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The Prevalence and Effect of þÿ P r i n c i p a l s D e s t r u c t i v e L e a d e þÿ B e h a v i o r o n T e a c h e r s O r g a n i Commitment: The Case in the Secondary Schools of Amhara National Regional State

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Bahir Dar University
College of Education
School of Educational Sciences
Department of Educational Planning and Management

The Prevalence and Effect of Principals' Destructive Leadership Behavior on Teachers' Organizational Commitment: The Case in the Secondary Schools of Amhara National Regional State

A Dissertation submitted to the Department of Educational Planning and Management in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy in Educational Policy and Leadership

By

Temesgen Belachew Emirie

Advisor: Dr. Melaku Mengistu /Associate professor/

October 2024
Bahir Dar

Declaration

I declare that the dissertation entitled "The Prevalence and Effect of Principals' Destructive Leadership Behavior on Teachers' Organizational Commitment: The Case in the Secondary Schools of Amhara National Regional State" submitted to the department of Educational Planning and Management, Bahir Dar University, in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy is my own original work and has never been presented in any other institution. All sources that I have used in this study have been properly acknowledged and referenced.

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Approval of Dissertation for Defense

We hereby certify that we have supervised, read, and evaluated this dissertation entitled "The Prevalence and Effect of Principals' Destructive Leadership Behavior on Teachers' Organizational Commitment: The Case in the Secondary Schools of Amhara National Regional State" by Temesgen Belachew Emirie prepared under our guidance. We recommend the dissertation be submitted for examination with our approval as advisors.

Advisor's Name	Date	Signature
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Approval of Dissertation for Defense Result

We hereby certify that we have examined this dissertation entitled "The Prevalence and Effect of Principals' Destructive Leadership Behavior on Teachers' Organizational Commitment: The Case in the Secondary Schools of Amhara National Regional State" by Temesgen Belachew Emirie. We recommend that the dissertation is accepted for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy in Educational Policy and Leadership.

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Dedication

This dissertation is dedicated to Tewoda Asegu Nurilign, Abozina Admassu Filatie, Belachew Emirie Awoke, and Hemien Temesgen Belachew, my lovely grandmother, mother, father, and daughter, respectively. Your persistent encouragement and desire to see my accomplishment motivated me to successfully complete my doctoral dissertation. You all had the aspiration, passion, and help to see me succeed in my dream. My dear mother, Abozina, and my loving daughter, Hemien, wish you a long life. My father, Belachew Emirie, and my grandmother, Tewoda Asegu, may God rest your souls in peace.

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List of Abbreviations and Acronyms

AC	Affective Commitment
ANOVA	Analysis of Variance
AREB	Amhara Region Education Bureau
CC	Continuance Commitment
CVI	Content Validity Index
CVR	Content Validity Ratio
DF	Degree of Freedom
DLB	Destructive Leadership Behavior
DL	Derailed Leadership
DLS	Destructive Leadership Scale
ESDP	Education Sector Development Program
LL	Laissez-faire Leadership
MANOVA	Multivariate Analysis of Variance
MD	Mean Difference
MoE	Ministry of Education
NC	Normative Commitment
OC	Organizational Commitment
OCS	Organizational Commitment Scale
SD	Standard Deviation
SE	Standard Error
SL	Supportive disloyal Leadership
TL	Tyrannical Leadership
VIF	Variance Inflation Factor

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Abstract

This study aims to investigate the prevalence and effect of principals' destructive leadership behavior on teachers' organizational commitment in secondary schools within Amhara National Regional State. An explanatory sequential design was employed, combining both quantitative and qualitative research methods. The sample comprised 1257 secondary school teachers and 10 interviewees, selected through multistage stratified and purposive sampling techniques, respectively. Data was collected using questionnaires and semi-structured interviews. Quantitative data analysis involved one-sample t-tests, factorial MANOVA, Pearson correlation, and linear regressions, while qualitative data was analyzed using a narrative approach. The findings indicated a notable prevalence of destructive leadership behavior among principals in Amhara's secondary schools, with laissez-faire leadership being the most common type. The overall commitment level of secondary school teachers was found to be low, but they demonstrated moderate affective commitment, indicating an attachment to their respective schools. Moreover, perceptions of destructive leadership behavior differed among teachers based on gender. The study revealed a significant negative relationship between principals' destructive leadership behavior and teachers' organizational commitment. The findings also demonstrated that there was a negative relationship between all dimensions of principals' destructive leadership behavior and each element of teachers' organizational commitment. Furthermore, destructive leadership behavior significantly predicted organizational commitment and emerged as a significant predictor overall, explaining 44.4% of the variance in organizational commitment. Among the different elements of DLB, laissez-faire leadership behavior was the strongest predictor of affective, continuance, and normative commitments. Therefore, the study concluded that the decline of teachers' OC, which had a return effect on students' academic achievement and quality education, was due to the impact of principals' DLB. Based on the study findings, it is recommended to provide training for secondary school principals, strengthen follow-up and monitoring mechanisms, build constructive leadership behavior, and elevate the commitment levels of secondary school teachers.

Keywords: DLB, OC, Dimensions of DLB, OC dimensions

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1. Background of the Study

Organizational commitment (OC) is the level at which workers identify themselves with the job of their organization (Habib, 2020), have a strong sense of belongingness in the organization (Meyer & Herscovich, 2001), and exert a lot of effort to stay a part of it (Hackett & Lapierre, 2001). It denotes a desire to stick with a plan of action (Meyer & Allen, 2004), organizational loyalty (Ambali et al., 2011), and attachment (Meyer & Herscovich, 2001). Besides, it is an idea that encompasses employees' dedication to the institution's goals, their attempts to help the organization grow (Meyer & Allen, 1991), and their desire to remain an employee of the institution (Meyer & Herscovich, 2001; Hackett & Lapierre, 2001).

Employees that have a high degree of OC strongly believe in the organization's objectives and perform well to help the organization reach its targets (Alrowwad et al., 2019), whereas organizations with low levels of employee commitment will not be successful in fulfilling their objectives (Shahid & Azhar, 2013). In turn, this will foster a sense of work engagement, psychological attachment, and belongingness to the organization (Ambali et al., 2011). In a similar vein, Terzi (2015) claims that increased OC leads to enhanced organizational civic behavior, higher student success (Haftkhavani et al., 2012), increasing job satisfaction and teacher self-efficacy (Nazneen & Mohammed, 2017; Pan, 2023), decreased absenteeism, and a lower turnover rate (Zhu et al., 2022). The OC of teachers was also shown to be a significant predictor of teacher goal attainment and educational quality (Shagholi et al., 2011). Additionally, commitment has a direct effect on teaching and learning, academic accomplishment, and general well-being (Firestone, 1996; Park, 2005). There are various standards for determining an employee's OC, even if commitment has a subjective explanation that varies depending on the location, period, and person. These requirements include upholding the institution's objectives and principles, showing dedication to the organization, separating strongly from continued membership in it, identifying with it, and internalizing it (Ibicioglu, 2000, as cited in Yilmaz and Kilic, 2017). Based on the above description, OC has three dimensions. These dimensions comprise affective commitment (AC), continuance commitment (CC), and normative commitment (NC) (Meyer & Allen, 1997).

Employee OC is influenced by a variety of factors (Firestone & Pennel, 1993). Leadership behavior is one of many factors affecting employees' OC (Öztekin et al., 2015; Semela, 2004). In this study context, leadership behavior refers to actions that have a positive or negative effect on the performance of an organization (Akparep et al., 2019; Landis et al., 2014; Nuel et al., 2021; Yukl, 2012) and employees (Torlack & Kuzey, 2019; Xu et al., 2018).

Destructive leadership behavior (DLB) is one of the leadership behaviors manifested by a leader or supervisor that has a bad effect on employees (Tepper, 2000; Zellars et al., 2002) and institutions (Thoroughgood et al., 2012). Destructive leadership is a wide, all-embracing idea covering a number of divergent types of wrong behaviors by leaders, managers, and supervisors in their work and duty as a leader/ manager and subordinate representative in an institution (Einarsen et al., 2017). In addition, it is bad behavior implanted in the process of leading an organization (Krasikova et al. 2013). It spreads covertly and unnoticed, equally influencing persons, groups, and eventually the entire institution (Vreja et al., 2016). Moreover, it ranges from the unpleasant (Bhandarker & Rai, 2018) to the unlawful (Lipman-Blumen, 2006). Destructive leadership can also extend from the hurtful (Mette, 2020) to the immoral and shady (Lipman-Blumen, 2006). Although destructive leadership can signify physical damage, it can also poison relationships, trustworthiness, and even institutional culture, ultimately leading to serious negative impacts on individuals and the institution (Holland, 2020).

DLB has been linked to a broad spectrum of unethical, negative, manipulative, incompetent, tyrannical, fraudulent, abusive, deviant, or illegal behaviors and outcomes (Ryan et al., 2019). Considering the breadth of the behaviors used to describe destructive leaders, it appears clear that it is not a single type of leadership behavior but rather a collection of different types of destructive leadership behaviors (Aasland et al., 2010). Given this diversity of behaviors, the current study employed the broad concept of destructive leadership, which is described as "systematic and repeated behavior by a leader or manager that goes against the legitimate interests of the organization by undermining and/or sabotaging the organization's goals, tasks, resources, effectiveness, and subordinate motivation, well-being, or job satisfaction" (Einarsen et al., 2007).

Destructive leaders ignore or actively obstruct goal achievement in the organization by, for instance, sabotaging subordinates' task execution, working toward targets other than the

organization's goals (Einarsen et al., 2017), stealing assets like materials, money, or time, or encouraging subordinates to partake in such activities (Einarsen et al., 2007). DLB is all about systematically behaving against the rightful interests of the organization, either by abusing employees or by working against the achievement of the organization's goals, including illegal behavior (Aasland et al., 2010; Einarsen et al., 2017). Besides, the meaning stresses repeated destructive behavior in contrast to a single behavior, such as an isolated outburst of wrath or spontaneous misconduct. However, if misbehavior or outbursts of rage become repeated, they are considered destructive leadership behavior based on the definition, regardless of their intentions or antecedents (Aasland et al., 2010). Furthermore, DLB is about acts that violate or are contrary to what is regarded as the legitimate interests of the organization (Aasland et al., 2010; Einarsen et al., 2017). However, what makes people cognizant of DLB may differ between societies and cultures and also over time (Einarsen et al., 2007).

Many concepts are applied to explain destructive types of leadership behavior, such as abusive supervision (Einarsen et al., 2017; Tapper, 2000) and petty tyranny (Ash forth, 1994; Einarsen et al., 2017), referring to leaders or supervisors who act destructively towards employees, by belittling or humiliating them in public, intimidating, or exposing subordinates to non-verbal aggression (Aryee et al., 2007). Leaders may also act destructively, primarily affecting the institution (Lipman-Blumen, 2006), potentially leading to negative consequences for implementing tasks, the quality of work, efficiency, and relations with customers and clients (Padilla et al., 2007). Moreover, terms frequently employed to explain such behavior are personalized charismatic leadership (Krasikova et al., 2013), pseudo- transformational leadership (Krasikova et al., 2013), flawed leadership (Hogan, 1994), derailed- leadership or derailment (Einarsen et al., 2017; Tepper 2000), strategic bullying (Krasikova et al., 2013), toxic leadership (Erickson et al., 2015; Lipman-Blumen, 2006;), the dark side of leadership (Einarsen et al., 2017; Higgs, 2009), Impaired managers (Lubit, 2004), narcissistic leaders (Einarsen et al., 2017; Higgs, 2009), aversive leadership (Bligh et al. 2007; Furnham et al. 2013); unethical and poor leadership (Einarsen et al., 2017), incompetent leadership (Einarsen et al., 2017), and bad leadership (Einarsen et al., 2017; Higgs, 2009; Hogan and Hogan, 2001; Padilla et al., 2007).

With reference to empirical study, workplace bullying and abusive supervision are among the concepts that are most widely applicable (Einarsen et al., 2013). Abusive supervision is employees' insight in to the level to which a leader's continual exhibit of hostile verbal and

nonverbal behaviors, excepting physical contact (Tepper, 2000). Workplace bullying is a kind of interpersonal aggression at work and continued negative action towards individuals that involves disrespect and simple rudeness, is characterized by the distinctive features of power imbalance, and creates a hostile work environment (Lutgan- Sandvik et al., 2007). According to Einarsen et al. (2017), the above concepts about abusive supervision and work place bullying are generally bound to leader behaviors directed towards subordinates, ignoring counterproductive leader behaviors against the institution itself. Nevertheless, leaders may abuse the institution, be it directly or indirectly (Einarsen et al., 2017).

In light of the above ideas, DLB contains different types of leadership behavior focusing on the employee, the organization, or both (Einarsen et al., 2007; Einarsen et al., 2017). The DLB taxonomy presents four classifications of leadership behavior, three of which are actively destructive: tyrannical leadership (TL), derailed leadership (DL), and supportive-disloyal leadership (SL) behavior (Einarsen et al., 2007; Einarsen et al., 2017), and one of which is passive: laissez-faire leadership behavior (LL), which is placed in the middle of the destructive leadership behavior taxonomy.

In organizational climate research from the mid-1950s to 1990, 60% -75% of all employees typically reported that the worst aspect of their job was their immediate leader (Hogan et al., 1990, as cited in Schyns & Hansbrough, 2010). Tepper (2000, 2007) depicted supervisors behaving destructively towards their followers. Similarly, Aasland et al. (2010) demonstrated that leaders can be destructive towards the institution or both the followers and organizations. DLB leads to absenteeism, job stress, job dissatisfaction, and thoughts of quitting (Woestman & Wasonga, 2015). It also results in employee abuse, embezzlement, and ill treatment (Belanger, 2021). A survey study conducted on the Norwegian workforce indicated that DLB is not only harmful but also increasingly prevalent, and that 33.5 percent of employees had been exposed to one or more of the following destructive leadership behaviors on a regular basis or more in the previous 6 months: laissez-faire leadership behavior (21.2 percent), tyrannical leadership behavior (3.4 percent), supportive but disloyal leadership behavior (11.6 percent), and derailed leadership behavior (8.8 percent) (Aasland et al., 2010). In addition, studies showed that a considerable number of employees were subjected to other kinds of DLB. Some of these include being instructed to perform work clearly below their level of capacity

(13.7 percent), having basic information but refusing to give it to them (7.4percent), being given jobs with difficult targets or deadlines (5.3 percent), and having one's ideas and views ignored (5.1percent), (Salin, 2005).

The investigations of educational environments substantiate DLB operations in these circumstances and identify how they exhibited many of these implementations (Reyan et al., 2019). They identify some of the power dynamics at play and the outcomes for the safety and existence of individuals and schools as institutions (Reyan et al., 2019). Blasé and Blasé (2002, 2006) and Blasé et al. (2008) focused attention on the important emotional, affective, or psycho-social and the mutual upshot of DLB. The basic findings of Blasé and Blasé (2002) investigation were consistent with those from the businesses and other industrial institutions that depict similar kinds and patterns of DLB and similar damaging results. Additionally, regarding DLB, Blasé and Blasé (2002) found that followers define it as verbal or nonverbal abuse, unnecessary conducts, violations of norms of behaviors or individual benefits, conducts that target individuals and intend to harm, and where there is a power disparity between the abuser and the subordinates. The outcome of abusive treatment caused initial responses of shock and disorientation and feelings of indignity and isolation, with evidence of prolonged and serious harm to school relationships and decision-making. There were harmful psychological outcomes like persistent fear, anxiety, anger, and depression (Blase & Blase, 2002). Because of the nature of schools and school employees, a distinctive outcome for teachers was a sense of being cornered in the absence of any actual means of either compensating for or getting free from the situation (Ryan et al., 2019).

Teacher mistreatment is a common problem in schools, with alarmingly negative consequences for teachers as professionals and as people, and it extends directly into classrooms, severely limiting and even destroying opportunities for effective teaching and learning. Furthermore, destructive leadership has been found to range from depriving teachers of resources to sabotage and public criticism, and, in its most aggressive forms, from eruptive and bullying behaviors to forcibly dismissing teachers. Some teachers want to leave the profession; those who stay exist in silence and suffer; rely on other extrinsic or intrinsic motivations that keep them in the profession at the expense of organizational productivity; or face adversity with courage, professional integrity, and ingenuity (Blase & Blasé, 2002).

This study will rely on Einarsen and his colleagues' DLB model (Einarsen et al., 2007) and Meyer and Allen's tridimensional OC model (Meyer & Allen, 1997). Einarsen and his colleagues developed the DLB model in 2007. The model is grounded on three assumptions (Einarsen et al., 2007). The first one is those mainly directed at subordinates and those mainly directed at the organization. Secondary, something based on the assumption that a leader's behavior toward both subordinates and organizations can range from being highly pro to being highly anti. According to them, leadership behavior in the subordinate dimension ranges from anti-subordinate to pro-subordinate. Anti-subordinate leadership behavior illegally undermines or sabotages subordinate motivation, well-being, or job satisfaction and includes subordinate harassment and ill treatment (Einarsen et al., 2007; Einarsen et al., 2017). On the contrary, pro-subordinate leadership behavior promotes employee inspiration, well-being, and job satisfaction by embracing, caring for, and assisting them consistent with organizational policies. Anti-organizational leadership behavior is also defined as negative workplace behavior directed at the organization (Einarsen et al., 2007). Moreover, pro-organization leadership behavior includes working to achieve the organization's goals, setting simple objectives, making or supporting strategic decisions, and implementing legal organizational change. Based on their model, anti-organizational leadership behavior differs from pro-organizational behavior in that the former violates the legal interests of the organization whether by working contrary to the organization's goals, values, and optimal use of resources, by stealing from the organization, sabotaging the institution's goals, or even by engaging in corruption (Einarsen et al., 2007; Einarsen et al., 2017). Finally, by combining the two dimensions, it generates four quadrants of leadership behavior with a distinct mix of destructive and constructive leadership behaviors, assuming that leaders are not always good or bad, but may exhibit a mix of both (Einarsen et al., 2007). According to the model's logic, a leader or manager can be considered constructive or pro on one of the two dimensions while acting in ways that harm the legitimate interests of the organization (anti).

TL behavior is the first of the four quadrants of the DLB model. It is anti-subordinate as well as pro-organizational (Einarsen et al., 2007). It may carry out his or her responsibilities to the organization properly, but it may achieve its objectives at the expense or disadvantage of employees. The most common manifestations of tyrannical supervisors, according to them, are

bodiless behaviors in which supervisors publicly ridicule, scapegoat, or take credit for employees' work.

The model's second element is SL behavior. It combines pro-subordinate and anti-organizational leadership behaviors. As a result, such leaders may use inspirational motivation and individualized consideration to motivate, stimulate, and support their subordinates (Bass & Riggio, 2006). These leaders, however, may simultaneously deprive the organization of resources, whether they are working hours, material resources, or economic resources (Einarsen et al. 2007). They may provide their employees with more benefits than necessary, encouraging a poor work ethic or even misconduct. Supportive-disloyal leaders direct their subordinates toward inefficiency or other goals other than achieving the organization's objectives while remaining comradely and friendly.

The third component of the DLB model is DL behavior. It is concerned with portraying both anti-organizational and anti-subordinate behaviors. These leaders are anti-subordinate through behaviors such as bullying, humiliation, manipulation, and deceit (Einarsen et al., 2007), while conducting anti-organizational behaviors like absenteeism, work withdrawal, shirking, committing fraud, or otherwise stealing resources (be it financial, time, or material resources from the organization (Einarsen et al., 2007). DL behavior, according to Aasland et al. (2010) and Einarsen et al. (2007) consists of supervisory DLB toward the impediments of both the institution and followers. The related leadership actions comprise theft, fraud, and, more significantly, the anti-subordinate behaviors of bullying, deception, and leadership undermining.

Lastly, the model contains a category of LL behavior in which the leader avoids fulfilling the legitimate expectations embedded in the role of a leader, resulting in passive leadership behavior in both perspectives (Aasland et al., 2010; Einarsen et al., 2007). Courtright et al. (2014) and Susanj, Z., and Jacopec (2012) demonstrated that laissez-faire supervisors abdicate responsibility, do not exercise authority, and do not participate in decision-making. Skogstad et al. (2014) showed that it is equivalent to non-leadership because of the absence of effect and passive behavior. Furthermore, Jackson et al. (2013) showed that LL may look harmless externally, but below the surface is a set of current offensive actions or behaviors. They further demonstrated that a laissez-faire leader or manager involves three kinds of leader or manager replies such as placating avoidance, where supervisors deal to take measures for followers’

interests; equivocal avoidance, where supervisors offer doubtful reactions; and hostile avoidance, where leaders decline to take a measure.

The DLB model will be useful because it will supplement the study in literature and organizational leadership aspects. It contributes to DLB theory and research in numerous ways (Einarsen et al., 2007). Krasikova et al. (2013) demonstrated that the DLB model is the most all-encompassing model applicable to similar forms. It is also the most comprehensive model in the new literature on destructive leadership or literature pertaining to a supervisor-centered focus and its relationship with followers (May et al., 2014).

The OC model of Meyer and Allen (1997) conceptualizes commitment as a three-dimensional model. By 1984, Meyer and Allen had initially considered OC as having two dimensions: AC and CC. They added other elements, such as NC, as a dimension of OC in 1990. They developed the tri- dimensional model in 1997. These three- dimensional model explain the different mechanisms of OC development and its implications for followers' behavior. The OC model embraces AC, CC, and NC. AC is an employee's emotional or psychological tie to the organization. It is affected by elements such as receptiveness by leaders, participation and dependability, feedback, personal importance, equity, job challenge, role clarity, goal clarity, and goal difficulty (Meyer & Allen, 1997). According to Beck and Wilson (2000), CC is considered an instrumental attachment to the institution, where the employee's association with the organization is based on the evaluation of economic advantages gained. The last element of tri-component model of OC is NC. It is a sense of duty and obligation to remain employed in an organization (Meyer & Allen, 1997). They also argued that the moral obligation and duty to continue employment in the institution arises from the reciprocity norm, which states that when the subordinate receives a gain, she/he, or the institution is obligated to reciprocate in kindness.

According to the literature, DLB is associated with and influences OC (Nguni et al., 2006). Destructive leaders often have employees who are less committed to their institution and less satisfied with their jobs, which adversely affect their commitment to their organizations (Schaubroeck et al., 2007). Different studies showed that employees who reported higher levels of abuse from their leaders were more likely to withdraw from their jobs, which increased the risk of human capital loss for the institution (Tepper, 2000). Besides, Aryee et al. (2007)

explained that DLB was negatively associated with employee AC. These followers of negative or destructive leaders had elevated anxiety levels (Schaubroeck et al., 2007). Employees who work for destructive leaders are more likely to have family problems and suffer from psychological distress (Hoobler & Brass, 2006; Tepper, 2000; Yagil, 2006). Subordinates who have a destructive leader also showed higher levels of emotional exhaustion (Grandey et al., 2007). DLB leads to speeding up stress levels, absenteeism, and a desire to leave the work (Labrague et al., 2020). Extensive investigations have revealed that psychological situations such as work-related stress, depression, and anxiety experienced by subordinates can influence institutions through performance and productivity decrements. For example, it related DLB with a decline in employee work performance (Harris, et al., 2007).

Furthermore, research has revealed that DLB is negatively related to OC (Burris, et al., 2008; Tepper, 2000). Another study found that destructive leadership is inversely associated with employee AC and positively associated with the employee aspiration to leave their institution (Mehta & Maheshawari, 2013). Various meta- study analyses revealed a strong negative relation between different dimensions of DLB and OC variables (Mehta & Maheshawari, 2013). Moreover, studies show that the leadership behaviors exhibited by the leader influence the OC level of employees (Samanciogla et al., 2020). Likewise, organizational elements such as strategies, tasks, and goals can be influenced by destructive leaders (Einarsen et al., 2007). They also added that poor motivation, job satisfaction, and well-being are possible individual effects of DLB. Destructive leadership has an inverse association with the psychological well-being of employees (Sankowsky, 1995; Schyns & Schilling, 2013), work and life satisfaction (Hauge et al., 2007; Schyns & Schilling, 2013; Tepper, 2000); and organizational effectiveness (Burris et al., 2008). It is also positively associated with stress and depression (Schyns & Schilling, 2013); workers' OC (Burris et al., 2008; and psychological strain (Schaubroeck et al., 2007).

Equivalently, scholars revealed that there is a significant relationship between perceived DLB of employees, gender, and qualification level (Singh et al., 2017). A significant main effect has been observed in the perception of the relationship between gender and DLB (Larsson et al., 2022). A study conducted in Japan described that gender, qualification, and experience had no influence on leadership behavior (Jayasinghe, 2020). In addition, Phoek & Tjilen (2017) elucidated that the perception of employees has no significant effect on leadership behavior. The

other study also revealed that there is a significant gender difference among teachers in the perception of leadership behavior (Brahim, 2009). A study conducted on employees' perceptions of leadership behavior by Kanagobal (2009) illustrated that there is no significant difference among them on the basis of gender, education, or length of service.

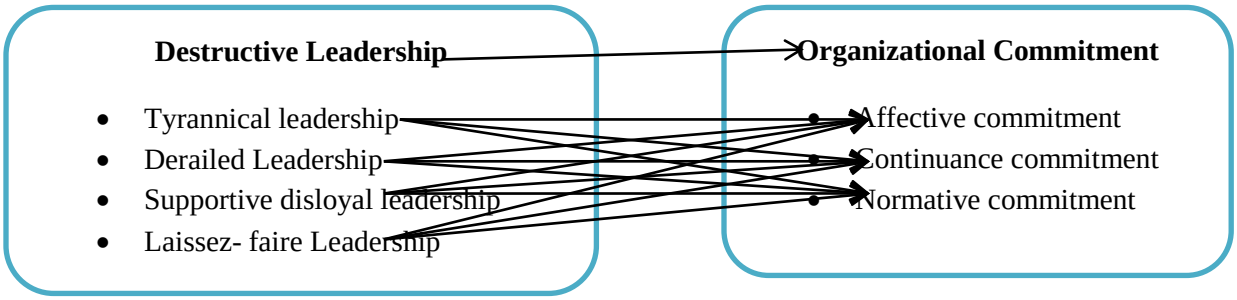
Similarly, DLB of school principals could cause psychological problems in teachers such as chronic fear, depression, stress, anxiety, anger, and loneliness, (Blase & Blase, 2002), with long term harm to school health. Eventually, the existence of DLB within an organization could drastically influence the institution's capacity to attract and conscript highly potential workers and contribute to social, human, and economic resource losses (Erickson et al., 2015; Thoroughgood et al., 2012). On the other hand, according to research on the relationship between OC and ethical decision-making, employees who have a higher level of institutional commitment are less likely to engage in unethical behavior, which results in personal benefit and negative organizational outcomes (Tang & Chiu, 2003). Cullinan et al. (2008) investigation engaging subordinates from three organizations showed similar results, showing that employees with a higher level of OC may have a longer-term aim, which would dim the consideration of the short-term personal benefits gotten from negative behavior.

1.2. Conceptual Framework

The theoretical model of DLB developed by Einarsen et al. (2007), the OC model developed by Meyer and Allen (1997), a review of the research literature, and various literatures found in various studies were served as the foundation for the conceptual framework of the study. The evidence showed that there is both a positive and negative association between DLB and OC (Aryee et al. 2007; Burris, et al., 2008; Cullinan et al. 2008; Mehta & Maheshawari, 2013; Nguni et al., 2006; Samanciogla et al., 2020; Tang & Chiu, 2003; Tepper, 2000). The independent variable in this study was principals' DLB, and the dependent variable was teachers' OC. The independent variable principals' DLB has four dimensions: TL, DL, SL, and LL behavior. Three components make up the dependent variable: AC, CC, and NC. In addition, the study was taken other demographic variables in to account, such as gender, educational qualification, and work experience.

This study examined the prevalence of DLB in secondary schools and the relationship between the independent variable, principals' DLB, and the dependent variable, elements of OC. Besides, the research analyzed the effects of the elements of principals' DLB on teachers' OC. The conceptual relationships among the variables for this research are suggested here below

Figure 1.1: The Conceptual frame work of the study



Adapted from Einarsen et al. (2007) and Meyer & Allen (1997)

1.3. Statement of the Problem

Teachers' OC has a profound effect on the teaching and learning process, the quality of education, teachers' job satisfaction, the effectiveness of the school, and the production of capable students or citizens, which may have a big role in the development of the country (Endale, 2019; Mwesiga & Ogoti Okendo, 2018; Salamat et al., 2013). Committed teachers are willing to go above and beyond to achieve the school's goals and vision (Selamat et al., 2013). A higher level of teachers' OC is necessary to improve school performance and educational goal attainment in today's globalized world (Pan, 2023). However, different problems are observed in schools with teachers, which have a bad effect on school performance (Yarive, 2015). Yarive further clarified that low motivation, emotional distress, and exhaustion are the major problems observed in teachers among the many difficulties in schools. In the Ethiopian education system, there have been complaints raised by students, parents, the community, and educational professionals about teachers failing to carry out their responsibilities willingly, resulting in poor student engagement and achievement (Ayenalem et al., 2022). Disturbingly, some students have

been also advanced to higher grades without attaining the necessary skills, leading to higher dropout rates (Wata Derso & Kant, 2022). Different evidence confirmed that teachers' commitment in Ethiopia has been eroded over time. For instance, a study conducted in secondary schools in Ethiopia by Anwar et al. (2016) showed that the commitment of secondary school teachers tends to decrease after some time. Moreover, according to Endale (2019), teachers' OC could not display as expected in the secondary schools of Ethiopia. The Ministry of Education's (MoE) further corroborate these concerns, revealing that teachers exhibit disinterest in their work, lack motivation, waste valuable classroom time, and frequently experience absenteeism (MoE, 2018). Furthermore, MoE identified absenteeism, low teacher inspiration, and subpar education quality as prevailing issues in the teaching and learning process (MoE, 2020).

According to the Amhara Region Education Bureau (AREB) report, teacher turnover, poor quality education, absenteeism, wastage of class time, and low inspiration are difficulties observed among secondary school teachers in the region (AREB, 2021, 2022). The report also indicates that a significant proportion of secondary school teachers in the region (approximately 25%) were unable to attend continuous professional development training, further exacerbating the problem. Scholars have identified school leaders' behavior, particularly principals, as a dissatisfying element contributing to the lack of commitment among secondary school teachers (Skerritt, 2021; Skinner et al., 2021).

School principals' leadership behavior played a significant role in improving teachers' OC, teaching learning process, student achievement, and quality education. Lazufa et al. (2022) confirmed this and explained that school principals' leadership behavior has a big role to play in improving the learning process and quality of education in secondary schools. Besides, scholars revealed that principals' leadership behavior plays an important role in building an environment favorable to the teaching-learning process and has a pivotal impact on student achievement (Terziu et al., 2016). On the other hand, principals' DLB has a substantial and wide-ranging negative emotional, physiological, and work-related effect on teachers, school performance, and families, and it drives them to leave their job (Blasé & Blase, 2008). Principals' DLB, which has a substantial impact on teachers' well-being, classroom instruction, and students' academic progress, has persisted in secondary schools and has yet to be addressed (Blasé & Blase, 2002, 2004). MoE (2020) also criticized the fact that most principals lack the capability to improve the

quality of education and effectively attain school goals. In the same vein, Yadete claimed that school principals have not adequately fulfilled their roles in enhancing student results and overall school performance (Yadete, 2023). Similarly, the report of the Amhara regional education bureau showed that in secondary schools, challenges have also been noticed in achieving organizational goals related to students learning outcomes. Consequently, weak leadership behaviors among school principals have hindered schools from succeeding and excelling (Aslamiyah et al., 2022). Given the constraints faced by secondary schools in the Amhara regional state, it is evident that principals' leadership behavior may play a significant role in shaping teachers' commitment and improving school performance, thereby necessitating comprehensive research to understand the prevalence and potential effects of principals' DLB in secondary schools.

The literature identifies two key gaps. Firstly, most studies investigating DLB have predominantly relied on quantitative methodologies, utilizing questionnaires and statistical analyses (Aasland et al., 2010; Balwant et al., 2019; Buch et al., 2015; Chénard-Poirier et al., 2021; Cecile, 2020; Coetzee & Dyk, 2018; Reed & Bullies, 2009; Schaubroeck et al., 2007; Schmidt et al., 2018; Shaw et al., 2014; Shaw et al., 2015; Woestman & Wasonga, 2015). A scarcity of adequate qualitative research focusing on these variables persists, making it challenging to discern if questionnaire-based data align with interview-based data or present contradictions. Secondly, the exploration of DLB in the context of school education is limited, and research specifically investigating its prevalence and effect on teachers' OC in secondary schools in the Amhara regional state is lacking (Blase & Blase, 2002, 2004; Cemaloglu, 2011; Karadag & Dulay, 2021). Addressing these methodological and contextual gaps, the primary objective of this study was to examine the prevalence of principals' DLB and its effect on teachers' OC in secondary schools of the Amhara regional state. By bridging these gaps, this research aimed to provide valuable insights that can inform targeted strategies to enhance principals' leadership behaviors and improve teachers' commitment and overall educational outcomes in the region. The following research questions spearheaded the entire research work:

1. To what extent do secondary schools principals in the state of Amhara exhibit DLBs?
2. Which DLB is widely exhibited by secondary school principals in the study area?

3. Which commitment dimension kept most teachers in their work, in the current study area?
4. Do teachers differ in their perception of principals' DLB based on their demographic characteristics (gender, work experience, and qualification level) in secondary schools of Amhara regional state?
5. Is there significant relationship between principals' DLB and teachers' OC in secondary schools of the state of Amhara?
6. To what extent does each dimension of principals' DLB predict every domain of teachers' OC in the study area?

1.4. Significance of the Study

This study will have the following significance.

- The study will help the Ministry of Education understand the prevalence of principals' DLB in secondary schools in Amhara Regional State, which has a significant negative effect on secondary school teachers' OC and overall organizational performance.
- It will help the Amhara regional education bureau to have better insights about how far secondary schools in the region are affected by the prevalence of principals' DLB and teachers' lower OC.
- The study will also offer the Amhara regional education bureau an opportunity to gain insights about the most prevalent principals' DLB in secondary schools in the region.
- It will enable the regional educational bureau to comprehend mechanisms to prevent school leaders' DLB.
- To a create conducive environment for effective teaching and learning, to conduct effective classroom instruction, to maintain a healthy and smooth relationship among secondary school communities, and eventually to improve the quality of school education, ethical secondary school principals and motivated teachers have played critical roles. As a result, the research findings will have the ability to highlight all levels of educational institutions in the region where the problem resides in terms of school leader behavior and teachers' OC to achieving such goals.

- The study will assist educational institutions at various levels in the Amhara region in reshaping and shifting their thinking in evaluating school leaders from a positive to a negative perspective.
- It will enable Zonal and Woreda Education Bureaus to proactively consider and assess the dark side of leadership behavior while assigning and hiring school leaders.
- Based on the findings of the research, this study will have a role in enhancing secondary school leaders' capability to understand the behaviors of destructive leaders, which will enable them to save themselves from venturing down the path of destructive leadership.
- It will also assist policymakers and researchers to have better knowledge about the prevalence of principals' DLB and its effect on teachers' OC in the region.
- It will have significant importance to them in understanding the relationship between principals' DLB and teachers' OC in secondary schools in the Amhara region.
- It will provide an opportunity to acquaint themselves with information about the best predictor of OC among DLB dimensions in secondary schools in Amhara regional state.
- It will help the Ministry of Education and Regional Education Bureau arrange leadership development programs by considering the negative leadership behavior witnessed among school leaders.

1.5. Scope of the Study

Research should be delimited geographically, conceptually, and demographically by considering available resources and in terms of manageability. Geographically, the research was conducted in the secondary schools of the Amhara national regional state. It helps to make sure that the study is significant to the Amhara regional state and has the importance of making the research more manageable. Conceptually, the study was carried out on the prevalence of principals' DLB and its effects on teachers' OC in secondary schools in Amhara regional state. Similarly, the prevalence of principals' DLB in secondary schools of Amhara regional state, the relationship between principals' DLB and teachers' OC in secondary schools of Amhara regional state, the effect of principals' DLB on teachers' OC in secondary schools of Amhara regional state, and the predictive power of principals' DLB on teachers' OC were the epicenters of the study. Dimensions of DLB, such as TL, DL, SL, and LL behavior, were carefully examined. In the same manner, dimensions of OC like AC, CC, and NC were the focal points of the research.

The conceptual delimitation aided the researcher in investigating problems that rose in the school; it assisted in focusing on variables that are relevant to the situation; and it also assisted in ensuring that the research is clear, meaningful, and focused. Moreover, the study comprised three zones and two city administrations, with samples selected randomly from all zones and city administrations found in the region. This was also done to make the study target a specific group that can enhance the perfection of the results and to manage the study properly. The perceptions of teachers' based on gender, experience, and education level were examined to analyze their perception differences on the prevalence of principals' DLB and its effect on teachers' OC in secondary schools in Amhara regional state. Demographic variables such as age were not included in the study because the researcher believed that work experience was better suited to examining the problem than age in a school context.

1.6. Limitation of the Study

The prevalence and effect of principals' DLB on teachers' OC in secondary schools in the region can be investigated using various sources. The study involved secondary school teachers' and principals' perspectives. As a result, the perceptions of secondary school students, secondary school administrative personnel, and education specialists at various levels were not included as a source of data and, as a result, were not covered in this study. Therefore, the results of the study may not represent all educational stakeholders of secondary schools in the region.

CHAPTER TWO

REVIEW OF RELATED LITRATURE

2.1. Organizational Commitment

OC is a driving force that binds people to a certain course of action and can be accompanied by a range of mind sets that influence behavior (Meyer & Herscovich, 2001). Meyer and Allen (1997) describe OC as an employee's loyalty and readiness to collaborate with the organization in order to attain its objectives. OC is a mental state that characterizes an employee's relationship with the organization and influences the decision to remain or leave the organization (Meyer & Allen, 1993). Additionally, OC is a concept that encourages adherents to embrace the objectives and goals of the organization, staff members' efforts to improve the organization, and their hopes to maintain their employment with the organization (Yilmaz & Kilic, 2017). It is also viewed as a significant aspect in boosting organizational performance, lowering absenteeism, and decreasing turnover (Herera & Heras Rosas, 2021). Moreover, OC denotes a more active level of staff commitment to the company (Habib, 2020). It is also the intent to follow through on a plan of action (Meyer & Allen, 2004). They claim that organizations frequently try to instill commitment in their employees in order to create stability and prevent costly turnover. It is widely assumed that committed individuals will work harder and are more inclined to go the additional mile to achieve organizational goals (Meyer & Allen, 2004).

Workers with a high level of OC passionately believe in the organization's aims and work hard to attain organizational effectiveness (Alrowwad et al., 2019), whereas organizations with low levels of employee commitment will fail to meet their goals (Shahid & Azhar, 2013). Workers with a job commitment can minimize the organization's intention to turnover, and firms that can produce this form of commitment among their employees can save on recruitment expenditures. Companies who are unable to develop committed personnel, on the other hand, will incur significant costs due to high staff turnover. Meyer & Allen (1997) discovered that high OC has both individual and organizational benefits, including minimal work withdrawal, high performance, reducing absenteeism, and decreased delayed work. Nazneen and Mohammad

(2017) discovered that employees have higher OC, which has an effect on job satisfaction among technical universities. Several studies have also shown that OC lowers the expense of higher turnover rates (Guzeller & Celiker, 2019). Furthermore, it demonstrated that employees who are more committed to the organization are more likely to engage in extra effort and make sacrifices for the good of the organization (Grego-Planer, 2019). Organizations with devoted employees can bring success and development to the organization, but employees with little or no commitment to the organization are hesitant to achieve the organization's goals (Somayyeh et al., 2013). Additionally, OC improves organizational performance but has a negative impact on turnover intention (Hariyonyota et al., 2019). Organizations also seek to increase employee commitment on a regular basis in order to decrease the high cost of staff turnover and preserve continuity (Meyer & Allen, 2004).

In the same way, in an educational setting, enhancements to school performance and quality educational achievement in today's globalized world demand a higher level of OC from teachers (Mwesiga & Okendo, 2018). Committed teachers have a strong attachment to schools (Flint et al., 2013). They put forth a lot of effort to meet the fundamental goals of schools, which include academic performance for students (Kushman, 1992). In addition, they do not wish to leave their current employer (Flint et al., 2013). They also made an attempt to increase student learning outcomes and put more effort into their work (Yousef, 2000). OC is also related to teacher job satisfaction, teacher efficacy, and teacher expectations for student success (Kushman, 1992). According to Haftkhavana et al. (2012), teachers' OC has a significant impact on students' academic achievement. Additionally, it is also positively correlated with students' academic achievement (Choudhury & Chechi, 2021). Teachers' commitment has a profound effect on the academic achievements of students, the performance of schools, and the overall quality of education, which in turn play a crucial role in the development and progress of the country (Endale, 2019; Mwesiga & Okendo, 2018). Three forms of OC are emphasized among teachers in the school setting. The first is the work effort required by teachers to successfully instruct children, the staff loyalty required to maintain an enduring school culture of teacher professionalism and academic excellence, and staff agreement on the school's basic educational principles and goals (Kushman, 1992). However, different problems are observed in schools with teachers, which have a bad effect on school performance (Wata Derso & Kant, 2022; Yarive,

2011). Yarive further clarified that low motivation, emotional distress, and exhaustion are the major problems observed in teachers among the many difficulties in schools.

2.2. Dimensions of Organizational Commitment

Workers' OC can take various forms and has the capacity to affect organizational success and well-being (Meyer & Herscovich, 2001). Meyer and Allen (1991) explained that workers' commitment is reflected in at least three main outlooks: active involvement with the organization, the predictable outcomes of quitting the organization, and the need to remain in the organization. The three basic components of workers' commitment are attachment to the organization or AC, CC or instrumental commitment, and NC or duty to continue in the organization (Meyer & Allen, 1997). But, according to them, the nature of the psychological state for each type of worker with OC is significantly different. Workers with strong ACs stay because they want to; those with strong CCs stay because they have to; and those with strong NCs stay because they feel obligated to. Furthermore, an individual can experience all three attributes of OC to varying degrees. For example, one worker may have a strong desire to stay but a minimal duty to do so; another may have a weak desire, a moderate need, and a strong duty; and so on (Meyer & Allen, 1991). The concept of worker commitment describes the different ways of OC development and the implications for job-related outcomes and employees' behavior in the organization, which would be examined below:

2.2.1. Affective Commitment

AC is defined as a psychological (interior) attachment, fondness for loyalty, and involvement in the organization (Yilmaz & Kilic, 2017). AC is also defined as the employee's desire to stay with the organization. The way a subordinate feels about the organization determines their AC to it (Yilmaz & Kilic, 2017). AC is described as an affective (emotional) adaptation that demonstrates and identifies employees with their organizations, is firmly dedicated to their organizations, and is glad to be a part of the organization (Meyer and Allen, 1997). Internalization and identification are necessary for attachment to the organization (Meyer & Herscovich, 2001). They further explained that higher AC is accompanied by high levels of normative and/or continuing commitment. AC appears when workers totally embrace the organization's ideals and objectives. Individuals with great AC frequently demonstrate high

performance, optimistic outlooks, and a willingness to stay with the firm (Meyer & Allen, 1997). Additionally, AC has a higher impact on behavior than CC or NC (Meyer & Herscovich, 2001). AC of employee has also a significant effect on employee job performance (Jakada et al., 2019). Several studies have found that employees' AC has a significant impact on organizational citizenship behavior and organizational performance (Afandi, 2018). AC is connected with unfavorable outcomes such as absenteeism, turnover, organizational citizenship behavior, and work performance (Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001). On the other hand, another study found that the AC dimension has no effect on job satisfaction (Yilmaz & Kilic, 2017). Besides, Nazneen and Mohammed (2017) explained that employees have moderate AC, which has no significant association with job satisfaction.

2.2.2. Continuance Commitment

CC is the assumption that if a person leaves an organization, he or she will lose any financial or social benefits gained as a result of providing labor, time, and effort (Meyer & Allen, 1997). The term CC refers to circumstances in which leaving an organization would be more expensive or impossible (Yilmaz & Kilic, 2017). A worker who is instrumentally committed to an institution is dedicated to the demands of the organization as well as his or her work (Yilmaz & Kilic, 2017). According to Meyer and Allen's (1991) research, employee retention commitment is influenced by the costs of leaving the organization. Tolentino (2013) claimed that CC is cost-based. Tolentino went on to say that in a CC, a subordinate's allegiance is based on the benefits (gains) they have gotten from the institution. Furthermore, Tolentino said that in a continuity commitment, followers overwhelmingly choose to stay in the organization in order to keep perks such as seniority, salary, and social benefits.

CC has a strong impact on the effective and efficient functioning of an organization (Meyer & Herscovich, 2001). There is also a significant relationship between CC and organizational performance. In addition, CC has a positive effect on employee performance (Suleman & Ilies, 2000). It is also a significant predictor of organizational performance (Gilber & Konya, 2020). Likewise, Jakada et al. (2019) revealed that CC of employee has a significant effect on employee job performance. Moreover, CC develops as staff members tighten their ties to the organization based on what they gain in return for their efforts and what they would lose if they left (such as

money, benefits, and associations) (Yilmaz & Kilic, 2017). Only when they surpass their grant expectations do these employees produce their best work (Meyer & Allen, 1997). According to Nazneen and Mohammed (2017), employees have moderate CC, and it has a positive relationship with employee job satisfaction. On the other hand, there is no significant relationship between CC and organizational cynicism (Khan et al., 2016). There was a negative association between CC and job satisfaction of teachers (Yilmaz & Klici, 2017). It also has no significant association with organizational climate (Sarbessa, 2014).

2.2.3. Normative Commitment

NC is described as an employee's sense of duty to remain with her or his organization (Meyer & Allen, 1991). The NC is based on feelings of obligation and is measured by the employee's feelings about staying to work for the organization (Yilmaz & Kilic, 2017). NC is a measure of how well an employee's beliefs and values match the organization's fundamental ideals (Tolentino, 2013). NC occurs when workers stay with a company based on societal expectations or expected behavioral standards (Yilmaz & Kilic, 2017). These workers are characterized by formality, deference, and caution. Another way to put NC is as a psychological contract between employers and workers (Meyer and Allen, 1997). According to their findings, the level of NC may vary depending on the subordinates' social, familial, cultural, and personal development. Moreover, NC is the commitment that emerges when employees feel a moral relationship to their organizations (Sow & Berete, 2016).

NC has a detrimental impact on employee retention or turnover intention (Sow & Berete, 2016). It has a significant positive effect on organizational citizenship behavior (Bakhshi et al., 2011). Similarly, according to Bonds (2017), NC has a substantial impact on employee turnover intention. There is also a significant and positive relationship between NC and job satisfaction (Yilmaz & Klici, 2017). Nazneen and Mohammed (2017), in a study conducted in Saudi Arabia at technical universities, explained that employees have a higher NC, which has a positive association with job satisfaction. However, NC has a negative and insignificant effect on organizational performance (Jakada et al., 2019). On the other hand, of the many factors impacting components of OC, leadership behavior is the most essential. It has the potential to boost or decrease employees' OC, contentment, and performance (Avey et al., 2011; Biswas,

2009; Cerit, 2010; and Vacchio et al., 2008). DLB is one of the negative leadership behaviors demonstrated by leaders that have a negative influence on employees and companies (Tepper, 2000; Thoroughgood et al., 2012). Some features of DLB are described in greater detail below.

2.3. The Conceptual Foundations of Destructive Leadership Behavior

DLB is a leader's pattern of behavior that compromises the institution's legal interests by undermining the organization's goals, tasks, and resources, as well as its effectiveness and the motivation, well-being, or work satisfaction of followers (Einarsen et al., 2007; Einarsen et al., 2017; Krasikova et al., 2013; Schyns & Hansbrough, 2010). Although DLB can harm people physically, it can also deteriorate interpersonal ties, trustworthiness, and even institutional culture, which can have major adverse effects on people and the institution as a whole (Holland, 2020). A destructive leader could hunt for extraneous ambitions and purposes that might be at odds with those of the institution itself, poisoning the workplace in the process (Gallus et al., 2013). This can indicate that the institution's organizational goals and objectives are not met (Krasikova et al., 2013). Furthermore, bad leadership practices that are ingrained in the process of running an institution are considered as DLB (Krasikova et al., 2013). It disseminates discreetly and covertly, equally affecting individuals, groups, and eventually the entire institution (Vreja et al., 2016). DLB is ranging from the bad (Bhandarker & Rai, 2018) to unlawful (Lipman-Blumen, 2006). Moreover, DLB can extend from the sober (Mette, 2020) to the unethical and dubious (Lipman-Blumen, 2006). It might function in opposition to institutional objectives and goals or use current institutional objectives and goals to the leader's satisfaction (Winn & Dykes, 2019).

The idea of DLB is composed of four main concepts (Aasland et al., 2010; Einarsen et al., 2007, 2017; and Schyns & Hansbrough, 2010). First, DLB is a comprehensive idea. According to them, the concept of DLB includes actions taken in two areas, namely those taken against individuals and those taken against the institution as a whole. By destroying tasks, resources, and objectives, it could harm the institution's effectiveness as well as the workers' health, inspiration, and safety (Einarsen et al., 2007). Additionally, its definition of DLB encompasses all physical and verbal behavior, unlike Tepper's (2000) definition of abusive supervision. DLB may also include indirect and passive acts in addition to aggressive and apparent ones (Einarsen et al.,

2007). Lim & Suh (2022) state that a manager who neglects to protect an employee's welfare, for example, in a workplace with possible safety concerns is committing a passive physical-indirect act. They went on to say that a leader's failure to provide critical information or feedback to a subordinate may result in passive-verbal, indirect behavior. From the other angle, Krasikova et al. (2013) revealed that counterproductive workplace behavior like stealing organizational resources should not be considered DLB. They explained that even though those behaviors are harmful, they have no influence on the process of leading. Besides, Krasikova et al. (2013) believed that DLB is manifested by identifying destructive goals and encouraging followers to pursue destructive goals that undermine the legal rights of organizations, and when leaders use destructive leadership methods or styles to achieve organizational goals.

Second, DLB excluded isolated misbehavior (Einarsen et al., 2007; 2017). They defined destructive leadership as behaviors that are repeated and systematic (Aasland et al., 2010; Einarsen, 2007). As a result, the concept overlooks occasional bad behavior, such as an unjustifiable out-of-character rage outburst (Einarsen et al., 2007, 2017; Tepper, 2000, 20007). On this point, academics adhere to the European research tradition on bullying in the workplace, which emphasizes that for an activity, interaction, or process to be labeled as bullying, it must occur frequently (for example, once a week) and repeatedly (for example, over the course of about six months) (Einarsen et al., 2013). Notable signals can be found when focusing on systematic and recurring activities. Leaders occasionally make wrong choices or simply have a bad work day, and this is something that must be accepted. DLB can only be applied when it is systematic and repeated. Therefore, according to Einarsen (2007), it is only when leaders act aggressively against subordinates regularly or make mistakes repeatedly and systematically that they may be said to DLB. The emphasis on recurring and systematic behavior precludes any potentially incidental and thus isolated behavior from the meaning (Einarsen et al., 2007, 2017). Tepper (2000), who bases his definition of abusive supervision on repeated instances of unfavorable behavior, supports such a standard as well.

Third, DLB may not intend to cause harm. Many researchers (Ma, Karri, & Chittipeddi, 2004) do not explicitly state whether the intention to harm is included in their concept of DLB, whereas others explicitly exclude unintentional conduct from their concept of DLB. Krasikova et al. (2013) considered destructive leadership a volitional leadership behavior that cause or intends

to causes harm to an organization's goals and employees. On the other hand, other scholars believed that intention should not be included when conceptualizing DLB since the consequences of a leader's behavior, rather than the leader's intentions, are more important in determining whether a leader is destructive. Therefore, DLB may include actions that were not intended to injure others but occurred as a result of incompetence, carelessness, or insensitivity that undermine the institution or its people (Aasland et al., 2010; Einarsen et al., 2007, 2017; Tepper, 2007; Wang et al., 2010). Since intention creates an artificial behavior, the concept of DLB should not include the leader's intention rather than the consequences of the leader's behavior (Einarsen et al., 2007). Moreover, even though the reason for the manager's actions is not included in the suggested definition, it is important to recognize the significant impact that intention may have on the subjective assessments that subordinates and superiors may make of the manager's effectiveness as a destructive leader (Tepper, 2000).

Lastly, DLB violates the lawful and rightful interests of the organization (Einarsen et al., 2007). When actions go against the legitimate and legal interests of the institution, they are considered DLB (Aasland et al., 2010; Einarsen et al., 2007). By legitimate, we mean what is acceptable to a certain organization in a specific cultural setting as being lawful, rational, and justifiable (Di Carlo, 2022; Einarsen et al., 2017). Einarsen (2007) contends that legal interests are concerned with what is justifiable, legitimate, and in the institution's best interests, with the lawful means being justified by internal rules that have been established as well as by formal power structures and procedures that are internal to the institution. These concepts have a variety of indications, including deviant behavior being explained in terms of behavior that deviates from the norm, unethical behavior being described in terms of a particular cultural value system, and unlawful behavior being explained in terms of laws and the jurisdiction in which the institution operates (Di Carlo, 2022). One could argue that they are acting in accordance with the norm of that particular institution, and as a result, it will not be interpreted as deviant behavior. For example, if the majority of leaders in a given organization have become accustomed to billing their organization for private dinners and holidays. However, according to the proposed definition, this activity will be viewed as harmful because it contravenes the institution's legal interest, which is the efficient use of resources for the institution's and its owners' interests. In the same way, from the minute these decisions, strategies, or goals are put into action, any activity

that runs counter to one of the organization’s legal decisions, plans, or objectives is to be viewed as DLB. As a result, if the changes are said to be consistent with the institution's legitimate interests, failing to alter one's behavior during a shift may be called DLB. An institution, in fact, cannot arbitrarily choose its legal interests. Some actions, like when a leader resigns from his position and the organization in order to advance his own career, may, of course, be seen as actions contrary to the institution's interests, but they do not necessarily carry the connotation of wrongdoing associated with actions that are seen as immoral, abnormal, or illegal (Einarsen et al., 2007). As a result, it cannot be said to be against the institution's legitimate and legal interests.

Additionally, both managers and employees are compelled to adhere to local, state, and federal laws and agreements as well as standards. Only when a leader's actions go against the institution's legitimate and lawful interests, as identified by a particular society at a particular moment, can that behavior be considered destructive (Aasland et al., 2010; Einarsen et al., 2007). This suggests that DLB will take different forms in various communities over time. For instance, new rules banning smoking in public places suggest that, while doing so in your own office was not considered destructive conduct prior to the law, it will undermine the organization's legitimate and legal interests once it is implemented (Aasland et al., 2010; Einarsen et al., 2007). Einarsen et al. (2017) claim that the organization's legal, cultural, and historical framework determines what constitutes a lawful use of all of the resources available to the institution, including its employees.

2.4. Manifestations of Destructive Leadership Behavior

It showed DLB when the leader did two things: (a) set destructive goals and encouraged followers to carry them out; and (b) used harmful activities (actions) to rally followers to the leader's goals. Although these two examples of destructive leadership are separate from one another, a leader could combine them (Einarsen et al., 2007; Krasikova et al., 2013; Schyns & Hansbrough, 2010). The first sign of DLB, according to Einarsen et al. (2007), is when leaders’ pressure subordinates to accomplish objectives that go against the institution's legitimate interests. This manifestation of destructive leadership occurs when destructive leaders incite employee to pursue an organizational goal that is detrimental to the organization's interests or

existence. The organization's aim is attained by surrendering its interests. For example, if a company has a strong reputation for product safety, a leader who inspires their followers to distribute dangerous goods in order to increase sales has supported the pursuit of a harmful objective.

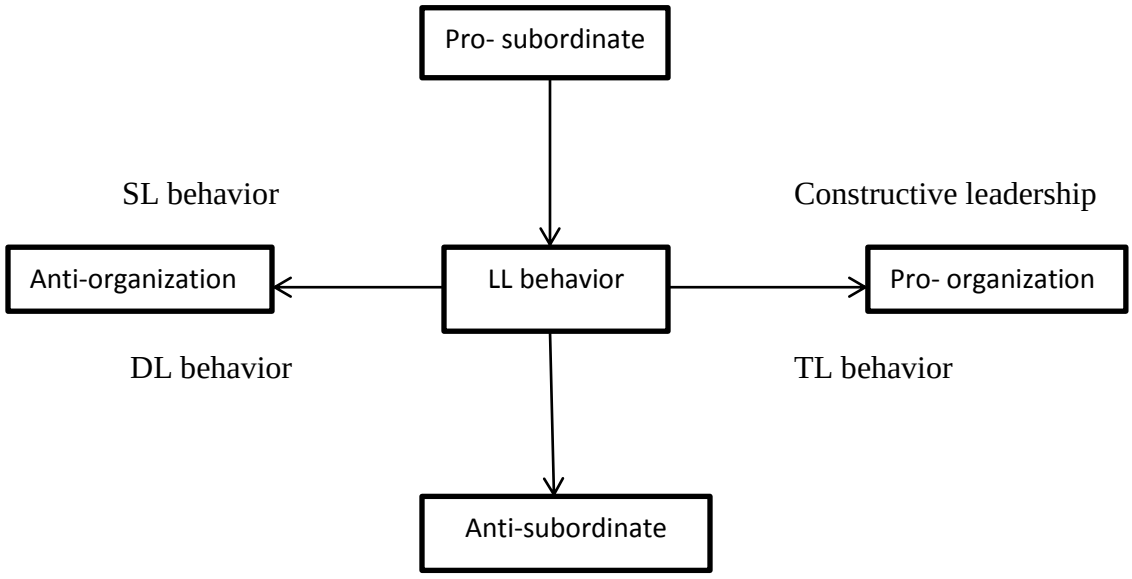
The second sign of DLB, according to Einarsen and his coworkers, occurs when a leader exerts pressure on followers to achieve goals, whether or not those goals are harmful to the institution, by using harmful acts (verbal or nonverbal) (i.e., uses DLB). When a harmful leader pushes subordinates to achieve organizational goals by damaging acts, this is an example of negative leadership behavior. The organizational goals could be beneficial or harmful for the organization's legal interests, but the destructive leader used destructive actions to achieve them. Krasikova et al. (2013) described such manifestations of DLB as the employment of destructive leadership styles to influence followers in the pursuit of organizational goals, which is harmful to the organization (i.e., uses a destructive leadership style). For example, even when a leader is pursuing a goal that the organization supports, this leader has employed DLB actions (verbal or nonverbal) to force followers to place an emphasis on increased product safety. A leader who bullies employees to get them to focus on improving product safety, for instance, has employed a destructive leadership style, even though this leader is pursuing an organization-endorsed goal.

2.5. Dimensions of Destructive Leadership Behavior

The DLB model was established by Einarsen and his work associates (Einarsen et al., 2007). It is based on three presumptions. First, it assumes that there are two basic types of DLBs: those that are primarily directed at subordinates and those that are primarily directed at the organization. Second, something predicated on the notion that a leader's actions could range from being strongly pro to strongly anti on both dimensions. Third, it assumes that leaders are not always good or bad but may display a conglomeration of behaviors by combining the two dimensions to produce four categories of leadership behavior with various mixes of destructive and constructive leadership activity (Aasland et al., 2010; Einarsen et al., 2007, 2017; Schyns & Hansbrough, 2010). According to the model's logic, a leader can be perceived positively on one of the two dimensions (pro), while acting illegally in the best interests of the organization on the other (anti). This viewpoint provides a complete view of how leaders act destructively.

There are three fundamental types of destructive leadership in the model, each of which involves the leader performing negatively across at least one dimension (Aasland et al., 2010; Einarsen et al., 2007; Schyns & Hansbrough, 2010). SL behavior (pro-subordinate paired with anti-organizational behavior), TL behavior (pro-organization combined with anti-subordinate behavior), and DL behavior (anti-subordinate combined with anti-organizational behavior) (Einarsen et al., 2007). The model also includes a category for LL behavior, which refers to the leader's avoidance of meeting the reasonable expectations that are inherent in the role of a leader, making them passive in both directions (Aasland et al., 2010; Einarsen et al., 2017; Schyns & Hansbrough, 2010).

Fig. 2. A model of DLB (adapted from Einarsen et al., 2007).



2.5.1. Tyrannical Leadership Behavior

TL behavior manifested when a leader combines pro-organizational and anti-subordinate behaviors. Being pro-organizational, these leaders may behave per the legitimate goals, tasks, and strategies of the organization. However, they frequently get results at the cost of subordinates, not through their willing cooperation (Aasland et al., 2010; Einarsen et al., 2007, 2017). Being anti-subordinate, tyrannical leaders manipulate, humiliate, and intimidate subordinates to get the work done (Einarsen et al 2017). As a result, what upper management may perceive as a leader's efficient focus on task completion, subordinates may perceive as

abusive leadership or even bullying (Einarsen et al., 2007). Leaders, who act destructively towards subordinates may not essentially be destructive in other interpersonal relationships, be it with customers or business partners, or the upper management. Ma Karri & Chittipeddi (2004) define this phenomenon as the paradox of managerial tyranny, arguing that TL may lead to extraordinary performance, even when subordinates suffer, at least in the short run. It is a disposition to show off power over their employees via humiliating and manipulative behaviors (Ashforth, 1994). Inappropriate behaviors like arbitrariness, belittling, a lack of consideration, discouragement of followers' initiative, and non-contingent punishments are TL behaviors (Ashforth, 1994).

According to Einarsen et al.'s (2007) model of DLB, the tyrannical supervisor may appropriately execute his or her duties to the organization, but it may attain organizational goals at the expense or disadvantage of employees. According to Tepper (2007), the most common manifestations of abusive supervisors, in this case tyrannical leaders, are bodiless behaviors in which the supervisor publicly ridicules, scapegoats, or takes credit for the work of employees. According to the literature, leader who engage in TL have a limited awareness of their influence on others, and leaders' activities aid in the cessation of desire (Trepanier et al., 2015). Current research consistently supports the hypothesis that TL is associated with lower job satisfaction (Tepper, 2000; Tepper et al., 2004). Additionally, Skogstad et al. (2007) revealed that a relatively greater exposure to DLB, as evidenced by a high magnitude of TL was associated with the lowest job satisfaction. Hutchinson & Hurley (2013) showed that this kind of DLB spoils the social climate of the institution and badly influences the quality of work (Sedivy-Benton et al., 2015). Moreover, according to Aasland et al. (2010) and Einarsen et al. (2017), tyrannical supervisors erode employee inspiration, affect employee welfare; and lead to declining job satisfaction. Einarsen et al. (2007) showed that such tyrannical supervisors impair employees; they may not unavoidably harm their institution. When supervisors are involved in conflicting acts, like constant reminders, they operate parts of their followers' brains that give rise to an aspiration to keep away from the leaders (Boyatzis, 2014).

According to Harris et al. (2013), abusive leadership has a negative influence on needed work results. Leidner et al. (2012) showed that employees exposed to disgrace encounter senses of conjoining anger and contempt. Similarly, Leidner et al. (2012) demonstrated that when

supervisors openly humiliate employees, they feel the highest level of anger and are disenfranchised. According to Harris et al. (2013), abusive leadership or TL behavior leads to the highest level of followers' frustration and declining feelings of institutional support. Based on the works of Schwepker & Schultz (2015) the anti-subordinate parts of tyrannical supervision influenced the turnover intention and OC of followers. Furthermore, TL behavior has a negative effect on employee commitment (Goshu, 2022). TL behavior has a significant effect on employee turnover intention (Hyson, 2016). Additionally, TL behavior has a significant influence on employee work performance and work withdrawal (Ahmad et al., 2022). There is also a negative relationship between TL behavior and teacher commitment (Goshu, 2022). Contrary to the negative effect TL behavior has on employees and the organization, some studies explain that it has a positive effect on employees and the organization. For example, according to Zhang et al. (2014), abusive leadership rarely produces positive outcomes, such as the urge to produce supplementary force and inspiration to cure the situation. There is some overlap between the anti- subordinate aspects of both tyrannical and derailed leadership behaviors.

2.5.2. Derailed Leadership Behavior

DL behavior aims to demonstrate anti-organizational and anti-subordinate leadership acts. According to Aryee et al. (2007), these leaders engage in anti-organizational leadership behaviors like absenteeism, work withdrawal, shirking, committing fraud, or otherwise stealing resources (whether they be financial, time, or material from the organization). They also engage in anti-subordinate behaviors such as bullying, humiliation, manipulation, and deceit (Aasland et al., 2010; Einarsen et al., 2007, 2017). By acting against organizational goals and simultaneously undermining or sabotaging followers, derailment leaders operate against the organizations' legitimate interests. As a result, the leaders may have come out as abusive toward the organization as well as their subordinates. DL, in the words of Einarsen et al. (2007), refers to supervisory actions that obstruct both the institution and the followers. The associated leadership behavior includes deceit, fraud, and, more crucially, bullying, dishonesty, and leadership undermining against subordinates (Aasland et al., 2010). Furthermore, negative personality traits or deviant behaviors like narcissism, Machiavellianism, and psychopathy are harmful to the organization and its personnel. Psychopaths had low levels of consciousness (Paulhus & Williams, 2002). It had an impact on organizational productivity and was more widespread in

civil and financial service entities (Boddy, 2010). It is characterized by extreme impulsivity, thrill-seeking behavior, limited empathy, a lack of loyalty, and irresponsibility (Boddy, 2010). Narcissists are self-centered and always focus on themselves, not paying attention to social or organizational concerns around them, and may even engage in anti-social behavior (Wu et al., 2019). There had a minor positive correlation with cognitive capacity (Paulhus & Williams, 2002). Narcissism is characterized by dominance, expressionism, and exploitation, as well as superiority and entitlement (Lee & Ashton, 2005). Machiavellianism adopts techniques that promote self-interest, including deception, charm, and emotional detachment to manipulate and exploit social and interpersonal connections to their own objectives (Jakobwitz & Egan, 2005). It is characterized by self-interest, selfishness, brutality, a lack of empathy, and interpersonal manipulation (Furtner et al., 2011). They have little consciousness (Paulhus & Williams, 2002). The organizations as well as subordinates suffer from all of the aforementioned leadership actions.

The destructive nature of derailed leaders springs up from the utilization of authoritarian means under convenient conditions (Marshal et al., 2013). As described, supervisors who have such a leading style behave to deceive and overpower employees, in preference to empowering them. According to Ertureten et al. (2013), the presence of transactional or transformational leadership types in a workplace reduced the frequency of leadership bullying, whereas a more authoritarian leadership type increased the frequency. According to Zona et al. (2013), when organizations improve their ethical climate, leaders reduce detrimental behaviors and accelerate subordinates' work. Based on the works of Gamian-Wilk (2013) on the sides of anti-subordinates, DL behavior comprises physical intimidation, workplace bullying, ostracism, and assigning unmanageable workloads. Zabrodska and Kyeton (2013) demonstrated in their work that DL behaviors are one component of an organizational situation that emphasizes bullying. Decoster et al. (2013) discovered that negative leadership behaviors, such as DL, impair a leader's ability to help or motivate others aside from self-interest and reduce employee job satisfaction. Ertureten et al. (2013) showed that declining mobbing acts were significantly related to decrease CC, higher turnover, and declining job satisfaction. According to Kammeyer-Mueller et al. (2013), these leadership behaviors reduce the emotional levels at which subordinates hold on to their organization and elevate subordinates' turnover desires. In addition, DL behavior has

an effect on low employee morale, low organizational productivity, and the loss of an organization's reputation (Inyang, 2013). So long as they are anti-organizational or anti-subordinate, derailed supervisors do the opposite of constructive leadership.

2.5.3. Supportive Disloyal Leadership Behavior

A leader that combines pro-subordinate and anti-organizational leadership behaviors is said to be SD behavior. As a result, these leaders may encourage, motivate, and support their staff, (subordinates), for example, through inspirational motivation and individualized consideration (Bass & Riggio, 2006). However, these leaders may simultaneously deprive resources of the organization, be it consumption of working hours, material resources, or economic resources (Einarsen et al., 2007, 2017). They may grant their employees more benefits than appropriate and encourage low work ethic or even misconduct. Supportive-disloyal leaders direct their subordinates towards inefficiency, or other goals than those of the organization, at the same time behaving in a comradely and friendly manner. However, supportive-disloyal leaders are combining this with actions that are not in the best and proper interests of the corporation; theft, fraud, and embezzlement are common issues in today's business environment, even among executives who are well-liked by their employees (Schyns & Hansbrough, 2010). The intention of the supportive-disloyal leader may not be to harm the organization; he or she may simply act upon a different vision or strategy working to support other values or goals than that of the organization, even believing that he or she acts with the organization's best interest at heart (e.g., narcissistic leadership) (Einarsen, et al., 2017). By directing and motivating followers to work hard, but in a direction contrary to organizational goals, supportive-disloyal leaders behave contrary to the legitimate interests of the organization (Schyns & Hansbrough, 2010).

According to Nahum-Shani et al. (2014), 60% of study participants reported that their leader exhibited a SL behavior at some point, while 45% reported a relatively high level of being both supportive of subordinates and undermining of the institution. According to Paustain- Underdahl et al. (2013), supportive-disloyal supervisors get followers' trust by indicating they value their employees' beneficences. Such types of supervisors have a tendency to engage in DLB like embezzlement, stealing resources, and institutional undermining (Einarsen et al., 2007). According to Nahum-Shani et al. (2014), this leadership behavior causes institutional

undermining of attempts by supervisors who persist in being supportive of employees but highly pressure the organization. According to Aasland et al. (2010) and Lipman-Blumen (2006), supportive-disloyal supervisors do not always exhibit unacceptable behaviors over time; rather, supportive-disloyal leaders possess positive characteristics that lead the way to securing their position. According to Paustian-Underdahl et al. (2013), the positive characteristics of supportive disloyal leaders include being friendly, approachable, and having effective communication skills. Aasland et al. (2010) described how supportive- disloyal leaders inspire and assist employees while at the same time looting organizational resources, like money, materials, or time, from the institution. Dussault et al. (2013) depicted that followers may have a problem recognizing supportive- disloyal supervisors as harmful because of the positive gains, help they received, and unique performance they received from employees. However, practicing systematic SL behavior by one's immediate leader is associated with an employee's report of work withdrawal (Einarsen et al., 2007; Aasland et al., 2010). They further indicated that those followers who were subjected to supportive but disloyal leadership were more likely to leave the workplace, as evidenced by increased absenteeism and tardiness, as well as decreased job output. The level of work withdrawal among those practicing supportive but disloyal leadership behaviors was higher than among those subordinates who described considerable abusive behaviors as an integration of TL, DL, and LL behaviors (Schyns & Schilling, 2013). Moreover, Aasland et al. (2010) demonstrated that supportive–disloyal supervisors aided misconduct, had low work ethics, and caused lower efficiency. On the contrary, SL behavior increases OC among employees. For instance, a study conducted in educational institutions by Goshu (2022) showed that SL behavior has a positive effect on teachers' OC.

2.5.4. Laissez-faire Leadership Behavior

In the case of LL behavior, the leader has been nominated and does exist physically in the leadership position, but has in practice escaped from the duties and responsibilities assigned to him/her, hence exerting a minimum of effort to get required job done integrated with a minimum of concern for employees (Aasland et al., 2010; Einarsen et al., 2007, 2017). It do not involve till problems are either strongly brought to their attention or the problems become so hard that action is required and can no longer be eradicated given the duties and responsibilities related with their position (Einarsen, et al., 2017). Yet, it does not limit destructive forms of leadership

behavior to such active and manifest behaviors. DLB may also be a function of passive direct and passive indirect leadership behaviors (Einarsen et al., 2007). It has frequently referred to passive and avoidant leadership behavior as LL behavior (Schyns & Hansbrough, 2010). It constituted as one the three main kinds of leadership in the full range leadership model (Bass & Riggio, 2006).

Lutz Allen et al. (2013) showed that such types of leaders are avoidant and considered by employees as evasive and dishonest. Besides, according to them, LL behavior failed to build the climate essential for employees to progress while leading, assisting, or directing followers. Courtright et al. (2014) and Susanj and Jakopec (2012) demonstrated that laissez-faire supervisors abdicate responsibility, do not exercise authority, and do not participate in decision-making. Skogstad et al. (2014) showed that it is equal to non-leadership because of the absence of effect and passive behavior. Jackson et al. (2013) indicated that LL behavior may look harmless externally, but below the surface is a set of current offensive actions or behaviors. Jackson et al. (2013) demonstrated that laissez-faire supervisor involves three kinds of supervisory responses, such as placating avoidance, where supervisors deal to take measures for followers' interests; equivocal avoidance, where supervisors offer doubtful reactions; and hostile avoidance, where supervisors decline to take a measure.

Laissez-faire supervisors slow down to take or decide, decline to behave mindfully, and reject general leadership duties (Khan et al., 2012). Dussault et al. (2013) asserted LL behaviors are hard to gauge because followers do not evaluate them under transactional or transformational leaders. According to Avolio & Bass (2004), LL behavior is essentially harmful or destructive because of its lack of leadership; the supervisor may not plan to damage the institution or their followers. According to Neilsen (2013), LL behavior contributes to workplace mistreatment through bullying behaviors. According to Sudha et al. (2016), LL behavior is negatively related with leader job performance, leader effectiveness, and follower well-being. Lipman-Bluemen (2006) demonstrated that infective leaders harm their institutions and subordinates despite their inability to do so. Moreover, LL behavior has a significant negative effect on employees' affective commitment (Robert & Vandenberghe, 2020). It also has a significant impact on employee turnover intentions (Hyson, 2016). Zinedin & Hytter (2012) showed that LL behavior negatively affects the inner health and welfare of employees. Furthermore, according to Yan et

al. (2014), laissez-faire supervisors can have a variety of negative consequences, including actively preventing followers from learning from his/her previous mistakes. Hence, LL behavior is not a zero-type of leadership. On the other hand, some studies demonstrate that LL behavior has a positive effect on work performance. For example, Donkor et al. (2021) indicated that LL behavior has a statistically positive and significant relationship with job performance. Besides, Yang (2015) revealed in his study on the positive effect of LL behavior that it might be viewed as a sign of respect for subordinates' boundaries rather than an absence of leadership and has positive effects on employees, which lead them to a sense of autonomy and self-control.

2.6. Relationship between Destructive Leadership Behavior and Employee Organizational Commitment

Despite some short-term benefits for the pro- organization and pro- subordinates' leadership behavior (in the case of the constructive leadership dimension), DLBs are likely to pose long-term risks to an organization and its employees (Aasland et al., 2010; Erickson et al., 2015). They added that employees who work for an overly-demanding boss who is more committed to advancing their interests at the expense of their organization are highly engaged. Hogg & Adelman (2013) showed that even though a DLB type may have adverse effects on an organization, during crises, the DLB elevates subordinates' help from their supervisor. In an investigation of 215 subordinates, scholars suggested that fewer self-confident or self-uncertainty individuals were sympathetic to DLB, in preference to non-autocratic leaders (David Rost et al., 2013). In addition, in the uncertainty-identity theory, a leader/manager with a DLB type could assemble help during the crisis as subordinates ought to have someone to stand behind. Supportive-disloyal leaders do not always engage in bad activity; rather, they have beneficial characteristics that have led to secure their position (Aasland et al., 2010). The positive qualities of this leadership behavior are instantly visible, as they are approachable, personable, and possess effective communication skills (Paustian-Underdahl et al., 2013). The trust they build is a vital factor in improving organizational performance (Crossley et al., 2013). Simply put, subordinates may like these leaders, despite their inherent destructiveness to the organization. Zhang et al. (2014) discovered that abusive supervision produced positive benefits on occasion. According to Zhang et al., it created the need to put in extra effort and motivation to correct the issue.

However, most studies of DLB have shown that it can have devastating effects on individuals, groups, teams, and organizations (Einarsen et al., 2017; Erickson et al., 2015; Krasikova et al., 2013). Thoroughgood et al. (2012) revealed that DLB frequently contributes to institutions' economic and social losses. Schmidt et al. (2018) identified three significant classifications of DLB: self-interested destructive leadership (leader exploits others to achieve their goal); organization-directed behaviors (stealing or embezzling from the institution); and follower-directed destructive leadership—genuinely abusive types of DLB (Schmidt et al., 2018). According to their categorization, self-serving, destructive leaders exploit others in order to achieve their goal (Schmidt et al., 2018). These leaders can exhibit charisma (Padilla et al., 2007), which employees can find attractive (Matos, 2018). Projecting a highly confident and influential image aligns them with more influential individuals and potentially achieves short-term results that can attract people to them (Matos, 2018). Additionally, he claimed that their charisma motivates, elicits, and inspires stronger pride, admiration, faith, and performance by emphasizing a compelling vision. Further, the influence of destructive leaders on the individuals who work for them covers a variety of consequences.

On the other hand, for institution-directed DLB, leaders may steal from the institution or embezzle (Einarsen et al., 2007; Schmidt et al., 2018). Here, destructive leaders can exhibit workplace coercion, abuse, hostility, sabotage, and even vindictiveness (Thoroughgood et al., 2012). They may be unproductive at negotiation, unable to manage change, using information or the lack of information inappropriately, and overall communicating unsuccessfully. Besides, they may also engage in unethical leadership behavior, lie, or behave inappropriately, showing inconsistent and erratic leadership behavior (Erickson et al., 2015). DLB also has significant negative outcomes for organizations and contributes to a range of human resource losses. The appearance of destructive leaders within an organization can negatively influence the organization's capacity to attract and recruit high potential employees (Mitchell & Ambrose, 2007). Destructive leaders may also reduce the capacity of an organization to develop the performance potential of its employees once they are hired (Erickson et al., 2015). Depending on their explanation, this climate decreases employee performance as those employees who remain spend their time job-hunting and being absent from work. Its comprehensive effect may be that destructive leadership usually results in a toxic organizational culture, with such toxic cultures

then promoting the possibility of more destructive leaders (Padilla, 2007). It also usually attributes toxic cultures to a lack of trust among colleagues.

Lastly, with follower-DLB, the leader uses abusive forms of DLB. Destructive leaders may also micromanage and/or over control work, provide unclear expectations, and may be unable to develop and inspire followers (Erickson et al., 2015). To this end, they added that destructive leaders may play games that are most liked, tell people only what they want to hear, and even bully others. Destructive leaders may also have an enormous influence on the existence of employees outside the workplace (Jha & Jha, 2015). Such upshots typically comprise stress-related issues, such as insomnia, bad dreams, general fatigue, and loss of concentration (Webster et al., 2016). Subordinates with destructive leaders usually end up detesting their jobs and dreading going to work (Mitchell & Ambrose, 2007). They can feel disrespect for the people who hired them, which can then lead to an overall devaluing of their view of the organization (Shuck et al., 2015). The victims of DLB usually feel unhappy about their work-life balance and have work consume all of their thoughts and private time (Erickson et al., 2015). Enlarged political behavior, cronyism, and nepotism become the norm. Such behavior, by nature, is usually directed at the execution of self-serving, individual goals rather than goals that promote the overall, long-term profitability and sustainability of the organization (Erickson et al., 2015). In addition, on a personal level, DLB is likely to have many negative consequences (Rose et al., 2015). Subordinates can have more negative attitudes toward the leader. This can cause subordinates to resist the leader's attempts at influencing their work behaviors, resulting in lower levels of job satisfaction (Rose et al., 2015), and increasing the possibility of an employee withdrawing from the company (Erickson et al., 2015; Mitchell & Ambrose, 2007). Tepper (2000) and Webster et al. (2016) clarified that DLB is associated with increased negative feelings, such as anger, irritation, or bitterness. It increases the level of psychological stress experienced by subordinates. This often leads to an overall deterioration of employee performance and wellbeing (Tepper, 2000).

Coupled with the above points, there has been a lot of research explaining how leadership behavior and employees' OC are strongly correlated (Agarwal et al., 1999; and Lok et al., 1999). Destructive leadership is one of the behaviors exhibited by leaders. It can have a broad impact on employee OC (Webster et al., 2016). DLB has an effect on job satisfaction, work motivation, and

employee work performance (Wolor et al., 2022). Negative employee attitudes, detrimental subordinate conduct, and altered organizational outcomes are all consequences of DLB (Schyns & Schilling, 2013). Similarly, research has shown that DLB has a negative impact on followers, with consequences ranging from minimal to moderate (reduced motivation, commitment, and avoidance behaviors) to high impact (family/work conflict, theft, and family destabilization) (Rose et al., 2015). Bad follower perceptions, sub-optimal behavior, and deteriorating institutional outcomes can result (Schyns & Schilling, 2013). Subordinates may become silent due to ambiguity, role conflict, and overload when facing DLB (Wu et al., 2018). High job complexity can intensify the effects of DLB (Wu et al., 2018). Leader coercion, vindictiveness, and abuse (Thoroughgood et al., 2012) can negatively influence followers' attitudes and overall welfare (Matos, 2018). This can lead to defective welfare, low job and life satisfaction (Krasikova et al. 2013), and a declining capacity to execute the organizational job (Shaw et al., 2011). Furthermore, Shuck et al. (2015) explained that DLB can lead to emotional hijacking and/or erosion, social isolation, exhaustion, depersonalization, and disengagement, as well as personal isolation and even mania. Bad leaders can enhance followers' psychological distress, leading to decreased institutional commitment and even retaliatory behavior (Rose et al., 2015). Passive management strategies, such as suppressing pertinent information, keeping distance, and dodging communication, can directly affect performance (Bhandarker & Rai, 2019). Severe stress can give rise to serious bad outcomes in an institution (Tepper, 2007). Followers in this condition can transfer their fears to family members by being violent and indifferent (Jha & Jha, 2015). Chronic stress can lead to continued negative emotions at home and declining family relationships (Bhandarker & Rai, 2019). With reduced organizational effectiveness at job and home, followers' performance endeavors will be negatively affected (Rose et al., 2015).

Similarly, various scientific studies have found that DLB can have a significant negative impact on employee well-being. Several signs of psychological distress have been identified in research on abusive supervision, including anxiety (Tepper, 2000), depression (Tepper, 2000), decreased self-efficacy (Duffy et al., 2002), somatic health disorders (Duffy et al., 2002), burnout (Tepper, 2000; Yagil, 2006), and job strain (Harvey et al., 2007). A study conducted by Hetland et al. (2007) and Maslach et al. (2001) showed that passive avoidance leadership behavior is positively related to exhaustion and cynicism, which are key components in the burn-out syndrome. In addition, a positive correlation has been found between DLB/abusive

supervision and quietness (Tepper, 2000; Tepper et al., 2009). According to meta-studies, DLB may result in a variety of natural behaviors on the part of workers, such as refusing to conduct themselves in accordance with the leader's requests as well as potential abuse (Tepper, 2007). Based on the studies of Tepper et al. (2011), the bad insights produced in one year resulted in costs of 23.8 billion US dollars through work withdrawal, health care losses, and productions recognized by organizations. Besides, according to Einarsen et al. (2017), poor leadership behavior, like DLB, disregards the genuine needs of the institution and the employees.

Decoster et al. (2013) showed that DLB has bad outcomes for the attitude, comfort, and behavior of subordinates. Besides, destructive or unethical leaders may reduce the competitive margin of an institution that requires persisting feasible. DLB can frequently result in increased worker turnover and withdrawal of additional hard work, resulting in a lower probability of meeting goals (Mitchell & Ambrose, 2007). Off course some scholars revealed that employee turnover is not always a bad thing (Vardaman et al., 2012). Turnover can revitalize an organization by introducing new ideas and talents (Fibuch & Ahmed, 2015) or by replacing weak performers (Vardaman et al., 2012). Some turnover may be advantageous for an organization's effectiveness because it removes personnel with low OC (Wallace & Gaylor, 2012). Exhausting institutional resources, declining goal achievement, even obstructing the attainment of goals, and legal challenges can result from DLB (Krasikova et al., 2013). Through coercion and control (Padilla et al., 2007), the destructive supervisor will forge a hostile workplace (Winn & Dykes, 2019). DLB can also negatively and seriously damage an institution, which can produce several possible consequences, including a higher risk of litigation (Clardy & Beadle, 2001), such as harassment in the job place. As such, the institution can become harmful, negatively affecting organizational culture (Erickson et al., 2015). Different literature argues that there is an association between destructive leadership and employee job satisfaction, followers' job satisfaction, and intention to quit (Palanski et al., 2013). Negative leadership can also accelerate worker turnover, with staff leaving harmful work environments (Rose et al., 2015). This can endanger the institutions' goal (Padilla et al., 2007). Thoroughgood et al. (2018) explained that DLB negatively influences group and institutional welfare. Eventually, this may influence overall organizational performance (Erickson et al., 2015).

DLB has a significant negative effect on employees' OC (Bahadir & Cakireal, 2022; Skerritt, 2021; Skinner et al., 2021). According to Gallus et al. (2013), DLB affects job satisfaction and OC. This can lead to increased feelings of stress, anxiety, self-doubt, fear, depression, anger, and physical symptoms (Webster et al., 2016). Besides, different scholarly works confirm that there is a relationship between DLB and domains of OC. For example, according to Bahadir and Cakireal (2022), DLB has a significant negative effect on employees' AC. Additionally, they explained that DLB has a significant negative influence on CC. It also has a negative impact on employees' NC. Tepper (2000) also found that DLB is associated with weaker AC and NC. It also has a connection with a higher level of CC.

In the context of schools, it also correlated the abuse of teachers by principals with several emotional problems, such as severe fear, anxiety, anger, and depression (Blase & Blase, 2006). Further, a study conducted on 50 teachers in the USA who had been ill-treated by school principals over a long period of time (six months to nine years) showed that the teachers experienced shock, disorientation, loneliness, and injured self-esteem (Blase & Blase, 2006). To the contrary, Valentine et al. (2015) showed that when leaders behave ethically towards their employees, they affect job satisfaction and cause followers to show supportive behaviors. According to Li et al. (2014), ethical leaders provide moral climates, enhance the professional well-being of employees, and increase followers' welfare (Frisch & Huppen Bauer, 2014).

2.7. Destructive Leadership Behavior and Organizational Commitment in the Context of Ethiopia

DLBs and their effects on the organization and employees have received little attention in terms of research and theory development. Although there is a scarcity of literature about DLB in Ethiopia, very few studies have been conducted related to this behavior. One of the studies was conducted in a public institution on the prevalence of DLB and its determinants among public sector employees in northwestern Ethiopia (Eshetu, 2022). The results of the study revealed that approximately 65% of the public-sector employees in the Awi Zone are vulnerable to DLB. The study found that 22% of the leaders engaged in DLB very infrequently, 27.2% occasionally engaged in it, 21.3% frequently engaged in it, and 16.6% engaged in it very frequently. The

study further explained that personal behavior, ineffective decision-making, management incompetency, and political behavior were considered as determinants of DLB (Eshetu, 2022).

The other Ethiopian study looked at DLB and its impact on OC at Debre Tabor University. The findings of the study confirmed that the three elements of DLB were manifested at Debre Tabor University. According to the study, the most common type of leadership behavior among leaders is TL, followed by SL, and LL behaviors (Goshu, 2022). It further revealed that TL, SL, and LL behaviors collectively explained 79% of the variance in academic staff OC. Besides, the study showed that, TL behavior, SL, and LL behaviors have relationship with academic staff OC (Goshu, 2022).

Furthermore, a study conducted in Amhara regional state in three zones (North Gondar, South Gondar, and Bahir Dar) on education, health, and agricultural institutions about DLB revealed that a significant number of employees (57%) perceived DLB, Machiavellian leadership behavior (60%), narcissistic leadership behavior (55%), and abusive leadership behavior (55%), in their organization (Shishigu et al., 2015). Besides, another study in Ethiopia showed that unethical leadership behavior has a significant effect on followers' workplace deviance (Asnakew & Mekonnen, 2019). Generally, despite the limited number of studies, all investigations found that DLB and its effect on organizations and people are prominent in some public sectors and educational institutions. As a result, adequate inquiry into the problem is required to challenge it.

Regarding employee commitment in Ethiopia, different literature shows that it has an association with employee performance and organizational achievement. OC is one of the predictors of employee turnover and work performance (Endale, 2019). Besides, he indicated that NC and AC of secondary school teachers is low and CC is encouraging (Endale, 2019). Israel et al. (2017) explained that OC has an association with employee turnover, absenteeism, and organizational performance.

Different studies conducted in Ethiopia revealed that leadership behaviors have a significant effect on the OC of teachers (Lerra, 2021). Furthermore, another study conducted in secondary schools in Ethiopia showed that principals' leadership behavior has a significant impact on

teachers' OC (Geda, 2015). Leadership behavior is a significant predictor of employee OC (Israel et al., 2017). LL behavior has a negative relationship with teachers' commitment (Lerra, 2021).

2.8. Summary of Literature

OC is a key for enhancing organizational performance and bringing about organizational success. Organizations strive to achieve their goals and vision since they are the foundation of their existence. Employee OC is crucial to attaining organizational goals. Workers who are not committed to working hard and achieving organizational goals will eventually be dissatisfied with their jobs, and their organization may perish. OC is an employee's inner inspiration, ready for scarification, willingness to pay one's self to the existence of the organization, and desire to devote their entire efforts to achieve organizational objectives. OC has elements such as AC, CC, and NC. AC is an internal or heartfelt will of workers to remain part of the organization. CC is workers desire to work better in response to pay and other benefits. The last component is NC, which is described as an employee's sense of duty or responsibility to remain an employee with her or his organization.

Leadership behavior is central in establishing and sustaining change in organizations. Good and ethical leaders try to shape an organization in a constructive and acceptable way in order to achieve organizational goals. On the other side, unethical or destructive leaders operate against the interests of either the employee or the organization, or both, resulting to failure. They exploit the lawful and legitimate interests of workers and organizations for personal gain than working to attain organizational goals. Such kind of leaders' behavior is considered as destructive leadership. Hence, DLB is one of the negative leadership characteristics that a leader exhibits, negatively affects employee job satisfaction and organizational performance. It is bad, harmful, and improper leadership behavior that violates the organization's rightful interests by jeopardizing the organization's goals, resources, performance, and subordinate inspiration on a systematic and repetitive basis. It manifests itself in a variety of negative behaviors, including defining harmful goals, encouraging followers to strive towards those goals, and employing destructive activities to mobilize followers to achieve the leader's aims.

There are several components to DLB. TL behavior is the first part of DLB. It is a leader's behavior to work to achieve organizational targets at the expense of the employee's just and rightful interests. Such a type of leadership behavior is considered to be pro-organization and anti-subordinate, since the leaders act against the wellbeing of the employee to meet organizational goals. The second element of DLB is DL behavior. This leadership behavior does not have intimacy with the organization or, at the same time, the employees. It is regarded as anti-organization and anti-workers. Such types of leaders run their businesses by compromising both the institutional objective and the employees' motivation. The third component of DLB is SL behavior. It is characterized by motivating and inspiring employees but sabotaging organizational targets. Such leaders may motivate workers to secure their interests and leadership positions but could not work hard to attain their organizational final destinations. Because of these behaviors, it is considered pro-subordinate and anti-organizational leadership behavior. Leaders who have anti-organizational behavior manifest behaviors like absenteeism, work withdrawal, shirking, committing fraud, etc., and anti-subordinate behaviors such as bullying, humiliation, manipulation, and deceit. LL behavior is the final component of DLB. It is a leadership behavior exhibited by leaders who usually refrain from taking appropriate decisions that are essential for the organization and its employees. Since the leaders could not exercise their legitimate responsibility to the organization and workers, LL behavior is considered passive leadership behavior from both perspectives.

Several studies have found that DLB decreases employee commitment, well-being, and performance in organizations. They highlighted that DLB has an impact on employees' OC and job satisfaction. Similarly, in schools, various scholars claimed that principals' DLB has an impact on teachers' OC, well-being, performance, and motivation, which in turn has an impact on students' academic achievement, school effectiveness, and educational quality.

CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1. Research Paradigm

This study was designed to examine whether DLB by principals are prevalent and what effects they have on teachers' OC in secondary schools in the Amhara regional state. A pragmatic paradigm was used in the research. Pragmatism is seen as a theoretical and philosophical foundation for mixed research and advocates the use of mixed research as opposed to adhering to only one (Creswell & Creswell, 2018; Mertens, 2015). It disapproves of the position of the two extreme opposing viewpoints (subjectivist and objectivist) and also does not adhere to any specific philosophy or way of viewing reality (Creswell & Poth, 2018; Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2009). They explained that it helped the researcher examine the problem by using a variety of techniques for gathering and analyzing data. Furthermore, pragmatism gives the researcher the freedom to select the research's approaches and designs in a way that best serves the research problem (Johnson & Christensen, 2020). It was also an appropriate worldview to apply both qualitative and quantitative approaches to investigating the prevalence of DLB among principals and its effect on teachers' OC in secondary schools in the Amhara regional state. Thus, pragmatism was a suitable paradigm to employ in this study.

3.2. Research Approach

In order to examine the prevalence of DLB among principals and its effect on teachers' OC in secondary schools in the Amhara regional state, the study employed a mixed research approach. A mixed research approach helped to have a more complete and comprehensive understanding of a problem than a single approaches (Cohen et al., 2018). The approach also contributed to a better understanding of the prevalence of DLB among principals and its impact on teachers' OC in secondary schools in the Amhara regional state by incorporating both qualitative and quantitative data or by using one method to improve understanding of, better explain, or build on the findings of the other method and fostering the synergy and strength that exists between quantitative and qualitative methods (Gay et al., 2012). Besides, it contributed to

a better understanding of a study problem, the prevalence of principals' DLB and its impact on secondary school teachers' OC (Creswell & Creswell, 2018).

3.3. Research Design

. This research employed a sequential explanatory design. It was chosen because, unlike other designs, it assisted in developing a general image of the study problem by incorporating both quantitative data and results, as well as in complimenting, refining, elaborating, extending, and explaining the general picture employing qualitative data and results (Creswell, 2012). It was useful when unexpected results might arise from quantitative data (Mertens, 2015). The design was also helpful to examine the phenomena quantitatively and elaborate the quantitative results by exploring the issue qualitatively (Creswell, 2015). Moreover, explanatory sequential design was commonly used to elaborate, explain and interpret quantitative results by collecting and analyzing follow-up qualitative data (Gay et al., 2012). It helped the researcher better understand the quantitative results of the problem in the study area through an in-depth investigation using qualitative data (Creswell & Creswell, 2018). Therefore, as the varying prevalence of principals' DLB and its effects on teachers' OC in secondary schools would have been investigated, a sequential explanatory design was a very workable design for this research.

3.4. Population and Sampling

3.4.1. Target Population

The secondary schools teachers and principals found in Amhara regional state were the target population of this study. By the time of data collection, there were 650 secondary schools in the region. These schools had a total of 42,900 teachers (31,428 males and 11, 472 females) during that time (BoE, 2023). According to the same source, in addition, there were 1460 (males, 1324, and females, 136) principals in those schools (see Table 1 for more details).

Table 1

Population Size

No.	Name of Zonal/City administration	Number of woredas	Number of secondary schools	Number of teachers			Number of principals		
				M	F	T	M	F	Total
1	East Gojjam	19	72	3901	1301	5202	135	9	144
2	Bahir Dar	6	21	935	414	1349	34	8	42
3	Debre Markos	4	5	306	189	495	12	2	14
4	South Wollo	24	67	3964	1022	4986	117	1	118
5	South Gondar	14	63	3251	1102	4353	134	9	143
6	Awi	12	46	2624	881	3505	87	6	93
7	Dessie city	5	12	529	189	718	22	-	22
8	Gondar city	6	17	643	454	1097	39	1	40
9	Central Gondar	15	51	2227	1168	3395	96	3	99
10	West Gojjam	16	71	4339	1464	5803	142	9	151
11	West Gondar	5	10	350	130	480	18	-	18
12	Oromo	7	21	622	155	777	30	1	31
13	North Gondar	7	18	696	369	1065	33	2	35
14	North Shoa	23	59	2800	1088	3888	106	11	117
15	North Wollo	13	50	2085	661	2746	88	1	89
16	Waghimra	6	20	594	223	817	594	223	817
17	Wolqait/T/S/H	6	23	328	137	465	28	-	28
18	Kombolcha city	4	3	248	1106	354	9	-	9
19	Debire Birhan	5	11	393	192	585	20	1	21
20	Debre Tabor	3	6	372	154	526	11	-	11
21	Woldiya City	3	4	221	73	294	8	-	8
Total		203	650	31428	11472	42900	1324	136	1460

Source. BoE (2023)

3.4.2. Sample Size

To determine the sample size, different formulas appropriate for determining the sample size were employed. Cochran (1977) developed the two formulas for determining a representative sample for proportions and the final sample size. The Cochran's formula, which is

acceptable at a 95% confidence interval and a 0.05 level of precision, was used because it was suitable to select samples using random sampling (Sarmah & Hazarika, 2012; Sarmah et al., 2013). Another formula was also used to alleviate the possible problem of sampling inefficiency caused by the use of multi-phase stratified sampling. By using the Cochran formula first, the initial sample size or representative sample proportion (no), which is 384, was determined. After getting the initial sample size, the final sample size (n), which is 381 when rounded off, was examined. However, because the sampling procedure was carried out in three stages, the final sample should be multiplied by the design effect (D). Therefore, the true sample size of the study was 3 x 381 or 1143 secondary school teachers. In order to respond to the challenges arising from nonconformities due to unreturned questionnaires or attritions and incomplete questionnaires after return (e.g., missed out items, two ticks put in a row of choices instead of only one, etc.), the sample size was made to increase by a non-response insurance factor (Cochran, 1977). That factor was 10% in this study, which raised the sample size to about 1257, i.e., 1143 + (1143 x 0.1). Below is a description of the formulas that will be used to calculate the sample size.

a. $^{no} = \frac{z^2 p(1-p)}{e2}$

no is the initial sample size

z is the selected critical value of desired confidence

p is the estimated proportion of an attribute that is present in the population

e *is* the desired level of precision

b. N= D x n

Where N is the sample size, D is the design effect, and n is the sample size obtained from the calculation.

3.4.3. Sampling Technique

To select samples, a multi-stage stratified random sampling technique was used. That is because different scholars in the field (e.g. Cochran, 1977; Dattalo, 2008; Muijs, 2004; Schofield, 2006) suggest that extracting participants through a mere probability sampling

technique from such a hierarchically structured population environment may nest some segments of the population unnecessarily and affect the relevance of the conclusion to be drawn. It was also chosen because it is suitable and flexible for performing extensive research across a wide geographic area (Cohen et al., 2018; Kothari, 2004). Furthermore, due to the fact that its sample frame is built in groups or strata, it is an appropriate sampling technique that allows sampling a large number of population in phases with different proportions (Cohen et al., 2018). Those stages included zonal administrations, woredas, and schools, from which participants (teachers) were directly selected. Therefore, to select zones and city administrations from the region, a simple random sampling was used. Because, a simple random sampling technique allowed the researcher to offer an equal chance to all zones and helped get a representative sample from the region. Thus, three zones, East Gojjam zone, South Gondar zone, and South Wollo zone; and two city administrations, Debre Markos city and Bahir Dar city, were selected using simple random sampling (lottery). The same method was used to select woredas and sub cities from zones and city administrations. As a result, from zones and city administrations, four woredas and two sub-cities, respectively, were chosen using the same technique. Moreover, the same sampling was used to select secondary schools. Consequently, out of 650 secondary schools in the region, 26 were involved in the study. Furthermore, proportionate stratified random sampling was employed to select respondents in all secondary schools. It was carried out to ensure an even geographical distribution and representativeness of respondents in the entire schools studied. It was also taken into consideration how many teachers were male and female. The strata of schools were framed depending on zone and city administrations, from each of which representative samples of woreda and schools were chosen by using the simple random sampling method. As a result, out of the 42,900 secondary school teachers in Amhara regional state, as the sampling procedures were taken in three phases, eventually 1257 teachers who were employed within the past six months were chosen as the true sample size using the proportionate stratified random sampling method after acquiring a random sample of schools. The design effect (D) reduced the sampling efficiency problem. Because the design effect (D) provides a correction for the loss of sampling efficiency resulting from the use of multi-stage stratified sampling instead of simple random sampling (Cochran, 1977). The length of employment was an aid in gathering evidence showing how repeatedly destructive the leadership behavior of school principals was.

Table 2

Sample Teachers

No	Name of zone/city administration	Number of Woreda	Number of School	Number of Teachers		
				M	F	Total
1	East Gojjam	4	8	303	100	403
2	Bahir Dar city	2	2	69	31	100
3	Debre Markos	2	2	23	14	37
4	South Wollo	4	7	299	78	377
5	South Gondar	4	7	255	85	340
Total		16	26	949	308	1257

Source. BoE (2023)

Purposive and criterion sampling were used to sample research participants for qualitative studies. Purposive sampling was employed because it was suitable to select samples for a specific motive and to choose informants who have in-depth knowledge about a particular case or issue (Cohen et al., 2018). Criterion sampling helps identify criteria and select the samples that satisfy the required criteria (Mertens, 2015). Thus, gender, work experience, and qualification of respondents were the criteria used to sample participants for the study. Academic qualification and experience helped to collect sufficient data that may have better and more divergent practical knowledge about the prevalence of principals' DLB and the status of teachers' OC in secondary schools. Gender assisted in getting adequate representation of samples in the data gathering processes. It also helped with the examination of the variables across gender.

Therefore, five secondary school principals and teachers were purposefully selected for the qualitative study (see Table 3). Principals and teachers were purposefully chosen for the study based on their gender, qualification, and service year. The number of research participants in the qualitative study was not predetermined. Rather, they were identified until the qualitative data gathering process ceased when saturation occurred (Creswell, 2015). Respondents who had participated in filling out the questionnaires could not participate in the face-to-face interview.

This was done purposefully to get new ideas from the new research participants, since the main purpose of the qualitative data and result was to elaborate the quantitative data and results

Table 3

Key informants

No	Pseudonym	Gender	Profession	Experience	Qualification
1	Daniel	M	Principal	36	MA
2	Kebede	M	Principal	14	MA
3	Tesfahun	M	Principal	15	MSc
4	Rahiel	F	Principal	36	MA
5	Dereje	M	Principal	38	MA
6	Tilahun	M	Teacher	24	MA
7	Tirsit	F	Teacher	36	BA Degree
8	Taye	M	Teacher	28	BA Degree
9	Tsigie	F	Teacher	38	BA Degree
10	Hiwot	F	Teacher	14	BA Degree

3.5. Data Collecting Instruments

3.5.1. Questionnaires

In this research, the Destructive Leadership Scale (DLS), developed by Einarsen et al. (2002), was employed to collect data about TL behavior, DL behavior, SL behavior, and the LL behavior dimension of DLB. It was an instrument widely used to measure the dimensions of DLB in organizations (Aasland et al., 2010; Hayson, 2016). Moreover, to measure teachers' OC level, the Organizational Commitment Scale (OCS), developed by Meyer et al. (1993), was employed. The OC scale is the key to scientific research on the OC of employees. It is also the most accepted tool to measure OC (Meyer et al., 1993).

According to Gay et al. (2012), questionnaires should be brief and easy to respond to. Thus, all the instruments were contextualized and modified based on the comments of the advisor and subject matter specialists. Following their advice, the DLS and OCS were revised to a five-point scale from four and seven-point scale items, respectively, when contextualizing the items in local contexts. Thus, the DLS was used as the primary tool to collect information on the insights of teachers in the sample schools. It contains 16 likert-type items with a five-point scale, with response options: "never," "rarely," "sometimes," "often," and "always." Furthermore, the OCS comprises 18 items. Again, the scale is a five-point likert response rate that includes "strongly disagree," "disagree," "undecided," "agree," and "strongly agree."

3.5.2. Interviews

Qualitative data were gathered through semi-structured interviews to examine the prevalence of DLB among principals and the status of teachers' OC in secondary schools in the Amhara Regional State. It was helpful to collect a specific type of data to supplement the quantitative data and results (Merriam & Tisdell, 2016). It helped to get more in-depth information and experience about principals' DLB and teachers' OC (Mertens, 2015). The interview data were gathered to supplement or enhance the information collected by the questionnaire and quantitative analysis. It was a one-on-one interview. Because, it permitted research participants to freely and openly explain their personal views about the status of principals' DLB and teachers' OC in the secondary schools of the region (Creswell & Creswell, 2018). With permission, interviews were recorded on audio using a voice recorder and then transcribed verbatim. Pseudonyms were employed to identify interviewees'.

3.6. Validity of Instruments

The face, content, and construct validity of instruments were measured. The validity of the instrument was checked using the theoretical support of relevant literature and the technical assessment of research experts. Face validity, which measures the appearance of the questionnaires in terms of readability, formatting, feasibility, consistency, and the clarity of the language used, was assessed. In other words, it helped to evaluate the instrument as to whether the items in it appear to be relevant, reasonable, unambiguous, and clear (Oluwatayo, 2012).

Trochim (2001) also backed the use of these criteria to check the face validity of instruments. In this regard, face validity was examined by my friends and subject matter specialists from the department of English at Bahir Dar University on the appearance of the questionnaire on the basis of readability, feasibility, consistency of style and formatting, and the clarity of the language used. Based on the given comments, problems related to the clarity of language, uniformity of style, and formatting of the questionnaire were improved.

The content validity of the questionnaire was also evaluated by my research advisor and three research experts who specialized in educational leadership and psychology. Hence, the organization of the questionnaire in measuring all aspects of the variables under study, including relevance, clarity, structure, simplicity, and wording of items, was adjusted based on the feedback obtained from the research advisor and subject matter experts. In addition, the instrument was translated into the Amharic language. The translation of the tools was also assessed by language teachers from the department of English at Bahir Dar University, which helped improve the translated instrument based on their comments. Moreover, the content validity of the instrument was also checked using statistical analysis. It was measured using Lawshe's method for assessing content validity. It tells us about the validity of individual items. It is a useful statistical technique to determine the validity of individual items as rated by a panel of content experts. The Content Validity Ratio (CVR) is an item statistic useful in the rejection or retention of individual items and is internationally recognized as the method for establishing content validity (Wilson et al., 2012). The equation used to calculate Lawshe's CVR is explained below (Gilbert & Prion, 2016).

$$\text{CVR} = \frac{\text{ne} - \frac{\text{N}}{2}}{\frac{\text{N}}{2}}$$

Where:

n_e: is the number of panelists identifying an item is essential

N: is the total number of panelists ($\frac{N}{2}$ is half the total number of panelist's)

The results of Lawshe's (1975) Content Validity Index (CVI) formula indicated that the DLS and OCS have CVIs of 0.78 and 0.99, respectively. The minimum CVI to retain the

instrument is 0.7 (Tilden et al., 1990). They further explained that if an instrument's CVI exceeds 0.7, it is retained in the final instrument. Therefore, all the items of the instruments were retained and valid to measure the variables or dimensions.

The construct validity (discriminate and convergent validity) of the instrument was examined by employing factor analysis, principal component analysis (PCA) and the Varimax rotation method (Taherdoos, 2016; Wee and Quazi, 2005). According to them construct validity can be verified using PCA. In the PCA, a component loading of.40 is commonly regarded as salient to that particular component, while loadings below the cutoff are ignored (Andy, 2009). Thus, according to the results of the PCA, all principals' DLB items had good convergent validity (Eigen values of above 1, loading above 0.4, items that load on posited constructs) and divergent validity (loading above the threshold of.4, no cross loading above.4). Furthermore, based on the above threshold, all teachers' OC components had good convergent validity that loaded above 0.4, had Eigenvalues above 1.00, and loaded on posited constructs; they also had divergent validity that loaded at least.4 and no cross loading above.4. As a result, all items met the criteria for convergent validity and divergent validity (see Table 4).

Table 4

Results from a factor analysis of principals' DLB and teachers' OC questionnaires

Principals' DLB			
Constructs	Item loading range	Eigen value	% of variance explained
TL behavior	.740 - .841	2.481	62.018
DL behavior	.785 - .956	2.150	53.756
SL behavior	.697 - .804	2.254	56.357
LL behavior	.669 - .885	2.338	58.441
Teachers' OC			
AC	.762 - .908	2.543	42.379
CC	.628 - .975	2.698	44.971
NC	.540 - .862	2.745	45.747

3.7. Reliability of Instruments

A pilot test was run in one of the secondary schools found in East Gojjam Zone, Enemay Woreda, Belay Zeleke Secondary School. The school was selected purposefully and was not similar to the one embraced in the study. Gay et al. (2012) explained that it is possible to conduct a pilot test with a small number of participants. Thus, 93 participants were selected from the school using simple random sampling (lottery). All the chosen pilot participants took part in filling out the questionnaire. However, three of them were excluded due to problems with their filled-out questionnaires. Having gathered their responses, the overall reliability of the instruments was examined. The reliability of the instruments was measured using the Cronbach alpha coefficient. It helps to analyze the internal consistency (stability) of instruments. According to Cohen et al. (2018), items that have an internal consistency coefficient of 0.6 are acceptable. In addition, they proposed five cut-off points for reliability, which include very highly reliable (>0.90), highly reliable (0.80–0.90), reliable (0.70–0.79), marginally reliable (0.60–0.69), and unacceptably low reliability (<0.60). Therefore, both the DLS and the OCS are reliable instruments. The result of the analysis is revealed below in the table.

Table 5

Cronbach's Alpha Reliability Tests

Dimensions	Variables	Number of items	Reliability coefficients
DLB	TL behavior	4	.791
	DL behavior	4	.705
	SL behavior	4	.739
	LL behavior	4	.754
OC	AC	6	.711
	CC	6	.717
	NC	6	.759

3.8. Assumptions

The first assumption examined was multicollinearity, which arises when independent variables are highly correlated, i.e., greater than .9 (Cohen et al., 2018; Pallant, 2010). To assess this, tolerance and Variance Inflation Factor (VIF) were used as the primary indicators. A tolerance value close to zero (less than .10) suggests a potential multicollinearity problem, while a VIF value greater than 10 indicates a high concern for multicollinearity. The data for the independent variables, namely DLB; tolerance = 1.00, VIF = 1.00; TL behavior tolerance = .57, VIF = 1.75; DL behavior; tolerance = .306, VIF = 3.065; SL leadership behavior; tolerance = .42, VIF = 2.379; and LL behavior; tolerance = .354, VIF = 2.82; all exhibited tolerances greater than .10 and VIF values below 10. These results indicated that there were no issues with multicollinearity among the independent variables, satisfying the assumption of multicollinearity. The following table indicates the tolerance and VIF number.

Table 6

Collinearity statistics of DLB and its dimensions

No	Variables	Tolerance number	VIF number
1	DLB	1.00	1.00
2	TL behavior	.57	1.75
3	DL behavior	.306	3.065
4	SL behavior	.42	2.379
5	LL behavior	.353	2.83

Based on the above results, it can be concluded that the assumptions of multicollinearity were satisfied, ensuring the robustness of the data for further analysis using t-tests, MANOVA, correlation, and regression techniques.

The second assumption examined was linearity. It was tested using a normal probability plot, where the data points should ideally fall along the diagonal line from bottom left to top right (Cohen et al., 2018; Pallant, 2010). The normal probability plot for the data in this study showed that the points almost aligned along a straight line, suggesting no significant deviation from

normality (see Appendix-E). Normality was the other assumption tested. To assess the normal distribution of the data, a scatter plot of residuals was used. According to Cohen et al. (2018), in normally distributed data, the residuals should form a roughly rectangular shape, with most of the scores concentrated around the center (along the 0 point). The scatter plot results indicated that the majority of residuals indeed formed a rectangular shape around the 0 point, supporting the assumption of normality (see Appendix-F). Besides, normality can be examined using statistical method. According to Andy (2009), among other statistical methods like Shapiro-Wilk and Kolmogorov-Smirnov, which are suitable to test normality in a small sample size, skewness and kurtosis are more comprehensive and effective in a large sample size to test normality. Thus, to check for normality, skewness and kurtosis values were measured. For large sample sizes (> 300), its value depends on the absolute values of skewness and kurtosis. According to West et al. (1996), as cited in Mishra et al. (2019), acceptable levels of skewness and kurtosis for large sample sizes (> 300) are skewness values ≤ 2 or an absolute value of kurtosis (excess) ≤ 4. In this study, the skewness values for all dimensions ranged from -0.91 to 0.75, while the kurtosis values ranged from -1.417 to -0.352. All these values fall within the acceptable range, indicating that the assumption of normality was not violated (see the Table below).

Table 7

Skewness and kurtosis values of DLB and OC

Dimensions	Variables	Skewness		Kurtosis	
		Statistic	Std.Error	Statistic	Std.Error
DLB	TL behavior	.408	.073	-.449	.147
	DL behavior	.259	.073	-1.270	.147
	SL behavior	.232	.073	-1.257	.147
	LL behavior	.247	.073	-1.417	.147
OC	AC	.091	.073	-1.068	.147
	CC	.750	.073	-.352	.147
	NC	.418	.073	-.946	.147

Moreover, univariate outliers were also checked in the data. Tabachnick and Fidell (2013) stated that standardized residuals with values between 3.3 and -3.3 are considered normal.

The data showed a standardized maximum residual of 3.325 (see Appendix-I), which did not significantly deviate from the cutoff points mentioned above. Additionally, to examine multivariate outliers, Mahalanobis distance was measured. The critical value for the Mahalanobis distance was determined using a chi-square table with the number of dependent variables and their degrees of freedom (df). The alpha value used was .001. The Mahalanobis distance for the data was 4.109 (see Appendix-G), and the critical value for the dependent variables (since there were three) was 16.27. As per the Pallant (2010) guideline, if the critical value is greater than the Mahalanobis distance number, the assumption of multivariate outliers is not violated. Based on these findings, the data did not contain significant multivariate outliers. Furthermore, assumptions such as the homogeneity of covariance matrices and independent observations were also tested. According to Andy (2009), the variance of each dependent variable should be the same across groups, and it was measured by obtaining the Box's test values. According to him, if the p value is greater than .05 the observed covariance matrices of the dependent variables are equal across groups. Therefore, the sig value of the data was .196, $p>.05$, indicating that the observed covariance matrices of the dependent variables were equal across groups. In addition, to test independence observation, Durbin-Watson statistics that test for correlation between errors were used. According to Andy (2009), values can range between 0 and 4. Therefore, the size of the Durban-Watson test of the data was 1.63, which indicates the adjacent residuals were uncorrelated or observations were independent.

Generally, all the above results indicated that no major assumptions were violated to conduct the t test, MANOVA, correlations, and regressions.

3.9. Data Collecting Procedure

To get appropriate cooperation from different levels of educational institutions in the region for the data gathering process, a letter was obtained from Bahir Dar University, Department of Educational Planning and Management. Similarly, a permission letter was also secured from the Amhara Education Bureau to conduct data collection and to get support from zone, woreda, and secondary schools. Having secured their permission, assistant data collectors were chosen from different zones. An orientation session was arranged for them regarding the purpose of the study and the different challenges they might face during the process. Moreover,

after reaching agreement, a similar briefing session was arranged for the research participants, secondary school teachers. They were clear about the general objective of the study and how it required their genuine feelings and measurement of the problem. Eventually, the DLS and OCS were administered to the research participants during their regular working hours, and data were gathered. The entire data gathering was carried out under the close supervision of the researcher.

With respect to the interview session, permission was also secured from educational authorities. To carry out the interview properly, an interview guide was prepared in English. Key informants were identified. An orientation was given to them concerning the objective of the study. After getting their consent, the interview process was started. The interview was conducted in English. Sometimes, when interviewees need clarification and need to express their outlook easily and freely, Amharic language was employed. The time and place where the interview process was conducted were determined based on the desires of the informants. To get in-depth information from the interviewees, some probing questions were forwarded by the interviewer. Furthermore, the interviews were recorded based on the consent obtained from interviewees for the research.

3.10. Data Analysis Techniques

The quantitative data for this study was analyzed using inferential statistics. One sample t test was used to examine the status and practical implementation of principals' DLB and teachers' OC with their respective dimensions in the study area (research questions 1–3). Cohen et al. (2018) support this approach by describing a one-sample t test to help determine the extent and practical application of principals' DLB and teacher OC.

A factorial MANOVA was used to measure whether there are differences in teachers' perceptions of principals' DLBs, i.e., TL, DL, SL, and LL, based on demographic variables (gender, work experience, and educational qualification) or not (research question 4). This is attested by Andy (2009) and Tabachnick and Fidell (2013), who explained that factorial MANOVA helped to detect differences observed among groups on multiple dependent and independent variables. Pillai's test criterion was used to analyze factorial MANOVA since it is the most robust statistic for general protection against violations from the multivariate normality

and variance-covariance matrices (Andy, 2009; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013). The Pearson correlation coefficient was employed to determine the relationship between principals' DLB and teachers' OC (research question 5). It was used to explain the nature of relationships that may exist between variables (Gay et al., 2012). The simple linear regression method was employed to examine the independent effect of each dimension of principals' DLB on each element of teachers' OC (research question 6). According to Cohen et al. (2018), simple linear regression is used to examine the effect of one explanatory variable on a single explained variable. Besides, multiple linear regressions were used to determine the powerful predictor of two or more independent (explanatory) variables on a dependent or explained variable. Cohen et al. (2018) confirmed this approach and indicated that multiple regression analysis helped to determine the integrated effect of independent variables on an explained variable. The statistical software SPSS version 20 was used to analyze the data.

A narrative data analysis approach was used to analyze the qualitative data since this data analysis method is significant to collect personal experiences in the form of field texts like conducting interviews and incorporating the setting of participants' experiences (Ollerenshaw & Creswell, 2002). Besides, it helped to analyze what and how the teachers' and principals' perceive the level of teachers' OC and the prevalence of principals' DLB in secondary schools of the region (Creswell & Poth, 2018).

3.11. Ethical Consideration

Protecting study participants is necessary for researchers to build trust with them, maintain the integrity of their work, guard against unethical or dishonest behavior that could reflect poorly on their institutions, and deal with new, challenging problems (Cohen et al., 2018). Getting informed consent from research participants was also another ethical issue the researcher must consider (Gay et al., 2012). Therefore, ethical concerns were taken into account at all stages of the research process, including defining the study topic, coming up with a purpose statement and research questions, as well as gathering, analyzing, and summarizing the data (Creswell, 2012). Moreover, typically, the researcher worked to uphold moral principles like confidentiality, getting informed consent from participants, getting the approval of gatekeepers

or people in positions of authority, maintaining people's anonymity, abstaining from dishonest behavior like hiding, fabricating, or inventing findings, and the credibility of the study.

CHAPTER FOUR

RESULTS

4.1. Data Examination

In this study 1135 (90.3%) questionnaires were filled in and returned out of 1257 distributed. To put it another way, the attrition rate was 122 (9.7%). Among those filled in and returned 27 (2.1% of the total or 2.4% of those filled in and returned) were rejected because they were found incomplete during the data cleaning process. Ultimately, the questionnaires that were utilized for data analysis in this study were 1108 (88%) (see Table 8). The return rate was very good and very far from the threshold. Because, according to Cohen et al. (2018) and Gay et al. (2012), response rates as low as 50% are tolerable for survey studies to be able to generalize about the population from which samples have been drawn.

Table 8

Demographic information of respondents

Demographic Variables		Number	Percent
Sex	M	828	74.7
	F	280	25.3
	Total	1108	100
Experience in years	≤ 5	62	5.9
	6-10	219	19.8
	11-15	342	30.9
	≥ 16	485	43.8
	Total	1108	100
Qualification level	First degree	789	71.2
	Second degree	319	28.8
	Total	1108	100

The table shows that the respondents are male-dominated since the proportions of males were 74.7 of the total. Females' low proportion in the sample may have an influence on the findings of the study since they have the capacity to better understand bad leadership behaviors. This argument is supported by David (2016) by explaining that female employees have the

capability to test stress and bad working conditions. The data also implicates that the majority of respondents were more experienced teachers, accounting for 43.8% (16 ≥ years) that could perform better to understand the prevalence of DLB than the inexperienced ones. David (2016) supported the above view and stated that employees work experiences positively influence their degree of detecting an unfavorable working environment. Moreover, according to the demographic data, most secondary school teacher respondents are a BA/Sc degree holder (71.2%), which implies that the low presentation of MA/Sc degree teachers in the sample may have an influence on the findings of the study since they can better gauge how the leadership is destructive in their school than others. This is backed by Singh et al. (2017), who claimed that when employee qualification level increases, their sensitivity to understanding the prevalence of DLB increases.

4.2. Quantitative Data Analysis.

4.2.1. Principals' destructive leadership behavior

To assess whether principals' exhibit DLB and its extent in the secondary schools of Amhara National Regional State Secondary Schools, one sample t test statistic was employed. The data presented below in table 9 highlights the extent of principals' DLB in secondary schools, albeit with varying degrees of occurrence. The negative value of *t* shows the prevalence of principals' DLB to a low extent, and the positive value indicates a wider extent. The data reveals that all dimensions of DLBs have differences between the sample and population means, i.e., $p<.05$. However, the strength of the difference between the sample and population mean of TL, DL, SL, and LL is small, with an effect size of.017, .001, .007, and .012, respectively. The magnitude of the effect of TL and SL behavior is negative. The negative effect value shows that the sample mean is lower than the population mean, indicating the low extent of the dimensions of principals' DLB. The data indicates that although the extent of prevalence differs among DLB dimensions, all DLBs are exhibited in the region, with laissez-faire leadership behavior being the most common type (see below the Table).

Table 9

Prevalence of DLB (one sample t test, n=1108)

No	Variables	*t*	*M*	*df*	*MD*	*SD*	*p*	Cohen's *d*
1	TL behavior	-19.680	2.1121	1107	-.42786	.72368	.000	.017
2	DL behavior	1.983	2.6063	1107	.06627	1.11223	.048	.001
3	SL behavior	-8.903	2.3159	1107	-.22412	.92177	.000	.007
4	LL behavior	13.067	3.0250	1107	.48505	1.18653	.000	.012
	Total	-.979	2.5147	1107	-.02516	.85595	.328	.000

In summary, the data analysis suggests that principals' DLB was prevalent in secondary schools in the Amhara National Regional State to a varied extent, with all dimensions showing statistically differences from the population mean. These findings underscore the importance of addressing and understanding the influence of principals' DLB on teachers' OC and overall school performance to implement effective strategies for improvement.

4.2.2. Commitment of teachers in their workplace

To examine the extent of OC among secondary school teachers in the Amhara Regional State, again, one sample test was used. The data reveals that the OC of secondary school teachers' in the region showed declining (visit Table 10). It demonstrates that there are differences among the sample and population mean of AC, CC, and NC, $p<.05$. However, the strength and direction of the difference among the sample and population mean of AC, CC, and NC are different. AC has a positive and small magnitude of difference between the two means, i.e., 0.007. On the other hand, CC and NC have a small but negative effect. The negative effect size shows that the sample mean is lower than the population mean, indicating the low extent of teachers' OC dimensions. Besides, the data below in the table reveals that secondary school teachers' are better in AC than CC and NC. This signified that AC attached most teachers' to their schools (see Table 10).

Table 10

Status of teachers' OC (one sample t test, n=1108)

No	Variables	*t*	*M*	*df*	*MD*	*SD*	*p*	Cohen's *d*
1	AC	8.415	2.5168	1107	.25682	1.01583	.000	.007
2	CC	-9.494	2.0227	1107	-.23729	.83194	.000	.035
3	NC	-3.631	2.1618	1107	-.09424	.86378	.000	.029
	Total	-1.083	2.2351	1107	-.02490	.76512	.279	.000

In a nutshell, the OC of secondary school teachers in the region was declining. Except for AC, which was better enjoyed by teachers, other dimensions of teachers' OC were found to a low extent. The finding of the result showed that attention is required to enhance teachers' OC since it has a significant influence on improving the academic achievement of students, school performance, and the quality of education.

4.2.3. Teachers' perception on principals' DLB

A factorial MANOVA was used to examine whether differences in teachers' perceptions of principals' DLBs, i.e., TL, DL, SL, & DL., were noticed depending on demographic variables such as gender, work experience, and qualification or not. The data analysis (Table 11) reveals differences in the perception of principals' DLB among secondary school teachers based on gender, gender*experience, and gender*experience*qualification. The results of the multivariate analysis using Pillai's test show differences among teachers' perceptions of principals' DLBs in terms of gender (Pillai's Trace =.010, F (1089.000, 1089.000) = 2.729, p =.028, partial eta squared (η2) =.010). Besides, the result of the interaction effect shows a difference among teachers' perceptions of principals' DLBs depending on gender*experience (Pillai's Test =.019, F (1089.000, 3273.000) = 1.763, p =.049, η2 =.006) and gender*experience*qualification (Pillai's Test =.019, F (1089.000, 3273.000) = 1.774, p =.047, η2 =.006). The above data, main effect and interaction effect analysis implicate that there was an effect of gender, gender*experience, and gender*experience*qualification on teachers' perceptions of principals' DLBs. The effect size of gender, gender*experience, and gender*experience*qualification was weak, with a η2 value of.010, 006, and.006, respectively. However, no perception differences

were observed among teachers on principals' DLBs based on work experience, qualification, gender*qualification, and experience*qualification.

To pinpoint the precise location of the difference, marginal mean scores were inspected for variables having perception differences among teachers. It was carried out because the post hoc analysis uncovered those independent variables, which had two levels. Analyzing mean scores was conducted for variables such as gender, gender*experience, and gender*experience*qualification. With respect to gender, the mean scores indicated that, in all dimensions of principals' DLBs except TL behaviors, female teachers perceived DLBs better than male teachers. i.e., TL marginal mean of males = 2.215, mean of females = 2.133, DL mean of males = 2.616, mean of females = 2.86, SL behavior, male mean = 2.364, female mean = 2.526, and LL behavior, male mean = 2.981, female mean = 3.439, respectively (visit Appendix-H). With regard to gender*experience, except for TL behavior males who had an experience of ≤5 years and had a marginal mean of 2.455, for better perceived principals' DLB, in all other dimensions of DLB, females who had an experience of 6–10 years had better perceived principals' DLB dimensions (female DL mean = 3.306, female SL behavior mean = 2.831, and female LL behavior mean = 3.731) than others (visit Appendix-I). In relation to gender*experience*qualification, in all dimensions of DLB, female teachers with MA/Sc degree of the year between 6 and 10 better perceived principals' DLB than others (female with MA/Sc of experience between 6 and 10 TL behavior marginal mean = 2.5, DL behavior = 4.2, SL behavior =3.35, and LL behavior =4.65 (see Appendix-J). The MANOVA analysis results are depicted below (see Table 11).

Table 11

Multivariate analyses of principals' DLB (n=1108)

Sources	Pillai's Trace	*F*	Hyp.DF	Error DF	*p*	η2
Intercept	.565	353.803	4.000	1089.000	.000	.565
Gender (G)	.010	2.729	4.000	1089.000	.028	.010
Experience (E)	.013	1.164	12.000	3273.000	.303	.004
Qualification (Q)	.004	1.172	4.000	1089.000	.321	.004
G*E	.019	1.763	12.000	3273.000	.049	.006

G*Q	.008	2.279	4.000	1089.000	.059	.008
E*Q	.015	1.336	12.000	3273.000	.175	.005
G*E*Q	.019	1.774	12.000	3273.000	.047	.006

To sum up, the analysis using factorial MANOVA reveals that the difference in teachers' perceptions of principals' DLB was predominantly observed by gender than qualification and work experience. Female teachers and those better experienced with master's degrees tended to perceive principals' DLB more intensely in various dimensions, highlighting the importance of considering these factors in addressing and understanding the impact of principals' DLB in secondary schools. The results emphasize the need for targeted interventions and leadership development programs to address and improve the organizational climate and the overall well-being of teachers and students in secondary schools.

4.2.4. Relationship between principals' DLB and teachers' OC

A Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient (r) was utilized to examine the association between principals' DLB and teachers' OC in secondary schools in Amhara National Regional State. The table below shows that principals' DLB is significantly and negatively correlated with teachers' OC, with a standardized correlation coefficient (r = -.626**) at p<.0.01. It also shows that there is a negative and moderate relationship between TL behavior and AC (r = -.434**, p< 0.01) and NC (r = -.349**, p< 0.01). It further reveals that TL behavior has a negative association with CC (r = -.273**, p<0.01). Besides, there is a negative and significant relationship between DL behavior and AC (r = -.503**, p <0.01). DL behavior also has a negative and moderate relationship with CC (r = -.380**, P <0.01) and NC (r = -.412**, p< 0.01). Moreover, as the table explains, there is a negative and moderate association between SL behavior and AC (r = -.482**, p< 0.01), CC (r = -.403**, p<0.01), and NC (r = -.424**, p< 0.01). The data in table 12 reveals that there is a negative and significant association between LL behavior and AC (r = -.649**, p<0.01) and NC (r = -.528**, p< 0.01). Additionally, LL behavior has a negative and moderate association with CC (r = -.486**, p <0.01). The negative relationship reveals that a high score on one measure was connected with a low score on another. This suggests that when the incidence of principals' negative leadership behavior increases, the OC of secondary school teachers shifts in the other direction, i.e., showing decline. Cohen et al.

(2018) standards were utilized to determine the strength of the relationship. The guidelines comprised small r = 0.10, medium r = 0.30, and high r = 0.50. The findings of the data analysis are shown below.

Table 12

Correlation analysis result (n=1108)

IVs	Teachers' OC	AC	CC	NC
Principals' DLB (General)	-.626**			
TL behavior		-.434**	-.273**	-.349**
DL behavior		-.503**	-.380**	-.412**
SL behavior		-.482**	-.403**	-.424**
LL behavior		-.649**	-.486**	-.528**

***. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).*

In a nutshell, according to the table above, principals' DLB has a negative relationship with teachers' OC. Similarly, regardless of their significance level, all dimensions of DLB have a negative association with all elements of OC, implying that when principals' leadership behavior deteriorated, teachers' OC decreased in response. This will have a substantial impact on student success, school health, educational quality, and the overall performance of the region's secondary schools.

4.2.5. Influence of principals' DLB on teachers' OC

Following the determination of the relationship between principals' DLB and teachers' OC, a multiple regression analysis was carried out to investigate the effect of principals' DLB on teachers' OC. The data reveals that 44.4% (R^2 =.444) of the variance on the dependent variable, teachers' OC, was explained by the independent variable, principals' DLB. The data portrays that principals' DLB is a significant predictor of teachers' OC. It also shows that principals' SL and LL behavior have a significant negative effect on teachers' OC, with the beta-standardized coefficient value (β) = -.093, t = -2.691, p =.007, and β = -.584, t = -15.453, p =.000, which is <.05 sig level, respectively. The negative beta value implies that an increase in the independent variables, principals' DLB, would have a decreasing effect on the dependent variable, teachers' OC. In other words, the data illustrates that the decline of teachers' OC in the region was due to

the influence of principals' DLB. Moreover, the data shows that among the different dimensions of principals' DLB, LL behavior is the strongest predictor of teachers' OC, with a β value of -.584. The regression analysis findings are listed below the table.

Table 13

Multiple regression of principals' DLB and teachers' OC (n= 1108)

Variable	Teachers' OC					
	R	R^2	Adjusted R^2	B	*t*	*p*
TL behavior	.666	.444	.442	-.052	-1.745	.081
DL behavior				.025	.630	.529
SL behavior				-.093	-2.691	.007
LL behavior				-.584	-15.453	.000

4.2.5.1. Influence of TL behavior on AC, CC, and NC

The simple linear regression analysis was conducted to analyze the effect of each element of principals' DLB on each domain of teachers' OC. Table 14 depicts that 18.8% (R^2 =.188) of the variance in the dependent variable AC was explained by the independent TL behavior. It also shows that the beta standardized coefficient β value is = -.434, t = -16.006, and p =.000 sig level, which is <.05. The findings reveal that TL behavior has a significant negative effect on AC. Besides, the table shows that the R^2 for the regression of the association between TL behavior and CC is .075, which indicates that 7.5% of the variance explained by the dependent variable CC was explained by the independent variable TL behavior. The data below indicates that β = -.273, t = -9.447, and p =.000 sig level, which is <.05. The result shows that TL behavior has a significant negative effect on CC. Moreover, with respect to TL behavior and NC, the R^2 is .122. This shows that 12.2% of the variance in NC was explained by the independent variable, TL behavior. It also reveals β = -.349, t = -12.400, and p =.000 sig level, which is <.05. This shows that secondary school principals' TL behavior has a significant negative influence on teachers' NC. The following table illustrates the effect of TL behavior on AC, CC, and NC. The outcome of the analysis is shown below.

Table 14

Simple linear regression of TL and OC dimensions (n= 1108)

R	R^2	β	*SE*	*t*	*p*
			TL and AC		
.434	.188	-.434	.91575	-16.006	.000
			TL and CC		
.273	.075	-.273	.80064	-9.447	.000
			TL and NC		
.349	.122	-.349	.80971	-12.400	.000

4.2.5.2. Influence of DL behavior on AC, CC, and NC

The second element of principals' DLB is DL behavior. The effect of DL behavior on the various elements of teachers' OC is described in subsequent parts. The table below reveals that the R^2 value of DL and AC is .253. This meant that the independent variable, DL behavior, accounted for 25.3% of the variance in the dependent variable, AC. The table also indicates β = -.503, t = -19.332 and p =.000 sig level, which is <.05. This finding demonstrates that principals' DL behavior has a significant negative effect on teachers' AC. This implies that the decline of teachers' AC in the region was associated with the effect of principals' DL behavior. In addition, it shows that the R^2 result of the regression of the association between DL behavior and CC is .145. The result depicts that 14.5% of the variance in the independent variable, CC, was explained by the independent variable, DL behavior. It also shows β = -.380, t = -13.670, and p =.000 sig level, which is <.05. The finding indicates that principals' DL behavior has a significant negative effect on teachers' CC. Furthermore, according to the data below in the table, the value of R^2 for the regression of the association between DL behavior and NC is .170. This shows that the independent variable, DL behavior, accounted for 17% of the variance in the dependent variable, NC. The data also shows β = -.412, t = -15.029, and p =.000 sig level, which is <.05. This result shows that principals' DL behavior has a significant negative effect on teachers' NC. The result of the analysis is explained below in the table.

Table 15

Simple linear regression of DL behavior and OC dimensions (n= 1108)

R	R^2	β	*SE*	*t*	*P*
			DL and AC		
.503	.253	-.503	.87863	-19.332	.000
			DL and CC		
.380	.145	-.380	.76982	-13.670	.000
			DL And NC		
.412	.170	-.412	.78749	-15.029	.000

4.2.5.3. Influence of SL behavior on AC, CC, and NC

The third component of principals' DLB is SL behavior. Similar to the elements of DLB analyzed above, the effects of SL behavior on AC, CC, and NC were examined. The table below indicates that the R^2 value of SL behavior and AC is .232. This implies that 23.2% of the variance observed in the dependent variable, AC, was explained by the independent variable, SL behavior. Besides, β = -.482, t = -18.272, and p =.000 sig level, which is <.05. This demonstrates that SL behavior by principals affects teachers' AC negatively and significantly. Additionally, the data shows that the simple linear regression of the association between SL behavior and CC R^2 value is .163. This reveals that 16.3% of the variance in the dependent variable, CC, was explained by the independent variable, SL behavior. It further depicts a beta standardized coefficient value of β = -.403, t = -14.655, and p =.000 sig level, which is <.05. The result implicated that principals' SL behavior has a significant negative effect on teachers' CC. Furthermore, another issue investigated was the influence of SL behavior on NC. Table 16 shows that the regression of the association between the two variables R^2 value is .180. This result shows that 18% of the variance on the dependent variable, NC, was explained by the independent variable, SL behavior. Additionally, the data shows β = -.424, t = -15.572, and p =.000 sig level, which is < 0.05. This result portrays that teachers' NC was negatively and significantly affected by principals' SL behavior (visit Table 16).

Table 16

Simple linear regression of SL behavior and OC dimensions (n= 1108)

R	R^2	β	*SE*	*T*	*p*
			SL and AC		
.482	.232	-.482	.89071	-18.272	.000
			SL and CC		
.403	.163	-.403	.76164	-14.655	.000
			SL and NC		
.424	.180	-.424	.78262	-15.572	.000

4.2.5.4. Influence of LL behavior on AC, CC, and NC

LL behavior is the fourth negative leadership behavior element. The effect of LL behavior on several aspects of OC, such as AC, CC, and NC was investigated in the succeeding sections. The table below shows that the R^2 value of LL behavior and AC is .421. The R^2 value indicated that 42.1% of the variance explained in the dependent variable, AC, was explained by the independent variable, LL behavior. It also explained that the beta standardized coefficient value of β = -.649, t = -28.339, and p =.000 sig level, which is <.05. The beta value indicates that LL behavior has a negative and significant effect on teachers' AC. Following an examination of the influence of LL behavior on the affective dimension of OC, simple linear regression analysis was used to examine the influence of LL behavior on CC. The data produces a result of R^2 equal to .236. The result of the analysis indicates that 23.6% of the variance in the dependent variable, CC, was explained by the independent variable, LL behavior. The table also depicts the beta standardized coefficient value of β = -.486, t = -18.498, and p =.000 sig level, which is <.05. The result illustrates that principals' LL behavior has a negative and significant effect on teachers' CC. Eventually, the effect of LL behavior on NC was investigated. To assess the influence of LL behavior on OC, a simple linear regression analysis was employed. The table shows that the value of R^2 is .279. This value of R^2 reveals that 27.9% of the variance in the dependent variable, NC, was explained by the independent variable, LL behavior. Moreover, table 17 depicts a beta standardized coefficient value of β = -.528, t = -20.683, and p =.000 sig level, which is <.05. The

value of β highlights that principals' LL behavior has a negative and significant effect on teachers' NC. The results of the regression analysis are shown below (see Table 17).

Table 17

Simple linear regression of LL behavior and OC dimensions (n= 1108)

R	R^2	β	*SE*	*T*	*p*
			LL and AC		
.649	.421	-.649	.77652	-28.339	.000
			LL and CC		
.486	.236	-.486	.72737	-18.498	.000
			LL and NC		
.528	.279	-.528	.73382	-20.683	.000

On the other hand, multiple regression analysis was used to determine which dimension of principals' DLB was a better predictor of AC, CC, and NC. The table below indicates that LL behavior is the higher predictor of AC, CC, and NC, which has a standardized beta value of β = -.593, t = -15.446, β = -.420, t = -9.525, and β = -.450, t = -10.502, respectively, and a p value of.000, which was <.05. From the following (Table 18) three multiple regression analysis tables, we can understand that principals' LL behavior is the higher predictor of teachers' AC, CC, and NC in the secondary schools of Amhara National Regional State. The tables below explain the multiple regression analysis's findings on all dimensions of principals' DLB and teachers' OC.

Table 18

Multiple linear regression coefficients of DLB and teachers' OC dimensions (n=1108)

Variables	**AC**			**CC**			**NC**		
	β	*T*	*p*	β	*t*	*p*	β	*T*	*p*
TL behavior	-.087	-2.888	.004	.028	.814	.416	-.063	-1.854	.064
DL behavior	.022	.545	.586	.003	.076	.939	.037	.829	.407
SL behavior	-.030	-.843	.400	-.120	-2.957	.003	-.098	-2.490	.013
LL behavior	-.593	-15.446	.000	-.420	-9.525	.000	-.450	-10.402	.000

In summary, the simple linear regression analysis results showed that each principal's DLB element had a negative effect on each element of teachers' OC. The multiple linear regression analysis demonstrated that principals' DLB had a negative effect on teachers' OC. It also had higher predictive power on teachers' OC. Furthermore, it revealed that among the various elements of principals' DLB, laissez-faire leadership behavior was the strongest predictor of teachers' affective, continuance, and normative commitment, respectively. The overall finding helps to consider the bad effect of principals' DLB on teachers' OC, which had a negative return impact on student achievement, quality education, and the overall success of schools in the region.

4.3. Qualitative Data Analyses

The extent of principals' DLB and teachers' OC required further elaboration since the quantitative results of some dimensions of the two variables showed a higher extent than others. For instance, though varied in extent, all dimensions of DLB were prevalent in secondary schools in the region, and among others, LL behavior, which had a mean value of 3.03, was the most common principal's DLB exhibited. On the other side, TL and SL had been practiced to a low extent. Similarly, among other elements of teachers' OC, AC, which had a mean value of 2.52, has had a better place among teachers than CC and NC, which teachers' enjoyed to a lesser extent. Hence, the main intent of this qualitative study was to elaborate on the quantitative data and results of the extent of principals' DLB dimensions and elements of teachers' OC. The exploration of the status of principals' DLB and teachers' OC in secondary schools in the region helped to gain more insights about the status of each dimension of principals' DLB and teachers' OC. Therefore, to achieve the goal, qualitative data was gathered. To conduct the study, ten interviewees (five secondary school principals and five secondary school teachers) were involved in the data collection. The results of the qualitative data analysis are shown below.

4.3.1. The status of principals' destructive leadership behavior

At the very start, all interviewees were asked about the status of DLB among principals. The majority of them expounded that, even though the status varies by school, negative leadership behavior was exhibited in secondary schools. Concerning the practice of principals' DLB, the

first interviewee presented that, although all types of principals' DLBs did not prevail in his school, principals' DLB was exhibited. Daniel, a school principal in one of the secondary schools in the region, described it as follows:

> I never used school property for personal benefit, and I did not engage in any other inappropriate leadership behavior. However, I have a leadership behavior problem indicated by dalliances between making decisions as soon as possible and avoiding decisions, both of which are required for teachers and schools. I was unable to make immediate decisions about teachers who were absent from school and unable to enter the classroom on time. Some teachers work for private institutions. This undermines their work engagement in our school. I could not prevent such situations. I proffered teachers more leeway in the hope that they will learn from their mistakes rather than be punished.

According to the aforementioned key informant, principals demonstrated some constructive leadership behaviors. These principals' positive leadership behaviors include principals' ability not to abuse school resources, establishing a positive working school climate, and not considering teachers' success as their own. However, they could not follow up with teachers at their school who had practiced absenteeism and were unable to enter the classroom on a regular basis; principals' provided unlimited privileges to teachers, all of which had an impact on students' results, school performance, and overall educational quality. This implicated that principals in the school engaged in LL behavior and SL leadership behaviors. Aside from its ubiquity, the informant was asked which principals' DLBs were most typically practiced in the school. According to the first interviewee, Daniel, among others, LL behavior was the most common type of negative leadership behavior exhibited by school principals. He depicted "the most bad leadership behavior I should avoid in the feature is dalliance of making decisions on time, which is important for teachers and the school." The same question was posed to the second interviewee, a principal of a secondary school, Kebede clarified:

> In the school, bad leadership behavior included the inability to make decisions, the refusal to make important decisions for the school community, the absence of principal when the school community needed them, the grant of excessive privileges to teachers, and rolling eyes and anger toward teachers. Occasionally, I granted some bad-behaving teachers some

speaking time during meetings to express their opinions. I couldn't make decisions regarding teachers who couldn't do their school tasks adequately. I, as principal, couldn't always get to school on time. I was unable to make necessary decisions about teachers who did not enter the classroom on time, did not arrive at school on time, or were misbehaving (I demonstrated dalliance).

According to him, the practice of principals' DLB also prevailed in their school. The foregoing interview data elucidated that principals' failure to become exemplary in arriving at school to execute their regular school tasks may discourage teachers from attending and quitting the classroom on time. Principals' beneficial approach to some teachers may have favored some teachers, forcing them to develop a poor work ethic and discouraging other teachers from carrying out their school responsibilities correctly. Furthermore, the interview data revealed that, while some teachers received special benefits from the school leaders, others were denied their legal rights in the school, which demotivated them to do their duties effectively. Therefore, based on his idea, school principals have exhibited TL, DL, SL, and LL behaviors to varied degrees. The interviewee probed once more about which aspect of negative leadership behavior was most common among principals at the school. He went on to say that the most common negative leadership behavior experienced by the principal was LL behavior. Of course, TL, DL, and SL behaviors have also occurred in their school. He highlighted that "problems related to absence in school when others are in need of me, inability to make decisions, and dalliance in making decisions that were important for teachers are our common bad behavior." The third interviewee, another secondary school principal, Tesfahun, also explained that there is a practice of principals' DLB in the school. He explained that the inability to make decisions that are important for the organization (LL behavior) has been a problem in leadership behavior at the school. He has a friendly relationship with teachers' and gives them excessive rights (SL behavior). According to him, other bad behaviors could not have been experienced by him. Tesfahun elaborated that "bad leadership behaviors like providing excessive privileges to teachers and inability to make decisions, which are vital for the organization, were the leadership problem in our school……" He added that, among other leadership behaviors, LL was the dominant one. He claimed that "bad leadership behavior related to inability to make decisions

and dalliances to make decisions (LL behavior) are the common leadership behavioral problem in our school."

According to Rahiel, an experienced woman principal in a secondary school, even though it varied in status, the school principal had experienced harmful leadership behavior. Rahiel indicated that "providing unlimited privileges for teachers, behaving in a friendly manner and offering extra rights, avoiding decisions important for the school and teachers, and delaying responses that are urgent for teachers are bad leadership behaviors experienced by the principal in the school." Based on her experience, SL and LL behaviors have been practiced by the principal in the school. According to her explanation, the problem of decision-making (dalliance and inability to make decisions), i.e., LL behavior, was the most common negative leadership behavior exhibited by the principal in the school. Another school principal, Dereje, with thirty-eight years' experience was also asked whether he practiced DLB or not. He replied that:

> I did not roll my eyes to express my displeasure with teachers' incapacity to perform school tasks. I did not perceive teachers as competitors; I did not embarrass teachers; I presented when teachers required me; and I did not view school triumphs as purely my own success. However, the biggest negative leadership practices I showed were allowing teachers' unlimited rights, dalliance to make decisions, and failing to oversee teachers who perform private work. When teachers misbehave, I limit their speaking time during the meeting.

The above interview data portrayed that, even though principals had exercised constructive leadership behavior in their school, they also simultaneously exhibited negative leadership behavior such as problems of follow-up, monitoring, and creating a learning environment to make teachers' inspired and focused on their regular tasks in their school. According to him, the school principal engaged in DL, SL, and LL behaviors. Based on his description, the most prevalent negative leadership behavior in the school was LL behavior leadership. Tilahun, the other interviewee, a secondary school teacher with twenty-four years of experience, stated that all principals' DLBs (TL, DL, SL, and LL behaviors) were exhibited by school principals in the school. He elaborated:

> Principals have rolled their eyes and been angry to express their dissatisfaction with the bad performance of teachers. They did not provide enough speaking time to teachers in the meeting, and sometimes they gave a chance to some teachers at the end of the meeting, thinking that they may behave inappropriately and provide extra privileges for teachers at the expense of school interests. In addition, principals behaved in a friendly manner with some teachers and provided a special benefit for them; sometimes they did not present themselves in the school when teachers were in need of them, and they considered some teachers as competitors rather than coworkers. Additionally, they avoided decisions that were significant for teachers, and they delayed responding to questions that were vital for teachers.

The above data revealed that principals' had been engaged in bad leadership behaviors like inability to provide opportunity for teachers to enjoy their legal rights that had an effect on their wellbeing, favored some teachers, which may harm the motivation and morale of other teachers, incapacity to be a role model for teachers to use working time effectively, and inability to create smooth relationships with all school teachers. These entire leadership behavioral problems had an impact on forging a good working climate in the school to enhance teachers' engagement, students learning, and quality education. According to the interviewee data, the most common negative leadership behavior exhibited in the school was LL behavior. School principals considerably displayed DL behavior in addition to LL behavior. Tirsit, a secondary school woman teacher with thirty-six years of experience, also indicated that principals engaged in DLB in the school. She stated:

> They did not humiliate us; they were present in the school when we needed them; and they did not roll their eyes at us to express their unhappiness with our work disengagement. They do, however, engage in bad behaviors such as failing to make important decisions for teachers, failing to control teachers who work private jobs at the expense of the school's teaching and learning, giving teachers excessive rights at the expense of schools, failing to provide an immediate response to a teacher's request, and limiting teachers' ideas during meetings.

According to Tirsit, principals had exhibited positive leadership behaviors and at the same time had engaged in negative leadership behaviors such as lack of providing feedback for teachers concerning their work performance, favoritism, absence of follow-up, and monitoring. These drawbacks had an influence on teachers' commitment, teachers' inspiration, teachers' engagement, and the teaching-learning process. Based on her view, principals in the school engaged in DLBs such as DL behavior, SL behavior, and LL behavior. She, like other interviewees, stated that LL behavior was more prevalent in the school than other dimensions of negative leadership behavior. Taye, the other key informant, a teacher in one of the secondary schools of the region, expressed a similar viewpoint on principals' DLB at the school. He explained that the principals of the school had engaged in bad leadership behaviors. He told me:

> Some principals had a tendency to use school resources for private purposes, could not always be present in the school when needed, viewed some teachers as competitors rather than coworkers, and hung up their mobile phones on teachers. Besides, they avoided and delayed decisions that were essential and urgent for teachers and made it difficult for teachers to express their views during meetings. Additionally, the school principals provided extra privileges for some teachers. On the contrary, they did not disseminate false information about teachers.

The above data revealed that though principals engaged in some bright features of leadership behaviors, on the other hand, they had been predominantly exhibited in inappropriate leadership behaviors such as stealing school resources (be it time or material), favoritism, and the inability to offer appropriate attention to teachers' concerns and quests. These gaps jeopardize the school goals and teachers' motivation and wellbeing, which had a big influence on improving the teaching-learning process and quality of education. According to Taye, although to varying practices, all dimensions of principals' DLBs (TL, DL, SL, and LL behaviors) were exhibited in the school. Among the elements of principals' DLB, DL behavior was the predominant negative leadership behavior experienced by principals in the school. Tsigie, the other interviewee, an experienced female secondary school teacher, voiced her belief that negative leadership conduct was not observed in the school. She stated that "principals did not humiliate us; they were present in school when we needed them; they controlled those teachers who performed private tasks during work time; and they gave all teachers freedom during meetings; however, they

committed problems in decision-making." According to her explanations, bad leadership behavior by school principals was connected with laissez-faire leadership. She added that "avoiding decisions that were important for teachers and delayed responding to questions that were urgent for the school and teachers (LL behavior) were the major leadership behavioral problems in the school." The last interviewee, Hiwot, a female secondary school teacher with fourteen years of experience, was asked concerning the status of principals' DLB in her school. She replied that with different status all forms of DLBs were exhibited by the principals. She explained:

> Principals' in our school did not provide extra privileges to teachers; they were not absent when in need of them; they did not attribute the school's success to their own achievement; and they regarded teachers as their partners. However, they had experienced various negative leadership behaviors in the school. They rolled their eyes, were angry, and made inappropriate comments. They also behaved in a friendly manner and encouraged teachers to enjoy more work permissions than expected, and they did not take appropriate measures on important issues that were significant for teachers. Besides, they used their position to benefit materially at the expense of the school. They did not discourage those teachers who ran private work at the expense of the school task; they made it difficult for teachers to express their feelings during meetings by either limiting their time, providing an opportunity at the end of the meeting, or not giving them a chance to express their outlook; and they delayed answering questions that were urgent for teachers.

The above key informant illuminated that principals had exhibited some positive leadership behaviors like treating all teachers equally, becoming exemplary to present school regularly, and creating smooth relationships with the school community. However, principals' had been dominantly engaged in bad leadership behaviors like inability to give proper ear to teachers' concern, favoritism, inappropriate utilization of school resources, denying teachers' legal rights, follow-up, and monitoring problems, which had a return effect on teachers' organizational commitment, motivation, engagement, and quality education. Hiwot reported that all elements of principals' DLBs (TL, DL, SL, and LL) were detected in the school. The common types of DLB shown by principals in the school were DL behavior, followed by TL behavior.

In summary, the results from the above interviewees showed that principals' had engaged in DLBs in secondary schools in Amhara National Regional State. In secondary schools, all characteristics of negative leadership behaviors were exhibited. However, the levels of practice vary from school to school and also by dimension. The most prevalent principals' DLB exhibited in the school, according to them, was LL behavior. DL behavior was also observed in schools on a moderate status. Principals' at the schools also engaged in TL and SL behaviors.

4.3.2. The status of teachers' organizational commitment

All interviewees were asked about the practice of teachers' OC in their schools in order to assess its status in the school. The first interviewee noted that teachers' OC wanes from time to time. According to his idea, although teachers' OC declines over time, there are some teachers who work tirelessly. Daniel explained:

> The status of teachers' commitment is declining. Even though it is decreasing, there are teachers who desire to stay in the profession and continue teaching in schools. Most teachers feel the school's problems are their own, feel like part of a family at their school, have an emotional attachment to the school, and are deeply worried about the school's future. Some teachers have a strong sense of ownership over their school. Similarly, there are teachers who seek to obtain an advantage in order to stay at the school. Teachers at our school believe that if they forsake their schoolwork, they will have no other options. Most teachers feel guilty when they want to leave their school.

According to Daniel, even though the OC of teachers' decreased over time, the majority of teachers' aspired to remain a member of the school, work very hard to improve problems observed in the teaching and learning processes, and have smooth relationships with the school leaders and teachers. Teachers at the school want to stay in teaching because they have a strong attachment to the school or are loyal to their profession, but not because of the pay. He argued that "most teachers feel a strong sense of belonging and feel emotionally attached to the school." He explained that teachers in his school have AC, CC, and NCs to varying status. The primary teachers' OC in the school, according to the interviewee, was AC, followed by CC. Kebede, the second interviewee, stated:

> Teachers' commitment declined over time. More than half of our school teachers had a low level of commitment. They construct a pretext for each school task rather than accepting and committing to work. This is how most of our teachers appear at school. Some teachers in the school do their jobs well, are concerned about the school's success and failure, regard the school as their own property, and do not want to leave. There are teachers who want to spend the rest of their lives in the school and have a strong sense of belonging to the school. On the other hand, there are teachers who feel that they have too few options to consider leaving their school.

According to the aforementioned interviewee, while teachers' OC has decreased with time, there are some teachers who have higher OC, such as AC (a deep attachment to the school) and CC (a commitment based on advantages). According to him, teachers are strongly attached to the school owing to affective attachment rather than CC. He stressed that "the majority of teachers work for the betterment of the school. Unlikely, some other teachers work for benefits. There are teachers who consider the school's problem to be their problem." These had a positive impact on teachers' job satisfaction, students' academic engagement, school improvement, and improving quality education. According to Kebede, AC has a better place in teachers than CC and NC. The third interviewee also posed the same question. Tesfahun demonstrated that the attachments of teachers' to the school and their desire to remain in it decline over time. Most of the teachers did not worry about the fate of the students; they could not enter the classroom on time, and they did not perform school tasks properly. In addition, they have a strong concern for their benefits and believe that they cannot leave the school because they think that life would be difficult, they would have few options, and there would be a scarcity of available alternatives. There are some teachers who want to sustain their lives at the school and who want to continue working in the organization and have a sense of belonging to the school.

The above key informant data implicated that teachers' had experienced absenteeism, low inspiration, and wastage of class time, which posed a grand concern in improving students' performance, school success, and quality education. Based on his idea, CC outweighed AC and NCs. He stated that "the dominant teachers' OC in our school is based on benefits. Teachers work hard and expect to be compensated." Rahiel revealed that the OC of most teachers in our school is low. She also mentioned that their OC had decreased with time. Rahiel elaborated:

> Most teachers in our school lacked commitment. The teacher's dedication declines from time to time. Our school's teachers have lacked sense of belonging. Schools' sense of ownership is also dwindling. However, the majority of our teachers wanted to stay at our school. They did not want to leave the school, despite the fact that they might have gained benefits from other schools. Teachers have a strong emotional attachment to the school. The majority of teachers considered them family.

According to the above woman principal, teachers' internal feeling to remain in the teaching and learning process and their zeal to bring improvement in students' results and school performance decreased over time. These also could negatively affect the quality of education. She described that, though varying in status, the school teachers have AC, CC, and NCs. AC was the most common type of teachers' OC observed in schools. Dereje, the other informant, stated that the majority of teachers, i.e., more than 75% in their school are dedicated. Almost a quarter of the teachers at their school are uncommitted. He stated:

> Most teachers considered the problems of the school their own, considered them family, and regarded the school as their own property. Besides, they have a sense of ownership over the school, they do not feel they would not have another alternative if they could leave the school, and teachers are emotionally attached to the school.

Dereje heralded that most of the teachers' had been motivated and worked hard to improve school performance, student results, and quality education. They also played a role in establishing a positive relationship among the school community and a good working environment, which helped to smoothen and better improve the teaching and learning process. According to Dereje, the majority of the teachers at the school have OCs. Teachers had experienced all dimensions of commitment (AC, CC, and NC), regardless of their status. However, he claimed that, of the three elements of teachers' OC, AC was the most frequent in the school. Tilahun, the other interviewee, stated that teachers' commitment to the school was minimal. According to him, more than 70% of the teachers at the school lacked OC. Approximately 25% of teachers at the school have a higher level of work commitment. He elucidated:

> Although the overall commitment of teachers in our school is declining, teachers at our school consider themselves family to some extent, and the relationship between teachers and the school is better. Teachers, on the other hand, have a poor feeling of ownership; we did not perceive the problem of schools as our problem; our commitment to the school declined over time; and we believed that if we left the school, we would have no other options.

According to Tilahun, most of the teachers were more concerned with their own benefits than their students' learning progress. They could not worry about the future fate of their school, and their intent to share the success and failure of students' outcomes and quality education was minimal. They carry out some duties in exchange for some perks. Teachers in their school, though lowering, have AC, CC, and NC. In the school, CC was the most prominent of the three aspects of teachers' OC. According to Tirsit, teachers' work commitment in the school has decreased over time. Furthermore, despite the school's low level of teacher OC, they have AC, CC, and NCs. She proved:

> Most of the teachers in the school want to spend their career in the school; the relationship between teachers and the school is positive; teachers think that we are family; teachers consider the school our own property; and teachers work to improve students results and the performance of the school rather than reaping benefits. Additionally, teachers did not think that they would not have other alternatives if we left the school; most teachers regarded the problem of the school as our own, and we did not consider that too much of our lives would be disrupted if we left the school.

According to Tirsit, irrespective of their degree of practice, all OC dimensions were manifested in teachers. Among the three dimensions of teachers' OC, AC has a high weight in the school. Taye also demonstrated that the practice of teachers' OC in the school is low. He indicated:

> Teachers desired to stay at the school despite their decreasing work commitment. Teachers felt a sense of ownership over the school. We saw the difficulties at school as our own. The relationship between teachers and the school had improved. Furthermore,

> we considered ourselves family, and we respected and loved our profession. We felt a moral obligation to stay in the profession.

According to the above interview data, the dominant OC dimension among teachers in the school was AC. He argued that more than 70% of teachers exhibit AC. They had a strong emotional relationship with the school. They work to improve students' learning outcomes. The other teachers' OC dimensions were underrepresented in the school. The other interviewee, Tsigie, like other interviewees, showed that the OC of teachers in the school has declined. According to her idea, although the OC of teachers declined, the status of the three dimensions varied. Among the three dimensions of teachers' commitment, teachers had a better AC to the school. She explained:

> Most teachers in the school have a desire to continue the rest of their careers in the school. We considered the problem of the school our own. The relationship between the school and teachers is good. Most teachers have a sense of ownership over the school. We have a strong belief in the school. Teachers did not think that we would not have alternatives when we left the school. Some teachers wanted to leave the school to get benefits.

Hiwot also asked about the status of teachers' OC to the school. She revealed that the OC of teachers at the school was minimal. According to her idea, even though teachers' OC had dropped over time, teachers still possessed all the elements of commitment to varying degrees. She demonstrated:

> Most of the teachers could not consider the problems of the school as our own. We did not think that we would not have other alternatives if we wanted to leave the school. Teachers did not think their lives would be disrupted if we left our school. On the other hand, most teachers in the school consider the school a family; there is a smooth relationship between the school and teacher; teachers respect and love their profession; our emotional attachment to the school is better; and most teachers have a sense of ownership in the school.

According to Hiwot, AC is the most common of the three elements of teachers' OC in schools. In general, the data from the above key informants demonstrated that the OC of most secondary school teachers was low and fell over time. Although teacher commitment was declining in secondary schools, the status of teachers' OC varied by school. It also differed depending on the dimensions. According to them (both principals and teachers), even though all OCs have a place among secondary school teachers, the majority of secondary school teachers have modest AC. Besides, the evidence gathered from interviewees suggests remedial measures are necessary to enhance the commitment of teachers and to minimize the influence low teachers' OC may have on students learning outcomes and quality of education.

CHAPTER FIVE

DISCUSSIONS, CONCLUSIONS, and IMPLICATIONS

5.1. Discussions

5.1.1. Extent of principals' DLB exhibited in secondary schools

This part focused on the study's results and findings based on the review literature and the numerous empirical investigations that were included in it. The results and findings are discussed in more detail below.

DLB is a pervasive issue in various institutions, including schools, and is characterized by negative leadership practices that exert a detrimental influence on employees and organizations (Tepper, 2000; Thoroughgood et al., 2012). Such behavior compromises the institution's legal interests, undermines organizational goals, tasks, and resources, and negatively affects the motivation, well-being, and work satisfaction of followers (Einarsen et al., 2007; Einarsen et al., 2017; Krasikova et al., 2013; Schyns & Hansbrough, 2010). Beyond physical harm, destructive leadership can erode interpersonal ties, trustworthiness, and institutional culture, leading to significant adverse effects on both individuals and the institution as a whole (Holland, 2020). DLB disseminates discreetly and covertly, equally affecting individuals, groups, and eventually the entire institution (Vreja et al., 2016). It ranges from bad (Bhandarker & Rai, 2018) to unlawful (Lipman-Blumen, 2006). DLB can also extend from the sober (Mette, 2020) to the unethical and dubious (Lipman-Blumen, 2006).

The prevalence of DLB is evident in various studies, shedding light on its occurrence and impact within educational institutions. In a study conducted in Amhara National Regional State secondary schools, the overall mean score of principals' DLB was found to be 2.52, *SD* =.85595, *t* (1107) = -.979, at p >.05 (Reference: Table 9). This indicates that principals exhibited DLB in the region's secondary schools, underscoring the urgent need to address this issue. A qualitative study in the same region supported these findings, further highlighting the presence of principals' DLB in secondary schools.

A separate study in north-eastern Ethiopia, conducted by Eshetu, revealed that approximately 65% of public-sector employees in the Awi Zone were vulnerable to DLB (Eshetu, 2022). The study categorized the frequency of engagement in DLB, with 22% of leaders displaying it very infrequently, 27.2% occasionally, 21.3% frequently, and 16.6% engaging in it very frequently. Similarly, in Amhara regional state, a study across three zones (North Gondar, South Gondar, and Bahir Dar) on education, health, and agricultural institutions found that a significant number of employees (57%) perceived DLB (Shishigu et al., 2015).

Internationally, a survey study conducted on the Norwegian workforce indicated that DLB is not only harmful but also increasingly prevalent. About 33.5 percent of employees reported exposure to one or more types of DLBs (Aasland et al., 2010). Moreover, studies have demonstrated that a considerable number of employees have experienced other forms of negative or DLB, such as being instructed to perform tasks below their capacity (13.7 percent), denied access to essential information (7.4 percent), assigned challenging targets or deadlines (5.3 percent), and having their ideas and views ignored (5.1 percent) (Salin, 2005).

Thoroughgood et al. (2012) revealed that DLB frequently contributes to institutions' economic and social losses. The victims of DLB usually feel unhappy about their work-life balance and have work consume all of their thoughts and private time (Erickson et al., 2015). Additionally, its comprehensive damage may be that destructive leadership usually results in a toxic organizational culture, with such toxic cultures then promoting the possibility of more destructive leaders (Padilla, 2007). It also usually attributes toxic cultures to a lack of trust among colleagues. Divergent scholarly works attested that organizations and employees with bad leadership behavior faced different difficulties. A destructive leader could hunt for extraneous ambitions and purposes that might be at odds with those of the institution itself, poisoning the workplace in the process (Gallus et al., 2013). This can indicate that the institution's organizational goals and objectives are not being met (Krasikova et al., 2013). Destructive leaders might function in opposition to institutional objectives and goals or use current institutional objectives and goals to the leader's satisfaction (Winn & Dykes, 2019). Destructive leaders exploit others in order to achieve their goals (Schmidt et al., 2018). These leaders can exhibit charisma (Padilla et al., 2007), which employees can find attractive (Matos, 2018). Destructive leaders can exhibit workplace coercion, abuse, hostility, sabotage, and even

vindictiveness (Thoroughgood et al., 2012). They may be unproductive at negotiation, unable to manage change, use information or the lack of information inappropriately, and overall communicate unsuccessfully. Besides, they may also engage in unethical leadership behavior, lie, or behave inappropriately, showing inconsistent and erratic leadership behavior (Erickson et al., 2015). The appearance of destructive leaders within an organization can negatively influence the organization's capacity to attract and recruit high-potential employees (Mitchell & Ambrose, 2007). Destructive leaders may also reduce the capacity of an organization to develop the performance potential of its employees once they are hired (Erickson et al., 2015). Depending on their explanation, this climate decreases employee performance as those employees who remain spend their time job-hunting and being absent from work. Moreover, destructive leaders may also micromanage and/or over control work, provide unclear expectations, and be unable to develop and inspire followers (Erickson et al., 2015). To this end, they added that destructive leaders may play games that are most liked, tell people only what they want to hear, and even bully others. Destructive leaders may also have an enormous influence on the existence of employees outside the workplace (Jha & Jha, 2015). Likewise, employees who have destructive leadership face stress-related issues such as insomnia, bad dreams, general fatigue, and loss of concentration (Webster et al., 2016). Subordinates with destructive leaders usually end up detesting their jobs and dreading going to work (Mitchell & Ambrose, 2007). They can also feel disrespect for the people who hired them, which can then lead to an overall devaluing of their view of the organization (Shuck et al., 2015).

Inconsistent with the above findings, Hogg & Adelman (2013) showed that even though DLB may have adverse influences on an organization, during crises, it elevates subordinates need for help from their supervisor. In an investigation of 215 subordinates, scholars suggested that fewer self-confident or self-uncertain individuals were sympathetic to DLB in preference to non-autocratic leaders (David Rost et al., 2013). Studies also confirmed that employees who work for an overly demanding boss who is more committed to advancing their interests at the expense of their organization are highly engaged (Aasland et al., 2010; Erickson et al., 2015).

DLB has four dimensions (Einarsen et al., 2007). The extent of each element of DLB in Amhara National Regional State is discussed next. The first element of DLB exhibited by the principals' of Amhara National Regional State was TL behavior. TL behavior manifests when a

leader combines pro-organizational and anti-subordinate behaviors. Being pro-organizational, these leaders may behave per the legitimate goals, tasks, and strategies of the organization. However, they frequently get results at the expense of subordinates, not through their willing cooperation (Aasland et al., 2010; Einarsen et al., 2007; 2017). Being anti-subordinate, tyrannical leaders manipulate, humiliate, and intimidate subordinates to get the work done (Einarsen et al., 2017). TL behavior may achieve organizational objectives at the expense of subordinates motivation, satisfaction, and wellbeing. Different literature supports these arguments. For example, Einarsen et al. (2007) described a model of DLB in which the tyrannical supervisor may appropriately execute his or her duties to the organization, but it may attain organizational goals at the expense or disadvantage of employees. According to Tepper (2007), the most common manifestations of abusive supervisors, in this case tyrannical leaders, are bodiless behaviors in which the supervisor publicly ridicules, scapegoats, or takes credit for the work of employees. Hutchinson & Hurley (2013) also showed that this kind of DLB spoils the social climate of the institution and badly influences the quality of work (Sedivy-Benton et al., 2015).

In an investigation conducted in Amhara regional state secondary schools, the mean value of TL behavior was found to be 2.11, SD =.72368, t (1107) = -19.680, at $p<.05$, which is lower than the population mean. The qualitative result of the study strengthened this result, indicating its presence in secondary schools. Although the incidence rate was 2.1, the findings revealed that school principals engaged in TL behavior, necessitating intervention. Consistent with the above finding, a study conducted in one of the higher institutions in Ethiopia, Debre Tabor University, by Goshu illuminated that TL leadership behavior was prevalent and exhibited by the leaders of the institution (Goshu, 2022). Besides, different pieces of global literature backed up the above result. For instance, the study conducted by Aasland et al. (2010) in Norway illustrated that the prevalence rate of TL behavior in the Norwegian workforce is 3.4%.

Harris et al. (2013) demonstrated that abusive or TL behavior leads to the highest level of followers' frustration and declining feelings of institutional support. Additionally, other studies also postulated the same results and revealed that TL behavior harms employee motivation and reaches organizational goals at the expense of subordinates' satisfaction. For example, according to Aasland et al. (2010) and Einarsen et al. (2017), tyrannical supervisors erode employee inspiration, affect employee welfare, and lead to declining job satisfaction. Einarsen et al. (2007)

showed that such tyrannical supervisors impair employees; they may not unavoidably harm their institution.

DLB also manifested itself in anti-organizational behaviors like absenteeism, work withdrawal, shirking, committing fraud, or otherwise stealing resources (whether they be financial, time, or material from the organization) and anti-subordinate behaviors such as bullying, humiliation, manipulation, and deceit. Such kinds of bad leadership behaviors are considered DL behaviors (Aasland et al., 2010; Aryee et al., 2007; Einarsen et al., 2007; Einarsen et al., 2017). The associated leadership behavior includes deceit, fraud, and, more crucially, bullying, dishonesty, and leadership undermining against subordinates (Aasland et al., 2010). The destructive nature of derailed leaders springs up from the utilization of authoritarian means under convenient conditions (Marshal et al., 2013).

With regard to the prevalence of DL behavior in the Amhara region, table 9 showed that DL behavior, which had a mean value of 2.61, SD = 1.11223, t (1107) = 1.983, at $p<.05$, was a little bit higher than the population mean. This finding is also supported by the results of the interviewees' data, showing its presence in secondary schools. The findings demonstrated that DL behavior was exhibited in the secondary schools of Amhara National Regional State, and the prevalence rate still needs huge attention in secondary schools since it may have a negative effect on students learning results and the quality of education. This result is consistent with the findings of Aasland et al. (2010), which elucidated that DL behavior is prevalent in government organizations. The prevalence of DL behavior in organizations led to the goals and objectives of the institution being obstructed. Besides, the motivation, morale, and wellbeing of subordinates are also doomed. For instance, the study by Zabrodska and Kyeton (2013) illustrated in their work that DL behaviors are one component of an organizational situation, and the leaders will emphasize bullying. Contrary to the above results, the findings of Goshu (2022) indicated that the practice of DL behavior in public higher educational institutions is obsolete.

The other DLB dimension considered in this study was SL behavior. Such leadership behaviors combine pro-subordinate and anti-organizational leadership behaviors. As a result, these leaders may encourage, motivate, and support their staff (subordinates), for example, through inspirational motivation and individualized consideration (Bass & Riggio, 2006).

However, these leaders may simultaneously deprive the organization of resources, be it working hours, material resources, or economic resources (Einarsen et al., 2007; 2017). When we see the findings of this study, SL behavior had a mean value of 2.32, *SD* =.92177, *t* (1107) = -8.903, at *p<.05*. The qualitative result of the study backed up this finding, indicating the presence of SL behavior. The implications of the result rule out the possibility of SL behavior being an issue in school. Its presence may have an influence on students' learning engagement and school performance, necessitating an understanding of the issue and the implementation of corrective actions. Consistent with the above findings, the findings of Aasland et al. (2010) indicated that SL behavior is practiced by 11% of organizations. Contrary to the findings of this study, in government institutions, the practice of SL behavior is higher. For instance, a study conducted in Ethiopia by Goshu demonstrated that SL behavior is the most prevalent DLB in higher institutions (Goshu, 2022). The other finding that portrayed the prevalence of SL behavior is Nahum-Shani et al. (2014), which indicated SL behavior is practiced by 60% of organizations.

SL behavior creates an environment that deteriorates organizational achievement and subordinates' performance. Different literature supported this argument. For example, the works of Einarsen et al. (2007; 2017) portrayed that supportive disloyal leaders grant their employees more benefits than appropriate and encourage low work ethic or even misconduct. Additionally, they showed that supportive-disloyal leaders direct their subordinates towards inefficiency or other goals than those of the organization while at the same time behaving in a comradely and friendly manner. Similarly, Schyns & Hansbrough (2010) revealed that by directing and motivating followers to work hard but in a direction contrary to organizational goals, supportive-disloyal leaders behave counter to the legitimate interests of the organization. Furthermore, Einarsen et al. (2007) claimed that such types of supervisors have a tendency to engage in DLBs like embezzlement, stealing resources, and institutional undermining. According to Nahum-Shani et al. (2014), this leadership behavior causes institutional undermining of attempts by supervisors who persist in being supportive of employees but highly pressure the organization.

Inconsistent with the above research findings, some scholars argue that SL behavior may not always be harmful to employees and organizations. For instance, the works of Aasland et al. (2010) and Lipman-Blumen (2006) depict that supportive-disloyal supervisors do not always exhibit unacceptable behaviors over time; rather, supportive-disloyal leaders possess positive

characteristics that lead the way to securing their position. In a similar vein, according to Paustian-Underdahl et al. (2013), the positive characteristics of supportive disloyal leaders include being friendly, approachable, and having effective communication skills. Dussault et al. (2013) also depicted that followers may have a problem recognizing supportive-disloyal supervisors as harmful because of the positive gains, help, and unique performance they received from employees.

The fourth element of DLB is SL behavior. When we see the concept of LL behavior, the leader has been nominated and does exist physically in the leadership position, but has in practice escaped from the duties and responsibilities assigned to him or her, hence exerting a minimum of effort to get the required job done integrated with a minimum of concern for employees (Einarsen et al., 2007; Einarsen et al., 2017). It does not involve them until problems are either strongly brought to their attention or the problems become so hard that action is required and can no longer be eradicated given the duties and responsibilities related to their position (Einarsen et al., 2017). With respect to LL behavior, the findings of the study in Amhara regional state showed that the practice of LL behavior had a mean value of 3.03, SD = 1.18653, t (1107) = 13.067, at $p<.05$. Besides, the most common DLB exhibited by principals in secondary schools in Amhara regional state was LL behavior. These results were backed by the qualitative data from interviewees, which revealed that LL behavior was the most prevalent principals' DLB in secondary schools in Amhara National Regional State. The result of the study also urges the concerned body to intervene to minimize the influence such leadership behavior may bring. Consistent with this finding, a higher education level study in Ethiopia showed that LL behavior was the most common negative leadership behavior shown by leaders (Goshu, 2022). The study conducted by Aasland et al. (2010) also supported this finding. They demonstrated that in the last six months, the dominant leadership behavior exhibited regularly by leaders in the Norwegian work force was LL behavior. Inconsistent with the above findings, LL behavior did not prevail in organizations (Aasland et al., 2010).

LL behavior is regarded as ineffective and incapable of leading. According to Lutz Allen et al. (2013), LL failed to build the climate essential for employees to progress while leading, assisting, or directing followers. Courtright et al. (2014) and Susanj and Jakopec (2012) also demonstrated that laissez-faire supervisors abdicate responsibility, do not exercise authority, and

do not participate in decision-making, which affects the motivation of employees and damages organizational performance. Besides, Jackson et al. (2013) indicated that LL behavior may look harmless externally, but below the surface is a set of current offensive actions or behaviors. They further demonstrated that laissez-faire supervisor involves three kinds of supervisory responses, such as placating avoidance, where supervisors deal to take measures for followers' interests; equivocal avoidance, where supervisors offer doubtful reactions; and hostile avoidance, where supervisors decline to take a measure. Laissez-faire supervisors slow down to take or decide, decline to behave mindfully, and reject general leadership duties (Khan et al., 2012). Likely, according to Avolio & Bass (2004), LL behavior is essentially harmful or destructive leadership because of its lack of leadership; the supervisor may not plan to damage the institution or their followers.

Consistent with this study, various studies demonstrated that LL behavior could not be considering a mature staff leadership behavior because it was performed to harm either the institution or the employees, not because of the employees' maturity. Incapability to lead, ineffective leadership, and being unable to make decisions necessary to organizations and teachers do not go with staff maturity; rather, it is a sign of inactive leadership. Different scholars support the above arguments. For instance, according to Skogstad et al. (2014) LL behavior is equivalent to non-leadership because of the absence of effect and passive behavior. Lutz Allen et al. (2013) showed that laissez-faire types of leaders are avoidant and are considered by employees as evasive and dishonest. DLB may also be a function of passive direct and passive indirect leadership behaviors (Einarsen et al., 2007). LL behavior has been used to describe passive and avoidant leadership behavior (Schyns & Hansbrough, 2010). Besides, according to Avolio & Bass (2004), LL behavior is essentially harmful or destructive because of its lack of leadership. According to Neilsen (2013), LL behavior contributes to workplace mistreatment through bullying behaviors. Similarly, Lipman-Bluemen (2006) demonstrated that ineffective leaders harm their institutions and subordinates despite their inability to do so. Hence, LL is not a zero-type of leadership behavior.

5.1.2. Commitment dimension that kept teachers in their workplace

OC is a driving force that binds people to a certain course of action and can be accompanied by a range of mind sets that influence behavior (Meyer & Herscovich, 2001). Meyer and Allen (1997) describe OC as an employee's loyalty and readiness to collaborate with the organization in order to attain its objectives. It is also a mental state that characterizes an employee's relationship with the organization and influences the decision to remain or leave the organization (Meyer & Allen, 1993). OC denotes a desire to stick with a plan of action (Meyer & Allen, 2004), organizational loyalty (Ambali et al., 2011), and attachment (Meyer & Herscovich, 2001).

As table 10 showed, the OC of secondary school teachers has a mean of 2.24, *SD* = .76512, *t* (1107) = -1.083, at p>.05, which was lower than the population mean. The qualitative findings also supplement the decline in secondary school teachers' OC. The result of the study depicted that it is crucial to increase the OC of secondary school teachers' in the region to improve the academic achievement of students and quality of education.

Different studies carried out in Ethiopia supported the above findings. A study conducted in secondary schools in Ethiopia by Anwar et al. (2016) showed that the OC of secondary school teachers tends to decrease after some time. Similarly, Ayenalem et al. (2022) state that there are ongoing complaints about teachers who do not carry out their responsibilities willingly from students, parents, the community, and educational professionals. They further argued that it is common to hear that the engagement of students and teachers is poor. Moreover, they revealed that some students have been pushed through to higher grades regardless of their skill attainment and end up leaving school (Wata Derso & Kant, 2022). The MoE survey studies further corroborate these concerns, revealing that teachers exhibit disinterest in their work, lack motivation, waste valuable classroom time, and frequently experience absenteeism (MoE, 2018). Moreover, the MoE identified absenteeism, low teacher inspiration, and subpar education quality as prevailing issues in the teaching and learning process (MoE, 2020). Yarive (2011) further clarified that low motivation, emotional distress, and exhaustion are the major problems observed in teachers among the many difficulties in schools. In consistent to the previous

findings, Nazneen and Mohammad (2017) discovered that employees have higher OC in their study on the effect of OC on job satisfaction among technical universities in Saudi Arabia.

Employees' OC has various implications for organizational goal accomplishments. This idea is backed by different literature. For instance, scholars like Yilmaz and Kilic (2017) postulated that OC is a concept that encourages adherents to embrace the objectives and goals of the organization, staff members' efforts to improve the organization, and their hopes to maintain their employment with the organization. It is also viewed as a significant aspect in boosting organizational performance, lowering absenteeism, and decreasing turnover (Harera & Heras Rosas, 2021). Meyer and Allen (2004) claimed that organizations frequently try to instill commitment in their employees in order to create stability and prevent costly turnover. It is widely assumed that committed individuals will work harder and are more inclined to go the additional mile to achieve organizational goals. Besides, scholars argued that workers with a high level of OC passionately believe in the organization's aims and work hard to attain organizational effectiveness (Alrowwad et al., 2019), whereas organizations with low levels of employee commitment will fail to meet their goals (Shahid & Azhar, 2013). Workers with a job commitment can minimize the organization's intention to turnover, and firms that can produce this form of commitment among their employees can save on recruitment expenditures. Meyer & Allen (1997) discovered that high OC has both individual and organizational benefits, including minimal work withdrawal, high performance, reducing absenteeism, and decreasing delayed work. Several studies have also shown that OC lowers the expense of higher turnover rates (Guzeller & Celiker, 2019). Additionally, it demonstrated that employees who are more committed to the organization are more likely to engage in extra effort and make sacrifices for the good of the organization (George-Planer, 2019). Organizations with devoted employees can bring success and development to the organization (Somayyeh et al., 2013). Similarly, committed teachers have a strong attachment to schools (Flint et al., 2013). They put forth a lot of effort to meet the fundamental goals of schools, which include academic performance for students (Kushman, 1992). Moreover, teachers do not wish to leave their current employer (Flint et al., 2013). They also made an attempt to increase student learning outcomes and put more effort into their work (Yousef, 2000). OC is also related to teacher job satisfaction, teacher efficacy, and teacher expectations for student success (Kushman, 1992). Contrary to the above

studies, scholars demonstrated that organizations that are unable to develop committed personnel, on the other hand, will incur significant costs due to high staff turnover. In addition, employees with little or no commitment to the organization are hesitant to achieve the organization's goals (Somayyeh et al., 2013).

OC is conceptualized on the basis of AC, CC, and NC. Each commitment dimension has its own unique features. In this study, OC had its own findings. However, the finding of OC does not explain the finding of each commitment dimension. Therefore, the findings on each dimensions of OC are explained next.

One of the dimensions of OC is AC. AC is described as an affective (emotional) adaptation that demonstrates and identifies employees with their organizations, is firmly dedicated to their organizations, and is glad to be a part of the organization (Meyer & Allen, 1997). It is an employee's emotional or psychological tie to the organization. It is affected by elements such as receptiveness by leaders, participation and dependability, feedback, personal importance, equity, job challenge, role clarity, goal clarity, and goal difficulty (Meyer & Allen, 1997).

In the study conducted in Amhara regional state, table 10 indicated that AC had a mean value of 2.52, SD = 1.01583, t (1107) = 8.415, at $p<.05$, which was higher than the population mean. The qualitative data explained that secondary school teachers' in Amhara region has better AC. The findings of the study revealed that, although the overall OC of teachers is low, secondary school teachers in the region have moderate AC. This implies that it is more of an AC that makes teachers continues their lives in the profession than other OC elements. Consistent with the above finding, Nazneen and Mohammed (2017), in a study conducted in Saudi Arabia at technical universities, explained that employees have moderate AC. Inconsistent with the findings of this study, Endale (2019) described that the AC of teachers' in secondary schools in Ethiopia was low.

Individuals with great AC frequently demonstrate high performance, optimistic outlooks, and a willingness to stay with the organization (Meyer & Allen, 1997). Additionally, AC has a higher impact on behavior than CC or NC (Meyer & Herscovich, 2001). AC is also connected

with unfavorable outcomes such as absenteeism, turnover, organizational citizenship behavior, and work performance (Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001).

The second domain of OC is CC. The mean value of CC in this study was 2.023, *SD* = .83194, *t* (1107) = -9.494, at p<.05, which is lower than the population mean. This finding indicated that the status of secondary school teachers' CC in the region is low. The result of the qualitative finding also complimented this finding. Inconsistent with this study's findings, according to Endale (2019), the status of secondary school teachers' CC in Ethiopia is higher. Besides, similar to the above findings of Endale (2019), Nazneen and Mohammed (2017), in a study conducted in Saudi Arabia at technical universities, it was illuminated that workers have moderate NC.

CC is the assumption that if a person leaves an organization, he or she will lose any financial or social benefits gained as a result of providing labor, time, and effort (Meyer & Allen, 1997). Tolentino (2013) claimed that CC is cost-based. Tolentino went on to say that in a CC, a subordinate's allegiance is based on the benefits (gains) they have gotten from the institution. In addition, Tolentino said that in a CC, followers overwhelmingly choose to stay in the organization in order to keep perks such as seniority, salary, and social benefits. Moreover, different studies have elaborated that CC relies on benefits and has increased organizational performance. For example, the works of Yilmaz and Kilic (2017) portray that a worker who is instrumentally committed to an institution is dedicated to the demands of the organization as well as his or her work.

Different literatures illustrated that CC has an impact on employees' performance and organizational effectiveness. CC develops as staff members tighten their ties to the organization based on what they gain in return for their efforts and what they would lose if they left (such as money, benefits, and associations) (Yilmaz & Kilic, 2017). Only when they surpass their grant expectations do these employees produce their best work (Meyer & Allen, 1997). CC has also a strong impact on the effective and efficient functioning of an organization (Meyer & Herscovich, 2001).

The other element of OC is NC. It is an employee's sense of duty to remain with her or his organization (Meyer & Allen, 1991). The NC is based on feelings of obligation and is measured by the employee's feelings about staying to work for the organization (Yilmaz & Kilic, 2017). NC is a measure of how well an employee's beliefs and values match the organization's fundamental ideals (Tolentino, 2013). It occurs when workers stay with an institution based on societal expectations or expected behavioral standards (Yilmaz & Kilic, 2017). These workers are characterized by formality, deference, and caution. Another way to put it is as a psychological contract between employers and workers (Meyer and Allen, 1997). According to their findings, the level of NC may vary depending on the subordinates' social, familial, cultural, and personal development. Moreover, NC is the commitment that emerges when employees feel a moral relationship to their organizations (Sow & Berete, 2016).

A study conducted in Amhara regional state showed that the mean value of secondary school teachers' NC in the region was 2.2, SD = .86378, t (1107) = -3.631, at $p<.05$, which is lower than the population mean. The qualitative data also supported this quantitative finding. All the findings of the study demonstrated that the NC of teachers in secondary schools in Amhara National Regional State was low. This implicated that the level of normative commitment in secondary school of Amhara regional state requires huge assignment since it has a significance influence on students learning achievement and overall school effectiveness. Consistent with this finding, Endale (2019) illustrated that the NC of secondary school teachers in Ethiopia is low.

NC has an impact on an employee's work performance. This idea is backed by different sources of literature. For example, according to Sow & Berete (2016), NC has an impact on employees' retention or turnover intentions. Besides, Meyer and Allen (1997) explained that workers with NC display comparable sentiments and behaviors. It also has an influence on organizational citizenship behavior, which has a big impact on organizational performance. In contradiction with the above finding, Nazneen and Mohammed (2017), in their study conducted in Saudi Arabia at technical universities, explained that employees have higher NC.

5.1.3. Teachers' perception on principals' DLB

Table 11 showed that there was a difference among teachers perceptions of TL behavior, DL behavior, SL behavior, and LL behavior based on gender at Pillai's Test =.010, F (1089.000, 1089.000) = 2.729, p =.028, partial eta squared (η2) =.010. Consistent with the above finding, Larsson et al. (2022) described that a significant main effect has been observed in the perception of the relationship between gender and principals' DLB. Singh et al. (2017) also indicated that there is a significant relationship between the perceived DLB of employees and principals' DLBs. Similarly, Brahim, (2009) showed that there is a significant gender difference among teachers in the perception of leadership behavior. Contrary to the above findings, a study conducted by Kanagobal (2009) illustrated that there is no significant perception difference among employees on the basis of gender.

Based on qualification, there was no significant difference among the perceptions of teachers on principals' DLB dimensions at Pillai's Test (V) = .004, F (1089, 1089.000) = 1.172, p= .321, η2= .004. The findings of this study are supported by various pieces of literature. For instance, a study carried out by Jayasinghe (2015) revealed that there is no significant perception difference among employees with leadership behavior based on qualification. Besides, according to Kanagobal (2009), there is no significant difference among employees on the basis of qualification and leadership behavior. On the other hand, against the above findings, a study conducted by Singh et al. (2017) described that there is a significant relationship between employees' perceptions and DLB on the basis of qualification.

Experience was one of the demographic variables embraced in the study. The finding of the study elucidated that there was no significant difference in the perception of teachers with DLB dimensions depending on experience at Pillai's Test = .013, F (1089, 3273.000) = 1.164, p= .303, η2= .004. In support of this finding, a study conducted by Jayasinghe (2015) in Japan showed that there is no perception difference among employees based on experience with leadership behavior. The other research by Kanagobal (2009) backed the above findings and illustrated that there is no significant difference among employees' perceptions on the basis of length of service. Contrary to the above findings, Singh et al. (2017) noted that there is a significant relationship between employees' experience and perception of destructive leadership.

5.1.4. Relationship between principals' DLB and teachers' OC

In this section, the relationship between principals' DLB and teachers' OC in secondary schools in Amhara National Regional State is discussed. The Pearson correlation coefficient was used to examine the relationship between principals' DLB and teachers' OC as well as the relationship between the different dimensions of DLB and elements of OC.

As shown in table 12, principals' DLB was significantly and negatively correlated with teachers' OC with a standardized correlation coefficient ($r = -.626$) at $p<.0.01$. This showed that when principals' DLB worsened in secondary schools in the region, the OC of teachers deteriorated. Consistent with the above findings, research has revealed that DLB is negatively related to OC (Burris et al., 2008; Tepper, 2000). Besides, DLB has an inverse association with the psychological well-being of employees (Sankowsky, 1995; Schyns & Schilling, 2013), work and life satisfaction (Hauge et al., 2007; Schyns & Schilling, 2013; Tepper, 2000), and organizational effectiveness (Burris et al., 2008). In addition, leader coercion, vindictiveness, and abuse (Thoroughgood et al., 2012) can negatively influence followers' attitudes and overall welfare (Matos, 2018). This can lead to defective welfare, low job and life satisfaction (Krasikova et al., 2013), and a declining capacity to execute the organizational job (Shaw et al., 2011). Employees who work for destructive leaders are more likely to have family problems and suffer from psychological distress (Hoobler & Brass, 2006; Tepper, 2000; Yagil, 2006). Subordinates who have a destructive leader also showed higher levels of emotional exhaustion (Grandey et al., 2007).

DLB leads to increased stress levels, absenteeism, and a desire to leave the job (Labrague et al., 2020). Bad leaders can enhance followers' psychological distress, leading to decreased OC and even retaliatory behavior (Rose et al., 2015). Moreover, different literature argues that there is an association between DLB and employee job dissatisfaction or job satisfaction and the intention to quit (Palanski et al., 2014). Negative leadership can accelerate worker turnover, with staff leaving harmful work environments (Rose et al., 2015). This can endanger the institution's goal (Padilla et al., 2007). Different literature also describes that DLB is associated with OC (Nguni et al., 2006). Various meta-study analyses revealed a strong negative relationship between different dimensions of DLB and OC variables (Mehta & Maheshawari, 2013). In the

context of schools, it also correlated the abuse of teachers by principals with several emotional problems, such as severe fear, anxiety, anger, and depression (Blase & Blase, 2006). Additionally, the DLB of school principals could cause psychological problems in teachers such as chronic fear, depression, stress, anxiety, anger, and loneliness (Blase & Blase, 2002), with long-term harm to school health. Further, a study conducted on 50 teachers in the USA who had been ill-treated by school principals over a long period of time (six months to nine years) showed that the teachers experienced shock, disorientation, loneliness, and injured self-esteem (Blase & Blase, 2006). On the other hand, according to research on the relationship between OC and ethical decision-making, employees who have a higher level of OC are less likely to engage in unethical behavior, which results in personal benefit and negative organizational outcomes (Tang & Chiu, 2003). Cullinan et al.'s (2008) investigation of subordinates from three organizations showed similar results, indicating that employees with a higher level of OC may have a longer-term aim, which would dim the consideration of the short-term personal benefits gotten from negative behavior.

DLB and OC have various dimensions. TL behavior, DL behavior, SL behavior, and LL behavior are the four elements of DLB. Identically, OC has dimensions like AC, CC, and NCs. Thus, the relationship between each dimension of DLB and OC is discussed below.

As shown in table 12, there was a negative and moderate relationship between TL behavior and AC ($r = -.434$, $p < 0.01$); CC ($r = -.273$, $p<0.01$), and NC ($r = -.349$, $p<0.01$), respectively. This means that when the TL behavior of principals' declines, the AC, CC, and NC of teachers will be enhanced. Consistent with these findings, a study conducted in Ethiopia indicated that there is also a negative relationship between TL behavior and teacher commitment (Goshu, 2020). Another scholar, Harris et al. (2013) demonstrated that TL behavior leads to the highest level of followers' frustration and declining feelings of institutional support. Based on the works of Schwepker and Schultz (2015), the anti-subordinate parts of tyrannical supervision influenced the turnover intention and OC of followers. Additionally, they explained that DLB has a significant negative influence on CC. It also has a negative impact on employees' NC. Tepper (2000) also found that TL behavior was associated with weaker AC and NC. Contrary to the negative effect TL behavior has on employees and the organization; some studies explain that it has a positive effect on employees and the organization. For example, a positive correlation

has been found between TL behavior and quietness (Tepper, 2000; Tepper et al., 2009). Besides, TL behavior and abusive supervision have an association with a higher level of CC (Tepper, 2000).

The second dimension of DLB is DL behavior. As shown in table 12, there was a negative and significant relationship between DL behavior and AC ($r = -.503$, $p < 0.01$). DL behavior had also a negative and moderate relationship with CC ($r = -.380$, $P < 0.01$) and NC ($r = -.412$, $p < 0.01$), respectively, this implies that an increment in principals' DL behavior would decrease the AC, CC, and NC of teachers in the secondary schools of Amhara regional state. These findings are supported by different scholarly works; for example, a study by Gosh (2022) demonstrated that there is a negative relationship between DL behavior and teachers OC. Mehta & Maheshawari (2013) also explained that DLB is inversely associated with employee AC and positively associated with the employee's aspiration to leave their institution. Their study further showed that various elements of DLB have a relationship with OC dimensions. Ertureten et al. (2013) showed that declining mobbing acts were significantly related to decrease CC, higher turnover, and declining job satisfaction.

As table 12 explained, there was a negative and moderate association between SL behavior and AC ($r = -.482$, $p < 0.01$), CC ($r = -.403$, $p<0.01$), and NC ($r = -.424$, $p < 0.01$). The findings implicated that an increase in SL behavior would lead to the decline of teachers AC, CC, and NC. Consistent with these findings, Einarsen et al. (2007) and Aasland et al. (2010) elaborated that SL behavior has a negative association with teachers' OC. They elucidated that practicing systematic SL behavior by one's immediate leader is associated with an employee's report of work withdrawal (Einarsen et al., 2007; Aasland et al., 2010). They further indicated that those followers who were subjected to supportive but disloyal leadership were more likely to leave the workplace, as evidenced by increased absenteeism and tardiness, as well as decreased job output. Furthermore, the level of work withdrawal among those practicing supportive but disloyal leadership behaviors was higher than among those subordinates who described considerable abusive behaviors as an integration of TL, DL, and LL behaviors (Schyns & Schilling, 2013). In consistent with the above findings, SL behavior exhibits positive behavior toward employees and the organization. For instance, according to Aasland et al. (2010) and Lipman-Blumen (2006), supportive-disloyal supervisors do not always exhibit unacceptable

behaviors over time; rather, supportive-disloyal leaders possess positive characteristics that lead the way to securing their position. According to Paustian-Underdahl et al. (2013), the positive characteristics of supportive disloyal leaders include being friendly, approachable, and having effective communication skills.

LL behavior is one of the dimensions of DLB. The findings of the relation between LL behavior and dimensions of OC, as indicated in table 12, showed that there was a negative and significant association between LL behavior and AC ($r = -.649$, $p<0.01$) and NC ($r = -.528$, $p< 0.01$). Besides, LL behavior had a negative and moderate association with CC ($r = -.486$, $p <0.01$). These findings imply an increment in principals' LL behavior would lead to a decrement in teachers' AC, CC, and NC. These findings are consistent with various studies. Goshu (2022) showed that LL behavior has a negative association with teachers' OC. According to Sudha et al. (2016), LL behavior is negatively related to leader job performance, leader effectiveness, and follower well-being. On the other hand, some studies demonstrate that LL behavior has a positive effect on work performance. For example, Donkor et al. (2021) indicated LL behavior has a statistically positive and significant relationship with job performance.

5.1.5. Influence of principals' DLB on teachers' OC

Simple and multiple linear regressions were used to examine the effect of principals' DLB on teachers' OC and the effect of each dimension of DLB and each element of OC. Research question number 6 was treated under this section.

As indicated in table 13, principals' DLB had a significant and negative effect on teachers' OC. Besides, as indicated on the table, principals' DLB was a significant predictor of teachers' OC ($R =.666$; R square $=.444$; $p= 000$ which is $<.05$). It explained 44.4% of the variance in teachers' OC. Consistent with this finding, Webster et al. (2016) elucidated that destructive leadership is one of the behaviors exhibited by leaders and can have a broad effect on employee OC. DLB has a significant negative effect on employees' OC (Bahadir & Cakireal, 2022; Skerritt, 2021; Skinner et al., 2021). According to Gallus et al. (2013), DLB affects job satisfaction and OC. This can lead to increased feelings of stress, anxiety, self-doubt, fear, depression, anger, and physical symptoms (Webster et al., 2016). Samanciogla et al. (2020) also explained that the leadership behaviors exhibited by the leader influence the OC level of

employees. Moreover, DLB has an effect on job satisfaction, work motivation, and employee work performance (Wolor et al., 2022). Negative employee attitudes, detrimental subordinate conduct, and altered organizational outcomes are all effects of DLB (Schyns & Schilling, 2013). Similarly, research has shown that DLB has a negative impact on followers, with consequences ranging from minimal to moderate (reduced motivation, commitment, and avoidance behaviors) to high impact (family/work conflict, theft, and family destabilization) (Rose et al., 2015). Shuck et al. (2015) explained that DLB can lead to emotional hijacking and/or erosion, social isolation, exhaustion, depersonalization, and disengagement, as well as personal isolation and even mania. Furthermore, Decoster et al. (2013) showed that DLB has bad outcomes for the attitude, comfort, and behavior of subordinates. Thoroughgood et al. (2018) explained that DLB negatively influences group and institutional welfare. Eventually, this may influence overall organizational performance (Erickson et al., 2015). DLB can also frequently result in increased worker turnover and the withdrawal of additional hard work, resulting in a lower probability of meeting goals (Mitchell & Ambrose, 2007). Exhausting institutional resources, declining goal achievement, even obstructing the attainment of goals, and legal challenges can result from DLB (Krasikova et al., 2013). In consistent with the above findings, DLB is significant for those employees who have lower OC (Wallace & Gaylor, 2012). Hogg & Adelman (2013) also showed that even though a DLB type may have adverse effects on an organization and employee, during crises, the DLB elevates subordinates' help from their supervisor.

In this section of the study, the effects of each dimension of DLB on elements of OC were examined. One of the dimensions of DLB is TL behavior. As indicated on table 14, TL behavior negatively and significantly affects AC, CC, and NC (β = -.434, -.273, -.349, $p<.05$) respectively. In addition, as indicated on the table, TL behavior was a significant predictor of AC (R =.434; R^2=.188; p =.000, which is <.05), CC (R =.273; R^2=.075; p =.000, which is less than.05), and NC (R =.349; R^2 = 12.2; p which is <.05), respectively. It explained 18.8%, 7.5%, and 12.2% of the variance in AC, CC, and CN, respectively. In support of the above findings, Goshu in his study at higher education in Ethiopia demonstrated that TL behavior has a negative effect on employee commitment and is a strong predictor of teachers' OC (Goshu, 2022). Other scholars in the field, Aasland et al. (2010) and Einarsen et al. (2017) illustrated that tyrannical supervisors affect employee welfare, erode employee inspiration, and lead to declining job

satisfaction. According to Harris et al. (2013), abusive leadership has a negative influence on needed work results. It has also a significant effect on employee turnover intentions (Hyson, 2016). Additionally, TL behavior has a significant influence on employee work performance and work withdrawal (Ahmad et al., 2022). Contrary to the negative effect TL behavior has on employees and the organization; some studies explain that it has a positive effect on employees and the organization. For example, according to Zhang et al. (2014), TL behavior rarely produces positive outcomes, such as the urge to produce supplementary force and inspiration to cure the bad situation.

With respect to DL behavior, as revealed on table 15, DL behavior negatively and significantly affects AC, CC, and NC (β = -.412, -.380, and -.503, p<.05) respectively. Additionally, as shown on the table 15, DL behavior was a significant predictor of AC (R =.503; R^2 =.253; p =.000, which is <.05), CC (R =.380; R^2 =.145; p =.000, which is <.05), and NC (R =.412; R^2 =.170; p =.000, which is less than.05). It explained 25.3%, 14.5%, and 17% of the variance in AC, CC, and NC, respectively. Consistent with the above findings, different scholarly works have revealed that DL behavior has a negative effect on employees and organizations. For example, According to Goshu (2020), a study conducted in one of the higher institutions in Ethiopia indicated that DL behavior is one of the predictors of teachers' OC. In addition, Decoster et al. (2013) discovered that negative leadership behaviors, such as DL behavior, impair a leader's ability to help or motivate others aside from self-interest and reduce employee job satisfaction. It has also an effect on low employee morale, low organizational productivity, and the loss of an organization's reputation (Inyang, 2013). According to Kammeyer-Mueller et al. (2013), DL behaviors reduce the emotional levels at which subordinates hold on to their organization and elevate subordinates' turnover desires. Moreover, according to Bahadir and Cakireal (2022), DL behavior has a significant negative effect on employees' AC. Additionally, they explained that it has a significant negative influence on CC. It also has a negative impact on employees' NC.

The other DLB dimension considered in this subsection is SL leadership behavior. As shown on table 16, SL behavior negatively and significantly affected AC, CC, and NC (β = -.482, -.403, -.424, p<.05), consecutively. In addition, as shown on the table 16, SL behavior was a significant predictor of AC (R =.482; R^2 =.232; p =.000, which is less than.05), CC (R =.403;

R^2 =.163; p =.000, which is <.05), and NC (R =.424; R^2 =.180; p =.000, which is less than.05). It explained 23.2%, 16.3%, and 18% of the variance in AC, CC, and NC, respectively. Different studies on the dimensions of DLB have portrayed that SL behavior has a negative effect on employees and organizations. For instance, according to Goshu (2022), SL behavior is one of the predictors of teachers' OC. Besides, Aasland et al. (2010) demonstrated that supportive-disloyal supervisors aided misconduct, had low work ethics, and caused lower efficiency. On the contrary, SL behavior increases teachers' OC among employees. For instance, a study conducted in educational institutions by Goshu (2022) showed that SL behavior has a positive effect on teachers' commitment.

As shown on table 17, LL behavior also negatively and significantly affect AC, CC, and NC (β = -.649, -.486, and -.528, consecutively, p<.05). Besides, table 17 showed, LL behavior was a significant predictor of AC (R =.649; R^2 =.421; p =.000 which is <.05), CC (R =.486; R^2 =.421; p =.000, which is <.05), and NC (R =.528; R^2 =.279; p =.000 which is <.05). It explained 42.1%, 23.6%, and 27.9% of the variance in AC, CC, and NC, respectively. Moreover, the multiple linear regression coefficient table 18 indicated that LL behavior, among other dimensions, was a strong predictor of AC (β = -.593, p<.05), CC (β = -.420, p<.05), and NC (β = -.450, p<.05), consecutively. Consistent with these findings, according to Gosh (2022), LL behavior is a significant predictor of teachers' OC. Robert and Vandenberghe (2020) illuminated that LL behavior has a significant negative effect on employees' AC. It also has a significant impact on employee turnover intentions (Hyson, 2016). Zinedin & Hytter (2012) showed that LL behavior negatively affects the inner health and welfare of employees and influences their inspiration, achievement, and pleasure (Aydin et al., 2013). Furthermore, according to Yan et al. (2014), laissez-faire supervisors can have a variety of negative consequences, including actively preventing followers from learning from their previous mistakes. On the other hand, some studies demonstrate that LL behavior has a positive effect on work performance. For example, Yang (2015) revealed in his study on the positive effect of LL behavior it might be viewed as a sign of respect for subordinates' boundaries rather than an absence of leadership and has positive effects on employees, which lead them to a sense of autonomy and self-control.

5.2. Summary of findings

The primary goal of this research is to investigate the prevalence and effect of principals' DLB on teachers' OC in secondary schools in Amhara National Regional State. Six research questions were created to achieve this goal. In order to attain the purpose, an explanatory sequential design was used. The population included 42,900 secondary school teachers and 1400 secondary school principals. The study's sample size was 1257 secondary school teachers and 10 key informants (qualitative study). Samples were chosen using multistage stratified sampling and purposive sampling (to select interviewees). Data was gathered through the use of questionnaires and interviews. The reliability of the instruments was tested on 93 teachers at Belay Zeleke Secondary School in east Gojjam zone, Enemay Woreda. The items' validity (face, content, and construct) were also investigated. The content validity of the instruments was examined employing Lawshe's content validity formula. The construct validity of the questionnaires was tested using factorial analysis, PCA. The data was analyzed using inferential statistics. It was examined using one-sample t-tests, Pearson correlation, factorial MANOVA, and simple and multiple linear regressions. The information gleaned from the interviews was examined using narrative analysis.

A summary of the major findings is provided below based on the data analyses and interpretation.

- The first research question was formulated to determine the prevalence of principals' DLB in the secondary schools of Amhara National Regional State. To determine the prevalence, a one-sample t test was employed. The findings of the study revealed that, as shown in table 9, the mean score of principals' DLB in Amhara National Regional State secondary schools (2.55) was lower than the population mean, with $t = -.979$, $df = 1107$, at $p<.05$. With regard to the practice of each dimension of DLB, the following results were obtained.
    - The mean value of tyrannical leadership behavior was 2.11, which was lower than the population mean with ($t = -19.680$, $df = 1107$) at $p<.05$. The qualitative result of the study backed up this finding

- Table 9 showed that derailed leadership, which had a mean value of 2.61, was higher than the population mean with t =1.983 and df = 1107 at p<.05. This finding is also supported by the results of the interviewees‘ data
- Supportive disloyal leadership behavior had a mean value of 2.32, which was lower than the population mean with (t =-8.903, df =1107) at p<.05. The qualitative result of this study backed up this finding
- The findings of the study showed that the extent of laissez-faire leadership behavior had a mean value of 3.03 with t = 13.067 and df = 1107 at p<.05 which was higher than the population mean. The qualitative result backed it up.

- The second research question was formulated to determine the most common principals' DLBs that were prevalent in the secondary schools of the region. The result of the one-sample t test indicated that the most common DLB exhibited by principals in secondary schools in Amhara regional state is laissez-faire leadership behavior, which had a mean value of 3.03 that was higher than the population mean, with (t =13.067, df = 1107) at p<.05. The qualitative study also showed that laissez-faire leadership behavior was the most prevalent leadership behavior exhibited by principals in secondary schools in the region.
- The third research question was used to examine the status of OC (to determine which commitment dimensions attach most to teachers to the school). As table 10 showed, the commitment of secondary school teachers has a mean of 2.24, which is lower than the population mean with (t =-1.083, df = 1107) at p< .05. The qualitative findings also supplement the decline in secondary school teachers' OC. The findings for each dimension of teachers' OC are presented below.
    - Table 10 indicated that affective commitment had a mean of 2.52, which was higher than the population mean with (t = 8.415, df = 1107) at p<.05. The interview data also revealed that teachers' in secondary schools of the region had better affective commitment than others. This implies that it is more of an affective commitment that makes teachers attach themselves to their school than other commitments. The qualitative finding backed it.

- The mean value of continuance commitment was 2.023, which was lower than the population mean with ($t = -9.494$, $df = 1107$) at $p<.05$. This finding indicated that the status of secondary school teachers' continuance commitment in the region was low.
- The mean value of normative commitment was 2.2, which was lower than the population mean with ($t = -3.631$, $df = 1107$) at $p<.05$. The interview data also supported this quantitative finding. All the findings of the study demonstrated that the normative commitment of teachers in secondary schools in Amhara National Regional State was low.

- The fourth research question was used to determine whether there are perceptions differences among teachers on dimensions of DLB that depend on demographic variables (gender, qualification, and experience). Table 11 showed that there was difference among teachers perceptions of tyrannical leadership behavior, derailed leadership behavior, supportive disloyal leadership behavior, and laissez-faire leadership behavior based on gender at Pillai's Test =.010, F (1089.000, 1089.000) = 2.729, p =.028, and multivariate $\eta 2$ =.010. Besides, the finding of the study elucidated that there was no significant difference in the perception of teachers with principals' DLB dimensions depending on experience and qualification.
- The fifth research question was formulated to examine the relationship between principals' DLB and teachers' OC. As shown in table 12, principals' DLB was significantly and negatively correlated with teachers' OC with a standardized correlation coefficient ($r = -.626$) at $p<.0.01$. The finding about the relationship between DLBs and commitment elements are mentioned below.
    - As shown in table 12, there was a negative and moderate relationship between tyrannical leadership behavior and affective commitment ($r = -.434$, $p< 0.01$). It had also a negative relationship with continuance commitment ($r = -.273$, $p<0.01$), and moderate negative relationship with normative commitment ($r = -.349$, $p<0.01$), respectively.
    - As shown in the table, there was a negative and significant relationship between derailed leadership behavior and affective commitment ($r = -.503$, p

<0.01) and normative commitment (r = -.626, p< 0.01). It had also a moderate negative association with continuance commitment (r = -.380, P <0.01),

- As table 12 explained, there was a negative and moderate association between supportive disloyal leadership behavior and affective commitment (r = -.482, p< 0.01), continuance commitment (r = -.403, p<0.01), and normative commitment (r = -.424, p< 0.01).
- The findings of the relation between laissez-faire leadership behavior and dimensions of organizational commitment, as indicated in table 12 showed that there was a negative and significant association between laissez-faire leadership behavior and affective commitment (r = -.649, p<0.01), and normative commitment (r = -.528, p< 0.01). It had also moderate and negative association with continuance commitment (r = -.486, p <0.01).

- The six research questions were formulated to determine the effect of principals' DLB on teachers' OC. As indicated in table 13, principals' DLB was a significant predictor of teachers' OC (R =.666; R^2 =.444; p= 000 which is <.05). It explained 44.4% of the variance in teachers' OC.
    - As indicated on table 14, tyrannical leadership behavior negatively and significantly affects affective, continuance, and normative commitment (β = -.434, -.273, and -.349, p<.05), consecutively. In addition, as indicated on the table, Tyrannical leadership behavior was a significant predictor of affective commitment (R =.434; R^2 =.188; p =.000, which is <.05), continuance commitment (R =.273; R^2 =.075; p =.000, which is less than.05), and normative commitment (R =.349; R^2 = 12.2; p which is <.05). It explained 18.8%, 7.5%, and 12.2% of the variance explained in affective, continuance, and normative commitment, respectively.

    - As revealed on table 15, derailed leadership behavior negatively and significantly affects affective, continuance, and normative commitment (β = -.412, -.380, and -.503, p<.05), consecutively. Additionally, as shown on table 15, derailed leadership behavior was a significant predictor of affective commitment (R =.503; R^2 =.253; p =.000, which is <.05), continuance

commitment (R =.380; R^2 =.145; p =.000, which is <.05), and normative commitment (R =.412; R^2 =.170; p =.000, which is less than.05). It explained 25.3%, 14.5%, and 17% of the variance in affective, continuance, and normative commitment, respectively.

- As shown on tables 16, supportive disloyal leadership behavior negatively and significantly affected affective, continuance, and normative commitments (β = -.482, -.403, and -.424, p<.05), consecutively. In addition, as shown on the table, supportive disloyal leadership behavior was a significant predictor of affective commitment (R =.482; R^2 =.232; p =.000, which is less than.05), continuance commitment (R =.403; R^2 =.163; p =.000, which is <.05), and normative commitment (R =.424; R^2 =.180; p =.000, which is less than.05). It explained 23.2%, 16.3%, and 18% of the variance in affective, continuance, and normative commitment, respectively.
- As shown on table 17, laissez-faire leadership behavior also negatively and significantly affects affective, continuance, and normative commitment (β = -.649, -.486, and -.528, p<.05). Besides, as the table showed, laissez-faire leadership behavior was a significant predictor of affective commitment (R =.649; R^2 =.421; p =.000 which is <.05), continuance commitment (R =.486; R^2 =.421; p =.000, which is <.05), and normative commitment (R =.528; R^2 =.279; p =.000 which is <.05). It explained 42.1%, 23.6%, and 27.9% of the variance in affective, continuance, and normative commitment, consecutively. Moreover, the multiple regression coefficient table 18 indicated that laissez-faire leadership behavior, among other dimensions, was a strong predictor of affective commitment (β = -.593, p<.05), continuance commitment (β = -.420, p<.05), and normative commitment (β = -.450, p<.05), respectively.

5.3. Conclusions

The purpose of this study was to examine the prevalence and effect of principals' DLB on teachers' OC in the secondary schools of Amhara National Regional State. Based on the results and findings of the study, due to the prevalence and effect of principals' DLB, the OC of

secondary school teachers, which has a return effect on the academic achievement of students, school performance, and overall quality of education, showed a decline.

5.4. Recommendations

The researcher suggests the following recommendations based on the study's findings.

1. To minimize the prevalence of principals' DLB in secondary schools, all levels of educational institutions, especially the Amhara national regional state educational structures, should first develop the attitude that there is inappropriate leadership behavior in secondary schools that harms the effectiveness of secondary schools.
2. MoE and the Amhara education bureau should arrange a comprehensive leadership training program for principals about the negative influence of DLB, particularly laissez-faire leadership behavior, and promote more constructive leadership behaviors that foster a positive work environment and enhance teachers' OC.
3. All levels of educational institutions in Amhara regional state should organize regular performance evaluations for principals to identify principals' DLB and address them promptly. Feedback from this session could serve as a valuable tool for principals to understand their strengths and areas for improvement.
4. The regional and zonal education bureaus should arrange emotional intelligence workshops for principals focusing on developing empathy, self-awareness, and effective communication skills, which can help mitigate principals' DLB.
5. The regional, zonal, and woreda education bureaus should arrange robust support systems for teachers to voice their concerns without fear of retaliation, such as anonymous suggestion boxes, regular meetings where teachers can share their experiences, or even a dedicated counselor.
6. Regional, zonal, and woreda education bureaus and secondary schools should also make an effort to enhance teachers' affective commitment. This could be done by arranging and strengthening initiatives to make teachers feel more valued and connected to their schools, like recognition programs, team-building activities, or opportunities for teachers' professional development.

5.5. Implications

The prevalence of principals' DLB in secondary schools and its effect on teachers' OC has a strong contribution to theory development. This study confirmed the prevalence of principals' DLB in secondary schools in the region. Depending on the model employed in the study, all types of principals' DLB were exhibited in secondary schools in the region. The prevalence of laissez-faire leadership behavior was higher than other constructs of principals' DLB. On the other hand, there are scholars and literatures that argue laissez-faire leadership is not DLB. Contrary to this argument, this study validated the presence of laissez-faire leadership behavior and found that it is negatively correlated with teachers' OC. This leadership behavior also has a substantial impact on students' academic progress and the general quality of education. As a result, the study has aided theoretical growth in this regard. The research also has a theoretical contribution in line with the relationship between principals' DLB and teachers' OC.

The research has also practical implications. The school principal played a pivotal role in improving students' academic outcomes, quality education, and school effectiveness. The presence of DLB in secondary schools deteriorates the school's climate and culture, the motivation, satisfaction, and wellbeing of teachers, teacher professional development, student engagement, and the quality of education. Similar to school leadership, committed teachers' are also vital to improving the students' performance and quality of education. The decline in teachers' OC lowers the day-to-day classroom teaching and learning process and the overall quality of education. There is an association between principals' DLB and secondary school teachers' OC. Improving the DLB of principals has a significant effect on teachers' OC and student achievement, as well as the quality of education in return. Therefore, to improve quality education, the two twins in this study, principals' DLB and lower teachers' OC are grand concerns that require the ears and hearts of educators.

Moreover, the study has implications for policies. The prevalence of principals' DLB affected the OC of teachers', which has a serious impact on students' academic achievement, school performance, and overall quality of education. This necessitated policymakers to consider policy interventions for leadership development in schools as well as strategies to boost the

inspiration, motivation, job satisfaction, wellbeing, and commitment of secondary school teachers and to bring significant improvement to the quality of education.

The research has been conducted on the prevalence and effect of principals' DLB on teachers' OC in the secondary schools of Amhara regional state. Secondary school principals' and teachers' were participants' in the study. Other stakeholders could not be involved in the research. Therefore, further research regarding the prevalence of principals' DLB and its effect on teachers' OC may be necessary, involving students, educational expertise found at various levels, and the administrative staff of secondary schools in the region.

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Appendix –A

Bahir Dar University

College of Educational and Behavioral Science

Department of Educational Planning and Management

Questionnaire to Teachers

Dear Respondents,

I am currently a PhD candidate studying Educational Policy and Leadership at Bahir Dar University. I am conducting research as a requirement for my PhD. This is a questionnaire to collect data for the study under the title *"The Prevalence and Effect of Principals' Destructive Leadership Behavior on Teachers' Organizational Commitment: The Case in the Secondary Schools of the National Regional State of Amhara."* Dear teachers, the goal of the collected data are to be utilized only for the purpose of this study. Accordingly, all information you provide will be kept strictly confidential. In addition, your identity is kept anonymous because you are not required to write your name on the questionnaire. Please keep in mind that your honest and thoughtful responses to each question will have a significant and direct impact on the fruitfulness of the study. To that effect, you are asked to express your real feelings concerning the following question. You are also kindly requested not to leave items unanswered.

Finally, the researcher would like to appreciate your patience and dedication to filling out the questionnaire.

Thank you in advance for your cooperation!!

Part one: Background Information

Instruction: Read the following items and provide your response either by writing a short answer on the space provided for those blank spaced items or by putting a tick mark (√) in the boxes as each item requires.

1.1. Sex

1. Male ☐ 2. Female ☐

1.2. Work experience

1.3. Educational qualification

1. Diploma ☐ 2. BA/BSc ☐ 3. MA/MSc/MEd ☐

4. Other specify----------

Part Two: Leadership Behavior Scale

Instruction: Reply all the items in the following subsequent tables by putting a tick mark (√) in the boxes.

No	How often do you observe the following behaviors on your principals?	Frequency				
		Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Always
1	Humiliates you or your friends, if you/they fail to live up to his/her standards.					
2	Behaves in a friendly manner by encouraging you/your friends to extend your/their lunch break.					
3	Attributes the school's success to his or her own effort rather than the efforts of the teachers.					
4	Avoids getting involved when issues arise that are important for you or your friends.					
5	Imitates, or makes faces (e.g., rolled eyes, stuck out tongue, etc.) at you or your friends to show that he/she is not satisfied with your/their work					

	efforts.					
6	Encourages you/your friends to enjoy extra privileges at the school's expense.					
7	Uses his/her position in the school to profit financially or materially at the school's expense.					
8	Is absent when you/your friends are in need of him or her.					
9	Spreads incorrect information about you/ your friends in order to harm your/their position in the school.					
10	Encourages you or your friends to take extra coffee/cigarette breaks as a reward for good work effort.					
11	Regards his/her staff more as competitors than as partners.					
12	Gives you/your friends a dressing down on the phone, hangs up on you, or sends you a crass email because he/she thinks you have done a bad job.					
13	Avoids making decisions which are of high importance for you or your friends.					
14	Encourages you or your friends to do private work/run private errands during working hours.					
15	Makes it more difficult for you/your friends to express your/their views at a meeting, either by giving too little speaking time or by placing you last.					
16	Delays responding to questions which are urgent for you.					

Part Three: Teachers' Organizational Commitment Scale

No	Items	Scales				
		Strongly disagree	Disagree	Undecide	Agree	Strongly agree
1	Most teachers would be very happy to spend the rest of their careers with this school.					
2	Most teachers really feel as if this school's problems are their own.					
3	Most teachers do not feel a strong sense of "belongingness" to their school.					
4	Most teachers do not feel "emotionally attached" to their school.					
5	Most teachers do not feel like "part of the family" at their school.					
6	This school has a great deal of personal meaning for most of the teachers.					
7	Right now, staying with our school is a matter of necessity as much as desire.					
8	It would be very hard for teachers to leave their school right now, even if they wanted to.					
9	Too much of teachers life would be disrupted if they decided they wanted to leave their school now.					
10	Most teachers feel that they have too few options to consider leaving this school.					
11	If most of teachers had not already put so much of themselves into this school, they might consider working elsewhere.					
12	One of the few negative consequences of leaving this school would be the scarcity of available alternatives.					

13	Most teachers do not feel any obligation to remain with their current school.					
14	Even if it were to their advantage, we do not feel it would be right to leave their school now.					
15	Most teachers would feel guilty if they left their school now.					
16	This school deserves their loyalty.					
17	Most teachers would not leave their school right now because they have a sense of obligation to the people in it.					
18	Most teachers owe a great deal to their school.					

Thank you for your cooperation.

Appendix- B

ባህር ዳር ዩኒቨርሲቲ

ድህረ ምረቃ ትምህርት ቤት

የትምህርትና ስነ ባህሪ ኮሌጅ

ለመምህራን የተዘጋጀ የጽሑፍ-መጠይቅ

የተከበራችሁ የዚህ መጠይቅ ተሳታፊዎች፡

እኔ በአሁኑ ሰዓት በባህር ዳር ዩኒቨርሲቲ በትምህርት ፖሊሲ እና አመራር የሶስተኛ ዲግሪ (PhD) ተማሪ ስሆን ትምህርቴን ለማጠናቀቅ ማሟያ የሚሆን ጥናት (Dissertation) አሉታዊ የት/ቤት አመራር ባህሪ መስፋፋት እና በመምህራን ቁርጠኝነት ላይ ያለው ተጽዕኖ በሚል ርዕስ በአማራ ብሄራዊ ክልላዊ መንግስት ሁለተኛ ደረጃ ት/ቤቶች ላይ እየሰራሁ እገኛለሁ፡፡ እርስዎም በዚህ ጥናት ተሳታፊ ሆነው ተመርጠዋል ስለሆነም ይህን መጠይቅ በመሙላት ተሳታፊ እንዲሆኑ በአክብሮት ተጋብዘዋል፡፡ እርስዎ በዚህ መጠይቅ የሚሰጡት መረጃ ለዚህ ጥናት መሳካት ጉልህ ሚና ስላለው መጠይቁን ሲሞሉ በቅንነት እና እውነታውን በሚያሳይ መልኩ እንዲሆን በትህትና እጠይቃለሁ፡፡ ውድ መምህራን ይህን መጠይቅ መሙላት ምንም አይነት ችግር እንደማያስከትል እያረጋገጥኩ በዚህ መጠይቅ የሚሰበሰቡ መረጃዎች ለትምህርት አገልግሎት ብቻ የሚውሉ እና በሚስጥር የሚያዙ መሆናቸውን አሳውቃለሁ፡፡ በዚህ መጠይቅ የሚሰጡትን መረጃ ሚስጥራዊነት ለመጠበቅ ስምዎትን መፃፍ አይጠበቅብዎትም ነገርግን መረጃውን ለመተንተን እንዲያመች አንዳንድ መሰረታዊ መረጃዎችን የሚጠይቁ ጥያቄዎች ተካተዋል፡፡ መልስ ሳይሰጡ የሚዘሉት መጠይቅ መኖር የለበትም፡፡ በዚህ ጥናት ላይ የሚኖርዎት ተሳትፎ በፍላጎት ላይ የተመሰረተና ጥያቄዎችን በመመለስ ሂደትም የእርስዎ ሙሉ ፈቃድ ያለበት መሆኑን ለመግለጽ እወዳለሁ፡፡

ይህን መጠይቅ በመሙላትዎ በዚህ ጥናት ለመሳተፍ ፈቃደኛ መሆንዎንና መስማማትዎ እንደሆነ ቆጥሬ ፈቃደኛ ስለሆኑና ስለትብብርዎ በቅድሚያ አመሰግናለሁ፡፡

ክፍል አንድ፡ ግላዊ መረጃ (በተሰጠው ክፍት ቦታ የ "x" ወይም "√" ምልክት ያድርጉ፡፡)

i. ፆታ፡ ወንድ ☐ ሴት ☐

ii. የስራ ልምድ፡ ----------

iii. የትምህርት ደረጃዎ፡ 1. ዲፕሎማ☐ 2. ዲግሪ ☐ 3. ማስተርስ ☐ 4.ሌላ-----

ክፍል ሁለት፡ የአመራር ባህሪ መለኪያ

ያለዎትን ልምድ፣ ኢጋጣሚና አስተያየት መነሻ በማድረግ ት/ቤትዎ በቀረቡት ነጥቦች ላይ ያለበትን ደረጃ የሚያሳየውን ሣጥን ላይ የ"x" ወይም "√" ምልክት በማድረግ ያመልክቱ፡፡

ተ.ቁ	የሚከተሉት የአመራር ባህሪያት በት/ቤቱ ር/መ/ር ዘንድ ምን ያህል ይስተዋላሉ?	መጠን				
		በፍጹም	አልፎ አልፎ	አንዳንድ ጊዜ	በአብዛኛው ጊዜ	ሁልጊዜ
1	የሚፈልጋቸው ነገሮች ካልተፈጸሙ በስተቀር እርስዎ/ባልደረቦችዎ ላይ ክብረ ነክ ነገሮችን ይናገራል/ትናገራለች፡፡					
2	ከእርስዎ/ባልደረቦችዎ ጋር ጓደኛዊ ቀረቤታ ያለው/ያላት ሲሆን ምሳችሁን ተዝናንታችሁ እንድትበሉ ጭምር ከበቂ በላይ ጊዜ እንድትጠቀሙ ያደርጋል/ታደርጋለች፡፡					
3	የት/ቤቱን ዉጤታማነት በእርስዎ/ባልደረቦችዎ ጥረት ጭምር የመጣ እንደሆነ ከመረዳት ይልቅ በግል ጥረቱ/ቷ ያመጣው/ያመጣችው አንደሆነ ይገነዘባል/ትገነዘባለች፡፡					
4	ለእርስዎ ወይም ለባልደረቦችዎ ጠቃሚ ጉዳዮች በሚነሱበት ወቅት ራሱን/ሷን ከመሳተፍ ያቅባል/ታቅባለች					
5	በእርስዎ/ባልደረቦችዎ ስራ አለመደሰቱን/ቷን ወይም አለመርካቱን/ቷን ለመግለጽ በአይኑ፣ በፊቱ፣ እና በተለያየ መልክ ቁጣውን/ዋን ይገልጻል/ትገልጻለች፡፡					
6	የት/ቤቱን ጥቅም ሊጎዳ በሚችል መልኩ ከመጠን ያለፈ ነጻነት ለእርስዎ/ባልደረቦችዎ ሲሰጥ/ስትሰጥ ይስተዋላል፡፡					
7	በት/ቤቱ ያለውን/ያላትን ሃላፊነት በመጠቀም በገንዘብም ይሁን በቁሳቁስ ራሱን/ራሷን ለመጥቀም ይሰራል/ትሰራለች፡፡					
8	እርስዎ/ባልደረቦችዎ በሚፈልጉበት ሰዓት አይገኝም/አትገኝም፡፡					
9	እርስዎን/ባልደረቦችዎን በት/ቤቱ ያላችሁን ደረጃ ሊጎዳ የሚችል የተሳሳተ መረጃ ያሰራጫል/ታሰራጫለች?					
10	እርስዎ/ባልደረቦችዎ ዉጤታማ ስራ ስትሰሩ ተጨማሪ የሻይ እና የምሳ ሰዓት በመስጠት ያበረታታል/ታበረታታለች፡፡					
11	እርስዎን/ባልደረቦችዎን እንደስራ ባልደረባ ሳይሆን እንደተወዳዳሪ አድርጎ					

	ይመለከታል/ትመለከታለች፡፡					
12	እርስዎ/ባልደረቦችዎ ስህተት የሆነ ስራ ሰርተዋል ብሎ ባሰበ/ባሰበች ጊዜ ስልክ ጆሮ ላይ ይዘጋል/ትዘጋለች፣ በሞባይል ወይም ኢሜል ያልተገባ አስተያየት ወይም መልዕክት ይሰጣል/ያስተላልፋል፡፡					
13	እርስዎን/ባልደረቦችዎን በሚጠቅሙ ጉዳዮች ላይ ዉሳኔ አይሰጥም/አትሰጥም፡፡					
14	እርስዎ/ባልደረቦችዎ በመደበኛ የስራ ሰዓት የግል ስራዎችን እንዲሰሩ ያበረታታል/ታበረታታለች?					
15	እርስዎን/ባልደረቦችዎ በስብሰባ ላይ ሃሳባችሁን ለመገደብ ጥቂት ጊዜ ይሰጣል/ትሰጣለች፤ አለበለዚያ ደግሞ በመጨረሻ እድል ይሰጣል/ትሰጣለች፡፡					
16	ለእርስዎ/ባልደረቦችዎ በጣም አስቸኳይ ለሆኑ ነገሮች ፈጣን ምላሽ ለመስጠት ይዘገያል/ትዘገያለች፡፡					

ክፍል ሶስት፡ የመምህራን ተቋማዊ ቁርጠኝነት መለኪያዎች

ተ.ቁ	ተግባራት	መመዘኛዎች				
		በፍጹም አልስማማም	አልስማማም	መካከለኛ	እስማማለሁ	በፍጹም እስማማለሁ
1	አብዛኛው መምህር ቀሪ የስራ ዘመኑን በት/ቤቱ ማሳለፍ ይፈልጋል፡፡					
2	አብዛኛው መምህር የት/ቤቱ ችግር በትክክል የራሳቸው ችግር እንደሆነ ይረዳሉ፡፡					
3	አብዛኛው መምህር በት/ቤቱ እና በመምህራን መካከል የጠበቀ ቁርኝት አለ የሚል ስሜት የላቸውም፡፡					
4	አብዛኛው መምህር ከት/ቤቱ ጋር በስነ ልቦና የተቆራኘን ነን የሚል ስሜት የላቸውም፡፡					
5	አብዛኛው መምህር በት/ቤቱ ልክ እንደ አንድ ቤተሰብ ነን ብለው አያስቡም፡፡					
6	ት/ቤቱ ለመምህራን ከፍተኛ ትርጉም አለው፡፡					
7	አብዛኛው መምህር ከዚህ በኋላ በት/ቤቱ መስራት ፍላጎታቸው ብቻ ሳይሆን					

	ግዴታቸውም ነው፡፡					
8	አብዛኛው መምህር ለቆ የመሄድ ፍላጎት እንኳ ቢኖራቸው ከዚህ በኋላ ት/ቤቱን መልቀቅ ከባድ ይሆንባቸዋል፡፡					
9	አብዛኛው መምህር ከት/ቤቱ ቢለቁ የህይዎታቸው ተስፋ የቀጨጨ ይሆናል፡፡					
10	አብዛኛው መምህር ት/ቤቱን ለመልቀቅ ሲያስቡ ምንም ሌላ ምርጫና ተስፋ እንደሌላቸው ይሰማቸዋል፡፡					
11	አብዛኛው መምህር ከዚህ ት/ቤት በሙሉ አቅማቸው መስራት ባይችሉ ኖሮ፣ ሌላ ት/ቤት ለመስራት ይፈልጋሉ፡፡					
12	ለአብዛኛው መምህር ይህን ት/ቤት መልቀቅ አንዱ አሉታዊ ጎኑ ሌላ አማራጭ ማጣት ሊሆን ይችላል፡፡					
13	አብዛኛው መምህር ከዚህ ት/ቤት ሊያቆይ የሚችል ምንም አይነት ግዴታ የለም፡፡					
14	ምንም እንኳ ጥቅሙ ለመ/ራን ቢሆንም ት/ቤቱን መልቀቅ አሁን ጊዜው አይደለም፡፡					
15	አብዛኛው መምህር ይህን ት/ቤት ለመልቀቅ ሲያስቡ በራሳቸውን ዘንድ የጥፋተኝነት ስሜት ያድርባቸዋል፡፡					
16	አብዛኛው መምህር በዚህ ት/ቤት ላይ ትልቅ እምነት አላቸው፡፡					
17	አብዛኛው መምህር ከዚህ በኋላ ት/ቤቱን አይለቁም ምክንያቱም ት/ቤቱ ውስጥ ያለውን ማህበረሰብ የማገልገል ግዴታ አለባቸው፡፡					
18	አብዛኛው መምህር በት/ቤቱ ላይ የባለቤትነት ስሜት አላቸው፡፡					

ስለ ትብብርዎ አመሰግናለሁ!!

Appendix-C

Bahir Dar University

College of Education and Behavioral Sciences

Department of Educational Planning and Management

Interview Schedule to Secondary School Teachers

The goal of this interview is to investigate the subjective perception of teachers' on principals' destructive leadership behavior and its effect on teachers' organizational commitment in secondary schools in Amhara National Regional State. Hence, a one-on-one interview will be conducted with each participant to further expand/explain the quantitative results related to the prevalence of principals' destructive leadership behavior and its effect on teachers' organizational commitment in the research settings.

Background information

a) Gender: _____
b) Profession _____
c) Educational qualification: _____
d) Work experience: _____

1. How do you evaluate the prevalence of principals' destructive leadership behavior in your school in relation to tyrannical leadership, derailed leadership, supportive leadership, and laissez-faire leadership behavior?
2. Which type of destructive leadership behavior has been dominantly practiced by your principal?
3. How do you evaluate the commitment level of teachers in your school?
4. Which commitment dimension do you and your friends have at the school?

Thank you for your cooperation!

Appendix-D

Bahir Dar University

College of Education and Behavioral Sciences

Department of Educational Planning and Management

Interview Schedule to Secondary school principals

The purpose of this interview is to examine the subjective perceptions of principals' on their own destructive leadership behavior and its effect on teachers' organizational commitment in secondary schools in Amhara National Regional State. Therefore, one-on-one interviews will be done with each principal to further strengthen the quantitative results associated with the prevalence of principals' destructive leadership behavior and its effect on teachers' organizational commitment in the research settings.

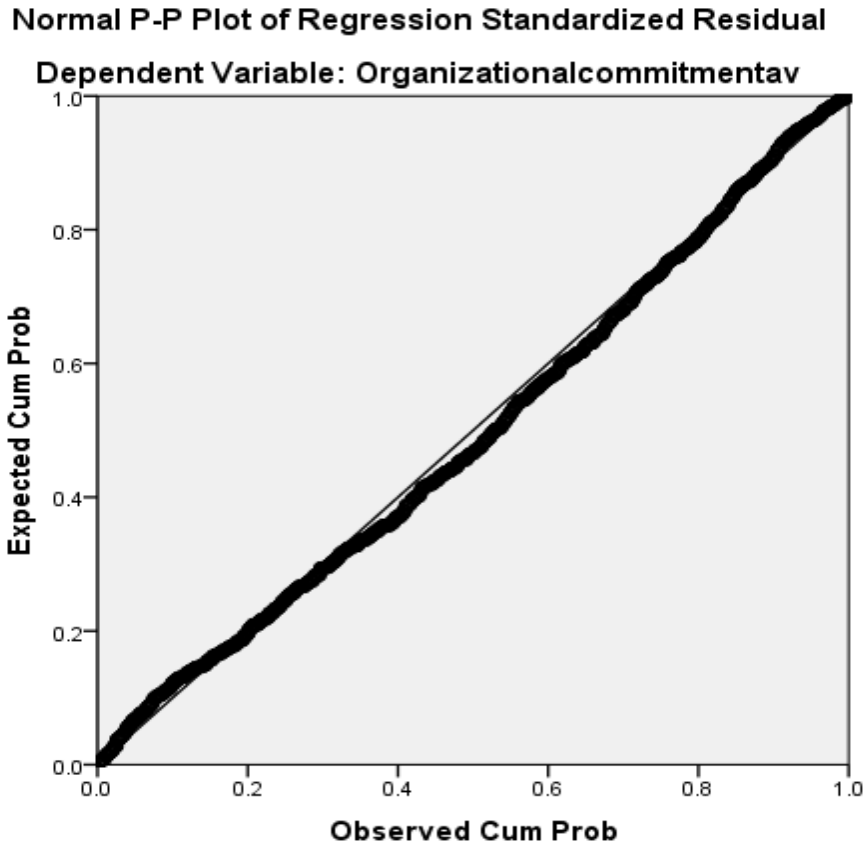
Background information

a. Gender: _____
b. Profession_____
c. Educational qualification: _____
d. Work experience: _____

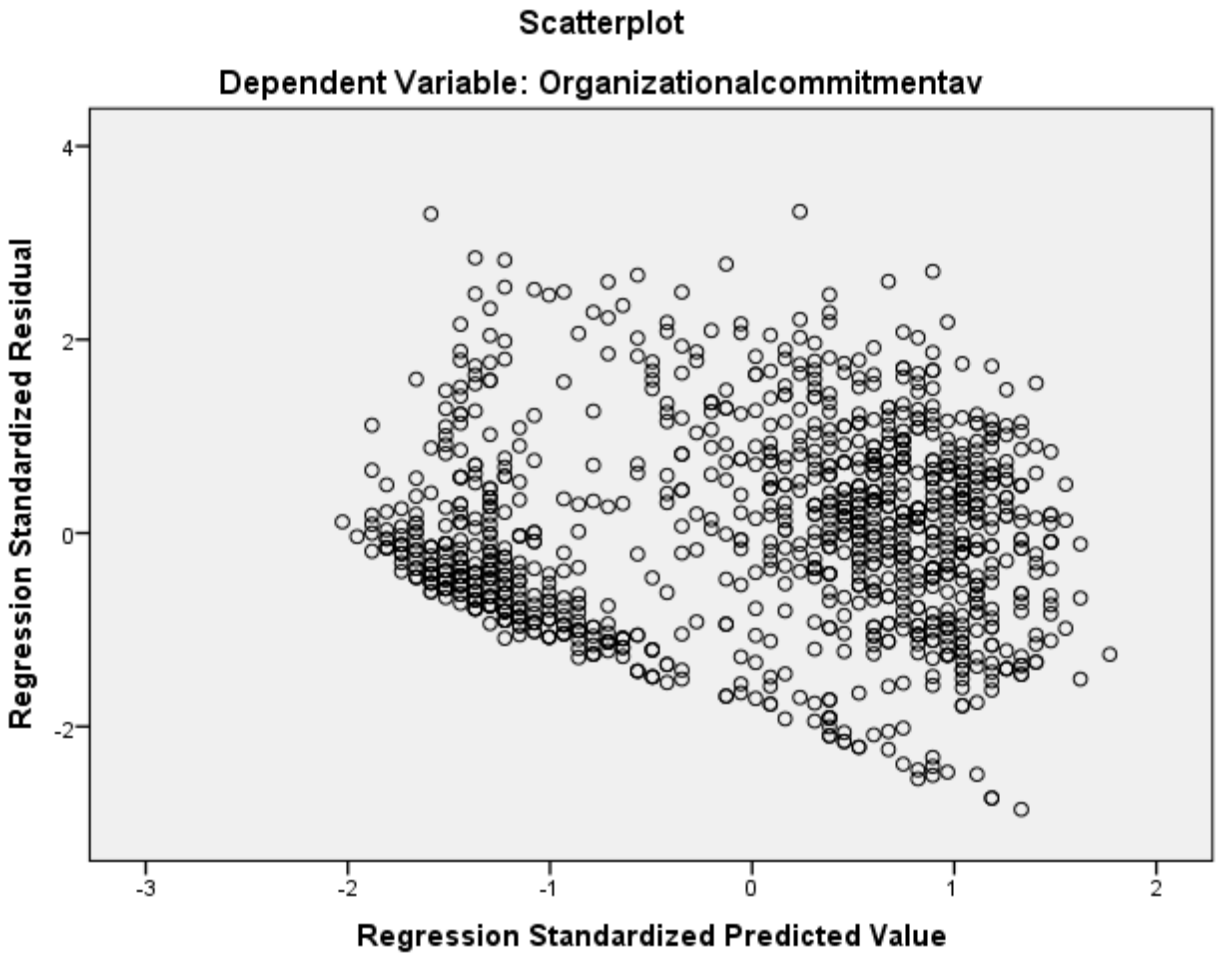
1. Do you think that you may experience destructive leadership behavior in your school?
2. Which destructive leadership behavior is dominantly practiced by you in your school?
3. How do you evaluate the commitment level of teachers in your school?
4. Which commitment dimension is widely exhibited by secondary school teachers in your school?

Thank you for your cooperation!

Appendix- E


Normal P-P Plot of Regression Standardized Residual
Dependent Variable: Organizationalcommitmentav
Expected Cum Prob
Observed Cum Prob
0.0
0.2
0.4
0.6
0.8
1.0

Appendix- F


Scatterplot
Dependent Variable: Organizationalcommitmentav
Regression Standardized Residual
Regression Standardized Predicted Value
4
2
0
-2
-3
-2
-1
0
1
2

Appendix- G

Residuals Statistics

	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Predicted Value	1.2646	3.0824	2.2351	.47876	1108
Std. Predicted Value	-2.027	1.770	.000	1.000	1108
Standard Error of Predicted Value	.018	.041	.025	.005	1108
Adjusted Predicted Value	1.2642	3.0852	2.2351	.47879	1108
Residual	-1.70598	1.98506	.00000	.5968	1108
Std. Residual	-2.857	3.325	.000	1.000	1108
Stud. Residual	-2.861	3.326	.000	1.000	1108
Deleted Residual	-1.71026	1.98696	0000	.59778	1108
Stud. Deleted Residual	-2.870	3.341	.000	1.00	1108
Mahal. Distance	.000	4.109	.827	.999	1108
Cook's Distance	.000	.017	.001	.001	1108
Centered Leverage Value	.000	.004	.001	.001	1108

Appendix- H

Estimated Mariginal Means (Gender)

Dependent variable		Mean	Std. error	95% of confidence interval	
				Lower bound	Upper bound
Tyrannical leadership	M	2.215	.070	2.078	2.351
	F	2.133	.107		
Derailed leadership	M	2.616	.107	1.923	2.343
	F	2.864	.164		
Supportive disloyal leadership	M	2.364	.089	2.406	2.825
	F	2.526	.137		
Laissez-faire leadership	M	2.981	.114	2.542	3.186
	F	3.439	.176		

Appendix- I

Estimated Mariginal Means (Gender and Experience)

Dependent variable			mean	Std. error	95% of confidence interval	
					Lower bound	Upper bound
Tyrannical leadership	M	<5 year	2.455	.263	1.938	2.971
		6-10 years	2.907	.066	1.968	2.227
		11-15 years	2.179	.049	2.082	2.276
		>16 years	2.127	.038	2.052	2.202
	F	<5 year	2.178	.368	1.456	2.900
		6-10 years	2.206	.170	1.873	2.539
		11-15 years	1.917	.114	1.694	2.140
		>16 years	2.232	.080	2.075	2.338
Derailed leadership	M	<5 year	2.729	.403	1.938	3.520
		6-10 years	2.444	.101	2.245	2.643
		11-15 years	2.700	.076	2.552	2.849
		>16 years	2.588	.059	2.473	2.704
	F	<5 year	2.596	.564	1.489	3.703
		6-10 years	3.306	.260	2.795	3.816
		11-15 years	2.674	.174	2.332	3.016
		>16 years	2.879	.122	2.639	3.118
Supportive disloyal leadership	M	<5 year	2.570	.336	1.910	3.230
		6-10 years	2.278	.085	2.112	2.444
		11-15 years	2.331	.063	2.187	2.439

		>16 years	2.297	.049	2.201	2.393
	F	<5 year	2.577 .	.471	1.654	3.500
		6-10 years	2.831 .	.217	2.405	3.257
		11-15 years	2.405 .	.145	2.120	2.690
		>16 years	2.291 .	.102	2.092	2.491
laissez-faire leadership	M	<5 year	2.989	.431	2.143	3.834
		6-10 years	2.912	.108	2.669	3.124
		11-15 years	3.038	.081	2.879	3.197
		>16 years	2.986 .	.063	2.863	3.109
	F	<5 year	3.678 .	.603	2.494	4.861
		6-10 years	3.731 .	.278	3.186	4.277
		11-15 years	3.132 .	.186	2.776	3.497
		>16 years	3.214 .	.131	2.958	3.470

Appendix- J

Estimated Mariginal Means (Gender*Experience*Qualification)

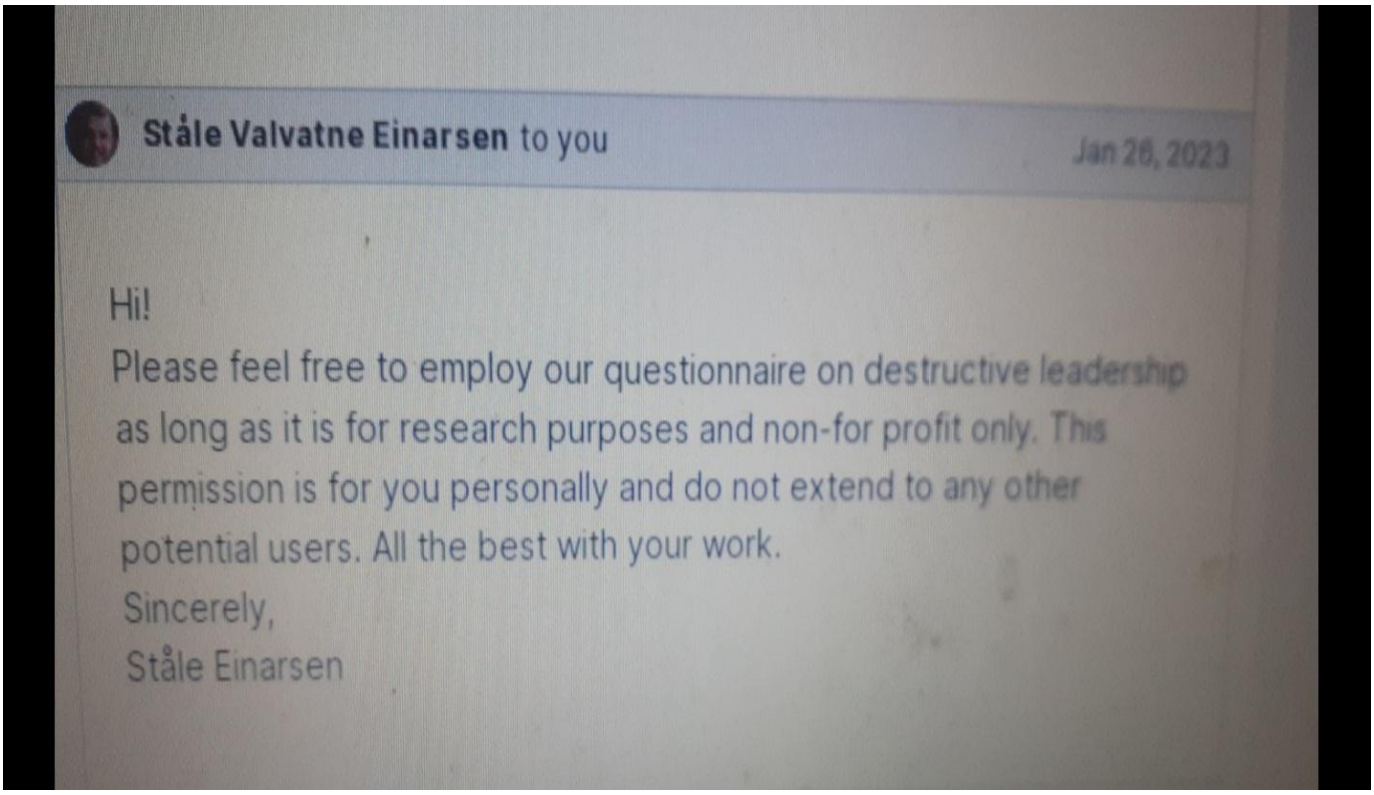
Dependent Variable	Gender	Experiance	Qualification	Lower Bound		Upper Bound	
Tyrannicalaver	m	<5	Degree	2.159	.126	1.912	2.406
			Master	2.750	.511	1.748	3.752
		6-10	Degree	2.047	.064	1.921	2.173
			Master	2.147	.116	1.920	2.374
		11-15	Degree	2.070	.052	1.968	2.173
			Master	2.287	.084	2.122	2.452
		>16	Degree	2.109	.051	2.009	2.209
			Master	2.145	.057	2.033	2.257
	f	<5	Degree	2.106	.142	1.828	2.384
			Master	2.250	.723	.832	3.668
		6-10	Degree	1.911	.104	1.707	2.116
			Master	2.500	.323	1.866	3.134
		11-15	Degree	2.062	.090	1.885	2.240
			Master	1.771	.209	1.362	2.180
		>16	Degree	2.156	.073	2.012	2.299
			Master	2.308	.142	2.030	2.586
Derrailedaver	m	<5	Degree	2.583	.193	2.205	2.961

				Master	2.875	.783	1.339	4.411	
			6-10	Degree	2.382	.098	2.189	2.575	
				Master	2.506	.177	2.159	2.854	
			11-15	Degree	2.664	.080	2.507	2.821	
				Master	2.736	.129	2.484	2.989	
			>16	Degree	2.602	.078	2.449	2.755	
				Master	2.575	.088	2.403	2.747	
		f	<5	Degree	2.442	.217	2.016	2.868	
				Master	2.750	1.107	.578	4.922	
			6-10	Degree	2.411	.160	2.098	2.725	
				Master	4.200	.495	3.228	5.172	
			11-15	Degree	2.660	.138	2.389	2.932	
				Master	2.688	.320	2.060	3.315	
			>16	Degree	2.671	.112	2.451	2.890	
				Master	3.087	.217	2.661	3.513	
Supportivedisloyalaver		m	<5	Degree	2.265	.161	1.950	2.581	
				Master	2.875	.653	1.594	4.156	
			6-10	Degree	2.299	.082	2.138	2.460	
				Master	2.256	.148	1.966	2.547	
			11-15	Degree	2.349	.067	2.218	2.480	
				Master	2.274	.107	2.063	2.484	

		>16	Degree	2.337	.065	2.209	2.465
			Master	2.258	.073	2.115	2.401
	f	<5	Degree	2.154	.181	1.798	2.509
			Master	3.000	.924	1.188	4.812
		6-10	Degree	2.312	.133	2.051	2.574
			Master	3.350	.413	2.540	4.160
		11-15	Degree	2.352	.115	2.125	2.578
			Master	2.458	.267	1.935	2.981
		>16	Degree	2.352	.093	2.169	2.535
			Master	2.231	.181	1.875	2.586
Lassaver	m	<5	Degree	2.977	.206	2.573	3.382
			Master	3.000	.837	1.358	4.642
		6-10	Degree	2.888	.105	2.682	3.094
			Master	2.936	.190	2.564	3.308
		11-15	Degree	3.126	.085	2.959	3.294
			Master	2.949	.138	2.679	3.219
		>16	Degree	2.973	.083	2.809	3.136
			Master	3.000	.094	2.816	3.184

Appendix- K

Permission letter of DLS



Ståle Valvatne Einarsen to you Jan 26, 2023

Hi!

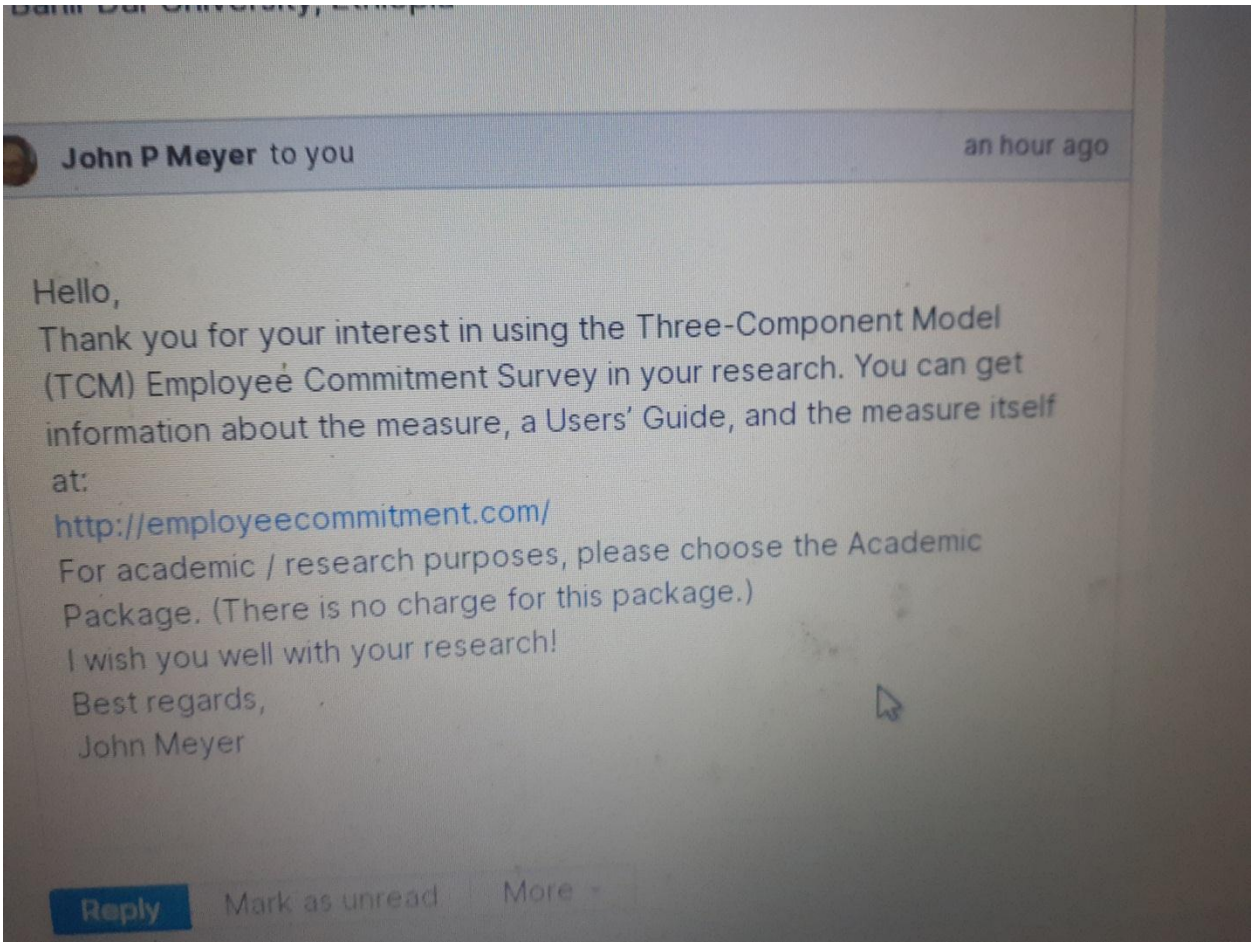
Please feel free to employ our questionnaire on destructive leadership as long as it is for research purposes and non-for profit only. This permission is for you personally and do not extend to any other potential users. All the best with your work.

Sincerely,

Ståle Einarsen

Appendix- L

Permission letter of OCS



John P Meyer to you an hour ago

Hello,
Thank you for your interest in using the Three-Component Model (TCM) Employee Commitment Survey in your research. You can get information about the measure, a Users' Guide, and the measure itself at:
http://employeecommitment.com/
For academic / research purposes, please choose the Academic Package. (There is no charge for this package.)
I wish you well with your research!
Best regards,
John Meyer

Reply Mark as unread More