiative and organization deviance.

On the other hand, the relation between job apathy and job burnout was only researched by Zolotareva (2020). The researcher, using the three dimensions of burnout mentioned above, found that job apathy had a moderate, positive correlation with emotional exhaustion and depersonalization, and a moderate, negative relation with personal achievement. These results are in accordance with the literature, and they suggest that indeed job burnout is conceptually different from job apathy. Overall, the aforementioned studies show that that job apathy is a distinct concept, and not just an absence of work engagement or a consequence of burnout.

The literature on job apathy is limited, and a causal relationship has not been established yet. Nevertheless, some researchers have reported an association between job apathy and some other concepts, like organisation withdrawal, work engagement and professional burnout (Schmidt et al. 2017, Ugwu et al. 2019, Zolotareva 2020). The next two sections will elaborate on some possible causes and consequences of job apathy.

## ***2.6 Job apathy and demographic characteristics***

The relation between job apathy and demographic characteristics is not clear yet, as various studies point towards different directions. Most studies found that gender does not have an effect on job apathy (Schmidt et al. 2017, Ugwu et al. 2019, Zolotareva 2020). On the other hand, the results on age are inconclusive. Zolotareva (2020) reported that individuals aged less than 30 years old are more prone to report apathetic actions, compared to their counterparts aged 31 to 40 years old, while the difference between these age groups was not significant for apathetic cognition. On the contrary, Ugwu et al. (2019) did not report a significant correlation with age, however they did not study the dimensions of job apathy, but the concept as a whole.

Furthermore, job apathy does not seem to have a significant relation with education (Ugwu et al. 2019, Zolotareva 2020) and work experience in general (Zolotareva 2020), but it has a negative relation with organisational tenure (Ugwu et al. 2019). Finally,

Zolotareva (2020) found that married and divorced individuals have higher levels of apathetic actions compared to single individuals, but the same does not apply for apathetic cognition.

## Chapter 3. Work Motivation

The first work motivation model proposed by Porter and Lawler (1968) divided work motivation into intrinsic and extrinsic. The researchers argued that a combination of the two kinds of motivation would lead into positive work outcomes, such as better job satisfaction and job enlargement. However, Deci (1971) argued that these two kinds of motivation are not additive, as implied by Porter and Lawler (1968), but rather interactive, as in some cases extrinsic rewards can impair the sense of individual's intrinsic motivation. Therefore, there was a shift in scientific literature, and early researchers tried to explain the interaction between intrinsic and extrinsic motivation with cognitive evaluation theory (Deci, 1975).

Cognitive evaluation theory takes into account that individuals desire feelings of autonomy and competency, and thus this theory describes how external factors reinforce or undermine individual's intrinsic and extrinsic motivation (Deci et al., 1999). Additionally, cognitive evaluation theory suggests that when motivation has eroded, an individual can feel amotivation, which is in fact a lack of motivation (Deci and Ryan, 1985). However, even though cognitive evaluation theory was quite prevalent in the 1970s and 1980s, it decayed afterwards (Gagné and Deci 2005). This happened mainly because it was not applicable in the real world due to the dichotomy of motivation, meaning that the theory implied that managers should reinforce either extrinsic or intrinsic motivation, and they could not promote both at the same time (Gagné and Deci 2005).

The shift away from cognitive evaluation theory started with the concept of internalisation of extrinsic motivation (Ryan et al., 1985) and led eventually to the formulation of self-determination theory (Deci and Ryan, 1985). Self-determination theory is considered a broad theory of human motivation and has been established as an important framework in various fields of psychology, including organizational psychology (Gagné et al., 2018)

### *3.1 Self-Determination Theory on work motivation*

Self-determination theory asserts that humans naturally progress towards psychological growth, internalisation and well-being (Deci and Ryan 2000) and these

outcomes have played a significant role in the self-determination research (Van den Broeck et al. 2016). Psychological growth refers to activities that are performed by individuals for the mere pleasure they get, and not because they are pushed by external forces (Deci and Ryan 2000). In other words, psychological growth is presented through intrinsic motivation. Furthermore, psychological internalisation describes the natural process of internalising and integrating external forces within the self (Deci and Ryan, 1985). Finally, psychological well-being is associated with hedonic and eudaemonic perspectives (Deci et al. 2001).

### *3.1.2 Psychological needs*

Following the aforementioned constructs, self-determination theory argues that individuals do not automatically progress towards psychological growth, internalisation and well-being, but the satisfaction of three basic psychological needs, namely need for autonomy, competence and relatedness, is required (Deci and Ryan 2000). According to self-determination theory, these psychological needs are innate, and contexts that support those needs lead to higher intrinsic motivation, promote the internalisation of extrinsic motivation and encourage life goals that satisfy these needs (Deci and Ryan 2000). Therefore, these needs are at the core of self-determination theory, as in case they are not satisfied, the individual cannot cultivate psychological growth, internalisation and well-being. Finally, as noted by Deci and Ryan (2000), psychological needs have significant differences compared to physiological needs, as individuals make intentional efforts to satisfy the latter, but they can develop defences and need substitutes in case of the former.

Firstly, the need for autonomy is the most complex one, as it is not prevalent in empirical psychology (Deci and Ryan 2000) and it is often understood as the need to act individually, disregarding the desires of others (Gagné and Deci 2005). However, the need for autonomy refers to the need of individuals to function on their own accord and volition, even if by doing so, they comply with the wish of others (Gagné and Deci 2005).

Secondly, the need of competence, which is also featured in social cognitive theory (Bandura, 1977), describes the need of individuals to feel that they have an expertise, as well as to cultivate new skills (Gagné and Deci 2005). Moreover, the need of competence

is perceived by self-determination theory as inherent towards our natural tendency to search for challenges and explore the environment (Gagné and Deci 2005).

Finally, the need of relatedness describes the desire to feel connected to others, and more specifically to love and care, as well as to be loved and cared for (Deci and Ryan 2000). Even though this need is considered occasionally as secondary for some outcomes compared to the other two needs (Gagné and Deci 2005), self-determination theory asserts that in the absence of relatedness, intrinsic motivation is difficult to be achieved (Deci and Ryan 2000).

### ***3.2 Dimensions of Self-Determination Theory***

The self-determination theory of work motivation is a continuum that has three main dimensions, namely intrinsic motivation, extrinsic motivation and amotivation (Battistelli et al. 2017). Another distinction is that of autonomous and controlled motivation. The first refers to individuals who are intrinsically motivated, while the latter refers to those who experience pressure or feel that they have to engage in different actions (Gagné and Deci 2005). However, it should be mentioned that these two types of motivation are intentional and are the opposite of amotivation, which refers to an absence of motivation.

#### ***3.2.1 Intrinsic Motivation***

Intrinsic motivation is inherently autonomous motivation, and it is at the right end of the work motivation continuum (as it can be seen at Figure 2). Intrinsically motivated individuals perform their job tasks mainly for the enjoyment of the task itself (Howard et al. 2016). In other words, they find these tasks interesting and satisfying (Gagné and Deci 2005) and they do not rely on external forces to put pressure on them to perform these tasks. Moreover, intrinsically motivated employees produce work of high quality (Deci et al. 2017).

#### ***3.2.2 Extrinsic Motivation***

Extrinsic motivation is divided into different types of regulations, namely integrated, identified, introjected and external regulation (Gagné and Deci 2005). However,

the most recent research proposes that external regulation has two dimensions, external-social and external material (Gagné et al. 2015).

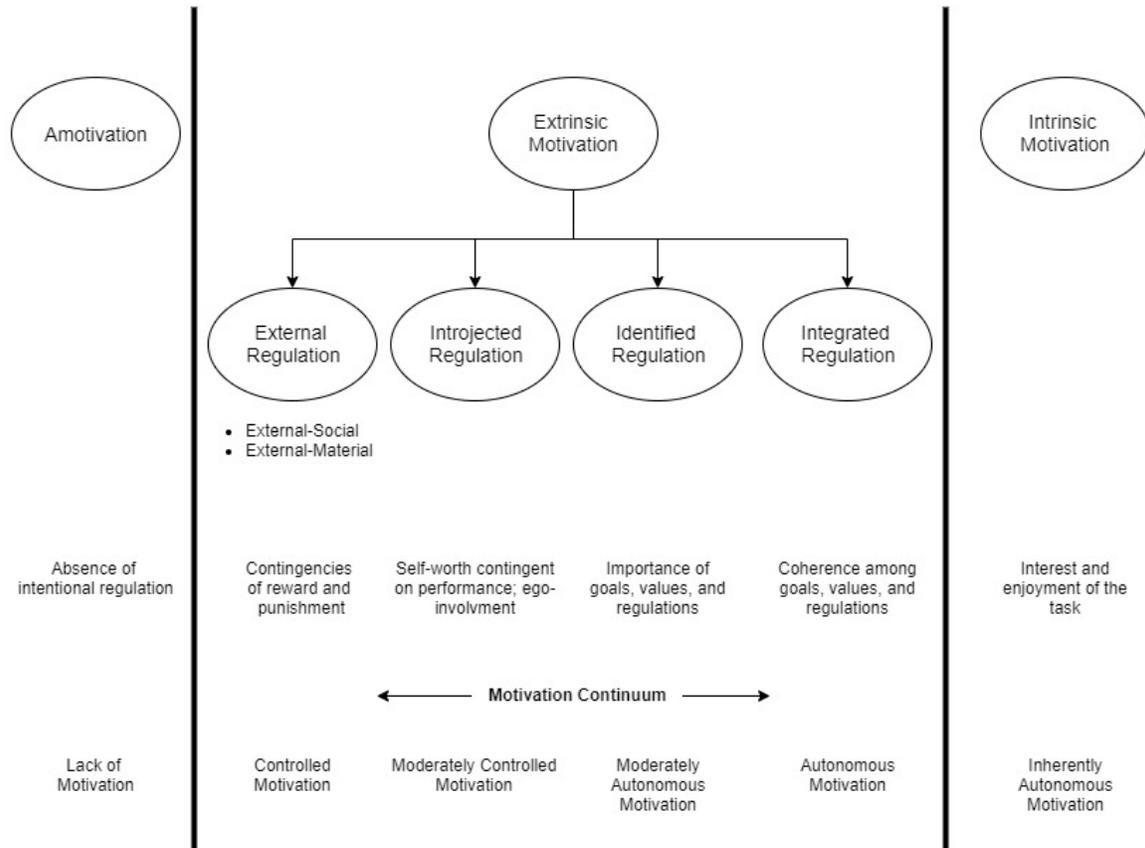
Integrated regulation is considered autonomous motivation and is the most advanced form of extrinsic motivation, sharing some of the qualities of intrinsic motivation (Gagné and Deci 2005). Integrated regulation occurs when an individual's values are in line with the goals of a behaviour (Gagné et al. 2015) and since this originates from their sense of self, it is considered self-determined (Gagné and Deci 2005). This is different from identified regulation, which is a moderately autonomous form of motivation and is characterized by a feeling of freedom, which stems from the compatibility of behaviour with personal goals and identity (Gagné and Deci 2005).

Moving away from autonomous motivation, introjected regulation takes place when an external regulation is affecting the way individuals behave (Gagné and Deci 2005). For example, individuals may feel pressure to behave based on social norms in order to feel likeable. Finally, as mentioned above, external regulation has two dimensions, external-social and external material. The first refers to the need for approval and/or respect from others, while the latter refers to a focus on material benefits, as well as the avoidance of getting fired (Howard et al. 2016).

### ***3.2.3 Amotivation***

Amotivation refers to the lack of motivation and/or intention (Gagné and Deci 2005). Individuals who feel amotivated are detached from the activities they perform, or they may have a sense of lacking control over a situation, and thus they decide to not invest time or energy towards this particular activity (Howard et al. 2016). Taking into consideration that amotivation is connected with various negative outcomes in the workplace, it becomes clear that it is important to consider this feature in the workplace motivation models (Howard et al. 2016).

Figure 3. Self-determination theory of work motivation, Gagne and Deci, 2005, p. 386



## **Chapter 4. Core Self-Evaluation**

### ***4.1 The concept of Core Self Evaluation***

Core self-evaluation (CSE) is a latent construct that refers to major appraisals individuals make regarding their self-worth, competence and capabilities (Judge et al., 1997). The need for this construct arose after the criticism of using a wide variety of concepts related to the individuals' personality to predict job satisfaction (Chang et al. 2012). To address this criticism, Judge et al. (1997) created the construct of CSE. Core evaluations of one's self were introduced as the most significant evaluations that individuals have, influencing indirectly all other beliefs and assessments (Chang et al. 2012).

CSE is by definition broad in scope (Chang et al. 2012) and abstract (Johnson et al. 2008), and it is not associated with a distinct domain or a specific moment in time (Judge et al., 1997). Conversely, these fundamental core evaluations may affect in a subconscious way individuals' behaviour and appraisals in specific domains, like for example in the work settings. However, evaluations about work or any other domain are directly linked with CSEs (Bono and Judge 2003). Finally, individuals with a high score on CSE are well adjusted, positive, self-assured, competent, they believe in themselves (Judge et al. 2003) and they report having more rewarding jobs (Bono and Judge 2003).

### ***4.2 Trait Indicators***

Judge et al. (1997) included in the CSE four well established traits in the personality literature: self-esteem, generalized self-efficacy, neuroticism and locus of control. It should be mentioned that, according to the researchers, there may be more traits that fulfil these criteria and could possibly be part of CSE, such as dispositional optimism and both positive and negative affectivity, however these four traits have remained the most prevalent ones for more than twenty years after this initial research.

#### ***4.2.1 Self-esteem***

Out of the four traits that CSE is consisted of, self-esteem is the single best indicator of this construct (Judge and Bono 2001). According to Cambridge online dictionary, self-esteem is the "belief and confidence in one's ability and value" and as a concept is widely

researched in the scientific literature (Blascovich et al., 1991). A recent review of Orth and Robins, (2014) on some longitudinal studies on self-esteem highlighted that self-esteem reaches its peak at 50 to 60 years old individuals and an individual's self-esteem can be changed dramatically over time. This means that an individual with relatively high self-esteem may have a relatively low self-esteem some decades later. Additionally, the same study pointed out that self-esteem predicts success and subjective well-being in various domains in life, such as relationships, work and health.

Moreover, self-esteem is not only the best indicator of CSE, but there is also a strong link between self-esteem and generalized self-efficacy, as well as neuroticism (Judge and Bono 2001). Finally, even though self-esteem and locus of control are quite often researched together, they are treated as two different variables (Judge and Bono 2001). Overall, self-esteem plays a significant role in the CSE construct (Judge and Bono 2001), even though there is criticism that self-esteem may be redundant in the CSE construct (Johnson et al. 2008).

#### ***4.2.2 Generalized self-efficacy***

The concept of generalized self-efficacy is the less researched compared to the other traits (Judge et al. 2002) and it represents an optimistic sense of an individual's competence (Scholz et al. 2002). In other words, this concept refers to a belief that individuals have about reaching their goals and is different from self-efficacy, as the last refers to a belief about a specific task, whereas generalized self-efficacy is considered a stable, generalized competence belief (Chen et al. 2004).

In that sense, the link between self-esteem and generalized self-efficacy is obvious. More specifically, self-esteem is considered by some researchers as interchangeable with generalized self-efficacy, mainly because they have a particularly strong correlation (Johnson et al. 2008). However, Chen et al. (2004) argue that, despite the strong correlation, their study provided strong evidence that these two concepts are theoretically distinct. This distinction is mainly based on the fact that generalized self-efficacy is closely related to motivational variables, while self-esteem is more closely related to affective variables. This suggests that the way individuals judge their capabilities (generalized self-

efficacy) stimulates different consequences compared to the way individuals feel about themselves (self-esteem) (Chen et al. 2004).

### ***4.2.3 Neuroticism***

According to the triple vulnerability theory, neuroticism is caused by a dysregulated stress response, which is connected to both biological and psychological vulnerability, and it can lead to an emotional disorder (Barlow et al. 2014). From an organisational perspective, Judge et al. (2004) argue that neuroticism represents a strong dispositional driver of the attitudes and behaviours of employees. In fact, high levels of neuroticism are related with negative feelings, anxiety and avoidance (Johnson et al. 2008), and in general, neuroticism is referred as an antipode of emotional stability (Judge et al. 2004). Johnson et al. (2008) argue that neuroticism is broadly defined in the CSE construct, and thus it incorporates the concept of avoidance motivation. Therefore, the researchers propose that neuroticism should be replaced by avoidance motivation in the CSE construct.

Neuroticism is strongly related in the literature with self-esteem and locus of control. Even though a causal relationship has not been established, neuroticism seems to operate in a similar way to self-esteem in the prediction of personality disorders, and thus these two concepts are closely linked (Judge et al. 2002). Furthermore, although neuroticism and locus of control have not been theoretically linked, these two traits operate in a similar way due to their relationship with other relevant concepts, like anxiety and stress (Judge et al. 2002).

### ***4.2.4 Locus of control***

Locus of control is the trait that is the least connected to the three criteria mentioned above (Judge and Bono 2001) and it refers to an expectation about the connection between individual characteristics, actions and experienced outcomes (Lefcourt 1991). Those individuals who have an internal locus of control tend to believe that their actions matter, and they are more likely to be more active and pursue their goals. On the other hand, an external locus of control can be characterized as helplessness (Lefcourt 1991), as individuals feel that outcomes are not dependent on their efforts.

Locus of control shares strong similarities with generalized self-efficacy and self-esteem (Judge and Bono 2001), but it also has the lowest correlation with CSE compared to the other traits (Judge et al. 2003). Based on this, Johnson et al. (2008) questioned whether locus of control should be a part of CSE, while Johnson et al. (2011) argued that the inclusion of locus of control introduces the possibility of attributional biases. However, locus of control, as well as the other three traits discussed above, is a part of the only direct scale of CSE to date, created by Judge et al. (2003).

#### ***4.2.5 Other Traits***

The four traits that consist CSE are not exhaustive and they are subject to change. In fact, Judge et al. (1997) considered the possibility of dispositional optimism as well as positive and negative affectivity being a part of CSE. Nevertheless, despite some evidence that these concepts are indicators of CSE (Judge and Bono 2001), they have not been integrated to the CSE concept.

Apart from Judge et al. (1997), the most detailed research on the CSE's traits is that of Johnson et al. (2008). The researchers linked CSE with avoidance motivation, as a more specific concept than neuroticism, and its opposite, approach motivation. The researchers also doubted the link of self-esteem to CSE construct. Therefore, according to Johnson et al. (2008), the CSE traits should be generalized self-efficacy, locus of control, avoidance and approach motivation, whereas they claim that more research is needed to determine whether self-esteem should be a part or not.

## Chapter 5. Hypotheses development

In this chapter, the concepts of destructive leadership, job apathy, work motivation and CSE will be linked, and the hypotheses of this study will be formed.

### *5.1 Destructive leadership and job apathy*

Erickson et al. (2007) did a qualitative study on employees who perceived their leader as destructive and found that the most common consequence of working with a destructive leader was a loss in motivation. In some cases, this loss of motivation not only affected the work performance, but also the personality of the employees. In addition, employees working with a destructive leader were more likely to exhibit avoidance towards the leader, but also towards the work itself (Erickson et al., 2017). Since job apathy is defined as “a state of diminished motivation towards one’s job” (Schmidt et al., 2017, p. 486), the following hypothesis is formed:

**H1.** Destructive leadership positively relates to job apathy.

Following Schmidt et al. (2017), who divided job apathy into apathetic cognition, a state of diminished motivation, and apathetic action, a reluctance in exerting effort to everything that is work related, the following two hypotheses are developed:

**H1a.** Destructive leadership positively relates to apathetic cognition.

**H1b.** Destructive leadership positively relates to apathetic action.

### *5.2 Destructive leadership and work motivation*

In their definition of destructive leadership, Einarsen et al. (2007) mention that destructive leaders sabotage among other things, the motivation of their subordinates. This is also evident in the study of Erickson et al. (2007). In addition, Trepanier et al. (2013) researched workplace bullying, which can be considered as a part of destructive leadership, on burnout and work engagement, with the need for autonomy, competence and relatedness as mediators. As mentioned in Chapter 3, these needs are important for individuals to enhance their intrinsic motivation. Trepanier et al. (2013) found that workplace bullying had a negative effect on all three psychological needs. Since these needs are at the core of self-determination theory on work motivation, it is expected that destructive leadership

would also have a negative effect on these needs. As these needs are a good proxy for work motivation, and more specifically for the development of autonomous motivation, it can be hypothesized that the relationship would be the same for autonomous work motivation as well. Therefore, the following hypothesis is developed:

**H2a.** Destructive leadership negatively relates to autonomous work motivation.

In addition, based on the reasoning provided above, destructive leadership is expected to also increase employees' amotivation. Therefore:

**H2b.** Destructive leadership negatively relates to amotivation.

### ***5.3 Work motivation and job apathy***

In the study of Trepanier et al. (2013) these psychological needs, that are a good proxy for work motivation according to self-determination theory, had a positive relationship with work engagement. Since work engagement is at the other end of the spectrum compared to job apathy, it is expected that autonomous work motivation will be negatively associated with job apathy. Thus, the following hypotheses are formed:

**H3.** Autonomous work motivation negatively relates to job apathy.

**H3a.** Autonomous work motivation negatively relates to apathetic cognition.

**H3b** Autonomous work motivation negatively relates to apathetic action.

Furthermore, job apathy is actually a lack of motivation (Schmidt et al., 2017). Thus, it is expected that amotivation will be positively associated with job apathy.

**H4.** Amotivation positively relates to job apathy.

**H4a.** Amotivation positively relates to apathetic cognition.

**H4b.** Amotivation positively relates to apathetic action.

### ***5.4 Work motivation as a mediator***

Following the first three hypotheses, it is expected that destructive leadership will have an indirect effect on job apathy through work motivation. Thus:

**H5.** The relationship between destructive leadership and job apathy is mediated by autonomous work motivation and amotivation.

**H5a.** The relationship between destructive leadership and apathetic cognition is mediated by autonomous work motivation and amotivation.

**H5b.** The relationship between destructive leadership and apathetic action is mediated by autonomous work motivation and amotivation.

### ***5.5 The moderation effects of CSEs***

Harris et al. (2009) researched the effects of social stressors on job satisfaction, turnover intention and altruism, on 133 dyads of supervisors and subordinates. The researchers found that social stressors had a negative effect on job satisfaction and altruism, and a positive effect on turnover intention. However, high core self-evaluations buffered the negative effects of social stressors on job satisfaction and turnover intention. This indicates that well-adjusted, competent and confident individuals are affected less by social stressors.

Additionally, Lopez et al. (2020) studied the effects of abusive leadership on athletes' performance and found that abusive leadership has a negative effect on the athlete's performance. Nevertheless, this effect was less strong for the individuals with higher CSEs, establishing the protective nature of CSE towards negative outcomes. Based on the studies of Harris et al. (2009) and Lopez et al. (2020), it seems that individuals with high CSE could be able to protect themselves of the negative consequences of destructive leadership, and thus not become apathetic towards their job. Therefore, the following hypotheses are formed:

**H6.** Core self-evaluation moderates the negative relationship between destructive leadership and job apathy, such that the negative relationship is weakened for those individuals with higher, rather than lower, levels of CSEs.

**H6a.** Core self-evaluation moderates the negative relationship between destructive leadership and apathetic cognition, such that the negative relationship is weakened for those individuals with higher, rather than lower, levels of CSEs.

**H6b.** Core self-evaluation moderates the negative relationship between destructive leadership and apathetic action, such that the negative relationship is weakened for those individuals with higher, rather than lower, levels of CSEs.

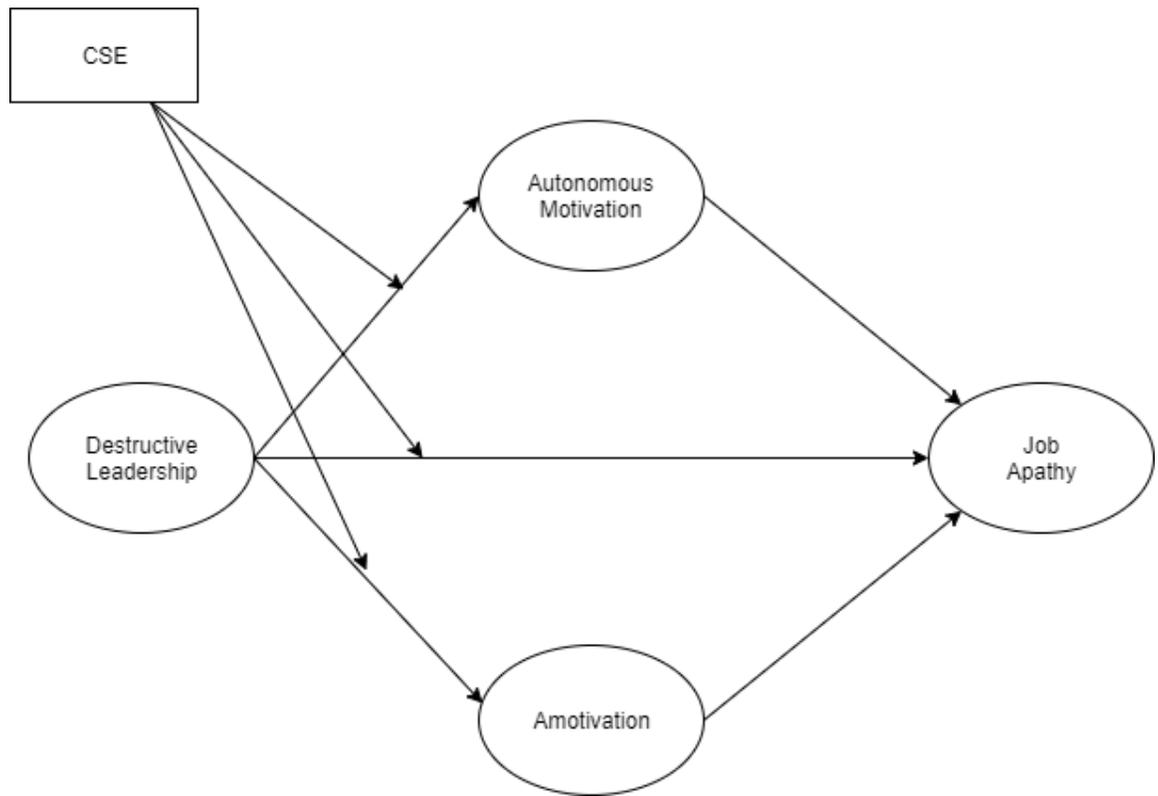
Zhang et al. (2014) researched whether abusive supervision affects creativity through diminishing intrinsic motivation. In their analysis, the researchers also assessed whether abusive supervision diminishes intrinsic motivation the same way for individuals with high and low CSEs. Indeed, they found that CSEs moderate the effects of abusive supervision on employee's intrinsic motivation. This, according to the researchers, indicates that high CSEs can play a role in buffering the negative effects of unfavourable situations on employee's intrinsic motivation. Following Zhang et al. (2014) it can be expected that CSEs will buffer the effects of destructive leadership on employee's motivation.

**H7.** CSE moderates the relation between destructive leadership and autonomous work motivation, such that the relation is weaker when the level of CSE is high rather than low.

**H8.** CSE moderates the relation between destructive leadership and amotivation, such that the relation is weaker when the level of CSE is high rather than low.

Following the developed hypotheses, the proposed model can be seen in Figure 4. It is expected that the model will be the same if job apathy is replaced by apathetic cognition and apathetic action.

Figure 4. Proposed model



## Chapter 6. Methodology

### 6.1 Data collection and sample

In order to test the aforementioned hypotheses, I used an online questionnaire. The questionnaire was distributed between October 2020 and January 2021 using convenience sampling and targeting employees in Greece. The google forms platform was used to host the online questionnaire. The questions in each sub-scale were randomized, but this platform does not provide the option of randomizing the different segments of the questionnaire. However, the order in which the participants are answering the questions can lead to biased results (Blankenship, 1942; Israel and Taylor, 1990). Therefore, for every 20 answers I was receiving, I was manually changing the order of the segments. To elucidate, the first 20 respondents filled the demographics' questions first, the second 20 respondents filled the destructive leadership scale first and the demographics last etc. In total, the questionnaire contained 76 questions, and it required approximately 8 minutes to be filled<sup>1</sup>. According to the research of Herzog and Bachman (1981) the length of the survey may influence the results, as participants have a lowered motivation towards the end of the survey. However, their results do not provide concrete answers, and in any case, the randomization mentioned above is supposed to alleviate this problem.

In total, 120 participants filled out the questionnaire, but after excluding participants with straight-line responding (3) and with many missing values (2), 115 valid responses were left. More women than men filled out the questionnaire (61% versus 39%), with an average age of 33.7 years ( $SD=9.87$ ). Three out of four participants work full time, and only one in four has a part-time job. Regarding work experience, the mean is 10.88 years ( $SD=8.90$ ), and the organizational tenure is 5.53 years ( $SD=7.05$ ). Finally, the majority has a university degree (54%), whereas some have a high school diploma (22.1%) and others a Master's degree (23.9%). The analysis is performed using the statistical software SPSS v26, with the Process v.3.5 macro.

---

<sup>1</sup> The whole questionnaire can be seen in Appendix.

## ***6.2 Measures***

### ***6.2.1 Destructive leadership***

To measure destructive leadership, I used the scale developed and validated by Shaw et al. (2011). This scale has also been used by Shaw et al. (2014), and sub-scales have been used by Song et al. (2017) and Bellou and Dimou (2021). The initial scale has 104 items focused on specific behaviours of the leaders, and 19 items on the leader's personal characteristics, and asks participants to respond in a 6-point Likert scale, ranging from Strongly Disagree to Strongly Agree. Additionally, the researchers include in their scale four items to assess whether someone is a destructive leader or not, and also one item in which the respondents assess their supervisor by providing a number between 1 and 100, with 1 being the worst and 100 being the best.

In my research, I used 14 items asking about the behaviour of the supervisor and 7 items asking about the personal characteristics. The behaviour part includes questions like “My boss often makes knee jerk reactions”, and “My boss has no idea what it takes to motivate subordinates”, while the personal characteristics part includes questions like “My boss seems extremely paranoid about many things”. I also included the four items to assess whether a leader is destructive, or not, and the worst-best leader item. Finally, following Shaw et al. (2011), I asked participants to state the age, gender and education of their supervisor.

### ***6.2.2 Job apathy***

The only available scale for job apathy to date is the one developed and validated by Schmidt et al. (2017). This scale is consisted of 10 questions, half of which measure apathetic cognition and the other half measure apathetic action using a 5-point Likert scale, ranging from Strongly Disagree to Strongly Agree. This scale has also been used in a Nigerian context by Ugwu et al. (2019) and in a Russian context, by Zolotareva (2020). Some sample questions are “I am indifferent towards my job” and “Whenever new tasks present themselves, I let others take them on”.

### ***6.2.3 Work motivation***

To measure work motivation according to self-determination theory, I used the Multidimensional Work Motivation Scale (MWMS). This scale was initially created by Gagne et al. (2010), but it was upgraded and validated by Gagne et al. (2015). The upgraded scale includes 15 questions, and allows the distinction between controlled and autonomous motivation, as well as amotivation. The scale asks participants to state whether some statements about the reasons why they put effort into their current job appeal to them. The scale uses a 7-point Likert scale, ranging from Not at all to Exactly, and some sample questions are “Because I have fun doing my job” and “I don’t know why I’m doing this job, it’s pointless work”.

### ***6.2.4 Core self-evaluation***

The scale that was used to measure CSEs is the one developed and validated by Judge et al. (2003). This scale has been used by many researchers (Judge et al., 2005; Zhang et al. 2014; Lopez et al. 2020, to name a few) and also validated by Holt and Jung (2008) and Gardner and Pierce (2009). The scale consists of 12 questions and uses a 5-point Likert scale, ranging from Strongly Disagree to Strongly Agree, with some questions being reversed scored. It includes questions like “I am confident I get the success I deserve in life” and “I am capable of coping with most of my problems”.

## ***6.3 Translation***

The aforementioned scales have been developed in English. However, since the study took place in Greece, the scales should be translated. The first two scales, regarding destructive leadership and job apathy, were translated by me and my supervisor. The scales regarding work motivation and CSE have already been translated in Greek by other researchers, and after contacting them, I obtained the already validated translation.

## Chapter 7. Results

### *7.1 Psychometric Assessment of Scales*

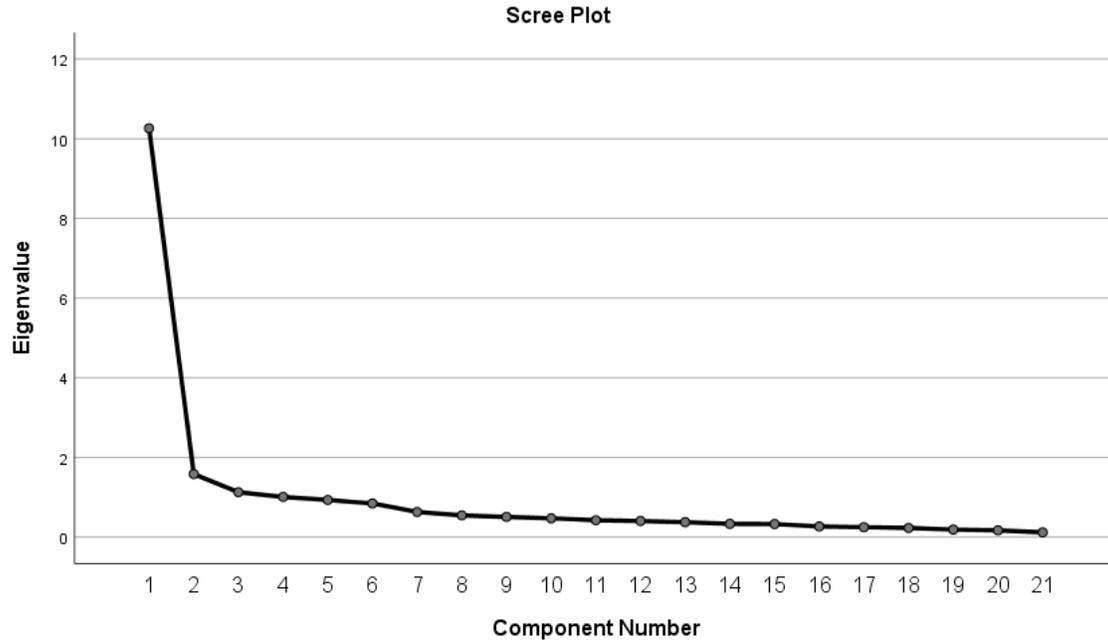
In this section, the scales used will be assessed according to their psychometric characteristics, and the way the variables are used will be explained. In all scales, I performed a principal component analysis, using a varimax rotation<sup>2</sup> with Kaiser normalization. In addition, Corner (2009) argues that with a sample size of 100, only loadings above 0.30 are considered significant, and therefore loadings under 0.30 are suppressed.

Regarding the destructive leadership scale, I use the 14 behavioural items and the 7 personality items, and the PCA shows that there is one main component which explains the 48.87% of the variance (eigen value 10.26). Some more components could be considered, but since the other components have an eigen value of just over 1, as can be seen in the scree plot in Figure 5, it seems reasonable to take only the main component which explains a significant amount of the variance. The reliability analysis shows that the internal consistency of the scale is excellent (Cronbach's alpha is equal to 0.95).

---

<sup>2</sup> The varimax rotation was selected, as it is the most commonly used type of orthogonal rotation. However, since this was selected somewhat arbitrarily, an oblique rotation method, more specifically oblimin rotation, was also performed to make the study more robust. Oblique rotation provided similar results.

Figure 5. Scree plot of the PCA on the destructive leadership scale



The PCA analysis for the scale of job apathy shows that there are two main components, as expected. These two components explain approximately 63% of the variance. Nevertheless, the rotation provides mixed results, as one item that is part of the apathetic action (AA) is assigned by the PCA to the apathetic cognition (AC) component, as can be seen in table 1. In addition, one item that is part of the apathetic action has a higher loading in the apathetic cognition component. Therefore, since the PCA provides mixed results, in this analysis only overall apathy will be considered. The internal consistency of the scale is good (0.89).

Figure 6. Scree plot of the PCA on the job apathy scale

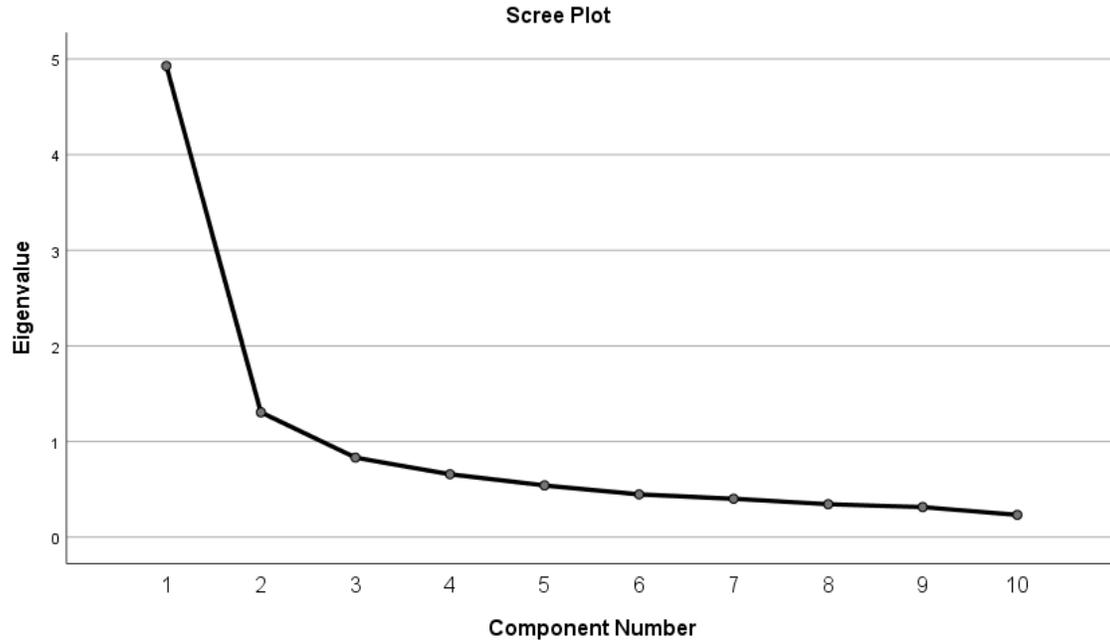


Table 1. Rotated Component Matrix on Job Apathy Scale

	Components	
	1	2
AC3	.88	
AA2	.85	
AC1	.68	.38
AC2	.65	.47
AC4	.63	.40
AA4		.84
AA3		.70
AA5		.69
AC5		.69
AA1	.35	.63

Note. Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis. Rotated Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization. Rotation converged in 3 iterations

Regarding the Multidimension Work Motivation Scale (MWMS), according to theory, it is expected to have 5 components, namely amotivation, external regulation (consisting of both material and social), introjected regulation, identified regulation, and intrinsic motivation. Intrinsic motivation and identified regulation form the autonomous motivation, introjected and external regulation form the controlled motivation, and the amotivation is a separate category. The PCA shows that there are indeed five components with an eigen value greater than 1 (Figure 7). These components explain almost 70% of the variance. However, the rotated loadings provide mixed results.

As it can be seen in Table 2, the three items on amotivation are all placed together in the first component, but the second component contains both the identified regulation and the introjected regulation. The first is considered moderately autonomous, and the second is considered moderately controlled. The third factor is consisted by the intrinsic motivation items, which accounts for the inherently autonomous motivation. Finally, the external regulation items are divided in components 4 and 5.

Following these mixed results, only two components will be used from this scale, namely the amotivation and the intrinsic motivation. Therefore, the hypothesis about autonomous motivation should be modified to test only for inherently autonomous motivation, which is actually the intrinsic motivation. Internal consistency of the inherently autonomous motivation is excellent (0.90) and of the amotivation is good (0.86).

Figure 7. Scree plot of the PCA on the MWMS

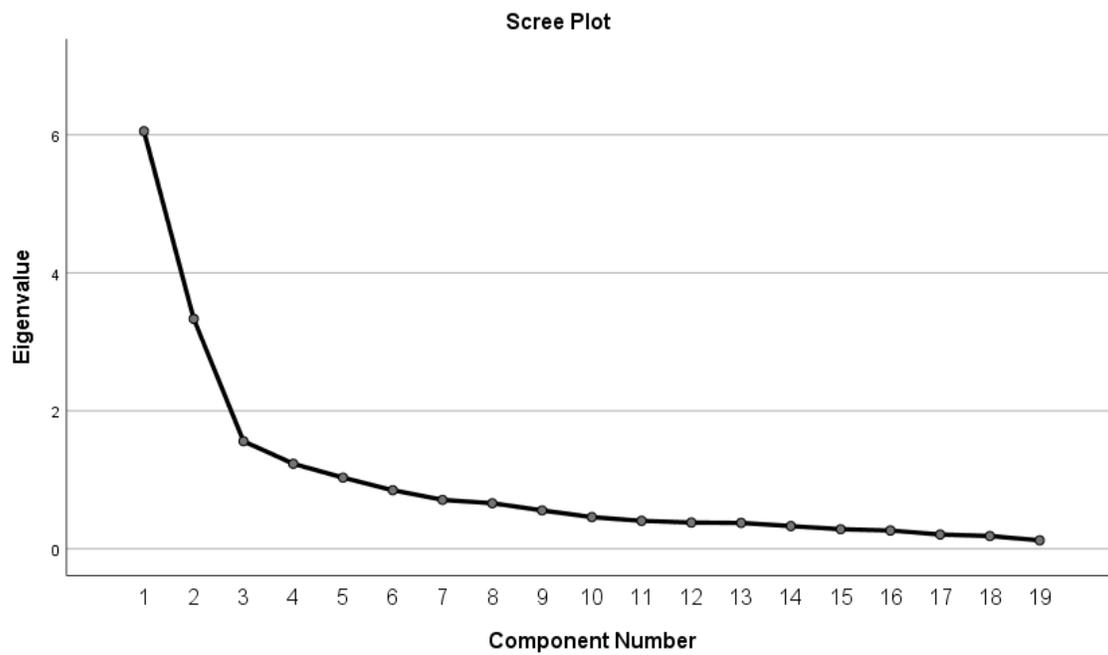


Table 2. Rotated Component Matrix on MWMS

	Components				
	1	2	3	4	5
AM2	.85				
AM1	.84		-.43		
AM3	.68				
ID3	-.60	.46			
IR4		.78			
IR3		.72			
IR1		.64			
IR2		.63	.45		
ID1	-.43	.62			
ID2	-.51	.59			
INTR2			.83		
INTR1	-.32		.80		
INTR3	-.42	.32	.70		
ES1				.83	
ES3				.76	
ES2				.70	
EM2				.67	
EM1					.82
EM3					.62

Note. Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis. Rotated Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization. Rotation converged in 8 iterations. AM=Amotivation, ID=Identified regulation, IR=Introjected regulation, INTR=Intrinsic motivation, ES=External social and EM=External material.

Finally, the scale regarding CSEs is treated as one component in the literature (Judge et al., 2003; Hold and Jung, 2008; Gardner and Pierce, 2009; Harris et al., 2009; Chang et al., 2012; Zhang et al., 2014; Lopez et al., 2020), and therefore there is no need to identify the different components. The scale has a good internal consistency (0.81).

## 7.2 Descriptive Statistics and Correlations

Table 3. Means and Pearson's Correlations between main variables

		Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1	Overall Apathy	2.17	0.82	(.89)									
	Inherently												
2	Autonomous Motivation	5.21	1.69	-.65**	(.90)								
3	Amotivation	2.13	1.50	.69**	-.58**	(.86)							
4	Destructive Leadership	2.99	1.02	.46**	-.47**	.39**	(.95)						
5	CSE	3.44	0.60	-.40**	.50**	-.40**	-.45**	(.81)					
6	Age	33.70	9.87	-.19*	.21*	-.04	.05	.21	-				
7	Gender	0.61	0.49	-.12	.25**	-.18	.01	.00	.03	-			
8	Contract	0.75	0.44	-.08	-.08	-.05	.09	-.07	.07	-.18	-		
9	Tenure	5.53	7.05	-.13	.13	-.01	-.06	.19*	.68**	-.17	.42	-	
10	Experience	10.88	8.90	-.26**	.23*	-.10	.03	.22*	.92**	-.05	.06	.72**	-

Note. \*\* $p < 0.01$ ; \* $p < 0.05$ , 2-tailed.  $N = 115$ . Cronbach's  $\alpha$  for applicable scales is reported in parenthesis along the diagonal. Gender is coded as 1=female, 0=male; Contract is coded as 1=full time, 0=part-time; All scales (1-5) are coded such that higher scores in the scales indicate manifestations of these behaviours; Overall apathy and CSE are measured in a 5-point scale, Destructive leadership is measured in a 6-point scale and Motivation (2 and 3) is measured in a 7-point scale.

The main variables of interest have all statistically significant correlation at 1% significance level. As expected, apathy is positively correlated with destructive leadership

(0.46,) and amotivation (0.69), while it is negatively correlated with the inherently autonomous motivation (-0.65) and the CSE (-0.40). In addition, destructive leadership has a positive correlation with amotivation (0.39), and a negative correlation with inherently autonomous motivation (-0.47) and CSE (-0.45).

Regarding the demographics, most relations are not statistically significant. The only significant ones are the positive relation of age with inherently autonomous motivation (0.21;  $p=0.026$ ) and the negative one with job apathy (-0.19;  $p=0.048$ ). Additionally, gender has a positive correlation with inherently autonomous motivation (0.25;  $p=0.007$ ), something that suggests that the females have a higher autonomous motivation compared to males.

### ***7.3 Main Results***

To test my model, I used the moderated mediation model 8 based on a bias-corrected bootstrapping procedure, via the PROCESS macro in SPSS developed by Hayes (2013). To account for heteroskedasticity, I use robust standard errors, and since my sample size is small, and in order to not make any assumptions about the shape of sampling distribution, I use bootstrap CI with 50.000 replications. In addition, CSE is a continuous moderator, and thus I use the mean-centred option.

In Table 4, the regression outcomes are depicted. In addition to the variables of interest, I control for age, gender, education, organizational tenure and the type of contract (full time, part-time). In regression 1, the inherently autonomous motivation is the dependent variable. It can be seen that if destructive leadership increases by 1 point, inherently autonomous motivation decreases by 0.55. This provides support for hypothesis 2a. Moreover, an increase in CSE by 1 point, increases the inherently autonomous motivation by 0.89. The interaction term, which shows the moderation effect, is significant at 5% significance level ( $p=0.027$ ). However, the Johnson-Neyman significance region is 0.4, which means that the interaction is significant for values of CSE up to 0.4 (in the mean centred CSE, the test provides values between -1.78 and 1.22). This indicates that for low and moderate values, CSE moderates the relationship between destructive leadership and inherently autonomous motivation. As it can be seen in Figure 8, high values of destructive leadership are associated with quite lower values of inherently autonomous motivation for

those who have low and moderate CSE, compared to those with high values of CSE. This provides support for hypothesis 7. However, it should be noted that the bootstrapped results of the index of moderated mediation show that, at the 95% confidence interval, it cannot be excluded that the effect is zero (index of moderated mediation -.048; 95% CI: -.110, .001). Therefore, not strong conclusions should be made.

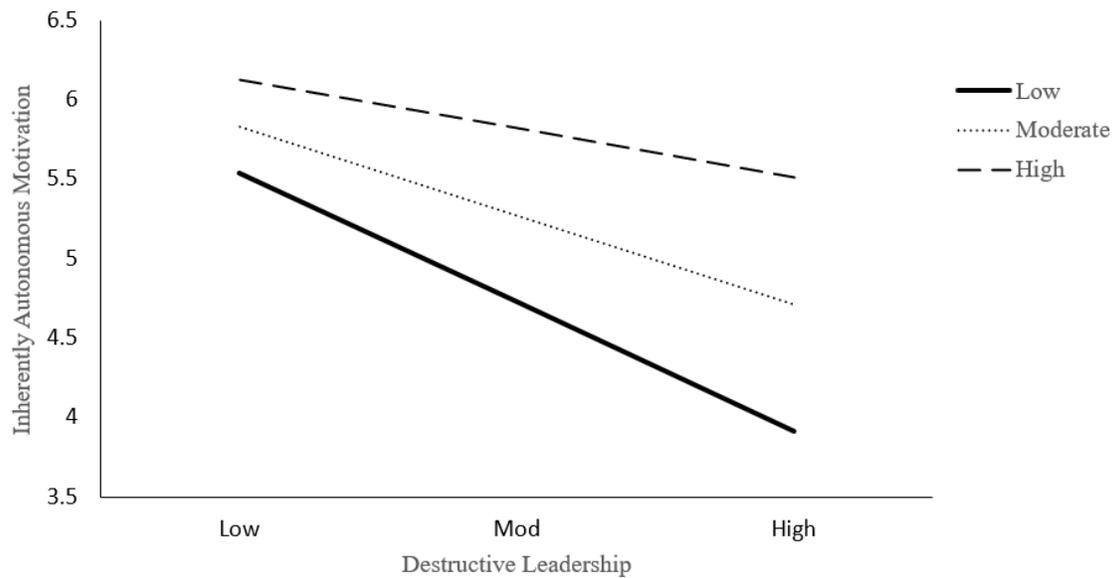
Table 4. Regression outcomes

VARIABLES	(1) Autonomous motivation	(2) Amotivation	(3) Job apathy
Destructive Leadership	-.55** [.17]	.37** [.13]	.15* [.07]
Autonomous Motivation	-	-	-.12** [-.04]
Amotivation	-	-	0.21** [.05]
CSE	.89** [.23]	-.77** [.25]	-.04 [.09]
Interaction (Lead.*CSE)	.41* [.18]	-.45* [.17]	-.17* [0.09]
Age	.18 [.02]	.02 [.03]	-.01 [.01]
Gender	.88** [.30]	-.62* [.28]	-.04 [.15]
Education	0.06 [.21]	-.36 [.23]	-0.08 [.09]
Tenure	.02 [.02]	-.02 [.03]	-.01 [.01]
Contract	-.11 [.25]	-.35 [.30]	-.13 [.14]
Constant	4.02** [.77]	2.93** [.66]	2.76** [.36]
R-squared	0.47	0.36	0.61
Johnson-Neyman significance	0.04	0.24	0.06

Robust standard errors in brackets

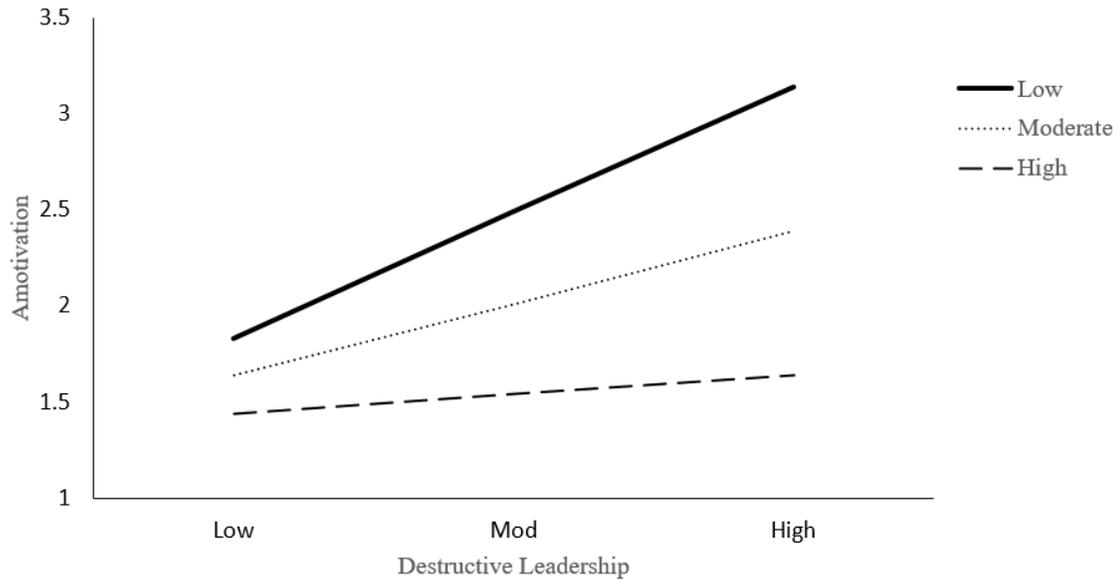
\*\* p<0.01; \* p<0.05

Figure 8. Moderation effects of CSE on the relationship between destructive leadership and inherently autonomous motivation



In regression 2, the dependent variable is amotivation. It can be seen that an increase in destructive leadership by 1 point, increases the employee amotivation by 0.37 points. This provides support for hypothesis 2b. CSE is negatively associated with amotivation, and the interaction term is significant at 5% significance level ( $p=0.01$ ). However, the Johnson-Neyman significance region is 0.24, which means that the interaction is significant for values of CSE up to 0.24 (in the mean centred CSE, the test provides values between -1.78 and 1.22). This indicates that for low and moderate values, CSE moderates the relationship between destructive leadership and amotivation. As it can be seen in Figure 9, employees who have low values of CSE and perceive their supervisor as very destructive, feel way more amotivated compared to the employees with high CSE. The moderated mediation through amotivation is also supported by the moderated mediation index (Bootstrapped 95% CI: -0.193, -0.015). This provides support for hypothesis 8.

Figure 9. Moderation effects of CSE on the relationship between destructive leadership and amotivation



In regression 3 all variables are included and job apathy is the dependent one. It can be seen that an increase in destructive leadership by 1 point, increases job apathy by 0.15 points. This provides support for hypothesis 1. CSE is not significant in the regression, but the interaction term is statistically significant ( $p=0.046$ ). This indicates that CSE moderates the relationship between destructive leadership and job apathy. The Johnson-Neyman significance region is 0.06, which means that the interaction is significant for values of CSE up to 0.06. As it can be seen in Figure 10, the employees with low values of CSE are highly affected by destructive leadership. This effect is smaller for those with moderate values of CSE, while the effect for the employees with high values of CSE is insignificant. Nevertheless, the bootstrap analysis shows that the interaction term may not be significant (Bootstrapped 95% CI:  $-0.334, 0.013$ ). Therefore, there is some indication that hypothesis 5 could be supported, but the support is weak.

Figure 10. Moderation effects of CSE on the relationship between destructive leadership and job apathy

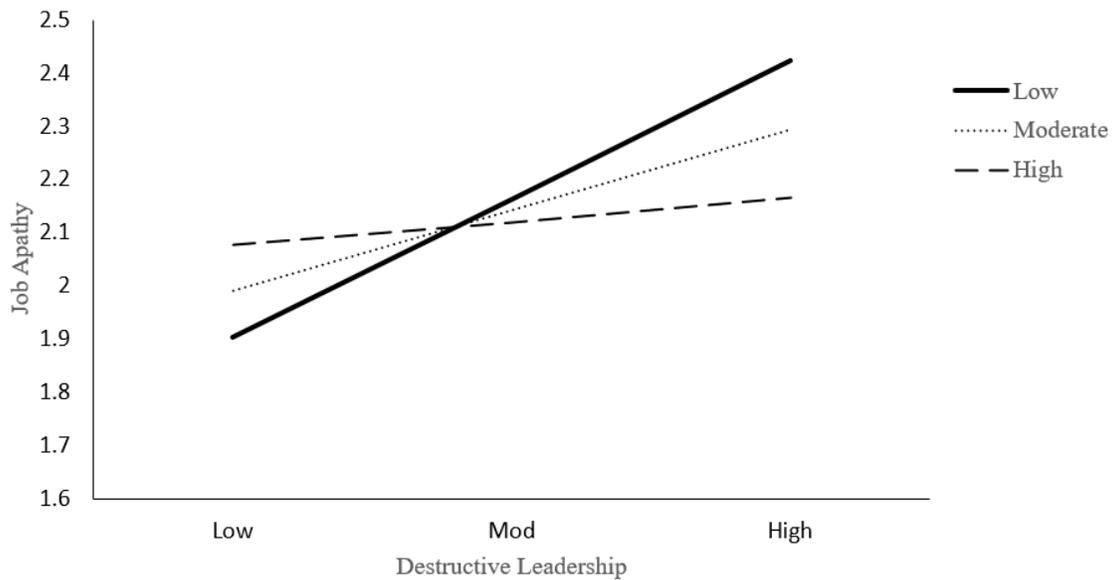


Table 5 depicts the different ways destructive leadership is associated with job apathy in different levels of CSE. For low levels of CSE, there is a direct effect of 0.26 and an indirect effect of 0.23, summing up to a total effect of 0.49. For moderate levels of CSE, the direct effect is 0.15, the indirect 0.14, and the total 0.39. For high levels of CSE, the direct effect is 0.05 and the indirect 0.06, but these effects are not statistically significant. These results show that the relationship between destructive leadership and job apathy is partially mediated by inherently autonomous motivation and amotivation, while CSE seems to moderate this relationship.

Table 5. Direct and Indirect Effects of Destructive Leadership on Job Apathy

Conditional Direct Effects of Destructive Leadership on Job Apathy			
CSE	Effect	SE	p-value
-0.614	0.256	0.090	0.004
0.000	0.150	0.070	0.035
0.614	0.044	0.090	0.626

Indirect Effect through Autonomous motivation				
CSE	Effect	BootSE	BootLLCI	BootULCI
-0.614	0.095	0.039	0.027	0.183
0.000	0.065	0.031	0.015	0.137
0.614	0.035	0.031	-0.011	0.111

Indirect Effect through Amotivation

CSE	Effect	BootSE	BootLLCI	BootULCI
-0.614	0.137	0.051	0.050	0.250
0.000	0.079	0.034	0.021	0.154
0.614	0.021	0.036	-0.042	0.099

The revised model can be seen in Figure 11. The impact of destructive leadership on apathetic cognition and apathetic action could not be tested, as the PCA did not show clear results about the job apathy sub-scales. Additionally, the MWMS had also mixed results in the PCA, and thus only the inherently autonomous motivation was included in the tested model. Finally, table 6 provides an overview of the hypotheses, and which of them were actually supported.

Figure 11. Revised model. Note. \*\* $p < 0.01$ ; \* $p < 0.05$ .

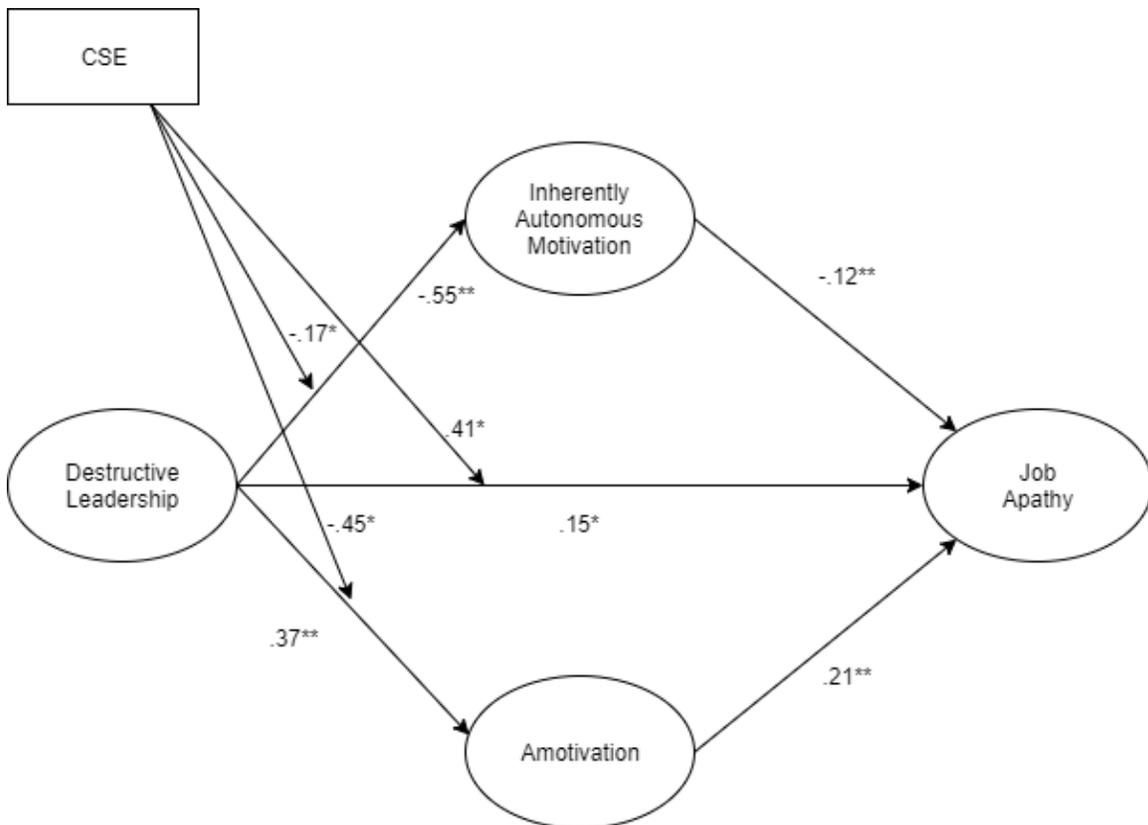


Table 6. Hypotheses overview

Hypotheses	Result
H1. Destructive leadership positively relates to job apathy.	Supported
H1a. Destructive leadership positively relates to apathetic cognition.	Not tested
H1b. Destructive leadership positively relates to apathetic action.	Not tested
H2a. Destructive leadership negatively relates to autonomous work motivation.	Supported only for inherently autonomous motivation
H2b. Destructive leadership positively relates to amotivation.	Supported
H3. Autonomous work motivation negatively relates to job apathy.	Supported only for inherently autonomous motivation
H3a. Autonomous work motivation negatively relates to apathetic cognition.	Not tested
H3b. Autonomous work motivation negatively relates to apathetic actions.	Not tested
H4. Amotivation positively relates to job apathy.	Supported
H4a. Amotivation positively relates to apathetic cognition.	Not tested
H4b. Amotivation positively relates to apathetic actions.	Not tested
H5. The relationship between destructive leadership and job apathy is mediated by autonomous work motivation and amotivation.	Supported
H5a. The relationship between destructive leadership and apathetic cognition is mediated by autonomous work motivation and amotivation.	Not tested
H5b. The relationship between destructive leadership and apathetic action is mediated by autonomous work motivation and amotivation.	Not tested
H6. CSE moderates the relationship between destructive leadership and job apathy, such that the relationship is weakened for those individuals with higher, rather than lower, levels of CSEs.	Weak support

H6a. CSE moderates the relationship between destructive leadership and apathetic cognition, such that the relationship is weakened for those individuals with higher, rather than lower, levels of CSEs.	Not tested
H6b. CSE moderates the relationship between destructive leadership and apathetic action, such that the relationship is weakened for those individuals with higher, rather than lower, levels of CSEs.	Not tested
H7. CSE moderates the relation between destructive leadership and autonomous work motivation, such that the relation is weaker when the level of CSE is high rather than low.	Weak support, only for inherently autonomous motivation
H8. CSE moderates the relation between destructive leadership and amotivation, such that the relation is weaker when the level of CSE is high rather than low.	Supported

---

## Chapter 8. Discussion

The purpose of this study was to identify the relationship between destructive leadership and employee job apathy, and test whether this relationship is mediated by work motivation and moderated by CSE. The results indicate that destructive leadership is negatively associated with job apathy, and inherently autonomous motivation and amotivation partially mediate this relationship. Finally, this relationship is stronger for those with low scores of CSE.

### *8.1 Theoretical Implications*

To the best of my knowledge, this study is the first to treat job apathy as the outcome variable, and not the predictor. As Schmidt et al. (2017, p. 499) mention that even though apathy is present in the workplace, it “has been a topic neglected in academic research”. Therefore, this study provides new insights on the predictors of job apathy. The analysis showed that destructive leadership affects job apathy both directly and indirectly.

Schmidt et al. (2017) argue that apathy is determined both by personal characteristics, and by the work environment. Since a destructive supervisor is part of the work environment, this study confirms the claim of Schmidt et al. (2017), showing that the work environment affects job apathy. In addition, this study also provides support for the fact that personal characteristics can facilitate or reduce job apathy. This is evident by the strong relation between destructive leadership and job apathy for the employees with low score of CSE, in addition with the insignificant relationship for those with high score of CSE.

Regarding the demographic characteristics, as in previous studies (Schmidt et al., 2017; Ugwu et al., 2019; Zolotareva, 2020) there was not found a significant correlation between job apathy and gender or education. In contrast with Schmidt et al. (2017) and Ugwu et al. (2019), job apathy in this study is negatively correlated with age ( $r = -.19$ ,  $p=.048$ ). This is partially in line with Zolotareva (2020), who found for the sub-scale of apathetic actions that older groups reported lower values of apathy. Job apathy is also negative correlated with overall work experience ( $r = -.26$ ,  $p=.005$ ), which may also explain the fact that older employees report less work-related apathy.

Additionally, destructive leadership and work motivation seem to be closely linked. The negative effect of destructive leadership on work motivation is even mentioned in the more widely accepted definition of destructive leadership by Einarsen et al. (2007). Moreover, Schyns and Schilling (2013, p.143) argue that destructive leadership is likely to have a long-term effect on subordinates' work motivation, as "keeping up motivation in the light of abuse is unlikely in the longer run". In addition, Erickson et al. (2007) in their qualitative study, reported that lowered motivation was the most frequent outcome of destructive leadership. Nevertheless, the quantitative research of this relationship is limited. One of the few quantitative studies is the one of Elangovan and Xie (2000), who performed a study in the effects of coercive power of the supervisor, and did not report a significant relationship with the subordinate's motivation to work. Thus, the current study offers some relevant insights, and offers some support to the view that destructive leadership negatively relates to positive job-related concepts, and positively relates to negative job-related concepts. The direct effect of destructive leadership to inherently autonomous motivation is  $-.55$  ( $p=.001$ ), and the direct effect to amotivation is  $.37$  ( $p=.005$ ).

Another interesting result is the moderating effects of CSE. This study offers support of the moderation in the relationship between destructive leadership and amotivation, and some indication of possible moderation effects between destructive leadership and inherently autonomous motivation, as well as job apathy. Previous research has shown that CSE can buffer the negative effects on job satisfaction (Harris et al., 2009) and on performance (Lopez et al., 2020). This study shows that CSE can also buffer the negative effects on (the lack of) work motivation. To elucidate, destructive leadership did not have a significant effect for the well-adjusted, competent and confident individuals, while this effect on the less competent and confident was significant.

Finally, the effect of destructive leadership on job apathy should also be taken into consideration as one of the possible outcomes of destructive leaders. This is added to the already known deleterious effects of destructive leaders. By reducing work motivation and increasing job apathy, destructive leaders harm both the organisation and their subordinates.

## ***8.2 Practical Implications***

The results of this study offer some important findings that can be used by organisations. Firstly, the findings support the previous literature on the deleterious effects of destructive leadership on both the employees and the organisation. To address this problem, organisations should be more alert to recognise destructive leaders, and they should have a mechanism in place to handle with them. For example, organisations can have in place management development programmes, aimed at reducing the frequency of destructive leadership.

Secondly, the fact that destructive leadership has an effect on the subordinates' work motivation and job apathy, indicates that the organisation should offer support to these employees, and try to increase their work engagement. Trepanier et al. (2013) show that the basic psychologic needs (autonomy, competence and relatedness), that are central to self-determination theory, are positively associated with work engagement. Therefore, organisations could focus on helping employees fulfil these needs.

Finally, the fact that high levels of CSE can buffer the disastrous effects of destructive leadership on employees, offers some insights into dealing with this type of leadership. Organisations should offer support and resources to their employees, so they can increase their levels of CSE and they should also consider the subordinate's CSE when matching supervisors with employees.

## ***8.4 Limitations***

As with all studies, this one has some limitations. The most significant limitation has to do with the sample. Firstly, the sample was not randomly selected, as the convenience sampling method was used. Secondly, the sample size is considered somewhat small. To address this, the bootstrapped technique was used. Using bootstrap makes this study more robust.

Another limitation, which is possibly derived by the small sample size, is that PCA did not show the expected results. In particular, the scales of job apathy and MWMS provided mixed results in the rotated loadings. This restricted the research that could be performed, as it was not possible to test some of the hypotheses, regarding the autonomous

motivation, and the categories of job apathy, namely apathetic cognition and apathetic action. Nevertheless, even without being able to test for these concepts, the analysis that was performed offers important insights.

Another limitation of this study is that for the scales of destructive leadership and job apathy, the back translation process was not followed, and these scales are not validated in a Greek sample. However, these scales showed a very good internal consistency, and there is no reason to believe that the translation process that was followed affected the study in any way.

### ***8.5 Future Research***

This study provides a starting point on the research regarding job apathy as an outcome. Future research should try and establish that the relationship found in this study holds in different samples and in different cultures. In addition, future studies should focus on gathering longitudinal data and establish a causal relationship between the antecedents and job apathy. Moreover, other antecedents, like job insecurity, workplace conflict and job dissatisfaction should be explored as a cause of job apathy.

Another interesting point for future research, would be a study that makes a distinction between the private and the public sector. A recent study of destructive leadership in the Greek public sector stressed the negative impacts of destructive leadership in the public servants' performance (Bellou and Dimou, 2021). Similar studies should address the impact of destructive leadership on employee job apathy, and test whether destructive leadership affects private and public employees in the same way.

From the practical perspective, more research should be performed on how organisations can help employees deal with a destructive supervisor, through an increase in their CSE. This means that future research should focus on what type of support could help employees have higher levels of CSEs. Finally, robust processes should be created and validated in the scientific literature, so that organisations can identify and deal with destructive leaders in an effective and timely manner.

## Chapter 9. Conclusion

This research aimed to investigate the effects of destructive leadership on employee job apathy, through autonomous motivation and amotivation. Based on the quantitative analysis on a Greek sample of 115 employees, it can be concluded that destructive leadership is negatively associated with job apathy, and this relationship is partially mediated by inherently autonomous motivation and amotivation, as described by self-determination theory. In addition, the results indicate that CSE can moderate this relationship, as the direct and indirect effects of destructive leadership on job apathy are stronger for the individuals with low score on the CSE scale. These individuals have generally a lack of confidence as well as low self-esteem. For the individuals with high values of CSE, the researched relationship is not statistically significant. This shows that high values of CSE can protect employees of their destructive supervisors.

This study is the first to research how destructive leadership affects job apathy, and some important contributions to the literature were made. Firstly, it becomes clear that destructive leadership is something that organisations should pay attention to, as it can lead to adverse organisational outcomes, like lowered motivation and job apathy. Secondly, by using job apathy as the outcome variable, this study offers some first understanding of the antecedents of job apathy and it paves the way for future research to look more into what causes job apathy in employees. Finally, the results of this study also offer some practical implications for the organisations, since by helping their employees to enhance their CSEs, the effects of destructive leadership can be mitigated.

## References

- Aasland, M.S., Skogstad, A., Notelaers, G., Nielsen, M.B., and Einarsen, S., 2010. The prevalence of destructive leadership behaviour. *British Journal of Management*, 21 (2), 438–452.
- Antonakis, H. and House, R.J., 2013. The Full-Range Leadership Theory: The Way Forward. In: *Transformational and Charismatic Leadership: The Road Ahead 10th Anniversary Edition*. Emerald Group Publishing Limited, 3–33.
- Bakker, A.B., Van Emmerik, H., and Euwema, M.C., 2006. Crossover of burnout and engagement in work teams. *Work and Occupations*, 33 (4), 464–489.
- Barlow, D.H., Ellard, K.K., Sauer-Zavala, S., Bullis, J.R., and Carl, J.R., 2014. The Origins of Neuroticism. *Perspectives on Psychological Science*, 9 (5), 481–496.
- Bass, B. M. 1985. Leadership and performance beyond expectations. New York, NY: The Free Press.
- Bass, B.M. 2009. *The Bass handbook of leadership: Theory, research, and managerial applications*. Simon and Schuster.
- Bass, B.M. and Avolio, B.J. eds., 1994. Improving organizational effectiveness through transformational leadership. sage.
- Battistelli, A., Galletta, M., Odoardi, C., Núñez, J., and Ntalianis, F., 2017. Proposal for a version of MWMS across Mediterranean countries a validation study in Greece, Italy, and Spain. *European Journal of Psychological Assessment*, 33 (2), 104–115.
- Bellou, V. and Dimou, M., 2021. The Impact of Destructive Leadership on Public Servants' Performance: The Mediating Role of Leader-member Exchange, Perceived Organizational Support and Job Satisfaction. *International Journal of Public Administration*, 00 (00), 1–11.
- Berry, C.M., Ones, D.S., and Sackett, P.R., 2007. Interpersonal deviance, organizational deviance, and their common correlates: A review and meta-analysis. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 92 (2), 410–424.

- Blankenship, A., 1942. Psychological difficulties in measuring consumer preference. *Journal of Marketing*, 6(4\_part\_2), pp.66-75.
- Blascovich, J., Tomaka, J., Robinson, J.P., Shaver, P.R. and Wrightsman, L.S., 1991. Measures of self-esteem. *Measures of personality and social psychological attitudes*, 1, pp.115-160.
- Bono, J.E. and Judge, T.A., 2003. Core Self-Evaluations: A Review of the Trait and its Role in Job Satisfaction and Job Performance. *European Journal of Personality*, 17 (SPEC. 1), 5–18.
- Brody, H., Altendorf, A., Withall, A., and Sachdev, P., 2010. Do people become more apathetic as they grow older? A longitudinal study in healthy individuals. *International Psychogeriatrics*, 22 (3), 426–436.
- Van den Broeck, A., Ferris, D.L., Chang, C.H., and Rosen, C.C., 2016. A Review of Self-Determination Theory's Basic Psychological Needs at Work. *Journal of Management*, 42 (5), 1195–1229.
- Van den Broeck, A., Lens, W., De Witte, H., and Van Coillie, H., 2013. Unraveling the importance of the quantity and the quality of workers' motivation for well-being: A person-centered perspective. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 82 (1), 69–78.
- Burke, R.J., 2006. Why leaders fail: Exploring the darkside. *International Journal of Manpower*, 27 (1), 91–100.
- Burns, J.M., 1978. Leadership.
- Chang, C.H., Ferris, D.L., Johnson, R.E., Rosen, C.C., and Tan, J.A., 2012. Core self-evaluations: A review and evaluation of the literature. *Journal of Management*, 38 (1), 81–128.
- Chen, G., Gully, S.M., and Eden, D., 2004. General self-efficacy and self-esteem: Toward theoretical and empirical distinction between correlated self-evaluations. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 25 (3), 375–395.
- Conger, J.A., 1990. The dark side of leadership. *Organizational Dynamics*, 19 (2), 44–55.

- Conger, J.A. and Kanungo, R.N., 1998. *Charismatic leadership in organizations*. Sage Publications.
- Corner, S., 2009. Choosing the right type of rotation in PCA and EFA. *JALT testing & evaluation SIG newsletter*, 13(3), pp.20-25.
- Courtright, S.H., Gardner, R.G., Smith, T.A., McCormick, B.W. and Colbert, A.E., 2016. My family made me do it: A cross-domain, self-regulatory perspective on antecedents to abusive supervision. *Academy of Management Journal*, 59(5), pp.1630-1652.
- Deci, E.L., 1971. Effects of externally mediated rewards on intrinsic motivation. *Journal of personality and Social Psychology*, 18(1), p.105.
- Deci, E.L., Koestner, R. and Ryan, R.M., 1999. A meta-analytic review of experiments examining the effects of extrinsic rewards on intrinsic motivation. *Psychological bulletin*, 125(6), p.627.
- Deci, E.L., Olafsen, A.H., and Ryan, R.M., 2017. Self-Determination Theory in Work Organizations: The State of a Science. *Annual Review of Organizational Psychology and Organizational Behavior*, 4, 19–43.
- Deci, E.L. and Ryan, R.M., 1985. The general causality orientations scale: Self-determination in personality. *Journal of research in personality*, 19(2), pp.109-134.
- Deci, E.L. and Ryan, R.M., 2000. The ‘what’ and ‘why’ of goal pursuits: Human needs and the self-determination of behavior. *Psychological Inquiry*, 11 (4), 227–268.
- Deci, E.L., Ryan, R.M., Gagné, M., Leone, D.R., Usunov, J., and Kornazheva, B.P., 2001. Need satisfaction, motivation, and well-being in the work organizations of a former eastern bloc country: A cross-cultural study of self-determination. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, 27 (8), 930–942.
- Deckard, G.J., 2011. Trait and behavioral theories of leadership. *Organizational Behavior in Health Care*, 177–189.
- Derue, D.S., Nahrgang, J.D., Wellman, N., and Humphrey, S.E., 2011. Trait and

behavioral theories of leadership: An integration and meta-analytic test of their relative validity. *Personnel Psychology*, 64 (1), 7–52.

- Diefendorff, J.M. and Mehta, K., 2007. The Relations of Motivational Traits With Workplace Deviance. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 92 (4), 967–977.
- Dolce, V., Vayre, E., Molino, M., and Ghislieri, C., 2020. Far away, so close? The role of destructive leadership in the job demands–resources and recovery model in emergency telework. *Social Sciences*, 9 (11), 1–22.
- Elangovan, A.R. and Xie, J.L., 2000. Effects of perceived power of supervisor on subordinate work attitudes. *Leadership & Organization Development Journal*.
- Einarsen, S., Aasland, M.S., and Skogstad, A., 2007. Destructive leadership behaviour: A definition and conceptual model. *Leadership Quarterly*, 18 (3), 207–216.
- Erickson, A., Shaw, J.B., and Agabe, Z., 2007. An empirical investigation of the antecedents, behaviors, and outcomes of bad leadership. *Journal of Leadership Studies*, 1 (3), 26–43.
- Fay, D. and Frese, M., 2001. The Concept of Personal Initiative: An Overview of Validity Studies. *Human Performance*, 14 (1), 97–124.
- Ferris, G.R., Zinko, R., Brouer, R.L., Buckley, M.R., and Harvey, M.G., 2007. Strategic bullying as a supplementary, balanced perspective on destructive leadership. *Leadership Quarterly*, 18 (3), 195–206.
- Fiedler, F.E. 1978. The Contingency Model and the Dynamics of the Leadership Process.
- Fleenor, J.W., 2006. Trait approach to leadership. *Psychology*, 37 (1), 651–665.
- Fosse, T.H., Skogstad, A., Einarsen, S.V., and Martinussen, M., 2019. Active and passive forms of destructive leadership in a military context: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology*, 28 (5), 708–722.
- Fors Brandebo, M., Österberg, J. and Berglund, A.K., 2019. The impact of constructive and destructive leadership on soldier’s job satisfaction. *Psychological*

*reports*, 122(3), pp.1068-1086.

Gagné, M. and Deci, E.L., 2005. Self-determination theory and work motivation. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 26 (4), 331–362.

Gagné, M., Forest, J., Gilbert, M.H., Aubé, C., Morin, E. and Malorni, A., 2010. The motivation at work scale: Validation evidence in two languages. *Educational and psychological measurement*, 70(4), pp.628-646.

Gagné, M., Forest, J., Vansteenkiste, M., Crevier-Braud, L., van den Broeck, A., Aspel, A.K., Bellerose, J., Benabou, C., Chemolli, E., Güntert, S.T., Halvari, H., Indiyastuti, D.L., Johnson, P.A., Molstad, M.H., Naudin, M., Ndao, A., Olafsen, A.H., Roussel, P., Wang, Z., and Westbye, C., 2015. The Multidimensional Work Motivation Scale: Validation evidence in seven languages and nine countries. *European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology*, 24 (2), 178–196.

Gardner, D.G. and Pierce, J.L., 2010. The core self-evaluation scale: Further construct validation evidence. *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, 70(2), pp.291-304.

Harris, K.J., Harvey, P. and Kacmar, K.M., 2009. Do social stressors impact everyone equally? An examination of the moderating impact of core self-evaluations. *Journal of Business and Psychology*, 24(2), pp.153-164.

Hayes, A.F., 2013. Introduction to mediation, moderation, and conditional process analysis: A regression-based practice.

Hayes, A. F. (2017). Partial, conditional, and moderated moderated mediation: Quantification, inference, and interpretation. *Communication Monographs*, 85(1), 4–40.

Herzog, A.R. and Bachman, J.G., 1981. Effects of questionnaire length on response quality. *Public opinion quarterly*, 45(4), pp.549-559.

Holt, D.T. and Jung, H.H., 2008. Development of a Korean version of a core self evaluations scale. *Psychological Reports*, 103(2), pp.415-425.

- House, R.J. and Aditya, R.N., 1997. The social scientific study of leadership: Quo vadis?. *Journal of management*, 23(3), pp.409-473.
- Howard, J., Gagné, M., Morin, A.J.S., and Van den Broeck, A., 2016. Motivation profiles at work: A self-determination theory approach. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 95–96, 74–89.
- Hulin, C.L. and Hanisch, K.A., 1991. General Attitudes and Organizational Withdrawal : An Evaluation of a Causal Model. *Journal Of Vocational Behavior*, 39, 110–128.
- Israel, G.D. and Taylor, C.L., 1990. Can response order bias evaluations?. *Evaluation and Program Planning*, 13(4), pp.365-371.
- Johns, G., 2006. The essential impact of context on organizational behavior. *Academy of management review*, 31(2), pp.386-408.
- Johnson, R.E., Rosen, C.C., and Djurdjevic, E., 2011. Assessing the Impact of Common Method Variance on Higher Order Multidimensional Constructs. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 96 (4), 744–761.
- Johnson, R.E., Rosen, C.C., and Levy, P., 2008. Getting to the core of core self-evaluation: a review and recommendations. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 29, 391–413.
- Judge, T.A. and Bono, J.E., 2001. Relationship of core self-evaluations traits - Self-esteem, generalized self-efficacy, locus of control, and emotional stability - With job satisfaction and job performance: A meta-analysis. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 86 (1), 80–92.
- Judge, T.A., Bono, J.E., Ilies, R., and Gerhardt, M.W., 2002. Personality and leadership: A qualitative and quantitative review. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 87 (4), 765–780.
- Judge, T.A., Erez, A., Bono, J.E., and Thoresen, C.J., 2002. Are measures of self-esteem, neuroticism, locus of control, and generalized self-efficacy indicators of a common core construct? *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 83 (3), 693–710.

- Judge, T.A., Erez, A., Bono, J.E., and Thoresen, C.J., 2003. The core self-evaluations scale: Development of a measure. *Personnel Psychology*, 56 (2), 303–331.
- Judge, T.A., Van Vianen, A.E.M., and De Pater, I.E., 2004. Emotional stability, core self-evaluations, and job outcomes: A review of the evidence and an agenda for future research. *Human Performance*, 17 (3), 325–346.
- Judge, T.A., Bono, J.E., Erez, A. and Locke, E.A., 2005. Core self-evaluations and job and life satisfaction: the role of self-concordance and goal attainment. *Journal of applied psychology*, 90(2), p.257.
- Kaplan, S.A., Bradley, J.C., and Ruscher, J.B., 2004. The inhibitory role of cynical disposition in the provision and receipt of social support: the case of the September 11th terrorist attacks. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 37 (6), 1221–1232.
- Kellerman, B., 2004. *Bad leadership: What it is, how it happens, why it matters*. Harvard Business Press.
- Kim, H.J., Shin, K.H., and Swanger, N., 2009. Burnout and engagement: A comparative analysis using the Big Five personality dimensions. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 28 (1), 96–104.
- Kirkpatrick, S.A. and Locke, E.A., 1991. Leadership: do traits matter? *Academy of management perspectives*, 5 (2), 48–60.
- Krasikova, D. V., Green, S.G., and LeBreton, J.M., 2013. Destructive Leadership: A Theoretical Review, Integration, and Future Research Agenda. *Journal of Management*, 39 (5), 1308–1338.
- Kruse, K., 2013. What is leadership? *Forbes magazine*, p. 3.
- Ladebo, O.J., 2005. Effects of Work-related Attitudes on the Intention, 33 (3), 355–369.
- Lefcourt, H.M., 1991. *Locus of Control*. Third Revi. Measures of Personality and Social Psychological Attitudes. Academic Press, Inc.
- Lewin, K., 1951. Field theory in social science: selected theoretical papers (Edited by Dorwin Cartwright.).

- Liden, R.C. and Antonakis, J., 2009. Considering context in psychological leadership research. *Human relations*, 62(11), pp.1587-1605.
- Lipman-Blumen, J., 2005. Toxic leadership: When grand illusions masquerade as noble visions. *Leader to Leader*, 2005 (36), 29–36.
- Lopez, Y.P., Dohrn, S. and Posig, M., 2020. The effect of abusive leadership by coaches on Division I student-athletes' performance: The moderating role of core self-evaluations. *Sport Management Review*, 23(1), pp.130-141.
- Lord, R.G., Day, D.V., Zaccaro, S.J., Avolio, B.J. and Eagly, A.H., 2017. Leadership in applied psychology: Three waves of theory and research. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 102(3), p.434.
- Ma, H., Karri, R., and Chittipeddi, K., 2004. The paradox of managerial tyranny. *Business Horizons*, 47 (4), 33–40.
- Mackey, J.D., Ellen III, B.P., McAllister, C.P. and Alexander, K.C., 2020. The dark side of leadership: A systematic literature review and meta-analysis of destructive leadership research. *Journal of Business Research*.
- Marin, R.S., 1990. Differential diagnosis and classification of apathy. *American Journal of Psychiatry*, 147 (1), 22–30.
- Maslach, C., Schaufeli, W.B., and Leiter, M.P., 2001. Job burnout. *Annual Review of Psychology*, 1 (52), 397–422.
- McCall, M.W. and Lombardo, M.M., 1983. *Off the track: Why and how successful executives get derailed*. Center for Creative Leadership.
- Mackey, J.D., 2021. Why and how predators pick prey: Followers' personality and performance as predictors of destructive leadership. *Journal of Business Research*, 130, pp.159-169.
- Notelaers, G., De Witte, H. and Einarsen, S., 2010. A job characteristics approach to explain workplace bullying. *European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology*, 19(4), pp.487-504.

- Oc, B., 2018. Contextual leadership: A systematic review of how contextual factors shape leadership and its outcomes. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 29(1), pp.218-235.
- O'Connor, J., Mumford, M.D., Clifton, T.C., Gessner, T.L., and Connelly, M.S., 1995. Charismatic leaders and destructiveness: An historiometric study. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 6 (4), 529–555.
- Orth, U. and Robins, R.W., 2014. The Development of Self-Esteem. *Current Directions in Psychological Science*, 23 (5), 381–387.
- Paunonen, S. V., Lönnqvist, J.E., Verkasalo, M., Leikas, S., and Nissinen, V., 2006. Narcissism and emergent leadership in military cadets. *Leadership Quarterly*, 17 (5), 475–486.
- Pelletier, K.L., 2010. Leader toxicity: An empirical investigation of toxic behavior and rhetoric. *Leadership*, 6 (4), 373–389.
- Podolny, J.M., Khurana, R., and Hill-Popper, M., 2004. Revisiting the Meaning of Leadership. *Research in Organizational Behavior*, 26 (04), 1–36.
- Porter, L.W. and Lawler, E.E., 1968. *What job attitudes tell about motivation* (pp. 118-126). Harvard Business Review Reprint Service.
- Porter, L.W. and McLaughlin, G.B., 2006. Leadership and the organizational context: like the weather?. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 17(6), pp.559-576.
- Rafferty, A.E. and Restubog, S.L.D., 2011. The influence of abusive supervisors on followers' organizational citizenship behaviours: The hidden costs of abusive supervision. *British Journal of Management*, 22 (2), 270–285.
- Reed, G.E., 2004. Toxic leadership. *Military review*, 84 (4), 67–71.
- Ryan, R.M., Connell, J.P. and Deci, E.L., 1985. A motivational analysis of self-determination and self-regulation in education. *Research on motivation in education: The classroom milieu*, 2, pp.13-51.
- Schaufeli, W., Salanova, M., González-romá, V., and Bakker, A., 2002. The Measurement of Engagement and Burnout: A Two Sample Confirmatory Factor

- Analytic Approach. *Journal of Happiness studies*, 3 (1), 71–92.
- Schmidt, G.B., Park, G., Keeney, J., and Ghumman, S., 2017. Job Apathy: Scale Development and Initial Validation. *Journal of Career Assessment*, 25 (3), 484–501.
- Scholz, U., Doña, B.G., Sud, S., and Schwarzer, R., 2002. Is general self-efficacy a universal construct? Psychometric findings from 25 countries. *European Journal of Psychological Assessment*, 18 (3), 242–251.
- Schyns, B. and Schilling, J., 2013. How bad are the effects of bad leaders? A meta-analysis of destructive leadership and its outcomes. *Leadership Quarterly*, 24 (1), 138–158.
- Van Seters, D.A. and Field, R.H.G., 1990. The Evolution of Leadership Theory. *Journal of Organizational Change Management*, 3 (3), 29–45.
- Shackleton, V. (1995). Leaders who derail. In V. Shackleton (Ed.), *Business leadership*. London: Thomson.
- Shaw, J.B., Erickson, A., and Harvey, M., 2011. A method for measuring destructive leadership and identifying types of destructive leaders in organizations. *Leadership Quarterly*, 22 (4), 575–590.
- Shaw, J.B., Erickson, A., and Nassirzadeh, F., 2014. Destructive leader behaviour: A study of Iranian leaders using the Destructive Leadership Questionnaire. *Leadership*, 10 (2), 218–239.
- Song, B., Qian, J., Wang, B., Yang, M. and Zhai, A., 2017. Are you hiding from your boss? Leader's destructive personality and employee silence. *Social Behavior and Personality: an international journal*, 45(7), pp.1167-1174.
- Skogstad, A., Einarsen, S., Torsheim, T., Aasland, M.S., and Hetland, H., 2007. The destructiveness of laissez-faire leadership behavior. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, 12 (1), 80–92.
- Sockeel, P., Dujardin, K., Devos, D., Denève, C., Destée, A., and Defebvre, L., 2006. The Lille apathy rating scale (LARS), a new instrument for detecting and

quantifying apathy: validation in Parkinson's disease. *Journal of Neurology, Neurosurgery & Psychiatry*, 77 (5), 579 LP – 584.

- Spector, P.E., 1975. Relationships of Organizational Frustration with Reported Behavioral Reactions of Employees, 60, 635–637.
- Stuss, D., Van Reekum, R. and Murphy, K., 2000. Apathy states. *Neuropsychology of emotion*, pp.872-877.
- Summerfield, M.R., 2014. Leadership: a simple definition. *American journal of health-system pharmacy : AJHP : official journal of the American Society of Health-System Pharmacists*, 71 (3), 251–253.
- Tepper, B.J., 2000. Consequences of abusive supervision. *Academy of Management Journal*, 43 (2), 178–190.
- Thoroughgood, C.N., Sawyer, K.B., Padilla, A., and Lunsford, L., 2018. Destructive Leadership: A Critique of Leader-Centric Perspectives and Toward a More Holistic Definition. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 151 (3), 627–649.
- Trépanier, S.G., Fernet, C. and Austin, S., 2013. Workplace bullying and psychological health at work: The mediating role of satisfaction of needs for autonomy, competence and relatedness. *Work & Stress*, 27(2), pp.123-140.
- Ugwu, F.O., Onyishi, I.E., Egwu, O.I., Akanu, O.O., Groupson, O., and Agudiegwu, M., 2019. Job apathy and work engagement: Moderating influence of perceived leader integrity and spiritual intelligence in a Nigerian mass transit company. *Journal of Psychology in Africa*, 29 (2), 104–109.
- Vroom, V.H. and Jago, A.G., 2007. The role of the situation in leadership. *American Psychologist*, 62 (1), 17–24.
- Watson, D. and Clark, L.A., 1984. Negative affectivity: The disposition to experience aversive emotional states. *Psychological Bulletin*.
- Watson, D., Clark, L.A., and Telgen, A., 1988. Development and Validation of Brief Measures of Positive and Negative Affect: The PANAS Scales. *Journal of*

*Personality and Social Psychology*, 54 (6), 1063–1070.

Winston, B. and Patterson, K., 2006. An integrative definition of leadership.

*International journal of leadership studies*, 1 (2), 6–66.

Zhang, H., Kwan, H.K., Zhang, X. and Wu, L.Z., 2014. High core self-evaluators maintain creativity: A motivational model of abusive supervision. *Journal of Management*, 40(4), pp.1151-1174.

Zolotareva, A.A., 2020. A Pilot Study to Assess the Psychometric Properties of the Job Apathy Scale with Russian Employees. *Psychology in Russia: State of the Art*, 13 (3), 51–65.

## Appendix

5/7/2021

Το παρόν ερωτηματολόγιο αποτελεί μέρος της έρευνάς μου στο πλαίσιο εκπόνησης διπλωματικής εργασίας μεταπτυχιακού επιπέδου ...

Το παρόν ερωτηματολόγιο αποτελεί μέρος της έρευνάς μου στο πλαίσιο εκπόνησης διπλωματικής εργασίας μεταπτυχιακού επιπέδου και αποσκοπεί στην εξέταση της σχέσης καταστροφικής ηγεσίας και εργασιακής απάθειας στους εργαζομένους. Οι απαντήσεις είναι απολύτως ανώνυμες και εμπιστευτικές, ενώ θα χρησιμοποιηθούν μόνο για ερευνητικό σκοπό. Δεδομένου ότι δεν υπάρχουν σωστές και λάθος απαντήσεις, σας παρακαλούμε να είστε ειλικρινής κατά τη συμπλήρωση του ερωτηματολογίου. Σας ευχαριστούμε θερμά εκ των προτέρων για τον χρόνο που θα διαθέσετε.

\* Required

Δημογραφικές ερωτήσεις

Παρακαλώ απαντήστε τις παρακάτω δημογραφικές ερωτήσεις.

1. Ηλικία: \*

---

## 2. Φύλο: \*

*Mark only one oval.*

- Άντρας
- Γυναίκα
- Other: \_\_\_\_\_

## 3. Επίπεδο εκπαίδευσης: \*

*Mark only one oval.*

- Απόφοιτος/η Γυμνασίου/Λυκείου
- Απόφοιτος/η ΑΕΙ/ΤΕΙ
- Κάτοχος Μεταπτυχιακού τίτλου
- Other: \_\_\_\_\_

## 4. Σύμβαση απασχόλησης: \*

*Mark only one oval.*

- Μερική απασχόληση
- Πλήρης απασχόληση
- Other: \_\_\_\_\_

## 5. Πόσα χρόνια εργάζεστε στη συγκεκριμένη επιχείρηση: \*

\_\_\_\_\_

## 6. Πόσα χρόνια έχετε προϋπηρεσία (ανεξαρτήτως επιχείρησης/φορέα): \*

\_\_\_\_\_

Ακολούθως υπάρχει ένας αριθμός προτάσεων- δηλώσεων που αναφέρονται στον/στην προϊστάμενο/προϊσταμένη σας και με τις οποίες μπορείτε είτε να συμφωνείτε είτε να διαφωνείτε. Χρησιμοποιώντας την ακόλουθη κλίμακα απαντήσεων, υποδείξτε τη συμφωνία ή τη διαφωνία σας για κάθε πρόταση, επιλέγοντας την αντίστοιχη απάντηση.

7. Ο προϊστάμενος/Η προϊσταμένη μου στρουθοκαμηλίζει απέναντι στα προβλήματα. \*

*Mark only one oval.*

- Διαφωνώ απόλυτα
- Διαφωνώ
- Διαφωνώ ελαφρώς
- Συμφωνώ ελαφρώς
- Συμφωνώ
- Συμφωνώ απόλυτα
- Δεν γνωρίζω

8. Ο προϊστάμενος/Η προϊσταμένη μου ΔΕΝ έχει ιδέα σχετικά με το τι συμβαίνει στο τμήμα μας. \*

*Mark only one oval.*

- Διαφωνώ απόλυτα
- Διαφωνώ
- Διαφωνώ ελαφρώς
- Συμφωνώ ελαφρώς
- Συμφωνώ
- Συμφωνώ απόλυτα
- Δεν γνωρίζω

5/7/2021

Το παρόν ερωτηματολόγιο αποτελεί μέρος της έρευνάς μου στο πλαίσιο εκπόνησης διπλωματικής εργασίας μεταπτυχιακού επιπέδου ...

9. Ο προϊστάμενος/Η προϊσταμένη μου είναι ανίδεος/η από τα πράγματα που δεν ανήκουν στο άμεσο περιβάλλον του/της. \*

*Mark only one oval.*

- Διαφωνώ απόλυτα
- Διαφωνώ
- Διαφωνώ ελαφρώς
- Συμφωνώ ελαφρώς
- Συμφωνώ
- Συμφωνώ απόλυτα
- Δεν γνωρίζω

10. Ο προϊστάμενος/Η προϊσταμένη μου αντιδρά σπασμωδικά. \*

*Mark only one oval.*

- Διαφωνώ απόλυτα
- Διαφωνώ
- Διαφωνώ ελαφρώς
- Συμφωνώ ελαφρώς
- Συμφωνώ
- Συμφωνώ απόλυτα
- Δεν γνωρίζω

11. Ο προϊστάμενος/Η προϊσταμένη μου δεν δίνει αρκετή προσοχή σε ό,τι έχει πραγματικά σημασία. \*

*Mark only one oval.*

- Διαφωνώ απόλυτα
- Διαφωνώ
- Διαφωνώ ελαφρώς
- Συμφωνώ ελαφρώς
- Συμφωνώ
- Συμφωνώ απόλυτα
- Δεν γνωρίζω

12. Ο προϊστάμενος/Η προϊσταμένη μου δεν είναι καλός/ή στο να εστιάζει στο θέμα γρήγορα και ξεκάθαρα. \*

*Mark only one oval.*

- Διαφωνώ απόλυτα
- Διαφωνώ
- Διαφωνώ ελαφρώς
- Συμφωνώ ελαφρώς
- Συμφωνώ
- Συμφωνώ απόλυτα
- Δεν γνωρίζω

13. Δυσκολεύομαι να καταλάβω τι εννοεί και τι ζητάει ο προϊστάμενος/η προϊσταμένη μου. \*

*Mark only one oval.*

- Διαφωνώ απόλυτα  
 Διαφωνώ  
 Διαφωνώ ελαφρώς  
 Συμφωνώ ελαφρώς  
 Συμφωνώ  
 Συμφωνώ απόλυτα  
 Δεν γνωρίζω

14. Ο προϊστάμενος/Η προϊσταμένη μου δεν είναι καλός/ή στο να λύνει προβλήματα και να λαμβάνει αποφάσεις. \*

*Mark only one oval.*

- Διαφωνώ απόλυτα  
 Διαφωνώ  
 Διαφωνώ ελαφρώς  
 Συμφωνώ ελαφρώς  
 Συμφωνώ  
 Συμφωνώ απόλυτα  
 Δεν γνωρίζω

15. Ο προϊστάμενος/Η προϊσταμένη μου δυσκολεύεται αρκετά να λάβει μία απόφαση σε μία διφορούμενη κατάσταση. \*

*Mark only one oval.*

- Διαφωνώ απόλυτα
- Διαφωνώ
- Διαφωνώ ελαφρώς
- Συμφωνώ ελαφρώς
- Συμφωνώ
- Συμφωνώ απόλυτα
- Δεν γνωρίζω

16. Ο προϊστάμενος/Η προϊσταμένη μου είναι αναπατελεσματικός/ή στο να εκπαιδεύει και να αναπτύσσει τους υφιστάμενούς του/της. \*

*Mark only one oval.*

- Διαφωνώ απόλυτα
- Διαφωνώ
- Διαφωνώ ελαφρώς
- Συμφωνώ ελαφρώς
- Συμφωνώ
- Συμφωνώ απόλυτα
- Δεν γνωρίζω

17. Ο προϊστάμενος/Η προϊσταμένη μου ΔΕΝ είναι καλός/ή στο να αναπτύσσει τις δεξιότητες των υφισταμένων του/της. \*

*Mark only one oval.*

- Διαφωνώ απόλυτα
- Διαφωνώ
- Διαφωνώ ελαφρώς
- Συμφωνώ ελαφρώς
- Συμφωνώ
- Συμφωνώ απόλυτα
- Δεν γνωρίζω

18. Ο προϊστάμενος/Η προϊσταμένη μου δεν αναπτύσσει συστηματικά τις δεξιότητες των υφισταμένων του/της. \*

*Mark only one oval.*

- Διαφωνώ απόλυτα
- Διαφωνώ
- Διαφωνώ ελαφρώς
- Συμφωνώ ελαφρώς
- Συμφωνώ
- Συμφωνώ απόλυτα
- Δεν γνωρίζω

19. Ο προϊστάμενος/Η προϊσταμένη μου δεν κατανοεί τις ανάγκες, τα δυνατά και αδύναμα σημεία, και τις αρμοδιότητες των υφισταμένων του/της. \*

*Mark only one oval.*

- Διαφωνώ απόλυτα
- Διαφωνώ
- Διαφωνώ ελαφρώς
- Συμφωνώ ελαφρώς
- Συμφωνώ
- Συμφωνώ απόλυτα
- Δεν γνωρίζω

20. Ο προϊστάμενος/Η προϊσταμένη μου δεν έχει ιδέα του τι χρειάζεται για να παρακινήσει τους υφισταμένους του/της. \*

*Mark only one oval.*

- Διαφωνώ απόλυτα
- Διαφωνώ
- Διαφωνώ ελαφρώς
- Συμφωνώ ελαφρώς
- Συμφωνώ
- Συμφωνώ απόλυτα
- Δεν γνωρίζω

21. Ο προϊστάμενος/Η προϊσταμένη μου συχνά έχει πολύ έντονα συναισθήματα. \*

*Mark only one oval.*

- Διαφωνώ απόλυτα
- Διαφωνώ
- Διαφωνώ ελαφρώς
- Συμφωνώ ελαφρώς
- Συμφωνώ
- Συμφωνώ απόλυτα
- Δεν γνωρίζω

22. Ο προϊστάμενος/Η προϊσταμένη μου δεν έχει αυτοέλεγχο. \*

*Mark only one oval.*

- Διαφωνώ απόλυτα
- Διαφωνώ
- Διαφωνώ ελαφρώς
- Συμφωνώ ελαφρώς
- Συμφωνώ
- Συμφωνώ απόλυτα
- Δεν γνωρίζω

23. Ο προϊστάμενος/Η προϊσταμένη μου φαίνεται να έχει μεγάλες μεταβολές στη διάθεσή του/της.\*

*Mark only one oval.*

- Διαφωνώ απόλυτα
- Διαφωνώ
- Διαφωνώ ελαφρώς
- Συμφωνώ ελαφρώς
- Συμφωνώ
- Συμφωνώ απόλυτα
- Δεν γνωρίζω

24. Ο προϊστάμενος/Η προϊσταμένη μου μοιάζει αρκετά παρανοϊκός/ή σε πολλά πράγματα.\*

*Mark only one oval.*

- Διαφωνώ απόλυτα
- Διαφωνώ
- Διαφωνώ ελαφρώς
- Συμφωνώ ελαφρώς
- Συμφωνώ
- Συμφωνώ απόλυτα
- Δεν γνωρίζω

25. Ο προϊστάμενος/Η προϊσταμένη μου είναι αδιάκριτος/ή. \*

*Mark only one oval.*

- Διαφωνώ απόλυτα  
 Διαφωνώ  
 Διαφωνώ ελαφρώς  
 Συμφωνώ ελαφρώς  
 Συμφωνώ  
 Συμφωνώ απόλυτα  
 Δεν γνωρίζω

26. Ο προϊστάμενος/Η προϊσταμένη μου είναι καταπιεστικός/ή. \*

*Mark only one oval.*

- Διαφωνώ απόλυτα  
 Διαφωνώ  
 Διαφωνώ ελαφρώς  
 Συμφωνώ ελαφρώς  
 Συμφωνώ  
 Συμφωνώ απόλυτα  
 Δεν γνωρίζω

27. Όταν ο προϊστάμενος/η προϊσταμένη μου θέλει κάτι, παθαίνει εμμονή με αυτό. \*

*Mark only one oval.*

- Διαφωνώ απόλυτα  
 Διαφωνώ  
 Διαφωνώ ελαφρώς  
 Συμφωνώ ελαφρώς  
 Συμφωνώ  
 Συμφωνώ απόλυτα  
 Δεν γνωρίζω

28. Ο προϊστάμενος/Η προϊσταμένη μου είναι ένας/μία πολύ κακός/ή προϊστάμενος/ προϊσταμένη για να δουλεύεις για αυτόν/αυτήν. \*

*Mark only one oval.*

- Διαφωνώ απόλυτα
- Διαφωνώ
- Διαφωνώ ελαφρώς
- Συμφωνώ ελαφρώς
- Συμφωνώ
- Συμφωνώ απόλυτα
- Δεν γνωρίζω

29. Από όλους τους προϊσταμένους που έχω γνωρίσει, ο προϊστάμενος/η προϊσταμένη μου είναι από τους καλύτερους. \*

*Mark only one oval.*

- Διαφωνώ απόλυτα
- Διαφωνώ
- Διαφωνώ ελαφρώς
- Συμφωνώ ελαφρώς
- Συμφωνώ
- Συμφωνώ απόλυτα
- Δεν γνωρίζω

30. Από όλους τους προϊσταμένους που έχω γνωρίσει, θα προτιμούσα να δουλεύω για τον τωρινό μου προϊστάμενο/προϊσταμένη περισσότερο από τους προηγούμενους προϊσταμένους μου. \*

*Mark only one oval.*

- Διαφωνώ απόλυτα
- Διαφωνώ
- Διαφωνώ ελαφρώς
- Συμφωνώ ελαφρώς
- Συμφωνώ
- Συμφωνώ απόλυτα
- Δεν γνωρίζω

31. Ο προϊστάμενος/Η προϊσταμένη μου δεν είναι ένας/μία πολύ καλός/ή προϊστάμενος/προϊσταμένη. \*

*Mark only one oval.*

- Διαφωνώ απόλυτα
- Διαφωνώ
- Διαφωνώ ελαφρώς
- Συμφωνώ ελαφρώς
- Συμφωνώ
- Συμφωνώ απόλυτα
- Δεν γνωρίζω

Συνολική αξιολόγηση προϊσταμένου/προϊσταμένης

32. Αξιολογήστε τη συνολική αντίληψή σας για τον τωρινό/ή προϊστάμενο/προϊσταμένη σας με έναν αριθμό από το 1 έως το 100, όπου 1 = 0 απόλυτα χειρότερος ηγέτης για τον οποίο θα μπορούσα να φανταστώ ότι θα δουλεύω και 100 = 0 απόλυτα καλύτερος ηγέτης για τον οποίο θα μπορούσα να φανταστώ ότι θα δουλεύω. \*

Παρακαλούμε δώστε μας ορισμένες πληροφορίες σχετικά με τον προϊστάμενο/την προϊσταμένη σας.

33. Ηλικία: \*

\_\_\_\_\_

34. Φύλο: \*

*Mark only one oval.*

Άντρας

Γυναίκα

Other: \_\_\_\_\_

35. Επίπεδο εκπαίδευσης: \*

*Mark only one oval.*

Απόφοιτος Γυμνασίου/Λυκείου

Απόφοιτος ΑΕΙ/ΤΕΙ

Κάτοχος Μεταπτυχιακού τίτλου

Δεν γνωρίζω

Other: \_\_\_\_\_

Πολλοί άνθρωποι προσπαθούν περισσότερο στη δουλειά τους. Γιατί εσείς προσπαθείτε ή θα προσπαθούσατε περισσότερο στη δουλειά σας; Χρησιμοποιώντας την παρακάτω κλίμακα, παρακαλώ σημειώστε το βαθμό συμφωνίας ή διαφωνίας σας με την κάθε πρόταση.

36. Για να πάρω την έγκριση των άλλων (πχ. προϊστάμενος, συνάδελφοι, οικογένεια, πελάτες,...).\*

Mark only one oval.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Καθόλου	<input type="radio"/> Ακριβώς για αυτό το λόγο						

37. Γιατί οι άλλοι θα με σέβονται περισσότερο έτσι (πχ. προϊστάμενος, συνάδελφοι, οικογένεια, πελάτες,...).\*

Mark only one oval.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Καθόλου	<input type="radio"/> Ακριβώς για αυτό το λόγο						

38. Για να αποφύγω την κριτική των άλλων (πχ. προϊστάμενος, συνάδελφοι, οικογένεια, πελάτες,...).\*

Mark only one oval.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Καθόλου	<input type="radio"/> Ακριβώς για αυτό το λόγο						

39. Γιατί θα αποκομίσω οικονομικά ανταλλάγματα (πχ. από εργοδότη, υπάλληλο, προϊστάμενο,...).\*

Mark only one oval.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Καθόλου	<input type="radio"/> Ακριβώς για αυτό το λόγο						

5/7/2021

Το παρόν ερωτηματολόγιο αποτελεί μέρος της έρευνάς μου στο πλαίσιο εκπόνησης διπλωματικής εργασίας μεταπτυχιακού επιπέδου ...

40. Γιατί μου προσφέρεται μεγαλύτερη εργασιακή ασφάλεια όταν προσπαθώ περισσότερο στη δουλειά μου (πχ. από εργοδότη, υπάλληλο, προϊστάμενο,...). \*

Mark only one oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Καθόλου	<input type="radio"/>	Ακριβώς για αυτό το λόγο						

41. Γιατί υπάρχει κίνδυνος να απολυθώ αν δεν προσπαθήσω αρκετά. \*

Mark only one oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Καθόλου	<input type="radio"/>	Ακριβώς για αυτό το λόγο						

42. Επειδή πρέπει να αποδειξω στον εαυτό μου πως μπορώ. \*

Mark only one oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Καθόλου	<input type="radio"/>	Ακριβώς για αυτό το λόγο						

43. Γιατί με κάνει να νιώθω περήφανος/η. \*

Mark only one oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Καθόλου	<input type="radio"/>	Ακριβώς για αυτό το λόγο						

44. Γιατί αλλιώς θα αισθανόμουν ντροπή για τον εαυτό μου. \*

Mark only one oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Καθόλου	<input type="radio"/>	Ακριβώς για αυτό το λόγο						

45. Γιατί αλλιώς θα αισθάνομαι άσχημα για τον εαυτό μου. \*

Mark only one oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Καθόλου	<input type="radio"/>	Ακριβώς για αυτό το λόγο						

46. Γιατί θεωρώ πολύ σημαντικό το να προσπαθώ παραπάνω στη δουλειά μου. \*

Mark only one oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Καθόλου	<input type="radio"/>	Ακριβώς για αυτό το λόγο						

47. Γιατί το να προσπαθώ παραπάνω στη δουλειά μου συνάδει με τις αξίες μου. \*

Mark only one oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Καθόλου	<input type="radio"/>	Ακριβώς για αυτό το λόγο						

5/7/2021

Το παρόν ερωτηματολόγιο αποτελεί μέρος της έρευνάς μου στο πλαίσιο εκπόνησης διπλωματικής εργασίας μεταπτυχιακού επιπέδου ...

48. Γιατί το να προσπαθώ στη δουλειά μου έχει προσωπική σημασία για μένα. \*

Mark only one oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Καθόλου	<input type="radio"/>	Ακριβώς για αυτό το λόγο						

49. Γιατί διασκεδάζω κάνοντας τη δουλειά μου. \*

Mark only one oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Καθόλου	<input type="radio"/>	Ακριβώς για αυτό το λόγο						

50. Γιατί ό,τι κάνω στη δουλειά μου με ενθουσιάζει. \*

Mark only one oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Καθόλου	<input type="radio"/>	Ακριβώς για αυτό το λόγο						

51. Γιατί η δουλειά μου είναι ενδιαφέρουσα. \*

Mark only one oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Καθόλου	<input type="radio"/>	Ακριβώς για αυτό το λόγο						

52. Δεν προσπαθώ στη δουλειά μου, γιατί πραγματικά πιστεύω πως χάνω τον καιρό μου. \*

Mark only one oval.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7		
Καθόλου	<input type="radio"/>	Ακριβώς για αυτό το λόγο						

53. Προσπαθώ λίγο γιατί πιστεύω πως δεν αξίζει να προσπαθείς σε αυτή τη δουλειά. \*

Mark only one oval.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7		
Καθόλου	<input type="radio"/>	Ακριβώς για αυτό το λόγο						

54. Δεν ξέρω γιατί κάνω αυτή τη δουλειά, είναι ασήμαντη. \*

Mark only one oval.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7		
Καθόλου	<input type="radio"/>	Ακριβώς για αυτό το λόγο						

Ακολούθως υπάρχει ένας αριθμός προτάσεων- δηλώσεων που αναφέρονται σε σας και με τις οποίες μπορείτε είτε να συμφωνείτε είτε να διαφωνείτε. Χρησιμοποιώντας την ακόλουθη κλίμακα απαντήσεων, υποδεικνύετε τη συμφωνία ή τη διαφωνία σας για κάθε πρόταση, επιλέγοντας την αντίστοιχη απάντηση.

55. Είναι δύσκολο να βρω κίνητρο στη δουλειά μου. \*

Mark only one oval.

1	2	3	4	5		
Διαφωνώ απόλυτα	<input type="radio"/>	Συμφωνώ απόλυτα				

5/7/2021

Το παρόν ερωτηματολόγιο αποτελεί μέρος της έρευνάς μου στο πλαίσιο εκπόνησης διπλωματικής εργασίας μεταπτυχιακού επιπέδου ...

56. Είμαι αδιάφορος/η προς την εργασία μου. \*

Mark only one oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	
Διαφωνώ απόλυτα	<input type="radio"/>	Συμφωνώ απόλυτα				

57. Είμαι συναισθηματικά αποστασιοποιημένος/η από τη δουλειά μου. \*

Mark only one oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	
Διαφωνώ απόλυτα	<input type="radio"/>	Συμφωνώ απόλυτα				

58. Η διάθεσή μου στη δουλειά θα μπορούσε να χαρακτηριστεί παθητική. \*

Mark only one oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	
Διαφωνώ απόλυτα	<input type="radio"/>	Συμφωνώ απόλυτα				

59. Αν δεν βρω κάτι που χρειάζεται για μία εργασία, σταματώ σχετικά εύκολα την αναζήτησή. \*

Mark only one oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	
Διαφωνώ απόλυτα	<input type="radio"/>	Συμφωνώ απόλυτα				

5/7/2021

Το παρόν ερωτηματολόγιο αποτελεί μέρος της έρευνάς μου στο πλαίσιο εκπόνησης διπλωματικής εργασίας μεταπτυχιακού επιπέδου ...

60. Αν τελειώσω όσα μου έχουν ανατεθεί, συνήθως δεν δουλεύω πιο σκληρά από ότι χρειάζεται. \*

Mark only one oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	
Διαφωνώ απόλυτα	<input type="radio"/>	Συμφωνώ απόλυτα				

61. Αισθάνομαι νοητικά αποστασιοποιημένος/η από τη δουλειά μου. \*

Mark only one oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	
Διαφωνώ απόλυτα	<input type="radio"/>	Συμφωνώ απόλυτα				

62. Το να παράγω δουλειά μέτριας ποιότητας μου είναι αρκετό. \*

Mark only one oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	
Διαφωνώ απόλυτα	<input type="radio"/>	Συμφωνώ απόλυτα				

63. Κάθε φορά που προκύπτουν νέα καθήκοντα, αφήνω τους άλλους να τα αναλάβουν. \*

Mark only one oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	
Διαφωνώ απόλυτα	<input type="radio"/>	Συμφωνώ απόλυτα				

64. Αποφεύγω να αναλαμβάνω νέες δραστηριότητες εθελοντικά. \*

Mark only one oval.

1	2	3	4	5		
Διαφωνώ απόλυτα	<input type="radio"/>	Συμφωνώ απόλυτα				

Ακολούθως υπάρχει ένας αριθμός προτάσεων- δηλώσεων που αναφέρονται σε σας και με τις οποίες μπορείτε είτε να συμφωνείτε είτε να διαφωνείτε. Χρησιμοποιώντας την ακόλουθη κλίμακα απαντήσεων, υποδείξτε τη συμφωνία ή τη διαφωνία σας για κάθε πρόταση, επιλέγοντας την αντίστοιχη απάντηση.

65. Είμαι πεπεισμένος/η ότι λαμβάνω την επιτυχία που δικαιούμαι στη ζωή. \*

Mark only one oval.

1	2	3	4	5		
Διαφωνώ απόλυτα	<input type="radio"/>	Συμφωνώ απόλυτα				

66. Μερικές φορές νιώθω θλιμμένος/η. \*

Mark only one oval.

1	2	3	4	5		
Διαφωνώ απόλυτα	<input type="radio"/>	Συμφωνώ απόλυτα				

67. Όταν προσπαθώ, γενικά επιτυγχάνω. \*

Mark only one oval.

1	2	3	4	5		
Διαφωνώ απόλυτα	<input type="radio"/>	Συμφωνώ απόλυτα				

68. Μερικές φορές όταν αποτυγχάνω, αισθάνομαι ανάξιος/α. \*

Mark only one oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	
Διαφωνώ απόλυτα	<input type="radio"/>	Συμφωνώ απόλυτα				

69. Ολοκληρώνω τα καθήκοντά μου με επιτυχία. \*

Mark only one oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	
Διαφωνώ απόλυτα	<input type="radio"/>	Συμφωνώ απόλυτα				

70. Μερικές φορές, αισθάνομαι ότι δεν έχω τον έλεγχο της δουλειάς μου. \*

Mark only one oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	
Διαφωνώ απόλυτα	<input type="radio"/>	Συμφωνώ απόλυτα				

71. Σε γενικές γραμμές είμαι ευχαριστημένος/η με τον εαυτό μου. \*

Mark only one oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	
Διαφωνώ απόλυτα	<input type="radio"/>	Συμφωνώ απόλυτα				

5/7/2021

Το παρόν ερωτηματολόγιο αποτελεί μέρος της έρευνάς μου στο πλαίσιο εκπόνησης διπλωματικής εργασίας μεταπτυχιακού επιπέδου ...

72. Είμαι γεμάτος αμφιβολίες για τις ικανότητές μου. \*

Mark only one oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	
Διαφωνώ απόλυτα	<input type="radio"/>	Συμφωνώ απόλυτα				

73. Εγώ ορίζω τι θα συμβεί στη ζωή μου. \*

Mark only one oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	
Διαφωνώ απόλυτα	<input type="radio"/>	Συμφωνώ απόλυτα				

74. Νιώθω ότι δεν έχω τον έλεγχο της επιτυχίας στην καριέρα μου. \*

Mark only one oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	
Διαφωνώ απόλυτα	<input type="radio"/>	Συμφωνώ απόλυτα				

75. Είμαι ικανός/ή να αντιμετωπίσω τα περισσότερα προβλήματά μου. \*

Mark only one oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	
Διαφωνώ απόλυτα	<input type="radio"/>	Συμφωνώ απόλυτα				

5/7/2021 Το παρόν ερωτηματολόγιο αποτελεί μέρος της έρευνάς μου στο πλαίσιο εκπόνησης διπλωματικής εργασίας μεταπτυχιακού επιπέδου ...

76. Υπάρχουν στιγμές όπου τα πράγματα μου φαίνονται αρκετά δυσάρεστα (δυσοίωνα) και αδιόρθωτα.\*

Mark only one oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	
Διαφωνώ απόλυτα	<input type="radio"/>	Συμφωνώ απόλυτα				

---

This content is neither created nor endorsed by Google.

Google Forms