

Does Supervisor Dominant Workstyle Relate to Subordinate Total Readiness and Turnover Intentions?

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Abstract: The relationship between hospital supervisor dominant workstyle, subordinate total readiness, and turnover intentions were investigated among ($N = 48$) supervisors and ($N = 196$) subordinates, male and female between the ages of 18 to 56, from six randomly selected hospitals within Texas. The instrumentation for the study was the Blanchard,

Hersey, and Hambleton (1977) Readiness Scale, Wilson Learning Workstyle Inventory Quiz, the Jackofsky and Slocum's 1987 Turnover Intent Scale, and a demographic questionnaire designed by the researcher. The Robert Bolton and

Dorothy Grover Bolton "People's Work Style Model" guided the study. Statistical analysis using SPSS 28 software included Spearman Rank – Order Correlation, Mann-Whitney U, and Descriptive Statistics. Spearman Rank-Order Correlation Coefficient (r_s) test was conducted to determine what relationship existed, if any, between variables - Subordinate Rated Job Readiness (SRJR), Subordinate Rated Psychological Readiness (SRPR), Subordinate Rated Total Readiness (SRTR), Subordinate Turnover Intent (STTI), and Supervisor Dominant Workstyle (SUDWS). The results showed significant negative correlation between Supervisor dominant workstyle and job readiness, psychological readiness, and total readiness: [SUDWS – SRJR ($r_s (244) = -.689, p < .001$), [SUDWS – SRPR ($r_s (244) = -.691, p < .001$), and [SUDWS – SRTR ($r_s (244) = -.688, p < .001$)] respectively. A significant negative correlation was found between subordinate turnover intentions and job readiness [STTI – SRJR ($r_s (244) = -.206, p < .001$)]. There was also a negative correlation between subordinate turnover intentions and total readiness but not to the point of significance [STTI – SRTR ($r_s (244) = -.068, p > .001$)]. Furthermore, there was a significant positive correlation between supervisor dominant workstyle and subordinate turnover intentions [SUDWS – STTI ($r_s (244) = .138, p < .001$)]. Overall, the study shows subordinates disapproved of their supervisor's use of one dominant style and would quit their jobs for another at the slightest opportunity.

Keywords: People's Workstyle Model, Supervisor Workstyle, Dominant Workstyle, Subordinate Turnover Intent.

I. INTRODUCTION

Many experts advanced supervisor workstyle plays a critical role in subordinate retention and turnover in many organizations, including hospitals (Bolton & Bolton, 2009). Considering the differences among people, the Bolton and Bolton inferred that success and happiness depend on how we relate to each other on the job or in social gatherings. The ability of supervisors to bridge the gap between themselves and their subordinates could foster a smooth working relationship to enhance productivity. In the workplace, supervisors must be aware of employee differences as one of the primary causes of misunderstanding and friction. To alleviate this problem, supervisors must understand their own workstyles and those of their subordinates. Armed with this knowledge, supervisors would devise better strategies to help improve relationships among employees in the workplace.

Complex employee differences in the workplace should be resolved through institutional diversity and inclusion programs. Many social psychologists argue that significant differences among workers may limit rapport, enhance miscommunications, and provide a vehicle for misunderstanding among employees. These differences may contribute to lack of teamwork, absenteeism, distrust, and prompts vulnerable workers to seek for positions that require them to work in solitude. Such organizational dynamics may pose problems for supervisors and organizational productivity. For example, Janzer (2021) noted that while generational differences among employees seem small, they have a tremendous impact on the workplace. Different generations may want something diverse. An experienced supervisor should develop strategies to effectively match subordinate behaviour and workstyles. Employees with unproductive workstyles may pose a serious liability to the organization because those behaviours lead to loss in total productive man hours.

Although diversity is an asset for many organizations, in most cases, effective management of diversity is crucial for supervisors and managers. Individual personalities show different workstyles which are sometimes desirable for diversity and inclusion purposes and for sharing different perspectives of work-related issues. However, there are some employee behaviours that are demotivating with negative impact others. It is the duty of the supervisor to deploy strategies that would effectively manage these different behaviours and attitudes to the advantage of the organization. It is important to note an employee with a good workstyle is an asset to the organization because, good co-worker relationship and supervisory abilities enhance employee retention. The examination of the different supervisory workstyles and they relate to subordinate readiness and turnover intentions would be valuable to hospital administrators.

Background

Collectively, employee workstyle impacts organizational productivity. Supervisors who understand their own workstyle and those of their subordinates should be able to effectively schedule and assign staff, teams, and direct operations effectively. However, a clear understanding of workstyle should be outlined to minimize or avoid confusion in use of terms such as leadership styles. Many definitions have evolved over the years for workstyle. Naumoska (2021) considers workstyle as the way one organizes their day-to-day task at work. Other experts believed workstyle is a behavior-related practice (Bolton & Bolton, 2009). Bolton and Bolton's thinking were supported by many organizational behavioral experts. For example, the career development experts at Indeed described workstyle as the behavior and attitude an individual applies to an assigned task and the overall relationships cultivated in the workplace (Indeed Career Experts, 2022). These career experts also believed an employee's approach toward work dictates their responses to peers and their ability to solve problems.

Generally, subordinates work for their immediate supervisors. As a result, the supervisor's behavior is critical to motivating a subordinate's performance in the workplace. Su and Zhang (2022) studied the different effects of supervisor negative feedback on subordinate in-role and extra-role performance, and the mediating role of prevention focus in these relationships. They found that supervisor negative feedback was positively correlated with subordinate prevention focus and in-role performance, but negatively correlated with extra-role performance. These results demonstrated the importance of supervisor feedback in affecting their subordinate regulatory focus, in-role performance and extra-role performance. Negative feedbacks or behaviors of supervisors are unproductive for subordinates, but constructive feedback may have a positive effective demonstrating an appropriate supervisory behavior. Constructive feedback and collaborative decision making may help supervisors and subordinates build trust among themselves and may help enhance subordinate performance. De Cremer, van Dijke, Schminke, De Schutter, and Stouten (2018) reported that when supervisors perceive their managers as trustworthy, subordinates are more likely to also perceive their supervisor as trustworthy, which in turn enhances subordinate performance. The authors also noted that the effect of trustworthiness perceptions emerges when the supervisor invites the subordinate to participate in decision-making. An investigation into the workstyles of the supervisors and how they impact subordinate ability to complete a given task may be of great importance to hospital managers and administrators. The study investigates the relationship between supervisor dominant workstyle (independent variable), and subordinate total readiness and subsequent turnover intentions (dependent variables).

Research Questions

The following research questions guided the study:

RQ1: What is the relationship between supervisor dominant workstyle, and subordinate total readiness and turnover intentions?

Ho1: There is significance between supervisor dominant workstyle and subordinate total readiness and turnover intentions

Ha1: There is no statistical significance between supervisor dominant workstyle and subordinate job readiness and turnover intentions

RQ2: How are the data for dominant work style distributed across categories of Supervisors and Subordinates?

Ho2: The distribution of Dominant Work Style is the same across categories of Supervisors and Subordinates.

Ha2: The distribution of Dominant Work Style is not the same across categories of Supervisors and Subordinates.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

Individual behavioral awareness is critical to organizational productivity. It is not enough to be aware of our behaviors only. Rather, we must strive to understand the behaviors of others in the workplace. Being aware of others behavior may help supervisors understand the behavior of their subordinates. Behavioral awareness enables supervisors to apply the appropriate managerial strategies. Supervisors would encourage behaviors that enhance productivity and discourage relationship problems. Behavior experts advanced that people have distinct behavioral characteristics, which provides opportunities to study behavioral styles (Bolton & Bolton, 2009).

The “People’s Style Model” and Hersey’s thinking of the Situational Leadership® model provides a conceptual framework for this study.

Conceptual Frameworks

The “People’s Style Model (PSM).” The PSM was released in the mid-1990s based on Merrill and Reid (1960)’s Social Style Grid. Merrill and Reid’s Social Grid explored how people behave in social settings. The authors described how all individuals lean to one of the four styles as one’s dominant style in relation to others. Merrill and Reid discovered that people’s behavior is either assertive or responsive. (See fig. 1 below).

The assertive or responsive behavior were later broken into four different workstyles: Analytical, Driver, Amiable, and Expressive. Bolton and Bolton (2009) viewed the PSM as a cluster of habitual assertive and responsive behaviors that are persuasive, enduring, and are manifested by the four workstyles, amiable, analytical, expressive, and drivers.

Amiable supervisors are friendly, warm, reliable, and invulnerable. They have a soft-hearted work style and gets along with their employees. They avoid risks, slow to act on issues, and consult with staff before making decisions. Their concern for the feelings of others makes them a very likeable supervisor.

Analytical. Analyticals are often task-oriented and unassertive. They are problem solvers through their analytical skills. They are critical and picky because of their affinity for security and correctness. Analyticals rely on data collection and are very probing in their supervisory behavior. Their response to issues is slow and cautious. They are aware of deadlines and dates. Despite their ability to solve problems and make decisions, analytical thinkers dislike working in teams. They prefer working in solitude with accuracy, dependability, and independence. Analyticals are procrastinators and conservative in nature, which promote their tendency to be picky and over-cautious.

Drivers. Drivers are task-oriented, assertive, and doers in their nature. They want things done right immediately and are rigid in their relationships with other workers. They are goal-oriented, accept challenges, take authority, and play leadership roles in solving problems. These characteristics make drivers great administrators with admirable operational skills. Drivers are very competitive with others and would strive hard to remove barriers to achieving their goals. They demand latitude to manage themselves and others. However, drivers are stubborn, impatient, and tough on their positions on issues. Drivers like to be in control and have a low tolerance for other’s feelings, attitudes, and inadequacies. They are fast-paced and are impatient with delays. However, drivers are inflexible, impatience, poor listeners, and fail to recognize the opinions of others.

Expressive. Expressives are people-oriented, assertive, robotic, intuitive, and jovial in nature. They are very manipulative and take pleasure displaying inappropriate behavior. Expressives are fast-paced workers with decision-making abilities regardless of facts. Their enthusiasm, persuasiveness, and sociability make them stand out. Aside from these strengths, expressives tend multitask. They are impatient with a short attention span. They are forceful in getting others complete their tasks but are also team players.

Hersey’s Situational Leadership® Model.

I drew from Hersey’s thinking of the Situational Leadership® model, which suggests effective leaders lead by situational factors. By understanding, recognizing, and adapting to these factors, supervisors can influence their subordinates

successfully. Hersey, et al. (2013), like Blanchard, focused on the characteristics of followers in determining appropriate leadership behaviors. Hersey, et al found leaders would have to modify their leadership style as their followers changed in terms of Task Readiness and Psychological Readiness to perform the required task. They concluded that a leader's relationship with follower go through different stages as readiness changes over time. Frayha and Habicht (2017) found people are either assertive or responsive in their reaction to various environmental situations that may classify them into one of the four workstyles discussed above.

Hersey et. al. (2013) concentrated on four leadership styles that corresponded to subordinate readiness levels, namely: Telling (S1): Readiness Level 1 (R1); Selling (2): Readiness level 2 (R2); Supporting (S3): Readiness Level 3 (R3); and Delegating (S4): Readiness Level 4 (R4) (Hersey, 2013). I did not consider the different leadership styles in this study, but swapped leadership styles for work styles. The study's premise is to examine the relationship between supervisor dominant workstyle and subordinate total readiness and turnover intentions. Bolton and Bolton (2009) cautioned that the PSM and its behavioral dimensions have no linkage with success or failure of employees, but fosters increased self-awareness and self-acceptance, as well as a greater understanding and acceptance of others. The PSM is tested in this study to investigate the type of relationship that exists among supervisor dominant workstyle, subordinate total readiness and turnover intentions. Since the different workstyles exhibit different behavioral attitudes, the assumption is subordinates may respond differently to each workplace behaviors or style practiced by supervisors.

Supervisor Workstyle

The behavior of supervisors in the workplace explains how subordinates respond to their job responsibilities (Levinson, 2018). Levinson suggested that a supervisor's style approach to managing employees was significant, with specific strengths and weaknesses associated with each style. Often, we find supervisors frequently practicing one style in relation to others. We refer to the style as their Dominant Workstyle. Experts have cautioned using one dominant style is not a good practice for supervisors because no one style fits all. It is common practice for subordinates to behave and respond differently to various situations, behaviors, and attitudes. Therefore, supervisors who apply the appropriate workstyle to match the right situation are considered effective and productive. Levinson (2018) noted an effective supervisor knows when to use the right workstyle to maximize team and individual productivity.

Advocate for Human Potential (n.d.) advanced the recruitment of younger workers to create a dynamic in the workplace unfamiliar to the older generation. Consequently, the supervisor may need to deploy appropriate workstyles to deal with the different generations of employees. The Career Experts at Indeed (2021) suggested this mix of employees provides an opportunity to implement supervisory strategies that effectively manage subordinates. For example, supervisors practicing teamwork strategy, which may help to improve employee morale, facilitate peer mentoring, reduce attrition, and increase productivity (Sumrak, 2022).

Subordinate Readiness

Subordinate readiness in performing a specific task is crucial to determining job performance and turnover. Many supervisors attribute employee turnover to low salaries and a lack of job benefits, promotions, and incentives (Bull, 2018; Spector, 2022). Hersey et al. (2013) considered subordinate readiness to be the ability to accomplish a specific task. There are two dimensions to total readiness, psychological and job readiness. Subordinate readiness shows the extent to which the employee is confident, motivated, and committed to accomplishing a task.

Hiring and Recruitment [H&R] (2022) noted recruiters look for readiness skills in employees. These readiness skills are attributes and behaviors that entice employers to hire candidates. Most employers consider readiness to be a soft skill or job readiness skill. H&R (2022) considers total readiness skills as a function of academics, critical thinking, and personal skills. A combination of these skills enables subordinates to perform their job responsibilities effectively.

Subordinate readiness to perform a specific task was very paramount to the study. A subordinate readiness falls within a continuum ranging from R1—low ability and low willingness, R2—low ability and high willingness, R3—high ability and low willingness, and R4—high ability and high willingness. The premise of the SL® model is an effective leader matches leadership styles to follower willingness or ability. In other words, experienced leaders match S1 matches with R1, S2 with R2, S3 with R3, and S4 with R4 (Bull, 2018). However, I did not employ the SL® model in this study. I swapped the SL® model for the Peoples' Workstyle model.

Subordinate Turnover Intentions

Over the last two decades, employee turnover has been a problem for managers in many organizations (Sky, 2022). This problem has resulted in hospital administrators spending millions of dollars yearly (Bull, 2018). Workplace (2019) reported

that fixable problems, including turnover issues, have caused United States businesses a trillion dollars. Sky (2022) also noted the following statistics: The national average annual turnover rate in the US was 57.3%, and the number of employees who left their jobs increased to 6.2 million in September 2021. In 2022, the overall cost of voluntary employee turnover was over \$1 trillion (Sky, 2022; McFeely & Wigert, 2019). Among these fixable problems, engaging employees and getting them involved in decision-making would be very helpful. Managers have used multiple leadership styles to manage and engage their employees. Highly engaged employees are 75% less likely to leave (Sky, 2022). However, Rheanna (2021) found no relationship between employees' voluntary turnover intentions and their supervisors' leadership adaptability or ability to use multiple leadership styles.

Managers should consider generational differences, their impact on employee output, and co-worker relationships in the workplace as a potential enhancing factor of turnover (Advocates for Human Potential [AHP]. n.d.). There are four generations represented in any workforce which are Baby Boomers (1946-1964); Generation X (1965-1980); Generation Y/Millennials (1981-2000); and Generation Z (After 1990). Sometimes Gen Y and Z overlaps (AHP, n.d.). The workplace behavior of these generations differs based on the prevailing workplace conditions and supervisory work styles. Exerts from an Achievers report on engagement and retention for 2021 was noted in Teambuilding (2021). Results of the study showed that 34% of employees at Teambuilding did not feel valued by superiors. Of these, 43% were Gen. Z. Generally, older and more experienced workers respond differently to supervisor behaviors compared to millennials and Gen. Z. Jones (2022) reported that different generations bring diverse expectations and experiences in the workplace. These different expectations result in immense challenges for managers. For example, due to age and other differences between generations of workers, a great divide exists between older and younger workers resulting in resentment, loss in production, and subsequent turnover. Jones (2022) further suggested that the ongoing pandemic – COVID-19 may have compounded the problem of generational differences resulting in an increase in turnover for many organizations. The pandemic gave rise to the need for technology use among employees, which was a big challenge for some older employees. Jones reported that this challenge resulted in attrition of some employees. As a result, a lack of trust between older and younger workers leads to resentment, poor teamwork, and loss of productivity. The loss of productivity means reduced revenue, layoffs, and the application of retrenchment strategies to keep the organization afloat. These dynamics have direct impact on employee job and psychological readiness.

III. METHODOLOGY

Sample Selection Procedure

Prior to conducting the study, I contacted the compliance department of six randomly selected hospitals to obtain permission. After few days of negotiations, I got permission with a condition the human resources officials administer the surveys and a promise to share the results with participants. All ethical considerations were addressed, including any concerns from participants.

A total of ($N=350$) participants (*Supervisors* $N= 60$; *Subordinates* $N = 290$) were targeted from various hospitals within Texas. Only ($N=49$) supervisors and ($N=195$) subordinates were accepted for analysis, with a questionnaire return rate of 69.7%. The sample size was determined by G*Power analysis. In order to perform inferential testing, I considered three items: Type I errors, Type II errors, and estimated effect size. Type I errors occur when the researcher rejects the null hypothesis when it is true (Neuman, & Robson, 2015).

In this study, I set Type I error at $\alpha = .05$ and Type II error at $\beta = .80$. Regarding effect size, I reviewed other academic studies to determine the estimated effect size. Based on a meta-analysis of these studies, the researcher set the estimated effect size of $r = .18$. Using G*Power (Faul, Erdfelder, Lang, & Buchner, 2009), an $\alpha = .05$, a $\beta = .80$, and estimated $r = .18$, a sample size of 244 was determined.

Instrumentation

I used three instruments in the study, the Blanchard, Hersey, and Hambleton (1977) Readiness Scale, which comprised the Manager and Staff Rating Scales. The Manager Rating Scale measures the managers' perception of the subordinate's psychological readiness and job readiness. The Staff Member Rating Scale measures the subordinate's self-rated and subordinate supervisors rated job readiness and psychological readiness (Hersey et al., 2013). The shortened version of the Wilson Learning Centre Work Style Quiz, measures supervisors' Dominant Workstyle and the Jackofsky and Slocum's (1985) Turnover Intent Scale, which measures subordinates' turnover intentions. In order to collect demographic information, I prepared questionnaires that solicited information such as age, educational level, years of experience, and gender.

The Supervisors and subordinates received the same survey instruments. The Work style quiz consisted of 18 items, requiring participants answers. Once finished with the quiz, I reviewed the scoring sheet for circled letters that responds to each question. The responses are counted to the four specific working styles and recorded at the bottom of this sheet. The highest score is the most dominant style, and if a participant has two identical highest scores, it reflects two dominant workstyles (Wilson Learning Centre, n.d.). The survey was administered in an online format via survey Monkey to willing participants after consultations with the human resources department of the participating hospitals.

IV. DATA ANALYSIS

I transferred the data into SPSS 28 for the following analysis.

1. *Descriptive Data Analysis.* To provide insight and create a profile into the demographics of the sample population.

2. *Reliability Analysis.* Validity and reliability analysis ensure the quality of data. Reliability is the extent to which a test is relied upon for consistency (Research Topics, 2021). Two types of reliability are important for evaluating survey instruments: (a) internal consistency reliability estimates, which measure how well items on a scale relate to one another, and (b) test-retest reliability, which reflects the stability of a scale over time. According to Gliem and Gliem (2003), an $\alpha > .70$ is considered an acceptable level. Statistical analysis reveals a Cronbach $\alpha = .97$ for the Readiness Scale, .82 for the Work Style Quiz, and .67 for the Turnover intent scale.

3. *Exploratory Data Analysis (EDA)* was performed to investigate the data and summarize their main characteristics (IBM Cloud Education, 2020). EDA helps to reveal vital information beyond hypothesis testing and provides a better understanding of data variables. EDA also helps to determine the appropriate statistical techniques for data analysis. Two tests were performed:

i) *Test of Outliers.* Outliers are data values outside the overall trend (Stat Analytica, 2020). I evaluated the data for outliers to prevent undue influence on the results in hypothesis testing (Babbie, 2015). Outliers were evaluated and were retained.

ii) *Test of Normality* is done to show whether the data is normal or not to determine the type of test to deploy. I used the Kolmogorov-Smirnov (K-S) test to evaluate the distribution of each variable. The variables used in hypothesis testing were not normally distributed, so nonparametric tests were used for hypothesis testing.

V. RESULTS

Descriptive analysis revealed the following results: TABLE 1 shows the distribution of demographic characteristics of participants starting with age distribution.

TABLE 1. PARTICIPANTS DEMOGRAPHICS

| Demographics characteristics | n | % |
|------------------------------|-----|------|
| <i>Age</i> | | |
| 18 – 25 | 32 | 13.7 |
| 26 – 33 | 89 | 36.5 |
| 34 – 41 | 69 | 28.3 |
| 42 – 49 | 42 | 17.2 |
| 50 – 56 | 12 | 4.9 |
| <i>Gender</i> | | |
| Male | 81 | 33.2 |
| Female | 163 | 66.8 |
| <i>Educational level</i> | | |
| High school | 100 | 41.7 |
| Associates | 90 | 37.5 |
| Bachelors | 41 | 17.1 |
| Masters | 8 | 3.3 |
| Doctorate | 1 | 0.4 |
| <i>Experience in years</i> | | |
| 1 – 5 | 104 | 42.6 |
| 6 – 10 | 87 | 35.7 |
| 11 – 15 | 35 | 14.3 |
| 16 – 20 | 11 | 4.5 |
| 21 – 25 | 7 | 2.9 |

The age group (18 – 25) had 32 participants 32/244 (13.7%); the group (26 – 33) had more participants 89/244 participants (36.5%); the group (34 – 41) 69/244 participants (28.3%); (42 – 49) had 42/244 participants (17.2%), and (50 –56) having the least number of participants 12/244 (4.9%).

The next demographic variable was gender. A total of 163/244 respondents were females (66.8%), while 81/240 respondents were males (3.2%). For education, 100/244 (41.7%) participants had a high school diploma, and 90/244 (37.5%) had an Associate Degree. Out of the remaining 41/244 (17.1%) had a bachelor’s degree, 8/244 (3.3%) had a master’s degree, and 1/244 (0.4%) had a doctorate degree. About experience on the job, 191/244 (88.3%) had at least 10 years of job experience.

Figure 1 shows the distribution of supervisors self-rated and subordinates rated supervisor dominant work style.

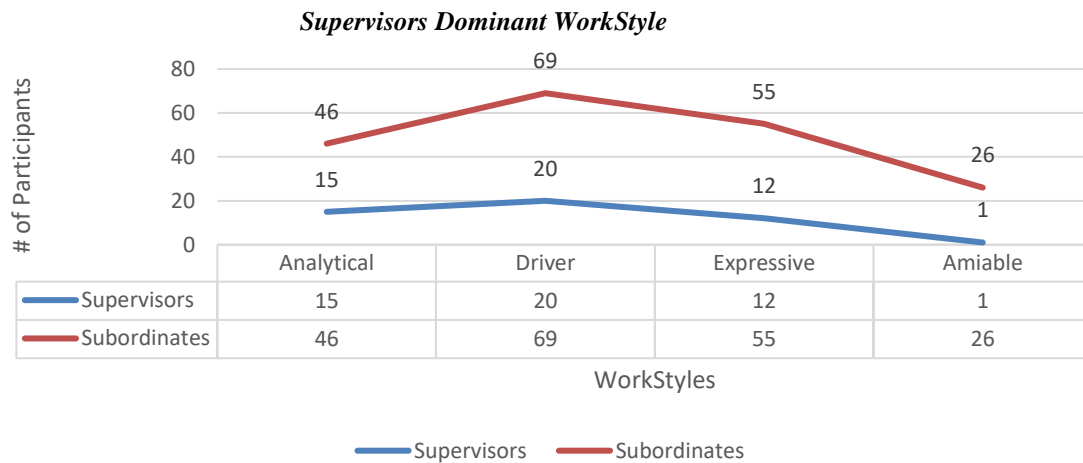


Fig. 1. Supervisors and Subordinate Rated Dominant Workstyle

In figure 1, supervisors perceived their dominant workstyle as Driver (20/49), and subordinates had a similar perception of their supervisor’s dominant workstyle as Diver (69/196). For analytical, (15/49) supervisors and subordinates 46/196; for expressive workstyle (12/49) supervisors and (55/196) subordinates; and for the amiable workstyle, supervisors (1/49) and subordinates (26/196). Supervisors and subordinates perceived driver as the dominant workstyle (89/244, 36.47%) but, differ in their perceptions regarding the other workstyles.

TABLE 2. Distribution of Supervisors and Subordinate by Work Category

| | | Participants | | | |
|--------------|-------|--------------|----------|-------------|-------|
| Participants | | Work Style | Clinical | Nonclinical | Total |
| Supervisors | | Analytical | 7 | 8 | 15 |
| | | Driver | 13 | 7 | 20 |
| | | Expressive | 4 | 8 | 12 |
| | | Amiable | 0 | 1 | 1 |
| | Total | | 24 | 24 | 48 |
| Subordinates | | Analytical | 18 | 28 | 46 |
| | | Driver | 36 | 33 | 69 |
| | | Expressive | 27 | 28 | 55 |
| | | Amiable | 17 | 9 | 26 |
| | Total | | 98 | 98 | 196 |
| Total | | Analytical | 25 | 36 | 61 |
| | | Driver | 49 | 40 | 89 |
| | | Expressive | 31 | 36 | 67 |
| | | Amiable | 17 | 10 | 27 |
| | Total | | 122 | 122 | 244 |

Hypothesis Testing

The next aspect of the study is to test the hypothesis to answer the research questions. However, the type of test conducted depends on whether the data is normal or not. Normality testing performed using the Kolmogorov-Smirnov (K-S) and the Shapiro-Wilk tests revealed significant differences between the data for both tests. The data was considered abnormal. Therefore, I performed nonparametric testing of the hypothesis.

TABLE 3. Normality Test

| | <i>K – S Test</i> | | | <i>S – W Test</i> | | |
|------------------|-------------------|-----------|------------|-------------------|-----------|------------|
| <i>Variables</i> | <i>Statistic</i> | <i>df</i> | <i>Sig</i> | <i>Statistic</i> | <i>df</i> | <i>Sig</i> |
| SRTR | .173 | 244 | < .001 | .818 | 244 | < .001 |
| SRPR | .260 | 244 | < .001 | .733 | 244 | < .001 |
| SRTR | .285 | 244 | < .001 | .704 | 244 | < .001 |
| STTI | .289 | 244 | < .001 | .701 | 244 | < .001 |
| DWS | .216 | 244 | < .001 | .871 | 244 | < .001 |

a. Lilliefors Significance Correction; *K – S* = Kolmogorov-Smirnov; *S – W* = Shapiro-Wilk.

To answer research question one: RQ1: What is the relationship between supervisor dominant workstyle; and subordinate total job readiness and turnover intentions? Spearman Rank-Order Correlation Coefficient (*rs*) test was conducted for SRJR, SRPR, SRTR, STTI, and SUDWS to determine what relationship existed, if any, between variables. The results showed significant negative correlation between Supervisor dominant workstyle, and job readiness, psychological readiness, and total readiness: [SUDWS – SRJR (*rs* (244) = $-.689, p < .001$), [SUDWS – SRPR (*rs* (244) = $-.691, p < .001$)], and [SUDWS – SRTR (*rs* (244) = $-.688, p < .001$)]. However, there was a significant positive correlation between supervisor dominant workstyle and subordinate turnover intentions [SUDWS – STTI (*rs* (244) = $.138, p < .001$)]. As a result of the test, the null hypothesis (*Ho1*) was accepted, and the alternative hypothesis (*Ha1*) rejected.

TABLE 4. SPEARMAN RANK CORRELATION OF SRJR, SRPR, SSRTR, STTI, and SUDWS

| | | SUDWS | STDWS | STTI | SRJR | SRPR | SRTR |
|-----------------------|-------|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|
| <i>Spearman's rho</i> | SUDWS | 1.000 | -.701** | .138* | -.689** | -.691** | -.688** |
| | | . | <.001 | .016 | <.001 | <.001 | <.001 |
| | STDWS | -.701** | 1.000 | -.019 | .460** | .523** | .489** |
| | | <.001 | . | .382 | <.001 | <.001 | <.001 |
| | STTI | .138* | -.019 | 1.000 | -.206** | .021 | -.068 |
| | | .016 | .382 | . | <.001 | .372 | .145 |
| | SRJR | -.689** | .460** | -.206** | 1.000 | .324** | .824** |
| | | <.001 | <.001 | <.001 | . | <.001 | <.001 |
| | SRPR | -.691** | .523** | .021 | .324** | 1.000 | .679** |
| | | <.001 | <.001 | .372 | <.001 | . | <.001 |
| | SRTR | -.688** | .489** | -.068 | .824** | .679** | 1.000 |
| | | <.001 | <.001 | .145 | <.001 | <.001 | . |

Note. SRJR = Subordinated Rated Job Readiness, SRPR = Subordinate Rated Psychological Readiness, SRTR = Subordinate Rated Total Readiness, STTI = Subordinate Turnover Intent, and SUDWS = Supervisor Dominant Work Style; STDWS = Subordinate Dominant Work style. *Correlation significant at .05 level (2-tailed). **Correlation significant at .01 level (2-tailed).

To answer research question 2 (RQ2): How are the data for dominant workstyle distributed across categories of Supervisors and Subordinates? A Chi-Square Goodness of Fit was performed to determine whether the distribution of the overall dominant workstyle data was evenly distributed between supervisors and subordinates. The results show that the distribution did differ significantly between supervisors and subordinates [$X^2 (3, N = 244) = 32.39, p < 0.05$]. I conducted an independent sample Mann-Whitney U test to determine whether there is a difference in individual data distribution between supervisors and subordinates. The mean rank of subordinates and supervisors were 126.87 and 104.67 *ms* respectively. The

results also show significant differences in distribution between subordinates and supervisors [(Mann–Whitney $U = 3848$, $n_1 = 196$; $n_2 = 48$, $P < 0.05$ two-tailed)]. In conclusion, I fail to reject the null hypothesis that the distribution of DWS is the same across categories of Supervisors and Subordinates. Supervisors and subordinates all share similar perceptions regarding the supervisor’s dominant workstyles. Results are in figure 2.

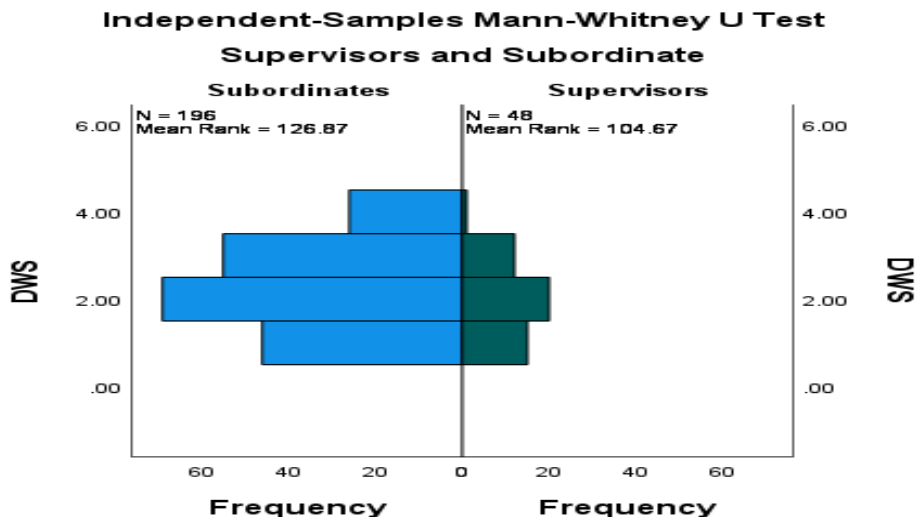


Fig. 2. Distribution of Dominant Work Style Perceptions between Supervisors and Subordinates

VI. DISCUSSION

Supervisor Dominant Workstyle and Total Readiness

The study investigated the relationship between supervisor-dominant workstyle and subordinate total readiness and turnover intentions. Spearman Rank Order Correlation was used to test for a relationship between the variables (SUDWS, STDWS, STTI, SRJR, SRPR, and SRTR). Results show a statistically significant negative relationship between supervisor dominant work style and subordinate job, psychological, and total readiness [$SUDWS - SRJR$ ($r_s(244) = -.689$, $p < .001$)], [$SUDWS - SRPR$ ($r_s(244) = -.691$, $p < .001$)], and [$SUDWS - SRTR$ ($r_s(244) = -.688$, $p < .001$)]. Subordinates perceived their readiness to complete a given task inversely relates to supervisor's perceived dominant workstyle. The more supervisors use their dominant workstyle on the job, fewer subordinates feel they are ready to complete a given task. Hersey et al. (2013) noted subordinate total readiness is a function of job ability and psychological readiness. In this study, subordinate's job ability and mental willingness were inversely related to their supervisor's dominant workstyle. Naumoska (2021) noted that supervisors' dominant workstyle is related to how they organize their day-to-day tasks. Fewer subordinates approved of their supervisor's dominant workstyle, and as a result, their total readiness was negatively impacted as their supervisors frequently practice their dominant workstyle.

Supervisor Dominant Workstyle and Subordinate Turnover Intentions

The results of the study show supervisor dominant workstyle was significant and positively correlated with the subordinate turnover intentions [$SUDWS - STTI$ ($r_s(244) = .138$, $p < .001$)]. The interpretation shows that the more supervisors practiced their dominant work styles, subordinates preferred to quit their positions and seek for other employment opportunities. The continuous use of one dominant work style is not an effective supervisory strategy (Hersey et al., 2013). Like leadership styles, effective supervisors must practice different workstyles for different folks (Hersey & Blanchard, 2010, Bull, 2018).

Subordinate turnover intention was significantly negatively correlated with their job readiness [$STTI - SRJR$ ($r_s(244) = -.206$, $p < .001$)], and overall readiness [$STTI - SRTR$ ($r_s(244) = -.068$, $p > .001$)] but not at the point of significance. However, STTI was positively related to their psychological readiness [$STTI - SRPR$ ($r_s(244) = .021$, $p > .001$)], not at the point of significance. The results show even though subordinates would like to take up other jobs, their intentions did not hinder them from completing their present job tasks or responsibilities. However, they intend to leave their current jobs should another job opportunity with similar or more benefits presents itself.

IMPLICATIONS

1) *Theoretical implications*

The results of this study revealed a significant negative relationship between supervisor dominant workstyles and subordinate readiness - the ability and willingness of an individual to accomplish a specific task. In Hersey's views, job readiness is the responsibility of an individual to direct their behavior in completing a given task. Although individuals differ, a job-ready person must be confident, motivated, and committed to accomplishing a task. The leader now bears the responsibility to vary his workstyle to accommodate the readiness level of the subordinate since there is no one best leadership style (Bull, 2018; Hersey, et al., 2013; Hersey, Blanchard, & Johnson, 2013). The results of the study show supervisors continued to use one dominant workstyle and hardly vary their them. This practice did not support the tenets of the PSM.

The People's Workstyle posits that individuals are different in behavior and attitudes and may approach work differently (Bolton & Bolton (2009). Therefore, varying the workstyle to meet the individual needs would yield better results. Supervisors who often implement the wrong workstyles may trigger subordinate turnover, absenteeism, and job dissatisfaction (Bull, 2018; Hersey et al., 2013; Professional Leadership Institute, 2021). In this study, supervisors and subordinates have similar perceptions regarding the dominant leadership style - driver workstyle. In addition, turnover intentions positively correlated with the frequent practice of the driver workstyle. This result is consistent with the findings of Wigert and McFeely (2019). The authors reported that fixable problems, such as simply varying supervisor workstyle, are causing US businesses a trillion dollars yearly. Hersey noted that matching leadership styles effectively with employee readiness will help reduce turnover, absenteeism, and diminishing productivity.

2) *Practical implications*

Hersey et al. (2013) advanced that effective practical application of the Situational Leadership® model is beneficial to managers and businesses. Results of the study show subordinates perceived their supervisor's dominant work style as a driver, followed by expressive, analytical, and amiable. Supervisors who implement the driver workstyle are assertive and doers. They consistently want things done right all the time and like to play leadership roles in solving problems. They prefer to take authority with no interference from outside. In order to achieve this latitude, they strive to remove all barriers to achieving their goals. Aside from demanding latitude to manage themselves and others, drivers are stubborn, impatient, and tough on their positions on issues. They like to take control of others and have a low tolerance for the feelings, attitudes, and inadequacies of others. It is important to note that a supervisor who constantly implement one dominant workstyle weakens the workforce morally.

The next dominant workstyle was expressive. Although expressives are people-oriented, they can be assertive as drivers. Expressives are very manipulative, enthusiastic, persuasive, multitaskers, and impatient. Many subordinates were uncomfortable with supervisors who practice the expressive workstyle frequently. Subordinates perceived supervisors were task-oriented, critical, and picky with a probing nature and only cared about the job. Their probing nature was sometimes irritating to some subordinates who, felt supervisors doubted their abilities. Analyticals are introverts and not good at working in teams. Since teamwork is a workplace strategic practice in healthcare, many managers seek collaboration and collective efforts among their employees and sometimes solicit suggestions to enhance decision making.

The amiable workstyle was the least practiced style among supervisors. By nature, amiabes are people-oriented, warm, reliable, and unassertive. They are soft-hearted and get along with most employees in the workplace. Furthermore, they are slow to act, avoid risks, seek staff participation, and show a caring attitude and concern for others. Amiabes are more appealing to subordinates as supervisors than the other four styles. Regardless of these characteristics, the amiable workstyle was the least practiced workstyle. The lack of foresight may have accounted for the growing dislike for supervisors. Subordinates expressed resentment towards supervisors by showing their intentions to turnover.

3) *Future implications*

Healthcare managers may use the results of this study to provide a strong foundation for examining and improving their workstyle, attitudes, and behaviors. The findings could help supervisors augment existing supervisory behavior and better understand their work style and that of their subordinates. The study may provide the basis for supervisory in-service training to help improve supervisory skills.

VII. RECOMMENDATIONS

Recommendations for future research

Researchers should determine the relationship between supervisor dominant and alternative workstyles relative to subordinate readiness. I recommend a deeper investigation into whether supervisor workstyle does predict subordinate turnover intentions. Other researchers could extend these results by studying more independent variables associated with workstyle using different social theories. This variation could provide greater insight into the link between supervisors and their subordinates to facilitate a better understanding of the social dynamics and ways to improve subordinate productivity by avoiding unproductive workstyles. A researcher could study the role of moderating factors like education level, gender, age, ethnicity, and experience, on supervisors and subordinate workstyle to provide greater insight into employee issues. Finally, I recommend further studies using larger samples, more subgroups, and a different environment to confirm the results of this investigation.

a) Recommendations for practice

First, I recommend supervisor implement or frequently practice amiable workstyles based on the appropriate situation. Amiables are appealing to subordinates as caring and friendly. The consistent practice of driver followed by the expressive and analytical workstyles presented supervisors as less caring and concerned only about productivity and not the wellbeing of subordinates. Therefore, supervisors who predominantly practice the amiable workstyle in combination with other styles on an as-needed basis may help improve the relationship between supervisors and subordinates. This strategy supports Hersey et al. (2013) claims that supervisors who vary their workstyle helps to reduce employee turnover and absenteeism and increase employee retention, job satisfaction, and productivity. Healthcare managers could use this information as a decision-making input for their managerial strategies.

Second, many organizations have problems with retaining employees costing them trillions of dollars yearly (Sky, 2022). Aside from the cost issue, employee turnover may result in organizations losing valuable knowledge of essential business processes and systems for maintaining competitive advantages. To alleviate this problem, I advance the following recommendations: healthcare organizations must emphasize strategies that could improve job satisfaction by focusing on training supervisors in dealing with subordinates. In addition, managers should be accountable for high turnover rates in their organizations.

The study's aim was to investigate the relationship between the supervisor dominant workstyle, and total readiness, and subordinate turnover intentions among hospital employees. Results indicated both supervisors and subordinates perceived "driver" as the dominant workstyle and "amiable" as the least practiced style. However, they differ significantly in terms of the distribution of dominant workstyle data. The correlation between supervisor and subordinate dominant workstyle was significantly negative demonstrating the more supervisors practice the driver style, the less motivated or satisfied they are with their supervisors and would quit their jobs at the slightest opportunity. The intention of subordinates wanting to quit their jobs is backed by the significant positive correlation between supervisor dominant workstyle and subordinate turnover intentions.

Overall, based on the results, I recommend supervisors use a combination of workstyles, rather than one dominant style while exhibiting their job responsibilities. Subordinates behave differently, therefore, supervisors must practice different workstyles to meet the different readiness levels of subordinates. Healthcare administrators and other business managers would find this study beneficial in making hiring and other organizational decision-making processes. Effective practice of supervisory workstyles may help improve employee retention.

VIII. CONCLUSION

The study investigated the relationship between the supervisor dominant workstyle and total readiness and subordinate turnover intentions among hospital employees. Results indicated supervisors and subordinates perceived "driver" as the dominant workstyle and "amiable" as the least practiced style. However, supervisors and subordinates differ significantly regarding the distribution of dominant workstyle data. The correlation between supervisor and subordinate dominant workstyle was significantly negative, demonstrating the more supervisors practice the driver - dominant style, the less motivated or satisfied subordinates are in relation to their dislike for their supervisors and would quit their jobs at the slightest opportunity. Subordinates turnover intent was backed by the significant positive correlation between supervisor dominant workstyle and subordinate turnover intentions.

Overall, I recommend supervisors use a combination of workstyles rather than one dominant style and possibly implementing more of the amiable workstyle. Subordinates are different in their behaviors which should guide supervisors to practice different workstyles based on the varying readiness levels. Healthcare administrators and other business managers would find this study beneficial in hiring and other organizational decision-making processes. If supervisors effectively practice the appropriate workstyles, that may help improve employee retention and workplace relationships.

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