



Investigating toxic leadership's influence on employee turnover in a clinical research organisation: The mediating role of organisational culture

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DECLARATION

I S.D.Z. Jantjies, hereby declares that this study “**Investigating toxic leadership’s influence on employee turnover in a clinical research organisation: The mediating role of organisational culture**” is my original work and that all the sources I have used or cited have been appropriately indicated and acknowledged using complete references.

S.D.Z Jantjies
Signature

26/01/2024
Date

DEDICATION

This dissertation is dedicated to my son and mother's unwavering support and boundless love. To my brothers (Vuyo Jantjies and Bonakele Jantjies) and friends, your encouragement has been the foundation of this academic journey. Your belief in my abilities has been a guiding light, propelling me forward even in moments of doubt.

I dedicate this work to myself for working hard and making many sacrifices to complete this dissertation. To my colleagues and friends, Mapaseka Motseki, Palesa Folotsi, Thato Williams, Mosimanegape Mofosi and Teboho Masupha, whose camaraderie has brought joy to the challenging days and made the celebrations even sweeter. Your understanding and companionship have been a source of strength.

In memory of my late father, Isaac Mvuleni Jantjies, whose influence continues to shape my thinking and whose absence is deeply felt yet serves as a reminder of the importance of time and the pursuit of meaningful endeavours.

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ABSTRACT

This research study aimed to explore the impact of toxic leadership on employees' intention to leave an organisation, with a specific focus on the role of organisational culture as a mediating factor. The dissertation sought to understand employees' perceptions of toxic leadership behaviours, organisational culture's favourability, and turnover intentions. It also aimed to identify perceived differences in these factors across gender, age, and job levels. Toxic leadership can lead to increased employee turnover rates, which is one of the most detrimental outcomes. Therefore, it is imperative to understand and address the detrimental effects of toxic leadership on employee retention and organisational well-being within the framework of the Clinical Research Organisation.

The study adopted a quantitative approach grounded in the positivist paradigm and utilised a survey design. A total of 254 participants from a clinical research organisation participated in the study. Data analysis involved descriptive and inferential statistical methods, including t-tests, Spearman's correlations, structural equation modelling, and multiple regression.

Key findings indicated that narcissistic behaviour was the most perceived form of toxic leadership. Organisational culture was more favourable for male employees, while female employees showed a higher turnover intention. Significant differences in the perception of toxic leadership and organisational culture were noted across gender, age, and job levels. However, no direct connection was found between turnover intention and toxic leadership concerning organisational culture. Additionally, the study revealed that organisational culture did not mediate the relationship between toxic leadership and turnover intention. Instead, dimensions such as abusive supervision and self-promotion emerged as significant predictors of turnover intention, with abusive supervision showing a negative association.

The study concluded with recommendations for leadership training programs, cultural interventions, and communication strategies to enhance employee satisfaction and engagement. The unexpected findings highlighted the need for further research into the relationship between organisational culture and employee turnover intention.

Keywords: toxic leadership, organisational culture, turnover intention.

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ACRONYMS AND ABBREVIATIONS

AMOSTM	Analysis of Moment Structures
CFI	Comparative Fit Index
CRO	Contract Research Organisations
ESI	Emotional-social intelligence
HRM	Human Resources Management
MBA	Master of Business Administration
NQF	National Qualifications Framework
OC	Organisational Culture
OCP	Organisational Culture profile
OCS	Organisational Culture Scale
OST	Organisational Support Theory
POPIA	Protection of Personal Information Act
RMSEA	Root Mean Square Error of Approximation
SA	South Africa
SD	Standard deviation
SEM	Structural Equation Modelling
SPSS	Statistical Package for the Social Sciences
TL	Toxic Leadership
TI	Turnover Intention
TLI	Tucker-Lewis Index

CHAPTER 1: NATURE AND SCOPE OF THE STUDY

1.1 INTRODUCTION

Leadership and management are crucial in achieving organisational objectives, coordinating staff, and allocating resources to enhance productivity and performance. To accomplish the desired aims and objectives of the organisation, managers and leaders should organise and direct employees through this managerial process (Schmid *et al.*, 2018:2; Green & LeBreton, 2013:1310). Previous literature has emphasised the importance of leadership and the qualities a successful leader should possess to be an effective leader (Kiliç, & Günsel, 2019:51). Several of these studies in literature concentrated on positive leadership styles, such as democratic, transformational or servant leadership (Zakeer *et al.*, 2016:2; Zaabi *et al.*, 2017:274). Later in the literature, authors started to focus on destructive or harmful leadership styles and their adverse effects on the organisation and employees (Schmid *et al.*, 2018:2). According to Schmid *et al.* (2018:2) negative behaviours have a more significant impact on employees' attitudes and behaviours than positive behaviours. As a result, a bad leader has a more significant negative impact on their employees than a good or positive leader. Therefore, the effects of toxic or damaging leadership styles on organisations and employees are the focus of these most recent studies. Accordingly, this leadership style raises health issues, burnout, stress, turnover intention, and organisational performance while decreasing employee satisfaction, productivity, creativity, motivation organisational commitment, and work performance (Thin *et al.*, 2021:1; Kiliç & Günsel, 2019:51; Singh *et al.*, 2018:8; Oni & Fotok, 2017:118).

This chapter provides a comprehensive background for the study by highlighting the importance of leadership in the pharmaceutical and healthcare industries, specifically in Contract Research Organisations (CROs). The negative effects of toxic leadership, which can lead to increased turnover intention, are also discussed, emphasising the need to understand this phenomenon in the unique setting of CROs in South Africa.

The study aims to investigate the influence of toxic leadership on employee turnover intention and the potential mediating role of organisational culture within CROs in South Africa. The chapter identifies the primary problem statement and presents research objectives and questions, research paradigm, research method, research design, study's target population, sampling method and size, data collection instruments and data collection method.

Additionally, the chapter discusses statistical data analysis, reliability of the measuring instruments, field of study, demarcation/delimitation of the study, definitions and key terms, ethical considerations, contribution of the study, limitations of the study and an outline of the dissertation.

1.2 BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY

Clinical Research Organisations (CROs) play a pivotal role in the pharmaceutical and healthcare industry by conducting clinical trials, collecting essential data, and ensuring the safety and efficacy of new drugs and medical interventions (Kandi & Vadakedath, 2023). The success of CROs is inherently tied to the performance and commitment of their employees, who work in an environment characterised by strict regulations, complex procedures, and critical decision-making (Kandi & Vadakedath, 2023).

In this context, leadership within CROs plays a significant role in shaping the work environment, employee morale and overall organisational effectiveness. Leadership styles that turn toward toxicity, such as abusive supervision, authoritarianism or bullying behaviour, can have detrimental effects on employees and, ultimately, on the organisation itself (Schmidt, 2008; Schmidt, 2014). Toxic leadership can manifest in various forms, including bullying, favouritism, harassment, micromanagement, and a lack of support or recognition (George, 2023:3).

One of the critical consequences of toxic leadership is an increase in employee turnover intention (Hattab *et al.*, 2021:4). When employees experience toxic leadership, they often become disengaged, demotivated, and dissatisfied with their jobs, leading to a desire to leave the organisation (Wolor *et al.*, 2022:2). High turnover rates within CROs can be particularly problematic due to the specialised nature of the work, which demands

expertise and experience. Therefore, it is essential to understand the factors contributing to employee turnover intention in this context.

Understanding the influence of toxic leadership and the role of organisational culture in mitigating its effects on CROs is paramount. It has practical implications for human resource management, leadership development and organisational policies. By identifying the factors that contribute to employee turnover intention and the potential buffers against toxic leadership, CROs can improve employee retention, foster a healthier work environment, and, in turn, enhance the quality and reliability of clinical research activities.

In conclusion, this background sets the stage for the research study to investigate the complex interplay between toxic leadership, employee turnover intention, and the mediating effect of organisational culture within the unique context of Clinical Research Organisations in South Africa. The study aims to shed light on employees' challenges and contribute to the broader understanding of leadership dynamics in specialised industries.

1.3 RATIONALE AND SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

In literature, numerous studies have examined the factors that lead to turnover intentions, such as job satisfaction, organisational commitment, and work-life balance (Bello, 2021:1110; Martin & Roodt, 2021; Fayyazi & Aslani, 2015:33). There is, however, limited recent research about studies that address the factors that might influence turnover intentions such as the role of leadership styles, particularly toxic leadership styles, which may influence turnover intentions. Studying employee turnover intention resulting from toxic leadership style is significant because it provides organisations with insights into the negative consequences of toxic leadership behaviour (Schmidt, 2014). By addressing this behavioural issue, organisations can improve employee retention, enhance workplace culture, and ultimately create a healthier and more productive work environment (Brunges & Foley-Brinza, 2014:670).

Therefore, the purpose of this study is to investigate, using organisational culture as a mediator, the relationship between turnover intentions and toxic leadership in the selected clinical research organisation in South Africa. The results of this study are expected to help leaders, managers, and top management better understand their attitudes towards their employees/subordinates and their part in shaping the organisation's culture. In

addition, the results will help organisations recognise and address behaviours and characteristics that can have far-reaching negative consequences. Furthermore, it will encourage organisations to initiate toxic leadership behaviour awareness programmes. Even though the study's findings cannot be generalised, the managerial implications and future recommendations may apply to all organisations.

1.4 PROBLEM STATEMENT

In contemporary workplaces, leadership dynamics play a pivotal role in shaping the overall work environment and, consequently, employee behaviours (Tsai, 2011:2). One critical aspect of leadership, which has garnered increasing attention, is the phenomenon of toxic leadership characterised by detrimental behaviours and practices displayed by leaders. These toxic leadership behaviours, such as abusive supervision, authoritarian leadership, narcissism, self-promotion, and unpredictability, can significantly impact employees' attitudes and behaviours within organisations (Schmidt, 2014).

One of the most concerning outcomes of toxic leadership is its potential to contribute to higher employee turnover rates (Singh *et al.*, 2018:8). High turnover not only disrupts organisational stability but also could incur substantial costs in terms of recruitment, training, and productivity loss (Al-Suraihi *et al.*, 2021:3). Understanding the relationship between toxic leadership and employee turnover intention is thus a pressing concern for both scholars and practitioners.

However, the literature reveals that the influence of toxic leadership on employee turnover intention is unlikely to be uniform across different organisational contexts (Bakkal *et al.*, 2019; Brouwers & Paltu, 2020; Naeem & Khurram, 2020; Hattab *et al.*, 2021). It is well known that organisational culture, which is described as the common beliefs, values, and customs inside a company, has a mediating effect on a range of organisational operations and results (Ghosh & Srivastava, 2014:584). However, there is still a lack of research in the South African context regarding how much organizational culture can either lessen or increase the effect that toxic leadership has on the intention of employee turnover.

While the detrimental impact of toxic leadership on employee turnover intention is well-documented in the literature (Schmidt, 2008; Schmidt, 2014; Paltu & Brouwers, 2020:2), there is a research gap when it comes to its effects within the Clinical Research Industry

in South Africa, where the nature of work is unique and involves high stakes. Additionally, the role of organisational culture in mediating the relationship between toxic leadership and employee turnover intention to leave has received no attention in the context of the Clinical Research Industry in South Africa. Therefore, there is a need for a comprehensive investigation into the interplay between toxic leadership, employee turnover intention, and the organisational culture in clinical research organisations to inform strategies for improving employee retention and ensuring the integrity of clinical research outcomes.

The problem at hand is the lack of a comprehensive understanding of how toxic leadership behaviours affect employee turnover intention within different organisational contexts, specifically in a selected South African Clinical Research Organisation. Toxic leadership behaviours include abusive supervision, authoritarian leadership, narcissism, self-promotion, and unpredictability. Furthermore, there is a significant gap in the literature regarding the impact of organisational culture in mediating the effects of toxic leadership on employee turnover intention in this South African Clinical Research Organisation.

Therefore, this research's primary objective is to examine toxic leadership's impact on employee turnover intention within a selected clinical research organisation (CRO). Additionally, it aims to investigate the mediating role of organisational culture in this relationship. By exploring these aspects, the study intends to contribute to understanding the unique challenges faced by employees in the specific CRO and provide insights that can assist in mitigating turnover intention. By elucidating the complex dynamics between toxic leadership, organisational culture and employee turnover intention, this research strives to provide valuable insights for organisations seeking to mitigate toxic leadership's adverse effects and cultivate a healthy workplace environment. Additionally, the findings of this study may inform leadership development initiatives and human resource strategies to foster positive leadership behaviours and reduce turnover rates.

1.5 RESEARCH OBJECTIVES AND QUESTIONS

This study's primary objective is to investigate toxic leadership's influence on turnover intention and the mediator role of organisational culture.

The secondary objectives are to:

- Measure employees' perceived levels of toxic leadership, turnover intention and culture.
- Establish the differences in toxic leadership, organisational culture and turnover intention among gender, age groups and post levels.
- Establish if there is a relationship between toxic leadership, organisational culture and turnover intention.
- Establish if organisational culture mediates the relationship between toxic leadership and turnover intention.
- Determine which toxic leadership dimension, namely abusive supervision, authoritarian leadership, self-promotion, unpredictability, unprofessional behaviours or narcissism, is the best predictor of turnover intention.

Based on the problem statement and objectives, the following primary research question was formulated:

- What is toxic leadership's influence on turnover intention?

The secondary research questions are: What are employees' perceived levels of toxic leadership, turnover intention and organisational culture?

- Are there differences in toxic leadership, organisational culture and turnover intention among gender, age groups and post levels?
- What is the relationship between toxic leadership, organisational culture, and turnover intention?
- Does organisational culture mediate the relationship between toxic leadership and turnover intention?
- What toxic leadership dimension, namely abusive supervision, authoritarian leadership, self-promotion, unpredictability, unprofessional behaviours or narcissism, is the best predictor of turnover intention?

1.6 RESEARCH PARADIGM

The paradigm that underpinned this study is positivist. Rehman & Alharthi (2015:53) state that positivism holds that reality exists apart from humans and is not facilitated by human

sense but governed by unchanging laws. The positivist paradigm was considered appropriate for this research study as it helped explain and understand how toxic leadership behaviour could influence employee turnover intention in an organisational context.

1.7 RESEARCH METHOD

The quantitative research approach was employed for this research study. According to Bryman (2012:75), a quantitative research method is one in which the researcher seeks to discover the cause-and-effect relationship between the independent and dependent variables. In this research study, data was collected, analysed, and interpreted by following the quantitative research procedures (*Saunders et al.*, 2016:53). The positivist paradigm was considered appropriate for this research study as it guided the investigation of the influence of toxic leadership on employee turnover intention in the Clinical Research Industry, South Africa.

1.8 RESEARCH DESIGN

The survey research design adopted for this research study was employed to gather structured data and information from a sample of interest (employees who work for a clinical research organisation in South Africa) to answer the research questions of this study. The purpose of using a survey research design for this research study was to understand and gather respondents' attitudes, opinions, behaviours and characteristics. Furthermore, the survey research design allowed the researcher to identify the patterns, relationships and trends within the data obtained. The researcher aimed to use this research approach to generalise the findings of this study to the rest of the study's population.

1.9 STUDY'S TARGET POPULATION

The people from whom the research study will be conducted, and the conclusions are drawn make up the target population (Urdan, 2011:133). This study targeted one clinical research organisation in the South African. Therefore, the data was collected from one of the clinical research organisations (preferred to remain anonymous) in South Africa. The target population was employees who occupy the lower level and managers/supervisors

(these occupations were chosen because individuals occupying these positions have someone to guide them, lead them and report to them). Directors, executives, and higher management were excluded.

1.10 SAMPLING METHOD AND SIZE

The sampling method is selecting samples from a larger population for analysis (Cooper, 2014:343). Although the study is quantitative, purposive sampling was used to sample a clinical research organisation of choice for this study. Purposive sampling is a type of non-probability sampling. According to Valerio *et al.* (2016:146), purposive sampling comprises the deliberate selection of a specific group of people with the qualities needed for the study. The purposive sampling allowed the researcher to create a sample representing the total population of interest. The researcher sampled one clinical research organisation from the rest of the target population for this study. This will allow the researcher to achieve generalisability and make probabilistic predictions (Antwi & Hamza, 2015:221). The concept of generalisability refers to the idea that the findings of a study will reveal something about a larger group than the sample from which the results were generated (Antwi & Hamza, 2015:221; Bryman, 2012:176).

Bryman (2012:197) defines sample size as the study's total number of observations or participants. Due to the small population, a census was done. A particular clinical research organisation (preferred to remain anonymous) was sampled, and data was collected from 254 participants from a sample population (the sample size) of 650 employees who work for the organisation. The employees who took part in this research study received links to an electronic survey from the researcher.

1.11 DATA COLLECTION INSTRUMENTS

A measuring instrument enables the researcher to distinguish slight differences in the trait under the research question among individuals and identify distinct variations in levels (Bryman, 2012:164). In this research study, the researcher used scales previously developed and validated by other researchers. The main variables of this study include toxic leadership, turnover intention, and organisational culture as mediator. The toxic leadership scale was developed and validated by Schmidt (2008:107 - 113) to understand the toxic leadership concepts discussed in the literature. Roodt (2004) developed and

validated the turnover intention scale to measure employees' turnover intentions. Lastly, the organisational culture was developed by Ghosh & Srivastava (2014:592) to measure organisational culture. These scales served as an instrument to collect quantitative data from participants.

1.12 DATA COLLECTION METHOD

In quantitative research, survey research is an approach that a researcher uses to set predefined structured questions to a sample or entire population to describe the characteristics of a larger group or gain some general details about the whole population of interest (Sutton & Austin, 2015:226). In this research study, data was collected via a survey form from selected employees working for a particular clinical research organisation in South Africa that was sampled for this study to gain general knowledge regarding the relationship between toxic leadership and employee turnover. The survey was created on Google Forms, and the survey link was created. Data was collected only from participants who consented to participate in this research study (refer to Appendix A).

To assess employee attitudes, the toxic leadership and organisational culture scales were formatted as a 5-point Likert scale, with responses ranging from 1 (Strongly Agree) to 5 (Strongly Disagree). For the turnover intention scale, the questionnaires were formatted as a 5-point scale with responses ranging from 1 (Never) to 5 (Always) (refer to Appendix C).

1.13 STATISTICAL DATA ANALYSIS

The study utilised various statistical techniques to analyse the data. These included descriptive statistics such as the mean, standard deviation, and inferential statistics. The reliability of the constructs was determined using Cronbach's alpha coefficients. The study also used independent tests to analyse differences among genders, age groups, and post-levels. Spearman correlations (r) were used to determine the relationships between the constructs, while Cohen's d was used to measure the effect size of differences between subgroups. Structural Equation Modelling (SEM) was used to determine the mediating role of organizational culture. Lastly, multiple regression analysis was done to determine which independent variables predict the dependent variables.

1.14 RELIABILITY OF THE MEASURING INSTRUMENTS

To ensure the reliability of the research instruments, measures were taken. In a quantitative study, reliability refers to the measuring instruments' ability to produce a similar result used in a different setting (Bryman, 2012:169). These are used to assess the quality of other research conducted. To ensure the internal consistency of the research instrument (to determine whether the scales used in this study are reliable) Cronbach's alpha was used (Bryman, 2014:175). The scales were previously validated, and the results were as follows:

- **Toxic leadership scale**

Schmidt (2014:100) tested and found that the toxic leadership scale was reliable with a Cronbach's alpha coefficient of 0.93 for abusive supervision, 0.89 for authoritarian leadership, 0.88 for narcissism, 0.91 for self-promotion and 0.92 for unpredictability.

- **Organisational culture scale**

Ghosh and Srivastava (2014:593) tested the scales and found that the scale was reliable, with an overall Cronbach's alpha coefficient of 0.862. The results demonstrated construct validity because of the scales' reliability measure (Ghosh & Srivastava, 2014:593).

- **Turnover intention scale**

Bothma and Roodt (2013:11) tested the 6-item turnover intention scale and found that the scales are reliable with a Cronbach's alpha coefficient of 0.80.

1.15 FIELD OF STUDY

The field of this study is leadership and management with a focus on toxic leadership and the perceived toxic leadership behaviours that cause employee dissatisfaction and, eventually, employee intentions to leave the organisation to seek a better work environment. The focus of this study was on the effect of the dimensions of toxic leadership on employee turnover intentions.

1.16 DEFINITIONS AND KEY TERMS

- **Leadership/manager**

Leadership is the act of directing a group of people or an organisation (Baloyi, 2020:3). A manager is an individual who is responsible for directing or controlling an organisation or group of employees/people (Baloyi, 2020:3). These key terms have similar definitions; hence, they are used interchangeably in this study.

- **Employee/Subordinate**

An employee is a person who is paid to work for another person or an organisation. A Subordinate is a member of an organisation who is under the direction or control of another (Dierendonck *et al.*, 2004:165). These key terms have similar definitions; hence, they are used interchangeably in this study.

- **Organisation**

There are different definitions of organisation in different contexts: the organisation in management and business organisation. An organisation is a group of individuals, large or small, who work together to achieve a common goal under the direction of leadership, while a business organisation is an entity that carries out commercial enterprise (Paltu & Brouwers, 2020:1). Since this study is based on how leaders/managers treat employees, the term "organisation" will be used in the context of the organisation in management.

- **Organisational culture**

Organisational culture is made up of shared social behaviour or values of a particular people, society, or social group (Paltu & Brouwers, 2020:1).

- **Turnover intention**

An employee's "turnover intention" is their decision to switch employers (Omar *et al.*, 2015:2) voluntarily. The turnover intention in the context of "withdrawal of an employee from the organisation" was used in this study.

1.17 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

In research, ethical consideration is a set of standards that directs the research procedures and designs (Cacciattolo, 2015:55). These ethical standards address ethical issues such as the requirement of informed consent, safety, honesty, anonymity and data storage, the participant's right of access to research data and the obligation of confidentiality for all research participants, including the researcher. The goal of ethical research is to keep participants safe from harm and to keep them from experiencing unnecessary stress (Cacciattolo, 2015:55). T

In research, harm could threaten participants' welfare, safety or rights, which may involve social, psychological, emotional and physical harm, low self-esteem, or stress (Bryman, 2012:135). To prevent any harm to participants in this research study, the researcher avoided using unacceptable, discriminatory or offensive language in formulating questionnaires. Before the informed consent and completing the questionnaires, the researcher ensured that the participants were well informed of all potential risks of harm to ensure their safety (Bryman, 2012:135).

The lack of informed consent entails that the information that may influence a participant's willingness to participate in the study was intentionally withheld, as this would deprive the participants of protecting their interests (Bryman, 2012:138). Informed consent is a legal requirement and ethical code for human subjects' research (Nijhawan, 2013:134). The objective of the informed consent process was given to potential participants enough information in a language they could easily understand so they could decide on their own whether to participate in the research study (Nijhawan, 2013:134; Bryman, 2012:138).

In this research study, the study's intent, aim and objective, as well as the instructions for completing the questionnaires were clearly explained to the research participants. Each participant was given a separate informed consent. The language of communication was English. The participants were not given the impression that they must participate in the study; they were informed that they could withdraw whenever they wanted.

Invasion of privacy implies that the participants' personal information has been revealed, which is considered a "violation of privacy" (Bryman, 2012:143). The research participants should have their anonymity and privacy respected (Bryman, 2012:143). Personal

information concerning the participants of a research study should be kept confidential (Cacciattolo, 2015:64). This implies that care must be taken to make sure that no identifiable or recognisable individuals are included in research study results when they are published (Creswell, 2013:133).

In this study, the anonymity and confidentiality of participants were respected - The identity of participants was kept anonymous when presenting research results. Data collected from each participant, such as gender, age, qualifications, position, email addresses and response to the questionnaires were kept confidential. The laptop of the researcher was, and still is protected by a password which the researcher only knows.

According to Bryman 2012 (143:8), deception is when the researcher presents their research work as something it is not. Bryman (2012:143), states that it remains the researcher's responsibility not to pursue inquiry methods that are likely to violate human values or trigger emotional responses.

To maintain the reputation of this research study, false presentation of results, evidence, data findings and conclusion was avoided. The final report was shared with some of the interested participants before it was published to ensure the results' honesty, safety and truthfulness.

1.18 CONTRIBUTION OF THE STUDY

This study investigates how toxic leadership affects employee turnover intention in South African Clinical Research Organizations (CROs) and how organisational culture plays a mediating role in this relationship. The research addresses a gap in the existing literature by examining this relationship within the unique context of South African CROs. The study provides valuable insights into how toxic leadership influences employee turnover and the role of organizational culture in this dynamic. It also has significant implications for leadership and human resource management strategies in specialized industries. This research offers valuable perspectives for understanding leadership dynamics and promoting healthier work environments in CROs and similar organisations.

1.19 OUTLINE OF THE DISSERTATION

Chapter 1: The Nature and Scope of the Study

The first chapter of this study covered the research study's background and introduction. This chapter introduced the reader to the purpose and importance of leadership, as well as how toxic leaders cause organisations to become toxic, as well as how their toxic behaviour results in turnover intentions and negative employee outcomes. The problem was then explained in the problem statement, and the research objectives were clearly defined. The research study objectives were broken down into primary and secondary objectives. The research questions were also constructed to establish how toxic leadership behaviour relates to employees' intentions to leave their workplace.

This chapter also included a preliminary review of the literature and a summary of the research design and methodology. Finally, the chapter discussed the implications/contributions of the study, limitations, and ethical considerations and it concluded with the dissertation layout.

Chapter 2: Literature Review of the Concepts of Toxic Leadership

Chapter 2 covered a review of the literature on toxic leadership, organisational culture and turnover intentions theories. The literature review offered a helpful typology to help the reader better understand the concept of toxic leadership. The destructive behaviours that increase toxicity in the organisation were identified. This chapter also covered the following: definitions, concepts, perceptions, characteristics, dimensions and the negative impact of toxic leadership and employee turnover. Furthermore, this chapter covered the theories that underpinned this research study.

Chapter 3: Research Design and Method

Chapter 3 explained the research design and methodologies/processes used to collect useful information to address the study's problem statement and objectives. The chapter also presented the philosophical assumption underpinning the study, revealing that the positivist paradigm will be used in this study. Furthermore, the chapter explained the data collection and statistical analysis methods that were used in detail.

Chapter 4: Results Interpretation and Discussion

In Chapter 4, statistical methods were used to analyse quantitative data obtained and transformed from the surveys completed by participants of this study. Quantitative results were presented in table format for interpretation. Furthermore, In this section, the research study's findings were covered.

Chapter 5: Summary, conclusions, managerial implications, and Recommendations

Chapter 5 discussed and summarised the study's main findings. Conclusions were drawn, and managerial implications and recommendations were provided.

1.20 SUMMARY

Chapter 1 set the stage for the research by introducing the critical themes of toxic leadership and turnover intention within clinical research organisations. It emphasises the need to understand the relationship between leadership styles and employee attitudes in specialised industries like CROs. The chapter also explains the rationale for the study, highlighting the limited research in this area, particularly within the South African context. It emphasises the importance of investigating the connection between toxic leadership and employee turnover intention and the potential role of organisational culture in mediating this relationship.

The chapter also presented the objectives and research questions, which aimed to analyse the relationship between turnover intention and toxic leadership as well as the potential effects of organisational culture. It provided a thorough explanation of the research design and methodology, emphasising the use of quantitative methods to collect and analyse data relevant to the objectives of this research study.

In conclusion, chapter 1 provided a comprehensive introduction and background to a study that aims to contribute significantly to understanding leadership dynamics within clinical research organisations, specifically in South Africa. It laid the groundwork for exploring the complex interplay between toxic leadership, employee turnover intention and organisational culture.

CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 INTRODUCTION

An in-depth review of the literature is provided in Chapter 2, with particular attention to the connection between organizational culture, turnover intention, and toxic leadership. The chapter began with presenting a conceptual framework that identifies employee turnover intention (the dependent variable) as being influenced by toxic leadership (the independent variable), with organisational culture acting as a mediating factor. This framework laid the foundation for a thorough exploration of these concepts and their interrelations.

The chapter examined the characteristics and impacts of toxic leadership in-depth, discussing various behaviours such as self-promotion, abusive supervision, narcissism, unpredictability, and authoritarianism that define toxic leaders. It also assessed the negative effects of such leadership on employees and the organisation. Furthermore, the chapter reviewed different theoretical perspectives that underpin the concept of toxic leadership, with an emphasis on the Schmidt model.

In addition to toxic leadership, the chapter provided a comprehensive discussion of organisational culture, exploring various theories and models that help understand how culture is formed, maintained, and altered within organisations. It highlighted the significant influence of leadership styles and managerial philosophies on shaping organisational culture. Moreover, the chapter addressed the concept of turnover intention, reviewing various theories explaining why employees may leave an organisation. It links turnover intention to the presence of toxic leadership and the nature of the organisational culture, suggesting that an unhealthy work environment can lead to increased employee turnover.

Chapter 2 also provided a detailed literature review that explored the relationship between toxic leadership, organisational culture, and turnover intention. It established a conceptual framework highlighting how toxic leadership can impact employee turnover intention, with organisational culture acting as a mediator. The chapter discussed various behaviours such as self-promotion, abusive supervision, narcissism, unpredictability, and

authoritarianism that define toxic leaders. It also examined the negative consequences of such leadership on employees and the overall organisation, reviewing different theoretical perspectives that underpin the concept of toxic leadership with a particular emphasis on the Schmidt model.

Organisational culture is also discussed in-depth, exploring various theories and models that help understand how culture is formed, maintained and altered within organisations. The chapter highlighted the significant influence of leadership styles and managerial philosophies on shaping organisational culture. Furthermore, the chapter addressed the concept of turnover intention, reviewing various theories that explain why employees may choose to leave an organisation. It linked turnover intention to the presence of toxic leadership and the nature of the organisational culture, suggesting that a toxic work environment can lead to increased employee turnover.

2.2 CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

Toxic leadership, turnover intention and organisational culture were the main topics of this research study's literature review. Figure 2.1 illustrates the conceptual framework. The study examined how toxic leadership (an independent variable) affects turnover intention (a dependent variable) and the role of organisational culture as a mediator.

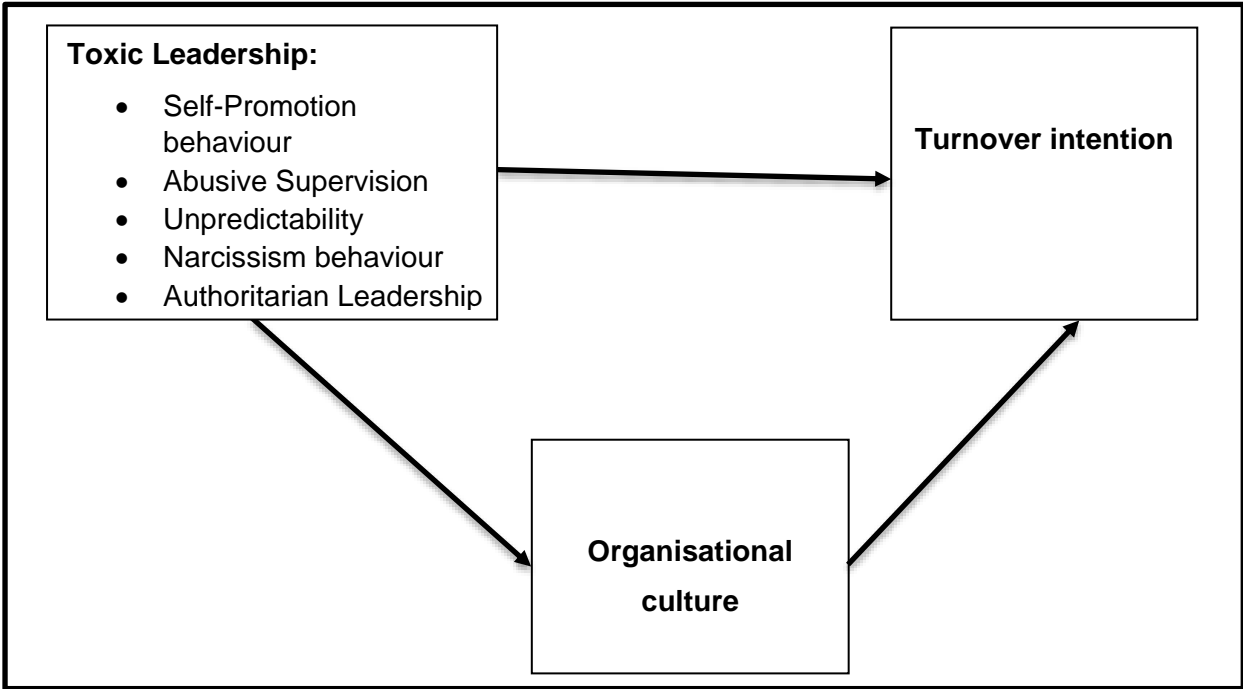


Figure 2. 1: The theoretical framework for this research study.

2.3 TOXIC LEADERSHIP

The range of behaviours that make up a toxic leadership style relies on how others view them and the outcomes of their actions (Lipman-Blumen, 2005:2). Some may perceive toxic leaders as bad leaders, while others may perceive them as heroes (Pelletier, 2010:374; Lipman-Blumen, 2005: 2 and 11). Singh *et al.* (2018:3) discovered that toxic leadership includes other destructive and dark leadership behaviour characteristics, such as passive/indirect behaviour and active/direct behaviour. Toxic leaders or managers are perceived as intimidating, threatening, or shouting at employees (Singh *et al.*, 2018:4). The author further explains that the manager, whose moods are unpredictable, determines the atmosphere in the office on any given day at work. Reed (2004:67) added that toxic behaviour is an interpersonal strategy or personality trait that could be detrimental to workplace culture.

Although several authors have defined and characterised toxic leadership in the literature in various ways, the effects on employees and the result are often the same. Padilla *et al.* (2007:178) described toxic leadership as opposed to good order and discipline and toxic leaders' traits or characteristics that negatively affect their subordinates. A toxic leader is defined by Reed (2004:67) and Mehta and Maheshwari (2013:11) as someone who shows a clear lack of concern for the wellbeing of employees, does not plan to mentor, teach or train staff, cares only about themselves and discredits others. Toxic leadership, according to Wilson-Starks (2003:2), is a leadership style that affects employees' feelings and, ultimately, the organisation by discouraging employees' enthusiasm, creativity, inventive expression and autonomy. Toxic leaders spread their poison by exercising excessive control (Wilson-Starks, 2003:2). Toxic leadership, according to Walton (2007:20), is destructive, abusive, exploitative, mentally unhealthy and occasionally legally dangerous and corrupt.

Different theories serve as the foundation for toxic leadership namely the Schmidt model, dark-triad theory, emotional intelligence theory, social identity theory and role of congruency theory. However, the Schmidt model for defining toxic leadership was chosen to serve as the theoretical framework for this study.

2.3.1 Schmidt Model

Schmidt (2008) carried out empirical research to define toxic leadership. The study's other goal was to validate and create a toxic leadership scale. Toxic leadership, according to Schmidt (2008), consists of self-promotion, abusive supervision, narcissism, unpredictability, and authoritarian leadership dimensions.

Self-promotion is defined as the act of promoting one's development, prosperity, or advancement (Burns, 2017:50). A self-promoted leader is obsessed with his thoughts and ideas instead of those of their employees, and that can be detrimental to the creativity and innovation of employees (Schmidt, 2008:26). According to Schmidt (2008:88), self-absorbed leaders tend to take control over decision-making and actions that benefit their reputation, career, or welfare. They tend to be more controlling and coercive over employees (Schmidt, 2014:78). Although the literature on the self-promotion dimension has not been extensively researched, it was found to be linked to the narcissistic leadership style; hence it is predicted as the dimension of toxic leadership (Schmidt, 2008:26).

When a leader is exclusively thinking about themselves, it is known as narcissistic leadership (Muhammad & Talha, 2020: 2). They prioritise themselves first, regardless of the cost to their team or employees (Muhammad and Talha, 2020: 2; Braun, 2017: 3). Narcissistic leaders exhibit narcissistic traits such as dominance, hostility, and exploitive behaviour (Braun, 2017:3). Qayyum *et al.* (2020:371) described narcissism as harmful to subordinates and organisational effectiveness, and therefore it is considered a dimension of toxic leadership. This behaviour is motivated by self-absorption, arrogance, and a personal egotistic demand for power and adoration (Braun, 2017:3; Wang *et al.* 2022:2).

The degree to which supervisors exhibit aggressive verbal and non-verbal behaviours, excluding physical contact, is referred to as abusive supervision, as viewed by employees (Tepper, 2000:178). The indicators of abusive supervision include coercions, inconsiderate actions, rudeness, angry tantrums, loudness, and public criticism (Tepper, 2000: 178). Tepper (2007) identified the following manifestations of abusive supervision: workplace victimisation, supervisor aggressive action and undermining, negative

mentoring experiences, hostility and family well-being and mistreatment. Abusive supervision shares conceptual overlaps with destructive leadership.

Any circumstance in which a leader maintains the greatest amount of control and authority is referred to as authoritarian leadership (Puni, 2016:2). Authoritarian leaders, also called dictatorial or coercive leaders, retain total decision-making power and make all decisions about procedures, rewards, structures and punishments, as well as policies and responsibilities. (Puni, 2016:2). According to Tourish *et al.* (2009:377) authoritarian leaders are much more likely to use a variety of manipulative behaviours, tactics, and even threats to coerce compliance with their demands, and punishment is likely to be made against anyone who disobeys or does not comply with the demand.

Singh *et al.* (2018:2) describe an unpredictable leader as one who appears to be emotionally unpredictable, moody, and inconsistent. An unpredictable leader is one whose moods dictate the work environment, and their unpredictable behavioural alterations require subordinates to be constantly vigilant (Schmidt, 2014:19). Schmidt (2014:36) found that unpredictability is strongly associated with job outcomes and appears to be the most potent dimension of the five. Schmidt (2008:62) suggested that toxic leaders cannot maintain a consistent pattern of behaviour because of their toxic nature; hence, this is considered a dimension of toxic leadership.

Definitions and descriptions from the literature so far show that toxic leaders inherit bad malicious behaviours and qualities that are harmful to feelings and emotions, as mentioned in the study conducted by Lipman-Blumen (2005:2). The description of harmful leadership in the literature has been shown to fall within the domains of abusive (Mehta & Maheshwari, 2013:10), tyrannical, bullying (Mehta & Maheshwari, 2013:10), unethical (Whicker, 1996), bad (Baloyi, 2020:3; Indradevi, 2016:106), and toxic (Singh *et al.*, 2018:4).

2.3.2 Dark-Triad Theory

Paulhus and Williams (2002:556) were the first to present the idea of dark-triad theory. Pathologies marked by desires to advance oneself at the expense of others were the emphasis of Paulhus and Williams (2002:556) method of defining dark qualities. Furthermore, Paulhus and Williams (2002:556) explained that self-interest, dominance

and control over others are demonstrated through certain behaviours and personality traits. According to Paulhus and Williams (2002:556) Machiavellianism, narcissism, and psychopathy are the three unfavourable personality traits that make up the "dark-triad". Machiavellianism personality is seen in people who have a tendency to be manipulative and inconsiderate of other people's feelings (Paulhus & Williams, 2002:556). High-Machs are people who have a strong sense of Machiavellianism in them. They stand out for their lack of empathy, poor affect, atypical morality, a predisposition to mislead, deceive, and exploit others, and a singular emphasis on their own agenda/goals as opposed to that of others (Wu & Lebreton, 2011:559). Unlike psychopathy, which is characterised by poor empathy and anxiety, insensitivity, impulsivity, and aggression (Paulhus & Williams, 2002:557), narcissism is defined by an inflated sense of self-importance and grandiosity. Numerous theoretical models have been used to study narcissism in the psychology and clinical psychology literature, and it has been found that those who exhibit higher levels of narcissism are more likely to: (a) cherish superior thoughts fuelled by an exaggerated or grandiose sense of self; (b) have a dysfunctional desire for excessive admiration and attention; (c) engage in exploitative behaviours or acts; and (d) lack empathy, tending toward cold-heartedness. In their four-dimensional model of psychopathy, Williams *et al.* (2007:509) provided a summary of the four primary dimensions of psychopathy. Interpersonal manipulation, such as grandiosity, lying and surface charm, callous affect, such as lack of empathy or guilt, erratic lifestyle, such as impulsivity and sensation seeking, and criminal tendencies, such as engaging in antisocial or counterproductive behaviour, are all examples of erratic behaviour. It is important to note that there is some debate regarding whether the fourth dimension represents personality traits (such as persistent rule-breaking) or merely the behavioural manifestation of the other psychopathy traits. According to Paulhus and Williams (2002:557), all three have a socially unfriendly personality with a propensity for self-promotion, emotional coldness, dishonesty, and aggressiveness.

Contrarily, Hogan's method focuses on the negative traits that surface when people let their guard down and unfavourable traits connected to management incompetence (Hogan & Hogan, 2001:41). Hogan and Kaiser (2005:10) define management incompetence as the absence of the traits essential for achievement and leadership. Leslie and Van Velsor (1996:3) put together our themes that are associated with failed

managers and managerial derailment: 1) Poor interpersonal skills include: being insensitive, haughty, distant, cold, or overly ambitious; 2) being unable to complete tasks; 3) being unable to establish a team; and 4) being unable to adjust after receiving a promotion. The worst aspect of each employee's job in any organisation, according to Hogan & Kaiser (2005:10), is their immediate supervisor because of their incompetence.

2.3.3 Theory of Emotional Intelligence

According to Fernández-Berrocal & Extremera (2006:9), emotional intelligence is the capacity of an individual to control and manage their emotions in a way that allows them to be expressed appropriately and successfully to preserve positive connections with others. Three models have been widely researched in the literature on emotional intelligence theory to help explain the significance of and meaning behind emotional intelligence behaviour. The following is a description and explanation of the models:

Emotional intelligence, according to Salovey & Mayer (1990:189), is the capacity of emotions to advance intellect as well as the capacity to reflect on emotions. This includes the abilities required to accurately comprehend emotions and emotional knowledge, access and generate emotions to support thought, sense emotions and control emotions introspectively to promote both emotional and intellectual development, according to Salovey & Mayer (1990:189). That would entail having the ability to understand and control one's own emotions, as well as those of other people and groups. Furthermore, Mayer & Salovey (1990:189) defined emotional intelligence as the ability to achieve and access feelings, the ability to be aware of "our emotions and emotional knowledge," the ability to manage and control one's emotions to promote "intellectual and emotional growth," and the ability to be conscious of "our emotions and emotional knowledge".

Salovey & Mayer (1990:190) paradigm was centred on three primary abilities: self-directed and other-directed emotion appraisal and expression, emotion control and adaptive emotion usage. Evaluation and expression of emotions in oneself and others show that emotional information must be examined, analysed, and comprehended before responding to comprehend that several emotions can exist at the same time and that they can change over time (Salovey & Mayer, 1990:191). Regulation of emotions in self and others describes the ability to separate and recognise one's feelings from those of others

(Salovey & Mayer, 1990:195). Utilisation of emotions in adaptive ways is described as the capability to "feel, generate and use emotions as appropriate to communicate emotions or use them in other cognitive processes (Salovey & Mayer, 1990:190). Furthermore, Fernández-Berrocal & Extremera (2006:8) claimed that if a person is unable to perceive their own emotions, they would not be able to recognise their own emotions, and they will never be able to comprehend them, much less control them.

In comparison to the theoretical model of Salovey & Mayer (1990:189), the Bar-On model proposed a more comprehensive and wider theoretical approach which does not only associate emotional intelligence with emotions and intelligence. The Bar-On model suggests that emotional intelligence could include a wide range of personality traits and characters that may predict performance in professional and daily work demands and activities (Bar-On, 2006:10).

Emotional intelligence is "a range of no cognitive capabilities, competencies, and skills that influence one's ability to successfully cope with environmental demands and pressures," according to the Bar-On model (Bar-On, 2006:4). The approach seeks to explain why certain individuals have a greater likelihood of success than others. The theoretical approach re-examines emotional intelligence by observing which personal traits are associated strongly with the accomplishments of life. It divides these traits into five categories: intrapersonal and interpersonal skills, adaptability, stress management and general mood. The Bar-On model reveals that emotional intelligence requires a large social component in addition to its emotional component (Bar-On, 2006:4). This social component comprises stress management, adaptability and interpersonal skills related to social context. As a result, the idea of emotional-social intelligence is developed. According to Bar-On (2006:3), this idea is described as "a cross-section of interrelated emotional and social competencies, skills, and facilitators that determine how effectively we understand and express ourselves, understand others and relate to them." Without these skills, a person would not be able to "understand and express oneself" (Bar-On 2006:3), interact with others successfully, handle day-to-day challenges or be able to monitor and control emotions to avoid situations where their emotions control them.

The workplace environment, organisational performance and job effectiveness are the main focuses of Goleman's emotional intelligence model (Boyatzis *et al.*, 2000: 2-3;

Goleman, 1998). Goleman (1998) went on and emphasise that "emotional illiteracy" is the root cause of several societal vices, such as emotional instability, inappropriate behaviour, and instructive disillusionment. Furthermore, people commonly underperform at work because they are unable to effectively control their emotions. The inability to articulate one's genuine needs, unnecessary disputes with co-workers, and difficulty communicating one's emotions to others all reduce job happiness and productivity.

According to Fernández-Berrocal & Extremera (2006:9), Goleman's model consists of five important dimensions, namely: empathy, self-awareness, self-management, self-motivation, and social skills. Empathy is the capacity to comprehend how others feel or how one's actions may affect others, while self-awareness is the capacity to be aware of and manage one's emotions; self-management is the capacity to control one's emotions and reactions; self-motivation is the capacity to accept responsibility and maintain or face work frustrations and setbacks; and social skills are the capacities to develop or form healthy relationships with others. The model was developed and adapted to predict personal outcomes and effectiveness in the organisation and workplace environment (Boyatzis *et al.*, 2000:16; Goleman, 1998). Goleman, 1998 summarised that competence in empathy allows group leaders to understand the feelings of teammates, resulting in more pronounced group viability. However, emotionally ignorant behaviour can seriously damage relationships. According to Hogan and Stokes (2006, cited in Zeidner, Matthews & Roberts, 2012:12), Poor management is the main reason why employees leave a company; people do not leave companies, they leave managers, although such a claim may be persuasive, it is more often the case.

2.3.4 Theory of Social Identity

According to Ashforth and Mael (1989:20), the goal of social identity theory is to identify and ascertain the circumstances in which people regard themselves to be either members or individuals of groups. The theory also considers how social and individual identities influence how individuals view others and behave in social settings (Ashforth & Mael, 1989:21).

The concept of social identity theory was created by Tajfel and Turner in 1979. It contends that social identification is influenced by cognitive factors that affect how people perceive

their place in different social contexts, how that influences how they perceive others (for example, stereotyping), and how that influences the behaviour of an individual within groups (for example, social influence). According to the social identity theory, people often establish their own social identities by putting themselves into different social groups, as underlined by Hogg & Terry (2006:121). Social identity theory was developed by Tajfel and Turner (1979:8) to explain how individuals create and define their place in society and how this influences social identity on intergroup behaviour. Three psychological processes that people go through, which are crucial in the development of in-group/out-group classifications, were used to explain this (Hogg & Terry, 2006:128). The initial step is social categorisation, in which individuals tend to classify one another into social groups in order to understand their social surroundings (Hogg & Terry, 2006:128). According to research, people use this process to define themselves and others in terms of the groups they believe they belong to (Hogg & Terry, 2006:128). According to Turner (1975:8), social categorisation emphasises the similarities among members of one group and differences among members of other groups. Meaning, that one can fall into many distinct social categories; however, depending on the social situation, some categories will be more or less important than others (Turner, 1975:8). The second process is social identification, which is the process of being identified as a group member (Hogg & Terry, 2006:128). Hofhuis *et al.* (2011:3) state that people who identify socially with a group tend to act in ways that they think other group members should act. People often become emotionally attached to their group as a result. Consequently, this will have an impact on their sense of identity and self-worth. The third phase is social comparison, in which individuals frequently assess their own group's standing and social standing in contrast to that of other groups (Hogg & Terry, 2006:128). According to Hogg & Terry (2006:128), to maintain one's self-esteem, one needs to believe that their in-group has a higher social status than their out-group. So, if the organisation has individuals who socially categorise themselves, it might make other individuals question their sense of belonging within the organisation.

2.3.5 Role of Congruency Theory

The role of congruency theory has been extensively studied in gender equality studies, where it was perceived, that incongruence exists between gender and leadership roles, and this causes prejudice in the workplace in two forms. First, men are more favourable

than women for leadership positions in the workplace (Eagly & Karau, 2002:573). Second, women are perceived as weak leaders and men are perceived as strong leaders in the workplace (Eagly & Karau, 2002:573). Furthermore, Powell & Graves (2003) indicated that gender imbalances are frequently reflected in organisational cultures, with female-dominated cultures emphasising collaboration, trust and openness and male-dominated cultures emphasising hierarchical structures and power distance.

Prejudice is defined as a hostile mindset that is unfounded and directed at a certain person, a race, a group, a gender, or their supposed characteristics. According to Eagly & Karau (2002:574), prejudice can arise when one social group has preconceived notions about another group that are at odds with the traits judged essential for success in a given class of social positions. Because women are considered to not possess the same traits, rights and dignity as men do, gender prejudice is defined as actions or attitudes that are biased against women. Women are perceived to possess communal traits related to concern for other people: being gentle, nurturing, interpersonal sensitive, kind and helpful. The perception of men, on the other hand, is that they are independent, self-assured, self-promotional, confident, and competent, which translates to their being ambitious, dominant, aggressive and powerful, as well as being more likely to take the lead (Eagly & Karau, 2002:574; Eagly & Johannesen-Schmidt, 2001). As a result, women are assigned to lower-level jobs in the workplace, while men are considered for leadership and higher-level management positions (Latchanah & Singh, 2016:42). This is supported by Dvison & Buke (2000:230), employers tend to assess male and female candidates for the same position differently if they think that particular personality qualities are masculine or feminine.

Additionally, in some organisations, it has become a habit and was discovered that women's career development processes differ from men's career advancement processes, and women in management and leadership roles are criticised, extensively and harshly evaluated in the workplace when compared to men (Konrad & Cannings, 1997:1306; Garcia-Retamero & Lopez-Zafra, 2006:503; Schweitzer *et al.*, 2011: 424 – 425). When a woman falls behind, she is perceived as incompetent and incapable, yet when a man falls behind, management turns a blind eye, and it is accepted (Konrad & Cannings, 1997:1306; Eagly & Karau, 2002:583).

The impact of hierarchical roles on perceptions of leadership behaviours was highlighted in a 1976 study by Kanter. Because of power dynamics and different experiences within the organisational hierarchy, differences in a hierarchy can result in varying perspectives on leadership (Kanter, 1976:425). This could account for the disparities between managers' and employees' perceptions of toxic leadership behaviours in this study.

These ideas and perceptions about gender inequality are influenced and instilled by hiring managers and recruiters, and it becomes a norm within the organisations turning it into an organisational culture and behaviour (Eagly & Karau, 2002:583). As a result, the organisation becomes a toxic work environment for women. This affects women psychologically, leading to self-doubt (Eagly & Karau, 2002:583). For women to establish themselves, they must put forth twice the effort as males do (Eagly & Karau, 2002:583). Therefore, these types of situations could lead to job dissatisfaction and cause women to leave the organisation and look for better opportunities or a work environment for their career advancement.

2.3.6 Theoretical Underpinning for Toxic Leadership

The selected theoretical foundations for the toxic leadership construct in this study are the Schmidt model for defining toxic leadership and the dark-triad theory. There appears to be an overlap between the dark-triad characteristics and toxic work behaviours and personality traits described in the Schmidt model for toxic leadership. LeBreton (2018:391) states that these types of behaviour can impact organisational, interpersonal and individual outcomes.

Machiavellianism is a personality trait defined by a strong desire and capacity to utilise manipulative strategies in interpersonal relationships to gain and preserve power (Christie and Geis, 1970). According to Tourish *et al.* (2009:377), authoritarian leaders are much more likely to use a variety of manipulative behaviours, tactics, and even threats to coerce compliance with their demands, and punishment is likely to be meted out to anyone who disobeys or does not comply with the demand. This is similar to the toxic leadership dimension of authoritarianism. Any circumstance in which a leader maintains the greatest amount of control and authority is referred to as authoritarian leadership (Puni, 2016:2).

The toxic leadership literature's narcissism and self-promotion dimensions appear to overlap or be similar to the dark side leadership literature's narcissism dimension. The dark-triad theory holds that narcissism is associated with a highly exaggerated but extremely susceptible self-image as well as a desire for admiration and attention (Diller *et al.*, 2021:118). This is comparable to narcissism and self-promotion as stated in the literature on toxic leadership theory, where narcissistic leaders are characterised as exclusively concerned with themselves. This behaviour is motivated by hubris, self-absorption and a personal egotistic demand for power and adoration, according to Braun (2017:3) and Wang *et al.* (2022:2). Self-promotion, according to toxic leadership theory, is the act of development, wealth, or advancement, as well as self-image (Burns, 2017:50).

Tepper (2000:178) defines abusive supervisor behaviours as “the sustained display of hostile verbal and non-verbal behaviours, excluding physical contact”. Psychopaths are typically found in executive positions in organisations, where they are expected to act abusively toward their subordinates, according to dark-triad literature (Boddy, 2010:378). Behaviours such as uncontrolled aggression, extreme impulsivity, bullying, conflict, abusive supervision, a lack of respect for others' rights, a lack of diligence, and a contempt for responsibility (Boddy, 2010:378). Similarly, according to toxic leadership theory, the indicators of abusive supervision include coercions, inconsiderate actions, rudeness, angry tantrums, loudness, and public criticism (Tepper, 2000:178).

Although the construct of toxic leadership appears to be underpinned by both theories, this research study will use Schmidt's (2008) method to define, develop and validate the measure of toxic leadership. Therefore, the Schmidt model for defining toxic leadership will serve as the theoretical framework for this study.

2.4 ORGANISATIONAL CULTURE

Organisational culture refers to the unwritten standards that affect people's attitudes and behaviours both individually and as a group within an organisation (Brown, 1998). An organisation's values, attitudes, and beliefs and how they affect employee behaviour are usually referred to as organisational culture. People's perceptions of and behaviour toward organisations are influenced by culture (Bamidele, 2022:1). Organisational culture

is described by Schein (1985:9) as a set of fundamental presumptions created, discovered, or developed by a particular group as it learns to deal with its problems of internal integration and external adaptation. Then, these basic assumptions are taught to new members as the proper way to perceive, think about and feel about those problems because they have been proven to be effective. According to Pettigrew (1979:574), organisational culture is an adaptive behaviour established through values and beliefs tied to symbols, myths and rituals that reinforce the basic assumptions of organisational culture.

Different theories serve as the foundation for organisational culture, namely, Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck's value orientations theory, Schein's model of competing values framework, Deal and Kennedy's culture model, organisational culture profile (OCP) theory and the cultural web model, and Hofstede's cultural dimensions. However, Ghosh and Srivastava (2014) for defining organisational culture was chosen to serve as the theoretical framework for this study.

2.4.1 Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck Value Orientations Theory

Hills (2002:1) maintains that the attitudes of people are relatively based on their values. According to value orientation theory, there are only a few universal problems/questions that all human societies must address, in such a way that there are only limited value-based solutions that are widely accepted, however, considering that various cultures have varied preferences among them (Hills, 2002:1). Although these issues and questions have solutions in all societies, each community has a preferred set of responses to these issues and questions (Ghosh & Srivastava, 2014: 588).

These concerns or questions deal with how humans interact with time, nature and one another, as well as basic human motivations and human nature (Hills, 2002:1). In order to comprehend the cross-cultural theory of values, the value orientation theory was created (Hills, 2002:1; Ghosh & Srivastava, 2014: 588).

The theory asserts that everyone in society aspires to find answers to the five most significant universal value-based questions about human nature, human relationships with their environment, human relationships with other people, human nature activity, and human temporal orientations (time) (Ghosh & Srivastava, 2014:594). The first question,

human nature, seeks to understand the inherent nature of human beings (Hills, 2002:1). That is, whether people are born the way they are, or people can change or learn to change (Hills, 2002:4). The second question, human relation with their surroundings, seeks to determine the interaction between human beings and the natural world (Hills, 2002:4). Some societies tend to believe that in the presence of powerful forces, human beings are helpless (Hills, 2002:5). In that sense, some societies tend to believe that through application of knowledge and intelligence, they can control nature (Hills, 2002:5). The third question, human nature activity, seeks to comprehend proper human behaviour as well as the motivation for such behaviour (Hills, 2002:5). 'Being, becoming, and doing' could all motivate behaviour (Hills, 2002:4). 'Being' values, for example, are appreciated by a person but not by others (Hills, 2002:5). Then "becoming" represents the values that society holds dear. Finally, "doing" highlights ideals that are shared by an individual as well as a group (Hills, 2002:5). The fourth question, human relations with other people, seeks to find out about the interactions or relations between an individual and the society (Hills, 2002:5). In some societies, people tend to believe that a society should be arranged hierarchically. For example, certain people should lead, and certain people should follow. The last question, human temporal orientations (time), is based on the perceived time that the society should focus on (Hills, 2002:4). Some societies are embedded in the past, thinking that individuals should learn from history and work to preserve historical practices (Hills, 2002, 5). Other societies place a higher priority on the present, thinking that people should live fully in the moment (Hills, 2002:5). Then some societies place the most value on the future, believing that people should always put off immediate gratification to plan for and work hard for a better future (Hills, 2002:5). The five fundamental problems identified by Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck (1961), according to Pareek (2006, cited in Ghosh & Srivastava, 2014:588), these problems are confronted by all humans in society, and this might be a thorough way to start assessing how much organisational culture exists for members of the organisation as well.

2.4.2 Schein's Model of Organisational Culture

Schein's theory acknowledges that culture is varied and complex, influenced by a range of factors such as leadership, history and the surrounding environment. The approach provides managers and executives with a framework to understand the various components of culture and how they interact, helping them navigate and change

organisational culture. The three layers that make up Schein's corporate culture model are artefacts and behaviours, espoused values, and fundamental underlying assumptions (Schein, 1997:26).

The surface-level characteristics of organisational culture that stand out the most are artefacts (Baumgartner, 2009:107; Schein, 1997:2). They include tangible elements like the workplace's physical layout, rituals, symbols, dress code and discernible behaviours, according to Baumgartner (2009:107). These statements can be investigated and assessed to discover underlying cultural presumptions and beliefs. Schein (1997:17; Baumgartner 2009:107). The organisation's culture is explicitly represented by artefacts (Baumgartner, 2009:107), reflecting the organisation's standards and expectations. According to Baumgartner (2009:107), these behaviours can include methods for communicating, making decisions and solving problems. One can discover the underlying values and presumptions underlying these artefacts and behaviours by examining them (Baumgartner, 2009:107).

The second layer of Schein's model, the espoused values, is concerned with the internal norms and beliefs that an organisation must uphold (Yilmaz, 2014:226; Schein, 1992:28). The avowed values are frequently expressed in vision statements, value statements, mission statements and organisation documents (Yilmaz, 2014:226). Explicit statements communicated by leaders and managers can also reveal the principles espoused (Schein, 1992:28). They reflect the organisation's objectives and aspirations and are designed to guide employee conduct and decision-making (Schein, 1992, 28). However, according to Schein (1992:28), it is vital to recognise that there might be a disconnect between professed principles and actual organisational behaviour.

The third layer of Schein's model is made up of a base set of underlying presumptions (Schein, 1992:30). These assumptions are firmly held notions and convictions that are commonly taken for granted and unsaid (Schein, 1992:30). They support the company's culture and have an impact on how individuals behave, act, and think (Schein, 1992:31). According to Schein (1992:31), organisational members frequently share implicit fundamental presuppositions. They develop over time because of events, communications, and observations made in the environment of the company (Schein, 1992:31). These presumptions become so ingrained that they are seldom ever contested

(Schein, 1992, 31). For instance, a company can have a firmly held belief that competition among individuals, rather than teamwork, is the key to success (Schein, 1992:31). This underlying presumption affects how workers view and conduct themselves at work, which influences collaboration, teamwork, and overall organisational effectiveness (Schein, 1992:31).

2.4.3 Competing Values Framework

Quinn and Rohrbaugh (1983:363) derived the competing values framework, which focused on determining the markers of organisational effectiveness. Additionally, Cameron and Quinn (2011: 29) suggested four dimensions of organisational culture: clan culture, emphasising cooperation and teamwork; ad hoc culture, emphasising innovation and risk-taking; market culture, emphasising results and competition; and hierarchy culture, emphasising control and stability.

The clan culture is composed of shared values and objectives, a spirit of teamwork and collaboration, and a focus on employee development and empowerment (Yu & Wu, 2009:38). Adhocracy culture places an emphasis on entrepreneurship, transformational change, creativity, and innovation (Yu & Wu, 2009:38). Market culture emphasises competitiveness, quick response, decisiveness, breaking down barriers, and achieving goals (Yu & Wu, 2009:38). Evaluation and measurement, process control, structure, efficiency improvement, and quality enhancement are the main goals of hierarchical cultures (Yu & Wu, 2009:38). However, Quinn & Rohrbaugh (1983: 369) state that competing values framework goes beyond organisational culture. The author emphasises that the competing values framework can be expanded to identify the types of leadership styles that are typically assumed to be compatible with the cultures of each dimension (Quinn & Rohrbaugh 1983: 369).

The clan dimension features leaders, often called mentors, facilitators or team builders. Quinn & Rohrbaugh (1983: 369) found that leaders keep things together and promote common goals during difficult times. Leaders assist team members in acquiring the abilities necessary to collaborate more successfully (Quinn & Rohrbaugh, 1983, 369).

Leaders in the adhocracy dimension are often visionaries, receptive to change and innovation, and generally not overly risk averse. In addition to being imaginative, leaders

are often eager to put their ideas into action (Quinn & Rohrbaugh, 1983, 369). The market dimension presents leaders who tend to be results-orientated and short-term-orientated (Quinn & Rohrbaugh 1983:370). Quinn & Rohrbaugh (1983) asserts that the best way to characterise leaders in the hierarchical dimension is as managers. Managers tend to focus on planning, problem-solving, goal setting and making sure everything is done properly. According to (Quinn & Rohrbaugh, 1983: 369) managers are rigorous in their analyses, meticulous in their attention to detail, and knowledgeable.

2.4.4 Deal and Kennedy's Culture Model

Deal & Kennedy (2000) evaluated organisations in terms of risk and feedback. The authors assessed risk and feedback before recommending four different cultural types, namely: tough-guy/macho culture (emphasis on competitiveness and winning), work-hard/play-hard culture (emphasis on quick feedback and high activity), process culture (emphasis on consistency and efficiency), and bet-your-company culture (emphasis on long-term planning and risk mitigation) Deal & Kennedy (2000). This theory highlights the relationship between culture and organisational performance.

When working in a tough-guy environment, employees regularly take considerable risks and get immediate feedback on their choices (Deal & Kennedy, 2000: 12). Even though working in this kind of culture can be challenging, the rewards could be significant. Deal & Kennedy (2000) used the example of sales organisations to illustrate the idea of the "work-hard/play-hard culture," where the mentality relates to sales organisations that strive for customer service that is high in quality and high employee performance, take few risks and receive prompt feedback. Most of the time, workers in this type of organisational culture are expected to be enthusiastic, highly engaged, and upbeat (Deal & Kennedy 2000:13).

Deal and Kennedy (2000) assert that because no organisation belongs entirely to any one form of culture, all four types of culture may coexist. Deal and Kennedy (2000) further suggest that organisations with strong cultures 'artfully blend' the essential merits of all four categories and shape them in a way that ensures good performance.

2.4.5 Theory of the Organisational Culture Profile

According to O'Reilly, Chatman and Caldwell (1991), employees are an organisation's most valuable resource, and the best way to manage them is through subtle cultural cues rather than computer reports. O'Reilly *et al.* (1991:488) created the OCP, which evaluates how well a person fits into an organisation. The theory assumes that all employees who work for a particular organisation should have the same values and basic cultural assumptions as the organisation they work for (O'Reilly *et al.*, 1991:489). O'Reilly *et al.* (1991:502) suggest that organisational culture can be measured along seven dimensions: innovation, stability, aggressiveness, outcome orientation, attention to detail, team orientation and people orientation. According to the theory, people are drawn to and are more likely to fit in with businesses with congruent cultures, increasing commitment and job satisfaction (O'Reilly *et al.*, 1991:488). According to O'Reilly *et al.* (1991:504), organisations with innovative cultures tend to be more adaptive, flexible and open to trying new things.

Employees are more likely to focus on results and superior performance in aggressive cultures (Erdogan *et al.*, 2006:397). According to Erdogan *et al.* (2006), the degree to which seizing opportunities fast and being competitive are shared values is referred to as aggression. As a result, aggressive societies tend to emphasise physical resources traded in relationships while undermining the need to treat others fairly. This could lead to a trend in which breaches of interactional justice receive less attention (Erdogan *et al.*, 2006:397). Outcome-orientated cultures place a high value on action, outcomes, and performance (O'Reilly *et al.*, 1991:504).

Westrum (2004) indicates that stable cultures are predictable, bureaucratic and rule orientated. When the environment is stable and predictable, these cultures can help the organisation's effectiveness by producing stable and consistent output levels. This culture limits quick responses and delays decision-making; they may be rigid in dynamic circumstances. Fairness, cohesiveness, and respect for people's rights are very valued in people-centred societies (O'Reilly *et al.*, 1991). People in such organisations are treated more with respect and decency, which is to be expected (Erdogan *et al.*, 2006:397).

Organisations focused on a team-orientated culture tend to be collaborative and emphasise employee cooperation (Erdogan *et al.*, 2006:397; O'Reilly, Chatman, & Caldwell, 1991:504). Team-orientated cultures tend to place a strong emphasis on making friends and getting along with others (Erdogan *et al.*, 2006:397). Relationships come first; therefore, people and leaders are driven to create high-quality leader-member exchanges (Erdogan *et al.*, 2006:397). According to O'Reilly, Chatman, & Caldwell (1991:509), organisational commitment, job satisfaction, and turnover are all connected with how well an individual's preferences for a certain culture coincide with the culture of the organisation that person enters.

2.4.6 Cultural Web Model

The cultural web is a framework that investigates the many organisational culture components and their relationships, as described by Johnson & Scholes (2005:202). This model comprises six interconnected components: stories (narratives and anecdotes), power structures, rituals and routines, organisational structures, control systems and organisational structures. This theory emphasises how these factors affect the creation and maintenance of organisational culture.

The stories that organisation employees share with one another, outsiders, and new hires significantly impact shaping an organisation's culture (Johnson *et al.*, 2017:176). Many employees in the company are familiar with these stories, which focus on a specific incident and feature employees as main characters (Freemantle, 2013a:650).

Janiijevi (2011: 72) defines symbols as everything in an organisational context that can be touched, heard or seen. According to Janiijevi (2011: 72), one of the first expressions of culture that an outsider sees when joining the organisation for the first time is the type of language or jargon used. Certain cultural features, such as control systems, rituals and procedures, can be functional and symbolic (Freemantle, 2013a:649).

Power structures are defined by Johnson *et al.* (2017:176) as power distributions to groups of people inside an organisation. According to Johnson *et al.* (2017:176), the most prominent people in a company are likely to be strongly related to the common underlying assumptions of the cultural paradigm. For instance, the cultural paradigm represented presumptions that recognised the importance of developing, maintaining, and attracting

people and the influence the human resources division holds within the organisation Kemp & Dwyer (2001:86). Employee participation in decision-making empowers people to act on their initiative and sheds light on the hierarchies inside a business (Kemp & Dwyer, 2001, 86).

According to Freemantle (2013a:651), control systems include what is rewarded, measured, audited, controlled or monitored to monitor and support employees inside and outside the organisation. Employees can better understand what is expected of them in an organisation by paying attention to what is monitored and rewarded, claim Johnson *et al.* (2017:178). Similarly, Schein (2004:98) asserts that changing rewards is one of the quickest and easiest ways to transform an organisation's culture. Organisations should reward and enhance desired cultures that align with their vision and strategy (Freemantle, 2013b:729).

Several authors describe outstanding people who affect an organisation's culture. Heroes are people, living or deceased, who have highly regarded qualities in an organisation, according to Hofstede *et al.* (1990:291). Heroes are managers or leaders within the organisation in the context of research (Hofstede *et al.*, 1990). Hofstede *et al.* (1990:292) refer to heroes as leaders and/or managers in an organisational context. Leaders/managers' behaviours tend to guide or shed light on what is regarded as valuable within an organisation (Hofstede *et al.*, 1990:293). An organisation's culture is frequently significantly influenced by the leaders' and managers' actions and statements (Hofstede *et al.*, 1990:293). Deal & Kennedy (1982:369) assert that leaders/managers should uphold a culture's fundamental beliefs by serving as role models for employees, establishing performance criteria and portraying success as achievable.

Rituals are group actions that are technically redundant but are socially necessary within a society, according to Hofstede *et al.* (1990:291). According to Martins & Martins (2002), referenced by Doherty (2016:37), there are several common ritual types, including integration rituals (inductions for new hires), enhancement rituals (recognition of excellent performance) and degradation rituals (recognition of subpar performance). Studying how employees act in meetings and at organisational celebrations of events can reveal rituals (Hofstede *et al.*, 1990:291). According to Johnson *et al.* (2017:176), training programmes, interview panels, promotion processes, and assessment procedures could present the

organisation's rituals. Rituals that Deal & Kennedy (1982) identify as being significant for this organisational culture literature include work rituals, which are the procedures for carrying out tasks; management rituals, which describe how decisions are made within an organisation; and communications rituals, which outline the internal and external communication processes. Routines describe how staff members communicate with each other and those outside the company (Johnson *et al.*, 2017:176). Routines may give the impression that something should be taken for granted, which can again influence how individuals react to problems and be challenging to alter (Johnson *et al.*, 2017:176).

2.4.7 Hofstede's Cultural Dimensions

According to Geert Hofstede, local and national cultural groups exist and have an impact on corporate culture (Cacciattolo, 2014:4). Furthermore, Geert Hofstede highlighted cultural characteristics, including masculinity versus femininity, power distance, individualism against collectivism, uncertainty avoidance, and individualism versus collectivism that help to understand cultural variances and their effects on organisational behaviour (Cacciattolo, 2014:4). Understanding cross-cultural variations within businesses is significantly impacted by Geert Hofstede's theory of cultural dimensions (Cacciattolo, 2014:4).

According to Chhokar *et al.* (2001:83), power distance describes how much a person of low status accepts and sustains the authority and influence of those of high status. A high-power distance score, according to Hofstede (2003:35), shows that there is a feeling that certain people have more power than others. On the other hand, a low score represents the idea that everyone should be entitled to the same rights (Hofstede, 2003:35). Individualism vs collectivism refers to how much employees are expected to stand up for themselves, as well as how a worker engages with the collective (Hofstede, 2003: 63). This dimension refers to how much an individual's manner of life is governed by personal aims as opposed to group goals (the organisational goal) (Hofstede, 2003: 63). In a culture where people are upset by change and risks, uncertainty avoidance shows how much people are willing to accept ambiguity and risk (Chhokar *et al.*, 2001:82). Employees who work in environments with high levels of uncertainty avoidance usually display worry about the future and are reluctant to switch companies (Chhokar *et al.*, 2001:82). According to Chhokar *et al.* (2001:83), "femininity versus masculinity"

relates to how much material possessions are assertively valued in a society as opposed to positive interpersonal relationships and quality of life. For instance, the accumulation of material things and wealth is more associated with male ideals and thus with societies that are dominated by men (Handy, 1993:196). On the other hand, feminine cultures strongly prioritise group decision-making and close relationships with superiors (Chhokar *et al.*, 2001:83). According to Hofstede's dimensions, important differences lead people from other cultures to have contrasting attitudes or viewpoints. Hofstede (2003:5) gives evidence to support his concern that an organisation might benefit from a greater grasp of the cultural environment.

2.4.8 Theoretical Underpinning for Organisational Culture

Based on the theoretical framework of Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck (1961), Ghosh and Srivastava (2014:588) identified seven dimensions that effectively characterise organisational culture. These aspects allegedly addressed the universal and fundamental value-based underlying problems asked by Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck (1961). The five questions revolve around five topics: human nature, how individuals react to their environment, what they do in their natural state, how they interact with others, and how they see time (temporal orientations). The questions address fundamental societal human concerns (Ghosh & Srivastava, 2014:594). Based on these questions, the dimensions identified by Ghosh and Srivastava (2014:594) were trust, openness, respect for individuals, action orientation, attitude to risk, participation, and power distance. Ghosh and Srivastava (2014: 588) proposed this model because it considers all possible orientations from which culture can be examined.

The trust dimension describes trust among members of the organisation, and openness explains the extent to which seniors share and communicate, as well as their approachability (Ghosh & Srivastava, 2014:594). Ghosh and Srivastava (2014: 594) refer to respect for individuals as egalitarianism, which /is the sense of social equality or fairness. According to Ghosh and Srivastava (2014:594), action orientation aims to question whether members put effort into attaining results if they agree that achieving corporate goals is important. At the same time, the attitude to risk dimension seeks to find if members of the organisation play it safe, cover up their mistakes and uphold the status quo. In the concept of participation, Ghosh and Srivastava (2014:592) explain that

participation should be encouraged by everyone in the organisation, every member's views must be considered, and members should feel free to express themselves. Power distance dimensions define how power members, particularly supervisors, exercise power and avoid conflict in hierarchy-based organisations (Ghosh & Srivastava, 2014:592).

Given the above information, the narrow theoretical framework provided by Ghosh and Srivastava (2014) will serve as the theoretical foundation for this study to effectively evaluate the role of organisational culture in employee turnover intention as a mediator for this research study. In addition to the theories mentioned above to describe and discuss organisational culture, empirical studies reveal that organisational culture could play a role in increased employee turnover intention and employee retention (Mashile *et al.*, 2019:2; Chahal & Poonam, 2020:21).

2.5 TURNOVER INTENTION

In the psychology literature, the intention to leave refers to the psychological withdrawal of an employee from their job and organisation (Omar *et al.*, 2015:2). An individual's desires and ambition combined with self-displacement from the job create the concept of leaving (Oni & Fotok, 2017:118). Employees' intentions to leave comprise a mindful and painful job resignation (Bwowe, 2020:168). According to Oni & Fotok (2017:118), employee resignation results in instability because the organisation incurs additional costs when they hire new employees and a negative reputation of the organisation (Bwowe, 2020:163).

Various theories serve as the theoretical foundation for turnover intention, namely job embeddedness theory, Adams' equity theory, job satisfaction theory, psychological contract theory, organisational support theory, and job demands-resources (JD-R) Model. However, the JD-R model of Bothma and Roodt (2013) was chosen as the theoretical foundation for this study.

2.5.1 Job Embeddedness Theory

According to job embeddedness theory, the degree to which employees feel "embedded" and attached to their work and organisations affects their intention to leave those

positions (Kiazad *et al.*, 2015:642). Three aspects of employment embeddedness are provided by the Mitchell *et al.* (2001:1104–1105) model: links (connections to people and organisations), fit (compatibility between personal life and work), and sacrifice (costs associated with leaving the organisation). Employees with strong links, fit, and sacrifice are less likely to have turnover intention (Mitchell *et al.*, 2001: 1104).

When individuals experience ties, formal or informal, to other individuals, or groups at work or in their communities, they are less likely to leave or depart (Mitchell *et al.*, 2001: 1104). Additionally, many stay because they are a good fit for the job or the surrounding environment (Mitchell *et al.*, 2001: 1104). Furthermore, sacrifices embed individuals who would otherwise lose money or psychological benefits if they left organisations or communities (Mitchell *et al.*, 2001: 1104).

Job embeddedness, according to Mitchell & Lee (2001:213), is a state of inertia (or "stuckness") rather than an energising force since, most of the time, [staying] is not even perceived or considered as a choice process. According to March & Simon (1958), job embedding tends to lessen the desire to move. Second, job embeddedness connections, fit and sacrifices have additive and compensating effects on remaining Mitchell *et al.* (2001:1104). For example, if dissatisfied employees have strong social bonds or feel a sense of belonging in their workplace, they might decide to stay (Kiazad *et al.*, 2015:642). As a result, embedding forces probably vary in strength, with stronger (or more) forces making up for weaker ones (Kiazad *et al.*, 2015:642).

2.5.2 Adams' Equity Theory

Equity theory provides a framework that explains how employees perceive the fairness of their efforts and rewards compared to others (Adams, 1963:245). According to Adams (1963:245), equity theory recognises the subtle and various factors that influence the perception of an employee about their work and their employer. The theory is centred around the perception that employees tend to become demotivated when their work input exceeds their work outcomes in relation to their employer their job or their colleagues/teammates (Adams, 1963:245). In conclusion, the theory claims that employees frequently compare their workloads with those of their coworkers and the results of their jobs (Griffeth & Gaertner, 2001:1017; Ryan, 2016:1588). For instance,

striking a fair balance between an employee's "inputs" (such as long working hours, a competitive work environment, moderate to high educational and skill requirements, and so on) and their "outputs" (such as multicultural work environment, low job security, low/no recognition, short holidays, low starting pay, possible future high salary, and so on) helps to build a strong and fruitful relationship with the employee, which in turn results in contented and motivated. However, suppose there is an inequity or imbalance. In that case, employees are likely to react in a variety of ways to reduce inequity, such as dissatisfaction, low performance and intention to leave the organisation. (Griffeth & Gaertner, 2001:1017; Ngo-Henha, 2017:2755).

Griffeth & Gaertner (2001:1020) proposed a model of an equity-turnover intention process model, where it is postulated that the process of turnover is initiated by employee perception of inequity concerning the primary determinates of job satisfaction such as pay satisfaction, employee satisfaction with supervisor, and work satisfaction (Griffeth & Gaertner, 2001:1020). Additionally, Ngo-Henha (2017:2755) contends that workers' intentions to quit their jobs may be influenced by their views toward justice and equity in the workplace. When employees perceive an inequity between their inputs and outcomes compared to others, they may experience a sense of injustice and develop turnover intention as a response (Griffeth & Gaertner, 2001:1020).

2.5.3 Job Satisfaction Theory

The concept of job satisfaction was defined as a person's overall assessment of his or her job as favourable or unfavourable (Meier & Spector, 2015:1). According to Dunnette & Locke (1976), cited by Mahdi & Zin (2012:1520), job satisfaction is defined as a pleasant emotional state that results from an evaluation of one's job or employment experience. Dunnette & Locke (1976) further explained that positive feelings result from fulfilment if / when job/work values are compatible with one's needs. Given that values describe what a person aspires to or wants to achieve (Mahdi & Zin, 2012: 1520), According to Dunnette & Locke (1976), job satisfaction can be viewed as a person's value judgement toward work-related incentives. According to the view of Glick (1992), as cited by Mahdi & Zin (2012:1520), job satisfaction could be an effective response by individuals in response to an assessment of their work roles in their current positions. Jan & Gul (2020:5) defined job satisfaction as "emotional responses to aspects of the job." In

summary, the job satisfaction construct can be characterised as a successful reaction by an employee to his or her job that emerges from the employee's comparison of expected, needed, valued, desired, or considered to be fair outcomes or rewards (Spector, 1997).

According to the theory of job satisfaction, unhappy employees are more likely to plan to quit their jobs (Rakhmitania, 2022: 232–233). The theory emphasises that the presence and importance of extrinsic factors such as job security, physical working conditions, salary, employee wellbeing, quality of supervision and relationship with others, and company policies tend to lower job dissatisfaction and, eventually, the intention to leave (Bello *et al.*, 2021:1112; Alam & Asim, 2019:165). However, the absence of extrinsic factors (including fringe benefits, level of support by administration or supervisors, job security, salary and safety, is frequently linked to job dissatisfaction and the intention to leave (Bello *et al.*, 2021:1112; Alam & Asim, 2019:165). Bello *et al.* (2021: 1112) also add that poor promotion opportunities, poor employee support from supervisors, and an unfavourable work environment could be the factors that contribute towards turnover intention. Other factors that are most important and affect job dissatisfaction include security of income (future), supervisors and working environment and administration.

2.5.4 Psychological Contract Theory

The unwritten commitments and expectations that exist between workers and their employers are the main emphasis of psychological contract theory (Heuvel *et al.*, 2016:266). The psychological contract, according to Rousseau (1990:389), is a person's perception of shared responsibilities in their relationship with their employer. The understanding of implicit and explicit promises between an employer and an employee forms the foundation of the psychological contract concept (Heuvel *et al.*, 2016:266). Accordingly, the subjective belief in these promises constitutes the psychological contract (Heuvel *et al.*, 2016:266).

The unstated duties and expectations between an employee and their organisation are the focus of psychological contract theory (Heuvel *et al.*, 2016:266). According to Rousseau (1990:389), the psychological contract is a person's perspective on shared duties in the context of their relationship with their employer. The psychological contract concept is based on how an employer and an employee view implicit and explicit

obligation. Therefore, subjective belief in these promises is the psychological contract (Heuvel *et al.*, 2016:266).

Psychological contracts are distinct from the broader concept of expectancies because they are promissory and reciprocal (Rousseau, 1990:390). Typically, promises of future behaviour (in this case, on the side of the employer) are subject to the employee taking some reciprocal action (Rousseau, 1990:390). The psychological contract is different from an employment contract in the sense that the employer company policies would require an employee to complete a probation period of 90 days or 6 months for permanent employment as a newcomer. In this case, contractual expectations are based on the promise of reciprocity in return for some activity or effort (Rousseau, 1990:390). When there is a breach of the psychological contract, such as unfulfilled promises or lack of organisational support, employees may develop turnover intention as they feel a sense of betrayal or disillusionment (Turnley & Feldman, 2000:26; Robinson & Rousseau, 1994:246; Tekleab *et al.*, 2005:154).

2.5.5 Organisational Support Theory

Organisational support theory (OST) states that staff employees create a generalised perception of how much the company values their efforts and is concerned about their welfare (perceived organisational support, or POS) (Kurtessis, 2015:2). Kurtessis (2015:2) explained OST by integrating three theories, namely: social exchange, attribution and self-enhancement to clarify employee-organisation relationships. According to OST, perceived organisational support is heavily on employees' attributions of the organisation's motivation behind their favourable or unfavourable treatment (Kurtessis, 2015:2). Employees, in turn, feel obligated to assist the organisation in achieving its goals and objectives, anticipating that additional efforts on the organisation's behalf will result in greater rewards as a result of the social exchange relationship initiated by perceived organisational support (Kurtessis, 2015:2). Additionally, perceived organisational support satisfies socioemotional demands, fostering higher organisational commitment and identity, as well as a greater desire to support the organisation's success (Kurtessis, 2015:2).

OST proposes that turnover intention is influenced by employees' perceptions regarding the support they receive from the organisation (Nadeem, 2019:233). When employees perceive high levels of organisational support are perceived by employees, including opportunities for growth, recognition, and fair treatment, they are more likely to have a lower turnover intention. This was corroborated by Eisenberger *et al.* (1990:57), who claimed that workers who felt their employer was more supportive were less likely to look for and accept offers from other companies. This could be because social exchange theory, which holds that employees and organisations can contribute value or benefit for the two to have a smooth relationship, provides the foundation for perceived organisational support (Dawley *et al.*, 2010:241). Additionally, employees are more likely to desire to contribute to achieving the organisation's goals and remain active if they feel that their employer is very supportive (Dawley *et al.*, 2010:241; Allen *et al.*, 2003:2).

2.5.6 Job Demands-Resources (JD-R) Model

Bakker *et al.* (2004: 312) developed the Job Demands-Resources (JD-R). The JD-R model is an alternative to the employee well-being models (Bakker *et al.*, 2004:312). In their model, Bakker *et al.* (2004: 312) address only a limited number of variables; however, the model does not apply to all job positions. The model developed by Bakker *et al.* (2004: 312) offers a diversified set of job demands and job resources that may be applied to any occupation or organisation. Job expectations can cause emotional or physical stress in the workplace (Bakker & Demerouti, 2011a: 2). Stressors could be a stressful working environment, time pressures, emotional labour, heavy workload, time pressures, role ambiguity, and poor work relationships (Bakker & Demerouti, 2011a: 2). Whereas job resources are factors that assist in achieving the organisational and reduces stress such as physical, social, or organisational aspects (Bakker *et al.*, 2004:312; Bakker & Demerouti, 2011a: 2). This could include coaching and mentoring, learning and development, opportunities for advancement, strong relationships, and autonomy (Bakker & Demerouti, 2004:312).

When there are high job demands, burnout and stress are common (Bakker & Demerouti, 2004:317). However, positive aspects of a job that are enjoyable could mitigate the effects of a job with high demands and boost work motivation and engagement (Bakker *et al.*, 2004:317; Bakker & Demerouti, 2011b: 2-3). The Job Demands-Resources model

postulates that the equilibrium between job demands (such as workload stress) and job resources (such as autonomy, and social support) might affect turnover intention (Hoonakker *et al.*, 2013:54). Employees may become burnout and be more likely to consider leaving their jobs when demands on their time are high. Resources are scarce (Hoonakker *et al.*, 2013:54). According to Bakker & Demerouti (2004), this model can be used to assess the job performance, job satisfaction and work engagement of a team.

2.5.7 Theoretical Foundations for Turnover Intention

Based on the conceptual framework work of Fishbein and Ajzen (1975), Bothma and Roodt (2013:2) developed and tested the turnover intention scales to examine the employee intentions to leave the organisation. As conceptualised by Fishbein and Ajzen (1975), Bothma and Roodt (2013:2) turnover intention scales were developed as the intention, distinguishing the intent from the affective (emotion) and cognitive (knowledge) components of psychological activities, based on Tett and Meyer (1993:262) perception that turnover intention is conceived as a conscious and deliberate wilfulness to leave the organisation.

In this research study, the turnover intentions scale used to measure turnover intentions was developed by Bothma and Roodt (2013) using the Job Demands-Resources (JD-R) model. The model was used to provide a clear and reasonable explanation as to why employees choose to leave an organisation. Therefore, the JDR model, which was covered in the previous section, will serve as a theoretical framework for this research study to evaluate the effect of toxic leadership on employee turnover intention.

In most studies that used the JD-R model, burnout caused by job demands is the most reported employee outcome that resulted in turnover intention (Bothma & Roodt, 2013:2). The job demands, particularly when there is a shortage of resources, result in exhaustion and desire to leave the organisation (Bothma & Roodt, 2013:2). According to Van den Broeck *et al.* (2017:370), absence or lack of job resources is the cause of the association between work participation, burnout and turnover intention. It has also been reported that work disengagement, organisational citizenship behaviour and work alienation are related to turnover intentions (Bothma & Roodt, 2013:2).

2.6 DIFFERENCES IN TOXIC LEADERSHIP ORGANISATIONAL CULTURE AND TURNOVER INTENTION BETWEEN GENDER, AGE GROUPS AND POST-LEVELS

Various academic studies have explored gender differences in organizational behaviour and workplace experiences. Eagly and Johannesen-Schmidt (2001) and Eagly and Karau (2002:573) found that male leaders tend to exhibit more autocratic or authoritarian leadership styles than females, who often adopt more participative and transformational approaches. Additionally, Powell and Graves (2003) highlighted that organisational cultures often reflect gender imbalances, with male-dominated cultures emphasising hierarchical structures and power distance, while female-influenced cultures emphasise collaboration, trust, and openness. Paltu and Brouwers (2020) also found that various factors, including perceived organizational support, organisational commitment, and job satisfaction, influence turnover intentions.

Moreover, Schalk *et al.* (2010:87) found age-related differences in perceptions of leadership and organisational culture. Older employees tend to have different expectations and experiences of leadership behaviours, often due to their accumulated experience and exposure to various management styles over their career path (Schalk *et al.*, 2010:81). This could explain the higher perception of toxic leadership behaviours among older employees, as they might have a benchmark of comparison based on prior experiences. On the other hand, Nienaber and Masibigiri (2012:67) reported age-related differences in turnover intention, where younger individuals exhibit higher levels of turnover intentions due to various factors such as career advancement aspirations, job dissatisfaction, or the pursuit of new opportunities (Nienaber & Masibigiri, 2012:67; Ivanović & Ivančević, 2010:55).

Furthermore, Gabrielova and Buchko (2021:493) highlighted that the younger generation values collaborative and inclusive work environments, which might explain their higher perceptions of positive cultural aspects than their older counterparts (Gabrielova & Buchko, 2021:495). Kanter (1976) found that hierarchical differences can lead to varying perspectives on leadership due to power dynamics and differing experiences within the organisational hierarchy. Hofstede (1980) and O'Reilly *et al.* (2014) also conducted research on cultural dimensions in the workplace. Hierarchical differences can contribute to differing perceptions of organisational culture across various dimensions.

Lastly, Shin *et al.* (2020) found differences in turnover intentions between managers and employees. Organisational commitment, job embeddedness and job satisfaction are significant factors influencing turnover intentions, and these can vary between hierarchical levels due to differences in job roles, responsibilities, and perceived organisational support (Shin *et al.*, 2020).

2.7 RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN TOXIC LEADERSHIP AND EMPLOYEE TURNOVER INTENTION

Turnover intention is an employee's intention to voluntarily leave the organisation, change employers, or change jobs (Bwowe, 2020:163; Meltem Akca, 2017:294). This is supported by the findings of Hadadian & Zarei (2016:87), where it was found that abusive supervision contributes to employee job stress; as a result, employees tend to resign from the organisation. Bakkal *et al.* (2019:90) state that employees frequently leave their organisations because they are dissatisfied with their jobs due to toxic leaders or managers. The traits of toxic leadership have been linked to lower job satisfaction and increased intention (Paltu & Brouwers, 2020). Singh *et al.* (2018:8) further emphasise that high turnover rates are due to burnout, decreased productivity, job dissatisfaction and psychological stress resulting from toxic leadership behaviour of managers and destructive organisation.

Increased employee turnover and outcomes like workplace deviance may result from toxic leadership and toxicity in the workplace, which may be the cause of decreased employee commitment and job satisfaction (Judge *et al.*, 2006:770; van Rooij & Fine, 2018:6), psychological stress, low employee self-esteem, and negative impact on wellbeing (Singh *et al.*, 2018:8), resulting in self-doubt and feelings of low self-worth (Singh *et al.*, 2018:8). Employees experience psychological stress due to toxic leadership, such as a sense of distress, mistreatment, betrayal, threat, low motivation, helplessness, and burnout, which drives them to quit voluntarily (Singh *et al.*, 2018:8). Furthermore, employee wellbeing suffers due to negative organisational attitudes, and some of the employees are given preferential treatment over others (Dobbs and Do 2019:15; van Rooij & Fine, 2018:3). This shows that toxic leaders or managers have the tendency to make employees feel disconnected from the organisation by negatively

influencing the commitment of employees to their work and the organisation, as a result, making them resign.

2.8 MEDIATOR ROLE OF ORGANISATIONAL CULTURE

Saleem and Ilkhanizadeh (2021:2) characterise organisational culture from a managerial perspective as companies that are structured by organisations, such as units, teams and groups that build or create their customs to shape the norms, beliefs and values which are then followed by employees performing their responsibilities or daily duties.

Regarding the organisational culture, the literature collected for this study, the organisational culture may be influenced by the leadership and management styles/philosophies adopted, procedures, systems and the organisational structure, as well as the attitudes, behaviours, traditions and values of the employees (Tsai, 2011:1). A manager/leader behaviour, beliefs, and values tend to have an impact on organisational culture (Schein, 1985:7). In managerial literature, the culture within the organisation refers to the values that manager/leader try to instil in their organisations (Schein, 1985:7). Meaning that manager/leader creates a climate and procedures within the organisation that reflect how they treat their employees or adhere to the mission and core values of the organisation (Schein, 1985:7). In the literature on organisational culture, the authors emphasise that effective leaders could shape the culture and the organisation's survival of the organisation depends on that (Appelbaum & Roy-Girard, 2007:18; Giberson *et al.*, 2009:124). Toxic leaders have the propensity to create a toxic environment over time and have an impact on the organisation's culture due to the cumulative influence of their behaviours or acts (Reed, 2004:67; Paltu & Brouwers, 2020:2). According to Green (2014:18), cited by Singh (2018: 4), toxic leaders tend to allow their moods to create a climate in their organisation. For instance, Green (2014:18) contends that a toxic workplace could exist if employees avoid having disagreements with their managers for fear of retaliation, managers could throw temper tantrums and make unreasonable demands while making use of vulgar regularly, and when employees are seen as liabilities rather than assets. Appelbaum & Roy-Girard (2007:25) exclaimed that the organisation's culture is the glue that holds this toxicity together. That is, the more management or senior the position of the toxic manager/toxic leader there is within the organisation, the more of an impact they will have on the organisational culture (Appelbaum & Roy-Girard,

2007:25). Therefore, it can be concluded that toxic leaders may change the content of the organisation's culture (Giberson *et al.*, 2009:24). Given the above, it is critical to evaluate the mediating role or effect of the organisational culture.

The literature suggests that organisational culture and intention to leave an organisation are strongly correlated (Brenyah & Tetteh, 2016:51). A positive, supportive culture tends to reduce turnover intentions by fostering a sense of belonging, engagement, and alignment with organisational goals (Lee & Kim, 2023). On the other hand, because of stress, a lack of organisational support, and employee well-being, a toxic or negative culture frequently results in higher turnover intentions (Rasool *et al.*, 2021:1).

Different cultural dimensions impact turnover intention differently (Ma, 2018). For instance, a culture emphasising career improvement and development, high wage potential, collaboration, and employee development tend to reduce turnover intentions (Al-Suraihi *et al.*, 2021:2). On the other hand, cultures characterised by interpersonal conflicts with colleagues, bad human resource policies and personal reasons contribute to higher turnover intentions (Al-Suraihi *et al.*, 2021:2).

There are several mediating factors influencing the relationship between organisational culture and turnover intention and that includes, job satisfaction, organisational commitment, leadership styles, and perceived organisational support (Mabasa *et al.* 2016; van Rooij & Fine, 2018:6). These factors act as mediators shaping how culture impacts employees' intentions to leave or stay within an organisation (Mabasa *et al.* 2016).

2.9 SUMMARY

This chapter focused on the theoretical foundation and empirical research related to toxic leadership. The chapter began with an introduction and overview of the literature related to the phenomenon of toxic leadership. It then presented a concise definition and explanation of toxic leadership based on the literature studied, describing the theory underlying it and the theoretical background for this dimension. The chapter also reviewed the definitions and descriptions of organisational culture, providing a theoretical foundation for it and examining the theory behind it in detail. Additionally, the chapter provided an overview of turnover intention and its relationship with toxic leadership based

on relevant literature. The conceptual framework is illustrated in Figure 2.1, which shows how toxic leadership affects turnover intention, with organisational culture serving as a mediator.

The chapter further explored the range of behaviours that make up a toxic leadership style. Toxic leaders or managers are perceived as intimidating, threatening, or shouting at employees and their moods are unpredictable, determining the atmosphere in the office on any given day at work. The effects of toxic leadership on employees and the organisation are often negative, with toxic leaders showing a clear lack of concern for the wellbeing of employees and discrediting others. Different theories serve as the foundation for toxic leadership, including the Schmidt model, dark-triad theory, emotional intelligence theory, social identity theory and role of congruency theory. However, the Schmidt model for defining toxic leadership was chosen to serve as the theoretical framework for this study. The model consists of self-promotion, abusive supervision, narcissism, unpredictability, and authoritarian leadership dimensions.

In summary, an extensive explanation of toxic leadership and its consequences on the organisation and its employees was given in Chapter 2. It also explored the theoretical foundation and empirical research related to organisational culture and turnover intention. The chapter served as a solid foundation for the subsequent chapters in the study.

CHAPTER 3: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY AND DESIGN

3.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter began with a discussion of the philosophical assumption that underpinned the study (research paradigm), that is the positivist paradigm. It also covered the research approach and the rationale for employing a quantitative research approach, as well as the study design and the basis for using a survey research design. The chapter also focused on the population targeted for this study, sampling technique and sampling size. Furthermore, the chapter discussed the data collection procedures and analysis techniques. The chapter concluded with a discussion of the issues regarding trustworthiness applicable to the research study.

3.2 RESEARCH PARADIGM

The term paradigm was first used by Kuhn (1962: viii) when the author referred to it as a 'philosophical way of thinking'. A research paradigm, by definition, 'reflects the researcher's beliefs' and views about the world in which he or she lives and wishes to live (Kivunja & Kuyini, 2017:26). Lather (1986:259) further explains that research paradigm consists of the underlying principles and beliefs that guide a researcher's perspective in the world, as well as how they interpret it and behave in it. The research paradigm guides and allows the researcher to examine the aspects of their research methodology for the research project to decide on the research method to be used: data collection and data analysis (Kivunja & Kuyini, 2017:26). According to Blumberg *et al.* (2011:17), three major research paradigms influence research: positivism, interpretivism and pragmatism. Rehman & Alharthi (2015:53) propose that each paradigm can further be classified by its methodology, epistemology, and ontology. Among the three, the positivist paradigm will underpin this study.

Positivism holds that reality exists apart from humans and it is not facilitated by human sense but governed by unchanging laws (Rehman & Alharthi, 2015:53). The ontological positivist paradigm is that of realism, where the researcher views the natural world as the social world and believes that variables have a cause-and-effect relationship and that once this relationship is established, it is possible to make a precise prediction of the

future (Rehman & Alharthi, 2015:53; Kivunja & Kuyini, 2017:31). The ontology of this research is that the researcher believes that employee intentions to leave the company and the subsequent negative outcomes are caused by toxic leadership within organisations. However, the positivist epistemology paradigm is said to be that of the objectivist, where the researcher believes that reason is used to apply human understanding (Rehman & Alharthi, 2015:53; Kivunja & Kuyini, 2017:31). For this reason, the epistemology of this research is that the researcher believes that the leader's behaviour and characteristics cause the influence. To carefully examine this influence, the researcher will use the toxic leadership scale developed and validated by Schmidt (2008) and confirmed by Paltu (2020). Lastly, the positivist methodology involves the manipulations of variables to determine whether the effect of one variable (independent variable, toxic leadership) on another variable (dependent variable) can cause changes in that variable, turnover intention (the dependent variable) and organisational culture (the mediator variable), and this allowed the researcher to address the research objectives and questions of this study (Kivunja & Kuyini, 2017:31). Therefore, the positivist methodology was used to determine the relationship between toxic leadership, organisational culture, and turnover intention. (Saunders *et al.*, 2016:74). The research questions were answered using statistical analysis using data collected through surveys. Given the preceding information and the fact that this research study falls under the social sciences, it allowed this research study to adopt the positivist paradigm. Therefore, the positivist paradigm/worldview served as the foundation for this research study.

3.3 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

Quantitative and qualitative concepts are the two most common approaches to classifying research, followed by the pragmatic research approach (Antwi & Hamza, 2015:1). According to Bryman (2012:75), a quantitative research method is one in which the researcher seeks to discover the type of cause-and-effect relationship between the independent and dependent variables. This research study employed the quantitative research approach.

The positivist paradigm supports the use of the quantitative research method as the cornerstone for the researcher's capacity to be precise in describing the parameters and coefficients in the data that are gathered, analysed, and interpreted (Kivunja & Kuyini,

2017:31) to understand the relationship between toxic leadership, turnover intention and organisational culture. For the above-mentioned reason, quantitative research appeared to be the appropriate method for this research study.

3.4 RESEARCH DESIGN

This study used a cross-sectional survey design. Research design is a general approach that the researcher selects to integrate various components of the research logically and consistently (Mishra & Alok, 2018:7). That is, a research design consists of a holistic plan for data collection, measurement, and analysis. Survey research is a form of research design in which the primary method of data collection is through surveys and provides a quantitative or numeric description of opinions, attitudes, or behaviours of a sample of a population under study. According to (Creswell, 2013), a survey research design is used as a research tool to gain a deeper understanding of the perspective of individuals on the concept or topic of interest. In this study, the researcher used closed-ended questions. Validated toxic leadership, turnover intention, and organisational culture scales. The survey research design allows the researcher to study a group of people or items considered representative of the entire group; in that way, only parts of a population (a selected clinical research organisation) can be studied, and the findings can be analysed and then generalised to the entire population (Creswell, 2013:16). The researcher distributed the online survey questionnaires to the participants through a hyperlink via Google Forms.

According to Melnikovas (2018), the time horizon refers to the duration of the researcher's intended study of the population of interest, contingent upon the goals of the research. There are two forms of research based on time horizon: cross-sectional and longitudinal research (Melnikovas, 2018:34). Cross-sectional research occurs when a researcher wishes to investigate research samples at a specific period (in a short period), while a longitudinal study examines research samples over a long period (Bryman & Bell, 2015:53; Collis & Hussey, 2014:63). This research was cross-sectional because the investigation took place over a single period in the short term (1 year). Participants were asked to complete the survey questionnaires only once. The study began in January 2023 and concluded in December 2023.

3.5 STUDY TARGET POPULATION

The target population is the group of people from whom the research study will be conducted, and the conclusion is drawn (Urdan, 2011:133). This research study targeted employees at a selected South African clinical research organisation. The population includes all employees who occupy the lower level, managers/supervisors, and directors, while directors, executives and higher management were excluded.

3.6 SAMPLING METHOD

The process of choosing samples for analysis from a larger population is known as the sampling method (Cooper, 2014:343). Despite the study's quantitative design, a clinical research organisation of choice was selected through purposive sampling. Purposive sampling is a type of non-probability sampling. Purposive sampling, according to Valerio *et al.* (2016:146), comprises the deliberate selection of a specific group of people who possess the qualities needed for the study. The purposive sampling method allowed the researcher to create a sample that is truly representative of the total population of interest.

The researcher conducted a census at one clinical research organisation. This allowed the researcher to achieve generalisability and make probabilistic predictions (Antwi and Hamza, 2015:221). The concept of generalisability refers to the idea that the findings of a study will reveal something about a larger group than the sample from which the findings were generated (Antwi & Hamza, 2015:221; Bryman, 2012:176).

3.7 SAMPLE SIZE

Bryman (2012:197) defines sample size as the study's total number of observations or participants. Due to the small population, a census was done on the total population of 650. Data were collected from 254 participants from a sample population (sample size) of 650 employees. The Human Resource Manager, acting as a gatekeeper, sent the electronic survey link to the employees who participated in this research study.

3.8 MEASURING INSTRUMENTS

The main variables of this study were toxic leadership, turnover intention, and organisational culture (as mediator). In this research study, the measuring

instruments/scales developed by Schmidt (2008:107 - 113) were used to address the research problem of this study. Schmidt (2008:37) developed these toxic leadership scales in order to assess the dimensionality of data obtained from earlier leadership concepts that were covered in the literature. The Turnover Intention Scale was used to assess the intentions of employees to leave their organisations/workplaces. The Organisational Culture Scales were also used to analyse the link between the relationship between toxic leadership and organisational culture. The following measuring devices were employed to gather data for this research study:

Section B of the survey comprised of the demographic characteristics (Appendix C) of the respondents. The researcher collected demographic information about participants by employing biographical questionnaires, such as age group, gender, and educational status. Demographic characteristics gathered from the participants were collected to provide the researcher with a detailed and better understanding of the target population and sample for this research study.

Section C of the survey comprised of the toxic leadership scale (Appendix D). Five toxic leadership dimensions were measured using a 30-item measurement scale that made up the toxic leadership scale: abusive supervision (7 items) to assess how managers engage with their employees, authoritarian leadership (6 items) assess the manager's control over employees, narcissism (5 items) assess the manager's explosiveness and feeling of dominance over employees, self-promotion (5 items) measure the manager's interpersonal expression behaviour to improve their image at the expense of employees, and unpredictability (7 items) measures how inconsistent behaviour of managers affects employees (Schmidt, 2008:107–113). The researcher was granted permission to use the toxic leadership scales via email.

Section D of the survey comprised of the organisational culture scale (Appendix D). This scale (OCS) was used to measure the organisational culture. This study used the 18-item measurement scale developed and validated by Ghosh & Srivastava (2014: 592) to measure organisational culture. The organisational culture scale measurement included the following dimensions: participation (4 items) to measure whether employees are encouraged to speak out and express their views; respect for the individual (3 items), measures the sense of equality; action orientation (3 items) measures members efforts

towards achieving the organisational goal, trust (3 items) measures trust amongst members, openness (2 items) measures whether members exercise open communication with the organisation and power distance (3 items) measures whether managers exercise power and employees avoid confrontation (Ghosh & Srivastava, 2014:592 - 593). The researcher, Somonnoy Ghosh, granted permission to use the organisational culture scales via email.

Section E comprised the turnover intention (Appendix D). Employees' intentions to leave the organisations were measured using the scale developed by Roodt (2004). The author developed these scales to measure the turnover intention of employees. Bothma & Roodt (2013: 4 - 5) modified the 15-item scale established initially by Roodt (2004) and reduced it to six items. This study used the 6-item scale to measure how often employees intend to leave their organisations. Permission to use the turnover intention scales was granted by the researcher, Prof. Roodt Gert, via email.

3.9 DATA ANALYSIS

The IBM Statistical Package for Social Sciences Version 29.0.1.1 (IBM SPSS, 2023) and AMOSTM, Version 29.0.1.1 for Microsoft Windows (IBM SPSS, Amos, 2023) were used to perform statistical analysis for this study. Data was analysed using descriptive statistics, including the mean, standard deviation, and inferential statistics.

The reliability of the constructs used was determined by making use of Cronbach's alpha coefficients. Cronbach's alpha coefficients of 0.60 and above are reliable and deemed acceptable based on research by Pallant (2010).

Independent tests were used to test for differences in toxic leadership, organisational culture and turnover intention among gender, age groups and post - levels. Spearman correlations (r) were used to determine the relationships between the constructs of this study (toxic leadership, organisational culture, and turnover intention) and the strength of these relationships, with -1 indicating a negative relationship, 0 indicating no relationship, and +1 indicating a positive relationship (Struwig & Stead, 2011). Cohen's d was used to measure the effect size of the differences between subgroups. The guideline values for interpretation used for Cohen's d (d) are as follows: $d \leq 0.2$ presents a small effect (indicating a small difference between groups), $d \geq 0.5$ presents a medium effect

(indicating a moderate difference) and $d \geq 0.8$ presents a strong effect (indicating a substantial difference) (Steyn & Swanepoel, 2008). P-values are reported for completeness but have not been interpreted since an availability sample was used instead of a random sample. However, the p-values of less than 0.001 were considered statistically significant (Struwig & Stead, 2011).

Structural Equation Modelling (SEM) was used to determine the mediating role of organisational culture. This statistical data analysis technique was also used to determine the best predictor of turnover intention based on all dimensions of toxic leadership. The following values served as the guidelines for interpretation: Values closer to 0.05 for Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA) indicate a good fit; values up to 0.008 for an acceptable fit; values closer to 0.95 or higher indicate a good fit for Comparative Fit Index (CFI) and Tucker-Lewis Index (TLI) (Kline, 2015).

Furthermore, multiple regression analysis was done through the SPSS program to determine which independent variables predict the dependent variables (Struwig & Stead, 2011). In this study, the independent variable is turnover intentions, and the independent variable is the dimensions of toxic leadership, such as self-promotion, abusive supervision, narcissism, unpredictability, and authoritarian leadership.

3.10 RELIABILITY OF THE MEASURING INSTRUMENTS

Measures were taken to ensure the validity and reliability of the research instruments. Validity in a quantitative study is the extent to which a particular concept is measured precisely (Sürücü & Maslakci, 2020:2695), and reliability refers to the measuring instruments' ability to produce a similar result used in a different setting (Bryman, 2012:169). These are used to assess the quality of other research conducted. To ensure the internal consistency of the research instrument (to determine whether the scales used in this study are reliable), Cronbach's alpha was used (Bryman, 2012:175). Scales were previously validated, and the results are as follows.

- **Toxic Leadership Scale**

Schmidt (2014:100) tested and found that the toxic leadership scale was reliable with a Cronbach alpha coefficient of 0.93 for abusive supervision, 0.89 for authoritarian leadership, 0.88 for narcissism, 0.91 for self-promotion, and 0.92 for unpredictability.

- **Organisational Culture Scale**

Ghosh & Srivastava (2014:593) tested the scales and found that the scale was reliable, with an overall Cronbach's alpha coefficient of 0.862. Due to the reliability measure of the scales, the results provided evidence of the validity (Ghosh & Srivastava, 2014:593).

- **Turnover Intentions Scale**

Bothman and Roodt (2013:11) tested the 6-item turnover intention scale and found that the scales are reliable with a Cronbach's alpha coefficient of 0.80.

3.11 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

Researchers need to be ethical, even if their study's participants are not aware of or interested in ethics. The researcher in this study applied to the university to request ethical approval. All participants received written informed consent forms before data collection. To ensure ethical procedures were followed, the researcher sent a copy of the research letter of intent to a clinical research organisation and obtained permission to conduct the study. After ethical clearance from the university and permission from the organisation, the researcher gathered data from participants who work for the chosen organisation or this study. To ensure informed consent, the researcher informed participants about the study objectives and details and gave them the option to withdraw at any time. The confidentiality was respected, and their personal information was kept anonymous. The informed consent form included the researcher's and study supervisor's contact information.

3.12 SUMMARY

Chapter 3 of this research study discusses the research method and design adopted to investigate the relationship between toxic leadership, turnover intention, and

organisational culture in the workplace. The chapter begins with an introduction to research paradigms and how they guide researchers in decision-making. Three major research paradigms are identified: positivism, interpretivism and pragmatism. The positivist paradigm is chosen for this study as it aligns with the research objectives. The chapter also describes the research method used in this study, which is quantitative research. Lastly, the chapter outlines the research design used: a cross-sectional survey design. Overall, this chapter provides a comprehensive overview of the research methodology and design used in this study.

CHAPTER 4: RESULTS ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION

4.1 INTRODUCTION

The crucial aspect of any organisation is leadership, and toxic leadership can significantly negatively affect employees and the organisation. Toxic leadership can lead to high turnover rates, low morale, and decreased productivity. It is, therefore, important to understand the nature and impact of toxic leadership. This study investigated the nature of toxic leadership and its relationship with organisational culture and turnover intention. The previous chapter presented the research design and methodology used in this study. This chapter focused on the results analysis and interpretation of the data collected through a survey questionnaire. Descriptive and inferential statistics were among the statistical analysis techniques used to examine the quantitative data. The reliability of the research instrument was also assessed. Descriptive statistics, such as mean and standard deviation, were used to analyse the data. Inferential statistics, such as independent tests and Spearman rank-order correlations, were used to test for differences in toxic leadership, organisational culture and turnover intention among genders, age groups and post levels, as well as to test for association amongst the toxic leadership, organisational culture, and turnover intention factors. Structural Equation Modelling (SEM) was also used to determine the mediating role of organisational culture and the best predictor of turnover intention based on all dimensions of toxic leadership. Multiple regression was also used to understand the relationships between the variables of this study.

4.2 DESCRIPTIVE ANALYSIS OF DEMOGRAPHIC CHARACTERISTICS OF THE RESPONDENTS

In this study, the characteristics of the respondents included the following: age, gender, job category (occupation), and highest qualifications. The characteristics that were considered for this study are represented in Table 4.1. However, only gender, age group and job category (post - level) were used for analysis in this research study.

Table 4.1: Characteristics of respondents (N = 254).

Item	Category	Frequency	Percentage
Gender	Female	133	52.6
	Male	120	47.4
Age group	21 – 30	14	5.5
	31 – 40	123	48.6
	41 – 50	106	41.9
	51 – 60	6	2.4
	61 and over	4	1.6
Highest qualification	Matric (NQF Level 5)	18	7.1
	National Diploma (NQF Level 5)	89	35.2
	Degree (NQF Level 7)	82	32.4
	Honours/Postgraduate Diploma (NQF Level 8)	44	17.4
	Master's (NQF Level 9)	20	7.9
Job category (occupation)	Employee 1 – Semi-skilled and discretionary decision making	16	6.3
	Employee 2 – Unskilled and defined decision-making	127	50.2
	Employee 3 – Unskilled and no decision making	40	15.8
	Manager/Supervisor – Skilled technically and academically qualified workers, junior management, supervisors, foremen and superintendents	70	27.7

According to Table 4.1, the largest proportion of respondents (52.6%) were females compared to males (47.7%). The age characteristics indicated that the largest proportion of respondents was of the age category of 31–40 (48.6%), followed by the age category of 41–50 (41.9%), and then the age category of 21–30 (5.5%), 51–60 (2.4%) and 61 and over (1.6%). The respondents' characteristics also indicated that the largest proportion of respondents had the highest qualification of a National Diploma (NQF Level 5) (35.2%), followed by a Degree (NQF Level 7) (32.4%), and then Honors/Postgraduate Diploma (NQF Level 8) (17.4%) and Master's (NQF Level 9) (7.9%). In terms of the

job/occupational level, the respondents' characteristics indicated that half of them were employees that were unskilled but had a defined decision-making skill (50.2%), followed by managers/supervisors (27.7%), and then unskilled and no decision-making skill employees (15.8%), and semi-skilled and discretionary decision-making employees (6.3%).

4.3 RELIABILITY OF MEASURING INSTRUMENTS

In this study, toxic leadership was measured using the scales developed by Schmidt (2008). The scales consisted of 30 items that measured five dimensions of toxic leadership, namely: abusive supervision (7 items), authoritarian leadership (6 items), narcissism (5 items), self-promotion (5 items) and unpredictability (7 items).

The 5-point Likert scale was used to score the dimensions and to record the respondents' responses, with answers ranging from 1 = "Strongly Agree" to 5 "Strongly Disagree". The Cronbach's alpha coefficients were used to determine the reliability of the scales and gave the following results: abusive supervision (0.89), authoritarian leadership (0.77), narcissism (0.61), self-promotion (0.78) and unpredictability (0.90). However, it should be noted that Items 19 and 22 had an adverse effect on the reliability of the narcissism construct, and it was therefore decided to omit them from the construct.

According to Pallant (2010), a Cronbach's alpha coefficient of 0.70 and above is acceptable. Also, Pacleb and Cabanda (2014), Pallant (2010) and Pevalin and Robson (2009) reported that lower Cronbach alpha coefficients could be expected for constructs with fewer items. Therefore, the reported Cronbach alpha coefficients (0.61–0.90) indicate the constructs' reliability.

The Organisational Culture Scale (OCS) was used to measure this construct in the clinical research organisation. The researcher used the measurement scale developed and validated by Ghosh and Srivastava (2014:592). The scales consisted of 18 items that measured six dimensions of organisational culture, namely: participation (4 items), respect for the individual (3 items), action orientation (3 items), trust (3 items), openness (2 items), and power distance (3 items). Participation aimed to measure whether employees are encouraged to speak out and express their views; respect for the individual was used to measure the sense of feeling equal; action orientation measured

members' efforts towards achieving the organisational goal; trust measured trust amongst members; openness measured whether members exercise open communication with the organisation; and power distance measured whether managers exercise power and employees avoid confrontation (Ghosh & Srivastava, 2014:592–593).

The 5-point Likert scale was used to score the dimensions and to record the respondents' responses, with answers ranging from 1 "Strongly Agree" to 5 "Strongly Disagree". The Cronbach's alpha coefficients were used to determine the reliability of the scales and gave the following results: participation (0.95); respect for the individual (0.82); action orientation (0.80); trust (0.82); openness (0.88); and power distance (0.61). Therefore, the reported Cronbach alpha coefficients (0.606–0.90) indicate the constructs' reliability.

The researcher used the turnover intention scale to measure turnover intention using the scale developed by Roodt (2004). Of the 15-item scale, the short six-item version was used to measure how often employees intend to leave their organisation. The TIS-6 was scored on a 5-point scale, ranging from 1 (Never) to 5 (Always). The overall Cronbach's alpha coefficient for this study was found to be 0.89. Therefore, the Cronbach mentioned above's alpha coefficients in this study are reliable for measuring turnover intention in the clinical research organisation.

Table 4.2: Reliability of the scales.

Factor/Scales	Number of Items	Cronbach's Alpha
Toxic Leadership Dimensions		
Abusive Supervision	7	0.89
Authoritarian Leadership	6	0.77
Narcissism	5	0.61
Self-Promotion	5	0.78
Unpredictability	7	0.90
Organisational Culture Dimensions		
Participation	4	0.95
Respect for the Individual	3	0.82
Action Orientation	3	0.80
Trust	3	0.82

Factor/Scales	Number of Items	Cronbach's Alpha
Openness	2	0.88
Power Distance	3	0.61
Turnover Intention	6	0.89

4.4 EMPLOYEES' PERCEIVED LEVELS OF TOXIC LEADERSHIP, ORGANISATIONAL CULTURE AND TURNOVER INTENTION

The study used a Likert scale ranging from 1 (Strongly Agree) to 5 (Strongly Disagree) for toxic leadership and organisational culture scales. For turnover intention, 1 (Never) to 5 (Always) was used to assess perceptions of workplace dynamics within a clinical research organisation. Table 4.3 provides an overview of these dynamics based on the responses received.

Table 4.3: Employees perceived toxic leadership, organisational culture, and turnover intention levels.

Construct	Mean (M)	Standard Deviation (SD)
Toxic leadership factors		
TL - Self Promotion	2.21	0.92
TL - Abusive Supervision	2.47	1.06
TL – Unpredictability	2.46	1.05
TL- Narcissism	1.53	0.57
TL- Authoritarian leadership	2.29	0.85
Organisational culture factors		
OC – Participation	3.15	1.35
OC - Respect for individuals	3.12	1.29
OC - Action orientation	2.43	0.91
OC – Trust	2.82	1.04
OC – Openness	3.25	1.43
OC - Power Distance	2.66	0.92
Turnover Intention	3.75	0.75

Regarding perceived toxic leadership behaviours, self-promotion had a mean of 2.21 and a standard deviation of 0.92. A mean score of 2.21, closer to “2” on the Likert scale,

indicated a slight agreement among respondents regarding the items within the self-perception behaviour in leadership. This implies that on average, employees perceive moderate levels of self-promotion as a toxic leadership dimension. Abusive supervision had a mean of 2.47 and a standard deviation of 1.06. With a mean score of 2.47, this dimensions' average response was between slightly agree and neutral. The higher standard deviation indicated more variability in responses, suggesting differing experiences or perceptions of abusive supervision. Unpredictability had a mean of 2.46 and a standard deviation of 1.05. Like abusive supervision, the average response for unpredictability was between slightly agree and neutral. The standard deviation indicated a varied perception among respondents regarding the role of unpredictability in toxic leadership. Narcissism had a mean of 1.53 and a standard deviation of 0.57. The mean score of 1.53 reflected an average response between strongly agree and agree. The low standard deviation pointed to a high level of agreement among respondents. Authoritarian leadership had a mean of 2.29 and a standard deviation of 0.85. This scale/dimension had a mean score of slight agreement. The standard deviation indicated a moderate level of consensus.

Regarding the organisational culture factors, participation had a mean of 3.15 and a standard deviation of 1.35. Mixed feelings about participation within the organisational culture was observed ($M = 3.15$, $SD = 1.35$). The high standard deviation reflected significant variation in responses. Respect for individuals had a mean of 3.12 and a standard deviation of 1.29. This scale/dimension scored around the neutral point, with a high standard deviation suggesting diverse experiences or perceptions of respect for individuals within the organisation. The mean of 2.43 and standard deviation of 0.91 for action orientation indicated an agreement leaning towards neutral with a moderate standard deviation. Trust had a mean of 2.82 and a standard deviation of 1.04, leaning towards neutral as an average response, thus mixed opinions on trust within the organisational culture. Standard deviation indicated varying experiences among respondents. Openness had a mean of 3.25 and a standard deviation of 1.43, reflecting a neutral average score and a high standard deviation. The mean of 2.66 and standard deviation of 0.92 for power distance indicated a slight disagreement regarding the items within the power distance factor in organisational culture, with a moderate level of consensus among respondents.

The turnover intention had a mean of 3.75 and SD of 0.75. The respondents gave a high mean score of 3.75, indicating that they frequently consider leaving the organisation. While not very high, the standard deviation still suggested variations in how often individuals thought about leaving the organisation.

In summary, the mean values suggest that employees, on average, tend to disagree with the presence of toxic leadership factors, agree with some positive organisational culture factors, and agree with the intention to leave the organisation. However, there is variability in individual perceptions, especially in the case of organisational culture factors.

4.5 DIFFERENCES IN TOXIC LEADERSHIP, ORGANISATIONAL CULTURE AND TURNOVER INTENTION BETWEEN GENDER, AGE GROUPS AND POST - LEVELS

To measure whether employees perceived differences in toxic leadership, organisational culture and turnover intention among gender, age groups and post - levels, t-tests were performed. Cohen’s d was used to measure the effect size of the differences between subgroups. P-values were reported for completeness but were not interpreted because purposive sampling was used rather than random sampling. The established and perceived differences in toxic leadership, organisational culture and turnover intention among gender, age groups and post levels are presented in the tables below. The guideline values for Cohen’s d and t-tests were discussed in Section 4.2 above.

Table 4.4 presents the results of t-tests examining differences in perceptions of toxic leadership dimensions between gender groups, showing significant gender differences in the perceptions of abusive supervision among employees, with corresponding mean scores, standard deviations, p-values, and effect sizes (Cohen’s d).

Table 4 4: T-tests for differences in toxic leadership among gender groups.

Toxic leadership dimension	N	Gender	Mean (M)	Std. Deviation (SD)	P-value (p)	Cohen’s d (d)
TL - Self Promotion	133	Female	2.22	0.92	0.89	0.02
	120	Male	2.20	0.93		
TL- Abusive Supervision	133	Female	2.11	1.00	≤0.01	0.77
	120	Male	2.87	0.98		

Toxic leadership dimension	N	Gender	Mean (M)	Std. Deviation (SD)	P-value (p)	Cohen's d (d)
TL- Unpredictability	133	Female	2.17	1.04	≤0.01	0.61
	120	Male	2.78	0.96		
TL- Narcissism	133	Female	1.78	0.46	≤0.01	1.05
	120	Male	1.25	0.55		
TL- Authoritarian Leadership	133	Female	2.23	0.83	0.23	0.15
	120	Male	2.36	0.87		

Women perceived a higher level of abusive supervision, with a mean score of 2.11 and an SD of 1.00, compared to men, with a mean score of 2.87 and an SD of 0.98. Cohen's d value of 0.77 indicated a practically significant difference in gender perceptions. Similar to abusive supervision, women perceived greater unpredictability in leadership, with a mean score of 2.17 and an SD of 1.04. At the same time, men reported a lower perception, with a mean score of 2.78 and an SD of 0.96. Cohen's d value of 0.61 confirms a practically visible difference. However, men's perception of narcissism in leadership differed from women's. Men perceived a considerably higher level of narcissism, with a mean score of 1.25 and an SD of 0.55, compared to women, with a mean score of 1.78 and an SD of 0.48. Cohen's d value of 1.05 indicated a practically significant gender-based difference in how narcissism in leadership is viewed. In summary, females tend to perceive abusive supervision and unpredictability in leadership, whereas men have been shown to perceive narcissistic behaviour in leadership.

Table 4.5 presents differences in how employees of different age groups perceive toxic leadership dimensions, showing notable variations in leadership traits between younger (21-40) and older (41 and over) individuals, with corresponding mean scores, standard deviations, p-values, and effect sizes (Cohen's d)

Table 4.5: T-tests for differences in toxic leadership among age groups.

Toxic leadership dimension	N	Age	Mean (M)	Std. Deviation (SD)	P-value (p)	Cohen's d (d)
TL- Self Promotion	137	21-40	2.01	0.90	≤0.01	0.49
	116	41 and over	2.45	0.90		
TL- Abusive Supervision	137	21-40	2.02	0.85	≤0.01	1.05
	116	41 and over	3.01	1.04		
TL- Unpredictability	137	21-40	2.16	0.99	≤0.01	0.66
	116	41 and over	2.82	1.00		
TL- Narcissism	137	21-40	1.44	0.47	≤0.01	0.33
	116	41 and over	1.63	0.66		
TL- Authoritarian Leadership	137	21-40	2.10	0.80	≤0.01	0.50
	116	41 and over	2.52	0.86		

The younger group aged 21–40, had a mean score of 2.01 (SD = 0.90) for self-promotion, while the older group, aged 41 and over, had a mean score of 2.45. Cohen's d value of 0.49 indicated a practically visible difference between the two groups, indicating that the younger group was more likely to perceive self-promotion in leadership than the older group. Regarding abusive supervision, younger employees reported a mean of 2.02 (SD = 0.85), while older employees reported a higher mean of 3.01 (SD = 1.04), indicating a lower perception of abusive supervision by younger respondents. Cohen's d of 1.05 indicated a practically significant difference between these age groups. Regarding unpredictability in leadership, the younger group's mean score was 2.16 (SD = 0.99), while the older group's mean score was 2.82 (SD = 1.00). This indicated that younger employees perceived more unpredictability in leadership. The Cohen's d value of 0.66 indicated a practically visible difference. Regarding narcissism in leadership, the younger

group's mean score was 1.44 (SD = 0.47), while the older group's mean score was 1.63 (SD = 0.66). Cohen's d value of 0.33 reflected a practical visible difference perception gap, with younger employees likelier to perceive narcissism in leadership. Younger employees appeared to perceive authoritarian leadership than older employees, with the younger group scoring a mean of 2.10 (SD = 0.80) and the older group scoring 2.52 (SD = 0.86). Cohen's d value of 0.50 indicated a visible difference between the age groups. In summary, younger employees show to perceive or experience toxic leadership behaviours in leadership (table 4.5).

Table 4.6 presents the differences in perceptions of toxic leadership dimensions between employees and non-managerial employees, shedding light on variations in leadership traits across different job levels.

Table 4.6: T-tests for toxic leadership between post levels/job levels.

Toxic leadership dimension	N	Post - Level	Mean (M)	Std. Deviation (SD)	P-value (p)	Cohen's d (d)
TL- Self Promotion	143	Managers	2.27	0.80	0.30	0.14
	110	Employees	2.14	1.07		
TL- Abusive Supervision	143	Managers	2.76	0.96	≤0.01	0.67
	110	Employees	2.09	1.07		
TL- Unpredictability	143	Managers	2.74	0.90	≤0.01	0.63
	110	Employees	2.10	1.11		
TL- Narcissism	143	Managers	1.32	0.53	≤0.01	0.90
	110	Employees	1.79	0.51		
TL- Authoritarian Leadership	143	Managers	2.34	0.76	0.302	0.14
	110	Employees	2.23	0.96		

Regarding perceptions of abusive supervision in leadership, there was a notable difference in perceptions of abusive supervision, with employees perceiving a higher level of such behaviour (mean = 2.09, SD = 1.07) than managers (mean = 2.76, SD = 0.96). The medium Cohen's d value of 0.67 indicated a practically visible difference in how

abusive supervision was viewed by employees compared to managers, indicating that employees felt more strongly about the presence of such behaviours in their leadership. Similarly, perceptions of unpredictability in leadership differed between the two groups, with employees perceiving more unpredictability (mean = 2.10, SD = 1.11) compared to managers (mean = 2.74, SD = 0.90). Cohen's d value of 0.63 indicated a practically visible difference, with employees more likely to view leadership as unpredictable. Narcissism also showed a significant gap in perception, with managers perceiving a notably higher level of narcissism (mean = 1.32, SD = 0.53) than employees (mean = 1.79, SD = 0.51). The high Cohen's d value of 0.90 underscored this practically significant difference, indicating that managers are more inclined to perceive narcissistic traits in leadership. In summary, employees perceive more abusive supervision and unpredictability compared to managers, whereas managers showed to perceive narcissistic behaviour in leadership than employees.

Table 4.7 present differences in perceptions of organisational culture dimensions between male and female employees, showing significant variations in how they perceive participation, respect, action orientation, trust, openness, and power distance within the organisation.

Table 4.7: T-tests for differences in organisational culture among gender.

Toxic leadership dimension	N	Gender	Mean (M)	Std. Deviation (SD)	P-value (p)	Cohen's d (d)
OC- Participation	133	Female	3.41	0.92	≤0.01	0.42
	120	Male	2.85	1.65		
OC- Respect for individual	133	Female	3.70	1.26	≤0.01	1.08
	120	Male	2.47	0.99		
OC- Action orientation	133	Female	2.73	0.87	≤0.01	0.73
	120	Male	2.10	0.82		
OC- Trust	133	Female	3.13	0.71	≤0.01	0.66
	120	Male	2.48	1.23		

Toxic leadership dimension	N	Gender	Mean (M)	Std. Deviation (SD)	P-value (p)	Cohen's d (d)
OC- Openness	133	Female	3.59	0.90	≤0.01	0.53
	120	Male	2.87	1.77		
OC- Power Distance	133	Female	2.85	0.84	≤0.01	0.44
	120	Male	2.46	0.96		

Women reported a higher mean score of 3.41 (SD = 0.92) in participation than men, who scored a mean of 2.85 (SD = 1.65). This indicated that women felt less included in their organisational culture than men. The moderate Cohen's d value of 0.42 indicated a practically visible difference. The results also revealed that women perceive considerably lower levels of respect within their organisation than men. Women scored a higher mean of 3.70 (SD = 1.26) in respect, while men scored 2.47 (SD = 0.99). The high Cohen's d value of 1.08 underscored a practically significant difference, indicating that women felt less valued and respected than their male counterparts. In terms of action, women perceived the organisational culture as less action-oriented, scoring a mean of 2.73 (SD = 0.87), whereas men scored a mean score of 2.10 (SD = 0.82). The moderate to high Cohen's d value of 0.73 indicated a practically significant difference between genders, with women feeling that their organisation was less proactive or dynamic in its approach. Regarding trust, women's perception was lower, with a mean score of 3.13 (SD = 0.71) compared to men (Mean = 2.48; SD = 1.23). This medium Cohen's d value of 0.66 pointed to a visible practically significant difference, suggesting that women might feel less trust within their organisation, both in terms of interpersonal relationships and perhaps in the reliability of organisational processes and leadership. The survey also showed that women perceive the organisational culture as less open, scoring a mean of 3.59 (SD = 0.90), while men scored a mean of 2.87 (SD = 1.77). The moderate Cohen's d value of 0.53 highlighted a practical visible difference, indicating that women might have fewer opportunities for open communication and expressing ideas. Lastly, women perceived a higher power distance, scoring a mean of 2.85 (SD = 0.84), compared to men, who scored a mean of 2.46 (SD = 0.96). The moderate Cohen's d value of 0.44 indicated a practically visible difference, with women perceiving a greater hierarchical divide or less egalitarian

structure within their organisation. In summary, women appeared to experience an unfavourable organisational culture than men.

Table 4.8 presents differences in perceptions of organisational culture dimensions between employees aged 21-40 and those aged 41 and over, showing significant variations in how these age groups perceive participation, respect, action orientation, trust, openness, and power distance within the organisation.

Table 4.8: T-tests for differences in organisational culture among age groups.

Organisational culture dimension	N	Age	Mean (M)	Std. Deviation (SD)	P-value (p)	Cohen's d (d)
OC-Participation	137	21-40	3.77	1.08	≤ 0.01	1.16
	116	41 and over	2.41	1.26		
OC-Respect for individuals	137	21-40	3.57	1.21	≤ 0.01	0.82
	116	41 and over	2.59	1.19		
OC-Action orientation	137	21-40	2.64	1.10	≤ 0.01	0.51
	116	41 and over	2.19	0.52		
OC-Trust	137	21-40	2.94	1.06	0.04	0.26
	116	41 and over	2.68	1.02		
OC-Openness	137	21-40	3.88	1.09	≤ 0.01	1.11
	116	41 and over	2.5	1.41		
OC-Power Distance	137	21-40	2.63	1.10	0.45	0.09
	116	41 and over	2.71	0.65		

The younger group aged 21–40, reported a mean score of 3.77 (SD = 1.08), indicating that they perceived less participation in their organisational culture than their older counterparts. The mean score for the older group was 2.41 (SD = 1.26), which was notably lower. The high Cohen's *d* value of 1.16 highlighted a practically significant difference between these age groups. Regarding respect, the younger group perceived lower levels of respect within the organisation than the older group. The mean score for the younger group was 3.57 (SD = 1.21), while the older group scored a mean of 2.59 (SD = 1.19). The large Cohen's *d* value of 0.82 showed a practically significant difference in perception. This disparity indicated that younger employees might feel less valued or acknowledged in their work environment than older employees. Regarding action, younger employees again perceived their organisational culture as less action oriented. They scored a mean of 2.64 (SD = 1.10), while the older group scored a mean of 2.19 (SD = 0.52), indicating that they viewed their organisation as more proactive. Cohen's *d* value of 0.51 indicated a practically visible difference in this perception, with younger employees potentially viewing their organisation as less dynamic or responsive. Finally, a significant gap was evident in the perception of openness within the organisation. Younger employees scored a mean of 3.88 (SD = 1.09), indicating that they perceived the organisational culture as less open compared to the older group, which scored a mean of 2.50 (SD = 1.41). The large Cohen's *d* value of 1.11 underscored a practically significant difference, indicating that younger employees may feel fewer opportunities for open communication, idea sharing or innovation within their organisation. In summary, overall, younger employees appeared to be experiencing unfavourable organisational culture, with action leaning towards neutral in responses.

Table 4.9 presents differences in perceptions of organisational culture dimensions between managerial and non-managerial employees, revealing significant variations in how they perceive participation, respect, action orientation, trust, openness, and power distance within the organisation.

Table 4.9: T-tests for organisational culture between post levels/job levels.

Organisational culture dimension	N	Post - levels	Mean (M)	Std. Deviation (SD)	P-value (p)	Cohen's d (d)
OC- Participation	143	Managers	2.88	1.54	0.00	0.71
	110	Employees	3.49	0.94		
OC- Respect for individual	143	Managers	2.53	0.86	≤0.01	1.49
	110	Employees	3.89	1.36		
OC- Action orientation	110	Managers	1.99	0.67	≤0.01	1.58
	143	Employees	2.99	0.86		
OC- Trust	110	Managers	2.63	1.15	≤0.01	0.67
	143	Employees	3.06	0.83		
OC- Openness	110	Managers	3.06	1.64	0.02	0.55
	143	Employees	3.49	1.03		
OC- Power Distance	110	Managers	2.33	0.89	≤0.01	1.16
	143	Employees	3.09	0.76		

Regarding respect, managers had a lower mean score of 2.53 (SD = 0.86) than employees, who scored a higher mean of 3.89 (SD = 1.36). The large Cohen's d value of 1.49 underscored a statistically significant difference, indicating that employees might feel less valued or acknowledged within their work environment. This significant difference could reflect a divide in how respect is distributed or perceived across hierarchical levels in the organisation. Regarding action, managers perceived their organisational culture as more action-oriented than employees. Managers scored a mean of 1.99 (SD = 0.67), while employees scored higher at 2.99 (SD = 0.86). The large Cohen's d value of 1.58 signified a statistically significant difference. Regarding trust, managers had a lower mean score of 2.63 (SD = 1.15), indicating a higher level of trust in the organisation, compared to employees who scored a mean of 3.06 (SD = 0.83). The large Cohen's d value of 0.67 showed a statistically significant difference in perception, with employees experiencing a slightly lower level of trust. Finally, employees scored a mean of 3.09 (SD = 0.76) on

power distance, indicating that they perceived a higher level of power distance within the organisation than managers, who scored a lower mean of 2.33 (SD = 0.89). The large Cohen’s d value of 1.16 indicated a statistically significant difference, suggesting that employees might feel a more significant hierarchical divide or less egalitarian structure within the organisation than their managerial counterparts. In summary, employees appeared to experience less respect and felt neutral about action, trust, and power distance.

Table 4.10 presents differences in turnover intention between male and female employees, revealing significant variations in how they perceive and express their intention to leave the organisation.

Table 4.10: T-tests for differences in turnover intention among gender.

Dimension	N	Gender	Mean (M)	Std. Deviation (SD)	P-value (p)	Cohen’s d (d)
Turnover intention	133	Female	4.12	0.55	≤0.01	0.77
	120	Male	3.34	0.71		

Female employees had a mean turnover intention score of 4.12 with an SD of 0.55, indicating that they were, on average, leaning more towards the higher end of the scale, closer to ‘always’ considering leaving. This contrasted with male employees, who exhibited a lower mean score of 3.34 and SD of 0.71. The marked difference between these scores is quantified by a large Cohen’s d value of 0.77, suggesting a statistically significant difference in turnover intentions. In summary, females appeared to be more inclined to leave the organisation.

Table 4.11 presents differences in turnover intention between employees aged 21-40 and those aged 41 and over, showing significant variations in how these age groups perceive and express their intention to leave the organisation.

Table 4.11: T-tests for differences in turnover intention among age groups.

Turnover intention Construct	N	Age	Mean (M)	Std. Deviation (SD)	P-value	Cohen’s d (d)
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					(p)	
Turnover intention	137	21-40	4.11	0.67	0.00	1.24
	116	41 and over	3.33	0.60		

The mean score for this group was 4.11, with an SD of 0.67. In contrast, the mean score for the older group was 3.33, with an SD of 0.60. The large Cohen's d value of 1.24 indicated a statistically significant difference between the two age groups. In summary, younger employees appeared to be more inclined to leave the organisation.

Table 4.12 present differences in turnover intention between managerial and non-managerial staff members, revealing that non-managerial employees express a higher likelihood of wanting to leave the organisation.

Table 4.12: T-tests for turnover intention between post levels/job levels.

Turnover intention Construct	N	Post - Level	Mean (M)	Std. Deviation (SD)	P-value (p)	Cohen's d (d)
Turnover intention	133	Managers	3.41	0.57	0.00	1.48
	120	Employees	4.19	0.72		

The mean score for employees was 4.19, with an SD of 0.72, while the mean score for managers was 3.41, with an SD of 0.57. Cohen's d value of 1.48 highlighted a statistically significant difference between these two groups. In summary, non-managerial employees (the employees) appeared to be more inclined to leave the organisation.

4.6 RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN SUBCONSTRUCTS AND CONSTRUCTS OF TOXIC LEADERSHIP, ORGANISATIONAL CULTURE, AND TURNOVER INTENTION

As observed in Table 4.13, participation, a dimension of organisational culture, appeared to have low to moderate negative correlation with unpredictability ($r = -0.44$), narcissism ($r = -0.20$), authoritarian leadership ($r = -0.48$), abusive supervision ($r = -0.53$) and self-promotion ($r = -0.59$). This implied no relationship between all toxic leadership dimensions

and participation. Therefore, this could imply that as participation increased, the dimensions of toxic leadership decreased or vice versa.

Table 4.13 also showed that respect, a dimension of organisational culture, appeared to have a medium to high negative correlation with authoritarian leadership ($r = -0.68$), self-promotion ($r = -0.73$), abusive supervision ($r = -0.81$), and unpredictability ($r = -0.76$) implying that there was no relationship between the above-stated dimensions toxic leadership and respect. Therefore, this could imply that as respect increased, the dimensions of toxic leadership decreased or vice versa. However, respect also showed a positive correlation with narcissism ($r = 0.08$), with a very small positive correlation, but this correlation was not statistically significant.

As presented in table 4.13, action, a dimension of organisational culture, appeared to have a low negative correlation with abusive supervision ($r = -0.14$), unpredictability ($r = -0.28$), and authoritarian leadership ($r = -0.19$). This implies no relationship between action and the dimensions of toxic leadership mentioned above. However, the action was shown to be positively correlated with self-promotion ($r = 0.01$) and narcissism ($r = 0.25$) with a small correlation. However, this positive correlation was not statistically significant.

Table 4.13 also displayed that trust, a dimension of organisational culture, appeared to have a medium negative correlation with self-promotion ($r = -0.47$), abusive supervision ($r = -0.48$), unpredictability ($r = -0.63$) and authoritarian leadership ($r = -0.64$). This implied that there is no relationship between trust and the dimensions of toxic leadership mentioned above. However, a very small positive correlation between trust and narcissism ($r = 0.15$) was observed. Nevertheless, this positive correlation was not statistically significant.

In addition, table 4.13 showed that openness, a dimension of organisational culture, appeared to have a low to medium negative correlation with narcissism ($r = -0.22$) and authoritarian leadership ($r = -0.39$), unpredictability ($r = -0.35$), abusive supervision ($r = -0.44$) and self-promotion ($r = -0.60$). This implies that there is no relationship between openness and all dimensions of toxic leadership. Therefore, as openness increased the dimensions of toxic leadership decreased or vice versa.

Lastly, table 4.13 showed that power distance, a dimension of organisational culture, appeared to have a low to medium negative correlation with self-promotion ($r = -0.25$), abusive supervision ($r = -0.32$), unpredictability ($r = -0.40$) and authoritarian leadership ($r = -0.47$) implying that there was no relationship between power distance and the dimensions mentioned above of toxic leadership. However, power distance appeared to be positively correlated with narcissism ($r = 0.14$), with a very small correlation. However, this positive correlation was not statistically significant.

In summary, the negative and small positive correlations between toxic leadership dimensions and organisational culture subconstructs imply that toxic leadership does not influence organisational culture. This means that it does not result in a toxic organisational culture in the study's selected clinical research organisation.

Table 4.13 also showed that toxic leadership appeared to have a medium to high negative correlation with self-promotion ($r = -0.57$), authoritarian leadership ($r = -0.59$), abusive supervision ($r = -0.85$), and unpredictability ($r = -0.77$). This implied that there is no relationship between turnover intention and the dimensions of toxic leadership mentioned above. However, a very small positive correlation between turnover intention and narcissism ($r = 0.13$) was observed. Nevertheless, this positive correlation was not statistically significant. The negative and small positive correlations between toxic leadership dimensions and turnover intention implied that toxic leadership did not influence turnover intention in the study's selected clinical research organisation.

Toxic leadership appeared to be positively correlated with the dimensions of organisational culture with low to high correlation, namely: participation ($r = 0.46$), respect ($r = 0.79$), action ($r = 0.27$), trust ($r = 0.39$) and openness ($r = 0.37$) (Table 4.13). This positive relation implied that turnover intention could be due to some aspects of the organisational culture.

Overall, in summary, the findings presented in table 13 confirm that there is no relationship between the subconstructs of toxic leadership and those of organisational culture. Therefore, toxic leadership is not responsible for the toxicity of the organisational culture in the selected clinical research organisation for this research study. Also, there is no relationship between toxic leadership dimensions and turnover intentions. Meaning toxic leadership behaviour within the organisation is not responsible for the employee's

intentions to leave the organisation. However, the findings revealed a significant positive relationship between organisational culture and turnover intention. This implies that turnover intention could be due to some aspects of the organisation.

Table 4.13 below presents a correlation matrix showing the relationships between various factors related to toxic leadership, organisational culture, and turnover intention, providing insights into how these constructs interrelate.

Table 4.13: Correlation matrix between the construct’s factors.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
TL-Self-Promotion	1.00											
TL- Abusive Supervision	0.78**	1.00										
TL- Unpredictability	0.78**	0.87**	1.00									
TL – Narcissism	0.37**	0.06	0.06	1.00								
TL- Authoritarian Leadership	0.85**	0.75**	0.85**	0.30**	1.00							
OC_ Participation	-0.59**	-0.53**	-0.44**	-0.20**	-0.48**	1.00						
OC- Respect for individual	-0.73**	-0.81**	-0.76**	0.08	-0.68**	0.63**	1.00					
OC- Action orientation	0.01	-0.14*	-0.28**	0.25**	-0.19**	-0.08	0.19**	1.00				
OC- Trust	-0.47**	-0.48**	-0.63**	0.15*	-0.64**	0.48**	0.63**	0.18**	1.00			
OC- Openness	-0.60**	-0.44**	-0.35**	-0.22**	-0.39**	0.86**	0.53**	-0.34**	0.38**	1.00		
OC- Power Distance	-0.25**	-0.32**	-0.40**	0.14*	-0.47**	0.09	0.45**	0.65**	0.44**	-0.15*	1.00	
Turnover intention	-0.57**	-0.85**	-0.77**	0.13*	-0.59**	0.46**	0.79**	0.27**	0.39**	0.34**	0.37**	1.00

Table 4.14 presents a correlation matrix showing the relationships between the main constructs of toxic leadership, organisational culture, and turnover intention.

Table 4.14: Correlation matrix between the main constructs.

	Toxic leadership	Organisation culture	Turn over intention
Toxic leadership	1.00		
Organisation culture	-0.75**	1.00	
Turn over intention	-0.81**	0.71**	1.00

There was a strong negative correlation between organisational culture and toxic leadership with a correlation coefficient of -0.75. This indicated that as the levels of toxic leadership decreased, the level of organisational culture tended to increase significantly. In other words, as the presence or intensity of toxic leadership within the organisation decreased, the overall health and positivity of the organisational culture tended to increase considerably. Thus, it was perceived that there was no connection between toxic leadership behaviours and organisational culture.

The correlation coefficient between toxic leadership and turnover intentions was -0.81. This correlation indicated a strong negative correlation, similar to the organisational culture and toxic leadership. When toxic leadership decreased, turnover intentions tended to increase, or when toxic leadership increased, turnover intentions tended to decrease. This indicated that there was no statistical and practical significance between toxic leadership and turnover intention. This negative correlation implies that toxic leadership does not significantly predict employee turnover intentions. Therefore, there was no perceived relationship between toxic leadership and toxic leadership behaviour.

There was a medium positive correlation between organisational culture and turnover intention with a correlation coefficient of +0.71. This correlation value indicated that as the perception of the organisational culture decreased the level of turnover also increased, or as the perception of organisational culture improves, turnover intention tended to decrease significantly. This indicated that there was a statistical and practical significance between organisational culture and turnover intention.

Overall, in summary, there is no relationship between toxic leadership behaviour and organisational culture, however, organisational culture appeared to be linked to turnover intention.

4.7 MEDIATOR ROLE OF ORGANISATIONAL CULTURE IN THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN TOXIC LEADERSHIP AND TURNOVER INTENTION.

Structural equation modelling was used to establish the mediating role of organisational culture between toxic leadership and turnover intention. Figure 4.1 indicates a non-significant negative relationship between toxic leadership and turnover intention (Standardised Regression Weight = -0.12, p-value = 0.16). The results also indicated a significant negative relationship between toxic leadership and organisational culture (Standardised Regression Weight = -0.82, p-value <0.001). Furthermore, a positive significant relationship is observed between organisational culture and turnover intention (Standardised Regression Weight = 0.69, p-value <0.001).

Figure 4.1: The structural equation modelling displays the results for the mediation role of organisational culture between toxic leadership and turnover intention in this study. The model suggests that organisational culture does not mediate the relationship between toxic leadership and turnover intention.

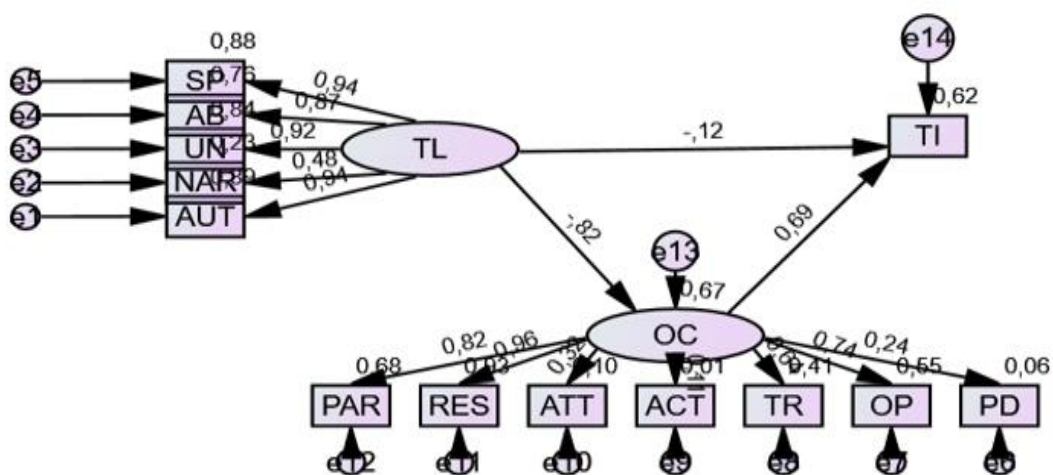


Figure 4. 1: The results from the structural equation modelling (SEM) analysis.

The structural model equation was used to examine the proposed conceptual model for this study that represented the mediating role of organisational culture between toxic leadership and turnover intention. To do that, goodness-of-fit measures were used to assess how well the proposed model reproduced the patterns of associations amongst the observed variables to fit the data.

Table 4.15: Goodness of fit for the proposed conceptual framework for this study.

Model	CMIN	CMIN/DF	TLI	CFI	RMSEA
Turnover intention	1930037	30636	0,57	0,54	0,34

The TLI (0, 57) and CFI (0, 54), with an RMSEA of 0.34 [0.33; 0.36], were below the established cut-off point (values greater than 0.95 indicating a good fit), according to the goodness-of-fit statistical analysis results (Table 4.15). The accepted guideline value for RMSEA that is around 0.05 is considered a sign of a good fit. Therefore, the model did not fit the data well. However, the model did explain 68.4% of the variation in turnover intention. Organisational culture mediated 83.19% of the effect of toxic leadership on turnover intention.

In summary, the SEM model analysis revealed that organisational culture does not influence the relationship between toxic leadership and turnover intention in the selected clinical research organisation for this research study.

4.8 ESTABLISHING WHICH TOXIC LEADERSHIP DIMENSION IS THE BEST PREDICTOR OF TURNOVER INTENTION

Multiple regression analysis was performed to determine which toxic leadership dimension is the best predictor of turnover intention in the selected clinical research organisation. Table 4.16 presents the results of multiple regression analyses performed with the five toxic leadership dimensions, namely self-promotion, abusive supervision, unpredictability, narcissism and authoritarian leadership, as independent variables, and turnover intention as the dependent variable.

Table 4.16: Multiple regression analysis with turnover intention as a dependent variable.

Variables	Unstandardised coefficients	Standardised coefficients	p-value
	B	Beta	
(Constant)	5.14		≤ 0.001
Self-Prom	0.37	0.46	≤ 0.001
Abusive Sup	-0.70	-0.99	≤ 0.001
Unpredictability	-0.06	-0.08	0.35
Narcissism	0.01	0.010	0.83

As observed in Table 4.16 the regression model explained about 75% of the variance of turnover intention. The only statistically significant predictors in the model were self-promotion and abusive supervision (p-values < 0.001). Focusing on the standard regression coefficients, abusive supervision was the most important independent variable within the model (Std β = -0.99) and self-promotion was the second most important (Std β = 0.46). In summary, according to the multiple regression analysis, abusive supervision, and self – promotion appeared to be possible predictors of turnover intention. However, the correlation matrix revealed that abusive supervision and self – promotion are negatively correlated with turnover intention. Therefore, abusive supervision and self – promotion cannot be the predictors of turnover intention for this research study.

4.9 SUMMARY

Chapter 4 of this study focused on analysing and interpreting the results obtained from the survey questionnaire. Toxic leadership and its relationship with organisational culture and turnover intention were investigated in this study. Statistical analysis methods such as descriptive and inferential statistics, SEM, and multiple linear regression were used to analyse the collected quantitative data. The IBM Statistical Package for Social Sciences Version 25 (IBM SPSS, 2023) and AMOSTM, Version 29.0.1.1 for Microsoft Windows (IBM SPSS, Amos, 2023) was used for statistical analysis. Cronbach’s alpha coefficients were used to determine the constructs’ reliability. Descriptive statistics such as mean and standard deviation, independent tests and Spearman rank-order correlations were used to analyse the data. Structural Equation Modelling (SEM) was used to determine the

mediating role of organisational culture and the best predictor of turnover intention based on all dimensions of toxic leadership. Multiple regression analysis was performed to determine which independent variables predicted the dependent variables. The chapter also provided a comprehensive descriptive analysis of the demographic characteristics of the respondents. The characteristics considered for this study included age, gender, job category (occupation), and highest qualifications. The findings of this study are crucial for understanding the nature and impact of toxic leadership on employees and organisations and developing effective strategies to mitigate its negative effects.

The following chapter discusses the findings, managerial implications, suggestions, and conclusions.

CHAPTER 5: DISCUSSION OF RESULTS, MANAGERIAL IMPLICATIONS, RECOMMENDATIONS AND CONCLUSIONS

5.1 INTRODUCTION

Chapter 5 discussed the research results, managerial implications, recommendations, and conclusions. The chapter began with an introduction that emphasised the significance of workers' opinions of their workplace and leadership in contemporary organisations. Employee perceptions and experiences at work are greatly impacted by three interrelated factors: toxic leadership, organisational culture, and intention to leave.

The chapter focused on the demographic characteristics of the research respondents, followed by a discussion on the reliability of the measuring instruments. Then, it discussed the perceived levels of toxic leadership, turnover intention, and organisational culture. The chapter explored the relationship between the constructs and the mediator role of organisational culture. It also discussed the best predictor of toxic leadership dimensions on turnover intention. The chapter concluded with managerial implications, recommendations, future research, limitations, and conclusions based on the findings.

5.2 DISCUSSION ON THE DEMOGRAPHIC CHARACTERISTICS OF THE RESPONDENTS

Based on the survey results, it can be observed that most of the respondents were female, constituting 52.6% of the total respondents, while the remaining were male, constituting 47.7%. In addition, most respondents (41.9%) were between the ages of 41 and 50. Other age groups that were represented were 31-40 (48.6%), 21-30 (5.5%), 51-60 (2.4%), and 61 and over (1.6%). In terms of educational qualifications, most respondents possessed a National Diploma (NQF Level 5), which accounted for 35.2% of the total respondents, followed by a Degree (NQF Level 7) (34.2%), Honours/Postgraduate Diploma (NQF Level 8) (17.4%), and Master's (NQF Level 9) (7.9%). The job level of the respondents indicated that most of them were unskilled but had decision-making skills (50.2%), followed by managers/supervisors (27.7%), unskilled employees without decision-making skills (15.8%), and semi-skilled employees with discretionary decision-making skills (6.3%).

5.3 DISCUSSION ON THE RELIABILITY OF THE MEASURING INSTRUMENTS

The Cronbach's alpha coefficient determines the reliability of a scale that measures consistent constructs. A coefficient of 0.70 or higher is generally considered acceptable in social science research. The study found that the abusive supervision and authoritarian leadership scales, part of the toxic leadership dimensions, have high reliability with an alpha coefficient of 0.89 and 0.77, respectively. However, the narcissism scale has a lower reliability with an alpha coefficient of 0.61, possibly because it only has five items. On the other hand, the self-promotion and unpredictability scales have good reliability with alpha coefficients of 0.78 and 0.90, respectively.

The participation scale is highly reliable in the organisational culture dimensions, with an alpha coefficient of 0.95. Respect for the individual, action orientation, trust and openness scales also have good to high reliability, with alpha coefficients ranging from 0.80 to 0.88. However, the power distance scale has a lower reliability with an alpha coefficient of 0.61, which could be attributed to fewer items (3) or variability in responses.

The Turnover Intention Scale has high reliability with an alpha coefficient of 0.89.

Most scales used in the study have good to high reliability, except for the narcissism and power distance scales, which have lower reliability due to fewer items or variability in responses. However, it is worth noting that constructs with fewer items or variability in responses are expected to have lower Cronbach's alpha coefficients. Hence, these scales may still be acceptable, considering their brief nature.

5.4 DISCUSSION ON PERCEIVED LEVELS OF TOXIC LEADERSHIP, ORGANISATIONAL CULTURE AND TURNOVER INTENTION

The first objective of this study was to measure employees' perceived levels of toxic leadership, organisational culture, and turnover intention. The findings from the descriptive analysis of employees' perceived levels of toxic leadership, turnover intention and organisational culture provided a comprehensive overview of the prevailing dynamics within the organisation. These results not only highlighted the prevalent perceptions among both managers and general employees in the clinical research organisation, but

also laid the foundation for deeper insights into the organisational climate, both positive and concerning aspects.

The assessment of toxic leadership dimensions revealed a concerning trend. Particularly, self-promotion, authoritarian leadership, unpredictability, and abusive supervision appeared with low mean values, with narcissistic behaviours displaying the lowest mean score, implying that employees perceive these traits to be prevalent within the organisational context. These findings imply a potential environment of discomfort and instability and a toxic work environment attributed to these toxic leadership characteristics (Reed 2004:67). In addition, the lower mean reported for narcissism may suggest that this particular trait is perceived to have more influence or prevalence compared to the other dimensions of toxic leadership. The variety of behaviours that comprise a toxic leadership style is determined by how others perceive them and the outcomes of their actions (Lipman-Blumen, 2005:2). According to some literature, toxic leaders may be perceived as bad leaders by some, while heroes by others (Pelletier, 2010:374; Lipman-Blumen, 2005: 2 and 11).

The fact that these toxic leadership behaviours are perceived to be present within this study's selected clinical research organisation, even at a minimal level, raises a concern. Toxic leadership behaviour is harmful to employees' feelings. It could result in negative employee outcomes such as job dissatisfaction, reduced organisation commitment and employee performance, negative impact on employee well-being and increased turnover intention (Brouwers & Paltu, 2020; Singh *et al.*, 2018:8; van Rooij & Fine, 2018:6; Judge *et al.*, 2006:770). This could also be detrimental to the organisation and its performance (Kiliç, M. & Günsel, 2019: 52 - 56).

In contrast to the toxic leadership aspects, the organisational culture dimensions revealed a more favourable perception, with action orientation, trust, and openness indicating the lowest mean values. This could suggest that a workplace culture encourages involvement and values individual perspectives. However, the moderate levels identified in participation, openness and respect for individuals indicate areas where the organisational culture might need further attention or improvement. Overall, it can be concluded that the organisational culture at the selected clinical research organisation is not toxic or unfavourable to employees. Employees perceive it as a positive workplace

environment even though it was found to be linked to turnover intention. This could be due to other factors such as job dissatisfaction, reduced organisation commitment and employee performance or lack of employee well-being.

The assessment of turnover intention among employees revealed a critical concern regarding retention. Employees reported moderate to high intentions to leave the organisation, highlighting potential challenges in employee retention. This finding underlines the urgency for organisational introspection and strategic interventions to address the underlying issues contributing to employees' intentions to leave their current organisation, which could stem from the perceived toxic leadership traits and specific aspects of organisational culture.

5.5 DISCUSSION ON DIFFERENCES IN TOXIC LEADERSHIP ORGANISATIONAL CULTURE AND TURNOVER INTENTION BETWEEN GENDER, AGE GROUPS AND POST-LEVELS

The second objective of this study was to establish the differences in toxic leadership, organisational culture and turnover intention among genders, age groups and post-levels. Analysing the differences in toxic leadership, organisational culture and turnover intention across gender groups provided essential insights. Across several dimensions of toxic leadership, namely narcissism, abusive supervision and unpredictability, females showed significantly lower mean scores for abusive supervision and unpredictability compared to males. This suggests that female employees are more likely to experience abusive supervision, and unpredictability behaviours within the selected clinical research organisation for this study. However, narcissism behaviour appeared to be perceived by males.

Moreover, regarding organisational culture, females consistently perceived higher levels of action, trust, openness, and participation than males, with respect for individuals being the highest. These findings suggest that female employees might experience a less favourable organisational culture regarding these dimensions, indicating potential differences in workplace experiences between genders.

Various academic studies have shed light on gender differences in organisational behaviour and workplace experiences. Research by Eagly & Johannesen-Schmidt (2001)

and Eagly & Karau (2002:573) revealed gender differences in leadership styles, indicating that male leaders tend to exhibit more autocratic or authoritarian leadership styles than females, who often adopt more participative and transformational approaches. This aligns with the findings indicating higher scores of abusive supervision and unpredictability among males, potentially stemming from these leadership differences.

Additionally, a study by Powell and Graves (2003) highlighted that organisational cultures often reflect gender imbalances, with male-dominated cultures emphasising hierarchical structures and power distance, while female-influenced cultures emphasise collaboration, trust, and openness. This correlates with the observed differences in this research study in the perception of organisational culture, where females reported higher levels of lack of respect, trust, openness, and participation than males.

With turnover intention, females exhibited significantly higher intentions to leave the organisation than males. This suggests that female employees are more likely than their male counterparts to quit their current jobs, which may be a reflection of workplace dissatisfaction or other issues that have an uneven impact on retention.

Paltu and Brouwers's (2020) research on turnover intentions emphasised that various factors, including perceived organisational support, organisational commitment, and job satisfaction influence turnover intentions. In this study, the observed higher turnover intentions among females might indicate a lack of satisfaction or reduced perceived support within the workplace, contributing to a greater propensity to leave the organisation.

The study aimed to discover the differences in perceptions of toxic leadership, organisational culture, and turnover intention among different age groups within the selected clinical research organisation for this study. Statistical analyses employing t-tests facilitated the examination of these differences, focusing on age brackets of 21–40 and 41 and over.

The results revealed that the two age groups' perceptions of toxic leadership behaviours differed significantly. The younger age bracket (21 - 40) consistently reported higher levels of toxic leadership across various dimensions, including self-promotion, abusive supervision, unpredictability, narcissism, and authoritarian leadership. This suggests that

younger employees experience and perceive more pronounced detrimental leadership behaviours than their older counterparts.

Regarding organisational culture, significant variations emerged between the age groups. The younger employees (21–40) consistently reported moderate levels of negative cultural aspects in terms of participation, respect and openness compared to their older counterparts. However, there was no notable difference in perceptions of power distance between the two age groups, indicating a similar experience in this cultural aspect.

Moreover, the study identified a remarkable difference in turnover intentions between age groups. Younger employees displayed significantly higher turnover intentions compared to their older counterparts.

The findings of this study align with existing literature on workplace dynamics and age-related perceptions. A study by Schalk *et al.* (2010:87) has highlighted age-related differences in perceptions of leadership and organisational culture. Older employees tend to have different expectations and experiences of leadership behaviours, often due to their accumulated experience and exposure to various management styles over their career path (Schalk *et al.*, 2010:81). This could explain the higher perception of toxic leadership behaviours among older employees, as they might have a benchmark of comparison based on prior experiences.

Moreover, the study resonates with the age-related differences in turnover intentions reported by Nienaber & Masibigiri (2012:67). Younger individuals often exhibit higher levels of turnover intentions due to various factors such as career advancement aspirations, job dissatisfaction, or the pursuit of new opportunities (Nienaber & Masibigiri, 2012:67; Ivanović & Ivančević, 2010:55). This aligns with the observed higher turnover intentions among younger employees reported in this study, reflecting their propensity to seek changes in their career paths.

In the workplace, the younger generation's values differ from those of other generations (Gabrielova & Buchko, 2021:493). Younger generations tend to value collaborative and inclusive work environments, which might explain their higher perceptions of positive cultural aspects than their older counterparts (Gabrielova & Buchko, 2021:495).

Overall, the study's findings resonate with established literature on age-related differences in workplace perceptions, indicating the relevance of considering age as a significant factor in understanding employee perspectives on toxic leadership, organisational culture, and turnover intentions.

The study investigated differences in perceptions of toxic leadership, organisational culture, and turnover intention among distinct job levels. Statistical analyses, including t-tests and effect size assessments, facilitated comparing these job categories to understand differences in perceptions within the organisation. The findings also revealed notable differences in the perceptions of toxic leadership behaviours between managers and employees across various dimensions. Employees (non-managerial staff) tended to perceive higher levels of abusive supervision and unpredictability within leadership than employees. Conversely, managers reported significantly higher levels of narcissism exhibited by leaders (their direct reporting managers) compared to their employee counterparts.

Significant variations appeared between managers and employees across multiple dimensions regarding organisational culture. Employees consistently perceived higher levels of lack of participation, respect, action, and openness within the organisation than managers. These differences suggest that employees do not perceive a more positive and inclusive organisational culture, characterised by increased involvement and respect, compared to how managers perceive these cultural aspects.

Moreover, the study identified a significant difference in turnover intentions between managers and employees. Employees demonstrated significantly higher turnover intentions compared to managers. This difference points towards underlying factors within the workplace environment that might contribute to a stronger inclination to leave the organisation among employees than their managerial counterparts.

The findings of this study align with existing literature on hierarchical differences in workplace perceptions and turnover intentions. A study by Kanter (1976) highlighted the impact of hierarchical roles on perceptions of leadership behaviours. Hierarchical differences can lead to varying perspectives on leadership due to power dynamics and differing experiences within the organisational hierarchy (Kanter, 1976). This could

explain the differences in perceptions of toxic leadership behaviours between managers and employees in this study.

Moreover, the study resonates with research by Hofstede (1980) and O'Reilly *et al.* (2014) concerning cultural dimensions in the workplace. Hierarchical differences can contribute to differing perceptions of organisational culture across various dimensions. Employees at different levels within the organisational structure may perceive aspects like participation, respect, and openness differently than managers, which is consistent with the observed variations in this study (Hofstede, 1980; O'Reilly *et al.*, 2014).

Furthermore, the differences in turnover intentions between managers and employees align with research on turnover theory by Shin *et al.* (2020). Organisational commitment, job embeddedness and job satisfaction are significant factors influencing turnover intentions, and these can vary between hierarchical levels due to differences in job roles, responsibilities, and perceived organisational support (Shin *et al.*, 2020).

In summary, the study's findings underline the hierarchical differences in perceptions of toxic leadership, organisational culture, and turnover intentions within the workplace, aligning with established literature on hierarchical roles and their impact on workplace dynamics.

5.6 DISCUSSION ON THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN TOXIC LEADERSHIP ORGANISATIONAL CULTURE AND TURNOVER INTENTION

The study investigated the intricate connections between toxic leadership, organisational culture, and turnover intention within a selected clinical research organisation for this study. The correlations highlighted specific associations between these constructs, elucidating potential insights into employee behaviours and organisational dynamics.

The overall trend indicated negative correlations between toxic leadership dimensions and various aspects of organisational culture, suggesting limited statistical and practical significance. Meaning there is no relationship between toxic leadership and organisational culture based on the results obtained in this study. The results revealed that these traits exist within the organisation but do not impact the organisational culture and turnover intention.

The investigation of toxic leadership concerning turnover intention depicted no associations. Self-promotion, abusive supervision, unpredictability, and authoritarian leadership negatively correlated with turnover intention. Interestingly, narcissism displayed a very small positive correlation with turnover intention, indicating a potential but statistically insignificant relationship between this specific dimension of toxic leadership and turnover intention within the clinical research organisation studied.

The analysis identified strong correlations between several dimensions of organisational culture and turnover intention. Respect, participation, trust, openness, and power distance demonstrated statistically and practically significant positive correlations with turnover intention. Even action, though with a very small effect, exhibited a positive correlation with turnover intention. This suggests that different aspects of organisational culture may have an impact on employees' intention to leave the organisation.

Existing literature postulates a complex interplay between toxic leadership, organisational culture, and turnover intention. Studies have indicated that toxic leadership behaviours significantly impact employees' attitudes and behaviours within an organisation. Toxic leadership characteristics have been linked to an increase in employees' intentions to quit (Paltu & Brouwers, 2020). But this study showed that turnover intentions are unaffected by toxic leadership. Even though there was not relationship observed between toxic leadership and turnover intention, the turnover intention could be due to other factors such as job dissatisfaction, reduced organisation commitment and employee performance, and negative impact on employee wellbeing (Paltu & Brouwers, 2020; Singh *et al.*, 2018:8; van Rooij & Fine, 2018:6; Judge *et al.*, 2006:770).

Moreover, the significance of organisational culture in influencing employee turnover is well-documented. A positive organisational culture has been associated with higher employee retention rates (Brenyah & Tetteh, 2016:51; Al-Suraihi *et al.*, 2021:2). Conversely, (Al-Suraihi *et al.*, 2021:2) reported that negative aspects of organisational culture, especially those that are not favourable to employees often contribute to increased turnover intentions among employees. Although organisational culture was favourable for men in this study, it still influenced the intention. This could be due to other underlying factors not considered in this research or respondents who disagreed with some of the questions.

While the current study in the clinical research organisation suggests limited practical significance between specific dimensions of toxic leadership and turnover intention, this is consistent with the idea that organisational culture has a significant impact on workers' decisions to remain with or leave a company. The theories covered in the literature review section of this study could also explain this.

5.7 DISCUSSION ON THE MEDIATOR ROLE OF ORGANISATIONAL CULTURE IN THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN TOXIC LEADERSHIP AND TURNOVER INTENTION

The researchers aim to conduct mediation analysis was to investigate how organisational culture might mediate the relationship between turnover intention and toxic leadership. The findings presented intriguing insights into these relationships but highlighted certain limitations in the proposed model's fit.

The analysis revealed significant negative associations between toxic leadership, turnover intention, and organisational culture. A positive significant relationship was observed between organisational culture and turnover intention. These results suggest that organisational culture tends to be linked with higher turnover intentions and poorer toxic leadership behaviour. Moreover, a positive culture correlates with a greater intention to stay within the organisation (Brenyah & Tetteh, 2016:51).

The findings of this study suggested that toxic leadership is negatively associated with turnover intention. These findings are contrary to literature that reported that toxic leadership influences turnover intentions due to a leader's behaviour, such as self-promotion, abusive supervision, narcissism, unpredictability, and authoritarian leadership (Schmidt, 2008; Schmidt, 2014; Paltu & Brouwers, 2020). The presence of an indirect effect of toxic leadership on turnover intention, not fully accounted for in this summary, suggests a potential mediation through other unexplored variables. This emphasises the complexity of the relationship between toxic leadership and turnover intention, indicating the involvement of intermediary factors beyond the scope of this model.

Additionally, the results showed a negative correlation between toxic leadership and organisational culture. The study's findings are contrary to the literature, where it was found that toxic leadership behaviours often result in toxic organisational culture by modifying the concept of ideal leadership (Giberson *et al.*, 2009). Green (2014:18), cited

by Singh (2018:4), stated that perspective-toxic leaders allow their moods and attitudes to influence the climate within the organisation.

Furthermore, the incomplete mediation role by organisational culture and the presence of unaccounted indirect effects from toxic leadership suggest unexplored variables or complex interactions within the organisational context.

5.8 DISCUSSION ON WHICH TOXIC LEADERSHIP DIMENSION IS THE BEST PREDICTOR OF TURNOVER INTENTION

Amongst the toxic leadership dimensions, abusive supervision and self-promotion appeared to be statistically significant in predicting turnover intention. Also, self-promotion exhibited a moderate to high positive association with turnover intention, which could mean that self-promotion predicts turnover intention in this study's selected clinical research organisation. However, the overall interpretation of this study concluded that toxic leadership dimensions are not associated with turnover intention, and the correlation matrix table and SEM model indicated that toxic leadership is negatively associated with turnover intention, which means that abusive supervision and self-promotion cannot be the best predictor of turnover intention in this study. There is a lack of evidence from the literature that indicates that abusive supervision and self-promotion are the best predictors of turnover intention.

5.9 MANAGERIAL IMPLICATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The findings of this study have significant implications for the management of clinical research organisations. Based on the results and discussions, the following managerial implications and recommendations can be made:

The study revealed that self-promotion and narcissism are prevalent traits of toxic leadership in the clinical research organisation studied. Such characteristics tend to create a toxic work environment and may result in increased employee turnover. Therefore, management needs to identify and address toxic leadership behaviours and practices. This can be achieved through leadership training programmes, coaching, and mentoring for managers and supervisors. It is also essential to establish a culture of open

communication, where employees can report any toxic behaviour without fear of retaliation.

The study found that the clinical research organisation has a possible unfavourable organisational culture, characterised by a lack of participation, respect for individuals, action orientation, and openness, indicating that there may be a need to address these aspects within the organisation, especially concerning women employees. To foster a healthy and sustainable work environment, management should encourage a culture of collaboration and inclusivity. Leaders should promote transparency and fairness in decision-making while ensuring all employees feel valued and respected.

The study revealed a relatively high turnover intention among employees in the clinical research organisation. The prevalence of toxic leadership characteristics, particularly abusive self-promotion and narcissism, may increase turnover intention further. To mitigate this, management should prioritise addressing toxic leadership behaviour and practices. Additionally, management should provide opportunities for career development and growth, offer competitive remuneration packages, and create a positive work-life balance for employees.

5.10 RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

Future research could explore the relationship between toxic leadership, organisational culture and turnover intention in other industries and contexts. Additionally, it may be valuable to investigate the impact of other factors, such as job satisfaction and work engagement, on turnover intention. Finally, qualitative research methods, such as interviews and focus groups, could provide a deeper understanding of employees' experiences with toxic leadership and its impact on the work environment.

5.11 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

Despite the valuable insights generated from this study, several limitations should be considered. Firstly, the sample size was relatively small, which may limit the generalisation of the findings to other contexts. Secondly, the study only focused on one clinical research organisation, thus limiting the extent to which the results can be generalised to other industries. Thirdly, the study was based on self-reported data, which

may be subject to social desirability bias and may not accurately reflect the actual behaviour and attitudes of the respondents. Finally, the study was conducted at one point, which may not provide a comprehensive understanding of the dynamics of toxic leadership, turnover intention, and organisational culture over time.

5.12 CONCLUSION

Based on the results discussed in Chapter 5, it can be concluded that employees' perceptions of their work environment and leadership play a crucial role in shaping their experiences in the workplace. The results of the study indicate that three interrelated factors have a significant impact on experiences and perceptions employees in their workplace: turnover intention, organisational culture, and toxic leadership. The study also emphasised the reliability of the measuring tools employed in the investigation as well as the demographic traits of the research participants. The study found that most scales used in the study have good to high reliability, except for the narcissism and power distance scales, which have lower reliability due to fewer items.

The study revealed concerning trends in the perceived levels of toxic leadership dimensions, with self-promotion, authoritarian leadership, unpredictability, and abusive supervision appearing with low mean values and narcissistic behaviours displaying the lowest mean score. These findings imply a potential environment of discomfort and instability and a toxic work environment attributed to these toxic leadership characteristics.

In conclusion, this study highlights the importance of addressing toxic leadership and organisational culture in modern workplaces. The study's findings provide insights into the dynamics within the organisation and lay the foundation for future research and recommendations. Organisations must prioritise creating a positive work environment and culture to ensure employee well-being and retention. The study's managerial implications and recommendations provide actionable steps for organisations to address toxic leadership and cultivate a positive work environment. Finally, the study's limitations and future research provide avenues for further exploration and improvement in this critical area of research.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A: ETHICAL CLEARANCE LETTER



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2520

Tel: 018 299-1111/2222
Fax: 018 299-4910
Web: <http://www.nwu.ac.za>

Senate Committee for Research Ethics
Tel: 018 299-484
Feziwe.Mseleni@nwu.ac.za

19 September 2023

ETHICS APPROVAL LETTER OF STUDY

Based on approval by the **Economic and Management Sciences Research Ethics Committee (EMS-REC)** on, 25/06/2023 the Economic and Management Sciences Research Ethics Committee hereby **approves** your study as indicated below. This implies that the North-West University Senate Committee for Research Ethics (NWU-REC) grants its permission that, provided the special conditions specified below are met and pending any other authorisation that may be necessary, the study may be initiated, using the ethics number below.

Study title: Investigating toxic leadership's Influence on employee turnover in Clinical Research Industry: Mediator role of Organisational culture

Study Leader/Supervisor (Principal Investigator)/Researcher): Prof PA Botha

Student: D Jantjies (24446384)

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Institution Study Year Status

Status: S = Submission; R = Re-Submission; P = Provisional Authorisation; A = Authorisation

Application Type:

Commencement date: 19/09/2023 Risk: Minim

Expiry date: 19/09/2024

Approval of the study is initially provided for a year, after which continuation of the study is dependent on receipt and review of the annual (or as otherwise stipulated) monitoring report and the concomitant issuing of a letter of continuation.

General conditions:

While this ethics approval is subject to all declarations, undertakings and agreements incorporated and signed in the application form, the following general terms and conditions will apply:

- The study leader/supervisor (principal investigator)/researcher must report in the prescribed format to the EMS-REC:
 - annually (or as otherwise requested) on the monitoring of the study, whereby a letter of continuation will be provided, and upon completion of the study; and
 - without any delay in case of any adverse event or incident (or any matter that interrupts sound ethical principles) during the course of the study.
- The approval applies strictly to the proposal as stipulated in the application form. Should any amendments to the proposal be deemed necessary during the course of the study, the study leader/researcher must apply for approval of these amendments at the EMS-REC, prior to implementation. Should there be any deviations from the study proposal without the necessary approval of such amendments, the ethics approval is immediately and automatically forfeited.
- Annually a number of studies may be randomly selected for an external audit.
- The date of approval indicates the first date that the study may be started.
- In the interest of ethical responsibility, the NWU-SCRE and EMS-REC reserves the right to:
 - request access to any information or data at any time during the course or after completion of the study.
 - ask further questions, seek additional information, require further modification, or monitor the conduct of your research or the informed consent process.
 - withdraw or postpone approval if:
 - any unethical principles or practices of the study are revealed or suspected.
 - it becomes apparent that any relevant information was withheld from the EMS-REC or that information has been false or misrepresented.
 - submission of the annual (or otherwise stipulated) monitoring report, the required amendments, or reporting of adverse events or incidents was not done in a timely manner and accurately; and / or new institutional rules, national legislation or international conventions deem it necessary.

Special in process conditions of the research for approval (if applicable)

The EMS-REC would like to remain at your service as scientist and researcher and wishes you well with your study. Please do not hesitate to contact the EMS-REC or the NWU-SCRE for any further enquiries or requests for assistance.

Yours

Mark

Rathbone

Digitally signed by Mark Rathbone
DN: cn=Mark Rathbone, o=North-
West University, ou=Business
management,
email=mark.rathbone@nwu.ac.za,
c=ZA
Date: 2023.09.21 12:04:14 +02'00'

sincerely,

Prof Mark Rathbone

Chairperson: NWU Economic and Management Sciences Research Ethics Committee

APPENDIX B: INFORMED CONSENT LETTER



BUSINESS SCHOOL
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08 Feb 2023

Informed Consent to participate in the research study

Dear participant, my name is Daniswa Jantjies. I am an MBA student at North-West University, Potchefstroom campus. A research study that counts toward your Master of Business Administration (MBA) degree is extending an invitation to you to participate. The details of this study will be explained in more detail if you take the time to read the material provided here. If there is any aspect of this study that you do not fully understand, please do not hesitate to ask the researcher or the person presenting the research to you questions. It is crucial that you are completely satisfied with your understanding of the purpose of this research and how you might be involved. Furthermore, you have complete discretion over whether to participate. You won't be negatively impacted in any manner by saying no. Even if you do consent to participate in the study now, you are free to leave at any time. The information below is about the study and your participation.

The purpose of this research

What is the purpose of this research?

An MBA candidate from North-West University in South Africa is doing this research. The objective of this research is to better understand how the actions of managers and leaders impact workers and the workplace, which can ultimately result in worker discontent and turnover (a worker quitting the company). The researcher will determine the influence of toxic leadership on employee turnover, while the organisational culture plays a mediator role.

The title of the research study is as follows: Investigating Toxic Leadership's Influence on Employee Turnover in Clinical Research Industry: Mediator Role of Organisational Culture

Expectations and confidentiality assurance

Expectation (s) from participants

The participants will be questioned on their past or current supervisors, either directly or indirectly. Each question will have to be carefully read by the participants, who are then instructed to enter the corresponding number in the blank next to it.

Please complete the questionnaires to the best of your ability, honestly and openly. The questionnaires will take approximately 15–20 minutes to complete.

Please note that your responses are completely anonymous, and no personally identifiable data will be collected. That means no names, surnames or contact details are required.

Participants confidentiality

The researcher will try their best to maintain the privacy of participants' personal information. No information about the participants submitted will be shared with anyone. The name of the participant will not appear on surveys or other forms that collect data, nor will it be kept in any electronic data file. When needed, every participant will be assigned a combination of a number and a letter, no names and surnames will be requested. This is called de-identification. Participants' data will be securely stored at North-West Business School for 5 years. Data will be destroyed after storage.

The identity of the participants will be kept as anonymous as possible when the researcher writes their report or research results on this research project. Please be aware that if you or another person is in danger or if we are obliged to do so by law, we may share your information with North-West University, or relevant authorities.

In terms of compliance, this research study will be compliant with the Protection of Personal Information Act (POPIA Act No. 4 of 2013).

Expectations from this research study

The findings of this study will enhance the researcher's understanding of leadership. The researcher anticipates that this study will help people understand different leadership philosophies and help others with leadership and management in the future by providing a better understanding of specific traits that support effective leadership and people management. The managerial implications will also assist managers and leaders in becoming more aware of and improving their behaviour towards those who report under them.

Voluntary participation

Participation in this study is entirely voluntary. The participants have the option of stopping participating in the study. If the participant wants to take part in this study, they can withdraw at any time. They will not be punished or lose any advantages for which you would otherwise be eligible if they decide not to participate in this study or if they decide to discontinue at any time.

The link to the questionnaires will be sent via email after you have consented to participate in this study.

If you (the participant) need more information about the study, please reach out to me or my supervisor. Contact details are provided below:

The researcher's contact details:

Daniswa Jantjies
North-West University student
Business School
0733052738
daniswa.jantjies@gmail.com
/24446386@mynwu.ac.za

My supervisor's contact details:

Professor PA Botha
Deputy Director NWU Business
School
Potchefstroom Campus
Mobile: (083) 326 8542
petrus.botha@nwu.ac.za

APPENDIX C: DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION

Purpose of this section

In this section, demographic characteristics will be gathered from the respondents/participants. The questionnaires for this section will include the following, respondents' age group, gender, and educational status.

The demographic information section will allow the researcher to better understand certain background characteristics of participants such as age, race, education, ethnicity, income, work situation, marital status, etc. All this information will be used to sample participants. This will give the researcher detailed insight and a better understanding of the target population of the study.

The following information is needed to help us with the statistical analysis of the data for comparisons among different respondents. All your responses will be treated confidentially. We appreciate your help in providing this important information.

Mark the applicable block with a cross (X). Complete the applicable information							
A1	What age are you?	≤ 29		30 – 39	40 – 49	50 - 59	60+
A2	Female	Male					
A3	Educational Status	Matric	Diploma	Degree	Hons (NQF 8)	Master's (NQF 9)	PhD (NQF 10)
A4	Occupational level	Description					Mark with (X)
	Director	Professional qualified and experienced specialists and mid-management					
	Manager/Supervisor	Skilled technical and academically qualified workers, junior management, supervisors, foremen and superintendents					
	Employee 1	Semi-skilled and discretionary decision-making					
	Employee 2	Unskilled and defined decision-making					
	Employee 3	Unskilled and no decision-making					

APPENDIX D: INSTRUMENTS FOR DATA COLLECTION

Information for this research study will be gathered and recorded in this section. After data analysis, this will help in addressing the study's aims, objectives, and research questions.

Section A: Data collection instrument for toxic leadership

Please note that each question starts with “my supervisor...”

Toxic leadership items	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither agree nor disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
Thinks that he/she is more capable than others	1	2	3	4	5
Ridicules subordinates	1	2	3	4	5
Believes that he/she is an extraordinary person	1	2	3	4	5
Will only offer assistance to people who can help him/her get ahead	1	2	3	4	5
Denies responsibility for mistakes made in his/her unit	1	2	3	4	5
Will ignore ideas that are contrary to his/her own	1	2	3	4	5
Remind subordinates of their past mistakes and failures	1	2	3	4	5
Speaks poorly about subordinates to other people in the workplace	1	2	3	4	5
Allows his/her mood to affect his/her vocal tone and volume	1	2	3	4	5
Invades the privacy of subordinates	1	2	3	4	5
Holds subordinates responsible for things outside their job descriptions	1	2	3	4	5
Publicly belittles subordinates	1	2	3	4	5
Is inflexible when it comes to organisational policies, even in special circumstances	1	2	3	4	5
Varies in his/her degree of approachability	1	2	3	4	5
Drastically changes his/her demeanour when his/her supervisor is present	1	2	3	4	5

Toxic leadership items	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither agree nor disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
Allows his/her current mood to define the climate of the workplace	1	2	3	4	5
Assumes that he/she is destined to enter the highest ranks of my organisation	1	2	3	4	5
Controls how subordinates complete their tasks	1	2	3	4	5
Has a sense of personal entitlement	1	2	3	4	5
Affects the emotions of subordinates when impassioned	1	2	3	4	5
Accepts credit for success that does not belong to him/him	1	2	3	4	5
Thrives on compliments and personal accolades	1	2	3	4	5
Is not considerate about subordinate commitments outside of work	1	2	3	4	5
Determines all decisions in the unit whether they are important or not	1	2	3	4	5
Causes subordinates to try to "read" his/her mood	1	2	3	4	5
Tells subordinates they are incompetent	1	2	3	4	5
Express anger at subordinates for unknown reasons	1	2	3	4	5
Does not permit subordinates to approach goals in new ways	1	2	3	4	5
Has explosives outbursts	1	2	3	4	5
Acts only in the best interest of his/her next promotion	1	2	3	4	5

Section B: Data collection instrument for organisational culture

Organisational culture items	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither agree nor disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
Participation					
Everybody is encouraged to participate in meetings	1	2	3	4	5
In meetings, managers seek to understand everyone's viewpoint	1	2	3	4	5
Team members are prepared to challenge the assumptions of the group	1	2	3	4	5
Speaking out the truth, even if it is bitter, is encouraged	1	2	3	4	5
Respect for the individual					
My manager/supervisor trusts me to deliver on his/her expectations	1	2	3	4	5
My manager/supervisor believes that good ideas and solutions to problems can come from any member of the group	1	2	3	4	5
My organisation makes the best out of my intellectual capability	1	2	3	4	5
Action orientation					
In this organisation, a lot of discussions happened but very little seems to get done	1	2	3	4	5
A number of projects are initiated with gusto and enthusiasm, but they do not seem to get anywhere	1	2	3	4	5
We believe in the precept – 'nothing ventured, nothing gained'	1	2	3	4	5
Trust					
Most people in my organisation can be relied upon to keep their promises	1	2	3	4	5
I believe that my colleagues are well-intentioned individuals	1	2	3	4	5
I believe that my manager/supervisor will treat me fairly while appraising my performance	1	2	3	4	5

Organisational culture items	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither agree nor disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
Openness					
The top management believes in communicating important news and events with organisational members across all levels	1	2	3	4	5
Most senior members of my organisation are approachable /accessible	1	2	3	4	5
Power distance					
I believe that work-related confrontations among members can lead to poorer group performance	1	2	3	4	5
A confronting member in the group can stand to lose his/her social standing	1	2	3	4	5
In group meetings, most of the talking is done by the group manager/supervisor	1	2	3	4	5

Section C: Data collection instrument for turnover intention

Turnover intention items							
How often have you considered leaving your job?	Never	1	2	3	4	5	Always
How frequently do you scan the newspapers/online platforms in search of alternative opportunities?	Never	1	2	3	4	5	All the time
How satisfying is your job in fulfilling your personal needs?	Very satisfying	1	2	3	4	5	Dissatisfying
How often are you frustrated when not given the opportunity at work to achieve your personal related goals?	Never	1	2	3	4	5	Always
How often are your values at work compromised?	Never	1	2	3	4	5	Always
How often do you dream about getting another job that will better suit your personal needs?	Never	1	2	3	4	5	Always
How likely you to accept another job at the same compensation are level should it be offered to you?	Highly unlikely	1	2	3	4	5	Highly likely
How often do you look forward to another day at work?	Always	1	2	3	4	5	Never
How often do you think about starting your business?	Never	1	2	3	4	5	Always
10R. To what extent do responsibilities prevent you from quitting your job?	To no extent	1	2	3	4	5	To a very large extent
11R. To what extent do the benefits associated with your current job prevent you from quitting your job?	To no extent	1	2	3	4	5	To a very large extent
How emotionally are you agitated when arriving home after work?	Never	1	2	3	4	5	Always
To what extent does your current job have a negative effect on your personal well-being?	To no extent	1	2	3	4	5	To a very large extent
14R. To what extent does the "fear of the unknown", prevent you from quitting?	To no extent	1	2	3	4	5	To a very large extent
15. How frequently do you scan the internet in search of alternative job opportunities?	Never	1	2	3	4	5	All the time

APPENDIX E: TURNITIN REPORT



Turnitin report of
final mini dissertation

APPENDIX F: CONFIRMATION OF PROFESSIONAL EDITING



Blue Diamonds Professional Editing Services (Pty) Ltd

Polishing **your** brilliance

Email: jacquibaumgardt@gmail.com

Website: www.jaybe9.wixsite.com/bluediamondsediting

24 January 2024

Declaration of editing

Investigating toxic leadership's influence on employee turnover intention in a clinical research organisation: The mediating role of organisational culture

S.D.Z. Jantjies

I declare that I have edited and proofread this report. My involvement was restricted to language usage and spelling, completeness and consistency. I did no structural re-writing of the content.

I am qualified to have done such editing, being in possession of a Bachelor's degree with a major in English, having taught English to matriculation, and having a Certificate in Copy Editing from the University of Cape Town. I have edited more than 500 Masters and Doctoral theses, as well as articles, books and reports.

As the copy editor, I am not responsible for detecting, or removing, passages in the document that closely resemble other texts and could thus be viewed as plagiarism. I am not accountable for any changes made to this document by the author or any other party subsequent to the date of this declaration.

Sincerely,

A handwritten signature in black ink that reads "Baumgardt".

Dr J Baumgardt

UNISA: D. Ed. Education Management

University of Cape Town: Certificate in Copy Editing

University of Cape Town: Certificate in Corporate Coaching



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