The Impact of Toxic Leadership on Job Attitudes A Study on Teaching Hospitals in Egypt

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Abstract
The objective of the research is to identify the impact of Toxic Leadership (TL) on Job Attitudes (JA) in terms of job satisfaction (JS) and Organizational Commitment (OC) at Teaching Hospitals in Egypt. The research community consists of all employees at Teaching Hospitals in Egypt. Due to time and cost constraints, the researcher relied on the sampling method to collect data for the study. The appropriate statistical methods were used to analyze the data and test the hypotheses.
The research has reached a number of results, the most important of which are: (1) TL decreases JS, employee performance, lack of motivation, and absence to work (2) TL increases intention to leave and health problems, (3) there is a negative relationship between TL and JS, (4) TL have impacts in both individual and organizational levels as well, (5) TL decreases OC, (6) TL increases stress and burn out, (7) TL has a significant and positive relationship between intention to leave while negative with OC. In other words, TL is negatively related with motivation and commitment of employees while it is positively correlated with high turnover and intention to leave behaviors of employees.
The research concluded that: (1) TL have an impact on JA in terms of JS and OC, (2) the first hypothesis of the paper looked for the significance of relationship between TL and JS. The research showed that there is a significant relationship between TL and JS, (3) the second hypothesis looked for finding whether TL has significant capacity to influence on OC. The research showed that there is significance of relationship between TL and OC, and (4) there are five dimensions of toxic leader behavior which are self-promotion, abusive supervision, unpredictability, narcissism, and authoritarianism. These dimensions have a negative impact on JS and OC.

1. Introduction

The leadership terms of authoritative and abusive are the terms that existed in the 1970s and discussions about negative leadership forms have revealed Toxic Leadership (TL) that occurs as a categorical phenomenon (Goldman, 2011; Maxwell, 2015).

TL impacts various organizations and sectors. These areas include (1) physical and mental health of employees, (2) increased dysfunctional group behaviors, (3) increased absenteeism and tardiness, (4) reduced productivity, and (5) resignation or transfers. In addition, toxic leaders possess the following characteristics: unethical or bad behavior, self-promotion, abusive and tyrannical supervision, downward hostility toward others, engages in destructive and denominational behaviors, and narcissistic and authoritative tendencies (Schmidt, 2014).

The characteristic of toxic leaders are egoist, self-centred, bad-tempered, aggressive, faithfulness, they do not intend mentoring and training the subordinates, they only care themselves and belittled the others (Mehta & Maheshwari, 2014).

The characteristics of a toxic leader in three ways. First of all, toxic leaders prevent the development of creativity through their strict mechanism. Secondly, they have no inclination for communication. Toxic leaders increase distrust by isolating people and holding the knowledge under control. Thirdly, they prevents the development of productive relationships. Therefore, people become strangers to each other (Wilson-Stark, 2003).

Toxic leaders knowingly and willfully adopt deprecating and unfavorable attitudes over employees. Toxic leaders exhibit an hostile attitude over employees. Poisoned behavior of toxic leaders feeds from managerial power. Toxical behaviors of leaders spread around the organization and poison the employees and work climate. Perception of TL bring about the employee deviance behavior and damage the individual and organizational success (Gündüz & Dedekorkut, 2014; Reyhanoğlu & Akın, 2016).

Toxic leaders provide control by using poisoned power to complex the organizational structure. Toxic leaders boost their egos and pay no mind else then themselves. They reduce employee's work fancy and productivity with their harmful behaviors and attitudes. They announce scapegoats for problems and blame others when the works go wrong in the organization. Abusive, illegal, harmful behaviors are evaluated as toxic behaviors (Hitchcock, 2015).

Toxic leaders generally belittle, berate, and bully the peers. They make out themselves very successful. They intend to show their self-image to others. They are deprive of empathy, sensitivity, humanistic and hopeless. Self promotion, abusive supervision, unpredictability, narcissism, authoritarian leadership are features of the TL model (Schmidt, 2014).

Toxic leaders try to ruin the workgroup cohesions in organizations. Their poisoned behaviors result in individual deviances in workplace (Gallus et al., 2013).

Toxic leader behaviors exhibited by supervisors or other organizational leaders decrease organizational citizenship behaviors in for-profit employees, and contribute to higher turnover (Rafferty & Restubog, 2011).

Toxic leaders torment subordinates to the detriment of the mission and the long-term health and welfare of the people in it (Reed & Olsen, 2010).

Toxic leader behaviors have been shown to undermine organizational success in for-profits and public organizations (DeAngelis, 2009).

Toxic leaders may disregard the needs and wants of outsider groups while supporting their in-group (Pelletier, 2009).

Toxic leaders can make a decision in a very short time and change any decision unexpectedly and without stating a valid reason. Toxic leaders usually do not think the results of decision, generally think that they always do the right. Also, because their behaviors are extremely irrelevant with employees and the organization, they influence the climate of the organization in a negative way (Eğinli & Bitirim, 2008).

Toxic leader need not necessarily display toxic behaviors in all situations. To add to the complexity, different toxic leaders demonstrate varying levels and types of toxicity and the impact of their toxic decisions and actions also vary to a large extent (Walton, 2007).

Toxic leaders enact destructive behaviors for employees and organizations. They intend to exhibit harmful behaviors for subordinates. Toxic leaders drain their poisoned bearings to employees. Toxic leaders override the human rights in the organizations. Although they aimed to damage followers feelings and work atmosphere, they infest the organizational success actually (Lipman-Blumen, 2005).

Toxic leaders usually exploit four basic needs and two main fears. These are the need of authority, the need of safety, the need of feeling oneself special, the need of belonging, the fear of exclusion and the fear of weakness. Toxic leaders use out-groups and scapegoats to blame for any and all problems and maintain control, and in so doing maintain power (Lipman-Blumen, 2005).

Toxic leaders play a very important role in creating and upholding a toxic work environment. A toxic leader can be described as someone that is motivated by self-interest, has an apparent lack of concern, and negatively affects organizational climate (Seeger et al., 2005).

Toxic leaders act in a wide range of destructive manners and show dysfunctional personal characteristics. Therefore, it has been stated that toxic leaders give serious and lasting damages to individuals, groups, communities and even nations which they lead (Lipman-Blumen, 2005).

Toxic leaders are punishment-oriented, and cannot separate their personal feelings from professional matters. Toxic leader behaviors range from incompetence to genocide (Kellerman, 2004).

Toxic leaders eroded esprit de corps and group morale, thus indicating that it was a group-level construct (Reed, 2004).

2. Toxic Leadership
2.1. Toxic Leadership Concept
TL as a leader who is incompatible, anxious and malevolent. Also, it is stated that this type of leaders shows characteristics that are egocentric, wants to rise over somebody else's shoulders, displays personality disabilities and gives no confidence. TL as an approach that harms the staff and as a consequence, the organization (Çelebi et al., 2015).

TL style intoxicates employee's and organization. Employees are disturbed for toxic leaders harmful behaviors (Koçel,2014).

TL is a multidimensional construct that includes elements of abusive supervision along with narcissism, authoritarianism, self-promotion, and unpredictability (Dobbs, 2014).

TL is a bad leadership type that risks the values and the norms of the organization and develops inappropriate behaviors (Aubrey, 2012).

TL behaviors directed at some group members would still impact the rest of the group, creating negative effects for all members (Pelletier,2012).

TL happens when a leader has several destructive behaviors and shows certain non-functional personal characteristics. In other words, when leaders cause serious damages to people and organizations they are toxic (Heppell 2011).

TL can devastate mission success by reducing organizational citizenship behavior and increasing turnover (Rafferty & Restubog, 2011).

TL behaviors as disenfranchising employee, ignoring ideas, marginalizing, harassment, emotional volatility, blaming others for self mistakes, treating employees job security, mocking lying, pitting group members, isolating out group members. Although TL concept looks like similar with some notions there are differences between them (Pelletier, 2010).

TL is being destructive, disturbing, and dysfunctional acts of supervision that spread among members of the workforce (Goldman, 2009).

TL includes managerial incompetence, threatening, controlling and illegal behaviors, and physical and non-physical abuse that are intentionally hostile or detrimental to both individuals and groups (Kusy & Holloway, 2009).

TL grew from major leadership theories and models, particularly the transformational leader model. In this construct, the leader brings a vision of prosperity, develops strategies and tactics to animate the vision, and identifies, develops and motivates the team that will make the organization successful in its present and future environments (Western, 2008).

TL undermines employees in many ways, stifling creativity and cutting-edge thinking, negatively impacting the organization in both the short and long term. TL remains an exasperating task primarily due to differences in perceptions about how leadership is viewed, since one subordinate might view a leader as toxic and another might view the same person as a hero (Lipman-Blumen, 2005).

TL includes a broad variety of behaviors. Some believe managerial incompetence is toxic because it undermines organizational nimbleness and effectiveness (Hogan & Kaiser, 2005). Most accept abusive and illegal behaviors as toxic. Generally, frequency and intentionality are included in the definition and hostility that directly and negatively impact individuals and groups is prevalent in the descriptions (Lipman-Blumen, 2005). Toxic behaviors are passive aggressive, identifying them as more commonly found in organizations (DeAngelis, 2009). Some definitions include those behaviors found at the nation-state and pseudo nation-state levels, including genocide (Kellerman, 2004). Underlying these behaviors, TL causes harm to employees and negatively impacts organizational success (Kusy & Holloway, 2009).

TL is conceptualized as a group-level variable. Toxic leaders focus their negative behaviors on a few particular subordinates. These behaviors impacted the whole work group (Lipman-Blumen, 2005).

2.2. Toxic Leadership Dimensions
There are five dimensions of TL. They are self-promotion, abusive supervision, unpredictability, narcissism and authoritarian leadership (Schmidt, 2008). Accordingly, it has been emphasized that self-interest and selfishness dimensions, which are named by Çelebi et al., are in accord with exploitative, narcissistic and distinguishing oneself dimension (Reyhanoğlu & Akın, 2016).

According to Reed (2004), the self-interest dimension of TL was expressed as leaders who did not believe that their subordinates were motivated to their own advantage. The characteristics of granting privileges to those who enjoy his/her advantages, being part of his or her own successes, and avoiding responsibility if they constitute a false mistake in a high leader

with a high self-interest dimension (Çelebi et al., 2015). This dimension corresponds to Schmidt's self-promotion (2008), and explains that it reduces the threat the leader will face, which will come from competitors and subordinates who define their own interests. Çelebi et al. (2015) associated narcissism, which correspond to characteristics such as inconsistency, egoism, and self-centered approach, taking into account the individual's interests and needs, with the selfish dimension. Schmitt's definition of the narcissistic dimension (2008) is similar to the dimensions of selfishness. Narcissism is defined as the lack of skill in developing empathy with others, and the diminution of others' abilities and narcissistic efforts is also closely related to leaders who have high self-esteem. The poisonous leader believes that he / she is more gifted than others and excessively rewarded (Çelebi et al., 2015).

In this study, I will depend on the five dimensions of toxic leader behavior which are self-promotion, abusive supervision, unpredictability, narcissism, and authoritarianism (Schmidt, 2008).

3. Job Attitudes

Two important aspects of JA are OC (OC) and JS (JS) (Yang & Mossholder, 2010; Chang et al., 2010; Dewettinck & Van Ameijde, 2011).

JS has a significant and positive effect on OC. Satisfaction with job itself, supervision, company policy has a significant and positive effect on affective commitment. But satisfaction with fellow workers does not have a significant effect on affective commitment. Only satisfaction with job itself has a significant and positive effect on continuance commitment. None of the other dimensions of JS has a significant effect on continuance commitment (Zehir et al., 2011).

JS has positive effect on OC. JS and its extrinsic and intrinsic dimensions have a significant effect on normative and affective commitment. But the dimensions of JS do not have a significant effect on continuance commitment. Both intrinsic and extrinsic JS have a significant effect on OC (Gunlu et al., 2010).

OC and JS are interrelated; they have diverse attitudes. OC is the better means of constancy, belonging and permanence compared to JS (Lane et al., 2010).

JS and OC are proven empirically to have a strong correlation (Riggio, 2009). OC and JS are studied factors in management literature which are the precursors of employees' performance (Bodla & Danish, 2009). OC has an impact on JS (Yang, 2009).

JS and OC are positively related (Boles et al., 2007). JS is influenced by OC (Vidal, et al., 2007).

The majority of the literature provides the evidence that JS leads to OC. OC has an impact on JS. Affective commitment has a stronger direct effect on JS than normative commitment but continuance commitment has no impact on JS (Namasivayam & Zhao, 2007).

There is a strong positive relationship between JS and normative commitment and affective commitment (Cetin, 2006).

OC and JS are two buzzwords associated with the retention of personnel in a variety of occupational settings. Nowhere are these concepts receiving more attention than in the field of corrections, where empirical links are being made between employee commitment, organizational culture, and institutional performance (Hogan, et al., 2006).

JS is significantly associated with OC and it is the most important determinant of employees' commitment to their organization (Koh & Boo, 2004). JS was found to have the greatest effect on OC. It accounted for the greater portion of the variance in OC (Lambert, 2004).

OC and JS differ mainly in the following (1) OC can be defined as the emotional responses that an employee has toward his organization; and (2) JS is the responses that an employee has toward any job. These two variables are highly interrelated as an employee may have positive feelings toward the organization, its values and objectives, but he or she may be unsatisfied with his or her job in the organization (Meyer et al., 2002).

OC should be more consistent than JS over time. JS significantly predicts OC. JS leads to OC or vice versa (Feinstein & Vondrasek, 2001). There are three relationships among OC, JS and employee turnover intentions as follows (1) JS impact on OC virtually affects employee turnover, (2) JS plays the role of a mediator between OC and turnover intention, and (3) impact of JS and OC on each other and their affect on turnover intention (Wong et al., 2001).

OC predicts JS; some contend that JS is a predictor of OC (Babakus et al., 1999). JS is positively correlated with OC (Harrison & Hubbard, 1998). OC can be regarded as a predicting factor of JS that significantly predicts OC (LaLopa, 1997).

Employees will have greater OC and greater JS when they achieved a good ethical climate with their organization. Thus, employees will look for and choose to work in the organization that matches their ethical preferences (Sims, & Kroeck, 1994).

OC is primarily a consequence, rather than an antecedent, of JS (Brown & Peterson, 1993).

The core difference between JS and OC can be stated as; "I like my job" and "I like the organization I work for". OC was antecedent to JS rather than an outcome of it. So improving commitment level may make positive behavioral changes directly and increases employee satisfaction indirectly (Bateman & Strasser, 1984).

OC and JS are differently. While JS is a kind of response to a specific job or job-related issue, OC is a more global response to an organization. Therefore, OC should generate more consistency than JS over time and lasts longer after one is satisfied with his/her job (Mowday et al., 1982).

3.1. Job Satisfaction

JS is important that its absence often leads to lethargy and reduced OC. Dissatisfied employees are more likely to quit their jobs or be absent than satisfied employees (Ilhami & Bektas 2012).

JS relates to an individual's perceptions of a job, and this perception is in turn influenced by their circumstances, including needs, values and expectations (Sheykhshabani & Beshlideh, 2011).

JS is the amount of pleasure an employee has with the job and it can differ from employee to another (Dendaas, 2004; Farsi, et al., 2010).

JS is explained as the feelings a worker has about his or her job experiences related to previous experiences, current expectations, or available alternatives (Zarea, et al., 2009).

JS draws on the nature of the job, besides the expectation of an employee from the job (Hussami, 2008).

JS is one of the most frequently measured organizational variables in both research and applied settings and that has been widely studied in organizational behavior and organizational psychology (Eric et al, 2007).

JS impacts both individuals and organizations. On the individual level, JS impacts stress (Zeytinoglu et al. 2007; Lambert, et al., 2007), and burnout (Oncel, et al., 2007). On the organizational level, however, JS impacts empowerment (Hechanova, et al., 2006), customer satisfaction (Homburg & Stock, 2004), service quality and performance (Park & Deitz, 2006), and OC (Al-Ajmi, 2006).

JS is the degree of congruence between characteristics of a job and the employee's perceived qualities. It is the extent that the working environment meets the needs and values of employees and the individual's response to that environment (Tewksbury & Higgins, 2006).

JS is a global construct or as a constellation of different dimensions to which the employee reacts affectively. It can be understood as the way employees feel about their jobs and different aspects of their jobs (Kreitner & Kinicki, 2006).

JS means personal gratification from one's work, as well as pleasure and feeling of accomplishment employees derive from performing their jobs well (Elbert & Griffin, 2005).

JS is of interest for workers in organizations and those studying them. It is a salient variable in organizational behavior research, as well as theory of organizational experience ranging from job design to supervision (Hong et al., 2005).

There are two dimensions of JS. They are internal satisfaction and external satisfaction (Judge et al., 2001; Best & Thurston, 2004):

- *Internal Satisfaction:* the opportunities to demonstrate abilities, sense of achievement obtained from work, ethical values of the work, opportunities to provide services.
- *External Satisfaction:* Job content, salary, unobstructed channels for promotion, work environment and equipment.

JS could include specific interactions related to affective behaviors including: pay, promotion, supervision, fringe benefits of employment, contingent rewards, operating conditions, coworkers, nature of work, and communication (Hallock, et al, 2004).

JS is a sign of organizational effectiveness as most employers realize that the optimal functioning of their organization depends partially on their level of JS (Saari & Judge, 2004).

JS is multidimensional, a worker may variably be satisfied with job, supervisor, pay, and workplace. A number of elements makes up JS, including salary, clarity of job responsibilities, relationship with colleagues inside and outside one's unit and organization, organizational climate, career development, opportunities for advancement, and general perceptions of work environment (Rosser, 2004).

JS is a positive emotional reaction to a particular job. It is not a unitary concept. An employee can be relatively satisfied with one aspect of job and dissatisfied with one or more other aspects (Oshagbemi, 2003; Kreitner & Kinicki, 2006).

JS is detected and assessed in accordance to one's total feeling about their job and the attitudes toward various sides or facets of their job (Ivancevich & Matteson, 2002).

JS stems from one's envision of their job under the influence of their own unique needs, values and expectations. These factors are highly esteemed by them (Sempane et al., 2002). JS is a positive (or negative) evaluative judgment one makes about one's job or job situation (Weis, 2002). JS is the reaction to a job, regarding one's targets in a job in comparison with the actual outcomes that the job provides to the individual (Rothmann & Coetzer, 2002). JS is the degree of an individual's satisfaction with the internal or external aspects of his or her job (Bhuian & Menguc, 2002).

JS is the pleasure gained from the assessment of one's job regarding the realization of job values. JS is a broad concept, it can be both intrinsic and extrinsic. If an organization gives opportunity for personal growth and accomplishment, it enhances an intrinsic motivation to employee; if an organization provides pay satisfaction or chances for promotion, employees have extrinsic motivation (Schwepker, 2001). JS means how far the employee is satisfied with his present work taking into account satisfaction of many of his needs and wants (Finn, 2001).

JS refers to an employee's general attitude toward his or her job. An individual who is satisfied with his or her job holds positive attitude toward the job (Robbins, 2000).

The two-factor theory of JS influentially explains JS. It maintains that JS has two components: intrinsic job factors and extrinsic job factors. Intrinsic job factors refer to an employee's desire for recognition, acceptance, responsibility, and advancement. Extrinsic job factors refer to satisfaction with salary, company mission and policies, and working conditions (Desselle, 1998).

JS means how much people like (satisfaction) or dislike (dissatisfaction) their jobs. JS is an extent to which one feels positively or negatively about the intrinsic and extrinsic aspects of one's job. JS is about how employees feel about various aspects of the job. JS include coworkers, appreciation, benefits, job conditions, pay, promotion, supervision, and organization's policies (Spector, 1997).

JS refers to the positive feelings that employees have towards their jobs (Schermerhorn, et al., 1997).

JS includes employee's overall affective state regarding estimation of all aspects of his or her job (Netemeyer et al., 1997).

JS has been one of the most widely studied concepts in management literature (Wilson, 1996).

Researchers explain the term JS in different perspectives: such as based on specific facets of the job (Rice, et al., 1989) while other perspectives are based on total satisfaction (Levin & Stikes, 1989), but others have used conceptualizations based on intrinsic-extrinsic distinctions (Naumann, 1993).

JS is the degree of favorableness with which employees view their work (Stewart, 1983).

JS is the feelings one has toward a job and its various aspects. It also refers to the difference between what one expects and what one actually experiences in return for the services offered (Rahim, 1982).

There are two main reasons for concern regarding JS (1) association of low levels of JS with low levels of satisfaction with life, poor mental well-being, and even poor physical health; (2) individuals get affected by JS in the workplace. This is because the negative effects of low levels of satisfaction may increase turnover, absenteeism, tardiness, decreased professional commitment, and lower quality of work (Noel, et al., 1982).

JS consists of seven components. They are the job itself, fellow workers, supervision, company policy and support, pay, promotion and advancement and customers (Chirchill et al., 1976).

JS is a pleasurable emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job or job experiences. Job satisfaction is an internal state of mind with some degree of favor and unflavored response, based on assessing the job related experiences (Locke, 1976).

3.2. Organizational Commitment

OC is a relative strength of a person's identification and involvement with the organization, as reflected in (1) acceptance of the organization's goals and values; (2) willingness to invest effort in the organization; and (3) a desire to belong to the organization (Porter et al. 1974; Mowday, et al., 1979).

OC is a multidimensional in nature, involving an employee's loyalty to the organization, willingness to exert effort on behalf of the organization, degree of goal and value congruency with the organization, and desire to maintain membership (Bateman & Strasser, 1984).

OC is a feeling of dedication to one's employing organization, willingness to work hard for that employer, and the intent to remain with that organization (Meyer & Allen, 1988).

A highly committed individual strongly believes in and accepts the organization's goals and values, willingly exerts considerable effort on behalf of the organization and strongly desires to remain a member of the organization (Dubin at al., 1975; Steer, 1977).

High level of OC represents a positive manner that could add meaning to life for employees, increased performance, reduced turnover and absenteeism for organization (Mowday, 1998).

In addition to that, High OC may blind some employees to the ethical problems in their organization (Hunt et al., 1989).

Moreover, low levels of commitment are largely dysfunctional for both the individual and the organization. The costs of commitment outweigh the advantages at high levels of commitment. So commitment may be at moderate level where both individual and organizational needs may be balanced (Randall, 1987).

OC is a multidimensional concept that provides a comprehensive insight into the link between employees and work-related behavior. OC is an employee's interest in, and affiliation to, an organization. Characteristics of OC include: (1) staunchly believing in and accepting the organization's goals and values; (2) truly serving the organization, and (3) staunch affiliation to the organization (Meyer & Allen, 1991).

OC can be described as the factor that promotes the attachment of the individual to the organization. To put it differently, higher levels of performance and effectiveness at both the individual and the organizational level will be the outcome of the high levels of effort exerted by employees with high levels of OC (Raju & Srivastava, 1994).

OC means loyalty and intention to stay with the organization, besides personal interest towards the employment (Brewer, 1996).

OC refers to employees' feeling and levels of attachment to their organizations. If an employee desires to remain in an organization, exerts effort willingly, believes in and accepts to organization's values and goals, OC can be enhanced in an organization (Barlett, 2001).

OC is very beneficial for the organization as it reduces the absenteeism rate and turns over ratio, let alone enhancing the organization's productivity (Jernigan et al., 2002).

OC can be classified into three categories. They are affective, continuance and normative. Each category is related to the other and they represent employee's relationship with organizations. All of the types of commitment have implications for the decision to continue or discontinue membership of organization (Meyer et al, 2002).

OC is also interested in the employee's willingness to leave their organization (Greenberg & Baron, 2003).

OC reflects the work attitudes of employees toward the organizations in which they work (Silverthorne, 2004).

The employee who is highly committed to the organization contributes to the organization performance. Because it is linked with absenteeism, work effort and turnover OC is very important (Joiner & Bakalis, 2006).

OC is an individual's willingness to dedicate efforts and loyalty to an organization (Jalonen, et al., 2006; Wagner, 2007). OC is important because committed employees are likely to be more willing to make personal sacrifices for the sake of the organization (Vitell, & Singhapakdi, 2007).

OC widely is described as a key factor in the relationship between individuals and organizations (Sharma & Bajpai, 2010).

OC looks like a strong magnetic force attracting one metallic object to another and indicates the degree to which an employee identifies with the organization and wants to remain within the organization in the future (Awad & Alhashemi, 2012).

OC can be classified into three categories. They are affective, continuance and normative. All categories are related to each other and they represent employee's relationship with organizations and all of the types of commitment have implications for the decision to continue or discontinue membership of organization (Meyer et al, 2002).

Employees can experience all three forms of commitment and the psychological states reflecting the three components of OC will develop as the function of quite different antecedents. They will also have different implications for work behavior (Meyer & Allen, 1991).

In this study, we follow Meyer and Allen (1991) three dimensions of OC (affective, continuous, and normative):

- *Affective commitment* refers to an employee's continuing to work for an organization thanks to emotional attachment to, involvement in, and identification with that organization (Rashid et al., 2003),
- *Continuance commitment* refers to the commitment based on the costs that are associated with leaving a specific organization (Lee et al., 2001; Greenberg & Baron, 2003).
- *Normative commitment* relates to feelings of obligation to remain with the organization, i.e. employee with a strong sense of normative commitment remain in organizations because they feel they ought to do so (Ayeni & Phopoola, 2007, Omar, et al. 2008).

4. Research Model

The proposed comprehensive conceptual model is presented in Figure (1). The diagram below shows that there is one independent variable for the study (TL). There is one dependent variable (JA). It shows the rational link among the two types of observed variables i.e. independent, and dependent variables. From the above discussion, the research model is as shown in Figure (1) below.

Figure (1)
Proposed Comprehensive Conceptual Model
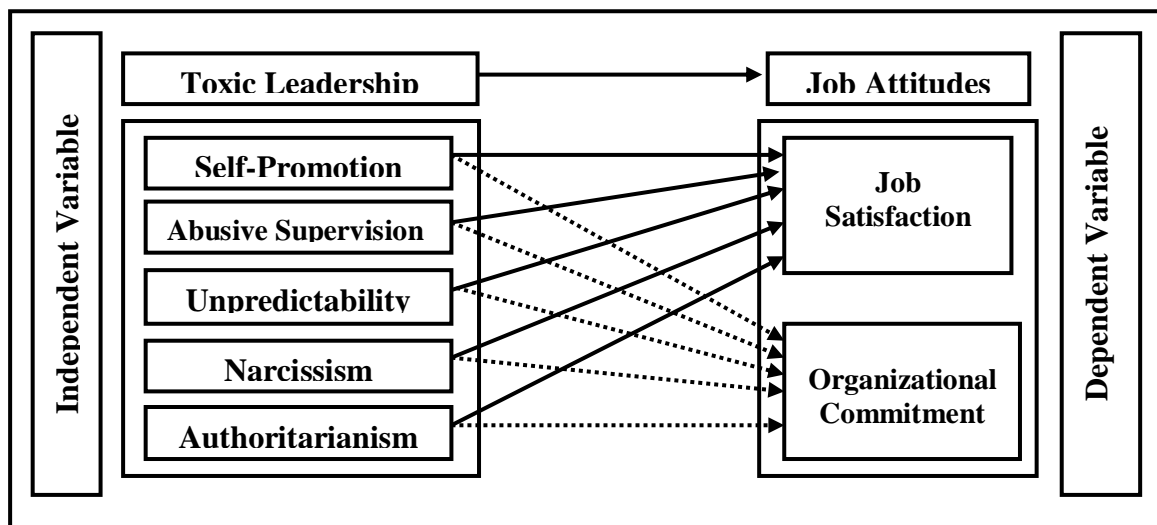
The research framework suggests that TL in an organization have an impact on JA (JS and OC). An TL as measured in this research consists of self-promotion, abusive supervision, unpredictability, narcissism, and authoritarianism (Schmidt, 2008). JS is measured in terms of the internal satisfaction and external satisfaction (Judge & Bono, 2001; Best & Thurston, 2004). OC is measured in terms of value, effort, and retention commitment (Porter et al., 1974; Trimble, 2006).

5. Research Questions

The researcher reached the research problem through two sources. The first source is to be found in previous studies, and it turns out that there is a lack in the number of literature review that dealt with the analysis of the relationship between TL and JA at at Teaching Hospitals in Egypt. This called for the researcher to test this relationship in the Egyptian environment.

Recent research has also shown that toxic leaders had an evident lack of concern for the welfare of subordinates, a personality that negatively affected organizational culture, and a belief by subordinates who felt that their superior's actions were driven primarily by selfish motives and self-interest (Reed, 2004).

There is enough evidence on the impact of TL both at organizational and individual levels. Organizational outcomes include negative effect on organizational performance (Ashforth, 1997), counterproductive work behavior (Duffy, et al., 2002), and higher turnover intention (Tate, 2009). Counterproductive behaviors tend to be attributed to perceived injustice by the employees who retaliate by inflicting harm and producing systemic damage in an organization like sabotaging operations, providing inaccurate information, and being uncooperative to co-workers. The awareness of the presence of toxic behaviors by the external workforce can also negatively affect an organization to attract qualified ethical candidates (Sutton, 2007).

In light of the review of previous studies towards TL, literature has shown that there is a positive and significant relationship between TL and employee stress (Hadadian & Zarei, 2016). The study also noted that ineffective leadership has negative impact over the employee's and organization's performance (Aboyassin & Abood, 2013).

Another study pointed out that dark leadership has a significant and positive relationship between intention to leave while negative with OC (Weaver & Yancey, 2010). One study found that TL is low and differentiate into the demographic groups of the research's sample (İzgüden, et al., 2016).

In addition, another study showed that there is a positive and significant relationship between TL and employee's burnout (Akman, 2016). The study also noted that there is a positive and significant relationship between TL and intention to leave while adverse with satisfaction, commitment and trust (Schmidt, 2008,2014). Another study pointed out that negative leadership styles increase the turnover (Roche et al, 2015). Finally, the study pointed out that there is a positive and significant relationship between abusive leadership and intention to quit (Lavoie-Tremblay et al, 2015).

In addition to this, employees who face attack on self-esteem display low self-confidence and a reduced sense of self-efficacy leading to deterioration in individual performance (Kusy & Holloway, 2009).

TL is considered to be even more damaging as the impact of toxic leaders on their subordinates' performance is greater for those who find their jobs meaningful and have a strong sense of commitment (Harris et al., 2007).

Reed (2004) stated that in a military organization, toxic leaders erode unit cohesion and reduce team spirit and under worst case scenarios, TL could even lead to mutiny and death. Other less serious outcomes include loss of trust, reduced effectiveness and commitment, misinterpretation of communication, and diminished follower well-being (Ashforth, 1997).

Finally, the relationships between TL and JA have not been rigorously tested (Goldman, 2006; Macklem, 2005; Pelletier, 2010).

The second source is the pilot study, which was conducted an interview with (30) employees at Teaching Hospitals in Egypt to identify the dimensions of TL, JS and OC. The researcher found through the pilot study several indicators notably the blurred important and vital role that could be played by TL in affecting JS and OC at Teaching Hospitals in Egypt. The research questions of this study are as follows:

Q1: What is the relationship between TL (self-promotion, abusive supervision, unpredictability, narcissism, and authoritarianism) and JS at Teaching Hospitals in Egypt?

Q2: What is the nature of the relationship between TL (self-promotion, abusive supervision, unpredictability, narcissism, and authoritarianism) and OC at Teaching Hospitals in Egypt?

6. Research Hypotheses

In the light of a review of previous studies towards JS, literature has shown that there is a direct relationship between the TL and JS.TL decreases employee's satisfaction while increases intention to leave and health problems (Lipman-Blumen, 2005; Kellerman, 2004; Liu, et al., 2012; Aboyassin & Abood, 2013; İzgüden, et al., 2016; Burns, 2017).

Health problems of employees increase with toxic leaders behaviors even as their performance and JS tend to decrease (Schmindt, 2008; 2014).

Outcomes at individuals levels include lack of motivation, sexual harassment (Chan, et al., 2008), decreased JS (Tate, 2009).

There is a negative relationship between TL and JS. There are four different satisfaction variables. They are satisfaction with the leader, the job, the pay, and the coworkers. In other words, TL would negatively impact subordinate JS (Schmidt, 2008).

TL have impacts in both individual and organizational levels as well. TL behavior contributes to organizational performance in organizational level, business behaviors that harm the purpose and higher turnover rate in a negative way. In an individual level, it results with lack of motivation, sexual harassment, decrease in JS, absence to work, increasing intention to leave work, bad performance (Mehta & Maheshwari, 2014; Schmidt, 2008).

The following hypotheses were developed to test if there is significant correlation between TL and JS.

Hypothesis 1: There will be a negative relationship between toxic leadership and job satisfaction.

TL decreases employee's commitment, while increases stress and burn out (Lipman-Blumen, 2005; Kellerman, 2004; Liu, et al., 2012; Aboyassin & Abood, 2013; İzgüden et al., 2016; Burns, 2017).

Health problems of employees increase with toxic leaders behaviors even as their performance and OC tend to decrease (Schmindt,2008; 2014).

TL has a significant and positive relationship between intention to leave while negative with OC (Weaver & Yancey, 2010).

TL is negatively related with motivation and commitment of employees while it is positively correlated with high turnover and intention to leave behaviors of employees (Reed & Bullis,2009).

As for OC, literature has shown that positive leadership styles are frequently associated with affective OC (Schaubroeck, et al., 2007), and many researchers have demonstrated empirical evidence for the negative relationship between TL and OC (Aryee, et al., 2007; Rafferty & Restubog, 2011; Tepper, et al., 2004).

OC is the attitude that causes one to continue working in an organization in spite of an abusive or difficult environment that may be attributable to the type of mission or work of the organization (Blau and Boal, 1987; Handy & Katz, 1998). It is associated with people giving greater effort to work activities without external incentives or threats (Goulet & Frank, 2002).

Nonprofit employees accept less favorable employment conditions, such as lower pay, to work for a cause to which they feel strongly committed. An inverse relationship has been found between OC and turnover (Blau & Boal, 1987; Allen & Meyer, 1990).

OC is associated with people giving greater effort to work activities (Goulet & Frank, 2002). There is an inverse relationship between OC and turnover, and a direct relationship between OCB and commitment (Meyer et al., 2002). This may suggest that nonprofit employees' commitment could influence the effect of TL, lessening the effect it has on turnover and OCB (Goulet & Frank, 2002).

Studies have also shown that abusive leadership has a positive relationship with turnover intentions and employee stress, and negative relationship with OC and JS (Rayner & Cooper, 1997).

The following hypotheses were developed to test if there is significant correlation between TL and OC.

Hypothesis 2: There will be a negative relationship between toxic leadership and organizational commitment.

7. Research Population and Sample

The population of the study included all employees at Teaching Hospitals in Egypt. This sector includes nine Hospitals. They are Ahmed Maher, El-Matrya, El-Galaa, El-Sahel, Benha, Shebin El-Kom, Damanhour, Sohag and Aswan. The researcher excludes Hospitals in Sohag and Aswan. This explains why the population of this study includes 4,883 employees. The random sampling was used for collecting the primary data as it was difficult to get all of the items of the research population, because of time limitations. The stratified random sample was used while selecting items from the different categories of employees. The following equation determines the sampling size (Daniel, 1999):

$$n= \frac{N \times (Z)^2 \times P(1-P)}{d^2(N-1) + (Z)^2 \times P(1-P)}$$

Accordingly, the sample size has become 357 employees at Teaching Hospitals in Egypt.

Table (1) Distribution of the Sample Size

Job Category	Employees	Percentage	Sample Size
1. Physicians	1926	37.50%	357 X 37.50% = 134
2. Nurses	2714	52.86%	357 X 52.86% = 189
3. Administrative Staff	495	9.64%	357 X 9.64% = 34
Total	**5135**	**100%**	**357 X 100% = 357**

Source: Personnel Department at Teaching Hospitals in Egypt, 2018

Table (2) illustrates the features of sample units at Teaching Hospitals in Egypt.

Table (2) Characteristics of Items of the Sample

Variables		Number	Percentage
1- Job Title	Physicians	120	42%
	Nurses	165	58%
	Total	**285**	**100%**
2- Sex	Male	115	40%
	Female	170	60%
	Total	**285**	**100%**
3- Marital Status	Single	85	30%
	Married	200	70%
	Total	**285**	**100%**
4- Age	Under 30	115	40%
	From 30 to 45	120	42%
	Above 45	50	18%
	Total	**285**	**100%**
5- Educational Level	University	185	65%
	Post Graduate	100	35%
	Total	**285**	**100%**
6- Period of Experience	Less than 5 years	90	32%
	From 5 to 10	80	28%
	More than 10	115	40%
	Total	**285**	**100%**

8. Data Collection

The researcher was used the questionnaire for collecting data. The questionnaire is interested in TL and JA at Teaching Hospitals in Egypt. The survey included three questions. The first is related to TL, the second detects JA, the third relates to the demographic variables of employees at Teaching Hospitals in Egypt. About 357 questionnaires were distributed. 285 usable questionnaires. The response rate was 79%. The research depend on the Likert scale which ranging from (5) "full agreement," (4) for "agree," (3) for "neutral," (2) for "disagree," and (1) for "full disagreement."

9. Data Analysis and Hypotheses Testing
9.1. Coding of variables

The main variables, sub-variables, and methods of measuring variables can be explained in the following table:

Table (3)
Description and Measuring of the Research Variables

Main Variables		Sub-Variables	Number of Statement	Methods of Measuring Variables
Independent Variable	Toxic Leadership	Self-Promotion	3	Schmidt, 2008
		Abusive Supervision	3	
		Unpredictability	3	
		Narcissism	3	
		Authoritarianism	3	
Total TL			**15**	
Dependent Variable	Job Attitudes	Job Satisfaction	10	Judge & Bono, 2001; Best & Thurston, 2004
		Organizational Commitment	12	Porter et al., 1974; Trimble, 2006
Total JA			**22**	

9.2. Descriptive Analysis

Table (4): shows the mean and standard deviations of TL and JA

Variables	The Dimension	Mean	Standard Deviation
TL	Self-Promotion	3.61	0.791
	Abusive Supervision	3.72	0.821
	Unpredictability	3.33	0.938
	Narcissism	3.47	1.01
	Authoritarianism	3.38	1.20
	Total Measurement	**3.50**	**0.612**
JA	Job Satisfaction	3.15	0.939
	Organizational Commitment	4.21	1.01
	Total Measurement	**3.73**	**0.783**

Source: SPSS, V.23, 2015

According to Table (4), among the various facets of LL, most of the respondents identified the presence of self-promotion (M=3.61, SD=0.791), abusive supervision (M=3.72, SD=0.821), unpredictability (M=3.33, SD=0.938), narcissism (M=3.47, SD=1.01), authoritarianism (M=3.38, SD=1.20), and total TL (M=3.50, SD=612).

The second issue examined was the different facets of JA. Most of the respondents identified the presence of JS (M=3.15, SD=0.939), OC (M=4.21, SD=1.01), and total OR (M=3.73, SD=0.783).

9.3. Evaluating Reliability

Data analysis was conducted. All scales were first subjected to reliability analysis. Cronbach's Alpha was used to assess the reliability of the scales. Item analysis indicated that dropping any item from the scales would not significantly raise the alphas.

Table (5): Reliability of TL and JA

Variables	Dimension	Number of Statement	ACC
TL	Self-Promotion	3	0.762
	Abusive Supervision	3	0.641
	Unpredictability	3	0.931
	Narcissism	3	0.687
	Authoritarianism	3	0.880
	Total Measurement	**15**	**0.821**
JA	Job Satisfaction	10	0.885
	Organizational Commitment	12	0.969
	Total Measurement	**22**	**0.926**

Source: The researcher based on the outputs of SPSS, V.23, 2015

To assess the reliability of the data, Cronbach's Alpha test was conducted. Table (5) shows the reliability results for TL and JA. All items had alphas above 0.70 and were therefore excellent.

Table (5) presents the reliability of TL. The reliabilities of self-promotion, abusive supervision, unpredictability, narcissism, and authoritarianism are generally higher. The 15 items of TL are reliable because the Cronbach's Alpha is 0.821. The self-promotion, which consists of 3 items, is reliable because the Cronbach's Alpha is 0.762. The 3 items related to abusive supervision are reliable because the Cronbach's Alpha is 0.641 while the 3 items of unpredictability are reliable because the Cronbach's Alpha is 0.931. The narcissism, which consists of 3 items, is reliable because the Cronbach's Alpha is 0.687. The 3 items related to authoritarianism, are reliable because the Cronbach's Alpha is 0.880. Thus, the internal consistency of TL can be acceptable.

According to Table (5), the 22 items of JA are reliable because the Cronbach's Alpha is 0.926. The JS, which consists of 10 items, is reliable because the Cronbach's Alpha is 0.885. The 12 items related to OC are reliable because the Cronbach's Alpha is 0.969. Thus, the internal consistency of JA can be acceptable.

9.4. The Means, St. Deviations, and Correlation among Variables

Table (6): Means, Standard Deviations and Intercorrelations among Variables

Variables	Mean	Std. Deviation	LL	OR
Toxic Leadership	3.50	0.612	1	
Job Attitudes	3.73	0.783	0.357^{**}	1

Source: The researcher based on the outputs of SPSS, V.23, 2015

Table (6) shows correlation coefficients between the research variables, and results indicate the presence of significant correlation between variables (TL and JA). The level of TL is high (Mean=3.50; SD=0.612), while JA is (Mean=3.73; SD=0.783).

9.5. The Correlation between TL and JA

The relationship between TL and JA at Teaching Hospitals in Egypt is presented in the following table:

Table (7): Correlation Matrix between TL and JA

Research Variables	1	2	3	4	5	6
Self-Promotion	1					
Abusive Supervision	0.933^{**}	1				
Unpredictability	0.640^{**}	0.549^{**}	1			
Narcissism	0.050^{**}	0.039^{**}	$0.0.32^{**}$	1		
Authoritarianism	0.067^{**}	0.061^{**}	0.034^{**}	0.911^{**}	1	
Job Attitude	0.428^{**}	0.447^{**}	0.436^{**}	0.011^{**}	0.008^{**}	1

Note: ** Correlation is significant at 0.01 level

Source: The researcher based on the outputs of SPSS, V.23, 2015

Based on the Table (7), correlation between TL (self-promotion) and JA is 0.428. For TL (abusive supervision) and JA, the value is 0.447 whereas TL (unpredictability) and JA shows correlation value of 0.436. Also, correlation between TL (narcissism) and JA is 0.011. For TL (authoritarianism) and JA, the value is 0.008. The overall correlation between TL and JA is 0.357.

9.6. Toxic Leadership and Job Satisfaction

The relationship between TL and job satisfaction is determined. The first hypothesis to be tested is:

H1: There will be a negative relationship between toxic leadership and job satisfaction.

Table (8): MRA Results for TL and Job Satisfaction

The Variables of TL	Beta	R	R^2
1. Self-Promotion	0.159	0.348	0.121
2. Abusive Supervision	0.510^{**}	0.388	0.150
3. Unpredictability	0.055	0.232	0.053
4. Narcissism	0.031	0.045	0.002
5. Authoritarianism	0.099	0.048	0.002
▪ MCC		0.399	
▪ DC		0.159	
▪ Calculated F		10.545	
▪ Degree of Freedom		5, 279	
▪ Indexed F		3.01	
▪ Level of Significance		0.000	
** P < .01			

Source: The researcher based on the outputs of SPSS, V.23, 2015

As Table (8) proves, the MRA resulted in the R of 0.399 demonstrating that the 5 independent variables of TL construe JA significantly. The five independent variables of TL can explain 16% of the total factors in JA level. Hence, 84% are explained by the other factors. Therefore, there is enough empirical evidence to reject the null hypothesis.

9.7. Toxic Leadership and Organizational Commitment

The relationship between TL and organizational commitment is determined. The second hypothesis to be tested is:

H2: There will be a negative relationship between toxic leadership and organizational commitment.

Table (9) MRA Results for TL and Organizational Commitment

The Variables of TL	Beta	R	R^2
1. Self-Promotion	0.197	0.339	0.114
2. Abusive Supervision	0.296[*]	0.334	0.111
3. Unpredictability	0.403[**]	0.441	0.194
4. Narcissism	0.046	0.050	0.002
5. Authoritarianism	0.012	0.049	0.002
▪ MCC		0.460	
▪ DC		0.212	
▪ Calculated F		14.975	
▪ Degree of Freedom		5, 279	
▪ Indexed F		3.01	
▪ Level of Significance		0.000	
** P < .01			

Source: The researcher based on the outputs of SPSS, V.23, 2015

As Table (9) proves, the MRA resulted in the R of 0.460. This means that TL has been significantly explained by the 5 independent variables of TL. The five independent variables of TL justified only 21% of the total factors in JA level. Hence, 79% are explained by the other factors. Therefore, there is enough empirical evidence to reject the null hypothesis.

10. Results

The present study on analyzing the relationship between TL and JA at Teaching Hospitals in Egypt has revealed the following results:

1. TL had negative direct effects on JS and OC. The results are consistent with research conducted by (Bowling & Michel, 2011; Folger & Cropanzano, 2001).
2. The results revealed that TL significantly and negatively influences employees' job satisfaction. This is consistent with the finding that TL decreases employee's satisfaction. This result is consistent with a study carried out by (Lipman-Blumen, 2005; Kellerman, 2004; Liu, et al., 2012; Aboyassin & Abood, 2013; İzgüden, et al., 2016; Burns, 2017).
3. Health problems of employees increase with toxic leaders behaviors even as their JS tend to decrease. This result is consistent with a study carried out by Schmindt, 2014.
4. There is a negative relationship between TL and JS. This result is consistent with a study carried out by Schmidt, 2008.
5. TL have impacts in individual level, it results with lack of motivation, sexual harassment, decrease in JS. This result is consistent with a study carried out by (Mehta & Maheshwari, 2014; Schmidt, 2008).
6. This study concluded that the TL was negatively related with OC. Overall findings from this study suggested that TL decreases employee's commitment, while increases stress and burn out. This result is consistent with a study carried out by (Lipman-Blumen, 2005; Kellerman, 2004; Liu, et al., 2012; Aboyassin & Abood, 2013; İzgüden et al., 2016; Burns, 2017).
7. TL has a significant and negative with OC. This result is consistent with a study carried out by Weaver & Yancey, 2010.
8. TL is negatively related with OC. This result is consistent with a study carried out by Reed & Bullis,2009.
9. Many researchers have demonstrated empirical evidence for the negative relationship between TL and OC. This result is consistent with a study carried out by (Aryee, et al., 2007; Rafferty & Restubog, 2011; Tepper, et al., 2004).
10. Abusive leadership has a negative relationship with OC and JS. This result is consistent with a study carried out by Rayner & Cooper, 1997).

11. Conclusion

The current study focuses on a specific area of TL, namely how the TL effects JA. In the literature review, TL and JA were introduced and subsequently the paper aimed at finding the impact of TL on JA.

The first hypothesis of the paper looked for the significance of relationship between TL and JS. Results of the research showed that there is a significant relationship between TL and JS. The second Hypothesis looked for finding whether TL has significant capacity to influence on OC. The result of the regression analysis showed that there is significance of relationship between TL and OC. To sum up, we can claim that TL has significant effect on JA in terms of JS and OC.

This investigation provided the first empirical data on the impact of TL on JA. Using a validated measure of TL to investigate the relationship between TL and JS, I found evidence to support that there is a negative relationship between TL and JS. Also, there is a negative relationship between TL and OC.

In addition to that, the five dimensions of toxic leader behavior (self-promotion, abusive supervision, unpredictability, narcissism, and authoritarianism) have a negative impact on JA in terms of JS and OC.

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