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Relationship Between Destructive Leadership Behaviors and Employee Turnover

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This is to certify that the doctoral study by

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Abstract

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MA, Centenary College, 2011

BA, Centenary College, 2009

Doctoral Study Submitted in Partial Fulfillment

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Abstract

The loss of 6 million U.S. manufacturing jobs since 2000 has severely affected communities that have lost a vital source of employment. Voluntary employee turnover has compounded the problem. The purpose of this correlational study was to examine the relationship between employee turnover and destructive leadership behaviors of managers in small and medium enterprise (SME) manufacturing businesses in Warren County, New Jersey. The constructive-destructive leadership model formed the theoretical framework for the study. A random sample of 96 SME manufacturing firm employees completed the destructive leadership scale (DLS), multifactor leadership questionnaire (MLQ), and the turnover intention scale (TIS-6) via an online survey. Multiple linear regression analyses and Pearson-product correlation coefficients were used to predict employee turnover. Tyrannical leadership and laissez-faire leadership were the only significant contributors to the regression model. Implications for social change include providing business managers with information needed to maintain or increase employee retention levels, which may improve employee morale, increase job satisfaction, and enhance customer satisfaction in the communities served.

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Section 1: Foundation of the Study

Literature is replete with examples of leaders who act and behave destructively toward followers. Researchers examined the impact of this detrimental form of leadership on an organization and its employees (Einarsen, Aasland, & Skogstad, 2007; Krasikova, Green, & LeBreton, 2013). Although researchers studied the adverse nature of leadership as a concept, few researchers examined the influence of destructive leadership behaviors on employee turnover. Researchers have not examined the relationship between employee turnover and destructive leadership behaviors of managers in small and medium enterprise (SME) manufacturing businesses. This study addressed the relationship between four individual forms of destructive leadership behavior (DLB) and employee turnover.

Background of the Problem

The intent of this correlational study was to examine the relationship between destructive leadership behaviors and employee turnover in SME manufacturing firms in Warren County, New Jersey. The problem for business is, despite interest in managerial performance, the impact of destructive leadership behavior on SME employee turnover remains unknown. I addressed this gap in research using the constructive-destructive leadership model (Aasland, Skogstad, Notelaers, Nielsen, & Einarsen, 2010). Instances of destructive leadership behavior account for 75% of U.S. workers' reasons for leaving a firm (Aasland et al., 2010, p. 438). According to organizational climate researchers, employees reported immediate supervisors as the worst part of their job from the mid-1950s up to 1990 (Hogan, Curphy, & Hogan, 1994). Researchers established that

leadership (Laschinger, 2012; Tummers, Groeneveld, & Lankhaar, 2013), particularly a form of destructive leadership (Palanski, Avey, & Jiraporn, 2014) influenced employee turnover. Researching these detrimental actions may assist in providing a better understanding of whether DLB relates to employee turnover and may assist in attaining a better comprehension of a business problem with far-reaching effects.

Problem Statement

Destructive leadership behaviors cost corporations billions of dollars annually in legal, property, and employee expenses (Thoroughgood, Tate, Sawyer, & Jacobs, 2012). The form most destructive to followers, tyrannical leadership, affects 13.6% of U.S. employees while at the same time costing U.S. corporations more than $23 billion per year (Palanski et al., 2014, p. 139). DLB contribute to counterproductive situations and negatively affect employee performance and motivation (Aydin, Sarier, & Uysal, 2013). The general business problem was executive management often lacks awareness of the negative impact of DLB on employee turnover (Ghosh, Reio, & Bang, 2013). The specific business problem was the lack of understanding of the relationship between destructive leadership behaviors of managers in SME manufacturing businesses and employee turnover.

Purpose Statement

The purpose of this quantitative correlational study was to examine the relationship between destructive leadership behaviors of managers in SME manufacturing businesses, and employee turnover. I used the destructive leadership scale (DLS), multifactor leadership questionnaire (MLQ), and the turnover intention

scale (TIS-6) to evaluate the relationship between the dependent variable (employee turnover) and the independent variables (IVs) of (a) derailed leadership, (b) tyrannical leadership, (c) supportive-disloyal leadership, and (d) laissez-faire leadership. The targeted population consisted of three SME manufacturing firms from Warren County, New Jersey. The implications for positive social change from reducing employee turnover may positively affect the lives of employees by (a) improving morale (Chiller & Crisp, 2012), (b) increasing job satisfaction, and (c) enhancing the fulfillment of customers in the communities served (van der Aa, Bloemer, & Henseler, 2012).

Nature of the Study

I used a quantitative method. Karanja, Zaveri, and Ahmed (2013) stated that quantitative research includes examining a phenomenon using numerical measurements collected while testing a theory involving multiple variables. The quantitative method was appropriate because the study's focus was reporting the strength of the relationship between DLB and employee turnover. Unlike quantitative research, qualitative research does not address the strength of relationships among variables (Froman & Owen, 2014). A mixed-methods study requires measurement of subjective qualitative experiences of a sample (McCusker & Gunaydin, 2015), which was beyond the scope of this study.

I used a correlational design. A correlational design includes measurement of associations among variables to define and support relationships without active intervention (Ingham-Broomfield, 2015). The correlational design was appropriate because the focus was on examining the strength of the relationship between variables

(Withers & Nadarajah, 2013). In experimental designs, manipulation of a cause enables measurement of the subject to determine the effect (Imai, Tingley, & Yamamoto, 2013). In quasi-experimental research, a researcher estimates a causal impact without random assignment (D'Onofrio, Lahey, Turkheimer, & Lichtenstein, 2013). In causal-comparative research, establishing a cause-effect relationship allows comparison of a relationship, but not case manipulation (Reinhart, Haring, Patall, Levin, & Robinson, 2013). The correlational design best aligned with the goal of the study, as it permitted measurement of a model based on recognition of trends and patterns in data (Reinhart et al., 2013).

Research Question

What is the strength of the relationship between destructive leadership behaviors of managers in SME manufacturing businesses, and employee turnover?

Hypotheses

Null hypothesis (H_0): There is no significant relationship between employee turnover and (a) derailed leadership, (b) tyrannical leadership, (c) supportive-disloyal leadership, (d) laissez-faire leadership of managers in SME manufacturing businesses.

Alternative hypothesis (H_1): There is a significant relationship between employee turnover and (a) derailed leadership, (b) tyrannical leadership, (c) supportive-disloyal leadership, (d) laissez-faire leadership of managers in SME manufacturing businesses.

Theoretical Framework

I used the constructive-destructive leadership model (Aasland et al., 2010) as the theoretical framework for the study. Aasland et al. (2010) noted that DLB are detrimental

supervisory actions that undermine legitimate organizational interests. Einarsen et al. (2007) demonstrated that intentional destructive leadership behaviors work against the interests of employees by undermining motivation, comfort, or job satisfaction and subvert organizational interests. The constructive-destructive leadership model includes four separate and distinct variables: (a) derailed leadership, (b) tyrannical leadership, (c) supportive-disloyal leadership, and (d) laissez-faire leadership. The model was the most inclusive form available (Krasikova et al., 2013) and in line with emerging destructive leadership literature employing a leader-centric focus and relationship with employees (May, Wesche, Heinitz, & Kerschreiter, 2014). The model was applicable because it complemented the research in literature and business concerns. Business managers have a direct effect on employee turnover (Frenkel, Sanders, & Bednall, 2012), and each of the four variables may impart a perception of toxicity that results in the choice to depart an organization (Martinko, Sikora, & Harbey, 2012).

Operational Definitions

Derailed leadership: Derailed leadership occurs when a leader displays both antiorganizational and antisubordinate behaviors (Aasland et al., 2010).

Destructive leadership: Destructive leaders neglect or actively work to prevent the accomplishment of company goals (Aasland et al., 2010) through volitional behaviors toward subordinates, the company, or both (Krasikova et al., 2013).

Laissez-faire leadership: Laissez-faire leadership exists when a leader fills a position of supervisory responsibility but relinquishes his or her powers, authority, or accountability (Skogstad et al., 2014a).

Tyrannical leadership: Tyrannical leadership occurs when leaders behave destructively toward subordinates through nonphysical means such as intimidation, belittling, public humiliation, or nonverbal aggression (Ashforth, 1994).

Supportive-disloyal leadership: A prosubordinate and antiorganizational leadership style in which leaders steal organizational resources while motivating and backing his or her followers and their efforts (Aasland et al., 2010).

Assumptions, Limitations, and Delimitations

The assumptions, limitations, and delimitations of a study help define boundaries and areas of concern. This section includes factors that may influence interpretation of the findings. This section also presents impediments to validity and factors beyond my control.

Assumptions

Assumptions are unverified beliefs or statements that a researcher believes are true (Bower & Maxham, 2012). Quantitative researchers rely on assumptions to ensure results demonstrate validity and protect a researcher from misinterpreting the findings (Osborne, 2013). The first assumption was the authors of the respective instruments worded items to allow respondents to construe the definition of specific destructive leadership behaviors correctly and identify examples in their experiences. The second assumption was participants would respond honestly and accurately. The third assumption was respondents would be free of ulterior motives, which may shape responses.

Limitations

Limitations are factors outside of the control of a researcher that limit the generalizability of a study (Simon & Goes, 2013). Study limitations were as follows: (a) identification of variables, (b) time constraints to conduct the study, and (c) results not establishing causation. One limitation was the reliance on variables identified in previous research although different variables may be more relevant now. The research focus potentially created a reluctance to participate, and the topic potentially generated negative emotions for respondents. Participants may have found it difficult to respond without emotion influencing the accuracy of responses.

Delimitations

Delimitations are research boundaries set for a study (Gabriele & Chiaravalloti, 2013). The study addressed a targeted population of SME manufacturing employees in Warren County, New Jersey. The population was large enough to obtain an appropriate sample, but not so large as to become an encumbrance or lessen generalizability. The U.S.-based population and research findings may not be generalizable to an international population. The research boundaries included the hypotheses, the constructive-destructive leadership model, employee turnover, and business leadership literature. The research focus was not to introduce new types of destructive leadership behaviors but to build on the existing body of knowledge.

Significance of the Study

The study may present value to business leaders while contributing to current and future business practice. Beyond the business world, the research findings may affect

social change. A discussion of each component follows in this section.

Value to Business

Two benefits may be an increased comprehension of the relationship between DLB and an employee's decision to remain with the organization. Although there has been research on constructive leadership and employee turnover intentions, there is a lack of information about the DLB (Rodwell, Brunetto, Demir, Shacklock, & Farr-Wharton, 2014) of SME managers and their relationship with employee turnover. Addressing the lack of information and identifying ways to overcome the deficiency in managerial comprehension may help managers handle future destructive leadership situations.

Contribution to Business Practice

Employee turnover costs are a major business concern as turnover can undermine efficiency and productivity (Daghfous, Belkhodja, & Angell, 2013) or affect job knowledge expertise (Maenpaa & Voultilainen, 2012). Employee turnover lowers customer relationship levels and satisfaction and increases the rate of customer turnover (Schwepker & Schultz, 2015). Reducing employee turnover reduces customer turnover and maintains levels of customer service (Boles, Dudley, Onyemah, Rouziès, & Weeks, 2012). When a company retains critical employees, they also retain current customer relationships and profitability (Boles et al., 2012). The findings may present managers and the public with information to understand the relationship between DLB and turnover and with strategies to lower turnover. By positively altering patterns of DLB and turnover, managers may improve employee comfort and reduce work stress (Gallus Walsh, van Driel, Gouge, & Antolic, 2013), which could positively influence an

employee's home life. Managers may use the findings to educate supervisory staff about employee turnover risks and the benefits of diminishing DLB, including increasing employee retention, enhancing job satisfaction, and improving quality of service.

Implications for Social Change

The implications for positive social change from reducing employee turnover include improving employee morale (Chiller & Crisp, 2012), job satisfaction (Lu et al., 2012), and satisfaction of customers in the communities served (van der Aa et al., 2012). At the organizational level, lowering turnover directly increases profitability (Boles et al., 2012). Increased profits allow companies to increase resources devoted to supporting corporate social responsibility (CSR) efforts (Suk Bong, Ullah, & Won Jun, 2014). CSR efforts go beyond simple economic development and include training, education, community volunteering, and consumer protection processes that benefit the public (Klein, 2012). At the community level, profitable firms provide employment, tax revenue, and local purchasing (Boles et al., 2012) that a community may need to remain viable. The market and social community a business operates in are independent yet mutually supportive of a firm's success (e Cunha, Rego, & Vaccaro, 2014). Profitable firms contribute to societal development through outreach programs, salaries, and quality products (Suk Bong et al., 2014). As a company makes a profit, the price of manufactured goods lowers due to maintained efficiency levels that employee turnover would otherwise affect (Eckardt, Skaggs, & Youndt, 2014). Decreases in the cost of produced goods and increases in quality may have a positive influence on public welfare.

Review of the Professional and Academic Literature

The review of professional and academic literature includes the 5-year time frame from 2012 to 2016. The study contains information that may increase manager understanding of four types of destructive leader behaviors by the strength of the relationship between the DLB of SME managers and employee turnover. The literature review includes some older articles, although the emphasis was recent peer-reviewed scholarly research conducted during the past 5 years. To ensure a thorough review, I entered several search words into business and psychology databases: *destructive leadership*, *derailed leadership*, *tyrannical leadership*, *supportive-disloyal leadership*, *laissez-faire leadership*, *employee turnover*, and *toxic leadership*. Conducting key word searches through various databases resulted in 1,000 peer-reviewed, scholarly articles.

The databases included Academic Search Premier, ABI/INFORM Complete, PsychINFO, ProQuest, Emerald Management Journals, SocINDEX, and Business Source Complete, among others. The study includes 329 cited works, of which 294 (89.7%) are peer-reviewed journal articles published within 5 years of expected CAO approval. This number exceeds the minimum of 60 peer-reviewed scholarly articles (see Table 1). The literature review contains 192 cited works, of which 168 (87.5%) are peer-reviewed journal articles published within 5 years of expected CAO approval.

Table 1

Source Material

Source	Outside of 5-year range (2011 and earlier)	Within 5-year range (2012-2016)	Total
Peer-reviewed journal articles	24	296	320
Websites	0	3	3
Dissertations	1	0	1
Books	4	1	5
Total	29	300	329

The following sections focus on (a) derailed leadership, (b) tyrannical leadership, (c) supportive-disloyal leadership, (d) laissez-faire leadership, and employee turnover. The review of professional and academic literature begins with a discussion of the theoretical framework and moves to a discussion of how DLB affects an organization, how turnover affects an organization, and the link between DLB and turnover. The review continues with a discussion of rival theories to DLB, measurement, and sections for each of the four independent variables. The review concludes with a discussion of the dependent variable (employee turnover), other methodologies used to study turnover, and a summary transition section.

Constructive-Destructive Leadership Model

Extant business research indicated notions and explorations of the traits and behaviors that best produce a positive experience. These behaviors included ways to generate beneficial employee work behaviors and performance (Gaiter, 2013) or a

process of reciprocal interaction involving the development of a shared vision for change (Bolton, Brunnermeier, & Veldkamp, 2013). The recurrent trend was effective leaders were capable of fostering cohesive units to generate goal attainment (Ruggieri & Abbate, 2013). Effective leaders also employ a level of leader self-sacrifice for the welfare of the organization (Boone & Makhani, 2012) and enable followers to achieve his or her best (Crossan, Mazutis, Seijts, & Gandz, 2013). Leaders focus efforts on serving the employee, consumer, and community equally (Shaw & Newton, 2014) with a commitment to serve stakeholders before worrying about self-interests (Peterson, Galvin, & Lange, 2012; Zhou & Miao, 2014). Destructive leadership acts in contrast to beneficial behaviors (Thoroughgood, Hunter, & Sawyer, 2011; Thoroughgood et al., 2012). In general, leadership entails setting a direction for a team with an orientation toward undertaking a task (Ellis, 2015). Schyns and Schiling (2013) noted destructive leadership adds a hostile or obstructive influence.

The constructive-destructive leadership model introduced by Aasland et al. (2010) and detailed in Figure 1 includes five leadership constructs and their pro-organizational, antiorganizational, prosubordinate, and/or antisubordinate stance. The model provided the theoretical foundation for the study. Aasland et al. noted that destructive leadership was not an anomaly, and observed that leaders display both constructive and destructive behaviors, indicating that leadership is not entirely constructive or destructive.

Figure 1. A model of destructive leadership behavior (Aasland et al., 2010). Copyright 2009 by British Academy of Management. Reprinted with permission.

Einarsen et al.'s (2007) model of DLB included the components of (a) constructive, (b) derailed, (c) supportive-disloyal, and (d) tyrannical leadership. All four of the forms appear in the Aasland et al. (2010) model with the addition of laissez-faire leadership. Aasland et al. noted laissez-faire leadership undermined the objectives of the organization or the welfare of subordinates while laissez-faire leadership was prosubordinate or pro-organizational. Einarsen et al. (2007) stated that laissez-faire leadership was not destructive due to the passive nature of the style.

The constructive-destructive leadership model includes an organizational requirement to define expectations for leaders regarding legitimate and justified behavior within the organizational culture (Einarsen et al., 2007). Destructive leadership includes systematic and repeated leader behaviors and actions that undermine the interest of the organization (Krasikova et al., 2013). Einarsen et al. (2007) noted that accidental or isolated incidents of DLB did not meet the definition of DLB because they were

nonrecurring. Focusing on repeated and systematic behaviors assumes that leaders may occasionally make wrong choices.

Five forms. Figure 1 indicates leadership takes five distinct forms: (a) supportive-disloyal, (b) derailed, (c) tyrannical, (d) constructive, and (e) laissez-faire. Each form falls along the four quadrants of the model with laissez-faire leadership in the position at the meeting point of the axes. Of the five leadership forms, one is wholly constructive, three are actively destructive, and laissez-faire leadership is passively destructive (Aasland et al., 2010). Aasland et al. (2010) noted that destructive leadership behaviors were not a phenomenon separate from constructive leadership. Instead, Aasland et al. explained that the behaviors are a fundamental component of defining constructive behavior. Constructive leadership occurs when supervisory actions and behaviors coincide with the genuine interests of the company and subordinates (Aasland et al., 2010). Derailed and tyrannical leadership undermines the subordinate while supportive-disloyal leadership benefits the subordinate (Aasland et al., 2010). Einarsen et al. (2007) explained supportive-disloyal, derailed, and tyrannical leadership in their study of DLB; however, Einarsen et al. made no mention of laissez-faire leadership or its destructiveness.

Tyrannical leadership includes humiliating and manipulating actions of leaders toward subordinates (Aasland et al., 2010). Derailed leadership is antiorganizational behavior such as deception, fraud, or theft from the organization and deceiving and bullying behavior toward subordinates (Aasland et al., 2010). Supportive-disloyal leadership occurs when leaders openly support their subordinates although

simultaneously acting against the organization to steal resources or achieve his or her agenda (Aasland et al., 2010). The supportive-disloyal leadership style includes supervisory support (Gray & Muramatsu, 2013) and motivation for employees at the expense of organizational materials, time, and resources (Aasland et al., 2010). Supportive-disloyal leaders provide followers with entitlements beyond allowances leading to employee inefficiency, unethical behavior, or deviance (Einarsen et al., 2007). Laissez-faire leadership involves a leader giving his or her authority away to others or failing to maintain a presence (Skogstad et al., 2014a).

Aasland et al. (2010) employed the constructive-destructive leadership model in a study investigating the relative influence of leadership behaviors on employee job satisfaction. Aasland et al. found that 94% of individuals identified DLB as their reason for leaving a firm. DLB occurred in 83.7% of the 2,539 random Norwegian respondents who returned questionnaires in Aasland et al.'s study.

Destructive forms of leadership are more common in business leadership than any other position (Schyns & Schilling, 2013). The most challenging aspect of DLB is an employee's subjective perception of his or her leader's adverse behaviors (Skogstad et al., 2014a). Not all employees react the same way to a given leader (Peus, Braun, & Frey, 2012). Destructive leadership is a subjective situation, and DLB can arise as a perception of followers, even when a leader did not act with intention to harm others or the organization (Peus et al., 2012; Pundt, 2014). Organizational members seek out values, norms, and expectations set by leaders (Thoroughgood et al., 2011), which destructive leaders may not provide. Followers may perceive a leader as destructive if he or she

exhibits behaviors not aligned with the follower's leadership archetype (Bligh & Kohles, 2012) or if he or she acts hypocritically (Greenbaum, Mawritz, & Piccolo, 2015). Employee perceptions of the trustworthiness and competence of leaders change as they become more familiar with them (Karakowsky, Degama, & Mcbey, 2012). Perceptions may change because leaders do not rely on only one single leadership style (Zydziunaite & Suominen, 2014), and successful leaders change their style based on the people they lead (Hussain & Hassan, 2015). The subjectivity of DLB and the potential for a leader to change his or her style confounds the situation.

Importance. Fedyunina, Kuzmicheva, Lyashenko, and Doborovich (2014) stated business is inherently destructive because individuals engage in competitive business acts seeking success, control, or profit. DLB leads to negative consequences resulting from the confluence of detrimental leaders, an encouraging environment, and susceptible subordinates engaging in business (Padilla, Hogan, & Kaiser, 2007). Most models of DLB place adverse actions and behaviors around any of several distinct aspects of detrimental behavior that include derailed leadership, tyrannical leadership (Einarsen Skogstad, Aasland, & Løseth, 2002), supportive-disloyal leadership (Einarsen et al., 2007), and laissez-faire leadership (Skogstad et al., 2014a).

Varying forms. The shift in leadership literature toward the negative side of leader influence and behavior, as well as the lack of a singular standard definition of DLB, resulted in disjointed comprehension (Eubanks, Brown, & Ybema, 2012; Unal, Warren, & Chen, 2012). The relative newness of the subject, particularly in comparison to positive or constructive leadership, complicates the ability to identify relationships

with organizational outcomes. DLB research progressed through varying names and definitions including toxic leadership (Lipman-Blumen, 2005), health-endangering leaders (Einarsen et al., 2007), toxic triangle (Padilla et al., 2007), derailed leadership (Arnulf & Gottschalk, 2013), and "vulpine leadership" (Marshall, Baden, & Guidi, 2013, p. 563). Other names include flawed leadership (Hogan et al., 1994), Machiavellianism (Zacher, Pearce, Rooney, & McKenna, 2014), counterproductive work behaviors (Shiyong, Qing, Cong, Yuhui, & Kan, 2013), and corporate psychopaths (Boddy, 2014; Holt & Marques, 2012).

Other harmful leadership acts include retaliation, deviance, incivility, antisocial behavior, and general performance reductions (Le Roy, Bastounis, & Minibas-Poussard, 2012). Each type may originate from the researchers' efforts to examine and explore destructive leadership behaviors without realization they were studying the same phenomenon but in different circumstances. There remains no single understanding of destructive leadership behaviors, especially from a psychological rather than business perspective. I presented only the four forms of destructive leadership identified in the constructive-destructive leadership model.

DLB Affects an Organization and Employees

Sixty to 75% of employees reported an immediate supervisor was the worst aspect of his or her job (Aasland, Skogstad, Notelaers, Nielsen, & Einarsen, 2010, p. 438). The negative perceptions created annual losses of $23.8 billion through workplace withdrawal, lost productivity, and health care costs realized by firms (Tepper, Moss, & Duffy, 2011, p. 279). Negative leadership, such as destructive leader behavior, violates

the genuine interest of the organization and the subordinate (Peus et al., 2012). As an example, abusive supervision befits the definition of an antisubordinate, tyrannical leader and affects 13.6 % of U.S. employees while at the same time costing U.S. corporations more than $23 billion per year (Tepper, 2007 as cited in Palanski et al., 2014). Abusive supervision, as a tenet of DLB, has negative consequences for the comfort, behavior, and attitude of employees (Decoster, Camps, Stouten, Vandevyvere, & Tripp, 2013).

Derailed and tyrannical leadership behaviors represent an element of the business literature focused on bullying (Zabrodska & Kyeton, 2013). In a study of radiation therapists, Johnson and Trad (2014) found 37% of Americans experienced bullying at work while 28.8% of respondents reported supervisors bullied them in the past 12 months (Zabrodska & Kyeton, 2013). In other studies, 21.3% of graduate school students reported bullying from a supervisor (Yamada, Cappadocia, & Pepler, 2014), 70% of the 451 respondents in Van Fleet and Van Fleet (2012) noted bullying. Similarly, 82% of nurses in Ekici and Beder's (2014) study and 73.3% in Zabrodska and Kveton's study of university employees identified supervisory bullying. Over 70% of targets of workplace bullying become unemployed either by losing their jobs or by voluntarily leaving (MacIntosh, 2012). Bullying leaders possess limited awareness of their impact on others (Wasylyshyn, Shorey, & Chaffin, 2012), and their actions contribute to quitting intention (Trépanier, Fernet, & Austin, 2015). This form of destructive behavior erodes the social climate of organizations (Hutchinson & Hurley, 2013), affects employee welfare (Onorato, 2013), and negatively affects work quality (Sedivy-Benton, Strohschen, Cavazos, & Boden-McGill, 2015). While this research does not address supervisory

bullying by name, employees may perceive bullying behaviors as a component of derailed or tyrannical leadership.

A limited number of business researchers pointed to a positive aspect of DLB. Although an autocratic or destructive leadership style may impart detrimental effects on a firm, in times of crisis, the style increases employee support for their leader (Hogg & Adelman, 2013). In a study of 215 employees, Rast, Hogg, and Giessner (2013) noted that less self-certain individuals were supportive of autocratic, rather than nonautocratic leaders. Rast et al. (2013) identified in the uncertainty-identity theory a leader with an autocratic leadership style could garner support in times of a crisis as employees sought someone to stand behind.

When managers act ethically toward their followers, they influence job satisfaction (Valentine, Fleischman, & Godkin, 2015; Yang, 2014), and engender employees to exhibit helping behaviors (Xiaojun, 2014). Ethical managers create moral climates (Lu & Lin, 2014), increase the occupational welfare of followers (Li, Xu, Tu, & Lu, 2014), and enhance employee wellbeing (Frisch & Huppenbauer, 2014). Unethical leadership styles, such as the derailed or supportive-disloyal leadership, impair a manager's ability to be supportive of others (Wasylyshyn et al., 2012) or to inspire others beyond self-interests (Suk Bong et al., 2015). On the contrary, unethical, destructive leaders may diminish the competitive edge an organization needs to remain viable.

Turnover Affects an Organization

Turnover is detrimental to organizations with costs including organizational performance decreases (Mohr, Young, & Burgess, 2012), organizational forgetting and

knowledge depreciation (López & Sune, 2013), and overall performance decreases (Tae-Youn & Shaw, 2013; Yongbeom, 2013). When managers understand turnover, they can better retain employees and improve their organization's bottom line (Dike, 2012). Turnover costs include recruitment, selection, and hiring of employees (Boyar, Valk, Maertz, & Sinha, 2012). The turnover costs for hourly employees are approximately 200% of their annual salary (Wilson, 2012). Diminishing turnover enhances performance (Park & Shaw, 2013), commitment (Poon, 2012), and retains current customer relationships and profitability (Boles et al., 2012). Any of these areas may enhance or sustain the advantage an organization needs to remain competitive.

Not all employee turnover is necessarily negative (Vardaman, Allen, Taylor, & Gondo, 2012). Turnover can reinvigorate an organization through new ideas and skills (Fibuch & Ahmed, 2015) or replacement of poor performers (Vardaman et al., 2012). Some turnover may be desirable for the effectiveness of an organization as it removes employees with decreased organizational commitment (Wallace & Gaylor, 2012). Many of the costs associated with turnover rely on the employee permanently departing, although the employee can return with new knowledge or a greater sense of loyalty (Shipp, Furst-Holloway, Harris, & Rosen, 2014).

Turnover increases employee workloads (Webb & Carpenter, 2012), diminishes morale (Chiller & Crisp, 2012), and generates hefty business costs related to recruiting, training, and lost tacit knowledge (Kammeyer-Mueller, Wanberg, Rubenstein, & Zhaoli, 2013). Specifically, business managers face costs from the possible transfer of knowledge to competitors, and a disruption of communication (Kammeyer-Mueller et al., 2013). The

emphasis given to performance and productivity of business makes retention, especially regarding employees quitting his or her present employer, a major concern for human resource managers and a focal point for cost savings and productivity increases (Kim, 2012). The retention of employees directly contributes to the competitive advantage of a company, as human resources are a requisite internal asset (Patel & Conklin, 2012). The detrimental influence of turnover on an organization is a concern for business managers at any level.

Link Between DLB and Turnover

Of the predictors and antecedents, leadership stands apart as a direct cause of employee turnover (Ghosh et al., 2013). Employee turnover intention directly relates to a leader's leadership style (Bycio, Hackett, & Allen, 1995). When employees indicated supervisors displayed abusive behaviors they identified being less satisfied with their jobs, leading to higher turnover intentions (Palanski et al., 2014). Tummers et al. (2013) identified leadership and work pressure were the greatest antecedents of turnover in nursing employees while Laschinger (2012) found managers influenced employee turnover more than coworkers.

Economic conditions play a large role in an employee's inclination to turnover at the macrolevel (Nyberg & Ployhart, 2013); however, job dissatisfaction is the most frequently acknowledged individual level antecedent (Yucel, 2012). Effective leaders can influence people to a shared goal as supervisors possess the greatest level of influence over employees (Drennan & Richey, 2012). To an employee, his or her supervisor is the company (Drennan & Richey, 2012) as dissatisfaction with a supervisor develops into

discontent with the company. Reflecting positive leadership onto employees, employing sensitivity to their needs and feelings helps induce followers to follow the strategic and organizational goals of a company (Zehir, Müceldili, Altindağ, Şehitoğlu, & Zehir, 2104). Stronger, supportive leadership styles generate less stress on employees (Gallus et al., 2013; Stare, Pezdir, & Boštjančič, 2013) and increase job satisfaction (Mawritz, Mayer, Hoobler, Wayne, & Marinova, 2012). Kammeyer-Mueller et al. (2013) found an association between managers failing to support or outright preventing their subordinates from accomplishing tasks and higher levels of turnover.

Organizational commitment is the loyalty, sense of identification, and level of contribution an employee holds toward their firm (Yucel, 2012). In simplest terms, organizational commitment is the degree an employee is willing to remain with their company. Organizational commitment is the strongest predictor of turnover intention (Galletta, Portoghese, Battistelli, & Leiter, 2013; Shields, Scott, Bishop, & Goelzer, 2012). Leadership styles have both a direct and indirect effect on the organizational commitment of employees (Sušanj & Jakopec, 2012). When employees perceived an unfair outcome from their supervisor, their commitment dropped and turned into turnover cognitions (Poon, 2012). Antisubordinate forms of DLB reduce organizational commitment (Gallus et al., 2013), although passive styles such as laissez-faire leadership do not (Lambert, Cluse-Tolar, Pasupuleti, Prior, & Allen 2012). Positive leadership styles, like ethical leadership, engender commitment (Neubert, Wu, & Roberts, 2013; Neves & Story, 2015), and reduce turnover intention (Schaubroeck et al., 2012).

Although reasons for turnover are diverse, Agrusa and Lema (2007) found more

individuals departed their organization because of issues with their supervisor than any other reason. Workplace conflicts created by DLB make employees less happy, unable to focus on work, and create a stressful environment with high turnover (Sakuri & Jex, 2012). Destructive leadership lowers the quality of the relationship between an individual and their supervisor and produces an intention to leave a firm (Kim, Lee, & Lee, 2013). In a study of organizational support, Wright, Kim, Wilk, and Thomas (2012) identified employees were 26% less likely to report intent to leave when they felt they had the support of their organization. Kangas (2013) found similar results in his study of high quality work relationships between a leader and a subordinate. Although several connections between constructive and destructive leadership to turnover exist, business researchers have yet to examine the strength of the relationship between the four forms of DLB found in the constructive-destructive leadership model and employee turnover.

Rival Theories of Destructive Leadership Behaviors

There are several opposing theories explaining why leaders adhere to DLB while others do not. Through an extensive review of extant literature, the full range leadership development model, destructive leadership model, destructive managerial leadership model, and toxic triangle model stood out. A brief overview of each model will assist future researchers in attaining a well-rounded understanding of DLB.

Full range leadership development model. Bass and Avolio (2004) introduced the full range leadership development model to identify and establish which individual actions were effective as a leader. The authors defined laissez-faire, transactional, and transformational leadership in their model (Bass & Avolio, 2004). Incorporated into the

three styles are seven leadership elements: (a) laissez-faire (LF), (b) management by exception (MBE), (c) contingent reward (CR), (d) individual consideration (IC), (e) inspirational motivation (IM), (f) idealized influence (II), and (g) intellectual stimulation (IS). Bass and Avolio (2004) graded each of the seven elements regarding their active, passive, effective, and ineffective qualities.

Bass and Avolio (2004) integrated the complementary styles of transformational and transactional leadership around the common basis of the achievement of goals. The full range leadership model's basic principle is that subordinates perform better when leaders establish patterns of transformational leadership. Laissez-faire leadership is the least effective form of leadership (Bass & Avolio, 2004). Leaders display each style to some degree, but leaders establishing patterns of transactional leadership provide limited potential to their followers, although the style is requisite to building stronger transformational leaders.

The main strength of the model is that Bass and Avolio (2004) established the model in business literature, and business researchers widely use its instrument, the multifactor leadership questionnaire (Oberfield, 2014). For example, Moynihan, Pandey, and Wright (2012) used the model to show a positive association with the goal clarity and organizational development culture of public employees. Vigoda-Gadot and Beeri (2012) found transformational leadership associated with high levels of follower public service motivation. Wright, Moynihan, and Pandey (2012) deemed the full range leadership development model the best-articulated model of leadership available.

The primary limitation of the model originates with the disproportionate emphasis on positive aspects of transformational leadership at the expense of transactional leadership (Verlage, Rowold, & Schilling, 2012). The model may lack important leadership factors that may lead to the identification of additional unconsidered factors that would boost the effectiveness of the transactional form (Verlage et al., 2012). Despite the many strengths and limited weaknesses of the model, I did not choose it as the model only identifies one single aspect of DLB, laissez-faire leadership, without the inclusion of other intentionally destructive forms.

Destructive leadership model. Although Aasland et al.'s (2010) model forms the theoretical foundation for research; it was not the first. Einarsen et al. (2007) researched destructive leadership and formulated the model that Aasland et al. (2010) later based their model on. In Einarsen et al.'s destructive leadership model, the authors defined DLB as inclusive of detrimental behaviors and actions without the need for intent. As explained, DLB focuses on the outcome of leader behavior, rather than intention. Destructive leadership, therefore, includes behaviors of leaders where they did not intend to produce harm to subordinates or the organization, but through insensitivity, competence, or undermining actions generated harm (Einarsen et al., 2007). Einarsen et al. stated DLB need to violate organizational interests, thereby leaving laissez-faire leadership out of their model. In their study, the authors did not measure DLB, but instead proposed a definition and descriptive model of DLB.

The destructive leadership model focuses on the two dimensions of the organization and the subordinate regarding being beneficial or detrimental. Einarsen et al.

(2007) stated antiorganizational behaviors violate the interest of the organization due to their detrimental effect on the comfort, commitment, or job satisfaction of employees. Prosubordinate behaviors, instead, nurture these aspects and encompass leader behaviors that support followers through praise, listening, and caregiving actions (Einarsen et al., 2007). Antiorganizational behaviors outright violate the legitimate organizational interests through a leader's stealing, sabotaging actions, or attempts to achieve goals opposite to the firm's (Einarsen et al., 2007). Pro-organizational behaviors feature acts that work toward achieving an organization's goals and providing the direction and guidance needed to implement organizational change (Einarsen et al., 2007). Leaders in the destructive leadership model, and the later Aasland et al. (2010) model are either constructive or destructive in the subordinate dimension and either constructive or destructive in the organizational dimension. DLB affects the two dimensions in varying manners.

Destructive managerial leadership model. Nyberg et al. (2011) developed a concept of DLB termed destructive managerial leadership (DML). Although DML relies on the definition of destructive leadership behavior developed by Aasland et al. (2007), it incorporates three different indices of DLB. The indices include autocratic, malevolent, and self-centered detrimental leadership. In their quantitative study, Nyberg et al. employed items adapted from the Global Leadership and Organizational Behavior Effectiveness (GLOBE) questionnaire. The authors employed the GLOBE to measure perceived levels of destructive managerial leadership reported by 554 hotel employees and their relationship to psychological wellbeing among employees through correlation.

Nyberg et al. found a significant association between DML at the organizational level and the psychological wellbeing of employees.

The DML differs from that of the destructive leadership model in having only three forms of leadership with the lack of a passive form. Although the autocratic and malevolent factors of the DML are similar to the tyrannical and derailed factors of DLB, the other factor differs greatly. The self-centered factor of the DML entails the selfish, loner, and asocial actions of a leader that border on laissez-faire leadership but entail an active effort (Nyberg et al., 2011). Although similar to the destructive leadership model and destructive-constructive leadership model, Nyberg et al. designed DML as a psychological measurement of perceptions of leadership from a collective group of employees. The strengths of the model lie in its divergent, yet similar, conceptualization of DLB. The weaknesses of the model lie in its reliance on the Aasland et al. definition of DLB and a lack of a passive leadership form.

Toxic triangle model. The toxic triangle model forwarded by Padilla et al. (2007) implies leaders alone are not the sole catalyst for destructive leadership. The authors defined destructive leadership along the lines of the leaders, followers, and environmental contexts that connect actions to an organization. Each of the three contributes to introduce, sustain, or diminish destructive leadership.

Destructive leaders. Destructive leaders are at the top of the toxic triangle symbolizing their importance to the model (Padilla et al., 2007). Destructive leaders possess broad characteristics to include charisma, power, negative life themes, and an ideology of hate (Padilla et al., 2007). Accompanying destructive leaders are susceptible

followers and conducive environments and their positions below destructive leaders in the model illustrate their ability to support a destructive leader (Padilla et al., 2007).

Susceptible followers. Susceptible followers fall into the category of colluders and conformers (Padilla et al., 2007). Followers possess an unwillingness to go against destructive leaders, as they require security, membership within a group, and predictability (Lipman-Blumen, 2005). Rather than act against destructive leaders, some followers conform or collude with them to support their efforts (Lipman-Blumen, 2005). Conformers are passive followers who fear the leader while colluders support the leader for personal gain (Padilla et al., 2007). Thoroughgood et al. (2012) added the conformer category included bystanders while the colluder category included opportunists. The destructive leader becomes successful at their purpose and detrimental to the organization when they attain the support of susceptible followers (Padilla et al., 2007).

Conducive environments. Conducive environments are the final supporting element for destructive leaders. Like susceptible followers, a destructive leader needs a conducive environment to exist. Conducive environments provide the unstable atmosphere needed to generate fear, lack of accountability, and dysfunction in an employee (Padilla et al., 2007). To occur, one or more of the four environmental factors of instability, diminished cultural values, a lack of checks and balances, or a perceived threat must exist (Padilla et al., 2007). A weak organizational culture or one that condones DLB enables a leader to engage in destructive leadership at their discretion (Krasikova et al., 2013; Padilla et al., 2007).

Differences, strengths, and limitations. The toxic triangle model's key difference

is also its strength. Unlike the constructive-destructive leadership model (Aasland et al., 2010), the leader does not act alone but instead has support from the forces and environments surrounding them (Padilla et al., 2007). Thoroughgood et al. (2012) informed employee perception, and reaction to destructive leaders depended on the three factors of the toxic triangle. Padilla et al. (2007) noted focusing on a leader alone may miss the larger picture, but Thoroughgood et al. added there was a lack of clarity about what degree the supporting factors shaped employee perceptions or reactions.

Destructive leaders do not exist in a vacuum, but there may be situations where susceptible followers or conducive environments do not exist, yet a leader remains destructive. The researchers did not focus on the possibility of this situation, nor did they identify differences in the destructive leadership styles that may exist (Padilla et al., 2007). Organizational culture, instability, and individual employee tendencies, for example, may fluctuate making measuring susceptibility and conduciveness of an environment subjective. I did not select this model as the theoretical framework as it does not delineate destructive leadership styles but instead addresses the detection and remedy of destructive leadership within an organization.

Measurement

The following section reviews measurement instruments available for the independent and dependent variables available, but not selected. A discussion of the various instruments helps substantiate selection of the appropriate instruments for the theoretical variables. The section includes a discussion of the validity and reliability

properties of the various instruments and the populations in which authors employed them.

Measurement of destructive leadership behaviors. Although I chose the destructive leadership scale (Einarsen et al., 2002), consideration extended to several other scales. Although scales designed specifically to measure destructive leadership behaviors are scarce, the toxic leadership scale (TLS) (Schmidt, 2008) most closely measures the same independent variables constituting DLB. Schmidt developed the TLS to measure abusive supervision (a = 0.93), narcissism (a = 0.88), authoritarian leadership (a = 0.89), self-promotion (a = 0.91), and unpredictability of leaders (a = 0.92). Using qualitative focus groups to develop preliminary items and quantitative research to test and validate the final scale, Schmidt (2008) finalized his five-dimension model of toxic leadership and measured employee satisfaction and turnover intentions. Schmidt collected data from 218 U.S. military personnel subjected to potential toxic leadership and used a multiple regression design. The 15 items measure five different dimensions than that of the theoretical framework and have a psychological focus. Schmidt identified high reliability as demonstrated in the listed Cronbach's alpha scores and established an average convergent correlation of 0.75 (z = 1.003) and average discriminant validity of -.61.

Other means to measure DLB include the petty tyranny scale (Ashforth, 1994) and the global leadership and organizational behavior effectiveness (GLOBE) questionnaire developed by Nyberg et al. (2011). The GLOBE measures a five-factor

model of DLB termed destructive managerial leadership. None of the named instruments adequately measures all of the variables of the Aasland et al. (2010) model of DLB.

Measurement of employee turnover. Turnover intention is an employee's deliberate and conscious desire to depart their present employer (Bouckenooghe, Raja, & Butt, 2013). Turnover intention is the final stage of an employee's cognitive withdrawal process (Tuzun & Kalemci, 2012) and consists of thinking, searching, and acting on the intention (Auerbach, Schudrich, Lawrence, Claiborne, & McGowan, 2014). Turnover intention is the strongest predictor of actual employee turnover (Leisanyane & Khaola, 2013). Although turnover intention does not always result in voluntary turnover, it is the strongest indicator and predictor of actual employee turnover (Wang & Ma, 2013). Harrison, Newman, and Roth (2006) observed through meta-analysis that turnover intention more reliably predicted quitting than actual quitting predicted an individual's intention to do so. Researchers found turnover intention easier to measure than actual turnover (Dwivedi, 2015) and easily scaled to measure with anonymity (Bothma & Roodt, 2013). Measuring turnover intention also acts as a substitute for actual turnover due to the trouble inherent in attaining data from employees once they have already departed an organization (Bluedorn, 1982).

Several scales exist to measure employee turnover using turnover intention. Three stand out from the rest regarding prevalence in the relevant business literature. The anticipated turnover scale (ATS) developed by Hinshaw and Atwood (1984) to study the level of turnover intention in Arizona based nursing staff entails a 12-item Likert-type scale with seven self-response items. The instrument features a high reliability ($a = 0.84$).

Walsh, Ashford, and Hill (1985) developed the job turnover intention scale (JTIS), which sought to lessen the number of items used to measure turnover intention in 100 pharmaceutical sales representative employees. Using five Likert-style scaled items, the JTIS items asked respondents to consider the likelihood they would depart their current employer. The scale features a high coefficient of reliability (a = 0.90), much like the ATS. The final scale, the intent to quit-index (ITQ) (Bluedorn, 1982), uses eight Likert-style scaled items to measure turnover intention. Bluedorn created the scale to identify the level of turnover that would occur over a given period. Bluedorn (1982) identified the Cronbach's alpha as spanning from 0.87 to 0.95.

Unlike the described scales, the TIS-6 (Bothma & Roodt, 2013) measures turnover intention as a proxy for actual turnover. Using a shortened six-item Likert-style scale and a Cronbach's alpha of a = 0.80, the TIS-6 is comparable to the other described scales and developed from two prior forms that employed 15 and 13 items, respectively. I chose the TIS-6 over the other scales as Bothma and Roodt identified the scale validly and reliably measures turnover intention, and their study confirmed the differential validity of the TIS-6 and its use as a proxy for actual employee turnover.

Derailed Leadership

Derailed leadership encompasses leader actions to the detriment of both the organization and subordinates (Aasland et al., 2010; Einarsen et al., 2007). Although available research literature on derailed leadership is minimal, much exists for each of the component behaviors. The associated behaviors include fraud, theft, and more importantly, the antisubordinate acts of bullying, supervisory undermining, and deception

(Aasland et al., 2010). Each of these actions negatively affects employees.

Marshall et al. (2013) advised the destructiveness of derailed leaders arose from the use of authoritarian or paternalistic means with opportune conditions. As explained, the styles of leading act to deceive and subdue followers, rather than empower them. Opportune conditions allow leaders to operate, and leader deception serves to conceal the often-deteriorating situations from external view. When a transformational or transactional leadership style existed in a workplace, instances of supervisory bullying lowered while a more authoritarian leadership style increased the instance rate (Ertureten, Cemalcilar, & Aycan, 2013). Downward mobbing behaviors associated significantly with lowered job satisfaction, continuous commitment, and most importantly, higher turnover in employees (Ertureten et al., 2013).

Trompeter, Carpenter, Desai, Jones, and Riley Jr. (2013) forwarded a model of business fraud, like that committed by a derailed leader, shaped like a triangle with pressure, opportunity, and rationalization forming its sides. Looking at fraud from this perspective, one could identify a derailed leader, committing fraud at work, would need to satisfy all three components through their pressure or incentive, ability or opportunity, or attitude or rationalization for the act. Corporate scandals, the extreme of corporate fraud, arise as an intertwining of the strategic decision-making choices of business leaders and imbalanced corporate strategies (Zona, Minoja, & Coda, 2013). Zona et al. (2013) added organizational conduct, the ethical and legal behavior of employees in an organization, changed due to the effect of a corporate leader's narcissistic traits, lack of moral values, or detrimental aspirations. As firms enhance their ethical climate they, in

turn, reduce detrimental behaviors and enhance the work of employees (Zona et al., 2013). The underpinning themes behind corporate scandals are increasing stakeholder pressure to maximize profitability, and societal pressure creates a conundrum where business leaders must decide between meeting bottom lines and satiating ethical needs (Drover, Franczak, & Beltramini, 2012).

On the antisubordinate side, derailed leadership includes workplace bullying, physical intimidation, assigning unmanageable workloads, and ostracism (Gamian-Wilk, 2013). These behaviors bring down the affective levels employees held toward their company and increased levels of employee turnover intentions (Kammeyer-Mueller et al., 2013). Whether antisubordinate or antiorganizational, derailed leaders form the antithesis of constructive leadership. The form belies the positive aspects and attributions expected of a business leader.

Tyrannical Leadership

Ashforth (1994) defined tyrannical leadership as a tendency to flaunt power over their followers through humiliating and manipulating actions. Leader tyranny entails a situation where a leader uses their authority in an oppressive, capricious, or vindictive manner (Ashforth, 1994). Ashforth identified the style included negative behaviors such as belittling, lack of consideration, arbitrariness, noncontingent punishment, and discouragement of employee initiative. Tyrannical leaders undermine subordinate motivation, affect wellbeing, and diminish job satisfaction (Aasland et al., 2010).

Although tyrannical leaders harm followers, they may not necessarily harm their organization (Einarsen et al., 2007). According to the constructive-destructive leadership

model, tyrannical leadership is pro-organizational, but antisubordinate (Einarsen et al., 2002; Einarsen et al., 2007). Tyrannical leaders may adequately meet his or her responsibilities to the firm, but may achieve them at the cost or detriment of followers. The most common displays of tyrannical leadership are nonphysical acts where a leader publically ridicules, scapegoats, or takes credit for the work of followers (Tepper, 2007). By humiliating, manipulating, or belittling followers, tyrannical leaders accomplish a task through aggressive behaviors.

Although limited literature on tyrannical leadership is available, the associated concept of abusive supervision is abundant. Abusive supervision is a subordinates' perception of sustained hostility inclusive of verbal, nonverbal, and nonphysical actions of a leader (Pundt, 2014). These actions include ridicule, scapegoating, discrimination (Volpone & Avery, 2013), and personal attacks (Rodwell et al., 2014). Palanski et al. (2014) noted a correlation between abusive supervision and follower job satisfaction (r = -.33); they also identified a correlation between employee job satisfaction and intentions to quit (r = -.65). Skogstad et al. (2014a) noted tyrannical leadership predicted a decrease in subordinate job satisfaction over a 6-month period.Abusive supervision can occur laterally, employee-to-employee, although the current trend in empirical research suggests downward victimization, where a supervisor acts against a subordinate, is most prevalent (Tepper, 2007).

The effects of tyrannical leadership are varied. Boyatzis (2014) found when leaders engaged in discordant behaviors, such as constant reminders, they activated portions of their employees' brains that generated a desire to avoid the leader. Both

personally experienced abusive supervision and vicarious experiences have a negative impact on desired work outcomes (Harris, Harvey, Harris, & Cast, 2013). Employees expect respectful and considerate treatment by their managers (Harris et al., 2013). When followers receive it, they work hard and treat coworkers with respect and consideration. Followers subjected to humiliation experience feelings overlapping anger and shame (Leidner, Sheikh, & Ginges, 2012). When leaders publicly ridicule or humiliate followers, Leidner et al. (2012) found the followers felt high levels of outrage and powerlessness. Abusive supervision brings about higher employee frustration levels and lower perceptions of organizational support (Harris et al., 2013). Most importantly, the antisubordinate aspects of tyrannical leadership affected the organizational commitment and turnover intention of salespeople in a study by Schwepker and Schultz (2015).

Similar to Tepper's (2000) description of petty tyranny, Zhang, Kwan, Zhang, and Wu (2014) identified abusive supervision sometimes generated favorable results. Zhang et al. informed abusive supervision created the urge to introduce additional effort and motivation to remedy the situation. Although this instance may be the exception, additional effort and motivation may introduce a reason as to why some organizations or employees fail to identify an issue with lower levels of abusive supervision.

Much of the literature about the antisubordinate aspect of tyrannical leadership would also pertain to the antisubordinate aspect of derailed leadership. As such, there is some redundancy and overlap between the two styles. The negative antisubordinate effects of one style may also apply to the other.

Supportive-Disloyal Leadership

The supportive-disloyal leadership style entails organizational undermining of efforts by leaders who remain supportive of followers, but place a strain on the organization (Nahum-Shani, Lim, Henderson, & Vinokur, 2014). The supportive–disloyal leadership style consists of prosubordinate behaviors combined with antiorganizational behaviors (Aasland et al., 2010). Supportive-disloyal leaders motivate and support subordinates while simultaneously stealing resources, such as materials, money, or time, from the organization. In a study, 60% of participants identified their supervisor occasionally employed a supportive-disloyal style, while 45% noted a relatively high level of being both supportive of followers and undermining of the organization (Nahum-Shani et al., 2014) denoting the comparative spread of the style.

Einarsen et al. (2007) provided the most well-rounded definition of the concept. In their definition, Einarsen et al. informed supportive-disloyal leaders provided employees with more than they were entitled to at an organization's expense. Supportive-disloyal leaders gain employee trust by demonstrating they valued their follower's contributions (Paustian-Underdahl et al., 2013). Supportive-disloyal leaders encourage low levels of work ethics, misconduct, and engendered inefficiency (Aasland et al., 2010). These leaders possess a propensity to engage in unethical behaviors, such as organizational undermining, stealing resources, or embezzlement (Einarsen et al., 2007). Supportive-disloyal leaders may breed disregard for ethics into their followers through the example they set and the choices they make. These leaders may feel they are working toward the betterment of followers, but violate the legitimate interests of the organization.

Supportive-disloyal leaders do not necessarily demonstrate harmful behaviors all the time; instead, they possess positive aspects that led them to the attainment of their position (Aasland et al., 2010; Lipman-Blumen, 2005). With this leadership style, the positive aspects are readily apparent, as they are approachable, friendly, and in possession of effective communication skills (Paustian-Underdahl et al., 2013). The trust they garner is a critical variable toward facilitating the relationship concerning challenging sales goals and enhanced sales performance (Crossley, Cooper, & Wernsing, 2013). Employees may find difficulty in identifying supportive-disloyal leaders as detrimental due to the positive benefits and support received and the exceptional performance obtained from followers (Dussault, Frenette, & Fernet, 2013). Simply put, subordinates may like these leaders, despite their inherent destructiveness to the organization.

Laissez-Faire Leadership

Bass and Avolio (2004) forwarded a model wherein leaders aligned in three categories: transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire. The three categories form a continuum where transformational leadership is the most active and constructive, transactional leadership is the neutral point, and laissez-faire leadership is the most passive and ineffective. Laissez-faire leaders are avoidant and perceived by followers as insincere or untrustworthy (Lutz Allen, Smith, & da Silva, 2013). Their actions miss the opportunity to create the climate needed for followers to develop while failing to guide, direct, or support followers (Lutz Allen et al., 2013).

Laissez-faire leadership assumes an absence of a transaction, in which a leader

abdicates responsibility, does not use authority, and avoids making decisions (Courtright, Colbert, & Daejeong, 2014; Sušanj & Jakopec, 2012). Laissez-faire leadership equates to nonleadership due to its lack of influence and passive format (Skogstad et al., 2014a). Although laissez-faire leadership, as an avoidant form, may appear passive or harmless on the surface, underneath is a series of repeated harmful behaviors (Jackson, Hutchinson, Peters, Luck, & Saltman, 2013).

Laissez-faire leadership entails three leader response types. According to Jackson et al. (2013), the style entails (a) placating avoidance, which involves leaders failing to take action for employee concerns, (b) equivocal avoidance where leaders provided ambivalent responses, and (c) hostile avoidance where leaders fail to take action. Negative consequences may arise even without a leader intending to cause harm (Peus et al., 2012). Laissez-faire leadership may instill many negative effects, such as actively inhibiting employees from learning from his or her mistakes (Yan, Bligh, & Kohles, 2014) and negatively predicts innovative work behavior (Khan, Aslam, & Riaz, 2012). It also increases victimization from workplace bullying behavior (Nielsen, 2013), negatively influences the psychological health and wellbeing of subordinates (Zineldin & Hytter, 2012), and affects the satisfaction, performance, and motivation of followers (Aydin et al., 2013).

Constructive leaders create stimulating environments to encourage collective efforts (Stincelli & Baghurst, 2014) and disseminate a vision of the future and introduce the values needed to get there, so followers understand the purpose of their efforts (Carton, Murphy, & Clark, 2014). Laissez-faire leaders fail to undertake these efforts and

fail to inspire or motivate their followers. Inspiring and motivating others is the most frequently selected leadership competency for 125 leaders from Fortune 500 companies (Zenger & Folkman, 2013). Khan et al. (2012) added laissez-faire leaders delayed taking action or making decisions, failed to act attentively, and ignored general leadership responsibilities. In contrast to passive-avoidant behaviors, proactive behaviors have positive consequences for individuals and organizations (Zacher & Bal, 2012). Laissez-faire leadership behaviors are difficult to assess, however, because employees do not value them as much as transformational or transactional leaders (Dussault et al., 2013).

Laissez-faire leadership, also known as passive-management by exception (Bass & Avolio, 2004), describes a leadership style that bridges the gap between being constructive and destructive. Laissez-faire leadership is inherently destructive through its absence of leadership; however, the leader may not intend to harm the organization or their subordinates (Bass & Avolio, 2004). Laissez-faire leadership is not synonymous with ineffective leadership. Ineffective leaders harm their organization and followers without intention to do so simply due to incompetence (Hogan et al., 1994; Lipman-Blumen, 2005). Although ineffective leaders may be a detriment to followers or the firm, they do not qualify as laissez-faire leaders without an intent to violate the legitimate interest of their organization through failure to lead.

Employee Turnover

Turnover entails a cognitive process of thinking of quitting and planning to quit (Aguiniga, Madden, Faulkner, & Salehin, 2013). Turnover is a major business concern for any organization (Boyar et al., 2012) and the future of the U.S. manufacturing

industry hinges on dramatic enhancements to productivity and production (Sim & Chiang, 2012), which turnover may impede. Examining three main models, antecedents, and the relationship to DLB helps garner an understanding of employee turnover.

Intermediate linkage model of turnover. The Mobley (1977) intermediate linkage model of turnover (ILMT) dominated the field of turnover research for much of the turnover research field's history. The IMLT focuses on an employee's decision to quit their organization through 10 progressive stages. During the progression, an employee endures differing stimuli that potentially introduce a decision to depart or remain with their employer. Mobley proposed two types of turnover exist: avoidance turnover and unavoidable turnover. In avoidance turnover, employees depart their organization due to an increased level of dissatisfaction with their work situation and choose to leave. During the period of decision, the firm possesses the means to intervene and prevent departure.

According to Mobley (1977), in unavoidable turnover, the employee will depart the organization regardless of interaction by the firm. Unavoidable turnover situations comprise incidents where an employee's decision to depart a firm is readily chosen based on the circumstances, such as illness, monetary concerns, or family issues. Mobley identified when an individual became dissatisfied with their job, through internal or external factors, employees began to create intentions to quit voluntarily. The intention prompted the employee to evaluate the cost of leaving a firm, seek out new employment, or resign outright from the company. Mobley identified an employee could quit based on impulsive behavior without progressing through the preceding stages.

Disengagement theory. The disengagement theory (Kahn, 1990) entails

employee defense reactions to a diminishment of job satisfaction, which results in increased turnover intention and ultimately turnover. In the disengagement theory, employees uncouple from their surroundings as a defense measure, but in so doing, promote a lack of performance or connections. Disengagement to work, as per Kahn, arises when employees seek to remove themselves from stressors and unpleasantness as a form of self-defense. Disengagement leads to intent to leave an organization due to lowered satisfaction and organizational commitment and ends with voluntary turnover (Kahn, 1990).

Unfolding model. The unfolding model of Lee and Mitchell (1994) builds on the ILMT (Mobley, 1977). Lee and Mitchell observed employees did not continually evaluate continued employment as with the ILMT but instead started an evaluation due to a specific catalyst. Lee and Mitchell identified the catalysts as shocks comprised of both negative and positive occasions, such as a layoff or promotion. Abusive supervision, for example, acts as a shock consistent with the unfolding model (Palanski et al., 2014).

The unfolding model contains five paths an employee can choose to take when presented a shock (Shipp et al., 2014; Tepper, 2007). Decision path 1 entails quitting immediately. Decision path 2 entails receiving a shock and reevaluating employment before quitting immediately. Decision path 3 entails quitting after finding new employment. Decision paths 4a and 4b describe the same quitting intentions and voluntary turnover as in decision paths 2 and 3, but with low job satisfaction as the cause, rather than a shock (Lee & Mitchell, 1994).

Antecedents. The antecedents and causes of voluntary turnover include age, tenure, supervisory status (Lambert et al., 2012), and pay satisfaction (Aguiniga et al., 2013). Supervisory support (Ryan, Healy, & Sullivan, 2012), or even spousal commitment for an employee's organization (Schaefer, Green, Saxena, Weiss, & Wadsworth, 2013) can create employee turnover. Career insecurity (van Eetveldt, van de Ven, van den Tooren, & Versteeg, 2013), and an employee's feeling and attachment to a firm (Maertz, Boyar, & Pearson, 2012) predict intent to quit.

Job stress, perceived organizational justice (Chovwen, Balogun, & Olowokere, 2014), or lowered organizational support (Rutherford, Wei, Park, & Hur, 2012) also influence turnover intentions. When leaders provided support, employees were 5% less likely to report turnover intention in one study (Aguiniga et al., 2013), and a third less likely to depart their organization in another (Ryan et al., 2012). Similar to supervisory support, the extent to which an individual perceived their workplace was supportive positively influenced performance and intent to quit (Bouckenooghe et al., 2013). Work burnout, such as when a tyrannical or derailed leader engaged in interpersonal mistreatment (Sulea, Filipescu, Horga, Ortan, & Fischmann, 2012), also influenced turnover. Although the antecedents may vary, the actions influencing turnover remain contrary to constructive leadership.

Methodologies

Researchers addressed the dependent variable, employee turnover, with all three methodologies: quantitative, qualitative, and mixed-methods. While much of the relevant studies on turnover are quantitative, a good number of recent qualitative and mixed-

methods studies exist. As this research was quantitative, a brief literature review of studies employing the other methodologies follows.

Qualitative research. Qualitatively, López and Sune (2013) conducted an exploratory case study into organizational forgetting induced by employee turnover. By studying a food-processing production plant for 12 months, López and Sune found support that organizational forgetting, the loss of experience and knowledge, occurred with abrupt turnover. Specifically, they observed repeated organizational forgetting as happened with high turnover, caused productivity to fall due to a loss of experience (López & Sune, 2013). Strojilova and Rafferty (2013) similarly found voluntary employee turnover of a global organization directly influenced productivity. Through an illustrative case study, turnover led to an erosion of organizational knowledge, which affected productivity and led to increased replacement costs (Strojilova & Rafferty, 2013).

In another qualitative study, Demirtas and Akdogan (2015) employed a survey to measure the effect of ethical leadership on the ethical climate, turnover intention, and commitment of 447 random aviation maintenance centers employees. They found ethical leadership behavior both directly and indirectly influenced turnover intention and commitment of employees by enhancing perceptions of an ethical working environment. Against the backdrop of financial industry turmoil and through surveys distributed to 194 employees of medium-sized banks, Parzinger, Lemons, and McDaniel (2012) found perceptions of employee welfare were the greatest determinant of job satisfaction and turnover intention. Bouckenooghe et al. (2013) measured the affectivity of 321 leader-

follower dyads across eight organizations in Pakistan finding affectivity, the expression of emotion, affected performance and turnover.

Moral stress was the focus of DeTienne, Agle, Phillips, and Ingerson's (2012) study of 305 financial call center employees subjected to stressors. DeTienne et al. identified moral stress was a statistically significant predictor of increased turnover intention, as well as employee fatigue and job dissatisfaction. Although not particular to business at large, qualitative research on turnover in the nursing field is prevalent in recent literature. Of the studies, researchers established turnover was a complex and long-lasting process (Flinkman, Isopahkala-Bouret, & Salanter, 2013), negative job satisfaction led to turnover (Cox, Willis, & Coustasse, 2014), and turnover was especially costly to medical organizations (Li & Jones, 2013). Throughout the many recent qualitative studies, the trend is toward the antecedents, costs, and the impact on productivity and employee turnover.

Mixed-methods research. As with recent qualitative research, recent mixed-methods research addressed numerous business related aspects. For example, Elshout, Sherp, and van der Feltz-Cornelis (2013) explored the association between leadership style, employee satisfaction, and absenteeism in a mental health care institution. Using data collected through semistructured interviews in the Netherlands and correlation, the researchers identified transformational leadership lowered absenteeism and indirectly affected turnover. Similarly, Pietersen and Oni (2014) collected data from a stratified sample of 60 South African local government employees using a semistructured questionnaire and observed autocratic leadership increased turnover.

Through semistructured interviews and descriptive and correlational analysis of data drawn from teacher turnover in Turkey, Özoğlu (2015) found turnover costs for a firm represented half of an employee's average salary. He found temporary employee cover constituted the highest cost, followed by productivity loss. In another recent mixed-methods study, Alony, Hasan, and Sense (2014) used a model that predicted marital separation and divorce with 90% accuracy to predict employee turnover with similar accuracy. A mixed-methods study employing two quantitative instruments and follow-up interviews confirmed workplace stress influenced emotional exhaustion leading indirectly to turnover (Saltijeral Méndez, & Ramos Lira, 2015).

Transition

In the past two decades, destructive leadership has piqued scholarly attention. Leadership researchers recognized the definition and theory of destructive leadership proposed by Aasland et al. (2010) as systematic and repeated leader behaviors that violated the legitimate interests of an organization. The subordinate and organizational styles of the constructive-destructive leadership model provided a solid framework to examine the strength of the relationship between DLB and employee turnover. In the literature review, I identified DLB was a widespread concern with 94% of individuals noting detrimental behaviors of managers caused their turnover (Aasland et al., 2013). Leadership is a direct cause of turnover (Ghosh et al., 2013), especially abusive supervision (Tummers et al., 2013). Extant literature provided several links between leadership and turnover (Palanski et al., 2014); however, no researcher directly linked (a) derailed leadership, (b) tyrannical leadership, (c) supportive-disloyal leadership, (d)

laissez-faire leadership, and employee turnover.

In Section 2, the discussion focus moves from the foundation of the study to the project portion. Therein lies a discussion of the purpose statement, the role of the researcher, participants, research method, research design, population and sampling, ethical research, data collection instruments, data collection technique, data analysis, study validity, and the transition and summary. Section 3 includes a presentation of the findings gleaned from collected data, as well as a discussion of implications and recommendations toward action and future research.

Section 2: The Project

This section includes a discussion of the research method and design used to conduct this quantitative correlational study to determine the strength of the relationship between DLB and employee turnover. The section includes the purpose statement, role of the researcher, and a description of the participants, research method, and research design. The section also includes the population and sampling technique, ethical research considerations, and data collection instruments. The section concludes with an examination of the data and validity and a transition and summary.

Purpose Statement

The purpose of this quantitative correlational study was to examine the relationship between destructive leadership behaviors of managers in SME manufacturing businesses, and employee turnover. I used the destructive leadership scale (DLS), multifactor leadership questionnaire (MLQ), and the turnover intention scale (TIS-6) to evaluate the relationship between the dependent variable (employee turnover) and the independent variables (IVs) of (a) derailed leadership, (b) tyrannical leadership, (c) supportive-disloyal leadership, and (d) laissez-faire leadership. The targeted population consisted of three SME manufacturing firms from Warren County, New Jersey. The implications for positive social change from reducing employee turnover may positively affect the lives of employees by (a) improving morale (Chiller & Crisp, 2012), (b) increasing job satisfaction, and (c) enhancing the fulfillment of customers in the communities served (van der Aa, Bloemer, & Henseler, 2012).

Role of the Researcher

My objective was to collect data from instruments digitally delivered to 85 to 174 participants to determine the strength of the relationship between the destructive leadership behaviors of (a) derailed leadership, (b) tyrannical leadership, (c) supportive-disloyal leadership, and (d) laissez-faire leadership and the dependent variable of employee turnover. The professional and academic literature that addressed populations similar to the target population influenced my choice of study design. Data collection occurred using three preexisting survey instruments, the DLS, MLQ 5X Short, and the TIS-6. Appendices D, E, F, and G include the permission documents for these instruments. Once data collection was complete, I conducted statistical analysis with the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) version 21.0.

I had no personal or direct relationship with study participants and never worked in the manufacturing industry. Researchers gather and analyze data and present findings in a neutral, unbiased, and ethical manner (Khan, 2014). Following the Belmont Report (1979), I followed the three basic principles of respect for persons, beneficence, and justice. Study participants received autonomy and respect for their decisions. In keeping with survey research conducted by Roberts (2012), survey questions were reasonable in number and instructions were unambiguous to ensure participant willingness and comprehension. Each participant implied his or her consent by completing the survey. To ensure comprehension of the subject matter, a definition of DLB provided by Aasland et al. (2010) and Krasikova et al. (2013) appeared at the start of the survey (Appendix B). Because there were human participants, the Walden University Institutional Review

Board (IRB) required submission of a research ethics review application. The Walden University IRB approval number for the study is 06-21-16-0394516. This quantitative study did not require mitigation of bias or the viewing of data from a personal lens. I did not employ interviews requiring a rationale for an interview protocol.

Participants

The study population consisted of employees at SME manufacturing firms in Warren County, New Jersey. The participants had a direct relationship with their business manager. No distinction occurred regarding the type of manufacturing organization as long as it was an SME firm. Gilmore, McAuley, Gallagher, Massiera, and Gamble (2013) noted no uniform definition of an SME existed, but stated SME companies included fewer than 300 employees. Martincus (2012) identified a small firm as up to 50 employees and a medium firm as between 51 and 200. I chose Larimo's (2013) definition of an SME firm as 250 or fewer employees.

Although a preference existed for English language comprehension, other characteristics such as race, gender, socioeconomic status, full- or part-time employment status, or education level held no bearing on research. The final criteria for selecting participants included (a) business employee in a subordinate capacity who is a minimum of 18 years of age; (b) employee in the manufacturing field located in Warren County, New Jersey; and (c) participant has daily interaction with his or her manager.

Employing this criteria after receiving Walden University IRB approval, I contacted SME manufacturing companies in Warren County, New Jersey and solicited human resource managers for permission to survey employees (Appendix A). Upon

receipt of permission via a signed letter of cooperation, I established an interactive relationship with the firms and managers. An interactive relationship encourages response (Hazel & Clark, 2013) and enhances transparency (Campbell, Loving, & Lebel, 2014). An interactive relationship helped inform participants of the data collection process and ensured understanding that personal information and responses would remain strictly anonymous in a manner suggested by Ivey (2012). The announcement of the forthcoming doctoral study occurred through an e-mail sent to the point of contact at each company.

Using e-mail addresses provided by human resources personnel, I ensured all participants understood and implied their consent before starting the survey. I used a simple random sampling method to select participants. In a simple random sample, each member of a population has an equal chance of selection (Leahy, 2013). Researchers use random sampling method to ensure representativeness of data (Hsiu-Chin & Huan-Sheng, 2015) and improve heterogeneity of the sample (Solanki & Singh, 2015).

E-mail and electronic correspondence between a researcher and a participant are readily available to business employees (Jansen & Janssen, 2013) and enable clarification of unclear questions (Cook, 2012). Sinkowitz-Cochran (2013) noted reminder e-mails improved response rate. When used to provide summary findings of a study, e-mail communication also conveys respect (Miller, Hayeems, Li, & Bytautas, 2012). Access to participants, follow-up correspondence, and reminder messages occurred through the SurveyMonkey® website.

Research Method and Design

Research method involves a choice among quantitative, qualitative, or mixed-methods approaches. Studies lend themselves to one approach given the purpose of the study. This section addresses the decision to employ a quantitative approach.

Research Method

A quantitative approach was most suitable for the study because this approach met the need of the topic as the hypotheses dealt with measurement of employee turnover intention. The choice of which methodology to use, according to Venkatesh, Brown, and Bala (2013), relates to the research question, purpose, and context. Whether the research question addresses phenomena that are numerical or not, may help a researcher identify the correct approach. In quantitative studies, researchers often use a standardized set of questions with a large sample population (Karanja et al., 2013) making personal interviews or observation impractical. With 96 participants, interviews or longstanding observations would be time-consuming and relationship building difficult (Qu & Dumay, 2011).

Researchers consider quantitative analysis the most rigorous of methods when compared to the qualitative approach (Hoe & Hoare, 2012). Quantitative researchers can obtain large, representative samples (Fassinger & Morrow, 2013) for a quantifiable and reliably estimated phenomenon (Thamhain, 2014). Quantitative studies require numerical data (Ingham-Broomfield, 2015) such as measurements of DLB and turnover intention. The quantitative study is the best choice when the variables are not abstract, which makes measurement impossible (Hagan, 2014). The quantity of employees expressing turnover,

as well as the strength of occurrence of the independent variables was quantifiable and measurable. Researchers previously employed the quantitative method to address facets of DLB (Aasland et al., 2010; Einarsen et al., 2002) with similar variables.

I considered other research methods but determined they were inappropriate for this study. Researchers found qualitative research useful when collecting data about morals, sentiments, behaviors, actions, or communal circumstances to answer questions of why and how (Bailey, 2014). Qualitative researchers produce findings that are subjective and useful in developing theories without the use of statistical procedures (Ingham-Broomfield, 2015). Combining qualitative and quantitative methods was also inappropriate. The mixed-methods approach involves more than one specific research method or more than a single worldview (Venkatesh et al., 2013). The mixed-methods approach was unsuitable because it centers on measurement of subjective experiences of a sample (McCusker & Gunaydin, 2015), which was beyond the scope of the study.

Research Design

I selected a correlational design, which allowed me to measure the strength of the relationship between study variables. Examining the relationship between the independent variables of (a) derailed leadership, (b) tyrannical leadership, (c) supportive-disloyal leadership, and (d) laissez-faire leadership and the dependent variable of employee turnover was most suitable using a correlational design. Researchers use correlational designs to examine extant associations among variables of interest to define and support relationships (Ingham-Broomfield, 2015). Although there may be a cause-and-effect relationship between variables (Reinhart et al., 2013), the principal intention is

an analysis of correlation and not causation. A correlational study provides the user the ability to measure variables, as they naturally exist, without the use of experimentation (Ingham-Broomfield, 2015). The chosen design allowed for the measurement of the relationship that existed between variables, especially through use of a survey, with a high level of external validity and dependence between variables (Withers & Nadarajah, 2013). The use of correlation, as compared to other designs, permits identification of relationships without the encumbrance of designs that require proving causation through experimentation (Ingham-Broomfield, 2015). The design allows a researcher to identify covariation among variables (Zechmesiter, Zechmesiter, & Shaughnessy, 2014).

Unlike other quantitative designs, including descriptive, quasi-experimental, and experimental, the correlational design goes beyond identifying a relationship exists by indicating strength (Froman & Owen, 2014). Some researchers described only two essential quantitative designs: correlational and experimental (Bettany-Saltikov & Whittaker, 2013). In experimental research, researchers measure variables prior and after applying a treatment (Haegele & Hodge, 2015). Researchers use correlational designs to measure variables to define and support relationships in their natural setting without manipulation or active intervention (Ingham-Broomfield, 2015). The drawback, however, is that researchers cannot use correlation to determine causality (Reinhart et al., 2013). I did not include instruments requiring coding of responses or manipulation or treatment; therefore, the correlational design was most appropriate.

Researchers previously employed correlational designs in similar studies of business leadership styles and employee response (Alarcon, Lyons, Schlessman, &

Barelka, 2012), leadership and job satisfaction (Wang, Chontawan, & Nantsupawat, 2012), leadership and organizational commitment (Gokce, Guney, & Katrinli, 2014), and the prevalence of DLB (Aasland et al., 2010). In reviewing studies during completion of the literature review section, I found the correlational design appropriate to ensure objectivity when studying the relationship between business leadership and employee turnover.

Population and Sampling

The population consisted of employees of SME manufacturing firms within Warren County, New Jersey. The U.S. Department of Labor (2015) described the manufacturing industry as containing businesses engaged in the mechanical, physical, or chemical conversion of material or components into a new product. The U.S. Department of Labor (2015) noted there were 12,335,000 U.S. employees working in the manufacturing industry in May of 2015. No data were available for the size or location of companies. I used Larimo's (2013) definition of an SME having fewer than 250 employees. The estimated population of the study was 750 or fewer employees with no company containing more than 250 employees. The population included SME manufacturing companies in Warren County, New Jersey, which aligned with the research question addressing the strength of the relationship between destructive business leaders and the turnover of SME manufacturing firm employees.

I employed a simple random sampling method. In a simple random sample, each member of a population has an equal chance of selection (Leahy, 2013). Researchers use random sampling to ensure representativeness of data (Hsiu-Chin & Huan-Sheng, 2015)

and improve heterogeneity of the sample (Solanki & Singh, 2015). A manufacturing sampling frame is a complete list of all the members of the population of a study (Vearey, 2013). The probability sampling method is appropriate when a researcher knows the sampling frame (Uprichard, 2013) as it is only possible to conduct a probability sample with a known sampling frame (Kandola, Banner, O'Keefe-McCarthy, & Jassal, 2014; Thompson, 2013). Human resource personnel at the three selected companies provided the data necessary to generate a sampling frame and provided the means to contact participants who met the recruitment criteria. Recruiting of participants occurred after receipt of a signed letter of cooperation from the companies.

Baker (2014) stated researchers assume every sample necessitates a particular sampling strategy and that trade-offs will always exist. Before choosing the simple random sampling method, I explored nonprobability sampling methods. Nonprobability methods, such as snowball sampling in which researchers use referrals to find participants (Mammen & Sano, 2012) and respondent-driven sampling in which researchers use a social network (McCreesh, Tarsh, Seeley, Katongole, & White, 2013) lower generalizability and introduce a higher propensity for bias (Cokley & Awad, 2013). A probability method such as the simple random sampling method provides elements of a population with an equal chance of inclusion and enhanced generalizability (Kandola et al., 2014).

To generalize study results, a researcher requires an adequate sample, particularly when using a probability sampling method (Cokley & Awad, 2013). To identify an appropriate sample size, I conducted a power analysis and apriori sample size calculation

to ensure a sufficient size to draw valid inferences about the population. A power analysis helps identify if a sample size was sufficient to detect and reject a false null hypothesis and combat Type I and Type II errors, while sample size estimation helped indicate if researchers could draw conclusions about a population (Cooper & Schindler, 2013). Researchers employ power analysis to identify if an effect will be statistically significant and calculate the number of participants needed (Gaskin & Happell, 2014). Power analysis is also important to determine the practical significance of results (Dae Shik, 2015).

I utilized the G*Power Version 3.1.9.2 power analysis program to estimate the required sample size to generalize the findings to the population in a manner suggested by Faul, Erdfelder, Buchner, and Lang (2009). An apriori power analysis, employing a medium effect size ($f = .15$), alpha value of .05, and power value of .80 for a multiple regression model with four predictor values, identified a minimum sample size of 85 participants. At a power of .99, the need for 174 responses arose. Shin, Gang, and Jung (2011) employed a medium sized effect in their study of turnover intention. I, therefore, sought to collect between 85 and 174 responses (see Figure 2).

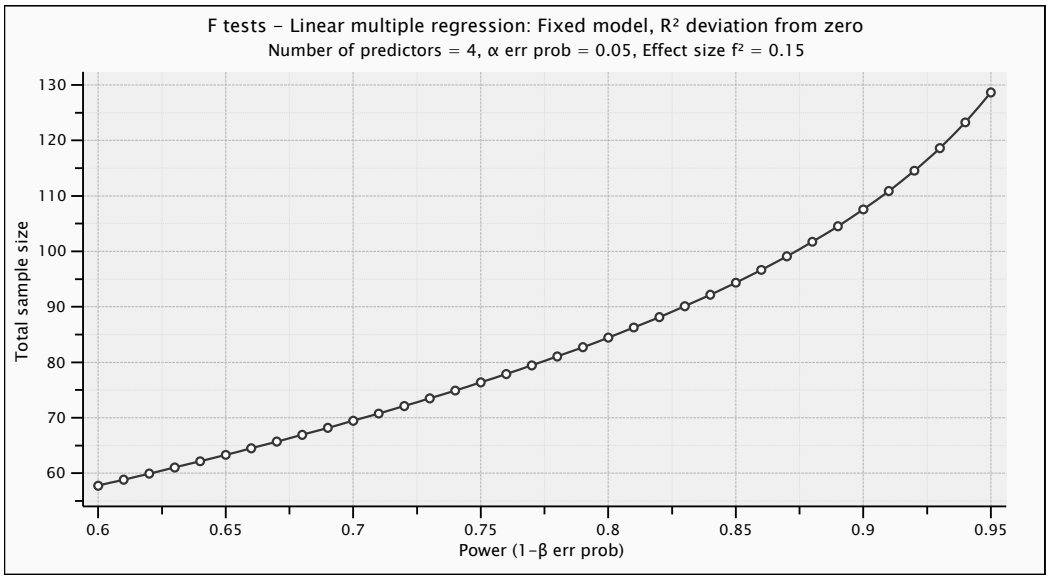

Figure 2. Power as a function of the sample size.

The effect size, as defined by Cohen (1992), is the strength of the relationship between independent and dependent variables. Effect size constitutes the smallest meaningful difference (Dae Shik, 2015) and is essential to determine significance (Fritz, Morris, & Richler, 2012). Cohen presented a moderate effect size of $f = .15$ between multiple correlation variables (Cohen, 1992) and noted the use of a medium effect size to detect a relationship between variables without being too lenient with a large effect, or too strict with too small an effect. Faul et al. (2009) recommended a medium effect size for a quantitative study as it represented an effect a researcher would readily identify. Testing of hypotheses transpired using an instrument administered through SurveyMonkey.

Ethical Research

Data collection occurred upon obtaining Walden University IRB approval number 06-21-16-0394516. Data collection took place with a simple random sample drawn from

three SME manufacturing firms located in Warren County, New Jersey. Participants implied consent to participate by reading an informed consent form distributed through SurveyMonkey and advancing to the survey questions. Participants chose to join solely on a volunteer basis and could withdraw at any point. The informed consent form outlined the purpose and procedures, role of the participant, and the communication channel for participants. SurveyMonkey provided a message regarding the option to withdraw immediately or later.

Ethics is a fundamental tenet of scholarly work and to contribute to the study, all participants implied consent. The participants spent approximately 20 minutes completing the survey and the burden imposed on participants was minimal. As there was no transcribing or translation by a third party, there was no one else with access to data while the study was in progress to ensure anonymity (Gibson, Benson, & Brand, 2013; Hardicre, 2014a). Researchers must maintain the presence of mind toward their conduct to protect their participants and keep from crossing ethical boundaries (Gibson et al., 2013). I did not generate or maintain a confidentiality agreement. A researcher maintains ethical integrity through strict accountability and access control of data (Stellefson, Paige, Alber, Barry, & James, 2015).

Participant identity remained secure through the exclusion of identifying information that reduced the likelihood of making a direct link to a particular respondent. Before submission, a review of the final study ensured anonymity by checking for any identifiable information of the surveyed companies or participants. By removing certain values from a dataset, individuals are not identifiable (Angiuli, Blitzstein, & Waldo,

2015).

I collected and will store raw data securely in an excel spreadsheet and SPSS dataset for a minimum of 5 years. Storage of electronic files is via a password-protected computer as well as backed up on a password-protected external hard-drive. The raw data served as the SPSS input dataset for multiple regression analysis. During data collection, securing participants' data occurred through SurveyMonkey's Secure Sockets Layer (SSL) and Transport Layer Security (TLS) data encryption with user authentication technology that prevents unauthorized access to the database. To ensure redundancy, use of an external hard-drive occurred. After the 5-year period concludes, I will destroy the external hard drive and shred all hard copies of existing data. Upon approval, I will provide a one-page summary of the research results to the selected companies so they may distribute it to interested individuals and participants.

Data Collection

This section includes a discussion of the instrumentation and data collection techniques. The instruments helped measure the strength of the relationship between DLB and employee turnover. The authors of each instrument addressed construct validity and reliability of their instruments.

Instrumentation

I used SurveyMonkey to distribute the instrument (Appendix B). The online survey consisted of three sections for each of the reproduced instruments. Participants completed the survey after using the survey link provided to them by e-mail invitation. Opening and completing the survey implied consent. The estimated completion time for

the survey and its 22 total items was fewer than 20 minutes. I estimated completion time based on provided estimates. Bass and Avolio (2004) identified a 5 minute completion time for the MLQ, Bothma and Roodt (2008) identified 5 minutes for the TIS-6, and Tran et al. (2014) identified a 10 minute completion time for the DLS. The need to conduct a pilot study did not arise as the authors of each instrument tested them for reliability and validity. Discussion of each of the three reproduced instruments follows.

The first section of the instrument was the destructive leadership scale instrument developed by Einarsen et al. (2002). The instrument measures include 12 items with four items each measuring the respondent's level of experienced tyrannical, derailed, and supportive-disloyal leadership (Appendix B). The variables ordinally measured in the instrument are the identical ones of the constructive-destructive leadership model.

The instrument was particularly appropriate as the authors of the theoretical framework in this study, and other researchers, employed the instrument in their research (Aasland et al., 2007; Einarsen et al., 2002; Tran et al., 2014). Administration occurred through SurveyMonkey. Instrument scoring was via a four-position Likert-style scale that entailed a range of ordinal responses from *never* to *very often/nearly always*. Higher scores indicated a greater amount of destructive leadership behavior occurring while lower scores identified less frequency of DLB.

Researchers previously employed the destructive leadership scale to include quantitative correlation studies by Lu, Ling, Wu, and Liu (2012), Nielsen, Tvedt, and Matthiesen (2013), and Skogstad et al. (2014a). Lu et al. employed the scale to measure DLB in Chinese businesses using quantitative data collected from 1,300 employees while

Nielsen et al. investigated the prevalence of psychological distress and associated stressors in a work environment using correlation and logistic regression analysis. Skogstad et al. created a quantitative correlational study of the influence of constructive, laissez-faire, and tyrannical leadership behaviors on subordinate job satisfaction through the collection of data from 741 Norwegian offshore oil workers.

Einarsen et al. (2002) noted a median Cronbach's alpha score for their scale of α = .75, while Aasland et al. (2010) provided Cronbach's alpha scores for each of the constructs as $a = 0.75$ for tyrannical and derailed leadership, and $a = 0.60$ for supportive-disloyal leadership. The Cronbach's alpha score of the supportive-disloyal leadership behavior subscale was low, thus questioning the internal consistency of the subscale. The effectiveness of multiple item questionnaires depends on validity, which is a fundamental component of quality (Lee, Huggins, & Therriault, 2014). To ensure internal validity of the subscales, Einarsen et al. conducted a series of exploratory factor analyses settling on a five-factor solution as best suited and further identifying the validity of the scale. Aasland et al. established the internal validity of the scale through their study, noting a comparative fit index (CFI) = 0.95, goodness of fit (GFI) = 0.88, and root mean square error of approximation of 0.026. No adjustments or revisions occurred to the instrument. I received permission from the authors to employ the instrument (Appendix C).

The second section of the instrument was the multifactor leadership questionnaire 5X-Short developed by Bass and Avolio (2004) to measure the full range leadership development model. The MLQ addressed the final independent variable, laissez-faire leadership behavior (Appendix B). Bass and Avolio designed both a leader and follower

form of each MLQ scale. I employed the follower version only; identified by Bass and Avolio as a rater only form and described as a subordinate rating their leader's leadership behaviors. The most current MLQ measures nine factors that include idealized attributes, idealized behaviors, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation; transactional leadership, contingent reward, active management-by-exception, passive management-by-exception, and laissez-faire leadership (Bass & Avolio, 2004). I employed only the four items of the laissez-faire leadership subscale of the MLQ, in keeping with the manner in which Einarsen et al. (2002) and Aasland et al. (2010) originally studied and measured this tenet of DLB. Scoring of items in the subscale was according to a Likert-style scale with ordinal measurement (Bass & Avolio, 2004).

The appropriateness of the instrument lies in the fact the scale directly addressed laissez-faire leadership as employed by Bass and Avolio (2004). Aasland et al. (2010) used the instrument in their study. Its ease of use and 360-degree properties allows anyone to judge the leadership capabilities of any supervisor. The administration occurred through SurveyMonkey as with the other instruments. The MLQ's Likert-style scale included responses where 0 = *not at all*, 1 = *once in a while*, 2 = *sometimes*, 3 = *fairly often*, and 4 = *frequently if not always*. The administrator scores the MLQ by totaling the individual items with a score of 16 indicating a high level of laissez-faire leadership and a score of zero indicating a lack of the style.

Several researchers employed the MLQ in quantitative studies of laissez-faire leadership (Jogulu & Ferkins, 2013; Khan et al., 2012; Lutz Allen et al., 2013). Skogstad et al. (2007) employed the scale in a quantitative correlation study of the effects of DLB

on workplace stressors, bullying, and psychological distress of 2,273 Norwegian employees. Zineldin and Hytter (2012) used the scale to examine the influence of negative leadership quantitatively, including laissez-faire, on the psychological health and wellbeing of 48 university employees.

Skogstad et al. (2007) identified a Cronbach's alpha of the scale as $a = 0.73$ while Aasland et al. (2010) identified it as $a = 0.72$. Bass and Avolio (2004) identified reliability as $a = 0.74$. Bass and Avolio informed reliabilities were high and exceeded recommended internal consistency. Regarding construct validity, Bass and Avolio achieved a confirmatory factor analysis with a goodness of fit index of 0.73 and root-mean-square residual of 0.10. No adjustments or revisions occurred to the instrument. I received permission from the authors to employ the instrument (Appendix D).

The third section of the instrument was the turnover intention scale developed by Roodt (2004). The TIS-6 included six ordinally measured items to quantify turnover intention of respondents (Appendix B). Turnover intention is a proxy for employee turnover. Turnover intention is the strongest indicator of actual employee turnover (Levy, Poertner, & Lieberman, 2012; Rutherford et al., 2012).

The appropriateness of the scale entailed its use in other business environments to quantitatively measure turnover and turnover intention and the establishment of turnover intention as a proxy for actual turnover in relevant business literature. Administration occurred through SurveyMonkey. Score calculation occurred with data measured using a five-position Likert-style scale with respondents answering using scores from: one, indicating *never*, *highly unlikely*, or *to no extent*, to a response of five indicating *always*,

to *a very large extent*, or *highly likely* (Roodt, 2004). Item number three was reverse coded to avoid response bias. Thus, a higher score indicated a decreased intention to leave a firm (Roodt, 2004). Scoring took place by adding the individual scores, with 30 the highest possible score and a score of 25 indicating the highest level of turnover intention (Roodt, 2004). Bothma and Roodt (2012) successfully employed the TIS-6 to measure workplace identity and engagement as predictors of turnover intention in IT employees. In previous formats, Aldawan, Bhanugopan, and Fish (2013) measured turnover in 493 frontline South African business employees while Martin and Roodt (2008) employed a longer version to measure organizational commitment and turnover intentions quantitatively in 367 business employees.

Bothma and Roodt (2013) noted the TIS-6 measured turnover intentions with reliability ($\alpha = 0.80$) and factorial validity. Bothma and Roodt studied a census-based sample of 2,429 employees and found they could significantly distinguish between employees that stayed and employees who left confirming the criterion-predictive and differential validity of the scale. No adjustments or revisions occurred to the instrument. I received permission from the authors to employ the instrument (Appendix E).

Data Collection Technique

Data collection occurred through SurveyMonkey, a web-based, self-administered survey tool. Respondents participated voluntarily to invitations sent to their work e-mail, with written permission from their company. Respondents implied consent by completing the survey. A requirement of researchers is to confirm the identity of subjects of Internet research through the informed consent process (Hartnett, 2014). More importantly,

informed consent allows a participant to confirm their willingness to participate (Hardicre, 2014b) and ensures the participant understands the study purpose (Cook, 2015). Securing the dataset is an important aspect of publishing data while protecting privacy (Ji & Elkan, 2013), and maintaining anonymity (Heffetz & Ligett, 2014). Resultant data served as the SPSS input dataset for analysis and will remain locked in a container for 5 years to ensure confidentiality (Hardicre, 2014a), and in accordance with the DBA rubric.

Advantages and disadvantages to web-based surveys are identifiable. One advantage is respondents complete the survey on his or her time (Chang & Vowles, 2013). Online surveys allow the means to reach participants in hard to reach areas or participants with limited time available (Fang, Wen, & Pavur, 2012). Collecting data through online surveys provides savings in cost and time when trying to collect data from a large number of participants in a short period (Singleton & Straits, 2010). Disadvantages include a lessened response rate compared to paper-based surveys (Hohwü et al., 2013; Sid Nair, 2013). Easy access to the Internet does not mean a willingness to respond (Fang et al., 2012), but instead poses a disadvantage when only the most motivated participants respond (Kandola et al., 2014). A pilot study can assist a researcher with finding problems and barriers to participant recruitment (Janhorban, Roudsari, & Taghipour, 2015) or assist with gaining experience in asking interview questions (Doody & Doody, 2015). A pilot study does not assure success for the full-scale study (Morin, 2013). A pilot study also cannot eliminate every systematic error or unexpected issue (Cope, 2015). Although a pilot study would be beneficial, the need to

conduct a pilot study did not arise as the authors of each instrument tested reliability and validity.

Data Analysis

The goal of the study was to attain a greater understanding of the influence of destructive leadership behaviors. Analysis and interpretation of data are two key components of the research process (Russell, 2014). I conducted data analysis of the data collected from the online survey using correlation. The primary research question was: what is the strength of the relationship between destructive leadership behaviors of managers in SME manufacturing businesses, and employee turnover?

The hypotheses were as follows:

Null hypothesis (H_0): There is no significant relationship between employee turnover and (a) derailed leadership, (b) tyrannical leadership, (c) supportive-disloyal leadership, (d) laissez-faire leadership of managers in SME manufacturing businesses.

Alternative hypothesis (H_1): There is a significant relationship between employee turnover and (a) derailed leadership, (b) tyrannical leadership, (c) supportive-disloyal leadership, (d) laissez-faire leadership of managers in SME manufacturing businesses.

The use of multiple linear regression analysis helped test the hypotheses of the study. Multiple linear regression was appropriate in regards to predicting a quantitative outcome variable from several independent variables (Pallant, 2010). Multiple linear regression is a multivariate descriptive statistical technique used to determine the influence of two or more independent variables on a single dependent variable (Pallant, 2010). Multiple linear regression generates a linear model (Lazar, Mouzdahir, Badia, &

Zahouily, 2014) and provides ease of implementation and accurate, predictive results (Pavón-Domínguez, Jiménez-Hornero, & Ravé, 2013). Other analytical methods deemed unsuitable included logistic regression, which requires binary, not ratio data (Bonellie, 2012) and data envelopment analysis that requires using a variable as a benchmark for others (Sherman & Zhu, 2013).

Data cleaning entails detecting and correcting incomplete or inaccurate information from a dataset (Osborne, 2013). I checked the dispersion of dataset frequencies in SPSS to identify incomplete or inaccurate areas and transform the reverse coded questions. Once data entry was complete, I followed the suggestion of Osborne (2013) and checked the accuracy and validity of the data to include examining for outliers.

The web-based administration of the survey limited illegible or corrupt data. Respondents often fail or choose not to answer every survey question, which leads to a threat to the validity of inferences drawn from findings (Porter & Ecklund, 2012). Osborne (2013) noted missing or unprovided data was a source of random measurement error. Missing data is more common when using open-ended surveys or interview questions (Richards & Davies, 2012). Rather than delete the effected records (Huang, Mengqiao, & Bowling, 2015), I intended to use the Impute Missing Data Values feature of SPSS version 21.0 to impute a series mean. Listwise deletion may introduce bias (Giudici, Arezzo, & Brouard, 2013), and decrease the power of the findings (Osborne, 2013). Imputing missing data fills in missing values with other information (McPherson, Barbosa-Leiker, McDonell, Howell, & Roll, 2013) and allow the study power to remain

high (Bertossi, Kolahi, & Lakshmanan, 2013). There was no missing data.

Statistical assumptions include linearity, homoscedasticity, and homogeneity of variances within data (Chao, Wu, Wu, & Garfolo, 2012; Field, 2013). Additional assumptions include measurement was without error and normality (Field, 2013). An ANOVA is the appropriate statistical procedure to provide the basis for significance testing (Field, 2013). An assumption of linearity is data has a linear relationship (Stevens, 2009). Homoscedasticity occurs when residuals are scattered randomly along the horizontal line of a scatterplot, which means the variance of errors is the same for all levels of the independent variables (Martinussen & Handegård, 2014). A homogeneity assumption is the variance amongst populations is equal when identified by an *F* test or Levene's test (Stevens, 2009). Normality is the assumption the difference between expected and predicted values creates a normal distribution with zero skew or kurtosis, as assessed by a residual plot (Field, 2013). Stevens (2009) noted that measurement error assumptions, or reliability, occur with an overestimation of effect sizes during multiple regression and create a Type I error.

Violations of assumption introduce Type I and Type II errors, and an over or underestimation of effect size (Hoekstra, Kiers, & Johnson, 2012). Testing and assessing assumptions occurred with descriptive statistics, Levene's test of homogeneity of variances, ANOVA, and tests for multicollinearity and normality (Hoekstra et al., 2012). If violations to assumptions arose, I would collect additional data to increase the sample size, check for outliers, change the effect size, apply a log transformation to the dependent variable, or apply a nonlinear transformation to variables, as described by

Hoekstra et al. (2012). Researchers use scatterplots to determine linearity and model fit (Stevens, 2009). Field (2013) stated checking for a variance inflation factor (VIF) less than 10 and tolerance level above 0.2, would indicate no issues with collinearity. When the largest VIF was below 10, with an average around 1 and tolerance below 0.2, a researcher would not find multicollinearity (García, García, López Martín, & Salmerón, 2015). Linearity fixes happen by transforming study data (Bishara & Hittner, 2012). No violations occurred.

I interpreted inferential results by observing the *p*-values for each of the hypotheses, with a low value indicating the null hypothesis had a low probability of being correct (Seaman, Seaman, & Allen, 2015). A *p* value of .05 was the threshold for whether to support or reject the null hypothesis and determine significance (Seaman et al., 2015). In this instance, I would interpret the alternative hypothesis to be correct and supported. Verdam, Oort, and Sprangers (2014) added informed judgment rather than a low *p* value alone, should guide a researcher while Kirsch et al. (2012) noted the significance of a test conveyed the probability of inadvertently rejecting a null hypothesis when true. Pearson product-moment correlation scores range from -1.00 to +1.00, with a +1.00 signifying a significant positive linear relationship and a value closer to -1.00 signifying a significant negative linear relationship. A value of 0 indicates a lack of relationship (Nikolić, Muresan, Feng, & Singer, 2012; Pavón-Domínguez et al., 2013), and a researcher uses the resultant correlation to identify the degree observers would agree with one another concerning a relationship (Tang, Golam Kibria, & Xie, 2013).

Data analysis occurred with SPSS version 21.0. The software entails a

streamlined way to collect and manage data and the means to screen data before analysis. The SPSS tool segregated raw data and output data while maintaining data organization. I reviewed survey responses for incomplete or unusable surveys in the final data set. The participants indicated how often they agreed with the items through a Likert-style scale wherein each survey question featured four to five possible responses (Bass & Avolio, 2004; Bothma & Roodt, 2008; Einarsen et al., 2002).

Study Validity

Assessing validity occurs to ensure trustworthiness and credibility of data (Wahyuni, 2012). Threats to validity arise from both internal and external sources (Ronau et al., 2014). Internal validity focuses on legitimacy and precision of instruments while external validity focuses on the generalizability of findings to a population (Wahyuni, 2012). An additional focus of validity is statistical conclusion validity. This facet entails the degree to which a conclusion about relationships between variables is correct (Kratochwill & Levin, 2014).

External Validity

External validity is a threat to research findings for a few reasons. Threats to external validity include selection bias, reactive effects of experimental setting, and multiple treatment interference (Lehtola et al., 2013). Data that may be valid for manufacturing firm employees in the U.S. may lose generalizability for employees outside of manufacturing. Differing demographic, geographic, or industry working conditions may each contribute differently to external threats and findings may not apply to a more diverse population (Aguinis, 2014).

I addressed selection bias with a probabilistic sampling method. Several researchers addressed the use of a probabilistic sampling method and noted that it ensures generalizability (Cokley & Awad, 2013), representativeness of data (Hsiu-Chin & Huan-Sheng, 2015), and improves heterogeneity (Solanki & Singh, 2015). The sample employed in the study allowed for the maximum opportunity for replication, as well as the relevance of the findings (Walker, 2012). The struggle to provide generalizable results for a population is a universal threat to quantitative studies (Simon & Goes, 2013). Probabilistic sampling allows researchers to avoid these threats to external validity and ensure a generalizable representation of the population (Ferguson, 2013). Researchers use validated and reliable instruments to facilitate replication of a study in different regions, industries, or with a different population (Bass & Avolio, 2004). A broad population increases external validity while instrumentation and delivery are the same for all participants (Alumran, Hou, & Hurst, 2012). Results are acceptable only to the extent the sample and model used are valid (Gajewski et al., 2012). Although transferability of research may be subjective (Marshall & Rossman, 2011), ensuring adequate external validity increases likelihood findings maintain generalizability (Olsen, Orr, Bell, & Stuart, 2013).

The use of a data analysis program, such as SPSS, to analyze data and identify potential variations created by external factors helps diminish external validity threats (Lehtola et al., 2013). Use of a nonexperimental design also lessens the likelihood of threats to external validity (Lehtola et al., 2013). The research did not address other

external threats, such as experimental variables, multiple treatment interference, or reactive effects of experimental arrangements.

Internal Validity

Internal validity measures how well a researcher can draw a valid conclusion toward causal effects of one variable to another (Simon & Goes, 2013). I selected a nonexperimental design. With a nonexperimental design, threats to internal validity were not applicable, as per Simon and Goes (2013) and the DBA rubric. Threats to statistical conclusion validity, however, were a research concern.

Statistical Conclusion Validity

Statistical conclusion validity is the extent researchers can make accurate inferences from data analysis (Brutus, Aguinis, & Wassmer, 2013). Statistical conclusion validity threats occur when a researcher makes a wrong conclusion based on a violation of statistical premises or inadequate statistical power (Petter, Rai, & Straub, 2012). Statistical conclusion validity concerns include inflations of Type I and Type II errors and low accuracy (Heyvaert & Onghena, 2014). Type I errors comprise situations where no difference or correlation exists, but researchers make one exist. Type II errors exist when a researcher does not find a difference when it does exist (Kratochiwill & Levin, 2014). Some of the principal threats to statistical conclusion validity of this study include (a) the reliability of the instrument, (b) data assumptions, and (c) sample size.

A researcher can diminish threats through adequate sampling and employment of appropriate statistical test and measurement procedures (Kratochiwill & Levin, 2014). Researchers utilized the selected instruments in published peer-reviewed journals with

provided reliability (Aasland et al., 2007; Bass & Avolio, 2004; Bothma & Roodt, 2008). I conducted an internal consistency reliability check of the final instrument against the specific sample, and employed an effect size of 0.15, alpha of .05, and desired power of .80, with a large sample size of 96 participants to allow sufficient power. A moderate effect size of 0.15 allows a researcher to determine significance (Cohen, 1992; Fritz et al., 2012). A power of .80 is useful to identify a sample is sufficient to detect and reject a false null hypothesis and combat Type I and Type II errors (Cooper & Schindler, 2013; Dae Shik, 2015; Gaskin & Happell, 2014). Threats to statistical conclusion validity decrease by using sufficient power (Cooper & Schindler, 2013), so I could detect a true effect. A *p* value of .05 was the threshold for whether to support or reject the null hypothesis (Gaskin & Happell, 2014; Seaman et al., 2015). A *p* value of .05 conveys the probability of inadvertently rejecting a null hypothesis when true (Kirsch et al., 2012).

Quantitative studies rely on data assumptions to ensure findings possess validity and protect from misestimating outcome (Osborne, 2013). Without certain assumptions, conclusions would not be valid. This study addressed a multiple linear regression statistical test, and some assumptions existed including (a) outliers, (b) multicollinearity, (c) normality, (d) linearity, (e) homoscedasticity, and (f) independence of residuals. Outliers are data outside the scope and become an issue when raw scores are converted to z-scores to determine if they fall above or below the +/-3.29 mark (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013). Elimination occurred for true outliers observed on a scatterplot. Issues with multicollinearity, normality, linearity, homoscedasticity, and independence of variables generate a regression model with biased, misleading, or inefficient confidence intervals,

forecasts, or scientific insights (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013). With the exception of outliers, researchers test the remainder of assumptions using normal probability plot (P-P) of the regression standardized or studentized residuals (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013). The SPSS version 21.0 software provide researchers the means to identify and test for errors (Field, 2013). These tests include VIF statistic, normality test, linearity assumption and transformations test, homoscedasticity assumption, and the Durbin-Watson Statistic (Chao et al., 2012; Field, 2013).

I worked with human resources personnel of the three selected companies to diminish the threat of an inadequate sample size and ensured receipt of 96 completed surveys. A low statistical power arises with too small of a sample size (Hoekstra, Kiers, & Johnson, 2012). Researchers use a power analysis to ensure a sufficient sample size (Rice, Traffimow, Graves, & Stauble, 2013) without collecting an excessively large sample (Sihoe, 2015). Without limit to the type of employee or manufacturing business permitted, achievement of greater generalization to the overall U.S. population may exist.

Transition and Summary

Section 2 contained a description of the project design and the adopted methodology. The section included (a) the purpose, (b) the role of the researcher, (c) the participants, (d) the research method and design, (e) the population and sampling method chosen, (f) the data collection instruments, (g) the data collection technique, (h) data analysis, and (i) study validity. This section included a discussion of research alignment with the quantitative method and correlational design. I informed that a probabilistic sampling of SME manufacturing employees in Warren County, New Jersey allowed for

the achievement of at least a 95% probability of finding a potential relationship. Analysis of collected data occurred using SPSS version 21.0, to include reliability testing, descriptive analysis, and multiple linear regression analysis. Section 3 contains a presentation of findings, applications to professional practice, implications for social change, recommendations for action and future research, and a discussion of reflections and study conclusions.

Section 3: Application to Professional Practice and Implications for Change

Introduction

The purpose of this quantitative correlation study was to examine the relationship between employee turnover and destructive leadership behaviors of managers in SME manufacturing businesses. I used a 22 question survey including items from the destructive leadership scale (DLS), multifactor leadership questionnaire (MLQ), and the turnover intention scale (TIS-6) to evaluate the relationship between the independent variables of (a) derailed leadership, (b) tyrannical leadership, (c) supportive-disloyal leadership, and (d) laissez-faire leadership and the dependent variable of employee turnover. I rejected the null hypothesis and accepted the alternative hypothesis. Tyrannical leadership and laissez-faire leadership significantly predicted employee turnover. This section includes a presentation of the findings, applications to professional practice, implications for social change, and foundation for the recommendations for further research. The section also includes reflections from the study process.

Presentation of the Findings

In this subsection, I discuss the testing of assumptions, present descriptive and inferential statistics, provide a theoretical interpretation of the findings, and conclude with a concise summary. I employed bootstrapping, using 1,000 samples, to combat the possible influence of assumption violations. Presentation of bootstrapping 95% confidence intervals occurred where appropriate.

Tests of Assumptions

I evaluated assumptions of multicollinearity, outliers, normality, linearity, homoscedasticity, and independence of residuals. I presented tables and figures as needed for the tests of assumption. Bootstrapping, using 1,000 samples, enabled me to combat the influence of assumption violations.

Multicollinearity. I conducted a test in SPSS version 21.0 regarding the severity of multicollinearity. I used the test to determine whether the linear relationship of the IVs to one another, depicted in Table 2, were too close for data analysis. Testing multicollinearity was essential because there were four predictor variables requiring calculation of tolerance and variance inflation factor (VIF). Table 2 indicates no conflicts for the IVs as the VIF was less than 10 for each, with a tolerance of 1.0 greater than .1 (York, 2012).

Table 2

Multicollinearity of Independent Variables

		Collinearity Statistics	
Model		Tolerance	VIF
1	Tyrannical	.557	1.794
	Supportive-disloyal	.644	1.552
	Laissez-faire	.807	1.239
2	Supportive-disloyal	.626	1.597
	Laissez-faire	.707	1.414
	Derailed	.479	2.087
3	Laissez-faire	.714	1.401
	Derailed	.310	3.224
	Tyrannical	.350	2.853
4	Derailed	.326	3.068
	Tyrannical	.332	3.009
	Supportive-disloyal	.599	1.669

Outliers, normality, linearity, homoscedasticity, and independence of residuals. I evaluated outliers, normality, linearity, homoscedasticity, and independence of residuals by examining the normal probability plots (P-P) as shown in Figures 3, 4, 5, 6, and 7, and the scatterplots of the studentized deleted residuals as shown in Figures 8, 9, 10, and 11. The visual examinations indicated no major violations of the assumptions. The tendency of the points formed a reasonably straight line without major deviations, as shown in Figures 3, 4, 5, 6, and 7. The points fell diagonally from bottom left to top right, supporting that no gross violations of the assumption of normality occurred (Boylan & Cho, 2012). The lack of a systematic pattern in the scatterplots of the studentized deleted residuals also supported that there were no serious violations of assumptions (see Figures 8, 9, 10, and 11). Studentized deleted residuals assist researchers to see departures from regression assumptions more readily than other residuals (Ramaboa & Underhill, 2014). I detected no major violations of regression assumptions; however, I computed 1,000 bootstrapping samples to combat any possible influence of assumption violations, reporting 95% confidence intervals based on the bootstrap samples where appropriate.

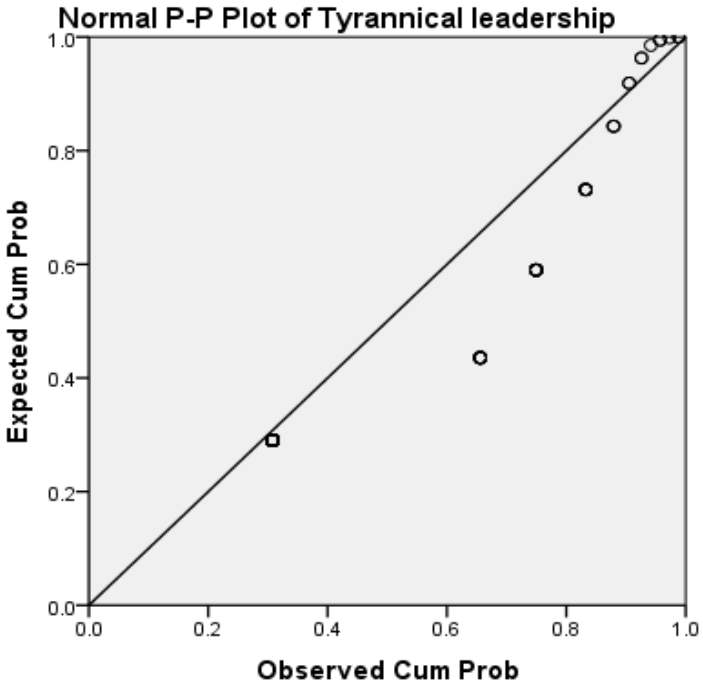

Figure 3. Normal probability plot (P-P) of tyrannical leadership.

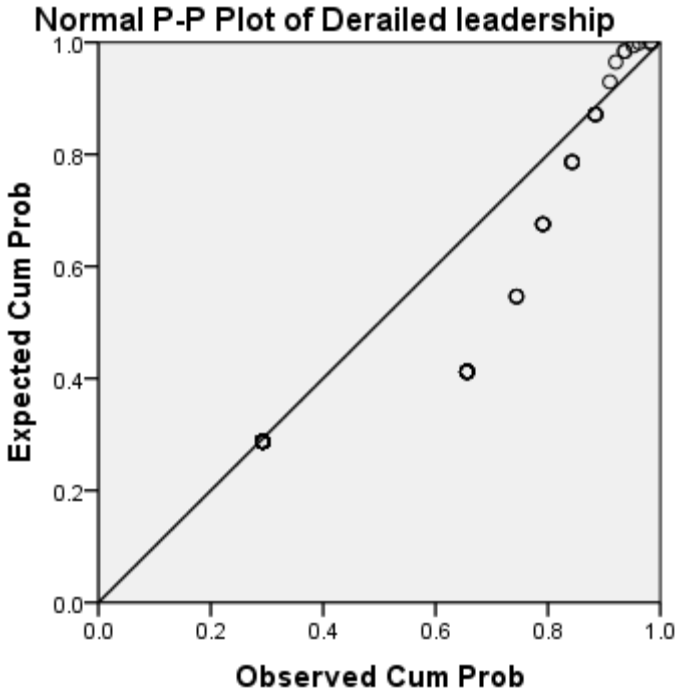

Figure 4. Normal probability plot (P-P) of derailed leadership.

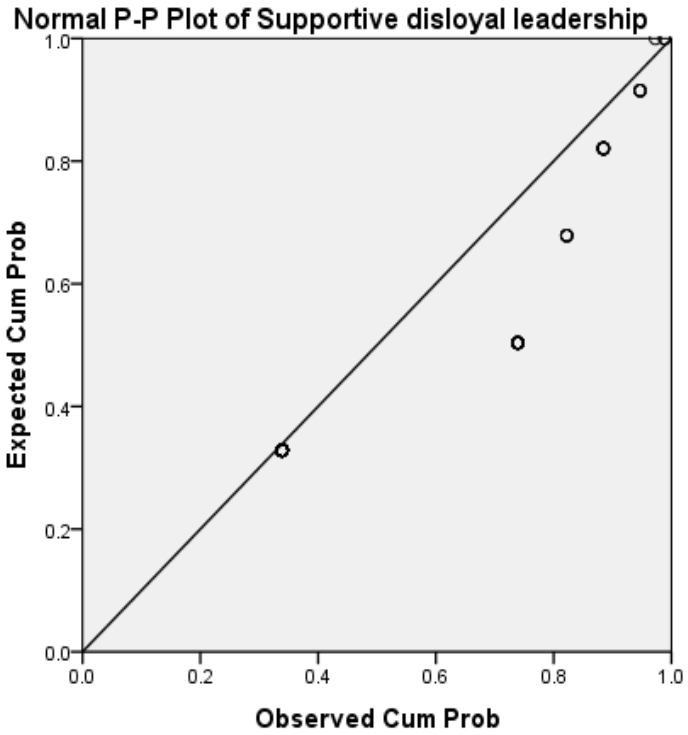

Figure 5. Normal probability plot (P-P) of supportive-disloyal leadership.

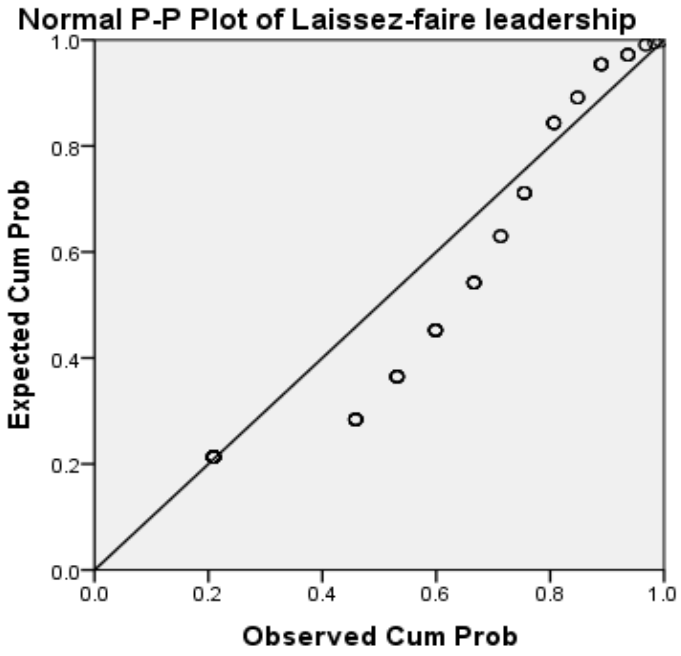

Figure 6. Normal probability plot (P-P) of laissez-faire leadership.

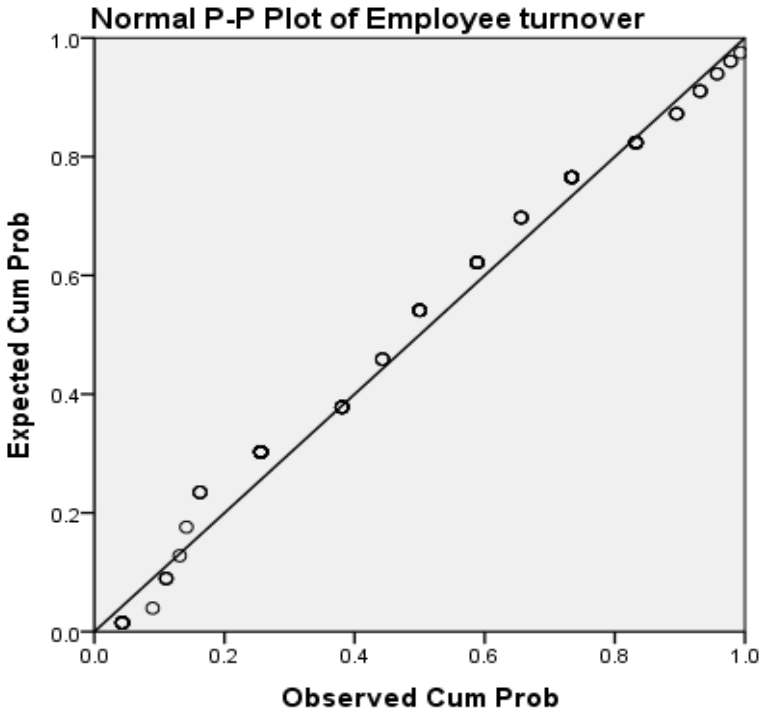

Figure 7. Normal probability plot (P-P) of employee turnover.

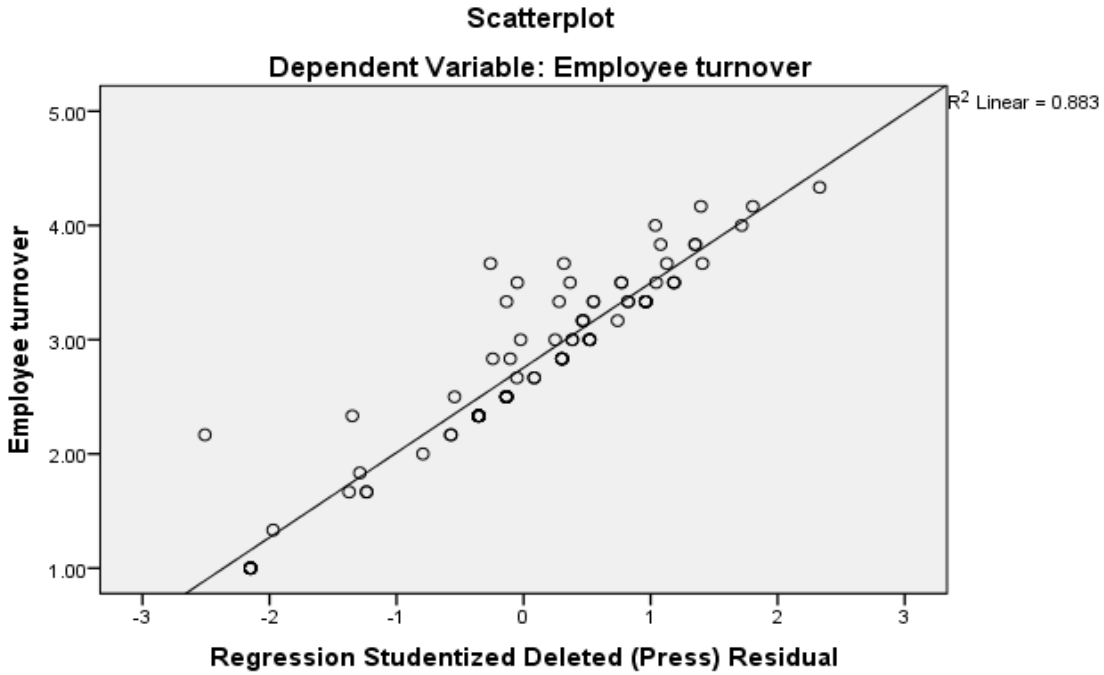

Figure 8. Scatterplot of studentized residuals for tyrannical leadership.

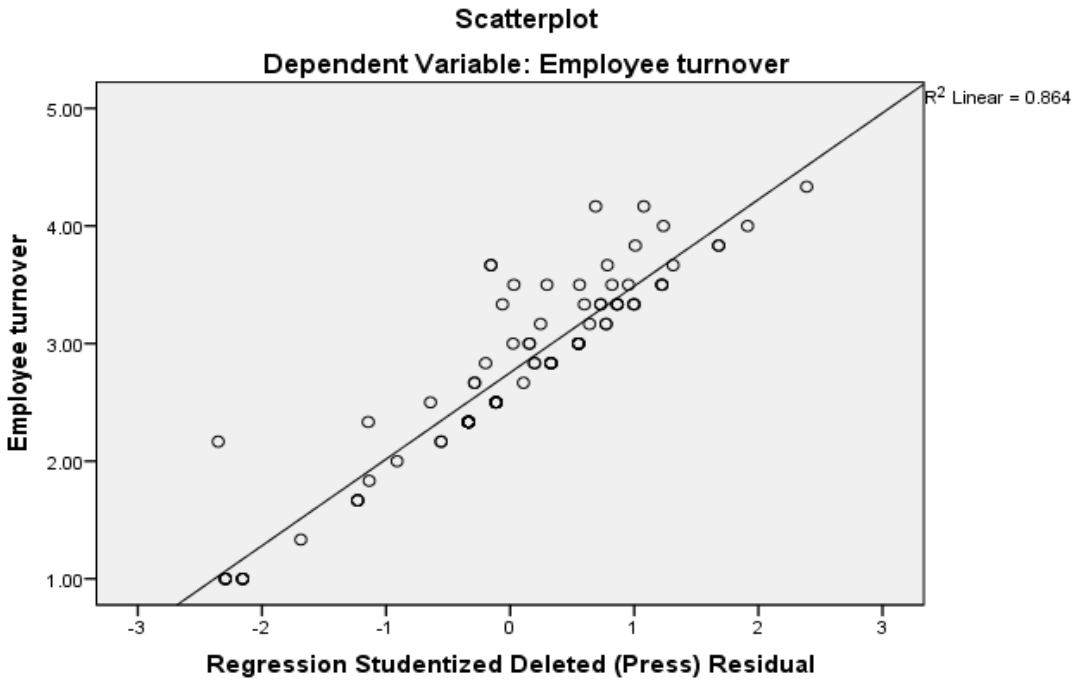

Figure 9. Scatterplot of studentized residuals for derailed leadership.

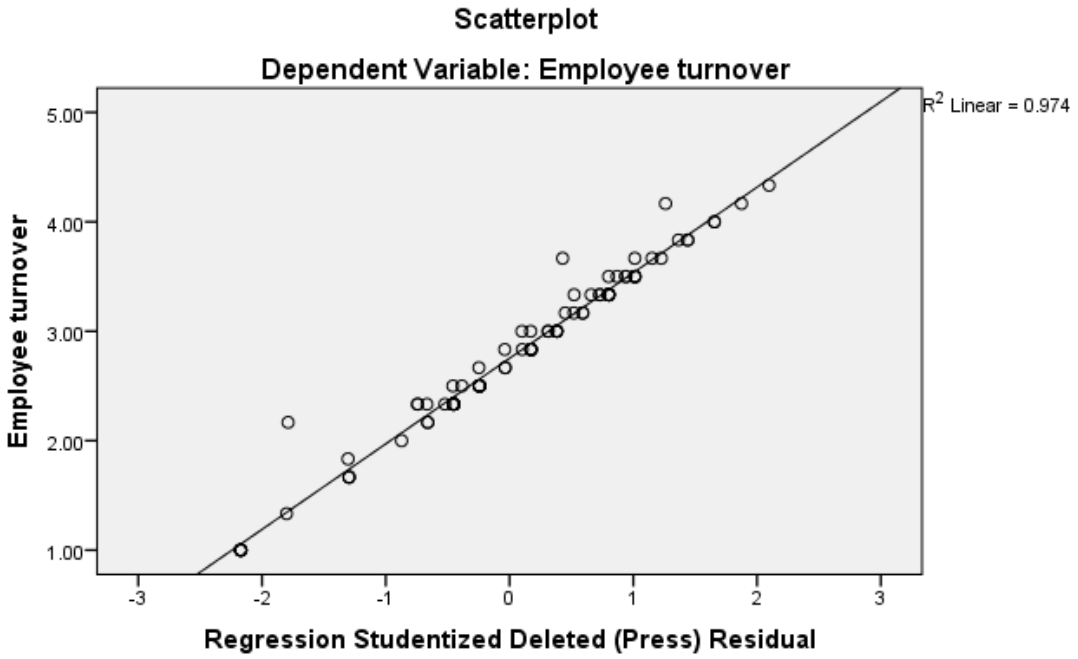

Figure 10. Scatterplot of studentized residuals for supportive-disloyal leadership.

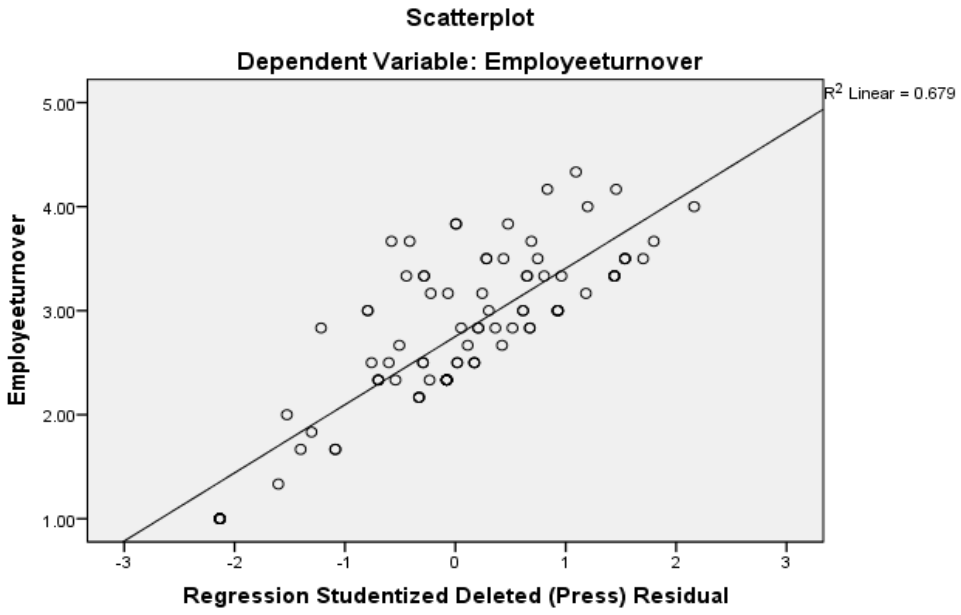

Figure 11. Scatterplot of studentized residuals for laissez-faire leadership.

Descriptive Statistics

In total, I received 96 completed and usable surveys. Table 3 shows descriptive statistics of the variables including the mean, standard deviation, skewness, and kurtosis of tyrannical leadership, derailed leadership, supportive-disloyal leadership, laissez-faire leadership, and employee turnover. Table 3 illustrates that the types of leadership have a positive skew while employee turnover has a negative skew. Table 4 shows the bootstraps for coefficients of the tyrannical, derailed, supportive-disloyal, and laissez-faire leadership styles.

Table 3

Descriptive Statistics of Study Variables

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation	Skewness	Kurtosis
Tyrannical leadership	96	1.00	4.00	1.3542	.64141	2.384	5.895
Derailed leadership	96	1.00	4.00	1.4141	.73791	2.188	4.341
Supportive-disloyal leadership	96	1.00	4.00	1.2448	.55009	3.563	14.437
Laissez-faire leadership	96	.00	4.00	.8828	1.10796	1.156	.190
Employee turnover	96	1.00	4.33	2.7500	.80604	-.536	-.037

Table 4

Bootstraps for Coefficients of Independent Variables

Model		β	Bootstrap				
			Bias	*SE*	Sig. (2-tailed)	95% Confidence Interval	
						Lower	Upper
1	(Constant)	2.188	-.032	.209	.001	1.704	2.554
	Tyrannical leadership	.415	.026	.147	.004	.168	.743
2	(Constant)	2.140	-.026	.215	.001	1.654	2.518
	Tyrannical leadership	.134	.057	.231	.501	-.219	.724
	Derailed leadership	.303	-.038	.195	.046	-.239	.544
3	(Constant)	2.237	-.058	.280	.001	1.511	2.681
	Tyrannical leadership	.184	.057	.218	.336	-.145	.733
	Derailed leadership	.354	-.051	.195	.018	-.154	.565
	Supportive-disloyal leadership	-.189	.042	.202	.317	-.545	.286
4	(Constant)	2.294	-.026	.203	.001	1.791	2.626
	Tyrannical leadership	.145	.016	.176	.325	-.193	.506
	Derailed leadership	.042	-.021	.161	.736	-.372	.295
	Supportive-disloyal leadership	-.104	.027	.173	.528	-.406	.283
	Laissez-faire leadership	.374	-.001	.066	.001	.238	.514

a. Unless otherwise noted, bootstrap results are based on 1,000 bootstrap samples

Note: $N = 96$.

Inferential Results

Standard multiple linear regression, α = .05 (two-tailed), took place to examine the strength of the relationship between destructive leadership behaviors of managers in SME manufacturing businesses and employee turnover. The independent variables were (a) derailed leadership, (b) tyrannical leadership, (c) supportive-disloyal leadership, and (d) laissez-faire leadership. The dependent variable was employee turnover. The null hypothesis stated there is no significant relationship between no significant relationship between (a) derailed leadership, (b) tyrannical leadership, (c) supportive-disloyal leadership, (d) laissez-faire leadership of managers in SME manufacturing businesses, and employee turnover. The alternative hypothesis stated there is a significant relationship between (a) derailed leadership, (b) tyrannical leadership, (c) supportive-disloyal leadership, (d) laissez-faire leadership of managers in SME manufacturing businesses, and employee turnover. I conducted preliminary analyses to determine whether results met the assumptions of multicollinearity, outliers, normality, linearity, homoscedasticity, and independence of residuals. I noted no serious violations.

The model was able to significantly predict employee turnover, $F(4, 91) = 11.337$, $p < .001$, $R^2 = .333$. The R^2 (.333) value indicated approximately 33% of the variance in employee turnover was uniquely accounted for by tyrannical leadership when controlling for the derailed, supportive-disloyal, and laissez-faire leadership styles. The addition of the laissez-faire leadership style indicated there was a significant relationship with employee turnover ($R^2 = 0.187$ or 18.7%). The addition of derailed leadership and supportive-disloyal leadership did not affect the relationship between

tyrannical leadership and employee turnover as the R-square change values, .027 and .010 respectfully, were insignificant. I, therefore, rejected the null hypothesis and accepted the alternative hypothesis. Table 5 conveys the results of the multiple linear regression analysis. Derailed leadership and supportive-disloyal leadership did not predict any significant variation in employee turnover. In Table 6, the model was predictive of employee turnover with laissez-faire leadership and tyrannical leadership shown as statistically significant, with laissez-faire leadership ($\beta = .514$, $p = .000$) accounting for a higher contribution to the model than tyrannical leadership ($\beta = .116$, $p = .038$). The final predictive equation was the following:

Employee turnover = 2.295 + 0.145 (tyrannical leadership) + 0.042 (derailed leadership) – 0.104 (supportive-disloyal leadership) + 0.374 (laissez-faire leadership).

Table 5

Model Summary of Regression Analysis

Model	R	R^2	Adjusted R^2	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics					Durbin-Watson
					R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change	
1	.330[a]	.109	.099	.76493	.109	11.488	1	94	.001	
2	.369[b]	.136	.117	.75730	.027	2.902	1	93	.092	
3	.382[c]	.146	.118	.75698	.010	1.079	1	92	.302	
4	.577[d]	.333	.303	.67282	.187	25.456	1	91	.000	2.073

a. Predictors: (Constant), Tyrannical leadership

b. Predictors: (Constant), Tyrannical leadership, Derailed leadership

c. Predictors: (Constant), Tyrannical leadership, Derailed leadership, Supportive-disloyal leadership

d. Predictors: (Constant), Tyrannical leadership, Derailed leadership, Supportive-disloyal leadership, Laissez-faire leadership

e. Dependent Variable: Employee turnover

Tyrannical leadership. The positive slope for tyrannical leadership (.145) as a predictor of employee turnover indicated there was an approximate .145 increase in employee turnover for each one-point increase in tyrannical leadership behavior (see Table 7). Employee turnover tends to decrease as tyrannical leadership decreases as well. The squared semipartial coefficient (sr^2) that estimated the variance in employee turnover predictable from age was .330, indicating tyrannical leadership uniquely accounted for 33% of the variance in employee turnover when controlling for the derailed, supportive-disloyal, and laissez-faire leadership behaviors.

Laissez-faire leadership. The positive slope for tyrannical leadership (.374) as a predictor of employee turnover indicated there was an approximate .374 increase in employee turnover for each one-point increase in tyrannical leadership behavior (see Table 7). Employee turnover tends to decrease as laissez-faire leadership decreases as well. The squared semipartial coefficient (sr^2) that estimated the variance in employee turnover predictable from age was .567, indicating laissez-faire leadership uniquely accounted for 57% of the variance in employee turnover when controlling for the derailed, supportive-disloyal, and tyrannical leadership behaviors.

Regression and Pearson product-moment analysis. Regression analysis (see Table 4) showed there was a significant positive relationship between employee turnover and tyrannical leadership style ($\beta = 0.415$), and significant positive relationship between employee turnover and laissez-faire leadership ($\beta = 0.374$). I determined the percentage of variance in the predictors and noted that all tolerances values were greater than 0.10 signifying the predictors were not redundant. As displayed in Table 5, the addition of

derailed leadership and supportive-disloyal leadership did not affect the relationship between tyrannical leadership and employee turnover, as the R-square change values .027 and .010 respectfully, were insignificant (see Table 5). I observed that with the addition of laissez-faire leadership there was a significant relationship with employee turnover. The Durbin-Watson test resulted in an independence value of 2.073 (see Table 5). As per Erdem and Uçar (2013), values greater than 2.0 signify no autocorrelation of the data.

Table 7 reports the Pearson product-moment correlation coefficients for the variables. The correlation illustrated there was a significant positive weak relationship between tyrannical leadership and employee turnover with $r = 0.330$, $p<0.01$; significant positive weak relationship between derailed leadership and employee with $r = 0.363$, $p<0.01$; and significant medium positive relationship between laissez-faire leadership and employee turnover with $r = 0.567$, $p<0.01$. The Pearson product-moment results confirmed the multiple linear regression analyses, with the exception of the weak relationship found for derailed leadership and employee turnover.

Table 6

Regression Analysis Summary for Predictor Variables

Variable	*B*	*SE B*	*β*	*t*	*p*	*B* 95% Bootstrap CI
(Constant)	2.294	.183		12.524	.000	[1.930, 2.657]
Tyrannical Leadership	.145	.187	.116	.778	.038	[-.226, -.517]
Derailed Leadership	.042	.175	.038	.237	.813	[-.306, .389]
Supportive-disloyal Leadership	-.104	.163	-.071	-.638	.525	[-.448, .220]
Laissez-faire Leadership	.374	.074	.514	5.045	.000	[.227, .521]

Note. $N = 96$.

Table 7

Pearson Correlation Analysis

	Tyrannical leadership	Derailed leadership	Supportive-disloyal leadership	Laissez-faire leadership	Employee turnover
Tyrannical leadership	1				
Derailed leadership	.806**	1			
Supportive-disloyal leadership	.596**	.607**	1		
Laissez-faire leadership	.440**	.535**	.259*	1	
Employee turnover	.330**	.363**	.154	.567**	1

Notes: ** = p<0.01; * = p<0.05

Analysis summary. The purpose of this study was to examine the strength of the relationship between (a) derailed leadership, (b) tyrannical leadership, (c) supportive-disloyal leadership, (d) laissez-faire leadership of managers in SME manufacturing businesses, and employee turnover. I used standard multiple linear regression and Pearson's product-moment correlation to examine the ability of derailed, tyrannical, supportive-disloyal, and laissez-faire leadership to predict employee turnover. I assessed assumptions surrounding multiple regression with no serious violations noted. The model as a whole was able to significantly predict employee turnover, $F(4, 91) = 11.337$, $p < .001$, $R^2 = .333$. The R^2 (.333) value indicated approximately 33% of the variance in employee turnover was uniquely accounted for by tyrannical leadership when controlling for the derailed, supportive-disloyal, and laissez-faire leadership styles. The conclusion from the analysis is that tyrannical leadership and laissez-faire leadership were significantly associated with employee turnover, even when controlling for the other predictors of derailed leadership and supportive-disloyal leadership.

Theoretical conversation on findings. In the current study, tyrannical leadership and laissez-faire leadership were the only significant predictors of employee turnover. Tyrannical leadership is the tendency of a leader to flaunt their power, humiliate, or manipulate others vindictively (Ashforth, 1994). Laissez-faire leadership is a style wherein a leader misses the opportunity to create the climate needed for followers to develop while failing to guide, direct, or support followers (Lutz Allen et al., 2013). Numerous researchers previously confirmed a link between leadership styles and employee turnover (Agrusa & Lema, 2007; Bycio et al., 1995; Ghosh et al., 2013;

Palanski et al., 2014). Further, many studies, such as Skogstad, Hetland, Glasø, and Einarsen (2014) reported immediate supervisors were highly influential on subordinates.

This study confirmed the findings of several studies. The results of Thoroughgood et al.'s (2012) research were similar. Thoroughgood et al. likewise found that DLB positively predicted turnover intentions. Long and Thean (2011) observed that transformational and transactional leadership were drivers of turnover intention. The researchers found constructive leadership decreased an employee's desire to leave their firm. Waldman, Carter, and Hom (2015) found employees were less likely to turnover when they had transformational, rather than destructive leaders. My study helps confirm these findings by identifying two destructive forms were significant predictors of turnover although it did not replicate measurement of constructive leadership.

My research contributes to the literature, as relatively few studies exist about the effects of destructive leadership compared to constructive leadership (Schyns & Schilling, 2013). Skogstad et al. (2014b) presented results of two surveys used to investigate the influence of constructive, laissez-faire, and tyrannical leadership behaviors on the satisfaction of followers. The constructs of tyrannical and laissez-faire leadership were the same as in this study. Skogstad et al. found two destructive leadership forms were significant predictors of satisfaction, while constructive leadership did not possess a significant relationship. The results of this study help confirm the Skogstad et al. study and extend results for the same two destructive forms.

Several researchers found the laissez-faire style to be the most significant predictor of a phenomenon. Yan et al. (2014) considered laissez-faire leadership the most

destructive form and found the form to lower follower learning from errors. Aasland et al. (2010) observed that laissez-faire leadership was the most negative form of leadership. Similarly, Lutz Allen et al. (2013) studied laissez-faire leadership, but in regards to psychological climate for organizational creativity of followers. The researchers noted that laissez-faire leadership was the most statistically significant predictor of lowered levels in followers. Kleinman (2004) found active management by exception, behaviors in keeping with the laissez-faire leadership style, were the only significant predictor for nurse turnover, despite low frequencies of occurrence. Although the researchers employed different dependent variables, my study confirmed the finding that the laissez-faire leadership style tended to be a better predictor of a phenomenon than other negative leadership styles.

Lee and Mitchell (2001) found transformational leadership moderated the relationship amongst turnover intentions. In their unfolding model, employees received shocks that created turnover and job dissatisfaction in employees. The authors noted that leadership could provide the shocks needed to start an individual to reconsider his or her employment. The results of this study illustrate that DLB may create shocks like those described by Mitchell and Lee, which relate to turnover intentions and turnover. My study, however, did not support all of Lee and Mitchell's model. Most notably, only two of the four destructive forms significantly predicted employee turnover intentions in the sample and the most actively destructive form, derailed leadership, was less significant than other forms. I also observed that the majority of participants (42.7%) in my study reported they never considered leaving their job. Most of these participants, however,

reported incidents of destructive leadership but did not react to these shocks disconfirming aspects of the Lee and Mitchell model. This difference may have been the result of participant perception for their leaders or other mitigating factors.

The theoretical framework was the constructive-destructive leadership model (Aasland et al., 2010). I found no other researchers examined the relationship of destructive leadership on employee turnover through the theoretical lens of the constructive-destructive leadership model. This study added to existing knowledge of the theoretical framework, as well as the similar model of DLB presented by Aasland et al. (2010).

Applications to Professional Practice

I collected survey data from SME manufacturing firm employees in Warren County, New Jersey to help fill gaps in understanding of the strength of the relationship between destructive leadership behaviors of managers and employee turnover. The findings illustrated a statistically significant relationship existed between the tyrannical leadership and laissez-faire leadership styles, and employee turnover. Through regression analysis, I observed a significant positive relationship between employee turnover and the tyrannical leadership style and a significant positive relationship between employee turnover and laissez-faire leadership. The addition of the derailed and supportive-disloyal leadership styles did not affect the relationship. I, therefore, rejected the null hypothesis and accepted the alternative hypothesis.

The study's value to business starts with implementing findings into leadership training and retention strategies. Employee retention rate has become a key performance

indicator for many organizations (Moussa, 2013). Further, employee turnover is increasingly expensive for an organization (Bagga, 2013). To diminish employee turnover, leaders in an organization can begin to overcome issues caused by DLB. With effective and proper implementation, business managers may diminish employee turnover, leading to financial sustainability and long-term growth. HR personnel and managers should regulate employee turnover through the development of working environments limited in turnover generating conditions, but attentive to the retention of valued employees (Young, Beckman, & Baker, 2012). Positive working environments should allow a firm to retain its best asset; experienced and trained employees.

This study may have direct managerial applicability to include assisting business leaders to address employee concerns about their managers in effective ways. Leadership is a significant driver of employee turnover intention (Long & Thean, 2011). Senior managers should decide on the styles of leadership they promote to potentially reduce turnover, thereby reducing costs. With full leadership support, employees may become responsible and powerful as they realize their leaders value them and care for their wellbeing (Kang, Gatling, & Kim, 2015). Employees observing concern from their managers will remain committed to their firm. The results contribute statistical data and recommendations to senior company leaders for them to review, evaluate outcomes, and concentrate on strategic efforts to diminish employee turnover.

Implications for Social Change

The implications for positive social change include the potential to provide information and tools to senior managers to better understand some factors that relate to

employee retention. Business leaders need to understand why people stay in their jobs and the forces that influence embeddedness to retain employees (Borah & Malakar, 2015). The results may contribute to social change by providing managers and HR personnel with the information needed to identify DLB; particularly tyrannical and laissez-faire leadership behaviors. The potential also exists to provide business managers with the understanding necessary to maintain or increase retention levels through the prediction of attrition causing leadership factors.

Positive social change includes diminishing employee turnover through innovative training or digital means of sharing information (Von Krogh, 2012). These new methods may provide business managers with the means to share knowledge and grow as a company. Another implication for positive social change is strengthening leadership-training sessions to focus on the two styles identified in this study. Social change led from an organization's managers can encourage employee empowerment for organizational improvements (Weisenfeld, 2012). These internal improvements may lead to external culture improvements while increasing firm performance. Businesses have both the opportunity and to a lesser degree, an obligation, to supplement the roles once served by the government and address social issues (Sonenshein, 2016). Within the firm, focusing on employee wellbeing enhances employee competence, performance, engagement, and leads to decreased employee turnover (Frisch & Huppenbauer, 2014).

Social change affects the functional meaning and significance of a person (Chen, 2015) and lifestyle an individual can attain (Kagitçibasi, 2012). Tangibly, these social change implications include a potential for managers to build a more desirable

workplace, increase employee satisfaction with their job and leaders, and make employees willing to remain with their firm. On a societal level, managers experienced or trained in appropriate leadership styles and knowledgeable of what to avoid can reduce turnover risk. The implications of positive social change from reducing employee turnover may improve employee morale (Chiller & Crisp, 2012), increase job satisfaction, and enhance the fulfillment of customers in the communities served. Individuals can use the same experiences and knowledge at the governmental or community levels to help develop better retention strategies for social or civic organizations. The recommendations for action support these implications for social change.

Recommendations for Action

The actionable recommendations drawn from this study start with recommending organizational managers at all levels enhance their awareness of the current leadership styles employed at their firm. Once managers have this information, I recommend managers establish training programs and mentorship to improve managerial skills and knowledge of DLB. As introduced, tyrannical and laissez-faire leadership styles significantly affected employee turnover. Managerial training and mentorship should specifically address these two areas. The potential exists to provide managers with the tools necessary to increase retention through the prediction of destructive leadership and possible reduction of attrition.

Another recommendation is the enactment of assessment periods to identify leadership issues, and the introduction of accompanying company policy to provide

employees a means to bring leadership issues to light. Proper assessment and implementation of policy increases employee commitment and lowers turnover (Kehoe & Wright, 2013). Working toward implementing new strategies to address leadership issues may help retain employees. Although this study illustrated a significant positive relationship with only two of the four DLB styles, a general awareness of them all may assist in lowering turnover.

Managers at all levels need to pay attention to the results as increasing employee turnover levels are costly and disrupt performance. Addressing the manner in which DLB styles influence employee turnover can help reduce or prevent future employee turnover. Company managers may find the results useful as an analytical tool to predict the leadership styles that may increase turnover risk in employees. Senior level managers should also pay attention to the results, as well as assess which leadership styles negatively correlate with employee turnover among company employees.

Sharing the results with the three surveyed manufacturing firms is logical since I drew the participants from these organizations. To share the results, I will present the findings to the point of contact and HR representatives at each firm for his or her disbursement to managers and employees alike. Senior leaders should ensure these results are visible to share with their employees. Managers fulfill a collaborative role in an organization (Dike, 2012) and, therefore, may share the results of the present study through interactive or training sessions to help enhance awareness at every level. Finally, I have the option to share these results through publication in peer-reviewed or scholarly journals at a later point.

Recommendations for Further Research

I used a quantitative correlational method to determine the relationships between variables to answer the given hypotheses. Study limitations were as follows (a) identification of variables, (b) time constraints to conduct the study, and (c) the results did not establish causation. I did not include antecedents to turnover, nor did I include employee perceptions. Each participant worked in a Warren County, New Jersey SME-sized manufacturing firm.

I recommend future researchers explore other variables about destructive leadership; particularly those less studied to find the currently most prevalent forms. Additionally, future researchers may choose to use a qualitative model to study DLB and employee turnover. After completion, I realized the results might provide researchers with a foundation for qualitative research to garner an in-depth understanding of destructive leadership behaviors and turnover. A qualitative study may indicate why the tyrannical and laissez-faire leadership styles were predictive factors of employee turnover, as well as why the derailed and supportive-disloyal styles were not.

A longitudinal study may provide substantive results as a researcher would be able to follow employees from their first day of work until they quit a firm. A longitudinal study is also beneficial as employee perceptions of their leaders change over time (Karakowsky et al., 2012) and leaders change their leadership style (Zydziunaite & Suominen, 2014). Conducting a longitudinal qualitative study could add richness to a study of DLB by providing background data and would allow for the incorporation of employment, training, or performance records. It would also allow a researcher to

measure actual turnover rather than using turnover intention as a proxy. The addition of employee perceptions and experiences may yield different results.

Future studies should also address antecedents of DLB. This knowledge would help managers prevent such behavior in leaders and help to develop tools to rehabilitate leaders that act against organizational interests. May (2014) argued followers are an integral part of destructive leadership and recognizing their influence may help develop resources to identify destructive leaders.

The survey questionnaire used was a Likert-style scale and limited participant ability to expand or express opinions of DLB. A semistructured design employing personal interviews could help researchers obtain a better explanation of the phenomenon through participant experiences. Employing the selected instruments with a larger or more diverse sample may substantiate the results of this study on a greater scale. I recommend future researchers replicate this study with a different sample to identify why derailed leadership and supportive-disloyal leadership did not significantly affect employee turnover. I also recommend researchers explore the same variables in different industries or geographic locations to confirm generalizability.

Reflections

Having served in the military, I fully understand how the differing leadership styles can affect an individual's decision to stay or leave his or her employer. I began this study possessing preconceived ideas that my independent variables would be statistically significant to employee turnover and that destructive leadership behavior would be more prevalent than I found it to be. These preconceived ideas were not an influential factor,

however, because of the use of an anonymous design without researcher interaction and survey instruments validated in previous studies. I possessed few personal biases before conducting the study and by choosing a quantitative approach and an anonymous online survey; I was able to mitigate any remaining risks from personal biases. I did not interact directly with participants, however, a possible effect on the participants was the introduction of a new topic to get the employees to think critically about DLB and to evaluate leader actions from that standpoint. The summary may help the community partner employees to obtain a better idea of the leadership styles that exist within companies of their field.

While the DBA doctoral study process was a challenge unto itself, the collection of data was particularly challenging. Attaining a community member organization's consent to survey their employees became difficult, as they tended to focus on the detrimental effects of DLB rather than the benefits of turnover reduction. Community member organizations and participants also changed their mind from initial contact to the opening of the survey. Other organizations and participants appreciated the potential benefits of the survey and its importance and chose to participate without the need for reminder e-mails. In the end, I was able to exceed the required minimum sample size.

With the study complete, I feel using Likert-style scaled items limited participants in expressing their perspectives on DLB, although the use of the SurveyMonkey site was beneficial to protecting participants and speedily collecting data without additional effort. This research study was motivating due to my interest in addressing destructive

leadership behaviors and throughout the research process, personal reflection ensued. The reflections aligned with the results of this study.

Conclusion

In the manufacturing industry, employee retention affects more than business practice alone. Retention is crucial to maintaining organizational knowledge (George, 2015) and conservation of financial resources (Hancock, Allen, Bosco, McDaniel, & Pierce, 2013) needed to optimize firm performance. Baily and Bosworth (2014) noted Americans live within a global economy driven by manufacturing and the exchange and consumption of products. The accelerating levels of global competition, shrinking innovation cycles for production, and long-term decline of manufacturing employment (Visnjic Kastalli, Van Looy, & Neely, 2013) makes retention of valuable employees increasingly imperative. Moreover, the loss of nearly 6 million manufacturing jobs since 2000 increases the need to retain valuable employees (Baily & Bosworth, 2014). HR personnel and organizational managers must implement policies and practices that contribute to lowering human capital losses. The need to continue examining the relationship between destructive leadership behaviors of managers in SME manufacturing businesses, and employee turnover is critical with the continued shrinking labor forces of the manufacturing industry.

The significance of this study surpasses the immediate need for manufacturing firm employees and encompasses employee wellbeing concerns for those subject to destructive leaders. Few studies exist on the relationship between destructive leadership behavior constructs and employee turnover; this study being the only one I was able to

locate employing the constructive-destructive leadership model (Aasland et al., 2010) to do so. With some DLB factors possessing a statistically significant relationship with employee turnover, managers should seek to reduce tyrannical and laissez-faire leadership styles from their organizations, to excel in this economy amidst diminishing manufacturing employment.

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Appendix A: Participant Recruitment Letter

Date: [Insert Date]

Re: Request to Participate in a Research Study

Dear Recipient:

My name is Craig Hyson and I am a student at Walden University, pursuing a Doctor of Business Administration degree (DBA). I am conducting a research study examining the strength of the relationship between destructive leadership behaviors and employee turnover of manufacturing employees, and I am focusing on Warren County, New Jersey. Destructive leadership behaviors concern leaders that disregard or act against the success of company goals through actions toward employees, the company, or both. The title of my study is "Relationship Between Destructive Leadership Behaviors and Employee Turnover." I would like to help managers gain the knowledge to analyze and overcome the relationship between destructive leadership behaviors and employee turnover. I would like to survey manufacturing company employees through an Internet based survey who meet the following criteria:

- Must work as an employee in a subordinate capacity
- Must work at a business in the manufacturing field located in Warren County, NJ
- Must have daily interaction with your manager
- Must be a minimum of 18 years of age

Upon completion, I will provide a 1-2 page summary of the research results to your company so that they may distribute it to yourself and other interested employees. Individuals who would like to participate and meet the criteria may contact me. I will e-mail a link to participate in the survey at a later date. Thank you for your consideration.

Sincerely,

Craig M. Hyson
DBA Student, Walden University

Appendix B: Survey Instrument

Definition: Destructive leadership behaviors concern leaders that disregard or act against the success of company goals through actions toward employees, the company, or both.

Instructions

Thank you in advance for taking the time to complete this survey. There are three separate sections. Please review the response options available for each section listed at their beginning and review the scale used for each. The purpose of this instrument is to collect data on how the destructive behaviors of managers in manufacturing companies relate to an employee's decision to stay or leave their company. In brief, destructive leadership behaviors concern leaders that disregard or act against the success of company goals through actions toward employees, the company, or both. The highlighted statement for each section gives you the setting for the numbered question.

Destructive Leadership Scale

Judge how frequently the following applies and use the following scale:

Never	Sometimes	Quite often	Very often/Nearly always
1	2	3	4

Have you experienced that your immediate superior during the last six months…

1. has humiliated you, or other colleagues, if you/they do not live up to his/her standards
2. has imitated, or made faces (e.g. rolling his/her eyes, pulling a face etc.) to you, or other colleagues, in order to show that he/she is unhappy with your/their work efforts.
3. has spread incorrect information about you, or your colleagues, in order to damage your/their standing in the company.
4. has given you a dressing down on the phone, hung up in the middle of a conversation, or sent you an offensive e-mail, because he/she thinks you have done a poor job.
5. has ascribed the company's success to his/her own efforts ahead of the efforts of the employees.
6. has used his/her position in the company for financial/material gain at the company's expense.
7. has regarded his/her colleagues more as rivals than partners.
8. has reduced your chance to express yourself at meetings, by assigning you little time to talk, or by putting you at the end.
9. has been chummy by encouraging you/your colleagues to extend your/their lunch break.
10. has encouraged you to take advantage of extra privileges at the company's expense.
11. has encouraged you, or your colleagues, to take extra coffee/smoke breaks, as a reward for good work efforts.

12. has encouraged you or your colleagues to carry out private tasks/errands during working hours.

Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire 5xShort

Judge how frequently the following applies and use the following scale:

Not at all	Once in a while	Sometimes	Fairly often	Frequently, if not always
0	1	2	3	4

The person (manager) I am rating…

1. avoids getting involved when important issues arise
2. is absent when needed
3. avoids making decisions
4. delays responding to urgent questions

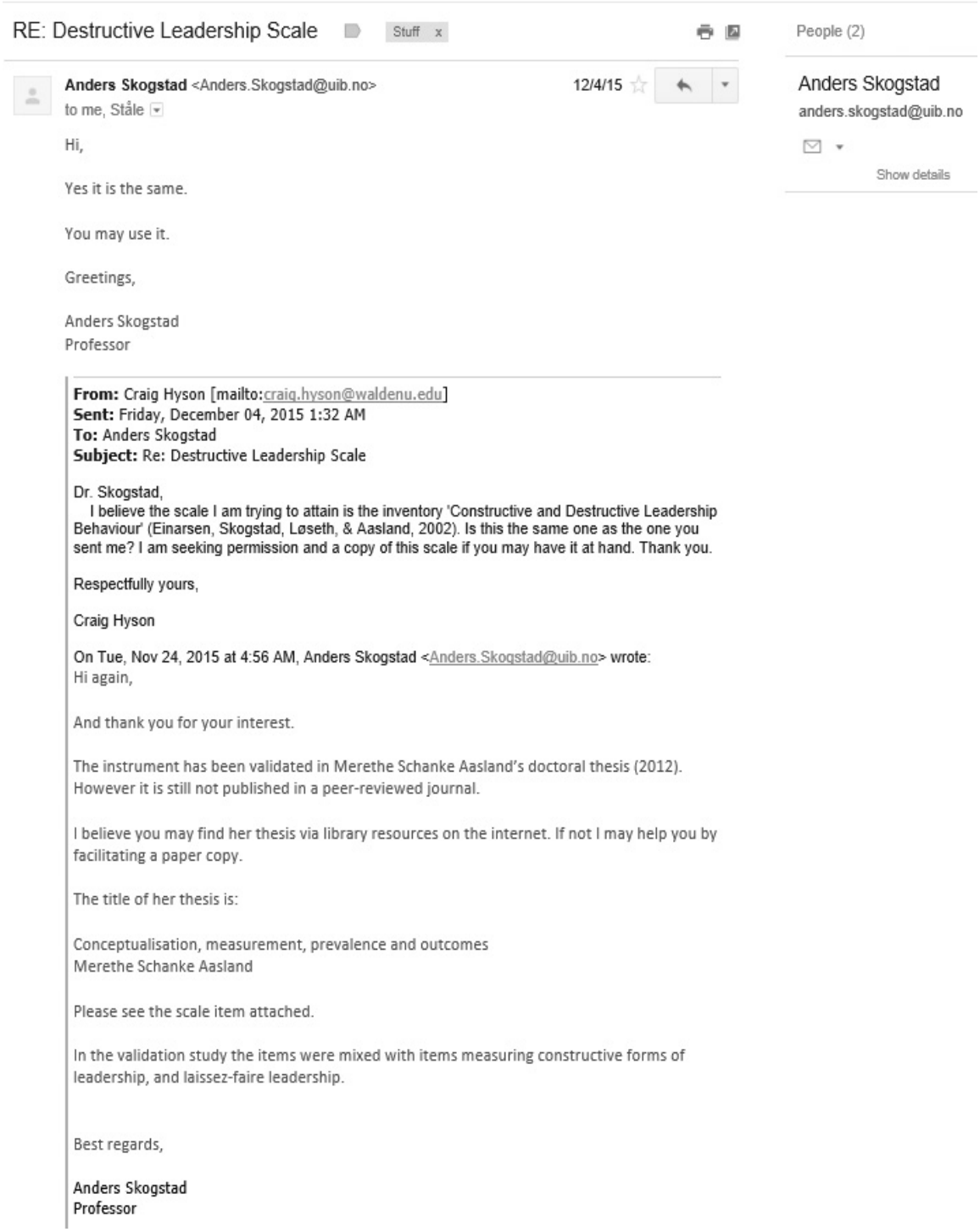
Turnover Intention Scale (TIS-6)

The following section aims to ascertain the extent to which you intend to stay at the organization. Please read each question and indicate your response using the scale provided for each question.

During the past 9 months…

1. How often have you considered leaving your job?
   Never < 1----2----3----4----5> Always
2. To what extent is your current job satisfying your personal needs?
   To no extent < 1----2----3----4----5> To a very large extent
3. How often are you frustrated when not given the opportunity at work to achieve your personal work-related goals?
   Never < 1----2----3----4----5> Always
4. How often do you dream about getting another job that will better suit your personal needs?
   Never < 1----2----3----4----5> Always
5. How likely are you to accept another job at the same compensation level, should it be offered to you?
   Highly unlikely < 1----2----3----4----5> Highly likely
6. How often do you look forward to another day at work?
   Never < 1----2----3----4----5> Always

Appendix C: Permission to Use the Destructive Leadership Scale



RE: Destructive Leadership Scale

Stuff x

Anders Skogstad <Anders.Skogstad@uib.no> 12/4/15

to me, Ståle

Hi,

Yes it is the same.

You may use it.

Greetings,

Anders Skogstad
Professor

From: Craig Hyson [mailto:craig.hyson@waldenu.edu]
Sent: Friday, December 04, 2015 1:32 AM
To: Anders Skogstad
Subject: Re: Destructive Leadership Scale

Dr. Skogstad,
I believe the scale I am trying to attain is the inventory 'Constructive and Destructive Leadership Behaviour' (Einarsen, Skogstad, Løseth, & Aasland, 2002). Is this the same one as the one you sent me? I am seeking permission and a copy of this scale if you may have it at hand. Thank you.

Respectfully yours,

Craig Hyson

On Tue, Nov 24, 2015 at 4:56 AM, Anders Skogstad <Anders.Skogstad@uib.no> wrote:
Hi again,

And thank you for your interest.

The instrument has been validated in Merethe Schanke Aasland's doctoral thesis (2012). However it is still not published in a peer-reviewed journal.

I believe you may find her thesis via library resources on the internet. If not I may help you by facilitating a paper copy.

The title of her thesis is:

Conceptualisation, measurement, prevalence and outcomes
Merethe Schanke Aasland

Please see the scale item attached.

In the validation study the items were mixed with items measuring constructive forms of leadership, and laissez-faire leadership.

Best regards,

Anders Skogstad
Professor

People (2)

Anders Skogstad
anders.skogstad@uib.no

Show details

Appendix D: Permission to use the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire 5X-Short

mind garden

www.mindgarden.com

To whom it may concern,

This letter is to grant permission for the above named person to use the following copyright material for his/her research:

Instrument: ***Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire***

Authors: ***Bruce Avolio and Bernard Bass***

Copyright: ***1995 by Bruce Avolio and Bernard Bass***

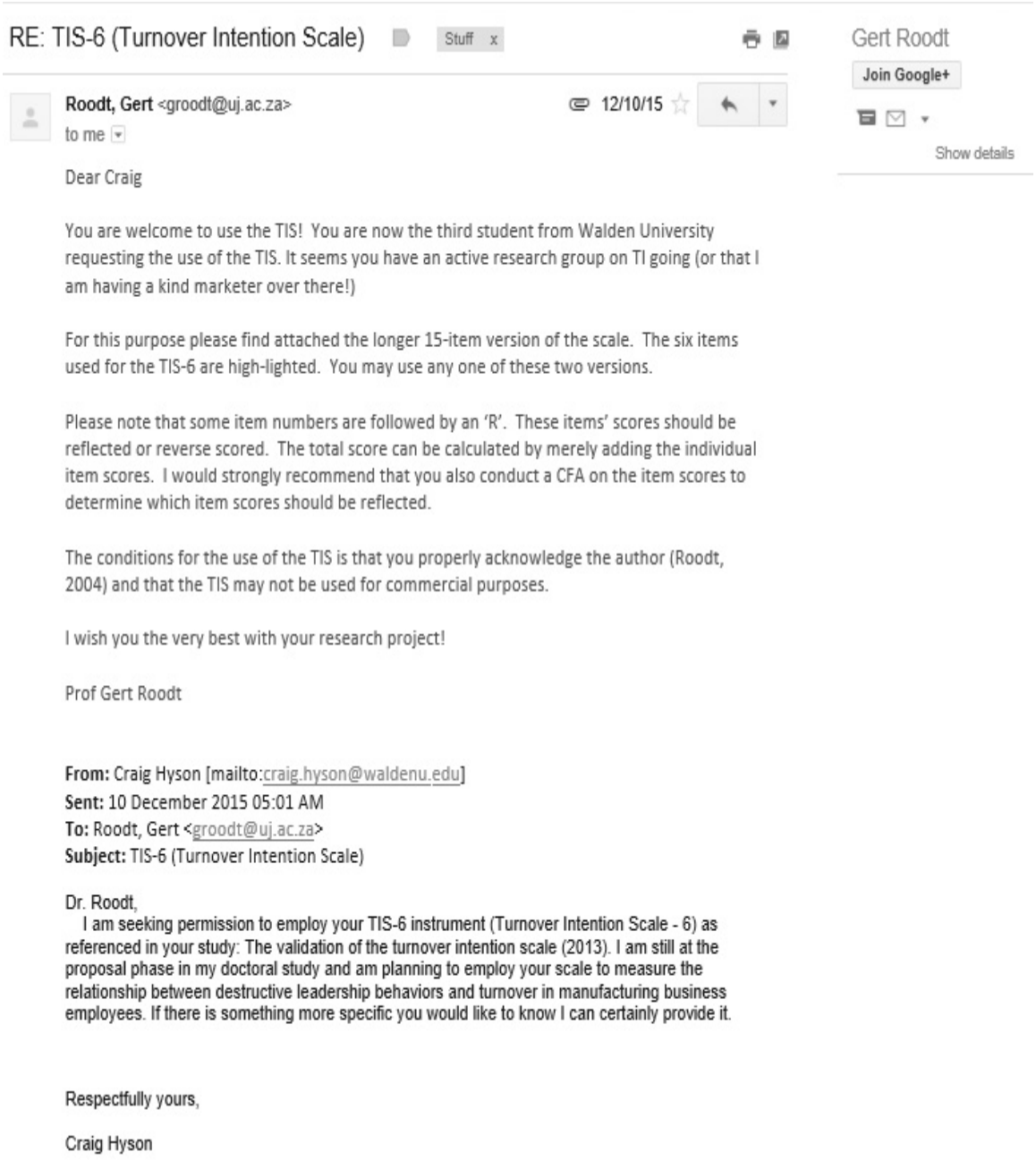
Five sample items from this instrument may be reproduced for inclusion in a proposal, thesis, or dissertation.

The entire instrument may not be included or reproduced at any time in any published material.

Sincerely,

Robert Most
Mind Garden, Inc.
www.mindgarden.com

Appendix E: Permission to use the Turnover Intention Scale



RE: TIS-6 (Turnover Intention Scale) Stuff x

Roodt, Gert <groodt@uj.ac.za> 12/10/15

to me

Dear Craig

You are welcome to use the TIS! You are now the third student from Walden University requesting the use of the TIS. It seems you have an active research group on TI going (or that I am having a kind marketer over there!)

For this purpose please find attached the longer 15-item version of the scale. The six items used for the TIS-6 are high-lighted. You may use any one of these two versions.

Please note that some item numbers are followed by an 'R'. These items' scores should be reflected or reverse scored. The total score can be calculated by merely adding the individual item scores. I would strongly recommend that you also conduct a CFA on the item scores to determine which item scores should be reflected.

The conditions for the use of the TIS is that you properly acknowledge the author (Roodt, 2004) and that the TIS may not be used for commercial purposes.

I wish you the very best with your research project!

Prof Gert Roodt

From: Craig Hyson [mailto:craig.hyson@waldenu.edu]
Sent: 10 December 2015 05:01 AM
To: Roodt, Gert <groodt@uj.ac.za>
Subject: TIS-6 (Turnover Intention Scale)

Dr. Roodt,
I am seeking permission to employ your TIS-6 instrument (Turnover Intention Scale - 6) as referenced in your study: The validation of the turnover intention scale (2013). I am still at the proposal phase in my doctoral study and am planning to employ your scale to measure the relationship between destructive leadership behaviors and turnover in manufacturing business employees. If there is something more specific you would like to know I can certainly provide it.

Respectfully yours,

Craig Hyson

Gert Roodt
Join Google+
Show details

Appendix F: Permission to Reproduce the Constructive-Destructive Leadership Model

RE: Permission to Reproduce a Figure in a Doctoral Study

Inbox x

Lewis Johnson
ljohnson@bam.ac.uk
Show details

Lewis Johnson <ljohnson@bam.ac.uk> Feb 25
to me

Dear Craig,

Hope you are well.

I would presume that is ok. If you have the authors permission then that is fine.

Best wishes,

Lewis

Lewis Johnson | Membership and Communications Administrator

British Academy of Management, 137 Euston Road London, NW1 2AA, UK
T: +44 (0)20 7383 9793 | **F**: +44 (0)20 7383 0377 | ljohnson@bam.ac.uk
---
BAM Conference | **Facebook** | **Twitter** | **Linkedin** | **www.bam.ac.uk**

Anders Skogstad
anders.skogstad@uib.no
Show details

Anders Skogstad Feb 23
to me

Hi!

Please do so.

But – with reference to my papers on Laissez-faire leadership - my research support the notion that Laissez-faire leadership is privarily found in the lower and left quadrant, together with derailed leadership. If you comment on the model, please refer to that (cf. publications).

Best regards,

Anders Skogstad
Professor

Department of Psychosocial Science
University of Bergen
Christiesgate 12
N-5020 Bergen
Norway

Telephone +4755589077

E-mail Anders.Skogstad@psysp.uib.no

From: Craig Hyson [mailto:craig.hyson@waldenu.edu]
Sent: Monday, February 22, 2016 9:25 PM
To: Anders Skogstad
Subject: Re: Destructive Leadership Scale

Dr. Skogstad,
Hello again. I am still working on my doctoral study and it is now in the initial review process (SCM). I would like to ask for your permission for to include a figure from one of your and your colleagues' studies:

> Aasland, M., Skogstad, A., Notelaers, G., Nielsen, M., & Einarsen, S. (2010). The prevalence of destructive leadership behavior. *British Journal of Management, 21*, 438-452. doi:10.1111/j.1467-8551.2009.00672.x

The figure is on page 440 (third page of the study) and titled *Figure 1. A model of destructive leadership behavior*. I would like to include the figure as your underlying model of destructive leadership behavior forms the framework of my study and the figure would be especially useful in explanation. I will of course cite the study as where it was retrieved and include your permission. Thank you in advance/ Tusen takk!

Craig Hyson
Walden University