

UNIVERSITY OF LA VERNE

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THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN TRANSFORMATIONAL
LEADERSHIP STYLE AND MANAGERIAL-CAUSED
TURNOVER INTENTION: PIHRA MEMBERS
AND THEIR SUBORDINATES

A Dissertation Submitted in Partial Fulfillment of the
Requirements for the Degree
Doctor of Education
in
Organizational Leadership

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College of Education and Organizational Leadership

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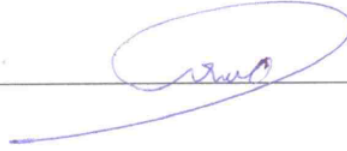
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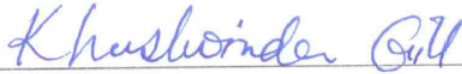
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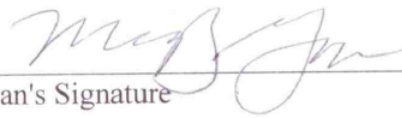
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ABSTRACT

The Relationship Between Transformational Leadership Style and Managerial-Caused Turnover Intention: PIHRA Members and Their Subordinates

By Massad A. Alatawi, EdD

Purpose. The purpose of this study was to identify and measure the relationship between managerial-caused turnover intention and transformational leadership style, which comprises four subconstructs known as the four I's: idealized influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration.

Methodology. This study utilized survey research with a correlational design to collect the data. To analyze data, the major statistical tests were correlation and regression analytical techniques. The Global Transformational Leadership (GTL) scale was used to measure the transformational leadership style, and the Turnover Intention (TI) scale measured the managerial-caused turnover intention. Data were obtained from 356 subordinates of Professionals In Human Resources Association (PIHRA) members representing a broadly diverse range of organizational types, sizes, and industries. Participants were selected using a cluster-sampling process. The process was controlled to limit over- or underrepresentation; therefore, the participants were thought to be representative of all workers in Southern California.

Findings and Conclusion. The study provided evidence that the transformational leadership style contributes to employee retention. Consequently, managers who adopt behaviors and skills associated with this style of leadership can expect lower rates of turnover. It also found that the four I's correlate highly with one another, are not independent, do not have an additive effect, and are not distinct factors.

Recommendations. Hiring or training transformational managers helps effectively control turnover. Managers should acquire excellent transformational leadership behaviors and skills in order to reduce the managerial-caused turnover intention among their employees. In addition, educators should develop and introduce transformational leadership theory in management textbooks. Finally, the current study recommended several future studies. For instance, further research may address the cause-and-effect relationship of transformational leadership style and the retention of employees, which gender of transformational managers is the most effective in regard to the retention of employees, and whether or not similar results would be found in nondemocratic countries.

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DEDICATION

This study is dedicated to my parents, Awdah Alatawi and Shataiah Alatawi, as they did care for me when I was little. Additionally, this study is dedicated to my brothers, Ag. E. Atta'llah Alatawi and Dr. Faisal Alatawi, for their emotional and financial support during my journey toward obtaining my doctoral degree. Finally, I am fortunate to share this accomplishment with my undergraduate advisor, Dr. Philip Yevics, who assisted me to obtain my bachelor's degree. Without his assistance, I would not have achieved my graduate degrees.

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

The age of nanotechnology and globalization changed and, in many ways, improved the world economy. However, a great financial crisis destabilized the world economy in the late summer of 2007 (Foster & Magdoff, 2009), and although U.S. Treasury Secretary Timothy Geithner reported in May of 2012 that the United States “was gradually pulling out of its economic woes,” his comments were made as many European nations and much of the world economy continued to struggle (Hughes, 2012, para. 1). The poor condition of the economy came after years of economic uncertainty. According to the Bureau of Economic Analysis (2012), the U.S. gross domestic product (GDP) had been unstable for a number of years (see Table 1).

Table 1

U.S. Gross Domestic Product, 2006 Through 2011

Year	GDP
2006	2.7%
2007	1.9%
2008	-0.3%
2009	-3.5%
2010	3.0%
2011	1.7%

Note. Adapted from “Growth in Goods and Services Industries Slowed in 2011: Revised Statistics of Gross Domestic Product by Industry for 2009-2011” [News release], by Bureau of Economic Analysis, 2012, retrieved from <http://www.bea.gov/newsreleases/industry/gdpindustry/gdpindnewsrelease.htm>.

The economic downturn forced governmental and private sectors to react in ways that would rescue the world from a severe recession. A recession is defined as “a significant decline in economic activity spread across the economy, lasting more than a few months, normally visible in real GDP, real income, employment, industrial production, and wholesale-retail sales” (National Bureau of Economic Research [NBER], 2003, para. 2). For instance, financial representatives from eight large economies met in May of 2012 to resolve European economic uncertainty and debt problems resulting from the crisis that began years before (Lee, Reddy, & Fidler, 2012).

The current economic disaster has had disruptive effects on individuals, organizations, and society. Many people lost their jobs. The Bureau of Labor Statistics (BLS, 2012d) provided data reporting that U.S. unemployment rates had increased since 2007 and remained over 9.0% from 2009 through 2011 (see Table 2). Among the most negatively impacted states, California posted even higher unemployment rates: 12.4% in 2010 and 11.7% in 2011 (BLS, 2012a). As the unemployment rate increased, it impacted employee turnover; separation (especially layoffs) increased as well (Mankiw, 2003), and voluntary turnover—those instances in which an employee chooses to cease membership and monetary compensation from an organization—rates decreased (Mobley, 1982). Conversely, as the economy grew and more opportunities were created, voluntary turnover also increased (O’Connell & Mei-Chuan, 2007). Table 2 highlights the high levels of employee turnover sustained for the 5-year period from 2007 to 2011.

Table 2

U.S. Unemployment and Employee Turnover Rates, 2007 Through 2011

Year	U.S. unemployment rate	U.S. employee turnover
2007	4.6%	44.4%
2008	5.8%	42.5%
2009	9.3%	39.4%
2010	9.6%	36.7%
2011	9.0%	36.7%

Note. Adapted from “Job Openings and Labor Turnover—March 2012” [News release], by the Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2012c, retrieved from http://www.bls.gov/news.release/archives/jolts_05082012.pdf; “Unemployment Rate,” by the Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2012d, retrieved May 25, 2012, from <http://data.bls.gov/timeseries/LNS14000000>.

As a consequence of high unemployment and high turnover, many unemployed people were unable to make payments on home and automobile loans. Many individual borrowers declared bankruptcy, homes and cars were lost, home and auto sales slowed, and businesses struggled. For example, during 2009 alone, over 400,000 companies declared bankruptcy (Zimmerman, 2011). Many banks failed while others struggled to remain in business. The failure of Washington Mutual Bank in 2008 was “by far the largest bank failure in American history” (“Washington Mutual Inc.,” 2011, para. 4). Defaults by individuals and businesses contributed to even further economic and social instability. When unemployment is high, rates of crime, divorce, suicide, and homelessness increase. In short, a high employee turnover rate can destabilize the economy and society of any country (McMahon, 2009).

Background of the Problem

In the recent period of economic challenge, organizations experienced expensive employee turnover problems all over the world. In their article “A Stitch in Time Saves

Nine: Leveraging Networks to Reduce the Costs of Turnover,” Ballinger, Craig, Cross, and Gray (2011) estimated costs related to employee turnover to range from 25% to 500% of the annual salary of an employee. The cost is greatest for higher level executive turnover; however, while the cost for turnover for any given employee is lower than for executives, the turnover cost associated with the high number of employees at lower levels still results in high turnover costs even for entry-level employees. In 2007, O’Connell and Mei-Chuan reported the average cost of employee turnover to be \$13,996 per employee. The high cost of employee turnover includes recruiting, hiring, and training costs. Additionally, it is associated with measures of productivity and overall performance of organizations (Ballinger et al., 2011; Karsan, 2007; O’Connell & Mei-Chuan, 2007).

To illustrate the huge losses associated with employee turnover, Karsan (2007) presented evidence that in an organization with revenue of \$100 million, the cost of employee turnover is estimated to be \$2.1 million. Hence, reducing employee turnover and turnover costs is one of the most important tasks of managers. In order for organizations to stay competitive in a volatile economy, they must decrease costs, maximize profits, increase productivity, and strategically plan to retain employees (Fitz-Enz & Davison, 2001; Lee, Hsu, & Lien, 2006).

Due to the disruption to personal lives, to businesses, and to economic transactions, as well as the tremendous costs associated with employee turnover, employee turnover is an important topic and has received close attention in contemporary literature (Abassi & Hollman, 2000; Barrick & Zimmerman, 2005; Fitz-Enz & Davison,

2001; Lee et al., 2006; Ongori, 2007; WeiBo, Kaur, & Zhi, 2010). Yet, depending on the different perspectives of various authors, employee turnover has been defined and measured in various ways.

Defining Employee Turnover

According to the BLS (2011), measurement of employee turnover includes voluntary quits, involuntary layoffs and discharges, and other separations such as retirement, disability, and death. Viewing the problem as an aspect of governmental policy and labor markets, Abassi and Hollman (2000) described employee turnover as “the rotation of [employees] around the labour market; between [organizations], jobs and occupations; and between the states of employment and unemployment” (as cited in Ongori, 2007, p. 49).

Employee turnover has many disruptive effects on organizations. From the perspective of organizational effectiveness and morale, Mobley (1982) defined general employee turnover as “the cessation of membership in an organization by an individual who received monetary compensation from the organization” (p. 10). At the organizational level, employee turnover was measured by Price (1977) as “the ratio of the number of organizational [employees] who have left . . . divided by the average number of [employees] in that organization during [a given] period” of time (as cited in Ongori, 2007, p. 49).

Describing the problem from a human resources management (HRM) perspective, WeiBo et al. (2010) defined turnover as “the entire process associated with filling a vacancy: each time a position is vacated, either voluntarily or involuntarily, a new

employee may be hired and trained” (p. 4148). Stovel and Bontis (2002) suggested that influenced by employees leaving an organization, those employees who did not originally think of leaving may begin to think of joining their already departed peers and quit as well. This action of excessive quitting affects the profitability and productivity of an organization (Ongori, 2007).

March and Simon (1958) defined voluntary employee turnover as the process of employees leaving their current jobs once they perceive ease of movement and desirability of movement. When employees leave an organization, they frequently take skills gained from the original organization to competitors. Those skills can be used against the original organization (Stovel & Bontis, 2002). The quitter may have unique skills, the absence of which can potentially affect all other coworkers, and this effect may continue until a replacement employee has been hired (Mobley, 1982). Consequently, voluntary employee turnover disrupts organizational performance.

Possible Negative and Positive Consequences of Turnover

Quitting and changing jobs can be stressful from the perspective of individual employees who quit (Mobley, 1982). Excessive voluntary employee turnover destroys organizations. It decreases innovation as qualified employees leave (Abassi & Hollman, 2000; Stovel & Bontis, 2002). Most likely, excellent skilled employees are decision makers. If they leave their current jobs, then their organizations may become unable to complete key business transactions (Stovel & Bontis, 2002). Voluntary employee turnover delays services and decreases productivity as organizations try to hire new

employees (Abassi & Hollman, 2000; Stovel & Bontis, 2002). Such disadvantages can fundamentally affect an organization's ability to stay competitive in today's economy. (See Appendix A for more details about possible negative consequences of turnover.)

While voluntary employee turnover disadvantages outweigh its advantages, it can have positive as well as negative effects. It creates opportunities for newcomers who may bring with them new technology, experience, knowledge, and ideas (Mobley, 1982). Quitters, or job changers, may find a healthier workplace environment, more satisfying compensation, and greater self-confidence (Mobley, 1982). Appendix B lists additional details about possible positive impacts of turnover.

Methodological Problems Encountered in Earlier Studies

Many researchers have attempted to determine the causes of voluntary employee turnover (Abassi & Hollman, 2000; Lee et al., 2006; Mobley, 1982; Ongori, 2007), but they were unable to make strong generalizations (Mobley, 1982), establish reliability in findings (Ongori, 2007), or even find a single set of causal explanations for voluntary turnover (Abassi & Hollman, 2000; Tanova & Holtom, 2008). Researchers studying employee turnover encountered difficulty tracking those who already had left their organizations. Usually, when employees quit their jobs, they do not respond to previous employers' requests for participation in research, especially if they leave under negative circumstances. The absence of employees who have chosen to leave an organization, and their general unwillingness to participate in studies about turnover, impacts the method of

selecting subjects for studies of voluntary turnover (Walumbwa, Wang, Lawler, & Shi, 2004).

Sources of Employee Turnover

Mobley (1982) affirmed that it is useful to divide the determinants of turnover into specific categories. The major reasons for voluntary turnover have been categorized as (a) dissatisfaction with compensation, job security, hours or shifts, or supervision; (b) alternative opportunities, such as returning to school, starting one's own business, or taking a new position in a different organization; (c) living conditions, such as childcare, leisure activities, or housing; and (d) personal, such as a spouse being transferred or a marriage (Mobley, 1982).

Motivations for voluntary employee turnover include job satisfaction or dissatisfaction, organizational commitment, leadership, working environments, job content, distributive justice, promotional chances, stress, work group cohesion, and autonomy (Lee et al., 2006). Abassi and Hollman (2000) identified five major reasons for voluntary employee turnover in an organization, which include bad hiring practices, lack of recognition, lack of competitive compensation systems, toxic workplace environments, and disagreeable managerial styles. As a final point, other investigators concluded that turnover intention is one of the strongest predictors of voluntary turnover (Coomber, & Louise Barriball, 2007; Hayes et al., 2006; Lee et al., 2006; Mobley, 1982; Price, 2001; Sousa-Poza & Henneberger, 2004). Appendix C exhibits the major theoretical explanations offered for both voluntary and involuntary turnover.

Managerial Style

Managerial style appears to have a major impact on voluntary turnover. It refers to an overall form of leadership used by a manager (Rensselaer Polytechnic Institute [RPI], 2000). It acts as a main stimulus for voluntary turnover within organizations (Abassi & Hollman, 2000; Lee et al., 2006; McCarthy, 1997; Mobley, 1982; Ongori, 2007; Price, 2001; Stovel & Bontis, 2002). McCarthy (1997) concluded that a manager's leadership style impacts all employees in an organization. According to Abassi and Hollman (2000), the backgrounds and experiences of managers affect the employees' intention to quit.

Managers with a narrow-minded vision experience a high employee quit rate. They may end up with unqualified employees due to the departure of highly qualified performers. These managers “may not be able to get the most out of those who stay because they do not feel valued” (Abassi & Hollman, 2000, p. 336). Employees who stay may be disloyal, dissatisfied, feel undervalued, and perform their tasks poorly. They provide careless and less personalized service to customers. When conditions become unbearable, they think about alternatives and seek to change their jobs (Abassi & Hollman, 2000).

The Focus of the Study

Almost all current human resources management literature focuses on employees voluntarily leaving an organization rather than involuntarily leaving or entering the organization (Abassi & Hollman, 2000; Lee et al., 2006; Ongori, 2007; Price, 2001; Siong, Mellor, Moore, & Firth, 2006; Stovel & Bontis, 2002; WeiBo et al., 2010).

According to Price (2001), “No systematic empirical evidence existed to support the hypothesized difference between voluntary and involuntary; nor is there much current data to support the difference” (p. 600). Therefore, most of the references in this study refer to turnover intention (or intent to quit) rather than to voluntary turnover.

Many factors influence employees’ decisions to stay at or quit their current jobs. Managerial style has been one of the recognized causes of turnover (Abassi & Hollman, 2000; Griffith, 2004; Kalliath & Beck, 2001; Kleinman, 2004; Lee et al., 2006; Mobley, 1982; Ongori, 2007; Price, 2001; WeiBo et al., 2010). Nonetheless, in many cases, it is impossible to delineate the difference between cause and effect due to the complexity of interactions between the constituent parts of the causal chain (Stringer, 2007). According to Stringer (2007), a phenomenon could frequently be envisaged as cause, effect, or both. As a presumed relational model (Krauthwohl, 2009), this study treated managerial style and turnover intention as one variable, with its dependent variable being managerial-caused turnover intention (see Figure 1).

Defining Managerial-Caused Turnover Intention

The appropriate definition for *managerial-caused turnover intention* is a process leading to the possible voluntary cessation of membership in an organization by individuals who received monetary compensation from the organization, and it is caused by the managerial style practiced in that organization. This definition focuses on the separation of an employee from an organization and excludes internal movement within the organization. The definition includes full-time compensated employees but excludes

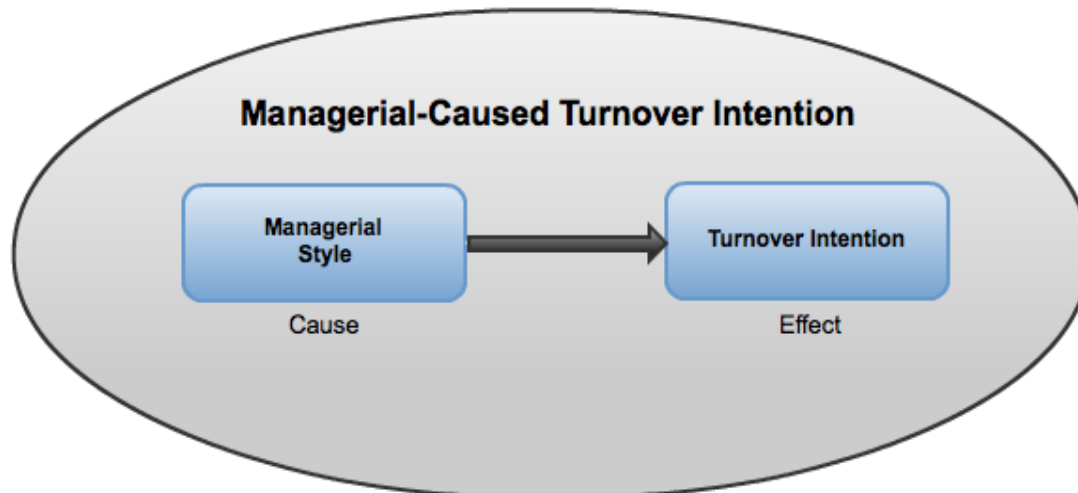


Figure 1. The dependent variable of this study: Managerial-caused turnover intention. Developed by M. A. Alatawi, 2013.

others, such as volunteers and students, and is applicable to all areas of industry, such as manufacturing, services, and government (Mobley, 1982).

Conceptual Underpinnings of the Study

This study investigated two key concepts: the transformational leadership style and managerial-caused turnover intention. To provide background for the study, this section discusses the basic, historical, and theoretical nature of transformational leadership theory and turnover intention theory and presents the interrelationship between the two.

Transformational Leadership Theory

According to Northouse (2010), leadership refers to a process whereby one individual influences a group of individuals to achieve a common goal. Since the 1970s, transformational leadership has been the focal point for a large part of leadership

literature (Avolio, 2011; Barbuto, 2005; Bass & Riggio, 2006; Burns, 1978; Downton, 1973; Judge & Piccolo, 2004; Kearney, 2008; Lussier & Achua, 2012; Muenjohn & Armstrong, 2008; Northouse, 2010). As reported by Northouse (2010), transformational leadership theory contrasts three styles: transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire.

Lussier and Achua (2012) defined transformational leaders as those who serve to change the status quo by articulating to employees the problems in the current system and compelling a vision of what a new organization could be. Northouse (2010) defined transformational leadership style as a process that changes and transforms employees to accomplish more than what is usually expected from them by satisfying their needs and training them as full human beings. Avolio (2011) stated that leaders who possess even one component of transformational leadership style would be considered transformational.

Downton (1973) is credited as the theorist who coined the term *transformational leadership* (Barnett, McCormick, & Conners, 2001; Northouse, 2010). Nonetheless, it emerged as a significant approach to leadership after James McGregor Burns (1978) published his work on political leaders (Gellis, 2001; Judge & Piccolo, 2004; Northouse, 2010). Burns (1978) distinguished *transactional* leaders, who exchange rewards for the work and loyalty of employees, from *transformational* leaders, who offer promotions to employees who exceed their expectations (Gellis, 2001; Judge & Piccolo, 2004; Northouse, 2010). Bernard Bass (1985) expanded and refined the work of Burns (1978) by giving more attention to followers rather than leaders and by suggesting that

transformational leadership style can apply to any situation in which the outcomes are negative (Gellis, 2001; Judge & Piccolo, 2004; Northouse, 2010).

A model of transformational leadership. In 1994, Bernard Bass and Bruce Avolio developed a leadership model in which transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership represent three distinct segments of leadership styles (Avolio, 2011; Bass & Avolio, 1994; Northouse, 2010). This model, the full range of leadership development, specifies that managers who exhibit transformational leadership often have a strong positive effect on employees to act actively and effectively (Avolio, 2011; Bass & Avolio, 1994; Northouse, 2010). On the other hand, managers who practice transactional leadership usually maintain stability within organizations and achieve specific organizational goals (Avolio, 2011; Lussier & Achua, 2012; Northouse, 2010). Managers who utilize laissez-faire leadership in the workplace are described as the most inactive and passive (Avolio, 2011; Erkutlu, 2008; Northouse, 2010).

The additive effect of transformational leadership. In 1990, Bass and Avolio provided a notable version of transformational leadership (Erkutlu, 2008; Hall, Johnson, Wysocki, & Kepner, 2012; Northouse, 2010; Thomson, 2007). Their explanation of the *additive effect of transformational leadership* was one of the most investigated works in the transformational leadership research by many scholars (e.g., Erkutlu, 2008; Hall et al., 2012; Northouse, 2010; Thomson, 2007). An additive effect means that each of the variables in a model is thought to be independent from other variables in that model, each expressing an independent influence on outcomes. By definition, the combined effect of multiple additive variables is equal to the sum of the effects of each variable individually

(“Additive Effect,” n.d.). Some proponents of this model have claimed additive benefits gained from four discrete components of the model, each of which contributes to results superior to results of other leadership styles (Bass & Avolio, 1990; Erkutlu, 2008; Gellis, 2001; Hall et al., 2012; Northouse, 2010).

Four I’s. The four components of transformational leadership style include (a) *idealized influence*, referring to managers who are exemplary role models for employees and can be trusted and respected by employees to make good decisions for the organization; (b) *inspirational motivation*, relating to managers who encourage employees to commit to the vision of the organization and encourage teamwork to reach superior outcomes; (c) *intellectual stimulation*, referring to managers who encourage innovation and creativity by challenging the normal beliefs or views of a group and promote critical thinking and problem solving to make the organization better; and (d) *individualized consideration*, referring to managers who act as coaches and advisors to the employees, encouraging them to reach goals that help both the employees and the organization (Avolio, 2011; Hall et al., 2012; Northouse, 2010).

The additive effect. Managers who compile and implement the four I’s of transformational leadership style produce greater effects than any other style of leadership by generating higher levels of trust, motivation, organizational commitment, job satisfaction, performance, and other organizational results (Avolio, 2011; Bass & Avolio, 1990; Bromley & Kirschner-Bromley, 2007; Erkutlu, 2008; Hall et al., 2012; Judge & Bono, 2000; Kivlighan & Tarrant, 2001; Muenjohn, 2010; Muenjohn & Armstrong, 2008; Northouse, 2010; Pearce & Sims, 2002; Smith, 2011; Vance & Larson,

2002). In other words, when managers pull together the four I's of transformational leadership style, the model predicts that they will achieve performance beyond expectations (Hall et al., 2012; Northouse, 2010).

Turnover Intention Theory

Research on the theory of turnover intention and the resulting turnover of knowledge and management talents attracted much attention among academics and practitioners for a long time (Eriksson, 2001; Potter & Timothy, 2003; WeiBo et al., 2010). March and Simon (1958) presented one of the earliest methods of studying turnover, which has two distinct components: (a) perceived desirability of movement from the organization and (b) perceived ease of movement from the organization (Mobley, 1982; WeiBo et al., 2010). Since the 1950s, several increasingly complicated models have been generated (Griffeth, Hom, & Gaertner, 2000; WeiBo et al., 2010).

Models of turnover intention. Hemmings, Quinn, and Hill (2000); Griffeth and Hom (2004); and Price (2001) found that the most prominent works of turnover theories in the literature include the Mobley model (introduced in 1982); the Mowday, Porter, and Steers model (introduced in 1982); and the Price-Mueller model (introduced in 1981). These models have common elements but differ in significant respects (Mobley, 1982). Nonetheless, they all indicate managerial style as one of the determinants of turnover intention (Abassi & Hollman, 2000; Firth, Mellor, Moore, & Loquet, 2004; Griffith, 2004; Kalliath & Beck, 2001; Kleinman, 2004; Lee et al., 2006; Ongori, 2007; Price, 2001; Siong et al., 2006; Stovel & Bontis, 2002; Walumbwa & Lawler, 2003; Walumbwa et al., 2004; WeiBo et al., 2010). Managerial style was discussed under such various

labels as leadership style, supervisory support, supervision, and social support (Abassi & Hollman, 2000; Firth et al., 2004; Lee et al., 2006; Mobley, 1982; Price, 2001). For simplicity purposes, this study uses the term *supervisory support* as equivalent to managerial style; therefore, both terms are mentioned in parts of this study where appropriate.

Mediating variables. According to Price (2001), mediating variables refer to intervening, endogenous variables (i.e., the internal variables: job satisfaction, organizational commitment, search behavior, and intent to quit). (Many scholars use terms such as predictors, mediators, or indicators as equivalent to mediating variables.) Some models indicate job satisfaction as the direct mediating variable for turnover behavior, while other models describe organizational commitment as the direct mediator (WeiBo et al., 2010). However, research generally supports that intention is the direct mediator of the turnover process and is presumed to be the actual cause of employee turnover behavior (Coomber & Louise Barriball, 2007; Firth et al., 2004; Hayes et al., 2006; Mobley, 1982; Price, 2001; Shields & Price, 2002; Sousa-Poza & Henneberger, 2004; Walumbwa et al., 2004). As a matter of fact, some scholars have argued that behavioral intentions can be an ideal predictor of actual behavior (Coomber & Louise Barriball, 2007; Hayes et al., 2006; Sousa-Poza & Henneberger, 2004; Walumbwa et al., 2004). For purposes of simplicity, whenever turnover is mentioned without “intention,” it refers to the actual employee turnover behavior.

The process of turnover. Mobley’s model (introduced in 1977) describes eight stages that are evident prior to the level at which turnover occurs: (a) evaluating the

existing job, (b) experiencing job dissatisfaction, (c) thinking of quitting, (d) evaluating the expected utility of search and cost of quitting, (e) intention to search for alternatives, (f) searching for alternatives, (g) evaluating alternatives, and (h) comparing alternatives with the present job (Mobley, 1982; Winterton, 2004).

The causal model of turnover (Price-Mueller model). The causal model of turnover specifies 22 determinants to turnover (Price, 2001). It focuses on managerial style as one of the determinants that drives employees to explore quitting their current jobs (Price, 2001). Studies by Firth et al. (2004), Kalliath and Beck (2001), Moore (2002), Siong et al. (2006), and Price (2001) found supervisory support is one of the structural variables negatively correlated to turnover intention, reducing turnover intention indirectly. Price (2001) defined supervisory support as the extent to which employees receive assistance from their managers to resolve job-related problems. According to Price, supervisory support results in an indirect negative effect, through the related variables of job satisfaction, organizational commitment, search behavior, and intention to quit, on employee turnover. Each of these is a mediating variable of employee turnover.

The Interrelationship Between Transformational Leadership Style and Turnover Intention

Supervisory support and leadership support are the elements common to both the additive effect of transformational leadership model (Bass & Avolio, 1990) and the causal model of turnover (Price, 2001). Generally, supervisory support refers to the assistance that employees receive from their managers. Nonetheless, one factor that

distinguishes transformational leadership from other leadership styles is the inclusion of individualized consideration (Rafferty & Griffin, 2004). This characteristic of transformational leadership style occurs when a manager has a supportive orientation toward employees, pays individual attention to them, and responds appropriately to their personal needs (Avolio, 2011; Northouse, 2010; Rafferty & Griffin, 2004). Rafferty and Griffin (2004) found that studies of individualized consideration have focused on one component of this characteristic: supportive leadership. Rafferty and Griffin defined supportive leadership as expressing concern for employees and taking into account their individual needs.

Transformational managers display more frequent individualized consideration by showing general support for the efforts of employees. They provide a supportive climate in which a two-way exchange in communication is encouraged. They respond to employee issues more quickly, are present when needed, encourage the exchange of ideas, show concern for the personal needs of employees, and assign jobs on the basis of individual needs and abilities. Essentially, they show recognition, appreciation, and gratitude when employees perform a job well (Avolio, 2011; Barroso, Villegas, & Casillas, 2008; Dubinsky, Yammarino, Jolson, & Spangler, 1995; Erkutlu, 2008; Northouse, 2010).

Based on the above discussion and based on Avolio's (2011) definition of the transformational leadership style, which stated that transformational managers "behave in ways to achieve superior results by employing one or more of the four components of

transformational leadership” (pp. 59-60), supervisors who possess at least one of the transformational style characteristics would be considered supportive supervisors.

Statement of the Problem

Although beneficial in some circumstances, the impact of turnover is generally negative. Managers may dismiss employees as a consequence of economic factors, poor employee performance, or change. However, turnover intention is generally thought to occur to the detriment of organizations while offering some advantage to the employee who has decided to leave (Mobley, 1982; Ongori, 2007; Price, 2001; Stovel & Bontis, 2002). A variety of causes have been assigned to turnover intention, including dissatisfaction with work content, compensation, or relationships; working or living conditions; promotional alternatives and opportunities; stress; personal conflicts; lack of autonomy; perceptions of unfairness; and interactions with a supervisor with an intolerable managerial style (Abassi & Hollman, 2000; Lee et al., 2006; Mobley, 1982).

Lee et al. (2006), Ongori (2007), Siong et al. (2006), Stovel and Bontis (2002), and WeiBo et al. (2010) argued that managerial style may contribute to or diminish voluntary decisions to leave an organization and that four characteristics associated with the transformational leadership style can decrease the rate of managerial-caused turnover intentions. These four characteristics, known as the four I’s of transformational leadership style, include idealized influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration. However, while the four I’s of transformational leadership style may mitigate turnover, past studies of the relationship between transformational leadership and turnover intention have been criticized for

invalid or unreliable methodologies, including inadequate sample size or inappropriate instrumentation (Kleinman, 2004; Walumbwa & Lawler, 2003; Walumbwa et al., 2004).

According to Huck (2000), the conclusions drawn and the recommendations made from studies based on unreliable or invalid instruments are themselves unreliable and invalid sources from which to make conclusions. Findings established in the health industry (Kleinman, 2004), and the financial industry (Walumbwa & Lawler, 2003; Walumbwa et al., 2004) have been characterized by critics as inconsistent or inconclusive.

Target Audience

Because previous research has targeted few industries, no study of the relationship between transformational leadership style and managerial-caused turnover intention has ever been conducted utilizing subordinates of Professionals In Human Resources Association (PIHRA) members. PIHRA is a nonprofit corporation located in California and governed by “a volunteer board of directors who serve without compensation” (Propster, 2012, para. 7). It was founded in 1945 and is committed to the permanent development of “human resources through networking, learning and advocacy” (Professionals In Human Resources Association [PIHRA], 2012a, para. 1). PIHRA hires professional employees to provide expertise on association management practices and continuity. It is “organized into 16 districts, serving five southern California counties: Los Angeles, Orange, Riverside, San Bernardino, and Ventura” (PIHRA, 2012a, para. 1).

Subordinates of PIHRA members are from all areas of industry within the most economically diverse area in the country (Propster, 2012). They work within almost all

industries and all forms of organizations (i.e., profit and nonprofit, government and private organizations). Indeed, employees whose managers are PIHRA members constitute a large target population with diverse backgrounds. This ensured the result of this study would be authentic, precise, and generalized to the population from which it came.

PIHRA members are employed within 3,000 organizations, and most of them hold a position of top management (see Figure 2; PIHRA, 2012a). Members from each of the 16 districts meet monthly for breakfast or lunch with a speaker on leadership skills and human resources (HR) issues (PIHRA, 2012a). Members may attend any district's meeting if they wish (PIHRA, 2012a). Although the members of PIHRA work in many different industries, they share one thing, namely being members of PIHRA. PIHRA trains and teaches them aspects and approaches of leadership and HR. It offers "more than 180 continuing education events presented at monthly meetings and annual [conferences]" (PIHRA, 2012a, para. 2).

Managers and Industries

Previous studies of the impact of managerial style on turnover intention have been complicated because a broad range of confounding variables may have obscured the influence of managerial style on intent to leave. Mobley (1982) concluded that turnover intention is influenced by geography, industry, occupation, size of organization, age, gender, education, and personality. Ongori (2007) and Mobley (1982) concluded that unless a study controls for these confounding variables, it is impossible to isolate the

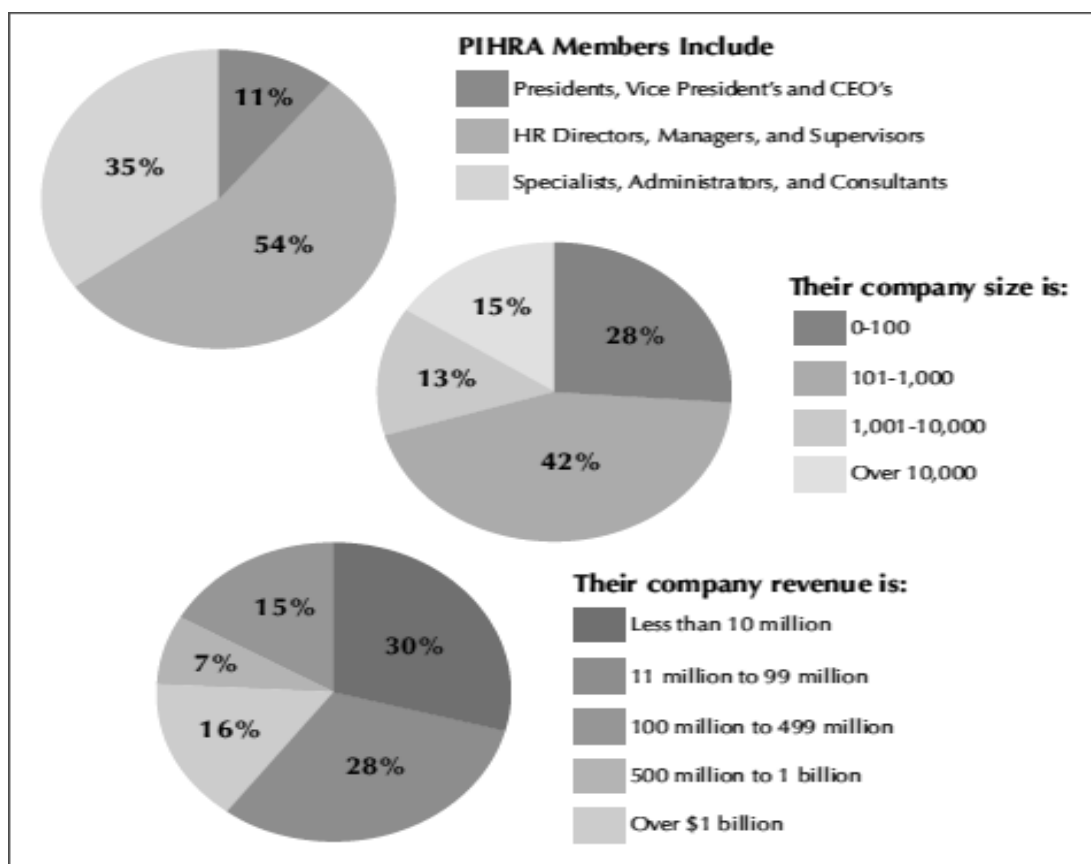


Figure 2. PIHRA demographics. From “About PIHRA: Facts,” by PIHRA, 2012a, retrieved from <http://pihra.org/displaycommon.cfm?an=1&subarticlenbr=194>.

impact of managerial style on turnover intention. Because transformational managers can be employed in any given industry or organization, and because all industries suffer from turnover intention to some degree, one approach to control for the influence of these variables is to study a broad range of industries and organizations, with participants of different ages, genders, and educational experiences. However, they must be selected from a single specific region, thus limiting the impact of regional employment trends (Mobley, 1982; Muenjohn, 2010).

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to identify and measure the relationship between managerial-caused turnover intention and transformational leadership style, which comprises four subconstructs known as the four I's: idealized influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration.

Research Questions

1. What is the relationship between the transformational leadership style of PIHRA members and managerial-caused turnover intention of their subordinates?
2. What is the relationship between idealized influence used by PIHRA members and managerial-caused turnover intention of their subordinates?
3. What is the relationship between inspirational motivation used by PIHRA members and managerial-caused turnover intention of their subordinates?
4. What is the relationship between intellectual stimulation used by PIHRA members and managerial-caused turnover intention of their subordinates?
5. What is the relationship between individualized consideration used by PIHRA members and managerial-caused turnover intention of their subordinates?

Significance of the Study

According to the BLS (2011, 2012b), the number of quits in the United States increased from 1.5 million in January 2010 to 1.9 million in October and up from 1.8 million at the end of the recession in June 2009 to 2.1 million in March 2012. Turnover is a complex, ongoing problem, and the reduction to the lowest rate possible is among the

top tasks of managers (Fitz-Enz & Davison, 2001; Lee et al., 2006). Being able to control the turnover intention would have a positive impact on the stability of the workplace, the organization's performance, the retention of qualified performers, reduction of costs, increased productivity, and maximized profits. Karsan (2007) wrote, "Even a slight reduction in turnover rate will have a significant effect on the organization[s'] financial performance" (p. 35). Taking into consideration the substantial amount of money that could be saved and the drastic loss of highly qualified performers that could be avoided, this study may contribute to the retention of employees by exploring a strategy to control managerial-caused turnover intention.

This study investigated whether there was a relationship between transformational leadership style and managerial-caused turnover intention in order to improve employee retention. Thus, this study provides evidence of the relationship of transformational leadership style to employee retention. Consequently, managers can adapt it to reduce turnover rate to the lowest rate possible, thereby improving productivity and overall performance, and reducing expenses.

By supporting the relationship between transformational leadership style and managerial-caused turnover intention, the selection and development of managers could be rethought and based on the transformational leadership style. Furthermore, implications for management education, recruiting new managers, and assessment of the managerial performance could be influenced based on the findings of this study.

While previous turnover research was mostly focused on the causes and effects of the phenomenon (Böckerman & Ilmakunnas, 2009; Mulki, Jaramillo, & Locander, 2006;

Stovel & Bontis, 2002), this study focused on discovering the managerial style that reduces managerial-caused turnover intention. Most of the previous studies on turnover were criticized because they resulted in inconsistent outcomes (Ongori, 2007) and because the researchers examined multiple causes of turnover in the same study (Mobley, 1982). Therefore, the major significance of this study is its focus on merely one determinant of turnover, namely managerial style.

Assumptions

This study assumed that once employees experienced poor management, they would look for alternative employment immediately. They would first experience poor management, search for an alternative, and then intend to quit. The researcher based these two assumptions on Price's (2001) model. Based on a report by *Accountancy* ("Bad Month," 2009), employees switched their jobs and took a pay cut just because they wanted to experience better management. Thus, this study assumed that those who have poor management would switch jobs, even if they took a pay cut, in order to work in an organization with better managers. In addition, employees would change their jobs to competitor organizations just because the reputation of the competitors' management is more effective and democratic.

Based on syllogism (Van de Ven, 2007), this study assumed that if transformational leadership style is an effective managerial style, and if managers practice transformational style, then the managers would be effective. Based on Hume's (1902) theory of causation, this study assumed a disagreeable managerial style always appears before the managerial-caused turnover intention, and the disagreeable managerial

style is present whenever the managerial-caused turnover intention is observed (Price, 2001).

This study assumed that if transformational leadership style negatively correlated with managerial-caused turnover intention, then it would contribute to finding an answer to control managerial-caused turnover intention, regardless of measuring the correlation of transactional or laissez-faire styles to turnover intention.

Based on the causal model of turnover (Price, 2001), this study assumed that the model would not work for part-time employees because they might work with many different managers, and their overall assessment would be mixed. The study assumed that the participants would assess their managers objectively and honestly. It assumed that PIHRA members would forward the questionnaire to all their subordinates. Finally, based on logical positivism and the idea that mathematics is the best logical interpretation (Bredo & Feinberg, 1982), this study assumed that the quantitative methodology is an appropriate methodology for investigating phenomena, especially in the social sciences.

Definitions of Terms

Additive effect. According to the Institute for Statistics Education (ISE, 2012),

An additive effect refers to the role of a variable in an estimated model. A variable that has an additive effect can merely be added to the other terms in a model to determine its effect on the independent variable. (n.p.)

An additive effect means that each of the variables in a model is thought to be independent from other variables in that model, each expressing an independent influence on outcomes. By definition, the combined effect of multiple additive variables is equal to the sum of the effects of each variable individually (“Additive Effect,” n.d.).

Causal model. “Causal modeling is aimed at advancing reasonable hypotheses about underlying causal relationships between the dependent and independent variables” (ISE, 2012, n.p.).

Four I’s. Transformational leadership consists of four leadership characteristics: idealized influence, individualized consideration, inspirational motivation, and intellectual stimulation (Avolio, 2011; Hall et al., 2012; Northouse, 2010). Each of these four leadership characteristics is defined below.

Idealized influence. Idealized influence refers to managers who behave as strong models for employees, provide employees with a vision and a sense of mission, and can be trusted and respected by employees to make good decisions for the organization.

Individualized consideration. Individualized consideration refers to managers who act as coaches and advisors to the employees, delegate work to employees in order to help them grow in their job, and provide a supportive climate in which they listen carefully for individuals’ needs.

Inspirational motivation. Inspirational motivation is related to managers who encourage employees to commit to the vision of the organization by providing meaning and challenge to them and their work, show enthusiasm and optimism, and encourage teamwork and employees to excel in their work and to reach superior outcomes through encouraging words.

Intellectual stimulation. Intellectual stimulation refers to managers who encourage innovation and creativity through challenging the normal beliefs, assumptions,

or views of a group and promote critical thinking and problem solving to make the organization better.

Managerial-caused. A managerial-caused event occurs as a result of the actions of a manager.

Managerial-caused turnover intention. Managerial-caused turnover intention is the possible voluntary cessation of membership in an organization by individuals who received monetary compensation from the organization because of the managerial style practiced in that organization (i.e., employees who intend to quit their jobs solely due to management practice).

Managerial style. Managerial style is the overall form of leadership used by a manager: transactional, transformational, or laissez-faire (RPI, 2000).

Performance beyond expectation. Performance beyond expectation refers to performance that goes beyond expectation, in which the extra effort results in satisfactory and unexpected outcomes.

PIHRA. Professionals In Human Resources Association is “the largest global chapter of the Society for Human Resources Management (SHRM)” (PIHRA, 2012a, para. 1).

Structural variables. Structural variables refer to the way in which the variables of a model are arranged and function together. According to Price’s (2001) model, there are seven structural variables, which include autonomy, distributive justice, job stress, pay, promotional chances, routinization, and supervisory support.

Supervisory support. Supervisory support is related to the assistance that employees receive from their managers (Price, 2001).

Supportive leadership. Supportive leadership is related to expressing concern for employees and taking account of their individual needs (Rafferty & Griffin, 2004).

Transformational leadership. Transformational managers are those who possess at least one of the four, if not more or all of the transformational leadership style characteristics: idealized influence, intellectual stimulation, inspirational motivation, and individualized consideration (Avolio, 2011; Hall et al., 2012; Northouse, 2010).

Turnover intention. Turnover intention reflects the (subjective) possibility that individuals will change their jobs within a certain time period (Sousa-Poza & Henneberger, 2004).

Summary

Turnover intention is a serious problem that has a negative influence on the stability of the workplace, the organization's performance, the retention of qualified performers, productivity, and profits. Many sources impact the decision of employees to stay in or leave their current jobs; however, managerial style is believed to have a significant effect on their decisions. Besides the negative organizational and individual consequences of turnover intention, ineffective managers might experience a high employee quit rate or end up with employees who are unqualified, disloyal, dissatisfied, feel undervalued, perform their tasks poorly, and provide careless and less personalized service to customers.

This study investigated two conceptual frameworks, transformational leadership style and turnover intention. Despite many studies that investigated transformational leadership and employee turnover, and even fewer studies that examined the correlation between these two variables, results have been inconsistent because of problems related to the reliability of the methods and metrics used to study the relationship between the variables (Kleinman, 2004; Walumbwa & Lawler, 2003; Walumbwa et al., 2004). This study focused on managerial-caused turnover intention as its dependent variable. Instead of analyzing the causes of turnover intention, this study examined the relationship between transformational leadership style and managerial-caused turnover intention. To identify such a relationship, this study targeted the subordinates of PIHRA members.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

In most circumstances, managers are expected to increase productivity, maximize profits, and minimize expenses. They should be capable of establishing a healthy workplace and creating a unique and effective organizational culture (Lussier & Achua, 2012). The relationship managers develop with subordinates can have a positive influence on the performance of their organization (Erkutlu, 2008). Effective managers strategically plan for employee retention, improved job satisfaction, enhanced job involvement, and development of commitment among their employees (Lee et al., 2006; Winterton, 2004). Employees who work with such managers are usually creative and energetic, are loyal to their managers and their organizations, and feel safe and empowered (Davis, Schoorman, Mayer, & Tan, 2000). Such managers usually employ an effective managerial style in order to achieve superior organizational outcomes (Erkutlu, 2008).

From a managerial perspective, the retention of employees is more important today than ever before (Holtom, Mitchell, Lee, & Eberly, 2008). Turnover intention occurs for a number of reasons. Managerial style, however, has had a major impact on turnover intention (Griffith, 2004; Ongori, 2007; Stovel & Bontis, 2002). The problem of focus in this study was managerial-caused turnover intention, and the purpose of this study was to identify and measure the relationship between managerial-caused turnover

intention and transformational leadership style, which comprises four subconstructs known as the four I's: idealized influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration.

The literature review of this study includes an introduction to managerial style and turnover intention, a description of the transformational leadership style and turnover intention, a presentation of the conceptual model of transformational leadership, a presentation of the conceptual model of turnover intention, a presentation of the relationship between the transformational leadership style and managerial-caused turnover intention, and finally, a summary of the chapter.

Managerial Style and Turnover Intention

Managers work in all types of industries and provide leadership to all sizes and kinds of organizations (Needle, 2004; Stacey, 2011). Needle (2004) stated that all organizations need managers in order to “get things done through other people” (p. 265). According to Stacey (2011), “No organization can carry out its day-to-day tasks effectively, no organization can continue to build on and take advantage of its existing strengths, unless it practices . . . management with a high degree of skill” (p. 93). In small organizations, simple structures characterize the business entity and top management performs all facets of business (Bolman & Deal, 2008). On the other hand, large organizations employ several managers to perform many different functional forms, such as finance, marketing, sales, human resources (HR), and production (Stacey, 2011). Succinctly, managers work in a broad array of industries, organizations, and functions.

Management refers to the process by which a manager of an organization efficiently utilizes resources to achieve the organization's overall goals at minimum cost and maximum profit (Lorenzana, 1998). Managers perform many functions in an organization and handle a range of situations throughout their daily business routines. The basic functions of managers are to plan, organize, lead, and control (Abassi & Hollman, 2000; Daft, 2012; Lussier & Achua, 2012). Every manager in an organization fills a leadership role (Hall et al., 2012). Managers mistakenly assume that "because they are the managers, they are also the leaders" and that it inevitably results in their employees complying with directives (Hall et al., 2012, p. 1). Scholars have long wondered how managers influence employees to follow them. To be effective, creative leaders and managers must positively influence their employees to achieve the goals of the organization by adopting any one of several management styles: transactional, transformational, or laissez-faire (Hall et al., 2012). Adequate use of the managerial style is thought to result in higher employee satisfaction, commitment, and productivity. Consequently, efficient use of the managerial style is thought to increase the general effectiveness of the organization (Erkutlu, 2008); this is the essence of the transformational leadership style.

The 21st-Century Management

According to Abassi and Hollman (2000), the basic functions of management no longer fit today's era of nanotechnology. Managers must rethink their managerial style for the 21st century. When managers direct their employees, they actually tell workers what they must do. Abassi and Hollman argued that current employees do not accept

orders; they want not only to be told how to do the task but also why they are assigned their tasks. When controlling the actions of subordinates, managers monitor and observe procedures and processes. They ensure everything is going in the right direction and according to the plan, and when unexpected things happen, they replan and reorganize. However, current employees want to be involved in the decision making, show their talents, do their best, and see that their input and ideas make a difference (Abassi & Hollman, 2000).

A study of over 12,000 managers revealed the correlation between managerial success and attitudes toward employees (Lussier & Achua, 2012). In today's economy, organizations need people-oriented managers because organizational success is increasingly based on the commitment to management practices that treat people as valuable assets (Lussier & Achua, 2012).

Abassi and Hollman (2000) confirmed that changing the managerial style of disagreeable managers could lead to better retention of employees. Observably, leadership skills of managers directly affect employees' intentions to leave or stay in the organization. They are important factors in retaining employees. For instance, Kraft Foods controlled its turnover rate by training its managers in leadership skills (Lussier & Achua, 2012). The managerial style—in essence, the characteristic decisions, relationships, and behaviors of managers—appears to have a significant influence on the problem of turnover intention in organizations (Abassi & Hollman, 2000).

Effective Managers

Effective managers are those who influence and motivate their employees as well as understand their personality traits and core beliefs (Abassi & Hollman, 2000).

According to *Occupational Health (OH)*; “Bad Managers,” 2009), the attributes of effective managers include the ability to clearly set goals for their employees, to identify what they expect of them in their role, to successfully manage change, to inclusively involve subordinates, and to effectively delegate duties. Effective managers are people centered and use a democratic style of leadership as they perform the functions of management with employees (Lussier & Achua, 2012).

Effective managers realize that to retain employees, they must let them own their jobs, give them latitude, and let them know that their contributions are valued (Ryan, 2011). They often work alongside subordinates (Sparks, 2005) and do not remain secluded in an office; they do not issue orders sequestered from those who perform lower level duties. They are concerned about the future and serve and support planned change (Abassi & Hollman, 2000). Being proactive, setting high standards, being flexible, finding ways of getting along well with employees, being committed to a strong sense of ethics, giving feedback, and having good communication skills are the characteristics of effective managers (West & Berman, 2011). Ineffective managers lack these characteristics.

Ineffective Managers

Disagreeable managers are categorized as being passive, judgmental, indecisive, closed-minded, sloppy, defensive, tardy, and intimidating in their performance (West &

Berman, 2011). They are motivated to maintain the status quo and avoid change as much as possible (Abassi & Hollman, 2000). They are inflexibly attached to a favorite method of communication and tend to blame others for their own failures (De Waal, 2012); therefore, many employees prefer to leave organizations when assigned to work for ineffective managers (Michael, 2011).

Ineffective managers often say, “Who gave you permission to do that?”, “Sounds like a personal problem to me,” and “I don’t pay you to think” (Ryan, 2011). They routinely ask employees to drop everything else to perform a certain job, though no real crises exist (Ryan, 2011). They not only drive employees to quit their jobs but also, according to *OH* (“Bad Managers,” 2009), cause them health problems and stress.

Dr. Lindsay Ryan reported that the major reason employees walk away from a job is that they have been assigned to work under an ineffective manager (as cited in Michael, 2011). She stated that up to 35% of employees cited poor management as the primary reason they moved to another job (as cited in Michael, 2011). According to *Accountancy* (“Bad Month,” 2009), 55% of employees in the financial industry left their jobs due to bad management, and nearly half would have been willing to take a pay cut in order to work with a better manager.

Effective Managerial Style

While it has not been consistently clear which managerial style is the best, Avolio (2011) found that the vast majority of research has shown that transformational leadership style is the most effective style in all organizations. In addition, Northouse (2010) stated that the transformational leadership style fits the needs of today’s

employees who want to be inspired and empowered to succeed in times of uncertainty. Likewise, Muenjohn (2010) concluded that the most commonly displayed leadership style by effective managers is transformational leadership. Moreover, managers who possess transformational leadership characteristics are preferred by employees in organizations all over the world (Muenjohn, 2010). Smith (2011) highlighted the importance of the transformational leadership style to the effectiveness of nursing managers. Another study on health care by Bromley and Kirschner-Bromley (2007) found that physician executives are required to learn to be transformational leaders in order to carry healthcare organizations into the future. Lastly, Walumbwa et al. (2004) illustrated that organizations can benefit significantly by offering transformational leadership training to their managers.

Process of Being a Transformational Manager

All in all, transformational leadership style has been found to be the managerial style most effective at generating superior levels of trust, motivation, organizational commitment, job satisfaction, and performance (Avolio, 2011; Erkutlu, 2008; Muenjohn & Armstrong, 2008; Northouse, 2010). With that being stated, Muenjohn (2010) showed that transformational leadership style is not reserved for those with special ability but can be exhibited by anyone. Additionally, Northouse (2010) found higher and lower level managers can be transformational in both public and private organizations. Managers can be transformational by (a) raising the level of consciousness of employees about the importance and value of specified and idealized goals, (b) influencing employees to

transcend their own self-interests for the sake of the team or organization, and (c) moving employees to address higher level needs (Bass, 1985; Northouse, 2010).

Managers can adopt the transformational leadership style by creating a vision that provides employees with a sense of identity and meaning within the organization. They can become strong role models for their employees by developing a set of moral values and conveying strong ideals. They can act as change agents who implement new directions within organizations. As coaches and advisors, they can provide a supportive climate whereby two-way communication is supported (Bromley & Kirschner-Bromley, 2007; Erkutlu, 2008). However, to become a transformational manager, it takes time, knowledge, education, patience, desire, and practice (Bromley & Kirschner-Bromley, 2007).

Transformational Leadership Style and Turnover Intention

The transformational leadership style is a process that transforms employees to accomplish more than what is generally expected of them. It is concerned with values, ethics, long-term goals, motivation, satisfaction, emotions, effectiveness, and performance. It consists of four elements: idealized influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration (Avolio, 2011; Hall et al., 2012; Northouse, 2010).

Idealized Influence and Turnover Intention

Idealized influence refers to managers who set examples for showing purpose, displaying extraordinary talents, taking risks without hesitation, dealing effectively with

conflicts and crises, providing employees with a vision, engendering faith in employees, and creating a sense of a cooperative mission (Avolio, 2011; Erkutlu, 2008; Northouse, 2010). Transformational managers act as models for employees and possess high moral and ethical standards; therefore, their employees deeply respect them, trust them and their decisions, and want to emulate them (Northouse, 2010).

Johnson and Johnson (2006) discovered that an essential aspect of ongoing cooperation is the level of trust among employees. The key to gaining trust is to be trustworthy. Trust refers to perceptions that a choice can lead to gains or losses (Johnson & Johnson, 2006). Several studies have shown that there is a negative correlation between trust in leaders and turnover intention (Brashear, Boles, Bellenger, & Brooks, 2003; Dirks & Ferrin, 2002; Mulki et al., 2006). When employees trust their managers, they feel safer, engage in their organizations, and it lowers their intention to quit (Davis et al., 2000; Mulki et al., 2006).

Inspirational Motivation and Turnover Intention

Inspirational motivation refers to managers who provide meaning and challenge to tasks and an optimistic future, who show optimism, enthusiasm, and positivity. Transformational managers encourage their employees to contribute to the development of an alternative future, involve them in decision making, and promote teamwork (Avolio, 2011; Erkutlu, 2008; Northouse, 2010). They act in ways that set high standards for their subordinates in order to achieve more than they would in their own self-interest.

They inspire and empower their employees to become part of the shared vision to accomplish high performance (Avolio, 2011; Barroso et al., 2008; Northouse, 2010).

Many studies have made claims that the transformational leadership style is positively related to motivation of employees (Avolio, 2011; Judge & Piccolo, 2004; Kearney, 2008; Tejada, Scandura, & Pillai, 2001). Motivation refers to anything that impacts behaviors in pursuing a certain outcome (Lussier & Achua, 2012). In any event, research conducted between 2007 and 2011 showed a negative relationship between motivation and turnover intention in organizations (Dysvik & Kuvaas, 2010; Kuvaas, 2006; Vansteenkiste et al., 2007). A study by Gardner, Wright, and Moynihan (2011) concluded that a slight increase in motivation is associated with a significant decrease in turnover rate.

Intellectual Stimulation and Turnover Intention

Intellectual stimulation refers to managers who question assumptions, create imaginative visions, notice unusual patterns, apply humor to stimulate new thinking, and encourage employees to employ intuition (Avolio, 2011; Erkutlu, 2008; Northouse, 2010). Transformational managers encourage employees to solve problems in innovative, creative, and new ways. They act in ways that challenge the beliefs and values of their employees. They encourage the use of intelligence to address problems and find solutions while refraining from criticizing the ideas of their employees simply because they were different from theirs (Avolio, 2011; Barroso et al., 2008; Northouse,

2010). Ultimately, they require their employees to support their opinions with good reasoning (Dubinsky et al., 1995).

Many scholars have demonstrated that transformational leadership style has a positive effect on the organizational commitment of employees (Avolio, 2011; Erkutlu, 2008; Hall et al., 2012; Hetland & Sandal, 2003; Muenjohn, 2010; Muenjohn & Armstrong, 2008; Northouse, 2010; Smith, 2011). Organizational commitment reflects the emotional attachment of employees to their organization (Barroso et al., 2008). Transformational managers cause employees to become attached to their organizations (Avolio, 2011; Walumbwa et al., 2004). Avolio (2011) provided evidence that an overwhelming number of studies have shown that employees want to stay with transformational managers. Fundamentally, Walumbwa et al. (2004) found that, even under difficult circumstances, employees who are supervised by transformational managers are willing to stay with their organizations.

Furthermore, the vast majority of research has illustrated the negative association between organizational commitment and turnover intention (Firth et al., 2004; Lambert, Cluse-Tolar, Pasupuleti, Prior, & Allen, 2012; Price, 2001; Siong et al., 2006; WeiBo et al., 2010). Walumbwa and Lawler (2003) affirmed that “transformational leaders through intellectual stimulation cause followers to become attached to their organizations and encourage them to transcend their self-interests and work towards group goals leading to long-term commitment” (p. 1097). According to Walumbwa et al. (2004), transformational managers encourage employees to overcome obstacles and to be successful in the workplace, resulting in a reduced turnover intention.

Individualized Consideration and Turnover Intention

Individualized consideration refers to managers who respond to employees with the least possible delay, are present when needed, utilize two-way communication, and encourage the exchanging of ideas. Transformational managers show concern for employees' personal needs, assign jobs based on their individual needs and abilities, and promote their self-development. These managers effectively coach, mentor, and counsel employees (Avolio, 2011; Erkutlu, 2008; Northouse, 2010). They act in ways that show appreciation and gratitude when employees perform a job well (Dubinsky et al., 1995).

On one hand, employees whose managers emphasize consideration, support, and concern for their needs are highly satisfied (Barroso et al., 2008; Rafferty & Griffin, 2004; Walumbwa & Lawler, 2003). Lussier and Achua (2012) found that employees are satisfied with a manager who is high in consideration. A study of salespeople, conducted by Mulki et al. (2006), discovered that employees feel safer, engage in productive behaviors, and have high job satisfaction when transformational managers lead them. Barroso et al. (2008) defined job satisfaction as a positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of an employee's job or job experience.

On the other hand, employees who have a poor relationship with their manager are more likely to quit their jobs (Lussier & Achua, 2012). Siong et al. (2006) determined that a lack of supervisory support plays a significant role in reducing satisfaction and increasing stress symptoms among employees. However, there is significant evidence that a transformational leadership style correlates positively with job satisfaction (Avolio, 2011; Barroso et al., 2008; Dvir, Eden, Avolio, & Shamir, 2002;

Hetland & Sandal, 2003; Judge & Piccolo, 2004; Kearney, 2008). Avolio (2011) shared with Northouse (2010) the conclusion that transformational managers improve the overall job satisfaction of their subordinates.

The human resources management literature supports the negative association between job satisfaction and turnover intention (Böckerman & Ilmakunnas, 2009; Iverson & Currivan, 2003; Lee et al., 2006; Mulki et al., 2006; Scott, Gravelle, Simoens, Bojke, & Sibbald, 2006; Winterton, 2004). According to Price (2001), job satisfaction decreases turnover intention. Clearly, satisfied employees are less likely to quit their jobs (Böckerman & Ilmakunnas, 2009).

The Four I's

In conclusion, transformational managers are strong role models, charismatic, visionaries, and lead by example. In essence, they frequently demonstrate idealized influence. They motivate and empower their subordinates and actually utilize inspirational motivation in the workplace. They are innovators and practitioners of intellectual stimulation when interacting with the employees. When they coach, counsel, and support their subordinates, they exemplify the individualized consideration characteristic of transformational leadership style (Avolio, 2011; Hall et al., 2012; Northouse, 2010).

Controlling Turnover Intention

Few studies (e.g., Griffith, 2004; Kleinman, 2004; Walumbwa & Lawler, 2003; Walumbwa et al., 2004) have investigated the relationship between transformational

leadership style and employee turnover. Not enough is yet known about the impact of transformational leadership style on turnover intention (Griffith, 2004; Kleinman, 2004; Walumbwa & Lawler, 2003; Walumbwa et al., 2004). In one study, Griffith (2004) concluded that school principal transformational leadership has an indirect negative effect, through job satisfaction, on school staff turnover. In addition to the impact identified in schools, Walumbwa and Lawler (2003) and Walumbwa et al. (2004) concluded that transformational leadership style is negatively related to employee turnover in other work settings. Dissimilarly, Kleinman (2004) discovered transformational leadership style is not significantly correlated with staff nurse turnover. Indeed, previous studies are contradictory in their findings in regard to the correlation between transformational leadership style and turnover intention. Appendix D provides a synopsis of the aforementioned studies.

Kleinman (2004), Walumbwa and Lawler (2003), and Walumbwa et al. (2004) used the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) when measuring the transformational leadership variable. Although the MLQ is commonly used as a leadership instrument all around the world, several studies have criticized it for its validity (Charbonneau, 2004; Muenjohn & Armstrong, 2008; Northouse, 2010; Tejada et al., 2001). Scholars (e.g., Charbonneau, 2004; Tejada et al., 2001) challenged its conceptual framework and structural validity. When using the MLQ, the four factors of transformational leadership were found to correlate highly with each other, which indicated they were not distinct factors (Northouse, 2010; Tejada et al., 2001).

Several investigators have established that if transformational leadership style interacts positively with satisfaction and organizational commitment, and if satisfaction and commitment are both negatively related to turnover intention, it logically follows that transformational leadership style would be negatively related to turnover intention (Böckerman & Ilmakunnas, 2009; Firth et al., 2004; Lambert et al., 2012; Lee et al., 2006; Mulki et al., 2006; Scott et al., 2006; Siong et al., 2006; Winterton, 2004). However, by investigating the phenomenon from a different perspective, the current literature reinforces the conclusion that managerial style is one of the determinants of turnover intention (Abassi & Hollman, 2000; Firth et al., 2004; Griffith, 2004; Kalliath & Beck, 2001; Kleinman, 2004; Lee et al., 2006; Ongori, 2007; Price, 2001; Siong et al., 2006; Stovel & Bontis, 2002; Walumbwa & Lawler, 2003; Walumbwa et al., 2004; WeiBo et al., 2010). In addition, transformational leadership style is more highly positively correlated with effectiveness when compared to any other style of leadership (Avolio, 2011; Bass & Avolio, 1990; Bromley & Kirschner-Bromley, 2007; Erkutlu, 2008; Hall et al., 2012; Judge & Bono, 2000; Judge & Piccolo, 2004; Kivlighan & Tarrant, 2001; Muenjohn, 2010; Muenjohn & Armstrong, 2008; Northouse, 2010; Pearce & Sims, 2002; Smith, 2011; Vance & Larson, 2002); hence, transformational leadership style is an effective managerial style.

Moreover, research by Firth et al. (2004), Kalliath and Beck (2001), Moore (2002), Siong et al. (2006), and Price (2001) found that supervisory support indirectly reduces turnover intention. Because transformational managers are considered supportive supervisors (Avolio, 2011; Barroso et al., 2008; Erkutlu, 2008; Hall et al.,

2012; Northouse, 2010; Rafferty & Griffin, 2004), managers who possess at least one of the transformational characteristics would be considered supportive supervisors.

Hypothetically, based on this discussion, Professionals In Human Resources Association (PIHRA) members who possess one of the transformational characteristics can reduce managerial-caused turnover intention of their subordinates.

Target Population

PIHRA is a nonprofit corporation located in California and governed by “a volunteer board of directors who serve without compensation” (Propster, 2012, para. 7). It was founded in 1945 and is committed to the permanent development of “human resources through networking, learning and advocacy” (PIHRA, 2012a, para. 1). PIHRA hires professional employees to provide expertise on association management practices and continuity. It is “organized into 16 districts, serving five southern California counties: Los Angeles, Orange, Riverside, San Bernardino, and Ventura” (PIHRA, 2012a, para. 1).

Subordinates of PIHRA members are from all areas of industry within the most economically diverse area in the country (Propster, 2012). They work within almost all industries and all forms of organizations (i.e., profit and nonprofit, government and private organizations). Indeed, employees whose managers are PIHRA members constitute a large target population with diverse backgrounds. This ensured the result of this study would be authentic, precise, and generalized to the population from which it came.

PIHRA members are employed within 3,000 organizations, and most of them hold a position of top management (PIHRA, 2012a). Members from each of the 16 districts meet monthly for breakfast or lunch with a speaker on leadership skills and HR issues (PIHRA, 2012a). Members may attend any district's meeting if they wish (PIHRA, 2012a). Although the members of PIHRA work in many different industries, they share one thing, namely being members of PIHRA. PIHRA trains and teaches them aspects and approaches of leadership and HR. It offers "more than 180 continuing education events presented at monthly meetings and annual [conferences]" (PIHRA, 2012a, para. 2).

Transformational Leadership Conceptual Framework

Transformational Leadership Theory

The transformational leadership theory dominated much of the research during the last three decades (Bass & Riggio, 2006; Kearney, 2008; Northouse, 2010). Northouse (2010) defined transformational leadership style as a process that changes and transforms employees. As with any other theory, this approach has its strengths and limitations. Its strengths include that (a) it is widely researched from different perspectives, (b) it provides a broad view of leadership, (c) it is an effective style of leadership, (d) it effectively influences employees on all levels, and (e) it strongly emphasizes employees' needs and values (Hall et al., 2012; Northouse, 2010). On the other hand, its limitations include that (a) it has many components that seem too broad, (b) it treats leadership more

as a personality trait than as a learned behavior, and (c) it has the potential for supporting abuse of power (Hall et al., 2012; Northouse, 2010).

The Major Transformational Leadership Models

In the current literature, the three major transformational leadership models include (a) Bass and Avolio's model of the full range of leadership (introduced in 1994), (b) Kouzes and Posner's model of the five best practices (introduced in 1987), and (c) Bass and Avolio's model of the additive effect of transformational leadership (introduced in 1990; Northouse, 2010; Thomson, 2007).

Full range of leadership. Bass and Avolio developed a full-range leadership model in 1994. It consists of (a) transformational leadership (the four I's), described as the most active and effective of the styles; (b) contingent reward, viewed as a process of exchanging rewards between leaders and followers for services provided; (c) active management by expectation, referring to the extent to which leaders monitor the breaking of rules; (d) passive management by expectation, referring to the degree to which leaders wait for followers to deviate from rules and standards; and (e) laissez-faire leadership, relating to the absence of leadership and described as the most inactive and passive of the styles (Avolio, 2011; Bass & Avolio, 1994; Erkutlu, 2008; Northouse, 2010).

Five best practices. In 1987, Kouzes and Posner developed a leadership model based on five best practices. It consists of five fundamental practices that enable leaders to accomplish extraordinary goals (Kouzes & Posner, 2007; Northouse, 2010). These practices include modeling the way, inspiring a shared vision, challenging the process,

enabling others to act, and encouraging the heart (Kouzes & Posner, 2007; Northouse, 2010). The model provides individuals with what they need in order to be effective leaders (Kouzes & Posner, 2007; Northouse, 2010). This model is not about personality but about practice, and it is available to everyone who wants to become an effective leader (Kouzes & Posner, 2007; Northouse, 2010). As a final point, it is widely used in leadership training and development (Northouse, 2010).

The additive effect of transformational leadership. The literature supporting the four I's as a legitimate leadership model describes it as an additive model. An additive effect means that each of the variables in a model is thought to be independent from other variables in that model, each expressing an independent influence on outcomes. By definition, the combined effect of multiple additive variables is equal to the sum of the effects of each variable individually ("Additive Effect," n.d.). According to the Institute for Statistics Education (ISE, 2012),

An additive effect refers to the role of a variable in an estimated model. A variable that has an additive effect can merely be added to the other terms in a model to determine its effect on the independent variable. (n.p.)

Several scholars (e.g., Erkutlu, 2008; Gellis, 2001; Hall et al., 2012) investigated the variables contained in the transformational leadership model and found sufficient empirical validity to the claim that the effect of each of the variables is additive (see Figure 3). In contrast to claims made by Northouse (2010) and Tejada et al. (2001) that the four factors are not distinct, this model implies that each of the variables that comprise transformational leadership contributes a unique influence on organizational performance and that the combined influence of the four variables represents the

influence of transformational leadership. Additionally, such a model focuses on the result of possessing each of the characteristics of the transformational leadership style (Bass & Avolio, 1990; Erkutlu, 2008; Gellis, 2001; Hall et al., 2012; Northouse, 2010).

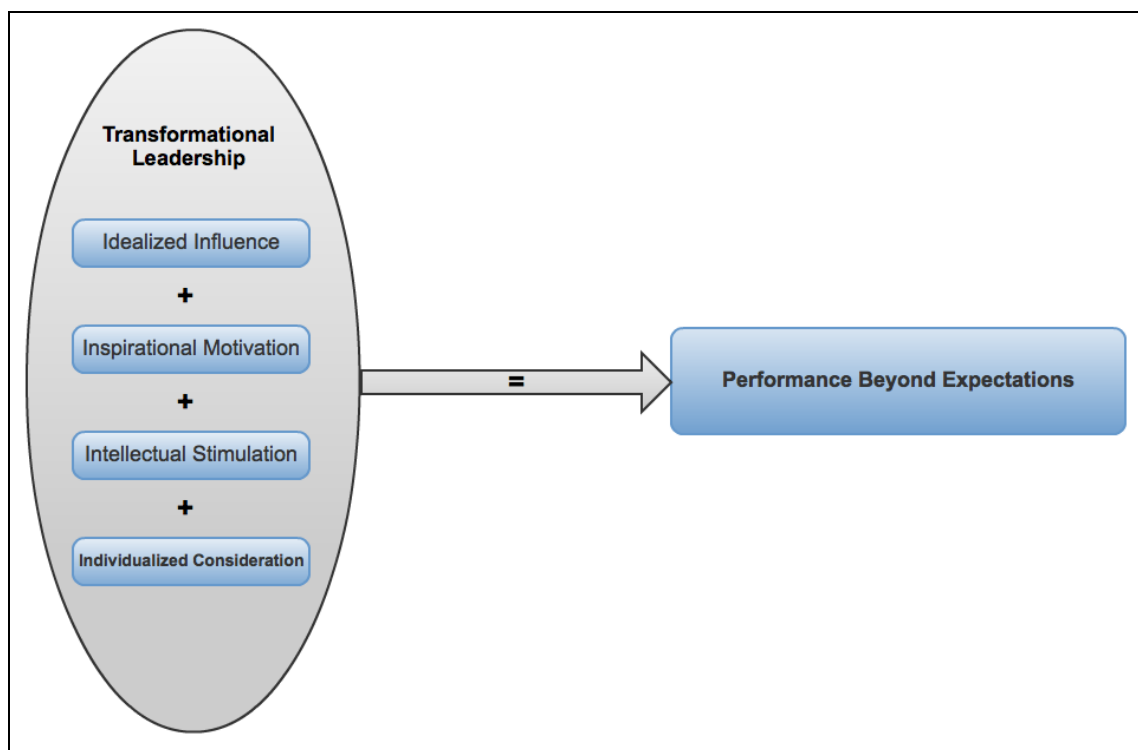


Figure 3. The additive effect of transformational leadership model. Adapted from “The Implications of Transactional and Transformational Leadership for Individual, Team, and Organizational Development,” by B. M. Bass and B. J. Avolio, 1990, *Research in Organizational Change and Development*, 4(1), p. 231.

The transformational leadership style may take the forms of idealized influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration. These four I’s are independent, coexist, and have an additive impact that yield performance beyond expectations (Bass & Avolio, 1990; Erkutlu, 2008; Gellis, 2001; Hall et al., 2012;

Northouse, 2010). Hall et al. (2012) affirmed that each of the four I's is valuable to the process of organizational transformation.

The additive effect of the transformational leadership model claimed by earlier studies highlights the powerful combined results of these four components and the performance outcomes beyond organizational expectations (Bass & Avolio, 1990; Erkutlu, 2008; Gellis, 2001; Hall et al., 2012; Northouse, 2010). The model also implies that in order for managers to maximize outcomes, they must combine all of the four I's together into one leadership style. Managers who apply the four I's in an organization do so by being strong role models, innovators, and coaches, and they encourage subordinates to excel. These leadership behaviors combine to transform employees into better, more productive and successful individuals motivated to transcend their own self-interests for the good of the group or organization (Bass & Avolio, 1990; Hall et al., 2012; Northouse, 2010).

Turnover Intention Conceptual Framework

Turnover Models

Many turnover models exist that describe the influence of determinants to turnover (Firth et al., 2004; Lambert et al., 2012; Price, 2001; Siong et al., 2006; WeiBo et al., 2010). A meta-analysis conducted by WeiBo et al. (2010) assessed models of turnover studied between 1983 and 2009, and found that turnover models may differ in their content yet have common elements. Each of the models, the researchers found, contributes to the understanding of the turnover process. WeiBo et al. (2010) emphasized that the models contained a large number of predictor variables and their relationships to

each other become complicated. More recent models of turnover have viewed turnover intention as a nonlinear process (Price, 2001; Wagner & Huber, 2003) and supervisory support as a sufficient determinant of turnover intention (Firth et al., 2004; Price, 2001; Siong et al., 2006). Going forward, the criteria of a more appropriate model of turnover intention should describe clear relationships among variables (Mobley, 1982), focus on gaining further understanding of the turnover process (Mobley, 1982), contain intervening variables (Price, 2001), specify intention to quit as the direct mediator to the turnover (Mobley, 1982), and be validated by sufficient empirical research (WeiBo et al., 2010).

The Major Turnover Intention Models

Among all the turnover models in the literature, the three foremost models are the Mobley model (introduced in 1982); the Mowday, Porter, and Steers model (introduced in 1982); and the Price-Mueller model (introduced in 1981; Griffeth & Hom, 2004; Hemmings et al., 2000; Price, 2001).

Conceptual models of turnover intention. Mobley (1982) developed the simplified model of the causes and correlates of turnover. The general determinants of turnover described in this model include the state of the economy (e.g., unemployment, inflation, and opportunity), organizational variables (e.g., leadership, reward system, and job design), individual nonwork variables (e.g., nonwork values, spouse career, and family responsibilities), and individual work variables (e.g., satisfaction, commitment, and intentions; Mobley, 1982; Price, 2001). Additionally, Mowday, Porter, and Steers

developed a model of turnover in 1982. The main determinants of turnover described in this model include, but are not limited to, social psychological and sociological constructs, and intent to quit (Mowday et al., 1982; Price, 2001).

The causal model of turnover. This study used the causal model of turnover as the foundational framework of turnover intention. The model was first developed by Price, Mueller, and their colleagues in 1972, then modified by Price in 2001, and it is often referred to as the Price-Mueller model (introduced in 1981; Griffeth & Hom, 2004; Price, 2001). This model is one of the three leading explanatory versions of turnover in the literature (Griffeth & Hom, 2004) and is superior to the other leading models in that it specifies intention to quit as the direct mediator to the turnover process rather than job satisfaction. In addition, it indicates managerial style (supervisory support) as a sufficient determinant of the intention to quit. Moreover, it clarifies the relationship among all variables in an appropriate manner. Last but not least, it includes 22 determinants of turnover (Griffeth & Hom, 2004; Price, 2001); thus, it is a comprehensive model that explains the phenomenon in depth and offers a further understanding of it (see Figure 4). One additional significant reason for selecting the causal model of turnover is that it views turnover from a sociological perspective (Hemmings et al., 2000; Price, 2001), and the vantage point of this study was sociology, the study of “human societies, their interactions, and the processes that preserve and change them” (Faris & Form, 2012, para. 1).

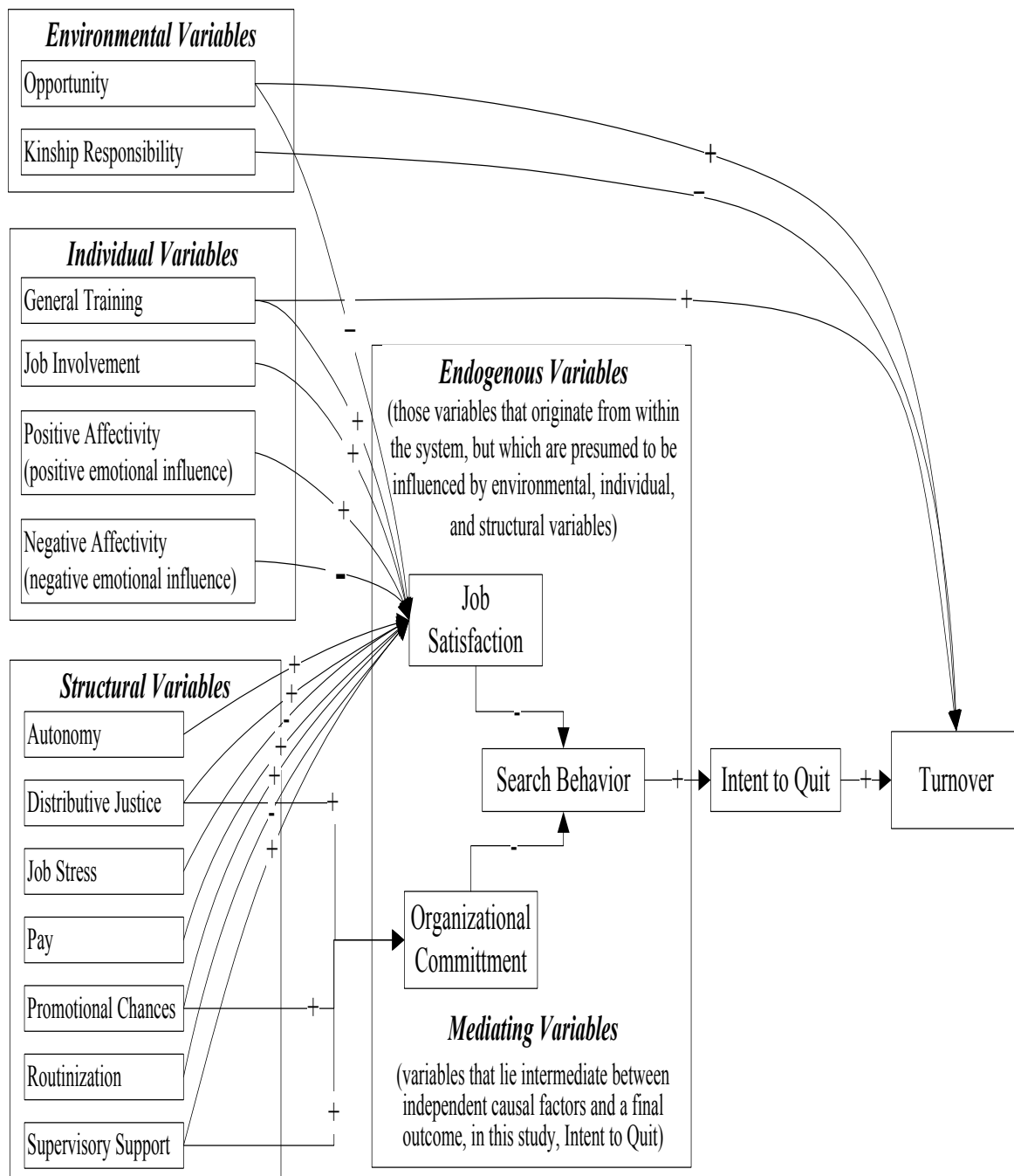


Figure 4. The causal model of turnover (2001). Adapted from "Reflections on the Determinants of Voluntary Turnover," by J. L. Price, 2001, *International Journal of Manpower*, 22(7/8), p. 602.

Furthermore, the causal model of turnover has the strongest demonstrative and empirical validity, and more than 33 theses and dissertations have examined this model (Currivan, 1999; Price, 2001). Additionally, validity measures were highest in capitalistic democratic countries. Moreover, Price (2001) concluded that it is relevant to full-time employees. Finally, it was found to be applicable only in work organizations where employees are paid (Price, 2001). The model consists of 22 determinants, which are categorized in exogenous and endogenous variables. The exogenous variables, those operating outside of the organization and outside of the control of the manager, include environmental, individual, and structural variables, whereas endogenous variables include job satisfaction, organizational commitment, search behavior, and intention to quit (see Figure 4).

The environmental variables. Environmental variables include opportunity, which refers to the availability of alternative jobs in the environment, and kinship responsibility, which refers to the obligations of the relatives who live in the same environment. Increased opportunity leads to more turnover, whereas kinship leads to less turnover. Both environmental variables influence turnover directly; however, opportunity has a negative impact on job satisfaction as well (Price, 2001).

The individual variables. The individual variables include general training, job involvement, and positive or negative affectivity. General training refers to the degree of knowledge and skills required for a job (Price, 2001). For instance, employees who possess general knowledge and skills may have more chances to switch jobs than those who are specialists. The increased general training has a direct impact on and produces

more turnover (Price, 2001). Job involvement, the willingness of membership in work, reduces turnover through its positive influence on job satisfaction. Positive or negative affectivity refers to dispositional tendencies to experience pleasant or unpleasant emotional states, respectively. Employees high in positive affectivity perceive the favorable aspects of a job, thus increasing their job satisfaction, and vice versa. Both affectivities impact turnover through their positive or negative impacts on job satisfaction (Price, 2001).

The structural variables. The causal model of turnover is more structural than any other model (Griffeth & Hom, 2004; Price, 2001), and its main emphasis is on seven structural variables: autonomy, distributive justice, job stress, pay, promotional chances, routinization, and supervisory support. Structural variables refer to the way in which the variables of a model are arranged and function together and are “the classic focus of sociologists” (Price, 2001, p. 605). (These variables are related to the organizations, and many scholars used organizational variables as equivalent to structural variables.) The first structural variable appearing in the model is autonomy, which refers to the employees’ liberty of exercising power over their jobs. It reduces turnover by its positive impact on job satisfaction (Price, 2001). The second variable is distributive justice, which refers to the degree to which rewards and punishments are related to job performance. It reduces turnover by its positive influence on both job satisfaction and organizational commitment. The third variable, job stress, the degree to which job tasks are difficult to fulfill, increases turnover through its negative impact on job satisfaction (Price, 2001).

The fourth structural variable is pay, which refers to a wage that an employee receives for performance. It decreases turnover by its positive impact on job satisfaction. Furthermore, promotional chances, the extent of potential occupational advancement within an organization, reduces turnover by its positive impact on both job satisfaction and organizational commitment. The sixth structural variable emerging from the model is routinization, which refers to the extent to which jobs are repetitive. It increases turnover through its negative influence on job satisfaction. Finally, supervisory support, the assistance with job-related problems, reduces turnover by its positive impact on both job satisfaction and organizational commitment (Price, 2001).

Mediating variables. The causal model of turnover has four endogenous variables, each acting as an intervening mediating variable: job satisfaction, organizational commitment, search behavior, and intention to quit. Job satisfaction refers to the degree to which employees like their work, whereas organizational commitment refers to the extent to which the employees are loyal to their employers. Both of these intervening variables reduce turnover. Price (2001) argued that employees search for a job and then decide to stay at or quit their organization. Search behavior refers to employees' looking for alternative jobs, whereas intent to quit refers to the degree to which employees plan to discontinue their membership with their organization. Both of these intervening variables produce more turnover (Price, 2001).

Conclusion. Like any other theory, this model has some limitations. As reflected in Figure 4, the model does not include any demographic variables, such as education, age, and gender (Griffeth & Hom, 2004; Price, 2001); however, this exclusion did not

impact the final conclusion of this study. Some exogenous variables, such as opportunity, kinship responsibility, and general training, have a direct impact on turnover; there are not any mediating variables between the above-mentioned exogenous variables and turnover, although propositions without intervening processes are usually incomplete. As a final point, it is not clear why the model would work for the full-time employees and not for others or why it would not work as well in nondemocratic countries as it would in democratic ones (Price, 2001).

Transformational Leadership Style and Managerial-Caused Turnover Intention

For the purpose of this study, managerial style was considered as a structural variable and equivalent to supervisory support. Although managerial style is not the primary reason behind the decision of turnover intention, it has a significant impact on an individual's decision to stay in or leave an organization. It influences turnover intention through the intervening variables of job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and search behavior (see Figure 5). It decreases turnover intention indirectly by means of a positive impact on job satisfaction and organizational commitment (Price, 2001).

This study examined the transformational leadership style and its four I's as the managerial style of PIHRA members. The problem of focus of this study was the managerial-caused turnover intention. The intent of this research was to identify the relationship between transformational leadership style and managerial-caused turnover intention.

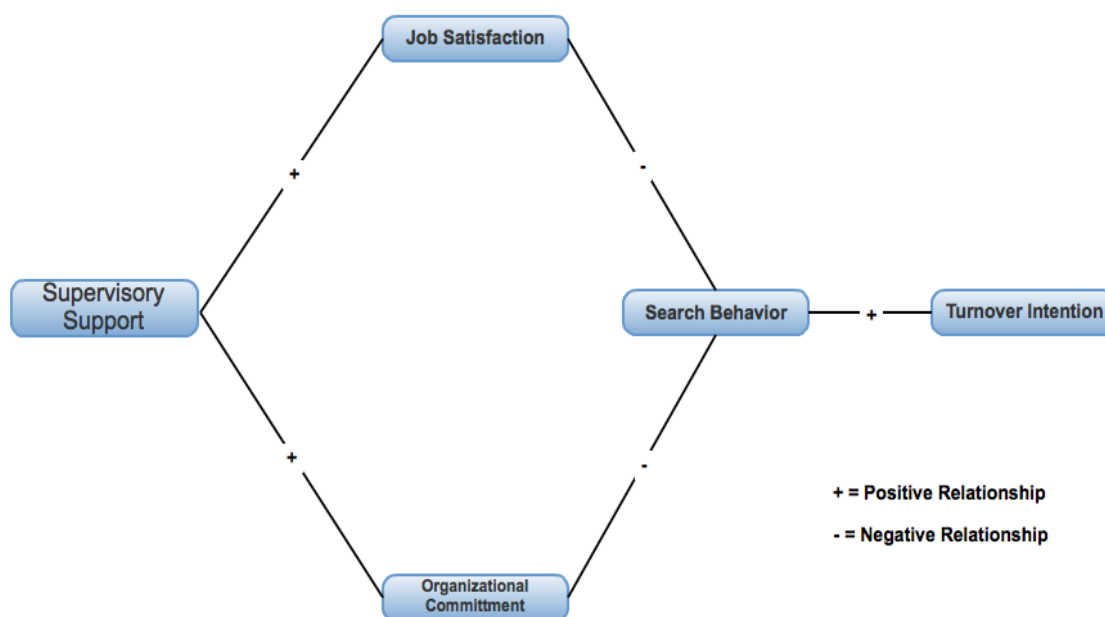


Figure 5. A portion of the causal model of turnover (2001). Adapted from “Reflections on the Determinants of Voluntary Turnover,” by J. L. Price, 2001, *International Journal of Manpower*, 22(7/8), p. 602.

Summary

Managers perform many functions, face several conflicts and situations in each business day, and their success depends on their style of management. Their style could be transactional, transformational, or laissez-faire. Capacity for change, visionary, ability to articulate a set of core values and morals, excellent communication and cognitive skills, flexibility, and sensitivity to employees’ needs are the most essential characteristics of effective managers. On the other hand, ineffective managers may cause employees health problems, stress, and turnover intention.

Managerial style is one of the distinguished determinants of turnover intention. The most effective and supportive managerial style among all leadership styles is transformational leadership (Avolio, 2011; Hall et al., 2012; Northouse, 2010). Idealized

influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration would likely impact the employees' decision of staying or leaving. Based on the fact that supervisory support indirectly reduces turnover intention, and based on the fact that transformational managers are supportive supervisors, this study hypothesized that PIHRA members who practice transformational leadership style would reduce the managerial-caused turnover intention of their subordinates (Avolio, 2011; Firth et al., 2004; Hall et al., 2012; Northouse, 2010; Price, 2001).

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

This study investigated transformational leadership style and managerial-caused turnover intention. There are believed to be several factors that impact employees' decisions to stay at or quit their current jobs. Nevertheless, this study focused on a single potential causal factor, the leadership style of managers. Managerial-caused turnover intention and transformational leadership constructs can be measured quantitatively by using valid and reliable scales. This chapter presents the methodology of the study, beginning with a restatement of the purpose of the study, the research questions, and the hypotheses, followed by a description of the type of research, the design, the population and sample, the instrumentation, and the steps taken to ensure validity and reliability, including field-testing of instruments. Finally, Chapter III describes the procedures used to collect data and the statistical methodology used to make conclusions from the data, identifies the limitations and ethical considerations, and concludes with a brief summary.

In accordance with norms expressed by Thorne and Giesen (2003), the main notations used in this chapter include the following:

- N represents the number of units in the population.
- n represents the number of units in the sample.
- M represents the number of clusters in the population.

- m represents the number of clusters in the sample.
- N_i represents the number of listing units in Cluster i .

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to identify and measure the relationship between managerial-caused turnover intention and transformational leadership style, which comprises four subconstructs known as the four I's: idealized influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration.

Research Questions

1. What is the relationship between the transformational leadership style of PIHRA members and managerial-caused turnover intention of their subordinates?
2. What is the relationship between idealized influence used by PIHRA members and managerial-caused turnover intention of their subordinates?
3. What is the relationship between inspirational motivation used by PIHRA members and managerial-caused turnover intention of their subordinates?
4. What is the relationship between intellectual stimulation used by PIHRA members and managerial-caused turnover intention of their subordinates?
5. What is the relationship between individualized consideration used by PIHRA members and managerial-caused turnover intention of their subordinates?

Hypotheses

This study investigated one central hypothesis and four subordinate hypotheses.

The central hypothesis was that the transformational leadership style of Professionals In

Human Resources Association (PIHRA) members is negatively correlated with managerial-caused turnover intention of their subordinates; that is to say that transformational leadership style is predictive of lower levels of turnover intention. The four subordinate hypotheses were as follows:

H₁. PIHRA members with higher levels of idealized influence are more likely to have lower levels of managerial-caused turnover intention among their subordinates.

H₂. PIHRA members with higher levels of inspirational motivation are more likely to have lower levels of managerial-caused turnover intention among their subordinates.

H₃. PIHRA members with higher levels of intellectual stimulation are more likely to have lower levels of managerial-caused turnover intention among their subordinates.

H₄. PIHRA members with higher levels of individualized consideration are more likely to have lower levels of managerial-caused turnover intention among their subordinates.

Research Type and Design

According to Locke, Silverman, and Spirduso (2004), quantitative designs represent, by far, the major type of social science research. The capacity of the quantitative design to predict, describe, and explain social and psychological phenomena has provided a considerable part of the foundation on which the modern social sciences have been constructed (Locke et al., 2004).

Creswell (2008) defined quantitative research as an inquiry approach useful for, among other things, “explaining the relationship among variables found in the literature” (p. 645). Creswell added,

To conduct this inquiry, the investigator specifies narrow questions, locates or develops instruments to gather data to answer the questions, and analyzes numbers from the instruments, using statistics. From the results of these analyses, the researcher interprets the data using prior predictions and research studies. The final report, presented in a standard format, displays researcher objectivity and lack of bias. (p. 645)

Therefore, this quantitative study of predicted relationships of a variable thought to be related to turnover intention utilized survey research with a correlational design (Huck, 2000; Krathwohl, 2009; Locke et al., 2004). Because the study examined the complex thoughts, feelings, behaviors, and decisions of individuals and group members of organizations, the vantage point for this study was sociological (Faris & Form, 2012; Newman, 2011). More specifically, the content was focused on human resources management.

Study Population

Creswell (2008) advised that a typical goal of survey research is to “select and study a sample from a population” in order to “generalize the results to the population” (p. 393). He explained,

At the broadest level is the population, in which a group of individuals possesses one characteristic that distinguishes them from other groups. . . . At a more specific level, researchers do not always study an entire population, either because they cannot identify the individuals or because they cannot obtain lists of names. . . . In practical, operational terms, researchers study a *target population* (sometimes called the sampling frame). This is the list or record of individuals in a population that a researcher *can* actually obtain. . . . From the target population, researchers choose a sample. At the most specific level, researchers select a *sample* from the target population. These individuals are actually studied. (Creswell, 2008, pp. 393-394)

The present study was designed with the goal of generalizing the results from the sample participants to the population from which they came.

A population is a group of individuals who share one or more characteristics and to whom a researcher expects to generalize results of a study (Creswell, 2008; Krathwohl, 2009). In the fourth quarter of 2011, there were over 131.1 million persons employed in the United States, 14.7 million of whom were employed in California (BLS, 2012e). The population of this study included all individuals who reported to managers in California organizations. In a quantitative study, the major entity being studied is called the unit of analysis (Trochim, 2006). For the purpose of this study, the unit of analysis was individuals (Van de Ven, 2007).

Like the general population, a target population is “a group of individuals with some common defining characteristic,” but it differs in that the target population can be identified “with a list or set of names” (Creswell, 2008, p. 648). In this study, the target population consisted of the employees whose managers were organizational members of PIHRA, which includes approximately 3,000 members who work in Southern California organizations from all areas of industry within the most economically diverse area in the country (see Figure 6; PIHRA, 2012a).

Sixty-four percent of the PIHRA members are from Los Angeles County, 25% from Orange County, and 4% from Riverside County (PIHRA, 2012b). Several PIHRA members work in industries such as education, finance, health, and manufacturing. However, approximately 35% (the highest percentage) of PIHRA members are designated as “other” in regard to industries, since anyone can be a member of PIHRA by simply paying the required membership fee. In regard to the districts of PIHRA, the highest percentage (17%) of PIHRA members are from District 14, and the lowest

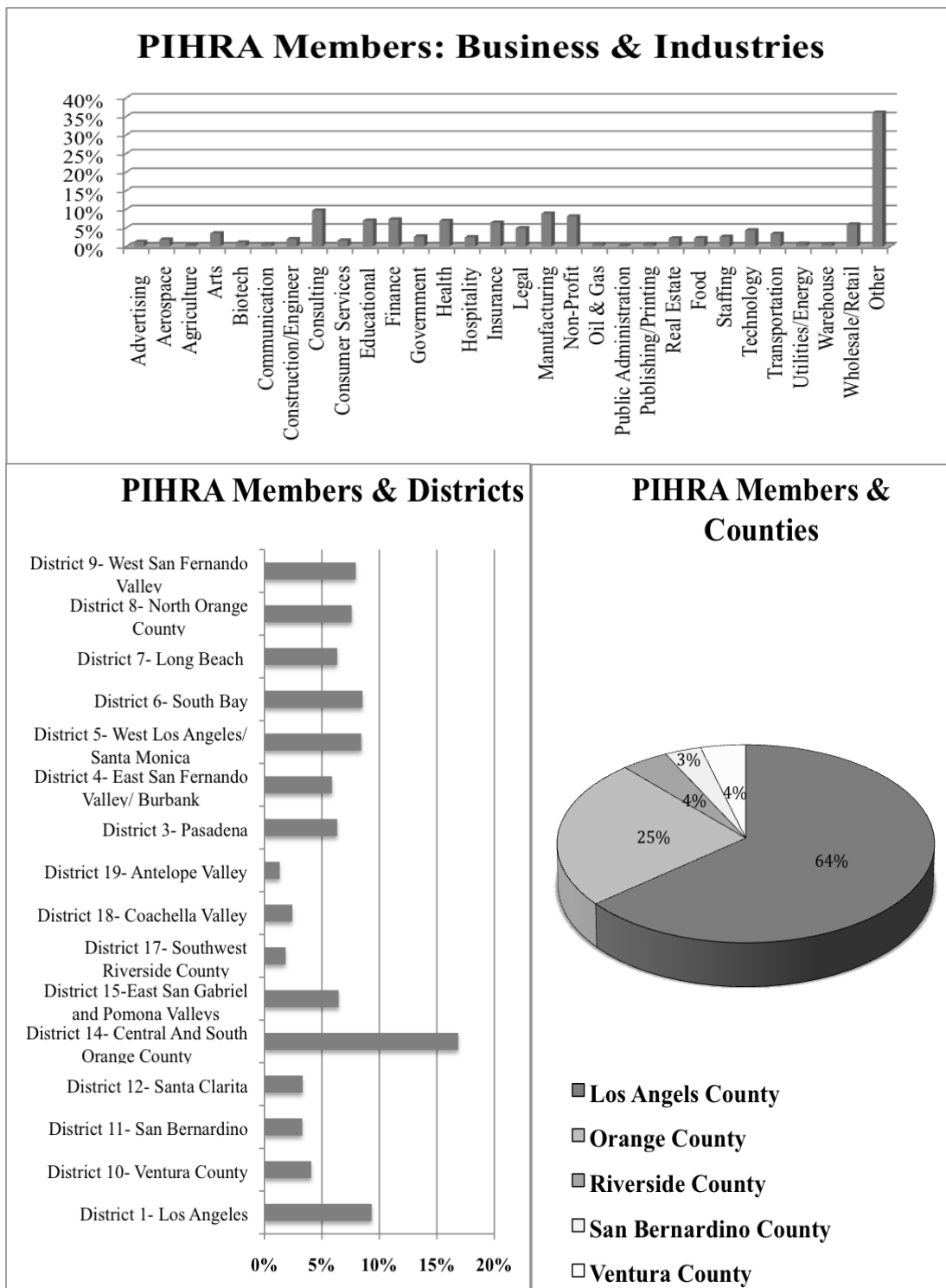


Figure 6. PIHRA demographic statistics. $M = 3095$; $M =$ number of clusters in population. Adapted from “Member Directory,” by PIHRA, 2012b, retrieved from <https://m360.pihra.org/frontend/search.aspx?cs=1900>.

percentage (1%) of members are from District 19 (PIHRA, 2012b). (See Figure 6 for more details on PIHRA demographic statistics.)

This study aimed to assess the leadership style of managers. Since managers work in such a wide range of organizations and industries, the PIHRA members became a more focused group. Because transformational leaders are most likely at higher levels of management (Lussier & Achua, 2012) and PIHRA members hold top managerial positions in their organizations (PIHRA, 2012a), the employees whose managers were members of PIHRA became an ideal population for this study.

Due to the difficulty in tracking those who have already quit their jobs, and to gain access to a targeted audience to complete the survey, this study relied on employees who were still working at their organizations but might consider leaving. Additionally, because the target population contained more than 20,000 individuals ($N > 20,000$) and the hardship to obtain the list of all employees, cluster sampling was an appropriate method to reach the target audience (Krathwohl, 2009; Van de Ven, 2007).

Study Sample

A sample is “a subgroup of the target population that the researcher plans to study for the purpose of making generalizations about the target population” (Creswell, 2008, p. 646). A cluster sample is “a sample obtained by selecting a preexisting or natural group, called a cluster, and using the members in the cluster for the sample” (Bluman, 2007, p. 716). According to Van de Ven (2007), cluster sampling is “often used when it is impossible or impractical to list all members of a target population” (p. 183).

Researchers use cluster sampling to solve problems such as large populations by dividing

the target population into clusters, then randomly selecting clusters, and finally using all the units in a cluster (Krathwohl, 2009).

In detail, cluster sampling steps include (a) creating a list of all clusters in the population, (b) selecting a simple random sample of clusters, (c) including all the units from the clusters selected in Step 2, and (d) collecting needed data from all the units in the clusters (Bluman, 2007; Krathwohl, 2009). This method provided the benefits of unbiased sampling and randomness while ensuring all clusters had an equal probability of being selected (Bluman, 2007). As a final point, to make certain the entire target population was represented, each PIHRA member served as a cluster; thus, each member had an equal probability of being selected.

For the purpose of this study, the advantages of utilizing cluster sampling outweighed its disadvantages (see the limitations section for more details on the disadvantages). Some of its advantages include cost reduction, time saving, convenience, and fieldwork simplicity. Fundamentally, instead of sampling an entire population, a researcher can sample clusters of the population and still have a bigger sample (Bluman, 2007). According to Krathwohl (2009), all types of probability samples involve random sampling at some point of the process, and one of the advantages of the random sampling is that it requires minimal advance knowledge of the population.

Van de Ven (2007) offered guidelines for determining an appropriate sample size: “Sample size considerations include: (1) the heterogeneity of the populations; (2) the desired precision in determining magnitudes of effects; (3) the type of sampling design; (4) and the availability of resources” (p. 183).

Dolnicar (2002) conducted a meta-analysis of 243 studies that applied cluster sampling and discovered (a) there are no rules-of-thumb about estimating the sample size for a cluster sample; (b) among these 243 studies, the smallest sample size contained only 10 clusters ($m = 10$); and (c) 22% of these studies had fewer than 100 units ($n = 100$). For the purpose of this study, the maximum and minimum sample sizes were estimated.

Many researchers have followed a common cluster-sampling scheme, the (30 x 7) design (30 clusters of seven units), which was developed by the World Health Organization and typically yields precise estimates (Henderson & Sundaresan, 1982). Multiplying 30 by 7 results in 210 participants ($30 \times 7 = 210$). In other words, the estimated maximum sample size was 210 participants ($n = 210$). To summarize, this study estimated the maximum sample size of 210 participants, with 30 clusters (PIHRA members) and seven units (subordinates) per cluster.

Based on the rationale that “there is no real opportunity to approach the potential respondents,” the minimum sample size was estimated as well (Baruch, 1999, p. 423). For $\alpha = .05$, a value of .10 for the precision of the desired result, and a confidence level of 95%, the required minimum sample size was 96 subjects ($n = 96$; Henderson & Sundaresan, 1982). As suggested by Henderson and Sundaresan (1982), the estimated minimum sample size was calculated using the following formula: $n = (Z^2 pq)/d^2 = (1.96)^2(0.5)(0.5) / 0.1^2 = (3.84)(0.25) / 0.01 = 96$.

Based on the fact that the smallest sample size contained only 10 clusters ($m = 10$) and the required minimum sample size was 96 subjects ($n = 96$), the cluster-sampling design for the minimum sample size (96 subjects) was estimated as follows. Dividing 96

units by 10 clusters results in 9.6 units per cluster ($96/10 = 9.6$). Rounding 9.6 to the nearest whole number results in 10 units per cluster. Therefore, this study estimated the cluster-sampling design for the minimum sample size to be (10 x 10). To conclude, this study estimated the minimum sample size of 96 participants, with 10 clusters (PIHRA members) and 10 units (subordinates) per cluster.

Based on the (30 x 7) design and Price's (2001) model, this study constructed its criteria and developed its rules for selecting the clusters and the units. The criteria for selecting the clusters (PIHRA members) were that each cluster must have at least seven units (subordinates) and grant permission to sample and survey the units. The criteria for selecting the units (the subordinates of PIHRA members) were that all participants must work as full-time employees and report to PIHRA members. For the purpose of this study, full-time employees refer to those who work in only one organization and receive monetary compensation, excluding part-time employees, students, volunteers, and those who have probationary status (Mobley, 1982; Price, 2001).

Instrumentation

Bryman (2004) stated, "Measurement provides the basis for more precise estimates of the degree of relationship between concepts" (p. 66). The instrument refers to the measuring device (e.g., a questionnaire) used to collect data from subjects and typically contains scales that measure variables of a study (Huck, 2000). The instrument of this study consisted mainly of two scales: the Global Transformational Leadership scale and the Turnover Intention scale.

Krathwohl (2009) illustrated that the term *independent variable* refers to something that is believed to be a cause, and the term *dependent variable* refers to something that is believed to be an effect. However, this study did not focus on causes and effects, but rather it examined the nature of the relationship between two variables (Locke et al., 2004). This study measured the independent variable, transformational leadership style, by the Global Transformational Leadership (GTL) scale, which was developed by Carless, Wearing, and Mann (2000). Appendix E exhibits the developers' permission to reproduce the scale in this study. Additionally, this study measured the dependent variable, managerial-caused turnover intention, by the Turnover Intention (TI) scale, which was developed by Spector (1985). Appendix F displays the developer's permission to reproduce the scale in this study.

Careful researchers often explain why they used a particular instrument and why they have confidence that it is the accurate means of data collection for the purpose of the study (Locke et al., 2004). This study used a reduced set of items to measure the study's variables. Using the reduced set of items or even a single-item to measure behaviors was found suitable to capture the construct, to assess frequency of behaviors, to ask factual questions, and to promote participation (Andrews, Netemeyer, Burton, Moberg, & Christiansen, 2004; Iarossi, 2006; Mulki et al., 2006; Valentine & Barnett, 2003). Many scholars used a reduced set of items to measure transformational leadership style (Rafferty & Griffin, 2004; Tejada et al., 2001). According to Carless and her colleagues (2000), several scales measure transformational leadership; however, they are relatively long and time consuming to complete. Therefore, Carless and her colleagues developed

the GTL, a short and practical scale of transformational leadership style. Furthermore, several researchers used a single-item scale to measure turnover intention (Mulki et al., 2006; Spector, 1985). These were the principal advantages of utilizing these particular scales over other assessment scales.

Definitions of Independent and Subindependent Variables

Transformational leadership style. Transformational managers are those who possess at least one of the four, if not more or all of the transformational leadership style characteristics: idealized influence, intellectual stimulation, inspirational motivation, and individualized consideration. The seven-item GTL scale measured these characteristics using a 5-point Likert scale ranging from *rarely or never* to *very frequently, if not always* (see Table 3). The Likert scale refers to a multiple-item measure of a set of attitudes or feelings relating to a particular area (Bryman, 2004). Summing the scores of each item and then dividing the sum by 7 resulted in an ultimate score for transformational leadership style. A higher score indicated that a PIHRA member frequently demonstrated transformational leadership style (Linsner, 2009).

Idealized influence. Idealized influence refers to managers who behave as strong models for employees, provide employees with a vision and a sense of mission, and can be trusted and respected by employees to make good decisions for the organization. Idealized influence relates to three dimensions of the GTL: vision, lead by example, and charisma (Northouse, 2010). Three items measured this component—(a) “My manager communicates a clear and positive vision of the future,” (b) “My manager is clear about

Table 3

Correspondence Between the Dimensions of GTL Scale and the Four I's of Transformational Leadership Style

Item	Dimension of GTL	Four I's
1. Communicates a clear, positive vision of the future.	Vision	Idealized influence
2. Treats staff as individuals, and supports and encourages their development.	Staff development	Individualized consideration
3. Gives encouragement and recognition to staff.	Supportive leadership	Individualized consideration
4. Fosters trust, involvement, and co-operation among team members.	Empowerment	Inspirational motivation
5. Encourages thinking about problems in new ways and questions assumptions.	Innovative thinking	Intellectual stimulation
6. Is clear about his/her values and practices what he/she preaches.	Lead by example	Idealized influence
7. Instills pride and respect in others and inspires me by being highly competent.	Charisma	Idealized influence

his/her values and practices what he/she preaches,” and (c) “My manager instills pride and respect in others and inspires me by being highly competent”—using a 5-point Likert scale ranging from *rarely or never* to *very frequently, if not always*. Summing the scores of these three items and then dividing the sum by 3 resulted in an ultimate score for the idealized influence characteristic. A higher score indicated that a PIHRA member frequently demonstrated idealized influence.

Inspirational motivation. Inspirational motivation is related to managers who encourage employees to commit to the vision of the organization by providing meaning and challenge to them and their work, showing enthusiasm and optimism, encouraging autonomy and involving employees in decision making, and encouraging teamwork and employees to excel in their work and to reach superior outcomes. Inspirational

motivation encompasses the empowerment dimension of the GTL (Avolio, 2011). For the purpose of this study, the item “My manager fosters trust, involvement and cooperation among team members” measured inspirational motivation using a 5-point Likert scale ranging from *rarely or never* to *very frequently, if not always*. A higher score of this item indicated that a PIHRA member frequently demonstrated inspirational motivation.

Intellectual stimulation. Intellectual stimulation refers to managers who encourage innovation and creativity through challenging the normal beliefs, assumptions, or views of a group and promote critical thinking and problem solving to make the organization better. Intellectual stimulation comprises the innovative thinking dimension of the GTL (Arnold, Turner, Barling, Kelloway, & McKee, 2007). For the purpose of this study, the item “My manager encourages thinking about problems in new ways and questions assumptions” measured intellectual stimulation using a 5-point Likert scale ranging from *rarely or never* to *very frequently, if not always*. A higher score indicated that a PIHRA member frequently demonstrated intellectual stimulation.

Individualized consideration. Individualized consideration refers to managers who act as coaches and advisors to the employees, delegate work to employees in order to help them grow in their job, and provide a supportive climate in which they listen carefully for individuals’ needs. Individualized consideration relates to the staff development and supportive leadership dimensions of the GTL (Arnold et al., 2007; Rafferty & Griffin, 2004). For the purpose of this study, the items “My manager treats staff as individuals, supports and encourages their development” and “My manager gives

encouragement and recognition to staff” measured individualized consideration using a 5-point Likert scale ranging from *rarely or never* to *very frequently, if not always*.

Summing the scores of these two items and then dividing the sum by 2 resulted in an ultimate score for the individualized consideration characteristic. A higher score indicated that a PIHRA member frequently demonstrated individualized consideration.

Definition of Dependent Variable

Managerial-caused turnover intention is a process leading to the possible voluntary cessation of membership in an organization by individuals who received monetary compensation from the organization, and it is caused by the managerial style practiced in that organization. For the purpose of this study, the item “How often have you seriously considered quitting your present job?” measured managerial-caused turnover intention using a 5-point Likert scale ranging from *rarely or never* to *very frequently, if not always*. A lower score of this item indicated that a subordinate of a PIHRA member expressed an intention to keep his or her current job.

Validity and Reliability

According to Locke et al. (2004),

Planning research requires many decisions that ultimately will bear on the quality of the data collected and the credibility of the findings. First among those is the choice of study procedures that relate the twin characteristics of *validity* and *reliability*. (p. 125)

Validity refers to “the degree to which evidence and theory support the interpretation of test scores entailed by processed uses of tests,” and reliability refers to “the consistency of results produced by a measure” (Krathwohl, 2009, pp. 412, 413).

GTL Scale

Arnold et al. (2007), Carless et al. (2000), Linsner (2009), Perlmutter (2007), and Wefald (2008) provided evidence that the GTL is a valid and reliable scale. This seven-item measure demonstrated high internal consistency, with Cronbach's alpha of .93 for a sample of 1,440 employees who assessed the leadership behavior of their managers (Carless et al., 2000). Findings (e.g., CFA ranges from .72 to .88 with $M = .81$ and $SD = .07$; EFA ranges from .78 to .89 with $M = .84$ and $SD = .05$; $\chi^2 = 243$, $df = 14$, $p = .001$, $RMSEA = .11$; $RNI = .97$) supported the reliability of the GTL (Carless et al., 2000).

The construct validity of the GTL has been demonstrated through a series of contrast-group comparisons and correlations. For example, the high correlation between the GTL and the Leadership Practices Inventory (LPI) and MLQ (correlations ranged from .76 to .88 with $M = .83$ and $SD = .04$) supports that the GTL has strong convergent validity (Carless et al., 2000). Additional evidence provided by Carless and her colleagues (2000), with findings of highly motivated employees ($n = 371$, $M = 26.3$, $SD = 4.9$, t value = 5.6, $p < .001$) compared with less motivated employees ($n = 310$, $M = 24.0$, $SD = 5.7$, t value = 5.6, $p < .001$), and highly effective leaders ($n = 349$, $M = 26.8$, $SD = 4.9$, t value = 7.6, $p < .001$) compared with less effective leaders ($n = 336$, $M = 23.8$, $SD = 5.4$, t value = 7.6, $p < .001$), supports that the GTL has substantial discriminant validity.

TI Scale

Spector (1985); Spector, Dwyer, and Jex (1988); and Mulki et al. (2006) provided evidence that the TI is a reliable and valid single-item scale. As a matter of fact, the TI

“has only one item, so internal consistency cannot be computed” (P. E. Spector, personal communication, August 6, 2012). However, Mulki et al. (2006) found support ($X^2 = 558$, $df = 147$, $p = .01$, $RMSEA = .09$; $CFI = .91$; $GFI = .85$)¹ that the TI or any “single-item measure can have good reliability” (P. E. Spector, personal communication, August 6, 2012).

The construct validity of the TI was demonstrated through a series of contrast-group comparisons and correlations involving job satisfaction, performance (supervisors versus subordinates), autonomy, and workload (Spector et al., 1988). Additional evidence regarding the convergent and discriminant validity of the TI was reported by Mulki et al. (2006), with correlations found in the areas of ethical climate, trust in supervisor, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment (-.24, -.44, -.48, and -.58, respectively, with $n = 333$, $M = 1.79$, and $SD = .89$; see Footnote 1). Furthermore, they found an alpha of .01 and $t > 2.6$ (see Footnote 1), which support the convergent validity of the TI scale.

Pilot Testing

According to Krathwohl (2009), questionnaires must be subjected to pilot testing before being used, and respondents in the pilot test should be similar to the target audience. Attempting to shortcut this step may jeopardize the accuracy of the data collected (Iarossi, 2006). Therefore, the researcher conducted a pilot study, which yielded a response rate of 68% with 25 respondents. The intent of this pilot study was to

¹ This information is not only true for the TI scale but also for other scales that Mulki et al. (2006) measured, such as trust in supervisor, organizational commitment, and job satisfaction.

make sure similar participants to the target population (a) acknowledged the consent form (Appendix G), (b) understood the questionnaire and what the survey was all about (Appendix H), and (c) felt comfortable answering the questions (Iarossi, 2006). In addition, the purpose of this pilot study was to obtain feedback on possible minimal risks, wording clarity, and accuracy of estimated time to complete the survey.

By applying convenience sampling, the participants of this pilot study received the invitation letter to subjects (Appendix I). It was introduced by a short explanation indicating the goals of this pilot study and soliciting participants' completion of the survey by way of Survey Monkey, an online survey management tool. Five days after they received the invitation, the participants received a reminder to complete the questionnaire (Appendix J). Following Institutional Review Board (IRB) regulations, the results of the pilot study were not reported, nor were they included in the actual study.

Roberts (2010) suggested reflecting on the feedback obtained from the pilot study and making necessary changes prior to collecting the actual data. The purposes of conducting this study were met. First, participants reported that both the consent form and the questionnaire were clear and easy to understand. Second, none of them encountered any risks when responding to the questionnaire or reported that any questions hurt their feelings. Furthermore, since most of the participants completed the survey in less than 10 minutes, the estimated time to complete the survey was adjusted to be no more than 10 minutes. Moreover, the researcher was able to practice manipulating the data. Finally, one of the great findings of this study was that the number of

participants who completed the questionnaire quadrupled after they received the reminder; hence, to meet the required sample size, sending the reminder was essential.

Data Collection

A meta-analysis of 175 studies by Baruch (1999) disclosed that in 1975, 1985, and 1995 the average survey response rates were approximately 64%, 56%, and 48%, respectively. This indicates that as the technology and other aspects of life improved, fewer people responded to questionnaires. Statistically, chief executive officers (CEOs), managers, and human resource managers have a lower response rate compared to the population of lower level employees, according to Baruch. Therefore, based on the typical response rate of 20% (Biner & Kidd, 1994; Gendall, Hoek, & Esslemont, 1995; Hagget & Mitchell, 1994) and with a desire to have 30 clusters in this study, 150 permission requests were sent to PIHRA members.

In September 2012, the researcher sent a request to PIHRA to obtain permission to use the association's name in this study (Appendix K). As a member of PIHRA, the researcher was permitted access to the directory of PIHRA members. After arranging the members alphabetically, the researcher used <http://random.org> to randomly select members to serve as clusters. Krathwohl (2009) identified “<http://random.org>, a Web site that offers true random numbers to anyone on the Internet” (p. 165).

During the time frame of November 5, 2012, to December 9, 2012, the researcher e-mailed 150 selected PIHRA members to request their permission to sample and survey their subordinates. For confidentiality purposes, an example of these requests is exhibited in Appendix L rather than actual responses. Krathwohl (2009) stated,

“Confidentiality of data must be maintained so that individuals or institutions cannot be identified in ways that may be harmful or invite undesirable comparisons” (p. 214).

Due to the low initial response rate of PIHRA members, the researcher made several attempts to encourage their willingness to provide their permission. These efforts included (a) e-mail follow-ups; (b) an e-mail from Dr. Goodall, the chair of this study (Appendix M); (c) phone follow-ups; and (d) an e-mail offering a financial incentive for granting permission (Appendix N). After these efforts, 14 PIHRA members met the criteria of the current study. (See Table 5 in Chapter IV for more details on the cluster response information.)

After the PIHRA members granted permission to include their subordinates in the study, they forwarded an e-mail to their employees informing them of the study (Appendix O). Primarily, the intent of this e-mail was to notify the participants that their managers were members of PIHRA. To encourage participation and indirectly reduce bias, the participants were informed that those who completed the survey would enter a drawing for one prize of \$250. Chris LaVallee, a biostatistician, stated, “A prize would encourage those without strong opinions to participate and thus indirectly reduce bias” (C. LaVallee, personal communication, October 11, 2012).

On December 10, 2012, the researcher e-mailed the PIHRA members with an invitation letter to subjects, which they forwarded to their subordinates via company internal electronic mail (Appendix I). This e-mail contained a hyperlink to a consent form, where participants were provided with information that gave them the choice of whether to participate or not (Appendix G). By clicking on “Agree,” they were guided to

a web-based questionnaire (Appendix H). One week later, the researcher sent a follow-up notice, and on the researcher's behalf, PIHRA members forwarded it to the participants via mass e-mail (Appendix J). The allotted response time for submitting the survey was 2 weeks. A final sample size of 356 responses was obtained. (See Table 6 in Chapter IV for more details on the unit response information.)

Each invitation letter included a different hyperlink for each cluster participant to complete the web-based questionnaire by way of Survey Monkey (Appendix H). Questionnaires are an efficient data collection method when a researcher recognizes precisely what is required and how to measure the variables of a study (Malik, Abbas, Kiyani, Malik, & Waheed, 2011; Sekaran, 2003). For the purposes of this study, the advantages of utilizing a web-based survey outweighed the disadvantages (see the limitations section for more details on the disadvantages). Krathwohl (2009) agreed with Cooper and Schindler (2006) on some of the web-based survey advantages, which include (a) low cost of distribution, (b) rapid response, (c) the ability to send many surveys over time, and (d) anonymity of participants.

The questionnaire included four parts (Appendix H). The first part asked participants whether they were part-time or full-time employees. The second part assessed the leadership style of PIHRA members. The third section requested responses to a specific question about the participants' intention to quit their current job. The fourth and last section asked for responses to specific demographic questions, such as gender, age, and education. The pilot study conducted prior to this study indicated participants needed no more than 10 minutes to complete the survey.

The survey was programmed to allow participants to respond only one time in order to prevent the possibility of any participant skewing the results by completing the questionnaire many times. To prevent the probability of forwarding the questionnaire to individuals not targeted for the sample, the consent form requested that respondents not forward the survey.

Data Analysis

Krathwohl (2009) noted,

Researchers collecting data that is quantified are often faced with a large amount of raw data that must be organized and summarized because there are too many pieces of information to understand at face value. . . . Correctly interpreting data is essential to its use. This requires using the proper statistic. (p. 369)

In the current study, strategies for selecting data were based on the number of clusters rather than the number of units, because selecting more clusters instead of more units within any cluster improves precision. In other words, utilizing the (14 x 7) design yields estimates with more precision than the (10 x 10) design, although it involves fewer total responses (98 compared to 100), according to the North Carolina Center for Public Health Preparedness (NCCPHP, 2012).

Although this study included demographic questions, the analysis of these data was not intended to ascertain impacts of these variables on an employee's intention to leave an organization. Strategies for data analysis were based on suggestions from Ongori (2007) and Mobley (1982), who recommended that researchers study only one assumed cause of turnover at a time in order to conduct a reliable turnover study.

This study used Stat Plus as the primary data-analytic software. It was used to analyze the data using correlation and regression tests. Table 4 exhibits the hypotheses, value of analysis, and the statistical tests used to examine the hypotheses.

Table 4

The Hypotheses, Value of Analysis, and Statistical Tests

Hypothesis	Value of analysis	Statistical test
Main H: Transformational leadership style of PIHRA members is negatively correlated with managerial-caused turnover intention of their subordinates.	Ultimate score of the 7 items of GTL scale & score of TI scale	Bivariate correlation & regression
H ₁ . PIHRA members with higher levels of idealized influence are more likely to have lower levels of managerial-caused turnover intention among their subordinates.	Ultimate score of items (1, 6, & 7) of GTL scale & score of TI scale	Bivariate correlation & regression
H ₂ . PIHRA members with higher levels of inspirational motivation are more likely to have lower levels of managerial-caused turnover intention among their subordinates.	Score of item (4) of GTL scale & score of TI scale	Bivariate correlation & regression
H ₃ . PIHRA members with higher levels of intellectual stimulation are more likely to have lower levels of managerial-caused turnover intention among their subordinates.	Score of item (5) of GTL scale & score of TI scale	Bivariate correlation & regression
H ₄ . PIHRA members with higher levels of individualized consideration are more likely to have lower levels of managerial-caused turnover intention among their subordinates.	Ultimate score of items (2 & 3) of GTL scale & score of TI scale	Bivariate correlation & regression

This study used Spearman's rho rank correlation technique to test the relationship between transformational leadership style and managerial-caused turnover intention (Huck, 2000; Thorne & Giesen, 2003). This kind of bivariate correlational technique is appropriate for the situation in which both variables are quantitative in nature and each variable is measured in such a way as to produce ranks (Huck, 2000).

This study used bivariate regression analysis to evaluate the potential joint relationship of the transformational leadership style and its four I's with managerial-caused turnover intention. This kind of regression analysis is appropriate for the situation in which both variables are quantitative in nature, and it uses the relationship between the independent and dependent variables to predict the score of the dependent variable from the independent variable (Huck, 2000).

Study Limitations

According to Roberts (2010), limitations are particular features that may negatively affect the results of a study. This study encountered the following limitations. First of all, with a cluster sample, there is a probability of having an overrepresented or underrepresented cluster (Dunstan et al., 2002). Therefore, any cluster that did not have at least $N_i \geq x$ responses² was excluded from the analysis in order to avoid the limitation of having underrepresented clusters. This study randomly selected $N_i \geq x$ responses (see Footnote 2) per cluster from the data already obtained in order to avoid the limitation of overrepresented clusters. It is common to use existing raw data in order to conduct quantitative research (Krathwohl, 2009). In order to know exactly which cluster responses originated from, the researcher created a URL for each cluster. This is a new method to overcome the limitation of having the overrepresented or underrepresented cluster. (See Selected Data section in Chapter IV for more details on overcoming the limitation of having the overrepresented or underrepresented cluster.)

² ($x \geq 1$); x refers to natural numbers.

Furthermore, this study used e-mail to invite participation; thus, the possibility of junk mail filtering was a potential threat, which could have prevented reaching the target audience. To avoid this threat, the survey was distributed via the internal e-mail systems of the organizations. However, this method of survey distribution posed the risk of making the participants feel that they had to complete the survey. To overcome this limitation, the cover letter and the consent form insisted that participation was completely voluntary and that responses would never be shared with participants' managers.

Finally, some PIHRA members might have left their current organizations, retired, or not updated their contact information. Approximately 35% of PIHRA members might have very few or no subordinates. Thus, these members would not meet the criteria of the current study. A nonresponse rate of more than 80% is fairly typical for CEOs, managers, and human resource managers (Baruch, 1999; PIHRA, 2012b). However, the researcher followed several steps, such as e-mail follow-ups, phone follow-ups, the study chair's e-mail, and the offer of monetary incentive, in an effort to overcome this obstacle of not being able to reach the target audience (Appendices M and N).

Ethical Consideration

To prepare for conducting research involving human subjects, the researcher obtained the Institutional Review Board Certificate. In addition, the researcher completed the required IRB applications, which were approved by the University of La Verne IRB (Appendix P).

Participants were assured that their identities would not be revealed or shared with their organizations, managers, or PIHRA, and confidentiality would be firmly maintained. They had the right to decline responding to any question and to withdraw from the study by simply not completing the questionnaire, and they were assured that no one would know if they responded or opted out of the research project. Since participants received the e-mail from their managers, they were assured that participating in the study was completely voluntary and it was not one of their tasks or responsibilities. Additionally, they were informed that those who took the survey would enter a drawing for one prize of \$250 awarded to the lucky winner.

The consent form contained contact information for the researcher, the dissertation chair, and the University of La Verne IRB director. It informed participants about the purpose of study, reasons for participating, the benefits of participating, the risks involved, and the confidentiality protection process. Completing the survey indicated that participants acknowledged the nature of the research and were completely voluntarily participating in the research.

During the data collection, the surveys were filed, stored, and protected by a password on the researcher's computer hard drive. The conformability of the data was maintained and remained confidential, since all the information collected in the survey and other documents have been filed and saved.

Summary

This study sought to determine the relationship between transformational leadership style and managerial-caused turnover intention. It utilized a quantitative

research method to test five hypotheses; the main hypothesis was that the transformational leadership style of PIHRA members is negatively correlated with managerial-caused turnover intention of their subordinates. To test the hypotheses, this study applied a correlational design and used a cluster-sampling method. It targeted employees whose managers were members of PIHRA. It was estimated that 96 employees were needed to respond to the survey.

GTL and TI scales were distributed as parts of a web-based questionnaire to collect data and measure the independent and dependent variables. These scales constructed this study's instrument, which was short and practical, easily administered and scored, and reliable and valid. To analyze data, the major statistical tests were correlation and regression analytical techniques. Finally, confidentiality was maintained by storing all data in a locked file cabinet and ensuring information that could be tracked to an individual participant was not included in any reports of the data.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

The current study examined transformational leadership style and managerial-caused turnover intention. Many causal factors influence employees' decisions to stay in or quit their current jobs; however, this study concentrated on a single factor of turnover intention, the leadership style of managers. It utilized survey research with a correlational design and cluster sampling method to collect the data. In December 2012, 356 responses were obtained from employees whose managers were members of the Professionals In Human Resources Association (PIHRA).

The Global Transformational Leadership (GTL) scale was used to measure the independent variable, transformational leadership style. This scale included questions describing vision, staff development, supportive leadership, empowerment, innovative thinking, leadership by example, and charisma. A higher score on this scale indicated that the participant's PIHRA manager frequently demonstrated transformational leadership style. The Turnover Intention (TI) scale measured the dependent variable, managerial-caused turnover intention. This scale included a single item measuring turnover intention. A lower score on this item indicated that a subordinate of a PIHRA member expressed an intention to keep his or her current job.

This chapter presents the analysis of data, beginning with a restatement of the purpose of the study, the research questions, and the hypotheses, followed by analyses of

responses, demographic data, and data quality. Finally, Chapter IV presents the analysis of the hypotheses and concludes with a brief summary.

According to conventions endorsed by Thorne and Giesen (2003), the notations used in this chapter are as follows:

- m represents the number of clusters in a sample.
- n represents the number of units in a sample.
- N_i represents the number of listing units in Cluster i .

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to identify and measure the relationship between managerial-caused turnover intention and transformational leadership style, which comprises four subconstructs known as the four I's: idealized influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration.

Research Questions

1. What is the relationship between the transformational leadership style of PIHRA members and managerial-caused turnover intention of their subordinates?
2. What is the relationship between idealized influence used by PIHRA members and managerial-caused turnover intention of their subordinates?
3. What is the relationship between inspirational motivation used by PIHRA members and managerial-caused turnover intention of their subordinates?
4. What is the relationship between intellectual stimulation used by PIHRA members and managerial-caused turnover intention of their subordinates?

5. What is the relationship between individualized consideration used by PIHRA members and managerial-caused turnover intention of their subordinates?

Hypotheses

This study investigated one central hypothesis and four subordinate hypotheses. The central hypothesis was that the transformational leadership style of PIHRA members is negatively correlated with managerial-caused turnover intention of their subordinates; that is to say that transformational leadership style is predictive of lower levels of turnover intention. The four subordinate hypotheses were as follows:

H₁. PIHRA members with higher levels of idealized influence are more likely to have lower levels of managerial-caused turnover intention among their subordinates.

H₂. PIHRA members with higher levels of inspirational motivation are more likely to have lower levels of managerial-caused turnover intention among their subordinates.

H₃. PIHRA members with higher levels of intellectual stimulation are more likely to have lower levels of managerial-caused turnover intention among their subordinates.

H₄. PIHRA members with higher levels of individualized consideration are more likely to have lower levels of managerial-caused turnover intention among their subordinates.

Analysis of Responses

The target population of this study was all employees whose managers were organizational members of PIHRA, which includes approximately 3,000 members working in Southern California organizations from all types of industries within the most economically diverse region in the United States. (See Figure 6 in Chapter III for more

details on PIHRA statistics.) By utilizing a cluster-sampling method recommended by Bluman (2007), Henderson and Sundaresan (1982), Krathwohl (2009), and Van de Ven (2007), the estimated sample size ranged from 96 subjects with 10 clusters to 210 subjects with 30 clusters. However, the final sample size was 356 subjects obtained from 14 clusters.

Cluster Response Information

From November 5, 2012, through December 9, 2012, the researcher requested permission from 150 PIHRA members to invite their subordinates to complete the survey instrument included in Appendix H. Table 5 reflects the steps taken to select clusters from which subjects were solicited. After obtaining names from the directory of PIHRA members, the researcher used <http://random.org> to randomly select members to serve as clusters. Six PIHRA members refused to grant permission. Contact information was incorrect for two members. Sixty-five members failed to respond to the request. Fifty-four members supervised too few subordinates to meet the selection criteria. Nine members no longer worked at the organization that they were identified to represent. Fourteen members met the selection criteria of the current study.

Unit Response Information

The researcher distributed the survey instrument during the weeks of December 10 and 17, 2012. He e-mailed the 14 PIHRA members with the invitation letter to subjects containing a link to the consent form, which they forwarded to their subordinates via company internal electronic mail (Appendices G and I). Each cluster was provided

Table 5

Summary of Cluster Response Information

PIHRA district	Frequency	Permission rejected	Invalid contact information	No response	Few/no subordinates	Retired/no longer working for organization	Met the criteria
1	18	1		7	6	2	2
10	5			1	4		
11	3			3			
12	4	1		2	1		
14	26	2		11	9	1	3
15	12			7	5		
17	1				1		
18	3	1		1			1
19	0						
3	17			5	8	3	1
4	2				1		1
5	7			4	1		2
6	17		1	7	6	1	2
7	12	1		7	3	1	
8	13			6	6		1
9	10		1	4	3	1	1
Total	150	6	2	65	54	9	14
%	100%	4%	1%	43%	36%	6%	9%

Note. Percentages were rounded. “No response” refers to those who did not respond to e-mails, phone calls, or voice messages.

with a different hyperlink soliciting participants’ completion of the web-based questionnaire by way of Survey Monkey (Appendix H). On December 17, 2012, the researcher sent a follow-up notice, and on his behalf, the 14 PIHRA members forwarded it to the participants via mass e-mail (Appendix J). The survey was closed at midnight on the 23rd of December, at which time there were 356 responses (see Table 6).

Analysis of Demographic Data

The purpose of the demographic data analysis was to demonstrate the heterogeneity of the participants from whom data were obtained. It was not intended to

Table 6

Summary of Unit Response Information

Cluster	District	Industry	County	Frequency
1	18. Coachella Valley	Aerospace	Riverside	22
2	5. West Los Angeles/Santa Monica	Health	Los Angeles	25
3	4. East San Fernando Valley/Burbank	Consulting	Los Angeles	27
4	1. Los Angeles	Finance	Los Angeles	28
5	1. Los Angeles	Legal	Los Angeles	29
6	8. North Orange County	Manufacturing	Orange	29
7	6. South Bay	Education	Los Angeles	25
8	14. Central and South Orange County	Transportation	Orange	32
9	5. West Los Angeles/Santa Monica	Food	Los Angeles	15
10	14. Central and South Orange County	Government	Orange	18
11	9. West San Fernando	Wholesale/Retail	Los Angeles	23
12	3. Pasadena	Education	Los Angeles	16
13	6. South Bay	Technology	Los Angeles	36
14	14. Central and South Orange County	Health	Orange	31
Total				356

Note. $m = 14$, $n = 356$.

establish influences of the demographic variables on an employee's intention to leave an organization. The analysis of demographic categories such as county, district, and industry was based on advanced knowledge obtained through the directory of PIHRA members. However, the analysis of the other demographic categories such as gender, education level, and age group was based on data obtained through the questionnaire (Appendix H).

Responses by County, District, and Industry

The respondents came from three of the five counties in which PIHRA maintains memberships (see Table 7 and Figure 7). Sixty-three percent of the respondents came

from Los Angeles County, 31% came from Orange County, and 6% came from Riverside County. These percentages are consistent with the PIHRA demographic statistics (see Figure 6 in Chapter III).

Table 7

Summary of Respondents' Counties, Districts, and Industries

Demographic category	Demographic item	Frequency	%
County	Los Angeles	224	63%
	Orange	110	31%
	Riverside	22	6%
	Total	356	100%
District	1. Los Angeles	57	16%
	14. Central and South Orange County	81	23%
	18. Coachella Valley	22	6%
	3. Pasadena	16	4%
	4. East San Fernando Valley/Burbank	27	8%
	5. West Los Angeles/Santa Monica	40	11%
	6. South Bay	61	17%
	8. North Orange County	29	8%
	9. West San Fernando Valley	23	6%
	Total	356	100%
Industry	Aerospace	22	6%
	Health	56	16%
	Consulting	27	8%
	Finance	28	8%
	Legal	29	8%
	Manufacturing	29	8%
	Education	41	12%
	Transportation	32	9%
	Food	15	4%
	Government	18	5%
	Wholesale/Retail	23	6%
	Technology	36	10%
	Total	356	100%

Note. Percentages were rounded.

In regard to the districts, the respondents came from nine of the 16 districts of PIHRA (see Table 7 and Figure 8). The percentage of respondents ranged from 4% to

23% for each district. The greatest number of respondents came from District 14 with 23% of the responses, and the fewest came from District 3 with 4% of the responses.

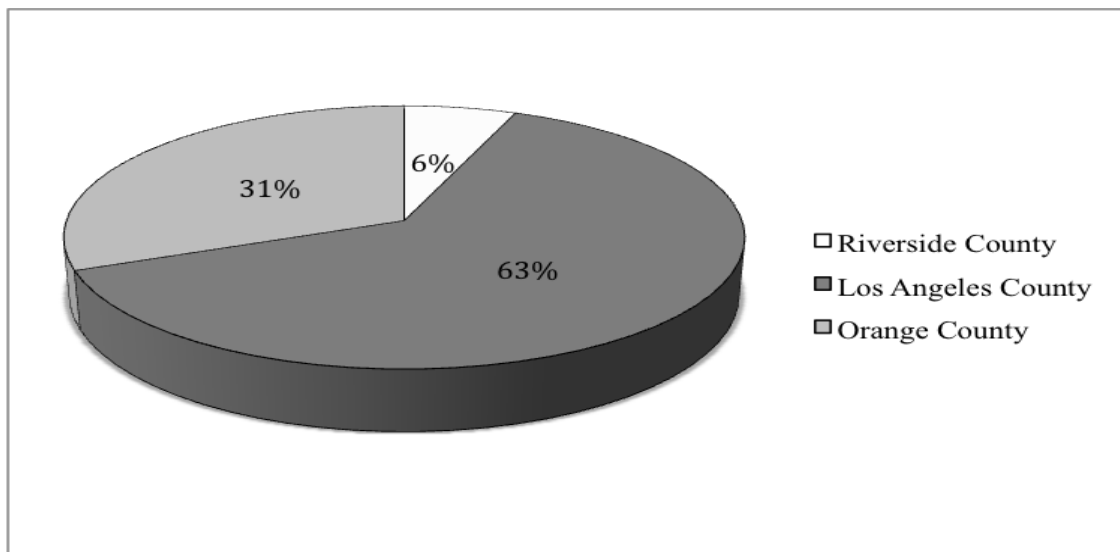


Figure 7. Counties of respondents.

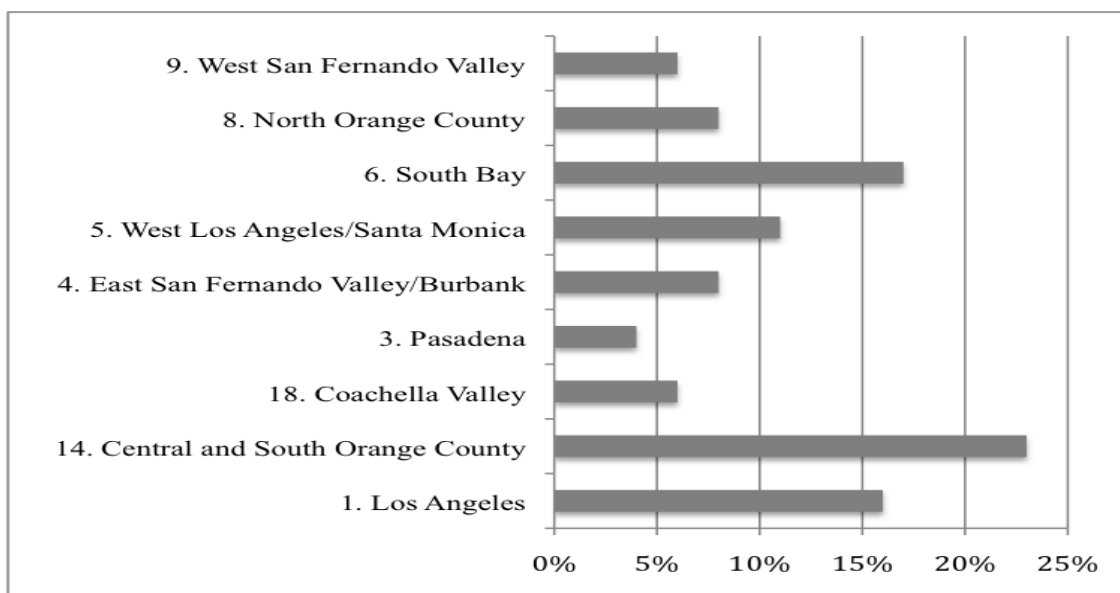


Figure 8. Districts of respondents.

The respondents came from almost all of the industries represented by PIHRA members—for example, aerospace, consulting, education, food, finance, government, health, legal, manufacturing, technology, transportation, and wholesale/retail (see Table 7 and Figure 9). The most common percentage of respondents was 8% in regard to the industries (mode = 8%). The greatest percentage of respondents (16%) worked in health industries, and the least (4%) worked in the food industry.

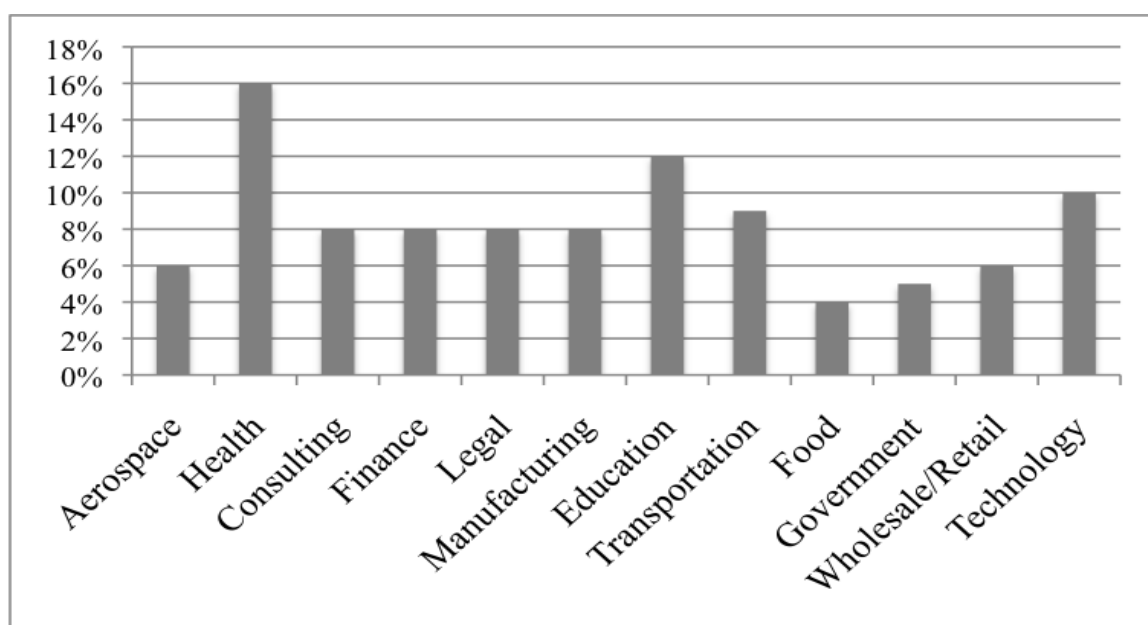


Figure 9. Industries of respondents.

Responses by Gender, Education Level, and Age Group

Not every participant answered the demographic questions on the survey. Fifty-nine percent of those who responded were female, whereas 41% were male. Forty percent of the respondents reported finishing some college, and 36% held a college

degree. Fourteen percent held a postgraduate degree, whereas 10% held a high school diploma or had not finished high school. Forty-four percent were over 18 years old, and 56% were over 40 years old (see Figures 10, 11, and 12, and Table 8).

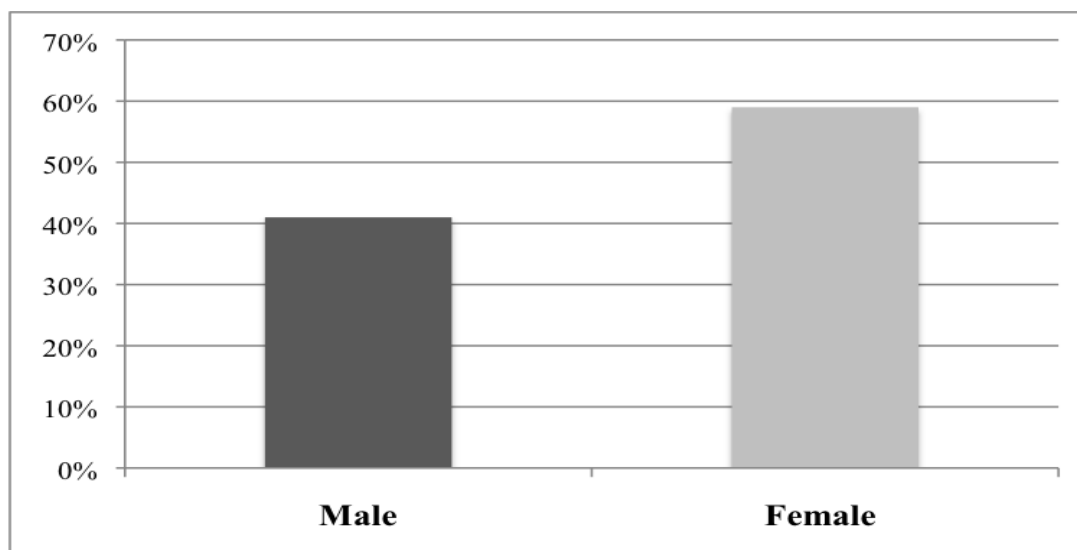


Figure 10. Participant gender.

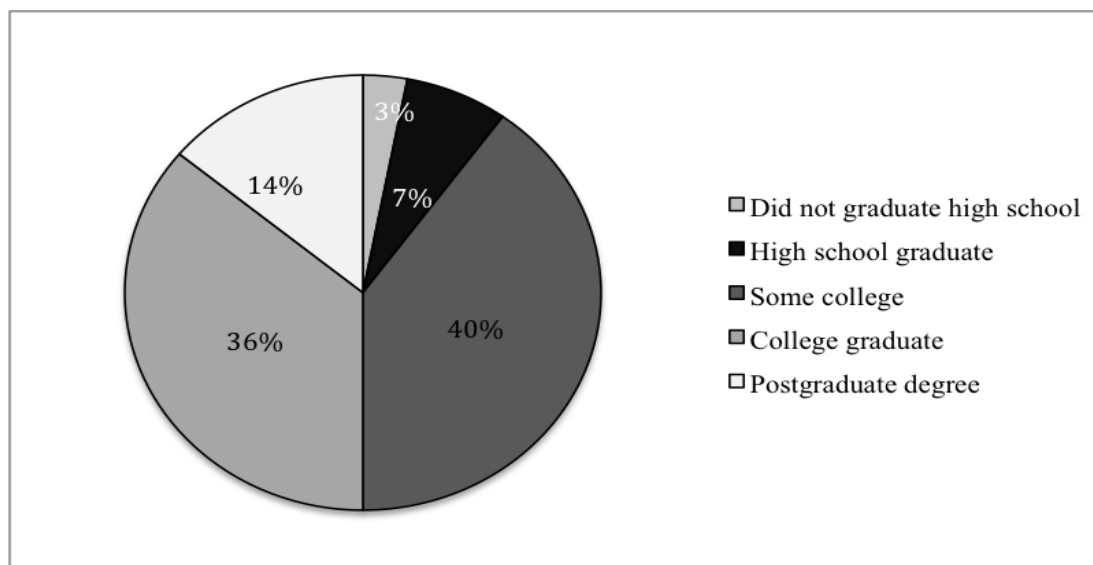


Figure 11. Participant education level.

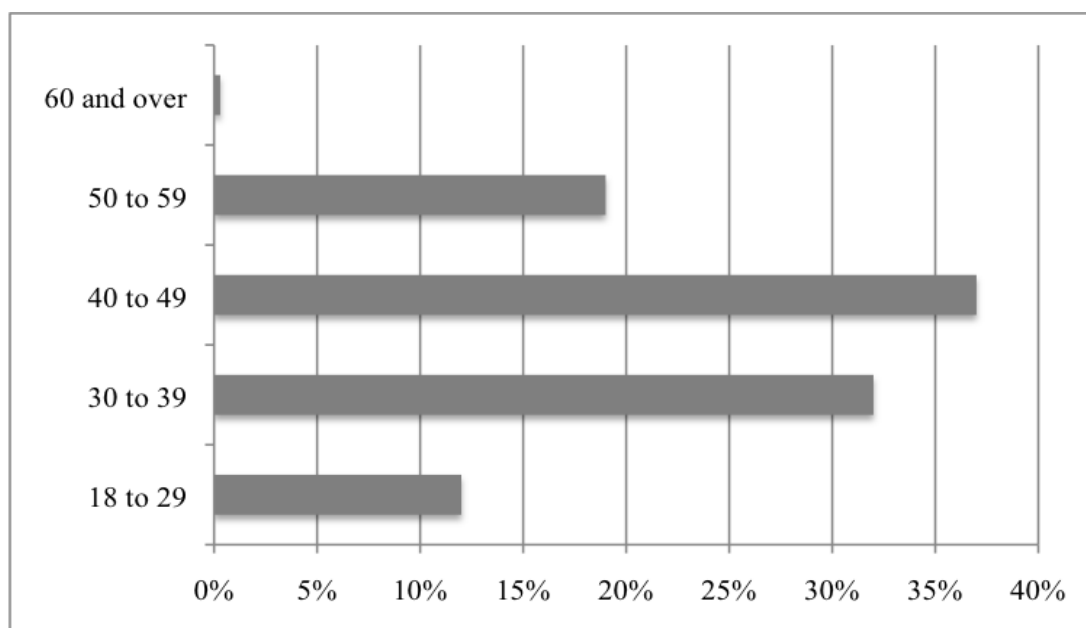


Figure 12. Participant age group.

Table 8

Summary of Respondents' Gender, Education Level, and Age Group

Demographic category	Demographic item	Frequency	%
Gender	Male	140	41%
	Female	201	59%
	Total	341	100%
Education level	Did not graduate high school	10	3%
	High school graduate	24	7%
	Some college	133	40%
	College graduate	120	36%
	Postgraduate degree	47	14%
	Total	334	100%
Age group	18 to 29	42	12%
	30 to 39	113	32%
	40 to 49	128	37%
	50 to 59	65	19%
	60 and over	1	0.3%
	Total	349	100%

Note. Percentages were rounded. Totals reflect the number of participants who responded to the demographic questions on the survey.

To conclude, although demographic variables were analyzed in order to show heterogeneity of participants, excluding these variables was essential to conducting a reliable turnover study when testing the hypotheses of this study, as Mobley (1982) and Ongori (2007) suggested. By excluding the demographic items, there was a 100% response rate (356/356) to the GTL and TI scales.

Data Quality

This study analyzed the quality of data, including the degree of sample error, the process for selecting data, the reliability of scales, and a description of the scales of measurement.

Sample Error

According to Salant and Dillman (1994), the acceptable sampling error precision level ranges from 3% to 10%, with 5% being the most common. As suggested by Klass (2008), the sampling error is derived by the following formula:

$$SE = \left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{n}} \right) \times 100$$

For a sample size (n) of 356, the actual sampling error was 5.3%, as shown in the following formula:

$$SE = \left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{356}} \right) \times 100 = 5.3\%$$

Since the sampling error was less than 10% ($SE < .10$), the results of the current study's survey were within the acceptable levels prescribed by Salant and Dillman (1994). This is one indicator that an adequate sample size was selected and that an

adequate level of responses were collected to support statistically significant data. This conclusion is supported by high levels of statistical significance that will be reported later.

Selected Data

With cluster sampling, there is a possibility of overrepresentation or underrepresentation in any given cluster, thus skewing the results (Dunstan et al., 2002). To overcome this limitation, the current study included four steps (see Table 9). The first step was to include only the respondents who replied to all items of the GTL and TI scales. There were a total of 356 respondents from a sample of 356, which led to a 100% response rate to all the items of the aforementioned scales. Thus, 356 respondents were considered when evaluating the data for the following steps.

The second step was to exclude respondents who did not meet the criteria of this study. The criteria of this study required that all participants (a) reported to PIHRA members and (b) worked as full-time employees. One hundred percent of the respondents (356 out of 356) reported to PIHRA members. Approximately 92% of the sample worked as full-time employees. Therefore, 326 respondents (92%) met both of the criteria of this study and were considered when evaluating the data for the next steps.

According to the North Carolina Center for Public Health Preparedness (NCCPHP, 2012), if it is not possible to have 30 clusters of the sample ($m < 30$), a researcher may need to increase the number of units (responses) in order to achieve the same statistical precision as with a (30 x 7) design, which results in a sample size of 210,

Table 9

Selecting Data for Analysis

Cluster	Responses (units)	Units that responded to the GTL and TI scales (first step)	Units that met the criteria (second step)	Clusters that had 15 units or more ($N_i \geq 15$) (third step)	Selected responses (fourth step)
1	22	22	20	$N_1 \geq 15$	15
2	25	25	21	$N_2 \geq 15$	15
3	27	27	25	$N_3 \geq 15$	15
4	28	28	26	$N_4 \geq 15$	15
5	29	29	29	$N_5 \geq 15$	15
6	29	29	25	$N_6 \geq 15$	15
7	25	25	23	$N_7 \geq 15$	15
8	32	32	29	$N_8 \geq 15$	15
9	15	15	15	$N_9 \geq 15$	15
10	18	18	17	$N_{10} \geq 15$	15
11	23	23	21	$N_{11} \geq 15$	15
12	16	16	15	$N_{12} \geq 15$	15
13	36	36	32	$N_{13} \geq 15$	15
14	31	31	28	$N_{14} \geq 15$	15
Total	356	356	326		210
%	100%	100%	92%		64%

Note. Percentages were rounded.

the sample size required to guarantee statistical significance. Ideally, 30 clusters of seven units (respondents) in each cluster will result in a broad range of clusters as well as a statistically significant sample size of respondents. However, because only 14 PIHRA members were available from which to select subordinate respondents, the study was limited to selecting from just 14 clusters. Yet, a sample size of 210 units was still necessary. Therefore, the number of respondents per cluster was increased to 15. With 14 clusters and at least 15 respondents from each cluster, the desired sample size of 210 was preserved while still maintaining the diversity desired from cluster sampling.

Ultimately, 326 respondents met the criteria of this study. However, to protect against overrepresentation in any given cluster, from the 326 respondents, 15 were randomly selected from each of the 14 clusters for analysis. Appendix Q explains these four steps in more detail.

Reliability of the Scales

The GTL scale is a seven-item scale that asks respondents to evaluate the behaviors of their managers. The TI scale is a single-item scale that asks respondents about their intention of quitting their current job. This study tested the reliability of both scales, GTL and TI, by using Cronbach's alpha (see Table 10). Cronbach's alpha is a commonly used test of reliability, and the alpha score of equal to or greater than .70 ($\alpha \geq .70$) is used as a rule of thumb to denote an acceptable level of reliability (Bryman, 2004; Huck, 2000).

The overall reliability of the GTL scale in the current study was .93, similar to what was reported by Carless et al. (2000). The reliability of the TI scale was hypothetically .85; multiple-item scales are generally considered to be less reliable than single-item scales. Therefore, to be considered reliable, the governing rule of thumb is that any single-item scale should result in a Cronbach's alpha score greater than .85 as a level of reliability (Mulki et al., 2006). The high reliability of both scales indicates that the results of the current study's survey suggest that these scales consistently measure "the same thing from one time to another" (Roberts, 2010, pp. 136-137). The high levels of reliability indicate that these two scales accurately measure behaviors, capture the construct, assess frequency of behaviors, and ask factual questions.

Table 10

Reliability of GTL and TI Scales

Scale	Scale item	Cronbach's alpha
GTL	1. Communicates a clear, positive vision of the future.	.90
	2. Treats staff as individuals, and supports and encourages their development.	.91
	3. Gives encouragement and recognition to staff.	.93
	4. Fosters trust, involvement, and co-operation among team members.	.90
	5. Encourages thinking about problems in new ways and questions assumptions.	.93
	6. Is clear about his/her values and practices what he/she preaches.	.92
	7. Instills pride and respect in others and inspires me by being highly competent.	.90
	Overall reliability of GTL scale (seven-item)	.93
TI	1. How often have you seriously considered quitting your present job?	.85 ³

Note. $n = 210$.

Scales of Measurement

The concept of scales of measurement refers to “the rules that we use to assign numbers to objects or events” (Thorne & Giesen, 2003, p. 15). The GTL scores ranged from 1 (*rarely or never*) to 5 (*very frequently, if not always*). Additionally, the TI scores ranged from 1 (*rarely or never*) to 5 (*very frequently, if not always*) as well.

The same 5-point Likert scale measured both the GTL and TI scales. The data obtained from the current study's instrument allowed the responses to be ranked, indicated which of the managerial behaviors was most frequently observed, and represented an ordinal scale of measurements (Huck, 2000; Thorne & Giesen, 2003).

³ This is a hypothetical reliability. The reliability of single-item scales cannot be computed.

Moreover, the data were nonparametric because they were represented on an ordinal scale expressed as rank orderings.

Table 11 illustrates the mean and standard deviation scores of the independent and dependent variables of the current study. The mean and standard deviation scores of the transformational leadership style were 4.42 and .60, respectively. This relatively high mean score ($M = 4.42$) indicated that PIHRA members frequently demonstrated transformational leadership style. The mean and standard deviation scores of the managerial-caused turnover intention were 1.09 and .35, respectively. This lower mean score ($M = 1.09$) indicated that the subordinates of PIHRA members expressed an intention to keep their current jobs. Additionally, Table 11 shows the mean and standard deviation scores of the GTL scale items as well as the mean score of the TI scale item.

Table 11

Mean and Standard Deviation of GTL and TI Scales

Scale	Scale dimension	Scale items	$M (SD)$
GTL	Vision	Communicates a clear, positive vision of the future.	3.87 (.70)
	Staff development	Treats staff as individuals, and supports and encourages their development.	4.62 (.74)
	Supportive leadership	Gives encouragement and recognition to staff.	4.21 (.61)
	Empowerment	Fosters trust, involvement, and co-operation among team members.	4.54 (.77)
	Innovative thinking	Encourages thinking about problems in new ways and questions assumptions.	4.42 (.59)
	Lead by example	Is clear about his/her values and practices what he/she preaches.	4.60 (.78)
	Charisma	Instills pride and respect in others and inspires me by being highly competent.	4.68 (.67)
		Transformational leadership style	4.42 (.60)
TI	Turnover intention	How often have you seriously considered quitting your present job?	1.09 (.35)

Note. $n = 210$.

Analysis of Hypotheses

Research reports should (a) contain discussions of assumptions, (b) present results of tests that were conducted to analyze the testable assumptions, and (c) explain what efforts were made to align the data with the assumptions (Huck, 2000). The survey response data were analyzed using Stat Plus as the primary data-analytic software. Table 4 in Chapter III summarizes the hypotheses, value of analysis, and the statistical tests used to examine these hypotheses. By utilizing bivariate correlation and regression tests, the current study analyzed its five hypotheses.

Correlation and Regression Analyses

Huck (2000) stated that correlation is used to examine whether a relationship exists between two variables and how strong or weak that relationship is. The current study used Spearman's rho technique to test the relationship between transformational leadership style and managerial-caused turnover intention. Before utilizing this test, the statistical assumptions for Spearman's rho test were assessed (Huck, 2000). Normality of the data, continuity of data, and ordinal, nonparametric data were not violated. Each hypothesis of the current study was tested using Spearman's rho test.

Krathwohl (2009) stated, "Regardless of whether a relationship is causal, a correlation allows prediction; thus, such relationships are extremely useful. . . . The higher the correlation, the more accurate the prediction" (p. 393). Prediction is referred to as regression, and "bivariate regression is similar to bivariate correlation, for both are designed for situations in which there are just two variables" (Huck, 2000, p. 565). This

study used bivariate regression analysis to evaluate the potential joint relationship of the transformational leadership style and its four I's with managerial-caused turnover intention. Prior to using this particular analysis, the statistical assumptions for the bivariate regression test were assessed (Huck, 2000). Each hypothesis of the current study had just two variables; thus, each was tested using bivariate regression testing.

Central Hypothesis

The transformational leadership style of PIHRA members is negatively correlated with managerial-caused turnover intention of their subordinates.

Bivariate correlation. Table 12 displays the results of the Spearman rho correlation analysis, which indicated there was a moderate, negative significant correlation between transformational leadership style used by PIHRA members and the levels of managerial-caused turnover intention among their subordinates ($r_s = -0.41, p < .01$). Higher transformational leadership style scores were associated with lower levels of managerial-caused turnover intention. Further calculations suggested that 17% of the variance in the levels of managerial-caused turnover intention among PIHRA subordinates was explained by transformational leadership style used by PIHRA members.

Table 12 presents characteristics of the Spearman rho correlation coefficient, which is a descriptive measure of the association of the transformational leadership style and managerial-caused turnover intention. The *t*-test value is a measure of the hypothesis that the association between transformational leadership style and managerial-caused turnover intention existing in the study sample exists in the population consisting of

subordinates of all PIHRA members. The hypothesis (H_1) was that the two variables are associated; the null hypothesis (H_0) was that the two variables are not associated.

Table 12

Correlations Between Transformational Leadership Style and Managerial-Caused Turnover Intention

Analysis	Score
Spearman's rho	-0.41
<i>t</i> -test value for hypothesis $r = 0$	-6.40
<i>p</i> level	< .01

With 208 degrees of freedom ($[n - 2] = [210 - 2] = 208$), testing for significance at the .01 level, the critical values of ± 2.576 , and a calculated *t*-test value of -6.40, the null hypothesis was rejected. The observed value of r_s is large enough to indicate a statistically significant association between transformational leadership style and managerial-caused turnover intention. This finding is corroborated by the calculated *p* level of less than .01.

Bivariate regression. The results of bivariate linear regression analyses are displayed in Table 13 and suggest that the transformational leadership style used by PIHRA members explained 17% of the variance ($R^2 = 0.17$, $t = -9.45$, $p < .01$) in the levels of managerial-caused turnover intention among their subordinates. As explained in the prior paragraph, the *t*-value less than -2.576 and the calculated $p < .01$ indicate a regression model with statistically significant predictive power. The analyses also suggested a regression model in which a one-percentage-point increase in

transformational leadership style used by PIHRA members leads to a .32% decrease in managerial-caused turnover intention levels of their subordinates ($b = -0.32, p < .01$).

Table 13

Linear Regression of Transformational Leadership Style and Managerial-Caused Turnover Intention

	Coefficients (<i>b</i>)	Standard error (<i>SE</i>)	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>
Intercept	2.51	0.15	16.59	< .01
Transformational leadership style	-0.32	0.03	-9.45	< .01

Figure 13 is a visual display of the calculated Spearman rho regression model: $y = 2.51 - .32x$, in which x is transformational leadership style as measured by the GTL scale, and y is managerial-caused turnover intention as measured by the TI scale. Note the negative slope and the visual correspondence of the actual data points to the calculated model.



Figure 13. Correlation between transformational leadership style and managerial-caused turnover intention.

Hypothesis 1

PIHRA members with higher levels of idealized influence are more likely to have lower levels of managerial-caused turnover intention among their subordinates.

Bivariate correlation. Table 14 displays the results of the Spearman rho correlation analysis, which indicated there was a moderate, negative significant correlation between the levels of idealized influence used by PIHRA members and the levels of managerial-caused turnover intention among their subordinates ($r_s = -0.47, p < .01$). Higher idealized influence scores were associated with lower levels of managerial-caused turnover intention. Further calculations suggested that 22% of the variance in the levels of managerial-caused turnover intention among PIHRA subordinates was explained by the idealized influence used by PIHRA members.

Table 14

Correlations Between Idealized Influence and Managerial-Caused Turnover Intention

Analysis	Score
Spearman's rho	-0.47
<i>t</i> -test value for hypothesis $r = 0$	-7.60
<i>p</i> level	< .01

Table 14 presents characteristics of the Spearman rho correlation coefficient, which is a descriptive measure of the association of idealized influence and managerial-caused turnover intention. The *t*-test value is a measure of the hypothesis that the association between idealized influence and managerial-caused turnover intention existing in the study sample exists in the population consisting of subordinates of all

PIHRA members. The hypothesis (H_1) was that the two variables are associated; the null hypothesis (H_0) was that the two variables are not associated.

With 208 degrees of freedom ($[n - 2] = [210 - 2] = 208$), testing for significance at the .01 level, the critical values of ± 2.576 , and a calculated t -test value of -7.60 , the null hypothesis was rejected. The observed value of r_s is large enough to indicate a statistically significant association between idealized influence and managerial-caused turnover intention. This finding is corroborated by the calculated p level of less than .01.

Bivariate regression. The results of bivariate linear regression analyses are displayed in Table 15 and suggest that the idealized influence used by PIHRA members explained 22% of the variance ($R^2 = 0.22$, $t = -8.94$, $p < .01$) in the levels of managerial-caused turnover intention among their subordinates. As explained in the prior paragraph, the t -value less than -2.576 and the calculated $p < .01$ indicate a regression model with statistically significant predictive power. The analyses also suggested a regression model in which a one-percentage-point increase in idealized influence used by PIHRA members leads to a .28% decrease in managerial-caused turnover intention levels among their subordinates ($b = -0.28$, $p < .01$).

Table 15

Linear Regression of Idealized Influence and Managerial-Caused Turnover Intention

	Coefficients (b)	Standard error (SE)	t	p
Intercept	2.33	0.14	16.69	< .01
Idealized influence	-0.28	0.03	-8.94	< .01

Figure 14 is a visual display of the calculated Spearman rho regression model: $y = 2.33 - .28x$, in which x is idealized influence as measured by the GTL scale, and y is managerial-caused turnover intention as measured by the TI scale. Note the negative slope and the visual correspondence of the actual data points to the calculated model.

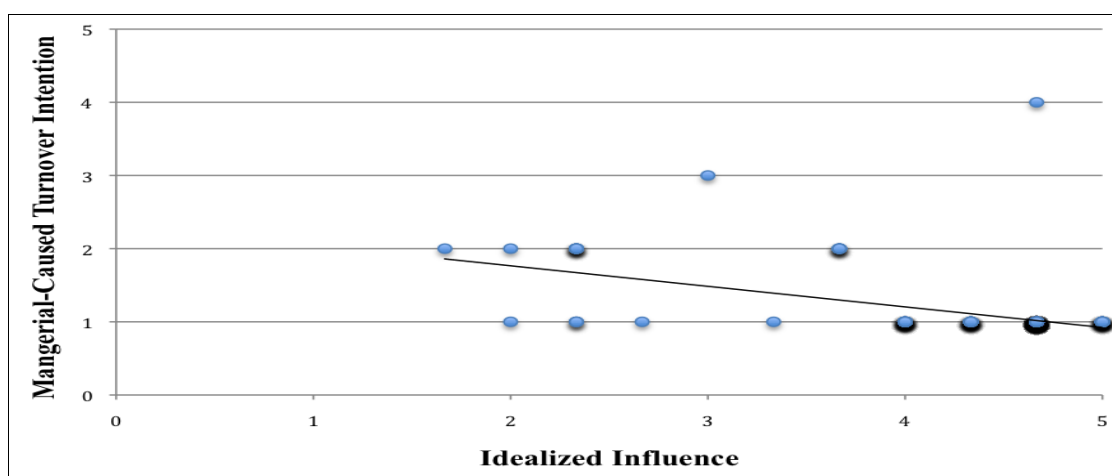


Figure 14. Correlation between idealized influence and managerial-caused turnover intention.

Hypothesis 2

PIHRA members with higher levels of inspirational motivation are more likely to have lower levels of managerial-caused turnover intention among their subordinates.

Bivariate correlation. Table 16 displays the results of the Spearman rho correlation analysis, which indicated there was a moderate, negative significant correlation between the levels of inspirational motivation used by PIHRA members and the levels of managerial-caused turnover intention among their subordinates ($r_s = -0.32$, $p < .01$). Higher inspirational motivation scores were associated with lower levels of managerial-caused turnover intention. Additional calculations suggested that 10% of the

variance in the levels of managerial-caused turnover intention among PIHRA subordinates was explained by the inspirational motivation used by PIHRA members.

Table 16

Correlations Between Inspirational Motivation and Managerial-Caused Turnover Intention

Analysis	Score
Spearman's rho	-0.32
<i>t</i> -test value for hypothesis $r = 0$	-4.92
<i>p</i> level	< .01

Table 16 presents characteristics of the Spearman rho correlation coefficient, which is a descriptive measure of the association of inspirational motivation and managerial-caused turnover intention. The *t*-test value is a measure of the hypothesis that the association between inspirational motivation and managerial-caused turnover intention existing in the study sample exists in the population consisting of subordinates of all PIHRA members. The hypothesis (H_1) was that the two variables are associated; the null hypothesis (H_0) was that the two variables are not associated.

With 208 degrees of freedom ($[n - 2] = [210 - 2] = 208$), testing for significance at the .01 level, the critical values of ± 2.576 , and a calculated *t*-test value of -4.92, the null hypothesis was rejected. The observed value of r_s is large enough to indicate a statistically significant association between inspirational motivation and managerial-caused turnover intention. This finding is corroborated by the calculated *p* level of less than .01.

Bivariate regression. The results of bivariate linear regression analyses are displayed in Table 17 and suggest that the inspirational motivation behavior used by PIHRA members explained 10% of the variance ($R^2 = 0.10$, $t = -6.69$, $p < .01$) in the levels of managerial-caused turnover intention among their subordinates. As explained in the prior paragraph, the t -value less than -2.576 and the calculated $p < .01$ indicate a regression model with statistically significant predictive power. The analyses also suggested a regression model in which a one-percentage-point increase in inspirational motivation used by PIHRA members leads to a .20% decrease in managerial-caused turnover intention levels among their subordinates ($b = -0.20$, $p < .01$).

Table 17

Linear Regression of Inspirational Motivation and Managerial-Caused Turnover Intention

	Coefficients (<i>b</i>)	Standard error (<i>SE</i>)	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>
Intercept	1.97	0.13	14.83	< .01
Inspirational motivation	-0.20	0.10	-6.69	< .01

Figure 15 is a visual display of the calculated Spearman rho regression model: $y = 1.97 - .20x$, in which x is inspirational motivation as measured by the GTL scale, and y is managerial-caused turnover intention as measured by the TI scale. Note the negative slope and the visual correspondence of the actual data points to the calculated model.

Hypothesis 3

PIHRA members with higher levels of intellectual stimulation are more likely to have lower levels of managerial-caused turnover intention among their subordinates.

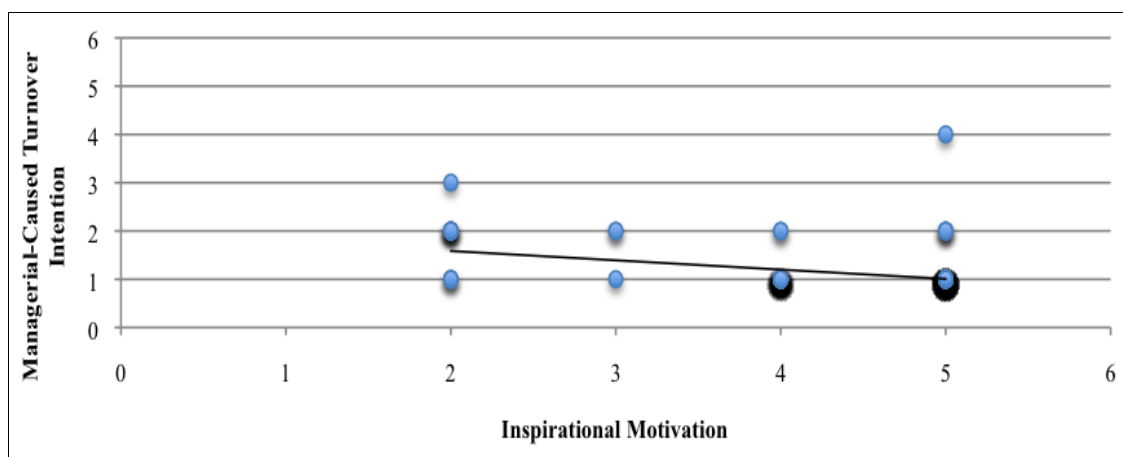


Figure 15. Correlation between inspirational motivation and managerial-caused turnover intention.

Bivariate correlation. Table 18 displays the results of the Spearman rho correlation analysis, which indicated there was a moderate, negative significant correlation between the levels of intellectual stimulation used by PIHRA members and the levels of managerial-caused turnover intention among their subordinates ($r_s = -0.40$, $p < .01$). Higher intellectual stimulation scores were associated with lower levels of managerial-caused turnover intention. Further calculations suggested that 16% of the variance in the levels of managerial-caused turnover intention among PIHRA subordinates was explained by the intellectual stimulation used by PIHRA members.

Table 18

Correlations Between Intellectual Stimulation and Managerial-Caused Turnover Intention

Analysis	Score
Spearman's rho	-0.40
<i>t</i> -test value for hypothesis $r = 0$	-6.34
<i>p</i> level	< .01

Table 18 presents characteristics of the Spearman rho correlation coefficient, which is a descriptive measure of the association of intellectual stimulation and managerial-caused turnover intention. The t -test value is a measure of the hypothesis that the association between intellectual stimulation and managerial-caused turnover intention existing in the study sample exists in the population consisting of subordinates of all PIHRA members. The hypothesis (H_1) was that the two variables are associated; the null hypothesis (H_0) was that the two variables are not associated.

With 208 degrees of freedom ($[n - 2] = [210 - 2] = 208$), testing for significance at the .01 level, the critical values of ± 2.576 , and a calculated t -test value of -6.34, the null hypothesis was rejected. The observed value of r_s is large enough to indicate a statistically significant association between intellectual stimulation and managerial-caused turnover intention. This finding is corroborated by the calculated p level of less than .01.

Bivariate regression. The results of bivariate linear regression analyses are displayed in Table 19 and suggest that the intellectual stimulation used by PIHRA members explained 16% of the variance ($R^2 = 0.16$, $t = -8.92$, $p < .01$) in the levels of managerial-caused turnover intention among their subordinates. As explained in the prior paragraph, the t -value less than -2.576 and the calculated $p < .01$ indicate a regression model with statistically significant predictive power. The analyses also suggested a regression model in which a one-percentage-point increase in intellectual stimulation used by PIHRA members leads to a .31% decrease in managerial-caused turnover intention levels among their subordinates ($b = -0.31$, $p < .01$).

Table 19

Linear Regression of Intellectual Stimulation and Managerial-Caused Turnover Intention

	Coefficients (<i>b</i>)	Standard error (<i>SE</i>)	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>
Intercept	2.49	0.16	15.79	< .01
Intellectual stimulation	-0.31	0.04	-8.92	< .01

Figure 16 is a visual display of the calculated Spearman rho regression model: $y = 2.49 - .31x$, in which x is intellectual stimulation as measured by the GTL scale, and y is managerial-caused turnover intention as measured by the TI scale. Note the negative slope and the visual correspondence of the actual data points to the calculated model.

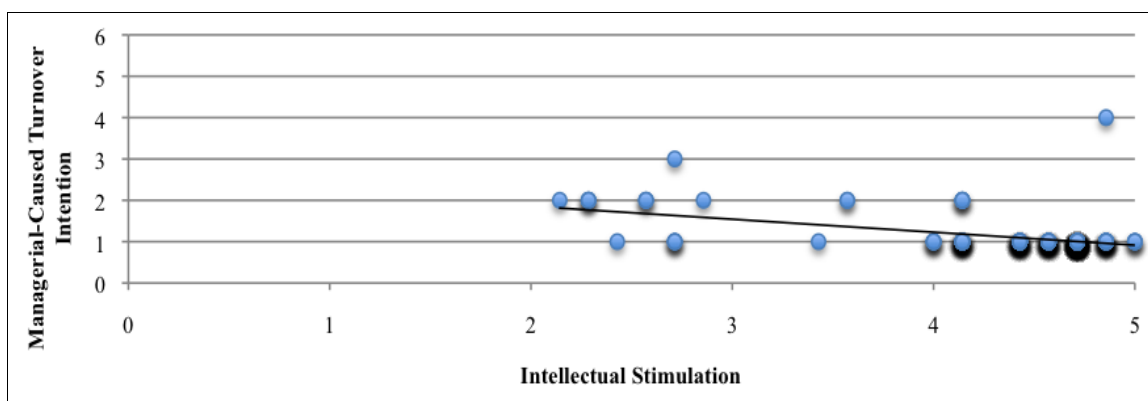


Figure 16. Correlation between intellectual stimulation and managerial-caused turnover intention.

Hypothesis 4

PIHRA members with higher levels of individualized consideration are more likely to have lower levels of managerial-caused turnover intention among their subordinates.

Bivariate correlation. Table 20 displays the results of the Spearman rho correlation analysis, which indicated there was a moderate, negative significant correlation between the level of individualized consideration used by PIHRA members and the levels of managerial-caused turnover intention among their subordinates ($r_s = -0.42, p < .01$). Higher individualized consideration scores were associated with lower levels of managerial-caused turnover intention. Further calculations suggested that 18% of the variance in the levels of managerial-caused turnover intention among PIHRA subordinates was explained by the individualized consideration used by PIHRA members.

Table 20

Correlations Between Individualized Consideration and Managerial-Caused Turnover Intention

Analysis	Score
Spearman's rho	-0.42
<i>t</i> -test value for hypothesis $r = 0$	-6.62
<i>p</i> level	< .01

Table 20 presents characteristics of the Spearman rho correlation coefficient, which is a descriptive measure of the association of individualized consideration and managerial-caused turnover intention. The *t*-test value is a measure of the hypothesis that the association between individualized consideration and managerial-caused turnover intention existing in the study sample exists in the population consisting of subordinates of all PIHRA members. The hypothesis (H_1) was that the two variables are associated; the null hypothesis (H_0) was that the two variables are not associated.

With 208 degrees of freedom ($[n - 2] = [210 - 2] = 208$), testing for significance at the .01 level, the critical values of ± 2.576 , and a calculated t -test value of -6.62, the null hypothesis was rejected. The observed value of r_s is large enough to indicate a statistically significant association between individualized consideration and managerial-caused turnover intention. This finding is corroborated by the calculated p level of less than .01.

Bivariate regression. The results of bivariate linear regression analyses are displayed in Table 21 and suggest that the individualized consideration used by PIHRA members explained 18% of the variance ($R^2 = 0.18$, $t = -9.01$, $p < .01$) in the levels of managerial-caused turnover intention among their subordinates. As explained in the prior paragraph, the t -value less than -2.576 and the calculated $p < .01$ indicate a regression model with statistically significant predictive power. The analyses also suggested a regression model in which a one-percentage-point increase in individualized consideration used by PIHRA members leads to a .31% decrease in managerial-caused turnover intention levels among their subordinates ($b = -0.31$, $p < .01$).

Table 21

Linear Regression of Individualized Consideration and Managerial-Caused Turnover Intention

	Coefficients (<i>b</i>)	Standard error (<i>SE</i>)	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>
Intercept	2.48	0.15	16.00	< .01
Individualized consideration	-0.31	0.03	-9.01	< .01

Figure 17 is a visual display of the calculated Spearman rho regression model: $y = 2.48 - .31x$, in which x is individualized consideration as measured by the GTL scale, and y is managerial-caused turnover intention as measured by the TI scale. Note the negative slope and the visual correspondence of the actual data points to the calculated model.

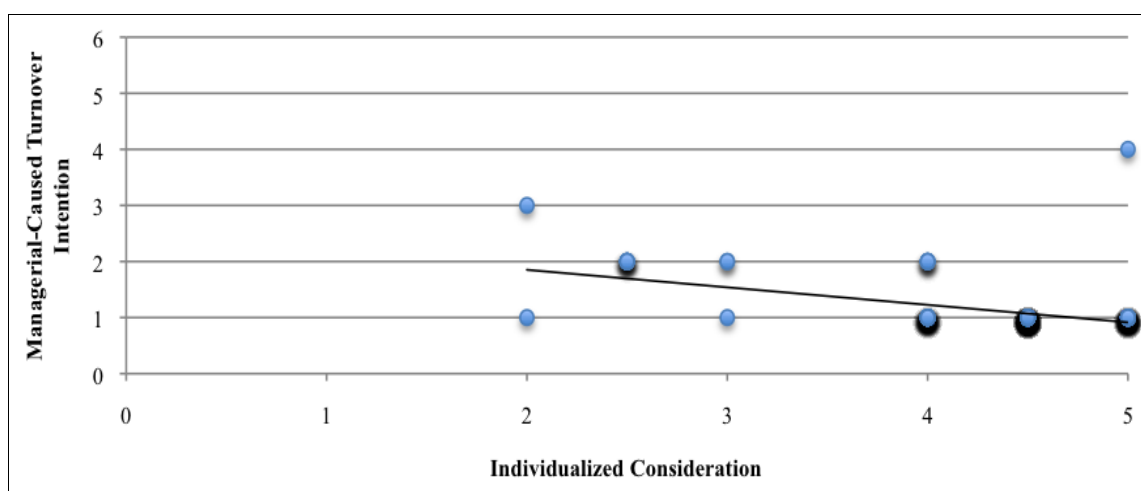


Figure 17. Correlation between individualized consideration and managerial-caused turnover intention.

Comment

The transformational leadership style may take the forms of idealized influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration. Table 22 is a matrix comparing correlation coefficients of each of the four variables with each other. Each variable is listed in a row across the top of the table as well as along the left-hand side. The correlation of each variable is displayed in the intersection of the column and row associated with each variable. For example, idealized influence (row) is perfectly related to itself (column) with a correlation coefficient of 1.00. Idealized

influence is correlated with inspirational motivation with a coefficient of .80, with intellectual stimulation with a coefficient of .97, and with individualized consideration with a coefficient of .70. Inspirational motivation is correlated with idealized influence with a coefficient of .80, with intellectual stimulation with a coefficient of .91, and with individualized consideration with a coefficient of .82. Intellectual stimulation is correlated with idealized influence with a coefficient of .97, with inspirational motivation with a coefficient of .91, and with individualized consideration with a coefficient of .83. Individualized consideration is correlated with idealized influence with a coefficient of .70, with inspirational motivation with a coefficient of .82, and with intellectual stimulation with a coefficient of .83. Notice that each of the four variables is highly correlated with each of the other three.

Table 22

Correlation Matrix for the Four I's

Variable	Idealized influence	Inspirational motivation	Intellectual stimulation	Individualized consideration
Idealized influence	1.00	.80	.97	.70
Inspirational motivation	-	1.00	.91	.82
Intellectual stimulation	-	-	1.00	.83
Individualized consideration	-	-	-	1.00

Summary

A total of 356 responses were obtained from 14 clusters. However, the final selected data for analysis came from 210 subjects with a cluster sampling design of (14 x 15). The primary source of information was a questionnaire measuring transformational

leadership style by the GTL scale and managerial-caused turnover intention by the TI scale. The data came from respondents in almost all counties and districts of PIHRA. The respondents represented almost all the industries in which PIHRA members work. The participants were diverse in terms of gender, education level, and age group. The data were ordinal, nonparametric, and demonstrated low sample error. There were four steps taken to select the final data for analysis in order to avoid overrepresented or underrepresented clusters. The current study showed high-level reliability of GTL and TI scales.

Bivariate correlation and regression tests were used to examine the five hypotheses of this study. There was a negative correlation between transformational leadership style used by PIHRA members and managerial-caused turnover intention of their subordinates. There was also a negative correlation between the four I's—idealized influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration—used by PIHRA members and managerial-caused turnover intention of their subordinates. The results of the current study suggested that a slight increase in transformational leadership style used by PIHRA members leads to a decrease in the levels of managerial-caused turnover intention among their subordinates. Finally, the results also showed that a slight increase in each of the four I's used by PIHRA members leads to a decrease in the levels of managerial-caused turnover intention among their subordinates. The current study found that idealized influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration correlate highly with each other.

CHAPTER V

CONCLUSION

The retention of employees is more important today than ever before. High employee turnover is one of the organizational problems that managers need to reduce to the lowest rate possible. Turnover intention occurs for a number of reasons; however, managerial style has been identified as one of the major causal factors of turnover intention. This study concentrated on only this factor in order to conduct a reliable turnover study.

The current study examined transformational leadership style and managerial-caused turnover intention in order to determine whether there is a relationship between the two concepts. The study aimed to thereby uncover an effective management tool for the retention of employees. The conclusions drawn from this study provide managers with an effective managerial style that they might adopt to retain employees.

This chapter presents the conclusion of the study, beginning with a restatement of the purpose of the study and the research questions, followed by a presentation of the summary of the study, findings, generalization of the results, implications, and discussion. Finally, Chapter V presents the suggestions for future studies, recommendations, conclusion, and concludes with a brief summary.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to identify and measure the relationship between managerial-caused turnover intention and transformational leadership style, which comprises four subconstructs known as the four I's: idealized influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration.

Research Questions

1. What is the relationship between the transformational leadership style of PIHRA members and managerial-caused turnover intention of their subordinates?
2. What is the relationship between idealized influence used by PIHRA members and managerial-caused turnover intention of their subordinates?
3. What is the relationship between inspirational motivation used by PIHRA members and managerial-caused turnover intention of their subordinates?
4. What is the relationship between intellectual stimulation used by PIHRA members and managerial-caused turnover intention of their subordinates?
5. What is the relationship between individualized consideration used by PIHRA members and managerial-caused turnover intention of their subordinates?

Summary of the Study

Turnover intention is a complex, chaotic problem that has negative impacts on an organization's performance, productivity, and bottom line. Turnover intention is the process of employees leaving their current jobs once they perceive ease of movement and desirability of movement (March & Simon, 1958). A variety of determinants may drive

employees to quit their jobs, including alternative opportunities, kinship responsibilities, job involvement, affectivity, autonomy, distributive justice, job stress, pay, promotional chances, routinization, and managerial style. However, the latter is believed to have a substantial influence on employees' decisions to stay in or quit their current jobs (Price, 2001).

Many negative organizational and individual consequences have been assigned to turnover intention, including costs, disruption of social and communication structures, productivity loss, loss of high performers, disruption of family and social support systems, loss of nonvested benefits, and transition-related stress. Ineffective managers usually have unqualified, disloyal, dissatisfied, and poor performers due to the high quit rate of experienced employees in their organizations (Abassi & Hollman, 2000; Mobley, 1982; Stovel & Bontis, 2002).

The current study aimed to determine the relationship between transformational leadership style and managerial-caused turnover intention, thereby determining if that managerial style helps control turnover intention. Mobley (1982) stated, "The term 'control' does not mean . . . to minimize turnover . . . [but it] means effectively managing turnover" (p. 53). Managers perform many functions in an organization and influence their employees to achieve the goals of the organization by adopting any one of several managerial styles, such as transformational, transactional, or laissez-faire. However, transformational leadership style has been promoted as a style that produces greater effects than any other style of leadership by generating higher levels of organizational

commitment, job satisfaction, performance, and organizational results (Avolio, 2011; Hall et al., 2012; Northouse, 2010).

Transformational leadership style may take the forms of idealized influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration. Commonly referred to as the four I's, these characteristics of transformational managers have been described as an additive impact that yields performance beyond expectations. Managers who are charismatic, encouragers, innovators, and coaches actually exhibit characteristics associated with the four I's. They support the transformation of their subordinates in order to reach performance beyond expectations. It is essential to understand the four I's in order to comprehend the process of transformational leadership (Avolio, 2011; Hall et al., 2012; Northouse, 2010).

Idealized influence describes managers who acquire high moral and ethical standards, are charismatic, and lead by example. Inspirational motivation describes managers who motivate and empower their subordinates to contribute to the development of their organizations, and promote teamwork. Intellectual stimulation describes managers who encourage the use of intelligence to address problems and find solutions in creative and innovative ways. Individualized consideration describes managers who pay close attention to their subordinates' personal needs and promote their self-development (Avolio, 2011; Hall et al., 2012; Northouse, 2010).

Transformational managers are strong role models, charismatic, and visionaries; they lead by example, empower their subordinates, enhance solving problems intellectually, and show concern for their subordinates' needs and development. In

essence, they frequently demonstrate idealized influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration in the workplace. As a final point, the independent variable of the current study consisted of the transformational leadership style and its four I's.

Managerial style has been recognized as a cause of turnover intention; however, to achieve internal integrity, this study treated managerial style and turnover intention as one composite variable, with the resulting dependent variable being managerial-caused turnover intention. Managerial-caused turnover intention is a process leading to the possible voluntary cessation of membership in an organization by individuals who received monetary compensation from the organization, and it is caused by the managerial style practiced in that organization (Krathwohl, 2009; Mobley, 1982; Ongori, 2007; Price, 2001).

The transformational leadership style, as well as managerial-caused turnover intention, can be measured quantitatively by using a valid and reliable instrument. For the purpose of this study, the Global Transformational Leadership (GTL) scale measured the transformational leadership style and its four I's. Additionally, the Turnover Intention (TI) scale measured the managerial-caused turnover intention variable. Although these scales contain a reduced set of items, they can measure behaviors, capture the construct, assess frequency of behaviors, and ask factual questions. Several scales exist that could have assessed the variables of the current study, but the GTL and TI scales were selected because they are short, practical, easily administered, reliable, and valid (Carless et al., 2000; Spector, 1985).

To identify the relationship between transformational leadership style and managerial-caused turnover intention, employees were asked to tell whether they intended to quit their current job or not and to assess the managerial style of their managers. To examine such a relationship, this study targeted employees whose managers were organizational members of the Professionals In Human Resources Association (PIHRA). PIHRA members hold top managerial positions in their organizations and work in almost all types of industries, in varying sizes and kinds of organizations (see Tables 6 through 8 and Figures 7 through 10 in Chapter IV). Besides the fact that these managers work in such a wide range of industries and organizations, transformational leaders are usually at higher levels of management; therefore, the subordinates of PIHRA members were an ideal population for this study (Lussier & Achua, 2012; PIHRA, 2012a).

In conclusion, the literature review in this study supported that transformational managers are more effective than any other managers who may adopt transactional or laissez-faire leadership styles in the workplace. Primarily, this study hypothesized and discovered that transformational managers can reduce the managerial-caused turnover intention of their subordinates.

Findings

Findings for Research Question 1

What is the relationship between the transformational leadership style of PIHRA members and managerial-caused turnover intention of their subordinates?

The transformational leadership style of PIHRA members is negatively correlated with managerial-caused turnover intention of their subordinates. That is to say that transformational leadership style is predictive of lower levels of turnover intention ($r_s = -0.41, p < .01$). This study found that a one-percentage-point increase in transformational leadership style used by PIHRA members leads to a .32 decrease in managerial-caused turnover intention levels of their subordinates ($b = -0.32, p < .01$).

This particular finding is different from that of Kleinman (2004), who discovered that transformational leadership style is not significantly correlated with staff nurse turnover. However, this study's finding is similar to what Griffith (2004), Walumbwa and Lawler (2003), and Walumbwa et al. (2004) concluded about transformational leadership style and its negative correlation with employee turnover.

Findings for Research Question 2

What is the relationship between idealized influence used by PIHRA members and managerial-caused turnover intention of their subordinates?

There is an inverse relationship between idealized influence used by PIHRA members and managerial-caused turnover intention of their subordinates. That is to say that the higher the levels of idealized influence used by PIHRA members, the lower the levels of managerial-caused turnover intention among their subordinates ($r_s = -0.47, p < .01$). The current study found that a one-percentage-point increase in idealized influence used by PIHRA members leads to a .28 decrease in managerial-caused turnover intention levels among their subordinates ($b = -0.28, p < .01$). The idealized influence leadership's negative relationship with managerial-caused turnover intention is similar to what the

literature review reflected about trust in leaders and turnover intention (Brashear et al., 2003; Davis et al., 2000; Dirks & Ferrin, 2002; Mulki et al., 2006).

Findings for Research Question 3

What is the relationship between inspirational motivation used by PIHRA members and managerial-caused turnover intention of their subordinates?

There is an inverse relationship between inspirational motivation leadership of PIHRA members and managerial-caused turnover intention of their subordinates. That is to say that the higher the level of inspirational motivation used by PIHRA members, the lower the level of managerial-caused turnover intention of their subordinates ($r_s = -0.32$, $p < .01$). This study found that a one-percentage-point increase in inspirational motivation used by PIHRA members leads to a .20 decrease in managerial-caused turnover intention levels among their subordinates ($b = -0.20$, $p < .01$). The results of this study are also in line with results of other studies that concluded a negative relationship between motivation and turnover intention in organizations (Dysvik & Kuvaas, 2010; Gardner et al., 2011; Kuvaas, 2006; Vansteenkiste et al., 2007).

Findings for Research Question 4

What is the relationship between intellectual stimulation used by PIHRA members and managerial-caused turnover intention of their subordinates?

There is an inverse relationship between intellectual stimulation leadership of PIHRA members and managerial-caused turnover intention of their subordinates. That is to say that the higher the level of intellectual stimulation used by PIHRA members, the

lower the level of managerial-caused turnover intention of their subordinates ($r_s = -0.40$, $p < .01$). This study found that a one-percentage-point increase in intellectual stimulation used by PIHRA members leads to a .31 decrease in managerial-caused turnover intention levels among their subordinates ($b = -0.31$, $p < .01$).

The negative relationship between intellectual stimulation leadership and managerial-caused turnover intention matched what the literature review conveyed with respect to organizational commitment and turnover intention (Firth et al., 2004; Lambert et al., 2012; Price, 2001; Siong et al., 2006; WeiBo et al., 2010). Additionally, this finding corresponds with results found by Walumbwa and Lawler (2003) and Walumbwa et al. (2004), who identified that transformational managers caused their subordinates to become attached to their organizations through intellectual stimulation.

Findings for Research Question 5

What is the relationship between individualized consideration used by PIHRA members and managerial-caused turnover intention of their subordinates?

There is an inverse relationship between individualized consideration leadership of PIHRA members and managerial-caused turnover intention of their subordinates. That is to say that the higher the level of individualized consideration used by PIHRA members, the lower the level of managerial-caused turnover intention of their subordinates ($r_s = -0.42$, $p < .01$). This study found that a one-percentage-point increase in individualized consideration used by PIHRA members leads to a .31 decrease in managerial-caused turnover intention levels among their subordinates ($b = -0.31$, $p < .01$). The negative relationship between individualized consideration leadership and

managerial-caused turnover intention maintained the findings from the literature review about the negative relationship between job satisfaction and turnover intention (Böckerman & Ilmakunnas, 2009; Iverson & Currivan, 2003; Lee et al., 2006; Mulki et al., 2006; Price, 2001; Scott et al., 2006; Winterton, 2004).

Conclusion

To summarize, this study found an inverse relationship between transformational leadership style used by PIHRA members and managerial-caused turnover intention of their subordinates. Additionally, it found a negative relationship between each of the individual four I's used by PIHRA members and managerial-caused turnover intention of their subordinates. Moreover, it found that a slight increase in transformational leadership style used by PIHRA members leads to a decline in the levels of managerial-caused turnover intention among their subordinates. Finally, the study found that a slight increase in each of the four I's used by PIHRA members leads to a decrease in the levels of managerial-caused turnover intention among their subordinates.

Generalization of the Results

The results of the current study can be generalized to all the organizations in which PIHRA members work (the managers and their subordinates). These results can be generalized to female and male employees who are between 18 and 60 years old and from different educational backgrounds and levels. These results can be generalized to organizations of all sizes and types, in all of the major industries in Southern California.

Current Study and Previous Studies

This study examined the relationship between transformational leadership style and managerial-caused turnover intention. While the conclusions of previous studies were mixed, contradictory, and could not achieve reliable outcomes, this study provided evidence that managers who exemplify the four I's of transformational leadership style can reduce the managerial-caused turnover intention level among their staff.

A study by Kleinman (2004) dealing with nurses found there is no statistically significant relationship between transformational leadership and nurse turnover. However, studies by Griffith (2004), Walumbwa et al. (2004), and Walumbwa and Lawler (2003) found a negative relationship between transformational leadership style and turnover intention (Appendix D). The current study showed there is an inverse correlation between transformational leadership style and managerial-caused turnover intention. While previous studies examined this relationship in the health industry (e.g., Kleinman, 2004), financial industry (e.g., Walumbwa & Lawler, 2003; Walumbwa et al., 2004), and education industry (e.g., Griffith, 2004), this study was able to establish this relationship across a wide range of organizations of all sizes and types, in almost all kinds of industries.

Earlier studies (e.g., Kleinman, 2004; Walumbwa & Lawler, 2003; Walumbwa et al., 2004) failed to achieve reliable outcomes due to an insufficient sample size and lack of instrument quality. Yet, this study was able to utilize a valid and reliable instrument and at the same time establish such a relationship using a statistically sufficient sample size.

This study avoided the methodological flaws of earlier studies by focusing on only one cause of turnover intention, namely managerial style. Other studies failed to find reliable outcomes because of studying multiple causes of employee turnover in the same study (Mobley, 1982; Ongori, 2007). While other studies of turnover intention focused on causes and effects, this study provided the answer to effective turnover management and strategy to control managerial-caused turnover intention (Böckerman & Ilmakunnas, 2009; Mulki et al., 2006; Scott et al., 2006).

In conclusion, this study averted the methodological gaps of earlier studies and provided evidence regarding the specific managerial style that improves employee retention, namely transformational leadership style. Consequently, managers who adopt behaviors associated with this style of leadership can expect improved retention, lower rates of turnover, overall improved performance, and reduced expenses.

Findings Concerning the Reliability of the Global Transformational Leadership Scale

Earlier studies of the relationship between transformational leadership and employee turnover relied on scales that were relatively long and time consuming, expensive, and for which later studies challenged the conceptual framework and structural validity. For example, Kleinman (2004), Walumbwa and Lawler (2003), and Walumbwa et al. (2004) used the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) when measuring the transformational leadership variable. Although the MLQ is commonly used as a leadership instrument all around the world, several studies have criticized it for its validity (Charbonneau, 2004; Muenjohn & Armstrong, 2008; Northouse, 2010; Tejeda

et al., 2001). Scholars (e.g., Charbonneau, 2004; Tejada et al., 2001) challenged its conceptual framework and structural validity. When using the MLQ, the four factors of transformational leadership were found to correlate highly with each other, which indicated they were not distinct factors (Northouse, 2010; Tejada et al., 2001).

This study measured transformational leadership style with the GTL scale, developed by Carless et al. (2000), which includes a reduced set of measures. Likewise, this study measured managerial-caused turnover intention with the TI scale, developed by Spector (1985), which consists of a single question. These simple scales were inexpensive and effective instruments with which to measure transformational leadership, managerial-caused turnover intention, and the relationship of each variable to the other. Like the MLQ, however, the scales did not indicate any additive effect of the four I's: idealized influence, individualized consideration, inspirational motivation, and intellectual stimulation. The four factors of transformational leadership were found to correlate highly with each other, which indicated they were not distinct factors.

Implications

Table 3, which is duplicated from Chapter III, represents the correspondence between the managerial dimensions measured on the GTL scale and the four I's hypothesized to constitute the transformational leadership style: idealized influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration.

While the hypothesis that these four factors are independent and distinct variables, each contributing distinct additive effects to managerial effectiveness, was not confirmed

Table 3

Correspondence Between the Dimensions of GTL Scale and the Four I's of Transformational Leadership Style

Item	Dimension of GTL	Four I's
1. Communicates a clear, positive vision of the future.	Vision	Idealized influence
2. Treats staff as individuals, and supports and encourages their development.	Staff development	Individualized consideration
3. Gives encouragement and recognition to staff.	Supportive leadership	Individualized consideration
4. Fosters trust, involvement, and co-operation among team members.	Empowerment	Inspirational motivation
5. Encourages thinking about problems in new ways and questions assumptions.	Innovative thinking	Intellectual stimulation
6. Is clear about his/her values and practices what he/she preaches.	Lead by example	Idealized influence
7. Instills pride and respect in others and inspires me by being highly competent.	Charisma	Idealized influence

by the data, the overall relationship of transformational leadership to turnover was validated. From this finding, the researcher concluded that managers must rethink their managerial style for the fast-paced, high-tech business world. Current employees want to know the reasons behind assigned tasks, want to show their talents, and want to be involved in the decision-making process (Abassi & Hollman, 2000; Holtom et al., 2008). This study added depth to the body of knowledge concerning transformational leadership style and its importance to the retention of employees. It identified the correlation of transformational leadership style with managerial-caused turnover intention; therefore, managers can adopt transformational leadership as their leadership style with the aim of controlling turnover.

Idealized Influence

While idealized influence was not confirmed to be an independent and distinct variable that contributes distinct additive effects to transformational leadership and managerial effectiveness, the characteristics of idealized influence expressed in Table 3 were confirmed to be a statistically significant component of the general construct of transformational leadership. Therefore, managers should make efforts to influence employees by communicating a clear, positive vision of the future, by being clear about their values, and by behaving consistently with stated values and adopted procedures.

In addition to these conclusions, the literature concerning transformational leadership prescribes that managers should display extraordinary talents, take risks without hesitation, and deal effectively with conflicts and crises. The GTL scale did not specifically ask respondents to identify the frequency of these managerial behaviors; therefore, no specific finding or conclusion can be offered about the impact of these leadership characteristics on turnover intention (Avolio, 2011; Erkutlu, 2008; Northouse, 2010). However, one may infer that these behaviors are so closely related to the behaviors included in Survey Questions 1 and 6 that they are likely to coexist; the instrument implies that where a clear and positive vision of the future is coupled with clearly stated and persistently practiced values, it may be that extraordinary talents, resolute risk taking, and effective conflict resolution are likely to coincide. These are assumptions that may be tested in future research.

Inspirational Motivation

While inspirational motivation was not confirmed to be an independent and distinct variable that contributes distinct additive effects to transformational leadership and managerial effectiveness, the characteristics of inspirational motivation expressed in Table 3 were confirmed to be a statistically significant component of the general construct of transformational leadership. Therefore, managers should make efforts to foster trust, involvement, and cooperation among team members.

In addition to these conclusions, the literature concerning transformational leadership prescribes that managers should provide meaning and challenge to tasks and an optimum future, and show optimism, enthusiasm, and positivity. They should set high standards for subordinates and inspire employees to become part of a shared vision to accomplish ever greater performance goals. The GTL scale did not specifically ask respondents to identify the frequency of these managerial behaviors; therefore, no specific finding or conclusion can be offered about the impact of these leadership characteristics on turnover intention (Avolio, 2011; Erkutlu, 2008; Northouse, 2010). However, one may infer that these behaviors are so closely related to the behaviors included in Survey Question 4 that they are likely to coexist; the instrument implies that where managers develop trust, involvement, and cooperation among team members, they also set high standards, inspire employees, provide meaning and challenge to tasks and an optimum future, and show optimism, enthusiasm, and positivity. These are assumptions that may be tested in future research.

Intellectual Stimulation

While intellectual stimulation was not confirmed to be an independent and distinct variable that contributes distinct additive effects to transformational leadership and managerial effectiveness, the characteristics of intellectual stimulation expressed in Table 3 were confirmed to be a statistically significant component of the general construct of transformational leadership. Therefore, managers should make efforts to encourage thinking about problems in new ways and to question assumptions.

In addition to these conclusions, the literature concerning transformational leadership prescribes that managers should create imaginative visions, notice unusual patterns, apply humor to stimulate new thinking, and encourage employees to employ intuition. The GTL scale did not specifically ask respondents to identify the frequency of these managerial behaviors; therefore, no specific finding or conclusion can be offered about the impact of these leadership characteristics on turnover intention (Avolio, 2011; Erkutlu, 2008; Northouse, 2010). However, one may infer that these behaviors are so closely related to the behaviors included in Survey Question 5 that they are likely to coexist; the instrument implies that where managers encourage thinking about problems in new ways and question assumptions, they also create imaginative visions, notice unusual patterns, apply humor to stimulate new thinking, and encourage employees to employ intuition. These are assumptions that may be tested in future research.

Individualized Consideration

While individualized consideration was not confirmed to be an independent and distinct variable that contributes distinct additive effects to transformational leadership

and managerial effectiveness, the characteristics of individualized consideration expressed in Table 3 were confirmed to be a statistically significant component of the general construct of transformational leadership. Therefore, managers should make efforts to encourage and recognize staff members and treat them as individuals, and to support and encourage their development through coaching, mentoring, counseling, and training.

In addition to these conclusions, the literature concerning transformational leadership prescribes that managers should respond to employees with the least possible delay, be present when needed, utilize two-way communication, and encourage the exchange of ideas. Individualized consideration requires that managers show concern for the personal needs of employees and assign jobs based on their personal needs and abilities. The GTL scale did not specifically ask respondents to identify the frequency of these managerial behaviors; therefore, no specific finding or conclusion can be offered about the impact of these leadership characteristics on turnover intention (Avolio, 2011; Erkutlu, 2008; Northouse, 2010). However, one may infer that these behaviors are so closely related to the behaviors included in Survey Questions 2 and 3 that they are likely to coexist; the instrument implies that where employees are treated as individuals and supported in their development, leaders' encouragement, recognition, responsiveness, communication, concern for personal needs, and individualized assignment of jobs are likely to coincide. These are assumptions that may be tested in future research.

Discussion

Careful researchers often reflect on and discuss the results of their research in order to generate ideas for future researchers. They use the current new knowledge to provide topics for future researchers to learn even more about the area of research conducted. Before recommending further studies, they explain why the additional research should be done.

Mediating Variables

Mediating variables are intervening variables. The causal model of turnover includes four mediating variables: job satisfaction, organizational commitment, search behavior, and intention to quit. Job satisfaction refers to the degree to which employees like their work. Organizational commitment refers to the extent to which the employees are loyal to their employers. Search behavior refers to employees' looking for alternative jobs. Intent to quit refers to the degree to which employees plan to discontinue their membership with their organization (Price, 2001).

This study examined the transformational leadership style and its four I's as the managerial style of the participants' managers. One of the implications of the current study is its focus on only one determinant of turnover intention, namely managerial style. The problem on which the study focused was the single variable of managerial-caused turnover intention. Even though managerial style is not the principal reason behind the decision of turnover intention, it has a significant impact on an individual employee's decision to stay in or leave an organization. It influences turnover intention through the intervening variables of job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and search behavior

(see Figure 5 in Chapter II). It decreases turnover intention indirectly by means of a positive impact on job satisfaction and organizational commitment (Price, 2001).

This study found that 17% of the variance in the levels of managerial-caused turnover intention was explained by transformational leadership style. This finding may indicate that the remaining variance in the levels of managerial-caused turnover intention may be explained by the other intervening variables included in the causal model of turnover: job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and search behavior. This claim indicates that transformational leadership style may impact managerial-caused turnover intention indirectly through job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and search behavior; however, this claim should be empirically examined in future studies.

Current California Economy

The current poor economic condition may have impacted the decision of the participants to stay in or leave their current jobs. The average score of intention to quit was low ($M = 1.09$), indicating that the participants generally expressed an intention to keep their current jobs. According to the Bureau of Labor Statistics (BLS, 2013), the California unemployment rate of 10.5% in 2012 was significantly higher than the U.S. rate of 8.1%. California had one of the highest unemployment rates among the other states in December 2012 (BLS, 2013). Although the California unemployment rate declined compared to the previous year (see Introduction section in Chapter I), at the time the study was conducted, it was still higher than before the great financial crisis in 2007. It is important to consider the unemployment rate when studying the possible causes of turnover because, as Mobley (1982) noted, “As unemployment goes up, the quit rate goes

down and vice versa” (p. 83). The low mean score indicates the condition of the economy may have influenced the participants’ decisions about keeping their jobs and, therefore, may have influenced the relationships measured between characteristics of transformational leadership and intent to quit.

Additive Effect

One major assumption of the additive effect of transformational leadership model is that each of the predictor variables (four I’s) in the model is thought to be independent from the others, with each expressing an independent effect on managerial-caused turnover intention. The transformational leadership style may take the forms of idealized influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration. The literature supporting the four I’s as a legitimate leadership model describes it as an additive model. An additive effect means that each of the variables in a model is thought to be independent from other variables in that model, each expressing an independent influence on outcomes. These four I’s are thought to be independent, coexist, and have an additive impact that yields performance beyond expectations (Bass & Avolio, 1990; Erkutlu, 2008; Gellis, 2001; Hall et al., 2012; Northouse, 2010). However, the results of the current study disagreed with what was found in the literature.

Based on the assumption of an additive effect of transformational leadership model, this study would logically conclude that the four I’s together should explain approximately 66% of the variance in levels of managerial-caused turnover intention (22% idealized influence plus 10% inspirational motivation plus 16% intellectual stimulation plus 18% individualized consideration). Yet, this study displayed evidence

that the four I's working together as the transformational leadership style explain only 17% of the variance in the levels of managerial-caused turnover intention. Therefore, this study must conclude that evidence from this research does not support the claim that each of the four I's in the additive effect model is independent from the others, nor do the data support the claim that each of the four I's expresses an independent effect on managerial-caused turnover intention.

Further calculation supported the conclusion that the four I's are not independent from each other (see Table 22 in Chapter IV). Idealized influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration correlate highly with each other, which indicates they are not independent from each other. This finding is in line with results reported by Northouse (2010) and Tejada et al. (2001), who concluded that the four I's correlate highly with each other and are not distinct factors. Nonetheless, the data refute claims made by Bass and Avolio (1990), Erkutlu (2008), Gellis (2001), and Hall et al. (2012) that the effect of the four variables is additive.

All in all, the transformational leadership style is a relatively powerful predictor of managerial-caused turnover intention, explaining 17% of the variance in levels of managerial-caused turnover intention. Although the four I's are highly related to each other, all four seem to be related to a philosophy of treating employees with respect, leading them toward an accomplishable vision, empowering them, encouraging them to use their intelligence, developing their skills, and inspiring them toward a common goal. Transformational leadership style is a paradox of one-in-four–four-in-one. It is represented by the four I's, which distinguish transformational leadership style from any

other styles of leadership (one in four). Yet, they are not distinct factors and must be treated as one variable (four in one). For education and training purposes, dividing the transformational leadership style into four I's simplifies understanding the concept of transformational leadership style. However, in research, the four I's must be treated as one variable, namely transformational leadership style.

Future Studies

The results of the current study suggest several important research topics of future studies. One recommendation would be to study the cause and effect of two phenomena: transformational leadership style and the retention of employees. The current literature supported the inference that a disagreeable managerial style is positively related to (or possibly one of the causes of) the turnover intention phenomenon. That is to say, ineffective managers drive employees to quit their jobs. Nevertheless, if ineffective managers drive employees to quit their jobs, it does not mean that effective managers drive employees to keep their jobs.

Although the findings from the current study supported that there is a negative correlation between transformational leadership style and managerial-caused turnover intention, it does not mean transformational leadership style is the solution for managerial-caused turnover intention. Therefore, a recommended study would consist of experimental research to investigate the cause-and-effect relationship of transformational leadership style and the retention of employees.

Another recommendation for a study would be to analyze and evaluate the effect of the gender of transformational managers on managerial-caused turnover intention

among their subordinates to see how the transformational managers' gender may or may not impact the employees' decision of staying at or leaving their jobs. This study may provide human resource professionals with more confidence and clues when dealing with turnover intention. It may also help organizational leaders reevaluate the process of selecting and hiring their managers.

The results of this study suggested that managers with a transformational leadership style could be recruited. This study found the average score of transformational leadership style was high ($M = 4.42$), indicating the participants' managers frequently demonstrated transformational leadership style in the workplace. Future research might be conducted to identify a single organization with managers who frequently demonstrate the transformational leadership style, especially those who score relatively high on the GTL scale. It would utilize a qualitative research design and interview some of the managers in order to determine how their organization was able to develop or recruit them with this style.

Although the findings of the current study showed a negative relationship between transformational leadership style and managerial-caused turnover intention, this topic still merits further empirical research. Because the current poor economic condition may have influenced the participants' decisions of keeping their jobs, further research is recommended to replicate this study when the economy has recovered. It would be interesting to determine whether the relationship between the transformational leadership style and managerial-caused turnover intention would change when the economy changes.

The findings of this study supported that idealized influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration (a) correlate highly with one another, (b) are not independent, (c) do not have an additive effect, and (d) are not distinct factors. Nonetheless, this area of research still requires additional investigation. A further study would examine the four I's, study their uniqueness to transformational leadership style, and investigate the style's paradox.

Finally, a last recommendation for a study would be to replicate this research and look at a nondemocratic, noncapitalistic country to see if similar findings would be found about the relationship between transformational leadership style and managerial-caused turnover intention. This research has been done in the United States; thus, it is reasonable to believe that democratic, capitalistic countries are the area to which the results of this study most readily apply. However, it would be interesting to see whether or not similar results would be found in nondemocratic countries.

Recommendations

In order to control the managerial-caused turnover intention among staff, managers should learn and develop their transformational leadership behaviors and skills. Transformational leadership style is not reserved for people with special traits and abilities; rather, anyone can become transformational in their practices. The current study provides recommendations for educators, employers, managers, and researchers.

Recommendations for Educators

Management textbooks must be developed and must not be based on the basic functions of management: plan, organize, lead, and control. It is time to transform ordinary managers into extraordinary managers, or in other words, leaders. It is time to merge the concept of management into leadership. This era of nanotechnology or postmodernity does not require mere managers but rather effective, authentic leaders.

Management textbooks must include at least a chapter about transformational leadership theory. They must present it as an effective managerial style by offering case studies that show how transformational managers and their subordinates can reach performance beyond expectations. Graduate business students as well as undergraduate students should be introduced to and trained on the five practices of the Kouzes and Posner model, because these five practices provide a unique set of prescriptions for effective managers (Kouzes & Posner, 2007; Northouse, 2010). Graduate business students should be introduced to the criticism of other styles, such as transactional, laissez-faire, and transformational leadership theory in general.

Recommendations for Employers

Small businesses should strategically retain their employees in order to survive in the competitive market. Pioneers should be transformational; otherwise, the small-business laborer may leave, and as a consequence, the business may shut down. If the pioneers and owners of small businesses want employees to follow them, keep their jobs, and be loyal to their organizations, those leaders must be transformational.

Retaining employees is essential not only for small businesses but also for organizations of all sizes in all types of industries. In addition to the benefit of satisfying and improving the retention of employees, selecting and hiring transformational managers may save time, effort, and money. When selecting or hiring new managers, employers or human resource managers should measure the leadership competencies of these individuals by using the Leadership Practice Inventory (LPI). The LPI is a leadership assessment tool that assesses individual leadership competencies and consists of 30 questions (Kouzes & Posner, 2007; Northouse, 2010).

Employers should improve the transformational leadership behaviors and skills of their current managers by providing them with professional development in the form of workshops, coaching, mentoring, counseling, and formal coursework that introduce concepts and leadership practices related to the transformational leadership style. They could provide them with membership in associations that support the professional development of transformational managers and that promote improvements in services and support to employees. It is crucial that they encourage their managers to take college-level leadership courses and later reimburse the cost of tuition. It also recommended that they send their managers to leadership conferences, especially those that present the transformational leadership style.

Recommendations for Managers

Managers should learn and develop their transformational leadership style. It is imperative that they join associations that provide courses on transformational leadership behaviors and skills. They could also attend webinars, online courses, conferences, and

workshops that provide insightful topics on transformational leadership style. It is important that they become members of one or more of these associations and attend these educational opportunities to help them stay current on transformational leadership issues, grow professionally, and participate in group endeavors to promote change.

Managers should develop a vision that provides employees with a sense of belonging and meaning within their organizations. It is recommended that they develop a set of moral standards and follow their commitments. They should act as change agents who implement smart new directions within organizations. It is important that they coach, teach, advise, and provide a supportive climate for their employees to grow in their jobs. They should practice frequently in order to develop the behaviors and skills of transformational leadership style. They must be patient because improving this managerial style requires time, effort, and dedication.

Recommendations for Researchers

When targeting a large population size, researchers should utilize a cluster sampling method, as recommended by Bluman (2007), Henderson and Sundaresan (1982), Krathwohl (2009), and Van de Ven (2007). However, with a cluster sample, there is a probability of having an overrepresented or underrepresented cluster (Dunstan et al., 2002; see Study Limitations section in Chapter III for more details). In order to avoid this limitation, researchers should utilize a common cluster-sampling scheme, the (30 x 7) design, as suggested by Henderson and Sundaresan (1982; see Study Sample section in Chapter III). If it is not possible to have 30 clusters of the sample, it is imperative that the researchers increase the number of units in order to achieve the same

statistical precision as with a (30 x 7) design, as suggested by the North Carolina Center for Public Health Preparedness (NCCPHP, 2012). When utilizing a web-based questionnaire, the researchers should create a URL for each cluster that they are targeting in order to know exactly which cluster the responses originated from. It is important that they select the data based on the number of clusters rather than the number of units because selecting more clusters rather than more units within any cluster improves precision.

Conclusion

To conclude, by improving managers' and supervisors' transformational leadership, employers can experience lower levels of managerial-caused turnover intention among their employees. Anyone can be transformational by learning and developing the behaviors and skills of this style. Management textbooks should have at least a chapter about transformational leadership theory. Employers should develop their current managers in transformational leadership style. Managers should learn and develop their skills and behaviors of transformational leadership style. Finally, when targeting a large population size, researchers should utilize a cluster sampling method.

This study made a contribution to the knowledge on the importance of transformational leadership style to the retention of employees. Part of its significance was its focus on merely one causal factor of turnover intention, namely managerial style, as suggested by Mobley (1982) and Ongori (2007). Based on internal integrity (Krathwohl, 2009), this study treated managerial style and turnover intention as one variable, with its problem of focus being managerial-caused turnover intention.

Managerial-caused turnover intention is part of turnover intention. A diagram was developed to illustrate the relationship between managerial-caused turnover intention and turnover intention (see Figure 18).

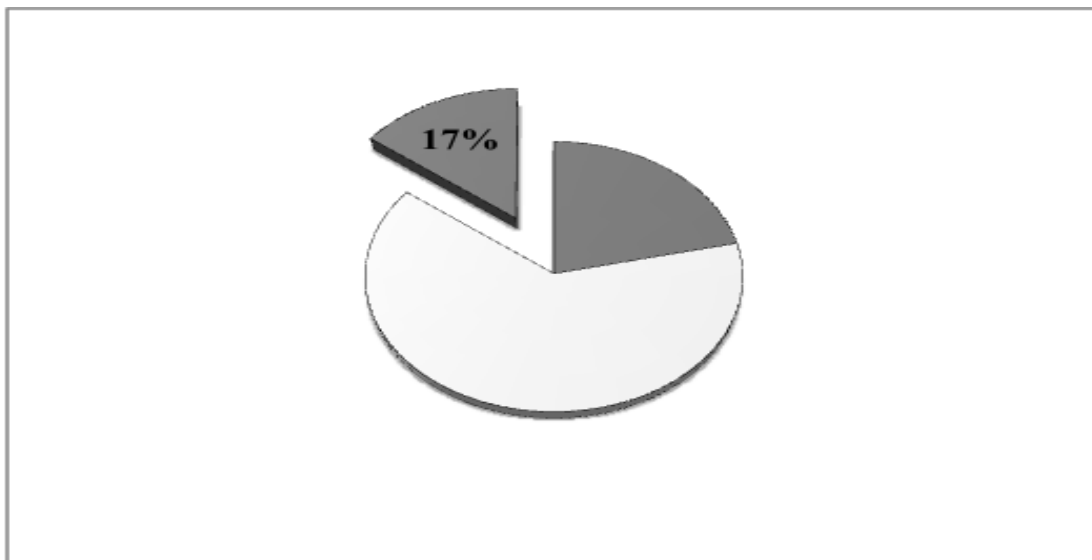


Figure 18. The relationship between managerial-caused turnover intention and turnover intention. The measurements are hypothetical.

In Figure 18, the entire pie, the dark and white portions together, represents the turnover intention. The dark portion represents the managerial-caused turnover intention. The separate part is hypothetically the 17% of the variance in the levels of managerial-caused turnover intention, which is explained by transformational leadership style. As a final point of this study, transformational leadership style explained 17% of the variance in the levels of managerial-caused turnover intention. That is to say, transformational leadership style explained 17% of the variance in the levels of turnover intention.

Summary

The current study found a negative correlation between transformational leadership style and managerial-caused turnover intention. It found an inverse correlation between the four I's—idealized influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration—and managerial-caused turnover intention of leaders' subordinates. It found that a slight increase in transformational leadership style leads to a decrease in the levels of managerial-caused turnover intention among employees. It also found that a slight increase in each of the four I's leads to a decrease in the levels of managerial-caused turnover intention among staff. It found that the four I's correlate highly with one another, are not independent, do not have an additive effect, and are not distinct factors.

Hiring or training transformational managers helps effectively control turnover. Managers should acquire excellent transformational leadership behaviors and skills in order to reduce the managerial-caused turnover intention among their employees. In addition, educators should develop and introduce transformational leadership theory in management textbooks. Finally, the current study recommended several future studies. For instance, further research may address the cause-and-effect relationship of transformational leadership style and the retention of employees, which gender of transformational managers is the most effective in regard to the retention of employees, and whether or not similar results would be found in nondemocratic countries.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A
POSSIBLE NEGATIVE CONSEQUENCES OF
EMPLOYEE TURNOVER

Table A1

Possible Negative Consequences of Employee Turnover

Organization	Individual (leavers)	Individual (stayers)	Society
Costs (recruiting, hiring, training)	Loss of seniority and related perquisites	Disruption of social and communication patterns	Increased costs of production
Disruption of social and communication structures	Loss of nonvested benefits	Loss of functionally valued coworkers	Regional inability to keep or attract industry
Productivity loss (during replacement search and retraining)	Disruption of family and social support systems	Decreased satisfaction	
Loss of high performers	“Grass is greener” phenomenon and subsequent disillusionment	Increased workload during and immediately after search for replacement	
Decreased satisfaction among stayers	Disruption of spouse’s career path	Decreased cohesion.	
	Transition-related stress	Decreased commitment	

Note. Adapted from *Employee Turnover: Causes, Consequences, and Control*, by W. H. Mobley, 1982, p. 32. Copyright 1982 by Addison-Wesley.

APPENDIX B
POSSIBLE POSITIVE CONSEQUENCES OF
EMPLOYEE TURNOVER

Table B1

Possible Positive Consequences of Employee Turnover

Organization	Individual (leavers)	Individual (stayers)	Society
Displacement of poor performers	Increased earnings	Increased internal mobility opportunity	Mobility to new industry
Infusion of new knowledge/technology via replacements	Career advancement	Stimulation, cross-fertilization from new coworkers	Reduced income inequities
Stimulate changes in policy and practice	Better "person-organization fit," thus less stress, better use of skills, interests	Increased satisfaction	Reduced unemployment and welfare costs in a declining labor market
Increased internal mobility opportunities	Renewed stimulation in new environment	Increased cohesion	Decreased job stress-related costs
Decrease in other "withdrawal" behaviors	Attainment of non-work values	Increased commitment	
Opportunities for cost reduction, consolidation			
Reduction of entrenched conflict			

Note. Adapted from *Employee Turnover: Causes, Consequences, and Control*, by W. H. Mobley, 1982, p. 33. Copyright 1982 by Addison-Wesley.

APPENDIX C
SOURCES OF EMPLOYEE TURNOVER

Table C1

Sources of Employee Turnover

Source	Description
Dissatisfaction	Wages amount, promotional chances, distributive justice, managerial style, benefits, working conditions, coworkers (work group cohesion), job security, job stress, job content (e.g., autonomy, use of skills & abilities, & overall performance), job design (e.g., job burnout, responsibilities, hours, shifts, & breaks), policies & rules, workplace environment, etc.
Alternatives	Returning to school, military service, government service, starting own business, similar job: same industry, similar job: other industry, different job: other industry, new position/organization/location/earnings, voluntary early retirement, etc.
Living conditions	Housing, transportation, child care, providing care for aged relatives, leisure activities, etc.
Organizational initiated	Attendance, performance, layoff, layoff: downgrade refused, layoff: transferred refused, end of temporary employment, unsatisfactory probation period, violation of contract/rules/policy, etc.
Personal	Education, age, gender, personality, spouse transferred, to be married, illness or death in family, personal injury/illness, pregnancy, etc.
Other	Organizational commitment, role ambiguity, locus of control (fate), economy (e.g., unemployment, inflation, & opening jobs), kinship responsibility, affectivity, search behavior, intentions, hiring practice, general training, job involvement, death, retirement, type of industry, organizational size, etc.

Note. Adapted from “Turnover: The Real Bottom Line,” by S. M. Abbasi and K. W. Hollman, 2000, *Public Personnel Management*, 29(3); “How Can Managers Reduce Employee Intention to Quit?” by L. Firth et al., 2004, *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, 19(2); *Employee Turnover: Causes, Consequences, and Control*, by W. H. Mobley, 1982, Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley; “A Review of the Literature on Employee Turnover,” by H. Ongori, 2007, *African Journal of Business Management*; “The Impacts of Benefit Plans on Employee Turnover,” by C. Lee et al., 2006, *International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 17(11); “Reflections on the Determinants of Voluntary Turnover,” by J. L. Price, 2001, *Journal of Manpower*, 22(7/8); “Using Job Embeddedness Factors to Explain Voluntary Turnover in Four European Countries,” by C. Tanova and B. C. Holtom, 2008, *International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 19(9).

APPENDIX D

CRITICAL LITERATURE REVIEW: THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN
TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERSHIP AND
EMPLOYEE TURNOVER

Table D1

The Relationship Between Transformational Leadership and Employee Turnover

Researcher	Research topic	Study design	Results
Griffith (2004)	He examined the relation of principal transformational leadership to school staff job satisfaction, staff turnover, and school performance.	The researcher used a sample of 3,291 staff from elementary schools in the U.S. Survey instrument was Structural Equation Model (SEM) & Hierarchical Linear Modeling (HLM).	He found that principal transformational leadership shows indirect effects, through job satisfaction, on both school staff turnover (negative) and school performance (positive).
Kleinman (2004)	She investigated the relationship between managerial leadership behaviors and staff nurse retention.	The researcher used a sample of 89 nurses from a 465-bed community hospital in the U.S. Survey instrument was MLQ. She defined the staff turnover as the percentage of resigned nurses from Jan to June 2003.	She found that there is not any association between transformational leadership and staff nurse retention.
Walumbwa & Lawler (2003)	They examined the effect of collectivism on the relationships between transformational leadership, work-related attitudes and perceptions of withdrawal behaviors.	The researchers used a sample of 577 employees from the banking & finance sectors in China, India, & Kenya. Survey instrument was MLQ & Hanisch & Hulin Scale (1991).	They found that transformational leadership is negatively related to employee turnover.
Walumbwa, Wang, Lawler, & Shi (2004)	They studied the role of collective efficiency in the relations between transformational leadership and work outcomes.	The researchers used a sample of 402 employees from the banking & finance sectors in China & India. Survey instrument was MLQ & Hanisch & Hulin Scale (1991).	They found that transformational leadership is negatively related to employee turnover.

APPENDIX E

PERMISSION TO REPRODUCE THE GTL SCALE

From: Leon Mann <leonm@unimelb.edu.au>
Subject: **Re: Requesting Permission**
Date: July 26, 2012 2:46:50 PM PDT
To: Massad Alatawi <alatawi@alawdah.org>
Cc: "l.mann@mbs.unimelb.edu.au" <l.mann@mbs.unimelb.edu.au>

Dear Massad
You have my permission to use the GTL scale in your dissertation
I wish you well in your research
Leon Mann

Sent from my iPhone

On 24/07/2012, at 15:56, "Massad Alatawi" <alatawi@alawdah.org> wrote:

Dear Dr. Mann,

Greetings from The United States!

I am writing this email to request your permission to use "*Global Transformational Leadership Scale*" in my study.

I am a doctoral student in organizational leadership at the University of Laverne in California, and am in the process of constructing my dissertation. My study is entitled "*The Relationship between Transformational Leadership and Managerial-Caused Turnover Intention in PIHRA's Organizations.*"

The target audience of my study is employees whose managers or HR managers are members of PIHRA, Professional in Human Resource Association. However, the scale that I intend to use to measure the variable of transformational leadership is your scale, more specifically, the GTL scale.

It is an honor and a privilege to share with you my concept paper should you be interested. Prior this request, I have informed my dissertation chair and he is helping me in developing and completing this study.

Please contact me if you have any questions regarding my study.

I look forward to hearing from you.

Warm Regards,

Massad Alatawi

+1-310-913-3887

alatawi@alawdah.org

APPENDIX F

PERMISSION TO REPRODUCE THE TI SCALE

From: "Spector, Paul" <pspector@usf.edu>
 Subject: **RE: Requesting Permission**
 Date: August 1, 2012 8:15:24 AM PDT
 To: 'Massad Alatawi' <alatawi@alawdah.org>

Dear Massad Alatawi:

You have my permission to use the turnover intention scale in your dissertation.

Best,

Paul Spector
 Department of Psychology
 PCD 4118
 University of South Florida
 Tampa, FL 33620
 813-974-0357
 pspector [at symbol] usf.edu
<http://shell.cas.usf.edu/~spector>

From: Massad Alatawi [mailto:alatawi@alawdah.org]
Sent: Wednesday, August 01, 2012 11:11 AM
To: Spector, Paul; spector@shell.cas.usf.edu
Subject: Requesting Permission

Dear Dr. Spector,

I am writing this email to request your permission to use your scale that measures turnover intention in my study.

I am a doctoral student in organizational leadership at the University of Laverne in California, and am in the process of constructing my dissertation. My study is entitled "The Relationship between Transformational Leadership and Managerial-Caused Turnover Intention in PIHRA's Organizations."

The target audience of my study is employees whose managers or HR officials are members of PIHRA, Professional in Human Resource Association. However, the scale that I intend to use to measure the variable of turnover intention is your single-item scale—that is, "How often have you seriously considered quitting your present job?"

It is an honor and a privilege to share with you my concept paper should you be interested. Prior this request, I informed my dissertation chair and he is helping me in developing and completing this study.

Please contact me if you have any questions regarding my study.

I look forward to hearing from you.
 Most Sincerely,
 Massad Alatawi
alatawi@alawdah.org
 (310)913-3887

APPENDIX G
CONSENT TO PARTICIPATE IN RESEARCH

The Relationship between Transformational Leadership Style and Managerial-Caused Turnover Intention: PIHRA Members and their Subordinates

About My Study

I am studying transformational leadership style and managerial-caused turnover intention in order to determine whether there is a relationship between the afore-mentioned concepts. Your participation is highly appreciated and your objective responses would provide this research with reliable data that will help in finding the most effective managerial style in regard to employee retention.

Why You?

You are being asked to participate in this study because your manager is a member of PIHRA, Professionals In Human Resources Association.

How to Participate?

By clicking on “Agree”, you will be guided to the survey. This questionnaire is anonymous and should take you no more than 10 minutes. In order to prevent the possibility of any participant skewing the results by taking the questionnaire many times, the survey was programmed to allow participants to take it only one time. Therefore, if you decide to take the questionnaire, please don’t click on “Done” unless you have answered all of the questions, otherwise you would not be able to take the questionnaire again. Additionally, please don’t forward this survey.

Potential Risks & Benefits

You may possibly feel a bit of discomfort when responding to certain questions because of eyestrain or dislike of a specific question, but I don’t anticipate any other risks and will take every precaution to ensure that the highest level of confidentiality is maintained. Your response will never be shared with your manager, your organization, or PIHRA. After taking the survey, you can enter into a random drawing for a prize of \$ 250.00 to the lucky winner in a separate survey.

The lucky winner will randomly be selected after collecting the required data. You will be provided with a separate survey in order to inform the researcher of your name, email, and preferred mail address. This will not have any connection with the original survey. After creating the contestant list and selecting the lucky winner, the researcher will award the winner with a check and send it to him/her.

Participation & Your Rights

Your participation is completely voluntary. You may choose to participate in this study or not. If you decide not to participate, there are no costs or penalty to you or any other party. You may withdraw without consequences at any time and for any reason by simply not clicking on “Agree”. You have the right to refuse to answer any question you do not want to and still remain in the study.

Confidentiality

Any data that is obtained in connection with this study will remain confidential. Confidentiality will be maintained by means of non-identifiable responses.

Contact

This study is being conducted by Massad Alatwi, a doctoral student at the University of La Verne, and supported by Dr. Casey Goodall. Massad Alatawi can be reached at (310) 913-3887 or <massad.alatawi@laverne.edu>. Dr. Goodall can be reached at (xxx) xxx-xxxx or <xxx@laverne.ed>

Please do not hesitate to contact either Mr. Alatawi or Dr. Goodall, at any time during the study should you have any questions or concerns.

This research has been reviewed and approved by the University of La Verne Institutional Review Board. If you have questions regarding your rights as a participant, you may contact Marcia L. Godwin, Ph.D., IRB Director, at (909) 593-3511, extension xxx, (xxx@laverne.edu). University of La Verne, Institutional Review Board, 1950 Third Street, CBPM 123, La Verne, CA 91750.

Consent To Participate

By clicking on “Agree”: (1) I am over 18 years old; (2) I understand the procedures described above; (3) I have read this Consent Form; and (4) I am voluntarily participating in this study.

APPENDIX H
QUESTIONNAIRE

Thank you for agreeing to participate in this study.

Directions

Please try your best to answer ALL items in the questionnaire objectively. Answering “all” items will provide the study with strong complete data. Each item has its value when analyzing the data and drawing a conclusion. In case an item is irrelevant, if you are unsure, or do not know the answer, please leave the answer blank. I appreciate your time and effort in completing this questionnaire.

Notes. (1) *Full-time employees* refer to those who work in only one organization and receive monetary compensation, excluding part-time employees, students, volunteers, and those who are on probationary status. (2) *A manager* refers to a PIHRA member to whom you report and who is responsible for your performance.

Part I

1 I work at my current organization as a Full-time employee Part-time employee

Part II (GTL scale)⁴

	Rarely or never	Sometimes	Fairly often	Frequently	Very frequently, if not always
2 My manager communicates a clear positive vision of the future	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
3 My manager treats staff as individuals, supports and encourages their development	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
4 My manager gives encouragement and recognition to staff	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
5 My manager fosters trust, involvement and co-operation among team members	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
6 My manager encourages thinking about problems in new ways and questions assumptions	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
7 My manager is clear about his/her values and practices what he/she preaches	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
8 My manager instills pride and respect in others and inspires me by being highly competent	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Part III (TI scale)⁵

9 How often have you seriously considered quitting your present job?

⁴ From Carless et al. (2000). Reproduced with permission from the authors.

⁵ From Spector (1985). Reproduced with permission from the author.

Part IV (Demographic Questions)

- 10 **Your gender:** Male Female
- 11 **Your age group:** 18 to 29 30 to 39 40 to 49 50 to 59 60 and over
- 12 **Your education level:** Did not graduate high school High school graduate
 Some College College graduate Postgraduate degree

APPENDIX I
LETTER OF INVITATION TO SUBJECTS

Dear Potential Participants,

I am a doctoral student at the University of La Verne conducting a study about the relationship between transformational leadership style and managerial-caused turnover intention.

I am writing this e-mail to invite you to participate in this study by completing a quick online survey. By clicking on the link below, you will find all information that will allow you to make a decision as to whether you would like to participate in this study or not.

[Click here to proceed.](#)

Most Sincerely,
Massad Alatawi, MBA
Doctoral student
University of La Verne
massad.alatawi@laverne.edu
(310) 913-3887

APPENDIX J

REMINDER TO SURVEY PARTICIPANTS

Dear Sir or Madam:

One week ago you received an e-mail including a questionnaire to a study about the relationship between transformational leadership style and managerial-caused intention turnover. If you have already responded to the questionnaire, thank you very much! If not, would you please take a few minutes and complete the questionnaire.

[Click here to complete the questionnaire.](#)

Thank you,
Massad Alatawi, MBA
Doctoral student
University of La Verne
Massad.alatawi@laverne.edu
(310) 913-3887

APPENDIX K
PERMISSION TO USE PIHRA NAME

From: Rafael Rivera <rafael@pihra.org>
Subject: RE: Requesting Permission
Date: September 19, 2012 4:28:52 PM PDT
To: "Massad Alatawi" <alatawi@alawdah.org>

Dear Mr. Alatawi,

You have my permission to use the full association name "Professionals In Human Resources Association" before using the acronym "PIHRA" for your dissertation.

Best regards,

Rafael Rivera, MBA, CMP
 Executive Director
 Professionals In Human Resources Association (PIHRA)
 360 N Sepulveda Blvd Ste 2020
 El Segundo, CA 90245
 +1 (310) 416-1210 ext. 820
 Fax +1 (310) 416-9055
rafael@pihra.org
www.pihra.org

From: Massad Alatawi [mailto:alatawi@alawdah.org]
Sent: Wednesday, September 19, 2012 2:38 PM
To: Rafael Rivera
Subject: Requesting Permission

Dear Mr. Rafael Rivera,

I am writing this email to request your permission to use your association's name (PIHRA) in my study.

I am a doctoral student in organizational leadership at the University of Laverne in California, and am in the process of constructing my dissertation. My study is entitled "*The Relationship between Transformational Leadership and Managerial-Caused Turnover Intention in PIHRA's Organizations.*"

The target audience of my study is employees whose managers are members of PIHRA. The study will be published in scholarly journals and PIHRA will be mentioned in many parts of the study.

If you have any questions, or require additional information, please do not hesitate to contact me.

I look forward to hearing from you.

Warm Regards,

Massad Alatawi, MBA
 Doctoral student
 University of La Verne
alatawi@alawdah.org
 (310) 913-3887

APPENDIX L
PERMISSION REQUEST

Dear PIHRA Member,

I am Massad Alatawi, a doctoral student in organizational leadership at the University of La Verne and in the process of developing my dissertation. My study is entitled "*The Relationship between Transformational Leadership Style and Managerial-Caused Turnover Intention: PIHRA Members and their Subordinates.*"

The intent of this email is to request your permission to invite your subordinates to complete my survey.

The actual survey does not ask for any identifying information, either personally or regarding the organization the participants work for. Please find an attached survey and an attached cover letter that contains information about the study, the benefits and risks of participation, confidentiality, and the contact information. However, participants will have the opportunity to enter a drawing for \$250 as a thank you for participating. If they are interested, they will be directed to a separate link to provide contact information in case they win. I assure you that survey responses will not be matched to the respondents.

Your requested participation is to simply forward three e-mails. The first e-mail to be forwarded includes the cover letter in order to inform the participants of the study and of your membership of PIHRA. The second e-mail to be forwarded would be the actual invitation letter. And the third e-mail would be a simple reminder.

Note. PIHRA members must have at least 7 subordinates in order to participate in this study.

Any data that is obtained in connection with this study will remain confidential. Your organization and your contact information will remain confidential.

Thank you so much for reading this e-mail. I appreciate your time and effort because you are helping me a great deal in distributing my survey.

This study is being conducted by Massad Alatawi, a doctoral student at the University of La Verne, and supported by Dr. Casey Goodall. Massad Alatawi can be reached at (310) 913-3887, <alatawi.alawdah.org>, or <massad.alatawi@laverne.edu>. Dr. Goodall can be reached at (xxx)xxx-xxxx or <xxxx@laverne.edu>

Please do not hesitate to contact either Mr. Alatawi or Dr. Goodall at any time during the study should you have any questions or concerns.

I look forward to hearing from you.
Most Sincerely,
Massad Alatawi, MBA

APPENDIX M

CHAIR'S NOTIFICATION TO PIHRA MEMBERS

Dear PIHRA Member,

I am Dr. Casey Goodall, an Adjunct Professor for the University of La Verne's Doctoral Program in Organizational Leadership, and the dissertation chair for Massad Alatawi, who is completing his work in our doctoral program. He is conducting a study on Turnover Intention, and he needs permission to send a survey to several of your subordinates asking some very simple questions. (Please feel free to review the University of La Vern website to validate that I am a legitimate representative of the Organizational Leadership program at: <http://sites.laverne.edu/organizational-leadership/mai/faculty-and-staff/>).

The purpose of the study is to learn more about the degree to which a Transformational Leadership Style is related to Turnover Intention. A Transformational Leader is one who exhibits a high degree of positive influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and consideration of individuals.

Only a small random sample of PIHRA members has been selected for the study, and a high percentage of returns is necessary for a successful study. So your participation is essential.

The responses from your subordinates will be kept confidential and all reports will include aggregate data from which no reader will be able to identify you or your organization. Likewise, no reader will they be able to associate the responses from your subordinates to you or to your organization. The survey Massad will be asking them to complete, will more than likely, take only a few minutes to complete.

Massad will be waiting for your response. His success is absolutely dependent on your willingness to authorize your subordinates to participate. I earnestly request that you take a few moments of your time to respond to his e-mail. A few moments of your time will mean a tremendous amount to his success. He and I believe the results of the study may be very beneficial in better understanding managerial behaviors that reduce employee turnover.

Dr. Casey J. Goodall
Adjunct Professor
University of La Verne
Doctoral Program in Organizational Leadership

APPENDIX N

FINANCIAL INCENTIVE FOR PERMISSION GRANTED

Dear PIHRA Member,

You may recall that I e-mailed and called you several weeks ago asking if you would agree to grant permission for your subordinates to participate in my dissertation study. My professor, Dr. Goodall, also contacted you by e-mail to assure you that this request is associated with a legitimate academic project and the resulting data will be handled with the utmost confidentiality.

To date, I have not received a response; therefore, I am following up to ask again for your kind consideration and permission to invite your subordinates to complete my survey. My success depends on your willingness to authorize your subordinates to participate. In addition, I am offering you an opportunity to enter a drawing for \$1,000 as a thank you for your permission.

This drawing is an incentive for you to grant participation, but is also an indicator of how important this project is to me and to completion of my educational program.

Your participation would be limited to simply forwarding e-mails to your subordinates.

Note. PIHRA members must have at least 7 subordinates in order to participate in this study.

I look forward to hearing from you, and thank you in advance.

Most Sincerely,
Massad Alatawi, MBA
Doctoral student
University of La Verne
massad.alatawi@laverne.edu
(310) 913-3887

APPENDIX O
COVER LETTER

Dear Potential Participants,

I am a doctoral student at the University of La Verne conducting a study about the relationship between transformational leadership style and managerial-caused turnover intention. I am writing this e-mail to inform you of my study.

You are being asked to participate in this study because your manager is a member of PIHRA (Professionals in Human Resources Association). The questionnaire of this study should take you no more than 10 minutes. Your response will never be shared with your manager, your organization, or PIHRA. By taking the survey, you can enter into a random drawing for a prize of \$ 250.00 to the lucky winner.

You will be provided with a separate survey link at the end of the survey in order to inform the researcher of your name, email, and preferred mail address if you want to enter the draw. This will not have any connection with the original survey. Your participation is completely voluntary.

This study is being conducted by Massad Alatwi, a doctoral student at the University of La Verne, and supported by Dr. Casey Goodall. Massad Alatawi can be reached at (310) 913-3887 or <massad.alatawi@laverne.edu>. Dr. Goodall can be reached at (xxx)xxx-xxxx or <xxxx@laverne.edu>

Please do not hesitate to contact either Mr. Alatawi or Dr. Goodall at any time during the study should you have any questions or concerns.

Thank you so much for reading this e-mail. I appreciate your time and effort and will contact you shortly.

Most Sincerely,
Massad Alatawi, MBA
Doctoral student
University of La Verne

APPENDIX P
IRB APPROVAL



University of La Verne
Institutional Review Board

TO: Massad Alatawi, Doctor of Education Candidate

FROM: University of La Verne, Institutional Review Board

RE: 2012-CEOL-64-Alatawi - The Relationship between Transformational Leadership Style and Managerial-Caused Turnover Intention: PIHRA Members and their Subordinates

The research project, cited above, was reviewed by the College of Education and Organizational IRB Committee. The college review determined that the research activity has minimal risk to human participants, and the application received an Expedited review. The application was approved with the following additional conditions:

- Please add appropriate citations to your survey for the questionnaires being used by permission of the authors.

A copy of this approval letter is required to be included as an appendix to your completed dissertation. The project may proceed to completion, or until the date of expiration of IRB approval, November 21, 2013. Please note the following conditions applied to all IRB submissions:

No new participants may be enrolled beyond the expiration date without IRB approval of an extension.


The IRB expects to receive notification of the completion of this project, or a request for extension within two weeks of the approval expiration date, whichever date comes earlier.

The IRB expects to receive prompt notice of any proposed changes to the protocol, informed consent forms, or participant recruitment materials. No additional participants may be enrolled in the research without approval of the amended items.

The IRB expects to receive prompt notice of any adverse event involving human participants in this research.

There are no further conditions placed on this approval.

The IRB wishes to extend to you its best wishes for a successful research endeavor. If you have any questions, please do not hesitate to contact me.


Approval Signature

Marcia L. Godwin, Ph.D.
IRB Director/Chair

November 21, 2012
Date

For the Protection of Human Participants in Research

mgodwin@laverne.edu
(909) 593-3511, ext. 4103

APPENDIX Q

STEPS FOR OVERCOMING THE LIMITATION OF UNDER- OR OVERREPRESENTATIONS IN ANY GIVEN CLUSTER

Step	Description
First step	Include only the respondents who replied to all items of the GTL and TI scales. That is to say, it did not matter to the final results if a participant had responded to the demographic questions or not. Additionally, it was essential to exclude the respondents who did not reply to all items of the GTL and TI scales. There were a total of 356 respondents from a sample of 356, which led to a 100% response rate to all the items of the aforementioned scales. Thus, 356 respondents were considered when evaluating the data for the following steps.
Second step	Exclude respondents who did not meet the criteria of this study. The criteria of this study involved the following: all participants must (a) report to PIHRA members and (b) work as full-time employees. One hundred percent of the respondents (356 out of 356) reported to PIHRA members. Approximately 92% of the sample worked as full-time employees. Therefore, 326 respondents (92%) met the criteria of this study and were considered when evaluating the data for the next steps.
Pre-third step	<p>With a cluster sample, a typical sample size is 210 with a design of (30 x 7). Since this study did not have 30 clusters, seven units were too few to be used in selecting the data from each cluster. Although seven units from each cluster could have been used in this study (all 14 clusters had seven or more units) and would have enabled this study to achieve the minimum sample size (96 responses), seven was not the ideal number because $14 \times 7 = 98$, which is fewer than the desired 210 responses. Therefore, this study increased the number of units in order to achieve the same statistical precision as with a (30 x 7) design.</p> <p>There were 14 clusters; no cluster had zero respondents and no cluster had more than 32 respondents who met the criteria. Therefore, 1, 2, 3, . . . , 32 units could be selected from most of the 14 clusters. However, in looking at a (14 x 1) design, one unit for each cluster was possible, but it resulted in too small of a sample size. Considering a (14 x 2) design, selecting two units from each cluster was possible, but it also resulted in too small of a sample size. A (14 x 16) design did not work because there were two clusters that did not have 16 units that met the criteria ($N_9 = 15$, $N_{12} = 15$). In addition, a (14 x 32) design, selecting 32 units from each cluster, did not work because only one cluster had 32 units that met the criteria ($N_{13} = 32$). Thus, these numbers (1, 2, 7, 16, and 32) were not the ideal numbers to be used in selecting the data. However, a (14 x 15) design, with 15 units per cluster, was possible and resulted in the optimum sample size of 210.</p>
Third step	Exclude the data that came from clusters that did not have at least 15 respondents, in order to avoid the limitation of having underrepresented clusters. All 14 clusters had at least 15 respondents ($N_i \geq 15$). As stated in the second step, by including only the participants who reported to PIHRA members and worked as full-time employees, there were 326 respondents (92%) who met the criteria of this study. Thus, 326 subjects were considered when evaluating the data for the final step.
Fourth step	Randomly select 15 responses per cluster from the data that met the criteria by using http://random.org in order to avoid the limitation of overrepresented clusters. Selecting 15 units (responses) per cluster from the data that met the criteria (326 respondents) resulted in 15 units for each cluster ($N_1 = 15$; $N_2 = 15$; $N_3 = 15$; . . . ; $N_{14} = 15$). Summing all the units in all the clusters resulted in 210 responses ($[N_1 = 15] + [N_2 = 15] + [N_3 = 15] + \dots + [N_{14} = 15] = 210$ responses). Approximately 64% of the responses that met the criteria (210/326) were used in the analysis.