The Mediation Role of Toxic Leadership in the Effect of Job Stress on Job Satisfaction

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ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study is to test the effect of job stress on job satisfaction, to define whether the employees' perceptions of a toxic leader have an effect on the significant relationship between these two variables. If there are any affects, determine whether the toxic leadership is a partial or full moderating force, and make suggestions which will increase the welfare of the organization for employees. In line with this purpose, the data for the study has been obtained from 124 workers. As a result of analysis performed, a significant relationship has been found between job stress and job satisfaction. It has been determined that, as a result of a multiple regression analysis on the mediating effect, a toxic leader perception is a partial moderator variable on the effect of job stress on job satisfaction, and that a 1-unit increase in job stress resulted in a decrease of 0.308 units on a job satisfaction scale, while a 1-unit increase in toxicity perception resulted in a decrease of 0.111 units on the job satisfaction scale.

I.   INTRODUCTION

"Job satisfaction" is expressed as a reaction of employees to the situation at the workplace (Yeh and Hsieh, 2017), and can also be defined as a cognitive, emotional and an evaluating reaction to various dimensions of an individual's job (Djordjević, 2017). In other words, "job satisfaction" refers to the individual's occupation-related attitudes towards factors such as the job itself, managers, colleagues, working conditions, wages, rewards, and recognition (Sharma, 2017). Job satisfaction is a complex, multidimensional concept explored in a wide range of interdisciplinary trades, such as organizational psychology, business, marketing, management, human resources and sociology (Zheng et al., 2017). The main reason why job satisfaction became such an intense area of work is the effect on various organizational outputs, such as commitment, performance, and recognition. Therefore, job satisfaction is an extremely important indicator for both an organization and its employees (Yeh and Hsieh, 2017). Job satisfaction has been examined at an individual level and in an organizational context, because of it, more attention has been given to this topic (Judge et al., 2002). Factors affecting job satisfaction at the individual level are factors such as the duration of study, socio-cultural environment, intelligence, personality, occupational status and work, level of education, marital status, gender and age. Factors affecting the job satisfaction in an organizational context are factors such as the organizational environment, colleagues, working conditions, competition, promotion opportunities, wage, communication, participation in decisions, sense of security, style of supervision, style of management, incentive, quality of work and the physical characteristics (Tengilimoğlu, 2005). Job-related dimensions of job satisfaction, according to Golpayegan (2017), represent components such as wage and job security, job content, job conditions and working hours. In fact, the job satisfaction depends on the combination of different job dimensions, and one's total satisfaction is determined by the amount of value the individual gives each of these dimensions.

Job satisfaction can be categorized according to the needs of the individual (Smith et al., 1969). Among the various theories in this context, two theories developed by Maslow (1954) and Herzberg et al. (1957) are the two popular theories of motivation applied in the research of job satisfaction. Herzberg's theory, which forms the theoretical basis of the external job satisfaction factors, is often called the two-factor theory and deals with both internal and external factors. "Internally satisfying the factors" refers to personal success, recognition, value and development. External factors are related to the environment in which the employees perform their occupations, such as their working conditions, wages, job security, company policies, and organizational support. While the external factors tend to minimize their work dissatisfaction, the presence of positive internal factors can motivate them and lead to a superior performance. By combining Maslow's hierarchy of needs with Herzberg's two-dimensional factors, it was expressed that the higher-level needs (internal factors) cannot be fulfilled unless the lower-level needs (external factors) are fulfilled (Zheng et al., 2017).

There has been a great interest in the research of job satisfaction on gender differences. Women on average get a lower share than men in terms of job-related promotion and autonomy to balance job and home needs. Mason (2001) studied a sample of more than 13,000 US workers in a study of job-related gender differences in terms of job satisfaction and found no difference between men and women in the workplace. The

men were more inclined to deal with anxiety-inducing work and lack of morale compared to women, and the women tried to balance the decline in job satisfaction on their end (Magee, 2013), since some studies showed that, on average, women cared more about having internal rewards (appreciation) than about job satisfaction, while men tended to value external rewards more (Kim, 2005).

The relationship between personality types and job satisfaction is among the important research in literature. It is necessary for organizations to provide an environment which gives more importance to the personality traits of the people, and makes the individuals more connected to the organization, so that the personnel perform better. In this context, the instinctual personality type has a significant relationship with job satisfaction (Golpayegan, 2017).

In literature, job satisfaction is regarded as the main element of job commitment, or choosing not to leave and change it (Liu et al., 2010; Park and Kim, 2009; Brown and Peterson, 1993). The sources of job satisfaction for employees are the main focus of the matter. Therefore, it is necessary to focus on the resources of job satisfaction in order to increase the efficiency of the employees via adjusting their perceived job satisfaction and to decrease their intentions to leave. Studies conducted up to this date have indicated that managerial support and person-organization alignment are important elements of job satisfaction within perceived organizational support (Galletta et al., 2011; Narayanan and Sekar, 2009; Schaubroeck and Fink, 1998).

There have been researchers over a long period of time who have an interest in factors which affect the attitudes and behaviors of employees. Wnuk (2017) argued that employees seek jobs with values which are consistent with their own, and thus, an employee-organization alignment will become stronger when the organization provides a coherent working environment with the employees' values, professional goals, capabilities, competencies and knowledge. The organizational support perceived by the employee shows how an employee perceives the possibilities offered by the organization. Both perceived managerial support and person-organization alignment have influenced perceived organizational support positively (Wnuk, 2017). Individuals are more satisfied in their organization when they feel that their abilities, values and experiences are being used adequately (Sharma, 2017). Job satisfaction is an important factor in determining organizational performance. When employees' satisfaction with an organization is low, employees can start looking for new jobs, which can negatively affect organizational performance (Yeh and Hsieh, 2017).

As observed in the studies in the literature, job satisfaction is a very important concept for both organizations and employees. Job satisfaction plays an important role in optimizing the organizational atmosphere with effects such as employees' continuity of work, integration into organizational goals, adaptation within the organization and having high level of sense of mission. Therefore, besides the desire of the employees of each organization to be satisfied of their jobs, the managers of the organizations also want the employees to develop job satisfaction and managerial strategies are followed accordingly. One of these strategies is to minimize the job stress, but not to eliminate it completely, since has been observed that work performance declines in a stress-free environment. Similarly, the low work performance has been noted in those working under high stress. Thus, organizational managers aim at the "optimal stress" level, i.e. the organizational climate in which unnecessary stress factors are eliminated. In order for managers to be able to provide job satisfaction to employees, it is necessary to carefully

examine various factors such as excessive workload, authority-responsibility imbalance, and mismatch between individual and the job, which can cause extraordinary stress. One of these factors is leadership. Unlike the manager, while the leadership is expected to reflect on the organization positively, the leader causes toxicity in the organization in toxic leadership type. Therefore, the mediating role of toxic leadership type, which is considered likely to cause unusual stress, has been examined in this research.

The purpose of the research conducted is to determine whether job stress has an effect on job satisfaction, which is quite important for the performance and productivity in organizations to examine whether a toxic leader perception has a mediating role on this effect, and to examine the effects of toxic leadership. The research conducted is important in terms of including findings on improving job satisfaction, demonstrating the importance of toxic leadership, contributing to the issue of toxic leadership, which is rarely studied in literature, and emphasizing the integrated effect of multiple factors in studies of organizational behavior.

II.   TOXIC LEADERSHIP: TOXIC DIMENSION OF LEADERSHIP

In terms of organizational behavior, Whicker (1996) defined toxic leadership in literature as the leader being incompatible, anxious and malicious. In military terms, toxic leadership was addressed for the first time in the U.S. Army Doctrine No. 6-22. Accordingly, toxic leadership is a combination of self-centered attitudes, motivations and behaviors that can create negative effects on task performance, the organization and subordinates. Toxic leaders, who prioritize individual personal objectives in comparison to organizational goals and cannot stand criticisms (Zagross and Jamileh, 2016), are defined as individuals who create a very serious, permanent, or even toxic effects on societies, individuals, organizations, and families exposed to their methods (Heppell, 2011).

Toxic leadership is proven by a negative impact on the organization, and it can be any of the resources to be addressed, any incompatibility or intolerance to commit malice (Reed, 2014). Kasalak and Aksu (2016) stated that the determinants of toxicity are negative comments on gender/racial traits, directions in interpersonal relations, weaknesses in organizational communication, rumors and personal conflicts, problem solving and decision-making processes and domination (by) fear in duties and responsibilities. Reed (2004), on the other hand, stated that toxic leader syndrome basically has three main elements. These are (1) A clear lack of concern for the wellness/welfare of the subordinates; (2) A personality or interpersonal technique negatively affecting the organizational climate; and (3) A belief of the subordinates that the leader is first motivated by his or her own interests

Toxic behavior may include intimidation, bullying, manipulation, too quickly following-up, also displaying narcissism, and immoral behaviors. "The main reasons for a leader's destructive behavior include personality traits such as authoritarianism, narcissism, selfishness and superiority, values system, low self-esteem and negative experiences" (Güldü and Aksu, 2016:94). Possible consequences are anxiety, depression, emotional exhaustion, fear, social isolation, and physical health problems in workers affected by toxic leadership, for different reasons (Webster et al., 2016). As a reflection of this, employees who consider the leaders in their organizations as toxic leaders are less

satisfied with the relationships with their colleagues, their subordinates and their superiors, their job, profession and wages (Reed and Olsen, 2010).

Different aspects of employees are very sensitive to toxic leaders (Lipman-Blumen, 2005). The first of them is existential anxiety. An example of this anxiety is caused by the awareness that we will die. The second is our psychological needs. As Maslow explains in the hierarchy of needs, needs make workers sensitive to toxic leaders. The third is crises - rapid changes and turmoil in everyday life. These factors lead to situational fears. All of these aspects keep employees' perception of their toxic leader and allow them to develop attitudes that change in both individual and organizational contexts.

III.   JOB STRESS: A DOMINANT FACTOR IN ORGANIZATIONS

Generally, stress is defined as emotional and physiological reactions to stress sources, and these stress sources can be triggered by job or occupational conditions (Maslach et al., 1996). Stress caused by a person's employment is called job stress (Menon et al., 2015). Job stress is a complex phenomenon and a subjective experience. Shivendra and Kumar (2016) have identified job stress as "harmful physical and emotional reactions (which) arise when a job's needs and individuals' skills do not match their abilities, resources or needs." It is defined as a major challenge to the individual's mental and physical health and organizational health throughout the world (Menon et al., 2015).

Stress sources can be seen physically, mentally and situationally. Physical stress may arise in cases of an excessive workload, inadequate rest, and a poor diet. Mental stress is based on the mental state of an individual, including daily feelings of hope, anxiety, and remorse. Situational stress is due to our interactions with the outside world, our internal roles and our interactions with the needs of modern life, such as cars, and computers (Banerjee and Mehta, 2016). Job stress leads to health hazards, occupational dissatisfaction, and a loss of productivity. In other words, it affects an individual's physical and mental systems negatively. This can lead to absenteeism, accidents, unprincipled behaviors, dissatisfaction and various diseases. Stress in workers can manifest as frustration, poor performance, and unhealthy relationships at work and at home. However, it is accepted that specific stress is a normal part of life, but elongated stress factors may lead to physical, psychological, or behavioral disorders (Menon et al., 2015).

It has been stated that the gender, age and the personality of an individual are influential in the cause-effect relationship between stress-related psychosomatic problems or negative stress-coping methods and stressors. Psychological stresses can be regulated by occupational and working conditions along with daily life factors and personality. As the authority of an individual to make decisions increases, psychological distress may arise in terms of job insecurity and social support, and a psychosocial working environment may have an effect on the emergence of stress-related disorders. High job demands, low job control, low cooperational support, low educational support, low procedural justice, low relational justice and high effort reward imbalances are stipulated as the causes of stress-related disorders (Kawada and Otsuka, 2014). Al-Omar (2003) determined in his study investigating the sources of job stress on hospital employees that family support, gender, marital status and language were very influential on job stress. The results of the same study show that the women, married women and

foreign employees experienced more job stress than the male, single, and/or native citizen workers. The inadequate technical possibilities, lack of appreciation, long working hours, short breaks, the emergence of health problems, change of work, abandonment of certain applications and unwanted relations with colleagues could explain the changes in the average stress level among employees. In addition, the findings indicated that age and experience have a significant negative relationship with job stress and that there were no significant relationships between the education status and job stress (Al-Omar, 2003).

Colligan and Higgins' study (2006) that revealed the job stress, etiology, and outcomes also evaluated the stress-related factors as an insecure working environment, workload, isolation, working hours, role ambiguity, role conflict, lack of work autonomy, difficulties in cooperation with management and colleagues, authoritarian management, harassment, and organizational climate. In a study on job stress and staff welfare in medical faculties of the universities in the U.S., it was stated that employees are most affected by bureaucracy on job stress (Salmond and Ropis, 2005). In this study, the stress sources of employees were revealed as organizational anticipations, time pressure to perform certain activities, lack of staff to direct the work, and a lack of cooperation with the colleagues. In a study conducted by Nouri and Soltani (2017) on the distribution of job stress among state employees, management turnover, and lacks of planning were stated to be as the strongest stressors. In the same study, the results indicated that another strong factor leading to staff stress was related to physical and psychological health. Another study investigating the sources of stress among university lecturers exhibited weak incentives, lacks of teaching staff offices and opportunities, and a lack of project research of students as the sources of stress (Omoniyi, 2013).

Stress causes costly and irreversible outcomes which affect both individuals and the organization (Nouri and Soltani, 2017). The consequences of stress can be examined both personally and organizationally. These can be considered in three groups individually (Nouri and Soltani, 2017; Ganster and Schaubroeck, 1991):

• Negative behaviors and emotions, such as job dissatisfaction, low motivation, low employee morale, loss of organizational commitment, low professional quality of life, unemployment, waste, a tendency to quit, low productivity, low job quality and quantity, declines in decision making ability, theft, vandalism and workplace delays, as well as alienation, and increased smoking and drinking may be observed.

• Physiological disorders such as blood pressure and heart rate increases, cardiovascular diseases, cholesterol increases, blood sugar increases, insomnia, headaches, infections, skin disorders, and fatigue may be observed.

• Psychiatric disorders such as distress, anxiety, aggression and energy loss, and fatigue, as well as, losses of confidence, losses of self-excitement, losses of concentration, and feelings of emptiness. Typical behaviors are rushing, ignoring social norms and values, dissatisfaction from work and life, often departing from reality and emotionally burning out themselves may be observed. The results of the organizational stress may be approached in two groups (Ganster and Schaubroeck, 1991):

• A loss of employee morale, loss of efficiency and performance, loss of quality of services and products, loss of customer relationships, loss of customers, loss of company image and reputation, loss of opportunities, lack of focus on products, high levels/numbers of accidents and errors, turnover increases, loss of qualified personnel, increase in the number of patients, early retirements, a decrease in cooperation, a decrease

in organizational communication, an increase in organizational clashes, and unpredictable working climates may occur.

- Organizational costs can increase as a result from reduced performance and productivity, those leaving from the organization (worker turnover rate), healthcare services, legal costs of the company and equipment damage (depreciation).

It has been anticipated that the managerial support perceived by employees can significantly reduce job stress as an important factor (Lewicka and Krot; 2015; Monnot and Beehr, 2014). It has been suggested that job stress will lead to increased productivity when addressed at the level of management instead of an individual level, and offers suggestions for job provisions, inclusion of employees in the decision making processes, and awarding rewards for achieving targets according to personal preferences in stress management (Banerjee and Mehta, 2016). In order to overcome job stress, it is necessary to establish incentive, promotion, cooperation and interaction systems among the employees (Santhi and Reddy, 2015) for correct, honest, and hardworking employees by integrating job security with rewards. In particular, it was stated that positive communications with colleagues can mitigate the effect of job stress, whereas negative communications can serve to increase its effect (Monnot and Beehr, 2014). However, when a leader has a highly supportive attitude, it is stated that the employees may undertake a regulatory role in relation to the rescue behavior, depending on the level of job stress (Turunç, 2015).

Contrary to this positive leadership style, toxic leaders do not worry about the negative organizational climate, which is caused by short and long term negative effects. They operate with a sense of emotion. Toxic leaders use persistent dysfunctional behaviors to intimidate, force or punish others to fulfill their wishes. "Organizations in which there is a type of toxic leadership have a lack of trust and integration, egoism and arrogance increase the conflict mismatch within the organization. Toxic leaders often frighten employees, reduce their motivation, cause communication disruptions within organizations, and dissipation of the sense of hopelessness" (Izgüden et al., 2016: 264). In addition to the prior points, toxic leaders can decide very quickly and can change any decision unexpectedly and without specifying a valid reason (Özer et al., 2017). "Toxic leaders deliberately damage others by acting selfishly without care, but they are different from leaders who act cautiously or do not act for a certain purpose, but who somehow adversely affect the organization and employees in another way" (Reyhanoğlu and Akın, 2016; Lipman-Blumen, 2005). At the expense of wasting their subordinates' and their units, they exhibit self-centered careerism behaviors, and this style is characterized by dictatorial and exploitative behaviors which promote an unhealthy organizational climate (Boisselle and McDonnell, 2014).

IV. A RESEARCH ON THE MEDIATING ROLE OF TOXIC LEADERSHIP

A.   The Population and Sample of the Research

A universe of research consists of employees working in the public sector. The sample for the study consisted of the occupations in the public institutions working in the Zonguldak province and participating in the research. A purpose sampling method, among non-probabilistic sampling methods, has been used in the research. In this context, the data was obtained from 150 employees, but a sample size of 124 persons was provided

at an analyzable level since some of the surveys were returned in a missing and/or incorrect manner. The reasons for the selection of public employees in the survey is the fact that some of the criteria, such as performance and success, are pushed to the background, and leaders who are determined with direct assignments are more prone to more toxicity.

B.   The Data Collection Method of the Research

The data to be used in the research was obtained by applying the face-to-face survey method. The survey used to obtain data consisted of three dimensions, being job satisfaction, job stress, and toxic leadership. Minnesota's job satisfaction scale was used to measure job satisfaction, Matteson's job stress scale was used to measure job stress, and the toxic leadership scale developed by Çelebi et al. (2015) was used to measure toxicity.

C.   The Research Model and Hypotheses

A scanning model has been used in the research. The dependent variable of the research was job satisfaction, the independent variable was job stress, and the moderator variable was toxic leadership.

Figure 1
The research model
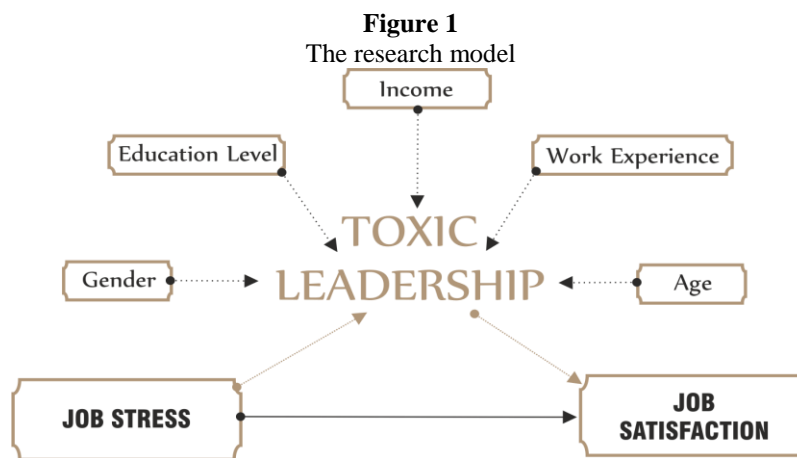
The hypotheses of the research are listed below:

H_{1a}: There is a significant relationship between job stress and job satisfaction.
H_{1b}: A toxic leadership has a mediating effect on job stress and job satisfaction.
H_{1c}: The toxic leadership perception varied based on gender.
H_{1d}: The toxic leadership perception varied based on income level.
H_{1e}: The toxic leadership perception varied based on education level.
H_{1f}: The toxic leadership perception varied based on work experience.
H_{1g}: The toxic leadership perception varied based on age.

D.   The Research Data Analysis

The SPSS (Statistical Package for Social Sciences) 20.0 software was used to evaluate the findings obtained through the research. A reliability analysis had been conducted to determine the internal consistency of the research scales. A correlation analysis was used to determine the direction and intensity of the relationship between dependent and independent variables, a simple linear regression analysis and a multiple regression analysis were used to examine the relationship between variables, and One-Way Analysis and Independent-Samples T tests were used to determine the differences.

E.   Findings Obtained Through the Research

Table 1 shows the frequency values regarding the demographic questions of the public employees participating in the survey. From the obtained data, it was determined that 46% of the sample was male and 54% of the sample was female. Upon the examination of the age distribution, it was observed that the majority of the sample was between 21-50 years of age. The examination of income levels indicated that 66.9% of the population had an income level between TRY 2000-3000. It was determined that only 16.2% of the participants had an associate degree or higher education. With regards to the job experience period, 94.4% had job experience of more than 3 years.

Table 2 contains the alpha coefficients (Cronbach's Alpha) which were used to test the reliability of the scales used in the research. As a result of the reliability analyses, the reliability coefficient of the toxic scale had been determined as 0.735, the reliability coefficient of the job stress as 0.832, and the reliability coefficient of the job satisfaction scale as 0.832. According to these results obtained, the scales used in the research had been defined to have high internal consistency.

Table 3 shows the results of the correlation analysis between the dependent variable and independent variable, as well as the moderator variable and independent variable of the research. According to this table, there was a negatively directed significant relationship between the dependent variable (job satisfaction) and independent variable (job stress) at the moderate level (r=-0.534). A positively directed, significant relationship was determined between the moderator variable (toxic leadership) and independent variable (job stress) at the moderate level (r=-0.605).

Table 4 exhibits the simple linear regression analysis oriented to the relationship between the job stress and job satisfaction. According to the examined result of the regression analysis performed, it had been found that in the regression model, to be established indicates a statistical significance, since the statistical significance values of the F values are lower than 0.05.

The ANOVA results of the regression analysis performed throughout the study are shown in Table 5. According to the analysis results, it had been determined that the change in the job stress explained 28% of the change in job satisfaction scale. Accordingly, the value that job satisfaction can take can be formulated as follows:

Job Satisfaction = 31.214 - (0.530 x Job Stress)

Table 1
Basic information on data providers (N=124)

	Frequency	Percentage
Gender		
Male	57	46.0 %
Female	67	54.0 %
Age		
Younger than 21	2	1.6 %
21-30	23	18.5 %
31-40	68	54.8 %
41-50	30	24.2 %
51-60	1	0.8 %
Monthly Income Level		
Between TRY 1000-2000	17	13.7 %
Between TRY 2000-3000	83	66.9 %
Between TRY 3000-4000	21	16.9 %
Between TRY 4000-5000	2	1.6 %
TRY 5000 or more	1	0.8 %
Education Status		
High School	54	43.5 %
Associate	50	40.3 %
Undergraduate	12	9.7 %
Post-graduate	7	5.6 %
Doctorate	1	0.8 %
Job Experience		
Between 1-2 years	1	0.8 %
Between 2-3 years	6	4.8 %
Between 3-4 years	26	21.0 %
4 years or more	91	73.4 %

Table 2
Reliability analysis

	Cronbach's Alpha
Toxic Leadership Scale	0.735
Job Stress Scale	0.823
Job Satisfaction Scale	0.832

Table 3
Correlation analysis

		Job Stress
Job Satisfaction	Pearson Correlation	-0.534
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.000
Toxic Leader Perception	Pearson Correlation	0.605
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.000

Table 4
Relationship between Job Stress and Job Satisfaction - ANOVA

			Sum of Square	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Model 1	Job Satisfaction	Regression	833.680	833.680		
		Residual	2085.513	17.094	48.769	0.000
		Total	2919.194			

Table 5
Relationship between job stress and job satisfaction - Model summary

			β	t	Sig.	R^2	Adjusted R^2
Model 1	Job Satisfaction	Constant	31.214	17.348	0.000	0.286	0.280
		Job Stress	-0.530	-6.984	0.000		

According to the model, 1-unit increase in job stress appears to result in a decrease of 0.530 units of the job satisfaction scale. These findings confirm the hypothesis H_{1a} of the study. However, to test the H_{1b} hypothesis, an intermediary role for toxic leadership needs to be examined. The moderator model designed by Baron and Kenny (1986) was applied for this. In order to mention the mediating effect of a variable according to this model, the independent variable needs to have an effect on a dependent variable; the independent variable needs to have an effect on a mediating variable, and when the mediating variable is included in the regression analysis, the regression coefficient of the independent variable on the dependent variable needs to decrease. Also, the mediating variable needs to have a significant effect on the dependent variable. The regression analysis performed in that regard is provided below.

Table 6 exhibits the simple linear regression analysis oriented to the relationship between the job stress and toxic leader perception. According to the examined result of the regression analysis performed, it had been found that the regression model to be established indicated a statistical significance, since the statistical significance values of the F values are lower than 0.05.

Table 6

Relationship between job stress and toxic leader perception (moderator) - ANOVA

			Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Model 2	Toxic Leader Perception	Regression	11,889.536	11,889.536		
		Residual	20,568.174	168.592	70.523	0.000
		Total	32,457.710			

Table 7

Relationship between job stress and job satisfaction - Model summary

			β	t	Sig.	R^2	Adjusted R^2
Model 2	Toxic Leader Perception	Constant	55.521	9.826	0.000	0.366	0.361
		Job Stress	2.003	8.398	0.000		

Table 8

Relationship between job stress and toxic leader perception and job satisfaction - ANOVA

			Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Model 3	Job Satisfaction	Regression	1,086.673	543.337		
		Residual	1,832.521	15.145	35.876	0.000
		Total	2,919.194			

The ANOVA results of the regression analysis are shown in Table 7. Accordingly, 36% of the change in employees' perception of having a toxic leader had been explained by the change in job stress. The regression analyses carried out for the last step for the mediating affect are provided below.

Table 8 exhibits the multiple regression analysis oriented to the relationship between the job stress and toxic leader perception and job satisfaction. According to the examined result of the regression analysis performed, it had been found that the regression model to be established indicated a statistical significance.

The ANOVA results of the multiple regression analysis are presented in Table 9. According to the results of the analysis, it was determined that 28% of the change in the job satisfaction of the employees is explained by job stress and a moderator variable toxic leadership. When the 3 developed models were examined, it had been determined that the regression coefficient in the measurement of the relationship of job stress to job satisfaction is -0.530 on the job stress scale; that the regression coefficient regarding the job stress scale decreased to -0.308 in Model 3, which has been developed by adding toxic leadership to Model 1, and a toxic leader perception has indicated a statistically significant affect in Model 3. According to these results, it was determined that the toxic leader perception has a partial mediating effect on the relationship between job stress and job satisfaction.

Table 9
Relationship between job stress and toxic leader perception - Model summary

			β	t	Sig.	R^2	Adjusted R^2
Model 3	Job Satisfaction	Constant	37.372	16.487	0.000		
		Job Stress	-0.308	-3.432	0.001	0.372	0.362
		Toxic Leader	-0.111	-4.087	0.000		

Table 10
Independent samples t test oriented to toxic leader perception and gender

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means				
	F	Sig.	t	df	Sig.(2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std.Error Difference
Equal variances assumed	1.821	0.180	3.244	122	0.002	9.148	2.820
Equal variances not assumed			3.294	122	0.001	9.148	2.777

Table 10 shows the analysis oriented to correlations between toxic leader perception and gender. As a result of the analysis performed, it had been determined that the significance value is less than 0.05. According to this, it had exhibited that there is a significant difference between men and women in the toxicity perception for the organization of the employees and the toxicity perception is higher in the male workers.

Table 11 examines the relationship between the monthly income levels of employees and toxic leader perception. It can be observed in the table that the significance value is greater than 0.05. Accordingly, it had been determined that there was no significant difference in the toxicity perception of the employees of the organization towards their leader based on their monthly income level.

Table 12 examines the relationship between the educational level of the employees and the toxic leader perception. According to this table, it has been determined that the toxicity perception of public employees towards their leaders indicated a significant difference based on their educational levels, and that the highest group of toxic leader perception was postgraduate and doctoral graduates in the sample.

In Table 13, the analysis of the different job experience durations of the employees in the same organization versus the toxicity perception of the leader by the employees is shown. According to the result of this analysis, the toxic leader perception of the employees does not vary based on the job experience duration, in other words, the time spent in the organization does not affect the toxicity perception.

Table 14 shows the difference analysis between the toxic leader perception and the age of employees. According to the results of this analysis, it had been determined that the perception of toxicity does not show any significant difference based on the age of employees.

Table 11

One-way analysis of toxic leader perception and monthly income level

	N	Mean	Std Deviation	Std. Error	F	Sig.
Between TRY 1000-2000	17	99.706	12.980	3.148		
Between TRY 2001-3000	83	103.000	14.158	1.554		
Between TRY 3001-4000	21	97.619	24.582	5.364	1.178	0.324
Between TRY 4001-5000	2	119.500	2.121	1.500		
TRY 5001 and more	1	109.000	.	.		

Table 12

One-way analysis of toxic leader perception and education level

	N	Mean	Std Deviation	Std. Error	F	Sig.
High School	54	96.907	15.354	2.089		
Associate	50	105.740	12.892	1.823		
Undergraduate	12	101.250	26.877	7.759	3.212	0.015
Post-graduate	7	114.000	10.8781	4.112		
Doctorate	1	109.000	.	.		

Table 13

One-way analysis of toxic leader perception and job experience

	N	Mean	Std Deviation	Std. Error	F	Sig.
Between 1-2 years	1	125.000	.	.		
Between 2-3 years	6	101.167	16.630	6.789		
Between 3-4 years	26	104.462	14.632	2.869	0.979	0.405
4 years or more	91	101.033	16.649	1.745		

Table 14

One-way analysis of toxic leader perception and age

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	F	Sig.
Younger than 21	2	119.500	7.778	5.500		
21-30	23	103.435	16.287	3.396		
31-40	68	102.500	13.806	1.674	1.428	0.229
41-50	30	97.833	20.598	3.761		
51-60	1	119.000	.	.		

V.   CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The aim of the study was to determine whether job stress has an effect on job satisfaction that is crucial to the performance and productivity in organizations, and to examine whether a toxic leader perception has a mediating role on this effect and if it does, examine whether toxic leadership has a mediating role, and examine the effect of toxic leadership. Seven hypotheses had been proposed depending on this purpose, and data had been obtained from 124 public employees to test these hypotheses. The obtained data had been processed by the SPSS 20.0 program, and as a result of the analyses, it had been determined that there is a significant negative relationship between job stress and job satisfaction, and that the 1 unit increase in the job stress scale caused a decrease of 0.530 units on the job satisfaction scale. In the multiple regression analysis conducted for the determination of the mediating role, it had been exhibited that the toxic leader perception had increased from 28% to 36% when the toxic leader perception value was added to the model as a moderator variable, that the 1 unit increase in the job stress scale had decreased the effect on job satisfaction to 0.308, and the 1 unit increase in the toxic leader perception caused a decrease of 0.111 units in the job satisfaction scale, except in job stress. In addition, the male gender and higher education levels had been found to increase the perception of toxicity. The gender increased it very slightly, and the education level increased it to a more significant degree. The test matrix for the hypotheses generated as a result of the analyses performed is shown in Table 15.

Table 15
Test matrix of the research hypotheses

Hypothesis	Result	Significance	Significance	Result	Hypothesis
H_{1a}	Accepted	0.000	0.015	Accepted	H_{1e}
H_{1b}	Accepted	0.000	0.405	Rejected	H_{1f}
H_{1c}	Accepted	0.001	0.229	Rejected	H_{1g}
H_{1d}	Rejected	0.324			

Upon examining the test matrix created as a result of the analysis, it can be observed that 4 of the hypotheses put forward within the scope of the research were accepted, and 3 hypotheses were rejected. Accordingly, the mediating role of toxic leadership suggested in the study has been statistically accepted.

The research results indicated that the concept of job satisfaction, which is very important for ensuring the performance of organizations, is influenced by many organizational behavioral factors. Job stress is at the top of these factors. Often a certain level of job stress is considered normal, but an increasingly stressful working environment can cause chronic problems in employees after a while. The feeling of burnout leads into such problems. Chronic burnout is a common finding while working as a result of an unresolved or uninterrupted stressful organizational climate. Of course, the only attitude that workers develop in such a business environment is not burnout. Another important perception that develops in employees who notice that job stress is

not reduced or solved is a negative leadership perception. In such situations, employees analyze the leader to make sense of the leader's behavior and develop a negative belief about the leader. The most dangerous one of these is the belief that the toxic leader has dominance over the organization. As seen in this research conducted, it has been determined that occupational stress and a toxic leader perception reduce integrated job satisfaction, and increasing job stress also increases a toxic perception of the leader to a very high degree. Therefore, the level of toxicity of organizational leaders and the perception of employees' perceptions of this level are supported by this research. However, it is not easy to solve this problem that has been revealed. First, it is necessary to examine the factors that cause job stress in detail, and to develop managerial strategies. There are two basic ways that the toxic leader perception, which holds an importance role among these factors, can be eliminated. The first of these is to change the leader's toxic leadership model, and the second is to replace the leader himself who does not agree to change the toxic leadership model for better organizational performance and continuity. Apart from these, there are strategies that the employees of the organization can use to deal with toxicity. These are avoidance, social support, resistance and conflict. However, employees should discuss the effectiveness of these strategies, and the deterrence thereof, on a person who has adopted a toxic leadership strategy. It is stipulated that these strategies, rather than create success, are likely to wear out workers in the middle and long term in a physical, mental and spiritual sense, reduce their loyal commitment, and that the atmosphere of the organization will worsen in a conflict-filled environment.

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