

**UPSHOTS OF DESTRUCTIVE LEADERSHIP FOR EMPLOYEES:
JOB STRESS AND DIFFICULTY IN WORK-LIFE BALANCE**

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ABSTRACT

Understanding the destructive leadership behaviors is crucial to achieve leadership development. There is growing number of studies to highlight different individual and organization level outcomes of destructive leadership, yet there is need to investigate more unexplored areas of destructive leadership, as very little work has done on effects of destructive leadership on individuals which can go beyond workplace. Hence, main goal of this study was to investigate how destructive leadership is associated with increased difficulties in work-life balance for employees through mediating role of job stress. Data was collected from 369 employees; males and females, working at subordinate level directly under middle management in different organizations through a survey questionnaire. Hypothesis testing and data analysis was done using WarpPLS 7.0. Results indicated that destructive leadership behaviors are positively associated with increased difficulties in work-life balance for employees through raised stress levels. This study enriches the literature with important theoretical and practical insights about destructive leadership outcomes.

KEYWORDS

Job stress, Work-life balance, Destructive leadership.

INTRODUCTION

Leadership is considered one of the most important areas of discussion in history of human sciences, as people in leading roles are the key to determine the future of their organizations through their strategies, decisions and impact on others (Kaiser et al., 2008). Most of the past research emphasized on positive side of leadership and its outcomes (Shaw, Erickson & Harvey, 2011) and less attention has been given to potential negative or destructive leadership behaviors and their outcomes for individuals and organizations (Spain et al. 2014; Haynes, et al., 2015; Schefer & Brunzel, 2020). Majority of the leadership theories are based on examining the elements of effective leadership (Mayer, Kuenzi, Greenbaum, Bardes, and Salvador, 2009), such as behavioral theories (Fleishman, 1953), contingency theories (House, 1971; Fiedler, 1972) and neo-charismatic approaches (Bass, 1985).

On the other hand, researchers have also been examining the “dark” side of leadership and how certain negative behaviors, such as abusive supervision (Aryee, Sun, Chen &

Debrah, 2008); bullying (Zapf, Einarsen, Hoel, Vartia, 2003); harassment (Brodsky, 1976), and other criminal leadership behaviors like corruption and theft are being witnessed and documented (Lipman-Blumen, 2005; Dunkelberg & Jessup, 2001; Altheide, Adler & Altheide, 1978; Kellerman, 2004). For instance Lombardo & McCall (1984) did a study on 73 managers and their findings suggested that 74% of their participants experienced intolerable leaders, and Namie, (2000) found in his study that 89% of the individuals who face bullying at workplace consider their boss as the main bully. Illies & Reiter, (2008) reported that toxic leaders create complicated work environment through conflicts which leads to emotional stress for employees, also these leaders consider their behaviors socially acceptable. Followers of toxic leaders reported higher sense of job insecurity, frustration and psychological distress (Bhandarker & Rai, 2019). Xia, Zhang & Li, (2019) reported abusive supervision as a stressor which negatively affects employees' motivation and emotions towards helping others at workplace and leads to poor psychological wellbeing of victims. These studies suggest that destructive leaders can influence individuals and organizations at all levels and can result in harmful outcomes in terms of performance, productivity, social and psychological welfare of followers and therefore there is a rising trend in studying the "dark side" of leadership which is generally labeled as destructive leadership (Krasikova, Green & LeBreton, 2013). Destructive leadership includes those toxic behaviors of leaders which are repetitive and violates the interests of organization or harm its individuals in some ways (Einarsen, et al., 2007).

However, most of the literature on destructive leadership consists of individual and isolated constructs; such as "Abusive leadership" (Tepper, 2000), "petty tyrants" (Lipman-Blumen, 2005), "Bullying" (Ferris et al., 2007), "leader derailment" (McCall & Lombardo's, 1983). There is less knowledge available investigating negative outcomes of destructive leadership especially beyond workplace such as work-life balance (Schefer & Brunzel, 2020; Wu, Peng & Estay, 2018).

It has been argued that negative incidents faced by individuals during their social interactions with others, have rather stronger influence than positive events (A review by Baumeister, Bratlavsky, Finkenauer & Vohs, 2001). Thus, understanding negative and destructive behaviors is crucial in understanding leadership development and its effectiveness (Einarsen et al., 2007). However, field of leadership studies seems to be preoccupied mostly with positive aspects and features of leadership styles and types which bring a positive change to organizations, whereas ignoring the possible negative or destructive aspects of leadership (Harris & Jones, 2018). Kellerman (2004) described in his book that understanding examples of bad leadership is as important and beneficial as the study of good leadership examples and therefore it is essential to explore both the ends of spectrum (Denrell, 2005). A number of recent studies highlighted dark side of leadership (Simonet et al., 2018; Cohen, 2018; Neves & Schyns, 2018) and how it negatively impacts employees (Kılıç & Günsel, 2019; Mackey, McAllister, Maher & Wang, 2019).

Although a number of studies have been conducted highlighting different aspects and outcomes of destructive leadership such as less job satisfaction (De Clercq & Belausteguigoitia, 2017), negative influence on organization citizenship behavior (Wu, Peng & Estay, 2018), organizational commitment, deviance and burnout (Schmid, Pircher & Peus, 2017), less innovative behavior from employees (Hou, 2017; Lopes Henriques, Curado, Mateus Jerónimo & Martins, 2019) and diminishing personal wellbeing (Mathieu

et al., 2014). Yet there is indeed a need for more studies to investigate the highly complex phenomenon of destructive leadership (Lennard & Van Dyne, 2018; Harris & Jones, 2018) as there are further unexplored areas which need further investigation in order to improve the understanding (Schmid, Pircher & Peus, 2017).

In recent years number of researchers have called for in depth investigation of destructive leadership and its outcomes for organizations, in relation to individuals and teams (Contreras & Espinosa, 2019; Harris & Jones, 2018; Haynes, et al., 2015), individual outcomes (Schyns & Schilling, 2013) especially need for more empirical studies on destructive leadership has also been reported (Aravena, 2019; Savas, 2019).

OUTCOMES OF DESTRUCTIVE LEADERSHIP

Leadership is one of the key elements which determine the success of teams, organizations and societies as a whole. Failure of leadership results in loss of its stakeholders and downfall of organizations, groups and nations, such as fall of Enron and VW emission scandal (Scheffler & Brunzel, 2020). Hogan & Hogan, (2001) argued that failure of leadership is more about depicting negative characteristics rather than lack of positive or desirable ones. Therefore, destructive leadership is not just the absence of effective leadership rather it consists of intentional behaviors which are harmful for individuals or organizations or for both in long run. Emotional contagion theory (Barsade, 2002) suggests that people have the power to leave an impact over perceptions, emotions and ultimately on behaviors of other people through their own. Leadership is a phenomenon which involves people and so that their perceptions, emotions and behaviors are linked with each other. It has been highlighted in literature that behaviors of leaders set a tone in the organization which surrounds the people in that work environment, and a ruthless or harsh leader will leave a toxic influence over employees (Goleman, Boyatzis & McKee, 2001). People adopt specific attitudes and perceptions towards their workplace through a sense making process based on the information in that social environment and their own experience (Social information processing theory; Salancik & Pfeffer, 1978). Information sharing among same levels within organization leads to similar perceptions and shared judgment among employees about their leadership and organization systems (Roberson, 2006). It has been reported that abusive leaders act as a trigger to create negative events and people involve more in this sense making process through a negative event rather than a positive one (Priesemuth, Schminke, Ambrose & Folger, 2014, which creates a sense of stress and anxiety among employees

There is consistency in determining outcomes of destructive leadership that it harms individuals and organizations (Mackey et al., 2020) as they are reported to trigger great financial and social losses for organizations (Tepper et al., 2006). For example destructive leadership negatively effects employees' task performance (Tepper, Moss & Duffy, 2011), performance, tension & emotional exhaustion (Harvey, Stoner, Hohwarter & Kacmar, 2007), job satisfaction (Tepper, 2000) turnover intentions and workplace deviance (Vogel & Mitchell, 2017; Haider, Nisar, Baig & Azeem, 2018). Employees might use counter productive work behaviors as coping strategy against destructive leadership behaviors such as withdrawal (Shoss et al., 2016).

A recent review by Kaluza et al., (2020) indicates an adverse relationship between followers well-being and destructive leadership. Montano, Reeske, Franke & Hüffmeier, (2017) conducted a meta-analysis which indicated that destructive leadership is strongly associated with poor mental health of the employees. Literature also highlights how followers consciously and unconsciously learn and replicate those behaviors towards with their coworkers and families (Hoobler & Brass, 2006). It is therefore; crucial to study that how certain destructive leadership behaviors can trigger negative outcomes for people at their workplace and in their personal lives.

JOB STRESS AND DESTRUCTIVE LEADERSHIP

Stress is defined as a person's psychological reaction to a particular situation where something is at risk or where situation exceeds their personal capacity or resources (LePine et al., 2004). First stage of this psychological process implicates evaluation of the stressor that either it has the ability to affect ones' wellbeing or not, then at second stage if the stressor is affecting their wellbeing they will determine if it's threatening or challenging for them (Lazarus and Folkman, 1984). Furthermore, positive emotions and chances of personal growth are associated with challenging stressors while negative feelings such as fear, stress and anxiety are associated with threatening stressors (LePine et al., 2004; Podsakoff et al., 2007). Immediate boss or leader is considered as a lens to determine a person's work experience (Gerstner & Day, 1997), and is considered as the key factor to affect their occupational stress negatively or positively (Schmidt et al., 2014). Furthermore, it has been reported that lack of emotional support and poor relationship with superiors can be a major source of stress at workplace (Ornelas & Kleiner, 2003; Johnson et al., 2005).

Researchers support the notion that negative leadership behaviors such as avoidant behaviors (Skogstad, Hetland, Glasø & Einarsen, 2014), micromanaging (Sidle, 2007), and role ambiguity can lead to increased stress among employees (Skogstad et al., 2014). Webster, et al., (2016) in their study examined that destructive leadership have adverse impact on people's physical and emotional health, as it causes psychological distress among them. It has been noted that destructive leadership behaviors can generate a feeling of injustice and mistrust among employees about their leader, as they don't feel appreciated and acknowledged rather they face the toxic behaviors from their leader which created negative feelings and stress among them (Wu, Peng & Estay, 2018).

People have the need to associate themselves with leaders and organizations, but in case of destructive leadership when they feel their leader is unfair and forceful they will feel stressed and isolated (Kanwal, Lodhi & Kashif, 2019). Destructive leadership behaviors lead to a controlling work environment which creates tension and stress in employees as they try to avoid negative feedback from superiors (O'Donoghue et al. 2016). As individuals working on subordinate position have less power and limited choice to express their difference of opinions, hence destructive leadership behaviors lead to high stress levels among them (Pyc, Meltzer & Liu, 2017). Therefore this study predicts that destructive leadership behaviors of their immediate supervisor will lead to increased job stress among employees.

H1: Destructive leadership behaviors are positively related to job stress among employees.

DESTRUCTIVE LEADERSHIP AND WORK-LIFE BALANCE

Work-life balance is defined as balanced allocation of energy and time to work and personal life to get maximum satisfaction from both (Greenhaus et al., 2003). Work demands are changing rapidly and constantly in this era of globalization, cultural diversity and advancement in technology. It is making people more vulnerable and insecure about their jobs therefore they are continuously juggling between their work demands and their personal lives (Thrivani & Rama, 2018; Kelliher, Richardson & Boiarintseva, 2019). Keeping a good balance between personal life and a successful career is associated with quality of ones' life (Guest, 2000) and life satisfaction (Broers, 2005). Studies suggest supervisor-subordinate relationship is directly linked with difficulties in maintaining work-life balance for employees (Watkins, 1995; Eversole et al., 2012; Anderson et al., 2002; Braun & Peus, 2018). This supervisor-subordinate relationship goes under a lot of strain due to destructive leadership behaviors, which result in increased stress and anxiety among employees, and various researchers support this argument that workplace stress can influence work-life balance and cause conflicts (Tepper, 2000; O'Laughlin & Bischoff, 2005; Winn & Dykes, 2019).

Destructive leadership behaviors put a lot of pressure on the employees, fear of bad evaluation and losing their jobs can push them to make extra efforts, put over time into the work which result in anxiety (Nielsen, Skogstad, Gjerstad & Einarsen, 2019) emotional exhaustion and burnout (Molino, Cortese & Ghislieri, 2019). It is obvious that high pressure from work can interfere in one's personal life, which can create dissatisfaction with work-life balance (Demerouti et al., 2004). Drawing on resource drain theory (Morris & Madsen, 2007), this study predict that time and energy are limited resources and destructive leadership pushes employees to spend more time and energy into the work by creating a sense of pressure and fear among them. This leads them to spend less of these resources for their family which creates poor work-life balance.

H2: Job stress is positively related to increased difficulties in work-life balance for employees.

In today's work environment, employees are constantly struggling between their personal lives and work lives to keep a balance; however there are positive or negative spillovers in this continuous struggle (Mauno et al., 2006). Work life-balance determines ones' quality of life and maintaining a good balance between personal life and work life is greatly affected by job stress experienced by employees due to increased work pressures (Ross & Vasantha, 2014). Goddard, et al., 2006 examined that increased psychological work pressure is associated with job stress and burnout. Stanton et al., (2001) described job stress as a result of ones' perceiving their work as highly demanding and pressurized by it. As, Instead of providing a supportive and positive work environment, destructive leaders create an over controlling and suffocated work environment which makes overall work experience negative for employees and promote feelings of anxiety and stress (O'Donoghue, Conway & Bosak, 2016).

Work-life Spillover theory suggests that emotions, attitudes, behaviors and skills of a person generated in work life flows to the personal life and vice versa (Edwards and Rothbard, 2000). Drawing on spillover theory this study predicts that stress resulted from

destructive leadership behaviors disturbs work-life balance of employees through transfer of those emotions form work to personal lives.

Therefore this study predicts that destructive leadership leads to poor work-life balance for employees through mediating role of Job stress.

Thus this study hypothesis that;

H3: Job stress mediates the relationship between supervisory destructive leadership behaviors and work-life balance.

METHODS

Sample and Procedure

Employees working directly under middle management were target population for this study, as they are the direct recipients of those leadership behaviors which can increase their job stress and poor work-life balance. Previous studies also support this notion that lower level employees who have less job autonomy and are more insecure about losing their jobs, will be more tolerant towards destructive behaviors of leaders and eventually will face more tension and anxiety (Harvey et al., 2007). Convenient sampling technique was used to send the questionnaire to about 500 people with informed consent; men and women working in different organizations employed under middle management within various educational, Information Technology, medical, financial and manufacturing organizations. Participants were informed that their responses will remain confidential and will only be used for research purpose. 394 responses were received yielding 78.8% response rate, after removing incomplete responses a final sample was used consisting of 369 valid responses. This study has a diversified sample consisting of individuals from different sectors and nature of work. Time duration in which data was collected through an online questionnaire was from June, 2020 to October, 2020.

In our final sample, 45% of respondents were females and 55% were males. 67% of the sample was between ages of 25 to 50, 25% were of age upto 25 years while only 8% of age above 50 years. 75% of the respondents had graduation degree, 21% had master degree, 2% were PhD degree holders while 2% of sample had other degrees. 61% of the respondents were working in private sector while 39% of participants were in public sector. 48% of the sample had 2-5 years of experience, 20% had upto 2 years of experience and 12% of participants had experience of more than 10 years.

Measures

Standardized measures were used to collect data for the study variables, close ended questions were used and responses were taken on a 5 point Likert scale (1 for strongly disagree, 2 for disagree, 3 for neutral, 4 for agree and 5 for strongly agree).

Destructive Leadership: This study adopted Thoroughgood et al., (2012) DLQ consisted of 28 items to measure destructive leadership behaviors of the immediate supervisor of respondents. e.g., your immediate boss/leader shows no clear standards for administering rewards and punishments.

Perceived Job Stress: Job stress was measured by Perceived stress (perceived strain and burnout) 15 items scale developed by Mohr, Rigotti et al. (2006) and Kristensen et al.

(2005), as it measures stress in form of strain and burnout which are most suitable dimensions of job stress related to destructive leadership. e.g., Is your work emotionally exhausting?

Work-Life Balance: Work-life balance was measured through difficulties in keeping balance between work and personal lives for employees. A was 5 item scale developed by Hill et al.'s (2001) was used for this purpose. e.g., when u takes a vacation, you are able to separate yourself from work and enjoy yourself.

RESULTS

Data analyses were done through wrapPLS 7.0 which uses variance based Structural Equation Modeling (SEM) technique (Kock, 2010).

Goodness of Model Fit

Results indicate a good model fit as the p- values for Average path coefficient (APC), Average R-squared (ARS) and Adjusted R-square are less than 0.05 which shows significant meanings. In addition value for Average block full collinearity VIF is also less than 0.5 which indicated there is no issue of multicollinearity in the model. Therefore standards for good fit of the model are fulfilled (Kock, 2011).

Table 1
Conformity of the Model

No.	Measurement	Model values	Acceptable value
1	Average path coefficient (APC)	0.387, P<0.001	
2	Average R-squared (ARS)	0.303, P<0.001	
3	Average adjusted R-squared (AARS)	0.300, P<0.001	
4	Average block VIF (AFVIF)	1.087	acceptable if ≤ 5 , ideally ≤ 3.3

Construct Validity and Reliability

Convergent validity of the instrument:

Table of combined loadings and cross loadings represents the convergent validity of the instrument used in this study. As the results indicate the values of combined loadings are greater than 0.5 and p-values are less than 0.05, which fulfills the acceptable criteria for good convergent validity of the instrument (Hair et al., 1987; 2009). Convergent validity measures that items used to measure each latent variable were understood by the respondents in same way as they were intended by the researcher.

Table 2
Combined Loadings and Cross loadings

	DLB	Job Stress	Work Life Balance	SE
MDL1	0.882	-0.005	0.094	0.046
MDL2	0.885	-0.018	0.046	0.046
MDL3	0.878	-0.074	0.087	0.046
MDL4	0.908	0.053	-0.034	0.046
MDL5	0.919	0.044	-0.069	0.046

	DLB	Job Stress	Work Life Balance	SE
MDL6	0.85	-0.021	-0.063	0.046
MDL7	0.844	-0.023	-0.051	0.046
MDL8	0.923	0.022	-0.031	0.046
MDL9	0.884	-0.004	0.084	0.046
MDL10	0.886	-0.01	0.049	0.046
MDL11	0.874	-0.071	0.096	0.046
MDL12	0.902	0.042	0.006	0.046
MDL13	0.92	0.028	-0.042	0.046
MDL14	0.885	-0.002	0.083	0.046
MDL15	0.882	-0.029	0.066	0.046
MDL16	0.878	-0.04	0.062	0.046
MDL17	0.915	0.043	-0.023	0.046
MDL18	0.918	0.047	-0.065	0.046
MDL19	0.846	-0.035	-0.053	0.046
MDL20	0.844	-0.007	-0.073	0.046
MDL21	0.919	0.034	-0.03	0.046
MDL22	0.884	-0.009	0.077	0.046
MDL23	0.875	-0.016	0.032	0.046
MDL24	0.756	-0.064	-0.023	0.047
MDL25	0.756	0.048	-0.02	0.047
MDL26	0.804	0.004	-0.103	0.046
MDL27	0.875	0.038	-0.08	0.046
MDL28	0.867	0.009	-0.035	0.046
JS1	-0.043	0.694	0.059	0.047
JS2	0.009	0.877	-0.032	0.046
JS3	0.037	0.758	-0.043	0.047
JS4	0.054	0.895	-0.044	0.046
JS5	0.038	0.872	-0.066	0.046
JS6	0.007	0.818	0.061	0.046
JS7	0.048	0.846	-0.027	0.046
JS8	-0.042	0.889	0.04	0.046
JS9	-0.033	0.826	-0.042	0.046
JS10	-0.052	0.831	0.089	0.046
JS11	-0.054	0.884	0.05	0.046
JS12	0.044	0.783	-0.066	0.047
JS13	-0.018	0.79	0.05	0.047
JS14	0.001	0.817	-0.021	0.046
WLB1	0.013	0.016	0.909	0.046
WLB2	0.039	0.001	0.921	0.046
WLB3	-0.055	0.019	0.918	0.046
WLB4	-0.033	-0.004	0.912	0.046
WLB5	0.035	-0.031	0.933	0.046

MDL = Middle management Destructive Leadership, JS = Job Stress, WLB = Wok-Life Balance (numbers represent items included in each measure), P value = <0.001.

Discriminant Validity

Discriminant validity determines the difference between various latent variables in the model (Hulland, 1999) and it is measured through values of square roots of average variance extracted (AVE), as the values must be higher than other latent variables in the same column (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). Diagonal values in table 3 show a good discriminant validity of the measuring instrument.

Table 3
Correlations Among l.vs. with sq. rts. of AVEs

Variables	DLB	Job stress	Work-life balance
DLB	0.875	0.291	0.646
Job stress	0.291	0.829	0.380
Work-life balance	0.646	0.380	0.919

Reliability indicates that items used to measure each latent variable were understood in the same way by different people or respondents. It ensures the quality of the instrument. Reliability is typically measured through Cronbach's alpha and composite reliability values, which should be greater than 0.7 (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). Table 4 of output latent variable coefficient indicates that good reliability values.

Table 4
Output Latent Variable Coefficient

Measurement	Supervisory DLB	Job Stress	Work-Life Balance
R -squared coefficients		0.112	0.493
Adjusted R-squared coefficients		0.11	0.49
Composite reliability coefficients	0.989	0.968	0.964
Cronbach's alpha coefficients	0.989	0.965	0.954
Average variances extracted (AVE)	0.765	0.687	0.844
Full collinearity VIFs	1.725	1.174	1.845
Q-squared coefficients		0.115	0.153
Minimum and maximum values	-2.477	-2.918	-2.248
	1.203	1.277	1.188
Medians (top) and modes (bottom)	0.414	0.477	0.491
	-2.477	-1.69	-1.389
Skewness (top) and exc. Kurtosis	-1.054	-0.901	-0.87
(bottom) coefficients	-0.309	-0.744	-0.491

Coefficients of R-square in table 4 indicate the percentage of variance, which can be explained in dependent/endogenous variable due to independent/exogenous variables. Higher values of R-square explain a good model. Results of this study show that supervisory destructive leadership behaviors can cause variance in job stress of employees' of upto 11.2% and similarly job stress can increase variance in maintaining work-life balance by 15.2%. Also the values of full collinearity (VIF) are less than 3.3 for each variable which shows that that study model is free from problems of common method bias and lateral and vertical collinearity (Kock, 2013). Values of Q-square greater than zero indicate that model has a good predictive validity. Overall, measurement values of the outer model are good.

Structural Model and Hypotheses Testing

Hypothesized model was tested through structural equation modeling (SEM) in wrapPLS 7.0 (Kock, 2010). Results for hypothesized paths are presented in Table 5.

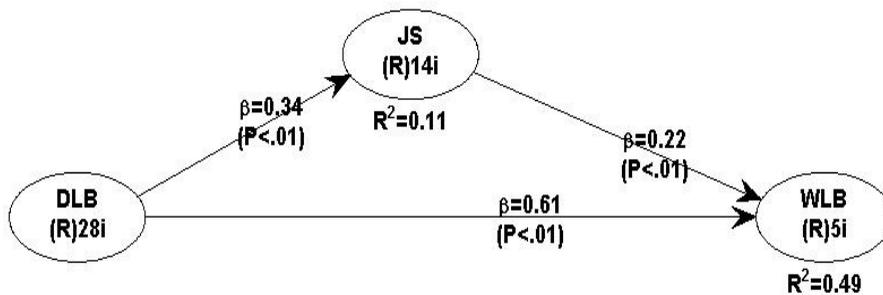


Figure 1: Framework

Table 5 illustrates that destructive leadership behaviors of the immediate supervisor are significantly related with job stress among employees. With a positive β -value of 0.335, results indicate that destructive leadership behaviors increase the job stress level among employees which supports our hypothesis H1. Results also explain that job stress among employees is significantly related to difficulty in work-life balance as the p-value for that is <0.001 and β -value is 0.39 which indicates that increase in job stress will raise difficulties in maintaining work-life balance. These results therefore support the study hypothesis H2 which predicted this relationship. Table 5 illustrates that positive mediation is also supported in the model through job stress. Results ($\beta = 0.131$, $p = <0.001$) show that job stress mediates the relationship between destructive leadership behaviors and difficulty in work-life balance for employees. Total effect of destructive leadership behaviors on difficulty in work-life balance of employees explains the outcomes of mediation (Table 5).

Table 5
Path Coefficients and p-values

	Path Coefficient	Standard Error	p-value
DLB → Job stress	0.335	0.05	<0.001
Job stress → work-life balance	0.218	0.05	<0.001
DLB → work-life balance	0.609	0.048	<0.001
DLB → Job stress → work-life balance (total effect)	0.628	0.047	<0.001

DISCUSSIONS

The main purpose of this study was to examine whether destructive leadership behaviors of the supervisor are linked with enhanced job stress levels among employees and do its effects extend to the level that it disturbs the work-life balance for employees. Lying on Transactional stress theory, we theorized that destructive leadership behaviors have worse effect on subordinate level employees due their lack of autonomy limited space to express their emotions, they feel more stressed and cannot express their resistance at workplace which ultimately puts that pressure at their personal lives and family time. Our findings were consistent with the findings of Bhandarker & Rai, (2019) who found that toxic leadership resulted in increased psychological distress among employees. We found that lower level employees face increased job stress due to destructive leadership behaviors of their immediate boss/supervisor.

Furthermore, we theorized that destructive leadership behaviors create difficulties for employees to balance their work and personal lives. As the resource drain theory (Morris & Madsen, 2007) suggests that human time and energy are limited resources and when one is forced to invest more of it into work it will create imbalance between work and personal life. Results supported the argument that destructive leadership behaviors of supervisors result in increased difficulties in balancing work-life for employees directly and through job stress. Based on Spillover theory (Edwards and Rothbard, 2000) this study hypothesized that job stress is linked with negative emotions, moods and frustrations which employees take with them when they go home and that leads to conflicts in their personal lives which result in poor work-life balance. Our findings were consistent with (Winn & Dykes, 2019; O'Laughlin & Bischoff, 2005) that raised job stress can cause work-life conflicts.

This study adds in the literature of destructive leadership through examining its relationship with job stress at subordinate level. It lends support to (Sidle, 2007) and (Skogstad, Hetland, Glasø & Einarsen, 2014) work which suggested that negative leadership behaviors of micromanaging and avoidant attitude can result in raised job stress for employees. Our study contributed through investigating various individual directed and organizational directed destructive leadership behaviors (Thoroughgood et al., 2012) which contribute in increasing job stress among subordinates.

This study fills the gap in literature through investigating effects of destructive leadership beyond workplace (Wu, Peng & Estay, 2018) through exploring its link with

poor work-life balance. Destructive leadership behaviors put extra pressure on employees which create an environment of fear and negative emotions, which forces them to make extra efforts and put more time into their jobs and disturbs their personal lives in the long run.

CONCLUSION

Destructive leadership is an important phenomenon to explore in order to truly understand the full spectrum of leadership. This study aimed to investigate that how destructive leadership behaviors of immediate boss/supervisor are related to raised job stress and poor work-life balance in employees. It was examined that how destructive behaviors of leaders create a ripple of negativity which goes beyond the work lives of employees and have drastic effects on their personal lives. Findings of this study contribute to the existing literature of destructive leadership through providing empirical evidence about some unexplored areas. It examined the job stress level among lower level employees who face destructive leadership and its consequences on their personal lives. Our findings highlight the importance of a good supervisor-subordinate relationship for employees to grow in their professional and personal lives.

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