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Demographic Characteristics Predicting Employee Turnover Intentions

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Walden University

College of Management and Technology

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Tracy Hayes

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Walden University
2015

Abstract

Demographic Characteristics Predicting Employee Turnover Intentions

by

Tracy Machelles Hayes

MBA, Columbia Southern University, 2010

BSBA, Columbia Southern University, 2008

Doctoral Study Submitted in Partial Fulfillment

of the Requirements for the Degree of

Doctor of Business Administration

Walden University

December 2015

Abstract

In 2012, more than 25 million U.S. employees voluntarily terminated their employment with their respective organizations. Demographic characteristics of age, education, gender, income, and length of tenure are significant factors in employee turnover intentions. The purpose of this study was to determine if a relationship existed between age, education, gender, income, length of tenure, and employee turnover intention among full-time employees in Texas. The population consisted of Survey Monkey® Audience members who were full-time employees, residents of Texas, over the age of 18, not self-employed, and not limited to a specific employment industry. For this study, a sample of 187 Survey Monkey® Audience members completed the electronic survey. Through the proximal similarity model, the results of this study are generalizable to the United States. The human capital theory was the theoretical framework. The results of the multiple regression analysis indicated a significant relationship between age, income, and turnover intentions; however, the relationship between education, gender, and length of tenure was not statistically significant. As the Baby Boomer cohort prepares to transition into retirement, organizational leaders must develop retention strategies to retain Millennial employees. To reduce turnover intentions, organizational leaders should use pay-for-performance initiatives to reward top performers with additional pay and incentives. The social implications of these findings may reduce turnover, which may reduce employee stress, encourage family well-being, and increase participation in civic and social events.

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Dedication

I dedicate this study firstly to my Lord and savior, and secondly to my parents. I would also like to thank all of my family and friends for their encouragement and support throughout my doctoral journey.

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I thank Dr. Mohamad S. Hammoud for providing a positive learning environment and persuading me to provide my best work. I would also like to acknowledge my doctoral committee members, Dr. Alen Badal and Dr. Judith Blando. Thank you for inspiring me to become a better scholar.

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Section 1: Foundation of the Study

Employee turnover is detrimental to organizational performance and profitability because of its associated loss of valuable resources and human capital assets (Grissom, Nicholson-Crotty, & Keiser, 2012; Kim, 2012; Lambert, Cluse-Tolar, Pasupuleti, Prior, & Allen, 2012). Performance and profitability are fundamental factors in organizational performance; therefore, it is strongly beneficial for organizational leaders to understand factors that have a significant potential to predict turnover, and to affect the performance of an organization (Iverson & Zatzick, 2011). Several researchers found associations between an employee's age, education, gender, income, or length of tenure with turnover intentions, as well as antecedents to turnover (Chang & Lyons, 2012; Heavey, Holwerda, & Hausknecht, 2013; Shuck, Reio, & Rocco, 2011).

A human resource professional's ability to attract and retain human capital is relevant to the organization's compensation dispersion (Carnahan, Agarwal, & Campbell, 2012). An employee's age is a significant factor in an employee's decision to remain employed with an organization (Ng & Feldman, 2010). In general, employees increase their general and firm-specific human capital assets through educational attainment and knowledge gained in the workplace (Islam, Khan, Ahmad, & Ahmed, 2013; Ng & Feldman, 2010). Thus, individuals with advanced levels of education transfer among employers in an effort to gain compensation that is commensurate with the employee's human capital assets (Burdett, Carrillo-Tudela, & Coles, 2011). With the implementation of family-friendly human resources practices, an increased number of women are in the workplace (Kim, 2012). Gender disparities in areas such as occupational advancement

also have significant potential to influence employee turnover intentions (Jiang, Dong, Mckay, Lee, & Mitchell, 2012). Organizational leaders benefit from research that was indicative of the effects that income had on employee mobility among organizations (Carnahan, Agarwal, & Campbell, 2012).

Background of the Problem

The consequences of voluntary turnover are consonant with uncertainties in human capital investments and increased organizational expenditures (Batt & Colvin, 2011). In the United States, the cost to replace one employee is between 25%-500% of a worker's annual salary, with total expenditures as high as \$1 million because of an employee's decision to leave the organization (Ballinger, Craig, Cross, & Gray, 2011; Von Hagel & Miller, 2011). A significant depletion of financial and human resources occurs as a result of expenses relating to (a) absenteeism, (b) recruitment, (c) new employee screening and hiring, (d) orientation and training, and (e) temporary hires (Hancock, Allen, Bosco, & Pierce, 2013; Llorens & Stazyk, 2011; Pitts, Marvel, & Fernandez, 2011; Von Hagel & Miller, 2011). As a result, employee turnover intention is a significant element of consideration for the individuals concerned with organizational profitability (Grissom et al., 2012; Kim, 2012; Lambert et al., 2012).

A loss of human capital decreases organizational performance and profit generation (Ballinger et al., 2011; Llorens & Stazyk, 2011). Examples of this loss of human capital include disruptions of formal and collaborative networks, and the deterioration of employee expertise and client information (Ballinger et. al., 2011; Llorens & Stazyk, 2011). Organizational leaders use research on the significance of

employee demographics to assist in the development of programs that address the retention of human capital assets (Ballinger et al., 2011; Hancock et al., 2013).

Continuous research on employee turnover intentions is beneficial to organizational leaders because this research enables the leaders to identify of associations between demographic characteristics and employee turnover.

Problem Statement

In 2012, more than 25 million United States employees voluntarily terminated their employment with their respective organizations (Bureau of Labor and Statistics, U. S. Department of Labor, 2013). These voluntary terminations incur significant expenses to employers, with costs to replace an employee averaging from 25% to as much as 500% of an employee's annual earnings (Ballinger et al., 2011). The general business problem addressed in this study is the significant human capital losses associated with voluntary employee separations, which are detrimental to the competitiveness and profitability of an organization (Heavey et al., 2013). The specific business problem is that limited resources are available to organizational human resource practitioners to examine whether an employee's age, education, gender, income, or length of tenure are predictive factors of their turnover intentions (Buttner, Lowe, & Billings-Harris, 2012).

Purpose Statement

The purpose of this quantitative, correlational study was to determine if a significant relationship existed between employees' (a) age, (b) education, (c) gender, (d) income, (e) length of tenure, and their turnover intentions. The study was specifically designed to survey a population consisting of employees from different industries and

located in the state of Texas. The study produced results for organizational leaders and human resource practitioners to use in developing of employee retention practices, as suggested by Cardy and Lengnick (2011). The results of the regression analysis indicated an employee's age and education were predictors of the criterion variable of employee turnover intention. The population for the survey included employees from different industries within the state of Texas. Human resource practitioners reported that reductions in turnover were consistent with fewer work-family conflicts and increased youth outcomes (Williams & Glisson, 2013).

Nature of the Study

A quantitative research method was more appropriate for this study than qualitative or mixed methods because quantitative researchers investigate if a relationship exists between predictor and criterion variables (Fassinger & Morrow, 2013). The presentation of the numerical data in quantitative research is concise and easily understood by organizational leaders (Marais, 2012), which were valuable qualities for my goal of informing organizational leaders and human resource practitioners who are not dedicated researchers. Conversely, qualitative researchers use non-statistical research data to assist in the interpretation of the meaning or action within the context of a phenomenon, from an insider's point of view (Allwood, 2012; Marais, 2012). Qualitative analysis was not appropriate for this study because the analysis of the phenomena was from an outsider's perspective (Marais, 2012). A mixed methods approach was rejected because of its combination of qualitative and quantitative research methods (Venkatesh, Brown, & Bala, 2013). The inclusion of qualitative data was not appropriate for this

study because including an insider's prospective would have limited the generalizability of the study results.

I employed quantitative research methods and a correlational research design for this study. I did not choose experimental and quasi-experimental designs because this study did not include random assignment or manipulation of variables, as would have been the case with an experimental or quasi-experimental design (Cokley & Award, 2013). I employed quantitative research methods and a correlational research design. The results of the multiple regression analysis indicated the significance, direction, magnitude, nature, and strength of the relationship between the employee's (a) age, (b) education, (c) gender, (d) income, and (e) length of tenure and employee turnover intentions.

Research Question

The primary research question for this study was: To what extent, if any, does a relationship exist between the predictor variables of age, education, gender, income, length of tenure and the criterion variable employee turnover intention?

Hypotheses

- H1₀: There is no statistically significant relationship between an employee's age and turnover intention.
- H1_a: There is a statistically significant relationship between an employee's age and turnover intention.
- H2₀: There is no statistically significant relationship between an employee's level of education and turnover intention.

- H2a: There is a statistically significant relationship between an employee's level of education and turnover intention.
- H3₀: There is no statistically significant relationship between an employee's gender and turnover intention.
- H3a: There is a statistically significant relationship between an employee's gender and turnover intention.
- H4₀: There is no statistically significant relationship between an employee's income and turnover intention.
- H4a: There is a statistically significant relationship between an employee's income and turnover intention.
- H5₀: There is no statistically significant relationship between the variable of length of tenure and the employee's turnover intention.
- H5a: There is a statistically significant relationship between the variable of length of tenure and the employee's turnover intention.

Theoretical Framework

I applied the human capital theory developed by Gary S. Becker in 1962 as the theoretical framework for this study. According to this theory, individuals possess human capital assets: their abilities, competencies, experiences, and skills to generate economic value (Becker, 1962). Human capital investments are the costs associated with the development of the human capital assets; individual human capital investments are the expenditures individuals make to increase their earnings, such as investments associated with educational attainment (Becker, 1962). Organizational investments in human capital

assets, such as employee training, increase organizational performance (Becker, 1962). Investments in general human capital are transferable from one employer to another while firm-specific investments increase the productivity of one employer (Becker, 1962). Burdett et al. (2011), Couch (2011), and Grissom et al. (2012) suggested the human capital theory should be applied to employee turnover. Human capital theory was relevant to this study because human capital assets are important factors in employee turnover decisions.

Annually, 30% of American employees change jobs voluntarily because of the human capital assets gained through working (Burdett et al., 2011). Organizational investments into general human capital generally increase the rate of employee turnover because employees chose higher-paying occupations at different organizations once they obtained additional human capital assets (Wright, Coff, & Moliterno, 2014). The loss or gain of human capital assets has different outcomes for an organization and an employee depending upon the employee's age. Older employees with firm-specific knowledge are less inclined to exit an organization voluntarily than younger employees are (Couch, 2011). An employee's level of education has a varied effect on the individual and organizational level. The costs associated with human capital losses have varying effects for organizations with skilled, better-educated workers and high-performing workers because these workers have disproportionate outcomes on organizational performance than other workers have (Hancock et al., 2013; Kwon & Rupp, 2013).

Operational Definitions

Absenteeism: Absenteeism is an employee's decision, whether voluntary or involuntary, to fail to attend work during an obligatory period (Heavey et al., 2013).

Demographics: Vandenberghe and Ok (2013) defined demographics as the characteristics used to distinguish groups of a population. For the purpose of this study, the selected demographic groups of study were age, gender, level of education, income, and length of tenure.

Employee turnover: A worker's decision to exit an organization voluntarily is employee turnover (Bureau of Labor and Statistics, 2013).

Firm-specific human capital asset: Firm-specific human capital assets are the nontransferable organizational knowledge, skills, and abilities acquired by an employee (Kwon & Rupp, 2013).

General human capital asset: According to Couch (2011) general human capital assets such as education are transferable from one organization to another organization when an employee transitions.

Human capital asset: Human capital assets are resources that emerge from of one's acquired or useful competency, skill, or ability; these may include education and work experience (Ployhart & Moltierno, 2011).

Job embeddedness: Job embeddedness is an employee's perception of the forces that compel the employee to remain employed with an organization relate to feelings about job security, job satisfaction, or organizational commitment (Marckinus-Murphy, Burton, Henagan, & Briscoe, 2013).

Job satisfaction: Job satisfaction is a psychological construct consisting of an employee's attitude regarding their job experience (Guan et al., 2013).

Organizational justice: Organizational justice is an employee's perception of fairness in the workplace (Lambert et al., 2012).

Turnover intention: Lambert et al. (2012) defined turnover intention as an employee's thoughts or plans to voluntarily exit an organization.

Assumptions, Limitations, and Delimitations

Assumptions

Assumptions in research are issues the researcher believes to be valid, but proof of the issues does not exist (Locke, Spirduso, & Silverman, 2014). The assumptions relevant to this study concerned (a) Internet accessibility, (b) participant integrity, and (c) researcher objectivity. The first assumption was that all participants had access to the Internet and answered the survey questions honestly. Each of the study participants answered the survey questions using an electronic device with Internet access. This assumption of participant honesty was a critical aspect of this study because I analyzed demographic characteristics as they related to turnover intentions. SurveyMonkey[®] Audience does not release personally identifiable information of the study participants to researchers and notifies participants of their anonymity (SurveyMonkey[®], 2014c); as a result, participants had no incentive for responding in a dishonest manner, supporting this assumption.

Second, I assumed I would need to have the survey open for 4 weeks to achieve an a priori sample size of 162. However, the use of SurveyMonkey[®] Audience provided a

sufficient number of usable responses within three days. Third, I assumed the responses to the survey questions were objective. To help assure response objectivity, study participants did not personally receive any monetary gain for their responses to the survey questions.

Limitations

Limitations are the constraints to the generalizability and application of the study findings (Locke et al., 2014). The utility of the study findings may be restricted because of economic conditions during the study period. Because of the rates of unemployment and economic situation within Texas may not be the same as the rest of the United States, the study results may not be generalizable. Additionally, the use of convenience sampling techniques may restrict the generalizability of the study results to study population, as suggested by Bornstein, Jager, and, Putnick (2013).

Delimitations

Delimitations are the boundaries of the study (Locke et al., 2014). The population for this study was restricted to full-time employed workers who were over the age of 18, not self-employed, and residing in the state of Texas, without regard to their specific employment industries.

Significance of the Study

The hypothesized relationship between employee demographics and turnover intent will assist in the identification of trends throughout the labor force or within a particular industry. Predictive identification of factors of employee turnover will provide human resource practitioners the opportunity to develop comprehensive approaches to

proactively managing employee turnover intentions. If confirmed, the use of research on the demographics of the population will inform human resource practitioners and organizational leaders about methods to develop policies that include factors that influence employee perceptions. This study included information on the manner in which age, education, gender, income, and length of tenure relate to turnover.

Contribution to Business Practice

The significance of this study was the identification of the role that an employee's age, education, gender, income, and length of tenure had in employee turnover may help in the development of sustainable human resource practices. Organizational leaders and human resource practitioners can develop retention policies commensurate with increases in human capital assets. As such, comprehensive compensation packages are tantamount for employee retention (Burdett et al., 2011). Organizational leaders can use sustainable policies to assist in leveraging their human capital assets. Considering the current multi-generational workforce, effective human resource practices have the potential to generate some of the best returns for the organization's human capital investments (Couch, 2011; Hokanson, Sosa, & Vinaja, 2011).

Implications for Social Change

Human resource practitioners and organizational leaders can implement policies and programs which benefit the community as well as the organization (Luhmann, Lucas, Eid, & Diener, 2012; Ng & Feldman, 2012; Nguyen, 2013; Williams & Glisson, 2013). Policies that are beneficial to the organization include supportive work environment initiatives and embeddedness strategies. Organizational leaders use embeddedness

strategies to increase professional and community attachment (Ng & Feldman, 2012). At the organizational level, embeddedness strategies include additional benefits; however, at the community level, employees are encouraged to participate in volunteer activities (Ng & Feldman, 2012). Organizational leaders that implement family-support initiatives have lower instances of employee turnover (Wayne, Casper, Matthews, & Allen, 2013).

Wayne et al. (2013) posited that employers empowered employees by using supportive work environments to promote a sense of fulfillment and meaning among the employees. An employee's sense of empowerment at work related to decreased feelings of stress in the employee's home environment. A sense of empowerment was associated with the employee's ability to reduce the amount of stress related to work-family conflicts (Wayne et al., 2013). Luhmann et al. (2012) noted that empowered employees had more life satisfaction, and were more likely to get married or become a parent than employees with turnover intentions were. The social implications of employee turnover had different effects on youth outcomes (Ronfeldt, Loeb, & Wyckoff, 2013).

Turnover for teachers and child welfare workers related negatively to academic achievement and subsequent allegations of child neglect. Turnover for teachers was harmful to student achievement because of the associated loss of institutional memory (Ronfeldt et al., 2013). Teacher turnover related to a 6%-9.6% decrease in students' math and language arts scores. Negative outcomes for youth existed in child welfare cases of abuse and neglect. For child welfare workers, turnover related negatively to the amount of investigations for emergency responses for child neglect (Nguyen, 2013). The findings of a comparison of California counties indicated that high turnover counties had 250%

more substantiated re-abuse and re-neglect allegations than low turnover counties (Nguyen, 2013).

A Review of the Professional and Academic Literature

The research techniques for this study's literature review included bibliographic mining, review of dissertations, and keyword searching. I used Walden University's electronic library to access peer-reviewed journals and scholarly articles using the following databases: EBSCOhost, ProQuest, SAGEjournals, and Taylor and Francis Online. I also used Google Scholar for searches, identifying many references that I accessed through these research databases. I used Boolean search phrases to combine my primary search keywords with the variable terms of age, education, gender, income, and length of tenure. The primary search keywords included; *absenteeism, antecedents to turnover, human capital, job embeddedness, job satisfaction, organizational justice, turnover, and turnover intention.*

The literature search identified a large body of studies that examined employee turnover. However, a limited number of articles that examined employee perceptions of the human resource experience existed. The purpose of this study was to determine if demographic characteristics could predict employee turnover intent. The literature review was indicative of the importance that an employee's age, gender, level of education, income, and length of tenure had as it pertained to antecedents to turnover and turnover intentions. The antecedents to turnover included in the review of the literature were *job embeddedness, job satisfaction, and organizational justice*, as these antecedents were the most commonly found during the research.

The literature review for this study provided a comprehensive approach to understanding the manner in which demographic variables relate to employee turnover. The organization of this literature review includes categorical themes that were significant to the study. The literature review is an examination of 177 studies, of which 94% are peer-reviewed; 97% of these studies have a publication date between 2011 and 2014 to ensure a focus on recent literature. These studies document relevant theories, antecedents to turnover, pertinent demographic variables, and the consequences of turnover. The theories that were germane to this study were the social capital theory, leader-member exchange theory, knowledge management theory, and the human capital theory.

The most common identified antecedents to employee turnover identified through the literature review process were job embeddedness, job satisfaction, and organizational justice. The demographic variables chosen for this study to examine, based on the literature reviewed, were (a) age, (b) gender, (c) education, (d) income, and (e) length of tenure. As such, a review of the variables occurred in each of the categories and a portion of the literature review included the examination of the relationship between the individual variables and employee turnover. The review of the literature consisted of the organizational leadership role as it pertained to turnover events.

Relevant Theories

I conducted research for various theories to gain an understanding of the relationship between employee perceptions and employee turnover. Theories such as the leader-member exchange theory and the social capital theory are useful for understanding

how social interactions relate to employee turnover intentions. Knowledge management theorists provide insight into how employee turnover could affect the competitiveness and performance of an organization. The social capital, leader-member exchange, and knowledge management theories are relevant for examining the relationship between socialization on turnover. Human capital theory research was more appropriate for examining predictor and criterion measures without the inclusion of employee perceptions of socialization processes (Ng & Feldman, 2010).

Social capital theory. Social capital theorists describe social capital as resources such as network associations, norms, and trusts that facilitate collective actions of a group (Michael, 2011). Human capital differs from social capital, as human capital resources are attributes of a person's knowledge, skills, abilities, or other assets of relevance to an employer (Ployhart, Nyberg, Reilly, & Maltarich, 2014). Human capital references include individual characteristics and social capital references are pertinent to members of a group. To demonstrate the differences between human and social capital, researchers argued that the mediators for social exchanges are employee perceptions of organization support and leader-member exchanges (Colquitt et al. 2013; Michael, 2011). Social capital includes references to the shared trust among members of the organization, and social capital is representative of the organization's norms, networks, and social exchanges (Park & Shaw, 2013). Research on social exchanges is illustrative of how the employment of the exchange of resources advanced relationships between two interacting partners (Colquitt et al., 2013). Park and Shaw explained the social capital theory using

social exchanges, and Colquitt et al. explained the concepts of social exchange as the relationship between two interacting partners, and the exchange of resources.

Leader-member exchange theory. Leader-member exchanges are mediating factors of turnover intentions and employee turnover within an organization (DeConinck, 2011). The quality of the exchanges is a representation of the relationship between the leader-member dyad. Leader-member exchange quality refers to the characteristics of the interpersonal exchanges between the leader and the subordinate (Haynie, Cullen, Lester, Winter, & Svyantek, 2014). In high leader-member exchanges, subordinates feel obligated to reciprocate the support of their leaders (DeConinck, 2011). High leader-member exchange relationships are indicative of alliances of trust and cooperation (DeConinck, 2011). Supportive leader-member exchange relationships are an example of high leader-member exchanges. Additionally, supportive supervisor relationships are associated with increased employee commitment to the organization (DeConinck, 2011; Ng & Feldman, 2012).

Organizational leaders may use high leader-member exchange relationships to increase the employee's organizational commitment and performance. Organizational commitment is the psychological bond the employee has with the organization (Garg & Dhar, 2014). Leader-member exchanges are antecedents to employee performance and organizational commitment (DeConinck, 2011). Employers report increased performance levels for employees involved in high leader-member exchange relationships (DeConinck, 2011). Similarly, high leader-member exchange relationships negatively relate to turnover behavior. High-performance levels and advanced levels of

organizational commitment result in lower levels of employee turnover (DeConinck, 2011). Because leader-member exchanges and supervisory support are antecedents to organizational commitment, turnover intentions are negative consequences of leader-member exchanges (Garg & Dhar, 2014).

In addition to organizational commitment, leader-member exchange relates to job performance and employee attitudes, such as perceptions of fairness (Michael, 2011). An employee's perception of fairness is an important factor in leader-member exchanges. Additionally, perceptions of fairness or organizational justice are critical factors in social exchange relationships (Chen, Mao, Hsieh, Liu, & Yen, 2013). Organizational justice is a precursor to increased organizational commitment, and job satisfaction (Bernardin, Richey, & Castro, 2011). The type and amount of communication a leader has with his or her subordinate may be a factor in the employee's perception of the leader-member exchange relationship. A relationship exists between supportive supervisor communications and increased employee job dedication (Michael, 2011). Quality leader-member exchange relationships are an antecedent to supportive supervisor behaviors (Michael, 2011).

The leaders' actions in quality leader-member exchanges influence employee attitudes and behaviors that concern job satisfaction, task performance, and turnover intentions (Michael, 2011). In the exchange process, a positive relationship exists between supportive supervisor communication and leader-member exchange quality (Michael, 2011). A direct relationship exists between procedural justice and leader-

member exchange (Chen et al., 2014). As such, turnover intentions are low for employees that experience fair exchanges with their supervisors.

Supportive supervisor communication relates positively to increased efforts of subordinates to reciprocate employer behaviors (Michael, 2011). A relationship existed between supportive environments and decreased turnover intentions (Michael, 2011). Social exchange relationships positively correlate to individual characteristics such as job performance, job satisfaction, and perceptions organizational justice (DeConinck, 2011; Michael, 2011). However, poor quality social exchange relationships have a negative effect of competitiveness of the organization. The loss of knowledge caused by employee turnover negatively correlates with organizational characteristics such as the organization's competitiveness and the organization's performance capabilities (Durst & Wilhelm, 2013; Hau, Lee, & Young-Gul, 2013).

According to Chen et al. (2014) and Bernardin et al. (2011), quality leader-member exchanges related to the employee's perception of fairness within the organization. DeConinck (2011), Michael (2011), and Haynie et al. (2014) postulated that feelings of member reciprocity and support were indicative of quality leader-member exchanges. Conversely, Michael (2011) and Hau et al. (2013) determined that poor leader-member exchange quality negatively affected organizational performance and profitability. The findings of Ng and Feldman's (2010) study were consistent with Garg and Dhar (2014) who suggested that leader-member exchanges were antecedents to organizational commitment.

Knowledge management theory. Knowledge management is the process of using, sharing, and developing intellectual capital for organizational use (Hau et al., 2013). Researchers have examined knowledge management from a knowledge sharing perspective as well as a knowledge loss perspective (Durst & Wilhelm, 2013; Hau et al., 2013). Tacit and explicit are the two types of knowledge that are relevant to this study. The loss of tacit and explicit knowledge from employee turnover impedes an organization's competitiveness (Durst & Wilhelm, 2013; Hau et al., 2013). Tacit knowledge is the knowledge that an individual possesses which causes the person to behave or work in a particular manner (Scully, Buttigieg, Fullard, Shaw, & Gregson, 2013). Explicit knowledge is information contained in manuals and written documents (Hau et al., 2013).

In small firms, select individuals possess tacit and explicit knowledge simultaneously (Durst & Wilhelm, 2013). Turnover intentions by individuals that possess tacit and explicit knowledge are disadvantageous to a firm of any size. The knowledge loss associated with employee turnover is more detrimental for smaller firms than knowledge loss is for larger firms (Durst & Wilhelm, 2013). To mitigate the effects of knowledge loss due to turnover, firm leaders should increase the amount of knowledge sharing within the firm. Increased social capital, reciprocity, and enjoyment are contributing factors for knowledge sharing intentions (Hau et al., 2013). Organizations benefit from tools that increase the knowledge sharing efforts of the organization's members (Durst & Wilhelm, 2013; Hau et al., 2013). Durst and Wilhelm determined knowledge loss was an inhibiting factor for the competitiveness of the organization,

while Hau et al. suggested using social exchanges to develop knowledge sharing strategies to mitigate the risks associated with knowledge loss.

Human capital theory. A tenet of the human capital theory is that an individual's knowledge, skills, and abilities can generate income (Ng & Feldman, 2010). An individual's level of education is a determining factor in assessing salary and promotion potential (Ng & Feldman, 2010). There is an assumption that an employee should receive additional pay as employee acquires higher levels of education. Education is a general human capital asset because educational attainment is transferable between employers and education contributes to employee success (Ng & Feldman, 2010). Because education is a general human capital asset, the investment into the employee's education may have varied effects on the employee's turnover intention. Organizations benefit from advances in individual human capital assets. Knowledge gained from increases in general human capital assets is positively associated with increases in organizational productivity (Wright et al., 2014). Organizations benefit from employer-sponsored tuition reimbursement programs as a form of nonwage compensation (Wright et al., 2014).

Human capital investments increase employee earnings and organizational productivity (Ng & Feldman, 2010). However, an employee may exhibit turnover intentions without regard to human capital investments of the employer. A positive relationship exists between increased human capital and turnover intentions (Wright et al., 2014). In order for employers to get the positive returns from human capital investments, the employer should impose mobility constraints. When employers impose

mobility constraints for employees that receive tuition reimbursement, turnover is less likely to occur (Wright et al., 2014).

While Ng and Feldman related increases in human capital assets to increases in promotional potential and earnings, Wright et al. surmised that increases in human capital related to increases in turnover intentions. Wright et al. suggested employers impose mobility constraints on employees who benefited from the organizational human capital investments to lessen the risks associated with employee turnover.

A tenet of the human capital theory is that wages increase during a worker's life cycle because of the knowledge and skills the worker gained through employment (Burdett et al., 2011). New market entrants often terminate employment for better paying occupations once they gain work experience, thus, new market entrants experience higher turnover rates than experienced workers (Burdett et al., 2011; Hokanson et al., 2011). As such, turnover may occur more often in the Millennial generation than in the Baby Boomer generation. Organizational leaders need to address the retention concerns of the younger workforce to stay competitive in the marketplace (Hokanson et al., 2011). A significant percentage of wage increases occur when individuals change jobs (Burdett et al., 2011).

Burdett et al. and Hokanson agreed that an employee's age and salary were predictors of the employee's turnover intention. The average employee length of tenure of Generations X and Y was three years (Hokanson et al., 2011). Individuals that graduated from high school demonstrated a 50% wage increase during the first ten years of their working life (Burdett et al., 2011). As employees grow older, more opportunities

exist for the employee to remain employed with the same organization. The older-aged work groups averaged 15 years employment with the organization (Hokanson et al., 2011). Younger workers with low levels of knowledge were associated with shorter length of tenure than older workers were (Hokanson et al., 2011). As workers gained more experience, the workers sought better-paying occupations than workers with less experience sought (Burdett et al., 2011).

Researchers demonstrated how the loss of human capital affected organizational profitability (Bryant & Allen, 2013). The loss of human capital associated with employee turnover may affect the profitability of the organization for various reasons. The consequences of turnover are organizational disruption, loss of human and social capital, increased recruitment cost, and costs associated with newcomer training (Hancock et al., 2013). To decrease the costs associated with turnover, organizational leaders should implement strategies that are conducive to employee retention. Increased training and development opportunities are associated with low levels of turnover (Kim, 2012). Retention strategies such as training and development are associated with increased organizational performance. A negative relationship between employee turnover and organizational performance exists (Hancock, 2013).

Antecedents to Turnover

Identification of the antecedents to turnover assisted organizational leaders in the development of programs that reduced the costs associated with employee turnover (Chang, Wang, & Huang, 2013). The antecedents to turnover related to the employee's perception of the work environment. Job embeddedness, job satisfaction, and

organizational justice are mediating and moderating factors for organizational performance and employee turnover (Bouckenooghe, Raja, & Butt, 2013; Gillet, Gagne, Sauvagere, & Fouquereau, 2013; Karatepe, 2013; Robinson, Kralj, Solnet, Goh, & Callan, 2014; Wayne et al., 2013). Mediating variables, such as job embeddedness, can explain why turnover occurs within an organization. Moderating variables, such as age, education, and gender, can explain when turnover is likely to occur. Researchers used the mediating effects of the antecedents to turnover to describe the psychological significance of the variables (Heavey et al., 2013; Regts & Molleman, 2013). The moderating effects are indicative of when the events in the study would hold true (Collins & Mossholder, 2014; Harris, Li, & Kirkman, 2013; Sun, Chow, Chiu, & Pan, 2013).

Job embeddedness. Job embeddedness is the manner in which employees enmesh with the organization and the community where the organization operates (Collins, Burrus, & Meyer, 2014). Organizational leaders use job embeddedness strategies to increase employee commitment. When employees attach, or commit, themselves to their employment agency, fewer incidents of turnover occur within the organization (Heavey et al., 2013). Organizational leaders need to adopt strategic human resource management practices that facilitate increased employee commitment and reductions in turnover (Tse, Huang, & Lam, 2013).

Organizational leaders use resources such as compensation packages and supervisor support channels to attract and retain employees as well as foster an environment for job embeddedness (Selden, Schimmoeller, & Thompson, 2013). Without the use of attraction and retention strategies, an association of decreased perceptions of

job embeddedness exists when intentions to remain with the organization decrease (Heavey et al. 2013). Therefore, when job embeddedness does not exist in the organization, turnover intentions increase. Perceptions of job insecurity are also indicative of decreased perceptions of job embeddedness (Heavey et al., 2013). The employee's internal network is a delineating factor for feelings of job embeddedness (Heavey et al., 2013).

Entry-level employees in the hospitality industry experienced higher turnover rates than employees that were not in entry-level positions (Tews, Michel, & Ellingson, 2013). The increase in turnover rates for entry-level employees may have been a result of the employee's age. The three critical events that have an effect on an employee's decision to exit an organization are external personal events, external professional events, and internal networks (Tews, Stafford, & Michel, 2014). Constituents, or coworkers, have a significant role in a young workers attitude about job embeddedness (Tews et al., 2013; Tews et al., 2014). As such, it is likely that older workers, or individuals that were not in entry-level positions, would exhibit fewer turnover intentions. Positive internal work events and constituent attachment have a negative relationship with turnover, while external personal and professional events, both positive and negative, have a positive correlation with employee turnover (Tews et al., 2014).

Young workers with constituent attachments in the workplace demonstrated a 24% decrease in turnover (Tews et al., 2014). Constituent attachment has a positive relationship with retention within the organization (Tews et al. 2013). In order to retain younger workers, human resource practitioners may implement knowledge sharing

strategies that are favorable for collaborative team building. In industries with socially intense environments, constituent attachment is a critical factor for job embeddedness (Tews et al., 2014). Young workers use the positive interactions of emotional support as a coping mechanism, as the support helps to relieve burnout and exhaustion, as well as foster an environment for job embeddedness (Tews et al., 2013). Emotional support is associated with reduced turnover for younger workers, because the development of friendships is fundamental to the growth of adult identity for the younger worker group (Tews et al., 2013).

Marckinus-Murphy et al. (2013) examined employee attitudes about job embeddedness during a period of the economic downturn. An employee's decision to turnover is less likely to occur when fewer alternatives for employment exist. Ng and Feldman (2010) examined employee attitudes in relation to employee length of tenure. The researchers for both studies had similar hypotheses regarding job embeddedness. Marckinus-Murphy et al. (2013) examined the antecedents to job embeddedness and the manner in which job embeddedness affected an employee's attitudes and actions. Ng and Feldman (2010) examined the relationship between organization length of tenure and job behaviors that affect performance.

During the Great Recession, employee perceptions of job insecurity increased because of a surge in employee layoffs (Marckinus-Murphy et al., 2013). As such, employees experienced longer lengths of tenure with their organization when fewer job opportunities were available. However, a negative relationship existed between the length of tenure and employee performance. Accentuating factors for employee length of tenure

are core-task performance, citizenship behavior, and counterproductive behaviors (Ng & Feldman, 2010). Core tasks are the behaviors required to fulfill the requirements of an occupation whereas, citizenship behaviors are additional duties that employees performed to promote teamwork and organizational effectiveness (Ng & Feldman, 2010). The studies conducted by Marckinus-Murphy et al. and Ng and Feldman had similar results. The lack of core task performance, citizenship behavior, or perceptions of job insecurity and counterproductive behaviors are antecedents to job embeddedness (Marckinus-Murphy et al., 2013; Ng & Feldman, 2010).

Job embeddedness is a mediating factor between job insecurity and intentions to remain with an organization (Marckinus-Murphy et al., 2013). A positive relationship exists between organizational lengths of tenure and core-task performance as well as citizenship performance (Ng & Feldman 2010). Employee perceptions of job insecurity correlate with decreased perceptions of job embeddedness (Marckinus-Murphy et al., 2013). During economic downturns, organizational leaders should develop opportunities to increase core-task performance and citizenship behaviors. Human resource practitioners can facilitate training initiatives to increase core-task performance, as well as develop team-building activities to support citizenship behaviors. Conversely, employees with longer lengths of tenure exhibit more counterproductive behaviors than their counterparts exhibit (Ng & Feldman 2010). Employees with organizational length of tenure are less likely to conform to group norms because of the senior employee's perceived freedom to voice their opinion (Ng & Feldman 2010).

Job satisfaction. Job satisfaction is an employee's positive emotional state regarding the employee's occupational experiences (Abii, Ogula, & Rose, 2013; Liu, Mitchell, Lee, Holtom, & Hinkin, 2012). Researchers that categorized job turnover by the specific reason analyzed the effects of job satisfaction as it related to the turnover reason (Lee, 2013). External factors such as family well-being and job alternatives are relevant to an employee's level of job satisfaction. Turnover reasons include individuals that quit for family reasons, -to look for a job, and-to take another job (Lee, 2013). Data analysis for a two-year period was sufficient to examine the relationship between job satisfaction and employee turnover (Lee, 2013; Liu et al., 2012). To determine whether job satisfaction was a predictor of employee turnover, Lee (2013) analyzed different types of turnover. Liu et al. (2012) analyzed changes in the job satisfaction trajectory and compared individual and unit turnover intentions.

The combination of increased individual and unit job satisfaction relate to decreases in turnover intentions (Liu et al., 2012). Job dissatisfaction is predictive of turnover, but the level of dissatisfaction varies between the types of turnover (Lee, 2013). Job alternatives were better predictors of turnover than family well-being was. Individuals that quit their jobs to look for another, and those that left to take another job were twice as likely to quit when compared to employees who quit for family reasons (Lee, 2013). The type of shift an employee worked was another predictor of job satisfaction. In a similar study that included an analysis of the behaviors of entry-level employees, the researchers found employees that worked mixed, afternoon, and night

schedules had a 136% higher risk of turnover than employees that worked day shift (Martin, Sinclair, Lelchook, Wittmer, & Charles, 2012).

An employee's generational cohort and attitudes toward work are factors of consideration for the employee's level of job satisfaction. An examination of generational differences occurred through the analysis of work attitudes, job satisfaction, job security, and turnover intentions (Mencil & Lester, 2014). The analysis of employee work schedules was beneficial for determining the level of job satisfaction (Pitts et al., 2011). For job satisfaction, Mencil and Lester did not find generational differences; however, Pitts et al. did find differences within the generational cohorts. There were more generational similarities than differences for job satisfaction, satisfaction with pay, and turnover intentions (Mencil & Lester, 2014). In the federal government, employees that transition to jobs within the government are able to transfer benefits such as vacation time and sick leave. Middle-aged federal employees were more likely to seek new employment within the federal government, but less likely to leave for employment opportunities outside of the government (Pitts et al., 2011). As job satisfaction increased, turnover intentions decreased (Pitts et al., 2011). There were slight differences in the generational perceptions of job security (Mencil & Lester, 2014). Mencil and Lester (2014) noted the millennial generation was more satisfied with career development and advancement opportunities than the other generations. Workplace satisfaction was the strongest predictor of turnover intention, followed by demographic variables (Pitts et al., 2011).

Factors such as perceptions of fair pay, stress, and length of tenure are moderators of job satisfaction and turnover intentions in academic institutions (Nitesh, Nandakumar, & Asok, 2013). Job satisfaction is a mediator in the relationship between employee performance and voluntary turnover (Bouckenooghe et al., 2013). Rewards such as promotions, pay for performance, and pay growth are motivating factors for high-performers to stay with an organizations (Bouckenooghe et al., 2013). A good fit exists when an employee's needs and desires are compatible with the employee's occupation. An association exists between increases in fit and support with decreases in turnover intentions for academia (Nitesh et al., 2013). When comparing fit, support, and satisfaction with employment in other institutions, the statistical relationship did not have the same results. Neither fit nor support, nor satisfaction had a significant relationship with turnover intention for employment with other institutions (Nitesh et al., 2013). Perceived pay for performance highly correlated with the employee's job satisfaction (Bouckenooghe et al., 2013). Job satisfaction had statistically significant mediating effects on the relationship between performance and voluntary turnover (Bouckenooghe et al., 2013).

Organizational justice. Organizational justice is the employee's perception of fairness (Collins & Mossholder, 2014). The three types of organizational justice are procedural, distributive, and interactional justice (Collins & Mossholder, 2014; Prathamesh, 2012). Fairness perceptions relate to the employee's attitude concerning the manner in which supervisors address the employee's concerns. A relationship exists between procedural justice and employee perceptions of fair practices without regard to

the employee's personal benefit (Prathamesh, 2012). For distributive justice the focus is on the employee perceptions of fairness in outcomes (Prathamesh, 2012). The procedure followed to arrive at a decision is irrelevant, as long as the employee perceives that the outcome is fair. Last, interactional justice is the employee's perception of the amount of dignity and respect given to the employee in the decision-making process (Collins & Mossholder, 2014).

Interactional justice has more of an effect on turnover intentions than the other types of justices (Prathamesh, 2012). The level of job embeddedness may decrease for individuals that have unfair justice interactions. A relationship exists between embedded employees that receive fair treatment and increased levels of organization citizenship behavior, or productive outcomes (Collins & Mossholder, 2014). Embedded employees that have unfair interactions also have increased undesirable behaviors (Collins & Mossholder, 2014). The correlation between distributive and procedural justice is a result of the influence of the interactional justice of turnover intent (Prathamesh, 2012).

Employee perceptions of fairness had mediating and moderating effects in leader-member exchange relationships. Organizational justice perceptions require interactional socialization processes; thus, the research included the examination of leader-member exchange relationships, organization citizenship behavior, and fairness climate assessments as mitigating factors (Kim & Mor-Barak, 2014; Sun et al., 2013). To examine the psychological difference that employee perceptions had on turnover intention Kim and Mor-Barak, and Sun et al. examined the leader-member dyad and the supportive organizational culture. Differences in perceptions of organizational support

and leader-member exchanges were mediating factors for turnover intentions (Kim & Mor-Barak, 2014). In a similar study, researchers developed an integrated model to assess the moderating effects of procedural fairness in the relationship between leader-member exchange and organization citizenship behavior (Sun et al., 2013).

The results of the studies were indicative of results from previous research because leader-member exchange is positively predictive of both procedural and distributive justice (Sun et al., 2013). A negative relationship exists between distributive justice and turnover intentions; however, a positive association exists between procedural justice and distributive justice (Campbell, 2013). Procedural justice is positively associated with turnover intentions (Campbell, 2013). Outcome favorability and organization citizenship behavior relate positively to leader-member exchanges (Sun et al., 2013). A strong procedural fairness climate is a moderator of the effects that leader-member exchanges have on organization citizenship behavior (Sun et al. 2013).

Gender disparities were moderators of perceptions of fairness, and turnover within an organization (Jepsen & Rodwell, 2012; Nishii, 2013). Jepsen and Rodwell, and Nishii conducted an analysis of the differences between male and female perceptions of organizational justice, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and turnover intention the results were indicative of dissimilarities between the genders.

Organizational leaders should develop policies that are consistent with treating employees of both genders equally in order to facilitate an inclusive work environment. In inclusive climates, fair treatment of each member of the group exists, as does the inclusion of each member in the decision-making process (Nishii, 2013). Through the

development of inclusive climates, organizational leaders reduce concerns of gender disparities (Nishii, 2013).

In inclusive climates, fewer gender disparities existed. For males and females, distributive justice was a significant predictor of job satisfaction and organizational commitment (Jepsen & Rodwell, 2012). Procedural justice was a predictor of turnover intentions for only the male respondents (Jepsen & Rodwell, 2012). For male and female respondents, informational justice was a predictor of job satisfaction, and for female respondents' informational justice was a predictor of organizational commitment (Jepsen & Rodwell, 2012). Climate inclusion was a moderator of gender diversity and relationship conflict as well as the relationship between gender diversity and task conflict (Nishii, 2013). Because of the significance of the relationships between variables, climate inclusion had positive effects on job satisfaction and negative effects on employee turnover (Nishii, 2013).

Demographic Characteristics

Organizational leaders needed to acknowledge situational factors, such as employee demographics, that effected turnover intentions within the organization (Walsh & Bartikowski, 2013). Work outcomes had varying effects at different periods in an employee's lifetime (Zaniboni, Truxillo, & Fraccaroli, 2013). Therefore, the attainment of human capital assets could be a factor in an employee's turnover intention. Advanced levels of education were general human capital assets as well as opportunities for personal development (Hofstetter & Cohen, 2014). The length of tenure with an organization increased an employee's firm-specific skills (Hofstetter & Cohen, 2014;

Michel, Kavanagh, & Tracey, 2013). Increases in firm-specific skills related to job satisfaction and employee length of tenure (Michel et al., 2013). To determine the conditions that effect turnover intentions, researchers must control for moderating variables such as gender. Gender disparities had a moderating effect on psychological contracts and turnover intentions (Walsh & Bartikowski, 2013). Differences in expected and actual compensation negatively related to organizational commitment and job satisfaction (Chen et al., 2014).

Age. An employee's age had varying effects on turnover decisions (Teclaw, Osafuke, Fishman, Moore, & Dyrenforth, 2014). The expectations were, by 2020 more than 3.6 million people in the United States would exit the workforce because of age or retirement (Toosi, 2012). It is important for organizational leaders to manage knowledge transfer strategies to prepare for the exit of experienced employees from the workforce. Furthermore, human resource practitioners should develop retention strategies that are consistent with the needs and desires of younger workers. Between the years 1998 and 2010, individuals aged 18-25 changed jobs an average of 6.3 times (U. S. Department of Labor, 2013). In many cases, older employees thought fewer job opportunities were available and chose to remain employed with an organization (Wren, Berkowitz, & Grant, 2014). An employee's age had an effect on the employee's perceptions of satisfaction and commitment (Lambert et al., 2012; Wren et al., 2014).

A comparison of older and younger workers was indicative of differences in labor force mobility and turnover intentions (Bjelland et al., 2011; Couch, 2011; Lopina, Rogelberg, & Howell, 2012). The number of employee separations declined for

employees that were 50-60 (Bjelland et al., 2011). Differences existed between United States workers and workers in Germany. Workers in the United States had shorter median employment length of tenure and higher labor turnover than workers in Germany (Couch, 2011). Beyond the age range of the mid-30s, German workers started fewer new jobs than American workers did (Couch, 2011). Because American workers experienced more turnover, the years of tenure for American workers was shorter than their German counterparts. In the later working years of life, German workers experienced longer lengths of tenure than American workers experienced (Couch, 2011). For workers aged 18-34, 33% of the study population voluntarily terminated employment within six months (Lopina et al., 2012). Bjelland et al., Lambert et al., and Monks conducted similar studies and found older employees were more likely to stay employed with their organization than younger employees were.

Employee turnover intention relates to internal and external factors such as the employee's thoughts relating to job alternatives as well as economic conditions. Turnover intent occurred prior to voluntary turnover and was a cognitive, thought process related to desires to quit, plans to leave, quitting, or searching for alternative employment (Lambert et al., 2012; Monks, 2012). Turnover intent was the largest predictive factor for voluntary turnover (Lambert et al., 2012). The direct causes of turnover were personal characteristics, organizational commitment, and economic factors (Lambert et al., 2012). For individuals with college degrees, turnover intentions were different when assessing the type of degree the employee attained. Two significant determinants of turnover intentions were age and the education degree field of university presidents (Monks,

2012). Presidents with a degree in social science or business were more likely to turnover than those with a degree in education were (Monks, 2012). Individuals with degrees outside of the education realm had opportunities for employment in fields not related to academia (Monks, 2012).

The employee's perception of job satisfaction and work environment indirectly correlated with turnover (Lambert et al., 2012). Factors such as length of tenure, age, supervisory status, pay/benefits satisfaction, organizational commitment, job satisfaction, and work environment were potential turnover antecedents (Lambert et al., 2012). Differences existed between public and private academic institution presidents. Older presidents were not likely to maintain employment with the same university beyond five years (Monks, 2012). Private university presidents were less likely to leave office than public university presidents were (Monks, 2012). Organizational commitment and pay/benefits satisfaction had the largest effect on turnover intention (Lambert et al., 2012). Private university leaders attracted and retained talented executives and administrators because of high salaries (Monks, 2012). Turnover intentions decreased among older employees and those that had more tenure with the organization (Lambert et al., 2012). Supervisors were less likely to express turnover intentions than those that were in non-supervisory positions (Lambert et al., 2012).

Education. The acknowledgment of advanced levels of education improved the marketability of employees (Stanley, Vandenberghe, Vandenberg, & Bentein, 2013). As employees gained education, they often sought employment with new organizations (Wren et al., 2014). Increased turnover intention among employees with college degrees

is consistent with the human capital theory. Employees with college degrees were knowledge, or high quality, workers and high-performing teams decreased the likelihood of turnover within the organization (Jayasingam & Yong, 2013). Jayasingam and Yong found lower instances of turnover among knowledge workers but Islam et al. found turnover intentions were more likely for individuals with advanced levels of education. The possibility of a relationship existed between turnover intentions and an employee's education level and supervisory status (Islam et al., 2013). Well-educated workers and knowledge workers sought employment opportunities through knowledge-intensive firms, or firms that conducted intellectual work (Islam et al., 2013).

Work colleagues were a critical organizational resource, as knowledge workers relied on information and knowledge gathered from colleagues to support the organizational infrastructure (Ramamoorthy, Flood, Kulkarni, & Gupta, 2014). Similar to the results found by Jayasingam and Yong, Ramamoorthy et al. postulated that high-performing work teams related to reduced instances of turnover for knowledge workers. Increases in performance of top performers on the team were associated with decreases in turnover (Ramamoorthy et al., 2014). An employee's perception of job embeddedness was a factor in the employee's turnover intention decision. Individuals that liked their job and were committed to the organization, developed strong relationships, and opted to maintain employment with the organization (Islam et al., 2013). When viewing the effects of education, individuals with college degrees were more likely to leave the organization than employees that did not have degrees were (Islam et al., 2013).

Conversely, supervisors chose to remain employed with the organization (Islam et al., 2013).

Gender. Researchers assessed the effects of gender congruence through an analysis of the relationship between public sector managers' gender and their employees' job satisfaction and turnover (Grissom et al., 2012). Botsford-Morgan and King examined gender congruence through the employee's external role while Grissom examined gender congruence through the supervisor's leadership style. An employee's external role as a parent was a factor that was relevant to mothers with young children. As such, psychological contracts had an effect on turnover intentions for mothers with infant children (Botsford-Morgan & King, 2012). There was a possibility that a supervisor's gender and leadership style was a pivotal factor for turnover intention (Grissom et al., 2012). A supervisor's management of unfulfilled psychological contracts could have explained a mother's decision to turnover (Botsford-Morgan & King, 2012). An employee's preference for the supervisor's leadership style also affected turnover intentions (Grissom et al., 2012). Employees had fewer turnover intentions when the supervisor had a similar leadership style as the supervised employee. Some employees preferred a democratic leadership style associated with femininity, while other employees preferred masculine, authoritative leaders (Grissom et al., 2012).

Turnover intentions increased for individuals that experienced unfair justice perceptions and individuals who had supervisors of the opposite gender. A psychological contract was a person's perception of obligation concerning the terms and conditions of a reciprocal exchange agreement (Botsford-Morgan & King, 2012). A supervisor's breach

of the psychological contract sometimes resulted in the mother's emotional response of disappointment, anger, or frustration (Botsford-Morgan & King, 2012). Another explanation for turnover intentions was shared gender between the supervisor and the employee (Grissom et al., 2012). The interrelationship gender was noteworthy because same sex relationships were associated with improved relations (Grissom et al., 2012).

A significant relationship existed between psychological contract breach and a mother's turnover intention (Botsford-Morgan & King 2012). Job satisfaction was associated positively with employees supervised by individuals of the same gender (Grissom et al., 2012). In order to retain employees after a breach of a psychological contract, supervisors must appropriately address the concern in a manner that the employee deems to be fair. A relationship existed between a supervisor's response of fairness to a psychological breach and decreased turnover intentions (Botsford-Morgan & King, 2012). The supervisor's ability to mitigate the adverse effects was a fundamental factor in retaining the mother as an employee of the organization (Botsford-Morgan & King, 2012). The most significant factor that affected turnover was the relationship between male employees with female supervisors (Grissom et al., 2012).

Researchers also linked gender disparities to personality traits and opportunities for promotion (Speck et al., 2012; Troutman, Burke, & Beeler 2011). An individual's personality traits were factors of considerations when analyzing the employee's response to stress. In similar studies, Speck et al., and Troutman et al., identified stress as a predictor of turnover intention yet, Speck et al., related turnover intention to the attainment of human capital assets. Stressors in public accounting were conflicts in work-

life balances, workload, and opportunities for advancement (Troutman et al., 2011).

Imbalances in work-family life, and the absence of development programs were reasons for the departure of medical school faculty (Speck et al., 2012). A need existed to analyze the relationship between turnover intentions and self-efficacy, assertiveness, stress, and gender (Troutman et al., 2011).

A positive relationship existed between the amount of stress an employee experienced and the employee's decision to exit the organization (Troutman et al., 2011). No difference existed in the levels of assertiveness between males and females but females with high levels of assertiveness had higher turnover intentions (Troutman et al., 2011). The departure rates of men and women appointed to the tenure track for medical faculty members were the same (Speck et al., 2012). Males with high levels of self-efficacy were associated with higher intentions to turnover than females (Troutman et al., 2011). Gender disparities existed due to external factors regarding human capital assets. The differences in appointment tracks and advancements were because of the educational differences for each gender (Speck et al., 2012). Sixteen percent of men had both a medical and a Doctor of Philosophy degree as compared to 7% of women (Speck et al., 2012).

Income. For some occupations, it is difficult to determine equitable wage compensation. Chief executive officers used the labor market rate to assess the fairness in compensation (Rost & Weibel, 2013). Llorens and Stazyk, and Messersmith, Guthrie, Ji, and Lee postulated that the employee's level of compensation could have significantly affected the employee's decision to remain employed with the organization. A

relationship existed between private and public sector wage equity and turnover intentions (Llorens & Stazyk, 2011). Chief executive officer compensation was an influential factor in voluntary turnover and the profitability of the firm (Messersmith et al., 2011).

The results of previous research indicated that employee compensation was a significant predictor of employee turnover for state and federal employees (Llorens & Stazyk, 2011). Underpaid chief executive officers were more likely to exit the firm voluntarily than chief executive officers that received the labor market rate (Messersmith et al., 2011). However, salary compensation was not a predictor of turnover intentions when assessing public and private wage equity. No statistically significant relationship existed between public-private wage equity and voluntary separation (Llorens & Stazyk, 2011). Aggregate wage equity could not predict employee turnover (Llorens & Stazyk, 2011). A disaggregation of age and gender could have provided different results (Llorens & Stazyk, 2011). Underpaid chief executive officers were associated with significant increases in firm profitability when compared to chief executive officers that received fair compensation (Lin, Hsien-Chang, & Lie-Huey, 2013). Increases in the profitability of the firm were precursors to intrinsic and extrinsic rewards for the chief executive officer; chief executive officers thought the increases were rectifications for unfair perceptions (Lin et al., 2013).

Similar to Llorens and Stazyk, Carnahan et al. found there was no significance in wage equity on employee turnover, but a significant relationship existed between the compensation dispersion of high and low performers as it related to turnover. High

positive affect employees believed high performance increased the chances for monetary reward, and thus, had high salary expectations (O'Neil, Stanley, & O'Reilly, 2011). High positive affect employees exhibited turnover intentions when employers failed to meet the employee's expectations. Trait affects were an individual's positive or negative perception of the world (O'Neil et al., 2011). Individuals with high positive affect were confident, optimistic, had a strong sense of self-efficacy and high expectations for his or her employing organizations (O'Neil et al., 2011).

At the height of their careers, individuals with high positive affect expected to earn \$100,000 more than other employees earned (O'Neil et al., 2011). High positive affect employees experienced more job satisfaction when the pay satisfaction existed. High-performing individuals, employed by firms with high compensation dispersion, experienced fewer instances of turnover (Carnahan et al., 2012). Low performers in firms with high compensation dispersion were more likely to exit the organization (Carnahan et al., 2012). The distorted perceptions of high positive affect employees affected turnover decisions and job satisfaction (O'Neil et al., 2011). For employees with high positive affect, there was a significant relationship between low initial salary and frequent changes in employers (O'Neil et al., 2011).

Kaplan, Wiley, and Maertz (2011), and Ryan, Healy, and Sullivan suggested employee perceptions and attitudes were mediating factors for turnover intentions. Employees that exhibited calculated attachment behaviors considered the tangible benefits for remaining employed with an organization (Kaplan et al., 2011). Supervisor reciprocity was a contributing factor in an employee's perception of organizational

support. Perceived organizational support centered on the employee's belief that the organization valued employee contributions and cared about employee well-being (Ryan et al., 2012). Employees that were committed to the organization performed better, had fewer absences, and were less likely to terminate employment voluntarily (Ryan et al., 2012). Perceptions of diverse organizational climate and fair compensation were supporting factors for calculated attachment behaviors (Kaplan et al., 2011).

Compensation strategies related to the employee's level and type of commitment to the organization. A relationship existed between pay and normative and affective commitments, but no relationship existed between pay and continuance commitment (Ryan et al., 2012). Kaplan et al. and Ryan et al., noted dissimilar results in the relationship between pay and turnover intention. Pay could have been a factor in employee retention for employee morale and emotional reasons (Ryan et al., 2012). A positive relationship between financial compensation and the efficacy of diversity initiatives existed (Kaplan et al., 2011). Kaplan et al. (2011) were not able to establish a relationship between turnover intentions and employee behavior.

Tenure. Human capital theorists associated increased length of tenure with the employee's value in the labor market (Ng & Feldman, 2013). Job tenure is the lengths of time that employees spend at the occupation they currently have (Ng & Feldman, 2013; Butler, Brennan-Ing, Wardamasky, & Ashley, 2014). To increase employee length of tenure, human resource practitioners must develop retention strategies that afford the employee the opportunity to remain employed with the organization as well as reward the employee's attainment of human capital assets. Increases in job-relevant skills relates to

the potential for increased productivity and advancement opportunities (Ng & Feldman, 2013). Employee thoughts about affective commitment were associated with decisions to remain with an organization (Dinger, Thatcher, Stepina, & Craig, 2012). Human capital theorists posited that long-tenured employees are reluctant to leave the organization because of the accumulation of organizational investments (Maden, 2014).

Employee beliefs concerning affective commitment related to decisions to tenure with an organization (Dinger et al., 2012). Avery, McKay, Wilson, Volpone, and Killham and Dinger et al., surmised job embeddedness, professionalism, organizational commitment, and job satisfaction are mediating factors for turnover intentions. Long-tenured employees exhibit higher levels of job satisfaction and job embeddedness (Maden, 2014). Professionalism is an employee's conviction about the importance of his or her occupation to society, and was associated with increased job satisfaction (Dinger et al., 2012). Long-tenured employees demonstrate more professionalism than their short-tenured counterparts demonstrate, and are less aware of job alternatives outside of the organizations (Dinger et al., 2012). A negative relationship exists between job alternatives and length of tenure with an organization because of feelings of job embeddedness (Dinger et al., 2012). However, employee embeddedness had no effect on employee performance. Ng and Feldman (2013) found no relationship between increased tenure and job performance. Long-tenured employees experience fewer absences and can implement and facilitate change more efficiently than short-tenured employees can (Ng & Feldman 2013).

Predictors of long-tenured employment are older age, high wages, and the perception of autonomy (Butler et al., 2014). The predictors of length of tenure are consistent with human capital theory. Low pay, inconsistent work hours, and poor communication with organizational leaders are motives for regular job changes for employees in the healthcare industry (Butler et al., 2014). Short-tenured employment is associated with lower turnover intentions when the fulfillment of the psychological contracts occurs (Bal, De Cooman, & Mol, 2013). Psychological contracts are the employee's belief in relation to the expectations of the exchanges between the employee and the organization (Bal et al., 2013).

For younger workers, the absence of monetary compensation is a contributing factor for decisions to exit the organization (Butler et al., 2014). Even when the occupation is consistent with the employees' needs and desires, younger workers choose to leave (Butler et al., 2014). When no alignment exists between the job-related needs of long-tenured employees and the occupational assignments, long-tenured employees pursue other occupations (Maden, 2014). Human resource managers must be cognizant of the motivators for employment retention of various generational cohorts. Short-tenured employees that experience broken promises thought the organizational leaders did not value the employee's work (Butler et al., 2014). Employees with high work involvement and high tenure develop valued skills as well as extensive knowledge of the organizations operations (Maden, 2014). Dinger et al., and Maden determined when employees perform jobs that match the employees' needs and desires, turnover is less likely to occur.

Employee length of tenure is a moderating variable in the relationship between employee voice and turnover intentions (Avery et al., 2011). Perceptions of voice are less significant for long-tenured employees than for newcomers (Avery et al., 2011). Employee voice is the employee's opportunity to express concerns and views regarding outcomes in the workplace (Avery et al., 2011). The employee perceptions associated with employee voice concern the employee's ability to influence the organizational leaders' decision-making process (Avery et al., 2011). Differences exist in the moderating effects of voice between long and short tenured employees. Long-tenured employees are not as dependent on exchange relationships because the employee is aware of the expectations of the organizational leaders (Bal et al., 2013). Long-tenured employees are more likely to have adequate person-organization fit (Bal et al., 2013). A relationship exists between long tenure and employee contributions and employee obligations (Bal et al., 2013).

Managerial Role in Turnover Intentions

Managers had an integral role in shaping employee perceptions (Campbell, Perry, Maertz, Allen, & Griffeth, 2013). When employee's perceptions deemed the employer appreciated the employee's effort, the employee's organizational commitment increased (Shuck et al., 2011). When an employee believed their managers were unwilling to listen and respond to the employee's needs, the morale of the organization was diminished (Chang & Lyons, 2012). Employees who felt they had no voice also experienced feelings of isolation. Instances of employee isolation were a contributing factor in employee turnover (Chang & Lyons, 2012). The compounded effects of low morale caused

employees to voluntarily turnover in clusters, which could have affected organizational performance and profitability on a large scale (Sgourev, 2011). Organizational leaders need to develop programs and initiatives to address the needs of the organization's human capital investments.

The employee's perception of the line manager was an important factor in the development of the employee's attitude (Campbell et al., 2013). Positive psychological responses from employees were associated with fewer turnover intentions. Affective commitment, job fit, and psychological climate were negatively associated with turnover intentions (Shuck et al., 2011). A positive relationship existed between perceived supervisor support and the employee's perception of human resource practices (Campbell et al., 2013). Employee perceptions of the psychological climate of the organization also affected organizational outcomes (Shuck et al., 2011).

The use of exit surveys from departing employees and training exercises provided organizational leaders with insight on how to mitigate the risks associated with employee turnover. Quits and dismissals had similar antecedents in human resource practices (Batt & Colvin, 2011). Employers that had high-involvement, work organizations also had lower quits, dismissals and total turnover (Batt & Colvin, 2011). Similar to prior research results, an effective management-training program related to reduced employee turnover and enhanced job satisfaction (Chang, Wang, & Huang, 2013). Intensive performance monitoring and commission-based pay were short-term performance pressures associated with high quits, dismissals and total turnover (Batt & Colvin, 2011). Managers that developed group-work environments were associated with employees that exhibited

organizational commitment (Chang et al., 2013). Group-work can also be used as a knowledge transfer strategy to increase employee retention of younger workers. Long-term incentives such as internal promotion opportunities, pension plans, and increased levels of pay were associated with low levels of turnover (Batt & Colvin, 2011).

Employee perceptions of a manager's resoluteness were a significant factor in turnover intentions (McClellan, Burris, & Detert, 2013). The loss of fundamental structural and relational network leaders resulted in lower firm performance (Kwon & Rupp, 2013). High-performers possessed increased levels of human capital. Kwon and Rupp, and McClellan et al. deduced that high-performer exits and manager indecisiveness negatively affected the performance of the organization. The negative effects were more severe when a high-performer left the firm than when a low-performer left (Kwon & Rupp, 2013). Because employees were not able to fix problems or pursue opportunities, management's responsiveness determined when employee voice led to more employee turnover in an organization (McClellan et al., 2013).

A negative relationship existed between high-performer turnover and firm performance (Kwon & Rupp, 2013). Turnover for employees that were not high-performers did not significantly predict firm performance (Kwon & Rupp, 2013). Human resource practitioners should attempt to replace individuals that were poor performers with high performers. Conversely, employee voice for improvement-oriented input significantly affected the entire unit in a positive manner (McClellan et al., 2013). The amount of turnover intention was contingent upon the employee voice and the

management motivation and ability to change and address concerns (McClellan et al., 2013).

Employee Behaviors

At the organizational level, a common theme of high-performance human resource practices is the promotion of opportunities to develop positive employee behaviors (Kehoe & Wright, 2013). Examples of high-performance human resource practices include selective hiring processes, training opportunities, performance-based rewards, and merit-based promotions (Kehoe & Wright, 2013). Human resource practitioners recognize that organizational citizenship behaviors are positive employee contributions to the organization (Shapira-Lishchinsky & Tsemach, 2014). For teachers, organizational citizenship behaviors included the development of social activities for the school and listening to student concerns during scheduled faculty breaks (Shapira-Lishchinsky & Tsemach, 2014). Work hour congruence is associated with positive employee behaviors (Lee, Wang, & Weststar, 2014).

Work hour congruence occurs when the amount of hours the employee desires to work is equal to the actual number of hours an employee works (Lee et al., 2014). Human resource practitioners can use work hour congruence as an attraction-retention strategy to mitigate the effects of turnover and organizational performance. Favorable changes in absenteeism exist for employees that achieve work hour congruence (Lee et al., 2014). Shapira-Lishchinsky and Tsemach, and Lee et al., examined the relationship between organizational citizenship behavior, work hour congruence, and job satisfaction. When considering job satisfaction, employees that engage in organizational citizenship

behaviors avoid engaging in withdrawal behaviors (Shapira-Lishchinsky & Tsemach, 2014). Job satisfaction is a positive attribute that occurs because of work hour congruence (Lee et al., 2014). As such, employees who seek fewer hours and work fewer hours demonstrate a decrease in the number of absences (Lee et al., 2014). Employees who achieve work hour congruence experience improved job satisfaction (Lee et al., 2014).

For employees who did not achieve work hour congruence and wanted more hours, there was no increase in job satisfaction (Lee et al., 2014). Organizational leaders must be aware of new employee behaviors that are not consistent with normal behaviors of the employee. Stress is a mitigating factor for employees that exhibit organizational citizenship behaviors and withdrawal behaviors simultaneously (Shapira-Lishchinsky & Tsemach, 2014). Teachers who organized social activities were absent from work because of the demands of their job (Shapira-Lishchinsky & Tsemach, 2014). A negative relationship exists between organizational citizenship behaviors and withdrawal behaviors (Shapira-Lishchinsky & Tsemach, 2014).

Withdrawal behaviors are adverse behaviors such as arriving to work late and absenteeism (Lee et al., 2014; Shapira-Lishchinsky & Tsemach, 2014). An employee's withdrawal behaviors may occur because of leader-member exchanges. An association exists between employees whose leaders present ethical behaviors with job satisfaction, lower turnover intentions, and lower job search behaviors (Palanski, Avery, & Jiraporn, 2014). Palanski et al., and Kehoe and Wright examined deviant work place behaviors for supervisors and subordinates. High turnover intentions and job search behaviors are common among employees that indicate their leaders are unethical or abusive (Palanski

et al., 2014). Unethical behavior includes acts of dishonesty and the improper issuance of rewards and punishment (Palanski et al., 2014). Abusive leadership is the subordinates' perception of the leaders' display of hostile verbal or nonverbal behaviors (Palanski et al., 2014). Employee withdrawal behaviors, such as absenteeism and turnover intentions, negatively affect organizational performance (Kehoe & Wright, 2013). Employees that have less job satisfaction also have high turnover intentions, and increased job search behaviors (Palanski et al., 2014).

Similar to the study conducted by Kehoe, Christian and Ellis, and Liu and Berry deduced that a relationship existed between deviant behaviors and turnover intention. Deviant behaviors include moral disengagement, theft, vandalism, and lateness (Christian & Ellis, 2014). Time theft is a deviant work behavior characterized by the amount of time that an employee spends conducting activities not in the job description (Liu & Berry, 2013). Examples of time theft activities include monitoring social media websites, leaving work early, abuse of sick leave, and taking unauthorized breaks (Liu & Berry, 2013). Employees that encounter unfair treatment lack moral engagement and thus participate in time theft activities (Liu & Berry, 2013).

Displacement or diffusion of responsibilities, as well the distortion of the consequences of harmful actions is characteristic of moral disengagement (Christian & Ellis, 2014). The displacement of responsibility is consistent with perceptions of blaming the supervisor for destructive behaviors (Christian & Ellis, 2014). Employees that exhibit cognitive distortion behaviors attempt to justify immoral behavior in an effort to make behavior acceptable (Christian & Ellis, 2014).

Liu and Berry (2013) posited that employees with unfair justice perceptions are likely to exhibit time theft behaviors. Time theft is different from other deviant behaviors as the organization is the perceived agent instead of the organizational members (Liu & Berry, 2013). Time theft occurrences are the result of the employees' receipt of compensation while not accomplishing any work (Liu & Berry, 2013). Turnover intention is a moderating variable in the relationship between moral disengagement and the organizational deviance behavior (Christian & Ellis, 2014). Employees with turnover intentions are more likely to exhibit moral disengagement or organizational deviance behaviors, than other employees are (Christian & Ellis, 2014).

Transition

Section 1 was an introduction to the manner in which a person's (a) age, (b) education, (c) gender, (d) income, or (e) length of tenure can predict employee turnover intentions. The consequences of turnover are the forfeiture of resources, decreased organizational performance, and competitiveness (Grissom et al., 2012; Hancock et al., 2013; Kim, 2012). The replacement costs of lost human capital assets relate to expenditures for recruiting, training, and hiring of new employees (Llorens & Stazyk, 2011; Von Hagel & Miller, 2011). The loss of human capital investments significantly affects organizational profitability, as some organizational expenditures are as much as \$1 million for the mitigation of the effects of employee turnover (Ballinger et al., 2011; Von Hagel & Miller, 2011). Understanding the relationship between demographic characteristics and turnover could assist in the assessment of demographic trends used for developing retention strategies (Ballinger et al., 2011; Hancock et al., 2013).

Continued examination of demographic characteristics and turnover provided knowledge of demographic trends within the labor force (Buttner et al., 2012). As Baby Boomers near retirement age, a need exists for organizational leaders to develop knowledge transfer strategies for the Millennial generation, as the Millennials are one of the largest generational cohorts in the labor force (Burdett et al., 2011; Hokanson et al., 2011; Toosi, 2012). Organizational leaders must develop retention strategies to retain the knowledge workers of the workforce (Hokanson et al., 2011; Jayasingam & Yong, 2013; Ramamoorthy et al., 2014). The consequences of turnover associated with high-performers affect organizational profitability more than low-performer exits (Burdett et al., 2011; Hokanson et al., 2011). Section 2 includes a description of the methods used to gather and collect data on the relationship between an employee's age, education, gender, income, length of tenure, and employee turnover intentions. The section includes information concerning the data collection instruments and analysis techniques. Section 3 includes a presentation of the study findings, recommendations for professional practices, as well as recommendations for future research.

Section 2: The Project

Employee turnover is a part of the business cycle (Jiang et al., 2012). Turnover is costly to organizations as it affects organizational performance and profitability (Ballinger et al., 2011; Iverson & Zatzick, 2011; Llorens & Stazyk, 2011). Human resource managers and organizational leaders use information that they acquire about factors associated with turnover and use this information to craft organizations' retention strategies (Chang et al., 2013; Harris et al., 2013). Some demographic characteristics have a significant impact on employee turnover; related research findings can inform management efforts to lead a diverse workforce (Harris et al., 2013). This chapter provides a detailed description of the specific research methods and design procedures used in this study to examine the relationship between turnover and an employee's age, education, gender, income, and length of tenure.

Purpose Statement

The purpose of this quantitative, correlational study was to determine if a significant relationship existed between employees' (a) age, (b) education, (c) gender, (d) income, (e) length of tenure, and their turnover intentions. The study was specifically designed to survey a population consisting of employees from different industries and located in the state of Texas. The study produced results for organizational leaders and human resource practitioners to use in developing of employee retention practices, as suggested by Cardy and Lengnick (2011). The results of the regression analysis indicated an employee's age and education were predictors of the criterion variable of employee turnover intention. The population for the survey included employees from different

industries within the state of Texas. Human resource practitioners reported that reductions in turnover were consistent with fewer work-family conflicts and increased youth outcomes (Williams & Glisson, 2013).

Role of the Researcher

I used an outsider's perspective, which was appropriate for quantitative research because quantitative research is representative of an outsider's point of view (Fassinger & Morrow, 2013). My personal interests did not create any bias in the outcome of the study because I was not employed by a civilian organization, unlike all of the participants. I complied with the guidelines established in the Belmont Report, including respect for people, informed consent, and respecting privacy/confidentiality (Saari & Scherbaum, 2011). The participants for the study were employees of nongovernmental agencies; I had no actual or potential influence over the study participants because I did not have access to their names or any personally identifying information. I used SurveyMonkey® to administer each of the surveys to the participants, then collected, organized, and analyzed the survey responses to address the research question.

Participants

I used an Internet-based survey instrument to observe and measure behaviors and opinions (Sinkowitz-Cochran, 2013). SurveyMonkey® Audience is a service offered by SurveyMonkey® for members to purchase a targeted group of survey participants (SurveyMonkey®, 2014c). I used SurveyMonkey® Audience to gain access to full-time employees within the state of Texas, as suggested by Wissmann, Stone, and Schuster (2012). SurveyMonkey® Audience locations can be delimited by census region, census

division, or U.S. state (SurveyMonkey[®], 2014c; Wissmann et al., 2012); the subject state for this study is Texas. The eligibility criteria for participating in this study were that participants must have been over 18 years of age, employed full-time, not self-employed, and the participant residing in Texas at the time of the study.

I obtained all of the collected survey data from voluntary participants who used the survey instrument. I closed the survey after 3 days, because I obtained the desired amount of usable responses. Usable surveys, for the purposes of this study, consisted of surveys completed by eligible individuals who answered every question.

Research Method and Design

Transparency in research emanates from the logic and premises that researchers use to generate conclusions for their inquiries (Ketokivi & Choi, 2014). Quantitative, qualitative, and mixed research methods are indicative of distinctive characteristics for examining and exploring concepts and theories (Cokley & Awad, 2013). A description of the research method and design was justification of the appositeness of quantitative research method and correlational design for this study.

Research Method

I employed a quantitative research method to address the research question and test this study's hypotheses. Quantitative researchers use frequency, intensity, or numbers to derive broad concepts into specific conclusions and to explain variances among groups (Cokley & Awad, 2013). As such, quantitative researchers can reject or accept a hypothesis and use sample sizes sufficient to support the generalizability of the study results to a specific population (Cokley & Awad, 2013; Hitchcock & Newman, 2013).

Deductive methods are essential in quantitative research. Quantitative research methods were appropriate for this study. I did not choose qualitative or mixed methods for this study because quantitative researchers must use deductive methods to analyze a phenomenon (Venkatesh, Brown, & Bala, 2013).

Research Design

I employed a nonexperimental correlational design. Correlational research encompasses the collection of information from a specified population (Cohen, Cohen, West, & Aiken, 2013). In the research arena, the terms correlation and association are synonymous (Bishara & Hittner, 2012). The need to examine the relationship between an employee's (a) age, (b) education, (c) gender, (d) income, and (e) length of tenure and the employee's turnover intention was consistent with a correlational design. The sample population was also relevant to the variables of the study, which was also a trait consistent with correlational research. Correlational analysis researchers examine the relationship between the predictor variables and the criterion variable (Cokley & Awad, 2013). In this study, the predictor variables were an employee's age, education, gender, income, and length of tenure. The criterion variable was an employee's turnover intention.

Causal-comparative correlational researchers examine hypotheses that compare the differences among variables for more than one group (Yan, Ding, Geng, & Zhou, 2011); I did not elect to use causal-comparative research methods. The population for this study consisted of one group. As such, I used the research question and hypotheses to examine the amount of criterion variable variance accounted for by predictor variables

(Tonidandel & LeBreton, 2011). Quasi-experimentalists do not allocate random assignment of values of predictor variables; however, manipulation of the study variables is acceptable (Cokley & Awad, 2013). In experimental research designs, random assignment of the subjects to the control groups and treatment groups exists (Cokley & Awad, 2013). Correlational research was appropriate for this study because correlational analysis does not require random group assignment or manipulation of experimental variables, as noted by Cokley and Awad (2013).

Population and Sampling

Population

In quantitative research, a researcher frequently employs sampling strategies to draw conclusions concerning a large population (Uprichard, 2013). From 2011 until 2013, the average number of employees within the state of Texas was approximately 10.5 million annually (Bureau of Labor and Statistics, 2014). I selected 162 residents of Texas who were employed full-time, were 18 years of age or older, employed by another individual or business and were not self-employed, who also used SurveyMonkey® Audience (SurveyMonkey®, 2014c). Lyness, Gornick, Stone, and Grotto (2012) defined full-time employees as individuals that worked 40 or more hours per week. In the context of this study, I deemed full-time employees as the most appropriate population because these employees were likely to possess information that was relevant to turnover intentions.

Sampling

To make inferences about the subject population, I employed nonprobabilistic sampling using a convenience sampling technique. Researchers use nonprobability sampling procedures to extend knowledge of the sample population (Uprichard, 2013). An advantage of using convenience sampling is the ease of recruitment of willing and available participants (Bornstein, Jager, & Putnick, 2013). Convenience sampling strategies may be less expensive than other sampling strategies (Bornstein et al., 2013). The results of convenience sampling research may only be generalizable to the population of origin (Bornstein et al., 2013).

I used G*Power 3.1.9.2 to perform an a-priori sample size evaluation for random effects, multiple linear regression analysis (Faul, Erdfelder, Buchner, & Lang, 2009). The parameters for performing exact distribution test for the two-tailed, linear multiple regression random model, a priori sample size calculation were (a) the effect size, (b) the number of tails, (c) the number of predictor variables, (d) the power level, and (e) the significance level (Fritz, Cox, & MacKinnon, 2013). A medium effect size, $\rho^2 = .13$, was appropriate for this study based on the analysis of two research studies in which turnover intention was the outcome measurement (Islam et al., 2013; Suresh & Chandrashekara, 2012; Yucel, 2012). The alpha level was .05 for other research studies that included the 3-item turnover intention questionnaire (Buttigieg & West, 2013). An alpha level of .05 means there is a 5% probability of a Type I error, or rejecting the null hypothesis when the null hypothesis is true (Farrokhyar et al., 2013). The power level of .95 is associated with the probability of Type II errors, or the failure to reject the null hypothesis when the

null hypothesis is false (Farrokhyar et al., 2013). For five predictor variables, (a) age, (b) education, (c) gender, (d) income, and (e) length of tenure, a power level of $1 - \beta = .95$, a medium effect size of .15, and $\alpha = .05$, the estimated sample size is 162 (Faul et al., 2009).

Ethical Research

I employed SurveyMonkey[®] Audience to distribute the surveys to targeted potential survey participants. SurveyMonkey[®] Audience is a survey participant panel consisting of SurveyMonkey[®] customers (SurveyMonkey, 2014c). Participants who elect to take part in the study were required to complete a survey consent form prior to accessing the actual survey (see Appendix A). Additionally, SurveyMonkey[®] Audience provided an option for nonparticipation with the invitation to participate in the survey (SurveyMonkey[®], 2014c). Participants may have chosen to withdraw from the study, or deny participation without penalty at any time. SurveyMonkey[®] provides noncash incentives to members of the SurveyMonkey[®] Audience (SurveyMonkey[®], 2014c). SurveyMonkey[®] Audience members have the option to choose to have a donation of \$.50 donated to the charity of the member's choice, or the member may choose to enter a weekly sweepstakes that offers a \$100.00 prize (SurveyMonkey[®], 2013). Additionally, I did not collect the survey participant's name, email address, Internet, protocol address, or any other information that could have identified the individual participant.

To ensure the ethical protection of the survey participants, prior to conducting the survey, I disabled the tracking mechanism feature for storing and accessing the Internet protocol address of the survey participants' e-mail (SurveyMonkey[®], 2014d). The

disabling of the tracking mechanism ensured that no link existed between the participant and the participant's response (SurveyMonkey[®], 2014d). SurveyMonkey[®] maintained all survey responses on a data server that had firewall protection and 24-hour per day security (Corbin, Farmer, & Nolen-Hoeksma, 2013; Mahon, 2014; SurveyMonkey[®], 2014d). Additionally, I maintained the data in a safe place for 5 years prior to shredding the data.

Data Collection Instruments

The survey instrument consisted of (a) eligibility questions that reference the participant's age and employment status; (b) a query of the participants' age, education, gender, income, length of tenure; and (c) the 3-item turnover intention questionnaire (see Appendix B). In 1978, Mobley, Horner, and Hollingsworth developed the 3-item turnover intent questionnaire to examine turnover among hospital employees and obtained $N = 203$ responses. Turnover intention is a strong predictor of actual employee turnover (Walker, 2013). I assessed employee turnover intention using the responses to the following statements: (a) I often think of leaving the organization, (b) it is possible that I will look for a new job within the next year, and (c) if I could choose again, I would not work for the same organization (Mobley et al., 1978). The rationale for using these three items to measure turnover intention is because of three reasons. First, employees that have frequent thoughts of leaving an organization tend to show increased rates of turnover behavior (Mobley et al., 1978). Second, the availability of job alternatives is an important factor in the decision to leave one's job (Yucel, 2012). Third, employees who are affectively committed to the organization show lower rates of turnover intention

(Choudhury & Gupta, 2011). I used each question to measure the employee's turnover intentions as the intentions relate to thoughts of quitting, intention to search for employment, and intentions of quitting respectively (Mobley et al., 1978).

I measured the responses to three statements regarding turnover intention using a 5-point Likert-type rating scale (1 = *strongly disagree*, 2 = *disagree*, 3 = *neither agree nor disagree*, 4 = *agree*, 5 = *strongly agree*). The points along a rating scale may not represent equal intervals; however, rating scale data are closer to interval than ordinal scale data and researchers may use rating scale data as interval data in statistical analyses (Meyers, Gamst, & Guarino, 2013). I assessed turnover intention using an interval scale. When added together, scores on the 3-item turnover intention questionnaire ranged from a low score of 3 to a high score of 15, with higher scores indicating higher intention to leave one's job and lower scores indicating lower intention to leave.

The analysis included ratio-scaled predictor variables of (a) age, (b) education, (c) income, and (e) length of tenure. Gender was a dichotomously scored, nominal variable and the criterion variable was turnover intention. I measured the participant's age using a ratio scale by asking participants to report their age in years. I provided two response options for the gender variable. The binary data score was 0 = *female* and 1 = *male*. I queried the participant's level of education by asking the participants to report the highest-grade level of formal education that the participant has attained without regard to the country of educational attainment. A query of the precise grade level afforded the participant an opportunity to provide an accurate recording of educational attainment (Barro & Lee, 2013). I measured the participant's income using a ratio scale level by

asking participant to record their annual income for the previous year. I measured a participant's length of tenure using a ratio scale by asking participant to indicate the number of years of employment the participant has with their current employer.

Researchers established the reliability and validity of the 3-item turnover intention instrument (Buttigieg & West, 2013; Yin-Fah et al., 2010; Yucel, 2012). Cronbach's alpha is a commonly accepted measure of inter item test reliability (Tavakol & Dennick, 2011). Cronbach's alpha is equivalent to the average of all possible split-half reliability correlations (Tavakol & Dennick, 2011). Ideally, Cronbach's alpha will be .90 or above, but values between .70 and .95 are acceptable (Tavakol & Dennick, 2011). Other researchers using different samples have reported values of Cronbach's alphas within the range of .70 and .95 for the employee turnover-intention questionnaire.

Buttigieg and West (2013) examined the effect of quality leadership on social support and job design of 65,142 healthcare employees. The researchers reported a Cronbach alpha of .92 for the turnover intention scale (Buttigieg & West, 2013). At the significance level of $p < .01$ a positive relationship existed between quantitative overload ($r = .16$) and hostility ($r = .22$) and the criterion variable of turnover intention. Additionally, a negative relationship existed between job satisfaction and turnover intention, $p < .01$, $r = -.54$ (Buttigieg & West, 2013).

Yucel (2012) conducted an evaluation of the construct validity of the 3-item turnover intention questionnaire in a study of 188 Turkish manufacturing company employees (Yucel, 2012). Turnover intention showed a loading of .858 on a factor interpreted as intent to leave, .920 on a job alternatives factor, and .846 on a factor named

thoughts of quitting (Yucel, 2012). A negative relationship existed between turnover intention and job satisfaction (-.364), affective commitment (-.077), and continuance commitment (-.063), $p < .01$.

Yin-Fah et al. (2010) examined the relationship between organizational commitment, job stress, job satisfaction, and turnover intention for 120 Malaysian private-sector employees. At a significance level of .05, Yin-Fah et al. (2010) reported statistically significant correlations between employee turnover intention scores and organizational commitment, $r = -.367$, and job stress, $r = .96$. Additionally, a negative relationship existed between turnover intention and job satisfaction, $r = -.447$, $p < .01$. Because of the established reliability and validity measurements, I did not make any adjustments or revisions to the turnover intention model (see Appendix B). The raw data for the survey will be available for five years after the termination of the research, by request from the researcher.

Data Collection Technique

The questions of the survey were formatted using page-skip logic. The use of *page-skip logic* afforded potential participants the opportunity to deny participation, as well as disqualify any participants who do not meet the established criteria for survey participation (see Appendices A and B). I used questions 1-3 to determine the participants' eligibility. To participate in the survey the participant must have resided in Texas, been 18 or older, employed at the time of the survey, and not self-employed. Participants who provided a disqualifying answer to any of the three questions were not allowed to complete the survey. I used survey items 4-8 to determine the participants'

demographic characteristics, which included references to the participant's (a) age (b) education, (c) gender, (d) income, and (e) length of tenure. For items 9-11, I asked the participants to use a Likert-type scale to identify their level of agreement with each item of the 3-item turnover intention questionnaire.

I used SurveyMonkey[®] Audience to distribute the survey instrument to a targeted participant pool. An advantage of using SurveyMonkey[®] Audience is that approximately 1 million panel members are accessible using the participant pool (Brandon, Long, Loraas, Mueller-Phillips, & Vansant, 2014). In a comparison of electronic survey tools, SurveyMonkey[®] Audience was more economical than Qualtrics was (Brandon et al., 2014). Qualtrics price quotes varied based on survey length and the amount of incentive the researcher was willing to pay (Brandon et al., 2014). In some instances, researchers paid between \$7.00 and \$15.00 as an incentive to complete a survey (Brandon et al., 2014). SurveyMonkey[®] Audience charges researchers \$1.00 per each response (Brandon et al., 2014).

To collect data for the survey, I established a collector account. Prior to administering the survey, I validated the collector account by using the preview/test option to ensure that all survey design options were functioning properly. I submitted the surveys to a target audience provided by SurveyMonkey[®] (SurveyMonkey[®], 2014c). The custom targeting criteria categories were (a) age, (b) education, (c) gender, (d) household income, and (e) employment status (SurveyMonkey[®], 2014c). The cutoff date to receive responses was 4 weeks after the initial opening of the survey. I reviewed the number of usable surveys daily, and I planned to extend the cutoff time to meet the required sample

size of 162. There was no pilot study of the survey as other researchers established the reliability and validity statistics for the survey instrument (Buttigieg & West, 2013; Yin-Fah et al., 2010; Yucel, 2012).

Data Analysis

The main research question for this research was:

To what extent, if any, does a relationship exist between the predictor variables of age, education, gender, income, length of tenure, and the criterion variable employee turnover intention?

The null and alternative hypotheses for this study were:

- H1₀: There is no statistically significant relationship between an employee's age and turnover intention.
- H1_a: There is a statistically significant relationship between an employee's age and turnover intention.
- H2₀: There is no statistically significant relationship between an employee's level of education and turnover intention.
- H2_a: There is a statistically significant relationship between an employee's level of education and turnover intention.
- H3₀: There is no statistically significant relationship between an employee's gender and turnover intention.
- H3_a: There is a statistically significant relationship between an employee's gender and turnover intention.

- H4₀: There is no statistically significant relationship between an employee's income and turnover intention.
- H4_a: There is a statistically significant relationship between an employee's income and turnover intention.
- H5₀: There is no statistically significant relationship between the variable of length of tenure and the employee's turnover intention.
- H5_a: There is a statistically significant relationship between the variable of length of tenure and the employee's turnover intention.

I employed multiple regression analysis to analyze the relationship between the independent variables, an employee's (a) age, (b) education, (c) gender, (d) income, (e) length of tenure, and the dependent variable of turnover intention. Multiple regression analysis can explain the contribution of variance of the predictor, or independent variables to the total variance of the dependent variable (Cohen et al., 2013). I assessed the amount of variance that age, education, gender, income, or length of tenure explains turnover intentions using multiple regression analysis. I used multiple regression analysis to assess the direction, magnitude, and nature of the relationship between and among variables (Cohen et al., 2013). Additionally, the multiple regression analysis was indicative of whether two or more of the predictor variables were redundant (Cohen et al., 2013).

Independent variables' redundancy, or collinearity, can lead to difficulty in inferences regarding the variables (Cohen et al., 2013). Collinearity occurs when a strong relationship exists among the predictor variables (Cohen et al., 2013). Inflation of the

standard error may occur if collinearity exists (Cohen et al., 2013). Inflation of the standard error may result in the determination of statistical insignificance when the finding should be statistically significant (Cohen et al., 2013). I used collinearity diagnostics within the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) software to identify collinearity among the variables. I exported the results of the survey into the SPSS software for analysis (SurveyMonkey, 2014a). An additional advantage of using SPSS software was that Walden University provides access to the software package free of charge to students.

In the SPSS software, I calculated the tolerance and variance inflation factor (VIF) collinearity statistics. A VIF statistic of 1 means there are no correlated predictor variables (Cohen et al., 2013). Conversely, variance-inflation-factor statistics near 5 and greater than 5 are associated with collinearity (Cohen et al., 2013). Other assumptions associated with multiple regression analysis include the normal distribution, linear relationship, accuracy of measurement, and homoscedasticity (Green & Salkind, 2011). A researcher can visually assess normal distribution and the presence of a linear relationship by observing a standardized residual plot and looking for outliers (Green & Salkind, 2011). The output parameters for the power analysis were a lower critical R^2 value of .005 and an upper critical R^2 value of .078. Therefore, I accepted the null hypothesis when the sample R^2 was between .005 and .078 (Faul et al., 2009). However, when the sample R^2 was larger, I found the results to be significant and rejected the null hypothesis (Faul et al., 2009).

Homoscedasticity occurs when the variance of errors is the equivalent for all levels of the predictor variables (Cohen et al., 2013). I used p-p plots to assess the homoscedasticity, as such, a nonlinear trend was indicative of the presence of outliers (Aguinis, Gottfredson, & Joo, 2013). When a nonlinear trend existed, I used a nonparametric method to assess the data (Aguinis et al., 2013). When using nonparametric methods, no constraining assumptions concerning the linear trends of the data exist (Aguinis et al., 2013). Bootstrapping is a nonparametric method (Martinez-Cambor & Corral, 2012). Researchers use bootstrapping techniques to estimate reliable statistics when data normality assumptions are not met (Martinez-Cambor & Corral, 2012). Bootstrapping is useful when there are questions regarding the validity and accuracy of the usual distribution and assumptions that limit the behavior of the results (Cohen et al., 2013). The use of bootstrapping techniques addressed potential concerns with the standard errors of the regression coefficients (Aguinis et al., 2013).

Study Validity

Threats to internal validity in quantitative research relate to causal relationships (Venkatesh et al., 2013). I conducted a nonexperimental, correlational study; therefore, the results of this study did not establish causation. Threats to internal validity were not applicable (Venkatesh et al., 2013). To assess the inferences among variables, statistical conclusion validity was necessary (Venkatesh et al., 2013).

To assure statistical conclusion validity, the statistical power for the study was .95 with an overall alpha =.05. Conclusion validity is the probability of detecting a relationship if a relationship exists, or not detecting a relationship when one does not

exist (Becker, Rai, Ringle, & Volckner, 2013). A power designation of .95 reduced the probability of Type II errors to 5% (Farrokhyar et al., 2013). I used significant results at the .05 level to mitigate the risk of Type I errors to 5% (Farrokhyar et al., 2013). The 5-predictor variables for the study were (a) age, (b) education, (c) gender, (d) income, and (e) length of tenure. An increased chance of Type I errors associated with an increased number of statistical tests exists (Cohen et al., 2013).

When conducting an independent significance test of multiple comparison problems, the researcher must control for the *family-wise error rate* (Cohen et al., 2013). The Bonferroni correction adjustment procedure is the most commonly used method for controlling *family-wise error rates* (Cohen et al., 2013). A *family-wise error rate* is the probability of making one or more Type I errors (Cohen et al., 2013). Using the concept of the gradient of similarity from the proximal similarity model, I generalized the study findings to United States citizens (Palese, Coletti, & Dante, 2013). The proximal similarity model was appropriate for considering the generalizability of study results to members of a similar group (Palese et al., 2013). I expected the study findings of the turnover intentions of full-time employees from Texas to be similar to study findings for full-time employees in the United States (Palese et al., 2013).

Transition and Summary

I used a quantitative, correlational design and multiple linear regression analysis to examine the extent and nature of the relationship between the predictors, (a) age, (b) education, (c) gender, (d) income, and (e) length of tenure and criterion variable turnover intention. This study consisted of a survey facilitated by SurveyMonkey[®]. The survey

consisted of questions relating to the participants demographic characteristics and turnover intentions (see Appendix B). Information gleaned from the study was indicative of the role that an individual's (a) age, (b) education, (c) gender, (d) income, or (e) length of tenure had in predicting employee turnover intentions by identifying the magnitude of the relationship among the independent and criterion variables. In Section 3, I present the study findings and identify areas for future research based on the study results.

Section 3: Application to Professional Practice and Implications for Change

Introduction

The purpose of this quantitative, correlational study was to provide human resource managers with information for predicting and addressing employee turnover intentions. I did so using the three-item Turnover Intention questionnaire, for which I received permission from Dr. Mobley, the original author of the instrument (Appendix C). I conducted an online survey using SurveyMonkey® Audience and the Turnover Intention questionnaire, receiving 205 responses in three days. Of the 205 responses, 18 individuals failed to answer all of the questions for the survey. The a priori sample-size calculation was for 162 participants; as a result, the post-screening total of 187 eligible sets of participant data met this established criteria. The results of the study were indicative of a statistically significant relationship between an employee's age and income and the employee's turnover intention.

Informed human resource managers use training initiatives and compensation incentives to develop policies that are conducive to employee retention of specific generational cohorts and individuals with varying income levels. The results of the study findings did not indicate a statistically significant relationship between the predictor variables of education, gender, length of tenure, and the criterion variable of turnover intention.

Presentation of the Findings

I used SPSS software to conduct a multiple regression analysis to determine the model fit and to determine the amount of variance an employee's (a) age, (b) education,

(c) gender, (d) income, and (e) length of tenure had on the employee's turnover intentions. I tested the hypotheses to determine if a statistically significant relationship existed between the predictor variables and the criterion variable. Because I had more participants than the estimated sample size, I included the full set of 187 completed surveys in the data analysis and discarded the results of surveys with missing data.

Test Reliability and Model Fit

I ran the collinearity diagnostics to ensure no correlation of the predictor variables existed. The VIF statistic for each of the variables ranged between 1.03 and -1.24, indicating the predictor variables measured different items (Table 1). I determined the model fit by the adjusted R^2 value of .034 (Table 2).

Table 1

Coefficients^a

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	<i>t</i>	Sig.	Collinearity Statistics	
	B	SE	Beta			Tolerance	VIF
(Constant)	9.389	1.524		6.161	.000		
Age	-.045	.023	-.162	2.020	.045	.804	1.244
Education	.103	.079	.099	1.301	.195	.901	1.110
Gender	.254	.489	.038	.519	.604	.964	1.037
Income	-.260	.120	-.169	2.161	.032	.852	1.173
Tenure	.006	.028	.017	.210	.834	.840	1.191

a. Dependent Variable: Total_turnover_intention

Table 2

Model Summary^b

Model	<i>R</i>	<i>R</i> ²	Adjusted <i>R</i> ²	<i>SE</i> of the Estimate
1	.245 ^a	.060	.034	3.27865

a. Predictors: (Constant), Tenure, Education, Gender, Income, Age

b. Dependent Variable: Total_turnover_intention

Description of the Participants

The sample of 187 participants consisted full-time nongovernmental employees from Texas who were at least 18 years of age at the time of the survey participation. The participant pool included 97 (51.9%) women and 90 (48.1%) men (Table 3). The ages of the participants ranged from 22 to 76 years of age, with a mean age of 46.89 years, and an *SD* score of 11.91. The participant education level ranged from 11 years of education to 26 years. The median years of education for the participants were 16.09 and the *SD* was 3.19. The midpoint income mean of the participants was \$87,500, with annual salaries ranging from \$5,000 to more than \$200,000. While some participants had a length of tenure at their workplace of less than one year, other employees had 35 years of tenure. The mean amount of tenure for the participants was 11.18 years, and the *SD* was 9.34 (see Table 4).

Table 3

Gender Frequencies

	<i>f</i>	%	Valid %	Cumulative %	Bootstrap for Percent		
					Bias	<i>SE</i>	95% Confidence Interval
							Lower
0	97	51.9	51.9	51.9	.0	3.6	44.9
1	90	48.1	48.1	100.0	.0	3.6	41.2
Total	187	100.0	100.0		.0	.0	100.0

Table 4

Descriptive Statistics

Variables	Statistic	Bootstrap				
		Bias	SE	95% Confidence Interval		
				Lower	Upper	
	<i>N</i>	187	0	0	187	187
Age	Minimum	22				
	Maximum	76				
	<i>M</i>	46.89	-.01	.88	45.18	48.55
	<i>SD</i>	11.913	-.038	.506	10.857	12.855
	<i>N</i>	187	0	0	187	187
Education	Minimum	11				
	Maximum	26				
	<i>M</i>	16.09	.00	.23	15.64	16.56
	<i>SD</i>	3.194	-.011	.193	2.804	3.569
	<i>N</i>	187	0	0	187	187
Income	Minimum	1				
	Maximum	10				
	<i>M</i>	5.33	.00	.16	5.02	5.65
	<i>SD</i>	2.167	-.010	.103	1.952	2.350
	<i>N</i>	187	0	0	187	187
Tenure	Minimum	.5				
	Maximum	35.0				
	<i>M</i>	11.187	-.006	.680	9.872	12.529
	<i>SD</i>	9.3451	-.0603	.4813	8.3351	10.2227
	<i>N</i>	187	0	0	187	187
Total_turnover_intention	Minimum	3.00				
	Maximum	15.00				
	<i>M</i>	7.7219	-.0017	.2430	7.2461	8.1818
	<i>SD</i>	3.33565	-.01359	.14180	3.04951	3.59945
Valid N (listwise)	<i>N</i>	187	0	0	187	187

$p < .05$; ^a – Unless otherwise noted, bootstrap results are based on 2000 bootstrap samples.

I used G*Power 3.1.9.2 to conduct a post hoc analysis (Faul et al., 2009). The input parameters for the two-tailed, linear multiple regression model were $p^2 = .013$, $\alpha = .05$, $N = 187$, and 5 predictor variables. The output parameters were lower critical R^2 value = .004, upper critical $R^2 = .067$, and a power designation of .976. The power designation indicated there was a 97.6% chance of correctly rejecting the null hypothesis when the null hypothesis is false.

Statistical Assumptions

The statistical assumptions of multiple regression analysis are (a) normal distribution of the data, (b) linear relationship, (c) accuracy of measurement, and (d) homoscedasticity (Green & Salkind, 2011). The data for this study had nonnormal distributions, and a linear relationship was not present between the predictor variables and the criterion variable (see Figure 1). The variance around the regression line was not the same for all values of the predictor variables. A violation of the assumptions associated with multiple regression analysis existed. To address this violations of the assumptions, I used the bootstrapping feature in SPSS. Bootstrapping is a robust method of resampling the sample data and the use of bootstrapping is appropriate when violations of normality exist (Aguinis et al., 2013). I performed 2,000 iterations of the bootstrap procedure to address the violations of normal distribution.

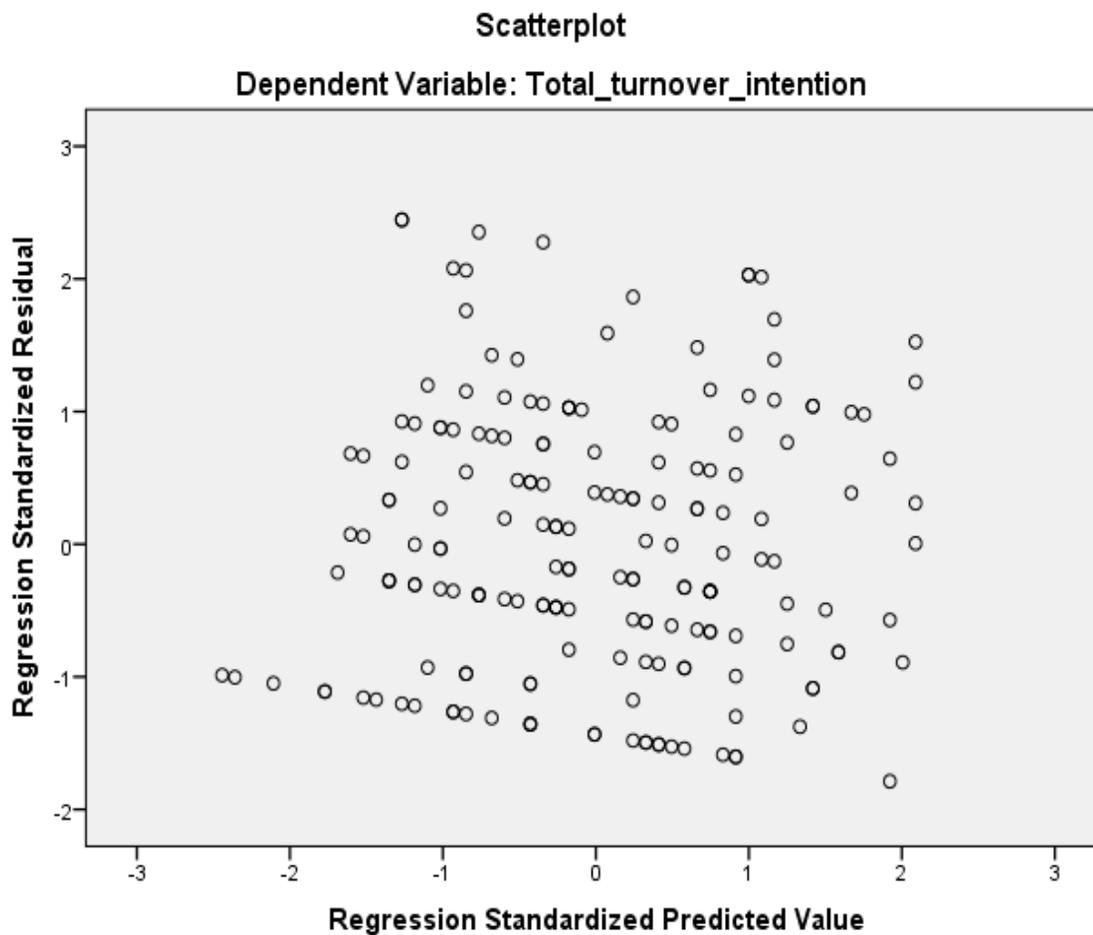


Figure 1. Scatterplot diagram of the regression standardized residuals of age, education, gender, income, and tenure on the dependent variable of turnover intention.

Inferential Statistics Results

The primary research question for this study was: To what extent, if any, does a relationship exist between the predictor variables of age, education, gender, income, length of tenure, and the criterion variable employee turnover intention?

I performed a standard multiple linear regression analysis, $\alpha = .05$ (two-tailed) to examine the efficacy of (a) age, (b) education, (c) gender, (d) income, and (e) length of

tenure in predicting turnover intention. The predictor variables were (a) age, (b) education, (c) gender, (d) income, and (e) length of tenure. The criterion variable was turnover intention. The null hypotheses were that (a) age, (b) education, (c) gender, (d) income, and (e) length of tenure would not significantly predict turnover intention. The alternate hypotheses were that (a) age, (b) education, (c) gender, (d) income, and (e) length of tenure would significantly predict turnover intention. I conducted a preliminary analysis to assess whether the assumptions of multicollinearity, outliers, normality, linearity, and homoscedasticity of the residuals were met; violations were noted (see Figure 1). The model was able to significantly predict turnover intention $F(5, 181) = 2.305, p = .046$, adjusted $R^2 = .034$ (see Table 2 and Table 5). The adjusted R^2 (.034) value indicated that approximately 3% of the variations in turnover intention were accounted for by the linear combination of the predictor variables of (a) age, (b) education, (c) gender, (d) income, and (e) length of tenure. In the final model, age and income were statistically significant, with income ($\beta = -.169, p = -.032$) accounting for a higher contribution to the model than age ($\beta = -.162, p = -.045$; see Table 6). A negative beta value indicated a significant variation in turnover intention. A negative coefficient is indicative of an inverse relationship between the predictor variable and the criterion variable. Therefore, for each *SD* unit of increase in turnover intention, the variable of age decreased by $-.162$, and income decreased by $-.169$ when the other four predictor variables were constant. Therefore, a statistically significant relationship existed between the predictor variables of age and income and the criterion variable of turnover intention. I rejected the null hypotheses for the variables of age and income. Education, gender, and

length of tenure did not provide any significant variation in turnover intention. For the variables of education, gender, and length of tenure, I failed to reject the null hypotheses because there was no statistically significant relationship between the variables.

Table 5

ANOVA^a

Model		<i>SS</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>MS</i>	<i>F</i>	Sig.
	Regression	123.870	5	24.774	2.305	.046 ^b
1	Residual	1945.670	181	10.750		
	Total	2069.540	186			

$p < .05$; ^a – Dependent Variable: Total_turnover_intention; ^b – Predictors: (Constant), Tenure, Education, Gender, Income, Age.

Table 6

Bootstrap for Coefficients

Model	B	Bias	Bootstrap ^a			95% Confidence Interval	
			SE	Sig. (2-tailed)	Lower	Upper	
1	(Constant)	9.389	-.071	1.546	.000	6.302	
	Age	-.045	.001	.023	.054	-.090	
	Education	.103	.002	.075	.171	-.042	
	Gender	.254	.000	.487	.607	-.666	
	Income	-.260	.001	.118	.032	-.492	
	Tenure	.006	8.231E-005	.028	.847	-.047	

$p < .05$; ^a – Unless otherwise noted, bootstrap results are based on 2000 bootstrap samples.

The results of this study showed a statistically significant relationship existed between age and turnover intention and the results were similar to the results of peer-reviewed research. A negative correlation ($r = -.181$) existed between an employee's age and the employee's turnover intention (see Table 8). Thus, as an employee's age increased, turnover intentions were less likely to occur. Similarly, the results of previous research indicated an employee's age is a factor of consideration for turnover intention (Bjelland et al., 2011; Couch, 2011; Lopina et al., 2012). Individuals below the age of 35 were more likely to turnover than their older counterparts (Lopina et al., 2012). Lambert et al. (2012) surmised that decreases in turnover for older workers related to the workers amount of tenure with the organization.

Table 7

Age and Turnover Intention Correlations

Variables				Age	Total_turnover _intention
	Pearson Correlation			1	-.181*
	Sig. (2-tailed)				.013
	<i>N</i>			187	187
Age	Bias			0	.000
	<i>SE</i>			0	.075
	Bootstrap	95% Confidence Interval	Lower	1	-.322
			Upper	1	-.034
	Pearson Correlation			-.181*	1
Sig. (2-tailed)			.013		
<i>N</i>			187	187	
Total_turnover _intention	Bias			.000	0
	<i>SE</i>			.075	0
	Bootstrap	95% Confidence Interval	Lower	-.322	1
			Upper	-.034	1

$p < .05$; * – Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed). Unless otherwise noted, bootstrap results are based on 2000 bootstrap samples.

In contrast to the review of the literature and the human capital theory, an employee's level of education was not a predictor of turnover intention. Similarly, when addressing turnover intention using personal and contextual factors, education and gender were not significant predictors (Joo, Hahn, & Peterson, 2015). The results of this study may have indicated that education was not a factor for turnover intention because the aggregate percentage of participants with 13 through 26 years of education totaled to 84% (see Table 8). The study findings may extend knowledge of the human capital theory by assessing the differences in turnover intentions for individuals with varying levels of post-secondary levels of education. In a study of knowledge workers, the results showed that turnover was less likely when the knowledge workers received opportunities to advance their skills and develop mentoring relationships (Jayasingam & Yong, 2013).

Table 8

Education Frequencies

Years	<i>f</i>	%	Valid %	Cumulative %	Bootstrap for Percent ^a				
					Bias	<i>SE</i>	95% Confidence Interval		
							Lower	Upper	
11	1	.5	.5	.5	.0	.5	.0	1.6	
12	29	15.5	15.5	16.0	.0	2.7	10.2	20.9	
13	12	6.4	6.4	22.5	.0	1.8	3.2	10.2	
14	25	13.4	13.4	35.8	.1	2.5	8.6	18.7	
15	5	2.7	2.7	38.5	.0	1.2	.5	5.3	
16	52	27.8	27.8	66.3	.0	3.3	21.4	34.2	
17	5	2.7	2.7	69.0	.0	1.2	.5	5.3	
18	24	12.8	12.8	81.8	-.1	2.4	8.0	17.6	
19	10	5.3	5.3	87.2	.0	1.6	2.1	8.6	
20	10	5.3	5.3	92.5	.0	1.6	2.7	9.1	
21	2	1.1	1.1	93.6	.0	.7	.0	2.7	
22	3	1.6	1.6	95.2	.0	.9	.0	3.7	
23	2	1.1	1.1	96.3	.0	.7	.0	2.7	
24	2	1.1	1.1	97.3	.0	.8	.0	2.7	
25	2	1.1	1.1	98.4	.0	.8	.0	2.7	
26	3	1.6	1.6	100.0	.0	.9	.0	3.7	
Total	187	100.0	100.0		.0	.0	100.0	100.0	

$p < .05$; ^a – Unless otherwise noted, bootstrap results are based on 2000 bootstrap samples.

The results of this study showed no significant relationship between gender and turnover intention. Additional researchers identified similar results. A statistically significant relationship did not exist between gender and turnover intention when considering the moderating variables of proactive personality traits and job characteristics (Joo et al., 2015). Similarly, Tschopp, Grote, and Gerber (2014) postulated that an employee's career orientation was a predictor of the employee's turnover intention regardless of the employee's gender. As such, loyal employees that experience low levels of job satisfaction experience fewer instances of turnover than employees with independent career orientation (Tschopp et al., 2014). The results disconfirm the findings of the peer-reviewed studies in the literature review that were indicative of gender disparities. Grissom et al. (2012) postulated that a supervisor's leadership style and job satisfaction were predictive factors for gender disparities as the disparities related to turnover intention. Similarly, psychological contracts between the employee and the supervisor related to gender congruencies (Botsford-Morgan & King, 2012).

Green and Salkind (2011) described correlation coefficients of .10, .20, and .30 as weak, moderate, and strong respectively. A negative, weak, correlation ($r = -.166$) existed between an employee's level of income and the employee's turnover intention (Green & Salkind, 2011; see Table 9). Thus, as the variable of income increased, turnover intentions decreased. The significant relationship that existed between income and turnover intention may relate to perceptions of fairness. Similarly, Ryan et al. (2012) found that employee perceptions of fairness in pay related to continuance commitment.

As such, organizations with employees who have fair compensation are associated with lower levels of turnover (Carnahan et al., 2012; Llorens & Stazyk, 2011).

Table 9

Income and Turnover Intention Correlations

Variables		Total_turnover_intention	Income	
Total_turnover_intention	Pearson Correlation	1	-.166*	
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.023	
	<i>N</i>	187	187	
	Bootstrap	Bias	0	-.003
		<i>SE</i>	0	.071
	95% Confidence Interval	Lower	1	-.307
		Upper	1	-.029
Income	Pearson Correlation	-.166*	1	
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.023		
	<i>N</i>	187	187	
	Bootstrap	Bias	-.003	0
		<i>SE</i>	.071	0
	95% Confidence Interval	Lower	-.307	1
		Upper	-.029	1

$p < .05$; * – Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed). Unless otherwise noted, bootstrap results are based on 2000 bootstrap samples.

A negative, weak, correlation existed ($r = -.067$) between length of tenure and employee turnover intention. Length of tenure was not a predictive factor for turnover intention, because the relationship was not statistically significant (see Table 10). The

findings were not consistent with the human capital theory. Ng and Feldman (2013) suggested that researchers examine the relationship between length of tenure and turnover using moderating variables. The findings of this study were consistent with the findings of a study conducted Ng and Feldman (2013) that included employee motivation as a moderating factor. Conversely, when a psychological contract existed there was a statistically significant relationship between length of tenure and turnover intention (Bal et al., 2013). In this study, length of tenure may not have been a predictive factor for turnover intention due to the exclusion of moderating variables in this study.

Table 10

Tenure and Turnover Intention Correlations

Variables		Total_turnover_	Tenure	
		intention		
Total_turnover _intention	Pearson Correlation	1	-.067	
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.359	
	<i>N</i>	187	187	
	Bias	0	.001	
	<i>SE</i>	0	.073	
	Bootstrap	95% Confidence	1	-.208
		Interval	1	.074
		Pearson Correlation	-.067	1
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.359	
	Tenure	<i>N</i>	187	187
Bias		.001	0	
<i>SE</i>		.073	0	
Bootstrap		95% Lower	-.208	1
		Confidence		
Interval		Upper	.074	1

$p < .05$. Unless otherwise noted, bootstrap results are based on 2000 bootstrap samples

Applications to Professional Practice

In order to maintain competitiveness in the marketplace, organizational leaders offer incentives to retain high performers. High performers provide a positive return on investment for the organization because of the positive relationship between human capital assets and organizational profitability (Kwon & Rupp, 2013). The profitability of

the return on investment associated with turnover of high performers is dependent upon the costs associated with the human capital investments used to generate employee knowledge, skills, and abilities (Kwon & Rupp, 2013).

When assessing dismissal strategies and reductions in the workforce, human resource practitioners must make economically just decisions. The classification for employee turnover can be functional or dysfunctional (Wallace & Gaylor, 2012). Functional turnover occurs when organizational leaders replace low performers with high-performers. Conversely, dysfunctional turnover is the replacement of high-performers with low performers (Wallace & Gaylor, 2012). From a human capital perspective, dysfunctional turnover occurs when organizational leaders replace high performers with low performers. Thus, dysfunctional turnover is more likely to occur when employees from the Millennial generation replace members of the Baby Boomer generational cohort. Baby Boomers have more experience, and therefore, have more human capital assets than their younger counterparts have (Wallace & Gaylor, 2012). Therefore, it is economically sound for human resource practitioners to replace Millennials that exit the organization with Baby Boomer generation employees.

The results of the study indicated a statistically significant relationship existed between an employee's age and the employee's turnover intention. The practical implications concerning age involve members of the Baby Boomer generation, born between 1946-1964, and the Millennial generation, born after 1980 (Tang, Cunningham, Frauman, Ivy, & Perry, 2012). Additionally, it is imperative that human resource practitioners manage employee turnover through the development of strategies that are

conducive to the retention of top performers and the termination of ineffective employees (Young, Beckman, & Baker, 2012). To understand the generational differences in turnover intentions, human resource practitioners should be aware of the differences in employee behaviors.

Millennials change jobs on average every 18 months and are not willing to make personal sacrifices for a career (Festing & Schafer, 2014). However, Baby Boomers are process-oriented, loyal employees that willingly sacrifice their personal needs for the good of the employment organization, and experience longer tenure (Saber, 2013). In instances when downsizing is necessary, the human resource practitioner will need to make employee reduction decisions that do not impede the efficiency of the organization. For underperforming employees, it may be more cost-effective for the human resource practitioner to dismiss an underperforming Millennial than to dismiss an underperforming Baby Boomer. Due to the attitudes and values of members of the Baby Boomer cohort, an underperforming Baby Boomer is likely to create less of a barrier to organizational efficiency than an underperforming Millennial. Millennials are more likely to turnover when they feel there is no opportunity for promotion or increases in pay within the organization. Therefore, when considering dismissal strategies, it is more beneficial for human resource practitioners to dismiss a Millennial than a Baby Boomer.

The results of this study indicated the existence of a weak, statistically significant, negative relationship between income and turnover intentions. In order to retain top performers, organizational leaders should evaluate salary increases and wage allocations. Human resource practitioners must develop compensation strategies for attracting and

retaining top performing Baby Boomers and Millennials (Panaccio, Vandenberghe, & Ayed, 2014).

Salary increases are significant motivational factors to top performing Millennials and are consistent with reductions in turnover intentions (Johnson & Ng, 2015). Johnson and Ng (2015) found that when Millennials feel they receive fair compensation, they are less likely to seek employment outside of the organization. Similarly, Baby Boomers that experience pay satisfaction have increased tenure. One method for human resource practitioners to demonstrate fairness in wage allocations is to implement pay-for-performance initiatives. Pay-for-performance strategies afford the human resource practitioner the opportunity to reward top performers with additional pay or incentives (Fang & Gerhart, 2012). Millennials have more technological savvy, and adapt to change quicker than their older counterparts (Thompson & Gregory, 2012). Therefore, when Millennials experience satisfaction with pay, they exhibit less turnover intention, and have the potential to the changing needs of the organization. When assessing the effects of pay-for-performance reward initiatives on generational differences, human resource practitioners may find that it is more advantageous to retain top performing Millennials than top performing Baby Boomers.

Implications for Social Change

The results of this study indicated that younger employees are more likely to have turnover intentions than their older counterparts are. Millennials have fewer turnover intentions when employed by organizations with human resource practices that are consistent with the employee's psychological needs (Festing & Schafer, 2014). Human

resource practices that are appealing to the motivational needs of employees include benefits that extend to the employees' family and community. Millennial motivations include work flexibility, civic involvement, and community orientation (Twenge, Campbell, & Freeman, 2012). Human resource practitioners can implement work-life balance initiatives to attract and retain members of the Millennial generational cohort (Lu & Gursoy, 2013).

Work-life balance initiatives are organizational resources that align with the social and culture goals of the employee (Wang & Verma, 2012). Work-life balance initiatives include flexible work hours, employee assistance programs, childcare programs, and elder care programs (Wang & Verma, 2012). Families benefit from work-life balance initiatives because the Millennial employee can reduce the household expenses by using flexible work hours and on-site childcare program assistance. Members of the Millennial generation are more socially conscious than their predecessors. Therefore, when the Millennial employee achieves work-life balance, the employee is able to participate in social and civic causes such as environmental clean-up activities, and volunteering in nonprofit organizations (Twenge et al., 2012).

The results of the study indicated an inverse relationship existed between income and turnover intentions for Baby Boomers and Millennials. Baby Boomers experience longer tenure and are less likely to terminate employment with an organization. Human resource practitioners should focus wage allocation decisions on the Millennial generation. Johnson and Ng (2015) surmised that Millennials employed by nonprofit organizations exhibited fewer turnover intentions when the employee experienced pay

satisfaction. The advantages of employee retention of Millennials in nonprofit organizations extend to the beneficiaries of philanthropic, social enterprise, and community development outreach programs. Participants in drug rehabilitation, youth empowerment, women's empowerment, and environmental recycling programs benefit from the retention of Millennial employees.

Recommendations for Action

In this study, age and income were the significant predictor variables for turnover intention. The variables that did not have a statistically significant relationship with turnover intention were education, gender, and length of tenure. Organizational leaders and human resource practitioners can replicate the study for their specific organization. The results of this study would be beneficial to organizational leaders and human resource practitioners on generational differences and pay initiatives as they relate to turnover intentions. Human resource practitioners should assess turnover intention by implementing strategies that address generational differences and pay satisfaction initiatives. When assessing generational differences, human resource practitioners may benefit from the development of strategies that are consistent with maintaining operational efficiency (Fang & Gerhart, 2012). When generational differences exist, human resource practitioners must determine the motivating factors concerning the employee's performance (Twenge et al., 2012).

Human resource practitioners can use pay-for performance initiatives to reward top performers and justify the dismissal of poor performers (Laird, Harvey, & Lancaster, 2015). For top performers, pay-for-performance is a reward. However, for poor

performers, human resource practitioners can use the appraisal that accompanies pay-for-performance awards to justify dismissals. Members of the Millennial generational cohort feel deserving of praise and have a sense of entitlement (Laird et al., 2015). As such, turnover intentions increase more for Millennials than Baby Boomers when the employee receives a poor performance appraisal (Laird et al., 2015). When establishing pay satisfaction initiatives, human resource practitioners should communicate the governing principles in a clear and concise manner.

Recommendations for Further Research

I viewed the effects of age, education, gender, income, and length of tenure on employee turnover using a human capital theorist viewpoint. The limitations of this study were (a) the use of a convenience sample, (b) I did not include antecedents to turnover intention, (c) I did not include employee perceptions, and (d) the results did not establish causation. Each of the survey participants resided in Texas, according to the proximal similarity model; the results of the study are generalizable to employees in the United States (Palese et al., 2013). Each of the limitations is an opportunity for future research.

I recommend future researchers replicate this study within a single organization or industry. Researchers may benefit from using qualitative exploration to determine the effects of turnover intention when examining organizational commitment and job embeddedness as it relates to the predictor variables of this study. The results of a qualitative study may indicate why age and income were predictive factors of turnover intention as well as why education, gender, and length of tenure were not. It is possible that the inclusion of employee perceptions could yield different results. The results of this

study did not establish causation. Future researchers may use job satisfaction and organizational justice perceptions as mediating and moderating variables to examine turnover intentions.

Reflections

Prior to conducting the research for this study, I had preconceived ideas that each predictor variable would be statistically significant to employee turnover intention. I chose quantitative research methods and an anonymous survey participant pool to mitigate any risks associated with my personal biases. Upon completion of the study, I realized that the results of the study could provide a foundation for future qualitative research that can provide an in-depth understanding of predictive factors of turnover intentions.

It is possible that the predictor variables of education, gender, and length of tenure could have significant effects if a researcher replicated the study using different educational groupings, or using moderating variables. I did not find a significant statistical relationship between education and turnover intention. However, the majority of the sample, 84%, attended college. When researchers grouped employees by degrees (associates, masters, and bachelors), Islam et al. (2013) found differences in turnover intentions. The results of a future study may have different indications if there is equal dispersion among educational groups.

In an industry with a predominant gender for the organizational leaders, leader-member exchanges may relate to turnover. Grissom et al. (2012) postulated that turnover intentions were lower when gender congruence between the leader and the member

existed. Similarly, researchers should study length of tenure using moderating variables. Perceptions of autonomy, older age, and higher wages are predictors of increased tenure (Butler et al., 2014). Therefore, researchers that use pay satisfaction as a moderator may find that a statistically significant difference exists between age and turnover intention.

Summary and Study Conclusions

Employee turnover is costly to organizations. The loss of human capital can cause disruptions in organizational performance and profitability. Human resource practitioners and organizational leaders need to implement policies and practices that are instrumental in reducing human capital losses. Work-life balance and pay-for-performance initiatives are tools that useful in attracting and retaining top performers. A review of the literature was indicative of a relationship between improved outcomes for children and organizations with lower turnover.

The results of this research demonstrated a statistically significant relationship existed between an employee's age, income and turnover intention. A statistically significant relationship did not exist between an employee's (a) education, (b) gender or, (c) length of tenure and turnover intention. Human resource practitioners should consider the implementation of strategies that include opportunities for work-life balance to manage a multigenerational workforce to reduce turnover intentions. Similarly, human resource practitioners may use compensation incentives such as pay-for-performance initiatives to assist in the identification of poor and top performers.

Human resource practitioners can use pay-for-performance initiatives to identify and retain top performers, as well as identify and dismiss poor performing employees.

When assessing generational differences, Millennials are two to three times as likely to turnover within a year as compared to Baby Boomers (Laird et al., 2015). Furthermore, Millennials have a sense of entitlement, or feel deserving of praise and rewards, without regard to actual performance (Laird et al., 2015). The sense of entitlement is associated with job exhaustion, job stress, and low levels of job satisfaction when the Millennial receives a poor performance appraisal (Laird et al., 2015).

When experiencing job exhaustion, poor performers of the Millennial cohort were more likely to turnover than their Baby Boomer counterparts (Lu & Gursoy, 2013). The higher levels of turnover occur because of the Millennial's emphasis on work-life balance and leisure and the Baby Boomer's emphasis on hard work and occupational achievement (Lu & Gursoy, 2013). Human resource practitioners should understand that Millennial poor performers are likely to seek other employment opportunities when faced with feelings of stress, job exhaustion, or poor performance appraisals.

When considering pay-for-performance initiatives, it is more advantageous for human resource practitioners to terminate poor performers from the Millennial generation than the Baby Boomer cohort. The development of strategies that provide supportive organizational cultures, retention of top performers, and the dismissal of poor performers increase employee and organizational performance. Similarly, strategies that address generational differences and pay satisfaction provide opportunities to manage a multi-generational workforce. The development of economically sound decisions in the turnover process will reduce the effects of dysfunctional turnover within an organization.

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Appendix A: Informed Consent

The purpose of this doctoral research project is to examine whether an employee's age, education, gender, income, or length of tenure are predictive factors for turnover intentions. This is a research project being conducted by Tracy M. Hayes, a doctoral student at Walden University. The anticipated benefit of the research is human resources practitioners may use research concerning predictors of turnover intentions to develop human resource practices that reduce the consequences associated with employee turnover.

I invite you to participate in this research project because you are a full-time employed citizen residing in Texas, and at least 18 years of age. If you do not meet the established criteria for study participation, i.e. employed full-time, resident of Texas, at least 18 years old, then you may elect to terminate participation by clicking the disagree button at the end of this form.

Your participation in this research study is voluntary. There are minimal risks associated with survey participation and you will not receive monetary compensation for your participation. You may choose not to participate. If you decide to participate in this research survey, you may withdraw at any time. If you decide not to participate in this study or if you withdrawal from participating at any time, you will not be penalized.

The procedure involves completing an online survey that will take approximately five minutes. Your responses will be confidential, and we do not collect identifying information such as your name, email address, or IP address. The survey questions will concern employee demographics and turnover intentions.

We will do our best to keep your information confidential. All data is stored in a password protected electronic format. To help protect your confidentiality, the surveys will not contain information that will personally identify you. The results of this study will be used for scholarly purposes only and may be shared with Walden University representatives. Your participation will not result in a conflict of interest

If you have any questions about the research study, please contact Tracy M. Hayes at tracy.hayes2@waldenu.edu. This research plan has been reviewed according to Walden University IRB procedures for research involving human subjects. The IRB approval number is 05-05-15-0390582. If you have questions about your rights, please contact Walden University IRB at irb@waldenu.edu. Please print a copy of this page for your records.

ELECTRONIC CONSENT: Please select your choice below.

Clicking on the "agree" button below indicates that:

- you have read the above information
- you voluntarily agree to participate
- you are employed full-time
- you are at least 18
- you are a resident of Texas

If you do not wish to participate in the research study, please decline participation by clicking on the "disagree" button. Clicking on the "disagree" button indicates one of the following:

- you do not agree to participate

- you are not employed full-time
- you are less the 18 years old
- you are not a resident of Texas
- Agree
- Disagree

Appendix B: Survey Questions

Questions 1-3 will inquire about your age and current employment status to determine your eligibility to complete the survey.

1. Are you 18 years old or older?
2. What is your current employment status?
 - a. I am currently unemployed.
 - b. I am currently employed part-time (less than 40 hours per week).
 - c. I am currently employed full-time (40 hours or more per week).
3. Please choose one of the following options that most closely describes the nature of your current employment:
 - a. I am self-employed.
 - b. I am employed by another individual or company.
 - c. A mixture of the above two options- both self-employed and employed by another individual or company.

Demographic Information

Questions 4-8 will provide demographic background information. Please answer all items candidly and honestly, remembering that your responses are anonymous and confidential.

4. At the time of this survey, how many years old are you?
5. What is your gender?
 - a. Female
 - b. Male

6. What is the highest-grade level of formal education that you have completed, without regard to the country of attainment?

Range for answers: 9 years - 26 years

7. What was your personal (not household) income last year?

Range for answers: \$0 - \$200,000+

8. How many years have you been employed by your current employer?

Range for answers: Less than 1 year – 32 years

Current Employment Intentions

Please respond to statements 9-11 by indicating your levels of agreement or disagreement using the following scale:

- A. Strongly disagree
- B. Disagree
- C. Neither agree nor disagree
- D. Agree
- E. Strongly agree

9. I often think of leaving this organization.
10. It is possible that I will look for a new job within the next year.
11. If I could choose again, I would not choose to work for the same organization.

Appendix C: Instrument Permission Request

Dear Dr. Mobley:

I am a doctoral student at Walden University writing my doctoral study tentatively titled, “Demographic characteristics predicting employee turnover intentions?” I respectfully request permission to use your three-item turnover intention questionnaire in my research study. Specifically, I would like to examine responses to three statements derived from the turnover intention model developed by Mobley, Horner, and Hollingsworth in 1978. With your permission, I propose to organize the statements in the following manner; (a) I often think of leaving the organization, (b) it is possible that I will look for a new job within the next year, and (c) if I could choose again, I would not work for the same organization. I propose to use a Likert-type scale to examine the responses in which low scores will indicate low turnover intentions, and high scores will indicate high turnover intentions.

If the manner that I propose to use the turnover intention questionnaire is acceptable to you, please indicate so by responding through email. My email address is Tracy.hayes2@waldenu.edu.

Sincerely,

Tracy M. Hayes

Mobley, W. H., Horner, S. O., & Hollingsworth, A. T. (1978). An evaluation of precursors of hospital employee turnover. *Journal of Applied Psychology*,

4, 408-414. Retrieved from www.apa.org/pubs/journals/apl/index.aspx

William Mobley

Wed, Apr 15, 2015 at 2:59 AM

To: TRACY HAYES <tracy.hayes2@waldenu.edu>

Dear Tracy,

You have my permission to use the behavioral intention scale described in your email. Best wishes with your research.

Bill

William H. Mobley, Ph.D.

President Emeritus, Texas A & M University

Professor Emeritus, China Europe International Business School, Shanghai

Chairman, Mobley Group Pacific Ltd., Shanghai & Hong Kong