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Job Satisfaction, Employee Empowerment, and Intent to Leave in Human Health Service Employees

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This is to certify that the doctoral dissertation by

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Walden University
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Abstract

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Employees

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MS, Indiana Wesleyan University, 2016

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Dissertation Submitted in Partial Fulfillment

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Abstract

Researchers predicted that the United States would undergo a severe shortage of direct support professionals. This quantitative study used the Job Satisfaction Survey, Employee Empowerment Questionnaire, and Turnover Intention Scale to explore the relationship between employee empowerment and its effect on the intent to leave within the human health service industry nationwide. Herzberg's motivation theory provided the lens for the study. The study included 150 direct care staff who completed a self-administered online questionnaire. Linear regression analyses indicated that supervisor, contingent rewards, operating conditions, nature of work, and communication had the strongest negative correlation with turnover intention. A moderated regression model for the Job Satisfaction Survey Total Score, with interaction with Employee Empowerment, showed no statistically significant interaction. The review of the studies and the variables provided showed that using different studies from various industries allowed researchers to contemplate other options to implement theories to mend the workplace atmosphere by focusing on improved employee training, thus providing a future for positive social change. This study will help bring positive social change to the human health service industry by increasing understanding of what many direct support professionals believe necessary within the direct care field, which could help healthcare facilities retain qualified direct support staff. Specifically, the results could help enhance the lives of the individuals in the organization's care as retention will improve, thus focusing on quality care.

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Dedication

This work is dedicated to my family and friends, who supported me to accomplish my academic goals. I want to dedicate this work to Karen, my mother, who sacrificed so much so I could go beyond her hopes and dreams. I would also like to dedicate this work to Nancy, my grandmother, who always pushed me to better myself personally, professionally, and academically.

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Chapter 1: Introduction to the Study

Introduction

The largest healthcare support occupation makes up 91% of healthcare and social assistance jobs (Bureau of Labor Statistics, n.d.). The healthcare support occupations include positions that support medical professionals in the healthcare industry, such as home health aides, direct support professionals, and medical assistants. As employees experience discontent, organizations experience turnover, unfilled positions, loss of customers, overworked staff, and compromised profits (Work Institute, 2019). The Work Institute (2019) stated that 38% of the turnover in 2018 was attributed to employees leaving within their first year on the job. Forty-three of 100 new employees quit within the first 90 days of a new job (Work Institute, 2019). Mamun and Hasan (2017) identified job satisfaction as a vital factor of turnover intention.

The study provided and enhanced insight into the understanding of this topic by addressing a gap in the scholarly literature by examining the relationship between job satisfaction, intent to leave, and employee empowerment; the focus was to provide valuable insight to leaders in the human health service industry. In addition, the results of this study may positively affect social change by acknowledging, learning, and explaining why employees may leave the organization while providing ways to improve job satisfaction and employee empowerment. This chapter begins with an overview of job satisfaction, employee empowerment, and intent to leave. Based on the identified gap in the current research, the next section will review the problem in the study, followed by the problem statement and the purpose of the study. The next step is explaining the

research questions and hypotheses that will guide this study and the theoretical frameworks grounded in the study. The chapter concludes with a summary of definitions, assumptions, the extent of the research, limitations of the study, and the significance of how this research advances knowledge in the human health service industry.

<div align="center">**Background**</div>

Behavioral Health in the United States

The Mental Health Systems Act of 1980 is legislation signed by President Jimmy Carter, providing grants to community health centers. According to Goldman et al. (1992), the Mental Health Systems Act supported and financed community mental health support systems, which coordinated general health care, mental health care, and social support services. In the United States, one in every five adults, or 51.5 million people, has an emotional, behavioral, or mental disorder (National Institute of Mental Health, 2022). Mental health disorders are the population's primary reasons for distress and disabilities. Mental health services are growing at an increasing rate, including group and supported living homes.

According to Tyler et al. (2017), group homes provide alternative living environments and mental health treatment services in nonsecure facilities for adults with physical, intellectual, or developmental disabilities. Group homes have up to eight individuals residing on the site. The sites have employees around the clock every day. Typically, one to three people work per eight-hour shift. Depending on the home, employees may work up to 16 hours consecutively. Supportive living homes are like group homes; however, it does depend on the services provided based on the individual's

diagnosis. Some individuals may require 24-hour supervision, while others may require partial days, such as four-six hours daily.

Shortage of Workers

There is a critical shortage of direct support professionals (DSPs) who support people with intellectual and developmental disabilities to live in the community (Oteman, 2021). The National Core Indicator (2018) project reported an 11.2% vacancy rate for full-time Direct Support Professionals and a 15.9% vacancy rate for part-time Direct Support Professionals. According to the Department of Labor (2022), shortages in recent years have spurred federal, state, and local action to bring more attention to this profession and mount an effective response to attract more people to become DSPs and support them through appropriate compensation and opportunities for advancement.

Stressors

The Health and Safety Executive of Northern Ireland (2021) defined stressors as employees' adverse reactions to excessive pressures or other demands at work. Three main human health service industry stressors include low wages, limited training, ineffective supervision, and organizational support. Stressors include daily life work tension intrinsic to the job (Sultan & Rashid, 2014). Occupational stressors (e.g., job dissatisfaction and organizational commitment) can influence employee attitudes and behaviors that affect organizational effectiveness (Newton & Jimmieson, 2009).

Direct Support Professionals earn wages similar to workers in the service industries at a low entry-level salary. According to Zippia (2022), the average pay for direct support professionals is $10.36 per hour. Low wages affect organizations' retention

and the quality of support provided to individuals. There is a substantial inconsistency between the job responsibilities and skill expectations necessary of DSPs and their low pay. According to American Association on Intellectual and Developmental Disabilities (AAIDD, n.d.), half of the direct support workers in the United States rely on public benefits. Others often work two to three jobs to support themselves and their families (AAIDD, n.d.).

The on-the-job training conducts any efforts initiated by an entity to encourage its staff to learn (Bohlander & Snell, 2010). A lack of professional training also contributes to DSP turnover (Hasan, 2013; Hewitt, 2014; National Direct Service Workforce Resource Center, 2013). According to Friedman (2021), not only is there a lack of standardization across training, but a lack of adequate training can also harm people with IDD's health and safety and hinder community integration. The DSPs must have the knowledge, skills, abilities, and ethical compass to perform a wide array of tasks that support people with intellectual and developmental disabilities to be healthy, safe, valued, and participating members of their communities. According to Winda et al. (2017) and Arifin et al. (2020), career development increases individual work abilities to achieve the desired career. DSPs must receive sufficient, high-quality training and ongoing paid professional development opportunities to achieve this. Training has a distinct role in achieving an organizational goal by incorporating the organization's interests and the workforce (Afroz, 2018). DSPs are dealing with fulfilling several responsibilities in more independent situations. These responsibilities will require them to have the opportunity

for professional development and the support they need to ensure they are competent to provide support and succeed in their work.

According to the AAIDD (2022), the supervision DSPs receive needs to be more consistent and effective. Insecure leadership can result from management being the default promotion for DSPs without the necessary training to succeed (AAIDD, 2022). Ineffective leadership and occupational stress are significant concerns for organizations and the global economy (Beheshtifar & Nazarian, 2013). The view that weak leadership has adverse effects on individuals in the workplace has been historically correlated (Day & Hamblin, 1964) to increased levels of employee stress (Humboldt et al., 2013). Increasing evidence has revealed a clear link between ineffective leaders, employee turnovers, and employee health problems influenced by stress (Dehue et al., 2012; Owusu-Bempah, 2014; Padilla, 2013; Savic & Pagon, 2008; Schyns & Schilling, 2013). Followers of ineffective leaders can suffer from social, psychological, and psychosomatic effects due to stress (Schyns & Schilling, 2013); however, organizations often mishandle types of poor leadership (Shaw et al., 2011). 65% to 75% of employees stated that their job's most stressful and worst aspect was their immediate boss or leader (Sutton, 2010), and 48% of American workers seek new jobs because of ineffective leadership (Deloitte LLP, 2010).

Outcome of Stressors

Stressors negatively impact the organizations, employees, and people in the care. The outcomes of the stressors are turnover, higher absenteeism, low employee morale, waste of resources, demotivated employees, and poor employee health. According to

Crane and Havercamp (2020), when a person's job does not offer opportunities to fulfill their needs, they may put less effort into their work or seek other employment that better matches what motivates them.

Job Satisfaction

According to Greenberg & Baron (2008), job satisfaction is an individual's positive or negative attitude toward their job. Wang et al. (2017) defined job satisfaction as a cheerful outlook toward work and the employment environment. O'Connor et al. (2018) indicated that job satisfaction stems from an employee's commitment, performance, and turnover intention. Guoping et al. (2017) found few standard definitions of job satisfaction within the literature, deeming it an abstract concept. Kashmoola et al. (2017) contended that although there is no generally agreed-upon definition for job satisfaction, researchers agree that it is one of the most complex supervisory areas for managers.

Impact on Job Satisfaction

According to Keesler (2020), organizations continue to seek ways to address DSP employment and retention, and professional quality of life may be a valuable construct to understanding what factors contribute. The impact of job satisfaction connects to many variables, including productivity, absenteeism, and turnover. Job satisfaction is receiving more attention in today's organizations because job satisfaction will help organizations retain experienced, trained, and competent employees (Ahmad et al., 2012). Increased job satisfaction can improve productivity, decrease turnover, reduce attendance, reduce

accidents, and reduce stress. Employees who believe their jobs are enjoyable and engaging will be more inclined to work harder.

Employee Empowerment

Employee empowerment is accepting a certain amount of employee self-competence and responsibility for making decisions involving their specific organizational goals. When employees are empowered, their confidence and self-reliance will increase (Kumar & Kumar, 2017). Employee empowerment is related to motivational factors as it connects with improved performance by motivating employees with achievement, recognition, level of responsibility, promotions, and the work itself. Employee empowerment provides organizations with a democratic management approach in which employees can participate in decision-making and express their opinions freely (Abraiz et al., 2012). According to Yang and Lee (2009), employee empowerment increases job performance and satisfaction. Low employee empowerment reduces organizational commitment and performance and increases turnover intent. According to Salem Press Encyclopedia (2021), employee empowerment is making employees feel important, engaged in their work, valued by those around them, and sufficiently free in enacting their job roles. Employee empowerment increases employees' satisfaction by providing information about performance, work, and goals (Idris et al., 2018). Psychological empowerment strengthens the relationship between the employees and the firm and enhances their positive attitude toward all jobs (Aziri, 2011; Idris et al., 2018). The stronger the relationship, the stronger the employee's attitude, resulting in better performance and a decreased desire to exit (Osman et al., 2015).

Empowerment emphasizes formal and informal information-sharing, employee participation in decision-making, enhancing employees' self-confidence, self-reliance, and well-being, and consequently leads to positive outcomes such as a considerable degree of job satisfaction, performance, and productivity (Chinomona et al., 2016; Idris et al.,2018; Valdez et al., 2019; Yuliandi, 2019).

Intent to Leave

Turnover intention is an employee's desire or thought to leave an organization (Chung et al., 2017; Ferdik & Hills, 2018; Larkin et al., 2016; C.-Y. Lin et al., 2021; O'Connor, 2018). Research on employee turnover and retention dates before World War II increased after Maslow (1943) proposed the hierarchy of needs theory (Bryant & Allen, 2013; Chung et al., 2017; Lannoo & Verhofstadt, 2016; Rast & Tourani, 2012; Shahpouri et al., 2016). Organizations must understand the challenges of the disruption and recovery associated with retention and turnover (Hale et al., 2016). No two employees are the same; therefore, the motivators to remain with an employer differ (Stachowska & Czaplicka-Kozlowska, 2017). The lack of understanding of what causes an employee to develop quit intentions can affect organizational sustainability (Anvari et al., 2014).

There is a gap in the literature regarding employee empowerment's role in the relationship between job satisfaction and turnover intentions with employees who work directly with individuals with intellectual and developmental disabilities. Much research in recent decades has contributed to a better understanding of the occupational stress and burnout that this latter group experiences, with the goal of improving care and reducing

the turnover and consistently high vacancy rates among DSPs in the United States as well as Canada, the United Kingdom, (Aitken & Schloss, 1994; Gray-Stanley et al., 2011; Hickey, 2014; Mutkins et al., 2011; Shaddock et al., 1998; Skirrow & Hatton, 2007). Few studies have explored factors that would identify DSPs who find their empowerment. Scholars suggest that employee empowerment strategies include management leadership and commitment, communication, employee inclusion, reward system, clearly defined goals, managerial strategies, training, delegation of authority, formation of bipartite committees, sense of trusteeship, employees' suggestion scheme and interaction with top executives (Sahoo & Das, 2011).

The terminology used to find the gap in the research are the terms used within the human health service industry during the search. The language previously used in the field is part of the research. However, the results showed limited results that applied directly to the specific human health service industry. The closest keyword was caregiver or home health aide. Unfortunately, direct support professionals, program coordinators, and program directors are more than just caregivers.

According to the Department of Labor (2022), DSPs play a vital role in America's workforce and economy by providing necessary support and services to people with disabilities of all ages, including support related to employment. They provide support and training to their clients to help them become more independent in the home. The DSPs work with individuals with intellectual and developmental disabilities with chores such as laundry, cooking, budgeting, and medication administration. The individuals in the care can develop a positive relationship with employees. The general populations that

are the focus of this study are the Direct Support Professionals and employees who provide care to individuals with intellectual and developmental disabilities. The DSPs support cooking, cleaning, laundry, medication administration, and transportation. The study must address reducing turnover and recruiting, hiring, and overtime costs. It is beneficial for organizational leaders to determine ways to reduce turnover by improving job satisfaction and employee empowerment.

Problem Statement

There is a gap in the literature regarding employee empowerment's role in the relationship between job satisfaction and turnover intentions with employees who work directly with individuals with intellectual and developmental disabilities. Researching the gap has allowed the opportunity to determine what motivates the employees and improves the industry. The gap in the literature is the need for more research on job satisfaction, turnover, and the role employee empowerment plays in this industry. The empowered employees can focus on helping individuals with intellectual and developmental disabilities reach various goals, including cooking, cleaning, laundry, and money management.

The problem that prompted the research was the intent to leave the human service industry, which has a variety of reasons that focus on job satisfaction and employee empowerment. The average annual turnover rate in twenty states and the District of Columbia for organizations that support people with IDD is 45.5% (National Core Indicators, 2018). According to the National Core Indicators Staff Stability Survey (2018), of those DSPs who left their positions, 38% had been employed for less than six

months. An additional 21% worked in their job for 6 to 12 months when they left. The most significant reason for leaving is job abandonment (quitting without notice or not called/no-showed to two or three shifts).

The general problem is the low retention rate in the human healthcare industry. The problem affects employees and individuals with intellectual and developmental disabilities. According to the National Academies of Sciences, Engineering, & Medicine (2016), the organization predicted the problem would become even more significant in the coming years. According to Wahyudin et al. (2021), employees who feel more committed to the organization have habits of relying on, planning to stay longer, and putting more effort into their work. Turnover affects actual costs, increasing the time agency managers must spend recruiting, interviewing, and onboarding new employees and overtime costs for staff working additional time to cover the hours the provider is obligated to offer (Houseworth et al., 2020). There have been organizations in the industry offering sign-on and retention bonuses. However, employees still do not stay with the organizations. The research's specific problem is how job satisfaction relates to intent to leave with behavioral health personnel and whether employee empowerment moderates that relationship.

The benefit of addressing the problem in practice and research is reducing turnover and recruiting, hiring, and overtime costs. It is helpful for organizational leaders to determine ways to reduce turnover by improving job satisfaction and employee empowerment. The decrease in turnover will allow employees to have a work and life balance.

Purpose of the Study

This quantitative study examined the relationship between job satisfaction and intent to leave and whether employee empowerment moderates that relationship. The study is unique to the field as previous research in the human health industry does not include how employee empowerment can affect the relationship between job satisfaction and intent to leave. It adds new knowledge to the field by creating better policies for organizations to retain employees and provide individuals with disabilities with consistent quality care. The target population for this study is direct support professionals in the human healthcare industry. The outcome variable is the intent to leave, measured by the Turnover Intention Scale by Roodt (2004). Job satisfaction is the predictor variable measured by the JSS developed by Spector (1985). Employee empowerment is the moderator variable measured by the EEQ that Hayes (2002) developed. Job satisfaction is how people feel about their jobs and various aspects of their jobs (Spector, 1997). The data from this study contributes to social change by providing organizations with a better understanding of job satisfaction and employee empowerment. Direct support professionals play a role in improving the lives of individuals with intellectual and developmental disabilities; therefore, less direct support professional turnover helps ensure that the individuals receive quality care and can become more independent in the community.

Nature of the Study

The researcher used a quantitative research method to understand employee empowerment's role on job satisfaction and the intent to leave. of interest by surveying

participants. The quantitative methodology allows researchers to reduce and explain precise, specific conditions (House, 2018). Qualitative research methods are apt to investigate environments, situations, and processes that cannot be studied using quantitative methods (Hazzan & Nutov, 2014; Patton, 2013). A qualitative researcher can use three kinds of data: (a) in-depth, open-ended interviews; (b) direct observation; and (c) written communication (Patton, 2013). A quantitative method is appropriate for this study because the aim is to examine the relationships between job satisfaction, employee empowerment, and intent to leave. The surveys will collect the data to answer this study's research questions and hypotheses. The results were analyzed statistically through linear and moderated regression, including a correlation research analysis. The predictor variable in this study was job satisfaction, measured by the Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS). The JSS consists of 36 items that measure the following nine facets of job satisfaction: compensation, promotion, supervision, benefits, performance-based rewards, policies and procedures, coworkers, work, and communication (Spector, 2021). The moderator variable, employee empowerment, was measured using the Employee Empowerment Questionnaire (EEQ) created by Hayes (2002). The eight-item questionnaire measures perceived control, perceived competence, and goal internalization subscales. This questionnaire measures employee empowerment in a variety of studies. The outcome variable, intent to leave, was measured by the Turnover Intention Scale (TIS) created by Roodt (2004). The TIS will have subscales of perceived alternative employment opportunities, job-hopping, and turnover intention. This widely used scale is appropriate for the study because it provides a well-researched instrument to analyze intent to leave.

According to Roodt, the intention to leave an organization and develop an 'instrument' to measure such intended behavior and the content, construct, and face validity is the subfactors and items generated in the instrument.

Research Questions

This study examined the role of employee empowerment and job satisfaction and their effect on employees' intent to leave in a sample of human service workers.

RQ1: Does an employee's job satisfaction as measured by the Job Satisfaction Survey predict the employee's intent to leave as measured by the Intent to Leave instrument?

$H_0$1: Employee job satisfaction does not predict 'employees' intent to leave.

H_a1: Employee job satisfaction does predict 'employees' intention to leave.

RQ2: As measured by the Employee Empowerment Questionnaire (EEQ), does employee empowerment moderate the relationship between job satisfaction and intent to leave?

$H_0$2: Employee empowerment does not moderate the relationship between job satisfaction and intention to leave.

H_a2: Employee empowerment moderates the relationship between job satisfaction and intent to leave.

Theoretical Foundation

Herzberg's motivation theory is helpful at every organizational level, regardless of the department. Herzberg's two-factor theory guided the multicase study's score and the data analysis (Ruiz & Davis, 2017). According to Ruiz and Davis (2017), the multicase

study explored practical strategies for supervisors to retain culinary-educated millennial employees in a restaurant. The study showed that some supervisors need more effective strategies to retain millennial employees. Herzberg's motivational theory may give insight into which hygiene and motivator factors must improve to increase job satisfaction and employee empowerment in the human health service industry. The theory supports job satisfaction and employee empowerment while showing a relationship with the intent to leave. Herzberg's theory considers having a significant extent of functional and hypothetical effects within the workplace.

Process theories focus on the "why" and "how" of motivation, formally investigating the thinking processes through which people choose one action versus another in the workplace (Ruthankoon & Ogunlana, 2003). Herzberg's motivational theory is a theory that divides two individual elements known as hygiene and motivator factors. Concepts like performance, acknowledgment, position, accountability, and opportunities for promotion are motivators. Motivators are psychological opportunities: chances to experience positive feelings associated with behaving in ways that support the enterprise's success (Pupavac, 2015).

The hygiene factors involve the employee's salary, the relationships between the employee and colleagues or supervisors, and the physical work site. According to Herzberg, a hygiene factor (demotivator) is any condition or experience that makes a worker feel alienated and less inclined to invest any extra personal energy in doing the job (Pupavac, 2015). The hygiene factor supports the research by explaining why employees may leave the organization while providing ways to improve job satisfaction

and employee empowerment. The value and importance of knowledge of the role of practicing employee voice in enhancing job satisfaction through applying Herzberg's two-factor theory, and the results indicate that acknowledging employee voice creates a motivational environment that improves job satisfaction levels.

Locke's Range of Affect Theory

Edwin A. Locke's range of affect theory is the basis for job satisfaction and the survey. According to Hoffman-Miller (2022), Locke's range of affect theory is that job satisfaction is a function of the difference between what a person wants in a job and what that person experiences. The theory focuses on understanding job satisfaction to comprehend how employees are content with their organization and how contentment influences employee performance. The concept also mentions that how much one values a given facet of work (e.g., the degree of autonomy) moderates how satisfied/dissatisfied one becomes with the job when meeting expectations (Chaudhury, 2015). According to Chaudhury (2015), the common aspects of job satisfaction include physical work, salary, promotions, recognition, benefits, working conditions, supervision, coworkers, company, and management.

Critical Management Theory

The concept behind the Employee Empowerment Questionnaire (EEQ) is critical management theory (CMT). According to Ritchie et al. (2019), critical management theory focuses on creating opportunities for all employees to develop an equitable balance of power. Employee empowerment is the employees' freedom of planning in authority delegation and work tasks (Biron & Bamberger, 2011). Greenberg and Baron

(2008) stated empowerment is a process where employees have increased self-sufficiency and flexibility regarding their work.

Theory of Planned Behavior

According to Mobley et al. (1978), the intention to leave is a conscious and deliberate desire to leave an organization soon. The TPB is the framework behind the intent to leave and the TIS. The theory assumes that it predicts deliberate behavior (Ajzen, 1991). According to the TPB, any action a person guides three types of considerations: behavioral beliefs (beliefs about the probable consequences of the practiced behavior), normative beliefs (beliefs about the normative expectations of other people), and control beliefs (beliefs about the presence of factors that may enable or obstruct the performance of the behavior) (Ryan & Carr, 2010). These theories support the instruments that examine the variables.

Definitions

Direct support professional (DSP): An employee who cares for individuals with intellectual and developmental disabilities.

Job satisfaction: How people feel about their jobs and different aspects of their jobs (Spector, 1997).

Employee empowerment: Employees' freedom of planning in authority delegation and work tasks (Kumar & Kumar, 2017).

Intent to leave: The conscious and deliberate desire to leave an organization within the near future (Mobley et al., 1978).

Assumptions

This study's primary assumption was that the participants would respond honestly to each survey question and be unbiased in their answers. Several measures were taken to ensure all participants understood the criteria for taking the survey before beginning. The measures included informing the participants that the survey was completely anonymous, their membership of the group would not be affected, and their responses would be confidential. Another assumption was sufficient response variability for accurate statistical analysis and comparison. Implementing the measures was particularly important to the data gathered on whether someone currently works in the human health service industry. The final assumption was that the instruments used to collect the data were valid and reliable by completing a psychometric analysis of the different assessments to verify validity and reliability.

Scope and Delimitations

The scope of the study involved understanding the role of employee empowerment and job satisfaction and their effect on employees' intent to leave as human service workers. Although recent researchers have studied various aspects of job satisfaction and the healthcare industry, studies have yet to examine the role of employee empowerment and job satisfaction and the effect on employees' intent to leave in a sample of human service workers. Collecting demographic data such as sex, age, the area the participant works in, and how long the participant has worked in the industry or descriptive statistical analysis only. This study delimitates employees working directly

with individuals diagnosed with intellectual and developmental disabilities in the United States.

Limitations

Addressing the limitations while conducting the research include sample size and participant bias. The sample size is a limitation as a preference 150 employees may participate in the study as it was voluntary and anonymous; however, it was not a guarantee. A power analysis was conducted to establish a suitable sample size to ensure adequate variability in' participants' responses. The participant bias was a limitation as the participants may show preference while rating their levels of job satisfaction, employee empowerment, and intent to leave. The participants were informed that their data is confidential, including complete anonymity, and presenting the information as judgment-free may minimize participation bias.

Significance

This study contributed to the scholarly literature on the role of employee empowerment and job satisfaction and their effect on employees' intent to leave in a sample of human service workers. The research was distinctive because employee empowerment is under-researched in human health service literature. While there is extensive literature on employee empowerment, job satisfaction, and the intent to leave, researchers have yet to consider the human health service industry. The study has provided valuable data that contribute to making a difference at the local, regional, state, and national levels in various organizations throughout the United States in the human health service industry if the organizations choose. The positive social change that may

occur focuses on improving the lives of the individuals in the organization's care. An organization can use the results from this research to develop training and programs that lead to employees staying longer with the organization, thus being cost-effective. At the same time, the organizations will spend less on hiring, spending the budget on other areas with a potential for improved employee development.

Implications for Social Change

The study's results may have positive implications for social change as exploring the role of employee empowerment and how it affects job satisfaction and the intent to leave may expose inconsistencies between policy development, implementation, and organizational procedures. Sahir et al. (2018) said that to retain employees long term, organizations should provide training and develop opportunities for their employees, to generate self-achievement and growth. Sharma and Good (2013) suggested that direct care managers must understand the importance of social change in the organization as they play a significant part in setting the change in motion. When direct care managers focus on social change, they create positive human impact, moral goodness, and unconditional social improvement throughout and within the organization.

The study's results may make a difference at the local, regional, state, and national levels since the participants will participate and reside throughout the United States. Positive social change focuses on improving the lives of the individuals in the organization's care. The empowered employees will be able to focus on helping individuals with intellectual and developmental disabilities reach various goals, including

cooking, cleaning, laundry, and money management. The goals help individuals become more independent in their homes and the community.

Summary

This chapter provided an overview of the research literature on the human health service industry and the variables under study. Identifying the gap in the existing scholarly research provided a guide to the study's purpose: To understand the role of employee empowerment and job satisfaction and their effect on employees' intent to leave the human healthcare industry. This chapter also provided an overview of the study research questions, hypotheses, theoretical framework, and overall research design. Chapter 2 provides a comprehensive literature review that gives a deeper understanding of employee empowerment, job satisfaction, and intention to leave turnover intention.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

This quantitative correlational study examined the relationship between employee job satisfaction, empowerment, and direct support professional turnover intentions. Research is available on retention rates and job satisfaction (Basinska & Gruszczynska, 2017; Borkowska & Czerw, 2017; Hairr et al.,2014; He et al., 2014; Lambert et al., 2018; Lim, 2014; Lin et al., 2021; O'Connor, 2018). This literature review addresses the topics of turnover intention, job satisfaction, and employee empowerment. The researcher accessed peer-reviewed literature using Thoreau, ProQuest, Business Source Complete, Google Scholar, government websites, and Google Books. The keyword searches included *job satisfaction, employee satisfaction, employee empowerment, turnover rates, intent to leave, retention, attrition, organizational effectiveness, direct support profession, human health services, and Herzberg's Two Factor theory*. The literature search included published peer-reviewed articles from 2017 to 2022. Older references include Herzberg's work, which is this study's theoretical framework.

Herzberg's Motivational Theory

Herzberg's (1974) motivation-hygiene theory includes the dominant factors employees identify as imperative to job satisfaction. Herzberg completed studies to establish which factors in an employee's work environment caused satisfaction or dissatisfaction. According to Hur (2018), Herzberg identified the opposite of satisfaction as no satisfaction versus dissatisfaction. Herzberg also argued that dissatisfaction is at opposite ends of the same continuum as satisfaction. Ahmed et al. (2012) identified

Herzberg's argued causes of job dissatisfaction do not increase job satisfaction; however, it causes lessens job dissatisfaction.

Herzberg (1974) identified four employee motivators: achievement, recognition, organizational culture, and advancement. Employees also have hygiene factors: organizational policy, leadership, work conditions, and relationship with the boss (Herzberg, 1974). Brenner et al. (1971) argued that company policies, technical competence, salary, working conditions, and interpersonal relations affect job dissatisfaction. These components, which Herzberg called hygiene factors, are related to the job's environment. The motivation-hygiene theory has been studied so often (more than 200 times) that it is now possible to recognize employee morale problems from a motivation-hygiene theory study of an organization (Herzberg, 1974). Herzberg refined this work for over 24 years (Holliman & Daniels, 2018).

Herzberg et al. (1959) stated that culture might affect employee job satisfaction and produce contradictory results. Researchers examined Herzberg et al. two-factor theory across multiple industries creating alternate applications and conclusions in varied environments for each factor. The satisfiers were consistent with Herzberg's (1966) theory and postulated motivators leading to improved employee engagement and job satisfaction (Islam & Ali, 2013). The converse was mainly true regarding the impact of dissatisfiers on disengagement and job dissatisfaction (Ghazi et al., 2013). Many associates deemed recognition a highly motivating factor, proving Herzberg's (1974) theory. Researchers demonstrated on multiple occasions that the results of the original theory, applied in work environments that focus on monitoring engagement and

satisfaction indiscriminate in a particular industry, had enhanced ratings in employee engagement and job satisfaction—providing quality customer service enhanced employee motivation and job satisfaction (Herzberg et al., 1959). Empowered and knowledgeable employees reduced the number of managerial interactions, decreased customer wait times, and enhanced their job satisfaction level (Herzberg et al., 1959).

Adams (1965) countered the two-factor theory with a predictive equity theory of exchange relationships. Adams stated that employee job satisfaction increases when perceived organizational and coworker inputs and outcomes exceed the expected information and results of the employee. The qualitative work of Herzberg et al. (1959) and Herzberg (1968) provided evidence of a relationship between employee job satisfaction and organizational performance. Sauer and Valet (2013), in a longitudinal study involving 22,219 observations, confirmed the premise of equity theory by showing that employee job satisfaction levels increased when workers received 14 increased compensations proportional to their perceived self-value. Porter and Lawler (1968) suggested that employee job satisfaction eliminates any discrepancy between an actual reward and the perception of an equitable bonus. The present study's two-factor theory explores direct support professionals' job satisfaction.

Job Satisfaction

Wang et al. (2017) defined job satisfaction as a cheerful outlook toward work and the employment environment. O'Connor et al. (2018) indicated that job satisfaction stems from an employee's commitment, performance, and turnover intention. Sharma (2017) described it as a multidimensional construct with myriad definitions because of its impact

on employee commitment and job performance. Guoping et al. (2017) found few similar definitions of job satisfaction within the literature, deeming it an abstract concept. Kashmoola et al. (2017) contended that although there is no generally agreed-upon definition for job satisfaction, researchers agree that it is one of the most complex supervisory areas for managers. Obeid et al. (2017) contended that job dissatisfaction is related to an employee's sudden desire to depart the company. Deri et al. (2021) identified motivation as one of many contributors to job satisfaction.

Individual and organizational stress contribute to how an employee reacts to the organization. Personal stressors include demographic characteristics (i.e., gender, education, and tenure) and job stress; organizational factors affecting job satisfaction include role conflict and ambiguity (Kashmoola et al., 2017). Giles et al. (2017) identified job satisfaction characteristics: job variety, identity, significance, autonomy, and feedback. Yang et al. (2013) found that supervision, pay, benefits, and relationships only affect levels of employee job dissatisfaction. Employee job satisfaction is not a function of intrinsic factors related to the work but is a part of the culture and societal norms (Lan et al., 2013; Ravari et al., 2013). Lan et al. (2013), in a study of Chinese accounting practitioners, concluded that employee job satisfaction was a function of work orientation and a desire to perform the job. In a study of Iranian nurses, Ravari et al. (2013) concluded that employee job satisfaction was due to a sense of altruism and was a core value of the nursing profession. Khan et al. (2013) found that employee job satisfaction was an intrinsic factor driven by moral values.

Regardless of the demographics and characteristics of job satisfaction, employees who have healthy outlooks on the workplace, receive promotions and feel a sense of community will experience high levels of job satisfaction (Guoping et al., 2017). Job satisfaction has received extensive research because of its significant implications for organizations and employees (Agarwal & Sajid, 2017). Job satisfaction is easy to sense yet challenging to manage (Frampton, 2014). Labor is among the organizations' costliest expenditures (Agarwal & Sajid, 2017). Akeke et al. (2015) found normative and affective commitment positively influenced by job satisfaction. Undesirable outcomes of decreased job satisfaction include reduced commitment, inefficiency, absenteeism, and turnover. According to Schaumberg and Flynn (2017), guilt-proneness is one of the impediments to fulfilling normative expectations. Obeid et al. (2017) proposed that some employees are genetically predisposed to be negative or positive about job satisfaction.   Employees dissatisfied in the workplace will not return to the organization. Job satisfaction represents one psychological factor influencing individual performance (Davis, 2012). Schwendimann et al. (2016) examined job satisfaction and its association with the work environment. Organizations face high costs due to low job satisfaction (Diestel et al., 2014). Kai et al. (2016) investigated the relationship between self-control and job satisfaction based on research suggesting that employees with high self-control have high levels of job satisfaction. Individuals' ability to override their dominant responses and change by interrupting the tendencies to act is the definition of self-control (Kai et al., 2016). Employees must always exhibit levels of self-control in the workplace. Kai et al.

found that employees with higher self-control could handle challenging workplace
situations, leading to higher job satisfaction.

Roberts-Turner et al. (2014) presented three factors to employee job satisfaction:
personal, organizational, and interpersonal. Schwendimann et al. (2016) contended that
job satisfaction antecedents include organizational and personal characteristics.
According to Locke (1969), developing emotions that give rise to job satisfaction is a
three-step process: (a) workers must experience some element of the work environment,
(b) employees must use a value standard on which work elements are judged, and (c)
workers must evaluate how the perceived work element facilitates or inhibits the
achievement of preferred values. Babalola et al. (2016) ascertained that employees refrain
from acclimate to frequent workplace changes, which may lead to increased uncertainty
toward job satisfaction. Gertsson et al. (2017) found job satisfaction determinants in three
categories: work conditions, work environment, and perceptions of the profession.

Employee Empowerment

Empowerment is a psychological state that gives individuals control over their
work environment (Spreitzer, 1995). Fernandez and Moldogaziev (2015) defined
employee empowerment as: (a) a form of extended leadership style, (b) a managerial
reaction of sharing authority, resources, and (c) a method to accomplish tasks with little
supervisory oversight. Several public management scholars have researched employee
empowerment to explain job satisfaction, but it adversely relates to the inevitability of
turnover. Empowerment is a strategy that employees use to make their job decisions
(Irving & Berndt, 2017). The ability to autonomously perform job duties combined with

the feeling of being valued are typical behaviors of empowered employees (Mohapatra & Mishra, 2018). Empowered employees work for transparent leaders who share the organization's performance objectives and results, then guide employees in contributing to the organization's objectives (Potnuru et al., 2019). Therefore, empowerment is a management tool that provides employees with the power, freedom, and information that guides them to contribute proactively to the organization's operation objectives (Hanaysha, 2016). Employee empowerment occurs when leaders allow employees to develop self-leadership and remove obstacles that prevent the achievement of personal and organizational goals (Demirtas, 2013). Employees experience self-leadership or empowerment when employees can make decisions without seeking leaders' approval (Lizar et al., 2015). Leaders empowering employees to contribute to new ideas proactively are essential to attaining a competitive advantage (Appelbaum et al., 2015). Empowered employees confidently perform job functions and experience a positive energy flow; empowered employees contribute to meaningful customer engagement (Jauhari et al., 2017). Researchers positively correlated employees' empowerment with employees' increased job satisfaction and increased employees' trust in organizational leadership (Carasco-Saul et al., 2014) and positively contributed to organizational citizenship behavior (Wang, 2015),

Employee empowerment is a management strategy for improving retention rates. Employee empowerment involves giving employees the power to make decisions regarding their work. It means managing organizations by collaboration where workers have a voice (Gorden, 1995). It can boost employee motivation and job satisfaction,

which is central to a successful retention program (Sergio & Rylova, 2018). Ukil (2016) defined employee empowerment as shifting decision-making power to employees at the lower level of an organization's hierarchy. Giving employees more power can increase organizational productivity (Ghosh, 2013) and improve their job satisfaction (Ukil, 2016), making workers more likely to stay at their job. Work teams can also have greater worker motivation, increased participation, and more power equalization (Ollikainen & Varis, 2006).

Leaders' empowering behavior enhances followers' intrinsic motivation through creativity, conceptual understanding, and cognitive flexibility (van Dierendonck & Patterson, 2015). Kohli and Sharma (2017) conducted a comprehensive literature review on studies in which researchers examined the relationship between employee empowerment and job satisfaction. In the review, Kohli and Sharma found that increased employee empowerment positively correlated with job retention. Sergio and Rylova (2018) investigated the link between Volkswagen employee retention and their strategies to uphold high retention rates. After performing a qualitative descriptive study, Sergio and Rylova found that employee empowerment, manifested through barrier-free access to resources, was significantly linked to increased retention. Employee empowerment can positively influence how a person perceives the organization (Irving & Berndt, 2017). Lizar et al. (2015) studied the relationship between empowerment and employees' willingness to change, indicating how empowerment positively influences an employee's readiness to change and accept organizational change. Employee empowerment results in motivated employees, positive work attitudes, competence, and determination (Gergaud

et al., 2015). Fernandez and Moldogaziev (2015) cited Bowen and Lawler's four main organizational tactics on how managers should practice employee empowerment: (a) recite information about the organization's performance, (b) educate staff on rewards based on organization's performance, (c) knowledge that enables employees to understand and contribute to organizational performance, and (d) use personal power to make decisions that influence organizational direction and performance (p. 157).

Implementing employee empowerment policies is another strategy that managers can use to improve retention rates. Employee empowerment can boost retention rates by improving workers' motivation and job satisfaction by giving them more autonomy within the workplace (Sergio & Rylova, 2018). Researchers have concluded that employee empowerment policies can increase organizational productivity (Ghosh, 2013) and improve job satisfaction (Ukil, 2016). Employee empowerment is positively associated with lowered turnover rates within social science literature. Nursing-specific studies included similar findings. A comprehensive literature review by Kohli and Sharma (2017) found that employee empowerment has a positive relationship with job retention, and Sergio and Rylova (2018) came to a similar conclusion.

Intent to Leave

The terms used in conjunction are turnover intention, intention to leave, and intent to quit (Memon et al., 2016). Business researchers have focused on employee turnover; however, no theory has indicated employee turnover behavior (Shin et al., 2015). Turnover intention includes the intellective process of considering quitting a job, deciding to leave, or sensing the propensity to leave (Campbell et al., 2014).

Turnover can be a critical issue for organizations (Jauhar et al., 2017; Makarius et al., 2017). Thus, growing numbers of researchers have explored employee turnover (Chung et al., 2017; Demirtas & Akdogan, 2015; Ferdik & Hills, 2018; Lannoo & Verhofstadt, 2016; Li et al., 2016; C.-Y. Lin et al., 2021; Olasupo et al., 2019; Shahpouri et al., 2016; Vázquez-Rodríguez et al., 2020; Wombacher & Felfe, 2017). Previous researchers focused on why employees left an organization and how they left (Shipp et al., 2014). Researchers analyzed employees' experiences evaluating the processes in their decision to leave (Shipp et al., 2014). Shipp et al. stated that employees who left an organization and were rehired identified different reasons for leaving than those that quit and never returned, which suggested they most likely were on divergent paths in the turnover model.

The substantial research on intent to leave signifies the importance of understanding and mitigating employee turnover and turnover intentions. Turnover research incorporates empirical knowledge that introduces strategies to reduce unwanted employee turnover and traditional strategies that have plateaued with limited utility (Lee & Jeong, 2017). Turnover intentions included a component of choice and the ability to turnover (Lobene & Meade, 2013). Leaving an organization falls into two categories: voluntary and involuntary (Ghosh et al., 2013; Memon et al., 2016).

Voluntary turnover is applied when employees choose to leave and provide their business managers with the knowledge of their intentions, while involuntary turnover results when business managers let employees go (Ghosh et al., 2013). The global issue of voluntary turnover was becoming an impediment to organizations realizing their

strategic objectives (Memon et al., 2016). Death, sickness, and retirement also lead to involuntary turnover (Pietersen & Oni, 2014). Employees do not decide to leave in haste but with an alternative in mind.

Two types of individuals intending to leave are (a) reluctant leavers who lack control of their present situations yet have control over leaving and (b) enthusiastic leavers who have no hesitation and are excited about the next chapter in their journey (Li et al., 2016). Turnover can be voluntary or involuntary (Dotun, 2014; Kashmoola et al., 2017). The general causes of employee turnover are: (a) external factors that include current unemployment rates and job availability; (b) organizational factors comprised of reward systems, work environment, and differing leadership styles; and (c) individual factors, such as co-worker performance and overall dissatisfaction of the workplace (Demirtas & Akdogan, 2015).

External factors include unemployment levels and job opportunities; organizational factors comprise leadership styles, environment, and rewards systems; and individual factors include co-worker performance and work dissatisfaction (Demirtas & Akdogan, 2015). Additionally, external factors can include employment perceptions, union presence, and unemployment rates; work-related factors include role clarity, pay, promotional opportunities, and organizational commitment; and personal factors include age, gender, education, marital status, number of children, and biographical information (Dubey et al., 2016). Mapelu and Jumah (2013) found a negative relationship between employee development and employee turnover and indicated that an increase in employee development leads to a decrease in employee turnover; as such, employee

development significantly affects employee turnover. Karatepe (2014) posited that if organizations invest in human resources in training and development, rewards, work-life balance, and mentoring, employees will make positive attributions about the work environment and be inclined to stay in the organization and display quality performance. Positive and negative external personal and professional events positively affect employee turnover (Tews et al., 2014). There is evidence that turnover may not always result from job dissatisfaction over time but from critical events that occur in individuals' lives (Tews et al., 2014). inside and outside of the workplace, may create a significant moment that causes individuals to reconsider their employment situation and thus drive turnover (Tews et al., 2014). The influence of coworkers' perceived warmth and competence on employees' job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and turnover intentions in a casual dining restaurant setting has significant effects on employees' job satisfaction, which in turn improves their organizational commitment (Bufquin, DiPietro, Orlowski, & Partlow, 2017). These factors are important to understand the relationship between employee job satisfaction, leadership behavior perception, and turnover intentions, which was the purpose of this study. Additionally, reasons most employees choose to depart from organizations include: (a) unmet expectations, (b) unsuitable person-job fit, (c) an absence of mentoring, coaching, and counseling of employees toward success, (d) poor opportunities for advancement, (e) devalued feelings, (f) improper work-life balance, and (g) lack or loss of trust of organizational leaders (Fibuch & Ahmed, 2015).

With many reasons for employees' decisions to leave, leaders must understand the importance of voluntary job turnover (Lannoo & Verhofstadt, 2016). Understanding intent to leave, job satisfaction research suggests that turnover is predicted by satisfaction (Li et al., 2016). For example, Kashmoola et al. (2017) examined the relationship between turnover and job satisfaction by understanding how workplace issues and the environment affect employees and found limited evidence to support how turnover and job satisfaction are related. Zito et al. (2018) also identified influences on turnover intention, such as quality of work life and relational variables. In researching civil servants, Lin et al. (2021) found that mediating effects on turnover intentions included job satisfaction. Emotional shock, such as the death of a loved one, can lead to turnover, but job satisfaction can mediate the effect of organizational shocks, which include organizational changes (Holtom et al., 2017).

Business managers develop diverse personnel strategies to retain exceptional employees; however, some employees are difficult to satisfy (Singh & Sharma, 2015). Opportunities for advancement have diminished with more employees changing employers to advance their careers (Kronberg, 2014). Business managers should understand why employees leave an organization (Mitchell & Zatzick, 2014) because business managers who understand the drivers of turnover have reduced turnover (Jain, 2013). Drivers of turnover included retirement, promotion within the organization, and personal circumstances (Jain, 2013). Another reason employees leave a firm is the lack of management's strength in leadership (Jain, 2013). Employees' perception of managers' actions and behaviors and dissatisfaction with their job influenced their intention to leave

(Rahman & Nas, 2013). Inadequate leadership has increased voluntary turnover, loss of enthusiasm, and dissatisfaction among employees (Ladelsky & Catană, 2013). New employees leave a company when their business managers fail to provide an opportunity to engage in challenging tasks (Matsuo, 2015). Appreciative business managers, a manageable workload, a work environment, and contentment with the position were critical to an employee's turnover intention (Duxbury & Halinski, 2013). Employees' emotional attachment to their organization reduced employee turnover (Islam et al., 2013). Business managers should provide those employees with an environment where work corresponds to aspirations and autonomy (Matsuo, 2015).

Voluntary turnover also affects operational processes (Eckardt et al., 2014; Mohr et al., 2012). Based on research findings of their study on a large university, Butali et al. (2013) asserted that staff turnover hinders employee productivity by reducing efficient operations. Furthermore, through the onboarding process, new hires may take a significant time to develop and reach their whole productivity level (Mazzei, Flynn, & Haynie, 2016). Researchers (Ahmad et al., 2014; Kong et al., 2013) found that high employee turnover also erodes tacit knowledge within an organization, adversely affecting competitiveness (Asamoah et al., 2014). For instance, Darr et al. (1995) showed in an empirical study that voluntary employee turnover in 36 United States pizza stores exacerbated knowledge depreciation and poor production. Losing knowledgeable human capital affects an organization's quality output (Selden & Sowa, 2015; Bhatnagar, 2013).

In their meta-analytic review of employee turnover, Hancock et al. (2011) found a negative and more robust relationship between employee turnover, customer service, and

quality than employee turnover, labor 42 productivity, and financial performance. Organizations with high employee turnover rates have a damaged reputation from an internal perspective because high rates of employee turnover reflect the perception employees view of the support they receive from their leaders (Cheng et al., 2015; Kang et al., 2015). Nonprofit leaders must develop strategic plans to overcome various labor and management challenges, with voluntary employee turnover as one of the main priorities (Ronquillo et al., 2017). Voluntary employee turnover is a significant problem that threatens the viability of organizations. Therefore, as Park and Shaw (2013) recommended, leaders must understand the reason for employee turnover and develop effective retention strategies to mitigate and eliminate turnover.

Research has also suggested several influences on turnover intention, such as wages, race, and organizational commitment. Organizations compensating workers with lower salaries face obstacles to employee turnover (He et al., 2014). Employees feel invested and inclined to remain with the organization when their salaries align with their perceived worth. Ensuring that it is financially lucrative for employees to stay can reduce turnover rates (Whitfield et al., 2017). Turnover rates are also higher for minority employees (Buttner & Lowe, 2017), which indicates a need for strategies to reduce employee turnover on all levels in every demographic. A multipronged approach involving a multidisciplinary team can change an organization's culture. Corporate social responsibility also correlates to employee turnover intention as it lends to the employee's purpose in the workplace; if an employee does not feel meaning in their work, turnover can increase (Carnahan et al., 2017). When employees commit to the organization, they

do not exhibit behaviors that will cost the organization, as they are invested in the team and take ownership of their place in it (Wombacher & Felfe, 2017). In a meta-analysis, Carsten and Spector (1987) found a mean correlation between intentions and turnover was .38; it ranged from zero to .71, depending on the unemployment rate at the time of the study. Turnover was significantly predicted by our 3-item measure (Michaels & Spector, 1982) and our 1-item measure (Spector, 1991).

Previous research studies focus on work engagement, turnover intentions, burnout, emotional exhaustion, retention, job satisfaction, and social relationships. The populations used in the research vary globally, allowing readers to see different perspectives regarding the workplace in various cultures. The countries include Norway, Thailand, the United States, the Netherlands, and Pakistan. The research also includes private and public sectors. Despite the benefits of practicing employee voice and the reason for it to be encouraged, it appears it is not the current situation in many private and public sector organizations (Alfayad & Arif, 2017).

Hickey (2014) focused on the desire to engage in work that benefits others and moderates the effects of stress on burnout. The study found that prosocial motivation significantly correlated emotional exhaustion and role boundary stress with depersonalization. Keesler (2020) studied the impact of burnout, compassion fatigue, satisfaction, and secondary traumatic stress and how it affected retention with employees that work as direct support professionals relating to trauma-informed care. The study provided data that as the participants' age increased, so did their job satisfaction, but burnout decreased. Keesler and Fukui (2020) studied the impact of contentment and the

struggles the DSPs experience in their work. The study showed that the female participants had higher compassion satisfaction, lower burnout, and secondary traumatic stress than the male participants. Keesler and Troxel (2020) researched self-care and resilience and their relationship with professional quality of life, focusing on job satisfaction, burnout, and secondary traumatic stress among direct support professionals. The results from the questionnaire showed that the DSPs reported high levels of resilience as it allows DSPs to handle stress and contributes to healthy well-being. Kusmaul et al. (2020) completed a study that focused on the home care industry and how it experiences similar problems with recruiting and retaining direct care workers. The participants in the survey study reported both positive and negative aspects of their jobs. The findings suggest that employees did not always feel structurally but psychologically empowered. Ping et al. (2019) examined the effect of results from the verbal and written performance feedback intervention and the addition of an acceptance and commitment therapy (ACT)-based training program on the regularity and technical capability of active treatment provided by direct support professionals. The DSPs' self-reported psychological flexibility, workplace stress, and job satisfaction remained stable for all participants from baseline to intervention, even though performance improved.

Due to the impact turnover has on organizations and their employees, researchers have and will continue to study the different aspects of this topic (Rothausen et al., 2015). Historically, scholars studied turnover intention and its ability to predict turnover by identifying its consequences and antecedents. Bothma and Roodt (2013) found that a result of turnover intention was an employee no longer related to their work. Grissom and

Mitani (2016) emphasized the importance of seeing turnover as transitioning employees into positions or roles or the voluntary decision to leave a company. Lastly, Çınar (2015) described it as an employee's desire to leave a company in search of better opportunities. While the descriptions of turnover intention varied in studies, most researchers, like McInerney et al. (2015), tied it to an employee's desire or intent to leave a company.

Theoretical Frameworks

Edwin's A Locke's Range of Affect Theory

Locke (1969) combined aspects of equity theory (Adams, 1965) with discrepancy theory (Porter & Lawler, 1968) to advance the value system argument of Herzberg et al. (1959). Locke's (1976) range of affect theory clarifies this study's job satisfaction concept. Employee job satisfaction is more involved than overall feeling about a job or position. Locke hypothesized that job satisfaction is determined by the discrepancy between what one desires from a job and what one has in a career (Sindhu, 2013). Yaschur (2012) describes job satisfaction as a relationship between what employees desire from their jobs and if those desires are fulfilled by their position. Specific facets of a job or work environment, such as pay, benefits, promotion opportunities, supervisor and coworker relationships, nature of work, and work conditions, can affect job satisfaction (Keser & Yilmaz, 2016). Hofmans et al. (2013) proposed that theories can be different but correct because individual differences and contexts lead to situational results. In the range of affect theory, supervision is a factor in employee values, contributing to employee job satisfaction and dissatisfaction as part of environmental interactions (Locke, 1969). Kong, Wang, and Fu (2015) showed this difference by examining

Millennial workers and how they possessed different work values and requirements compared to previous generations. Locke's theory gives the examples of two employees, one who values autonomy and the other who is indifferent (Singh & Sinha, 2013; Sindhu, 2013). In the range of affect theory, Locke asserted that job satisfaction is determined by the relationship between what the employee wants from the job, what the employee is receiving from the job, and the importance the employee places on that facet of the job (Deriba et al., 2017). Yaschur (2012) stated that due to the variety of tasks and roles a job may offer, each facet must be measured separately as an individual predictor of job satisfaction. When the employee receives the desired outcome in a job facet of high personal importance, satisfaction will be high (McFarlin et al., 1995).

Conversely, dissatisfaction will occur when there is a discrepancy between the desired and received outcomes for an essential facet (McFarlin et al., 1995). Previous research has indicated that job satisfaction negatively correlates with turnover intentions (Lee et al., 2017; Masum et al., 2016). Locke's theory proposes that job satisfaction is an individual's perception and evaluation of their job, which influences each individual's unique characteristics and specific needs, expectations, and values (Sempane, Rieger, & Roodt, 2002).

Locke's theory explains that to understand job satisfaction, one must examine job dimensions such as pay, supervision, recognition, work condition, and co-workers, to name a few (Sempane et al., 2002). A person gains or maintains job satisfaction through a review of what they believe their job has provided or will provide at an acceptable level to their beliefs (Warr & Inceoglu, 2012)

Critical Management Theory

According to Ritchie et al. (2019), the origin of the critical management theory is based on the perspectives of Jürgen Habermas, a German philosopher and member of the Frankfurt School of critical theory. Habermas's many ideas about politics, social justice, and the structure of power and society, he believed power is created and perpetuated through discourse (Ritchie et al., 2019). Habermas argued that continuous oppression could be reversed when low-status groups can affect the discursive process through which power is created and reproduced (Ritchie et al., 2019).

Critical management scholars are a diverse group of academics in management whose work tries to uncover how scholars and teachers can intersect with organizations to create positive social change both within and outside organizations (Ritchie et al., 2019). King and Learmonth (2015) have addressed the problem of employee oppression by researching wage inequity, union busting, marginalization, and silencing. Deetz (2001b) explained that critical management theory focuses on creating opportunities for all employees to develop an equitable balance of power. King and Learmonth (2015) stated that management research should change from a "mode-privileging critique toward a more overtly affirmative, practice-oriented position that explores new practices and possibilities for action" (p. 355). Deetz (2001a) stated that critical theory in organizational communication could create a society free from governance.

Employees are over-managed to the point where they view themselves as ineffectual or childlike (Argyris, 1990). employees exposed to this system long-term may internalize their lack of efficacy and become distant and uncommitted to their work

(Ritchie et al., 2019). In organizational contexts, oppression happens when norms, assumptions, and interpretive schemes, the staples of organizational life, provide the discursive means to support and reproduce existing systems of power (Deetz, 1998; Knights & Willmott, 1987; Mills, 1994; Townley, 1993). According to Ritchie et al. (2019), employees are caught in a cycle of disenfranchisement and have little control over their organizational life. Employees may experience anxiety, stress, and other physical and mental problems (Cheney, 1995; Eisenberg & Goodall, 2003; Greenberger & Strasser, 1986; Morrison & Milliken, 2000; Parker, 1993).

Employees and managers maintain strict communication boundaries because organizational obstacles prohibit interaction between individuals of different statuses (Heckscher, 1994; Monge & Contractor, 2001; Weber, 1947). Access to decision-making dialogues may also help employees discard cultural norms that require self-silencing and passive behavior (Thomas, 2016). According to Ritchie et al. (2019), providing first-time access to -correcting discussions that typically exclude employees can challenge norms that support privilege based on rank and deconstruct organizational norms that entitle top managers to unilateral decision-making power. Through access to discourse, Marginalized employees could participate in creating new organizational realities and unique access to power-creating and reifying discussions (Ritchie et al., 2019). Members can contribute equally to producing processes that meet needs and lead to the progressive development of all (Deetz, 2001a).

Theory of Planned Behavior

The theory of planned behavior and rational choice theory are combined to serve as the theoretical foundation for the study. Fishbein and Ajzen (1975) proposed the theory of planned behavior as an extension of the theory of reasoned action. Ajzen (1991) suggested that the theory of planned behavior can forecast an individual's behavioral intention based on "attitudes toward the behavior, subjective norms, and perceived behavioral control" (p. 179). The theory of planned behavior is a widely applied expectancy-value model of attitude-behavior relationships used to predict various behaviors (Conner & Armitage, 1998). Planned behavior constructs include behavioral beliefs, normative beliefs, and self-efficacy and are considered "antecedents of attitudes, subjective norms, and perceived 85 behavioral controls" (Bulgurcu et al., 2010, p. 527). Because of its theorized ability to forecast behavioral intentions, the theory of planned behavior has been the theoretical foundation for studies examining information security compliance behavioral intention.

Perceived behavioral control originated from the self-efficacy theory Bandura proposed in 1977 and is a byproduct of social cognitive theory (Bandura, Adams, Hardy, & Howells, 1980). In previous research, Bandura et al. and Britta et al. (2014) found that before committing to a behavior, individuals evaluate and prioritize their beliefs about the behavior, and confidence in their ability to perform that behavior influenced their behavior.

Bulgurcu et al. (2010) suggested that the employee's attitude affects the benefit and cost of compliance, non-compliance, and information security awareness. Although

subjective norms are predictive, a person's attitude and perceived behavioral control are the more robust predictors of behavior (Van Gelderen et al., 2008). Internal motivation, economic factors, and improved longevity and health are reasons for delayed departures (Kunreuther et al., 2013; Toupin & Plewes, 2007). In the development of succession theory, Lansberg (1988) presented a similar assumption where the executives do not plan for transition (behavior) because they are resistant to change (attitude and intent).

Attitude, subjective norms, and perceived behavioral control are constructs taken from the theory of planned behavior and included in the study. Intentions, in general, involve the process of transferring intentions into actions or behaviors (Ajzen & Sheikh, 2013). Godlove (2012) suggested that teleworkers' lack of information security risk awareness makes it difficult for management to maintain the security of the organization's information assets. Godlove proposed a study examining the teleworker's attitude to information security compliance using the theory of planned behavior as the theoretical foundation. Ifinedo (2012) recognized that the construct of self-efficacy overlapped protection motivation theory and the theory of planned behavior and combined the two theories to examine information security policy behavioral intention. Sommestad et al. (2015) expanded the theory of planned behavior to include constructs from protection motivation theory and anticipated regret. Sommestad et al. hypothesized the constructs of attitude and perceived norm. They perceived behavioral control from the theory of planned behavior combined with the constructs of perceived vulnerability, perceived severity, response efficacy, self-efficacy, and response costs from protection

motivation theory and anticipated regret would affect information security policy behavioral intentions.

Al-Mukahal and Alshare (2015) developed a research model based on the deterrence theory, neutralization theory, and the theory of planned behavior. Al-Mukahal and Alshare hypothesized that information security policy awareness, employee trust, information security policy simplicity, and policy effect on the work environment would be related to the quantity of information security policy violations.

Summary

The literature on job satisfaction, employee empowerment, and turnover varies. My literature analysis revealed the need for leaders in the human health service industry to identify and implement strategies for policy development, implementation, and organizational procedures. In Chapter 1, the researcher explained the foundation for this study. The researcher reviewed professional and academic literature on job satisfaction, employee empowerment, and the intent to leave for direct support professionals in the human health service industry. The section began with the study's foundation, followed by the problem's background, the problem statement, the purpose statement, the nature of the study, and the research question. Following these components, the researcher explored the theoretical frameworks, operational definitions, assumptions, limitations, delimitations, the significance of the study, and implications of social change. Throughout the literature review, the researcher used Herzberg's two-factor theory, Locke's Affect Theory, Critical Management Theory, and the Planned Behavior theory as theoretical frameworks for this study.

Chapter 3 includes a comprehensive overview of the methodology, participants for this study, and research method and design to understand the study further. Chapter 3 describes ethical responsibility, the collection of data, the organization of data, and the analysis of data. In Chapter 3, the researcher will include a review of the reliability and validity of the surveys. In Section 3, the researcher provides a detailed account of my research for the doctoral study. The researcher used Herzberg's two-factor theory, Locke's Range of Affect theory, Critical Management Theory, and Planned Behavior Theory and its variables to conduct in-depth research for and about the human health service industry. In Chapter 3, the researcher presents the key areas: direct support professionals, job satisfaction, employee empowerment, and intent to leave. The overarching goal of the doctoral study is to assist human health service leaders with the role of employee empowerment and how it affects job satisfaction, and the intent to leave may expose inconsistencies. The researcher summarizes the study's findings, discusses business practice applications, and identifies opportunities for further research that may contribute to the knowledge base of the topic area.

At this current time, the studies completed are not controversial. The findings by researchers are consistent across various industries on the relationship between employee empowerment and job satisfaction with the intent to leave. Focusing on the human health service industry is the area that remains to be studied.

Chapter 3: Research Method

Introduction

This quantitative study used linear and moderated regression analyses to provide the data to identify employees with positive emotions about their jobs and those negative emotions. The study involved applying the concepts to examine the relationship between job satisfaction (predictor variable) and intent to leave (outcome variable) and if employee empowerment (moderator variable) moderated that relationship in direct support professionals. I measured job satisfaction with the Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS). I used the Employee Empowerment Questionnaire (EEQ) to measure employee empowerment. The Turnover Intention Scale (TIS) measured the intent to leave.

The previous chapter contained the background of the study, the theoretical foundations, and current research. The chapter also explained the methodological criterion for the study's research methods, which included using the variables in the study and the methods by which prior studies have addressed similar issues.

Chapter 3 included a comprehensive examination of the methodology used for the research. This chapter provided an overview of the research design and rationale of the study on the human health service industry. The chapter contained the research design, procedures used, data analysis plan, definition of terms, assumptions, delimitations, and limitations of the proposed research.

Research Design and Rationale

This quantitative study examined the relationship between job satisfaction and intent to leave and whether employee empowerment moderated that relationship using

linear and moderated regression analyses. The outcome variable was the intent to leave, job satisfaction was the predictor variable, and employee empowerment was the moderator variable.

The quantitative approach was appropriate for this study for several reasons. The purpose of the study and the research questions focused on analyzing the relationships between the predictor and outcome variables. Quantitative researchers explain phenomena using statistics and strategies of inquiry to analyze numerical data collected from surveys and experiments and examine the relationships or correlations between variables (Yilmaz, 2013). Researchers can accumulate compelling evidence through meta-analysis and controlled experiments (Zellmer-Bruhn et al., 2016). The strengths of quantitative research include utilizing a larger sample and reducing data collection time (Rahman, 2017). There currently needs to be time and resource constraints with the quantitative design choice.

The outcome variable was the intent to leave (Roodt, 2004), job satisfaction was the predictor variable (Spector, 1986), and employee empowerment was the moderator variable (Hayes, 2002). The quantitative study used linear and moderate regression analysis by examining the relationship between job satisfaction, intent to leave, and how employee empowerment may moderate the relationship in a sample of human health service workers. Due to the data measures and relation of the predictor and outcome variables, along with the moderation effect, the researcher used linear and moderated regression analysis. This data can help predict the factors that result in an outcome or forecast an effect or trend (Sheposh, 2020). There were no time or resource constraints

associated with the design choice. The moderator models were applied to examine when a predictor variable affected an outcome variable. The effect of a moderating variable is characterized statistically as an interaction (Schandelmaier et al., 2020). Additionally, moderators identify the factors that change the relationship between predictor and outcome variables. According to Barin and Kenny (1986), a moderator effect represents an interaction between an independent focal variable and a factor that specifies the appropriate conditions for its operation.

Methodology

Population

The population that was the focus of the study is the direct support professionals in the human health service industry that work directly with individuals with intellectual and developmental disabilities. The participants were current employees actively working for an organization in the human health service industry. The participants were at least 18 years of age. Detecting moderating effects is challenging, and studies often fail to detect an effect due to low statistical power (Aguinis & Stone-Romero, 1997). I determined the sample size for this quantitative study by conducting a power analysis using G*Power software. G*Power is a standalone power-analysis program for statistical tests commonly used in medical, social, and behavioral research (Charan & Biswas, 2013). The sample size computation included Cohen's effect size, the level of significance, and the statistical power or the probability of rejecting a false null hypothesis. A priori power analysis determined sample size because the technique allowed me to select power and calculate an appropriate sample size before conducting the study. G*Power analysis determined

that 55 participants were the required sample size to maintain statistical power at .80 for the first research question. I needed 68 participants, according to a separate power analysis, for the second research question. The estimated sample size for this study was 150 participants, which was sufficient for increasing the generalizability. The alpha level was .05 for other research studies to address employee turnover in different organizations (Buttigieg & West, 2013).

Sampling and Sampling Procedures

Sampling is a technique used for generalizing the results of a study to a broader population when a census is not feasible (Uprichard, 2013). Uprichard (2013) stated that a critical distinction between probability and nonprobability sampling is the likelihood of every object in a population being equal for selection. The researcher used a nonprobability sampling method to address the research questions. Nonprobability sampling is advantageous when there is limited time or resources, objects of the target population are difficult to access or widely dispersed, or there is a need for a quick decision (Oldacre, 2016). With convenience sampling, selecting objects from the target population depends on participants' self-selection, availability, or convenience to the researcher (Lipi, 2015). According to Landers and Behrend (2015), convenience sampling is a common form of nonprobability sampling used in research; however, the method does have weaknesses, such as limited reliability and potential misrepresentation of the population.

The sampling method was nonprobabilistic use of convenience sampling. Nonprobabilistic sampling is necessary when the population is unknown, and a priori

population knowledge is impossible (Landrum & Garza, 2015). A nonprobabilistic

sampling includes a deeper understanding of the sample population. Convenience

sampling is a technique where subjects are accessible, inexpensive, and easy to recruit

(Ingham-Broomfield, 2014). Convenience sampling was appropriate for the study

because of issuing the survey through an online instrument. The researcher used

convenience sampling for voluntary response sampling as it allows the participants to

volunteer by responding to the online survey. The weakness was that the design might

fail to attract potential willing participants if the subject did not bring value to the target

population. The strength of the voluntary sampling method guarantees a high response

rate and acceptable research findings.

The inclusion criteria included current employees working for human health

service organizations focusing on direct support professionals, program supervisors, and

program directors at least 18 years of age. The exclusion criteria included former

employees terminated involuntarily or voluntarily, area directors, regional directors,

office coordinators, staff recruitment specialists, intake coordinators, and individual fund

specialists. The excluded group was not considered part of the study as those employees

do not participate in the direct care of individuals with intellectual and developmental

disabilities.

The effect size measured the strength of a relationship between variables. By

quantifying the magnitude of the difference between groups or the relationship among

variables, effect size provides a scale-free measure that reflects the practical

meaningfulness of the difference or the relationship among variables (Coe, 2002; Hojat

and Xu, 2004). This study used a medium effect size (r = 0.15), the alpha level set to 5% (α = 0.05), and a power level of 80% (1 – β = .80). The strength of the direction between the association between variance ranges from values -1.0 to +1.0. A perfect correlation of +1.0 indicates the relationship between the variables (Barnham, 2015). A negative correlation below - 1.0 indicates a negative relationship between the independent and dependent variables (Swanson & Holton III, 2005).

Recruitment

The researcher posted the link to the survey to various Facebook groups that are for DSPs. The DSP Facebook groups are for DSPs in certain states or within the United States to communicate with each other whether it is to vent or ask for advice. An online survey was the means of data collection in this study. The online survey technique enables researchers to promptly deliver data collection instruments to study participants (Brandon et al., 2014). The researcher administered the web-based surveys through a SurveyMonkey link posted on Facebook to ensure confidentiality. Online surveys help collect data from a population the researcher cannot access (Regmi et al., 2016). Ball (2019) identified flexibility, minimal expenses, and the ability to rapidly deploy to social media as advantages of utilizing online surveys.

I provided an informed consent form at the beginning of the survey (see Appendix G). The informed consent included a brief introduction to why the researcher conducted this study, and that participation is voluntary and confidential. The participants had the option to agree or decline. Once the participants confirmed their participation, the researcher instructed them to take the survey. The survey was accessible to all employees

using computers or cell phones. When the participant completed the study, a brief message appeared to thank the participant. An explanation of why using their information and the outcome the study hopes to achieve, such as new training procedures and policies that allow employees to understand better what is expected from them and changes to improve employee empowerment. At this moment, there was no follow-up procedure.

Participation

The eligibility to participate in this study was to be a current direct support professional. All participants who volunteered to participate met the eligibility criteria, as determined by their response to the question, "Are you currently a direct support professional?" Before beginning, the survey was distributed via SurveyMonkey. The SurveyMonkey platform allows individuals to create user-friendly, web-based surveys (Helft, 2016; McDowall & Murphy, 2018).

The approach for obtaining access to participants was using social media, specifically Facebook. The researcher posted the invitation to participate on my Facebook page and several pages focusing on direct support professionals, providing access to all Facebook users. The invitation included a direct link to the SurveyMonkey survey, which included the consent form detailing participants' rights, expectations, and the confidential nature of the survey. Participants clicked "agree" to confirm they had read the consent form; if not, they were ineligible to complete the survey. As a researcher obtaining anonymous participants through social media, the researcher did not have access to the names of volunteer participants; however, the researcher did inform potential participants of my study's intended purpose and outcome. The link to the survey included the consent

form and information on the nature of the research: the participants' rights and roles in the study. The participants could contact me with questions through my Facebook or Walden University email.

Data Collection

There was no designated time frame for the participants to complete the survey; the data collection will continue until 150 responses are received. The researcher collected, exported, and downloaded the data into the IBM SPSS Statistics Data Editor (SPSS) database. The researcher analyzed the information using the SPSSS as the calculation source in various ways, including mean, mode, standard deviation, confidence interval, age, job title, and geographic location. The data indicated job satisfaction, employee empowerment, and intent to leave.

 Using linear and moderating regression, the researcher used SPSS to analyze the information provided. Linear regression analysis allows researchers to assess the strength of the relationship between an outcome and several predictor variables and the importance of each predictor to the relationship, often with the effect of other predictors statistically eliminated (Petchko, 2018). According to Petchko (2018), linear regression builds on correlation, which shows mere associations between variables. The moderating regression analysis examined if the result of a predictor variable on the outcome variable is the same across various levels of the moderator variable.

Instrumentation Operationalization of Constructs

The data collection instrument for the study was an online questionnaire hosted on SurveyMonkey. Correspondence was sent to the authors to seek permission to use

instruments. The researcher received approvals from the instruments' authors before the study's commencement. Chapter 3 appendices include the survey permissions. The survey began with demographic questions that assessed age, gender, location, and years of experience. The researcher used the following survey instruments.

Job Satisfaction Survey

The Job Satisfaction Survey was created in 1985 by Paul E. Spector. The JSS included subscales of supervision, pay, appreciation and recognition, benefits, opportunities for promotion, nature of work, work conditions, and communication. The area of interest included all nine subscales. The JSS consists of 36 items (see Appendix D) that measure the following nine facets of job satisfaction: compensation, promotion, supervision, benefits, performance-based rewards, policies and procedures, coworkers, work, and communication (Spector, 2021). The time to complete the JSS is 30 minutes. The researcher received permission from the author to use it in research (see Appendix A). Responses to items are on a 7-point Likert-type scale (van Saane et al., 2003). The Likert-type scale ranges from 1, which corresponds to 'disagree very much,' to 7, which corresponds to 'agree very much' (van Saane et al., 2003). Spector (1985) suggests that the instrument is appropriate to measure job satisfaction because there is sufficient evidence that combining satisfaction facets provides an acceptable measure of overall job satisfaction. There are currently over 100 articles since 1985 that reference the JSS. The studies vary but include industries such as the military, healthcare, and education. Al-Mahdy et al. (2016) used the JSS with 356 teachers to examine job satisfaction in the education field. Due to the nature of the study, Al-Mahdy et al. used three facets of the

instrument—promotion, nature of work, and supervision—with the findings indicating

moderate levels of job satisfaction. Instrument reliability using Cronbach's coefficient

alpha was promotion = .787, nature of work = .843, and supervision = .676.

Employee Empowerment Questionnaire

Robert Hayes (2002) created the Employee Empowerment Questionnaire (EEQ).

It consists of an 8-item using a 5-point Likert scale (see Appendix E), and it takes 10

minutes to complete the questionnaire. The researcher received permission from the

author to use it in research (see Appendix B). The EEQ can be completed online or with

pencil and paper. Two studies have used the EEQ to study employee empowerment in the

United States. The first study looked at 13 companies, while the second focused on

engineers. EEQ is appropriate as it evaluates the extent to which employees believe they

have the authority to act independently. The EEQ measures the average rating across all

eight questions. EEQ scores range from 1 (no empowerment) to 5 (high empowerment).

Studies using the EEQ show high reliability, but the validity is currently unknown. Wong

and Perry (2011) used the EEQ with 290 respondents to examine employee

empowerment in the service industry in Macau. Due to the nature of the study, Wong and

Perry used five instrument items to measure the respondents' perception of empowerment

at work. Instrument reliability using Cronbach's alpha = .70. Reliability measures above

0.70 are deemed acceptable for research purposes (Nunnally, 1978).

Turnover Intention Scale

Gerhard Roodt created the Turnover Intention Scale (TIS) in 2004. The TIS uses

15 items (see Appendix F) under three sub-factors of members' intention to leave the

organization, which will take approximately 15 minutes to finish. Participants can complete the TIS online, over the phone, or with pencil and paper. The researcher received permission from the author to use the TIS in the research (see Appendix C). The instrument has subscales of perceived alternative employment opportunities, job-hopping, and turnover intention. The researcher used all subscales of the TIS. The area of interest for this research was to examine the relationship between job satisfaction and intent to leave and if employee empowerment moderated that connection, potentially allowing organizations to use the information to adjust for the employees. The area of interest impacted my analyses by having the opportunity to see more data that may provide different perspectives. Intentions predict future turnover, but job opportunities moderate that relationship.

The researcher exposed the variables to a validity and reliability test. The Cronbach Alpha = .800, which shows the instrument has good reliability. The researcher completed the content, construct, and face validity on the instrument's sub-factors and items generated. There are currently five articles that used the TIS in their research. The industries that have used the TIS are technology, healthcare, and retail in countries such as the United States. The TIS is appropriate because it provides a better understanding of different factors as to why employees leave organizations.

Data Analysis Plan

The data analysis for this study consists of quantitative correlation research analysis using linear and moderated analyses. The researcher implemented SPSS statistical analysis software to conduct all data analysis. The researcher used Process

V3.3 by Andrew F. Hayes for the moderated regression. The steps included entering job

satisfaction, employee empowerment, and intent to leave variables. The Y Variable will

be intent to leave, the Moderator Variable W will be employee empowerment, and the X

Variable will be job satisfaction. The researcher ensured the Model Number as 1. The

researcher entered the confidence intervals to 95%. The researcher selected a generated

code for visualizing interactions and a mean center for the construction of products. The

probe interactions were at the default if $p < .10$ with the -1SD, Mean, +1SD, and Johnson-

Neyman output. Data cleaning of incomplete data came first before data analysis. The

researcher did not expect outliers because the data includes descriptive demographics and

Likert-type data. The first stage of the analysis, the correlations research analysis,

involved correlating the sample: the demographic variables used to define the sections for

describing the sample are gender, age, location, and years of work experience. Other

analyses included statistical values such as means, medians, and ranges to help

descriptively present all the variables. The study consists of the associated hypotheses as

follows:

RQ1: Does an employee's job satisfaction as measured by the Job Satisfaction

Survey predict the employee's intent to leave as measured by the Turnover Intention

Scale?

$H_0 1$: Employee job satisfaction does not predict 'employees' intent to leave.

$H_a 1$: Employee job satisfaction does predict 'employees' intention to leave.

RQ2: As measured by the Employee Empowerment Questionnaire (EEQ), does employee empowerment moderate the relationship between job satisfaction and intent to leave?

$H_0 2$: Employee empowerment does not moderate the relationship between job satisfaction and intention to leave.

$H_a 2$: Employee empowerment moderates the relationship between job satisfaction and intent to leave.

Ordinal data from a Likert-type survey treated as an interval with continuous data was necessary to analyze empowerment, interpersonal support, and turnover predictor variables. Treating ordinal data as interval and continuous is the appropriate scale for a study because of the standard survey rating (Brunsdon, 2016). Interval and continuous data are appropriate when the scale has five categories (Hope & Dewar, 2015). Interval and continuous data are suitable for parametric statistical techniques predicated on a population from a probability distribution (Aggarwal & Ranganathan, 2016).

For the first research question, linear regression was suitable for determining if the variable job satisfaction predicts the intent to leave direct support professionals. For the second research question, the moderated regression was ideal for determining if the variable employee empowerment moderates the relationship between job satisfaction and intent to leave. Linear regression has five assumptions to test before using the statistical method. The first is a linear relationship, which ensures a linear relationship exists between each predictor variable and the outcome variable. To test the linear relationship assumption, use a scatter plot of the predictor and outcome variables to determine if the

points fall along a straight diagonal line. The second is no multicollinearity which does not allow correlation between the predictor variables. To determine if the assumption for no multicollinearity is to calculate each predictor variable's variance inflation factor (VIF) value. The third assumption is independence, which ensures the observations are independent. A Durbin-Watson test provides information regarding the residuals and shows autocorrelation to determine if independence meets the criteria. The fourth assumption is homoscedasticity which ensures that the residuals have constant variance during each point in the model. To determine if homoscedasticity is present, plot standardized residuals versus predicted values. Heteroscedasticity is present if the points in the scatter plot exhibit a pattern. The final assumption is multivariate normality which shows the model's residuals distributed normally. Confirm heteroscedasticity by using quantile-quantile (Q-Q) plots; if the points on the plot form a straight diagonal line, then the assumption is achieved.

Multiple quantitative findings from the raw data can reveal factors associated with the research question, theory, and hypothesis (Landrum & Garza, 2015). Missing data can occur because of low response rates and participants needing to understand the questions (Brandon et al., 2014). Missing data were addressed, including eliminating incomplete surveys and issuing more surveys through SurveyMonkey until enough participants submitted completed surveys to obtain a statistically valid sample. The sample comprised 150 participants from an unknown population of direct support professionals.

The strength of the direction between the association between variance ranges from values -1.0 to +1.0. A perfect correlation of +1.0 indicates the relationship between

the variables (Barnham, 2015). A negative correlation below -1.0 indicates a negative relationship between the independent and dependent variables (Fantahun et al., 2014). The study did not include control variables. Avoiding measurement errors requires all variables related to the theory in the research.

<div align="center">**Threats to Validity**</div>

Validity

Threats to internal validity can come from experimental procedures, treatments, or the participants (Swanson & Holton III, 2005). Internal validity threats occur because of changes the researcher makes in the participants or the tools in the experiment (Reid et al., 2014). This study is not an experimental study. External validity threats occur when the researcher draws incorrect inferences from the population (Bezzina & Saunders, 2014). The researcher used the statistical program SPSS to address threats to external validity. The SPSS program allows an individual to enter the raw data. The SPSS program will include analyzing the data with statistical tests and scatterplots.

External Validity

According to Bell et al. (2018), external validity refers to the extent to which the study findings represent a sound, generalizable understanding of the world. Generalization is a strong point in quantitative research: sample representativeness and successful analysis of sufficient statistical power help to preserve good external validity. Delimiting the population to Midwest and direct support professionals in organizations within the human health service industry may have consequences for the generalizability of the results. The threats to external validity consider why the study findings might

represent a narrow population subgroup or otherwise biased toward specific outcomes. Reporting the results, highlighted in the scope, given that the results cannot necessarily be generalized outside these contexts. A threat to external validity is using self-reported information and voluntary contribution to the study. Although self-reported data can address pragmatism and research ethics, using only voluntary participants indicates that a sample might, in a way, include self-selection bias. Unable to prevent self-selection bias, adequate adjustments to reduce it entail making study participation easy and ensuring the reporting of results addresses this limitation. The researcher anticipated external solid validity numbers.

Internal Validity

Internal validity refers to the cohesion of a study and the extent to which it answers the questions a researcher sets out to answer (Bell et al., 2018). The threats to internal validity might affect the association between the studied elements. The researcher anticipated this study will encounter acceptable validity scores by focusing on face and content validity. In determining whether the internal validity has acceptable scores, the moderator and predictor variables react with the outcome variable. The best way to ensure internal validity is to create a strong alignment between the various components of the study. This alignment began in Chapter 1. The purpose of the study originates from the research problem, and the research purpose influences the research questions. The variables are operational by using current and authenticated instruments. Using functional variables will help ensure that all the data collection measures significant variables in answering the research questions and focusing on the research

problem. One threat to internal validity is that intent to leave does not automatically predict actual turnover. Measuring turnover within the organizations would require follow-ups and access to confidential human resources data, which is not feasible now.

Construct Validity

Construct validity refers to the validity of specific constructs within a study (Bell et al., 2018). The quality of construct validity was the basis for selecting from existing, validated instrumentation. The Job Satisfaction Survey (Spector, 1985) measures job satisfaction as an existing, validated instrument with good psychometric properties for measuring the underlying construct, as evaluated through cross-validation with other measures. The researcher operationalized employee empowerment in the Employee Empowerment Questionnaire (Hayes, 2002), a well-established and validated measure of the employee empowerment construct with good psychometric properties. The researcher operationalized intent to leave using the Turnover Intention Scale (Roodt, 2004), a widely used and validated measure of turnover intention.

Validity issues could occur during the data collection process (Swanson & Holton III, 2005). The research goal of this study was to determine if a relationship exists between job satisfaction and intent to leave with employee empowerment as the moderator to assist leaders in the human health service industry in reducing turnover through an online instrument. The validity issues may include low responses from participants answering the survey and participants needing to understand the survey questions (Pan et al., 2014). An online web-based instrument will allow the participants more time to complete the survey and avoid bias (Brandon et al., 2014). In addressing

missing data, the researcher will issue the survey through SurveyMonkey until enough participants complete the survey to reach an 80% confidence level.

Ethical Procedures

The study adhered to the American Psychological Association (APA) Code of Conduct, including justice, benevolence, integrity, respect for people's rights and dignity, and responsibility. Before collecting any data, the mandatory documents to the university's IRB were submitted and approved. The IRB approval is 02-02-23-1003518. It expires on February 1, 2024. Participants can complete the JSS online or with pencil and paper.

Ethical issues may arise regarding confidentiality as the researcher did work closely with multiple regions within Indiana and may know those who participated in the study. However, a solution was to refer to each participant by numbers and not record what location the participant works. Another solution was to ensure that no one from the organization was involved in the data analysis to avoid deductive disclosures. Ensuring anonymity is of the utmost importance in research, as there is respect for privacy and protection from retaliation.

Summary

Chapters 2 and 3 featured an extensive review of the relational nature of the variables and the consequent choice to use a quantitative approach. A qualitative methodology was not appropriate for this study because of the relational nature of the intended variables. The population was from organizations in the human health service industry throughout the United States. The study participants were direct support

professionals who currently work for organizations within the industry. The sample size

was determined using the G*Power tool, which included accounting for the possible

attrition of participants. Written permission was received to use the instruments from

their respective authors and uploaded the study instruments into SurveyMonkey. The

survey results were downloaded into the SPSS statistical software and analyzed the data.

Chapter 4 provides an overview of the study's results after completing the data analysis.

Chapter 4: Results

Introduction

The purpose of this quantitative study is to determine if employee empowerment moderated the relationship between job satisfaction (salary, promotion, supervision, benefits, contingent rewards, conditions, coworkers, work itself, and communication) and intent to leave for direct care staff who work with individuals with intellectual and developmental disabilities. This chapter provides a synopsis of this study's results and offers an analysis of the data and a description of the study participants.

Data Collection

Data was collected over four weeks from direct support professionals via Facebook. The participants currently work at human services agencies throughout the United States. A total of 6,564 people were contacted, and 155 completed the surveys via the online survey system. During the data cleaning, one discrepancy occurred; five participants were not considered individuals not currently working in direct care. The five participants not presently working as DSPs were removed from the data analysis. Sample size estimation included in Chapter 3 indicated that a total of 123 participants would be needed for the sample to have statistical power. Of the 150 participants, the sample was predominately female. Gender was coded for analyses as Male = 1, Female = 2. The participants' ages ranged from 19-75, with an average age of 43.40. The participants' years of experience ranged from 1 month to 48 years, with the average work experience in the human health service industry of 12.742 years.

Table 1

Participant Demographics

Gender of Direct Support Professionals

	N	*%*
Male	17	11.3
Female	133	88.7

Age of Direct Support Professionals

Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
19.0	75.0	43.4	13.24

Years of Experience with Direct Support Professionals

Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
0.10	48.00	12.742	10.685

Results

Areas of Job Satisfaction and Intent to Leave

The primary hypothesis tested in this dissertation hypothesized if job satisfaction predicted the employee's intent to leave. The first assumption is a linear relationship between job satisfaction and the intention to leave. The linear relationship between job satisfaction and intention to leave ensure a linear relationship exists. The relationship between job satisfaction and intent to leave is linear. However, when subscales broke down job satisfaction, possible violations were found with fringe benefits, pay, and promotion. The low correlation coefficients between intent to leave and fringe benefits (R

= -0.07), pay (R = -0.31), and promote (R = -0.31) indict that these subscales may not

function in a linear regression model.

Figure 1

Linear Relationship

Scatter Plot of Job Satisfaction by Intent to Leave

Scatter Plot of Job Satisfaction by Intent to Leave
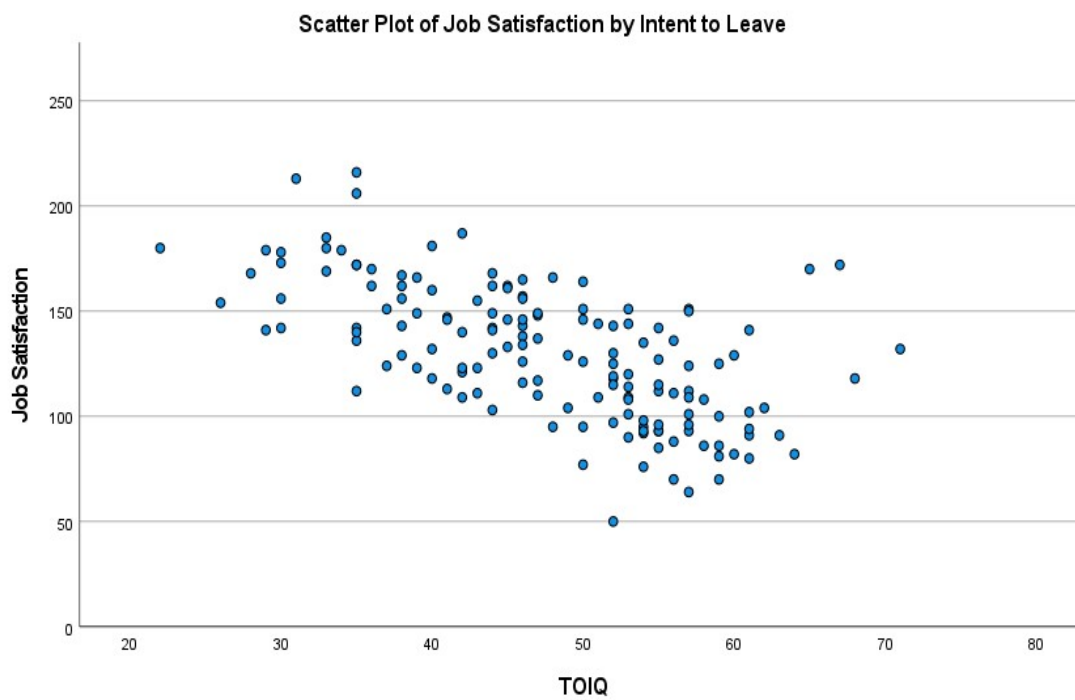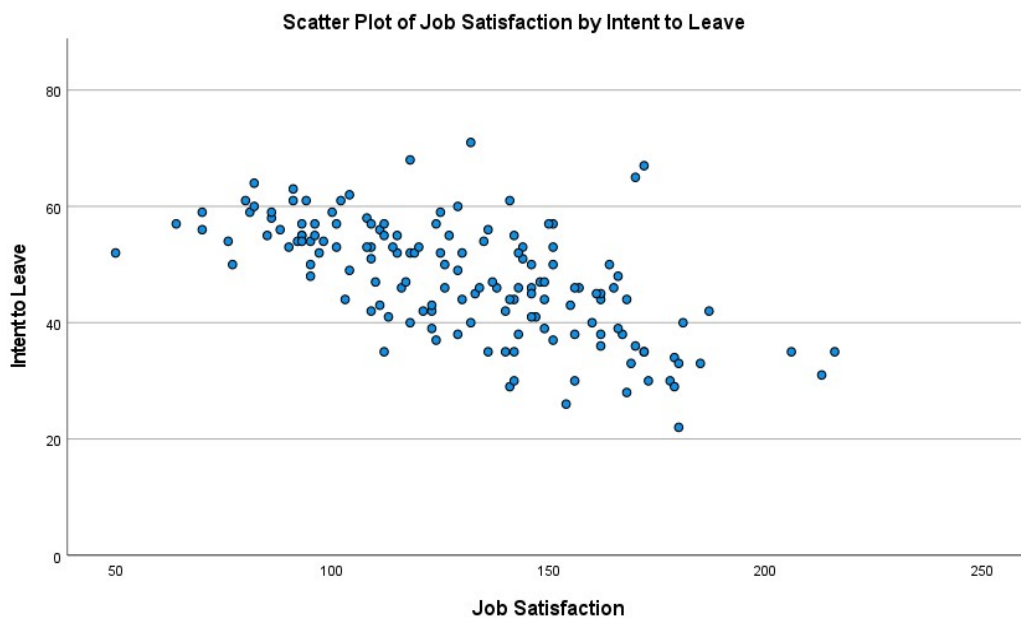
The second assumption is independence. The Durbin-Watson statistic for the data is 1.882 (See Table 2), indicating no correlation between residuals. Since the value is close to 2, the data meets the criteria, errors are independent, and it can be assumed that errors are independent.

Table 2

Independence

Model	R	R Squared	Adjusted R Squared	Std Error of the Estimate	Durbin-Watson
1	.627a	.393	.389	7.672	1.882

The third assumption is that there is homoscedasticity. The data does not have an evident pattern; points are equally dispersed throughout the X and Y axes (see Figure 2). The assumption is false for job satisfaction and intent to leave.

Figure 2

Homoscedasticity

Scatterplot
Dependent Variable: JSSTOT

Scatterplot
Dependent Variable: TOIQ
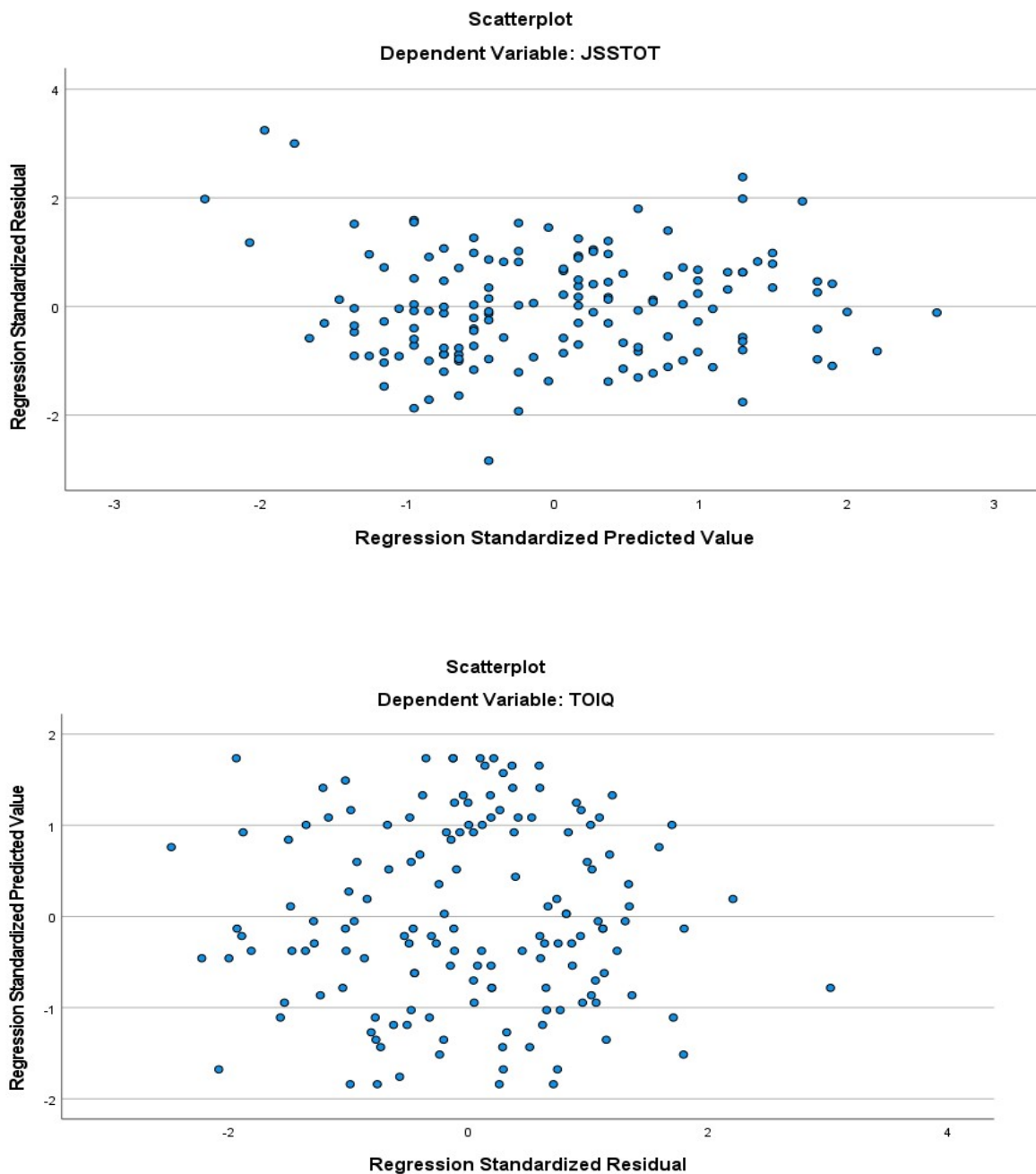
The fourth assumption is that variables have a normal distribution. The was seen

in all variables except pay. Job satisfaction and intent to leave has a negative skewness to

the Q-Q Plot (See Figure 3). The normality assumption is achieved since the points on the plot form a straight diagonal line. The pay subscale has a skewed distribution (also violates Assumption 1).

Figure 3

Normality: Q-Q Plot

Normal Q-Q Plot of JSSTOT

Transforms: natural logarithm, difference(1)

Normal Q-Q Plot of TOIQ

Transforms: natural logarithm, difference(1)
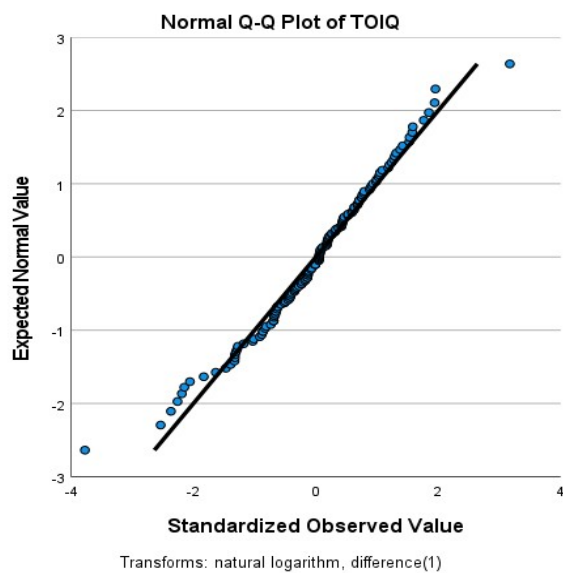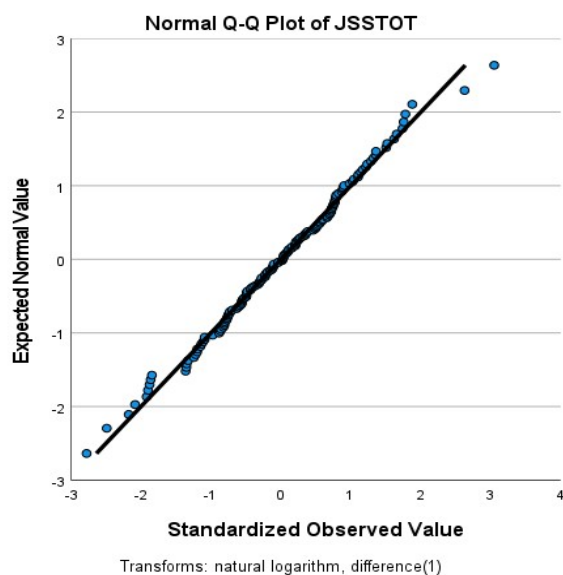
The final assumption is that there is a lack of multicollinearity between variables. Tests to see if the data met the assumption of collinearity indicated that multicollinearity was not a concern (Intent to Leave, Tolerance = 1.00, VIF = 1.00) (See Table 3).

Table 3

Multicollinearity

	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients			Collinearity Statistics	
	B	Std Error	Beta	t	Sig.	Tolerance	VIF
Constant	227.959	10.191		22.368	<.001		
Intent to Leave	-2.051	.210	-.627	-9.785	<.001	1.00	1.00

Linear regression analysis was used to test this hypothesis, with each of the nine areas of job satisfaction (salary, promotion, supervision, benefits, contingent rewards, conditions, coworkers, work itself, and communication) and the intent to leave. The total scores of the Job Satisfaction Survey resulted in a regression equation of moderate accuracy (see Graph 1). The Cronbach Alpha (0.655) was assessed to determine the reliability coefficients and the measure of internal consistency of the JSS and TIS (see Table 4).

Table 4

Correlation Matrix

	Mean	Std. Deviation	Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
JSS Total	130.27	32.117	.842	.642
EEQ	29.37	12.306	.914	.655
TIS	47.62	9.813	.788	.792

Figure 4

Linear Regression Job Satisfaction and Turnover Intention
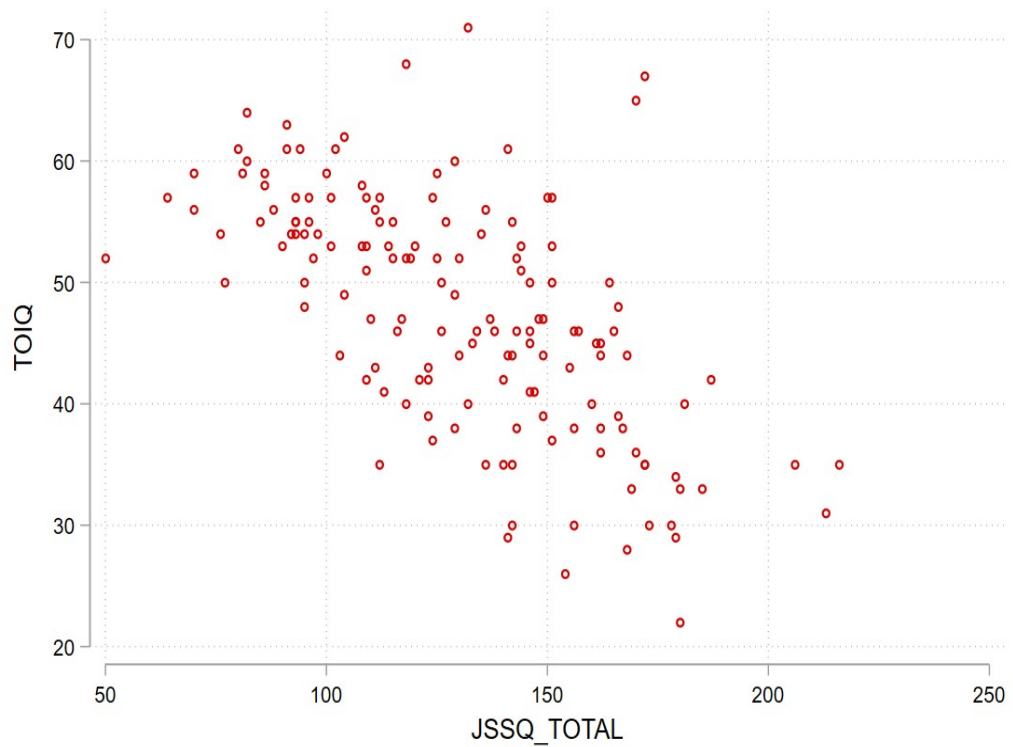
For the linear regression, supervisor, contingent rewards, operating conditions, nature of work, and communication had the strongest negative correlation with turnover intention. Since the nature of work is likely to remain the same, managers should focus on communication, supervisor, contingent rewards, and operating conditions. Pay, promotion, fringe benefits, and coworkers did not have a statistically significant impact when the other values were included but may have stand-alone impacts (based on the single regressions in Table 4, they do – but they share an impact with the other variables and so once those are accounted for, the impact of pay, and promotion. As shown in Table 5, the first row is the variable, and the second row is the constant. A way to correct

the violated assumption is integrating a nonlinear transformation to the dependent or

independent variables.

Table 5

Linear Regression Model Summaries

Model	F	df	p	Adj. R2	RMSE	Coeff.	Std. Err.	t	p
Total	95.72	(1, 148)	<0.01	0.39	7.67	72.57	2.63	27.64	<0.01
						-0.19	0.02	-9.79	<0.01
Pay	15.93	(1, 148)	<0.01	0.091	9.36	-0.58	0.14	-3.99	<0.01
						52.85	1.52	34.84	<0.01
Promotion	16.137	(1, 148)	<0.01	0.09	9.35	-0.55	0.14	-4.02	<0.01
						54.36	1.84	29.48	<0.01
Supervisor	58.98	(1, 148)	<0.01	0.28	8.33	-0.85	0.11	-7.68	<0.01
						63.41	2.17	29.29	<0.01
Benefits	0.77	(1, 148)	0.38	-0.002	9.82	-0.13	0.15	-0.88	0.38
						49.25	2.03	24.32	<0.01
Rewards	76.56	(1, 148)	<0.01	0.34	7.99	-1.07	0.12	-8.75	<0.01
						59.88	1.55	38.74	<0.01
Procedures	42.81	(1, 148)	<0.01	0.22	8.67	-0.99	0.15	-6.54	<0.01
						61.34	2.21	27.71	<0.01
Coworkers	37.44	(1, 148)	<0.01	0.2	8.8	-0.81	0.13	-6.11	<0.01
						61.58	2.39	25.75	<0.01
Nature	35.21	(1, 148)	<0.01	0.19	8.85	-0.94	0.16	-5.93	<0.01
						67.87	3.49	19.46	<0.01
Communication	71.13	(1, 148)	<0.01	0.32	8.09	-1.00	0.12	-8.43	<0.01
						61.16	1.74	35.24	<0.01

A linear regression model resulted in an adjusted R^2 of 0.39, with a Job

Satisfaction Survey weight of B = -0.19 and a constant of 72.57. No individual subscale

resulted in a model with greater predictive power than the overall score model. Linear

regression was used to combine the subscale scores into a single model. The best-fitting

model showed an adjusted R^2 of 0.44 and retained the Supervisor (B = -0.26), Contingent

Rewards (B = -0.41), Operating Conditions (B = -0.25), Nature of Work (-0.34), and

Communication (-0.34) scales. This model dropped the Pay, Promotion, Fringe Benefits, and Coworker Scales and had a constant value of 72.66 (see Table 6).

Table 6

Linear Regression Model

F	df	p	Adj. R^2	RMSE	Variable	Coeff.	Std. Err.	t	p
24.24	(5, 144)	<0.01	0.438	7.36	Supervisor	-0.26	0.13	-2.01	0.05
					Rewards	-0.41	0.17	-2.44	0.02
					Conditions	-0.25	0.16	-1.54	0.13
					Nature of Work	-0.34	0.15	-2.26	0.03
					Communication	-0.34	0.16	-2.15	0.03
					Constant	72.66	3.07	23.68	<0.01

Employee Empowerment Moderating Job Satisfaction and Intent to Leave

Moderated regression analysis was used to test the second hypothesis does employee empowerment moderate the relationship between job satisfaction and intent to leave. Process V3.3 by Andrew F. Hayes was used for moderated regression. The steps included entering job satisfaction, employee empowerment, and intent to leave variables. The Y Variable was the intent to leave, the Moderator Variable W was employee empowerment, and the X Variable was job satisfaction. The Model Number was entered as 1. The confidence intervals were placed at 95%. A generated code was selected for visualizing interactions and a mean center for the construction of products. The probe interactions were set to the default if $p < .10$ with the -1SD, Mean, +1SD, and Johnson-Neyman output.

A moderated regression model for the Job Satisfaction Survey Total Score, with interaction with Employee Empowerment, showed no statistically significant interaction (B = -0.002, p = 0.30, see Table 7). The interaction variable is above employee

empowerment for each one. The constant for the regression model, the variable being tested, employee empowerment, and the interaction between the subscale and employee empowerment. Of all Job Satisfaction Survey subscales, only the Fringe Benefits subscale showed statistically significant interaction with Employee Empowerment (B = -0.02, p=0.04). For the moderated regression – Employee Empowerment had little to no impact on Job Satisfaction's prediction of Turnover Intention.

Table 7

Interaction Model Summaries

Model	F	df	p	R² Change	Variable	Coeff.	Std. Err.	p
Total	1.07	(1, 146)	0.3	<0.01	Constant	47.94	0.7	<0.01
					Total	-0.17	0.02	<0.01
					EE	-0.1	0.06	0.09
					Interaction	-0.002	0.002	0.30
Pay	*missing				Constant	46.39	0.76	<0.01
					Pay	-0.2	0.15	0.19
					EE	-0.31	0.06	<0.01
					Interaction	-0.03	0.01	0.01
Promotion	0.075	(1, 146)	0.76	<0.01	Constant	47.42	0.75	<0.01
					Promotion	-0.33	0.14	0.02
					EE	-0.3	0.06	<0.01
					Interaction	0.0026	0.01	0.76
Supervisor	0.0003	(1, 146)	<0.001	0.99	Constant	47363	0.74	<0.01
					Supervisor	-0.67	0.12	<0.01
					EE	-0.19	0.06	<0.01
					Interaction	-0.0002	0.003	0.39
Benefits	4.31	(1, 146)	0.04	0.3	Constant	47.56	0.71	<0.01
					Benefits	-0.17	0.13	0.22
					EE	-0.36	0.06	<0.01
					Interaction	-0.02	0.01	0.04
Rewards	0.34	(1, 146)	0.56	<0.01	Constant	47.81	0.71	<0.01
					Rewards	-0.75	15	<0.01
					EE	-0.25	0.06	<0.01
					Interaction	-0.009	0.01	0.39
Procedures	0.73	(1, 146)	0.39	<0.01	Constant	47.81	0.71	<0.01
					Procedures	-0.75	0.15	<0.01
					EE	-0.25	0.06	<0.01
					Interaction	-0.009	0.01	0.39
Coworkers	0.02	(1, 146)	0.87	<0.01	Constant	47.58	0.74	>0.01
					Coworkers	-0.58	0.14	<0.01
					EE	-0.25	0.06	<0.01
					Interaction	0.002	0.01	0.88

Model	F	df	p	R² Change	Variable	Coeff.	Std. Err.	p
Nature of Work	2.15	(1, 146)	0.15	0.01	Constant	47.97	0.72	<0.01
					Nature of Work	-0.72	0.16	<0.01
					EE	-0.25	0.06	<0.01
					Interaction	-0.17	0.01	0.15
Communication	0.68	(1, 146)	0.41	<0.01	Constant	47.34	0.73	<0.01
					Communication	-0.84	0.14	<0.01
					EE	-0.16	0.06	<0.01
					Interaction	0.008	0.01	0.41

Summary

The statistical analyses suggest partial support for the hypotheses presented in this study. The primary hypotheses showed that the supervisor, contingent rewards, operating conditions, nature of work, and communication areas of job satisfaction had the most substantial relationship with the turnover intention, which was significant in the intent to leave. The secondary hypotheses in this study that employee empowerment would moderate the association between the nine areas of job satisfaction and the intent to leave were not supported. The main effect findings showed that employee empowerment had little to no effect on job satisfaction except for fringe benefits which showed statistically significant interaction with employee empowerment. Additional analyses on this might uncover different results by using a regression on employee empowerment and job satisfaction. The limitations and conclusions will be discussed more in-depth in Chapter 5. Chapter 5 will also discuss the social change implications of this research and recommendations for future research into employee empowerment and job satisfaction.

Chapter 5: Discussion, Conclusions, and Recommendations

Introduction

This quantitative study examined the relationship between job satisfaction and intent to leave and whether employee empowerment moderates that relationship. The study is unique to the field as previous research in the human health industry does not include how employee empowerment can affect the relationship between job satisfaction and intent to leave. It adds new knowledge to the field by creating better policies for organizations to retain employees and provide individuals with disabilities with consistent quality care. The target population for this study was direct support professionals in the human healthcare industry.

The focus of this study was to identify and address specific subscales in job satisfaction and the relationship those subscales have on the intent to leave to inform employers on interventions that can be used to assist current employees who may have turnover intention. Another focus of this study was determining if employee empowerment affected job satisfaction and the intent to leave. Another goal was to promote educational strategies for those in the human services field. This study took a different approach to job satisfaction and examined employee empowerment to determine if the moderating effect made a difference in intent to leave.

The primary hypothesis was whether job satisfaction predicts the employee's intent to leave. The overall scores showed that job satisfaction did predict intent to leave. The results also indicated that supervisor, contingent rewards, operating conditions, nature of work, and communication had the strongest negative correlations with turnover

intention was found to be significant. However, the pay, promotion, coworkers, and benefits were found to be not significant. The secondary hypothesis was that employee empowerment does moderate the relationship between job satisfaction and intention to leave. However, the data showed that employee empowerment did not moderate the relationship between job satisfaction and intention to leave interactions.

Interpretation of the Findings

This section includes an interpretation of the results from the linear and moderated analysis used to test the hypotheses. The results add to the current knowledge regarding overall turnover, specifically job satisfaction, and intent to stay.

Job Satisfaction Association to Intent to Leave

The primary hypothesis of this study, that job satisfaction was associated with intent to leave, was accepted. The subscales that were found to be substantial in this study were communication, supervisor, contingent rewards, and operating conditions. Job factors such as supervisory support and job satisfaction are essential to consider when investigating low retention or high turnover. These findings can enable organizations to develop strategies to intervene and reduce intention to leave and actual turnover (Benton, 2016). Bogicevic et al. (2013) stated that supervision, pay, benefits, and relationships only affect levels of employee job dissatisfaction. The first explanation could be how the employees are communicated to regarding changes within the home of the individuals being supported (roommate situation, behavior plans, or medication changes), how their supervisor treats them, the frequency and how they are recognized for their work, how they feel about taking care of the individuals, and if it is meaningful to them, and what it

takes to take care of the individuals (condition of equipment and home, the amount and quality of food and toiletries).

However, the pay, promotion, coworkers, and benefits were found to be not significant. The total areas of job satisfaction predicted more than half of the variance of intent to leave, indicating how important these results were. The results both disagree with and support prior research studies. Positive feelings about working conditions and supervisor support increase employees' loyalty toward the organization (Nguyen et al., 2014). Different influences could illuminate the opposing nature of this study to previous research. The first explanation could be the various life stages of the participants. It could be probable that the participants enrolled in college, are part-time, or have a significant other did not believe that pay, promotion, and benefits were as crucial as those facets may have already been fulfilled elsewhere. The facet for coworkers may be explained by having coworkers the participants work well with or working a shift where the participant may have limited interaction with others.

Consequently, the results did not reveal any influences on pay, promotion, coworkers, and benefits. In addition, the absence of support for the hypotheses may be caused by mediators or confounding variables. The invalidating and opposing findings within the study indicate that a relationship exists between employee job satisfaction and intent to leave are not isolated incidents.

Employee Empowerment as Moderator

The secondary hypothesis of the study was that employee empowerment would moderate the relationship between job satisfaction and intention to leave. The null

hypothesis was accepted as employee empowerment does not moderate the relationship between job satisfaction and intent to leave. The results of this study indicated that employee empowerment did not moderate the association between the facets of job satisfaction on intent to leave. Empowerment, when actualized, provides the individual with a sense of power, control, independence, confidence, decision-making, and self-governance (Breau et al., 2014; Conger et al., 1988; Farr-Wharton et al., 2012; Kanter, 1998; Singh et al., 2014). Wong et al. (2013) state that employee empowerment leads to feelings of job satisfaction and wanting to stay with their employer. The explanation could be the strict policies the organizations have to protect the individuals being supported and employees. The employees may not feel empowered due to the lack of ability to make decisions based on a situation.

The Fringe Benefits subscale showed statistically significant interaction with Employee Empowerment. This interaction could be explained by considering fringe benefits are one of the few things the employee can decide on regarding their employment at organizations within the human health service industry.

Limitations of the Study

One limitation of this study was using self-report measures, including the JSS, EEQ, and TIS. Although convenient and cost-effective, self-report measures depend solely on the participants honestly reporting their behaviors. Individuals may be more willing to give socially appropriate responses rather than truthful answers to items on the scales and report less or more job satisfaction, empowerment, and turnover intention than they felt. Response bias may have limited the validity of this study. However, the

measures used in this study have been extensively validated and found suitable for job satisfaction, employee empowerment, and intent to leave.

Another potential limitation of the study is the use of a convenience sample. It is possible that those currently working in the human service industry did not participate in the study due to feeling exhausted and too fatigued to participate. The study sample was extracted from Facebook in various groups and was limited to current employees working directly with individuals with intellectual and developmental disabilities. This recruitment method limits the capability to generalize to the population. Additionally, delimitations of the 150 study were not controlling for other factors which may influence intent to leave (such as stressors at home or health issues), which does not provide an understanding of the reason and result to turnover intention over time with changes in direct care.

Recommendations

Previous studies have indicated that a high employee turnover rate negatively impacts organizational performance and increases costs (Chen & Wu, 2017; Sun & Wang, 2017). Future research should consider using a broader population so that findings can be more comprehensive of all professions in diverse regions. It would be meaningful to look at occupations where individuals do not necessarily provide direct care to others, such as office administrative staff, talent acquisition, marketing, and finance. Alternative areas for follow-up studies should include other aspects of an employee's personal life that may make the employee susceptible to turnover intention, such as home life, religious participation, children, and continuing education. Another area that should be

considered is a longitudinal study in which employees are followed throughout their profession with an organization to determine if variations in work-life affect job satisfaction and what factors aid them in preventing their intent to leave.

Future research should also examine the areas of job satisfaction as an engagement model and not just as the negative factor of intent to leave. Notably, researchers can examine if individuals are more satisfied in one area of work than in helping occupations. Exploring this topic of work across professions would be an appropriate opportunity for study. Additionally, how are organizations sustaining a practical workload? How are organizations allowing employees to make decisions over their own responsibilities? How are employees acknowledged and compensated? Lastly, how do employees recognize their involvement in significant and appreciated work? These questions address job satisfaction and empowerment with an employee's occupation and offer insight into the intent to leave from a different perspective.

The results of this study can be used by direct care staff to explore which facets of job satisfaction the employee is more likely to experience obstacles. Additionally, human health service organizations can use the results of this study to improve training programs that incorporate job satisfaction and employee empowerment concepts. The results of this study should be published to study participants, human health service organizations, academia, and other high-stress professions.

Implications for Social Change

The social change implications of this research are to advance the understanding of job satisfaction and employee empowerment. Direct support professionals play an

essential role in improving the lives of individuals with intellectual and developmental disabilities; therefore, less direct support professional turnover helps ensure that the individuals receive quality care and can become more independent in the community. The focus was to provide valuable insight to human health service industry leaders. In addition, the results of this study may positively affect social change by acknowledging, learning, and explaining why employees may leave the organization while providing ways to improve job satisfaction and employee empowerment. Implementing measures to address job satisfaction and employee empowerment, and turnover is imperative.

Employers can develop better policies for current employees, employ prescreen testing for future employees, use engagement tools to promote healthier, happier employees, and modify work assignments for employees presently struggling with intent to leave. Reducing the gap between academia and real-world circumstances is vital so individuals can make informed choices in pursuing direct care occupations.

Conclusion

Understanding the many influences of turnover intention is highly beneficial to individuals and the organizations in which they are employed. The costs to individuals and organizations were the motivation of this research study. Specifically, this study sought to determine how employee empowerment contributed to the relationship between job satisfaction and the intent to leave. The results of this study indicated that job satisfaction was partially a significant predictor of intent to leave in the direct support professional occupation as well as employee empowerment not having a significant influence on job satisfaction and the intention to leave except for fringe benefits.

Consequently, it is ideal for employers to develop strategies that focus on those attributes to promote healthier, happier employees. The current study's findings may assist in understanding ways to reduce employee turnover, increase job satisfaction, and provide employee empowerment. Lastly, this study has added to the research on the causes and outcomes of turnover intention and has given significant insight into how individual characteristics influence each area of work-life in the development of intent to leave.

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    10.1371/journal.pone.0192126

Appendix A: Permission to Use Job Satisfaction Survey

From: Paul Spector ████████████████████
Sent: Monday, August 8, 2022, 9:18 PM
To: Ouida Butler ████████████████████
Subject: RE: Use of Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS) for Dissertation

Dear Ouida:

You have my permission to use the original JSS in your research. You can find copies of the scale in the original English and several other languages, as well as details about the scale's development and norms, in the Paul's No Cost Assessments section of my website: https://paulspector.com. I allow free use for noncommercial research and teaching purposes in return for sharing of results. This includes student theses and dissertations, as well as other student research projects. Copies of the scale can be reproduced in a thesis or dissertation as long as the copyright notice is included, "Copyright Paul E. Spector 1994, All rights reserved." Results can be shared by providing an e-copy of a published or unpublished research report (e.g., a dissertation). You also have permission to translate the JSS into another language under the same conditions in addition to sharing a copy of the translation with me. Be sure to include the copyright statement, as well as credit the person who did the translation with the year.

The JSS-2 is an improved commercial version for which there is a fee as explained here: https://paulspector.com/assessments/job-satisfaction-survey-2/.

 For additional assessment resources including an archive of measures developed by others, check out the assessment section of my website for organizational measures https://paulspector.com/assessments/ and my companion site for general and mental health measures: https://www.stevenericspector.com/mentalhealth-assessment-archive/

Thank you for your interest in the JSS, and good luck with your research.

Best,

Paul Spector, PhD
Adjunct Professor, School of Information Systems and Management
Muma College of Business
Distinguished Professor Emeritus, Department of Psychology
University of South Florida
Tampa, FL 33620

From: Ouida Butler ███████████████████████████
Sent: Monday, August 8, 2022, 8:56 PM
To: Paul Spector ████████████████████████
Subject: Use of Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS) for Dissertation

Good evening, Dr. Spector,

I am seeking permission to use the Job Satisfaction Survey that you created in my dissertation. I am attending Walden University to earn my Ph.D. in Industrial/Organizational Psychology. I will share my findings with you.

The purpose of the study is to examine the relationship between job satisfaction, intent to leave, and how employee empowerment may moderate the relationship in a sample of human health service workers focusing on employees who work directly with individuals with intellectual developmental disabilities.

I look forward to hearing from you.

Ouida Butler
Doctoral Student
Walden University
School of Industrial/Organizational Psychology

Appendix B: Permission to Use Employee Empowerment Scale

From: Bob Hayes ██████████████████████████
Sent: Tuesday, August 9, 2022, 11:15 AM
To: Ouida Butler ████████████████████
Subject: Re: Use of Employee Empowerment Questionnaire (EEQ) for Dissertation

Ouida,

Yes, you have my permission to use the Employee Empowerment Questionnaire for your research required for your PhD. All I ask is that you cite the article in your dissertation.

Good luck with your research. I would love to hear what you find!

Bob E. Hayes, PhD | Business Over Broadway
#1 influencer in Artificial Intelligence in North America
2018 CustomerThink Hall of Fame
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From: Ouida Butler ██████████████████
Sent: Monday, 8 August 2022, 03:41 PM
To: Hayes, Bob ██████████████████

Good evening, Dr. Hayes,

 I am seeking permission to use the Employee Empowerment Questionnaire that you created in my dissertation. I am attending Walden University to earn my Ph.D. in Industrial/Organizational Psychology.

The purpose of the study is to examine the relationship between job satisfaction, intent to leave, and how employee empowerment may moderate the relationship in a sample of human health service workers focusing on employees who work directly with individuals with intellectual developmental disabilities.

I look forward to hearing from you.

Ouida Butler
Doctoral Student
Walden University
School of Industrial/Organizational Psychology

Appendix C: Permission to Use Turnover Intention Scale

From: Roodt, Gerhard ▮▮▮▮▮▮▮▮▮▮▮▮▮▮

Sent: Thursday, August 11, 2022, 2:27 AM

To: Ouida Butler ▮▮▮▮▮▮▮▮▮▮▮▮▮▮▮▮▮

Subject: RE: Use of Turnover Intention Scale for Dissertation

Dear Ouida

You are welcome to use the TIS for your research (please accept this e-mail as the formal permission letter). For this purpose, please find the TIS-15 attached for your convenience. This TIS-6 (version 4) consists of the first six items high-lighted in yellow. You may use any one of these two versions. The TIS is based on the Theory of Planned Behaviour.

The only two conditions for using the TIS are that it may not be used for commercial purposes (other than for post graduate research) and second that it should be properly referenced as (Roodt, 2004) as in the article by Bothma & Roodt (2013) in the SA Journal of Human Resource Management (open access).

It is easy to score the TIS-6. Merely add the item scores to get a total score. The midpoint of the scale is 18 (3 x 6). If the total score is below 18 then it indicates a desire to stay. If the scores are above 18 it indicates a desire to leave the organisation. The minimum a person can get is 6 (6 x 1), and the maximum is 30 (5 x 6). No item scores need to be reflected (reverse scored).

It is recommended that you conduct a CFA on the item scores to assess the dimensionality of the scale. We found that respondents with a matric (grade 12) tertiary school qualification tend to understand the items better and consequently a uni-dimensional factor structure is obtained.

If you wish to translate the TIS in a local language, you are welcome to do so. It is recommended that a language expert is used in the translate - back translate method. I wish you all the best with your research!
Best regards

Prof Gert Roodt

From: Ouida Butler ▓▓▓▓▓▓▓▓▓▓▓▓▓▓▓▓▓

Sent: Wednesday, 10 August 2022, 01:45

To: Roodt, Gerhard ▓▓▓▓▓▓▓▓▓

Subject: Use of Turnover Intention Scale for Dissertation

Good evening, Dr. Roodt

I am seeking permission to use the Turnover Intention Scale that you created in my dissertation. I am attending Walden University to earn my Ph.D. in Industrial/Organizational Psychology.

The purpose of the study is to examine the relationship between job satisfaction, intent to leave, and how employee empowerment may moderate the relationship in a sample of human health service workers focusing on employees who work directly with individuals with intellectual developmental disabilities.

I look forward to hearing from you.

Ouida Butler
Doctoral Student
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