

2023

Relationship Between Opportunity for Advancement, Salary/Pay, and Retail Salesperson Turnover Intentions

Edith Mae Thompson
Walden University

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Walden University

College of Management and Technology

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Edith M. Thompson

has been found to be complete and satisfactory in all respects,
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Walden University
2023

Abstract

Relationship Between Opportunity for Advancement, Salary/Pay, and Retail Salesperson

Turnover Intentions

by

Edith M. Thompson

MHRM, Walden University, 2018

BBA, Austin Peay State University, 2016

Doctoral Study Submitted in Partial Fulfillment

of the Requirements for the Degree of

Doctor of Business Administration

Walden University

March 2023

Abstract

Employee turnover intention is the principal antecedent and predictor of employee turnover behavior, which is a substantial threat to automotive retail dealerships' current and future organizational performance. Understanding employee turnover intentions is vital for dealership general managers to reduce salesperson turnover, manage dealership costs, and maintain dealership competitive advantages. Grounded in Herzberg's two-factor theory, this quantitative correlational study examined the relationship between opportunity for advancement, salary/pay, and employee turnover intention among automobile salespeople. Using an online survey administered by Survey Monkey, data were collected from 76 retail salespeople in Tennessee, Kentucky, and Alabama. The survey questions were drawn from the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (Short Form), the Pay Satisfaction Questionnaire, and Cohen's Turnover Intention Scale. The responses were analyzed using multiple linear regression analysis. The model was able to predict employee turnover intentions significantly, $F(2, 73) = 25.897, p < .001, R^2 = .415$. The recommendation for action is for dealership general managers to use the findings of this study to form collaborations with dealership human resource partners to design and implement transparent succession planning processes that promote pay and advancement opportunities to reduce employee turnover intentions. The implication for positive social change is the implementation of pay and succession structures that improve the salesperson's work experience, thus contributing to ongoing, lucrative employment opportunities that contribute to and enhance the relationship between the dealership, retail salespersons, and the community that they serve.

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Dedication

I want to dedicate this work to my parents, James and Mattie. I want to thank them for always believing in me and encouraging me to use my head for something other than a hat rack.

Acknowledgments

I want to acknowledge and thank everyone who was instrumental in completing this journey. First, I would like to thank my biggest cheerleader, my husband, Adam. Thank you for understanding late-night writing, missed family functions, and boxes of articles and papers all over the house. Secondly, I want to acknowledge and thank my chair, Dr. Laura Thompson. Thank you for your academic prowess and guidance. I would not have completed this journey without our frequent conversations, our celebratory wins, our step back and punt again sessions and the gentle encouragement of eating an ice cream cone when we experienced success! You will forever be an instrumental part of my life. I also want to thank my second committee member, Dr. Irene Williams. Thank you for being the second set of eyes and ears of this study. Your advice and encouragement were the touches needed to complete this journey. Lastly, I want to thank all the Walden University faculty and staff who provided me with the tools, seminars, residencies, and academic nuggets that made this journey less daunting. Thanks to all of you, I am equipped to be a proud Walden University social change agent!

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Section 1: Foundation of the Study

Background of the Problem

Over the years, scholars have identified the intent to turnover and employee turnover as recurring threats in retail sales-related positions. Scholars have suggested that salesperson turnover substantially impacts organizational success and profitability (Badrinarayanan et al., 2021; Fleming et al., 2022; Lai & Gelb, 2019; Lucas et al., 1987). Lee et al. (2018) stated that employee turnover is a primary contributor to declined business continuity and revenue loss, costing businesses nearly 200% in annual salary per worker in worker replacement costs. Lai and Gelb (2019) further posited that the average cost of sales turnover linked to forfeiture of recruitment funds, training costs, and direct sales loss is \$97,960 per salesperson, with it taking approximately 4 months to replace a sales hire. Additionally, statisticians suggested that over 50% of currently employed retail sales associates will leave their organizations in conjunction with the data presented in the U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics (BLS; 2018) annual report of total separations by industry.

Retail sales organizations, such as automotive dealerships, heavily depend upon their sales force. Fu et al. (2017) indicated that the retail sales employee is critical to developing ongoing customer relationships, significantly enriching product loyalty and future business growth. General managers generally compensate and advance high-performing sales employees into dealership leadership positions that pay industry-leading salaries. The BLS (2020) reported that 6% of the 4.5 million retail sales personnel in the

United States worked in automotive sales in 2018, with automotive dealers paying the highest median hourly wage in the retail sales industry segment.

However, like other retail selling entities, the automotive sales industry is highly cyclical and precipitously impacted by many internal and external threats that affect job satisfaction and turnover intentions (Jaura, 2020; Lai & Gleb, 2019; McNeilly & Russ, 1992). High turnover among automotive retail sales employees leads to loss of vehicle sales, diminished consumer confidence in the dealership and brand, reduction in the talent pool, and inflated dealership costs associated with recruiting, hiring, and training (Al Mamun & Hasan, 2017; Fu et al., 2017). Competent and talented sales employees may consider leaving the dealership when specific intrinsic (e.g., opportunity for advancement) and extrinsic (e.g., salary/pay) motivational job satisfaction factors are not met. Nonetheless, the BLS (2018) predicted that between 2018 and 2028, retail sales management jobs would experience a 5% growth, statistically demonstrating the importance of employee retention and advancement initiatives in retail sales. In conjunction with the BLS calculations, industry statisticians forecasted that new vehicle revenue would reach \$945.9 billion over the next 5 years, with recent vehicle sales accounting for 50.8% of total industry revenue.

Automotive dealership general managers need to understand the concept of intrinsic and extrinsic job motivators that contribute to job satisfaction or dissatisfaction in the automotive retail sales work environment. General managers who understand and analyze the constructs that may contribute to the retail sales employee's intent to turnover and any possible relationships between these characteristics can prove vital to dealership

success and protect the dealership's competitive advantage (Agarwal & Sajid, 2017). Conversely, many dealership leaders and managers need to understand or recognize the relationship between intrinsic motivators, such as the opportunity for advancement, and extrinsic hygiene factors, such as salary or pay, and whether these constructs significantly predict employee turnover intention among automotive retail salespeople. Automotive retail sales are a substantial contributor to the U.S. economy, and the retail sales employee is the most consumer-trusted facilitator for the sales transaction (Friend et al., 2018). Therefore, automotive dealership general managers must develop processes that appeal to sales personnel's intrinsic job satisfiers (i.e., motivators) and address extrinsic job dissatisfiers (i.e., hygiene) to reduce turnover intentions and encourage sales employee retention. In this study, I examined to what degree the intrinsic job satisfier of opportunity for advancement and extrinsic job dissatisfier of salary/pay predict retail sales employee turnover intention in the automotive sales industry. I expected this study to contribute confidently to the literature's broad gap regarding employee turnover intention in the automotive sales industry.

Problem and Purpose

Organizational leaders across various industries recognized employee turnover intention as the principal antecedent and predictor of employee turnover behavior, a substantial threat to current and future organizational performance (Aburumman et al., 2020; Belete, 2018; Lee et al., 2018; Sanjeev, 2017). The retail sale employee's intention to turnover endangers the retail sales organization's profitability, with employee replacement costs as high as \$10,000 per replaced employee, almost equaling double the

annual salary of the replaced employee (Belete, 2018; Chhabra, 2018; Olubiyi et al., 2019; Oruh et al., 2020). The general business problem was that employer turnover intention among retail sales employees in the automotive sales industry could become a costly problem that affects dealership profitability, performance, and competitive advantage. The specific business problem was that many automotive dealership general managers need to understand the relationship between the intrinsic job satisfier of the opportunity for advancement, the extrinsic job dissatisfier of salary/pay, and employee turnover intention.

The purpose of this quantitative correlational study was to examine the relationship between the intrinsic job satisfier of the opportunity for advancement, the extrinsic job dissatisfier of salary/pay, and employee turnover intention. The independent or predictor variables were an opportunity for advancement and salary/pay. The dependent or criterion variable was employee turnover intention. The implications for positive social change include developing a mutually constructive relationship between the dealership and the community it serves. This reciprocally valuable relationship could contribute to employee stability, new job opportunities, and local community economic growth associated with increased vehicle sales and registrations, such as local tax revenue and charitable contributions to local community organizations.

Population and Sampling

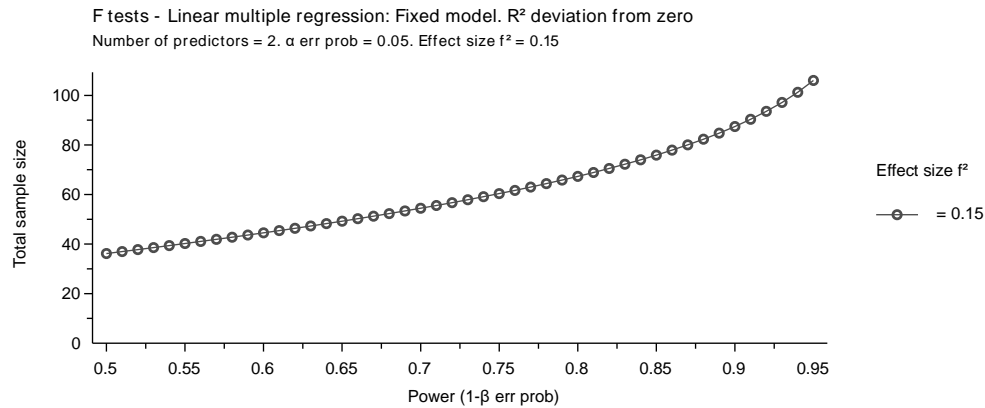
Population

The population for this study were franchised new and used car salespersons in dealerships located in Tennessee, Kentucky, and Alabama. The participants were retail

sales employees who fit all-gender specifications and were at least 21 years of age, with 1 year or more of retail selling experience in the automobile dealership environment. The participants were full-time retail sales employees who sell vehicles only. The retail sales employees did not comprise other sales-related positions within the dealership structure, such as parts salespeople, service salespeople, or financial products salespeople.

Sampling and Sample Size

I used the nonprobabilistic convenience sampling method to select retail sales employees who matched the inclusion criteria of this study. This sampling method allowed me to target participants via online surveys and was both time-saving and cost-effective (Etikan et al., 2016; Rahi, 2017). The G*Power 3.1 power analysis program was the most applicable test for determining this study's minimum and maximum sample size. I conducted an a priori analysis with an effect size $f = 0.15$, an $\alpha = 0.05$, and a power level of 0.80 to determine the minimum sample size of 68 participants and a power level of 0.99 to determine the maximum sample size of 146 participants. Therefore, the appropriate sample size for this study ranged from 68 to 146 participants. Figure 1 illustrates the G *Power 3.1.9.2 power analysis results for the sample size calculations.

Figure 1*G *Power 3.1.9.2 Power Analysis for Study Sample Size***Nature of the Study**

I chose a quantitative research methodology to examine the business phenomenon in this study. There are several methodologies researchers can employ to examine or explore their phenomenon; however, I considered the three primary methods to examine or explore this business phenomenon (see Ellis & Levy, 2009; Saunders et al., 2016). Researchers use qualitative methods to explore the business process's philosophical, subjective, and perceptive nature (Ellis & Levy, 2009; Murshed & Zhang, 2016; Saunders et al., 2016). Researchers seeking to examine or test hypotheses employ the quantitative method to numerically represent the generalizability, causality, or scale of effects between the independent and dependent variables (O'Leary, 2017; Sligo et al., 2018). Researchers who cannot collect additional insight from quantitative or qualitative findings may implement a combination of quantitative and qualitative attributes or a mixed-methods methodology (Saunders et al., 2016; Sligo et al., 2018). Since the philosophical and explorative qualitative feature was absent from this study and the

mixed-methods methodology was not congruent with my research question (see Sligo et al., 2018), I did not implement a qualitative or mixed-methods approach. In this study, I tested hypotheses and conducted numerical calculations to determine to what degree an intrinsic job satisfier (i.e., opportunity for advancement) and an extrinsic job dissatisfier (i.e., salary/pay) significantly predicted employee turnover intention; therefore, a quantitative methodology was the most appropriate method for this study.

The three quantitative research designs are descriptive, experimental, and correlational (Saunders et al., 2016). Researchers use the descriptive design to explore or describe the phenomenon without statistical inference (Siedlecki, 2020). Researchers interested in the causal relationship of the variables in a controlled environment apply an experimental design (Armstrong & Kepler, 2018; Saunders et al., 2016; Zellmer-Bruhn et al., 2016). Researchers employ the correlational design to ascertain the degree of noncausal strength to predict a relationship between two or more variables (Curtis et al., 2016; Seeram, 2019). I chose the correlational design because the objective was to investigate the extent to which a statistically negative or positive linear correlation exists between the independent and dependent variables. The descriptive and experimental designs were inappropriate for this study because I was not observing, describing, or drawing a causal inference.

Research Question and Hypotheses

The research question for this study was: Within small to medium franchise new car dealerships, what is the relationship between the intrinsic job satisfier of the

opportunity for advancement, the extrinsic job dissatisfier of salary/pay, and employee turnover intention?

H₀: There is no statistically significant relationship between the intrinsic job satisfier of the opportunity for advancement, the extrinsic job dissatisfier of salary/pay, and employee turnover intentions.

H₁: There is a statistically significant relationship between the intrinsic job satisfier of the opportunity for advancement, the extrinsic job dissatisfier of salary/pay, and employee turnover intentions.

Theoretical or Conceptual Framework

I selected Herzberg et al.'s (1959) two-factor theory of motivation or motivation-hygiene theory as the theoretical framework for this research study (see Gardner, 1977; Herzberg et al., 2017; Tan & Waheed, 2011). Herzberg et al. (2017) theorized that work motivation encompassed two sets of characteristics associated with job satisfaction or dissatisfaction (Alshmemri et al., 2017; Gardner, 1977). Herzberg et al. (2017) identified job satisfiers with intrinsic motivators, such as recognition, advancement, and responsibility, while classifying job dissatisfiers with extrinsic hygiene work factors, such as salary, pay, compensation, benefits, and job security (Hur, 2018). Herzberg et al. (2017) postulated that intrinsic motivators stimulated positive job satisfaction produced by the natural conditions resulting from the job itself (Hur, 2018; Tan & Waheed, 2011). Similarly, Herzberg et al. postulated that the shortage or absence of extrinsic factors linked to working conditions, such as salary, compensation, benefits, and work conditions, contribute to job dissatisfaction (Hur, 2018). In contrast, in the hierarchy of

needs theory, Maslow (1943) argued that basic human needs, such as safety or the need to eat, are some of the driving forces behind job motivation. In expectancy theory, Vroom (1964) interjected the construct of motivational force generated by expectancy (i.e., effort will equal outcome), valence (i.e., desire for expected result), and instrumentality (i.e., achieved outcome will equal the desired reward) as a job motivator (Baciu, 2017; Lloyd & Mertens, 2018).

I chose to use Herzberg et al.'s (1959) two-factor theory as the theoretical lens to examine the independent variables, intrinsic job satisfier (i.e., opportunity for advancement) and extrinsic job dissatisfier (i.e., salary/pay), measured by the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire-Short Form (MSQ-SF), and the Pay Satisfaction Questionnaire (PSQ; see Heneman & Schwab, 1985; Morgeson et al., 2001; Weiss et al., 2010). Cohen (1999) developed an adaptive employee turnover decision process model based in Mobley's (1978) intent to leave scale, that was applicable to any work environment and measured employee turnover intention using intrinsic and extrinsic job satisfaction and dissatisfaction experiences. Cohen's turnover intention scale is the chosen instrument for measuring this study's dependent variable. Sager et al. (1988) employed Mobley's model to measure turnover intentions among retail salespeople from different industries. Therefore, as applied to this study, I expected the independent variables to predict turnover intention. In recent studies, researchers revealed that job satisfaction is critical to employee turnover across various industries (Guha & Chakrabarti, 2015; Hur, 2018; Tan & Waheed, 2011; Voight & Hirst, 2015). Furthermore, these researchers also concluded that the multiple constructs, singularly or

in correlation with each other, predicted either a negative or positive relationship with employee turnover intention. Figure 2 illustrates Herzberg et al.'s two-factor theory of motivation as it applies to employee turnover intentions.

Figure 2

Herzberg et al.'s Two-Factor Theory of Motivation as it Applies to Employee Turnover



Operational Definitions

Employee turnover: The act of an employee leaving or exiting an organization (Fang et al., 2018).

Extrinsic job satisfaction: How an employee feels about their work situation includes supervision, work conditions, coworkers, company policies, job security, worker's personal life, and salary/pay (Hur, 2018; Tepayakul & Rinthaisong, 2018).

Job satisfaction: The positive or negative attitudes or feelings an employee has towards their job or place of employment (Tepayakul & Rinthaisong, 2018).

Intrinsic job satisfaction: The way an employee feels about and is motivated by the nature of the job itself, including achievement, recognition, responsibility, growth, and the opportunity for advancement (Hur, 2018; Tepayakul & Rinthaisong, 2018).

Retail sales employee: The employee who assists retail customers with finding and selecting their desired product by answering product questions, demonstrating

product features and benefits, and processing customer payments for the selected product (BLS, 2018).

Separation rate: The total annual separations as a percentage of annual average employment (BLS, 2018).

Turnover intention: An employee's conscious decision to begin the process of thinking about leaving the job, looking for a new job, or leaving the job (Aburumman et al., 2020).

Assumptions, Limitations, and Delimitations

The assumptions, limitations, and delimitations are the research elements that are either controlled or not controlled by the researcher (Saunders et al., 2016). These elements are essential to establishing research relevance, credibility, and reliability (Saunders et al., 2016). Ellis and Levy (2009) emphasized that researchers who need to articulate these vital research elements clearly could generate uncertainty and reduce credibility within their research; however, researchers can use the assumptions, limitations, and delimitations to clarify vague presuppositions and identify future research opportunities.

Assumptions

The researcher utilizes the assumptions section of the research study to communicate what they assume and accept to be true without any formidable evidence from the limited knowledge and probabilities of the theory and practices (Ellis & Levy, 2009; Waller et al., 2017). I assumed that I received the required number of surveys to produce reliable data analysis results and that there were no missing responses to survey

questions. I further assumed that the study participants provided open and honest feedback to all survey questions. I alleviated any apprehensions with these two assumptions by emphasizing that the survey was strictly voluntary, anonymous, and designed to protect participants from the perceived repercussions of the dealership management personnel. I, therefore, created an atmosphere for open and honest responses from all qualified participants.

Another assumption was that all participants were automotive retail sales employees. The study did not include (a) automotive parts sales managers; (b) automotive parts sales employees; (c) automotive accessory sales employees; (d) automotive finance managers; (e) automotive service department managers; or (f) automotive services department employees, such as mechanics, porters, and service writers. Participants from other dealership departments would alter research findings and render the study invalid and unreliable (Cerniglia et al., 2016). To mitigate any issues associated with surveying the wrong participants, I clearly and concisely emphasized the research study's purpose and the dealership role characteristics of the participants.

Limitations

Limitations represent the circumstances that are not under the researcher's control, which may introduce potential weaknesses and compromise research methods and analysis (Waller et al., 2017). The first limitation was the inherently limited nature of the correlational design. The correlational design cannot be used to extrapolate or conclude the cause and effect between the variables (Rugg, 2007; Saunders et al., 2016).

Therefore, I only employed the correlational design to predict the level of interaction between the variables but not to assess causation.

The second limitation of the research study was achieving a sufficient sample size for reduced biases, validity, and generalization of the findings (see Cerniglia et al., 2016). The use of an online survey produced the level of participation required to satisfy the large sample size needed to conduct quantitative research that generated valid, reliable, and unbiased findings.

Delimitations

The researcher uses delimitations to indicate the study's boundaries and scope (Waller et al., 2017). The delimitations of this study included the geographical locations of the dealerships in only three states within the continental United States: (a) Tennessee, (b) Kentucky, and (c) Alabama. The scope of the study was set to examine small, strictly-to medium-sized, privately owned automotive dealerships, excluding all (a) large, publicly traded automotive dealer groups; (b) large (i.e., having more than 200 employees), privately owned dealerships; and (c) online automotive vendors.

Significance of the Study

Contribution to Business Practice

The relationship between the customer and the retail sales employee is the most influential element in the customer's purchasing decision (Edmondson et al., 2019). As the most trusted member of the selling organization, the retail sales employee is a fundamental link to organizational performance and profitability (Friend et al., 2018). U.S. businesses spend approximately \$800 billion on various incentives designed to

retain retail sales force employees and lessen turnover (Sunder et al., 2017). Automotive dealership general managers can apply the findings of this study to identify, design, and implement positive organizational practices that may reduce employee turnover intentions. These practices can include initiatives such as (a) performance-based pay plans, (b) monetary incentives for elevated customer service indexes, and (c) a future leader succession plan for top performers. Implementing these strategies may assist dealership general managers with controlling lost sales revenue, regaining competitive advantage, and solidifying consumer trust. Therefore, this study contributes to business practice by providing new information on retail sales employee turnover intention and helping dealership general managers better understand a possible relationship between the opportunity for advancement, salary/pay, and employee turnover intentions.

Implications for Social Change

Automotive dealership general managers operate small to large businesses that service various communities and can be significant community stakeholders. The BLS (2019) reported that automobile dealers are the fifth top-paying industry for retail sales employees. Dealership general managers can utilize their lucrative role as community stakeholders to promote community programs and local social enterprises (Park & Campbell, 2018). Dealership general managers that embrace the role of a viable community conscience partner can enable the community stakeholder culture and use this position to develop jobs and training opportunities that encourage amplified employment and work opportunities for the community workforce. Dealership general managers can engage their stakeholder position to create community opportunities that promote and

demonstrate corporate social responsibility, including charitable donations to programs that support employee and community well-being. Dealership general managers can utilize the findings of this study to improve their current knowledge concerning employee retention benefits. They can use the results to develop programs and processes to decrease employee turnover intention, lower community unemployment rates, generate steady wages, and create a constant influx of tax revenue (see Park & Campbell, 2018).

Dealership general managers can also use the findings of this study to validate the business need for supporting mentorship programs that offer community-based talent from local high schools, technical colleges, 4-year colleges, and vocational rehabilitation centers exclusive access to job openings within the dealership. The dealership's general manager can use these programs to secure top-level local talent, which boosts the dealership's community stakeholder position and promotes the overall future success of the dealership and the community it serves.

A Review of the Professional and Academic Literature

The review of the professional and academic literature encompassed current and seminal research from peer-reviewed journals, scholarly books, government agency publications, and industry-specific publications for the examination of the relationship between the independent variables of intrinsic job satisfaction (i.e., the opportunity for advancement) and extrinsic job dissatisfaction (i.e., salary/pay) and the dependent variable of retail employee turnover intention. In the review, I also incorporated current and seminal literature that examined the strengths, weaknesses, and limitations of Herzberg et al.'s (1959) two-factor theory of motivation (i.e., Herzberg, 1965; Hur, 2018;

Tan & Waheed, 2011), which was the primary theoretical lens for the study. The review includes comprehensive research of divergent or rival theories, such as Deci and Ryan's (1985) self-determination theory, Vroom's (1964) expectancy theory (Baciu, 2017; Lloyd & Mertens, 2018), and Maslow's (1943) hierarchy of needs theory. Additional components of the literature review include literature that establishes the reliability and validity of the psychometrical scales employed to measure the chosen independent variables, (a) opportunity for advancement (i.e., the MSQ-SF; see Weiss et al., 2010), and (b) salary/pay (i.e., the PSQ; see Heneman & Schwab, 1985; Morgeson et al., 2001), as well as Mobley et al.'s (1979) turnover intentions model (see Sager et al., 1988), that measures the dependent variable of (c) employee turnover intention.

I searched the following databases in Walden University's library for peer-reviewed articles and books published within 5 years of expected chief academic officer approval, with the frequency of those sources listed in Table 1: ABI/Inform Complete, Academic Search Complete, Business Source Complete, eBook Collection (EBSCOhost); Emerald Management, ERIC, IBISWorld, PsycINFO, PsycTESTS, SAGE Journals, ScholarWorks, Science Direct, Taylor and Francis Online, and Walden Library Books. I used the Boolean identifiers *and/or*, which assisted in achieving the optimal results using the following key search words or terms: *employee turnover intention, employee turnover, turnover intentions, automotive retail sales, retail sales, salesperson, automotive salesperson, Herzberg's theory, two-factor theory, job satisfaction, job dissatisfaction, pay, promotion, career advancement, advancement, extrinsic motivation, intrinsic motivation, retail turnover, sales turnover, employee advancement, employee*

salary, employee pay, employee promotion, involuntary turnover intention, and voluntary turnover intention.

Table 1

Numerical Count and Percentage Values for Cited Sources

| Source | Older than 6 years | Within 5 years or less | Total | Percentage |
|------------------------|-----------------------|---------------------------|-------|------------|
| Books | 7 | 6 | 13 | 5.2% |
| Peer-reviewed articles | 69 | 159 | 228 | 91.5% |
| Government | 1 | 4 | 5 | 2.2% |
| Other | 0 | 2 | 2 | 1% |
| Total | 77 | 171 | 248 | 100% |

Note: This table denoted compliance with university guidelines for reference and cited sources.

Herzberg et al.'s Two-Factor Theory (Motivation-Hygiene Theory)

Herzberg et al.'s (1959, 2017) two-factor or motivation-hygiene theory served as this study's theoretical framework or lens. In 1959, Frederick Herzberg utilized the critical-incident method to interview engineers and accountants in Pittsburg, Pennsylvania. Herzberg et al. (1959) asked the participants to recount incidences where they felt extremely good or bad about their jobs. The researchers then posited that worker satisfaction is primarily generated from several crucial constructs that promote and produce either job satisfaction or dissatisfaction (Alshmemri et al., 2017; Gardner, 1977; Herzberg et al., 2017; Hur, 2018; Tan & Waheed, 2011; Ward, 2019). Zhang et al. (2020) discussed that Herzberg et al.'s research was based on the construct of work, the employee's attitude towards work, and the effect the work perspective produced

regarding job satisfaction or dissatisfaction. The various seminal and recent examinations and explorations of this theory prove that Herzberg et al.'s motivation-hygiene theory is relevant in today's workplace.

Herzberg et al. (1959, 2017) identified job satisfaction or intrinsic motivation factors as (a) achievement, (b) recognition, (c) advancement, (d) growth, (e) work-itself, and (f) responsibility (Hur, 2018; Tan & Waheed, 2011; Ward, 2019). Whereas the fundamental factors of job dissatisfaction or extrinsic hygiene factors, Herzberg et al. and Ward (2019) identified as (a) supervision, (b) salary/pay, (c) work conditions, (d) interpersonal relationships, and (e) company policies. Herzberg et al. (1959), Ann and Blum (2020), and Zámečník and Kožíšek (2021) postulated that the absence or shortage of extrinsic hygiene factors influenced job dissatisfaction but that those factors were not the primary creators of dissatisfaction. Employees could feel job dissatisfaction even when extrinsic or hygiene constructs were in place; however, hygiene-oriented constructs, such as stressful interpersonal relationships with fellow workers or management and company policies, produced dissatisfaction and decreased motivation (Alrawahi et al., 2020). Herzberg et al. (1959) further added that intrinsic motivators inspired job satisfaction and that the experience of job dissatisfaction and job satisfaction were two different phenomena or feelings (Zhang et al., 2020). Herzberg (1965) stated that job satisfaction and dissatisfaction are not opposite entities. Zhang et al. (2020) postulated that the contrasting position to job satisfaction is no job satisfaction, not dissatisfaction, which generated different performance outcomes. When job dissatisfaction is not present, that does not denote that job satisfaction is present; it

suggests the employee is not satisfied with the job (Oluwatayo, 2015; Wilson, 2015).

Organizational leaders can use this valuable data to evaluate intrinsic and extrinsic factors influencing employee turnover intentions and increasing retention.

Herzberg et al. (1959) found that intrinsic motivators, such as the opportunity for advancement, are components of the theory that provide employees with long-term performance results. The achievement factor proved to be an essential satisfier with the highest frequency in long-range (38%) and short-range (54%) high attitude sequences (Herzberg et al., 1959). Herzberg et al. further explained that extrinsic hygienic factors, such as salary/pay, produce short-term effects that affect overall employee job perceptions, attitudes, and performance (Herzberg, 1965). In a study surveying Malaysian retail salespeople, Tan and Waheed (2011) reported similar results, discovering a statistically significant relationship between job satisfaction and extrinsic hygienic job motivators, such as working conditions, company policy, and salary/pay.

Herzberg et al. (1959) posited that intrinsic motivators encouraged job satisfaction, resulting from the job itself. Herzberg et al. postulate that job content generated job satisfaction indicate that employees can accomplish elevated job satisfaction levels when achieving their goals. This attitude toward job content can provide employers with employees who demonstrate positive work behaviors, which leads to enhanced productivity and employee retention (Herzberg et al., 1959). However, Herzberg (1965) theorized that extrinsic factors associated with job contexts, such as salary/pay, working conditions, and security, are directly controlled by the employer,

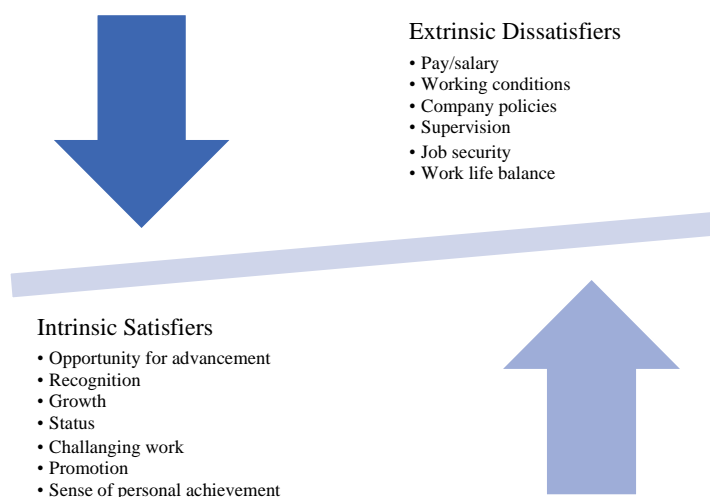
directly related to job dissatisfaction, and indirectly related to the employee's overall job performance.

Herzberg et al. (1959) found that positive customer relationships were critical to providing motivation and job satisfaction among those studied. The participants indicated having the ability to control their time via scheduling and having open communication lines with the customer-generated feelings of job satisfaction (Herzberg et al., 1959). Additional researchers applying Herzberg et al.'s two-factor theory found that retail salespersons are highly motivated by intrinsic motivating factors, such as achievement and advancement; however, the extrinsic hygiene factor of salary pay was the second highest-rated motivator among retail salespersons (Tan & Waheed, 2011; Winer & Schiff, 1980). Tan and Waheed (2011) further posited that retail store managers should design and implement salesperson reward initiatives that endorse extrinsic and intrinsic elements, such as work conditions, recognition, salary/pay, and company policies, to generate high levels of job satisfaction. Researchers indicated that sales managers should strive to ensure salesperson satisfaction and happiness and postulated that salespeople satisfied with their job would communicate their satisfaction to potential new employees and customers and perform better in their roles (Lai & Gelb, 2019; Prasad Kotni & Karumuri, 2018; Tan & Waheed, 2011). Furthermore, since the customer is the primary focus of the retail salesperson and the sole source of income in most cases, initiatives designed to enhance the retail sales employee's satisfaction would boost their satisfaction and the satisfaction of the consumer and workplace morale.

Prasad Kotni and Karumuri (2018) tested retail outlet employee provocation using Herzberg et al.'s (1959) two-factor theory, finding that extrinsic rewards were significantly preferred over intrinsic rewards, increasing productivity and job satisfaction. Ziar and Ahmadi (2017) hypothesized that motivational factors differed according to the employee's age. Ziar and Ahmadi concluded that intrinsic factors, such as opportunities for advancement, significantly influenced younger employees. In contrast, older participants were prone to extrinsic hygienic factors, such as salary/pay.

Figure 3

Illustration of Herzberg et al.'s (1959) Two-Factor Theory of Motivation



Note. This figure illustrates how the constructs of the two-factor theory of motivation interact to create job satisfaction or dissatisfaction.

Contrasting or Rival Theories

Herzberg et al.'s (1959) two-factor theory aims to identify what process or content will generate job satisfaction or dissatisfaction in conjunction with other motivational-based views. Herzberg et al. theorized that the intrinsic factors of (a) career advancement, (b) achievement, (c) recognition, (d) work itself, (e) responsibility, and (f)

growth possibilities increase job satisfaction. However, the extrinsic or hygiene factors of (a) salary/pay, (b) organizational policies and procedures, (c) relationship with supervisor, (d) interpersonal relationships, and (e) working conditions can reduce job satisfaction. Herzberg (1965) opined that these extrinsic and intrinsic factors share an inverse relationship where the absence of hygiene factors decreases motivation, but inherent or intrinsic factors will stimulate motivation when present.

Herzberg et al.'s (1959) two-factor theory and Maslow's (1943) hierarchy of needs theory are similar in that both are examples of content theories. Content theories investigate the internal qualities a person uses or possesses to stimulate personal motivation (Issac et al., 2001). Contrastingly, Vroom's (1964) expectancy theory is a process theory. Vroom's expectancy theory investigates an individual's logical process to make conscious choices that provide them with a specific expected outcome: pleasure or pain. Vroom's expectancy theory is contrary to Herzberg et al. and Maslow's hierarchy of needs theory in that it is not based on the satisfaction of individual needs. However, Harris et al. (2017) opined that Vroom's expectancy theory is based on the direct outcomes of individual behaviors resulting from their decision expectations. In their self-determination theory, Deci and Ryan (1985) suggested that an employee's inherent tendencies of growth and psychological needs dictated intrinsically or extrinsically motivating attributes toward autonomy, competence, and relatedness. Szulawski et al. (2021) and Wingrove et al. (2020) posited that intrinsic motivation is encouraged by internal rewards and linked to performance prediction or enhancement.

Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs Theory

Maslow (1943) identified five immediate human needs as motivators (Güss et al., 2017) and categorized those needs as (a) physiological, (b) safety, (c) self-esteem, (d) growth or self-actualization, and (e) love. Unlike Maslow, Herzberg et al. (1959) centered their theory around the fundamental thesis that employee motivation is based on extrinsic and intrinsic rewards or recognition. No sequence of extrinsic or intrinsic rewards leads to the principal cause. However, Maslow postulated that motivation was established on personal needs and satisfaction and opined that these needs followed a sequenced hierarchal path that led to the highest form of motivation fueled by self-actualization.

In the hierarchy of needs theory, Maslow (1943) posited that physiological needs essential for basic human survival, such as air, water, and food, were the most basic conditions and formed the foundation for higher-level needs satisfaction. Maslow (1970) stated that once a human's basic needs were met, safety and security, or the need to avoid physical or psychological danger, were next in the hierarchy. The need for safety and security is followed by love or longing for affection and support. Individuals who feel valued and supported become confident and robust, satisfying their sense of belonging and need for admiration or love (Güss et al., 2017; Maslow, 1943). Once these lower needs are met, then the higher conditions become achievable (Güss et al., 2017; Maslow, 1943), giving way to a person's need to be the best they can be or, as Maslow (1943) and Güss et al. (2017) labeled it, the desire for self-fulfillment or self-actualization.

Maslow (1943) opined that the five needs correlated with each other. The higher-level needs could not be fulfilled if the lower conditions remained not satisfied, and

recent research supported this hypothesis (Kanfer et al., 2017; Siahaan, 2017). Kanfer et al. (2017) postulated that managers or business leaders who develop workplace initiatives that meet the needs Maslow identified in the theory position their organizations for high levels of employee job satisfaction and low employee turnover. Kanfer et al. and Siahaan (2017) suggested that job dedication decreases turnover intentions. Therefore, organizational leaders can use Maslow's hierarchy of needs theory to deduce that employees who achieve self-actualization will also experience elevated job satisfaction levels and diminished turnover intentions.

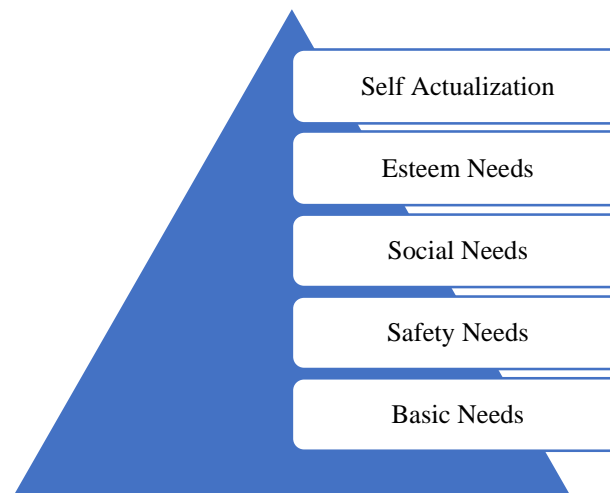
Various researchers have challenged the physiological need hypothesis posited by Maslow. These researchers presented theories and cases demonstrating that more than bare human essentials were needed to propel human motivation. Alam et al. (2020) opined that wages were the most significant contributor to employee work motivation versus trust and safe work environments. In contrast, Criscione-Naylor and Marsh (2021) found that since the onset of the COVID-19 pandemic, employees have been significantly motivated by the organization's ability to provide a secure and safe workplace. The researchers showed that motivational needs differ from one employee to the next. Organizational size and location are vital in establishing a workplace hierarchy (Jonas et al., 2016). Stewart et al. (2018) further posited from data generated by studies conducted with Southwest Airlines, Valve Software, and Google that companies that satisfy the upper levels of the hierarchy, self-actualization, and self-esteem create a workplace environment that encourages job security while meeting an employee's need for

emotional compensation and satisfying physiological and safety requirements with monetary compensation.

Recent researchers demonstrated how Maslow's theory applied to higher education institutes students. Abbas (2020) posited that higher education institutes provide students with basic education needs, such as a safe campus, state-of-the-art facilities, teaching quality, employability, and extracurricular activities, which support Maslow's hierarchy of needs theory. Abbas opined that students are motivated to participate in activities that promote personal development and enhance leadership skills. Therefore, it demonstrates that when students' basic needs are satisfied, this satisfaction encourages them, boosts self-esteem, and creates self-actualization. However, Maslow (1943) viewed self-actualization from a personal perspective since this attribute could possess varying characteristics instituted in the individual's personality (Compton, 2018). Some researchers further proposed that some individuals do not have the drive or want to reach self-actualization (Kaufman, 2018). In contrast to Herzberg et al. (1959), Alrawahi et al. (2020) suggested that intrinsic motivating factors prompt individual progress and create a desire for career advancement and recognition.

Figure 4

Illustration of Maslow's (1943) Hierarchy of Needs Theory



Vroom's Expectancy Theory

Vroom (1964) theorized that employees would choose specific actions expecting a particular result or outcome, pleasure or pain. Vroom viewed motivation as a force and defined motivational force as the resultant product of (a) expectancy, (b) instrumentality, and (c) valence (Baciu, 2017; Lloyd & Mertens, 2018; Kumar & Prabhakar, 2018).

According to Vroom, expectancy is an employee's anticipation of the performance results produced by a conscious, deliberate action on their part. (Baciu, 2017; Lloyd & Mertens, 2018; Pereira & Mohiya, 2021) Furthermore, Baciu (2017), Lloyd and Mertens (2018), and Pereira and Mohiya (2021) postulated that Vroom viewed expectancy as an *action-outcome association* that takes on the values of 0 (no expectation) to 1 (full expectation), which correlated with the employee's belief that their efforts would generate the expected result. Vroom defines the construct of instrumentality as the perception that an anticipated reward will result from the performance. Vroom described this as an

outcome-outcome association with the same outcome designation values; 0 (no probability of reward delivery) to 1 (reasonable probability of reward delivery); (Baciu, 2017; Lloyd & Mertens, 2018). Vroom described valence as indicating the individual's degree of preference toward the subsequent outcome or reward (Lloyd & Mertens, 2018). These rewards could be positive, such as an increase in pay, or negative income, such as penalties or sanctions (Baciu, 2017). This view contrasts with Herzberg et al.'s (1959) theory, which focused on employees' intrinsic and extrinsic individual needs that influence job satisfaction or dissatisfaction, not just the individual motivational results and actions spurred by a personal decision and the ensuing outcome.

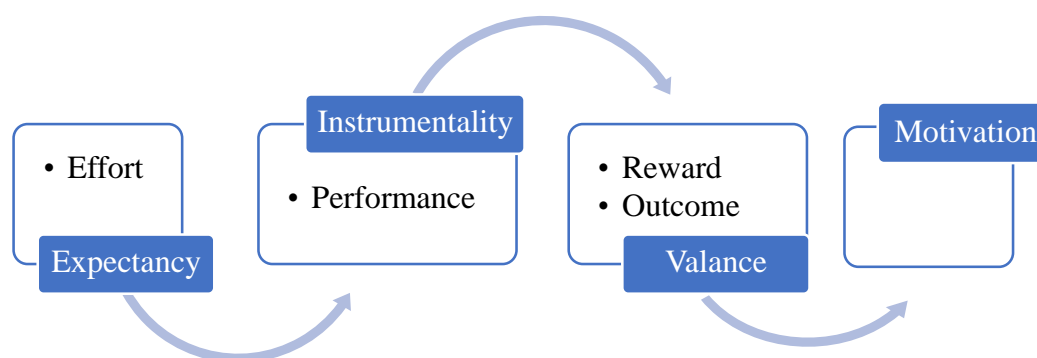
Researchers inferred a significant association between employee personality, career development, work motivation, and employee retention. Kumar and Prabhakar (2018) discovered that workplace motivation strategy centered on initiatives that promote career development and rewards based on employee career planning and development increased employee motivation levels, providing organizational leaders with a preface for implementing personality analysis as motivational human resource management policies. Waltz et al. (2020) revealed the motivational value professional development initiatives had in improving retention and performance among millennial nurses. Organizational leaders who embrace employee initiatives or rewards that yield positive results and reduce adverse effects could increase employee motivation and promote retention.

Motivated employees who are productive and have specific career goals or outcomes are easy to retain. Kanfer et al. (2017) investigated goal choice and how it influences employee motivation, applying Vroom's expectancy theory as their theoretical

lens. The researchers argued that work outcomes could impact employee job satisfaction and their decisions not to stay with an organization. Kanfer et al. demonstrated that motivation is a direct result of goal-orientated resources, and when employees achieve goal accomplishment, retention increases, and employees readily accept organizational work goals. Vroom (1964) hypothesized that the results of motivational force influenced employee behavioral outcomes. Corporate leaders can implement employee initiatives or rewards into career development and advancement opportunities that encourage individuals to engage in behaviors that generate the expected positive results associated with increased employee motivation (Baciu, 2017). Employee productivity and job effectiveness are crucial links to overall job fulfillment and organizational effectiveness (Kumar & Prabhakar, 2018; Prentice & Thaichon, 2019), supporting a portion of Herzberg et al.'s (1959) two-factor theory regarding intrinsic motivators.

Figure 5

Illustration of Vroom's (1964) Expectancy Theory



Self-determination Theory

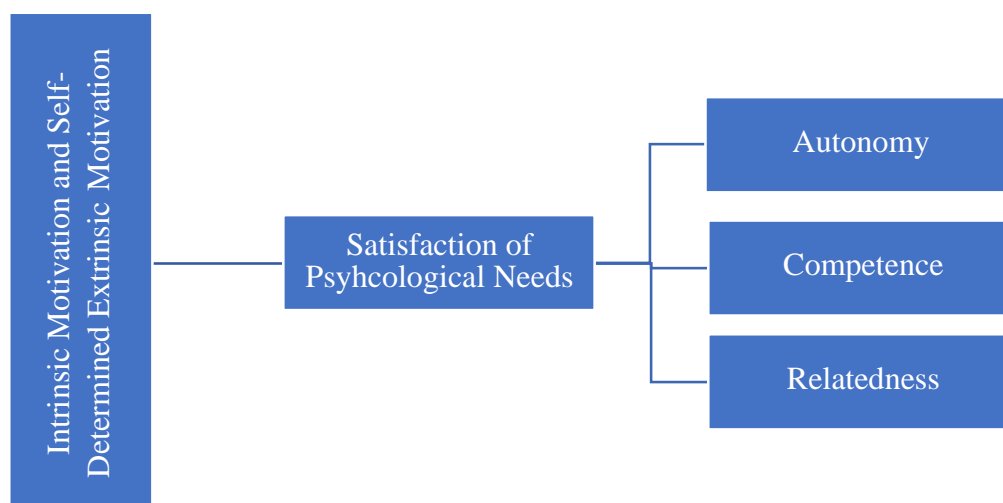
Deci and Ryan (1985) postulated that extrinsic motivation could be internalized, and as extrinsic rewards increased over a prolonged period, extrinsic motivation became

autonomous. According to Deci and Ryan, intrinsic motivation is the individual's natural tendency to learn and to search for new challenges based on their interests and passions, whereas extrinsic motivators are viewed as external regulations generated by external rewards, punishment, or amotivation (Grabowski et al., 2021; Szulawski et al., 2021; Wait & Stiehler, 2021). Amotivation is the influence of extrinsic or external factors utterly independent of the individual, creating a lack of effort or desire (Grabowski et al., 2021; Wait & Stiehler, 2021). The self-determination theory (SDT) argues that people are motivated by activities they initiate and possess a strong psychological need to belong or relatedness. SDT is grounded in a person's need for growth, which is the product of competence, relatedness, and autonomy (Wait & Stiehler, 2021). Employees focus on the outside or extrinsic factors anticipated outcomes and their ability to dictate and control their positive results, defined as autonomy (Good et al., 2020; Wait & Stiehler, 2021). To further this point, Wingrove et al. (2020) postulated that SDT and the fundamental constructs of this theory were most appropriate for coaching supervision within coaching ranks. SDT was identified as directly impacting a coach's inherent growth tendencies and regulated self-behaviors (Wingrove et al., 2020). Competence and relatedness are produced when employees feel their decisions will influence a specific result or make a difference. They identify and join others they trust and share common values (Good et al., 2020; Wait & Stiehler, 2021). Good et al. (2020) hypothesized in their qualitative findings, using self-determination theory as their conceptual framework, that when salespeople determine they are making a difference, they experience the highest level of motivation.

In contrast, Herzberg et al. (1959) would argue that Deci and Ryan's (1985) findings demonstrated extrinsic factors' influence on employee motivation. Still, those outside factors are not experienced at their highest level without a counterbalance of intrinsic factors. Therefore, Herzberg et al. concluded that extrinsic hygiene factors are absent without an intrinsic motivating factor to produce an ideal environment for job satisfaction.

Figure 6

Illustration of Deci and Ryan's (1985) Self-determination Theory



Intrinsic Independent Variable: Opportunity for Advancement

Researchers identified intrinsic factors as motivators or high-level growth constructs that promote job satisfaction. Herzberg et al. (1959) defined intrinsic motivators as factors that contribute directly to an employee or employees' motivation. Herzberg et al. identified several attributes that stimulate intrinsic motivation, such as (a) achievement, (b) responsibility, (c) recognition, (d) work itself, (e) opportunity for advancement, and (f) growth (Herzberg, 1974; Hur, 2018; Tan & Waheed, 2011).

Intrinsic work motivation that is challenging and meaningful and offers an employee recognition for accomplishments and opportunities for growth and advancement influences an employee's satisfaction level (Barrick et al., 2015; Basinska & Dåderman, 2019), generating positive work attitudes that impact turnover intentions.

Opportunities for developmental career progression or advancement within an organization are principal determinants of whether employees stay or leave (Carter & Tourangeau, 2012; Crafts et al., 2018). Carter and Tourangeau (2012) supported these findings in their research. The authors posited that the lack of inside opportunities for advancement increased employee turnover versus the accessibility of ample opportunities. Pediatric physicians further indicated in Crafts et al.'s (2018) study that the perceived lack of opportunity for career advancement ($p = <0.001$) was a significant influencer in pediatric physicians deciding to change their place of employment early in their careers.

Personal growth and job satisfaction stem from the employee's desire for career advancement opportunities (Lee et al., 2017; Lester, 2013). Tan and Waheed (2011) posited that career advancement was essential to employees' life fulfillment goals and was necessary to achieve job satisfaction. Parsa et al. (2014) concluded that career advancement opportunities among academic employees positively correlated with work-life quality. Lack of advancement opportunities increases turnover intentions and eventually leads to elevated employee turnover, whereas increased opportunities for advancement can positively influence commitment, reducing employee turnover levels (Carter & Tourangeau, 2012; Crafts et al., 2018; Erasmus, 2020). Therefore, effective

dealership succession plans and promotion initiatives could slow turnover intentions and eventual turnover.

Researchers present evidence that career advancement opportunities that motivate employees to perform increase organizational commitment, job contentment, and job satisfaction, reducing turnover intentions. Andrews and Mohammed (2020), in conjunction with Xie et al. (2016), posited that career advancement opportunities directly influenced employee job performance. However, employees who experience career plateau experience decreased job satisfaction levels, and their preferences for turnover increase (Andrews & Mohammed, 2020; Xie et al., 2016). Wang et al. (2016) suggested that opportunities for advancement can bolster an employee's willingness to demonstrate their advancement potential or merit, cultivating better performance.

Career advancement opportunities and promotability lessen turnover intentions (Chan et al., 2016). However, in conjunction with management recognition of sales performance, work-life balance and sales incentives proved to be primary motivators for Indian retail salespeople (Prasad Kotni & Karumuri, 2018). Gunn et al. (2017) demonstrated that opportunity for advancement was a prevailing theme in retail sales management career profiles. Opportunities for advancement, earnings, and career paths were vital contributors to the retail industry's negative career perception (Gunn et al., 2017). Shaju and Subhashini's (2017) study of the automobile industry hypothesized that extrinsic job factors, such as the opportunity for advancement, strongly correlated to job satisfaction. This correlation was higher among those at the supervisory level. Additional research shows that career management processes are designed to promote advancement

that reduces turnover intentions (de Oliveira et al., 2019). This relationship varied depending on the amount of mediation from organizational management.

Extrinsic Independent Variable: Salary/Pay

In contrast to intrinsic satisfying motivators, researchers suggested that extrinsic hygiene factors, such as pay/salary, are primarily lower-order environmental needs that fulfill the basic requirements inherent to the job. Herzberg et al. (1959) theorized that in conjunction with intrinsic job satisfaction factors, employees were affected by extrinsic job factors that contributed to job dissatisfaction. Herzberg et al. identified salary/pay, or compensation, as an extrinsic factor that adversely affects overall employee satisfaction. Employee salary, sales force compensation, pay, or pay satisfaction is recognized as a critical influencer of job satisfaction, performance, employee retention, motivation, and turnover intentions (Call et al., 2015; Chan & Ao, 2019; Fatima, 2017; Tan & Waheed, 2011). Mburu (2017) opined that pay significantly influences work performance, and organizations implementing strategies that promote compensation and advancement experience decreased turnover and higher retention. Chan and Ao (2019) discovered that highly paid casino employees were dissatisfied with their pay. Employees who expect their jobs to pay well need additional pay incentives such as bonus packages. Božović et al. (2019) concluded that human resource management practices that encompass consistent compensation systems would positively increase banking employees' job satisfaction levels. However, Chan and Ao revealed that dissatisfaction with pay did not decrease employee commitment levels, indicating that well-thought-out pay plans can seal between employee organizational commitments and decreased turnover intentions.

Pay incentives or rewards proved influential among salespersons and sales managers if these pay programs are not perceived as methods to control behaviors (Mallin & Pullins, 2009). Mallin and Pullins (2009) postulated that pay could be detrimental to intrinsic motivation, and unattractive earning potential negatively impacts job satisfaction and motivation. Holmberg et al. (2017) further posited that the nonexistence of extrinsic factors adversely affects job satisfaction. Managed salary/pay strategies help organizational managers attract, retain, and motivate employees to achieve organizational goals and maintain competitive advantage (Arocas et al., 2019; Sarmad et al., 2016). Therefore, dealership leaders could achieve collaborative effort and support by designing and implementing pay structures that promote and fulfill higher-order needs.

Dealership managers who organizationally control extrinsic rewards can also implement pay/salary initiatives that generate job satisfaction and lessens dissatisfaction by offering rewards or incentives not based on monetary measures. Good et al. (2020) discovered that intrinsic motivators were positively associated with increased salesperson effort and that younger salespeople were not as motivated by the desire for money. Therefore, it challenges managers and business owners to switch from outcome-based monetary controls to more purpose-driven employment opportunities and initiatives.

Automobile salesperson compensation or pay is highly variable and depends on individual dealership structure (Habel et al., 2021; Joetan & Kleiner, 2004). Most salary/pay plans for automotive salespeople are commissions-based, highly competitive, pressure-driven, and directly connected to a small percentage or commission of variable profit generated from individual automobile and automobile product sales (Habel et al.,

2021; Joetan & Kleiner, 2004). This pay/salary system contributes to high job stress, emotional exhaustion, low extrinsic job satisfaction, and high turnover among automotive salespeople (Habel et al., 2021; Joetan & Kleiner, 2004). Hung et al. (2018) posited that satisfaction with salary/pay structures generated elevated organizational commitment levels, even in high-pressure operations, and turnover intentions remained low.

Researchers consistently demonstrated that pay/salary dissatisfaction negatively correlated with turnover intention (Mohamed et al., 2017). Mohamed et al. (2017) tested a hypothesis to examine if this relationship could be non-linear. The researchers concluded that pay satisfaction and turnover intention shared a nonlinear relationship, positing that pay dissatisfaction did not always increase employee turnover intentions (Mohamed et al., 2017). Furthermore, Alshmemri et al. (2017) affirmed Herzberg et al.'s (1959) position, concluding and further positing that reducing or eliminating concepts that contribute to turnover or turnover intentions could improve the employee experience, therefore contributing to job satisfaction and lessening extrinsic job dissatisfaction. Chinyio et al. (2018) further concluded that turnover rates were low when employees experienced high job satisfaction, crediting Sankar (2015), who hypothesized that once hygiene or extrinsic factors such as pay/salary are met, elevated employee retention is attainable.

Dependent Variable: Employee Turnover Intentions

Researchers defined turnover intention as an employee's conscious decision to start contemplating leaving the job, actively looking for a new job, or the active voluntary plan to quit their job (Aburumman et al., 2020; Ikatrinasari et al., 2018; Tastan, 2014).

Turnover intention is a direct predictor of actual turnover, which threatens overall organizational performance, due to the high costs associated with turnover and produces adverse effects on employee morale, employee engagement, performance, and job satisfaction (Jones et al., 2007; Kang & Sung, 2019; Kim, 2018; Lin & Liu, 2017). Oruh et al. (2020), in conjunction with other supporting researchers, contended that employee turnover intention is not about the employee leaving the job put; it is the thought process leading up to the employee's decision not to keep the job. Oruh et al. further suggested that lack of interest in the position, lack of engagement, and lack of voice are distinct characteristics of employee turnover intention.

Researchers discussed engagement and the correlation employee engagement has with turnover intentions and actual turnover. Kang and Sung (2019) concluded that employee organizational relationships that foster employee engagement are statistically significant predictors of turnover intention, suggesting that highly engaged employees are less likely to contemplate or leave their organization. Employees reflect their level of engagement through the energy they exert in representing the organization and their feelings about their work and work environment (Eldor & Vigoda-Gadot, 2017). To increase job involvement and lessen turnover intentions, Li et al. (2019) suggested that sales managers concentrate on programs designed to produce elevated levels of internal service quality for their salespeople that deliver empathy, responsiveness, tangibles, assurance, and reliability.

Workplace climate and the emotions these climates produce play a vital role in developing turnover intention (Carter et al., 2016; Joe et al., 2018). Employees who work

in a hospitable working environment that encourages overall organizational concern or concern for humanity as a whole experience a heightened identification with their organization, and their intent to turnover decreases (Joe et al., 2018). Turnover intentions increase when employees lack pride in their performance (Kraemer et al., 2016). However, Kraemer et al. (2016) suggested that employee pride in performance can create a sense of self-efficacy, contributing to increased turnover intentions. When the employee experiences high levels of job satisfaction, the relationship between self-efficacy and turnover intention becomes inverted and becomes negative. Thakur (2017) investigated abusive supervision and the outcomes in relation to employee turnover intentions. Thakur implemented Cohen's (1999) turnover intention scale to analyze the data and determined that turnover intentions were significantly positive concerning abusive supervision and negatively correlated with positive organizational support. These outcomes demonstrate the requisite positive and sociable work environments for corporate leaders and managers.

Indian front-end retail sales workers identified several antecedents to turnover in a qualitative study conducted by Pandey et al. (2018). The employees revealed abusive supervision, favoritism, perceived job image, work exhaustion, perceived unethical climate, organizational culture shock, staff shortage, and job dissatisfaction as the most common reasons for developing turnover intention. Pandey et al. discovered recurring themes related to the need for career growth opportunities, dead-end jobs, salary concerning workload, and compensation not reflective of cost-of-living responsibilities. Retail sales participants indicated that prolonged exposure and the tolerance of these

behaviors influenced employee turnover intentions and directly affected their decision to turnover or quit (Pandey et al., 2018). Career progression and advancement significantly contributed to the intention to turnover among the Indian retail sales employees in this study. Therefore, retail sales managers and their human resource partners should develop retention programs centered on initiatives that support career advancement opportunities, like role succession planning, and promote from within policies.

Scholars determined that job satisfaction had a significantly negative effect on early-career employee turnover intentions. Lee et al. (2017) supported the hypothesis that personal employee growth played a significant role in employee job satisfaction, specifically among early-career employees. Lee et al. opined that personal growth and development were the critical elements that could effectively control this population's turnover intentions. The researcher's findings profoundly impact dealership leaders' decisions to offer new salespersons training programs and personal growth programs designed to clarify role succession and increase salesperson retention.

Effective HRM practices, such as employee development programs, mentorship opportunities, career advancement strategies, succession planning, and training programs, are effective retention methods organizational leaders can implement to reduce turnover intentions (Ali & Mehreen, 2019; Almaaitah et al., 2017; de Oliveira et al., 2019). HRM practices that do not address perceived career barriers that substantially affect employee turnover intentions can produce adverse emotional reactions and increase turnover (Nie et al., 2018; Rasheed et al., 2018). Flaherty and Papas (2002) implemented the career stage theory to examine turnover intentions among automotive salespeople. The researchers

presented in their findings that occupational tenure, career stage, and education were significant influencers of salesperson turnover intentions.

Researchers support that leadership styles and employee commitment levels influence employee turnover intention. Li et al. (2018) opined that leader-member exchange (LMX) leadership indirectly influenced turnover intention when mediated by salesperson performance, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment. Li et al. hypothesized that LMX reduced salesperson turnover intentions and significantly impacted salesperson performance and job satisfaction using previous research findings.

Li et al. (2018) further posited that organizational commitment mediated the relationship between LMX and turnover intention, suggesting that HRM practices should educate sales managers on LMX qualities such as practical interpersonal communication skills, sales skills, and emotional intelligence. Li et al. suggested that improving salesperson performance was critical to reducing salesperson turnover intentions. Mathieu et al. (2016) indicated that employee commitment consists of several components and organizations that understand what fuels these components could minimize turnover intentions. Entrepreneurial leaders can lessen turnover intentions through high-level person-job fit (Yang et al., 2019). Therefore, providing leaders and entrepreneurs with evidence supporting putting the right person in the correct position, training the right person in organizational culture, and specific professional skills to reduce the intent to turnover.

Seminal and current researchers hypothesized that insufficient wages, lack of career advancement opportunities, and dissatisfaction could influence employee turnover

intentions within organizations that demonstrate truncated organizational values, poor performance, and dysfunctional culture (Dusterhoff et al., 2014; Olubiya et al., 2019; Stanolampros et al., 2019). However, Jinnett et al. (2017) opined that employee commitment, retention, and engagement lessens turnover intent. Therefore, organizations that develop and implement career succession and marked salary and pay initiatives into their overall culture position themselves for increased job satisfaction and employee retention.

Independent Variable Measurements

Herzberg et al. (1959) identified specific constructs associated with job satisfaction. Herzberg et al. asserted that these intrinsic (motivation) and extrinsic (hygiene) characteristics were directly associated with employee job satisfaction or job dissatisfaction (Alshmemri et al., 2017). Herzberg et al. labeled intrinsic (motivation) constructs as (a) recognition, (b) opportunity for advancement, (c) achievement, and (d) appreciation, while (e) work itself, (f) pay/salary, (g) job security, and (h) supervisions are hygiene or extrinsic constructs related to job dissatisfaction (Hur, 2018). The independent variables of opportunity for advancement (intrinsic) and pay/salary (extrinsic) were measured using the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire -Short Form (MSQ-SF); (Weiss et al., 1968) and the Pay Satisfaction Questionnaire (PSQ); (Heneman & Schwab, 1985).

Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire Short Form (MSQ-SF)

The MSQ-SF is a shortened derivative of the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ) developed by Weiss et al. in 1968 to measure work adjustment

theory. The MSQ (Weiss et al, 1968) comprises 100 items and measures employee satisfaction levels. The MSQ-SF contains 20 items and is considered a primary measurement tool for job satisfaction (Lakatamitou et al., 2020; Weiss et al., 2010; Weiss et al., 1968; Worsfold et al., 2016). Seminal and recent researchers have implemented this measurement tool to understand the relationship between employees and their work environment.

The MSQ-SF is a 5-point Likert scale that measures job satisfaction using the top questions from each category, with two subscales for intrinsic and extrinsic satisfaction elements (Lakatamitou et al., 2020). The MSQ-SF contains 20 items that focus specifically on the inherent (motivation) and outside (hygiene) aspects of job satisfaction (Lakatamitou et al., 2020; Purohit et al., 2016). The 20 items measured are achievement, advancement, activity, authority, ability, company policies and procedures, compensation, coworkers, creativity, moral values, independence, recognition, responsibility, security, social service, social status, supervision relations, supervision technical, variety, working conditions, and cumulative job satisfaction (Purohit et al., 2016). The time required to complete the MSQ-SF in conjunction with its reliability and validity as a proven instrument for measuring job satisfaction (Heneman & Schwab, 1985; Lakatamitou et al., 2020; Purohit et al., 2016) and is the reason this instrument was selected to measure the intrinsic (motivator) constructs.

Pay Satisfaction Questionnaire (PSQ)

Heneman and Schwab (1985) designed the 18-item pay satisfaction questionnaire to address five pay constructs absent in generalized unidimensional instruments, such as

the MSQ and the Job Descriptive pay scales (Heneman & Schwab, 1985). Those five constructs are (a) pay level, (b) benefits, (c) pay raises, (d) pay structure, and (e) administration. PSQ measures the constructs using a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1- strongly agreed to 5- strongly disagree (Heneman & Schwab, 1985; Olasupo et al., 2019). Current and seminal researchers have implemented the PSQ to analyze pay satisfaction in various sectors and industries.

Athamneh (2020) implemented the PSQ as the conceptual framework for a study on pay satisfaction among Jordanian public sector workers. Lawal et al. (2019) measured pay satisfaction as one of the constructs of counterproductive work behavior (CWB) and intent to leave among university support staff. Zaky et al. (2018) further expounded upon the effects of pay satisfaction, pay level, and positive affect among 207 postgraduate students. These recent studies further indicate that pay satisfaction is still a viable construct to consider in research that examines or explores employee turnover intentions.

Athamneh (2020) hypothesized that Jordanian public sector workers were satisfied with pay level, benefits, pay raises, structure, and administration. Athamneh also theorized that age and gender would influence the outcome of the PSQ survey conducted among these workers. Athamneh rejected the hypothesis that Jordanian public sector workers were satisfied with pay levels, benefits, pay raises, structure, and administration. Athamneh found that salary structure and administration averages were closer to dissatisfaction than pay level and benefits averages. Lawal et al. (2019) posited that using the PSQ to measure pay satisfaction is a significant predictor of CWB. When combined with age, there was a 1.3% increase in variation. Lawal et al. further discovered that

intention to leave was a significant contributor to CWB; there was no significant impact when gender was introduced to the data set. Overall, Lawal et al. reported a coefficient alpha reliability estimate of 0.89 with a Cronbach alpha of 0.97, providing further evidence of the tested reliability of this questionnaire as a measurement instrument for pay satisfaction. Zaky et al. (2018) designed hypotheses to analyze the bearing actual pay and pay affected on the four dimensions of the PSQ, which are (a) pay level satisfaction, (b) benefit satisfaction, (c) pay raise satisfaction, (c) pay raise satisfaction, and (d) pay administration satisfaction. Zaky et al. measured the pay satisfaction factors using the PSQ and determined that all dimensions had good reliability with a Cronbach alpha greater than 0.80. Zaky et al. further posited that the hypotheses testing revealed that pay level positively affected every extent of pay satisfaction. The PSQ provides this study with another measurement tool with high internal consistency and multidimensional data in conjunction with MSQ-SF. For this reason, I selected the PSQ as the measurement tool for intrinsic (motivator) pay/salary.

Dependent Variable Measurement

Mobley et al. (1978) created an employee turnover model that measures the general aspects of job satisfaction, thoughts about quitting, the intention to leave, and the seeming opportunity to find another job. Mobley et al. concluded that the choice to quit was significantly correlated to actual turnover, and this simplified model could be implemented across various industries. Sager et al. (1988) used Mobley et al.'s model to partially evaluate salesperson turnover, using multiple regression models to test different hypotheses using the constructs of pay, promotion, supervisor, work, co-workers, and

thinking of quitting, attitude towards searching, and quitting, and intention to leave. Skelton et al. (2018) examined turnover intentions among workers in the manufacturing industry by developing a questionnaire using three questions grounded in Mobley et al.'s model. Thakur (2017) reviewed the relationships between abusive supervision and psychological contract breach, perceived organizational support, organizational citizenship behavior, and turnover intentions among 41 Indian employees. Using Cohen's (1999) turnover intention scale, Thakur determined that abusive supervision shared a significantly positive correlation with turnover intention ($r = .50; p < .01$).

In this study, I elected to use the turnover intention scale developed by Cohen (1999), founded upon the fundamental constructs of Mobley et al.'s (1978) turnover intention model. Cohen's turnover intention scale is a nine-item, 5-point Likert scale (1=*strongly disagree*; 2= *disagree*; 3=*neutral*; 4= *agree*; 5= *strongly agree*) that inquires into turnover intentions using the same sentence structure, however changing the verbiage from the word organization to the word job, to the word occupation. The Cronbach's alpha coefficient for this scale is 0.94 for intentions to leave the organization, 0.89 for intentions to leave the job, and 0.92 for intentions to flee the occupation. Lonial and Carter (2015) posited that a Cronbach's alpha coefficient of 0.80 or higher demonstrates high data reliability. Therefore, I will use this survey instrument to measure the dependent variable, employee turnover intention.

Transition

Section 1 comprehensively summarizes the study's business phenomena I examined. In Section 1, I discussed the background of the problem, identified the

business problem, and stated my study's purpose. I identified the population as retail salespeople currently employed by automotive dealerships in Tennessee, Kentucky, and Alabama who have been in the dealership retail selling profession for at least 1 year. In this section, I further discussed the quantitative research method and correlational design I implemented to determine if there was a statistical relationship created by the linear combination of the independent variables (opportunity for advancement and salary/pay) and did this relationship significantly impact employee turnover intentions among retail salespeople in the automotive industry. I discussed, in Section 1, the theoretical framework used to examine the business phenomenon as Herzberg's two-factor theory of motivation and discussed the implications for social change and practical business application of the findings. Section 1 also included the overarching research question and the null and alternative hypothesis and concluded with a comprehensive and robust review of seminal and current literature applied to substantiate the research's data.

Section 2 includes the (a) restatement of the purpose statement, (b) a description of the researcher's role, (c) an explanation of the eligibility criteria of the participants, (d) a discussion of the strategy implemented to gain access to the participants, (e) the chosen research method and design, (f) a description of the population, (g) an explanation of the instrumentation, (h) the data collection methods and analysis, (i) study validity, and (j) research ethics. Section 3 presents the findings using descriptive statistics, a description of the statistical tests, and their relationship to the hypothesis. This section will also implement the appropriate tables, figures, and illustrations to evaluate the statistical assumptions. This section concludes with a detailed discussion of the applicability of the

findings in actual business practices, the tangible social change implications, the recommendation for action, reflection, and further research.

Section 2: The Project

In this section, I discuss and restate the purpose of this quantitative correlational study. I also address my role as the researcher and the ethical requirements all researchers need to follow to present research data that are reliable and valid. The chosen research methodology and design are discussed, and a brief justification of why other standard methods and techniques were unsuitable for researching the business phenomena in this study is provided. This section also includes details about the research participants, such as their role in the automotive retail sales industry and other demographic characteristics. I justify and describe the sampling method employed in this study and establish mathematical justification for the effect size, alpha, and power levels. Lastly, the instrumentation, data collection techniques, and statistical tests used to analyze the sample and test the research hypotheses are described.

Purpose Statement

The purpose of this quantitative correlational study was to examine the relationship between an intrinsic job satisfier (i.e., the opportunity for advancement), an extrinsic job dissatisfier (i.e., salary/pay), and employee turnover intention. The independent or predictor variables were intrinsic job satisfaction and extrinsic job dissatisfaction. The dependent or criterion variable was employee turnover intention. The targeted population encompassed automotive retail salespersons in small- to medium-sized franchise new car dealerships in Tennessee, Kentucky, and Alabama. Positive social change implies developing a mutually constructive relationship between the dealership and the community it serves. This mutually valuable relationship could

contribute to employee stability, new job opportunities, and local economic growth associated with increased vehicle sales and registrations, such as local tax revenue and charitable contributions to local community organizations.

Role of the Researcher

The researcher's primary role is to develop an ethical strategy to collect, analyze, and validate reliable data from the study's participants (Dragga & Voss, 2017; Saunders et al., 2016). Researchers must maintain academic responsibility and honesty, ensure research accuracy, and protect their human participants' confidentiality and anonymity (Dragga & Voss, 2017; Yin, 2018). In this study, I tested hypotheses with analyses of data collected via an online survey administered to retail salespeople in the automotive sales industry in Tennessee, Kentucky, and Alabama.

Researchers who elect to employ data collected from human participants must strive to attain the highest research ethics level. The research protocol outlined in *the Belmont Report* provides the researcher with an ethical roadmap that protects and respects the research participants (National Commission for the Protection of Human Subjects of Biomedical and Behavioral Research, 1978). *The Belmont Report* requires the researcher to draw a clear line between research and practice and to adhere to these three guiding ethical doctrines: (a) respect for persons, (b) beneficence, and (c) justice (Anabo et al., 2019; Lantos, 2020). First, researchers implement the respect for person principle as the guiding principle that requires the researcher to treat human participants as autonomous agents and protect those agents with diminished autonomy (Lantos, 2020; National Commission for the Protection of Human Subjects of Biomedical and

Behavioral Research, 1978). Second, researchers must minimize harm and maximize possible benefits for their research participants or exercise beneficence (Anabo et al., 2019; Lantos, 2020). Finally, to achieve the principle of justice, the researcher must ensure fairness and equality in disseminating the research benefits (Anabo et al., 2019; Lantos, 2020).

As a 36-year veteran in retail sales management, I am highly familiar with the business phenomena, and the financial ramifications employee turnover intentions and turnover have on automotive retail sales at the dealership level. I depended on the consistency and reliability of the selected instruments to ensure unbiased, valid, and reliable inferences (see Gardiner et al., 2020). As a current employer in the automotive industry, my familiarity with this industry afforded me access to the study's participants and population. The participants knew that their input was voluntary and confidential in this study. I solicited participants in Tennessee, Kentucky, and Alabama via the online survey service, Survey Monkey, to ensure confidentiality, quality, fairness, and legality.

Participants

The participants in this study were retail salespersons who sell new and preowned vehicles at franchised automotive dealerships with at least 1 year of selling experience in an automotive retail dealership environment. The salespeople were not fixed operations sales personnel, such as parts, service, and finance sales. The participants were all 21 years or older and included all gender specifications.

I gained access to participants by contacting them via social media outlets, such as Facebook, LinkedIn, and Instagram; automotive sales-specific online forums; and focus

groups. Salespeople were asked to participate in the research and informed that all their responses were anonymous. I developed a respectful relationship by identifying my automotive retail sales experience. Developing a participant-researcher relationship is fundamental to research success (Murphy et al., 2016; Yin, 2018). Saunders et al. (2016) stated that gaining participant access by identifying similar experiences in common industries is the most successful technique among management and organizational researchers. Once an individual agreed to participate, they were provided a hyperlink to an on-screen consent statement connecting them to the survey. In the on-screen consent form, I explained the purpose of the study in detail and the methods used to maintain confidentiality, and asked that the participants agree to privacy and confidentiality disclosures before they entered the survey.

Research Method and Design

Research Method

In this study, I tested hypotheses and implemented numerical calculations to examine what relationship may or may not exist between salary/pay, the opportunity for advancement, and employer turnover intentions among retail salespeople in the automotive sales industry. Yin (2018) posited that the research question would determine the appropriate research method to use in a study, either qualitative, quantitative, or mixed methods. I sought to examine what relationship the independent variables may share with the dependent variable, not why or how, which are research attributes associated with qualitative research methods (see Lau, 2017; Yin, 2018). Therefore, using

this information from the literature, I decided that the quantitative method was most appropriate for answering the research question (see Sligo et al., 2018).

Researchers who chose to examine the phenomena using mathematical calculations use the quantitative method to collect data and to test hypotheses to numerically express the statistical generalizability, causality, or scale of effects between dependent and independent variables (O’Leary, 2017; Sligo et al., 2018). Quantitative research requires the researcher to gather data from a population through surveys, perform statistical tests, and conduct analyses to examine the relationship between variables (Edmonds & Kennedy, 2017; Saunders et al., 2016; Yin, 2018). I did not complete the research using natural setting observations to explore the subjective, perceptive, or philosophical aspect of the business phenomena, which are characteristics associated with qualitative and mixed-methods research approaches (see Edmonds & Kennedy, 2017, Ellis & Levy, 2009; Murshed & Zhang, 2016; Saunders et al., 2016; Yin, 2018). The mixed-methods approach combines attributes from both quantitative and qualitative methods. The researcher uses mixed methods when they cannot collect additional insight from quantitative or qualitative data or take a holistic view of the research problem (Saunders et al., 2016; Sligo et al., 2018; Strijker et al., 2020). Since the explorative and philosophical factors were not present in this study, the mixed methods approach was not conducive to answering the research question.

Research Design

In conjunction with population appropriateness, the researcher’s chosen research methodology determines the research design (Saunders et al., 2016; Yin, 2018). There are

four types of quantitative research designs: (a) descriptive, (b) experimental, (c) quasi-experimental, and (d) correlational (Saunders et al., 2016). Researchers use a descriptive research design to explore or describe the phenomenon without statistical inference (Siedlecki, 2020). Researchers implement experimental techniques in controlled environments to explore the causal relationship of the variables (Armstrong & Kepler, 2018; Edmonds & Kennedy, 2017; Saunders et al., 2016; Zellmer-Bruhn et al., 2016). Quasi-experimental designs are observational and implemented by researchers who want to enhance causal effect evidence and lack solid internal validity (Maciejewski, 2020). Therefore, these designs were not appropriate for this study.

Correlational research design is the most common design choice for researchers to ascertain the degree of noncausal strength or relationship between two or more variables (Curtis et al., 2016). The researcher uses the correlational design to analyze patterns in the data and reduce the variables' manipulation (Lau, 2017; Saunders et al., 2016). Furthermore, researchers implement the correlational research design to ascertain the degree or level of noncausal strength or relationship between the variables in the same population, not the multiple populations generally associated with experimental designs (Curtis et al., 2016; Maciejewski, 2020; Seeram, 2019). Using the correlational design in this study allowed me to clarify whether the independent variables of salary/pay and opportunity for advancement were significantly correlated with the dependent variable of employee turnover intention. I used this data to determine the relationship's statistically negative or positive linear correlation and statistically predict a result using established hypotheses testing (see Curtis et al., 2016; Lau, 2017). Therefore, the correlational

research design was appropriate for this study since I was not observing, describing, exploring, or drawing causal inferences.

Population and Sampling

Population

The population for this study included retail salespersons in the automotive retail sales industry who worked for franchised new and used car dealerships in Tennessee, Kentucky, and Alabama. The participants were drawn from all-gender specifications and were at least 21 years of age, with 1 year or more of retail selling experience in the automobile dealership environment. The participants were full-time employees who sold vehicles only. They did not consist of other sales-related positions within the dealership structure, such as parts salespeople, service salespeople, or financial products salespeople.

Sampling Method

Researchers employ sampling when surveying an entire population is not feasible, financially or timely (Saunders et al., 2016). Probabilistic or representative sampling and nonprobabilistic sampling are the two research sampling methods researchers use to achieve the most appropriate data set to correctly answer their research question (Saunders et al., 2016). Probability sampling is commonly used when the researcher wants to reduce biases and randomly sample their targeted population (Pace, 2021; Saunders et al., 2016). Nonprobability sampling allows the researcher to select participants from the targeted population, making the results more generalizable to the overall population (Saunders et al., 2016). Scholarly researchers can implement

purposive sampling when they seek to select the most appropriate sample for their research topic (Campbell et al., 2020). The strengths of this sampling technique are the cost-effectiveness, ease of data collection, and appropriateness for online surveys (Bullard, 2022, Saunders et al., 2016). However, probability sampling presents weaknesses, such as redundancy, being time-consuming, and the possibility of only choosing specific classes within the sample (Bullard, 2022; Saunders et al., 2016). Therefore, I implemented a nonprobability purposive sampling technique for this study due to the time- and cost-saving attributes and the voluntary nature of participation.

Researchers conduct nonprobability purposive sampling when seeking cost-effectiveness and limited resources or when they are time bound (Campbell et al., 2020; Guest & Namey, 2015; Saunders et al., 2016). Nonprobability sampling requires that the participants meet a predefined criterion for study participation versus the random sampling process associated with probability sampling (El-Masri, 2017; Saunders et al., 2016). Researchers use purposive and convenience sampling techniques to target accessible and geographically situated populations to ease availability (Etikan et al., 2016). The strengths associated with this sampling technique are that it is (a) advantageous to online surveying, (b) inexpensive, (c) provides ease of gaining access to respondents, and (d) its time effectiveness (Rahi, 2017). I implemented a nonprobabilistic purposive sampling technique to assist with choosing only retail salespersons who satisfied the study's inclusion criteria.

Sample size

Applying the appropriate sample size allows the researcher to align research designs, interpret the issues, and determine accurate power levels (Fugard & Potts, 2015; Serdar et al., 2021). The sample size notably affects the study design and hypotheses while ensuring the accuracy of statistical results and controlling bias (Kaliyadan & Kulkarni, 2019; Schoemann et al., 2017; Serdar et al., 2021). Statistically, incorrect sample sizes can lead to inaccurate or inadequate results, increasing organizational costs associated with ethical considerations, time, and research and development (Serdar et al., 2021). An appropriate sample size controls the probabilities of Type I and Type II errors. Researchers have suggested that controlling the sample size helps reduce Type II errors; however, this method can increase costs and delay research activities (Serdar, 2021). Therefore, study efficiency relies heavily on adequate sample size.

Researchers utilize various tools and methods to calculate the appropriate sample size for their studies. For correlation and regression analyses, Faul et al. (2009) posited that G*Power 3.1 is the power analysis program primarily implemented to test social, behavioral, and biomedical research sciences. Therefore, I employed this power analysis program to determine the appropriate sample size for this study.

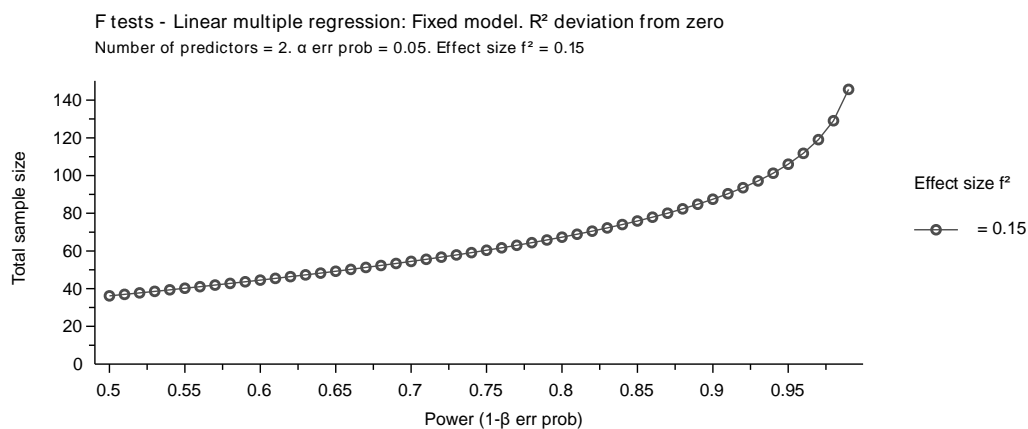
G*Power Analysis

I conducted an a priori analysis using G*Power 3.1.9.2 with an effect size of $f = .15$, $\alpha = 0.05$, and a power level of 0.80 to determine the appropriate sample size for this study. Cohen (1992) suggested that these values represented effect size, alpha level, and power level endorsing a balance of Type I and Type II errors (Hickey et al., 2018). This

study's G*power a priori analysis results indicated that a minimum sample size of 68 participants achieved a power of .80. To reach a power of 0.99, a maximum sample size of 146 participants was necessary. Therefore, the study's power range is .80 to .99, $\alpha = 0.05$, with a participant sample size between 68 and 146 participants. Figure 7 reflects the G* Power priori analysis results for the appropriate sample size for this study.

Figure 7

G Power Priori Analysis for Sample Size*



Ethical Research

As the researcher, I was responsible for applying research strategies that satisfied the requirements posited by The National Commission for the Protection of Human Subjects of Biomedical and Behavioral Research in the *Belmont Report* and Walden University's Institutional Review Board (IRB). To satisfy the three basic principles of the *Belmont Report*, (a) respect for persons, (b) beneficence (not harm), and (c) justice, I applied the mandated policies and provided study participants with the tools necessary to protect their confidentiality and anonymity (Anabo et al., 2019; Lantos, 2020; National Commission for the Protection of Human Subjects of Biomedical and Behavioral

Research, 1979). I used instruments that ensured ethical compliance for all subjects to disclose the benefits and risks of the research and to ensure that all moral and social requirements surrounding fairness were met.

Ethical research practices guided by IRB protocol require all student researchers to obtain approval before collecting data from study participants (Ritchie, 2021). Ritchie (2021) postulated that research students who receive intensive instruction and guidance in IRB protocol demonstrated a healthy appreciation for ethical research principles and increased their knowledge of ethical practices. I received Walden University's IRB approval to conduct this study, and the IRB approval number is 05-24-22-0672659. I sent potential participants an email invitation asking for volunteers. The participation invitation provided the potential participant with the purpose of the research and the processes deployed to secure and maintain confidentiality while protecting their privacy and anonymity. The participants elected to go further in the process by selecting the affirmative response in the online invitation. Once the participant chose to proceed with the survey, they selected the provided hyperlink that redirected them to a new screen that contained the online informed consent form and the survey questions. Walden University supplied an informed consent template that met the university's IRB requirements. That was the form I used for this study, with some modifications specific to the study's constructs.

Researchers implement the informed consent form to assure participants of their right to choose what will happen with their responses and the information they provide (Gesualdo et al., 2021). The consent process encourages voluntariness and informs the

participant of the potential benefits or risks associated with the research study, which further promotes the participant's ability to choose freely and voluntarily to participate (Gesualdo et al., 2021; National Commission for the Protection of Human Subjects of Biomedical and Behavioral Research, 1979). All participants were anonymous since all identifying information other than gender and age was not collected or surveyed by the online survey service during data collection. Participants could terminate the study prematurely at any time during the survey process. Participants were not offered any incentives for participation or a complete survey.

Data Collection Instruments

The appropriate collection of data is one of the many responsibilities of the researcher. Therefore, the researcher must gather and analyze the data using the instruments to provide the most reliable and valid findings that answer the overarching research question (Saunders et al., 2016). I designed a demographic survey that identified the appropriate participant pool for this study. I implemented seminal scientific instruments that other scholars and researchers posited as the most suitable and successful collection instruments for evaluating this study's independent and dependent variables. I obtained permission to use the selected tools from all parties that required this process.

Demographic Survey

The demographic survey is a self-constructed survey that consisted of five list questions that will facilitate inquiry about (a) gender, (b) age, (c) dealership tenure, (d) department of work, and (e) management status. Researchers use list questions to ensure the respondent meets the desired participant profile and addresses all possible responses

(Saunders et al., 2016). I used the demographic survey for the descriptive statistical analysis to quantify the percentages associated with the demographic composition of the participants.

Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (Short form)

The MSQ-SF is a scientifically proven instrument developed by Weiss, Dawis, England, and Lofquist in 1967 to measure intrinsic and extrinsic constructs associated with the theory of work adjustment and employee job satisfaction (Brief et al., 1988; Erdoğan et al., 2020; Inayat & Jahanzeb Khan, 2021; Weiss et al., 2010). The MSQ-SF is a condensed version of the original 100 questions long form of the MSQ. Senter et al. (2010) used the MSQ-SF to measure how employees feel about their current job, whether they exhibit satisfactoriness or gratification from the external factors of the job, satisfaction (internal) from the inherent aspects of the job, or a combination of both, identified as general or overall job satisfaction.

There are three versions of the MSQ, two extended versions and the 20-question short version. The version implemented in this study is the short-form version, consisting of 20 questions, 14 questions that measure intrinsic items, and six questions that measure extrinsic items. The responses were 5-point Likert scale reactions ranging from 1= (*very satisfied*) to 5 = (*very dissatisfied*); (Brief et al., 1988; Lakatamitou et al., 2020; Weiss et al., 1967; Weiss et al., 2010). The participants indicated to what degree they agreed or disagreed with the statements postulated in the MSQ-SF, with individual scores representing their extrinsic, intrinsic, or general satisfaction (Senter et al., 2010; Weiss et al., 1967). Researchers use the summation of all item scores to determine the total test

score, with the highest score indicating a high level of job satisfaction (Erdoğan et al., 2020; Lakatamitou et al., 2020). I utilized this same summation process to statistically analyze the collected responses for these constructs in this study.

Researchers used Cronbach's alpha statistic to measure response and internal consistency (Saunders et al., 2016). Values of 0.70 or higher indicate that the questions in the scale measure the same construct (Saunders et al., 2016). The Cronbach alpha value of the MSQ scale reported by Weiss et al. (1967) is 0.77 (Erdoğan, 2020). Senter et al. (2010) demonstrated the instrument's internal consistency with Hoyt reliability coefficients of 0.86 for the intrinsic scale, 0.80 for the extrinsic scale, and 0.90 for the general overall satisfaction scale. Baykara and Orhan (2020) postulated on the job satisfaction levels of physical education teachers in Turkey that the reliability of the MSQ-SF proved suitable with a Cronbach alpha of 0.93. The high internal and external validity properties associated with the MSQ-SF, along with its ease of use and seminal track record, are why I chose this data collection instrument for this study.

PSQ

In this study, I used Heneman and Schwab's (1985) PSQ as the data collection instrument for the independent variable, pay/salary. Heneman and Schwab designed the multidimensional PSQ to measure five hypothesized aspects of pay satisfaction, (a) the level of pay, (b) benefits, (c) raises, (d) pay structure, and (e) administration (Athamneh, 2020). The PSQ consisted of 18 questions that participants used to designate their satisfaction with their respective compensation (Heneman & Schwab, 1985; Judge, 1993;

Lawal et al., 2019). The participant responses were collected via a 5-point Likert scale that ranges from 1 = *very dissatisfied* to 5 = *very satisfied*.

Heneman and Schwab's (1985) determination of the reliability of the PSQ is shown in coefficient alpha reliability estimates or Cronbach alpha of four measured dimensions with a range of 0.80-0.90. Judge (1993) investigated the validity of the dimensions of the PSQ and concluded that the overall scale was a reliable measure of pay satisfaction with a coefficient alpha of 0.89. Lam (1998) implemented the PSQ to measure pay satisfaction among 171 Chinese workers in Hong Kong. The researcher found the Pearson correlation between the test and retest was 0.78, $p = .01$ for all 18 questions. Lam further estimated that the instrument's internal consistency was reliable, with a Cronbach alpha of .77 and .80 for the factors measured. In recent research, Yao et al. (2018) applied the PSQ to combine theories about the impact and interaction of reported pay and pay discrepancy. Yao et al. added two more points to their measurement scale and determined the reliability of the PSQ for their sample to be .94. Lawal et al. (2019) researched counterproductive work behaviors, pay, age, and intent to leave among university support workers. Lawal et al. used the PSQ to measure the pay satisfaction variable using the 5-point rating scale designed by Heneman and Schwab and reported a coefficient alpha reliability estimate of 0.89 with a 0.97 reliability coefficient of Cronbach's alpha in their study. The consistent high-reliability scores and the scientifically proven validity of this data collection instrument by seminal and recent research are why I chose this instrument to measure the independent variable, pay/salary, for this study.

Turnover Intention Scale

The data collection tool I employed for the dependent variable, employee turnover intention, will be Cohen's (1999) turnover intention scale. Cohen hypothesized that various forms of employee commitment generated diverse work outcomes in his study. Cohen deployed Mobley et al.'s (1978) intent to leave scale that measured three items based on turnover intentions using a 5- point Likert scale that measures the following items, leaving the organization, searching for an alternative organization, or immediately leaving the organization. Cohen expounded on Mobley et al. survey using the same measurement items. However, Cohen substituted the term *organization* with *job* and *occupation*. Cohen's scale ranges from 1(*strongly agree*) to 5 (*strongly disagree*), with a higher score indicating weaker turnover intentions.

Researchers find Mobley et al.'s (1978) turnover intention scale reliable and valid across various industries and phenomena. Choi and Chiu (2017) found Mobley et al.'s statistically accurate with dependable measures proving highly significant ($p < .01$) and composite reliability and Cronbach's alpha at C.R. = .933 and $\alpha = .892$, respectively. Olawale and Olanrewaju's (2016) investigation of staff turnover intentions among Lagos State University personnel revealed a Cronbach alpha of 0.83, further demonstrating the reliability of this data collection tool. Cohen (1999) reported his resultant Cronbach's alpha as 0.94 for intentions to leave the organization, 0.89 for intentions to leave the job, and 0.92 for intentions to leave the occupation providing me with additional evidence, based on the literature, for selecting Cohen turnover intention scale instrument as the appropriate one to collect the data about employee turnover intention. I will include

copies of the measuring instruments along with permissions to use these instruments in Appendices B, C, and D of this study.

Table 2

Study Variables and Measurement Instruments with Permission to Use Status

| Variables | Measurement instrument | Designers | Permission to use | Location in study contents |
|---|--|---|---|----------------------------|
| Independent variable: opportunity for advancement | Minnesota satisfaction questionnaire short form MSQ-SF | Weiss, Dawis, England, and Lofquist, (1967) | Permission is no longer needed if used for academic research. | Appendix B |
| Independent variable: salary/pay | Pay satisfaction questionnaire (PSQ) | Heneman and Schwab (1985) | Permission granted via e-mail dated. | Appendix C |
| Dependent variable: employee turnover intention | Turnover intention scale | Cohen (1999) | Test contents can be reproduced and used for non-commercial research and educational purposes without written permission. | Appendix D |

Data Collection Technique

The research question for this study: Within small to medium franchise new car dealerships, what is the relationship between intrinsic job satisfier, the opportunity for advancement, extrinsic job dissatisfier, salary/pay, and employee turnover intention? After receiving permission from Walden University's Institutional Review Board (IRB), I began collecting data. The IRB number for this study that identifies the board's approval for data collection is 05-24-22-0672659. I used an online survey data collection technique for this study to collect reliable and valid data for the quantitative examination of this question.

Researchers can implement varying methods of data collection. Those methods can include (a) live operators, (b) automated systems, such as interactive voice recognition, (c) online, (d) direct mail, and (e) face-to-face (Kimball, 2019). Online survey and questionnaire methods allow the researcher to manage costs and provide the researcher with the affordability to access populations and data samples that may be inaccessible under varying circumstances (Gomez et al., 2017; Kimball, 2019).

Researchers benefit from online surveys due to design flexibility, faster response rates, lower error rate, and the ease of randomizing questions (Gomez et al., 2017). I collected research data utilizing an online survey form designed and distributed using the online survey platform Survey Monkey.

Survey Monkey enables the researcher to customize the design and structure of their questionnaire, allowing for various responses that logically guide the survey participant through the questionnaire (Waclawski, 2012). Survey Monkey is a proven survey tool applied by researchers across different industries and research genres (Kimball, 2019). The Survey Monkey platform allows the researcher to distribute surveys via social platforms such as Facebook and LinkedIn. Researchers can track survey completion progress using the progress dashboard supplied by Survey Monkey. Survey Monkey stores data until the researcher terminates or deletes the account or data (Halim et al., 2018; Waclawski, 2012). Users can also import collected data into a Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) file and customize the report design to improve the data's visualization (Halim et al., 2018). Where internet access is limited, Survey Monkey

allows for a postal questionnaire for participants (Waclawski, 2012), and their responses are added to those collected via the online version of the questionnaire.

Survey length plays a significant role in completing the research study's online survey. Brosnan et al. (2021) postulated 10 critical drivers linked to online survey participation and completion. Brosnan et al. concluded that knowledge or interest in the topic was an influential driver of survey completion. Other drivers, such as incentive payments, ease of completion, speed of completion, and benefits to others, were significantly instrumental in successful online survey completion and participation, with incentive payments being the most significant contributing factor influencing survey participation and completion (Brosnan et al., 2021). However, I did not offer survey participants any incentive for survey participation and completion. The survey flowed from one subject to the other and was designed to be executed in less than 6 minutes.

Researchers have experienced challenges with online surveys. Sample bias and low response rate are inherent attributes that indicate the instability of online communities and virtual groups (Buchanan & Hvizdak, 2009; Wright, 2005). I contacted potential participants via e-mail and social media to explain the study's objective, confidentiality and anonymity measures, and a straightforward process for completing the survey thoroughly and promptly. The participants received an online electronic consent form after selecting the hyperlink embedded in the online survey invitation sent via Facebook, Instagram, and LinkedIn. When the participants finalized their survey, they received a thank-you message for their participation and contribution to this valuable research. All data collected were transferred to IBM SPSS data analysis software for

quantification. The raw data frequency tables, multiple regression results, descriptive, demographic statistics, and survey questions are provided in the appendix section of this study.

Data Analysis

Data analysis is the process researchers use to organize and interpret data or information collected via the data collection tools executed in their study. For this study, the research question: Within small to medium franchise new car dealerships, what is the relationship between intrinsic job satisfier, the opportunity for advancement, extrinsic job dissatisfier, salary/pay, and employee turnover intention?

To address this research question, I hypothesize the following:

H₀: There is no statistically significant relationship between the intrinsic job satisfier of the opportunity for advancement, the extrinsic job dissatisfier of salary/pay, and employee turnover intentions.

H₁: There is a statistically significant relationship between the intrinsic job satisfier of the opportunity for advancement, the extrinsic job dissatisfier of salary/pay, and employee turnover intentions.

I quantitatively examined the possible linear combinations using the statistical analysis software IBM SPSS to perform multiple linear regression calculations to analyze the collected data.

Researchers use multiple linear regression analysis to estimate the correlation or relationship between multiple variables (Abdullah & Leong, 2018; Green & Salkind, 2017; Oguntunde et al., 2018). Multiple linear regression analysis is instrumental in

examining relationship strengths among large populations (Brooks & Barcikowski, 2012). Green and Salkind (2017) posited that the multiple correlations (R) are a strength-of-relationship index indicative of the degree of the predicted scores and their correlation with the criterion or Y variable. R values range between 0 and 1, with 0 indicating no linear relationship between the predictor variables (independent) and the criterion variable (dependent). In contrast, a value of 1 indicates a perfect prediction of the criterion variable, and a value between 0-1 indicates a less-than-perfect linear relationship.

Assumptions

The assumptions associated with multiple linear regression are based on whether the model is fixed or random (Green & Salkind, 2017). In a fixed-effects model, which is generally appropriate for experimental studies, the assumption is that the dependent variable is usually distributed within the population at each level of combinations with the independent variable (Green & Salkind, 2017). In nonexperimental studies, the assumption is based on a random-effects model. The variables are multivariate and normally distributed, which indicates that every variable is normally distributed, ignoring the other variables. The variables are normally distributed within every combination, signifying a statistically linear relationship between the variables (Green & Salkind, 2017). Green and Salkind (2017) further posited that multiple linear regression analysis required additional crucial assumptions to lessen the probability of Type I and Type II errors. Green and Salkind, in conjunction with other scholars, identified those assumptions as (a) multicollinearity or the existence of a correlation between two or more

independent variables, which is extant when the correlation coefficient ranges between -1 to +1, with -1 reflecting the stronger negative relationship between values, 0 equaling no relationship, and +1 equaling a robust positive relationship, as measured by Pearson's product-moment correlation coefficient; (b) the normality of error, which indicates that the data will follow a normally distributed bell-shaped; (c) homoscedasticity, which assumes that the variance on the regression line is similar for all predictor variables and the residual values are equal; (d) linearity, which assumes there is a straight line or linear relationship between the predictor and criterion variables. Desalegn et al. (2020) postulated that linear regression analysis requires the researcher to test for (a) normality, (b) multicollinearity, and (c) homoscedasticity. Uyanik and Güler (2013) stated that additional assumptions related to multivariate linear regression analysis are (a) freedom from extreme values (outliers), (b) independence of errors, and (c) linearity. After I exported all verified data into the IBM SPSS software, I transformed the data to test for all assumptions. I have included the various scatter plots, histograms, regression plots, and descriptive tables in the appendix. Khosravi et al. (2021), Lai (2021), and Williams and Bornmann (2016) discussed bootstrapping as a method researchers can use to identify unbiased point estimators within the population parameters based on the sample statistics and renders an impartial estimation of resampled standard deviation and mean when data normality assumptions and validity are insufficient. I further addressed multiple linear regression assumption violations by employing bootstrapping techniques.

Data Cleaning and Missing Information

One of the disadvantages of gathering data via online surveys is the researcher's inability to observe participant actions and interpretations of the questions in the survey (Evans & Mathur, 2018; Nayak & Narayan, 2019). The prerequisite informed consent form addresses the need for more understanding and change in participant status. I ensured the participant met the criteria established for the population by setting questionnaire parameters that ended the survey immediately if the participant did not satisfy the descriptive boundaries established in the demographic study. The participant was offered a selection to voluntarily opt out of the questionnaire if they did not consent or agree to the survey terms. However, inaccurate and misinformation are unavoidable. Therefore, I identified and extracted any incomplete surveys to eliminate erroneous data to improve the quality of the information retained in the dataset (Leeman et al., 2016). To ensure statistical data are clean, in conjunction with the research findings of Cai and Zhu (2015), I removed participant results that created extremely skewed results or outliers to safeguard research findings from data discrepancy and confirm data validity and reliability.

Inferential Statistics and Interpretation

When testing hypotheses, researchers make inferences about how the statistics apply to the population. A probability value (p -value) and effect sizes (f) are the customary inferential statistics researchers associate with hypothesis testing and multiple regression analysis. The p value reflects the research design's strengths, the measures' reliability, and the sample size's quality (Kraemer et al., 2019). The p value indicates the

test's significance or the probability of occurrence of the stated event. A p value greater than 0.05 indicates that the result is not statistically significant, and the null hypothesis is not rejected. A p value less than 0.05 indicates a statistically significant effect in which the researchers reject the null hypothesis in favor of the alternative hypothesis. The result is highly significant if the p value is less than 0.01. The p value ranges from 0 to 1, with 0 representing a higher probability of rejecting the null hypothesis and 1 representing a low probability of rejecting the null hypothesis (Reito, 2020). Therefore, since probability values are synonymous with hypothesis testing and multiple regression analysis, I employed this process to reject or accept the null hypothesis with a significance level of $p < .05$.

Researchers use effect size statistics to infer the standardized mean difference (Cohen's d) and the coefficient of determination (r^2) to quantify the magnitude of research findings regarding the research question (Lai, 2021; Liu & Yuan, 2021). Effect size (f) in statistic reference measures the impact of the research treatment /independent variable on the dependent or criterion variable and the extent the sample mean moves away from the population mean (Abbott, 2017). However, in multiple linear regression models, effect size (f) measures the contribution of a set of independent variables or predictors on the explained variance of the dependent variable (Abbott, 2017). In quantitative studies, the appropriate effect size is critical to interpreting and reporting inferential results (Green & Salkind, 2017; Liu & Yuan, 2021). Confidence interval (CI) is an important statistic because it plays a vital role in sample size planning or power analysis (Lai, 2021). The CI serves as the population probability factor that indicates the

range of values that will most likely contain the population values within a certain level of certainty (Abbott, 2017; Green & Salkind, 2017). Current and seminal researchers recommend a safe power analysis of a lower CI of 80% to 95% of the effect size (Abbott, 2017; Gorard, 2019). Therefore, I employed a CI of 95% as the population probability to draw inferences for my sample size for this study.

Study Validity

Internal Validity

Quantitative researchers seek study validity and reliability to ensure rigor or enhanced study quality (Reio, 2021). Internal validity designates whether the study's design appropriately assesses the hypotheses and research question (Andrade, 2018; Reio, 2021). Internal validity further establishes whether research measures are relevant, homogenous, stable, and reliable (Mohajan, 2017; Reio, 2021). Internal validity is imperative in experimental and quasi-experimental research designs. Researchers implement experimental and quasi-experimental research designs to examine or test cause and effect. I did not use experimental and quasi-experimental research strategies in this study, and internal validity is unnecessary since I did not investigate causality. Therefore, establishing internal validity was not a factor in this correlational design study. However, I used statistical conclusions to interpret and validate the inferences.

Statistical Conclusion Validity

Statistical conclusion validity (SCV) refers to the degree or magnitude of research study data that provides adequate and accurate conclusions or findings regarding the study's research question (Fabrigar et al., 2020; García-Pérez, 2012; Levine, 2011). SCV

is critical to determining whether the data analysis inferences reveal a significant or insignificant relationship between the independent and dependent variables (Fabrigar et al., 2020; García-Pérez, 2012; Levine, 2011). In addition to providing valid inferences, researchers achieve SCV by appropriately applying the statistical tests and results to the research to reduce Type I and Type II misinterpretations and invalid outcomes (García-Pérez, 2012). Therefore, any condition contributing to inflated or skewed Type I or Type II error rates threatens SCV.

Validity Threats

Threats to SCV include insufficient sample size, instrument reliability, the use of repeated testing, outliers, and data assumptions (García-Pérez, 2012; Guetterman, 2019).

Using a poor research design or sample size can lead to Type II errors, leading the researcher to accept the alternative hypothesis in error or inferring that a relationship is nonexistent when a relationship exists (Fabrigar et al., 2020; García-Pérez, 2012).

Additionally, researchers threaten SCV by not selecting the appropriate significance level (p -value). Selecting an unacceptable level of significance increases the researcher's risk of Type I errors or concluding that a relationship exists when it does not (Fabrigar et al., 2020; Green & Salkind, 2017). I used the conventional alpha level of $p = .05$, in conjunction with statistical software IBM SPSS and the appropriate data collection instruments, to quantitatively test the data to reduce threats to SCV in this study.

Instrument Reliability

Researchers utilize various instrument reliability checks to validate the dependability of their data collection instruments. The most applied test for instrument

internal consistency and reliability is Cronbach's alpha (α) (Heale & Twycross, 2015; Matkar, 2012; Olvera Astivia et al., 2020). Seminal and current researchers indicated that a Cronbach's alpha designation between 0 and 1 with a reliability coefficient score of 0.70 or higher indicates robust instrument reliability (Heale & Twycross, 2015). I implemented testing procedures in IBM SPSS to calculate Cronbach alpha value and instrument reliability for the data collection instruments I selected for this study. I employed Weiss et al.'s (1968) MSQ-SF to measure intrinsic and extrinsic job satisfaction. The MSQ-SF is a proven instrument for measuring job satisfaction constructs with reliability coefficients of 0.77 to 0.93 (Baykara & Orhan, 2020; Weiss et al., 1968). The PSQ (Heneman & Schwab, 1985) is the instrument I chose to measure the independent variable, salary/pay. Heneman and Schwab (1985) reported the reliability coefficient for salary/pay between 0.80 and 0.90. I used Cohen's (1999) turnover intention scale for the dependent variable, employee turnover intention. The Cronbach alpha (α) results for this instrument range between 0.83 and 0.94, demonstrating the instrument's consistency and reliability (Cohen, 1999; Olawale & Olanrewaju, 2016). I discussed the reliability analysis results for this study's instrumentation in the presentation of findings portion of Section 3.

Data Assumptions

The statistical test executed in this quantitative study was a multiple linear regression test of the study's variables. The assumptions associated with this testing method are (a) normality, (b) linearity, (c) homoscedasticity, (e) independence, (f) multicollinearity, and (g) outliers (Green & Salkind, 2016). Violations of these

assumptions can lead to invalid p values and inaccurate data analyses and research inferences (Flatt & Jacobs, 2019; Green & Salkind, 2016). I have included scatterplots, histograms, and coefficient tables in the appendices and in the body of the findings to demonstrate the absence of potential data assumption violations associated with outliers, correlations, normal distribution, and independence.

Parametric assumption testing

Testing the normality assumption requires the researcher to examine distribution (Orcan, 2020). With parametric assumption testing, the statistics depend on normal population distribution, and the premise is equal to variance and normality (Anderson et al., 2014; Orcan, 2020). In nonparametric assumption testing, the population distribution is assumed to be not normally distributed, and inferences can be made without a distribution designation (Anderson et al., 2014). Parametric testing assumptions require quantitative data, whereas non-parametric testing or computations can be done with categorical data. Because I am utilizing a quantitative research methodology for this study and the study's population is normally distributed, parametric assumption testing was appropriate for testing the normality requirement of my research.

Sample Size

An appropriate sample size is a catalyst for study validity. Researchers need to employ a sample size reflective of the study's population and large enough to produce generalizable statistical inferences free of bias and error due to lack of size (Kaliyadan & Kulkarni, 2019; Schoemann et al., 2017; Serdar et al., 2020). Statisticians suggest a sample size ≥ 50 if the population distribution is highly skewed or there is a presence of

outliers (Anderson et al., 2014). An adequate sample size reduces mean standard deviation errors and is vital to achieving confidence levels that alleviate the possibilities of Type I and Type II errors (Anderson et al., 2014). In conjunction with the G* Power priori analysis for sample size conducted for this study, an appropriate sample size between 68-146 participants achieved confidence levels between 0.80-0.99, which reduced erroneous interpretations of the study's hypotheses.

External Validity

External validity addresses the generalization and replication of the research findings (Andrade, 2018; Fabrigar et al., 2020). Researchers can ensure external validity through proper sampling strategies, such as random or purposive sampling (Saunders et al., 2016). Random sampling involves the researcher selecting samples from the population until the appropriate sample size is reached. Random sampling requires an accessible population and can be costly if not computerized since it does require a substantial sample (Saunders et al., 2016). However, systematic random sampling accommodates all sample sizes and is successful when sampling geographically disseminated populations (Saunders et al., 2016). Nonrandom or nonprobability sampling depends on the logical relationship shared by the study's purpose and generalizations related to the theory (Saunders et al., 2016). Nonprobabilistic sampling strategies are suitable for quantitative studies and depend on the research questions (Saunders et al., 2016). Validity in nonprobability sampling is solely based on the data collection and analysis versus sample size, which drives random sampling validity.

Researchers must ensure that research samples represent their population and that study results can be generalized to the population from which it is drawn (Andrade, 2018; Saunders et al., 2016). The researcher demonstrates, through external validity, that the functionality of the study's operations appropriately represents the study's constructs when the same constructs are introduced to new participants, and the results replicate (Fabrigar et al., 2020). Population and ecological validity are identifiable threats to external validity (Devroe & Wauters, 2019). Ecological validity is associated with experimental research since it tests real-life generalizations (Andrade, 2018). Since this study is non-experimental, the environmental threat to external validity is eliminated (Devroe & Wauters, 2019). Population validity is associated with the heterogeneous nature of the study's population. Researchers validate heterogeneity by including participants from diverse backgrounds and workgroups (Ardito & Petruzzelli, 2017). The participants in this study were selected using a nonprobabilistic purposive sampling technique that will assist me with choosing only retail salespersons who satisfied the study's criteria based on work experience, age, and gender from several dealerships in different states.

Transition and Summary

Section 2's discussion included the restatement of the study's purpose. This section elaborated on and substantiated the researcher's role and commitment to ethical and unbiased research. I provided additional insight into participant eligibility strategies for gaining and retaining participants. The nature of the study is revisited in this section, along with an in-depth observation of the research design. The section concluded with a

detailed population description, appropriate sampling method, and size to secure accurate analysis and inferences. The instruments and techniques implemented to collect and analyze research data emphasize the need for tools that satisfy external and statistical conclusion validity.

In Section 3, I familiarize the reader with the study's purpose and presented the findings after data collection and statistical tests were conducted. I discuss in Section 3 the application of the results to professional practice, the implications for social change, the recommendations for action, and any further research opportunities.

Section 3: Application to Professional Practice and Implications for Change

Introduction

In this quantitative correlation study, I examined the relationship between opportunity for advancement, salary/pay, and employee turnover intention. The predictor or independent variables were an opportunity for advancement and salary/pay. The criterion or dependent variable was employee turnover intention. The null hypothesis was rejected; therefore, the analyses demonstrated a statistical relationship between opportunity for advancement, salary/pay, and retail salesperson employee turnover intention.

Presentation of the Findings

In the presentation of findings, I provide a relevant analysis of the testing of assumptions and present descriptive and inferential statistics. I explain the theoretical conversation concerning the conclusions drawn from the data and discuss the quantitative statistical tests conducted. This segment is concluded with a theoretical summary that includes a discussion of the study findings.

Test of Assumptions

Using SPSS statistical software, I analyzed the data for assumption violations associated with multiple linear regression, including (a) sample size, (b) multicollinearity, (c) homoscedasticity, (d) normality, (e) linearity, (f) outliers, and (g) independence of residuals (see Green & Salkind, 2017). I employed bootstrapping using 1,000 samples with a confidence interval of 95% (see Green & Salkind, 2017) to evaluate and establish the potential influence of assumption violations. Therefore, bootstrap 95% confidence

intervals are presented where appropriate. I used scatterplots, histograms, and coefficient tables to illustrate the data associated with testing for assumption violations.

Sample Size

I conducted a priori analysis in G*Power 3.1.9.2. software with an effect size of $f = .15$, $\alpha = 0.05$, and a power level of 0.80 to calculate the appropriate sample size for this study. The values implemented for sample size determination were drawn from Cohen (1992), who posited that these values supported a balance and lessened the probabilities of Type I and Type II errors (see Hickey et al., 2018; Serdar, 2020). The G*Power priori analysis showed that the minimum sample size for this study was 68 participants, achieving a power of .80, and a maximum sample size of 146 participants to achieve a power of 0.99. The sample size of 76 participants satisfied the minimum sample size requirement for the study. Figure 6 reflects the G*Power priori analysis that determined the appropriate sample size for the study.

Multicollinearity

Multicollinearity refers to the correlation among the predictor or independent variables (Green & Salkind, 2017). Multicollinearity occurs when predictor or independent variables in a regression model are correlated (Goodhue et al., 2018; Kim, 2019; Lindner et al., 2022). Kim (2020), in alignment with Goodhue et al. (2018), posited that the variance inflation factor (VIF) is the most common identifier of multicollinearity in regression models. The presence of multicollinearity is indicated by a VIF value more significant than three and a tolerance value smaller than 0.10. As the VIF increases, the degree of dependence between the independent or predictor values becomes stronger

(Kim, 2019). This study's VIF is 1.060 for the predictor or independent variables. The VIF value of 1.060 indicates no multicollinearity violations in the study. For further confirmation of the absence of multicollinearity violations, the larger than 0.10 tolerance statistic of 0.943 and small bivariate correlations provide sufficient evidence of the absence of multicollinearity assumption violations. Tables 3 and 4 illustrate the collinearity statistics and the bivariate correlation coefficient of the predictor or independent variables.

Table 3

Collinearity Statistics for the Independent Variables

| Variable | Tolerance | VIF |
|-------------|-----------|-------|
| Advancement | .942 | 1.061 |
| Salary/pay | .942 | 1.061 |

Note. $N = 76$.

Table 4

Correlation Coefficients Among Study Predictor Variables

| Variable | Advancement | Salary/Pay |
|-------------|-------------|------------|
| Advancement | 1 | -.241 |
| Salary/pay | -.241 | 1 |

Note. $N = 76$.

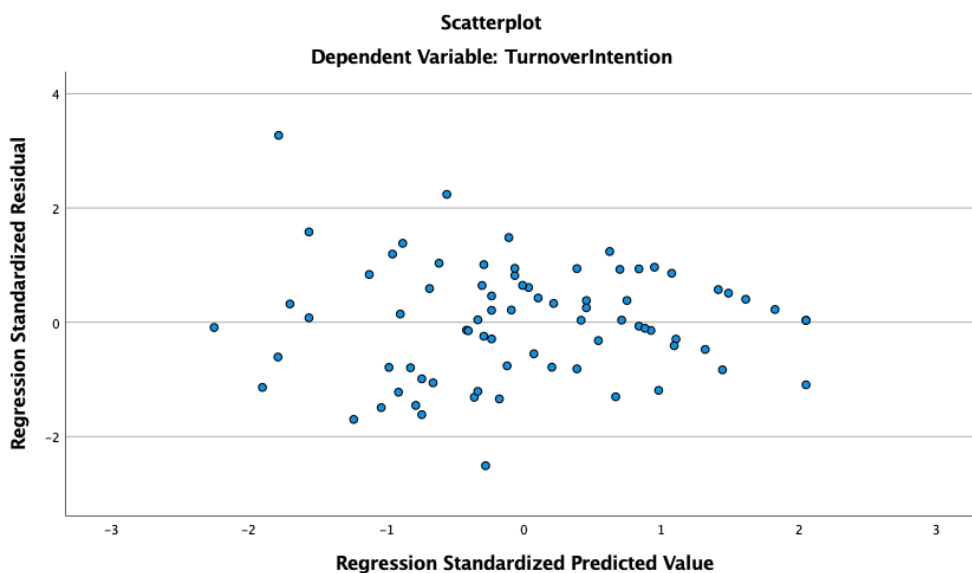
Homoscedasticity, Normality, Linearity, Outliers, and Independence of Residuals

I conducted various analyses using scatterplots, residual plots, and statistical computations to evaluate potential assumption violations associated with homoscedasticity, normality, linearity, outliers, and independence of residuals. To support the independence of residuals, the scatterplot of the standardized residuals shows a randomly scattered plot that is absent of any patterns, demonstrating no autocorrelation.

The randomly scattered points on the scatterplot also indicate that the homoscedasticity assumption was not violated, and no outliers fell to the left or right of -3 to 3 (see Osbourne & Waters, 2002). To identify potential outliers, I analyzed Cook's distance, which was less than 1.0, indicating the absence of influential outliers. Figure 8 is an illustration of the standardized residual scatterplots.

Figure 8

Scatterplot of Standardized Residuals

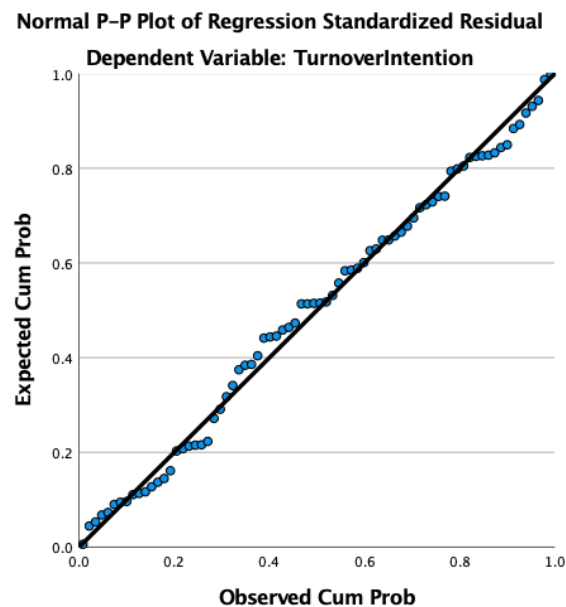


To support this evidence, I checked the Durbin-Watson statistic to measure any dependent or autocorrelations among the residuals. The statistical range for this test is 0 – 4, with values between 1.5 and 2.5, indicating no dependency or autocorrelations among the residuals (Green & Salkind, 2017; Osbourne & Waters, 2002; Saunders et al., 2016). The Durbin-Watson statistic for this study was calculated at 1.906, indicating that no dependency or autocorrelation exists among the residuals.

I evaluated the assumption of normality and linearity using the standardized residual regression scatterplot and the standardized residual's normal probability plot (P-P). The standardized residual scatterplot (Figure 7) illustrates that the distance of residuals is not markedly greater above or below the 0 lines. If this were the case, it would be ascertained that the distribution is abnormal. If the line were curved, the curved line would indicate a violation of the linearity assumption. The normal P-P (Figure 8) for this study shows the points are distributed along a straight line from bottom left to top right in a diagonal fashion, indicating that there are no violations of the normality or linearity assumptions and that all assumptions have been met. Figure 8 shows the regression standardized residuals' normal P-P.

Figure 9

Normal P-P of the Regression Standardized Residuals



Demographic Statistics

I received 89 surveys from participants. I discarded 4 surveys due to missing or incomplete data and 9 because they were completed by individuals who identified themselves as sales managers. Therefore, I had 76 completed surveys ($N = 76$) that were sufficient for analysis. The demographic data revealed that 63.2% or 48 of the 76 participants identified as male, 36.8% or 28 as female, and 0% as nonbinary (see Table 5). Over 50% of the respondents were between the ages of 31 and 50, with 17.1% of all respondents possessing 19 years or more tenure at their respective dealerships. However, 40.8% of the respondents worked at least 1 year but less than 3 years in the salesperson role.

Descriptive Statistics

Researchers employ descriptive statistics to provide a macro and micro view of their data. Descriptive statistics assist the researcher with identifying errors or anomalies in the data and are designed to describe the details of the specific variable set. This study's descriptive statistics provide the mean and standard deviation for the dependent and independent variables based on a population of 76 salespeople ($N = 76$) and bootstrapping 1,000 samples at 95% CI.

The dependent variables considered in this study were an opportunity for advancement and salary/pay. The mean advancement score was 2.84 ($SD = 1.24$), and the mean score for salary/pay was 3.27 ($SD = 0.93$). The mean score for the dependent variable, turnover intentions, was 3.43 ($SD = 1.15$). Table 6 comprises the descriptive statistics for this study's variables.

Table 5*Means and Standard Deviations for Study Variables*

| Variable | <i>M</i> | <i>SD</i> | Bootstrapped 95% CI (<i>M</i>) |
|-----------------------|----------|-----------|-------------------------------------|
| Advancement | 2.84 | 1.24 | [2.565, 3.131] |
| Salary/pay | 3.27 | 0.93 | [3.068, 3.477] |
| Turnover intention | 3.43 | 1.15 | [3.166, 3.698] |

*Note. N = 76.***Inferential Results**

I employed standard multiple linear regression, $\alpha = .05$ (two-tailed), to examine the opportunity for advancement and salary/pay in predicting employee turnover intentions.

The predictor or independent variables were an opportunity for advancement and salary/pay. The criterion or dependent variable was employee turnover intention. The null hypothesis was that opportunity for advancement and salary/pay would not significantly predict employee turnover intention. The alternative hypothesis was that opportunity for advancement and salary/pay would significantly predict employee turnover intention. I conducted initial analyses to check for assumption violations pertaining to sample size, multicollinearity, outliers, homoscedasticity, normality, linearity, and independence of residuals. These assumptions were tested using scatterplots, histograms, and other statistical formulas. All assumptions were met, and no severe violations were notable.

The overall regression model proved significant and could predict turnover intention with $F(2, 73) = 25.897, p < .001, R^2 = .415$. The R^2 value of .415 indicated that 41% of the variation in the dependent variable of turnover intention can be attributed to the linear combination of the independent variables of the opportunity for advancement

and salary/pay. However, the B value, or unstandardized coefficient, indicates the degree to which the predictor or independent variable affects the dependent or criterion variable when one or the other predictor value or independent variable is held constant.

In the conclusive model, the independent variable of advancement ($t = -1.873, p = .065$) indicated that there was not a significant relationship with turnover intention since the p -value is greater than .05. The independent variable of salary/pay ($t = 6.29, p < .001$) proved to have a significant relationship with the dependent variable of turnover intention with a p value that was less than .05. The final predictive equation was:

$$\text{turnover intention} = 1.54 + -.160 (\text{advancement}) + .714 (\text{salary/pay})$$

Opportunity for Advancement

The negative slope for advancement (-.160) as a predictor of turnover intentions indicated a .160 decrease in turnover intentions for each unit of increase in advancement. This statistic shows that turnover intention tends to decrease as advancement opportunities increase. The squared semi partial coefficient that estimates how much variance in turnover intention was uniquely predictable from advancement was -0.028, indicating that -2.8% of the variance in turnover intention is uniquely accounted for by advancement when salary/pay is controlled.

Salary/Pay

The positive slope for salary/pay as a predictor of turnover intention indicated a .714 for each unit of increase in salary/pay, indicating turnover intention tends to increase when salary/pay increases. The squared semi partial coefficient that estimated how much variance in turnover intention was uniquely predictable from salary/pay was 0.316,

indicating that 31.6% of the variance in turnover intention was uniquely accounted for by salary/pay when advancement is controlled. The regression summary is depicted in Table 7.

Table 6

Regression Analysis Summary for Predictor or Independent Variables

| Variable | <i>B</i> | <i>SE B</i> | <i>B</i> | <i>T</i> | <i>P</i> | <i>B</i> 95% Bootstrap CI |
|-------------|----------|-------------|----------|----------|----------|------------------------------|
| Constant | 1.549 | .501 | | 3.094 | .003 | [.551, 2.548] |
| Advancement | -.160 | .085 | -.173 | -1.873 | .065 | [-.330, .010] |
| Salary/pay | .714 | .113 | .580 | 6.29 | <.001* | [.488, .940] |

Note. $N = 76$.

Analysis Summary

The purpose of this study was to examine the relationship between opportunity for advancement, salary/pay, and turnover intention. I implemented the standard multiple linear regression to analyze this relationship. The assumptions associated with standard multiple linear regression were assessed with no serious violations noted. The model, in its entirety, demonstrated a significant relationship between opportunity for advancement, salary/pay, and turnover intention, $F = F(2, 73) = 25.897$, $p < .001$, $R^2 = .415$. Based on these results, I conclude that salary/pay ($p = <.001$) shared a statistically significant relationship with turnover intention as a unique standalone variable. However, advancement ($p = .065$) did not independently share a statistically significant association with the criterion variable of turnover intention since its p value was more significant than $\alpha = .05$. Therefore, it can be inferred that salary/pay ($p = <.001$) was a crucial element in the relationship with turnover intention among retail salespeople in the

automotive sales industry. In contrast, the opportunity for advancement ($p = .065$) was not statistically significant with turnover intention among retail salespeople in automotive sales.

The inferential results led me to reject the null hypothesis that there is no statistically significant relationship between the intrinsic job satisfier of the opportunity for advancement, the extrinsic job dissatisfier of salary/pay, and employee turnover intentions.

Theoretical Conversation on Findings

This study's results indicated a statistically significant relationship between the independent (opportunity for advancement and salary/pay) and the dependent variable employee turnover intention, $F(2, 73) = 25.897, p < .001, R^2 = .415$. This study's findings are consistent with seminal and current literature on turnover intentions and job satisfaction, or dissatisfaction attributes identified by Herzberg's two-factor theory of motivation. Herzberg et al. (1959) theory of motivation served as the theoretical framework for this study. Herzberg et al. posited that intrinsic factors such as the opportunity for advancement increased the satisfaction level of employees, which in turn positively motivated them. However, Herzberg et al. also conjectured that the absence of extrinsic or hygienic motivators such as salary/pay leads to job dissatisfaction.

Recent research on turnover intention and motivating factors lends creditability to Herzberg et al.'s (1959) statistical analysis of the effects of motivation. Herzberg et al. posited that information was collected where situations in their study did not lead to participants quitting their jobs but played a significant role in thoughts of leaving, but

with no action. As a result of positive work attitudes, employees changed their minds about previous decisions to quit or decline other job offers. Lee et al. (2017) described the lack of work satisfaction as a primary influence on the desire of employees to leave their job, while Alam and Asim (2019) found that high job satisfaction reduced the level of an employee wanting to leave their job. Al Jamil et al. (2022) posited that job satisfaction significantly influenced employee turnover intention. These outcomes coincide with this study's findings in that both intrinsic and extrinsic job satisfaction motivation factors combined shared a positive statistical relationship with employee turnover intentions.

This study's findings disclosed that the stand-alone relationships of the independent variables signified that salary/pay ($p = <.001$) shared a statistically significant association with turnover intention. This data corresponds to Herzberg et al. (1959) examination of the salary factor. Herzberg et al. postulated that salary/pay was the sixth highest frequency factor (0.15) to produce high points in job satisfaction. Herzberg et al. further posited that salary/pay was more potent as a job dissatisfier than satisfier. Higher-scoring sequences were associated most frequently with advancement (.32). This postulation can be correlated to Aiyebilehin et al. (2020). These researchers inferred that wage (salary/pay) was related to turnover intention and that low wages promoted turnover. Chan and Ao (2019) postulated that satisfaction with pay was positively correlated with job satisfaction ($r = .57, p < .01$), and in their model, pay satisfaction ($B = -.329, p < .01$) was a significant contributor to turnover intention and that higher job satisfaction ($B = -.366, p < .01$) decreased turnover intention. Prasad Kotni and Karumuri

(2018) concluded that workers in the retail sales sector were more satisfied with extrinsic factors, such as salary/pay, than with intrinsic factors, such as advancement. Prasad Kotni and Karumuri's outcome supports the findings of this study in that salary/pay ($p = .001$) proved to have a statistically significant relationship with employee turnover intentions. Therefore, the results of this study are substantiated by the data from the literature that the extrinsic job dissatisfier salary/pay shares a statistically significant relationship with employee turnover intention.

The second independent variable, opportunity for advancement ($p = .069$), did not share a statistically significant relationship with turnover intention as a stand-alone variable. Herzberg et al. (1959) identified advancement (.20) as the fifth highest frequency factor for job satisfaction. Advancement was most influential in creating belongingness in the organization when the advancement was unexpected, and this strong bond generated a sense of contentment. The participant would not consider leaving when presented with other job opportunities (Herzberg et al., 1959). Deri et al. (2021) postulated, using binary logistic regression, that the higher the opportunity for promotion ($p < 0.00$) with a probability factor of 0.37 that employees were 37 % least likely to leave the job. Crafts et al. (2018) posited that the lack of opportunities for advancement ($p = <.001$) was a significantly influential factor in turnover intentions. Andrews and Mohammed (2020) stated that career advancement opportunities encouraged employee performance and increased organizational commitment and job satisfaction. The employee's heightened responsibility and job satisfaction decreased turnover intentions (Andrews & Mohammed, 2020; Erasmus, 2020). Therefore, in alignment with Herzberg

et al. and other recent research, I concluded that opportunity for advancement ($p = .068$) was not statistically significant with turnover intentions.

The overall results of this study indicated a statistically significant relationship between the independent variables, the opportunity for advancement and salary/pay, and the dependent variable, employee turnover intentions, $F(2,73) = 25.897, p < .001, R^2 = .415$. The discovery of this relationship is congruent with the findings of the theoretical framework of Herzberg's two-factor theory of motivation. Herzberg et al. (1959) postulated that an increased level of job satisfiers, such as advancement, and a decreased level of dissatisfaction associated with extrinsic factors, such as salary/pay boosted employee job satisfaction which in turn lessened the intention to turnover. Employing the data from this study and the literature, I concluded that the linear combination of opportunity for advancement and salary/pay was statistically significant in relation to employee turnover intentions among retail salespeople in the automotive sales industry.

Applications to Professional Practice

This study's results directly impact the automotive sales industry and the problem of high retail salesperson turnover within this industry. Automotive dealership general managers can use data from this study to understand the relationship between advancement opportunities, salary/ pay initiatives, and the relationship these attributes share with employee turnover intentions. General managers can assist human resource partners with developing human resource initiatives such as collaborative hiring, training, and advancement strategies that offset antecedents of turnover by encouraging enhanced pay initiatives connected to retention outcomes. Dealership general managers who work closely with human resource partners can assist with mitigating costs for succession planning and assist with the design and formation of dealership policies and processes that clearly define advancement opportunities and respective salary packages that reflect pay/salary linked to increased responsibility associated with expanded job roles due to advancement or promotions. Decreased intentions to turnover give the dealership a competitive advantage over dealerships that need a solid program to address advancement and salary/pay or other intrinsic and extrinsic factors associated with job satisfaction.

Dealership general managers should pay particular attention to frontline management and their execution of retention initiatives. General managers should educate their direct reports on the significance of advancement opportunities and salary/pay and how the propensity for retail salesperson turnover is affected by the absence or dissatisfaction that sets in when these factors are unmet. Frontline managers

must know the direct cost to their department and the dealership. When frontline managers and upper-level management navigate job satisfaction together, employee job satisfaction increases, and employee turnover decreases. The heightened level of satisfaction increases sales since the retail salesperson is the most trusted person in the retail transaction, promoting customer retention and increasing revenue associated with dealership reputation and community trust.

Implications for Social Change

Local dealers establish themselves as community stakeholders by creating job and career advancement opportunities that, in turn, offer dealership employees good-paying jobs while boosting community economies and contributing immense amounts of revenue via state and local tax payments. With over 16,000 new car dealerships operating in the United States, the social and economic impact created by the auto dealer is highly influential, especially in smaller communities where one or two dealerships make up a substantial portion of local employers. The BLS (2019, 2021) reported that automobile dealers are among the highest-paying entities for retail sales employees, with the average weekly earnings of dealership employees equaling \$1,600 in 2021. Therefore, the viability of locally owned dealerships is highly dependent upon their locally sourced workforce and how dealership general managers engineer initiatives that promote pay and career advancement and increase retention of their locally sourced retail sales force.

Dealership general managers that embrace the role of a community conscience strategic partner can take the lead in promoting the community stakeholder culture.

Dealership general managers can utilize their lucrative role as community stakeholders to

promote community programs and local social enterprises (Park & Campbell, 2017).

Dealership owners and general managers can develop jobs and training opportunities that encourage amplified employment and work opportunities for the local community workforce. Dealership general managers can engage their stakeholder position to create community opportunities that promote and demonstrate corporate social responsibility, including charitable donations to programs that support employee and community well-being.

Dealership general managers can use the findings of this study to enhance their awareness concerning retail salesperson employee turnover retention and how to develop hiring initiatives, training programs, pay plans, and succession plans that encourage high levels of job satisfaction and lessen the intent to turnover among this dealership demographic. Furthermore, dealership general managers can use the findings of this study to validate the business need for supporting mentorship programs that offer community-based talent from local high schools, technical colleges, 4-year colleges, and vocational rehabilitation centers exclusive access to well-paying careers that provide advancement opportunities designed to create high retention levels within retail sales ranks. The development of dealership processes that are designed to decrease employee turnover intention, lower community unemployment rates, generate steady wages, offer advancement opportunities, and create a constant influx of tax revenue proves effective and sustainable in successful dealership operations and induces feelings of partnership and goodwill within the dealership and the community. The dealership's general manager can implement these measures to secure top-level local talent, at this moment boosting

the dealership's community stakeholder position and promoting the overall future success of the dealership and the community it serves.

Recommendations for Action

The findings of this study indicated a significant statistical relationship between opportunity for advancement, pay/salary, and employee turnover intention. These findings benefit automotive dealerships and other retail organizations that experience a high level of turnover among retail salespersons. This study concentrated primarily on retail salespersons who sell automobiles. However, the endorsements for action can be applied across various retail sales industries. The first recommendation would be that dealership owners and general managers develop a strategic partnership with dealership HRM to design a succession plan that outlines a clear path of advancement from sales to sales management or other departments/dealership leadership positions. The recommendation to dealership owners, general managers, and human resource partners would be to develop comprehensive programs to link advancement opportunities and pay/salary to incentives that promote employee retention. Combining the intrinsic and extrinsic factors of job satisfaction reduces the intentions to turnover and decreases overall employee turnover (Bhatt et al., 2022; Chan et al., 2016; Deri et al., 2021; Herzberg, 1965; Ozsoy, 2019). The second recommendation would entail the implementation of a standardized pay plan that reflects current industry trends that align with economic and community needs following the COVID-19 pandemic (Morales, 2021), such as online and offsite sales. Therefore, in conjunction with this study's findings, the construction, design, and execution of dealership processes that

communicate the road to success for every employee from the first hire date will increase employee retention and diminish thoughts of leaving the dealership.

The intention is to share this study's findings with reputable automotive industry groups and publications, such as the National Automotive Dealer Association and *Automotive News*. I further intend to publish the study's results in the ProQuest database and other peer-reviewed journals related to management, sales, and human resources. I plan to present an abbreviated version of the study's findings at automotive-related meetings, seminars, business events, and online forums to discuss current issues in the automotive selling sector. As a Walden University Fulbright scholar, I intend to present the study's social change impact and explore pre- and postpandemic effects on automotive retail sales and the communities they serve.

Recommendations for Further Research

I recommend that future research into an opportunity for advancement, pay/salary, and employee turnover intentions among automotive retail salespeople be expanded to study this business phenomenon regarding gender and race. Only one specific attribute of each extrinsic and intrinsic factor identified by Herzberg et al. (1959) was implemented in this research. Therefore, I recommend adopting this study to include all intrinsic and extrinsic elements to see if overall job satisfaction or dissatisfaction shares a statistically significant relationship with employee turnover intentions among the same population.

This research study focused on populations in Tennessee, Kentucky, and Alabama. I propose a nationwide survey with a larger sample size of retail automotive salespersons. Another recommendation would be to change the population to frontline

retail sales managers in the same industry to determine if being in frontline management would reflect a different relationship among the variables.

The correlational quantitative research method was implemented in this study to examine the relationship between the variables to determine whether to accept or reject the hypothesis. The following recommendation would be to conduct a qualitative or mixed methods study to determine if personal interviews would allow the participants to freely express opinions that could not be expressed using Likert-type scale responses about their turnover intentions.

Reflections

Initially, I was highly interested in alleviating the high turnover rates experienced in the industry where I have worked for over 30 years. As an employee who has worked in all facets of dealership operations, I came to the table with a preconceived bias regarding the role varying pay structures and unclear or meager advancement opportunities played in the automotive retail salesperson's intentions to turnover. I have worked in dealerships where turnover rates among salespeople have exceeded over 100% annually, which drains dealership revenue and contributes to customer attrition. My goal was to quantitatively examine the relationship between advancement, pay/salary, and turnover intentions to discover how this relationship needed to be the driver for processes and procedures that lessen turnover intentions. Because these variables are immediately controllable and the methods to control these elements are easily adaptable at the dealership general manager's level of responsibility, the data needed to be free of participant and researcher biases. These quantitative findings of this research study

eliminated biases that can be introduced through researcher interpretations of the qualitative data and the possible intimidation of participants since I am an industry insider. The anonymity and privacy elements of quantitative research allowed me to collect data through online surveys containing no identifying information, eliminating participant bias. Therefore, my beliefs or preferences are not present in this study's findings, and only the collected data are used to examine this study's hypotheses and to answer the research question.

The study's findings impressed upon me that, as a combination, the predictor variables did share a relationship with employee turnover intentions, $R^2 = .415$, indicating that 41% of the change in employee turnover intention is attributed to the linear combination of these variables. However, when the predictor variables were analyzed as stand-alone predictors, only salary/pay, $p = <.001$, was a significant predictor of employee turnover intentions among automotive retail salespersons. As a result of this study, I developed a perceptiveness and a value-added approach to the significance of pay/salary to employee turnover intentions among this demographic.

The journey along the doctoral path has made me a prolific researcher, a scholar-practitioner, and an advocate for social change. I am charged to be a change agent within the automotive sales industry. The disciplines required to complete this journey and the information I have gathered from the numerous articles, previous research, and the Walden University academic community reflect my management style and are assisting me with coaching and mentoring the members of my management and sales team.

Conclusion

In the automotive retail sales sector, the linear combination of opportunity for advancement and salary/pay significantly predicted employee turnover intentions among retail salespeople. This direct relationship could contribute to job satisfaction or dissatisfaction, as discussed throughout this study. The seminal theoretical framework of this study indicated a relationship between the proclivity and causation of employee turnover. Dealership general managers are the first line of defense for the advancement of succession and pay structures that influence the advancement and pay of dealership salespeople. Therefore, dealership general managers and other organizational leaders can adapt the data presented in this study to offset actual turnover by addressing the predictor variables through the design, development, implementation, and execution of dealership programs that address employee turnover intentions attached to advancement and pay/salary.

As a primary contributor to local economies and various community initiatives, a healthy dealership benefits the employee and the community the dealership serves. Therefore, it is imperative that dealership leaders initiate the discussion of employee turnover intentions, gather the data to support their position on costs associated with new strategic planning initiatives, and implement a retention strategy that disseminates turnover intentions and generates growth opportunities that increase and solidify competitive advantage.

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Appendix A: Permission to Use Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire Short-Form (1967)

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(MSQ) Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire

VPR no longer sells the MSQ questionnaires. All forms are available under a [Creative Commons Attribution-NonCommercial 4.0 International License](#). This license allows the instrument to be used for research or clinical work free of charge and without written consent, provided that you acknowledge Vocational Psychology Research, University of Minnesota, as the source of the material in your reproduced materials (printed or electronic). This license does not allow commercial use or reproduction for sale. The MSQ may be used without cost, however, for employee surveys provided that the survey is implemented within an organization and that no charges are made for its use.

VPR and the University of Minnesota do not offer scoring for the MSQ and cannot answer questions about its administration or scoring. Directions for scoring the MSQ are in its manual.

Appendix B: Permission from H. G. Heneman to use Pay Satisfaction Questionnaire

(PSQ) 1985

Re: Permission to use Pay Satisfaction Questionnaire (PSQ) 1985



HERBERT G HENEMAN <hheneman@bus.wisc.edu>
To: Edith Thompson
Cc: Laura A. Thompson

Reply Reply All Forward ...
Tue 10/26/2021 3:17 PM

edith

you have my permission to use the PSQ, subject to your statement in your email to me about how you will use the instrument. i wish you good luck in your research.

herb

Herb Heneman III

From: edith.thompson@waldenu.edu <edith.thompson@waldenu.edu>
Sent: Tuesday, October 26, 2021 2:45 PM
To: HERBERT G HENEMAN <hheneman@bus.wisc.edu>
Cc: Laura A. Thompson <laura.thompson@mail.waldenu.edu>
Subject: Permission to use Pay Satisfaction Questionnaire (PSQ) 1985

Dear Dr. Heneman,

My name is Edith M. Thompson, and I am a Doctor of Business (DBA) candidate at Walden University. I am currently in the proposal phase of my quantitative study, and I am requesting permission to use the Pay Satisfaction Questionnaire (PSQ) as the instrument for measuring the constructs, pay, and salary. I will use the PSQ in conjunction with the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (short-form) to measure my independent variables as they may or may not relate to turnover intentions among retail salespersons in the automotive sales industry.

I am requesting the PSQ for research purposes only and will not use the instrument for monetary compensation. I will use a copyright statement and proper citations on all copies and references of the tool.

If you grant permission, please e-mail me a permission statement to the following e-mail address: edith.thompson@waldenu.edu. If necessary, you can also contact me at my personal e-mail address, which is as follows: edithunt@yahoo.com.

Thank you for your time and consideration of my request, and I look forward to hearing from you soon.

Respectfully,

Edith M. Thompson

Appendix C: Permission to use Cohen (1999) Turnover Intention Scale



Turnover Intention Scale

Note: Test name created by PsycTESTS

PsycTESTS Citation:

Cohen, A. (1999). Turnover Intention Scale [Database record]. Retrieved from PsycTESTS. doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.1037/t10116-000>

Instrument Type:
Rating Scale

Test Format:
Turnover Intention Scale responses are rated on a scale from 1 (strongly agree) to 5 (strongly disagree).

Source:
Cohen, Aaron. (1999). The relation between commitment forms and work outcomes in Jewish and Arab culture. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, Vol 54(3), 371-391. doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.1006/jvbe.1998.1669>, © 1999 by Elsevier. Reproduced by Permission of Elsevier.

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