

Investigating the effects of toxic leadership on organizational citizenship behavior and employees turnover with moderating role of organizational commitment

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Abstract

A major challenge organizations face today is employing high performing employees with high organizational commitment. A factor affecting the success and failure of an organization is the leadership style of managers. One of the leadership styles is toxic leadership whose behaviors cause serious harm to the organization and employees. The behaviors of organizational leaders play an effective role in organizational commitment, employee turnover, organizational citizenship behavior, and employee productivity. Therefore, the present study aimed to investigate firstly the effects of toxic leadership on the organizational citizenship behavior, secondly, the effects of toxic leadership on employee turnover, and finally the moderating role of organizational commitment on these relationships. Statistical population was all staff employees of a public organization from which 350 were selected randomly as sample. Data collection tool was a questionnaire and both face validity and construct validity were used to assess the validity of the questionnaire. Cronbach's alpha test with SPSS software was used for assessing the reliability of the questionnaire. For data analysis, first data was extracted from the questionnaire and then they was analyzed by the statistical software SPSS22 and PLS3. For inferential statistics, structural equation modeling (SEM) was used to investigate the research hypotheses, the relationships between variables, and the generalization of the results obtained from the sample to the statistical population of the research. The findings indicated that there was an insignificant negative relationship between toxic leadership and organizational citizenship behavior; however, the relationship between toxic leadership and employee turnover was positive and significant; organizational commitment didn't play a moderating role in the relationship between toxic leadership and organizational citizenship behavior and also in the relationship between toxic leadership and employee turnover.

Keywords: Toxic Leadership, organizational citizenship behavior, employee turnover, Organizational Commitment

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I. Introduction

Nowadays, one of the biggest challenges organizations face is to have an efficient and productive workforce. Organ (1998) argues that one of the most important and effective factors improving the productivity and performance is organizational citizenship behavior, which is essential for organizations to be survived (Jahangir et al., 2004). Organ described organizational citizenship behavior as "a type of employee behavior not directly recognized in the organizational reward system and aims to improve organizational performance effectively regardless of the individual productivity goals of employees"(quoted by Mehrabi et al., 2013). Organizations should provide fertile grounds for their employees and managers to use all their experiences, abilities and capacities to advance organizational goals. This is realized only by identifying the principles and rules related to organizational citizen behavior and creating the necessary conditions for the implementation of such behaviors (Moghimi, 2005). One of the factors that may affect human resources and, consequently, the organization effectiveness is high voluntary turnover rate (Glebbeek, 2004). High turnover rate may negatively affect the organization's capacity to provide high quality outputs. It may also have fatal consequences for hiring, training costs and shutting down operations (Zia al-Dini and Ramezani Ghavamabadi, 2013). At the same time, employees' behaviors and attitudes including citizenship behavior and employee turnover are affected by various factors and variables such as the leadership style of managers. Reed states that leadership is both destructive and constructive, contributing to both organizational success and failure (Reed et al., 2015). Not all leaders are effective with positive characteristics. One of the leadership styles with destructive behaviors is toxic leadership. Toxic leaders are those who, through destructive behaviors, have a negative effect on individuals, organizations, or even countries, causing them to perish. A toxic leader has short and long term negative effects on the organization (Allen et al., 1982; Kellerman, 2004). According to the research, supervisors or other organizational leaders who exhibit toxic leadership behaviors may reduce organizational citizenship behaviors and increase employee turnover (Podsakoff et al., 2000; Zellars et al., 2002; Rafferty and Restubag, 2011). Another factor influencing employees' behaviors and attitudes is their sense of commitment or loyalty to the organization. Organizational commitment is a kind of loyalty and emotional attachment of individuals to the organization that forces them to stay in the organization and work to achieve its goals (Salajegheh and Ahmadzadeh, 2014). Organizations seek to preserve and maintain their efficient human resources and are always afraid of losing their human capital, as all individual organizations spend a lot on educating, training and preparing its employees to the desired level of productivity and efficiency, and by losing valuable workforce, they lose the skills and experiences that have been gained over the years (Dehghanan, et al., 2014).

The present research was carried out in one of the largest public organizations in the east of the country. Due to the nature of their services, these organizations need highly committed employees to be as efficient and productive as possible. In such organizations, the role played by manager and leader in the organization's success and development is very vital. Therefore, the leadership style employed by managers is considerably important. To this end, in this study toxic leadership and its dimensions among managers and the impact of these dimensions on employees were investigated.

Therefore, this study aimed at answering the following questions, how much is the impact intensity of toxic leadership dimensions on organizational commitment in the large public organization? Is the relationship significant? And, is the relationship negative or positive?

II. Literature Review

2.1. Organizational Citizenship Behavior

In 1938, Chester Bernard introduced the concept of "willingness to cooperate" (quoted by Podsakoff et al., 2000). Also in the 1970s and 1980s, Katz and Kahn distinguished between role performance and "innovative and spontaneous behaviors" and introduced extra-role behaviors (Brightman and Moran, 1999), but the term organizational citizenship behavior was first coined by Organ in 1983 (quoted by Podsakoff et al., 2000). Theorists offered a variety of definitions for organizational citizenship behavior. The term organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) was first used by Bateman and Organ (1983) and defined it as beneficial behaviors not mentioned in the job description, but employees manifest them explicitly to help others fulfilling their duties. Employees' willingness to perform behaviors that go beyond the formal requirements of their role and position is also identified as a main component of organizational citizenship behavior. However, Organ (1998) described organizational citizenship behavior as a type of employee behavior not directly honored through the formal organizational reward system but improves effective function of the organization regardless of individual productivity goals. Every employee is (quoted by Mehrabi et al., 2013). According to Appelbaum et al. (2004), a set of voluntary behaviors that are not part of the formal requirements of the job but helps to improve the organizational roles, is called citizenship behavior (Quoted by Ashouri et al., 2017).

Scholars suggested various dimensions for organizational citizenship behavior. In his article, Podsakoff notes that there is no consensus among researchers on organizational citizenship behavior dimensions. Thirty dimensions have been proposed for organizational citizenship behavior, but he argues that there is a conceptual overlap in these dimensions (Podsakoff et al., 2000).

One of the most important models of organizational citizenship behavior is Organ's model. Organ (1989) suggested five dimensions for organizational citizenship behavior that were investigated in this study. These dimensions are:

1. Conscientiousness: This dimension includes various examples in which the organization members perform certain behaviors that go beyond the minimal requirements of the job. Conscientiousness refers to discretionary behaviors of employees that go beyond their duties. For example, a person who stays late at the office to work or an employee who spend limited time for resting. Organ also believes that people with high citizenship behavior continue to work in the worst circumstances, even in the event of illness and disability; they have a high level of conscientiousness to help newcomers or the less skilled.

2. Altruism: it refers to helpful and beneficial behaviors such as creating intimacy, empathy, and compassion among co-workers helping employees who have work problems, either directly or indirectly.

3. Civic virtue: it includes behaviors such as participating voluntarily in extracurricular activities, supporting the development and changes provided by organizational managers, the willingness to read books, magazines and increase public information, and posting flyers and notices in the organization for the awareness of others. Civic virtue is the desire to participate and be responsible in organizational life and also to display a proper image of the organization.

4. Sportsmanship: The fourth dimension of citizenship behavior refers to employees' tendency to tolerate unfavorable conditions, without expressing any objection, dissatisfaction and grievance.

5. Courtesy: This dimension refers to how people treat their colleagues, supervisors and audiences in the organization. People who treat others with respect and dignity have progressive citizenship behavior. It also refers to employees' efforts to prevent work-related tensions and problems with others (Organ, 1989; Senobari, 2008; Ashouri et al., 2017).

Organ notes that all five dimensions of citizenship behavior may not emerge simultaneously. For example, a person who is considered conscientious may not always be altruistic and self-sacrificing. Moreover, some of these dimensions, such as altruism and conscientiousness may be used as strategies to put pressure on managers; that is, employees try to influence the decisions taken by managers to receive bonuses or rewards. In this case, the employees may turn from a "good soldier" into a "good actor" for the organization (Castro et al., 2004, quoted by Ashouri et al., 2017).

2.2. Employee Turnover

In the general definition, turnover refers to leaving the organization and expressing job dissatisfaction, and in the specific definition, it is a change in the individual's membership in the organization, which includes a wide range of shifts and changing situations. According to Pardo, turnover intention is defined as the extent to which a person moves out of the membership of a social system initiated by the individual himself/herself (quoted by Vahed Asrami et al., 2015). Lambert (2010) defined it as the process of thinking, planning and intending to leave a job. Turnover is the termination of working conditions and employment contract. According to Price (1997), turnover is the movement of members across the boundary of an organization (quoted by Abedi Jafari et al., 2014). According to Ferris and Rowland (1987), absenteeism and turnover are generally performed in the form of two interconnected circles. The absence and lack of appropriate attendance at work may act as a safety valve for employees who are dissatisfied with their jobs. However, turnover occurs when job dissatisfaction becomes severe and reaches its peak, that is, absenteeism and irregularity at work can't act as a safety valve to stay in the job and in the organization (quoted by Mamizadeh, 2002). Overall, turnover reflects the employees' interest in looking for alternative jobs and leaving the organization (Mowday et al., 1982, quoted by Golparvar and Oreizi, 2008).

Various classifications for turnover were proposed by researchers. Iverson and Pullman (2000) point out that turnover can be divided into two main categories: voluntary or discretionary and involuntary or mandatory. These two categories are distinct because a person who leaves the organization and quit the job is very different from a person whose manager cancels his membership and employment.

In addition, Westbrook et al. (2007) believe that turnover can be divided into the following three categories:

1. Unpreventable turnover (prevention): It is caused by family problems, illness and the like.
2. Desirable turnover: it occurs due to incompetence of employees.
3. Undesirable turnover: it is the result of organizational issues such as lack of supervision, role conflict, etc. (quoted by Abedi Jafari et al., 2014).

Unpreventable and desirable turnovers don't cause much harm to customers, employees and the organization; however, undesirable turnover has a direct impact on the quality of customer service and organizational effectiveness.

Turnover may also be performed in two ways (Tahmasebi et al., 2017): direct and indirect.

A) Direct turnover: the employee leaves his workplace willingly or unwillingly and has no longer a physical presence in the workplace.

B) Indirect turnover: also called virtual turnover in which the employee is physically present but his mind, thought and expertise are not.

Emphasizing a specific definition of turnover and following his studies, Price (1997) concluded that turnover can be divided into two main categories (voluntary or discretionary and involuntary or mandatory) and asserted that they should be separated as there are many differences between a person who leaves the organization and quit the job and a person whose manager cancels his membership and employment (Quoted by Mamizadeh, 2002).

Turnover entails many tangible and intangible costs. According to Macintosh and Doherty (2010), turnover may reduce opportunities such as building constructive relationships and impose many organizational costs, such as hiring, educating and training employees to fill up the vacant positions (resulting from turnover) (quoted by Abedi Jafari et al., 2014). High turnover rates impose high costs on organizations. According to some researchers, each individual who leave the organization costs it about one to one-half times his / her annual salary (Wakin, 1990). Such costs are tangible, which include the costs of hiring, selecting, employing, training, and so on. But turnover has many intangible costs that are unmeasurable such as negative impact on other employees morale and reduced productivity (Abbasi and Hollman, 2000), distortion of the organization's image that makes it difficult to recruit new staff, outflow of information and technical knowledge, the loss of human capital, cultural instability, etc. (Jex and Britt 2008, quoted by Abbaspour and Sayyed Khamoushi, 2013). Indirect costs of turnover include reduced work ethic and conscience, a weakened organizational culture, increased pressure on remaining employees, learning costs, and the loss of social capital or organizational memory, which lead to transferring capabilities to rival companies and losing competitive advantage (Dess and Shaw 2001, quoted by Amiri and Mahmoudzadeh, 2015).

2.3. Organizational commitment

Organizational commitment is an attitude, a psychological state that displays a kind of desire, need and requirement to continue working in an organization. Organizational commitment is an important factor for employees to follow the organization goals and demands, continue to work in the organization, and have a creative and innovative attitude in the organization. It is a kind of loyalty and emotional attachment of individuals to the organization that forces them to stay in the organization and work to achieve its goals (Salajegheh and Ahmadzadeh, 2014). Organizational commitment is limited to the relationship between the employee and the organization, consisting of three components: 1. Having Strong belief in the objectives and values of the organization. 2. Making more efforts for the benefit of the organization 3- Feeling loyalty and having a strong desire to continue with the organization. People with high commitment stay in the organization because they would like to do so (Akroyd et al., 2009).

Organizational commitment is a concept that indicates how much employees have adapted to the organizational goals, consider membership in the organization valuable and tends to work hard to achieve the overall goals of the organization. In this sense, commitment is distinguished from mere membership in the organization as organizational commitment requires an active relationship between employees and the organization so that employees willingly go beyond the predetermined behaviors and help the organization to achieve its goals by playing a more active role (Afkhani Ardakani and Farahi, 2012). Organizations that have members with high levels of organizational commitment may generally display higher performance and fewer absenteeism and delays. Actually, organizational commitment shows a relationship between the individual and the organization, which can be significantly explained in the organization (BeteMarmaya, 2010, quoted by Abazari and Amiranzadeh, 2016).

Organizational commitment, in general, is considered a useful measure of organizational effectiveness, and in particular, it is a multidimensional structure with a potential of predicting such organizational consequences as performance, employee turnover, absenteeism, tenure, and organizational goals (Allen and Meyer, 1991).

Different approaches were proposed to measure organizational commitment, one of the most complete of which is measuring organizational commitment based on Allen and Meyer sample. They, in general, argued that commitment attaches the individual to the organization, and this attachment will reduce the employee turnover. They distinguished between three types of commitment; affective commitment, continuance commitment and normative commitment, and each is defined as follow:

1. Affective commitment: It refers to the employees' emotional belonging to the organization, their sense of oneness with the organization, and their active presence in the organization. Employees with affective commitment usually tend to stay in the organization, and this is one of their aspirations (Allen and Meyer, 1991).

2. Continuance commitment: This type of commitment is associated with the benefits and costs related to staying in or leaving the organization. Actually, this commitment indicates a calculation, which is also referred to as rational commitment. Employees with organizational continuance commitment usually stay in the organization as long as leaving the organization costs very high (Allen and Meyer 1991).

3. Normative commitment: It is defined as a type of obligation to stay in the organization. Strong normative commitment exists in those who have a sense of obligation and requirement to stay in the organization (Allen and Meyer, 1991).

2.4. Toxic Leadership

A key factor defining the success and failure of an organization is leadership. One type of leadership its destructive behaviors cause serious harm to the organization and employees is toxic leadership. The term "toxic leadership" was first coined by Wicker in 1996. Wicker believed that a toxic leader is an incompatible, rebellious, malicious, and malevolent one who succeeds by focusing on selfish values, deception, and delusion. Lipman Blumen (2005) suggested the broadest conceptualization of toxic leadership, arguing that the term "toxic leader" is a global label for leaders who engage in countless destructive behaviors and represent certain dysfunctional personal characteristics. He believed that "to be considered toxic these behaviors and personality

traits should cause serious and lasting harm to the followers and their organizations". Williams (2005) suggested that toxic leadership is found in degrees; from ignorant people who cause minor harm to the overtly evil who inflict serious damage. On one end of the spectrum are dysfunctional, unskilled and unproductive leaders who are completely unaware of the fact that they lack almost all the necessary talents to be a leader. On the other end, toxic leaders will find their success and glory in the destruction of others. Psychologically or even physically, they will succeed on the harm they can inflict on others. Appelbaum and Roy-Girard (2007) described toxic leader as a person who is motivated by self-interest, has an apparent lack of concern, and has a negative effect on the organizational climate. They are proud of hard protection, struggle and control instead of elevating followers. Appelbaum and Roy-Girard claimed that "there is no a specific behavior that makes a leader toxic. The only way to prove if a leader is toxic or not is to investigate the cumulative effect of demotivational behaviors on morale and climate over time".

A glance into the past of toxic leaders demonstrates that their toxic tendencies are not developed in a day, but their style evolved over time and became highly toxic. Studies have shown that toxic leadership covers a wide spectrum, from leaders with mild and unintentional toxicity to leaders who are considered as absolute evil, and includes such tendencies as dishonesty, hypocrisy, sabotage, manipulation, fraud and unethical behavior (Lipman Blumen, 2005). Lipman Blumen (2005) asserted that three factors of context, personality traits of leaders and complainant followers may contribute to the emergence and growth of toxic leaders. He also pointed out that organizations may also become an incubator of toxic or inefficient behaviors by providing counterproductive policies and practices, including irrational goals, excessive internal competition, and cultures fostering blame game. Ludeman and Erlandson (2004) believed that leadership toxicity is the result of a perceived threat to the position, power, and control, which leads to toxic behaviors committed by leaders who are vulnerable. According to Atkinson and Butcher (2003), one of the reasons for the emergence of toxic leadership is when the personal plans of leaders precede the long-term well-being of the organization (quoted by Mehta and Maheshwari, 2014).

Various characteristics have been suggested by many researchers for toxic leaders. Schmidt, meanwhile, conducted the most comprehensive research and suggested five dimensions for a toxic leader. Schmidt (2008) briefly described toxic leaders as "narcissistic self-promoters who engage in an unpredictable pattern of authoritarian and abusive supervision". Schmidt (2008) introduced five dimensions for toxic leadership: abusive supervision, authoritarian leadership, narcissism, unpredictability, and self-promotion. In the following each of the dimensions of toxic leadership will be further explained.

1. Abusive supervision: Schmidt (2008) considered it as continuous display of hostile verbal and nonverbal behaviors with the exception of physical contact.

2. Authoritarian leadership: Schmidt (2008) described it as a dimension of toxic leadership and added the structures of "task micro-management and acting in a commandeering fashion". He believed that such a leader seeks to exercise power and control over subordinates and demands unconditional obedience.

3. Narcissism: Schmidt (2008) described it as a personality trait characterized by exaggeration, arrogance, self-righteousness, low self-esteem, and antagonism. He also considered it as a dimension of toxic leadership.

4. Unpredictability: Schmidt (2008) described it as an emerging issue in her qualitative work on the development of the Toxic Leadership Scale and explained: "While negative behaviors have negative effects, unpredictable negative behaviors exacerbate negative outcomes". Schmidt considered these unpredictable behaviors as an important predictor of various job-related outcomes, including turnover intention and satisfaction with one's supervisor. Consequently, unpredictability is a valid structure of toxic leadership.

5. Self-promotion: The self-promotion dimension is conceptually distinguished from narcissism as while a narcissist focuses on self-love and self-oriented behaviors, a self-promoter stresses on improving others' perception of herself/himself (Schmidt, 2008). Schmidt claimed that these self-promoting behaviors are often performed to have positive influence on those who are in higher positions than that of the leader. Such behaviors often come at a price to the leader's followers.

Toxic leadership behaviors have consequences. Appelbaum and Roy-Girard (2007) believed that toxic leadership leads to workplace deviance behaviors which are the result of employee retaliation against the toxic leadership performance. According to them, workplace deviance behaviors include excessive absenteeism, theft, unproductivity, unethical practices, and high employee turnover. Glaso and Vie (2009) focused on perceiving the consequences of toxic leadership in terms of understanding injustice resulted from the presence of toxic leadership in the workplace and claimed that negative emotions are caused by the presence of toxic leadership, which include "anger, distrust, disgust, sadness, fear, guilt, shame, social isolation, helplessness, anxiety and shock". The pervasiveness of these negative emotions leads to employees' emotional burnout and fatigue which in turn results in reduced job satisfaction. Goldman (2006) explicitly considered a relationship between decreased job satisfaction and employee turnover, which is intensified by the presence of a toxic leader in the workplace. He suggested that toxic leadership may increase the number of lawsuits and complaints brought by employees against organizations and result in high employee turnover and reduced job satisfaction and increased emotional torture. Goldman (2006) suggested the following negative consequences of toxic leadership for followers: "Negative mood, anger and resentment, anxiety, decreased psychological well-being, and decreased self-esteem" and the following negative consequences for the organization, "reduced organizational performance, and reduced job satisfaction, job stress and higher turnover, higher turnover intention, increased absenteeism, reduced work productivity, and decreased organizational commitment".

III. Conceptual Model

Given the abovementioned, the present study aims at investigating the effects of toxic leadership style on organizational citizenship behavior and employee turnover with the moderating role of organizational commitment of employees of a public organization. The research model is as follows;

Figure 3-1. Conceptual model of the research derived from Reed et al. (2015)

According to the research model, the hypotheses are suggested.

Research hypotheses:

1- Toxic leadership has a negative and significant effect on employees' organizational citizenship behaviors.

- 2- Toxic leadership has a positive and significant effect on employee turnover rate.
3. Organizational commitment moderates the effect of toxic leadership on employees' organizational citizenship behaviors.
4. Organizational commitment moderates the effect of toxic leadership on employee turnover.

IV. Methodology

This study was an applied and descriptive-survey research. The statistical population was 1053 staff employees of a public organization in 2017 and the research was conducted on a number of them at the individual level. Considering the statistical population size, 281 people were selected according to Cochran's formula and about 285 people were selected according to Morgan table as a statistical sample. About 400 questionnaires were distributed of which 350 questionnaires were selected for analysis. The questionnaire used in this study the content validity of which was confirmed included 3 general questions about gender, age and education and 36 items including toxic leadership variables (10 items) derived from Schmidt (2014), organizational citizenship behavior (11 items) derived from Podsakoff et al. (1990), turnover (5 items) derived from Kim and Leung (2007) (quoted by Hosseini Barzanji, 2013) and organizational commitment (10 items) derived from Meyer and Allen (1990). The questionnaire included close-ended questions with a range of five scales from extremely low to extremely high.

The questionnaire face validity was evaluated according to the opinions of three university professors who had expertise in the field of research variables. The questionnaire construct validity was assessed using confirmatory factor analysis technique. KMO index and Bartlett's test were used to ensure the suitability of data for factor analysis. As the value of KMO index for all research variables was higher than 0.5 and the significance level in Bartlett's test was less than 0.05, it can be concluded that the data were suitable for factor analysis. It should be noted that items with factor loadings of less than 0.3 were removed from the analysis. Cronbach's alpha was used to assess the reliability of the test. As all values were above 0.7 so it can be concluded that the tool had the required reliability. The results of validity and reliability are given in the table below.

Table 1: the results of confirmatory factor analysis of the questionnaire items

Variable	KMO	Loading factor	Items	Bartlett's test significance
Organizational Citizenship Behavior	0.792	0/460	q1	0.000
		0/433	q2	
		0/328	q3	
		0/318	q4	

		0/253	q5	
		0/205	q6	
		0/232	q7	
		0/221	q8	
		0/330	q9	
		0/469	q10	
		0/272	q11	
Turnover	0.588	0/435	q12	0.000
		0/443	q13	
		0/602	q14	
		0/107	q15	
		0/285	q16	
Organizational Commitment	0.873	0/511	q17	0.000
		0/362	q18	
		0/349	q19	
		0/308	q20	
		0/507	q21	
		0/442	q22	
		0/603	q23	
		0/221	q24	
		0/531	q25	
		0/578	q26	
Toxic Leadership	0.876	0/518	q27	0.000

		0/655	q28	
		0/638	q29	
		0/366	q30	
		0/720	q31	
		0/624	q32	
		0/000	q33	
		0/080	q34	
		0/579	q35	
		0/412	q36	

V. Findings

Descriptive statistics: The characteristics of the respondents in the present study were examined using three demographic variables of gender, age and level of education and were used only to report the appearances of the subjects. 34% of the respondents were female and 64.3% were male and 1.7% didn't answer. 4% of the respondents were in the age group of 20-25 years, 14.6% were in the age group of 26-30 years, 38.9% were in the age group of 31-35 years and 40.9% were over 36 years old. 10 % of the respondents had high school diploma or less, 61.7% had bachelor's degrees, 25.7% had master's degrees, 2.0% had doctorate degree and 0.6% didn't answer.

Inferential statistics: In this research, structural equation modeling (SEM) and partial least squares (PLS) were used to test the research hypotheses and the model fitness.

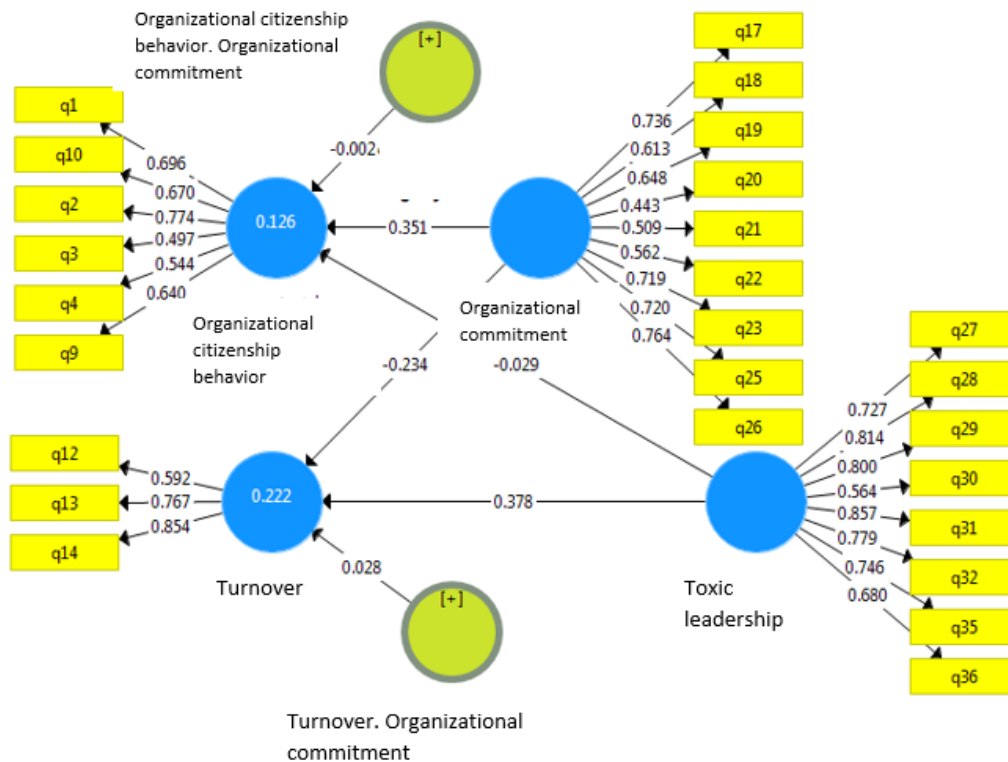


Figure 1: Structural equation model of the research

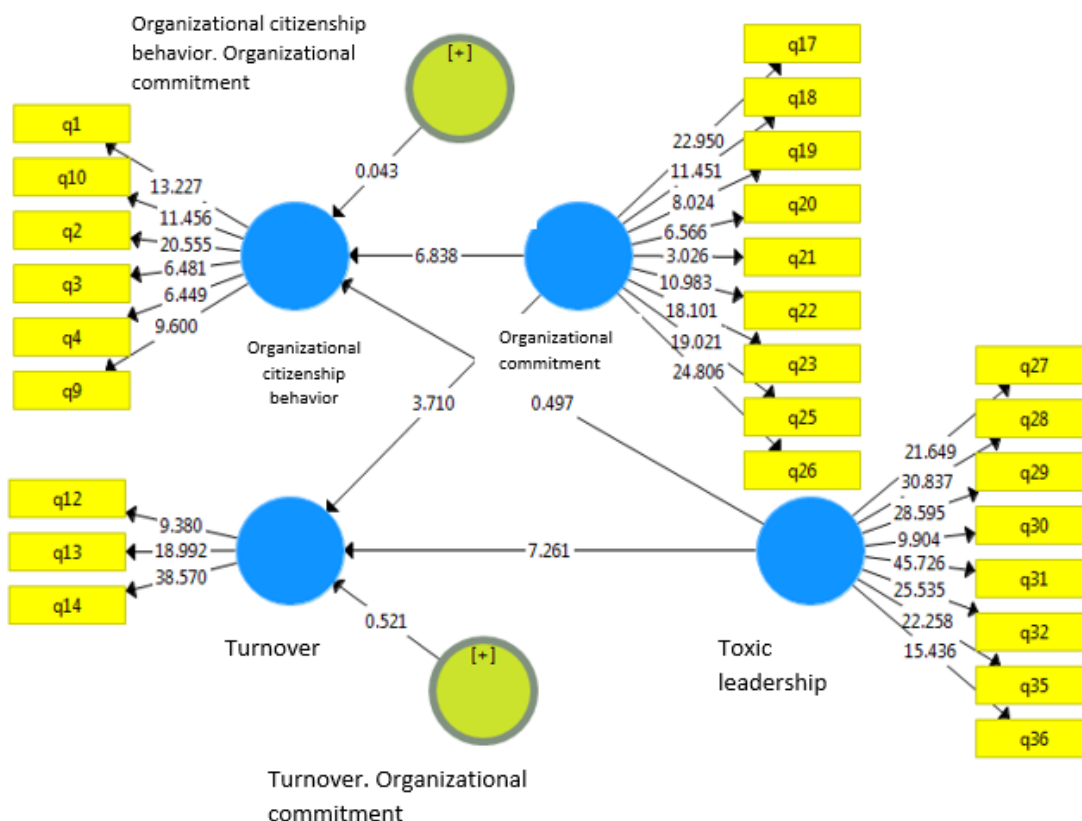


Figure 2: Fitted conceptual model in the case of significance of parameters

In the following, the effects of the research variables will be discussed. To this end, structural equation modeling and partial least squares (PLS) are used. Model analysis is conducted in two steps. The first step examines the fitness of the suggested model and (probable) modifications to it, and the second examines the research hypotheses. The model is fitted in three steps: 1- measurement models fit (external model) 2- Structural model fit 3- overall model fit.

For examining the external model, first factor loadings of the questions (or indices) are investigated. Then reliability and validity of the internal model are examined.

Factor loadings are obtained by calculating the correlation value of the indices of a structure with that structure. The value should be equal or more than 0.4. If it is less than 0.4, the researcher should either modify the indices (questions) or remove them from the research model (Davari and Rezazadeh, 2011). In the present research model, factor loading coefficients of the questions were more than 0.4. Cronbach's alpha coefficient and combined reliability (CR) were used to evaluate the reliability of the external model. In addition, the validity of the external model was measured by the convergent validity index (Davari and Rezazadeh, 2011). The results are shown in the below table.

Table 2: Cronbach's alpha coefficient, combined reliability and average variance extracted

Variables	Cronbach's alpha	Combined reliability	Average variance extracted (AVE)
Toxic Leadership	0/887	0/911	0/564
Organizational Citizenship Behavior	0/718	0/806	0/514
Turnover	0/797	0/786	0/556
Organizational Commitment	0/825	0/861	0/514

As can be seen, these coefficients are all higher than 0.7. Therefore, the measurement model has a good structural reliability.

Differential validity

To evaluate differential validity, it must be examined whether the average variance extracted (AVE) for a structure (latent variable) is greater or less than the square of the correlation between that structure and the other structures of the model. It shows whether a structure is different from other structures of the model or not (Davari and Rezazadeh, 2011). To make the differential validity calculation procedure more practical, the reverse can be done. So the second root of AVE is calculated. This value must be greater than the correlation value of other structures. Table (4-8) shows the calculated values. The values of the main diagonal of the table indicate the second root of AVE and other values indicate the correlation between the structures. It is observed

that all structures are in agreement with the respective conditions so it can be said that the structures have differential validity.

Table 3: Differential validity of structures (latent variables)

Structure	Toxic Leadership	Organizational Citizenship Behavior	Turnover	Organizational Commitment
Toxic Leadership	0/751			
Organizational Citizenship Behavior	-0/586	0/717		
Turnover	0/279	-0/267	0/746	
Organizational Commitment	-0/295	0/292	-0/455	0/716

A structural equation model for solving it the partial least squares (PLS) method was used must be analyzed and interpreted in two steps. First the measurement model and then the structural model were analyzed and interpreted (Sanchez and Livro, 2010). The measurement model is investigated in order to examine the weights and factor loadings of the latent variables and for the structural model the purpose is to investigate the path coefficients between the latent variables.

Model Fitness Indices

To examine the quality or validity of the model a cross validity (CV) was used, which includes CV-Communality and CV-Redundancy. CV-Communality measures the quality of the measurement model of each block. CV-Redundancy, also called Stone-Geisser's Q², measures the quality of the structural model for each endogenous block by considering the measurement model. Positive values of the indices indicate the appropriate and acceptable quality of the measurement and structural models. The results for fitness are shown in Table (4-13).

Table 4. CV-Communality indices and CV-Redundancy indices

Variable	CV Com	CV Red
Toxic Leadership	0/291	0/291
Organizational Citizenship Behavior	0/328	0/492

Turnover	0/301	0/034
Organizational Commitment	0/215	0/079

VI. Discussion and Conclusion

Table 5. Summary of hypothesis test results

	Hypothesis	Result
1	Toxic leadership has a negative and significant effect on employees' organizational citizenship behaviors.	Rejected
2	Toxic leadership has a positive and significant effect on employee turnover rate	Supported
3	Organizational commitment moderates the effect of toxic leadership on employees' organizational citizenship behaviors.	Rejected
4	Organizational commitment moderates the effect of toxic leadership on employee turnover.	Rejected

In this study, four hypotheses were analyzed using statistical methods, the results of which are given below.

The results of this study indicated that the relationship between toxic leadership and organizational citizenship behavior is not negative and significant. This means that in the study population, toxic leadership has no effect on employees' organizational citizenship behaviors. The results of this study are not consistent with the studies performed by Podsakoff et al. (2000), Zellars et al. (2002) and Rafferty and Restubog (2011). They, in their research, found a negative and significant relationship between toxic leadership and organizational citizenship behavior so that toxic leader behaviors may reduce employees' organizational citizenship behaviors. Since the average of organizational citizenship behavior was high and there was a toxic leadership in this public organization (however, its average was low), it can be said that the relationship between toxic leadership and organizational citizenship behavior was not negative. One of the reasons that this hypothesis was not supported is that the organizational citizenship behavior has been institutionalized in this organization due to the organizational culture of this public organization, so toxic leadership has limited effect on organizational citizenship behavior. Another reason for rejecting this hypothesis is the very word of toxic leadership and its components which have a negative connotation and are unfamiliar to people, so they couldn't understand and identify it easily. Such research may best be performed qualitatively (for example, by direct observation) so more accurate results will be obtained.

The results of this study showed that the relationship between toxic leadership and employee turnover is positive and significant. This means that in the study population, toxic leadership has an effect on their turnover so the employees who are attacked by toxic leaders are more prone to leave the organization. The results of this study are consistent with the restudies performed by Podsakoff et al. (2000), Zellars et al. (2002) and Rutter (quoted by Reed et al., 2015). Research has shown that employees who are subjected to toxic leadership behaviors are more likely to leave the organization. One of the reasons is that destructive behaviors of supervisors and managers may create an insecure environment for employees. Narcissism, abuse, anger, and similar behaviors threaten employees physically and mentally leading to their decreased satisfaction, self-esteem and commitment so such employees will be looking for jobs with better positions and have a higher turnover intention.

The findings of this study showed that the relationship between toxic leadership and organizational citizenship behavior with the moderating role of organizational commitment isn't negative and significant. This means that in the study population, organizational commitment does not play a moderating role in the relationship between toxic leadership and organizational citizenship behavior. The results of this research isn't in agreement with the following researches. Rayner and Cooper (1997), Tepper (2000) and Mackie (2008) in separate studies found a significant relationship between toxic leadership and organizational commitment. However, Reed et al. (2015) examined the moderating role of organizational commitment on the relationship between toxic leadership and organizational citizenship behavior and did not find this relationship significant. According to the results of the research, and the average values of variables, the averages of organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behavior are high. Although the organizational commitment was high in this public organization, it could not moderate the relationship between toxic leadership and organizational citizenship behavior ($\beta = -0.002$). One of the reasons for rejecting the hypothesis of the moderating role of organizational commitment on the relationship between toxic leadership and organizational citizenship behavior is that there are multiple departments and units and so multiple supervisors and managers in the public organization. Therefore, the respondents' responses may be less coherent. Some of the questions of the questionnaire (Toxic Leadership section) were related to the respondent's supervisor and manager, so some employees may have answered conservatively. This caused distorted results.

The results of this research indicated that the relationship between toxic leadership and employee turnover with the moderating role of organizational commitment was not positive and significant and this hypothesis was not supported. This means that in the study population, organizational commitment does not play a moderating role in the relationship between toxic leadership and turnover. The results of this research are consistent with the research performed by Reed et al. (2015). Reed et al. confirmed that the relationship is insignificant. However, Rayner and Cooper (1997), Tepper (2000) and Mackie (2008) in separate studies found a significant relationship between toxic leadership and organizational commitment. In contrast, Meyer and Allen (1991), Joolideh and Yeshodhara (2009), Afkhami Ardakani and Farahi (2012) in separate studies examined the relationship between organizational commitment and turnover and found it significant and negative. The results of the present study showed that toxic leadership has a negative and significant effect on employee turnover. Considering the average values of variables, the average organizational commitment was high. Despite high organizational commitment among employees, its moderating role was not confirmed ($\beta = 0.028$). A reason can be attributed to the undeniable mental and physical harms inflicted by toxic leader on employees. Destructive

behaviors of toxic leadership have many negative consequences, so a person who is subjected to such behaviors has a strong tendency to turnover. This negative effect is so great that the high commitment of employees could not reduce the effects of toxic leadership on turnover, so organizational commitment had no moderating role.

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