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Employee Turnover Intention in the U.S. Fast Food Industry

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Imelda Bebe

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Walden University
2016

Abstract

Employee Turnover Intention in the U.S. Fast Food Industry

by

Imelda A. Bebe

MS, Kaplan University, 2011

BSBA, Philippine School of Business Administration, 1995

Doctoral Study Submitted in Partial Fulfillment

of the Requirements for the Degree of

Doctor of Business Administration

Walden University

January 2016

Abstract

Employee turnover in the U.S. fast food industry has been high, averaging rate 150% per annum. The purpose of the correlational design study was to examine the relationships between job satisfaction factors, job dissatisfaction factors, and employee turnover intentions among fast food employees to determine whether a statistically significant relationship exists between these variables. The population for the study consisted of 144 fast food restaurant employees working in the East Coast in the United States. The theoretical framework was Herzberg's 2-factor motivation-hygiene needs theory, which describes job satisfaction factors and job dissatisfaction factors. Internet survey data of 144 participants were analyzed using Pearson-product correlation coefficients and multiple linear regressions analysis. The study findings revealed statistically significant relationships between job satisfaction factors and employee turnover intentions ($p < .01$), and job dissatisfaction factors and employee turnover intentions ($p < .01$). Among the job satisfaction factors, responsibility had a stronger relationship with employee turnover intentions (-.52) compared with other factors. Under job dissatisfaction factors, company policy had a stronger relationship with employee turnover intentions (-.52) compared with other factors. In addition, criterion variance of employee turnover intentions associated with combined job satisfaction factors was stronger (35%) than were the combined job dissatisfaction factors (31%). The study findings are designed to inform fast food restaurant managers in taking actions to reduce employee turnover, resulting in improved business financial sustainability and long-term growth.

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Dedication

Praise to the Lord for this great opportunity entrusted me. I thank God for his guidance and help throughout this journey. Once again, God showed me that nothing is impossible in the world that I can do all things through Christ who strengthens me. This achievement is greatly dedicated to my beloved father and mother who instilled in me the importance of education. I always remembered what my father said, "Education is the greatest treasure that you can have in this world that no one can take away from you;" he was definitely right!!!

I dedicate this achievement also my husband, Fred Jr., our kids (Christina, Danika, Fred III, and Nenita), brothers, sisters, relatives, and friends who gave me the reasons to aim high and kept me going despite of many challenges. Completing this journey was challenging yet rewarding in the end. This achievement is so remarkable that I cannot compare. I hope this great achievement will inspire Christina, Danika, Fred III, and Nenita to obtain their doctoral degrees in the future!

Acknowledgments

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Section 1: Foundation of the Study

Fast food restaurants make up a major segment of the U.S restaurant industry (Batt, Lee, & Lakhani, 2014). The U.S. fast food industry comprised 25% of the total restaurant sales (DiPietro, Gregory, & Jackson, 2013). The four segments of the fast food industry are (a) quick-service restaurants (QSR), (b) takeaways, (c) mobile and street vendors, and (d) leisure locations (Kamal & Wilcox, 2014). Quick-service restaurants are a top segment in the fast food industry in terms of sales performance (Kamal & Wilcox, 2014).

U.S. fast food industry is a vital business sector in the economies because of its more than 53% market value, contributing to economic growth (Kamal & Wilcox, 2014). In 2011, the fast food market value in U.S. was approximately $66.2 billion, having grown by 20% since 2006 (Kamal & Wilcox, 2014). The fast food restaurants throughout the United States numbered more than 200,000 (Sena, 2014). The growth sales in the fast food industry increased dramatically, from $6 billion in 1970 to $16 billion in 1975 (Sena, 2014). In 2013, growth sales reached $160 billion, equivalent to about 8.6% annual rate (Sena, 2014). With effective strategic approaches, the fast food industry expanded internationally successfully (Sena, 2014).

Background of the Problem

The fast food industry has contributed nationally to U.S. economic growth; however, increasing employee turnover rates have become the main concern of many fast food managers (Batt et al., 2014; Dike, 2012). The turnover in the fast food industry is high compared to other industries (Dike, 2012; Perez & Mirabella, 2013; Sterrett, 2011;

Wyld, 2014). Employees' voluntary withdrawal from a workplace occurs because of (a) low wages and benefits, (b) lack of training, (c) autonomy, (d) job opportunities, (e) lack of support from management, (f) and from unfavorable working conditions (Batt et al., 2014; Royle, 2005; Ryan, Ghazali, & Mohsin, 2011).

Employee turnover is both disruptive and costly to employers, involving increased direct and indirect costs (Batt et al., 2014; French, 2014; Kacmar et al., 2006; Ryan et al., 2011). The increasing number of voluntary withdrawals has caused many fast food managers to experience the hardship of replacing the quitters (Dipietro & Strate, 2008). The fast food industry is popular for having low skilled-labor that discourages highly skilled workers from applying for vacant positions (Batt et al., 2014; Kwon, 2014). Fast food restaurants primarily hire students with less experience or no experience that implies highly skilled workers are over qualified.

Employee turnover has an effect on employee efficiency that influences business financial performance in a negative fashion (Kacmar, Andrews, Van Rooy, Steilberg, & Cerrone, 2006). The lack of organizational support, work socialization, and employee involvement creates isolation among employees, which results in lower productivity and effectiveness (DiPietro & Pizam, 2008; Mathe & Slevitch, 2013). Employee turnover is caused by lack of employee training, which affects employee competence (Perez & Mirabella, 2013). Employee incompetence affects the quality service of the fast food restaurants and thus diminishes the frequency of positive customer experiences (Harrington, Ottenbacher, Staggs, & Powell, 2012).

Problem Statement

The employee turnover rate in the U.S. fast food industry is high at approximately 150% per annum (Dike, 2012; Perez & Mirabella, 2013). Turnover is as high as 300% per annum for the lowest-level hourly paid employees in some fast food stores (Royle, 2010; Ryan et al., 2011). The general business problem is business operations become costly and disruptive for many organizational managers because of high turnover (Dipietro & Strate, 2008; Kacmar et al., 2006). The specific business problem is that some managers in the fast food industry did not understand the relationship between employee job satisfaction, employee job dissatisfaction, and employee turnover intentions.

Purpose Statement

The purpose of this quantitative correlational study was to examine the relationship between employee job satisfaction, employee job dissatisfaction, and employee turnover intentions in the U.S. fast food industry. It specifically analyzed associations between five job satisfaction independent variables: (a) achievement or quality performance, (b) recognition, (c) responsibility, (d) work-itself, and (e) advancement and growth (Herzberg et al., 1959). It also tracked five job dissatisfaction independent variables: (a) company policy, (b) supervision, (c) interpersonal relationships, (d) working conditions, and (e) salary (Herzberg et al., 1959). The dependent variable was employee turnover intentions in the U.S. fast food industry.

The targeted population included lower level managers and fast food workers throughout the East Coast of the United States. This population suited the needs for the

study because fast food workers in lower-level management and nonmanagerial positions in the fast food industry experience high turnover (Perez & Mirabella, 2013; Ryan et al., 2011). This study promotes positive social change by identifying information to help managers in the fast food industry reduce employee turnover intentions and target factors important to employees for which managers have control.

Nature of the Study

A quantitative method suited the needs for this study because of the statistical nature of the data and the quantitative method's suitability for evaluating hypotheses with inferential statistics (Singleton & Straits, 2010). The qualitative method did not meet the needs of this study because the nature of a qualitative approach is to explore and understand why and how the targeted participant experienced the phenomenon, which was not the purpose of the study (Bernard, 2013). Mixed methods did not suit the needs for this study, because the purpose of the study was to examine the relationships between predictors (independent) and criterion (dependent) variables. Mixed methods require the combination of exploration of experience to gain an in-depth understanding regarding the phenomenon with examination of variables to determine the relationship between the variables (Cronholm & Hjalmarsson, 2011; Venkatesh, Brown, & Bala, 2013), which was not the case for this study.

I used a correlational design because only correlations would determine the existence and the strengths of the relationships with a multiple linear regression analysis (Green & Salkind, 2011). A qualitative phenomenological design did not suit the needs for the quantitative study, because the nature of the research did not involve analyzing

lived experiences to describe and understand the meaning of the phenomenon (Bernard, 2013). In a phenomenological design, a researcher must explore to understand the importance of the phenomenon to create a new theory; whereas, in a correlational design, a researcher must examine the relationship of the variables how all predictor variables, as a whole, predict the dependent variable (Bernard, 2013; Green & Salkind, 2011). A sequential mixed-methods design did not apply for the study because it used complex requirements that include observations, interviews, and statistical procedures to support the argument, as suggested by Naidu and Patel (2013).

Research Questions

The objective of the quantitative correlation study was to examine the relationship between (a) factors of employee job satisfaction, (b) factors of employee job dissatisfaction, and (c) employee turnover intentions in the fast food industry.

Research Question 1: Is there a statistically significant relationship between employee achievement and turnover intentions?

Research Question 2: Is there a statistically significant relationship between employee recognition and turnover intentions?

Research Question 3: Is there a statistically significant relationship between employee work and turnover intentions?

Research Question 4: Is there a statistically significant relationship between employee responsibility and turnover intentions?

Research Question 5: Is there a statistically significant relationship between employee advancement and growth and turnover intentions?

Research Question 6: Is there a statistically significant relationship between employee job dissatisfaction involving company policies and turnover intentions?

Research Question 7: Is there a statistically significant relationship between employee job dissatisfaction involving supervision and turnover intentions?

Research Question 8: Is there a statistically significant relationship between employee job dissatisfaction involving interpersonal relationships and turnover intentions?

Research Question 9: Is there a statistically significant relationship between employee job dissatisfaction involving working conditions and turnover intentions?

Research Question 10: Is there a statistically significant relationship between employee job dissatisfaction involving salary and turnover intentions?

Hypotheses

In this research study, I tested 10 null and alternative hypotheses to determine whether a relationship exists and how well the independent variables predict the dependent variables.

$H1_o$: There is no statistically significant relationship between employee achievement and employee turnover intentions.

$H1_a$: There is a statistically significant relationship between employee achievement and employee turnover intentions.

$H2_o$: There is no statistically significant relationship between employee recognition and employee turnover intentions.

H2$_a$: There is a statistically significant relationship between employee recognition and employee turnover intentions.

H3$_o$: There is no statistically significant relationship between employee work and employee turnover intentions.

H3$_a$: There is a statistically significant relationship between employee work and employee turnover intentions.

H4$_o$: There is no statistically significant relationship between employee responsibility and employee turnover intentions.

H4$_a$: There is a statistically significant relationship between employee responsibility and employee turnover intentions.

H5$_o$: There is no statistically significant relationship between employee advancement and growth and employee turnover intentions.

H5$_a$: There is a statistically significant relationship between employee advancement and growth and employee turnover intentions.

H6$_o$: There is no statistically significant relationship between employee company policies and employee turnover intentions.

H6$_a$: There is a statistically significant relationship between employee company policies and employee turnover intentions.

H7$_o$: There is no statistically significant relationship between employee supervision and employee turnover intentions.

H7$_a$: There is a statistically significant relationship between employee supervision and employee turnover intentions.

H8$_o$: There is no statistically significant relationship between employee interpersonal relationships and employee turnover intentions.

H8$_a$: There is a statistically significant relationship between employee interpersonal relationships and employee turnover intentions.

H9$_o$: There is no statistically significant relationship between employee working conditions and employee turnover intentions.

H9$_a$: There is a statistically significant relationship between employee working conditions and employee turnover intentions.

H10$_o$: There is no statistically significant relationship between employee salary and employee turnover intentions.

H10$_a$: There is a statistically significant relationship between employee salary and employee turnover intentions.

Theoretical Framework

The theoretical framework for the study was Herzberg's (Herzberg, 1974; Herzberg, Mausner, & Snyderman, 1959) motivation-hygiene theory, which is also known as Herzberg's two-factor theory of job attitude, or satisfier-dissatisfier (motivators-hygiene) theory. Frederick Herzberg developed this motivation-hygiene theory in 1950 (Herzberg et al., 1959). Herzberg et al. (1959) used the theory to explain how the factors of job satisfaction and the factors of job dissatisfaction influence employee turnover intentions. Herzberg et al. identified the following key constructs for job satisfaction: (a) achievement or quality performance, (b) recognition, (c) responsibility, (d) work-itself, and (e) advancement and growth. Herzberg et al. also

identified the following key constructs for job dissatisfaction: (a) company policy, (b) supervision, (c) interpersonal relationships, (d) working conditions, and (e) salary.

Herzberg's (1959, 1974) motivation-hygiene theory implied that if factors related to job satisfaction go up, turnover intention should go down. According to this model, if the factors of job dissatisfaction go up, turnover intention should go up as well (Lumadi, 2014). Herzberg's motivation-hygiene theory includes information about the factors that foster increased motivation and satisfaction to reduce employee turnover intentions (Derby-Davis, 2014; Ghazi, Shahzada, & Khan, 2013). For this study, I purchased a license from Herzberg's (1974) publisher, Rightslink, to reuse an excerpt from the theory's motivation-hygiene profiles (Appendix F). This license allowed me to use both of Herzberg's works because the concentration of the works mainly focuses on motivation and hygiene theory.

Operational Definitions

Actual turnover: The self-assessment and outcome evaluation associated with leaving the current job (Stanley, Vandenberghe, Vandenberge, & Bentein, 2013).

Criterion variable: The effect or outcome variable as employee turnover (Petter, DeLone, & McLean, 2013).

Employee turnover: Employee withdrawal in the form of voluntary and involuntary withdrawal (Mobley, Griffeth, Hand, & Meglino, 1979).

Informed consent: A process that protects participants from any harm, allowing participants to participate voluntarily (Judkins-Cohn, Kielwasser-Withrow, Owen, & Ward, 2014).

Involuntary withdrawal: When an employee withdraws from work based on the company's decision (Mobley et al., 1979; Phillips, 2012).

Negative correlation: A negative correlation means an inverse correlation occurs between two variables (Green & Salkind, 2011).

Positive correlation: A positive correlation means a direct relationship exists between two variables (Green & Salkind, 2011).

Predictor variable: The independent or cause variable that predicts another variable (Petter et al., 2013).

Turnover intention: The process of leaving the current job (Mobley, 1977). Turnover intention is the last stage before the actual turnover takes place (Mobley, 1977).

Voluntary withdrawal: An employee's intentional withdrawal from work (Mobley et al., 1979; Phillips, 2012).

Assumptions, Limitations, and Delimitations

Assumptions

Assumptions are parts of the study that researchers believe are true, where no verification exists regarding the theory, phenomenon, methodology, instrument, analysis, participants, power, and results of the study (Dusick, 2014). The assumption in the study was that the participants answered the survey questions based on what they experienced and perceived inside the organization regarding employee job satisfaction independent variables (achievement, recognition, responsibility, work-itself, and advancement and growth), job dissatisfaction independent variables (company policy, supervision, interpersonal relationships, working conditions, and salary), and employee turnover

intentions in the fast food industry. A review of the literature substantiated the inclusion of these variables as they related to turnover intentions.

Each participant responded with honesty and accuracy. Participants' availability and voluntary participations executed without problems in conducting this research. Participants who responded to the survey invitation were the representatives of the target population.

Limitations

The limitations are factors that beyond control of the researchers including (a) the time constraints, (b) sample size, (c) process of analysis, (d) reporting, and (e) the instrument used in the study (Dusick, 2014). The process of inquiry design was a cross-sectional approach, as opposed to a longitudinal process. The success of the process depended on a limited timeframe. Participants' busy schedules limited their participations. The responses of the participants depended on the choices set by the survey questionnaire, which limited participants to express their views.

The study involved measuring the employee turnover *intention* and not the *actual* turnover. Results of the study data did not generalize with other groups of participants. The correlational quantitative study only included the fast food industry along the eastern seaboard in the United States with limited sample size of 130 participants based on the formula by Tabachnick and Fidell (2007).

Delimitations

The delimitations are factors controlled by me such as (a) selection of participants, (b) definition of population, and (c) targeted setting (Dusick, 2014). The

research problem of this quantitative study was the increasing turnover in the fast food industry. Employee turnover was one of the major problems of many fast food organizations, because turnover was costly and disruptive for their business operations.

The targeted population in the study was the fast food workers located in the east coast seaboard in the United States. The sample of the population was the low-level employees or non-managerial employees who worked in the fast food restaurants. The Herzberg's (1959, 1974) motivation-hygiene theory was the basis theoretical framework used in the study. The Herzberg's (1959, 1974) motivation-hygiene theory helped understand the factors that fostered job satisfaction and job dissatisfaction for many employees to avoid increasing turnover in the fast food industry.

Significance of the Study

Contribution to Business Practice

The study is important for managers to understand the factors that promote employee job satisfaction and employee job dissatisfaction that influence employee turnover intentions to actual turnover. The financial costs involved in employee turnover in the restaurant industry including fast food restaurants are expensive and costly because of recruitment problems (Batt et al., 2014; French, 2014; Murphy et al., 2009; Perez & Mirabella, 2013). Understanding and addressing the factors that led to employee turnover intentions in the fast food industry might help managers reduce increasing turnover.

The study results may also contribute to effective business practices. By examining and determining the factors that promote employee job satisfaction and job dissatisfaction, managers can assess the aspects of job and focus on factors that need

attentions. With proper strategies to implement, managers can avoid turnover intention from happening. For examples, to increase employee job satisfaction with achievement and recognition, managers must have a periodic performance evaluation based on the employee performance with feedback. The strategy may increase employee productivity and increased productivity can increase business profits (Gkorezis & Petridou, 2012; Haines III & St-Onge, 2012; Kehoe & Wright, 2013).

Another factor that managers can focus on is pay. Pay is a motivating factor for many employees that influence performance and intention to leave (Kwon, 2014; Misra, Jain, & Sood, 2013). If business managers improved the employees' compensation structure based on the effective performance and competence, then increased employee performance could affect business performance as well.

Empowering employees by providing an advanced training, autonomy, and control can help employees perform the jobs with skills, resulting to increased employee job satisfaction and customer satisfaction. Satisfied customers can result to repeat business orders, which increase organizational business profit. Satisfied employees increase employee retention rate.

Implications for Social Change

In examining and determining relationships and the extent of the relationships of the variables, employers may help improve the business practices or policies. Some of the business practices are (a) evaluating the employee compensation periodically, (b) recognizing the effortless contributions and performances of the employees, (c) empowering the employees, and (d) providing safe and healthy environment. Improving

business practices may also improve the conditions of the employees, and increase

employee and business performance that influence business profitability and long-term

growth.

Other implications for positive social change are to help employees to enhance (a)

organizational commitment, (b) employee engagement, (c) job satisfaction, and (d)

motivation. With increased employee job satisfaction and decreased job dissatisfaction,

managers can minimize the employee turnover intentions. Minimizing the turnover

intention can prevent an increasing employee turnover from occurring.

A Review of the Professional and Academic Literature

The literature review examines topics including Herzberg's (1959, 1974)

motivation-hygiene theory consisted with the primary theoretical framework for the

study. Maslow's (1943) hierarchy of needs and the Hackman and Oldhams' (1976) job

characteristics model, including strengths, limitations, and weaknesses of other theories,

and the reasons why Herzberg's motivation-hygiene theory was the priority theoretical

framework. Other topics include the psychometrical scales such as Job Satisfaction

Scales (JSS) and Job Descriptive Index (JDI), including their established reliability and

validity properties that were used as a guide for choosing the right scale for this study.

The other parts of the literature review include the variables used for the study

such as job satisfaction independent variables and job dissatisfaction independent

variables, and the dependent variable turnover intentions. The job satisfaction

independent variables were (a) achievement, (b) recognition, (c) responsibility, (d) work-

itself, and (e) advancement and growth (Herzberg, 1974; Herzberg et al., 1959). The job

dissatisfaction independent variables were (a) company policy, (b) supervision, (c) interpersonal relationships, (d) working conditions, and (e) salary (Herzberg, 1974; Herzberg et al., 1959). Each variable tracked in this study had empirical support from different fields of research to support the relationship between variables.

Other related topics described in this section are employee turnover, causes of turnover, and implications of the turnover, employee engagement, commitment, and employee retention. The investigation involved an intensive review of previous research and findings related to the variables and the theoretical framework guided in the study. The purpose of this literature review was to clarify research questions, hypotheses, and identify gaps in previous research.

Strategy for Searching the Literature

I used the following databases and search engine used to locate peer-reviewed journal articles, dissertations, books, and U.S government and private websites: ABI/Inform Complete; Academic Search Complete; Business Source Complete; Dissertation, and Theses at Walden University; eBook Collection (EBSCOhost); Emerald Management Journal; Google Scholar; Hospitality & Tourism Complete; and PsycINFO. The following search terms used *employee achievement*, *employee recognition*, *employee communication*, *employee responsibility*, *employee growth*, *employee advancement*, *pay*, *company policy*, *training*, and *working conditions*. Other terms used for the study were *voluntary withdrawal*, *involuntary withdrawal*, *employee turnover*, *turnover intention*, *job satisfaction*, *job dissatisfaction*, *employee engagement*, and *employee commitment.* To further expand the topic of the study, the other words used were *restaurant industry*,

fast food industry, *quick-service restaurants*, *intention to leave*, *Herzberg' motivation-hygiene theory (two-factor theory)*, *Maslow's hierarchy of needs*, *Hackman and Oldham's job characteristics model*, *job satisfaction scale (JSS)*, and *job descriptive index (JDI)*. The literature review included different peer-reviewed journal articles, dissertations, books, and other sources published within 5 years of my anticipated graduation. The frequency and percentages of the resources such as books, dissertations, peer-reviewed articles, and other sources are listed in Table 1.

Table 1

Frequency and Percentage of the Study Sources

Resources	References		Total	%
	Within 5 years	Older than 5 years		
Books	4	3	7	3%
Dissertations	1	1	2	1%
Peer-reviewed articles	178	13	191	95%
Other resources	2	0	2	1%
Total			202	100%

Herzberg' Motivation-Hygiene Needs (Two-Factor Theory)

The theoretical framework for this study was based on Herzberg's (1959, 1974) motivation-hygiene theory, which is also known as Herzberg's two-factor theory. Psychologist Frederick Herzberg developed the motivation-hygiene theory in 1950 (Herzberg et al., 1959). In the early 1960s, Herzberg used the motivation-hygiene theory

first in AT&T's College Recruitment program for employee selection and training purposes (Herzberg et al., 1959). Herzberg et al. (1959) incorporated the two factors with job enrichment. The reprinting of the books occurred for more than 200 times internationally and applied in different fields and various business sectors (Herzberg, 1974; Herzberg et al., 1959).

Herzberg's (1959) and Herzberg et al.'s (1974) motivation-hygiene theory describes the factors that promote employees' job satisfaction and job dissatisfaction. The key factors for job satisfaction listed in this theory are (a) achievement, (b) recognition, (c) work-itself, (d) responsibility, and (e) advancement and growth. The key factors for job dissatisfaction listed in this theory are (a) company policy, (b) supervision, (c) interpersonal relationships, (d) working conditions, and (e) salary. Herzberg et al. described the motivation as motivational factors or satisfiers and hygiene as dissatisfiers.

Herzberg et al. (1959) also emphasized that both job satisfaction and job dissatisfaction are two different phenomena. According to this theory, the absence of hygiene factors does not create employee job satisfaction or motivation; instead, an employee can consistently feel the job dissatisfaction even when hygiene factors were present (Herzberg, 1974). The increasing complaints of many employees because of hygiene factors accelerates hygiene crisis for many business managers (Herzberg, 1974). Herzberg (1974) added that motivation and hygiene factors had different job employee-performance outcomes. Motivators are factors that provide long-term results to the employees' performance as opposed to hygiene factors or dissatisfiers that produce short-term effects towards employees' performance and job attitudes.

Herzberg (1974) also noted that the source of employee job satisfaction was because of job content, whereas job dissatisfaction was because of work context. Job content is related to jobs that make employees happy through recognition, achievement, and career growth (Herzberg, 1974). Job context has an indirect relationship with the employees' job performance, but relates to factors under the control of companies such as salary, working condition, and security (Herzberg, 1974).

Herzberg et al. (1959) further explained the factors of job satisfaction, emphasizing that employee achievement or a quality performance was a leading factor to employee job satisfaction. In short, employees can achieve higher job satisfaction if they achieve their goals or if employees performed well with quality. High-quality performance is associated with employee satisfaction and produces positive behavior towards employees' jobs (Herzberg et al., 1959). In addition, employee recognition increases employee satisfaction where feedback based on the employee's performance plays a vital role (Herzberg et al., 1959).

Having a good relationship with customers provides motivation and job satisfaction to the employees (Herzberg et al., 1959). Responsibility involves self-scheduling, authority to communicate, control of resources, and accountability (Herzberg et al., 1959). Self-scheduling consists of how employees make a schedule for customers to meet their high expectations. Having authority to communicate with the customer(s) and others to avoid delays in completing the job makes employees satisfied with their job. Employee job satisfaction increases when employees have rights and when tools are

available to complete the assigned tasks with complete responsibility (Herzberg et al., 1959).

Advancement and growth is one of the job satisfaction factors. Advancement and growth refer to learning new things to enhance (on the job training) employee's competence (Herzberg et al., 1959). Advancement and growth can achieve by training. Employees with proper and sufficient training are competent to do the assigned job. Herzberg et al. asserted with proper and effective training, employees can grow and advance their career. Salary and relationship with employees are hygiene factors or job dissatisfaction factors (Herzberg et al., 1959). Copyright clearance location exists in Appendix F. Issued license applies to both Herzberg's works because the concentration of works primarily focuses on motivation-hygiene theory.

Research findings of using motivation-hygiene theory. Many researchers in different fields later extended the motivation-hygiene theory. Lumadi (2014) used the theory of Herzberg's (1959) motivation-hygiene theory for the exploration of factors that promote dissatisfaction for many teachers to implement the new school curriculum. Lumadi (2014) found some factors that influence employee job dissatisfaction such as job security, training, job responsibility, and curriculum transformation process. Lumadi (2014) added that empowering employees can promote new effective school curriculum. Research findings include the suggestion that employees must have an active participation in school transformation process including in decision-making (Lumadi, 2014).

Derby-Davis (2014) also used the same theory for the purpose of job satisfaction and intention to stay on the job. Derby-Davis found that motivation and hygiene factors are significant factors to meet job satisfaction to decrease turnover intent in a nursing industry. Ghazi et al. (2013) utilized the Herzberg's (1959) motivation-hygiene theory to quantify the level of satisfaction and motivation of employees towards the job. The study findings revealed that the motivation of employees relied on the fulfillment of hygiene factors. As suggested, hygiene factors must remain a priority to achieve a higher level of motivation and satisfaction to increase employee performance (Ghazi et al., 2013).

Islam and Ali (2013) used the model of Herzberg's (1959) motivation–hygiene theory to determine the work factors that promote job satisfaction and job dissatisfaction to the teachers in the university private sector. Islam and Ali (2013) found work factors that promote employee satisfaction for many teachers such as: (a) achievements, (b) recognition, (c) work itself, (d) responsibility, and (e) advancement. Among the motivators, achievement and work itself include better employee satisfaction than other motivators (Islam & Ali, 2013).

In contrary, Islam and Ali (2013) discovered that employee pay, university policy, and growth opportunity are dissatisfiers that affect employee job dissatisfaction. Islam and Ali (2013) also found that supervisions, relationships with the supervisors and co-workers, and working conditions positively affect employee satisfaction. Relationship with co-workers provides better satisfaction as opposed to other hygiene factors (Islam & Ali, 2013).

Teck-Hong and Waheed (2011) decided to use the Hezberg's (1959) motivation-hygiene theory with convenience sampling. Teck-Hong and Waheed found that working condition, recognition, policy, and salary increase job satisfaction. Teck-Hong and Waheed added that working condition has the highest level of employee's motivation, as opposed to employee salary. Flores and Subervi (2013) argued that growth and advancement are the leading motivators to keep satisfied with the job and reasons to stay.

Implications of using motivation-hygiene theory. The implications of applying motivation-hygiene theory to employee management brought different outcomes for many researchers. To analyze the results of using Herzberg's (1959) motivation-hygiene theory, most of the motivator factors such as achievements, recognition, work itself, responsibility, and advancement supported the views of Herzberg in motivation-hygiene theory in terms of job satisfaction (Islam & Ali, 2013). On the other hand, the hygiene factors such as pay and university policy also supported the view of Herzberg in terms of job dissatisfaction.

However, other hygiene factors such as supervision, relationships with the supervisors and co-workers, and working conditions promoted satisfaction for many teachers instead of promoting job dissatisfaction (Islam & Ali, 2013). The research result found contradicted to Herzberg's (1959) view in motivation-hygiene theory added by Islam and Ali (2013). The researchers found growth opportunity motivational factors as opposed to the belief of Herzberg in motivation-hygiene theory (Herzberg, 1974; Herzberg et al., 1959).

The study results could not generalize to all private university sectors in Pakistan except in the district of Peshawar (Islam & Ali, 2013). The sample size used in the study was small; therefore, future researchers could use bigger sample sizes by considering more districts (Islam & Ali, 2013). Potential consideration in the future research is a comparison of job level satisfaction among teachers in private and public sectors (Islam & Ali, 2013). The results of the study can enhance the quality of teaching performance among teachers regardless of service sectors to improve the learning experiences of many students (Islam & Ali, 2013).

Teck-Hong and Waheed (2011) used the motivation-hygiene theory to determine the factors that motivate and satisfy employees working in retail stores in Malaysia. The research results demonstrated that hygiene factors overweighed the motivation factors, meaning the employees had more job satisfaction with the contributions of the working conditions, company policies, and salaries than other motivators excluding recognition (Teck-Hong & Waheed, 2011). The employees found recognition as a motivating factor, which supported the findings of Herzberg (1974). In addition, hygiene factors as a source of job satisfaction contradicted to the view of Herzberg. The hygiene factors according to Herzberg (1974) and Herzberg et al. (1959) are sources of job dissatisfaction and not job satisfaction for many employees.

Teck-Hong and Waheed (2011) suggested that retailing store managers must focus on working conditions, company policy, recognition, and salary when employing rewards scheme to increase employee satisfaction, resulting to increased productivity and performance. Considering employees' needs and concerns, employees can provide better

service performance that can affect business profitability because of customer satisfaction (Teck-Hong & Waheed, 2011). Moreover, meeting the needs of the employees can minimize the employee turnover. Reduced turnover can save money, because managers do not need to spend money for advertising, hiring, and training new employees (Teck-Hong & Waheed, 2011).

Ghazie et al. (2013) found that teachers from university are both satisfied with hygiene and motivation factors, but only fulfillment of hygiene factors can motivate teachers from university. The study results contradicted with Herzberg's (1974) findings regarding the hygiene factors that promote job dissatisfaction or no motivation. From the perspective of Ghazi et al., (2013), researchers recommended considering hygiene factors as source of employee motivation and satisfaction to increase employee performance.

Rival Theories of the Theoretical Framework

In 1943, Abraham Maslow introduced the Maslow's hierarchy of needs. Maslow's hierarchy of needs include five sets of goals such as (a) physiological needs, (b) safety, (c) social, (d) self-esteem, and (d) growth needs or self-actualization (Maslow, 1943). The hierarchy of needs include a foundation of goals of predominance, meaning employees cannot achieve the higher needs without meeting the lower needs (Maslow, 1943). Maslow added that each need correlates to one another. Once an individual meets the lower needs, the higher needs emerge (Maslow, 1943).

Maslow (1943) described the five sets of goals. Physiological needs are the basic needs of individuals to survive such as water, air, and food. Once individuals met these physiological needs, safety and security needs are the next target (Maslow, 1943). Safety

and security needs occur when individuals feel the threats of the situations such as economic condition and competition. When individuals feel satisfied with the safety needs, social (love and belonging) needs occur (Maslow, 1943). Individuals need love and belongingness as part of the community, groups, or family to communicate, participate, and share their visions. After achieving love and belonging needs, individuals want to gain respect from others and feel that others value their contributions to feel the self-esteem. Self-esteem increases when individuals receive recognition or acknowledgement in the job performance. Once the individuals satisfied the deficiency needs, individuals' growth needs (self-actualization) emerge. Self-actualization occurs when an individual realizes personal potential and self-fulfillment where growth becomes the highest need target (Maslow, 1943). Another rival theory of Herzberg's motivation-hygiene theory is Hackman and Oldham's (1976) job characteristic model.

Hackman and Oldham (1976) proposed the Job characteristics model (JCM). The JCM includes the core job dimensions that influence three psychological states, such as (a) meaningfulness of work, (b) responsibility of outcomes, and (c) knowledge of results, resulting in positive and negative outcomes. Positive outcomes increase job satisfaction, job performance, and employee motivation. Negative outcomes decrease employee absenteeism and turnover (Hackman & Oldman, 1976). The core job dimensions are skill variety, task identity, task significance, autonomy, and feedback (Hackman & Oldham, 1976).

According to Hackman and Oldham (1976), meaningfulness of work can materialize if skill variety, task identity, and task significance are present. Responsibility

of outcomes can occur when employees have autonomy towards aspects of the job

(Hackman & Oldman, 1976). Employees can achieve the results of knowledge through

feedback added by Hackman and Oldman. Meeting the core job dimensions, employees

can increase their motivation, job performance, and work satisfaction, which contribute to

decreased absenteeism and turnover (Hackman & Oldman, 1976). Another tenet of the

theory is that employees have higher personal growth and development, where employees

have ability to do the complex job with higher motivation (Hackman & Oldham, 1976).

Strengths and limitations of rival theories of the theoretical framework.

Maslow's (1943) hierarchy of needs focuses on the individual needs as a powerful

motivator in the workplace. Deci and Ryan (2014) noted that needs are subdivided into

two categories based on its importance that include lower and higher needs. Higher order-

needs include self-esteem, achievement, and actualization whereas the lower-order needs

include physiological needs (Deci & Ryan, 2014). With research findings, Deci and Ryan

found that higher-order needs are a powerful motivator in the workplace, contributing to

job enrichment. With job enrichment such as feedback, employee performance and

satisfaction can increase (Deci & Ryan, 2014).

Maslow's (1959) hierarchy of needs include the deficiency and growth needs of

the employees, which may assist employers on what needs motivate and satisfy the

employees the most (Lester, 2013; Matache & Ruscu, 2012). If managers know what

needs, motivate, and satisfy employees the most, then managers can focus primarily on

these needs. Addressing the issues with proper strategies can avoid turnover intentions.

The concept of Maslow's (1959) hierarchy of needs also consists of individual needs that

provide importance and benefits to the employees (Cao et al., 2013). Maslow's (1959) hierarchy of needs emphasizes the importance of well-being for not only survival purposes, but also general purposes to minimize turnover intentions (Jackson et al., 2014).

Taormina and Gao (2013) concluded that the two needs have the same satisfaction outcomes. The satisfaction of the lower-order needs is the same as meeting the higher-order needs (Taormina & Gao, 2013). Under the study findings of Adiele and Abraham (2013), having low levels of satisfaction in five hierarchies of needs affect the performance and effectiveness of employees. Enhancing the employees' working environment can increase employees' productivity and commitment. Meeting the employees' needs help encourage employees to exceed employer expectations (Eisenberger, Fasolo, & Davis-LaMastro, 1990).

The job characteristic model can apply to management staff in identifying the job characteristics that need improvement, what existing potential jobs may help increase employee work motivation, and what job core dimensions do or do not work as expected (Hackman & Oldham, 1976). On the view of Kanten (2014), enhancing the core job dimensions can help employees increase positive job attitudes and quality work performance. The job characteristics such as feedback and skill variety are effective factors to use for employees' job constructing to meet the demands of customers in hotel (Kanten, 2014). Kanten used the model for four five star hotels in one city, where results cannot not generalize to other hotels in a different city.

The job characteristics model includes *individual* employees, because each individual has different response to the situation (Hackman & Oldham, 1976). The job characteristics model consists of aspects of the job that create incentives for motivational purposes (Hackman & Oldham, 1976). On the other hand, Kanten (2014) found that job characteristics such as feedback and skill variety have direct correlations with job constructing, but not the autonomy and task significance.

Kanten (2014) suggested that employees from a hotel must have varied skills and talents to cope up with the nature of the working environment. In addition, feedback from managers and coworkers help increase employees' confidence in performing the jobs (Kanten, 2014). Employees from the hotel industry do not perceive high autonomy and task significance because of the nature of job (Kanten, 2014).

Reasons not to choose rival theories of the theoretical framework. The reason why I did not choose Maslow's (1943) hierarchy of needs or Hackman and Oldham's (1976) job characteristic model as a theoretical lens in solving my problem because each theory has a different nature of study. Each theory has different purposes, contrary to my study to address the research question and hypotheses. The concept of Maslow's hierarchy of needs primarily focuses on the needs of the employees according to the level of importance. The implication of Maslow's theory is that employees cannot achieve the higher needs without meeting the lower needs first (Maslow, 1943).

The job characteristics model involves the core job dimensions that influence psychological states resulting to behavioral outcomes (Hackman & Oldham, 1976). The presence of a psychological state is important to achieve the personal and work outcomes

(Hackman & Oldham, 1976). In both rival theories, researchers discussed the same topics regarding job satisfaction, motivation, and turnover (Hackman & Oldham, 1976; Maslow, 1943). However, the theory constructs for Maslow's (1943) hierarchy of needs and Hackman and Oldham's (1976) job characteristics model are different from Herzberg's (1959) motivation-hygiene theory. The intent of study was to examine and determine the factors that promote employee satisfaction and employee job dissatisfaction for many employees that influence turnover intentions to reduce the turnover in the fast food restaurants. Herzberg's (1959) motivation-hygiene theory includes the constructs used in this study. Therefore, the theoretical framework used in the study is appropriate.

Weaknesses of the rival theories of the theoretical framework. The concept of Maslow's (1943) hierarchy of needs is that employees must meet the needs in order from lower-to higher needs, which is in contrast with Başlevent, Cem, and Hasan Kirmanoğlu's (2013) findings. Başlevent et al. (2013) found that employees have higher concerns with the needs directly influenced them, but not necessarily in order. Bayoumi (2012) supported the notion. Bayoumi found that patients need the self-actualization the most, and the least is the love and belonging needs. The study findings indicated that patients meet their needs without first meeting the physiological and security needs, which is a contradiction to Maslow's theory.

The weakness of the JCM is that not all core job dimensions (skill variety, task identity, task significance, feedback, and autonomy) must follow in order to achieve higher job satisfaction, motivation, and quality performance to lower turnover and absenteeism (Fried & Ferris, 1987). Samples have unique demographic characteristics

and different methods used have different results that influence job characteristics and personal and work behavioral outcomes (Fried & Ferris, 1987). Added by Hauff and Richter (2015), in JCM, job satisfaction increases based on the specified situation and intrinsic aspects of the job outweigh the extrinsic aspects of the job.

Measurements

  Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS). A study grounded in Herzberg's motivation-hygiene theory, which promotes the factors of job satisfaction and the factors of job dissatisfaction to measure the constructs (Spector, 1985). Spector's JSS has nine facet scales with four questions, equivalent to 36 questions. The nine facet scales are (a) pay, (b) promotion, (c) supervision, (d) fringe benefits, (e) contingent rewards (performance-based rewards), (f) operating procedures (required rules and procedures), (g) coworkers, (h) nature of work, and (i) communication (Spector, 1985). Each question has an ordinal scale with a 6-point-Likert-type scale from strongly disagree to strongly agree.

  To assess the employees' attitude towards the job or aspects of the job, researchers used the JSS in different field of researches, privately or publicly (Spector, 1985, 1997). The internal consistency reliability of JSS instrument is .91 using Cronbach's coefficient alpha derived from 2,870-sample size (Spector, 1985, 1997). Avdija and Roy (2012) used the JSS in different prisons in Atlanta to assess the level of employees' job satisfaction. The JSS internal consistency reliability was $\alpha = .878$ obtained from 480 participants (Avdija & Roy, 2012). Using multivariate regression analysis, Avdija and Roy (2012) found that age and working conditions had direct correlations

with job satisfaction, where the total variation in the job satisfaction among the prison employees was 30% (Avdija & Roy, 2012).

Wozencroft and Hardin (2014) indicated that previous researchers tested the original JSS in 19 different samples to meet reliability and validity norms. Primarily, researchers used JSS for human services, but since then JSS applies to all organizations. To conduct a research in Phoenix, Arizona for employees and volunteers in recreation management, Wozencroft and Hardin suggested utilizing the JSS questionnaire for assessing the employees' level of job satisfaction to determine the influence of job satisfaction for future services. One hundred and thirteen students successfully completed the questionnaires. Wozencroft and Hardin study findings indicated that job satisfaction directly related to turnover intention, commitment, and retention with .85 Cronbach coefficient alpha.

Job Descriptive Index (JDI). Smith, Kendall, and Hulin introduced the JDI in 1969; this index was subsequently revised by JDI Research Group in 1985 (Kihm, Smith, & Irwin, 2014). In 1985 according to DeMeuse, JDI was a popular scale used by many researchers, professors, and employees in different fields for rating employees' job satisfaction to include pay, promotional opportunities, supervision, work itself, and coworkers (Kihm et al., 2014). The development and refinement of JDI continued for more than 50 years under the JDI research group, which includes different individuals with different backgrounds in research, psychology, and behavioral science ("Bowling Green," n.d.).

The JDI instrument has five facets where employees can rate their job satisfaction on each area to include (a) coworkers, (b) the work itself, (c) pay, (d) opportunities for promotion, and (e) supervision (Kihm et al., n.d). The continued revision of JDI helped increase the internal reliability of an instrument using coefficient alpha (a) opportunities for promotion .87, (b) people at work .88, (c) present pay .86, (d) supervision .91, and (e) work on present job .90 (Holt, 2001). Holt indicated that researchers can measure the JDI through a nominal scale *Yes*, *No*, and *?*, which is equivalent to 1, 2, and 3 answers. The JSS questionnaire includes positive and negative short words or phrases. In a positive response, *Y* response shows satisfaction (Holt, 2001). In scoring, *Y* is 3 points, *N* is 0 point, and *?* is 1 point. In a negative response, *Y* means dissatisfaction. An unfavorable item is the reversed score, where *N* has 3 points, *Y* has 0 point, and *?* has a 1 point (Holt, 2001). Each subscale must have an individual score, where some items are reversed scores.

To collect the data, secondary resources were appropriate such as SSS and census databases with random and stratification sampling. The participants included current employed employees between 18 and 70 years of age and located within the United States. The response rate was approximately 23%, equivalent to 1600 cases involving data for intention to quit, job satisfaction, trust management, and demographic variables (Kimh et al., n.d.). Follow up mailings were appropriate along with incentive provisions, and multiple survey administrations to avoid biased information.

In other instances, Graeff, Leafman, Wallace, and Stewart (2013) successfully employed the JDI scale in one of the faculties in the United States. The purpose is to

assess the job satisfaction level among physician assistants. With 1,241 target participants, only 239 respondents successfully participated. Graeff et al. found that the reliability of JDI is greater than .80. Gui, Gu, Barriball, While, and Chen (2014) also found the JDI reliability greater than .70 when they assessed the working environment of many nurse teachers in two different countries. The overall responses from China and UK are 56.8% through cross-section interview process according to Gui et al.

By analyzing the two instruments, JSS and JDI have acceptable internal consistency reliability. The reliabilities of JSS in three different sample sizes are .91, .87, and .85 respectively (Avdija & Roy, 2012, Spector, 1985; Wozencroft & Hardin, 2014). The reliabilities of JDI is .80 (Graeff et al., 2013; Gui et al., 2014; Holt, 2001). The reliability result of the JSS is higher than JDI. Therefore, JSS instrument would apply throughout the study process. Matkar (2012) noted that >0.90 is excellent, 0.80 − 0.89 is good, 0.70 − 0.79 is acceptable, 0.60 − 0.69 is questionable, 0.50 − 0.59 is poor, and <0.50 is unacceptable. This implies that JSS is a reliable tool to assess participants' satisfaction towards aspects of job or job as a whole.

In terms of constructs of both instruments, the JSS has nine facet scales that cover all theoretical constructs related to the study topic, which met the content and construct validity. The JDI has five facet scales (pay, promotions and promotion opportunities, coworkers, supervision, and the work itself), which unfortunately did not meet the theoretical framework constructs for measurement (Kihm et al., n.d). Therefore, JSS would apply to measure the constructs. Lack of constructs to measure could violate the required validity that adversely affects the study findings (Barry et al., 2014). The

theoretical model for this study is Herzberg's motivation-hygiene theory (Two-factor

theory) (see Figure 1).
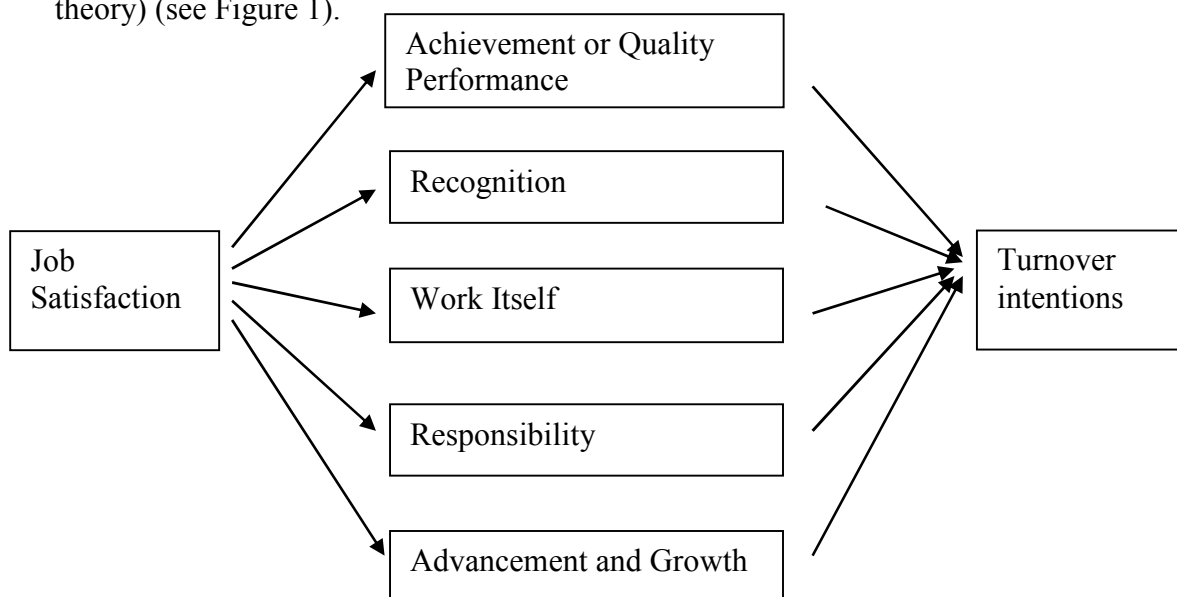
Theoretical Model: Herzberg's Motivation-Hygiene Theory

Figure 1. Depiction of Herzberg's motivation-hygiene theory (two-factor theory) as a theoretical framework. Adapted from "Motivation-Hygiene Profiles: Pinpointing What Ails the Organization," by F. Herzberg, 1974, *Organizational Dynamics*, *3*(2), pp.18-29. Copyright 1974 by the American Psychological Association and Adapted from *The motivation to work* (2nd ed.)," by F. Herzberg, B. Mausner, & B. B. Snyderman, 1959, New York, NY: John Wiley. Copyright 1959 by John Wiley. Used with permission.

Job Satisfaction

The topic includes an employee job satisfaction in many work settings, private,

public, non-profit organization, and government sections (Herzberg 1974; Herzberg et al.,

1959; Maslow, 1943). The research includes employee job satisfaction using different

conceptual or theoretical frameworks with Herzberg's (1959) motivation-hygiene theory,

Maslow's (1943) hierarchy of needs, and the Job characteristics model (Fried & Ferris,

1987; Herzberg 1974). The term job satisfaction has defined in many ways.

Hofaidhllaoui and Chhinzer (2014) described a job satisfaction as a main source

of turnover, describing the level of contentment and attachment of employees toward

their job, specifically or generally. Job satisfaction is the characteristics of the job itself

and the work environment (Cho, Rutherford, & Park, 2013). Locke (1976) defined the

job satisfaction as a pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of

an individual job (as cited in Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2011; Ünal, 2013). Job satisfaction is

how an employee felt contented with the job (Spector, 1997). Job satisfaction is an

employee's attitude towards aspects of job or as a whole (Ünal, 2013). Herzberg et al.

(1959) described a job satisfaction as how employee likes or dislikes the job. In

summary, employee job satisfaction includes how individual likes or dislikes the job or

how individual assess his contentment towards his job as a whole or aspects of job. The

employee job satisfaction can measure using psychometric scale. A psychometric scale is

a scale that has a preestablished internal consistency reliability using Cronbach's

coefficient alpha, which according to Matkar (2012) >0.90 is excellent, 0.80 – 0.89 is

good, 0.70 – 0.79 is acceptable, 0.60 – 0.69 is questionable, 0.50 – 0.59 is poor, and

<0.50 is unacceptable.

To measure job satisfaction constructs, a researcher can use a general or facet-

specific job satisfaction using different psychometrical scales such as JSS, JDI, and JCM

(Jang & George, 2012; Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2011). A facet-specific job satisfaction is to

measure the employee's attitudes toward specific aspects of job whereas a general job

satisfaction is to measure the employee's attitudes towards the whole aspects of job (Jang

& George, 2012; Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2011). In organizational behavior literature using

psychometric scales, researchers found that job satisfaction had a positive relationship to many variables.

For example, Bang, Ross, and Reio (2013) found that job satisfaction is a mediating factor between the motivation and affective commitment. A committed employee can work with high motivation and high job satisfaction (Bang et al., 2013). Jyothi and Ravindran (2012) noted that job satisfaction, commitment, human resource (HR) practices, and employee turnover have correlations to one another. Ünal (2013) added that job satisfaction directly related to organizational commitment and best predictor to organizational commitment. When employees feel satisfied with their jobs, they become more committed to the organization (Ünal, 2013).

In addition, Brewer, Kovner, Greene, Tukov-Shuser, and Djukic (2012) and Matz, Wells, Minor, and Angel (2013) asserted that job satisfaction is a mediating variable between the work environment and the employee turnover. Kumar, Ahmed, Shaikh, Hafeez, and Hafeez (2013), on the other hand, stated that job satisfaction has a relationship with employee work environment, compensation, and job specification. Moreover, in a hospitality industry, Lam and Chen (2012) used a multiple-wave longitudinal analysis from 424-hotel service employees and supervisors. Lam and Chen found job satisfaction has a significant relationship with higher service quality that reduces employee turnover. Gazzoli, Hancer, and Park (2010) emphasized that employees who feel satisfied with the job and feel empowered promote a high-service quality to the customers.

On the other hand, using data collected from 868 employees working in various firms in the United States with a self-reporting questionnaire and convenience sampling, Valentine, Godkin, Fleischman, and Kidwell (2011) found that job satisfaction is a predictor of turnover intention. Job satisfaction is one of the causes of employee turnover (Tews, Stafford, & Michel, 2014). Hofaidhllaoui and Chhinzer (2014) suggested that job satisfaction is an important factor for employee retention or turnover intention; therefore, employers must focus on facets of job satisfaction that influence these outcomes to prevent turnover. Other study findings indicated that the job satisfaction directly affect the employees and business performance (Kehoe & Wright, 2013) whereas others affect the communication between management and employee (Zelnik, Maletič, Maletič, & Gomišček, 2012). Consequently, Zelnik et al. (2012) suggested that both employees and employer must be satisfied to maintain a quality system in an organization.

Using 157 employees and 1600 customers from targeted grocery retailer in South Africa with quantitative survey method, the findings result indicated that job satisfaction related to employee motivation (Scheers, & Botha, 2014). Employee motivation influences employee effective commitment with the organization that reduces the employee turnover (Roche & Haar, 2013). Employee motivation is also a source of increased employee productivity that impacts employee performance and turnover that sustain human resource to produce differentiation from the competitors (Gomes, Asseiro, & Ribeiro, 2013; Panagopoulos, 2013; Zedelius, Veling, Bijleveld, & Aarts, 2012). Therefore, employee motivation must increase so employee and business performance will increase (Zedelius et al., 2012). Other suggestion is managers must listen to

employees' opinions and hear employees' voices to increase job satisfaction and motivation as well (Scheers, & Botha, 2014).

Moreover, Spasova (2010) asserted that high motivation promotes high well-being of one individual. Considering a lack of motivational factors, employees feel dissatisfied with the job (Islam & Ali, 2013; Linz & Semykina, 2012; Teck-Hong & Waheed, 2011). Herzberg et al. (1959) described the factors that influence job satisfaction such as (a) achievement or quality performance, (b) recognition, (c) work itself, (d) responsibility, and (e) advancement and growth.

Job Satisfaction Factors

Achievement or quality performance. Employee achievement or quality performance is a primary leading factor to job satisfaction (Herzberg et al., 1959). Employee achievement derives through training and development as well (Islam & Ali, 2013; Teck-Hong & Waheed, 2011). Career satisfaction manifests when employees receive self-achievement from their perspective jobs (Kang, Gatling, & Kim, 2015). Therefore, employers must train and develop their employees to increase their achievement or quality performance to satisfy with the job (Lester, 2013; Matache & Ruscu, 2012).

In a service sector, on the other hand where employee-customer relationship is critical, empowering employees directly affects the customer quality. Therefore, giving employees extrinsic rewards such as promotion opportunities, financial incentives, and organizational prestige helps increase high quality performance (Gkorezis & Petridou,

2012). Morgan, Dill, and Kalleberg (2013) added that extrinsic rewards such as wages and benefits are factors that influence job satisfaction and turnover intentions. The quality performance demonstrates the competence of the employees, which affect the customers' experiences (Harrington et al., 2012). Lumadi (2014) supported that training can affect the quality of work in teaching and learning. With managers' customer orientation, employees can provide a quality service because employees have ability to communicate with customers with honesty and trust, which might create prestige for the organization (Mathe & Scott-Halsell, 2012).

In contrast, low customer orientation can lead to low employee self-efficacy (Mathe & Scott-Halsell, 2012). Kanten (2014) suggested improving the job characteristics such as (a) skill variety, (b) task identity, (c) task significance, (d) feedback, and (e) autonomy to increase the quality of work. Lee, Lee, and Kang (2012) found that high-performance work systems affect employees' attitude towards the job that impact service quality. The other factor of job satisfaction is recognition.

Recognition. Employees want recognition, achievement, personal growth, and advancement to feel satisfied with the job (Lester, 2013; Matache & Ruscu, 2012). Recognizing employees' effort and contribution is an effective and less expensive approach in attracting employee to commit with the organization (Hogan, Lambert, & Griffin, 2013). Employees also need recognition, appreciation, and feeling valued to increase contributions to the success of the organization (Eisenberger et al., 1990). Showing employee appreciation and recognition delivers a high quality service to the customers (Gavino, Wayne, & Erdogan, 2012). Haines III and St-Onge (2012) agreed

that employee recognition fosters positive performance. In addition, employee recognition outperforms the salary factor (Handgraaf, Van Lidth de Jeude, & Appelt, 2013).

Moreover, a work climate with employee respect, recognition, and appreciation reduces employee turnover (Stinchcomb & Leip, 2013). Bhatnagar (2014) added that recognition and appreciation can attract employees to stay with the organization. Employee recognition and appreciation positively affect the work engagement as well (Choo, Mat, & Al-Omari, 2013; Nyman, Sarti, Hakonen, & Sweins, 2012). Consequently, lack of employee recognition leads to voluntary turnover (Bauer, 2012).

Using feedback, managers recognize employees' achievement (Herzberg et al., 1959). Work feedback from the superior encourages employees' creativity (Hon, Chan, & Lu, 2013; Kanten, 2014). With meta-analytic results, Byron and Khazanchi (2012) agreed that high affirmative feedback on the employees' task-focused performance increases employees' creativity. Yao and Cui (2010) said that task feedback from managers' help empowered employees psychologically. Empowering employees psychologically increases employee motivation resulting in a healthy organizational climate (Yao & Cui, 2010).

On the other hand, employer can recognize employees' participations in two ways: performance and nonperformance (Webster & Beehr, 2012). In justice and social exchange theories, researchers emphasized promotional criteria based on performance and nonperformance. Performance rewards influence the employee turnover (Lee &

Jimenez, 2011). To recognize employees, managers use financial incentives and promotional opportunities.

Financial incentives reflect on quality performance (Gkorezis & Petridou, 2012). Financial incentives have a significant relationship with empowerment, where private sector employers emphasized the importance of rewards according to Gkorezis and Petridou (2012). Giving employees' financial rewards impacts employees' attitudes; thus rewarding employees based on performance and competency increases employee productivity and company productivity added by Gkorezis and Petridou

Promotional opportunities are critical factors that motivate employees to increase job performance (Gkorezis & Petridou, 2012). Using employees from two-business sectors, public and private, Gkorezis and Petridou (2012) argued that promotional opportunities positively affect the private employees' psychological empowerment. Promotional opportunity is also a significant factor for many employees to remain committed with the company and be satisfied with the career choice (Wan, Sulaiman, & Omar, 2012). Therefore, managers must increase employees' promotional opportunities to increase their commitment, satisfaction, and job performance. By contrast, Jung and Kim (2012) asserted that promotional opportunity is also the source of employee emotional exhaustion, meaning that employees feel stressed to achieve the job promotion, which turns to employee burnout that affects employee commitment and the intention to leave.

Furthermore, internal work events such as promotion lead to reduced turnover (Tews et al., 2014). Giving promotions to deserving employees are signs of appreciation

for their efforts in which management leaders demonstrate care for employee's well-being (Tews et al., 2014). Gkorezis and Petridou (2012) supported the views of Tews et al. (2014) stating that giving promotional opportunities is a sign of employers' commitment and show value for employees' performance. Employees who perceive promotional opportunities increase employees' job embeddedness (Gkorezis & Petridou, 2012). Without perceived promotional opportunities, employees show a lack of motivation (Gkorezis & Petridou, 2012).

Moreover, often employees who have promotional opportunity and additional professional development impact self-esteem and self-efficacy (Gkorezis & Petridou, 2012). Self-esteem is one of the higher-order level needs mentioned in Maslow's (1943) hierarchy of needs, which is a need that needs gratification to reach growth needs. Gavino et al. (2012) added that promotional opportunities such as promoting employees in their positions influence employees' behavior and performance that affect customer service. The other factor of job satisfaction is work itself.

Work itself. Herzberg et al. (1959) described work itself as the relationship of the employee to the customer or group of customers inside or outside the organization. A customer or a group of customers inside of the organization is the employees of the organization itself (Scheers, & Botha, 2014). The external customers are those customers who receive products or services in exchange for money (Scheers, & Botha, 2014). Building relationships between employees and customers help organization succeed, because customers are the source of business income (Scheers, & Botha, 2014).

The satisfaction of customers depends on the customer service provider; thus, the customer service provider must prove satisfaction to motivate customers (Scheers, & Botha, 2014). Previous research also suggested that empowering employees provides higher satisfaction that creates a better employee-customer relationship, leading to repeat business transactions, reducing turnover (Ryan et al., 2011). However, other research findings revealed that job satisfaction has a negative relationship with turnover intention; but, when employees felt the high extent of job dissatisfaction, employee turnover exists regardless of external factors (Hofaidhllaoui & Chhinzer, 2014). Another factor of job satisfaction is responsibility.

Responsibility. Employee responsibility has four aspects of jobs: (a) self-scheduling, (b) authority to communicate, (c) control of resources, and (d) accountability (Herzberg, 1974; Herzberg et al., 1959). In self-scheduling, the customer needs are more important than employee needs added by Herzberg (1974) and (Herzberg et al., 1959). Moreover, communicating with the customers and handling the resources with authority are important to accomplish the job. Therefore, managers must empower employees to execute the job with competence.

To achieve the assigned responsibility, empowering employees plays a vital role (Herzberg, 1974; Herzberg et al., 1959). Empowerment is the transferring of power to all employees inside the organization, allowing employees to have control, power, and authority (Gkorezis & Petridou, 2012). Empowering employees allows them to show innovation in many ways such as improving the customer service quality and business process (Fernandez & Moldogaziev, 2013). The innovative approaches improve the

employee performance and business performance overall. Without innovated approaches, empowerment programs become useless and ineffective (Fernandez & Moldogaziev, 2013).

Further, employees need intrinsic rewards such as (a) autonomy, (b) competence, and (c) relatedness to increase motivation (Roche & Haar, 2013). Previous researchers emphasized the importance of autonomy as a motivator particularly in decision-making when job requires more attention (Toode, Routasalo, & Suominen, 2011). Under the soft, HR management and self-determination theory, the employee autonomousness and satisfaction influence the HR practices and results (Marescaux, De Winne, & Sels, 2013). Higher autonomy means higher employee emotional attachment towards the organization (Newman & Sheikh, 2012). Another factor of job satisfaction is advancement and growth.

Advancement and growth. Employee advancement and growth depend on new learning; therefore, training is a significant factor to achieve employee's growth needs (Herzberg, 1974; Herzberg et al., 1959; Maslow, 1943). Herzberg et al. (1959) added that employees remain accountable with their jobs as long as they remain equipped with training and the appropriate resources. Therefore, managers must train and develop their employees to enhance job competence (García, Lajara, Sempere, & Lillo, 2013; Salazar, Torres, & Reche, 2012). Besides, competent employees bring success to the organization, which affects the business performance (Ji, Huang, Liu, Zhu, & Cai, 2012). Business with competent employees can achieve business profitability and growth sustainability (Ji et al., 2012). Employees who perceive organizational leader's support in training and

development are more likely to engage, commit, satisfy, and stay in the organization

(Biswas, Varma, & Ramaswami, 2013; Nouri & Parker, 2013).

Developmental opportunities inside the organization can influence the employee

turnover, according to Carter and Tourangeau (2012). Results from the previous study

confirmed that employees with the opportunity to advance learning skills and develop

professionally are significant factors to employee retention (McGilton, Boscart, Brown,

& Bowers, 2013). The lack of inside opportunities gives a negative signal for many

employees (Carter & Tourangeau, 2012). When the inside opportunities are low, the

employee turnover rate is high, or the opposite when the opportunities are high (Carter &

Tourangeau, 2012). Van Dam, Meewis, and Van der Heijden (2013) supported the

assertions stating that nurses' career development is a source of turnover intention;

therefore, hospital leaders must create better work environment to meet the high

expectation of the employees. When employers provide an internal growth opportunity

such as training, which increases employee competence, employees feel committed

resulting to lower employee turnover (Nouri & Parker, 2013).

Moreover, employees want personal growth and advancement to feel satisfied

with the job (Lester, 2013; Matache & Ruscu, 2012). In the hotel industry, employee

turnover increased because of employees' interest to pursue their career advancement

somewhere else (Yang, Wan, & Fu, 2012). Career advancement promotes employee

happiness (Van der Meer & Wielers, 2013). When career advancement is high within the

organization, the voluntary turnover decreases, which is contradicted when career

advancement is low (Kraimer, Seibert, Wayne, Liden, & Bravo, 2011). Employee career advancement also influences employee turnover directly (Choi et al., 2012).

Additionally, employees need career advancement to achieve the fulfillment in life, and to meet job satisfaction (Islam & Ali, 2013; Teck-Hong & Waheed, 2011). Lack of career advancement drives employees to find alternative jobs resulting to increased employee turnover (Carter & Tourangeau, 2012; Nouri & Parker, 2013). In the IT government sector, promotion, advancement opportunities, training, and development are factors that influence employees to stay within the organization (Kim, 2012).

Career growth opportunities are benefits that employees perceive as part of social exchange relationship with the employer (Nouri & Parker, 2013). Employees will commit to the organization in exchange for career growth opportunities (Nouri & Parker, 2013). With perceived career growth opportunities, employees' commitment increases, while turnover intention decreases (Nouri & Parker, 2013). Career growth opportunities depend on advanced training that employees receive from the organization (Yang et al., 2012). Yang et al. suggested that organizational managers must provide significant training that helps employees increase their chances to grow in their chosen career. Nouri and Parker (2013) also commented that increased growth career opportunity affects the commitment of the employee positively and reduce the level of employee turnover.

Training. Training is a tool used to enhance individual's behavior, skills, and knowledge to assist organization to gain its competitive advantages in the business industry (Garcia et al., 2013). Training employees is one of the effective approaches to gain business differentiation and positioning (Garcia et al., 2013). Training enhances

employees' capabilities that set them apart from the business competitions (Salazar et al., 2012). In the restaurant industry, lack of training in managerial skills can contribute to business failures (Perez & Mirabella, 2013). Incompetent leaders can affect their employees' performance resulting to increased turnover rates (Perez & Mirabella, 2013). Perez and Mirabella (2013) found that leadership with no formal training increases employee turnover rates. Leaders with formal leadership training, contribute to business success (Perez & Mirabella, 2013).

Within a challenging business environment and competition increases, business sustainability and competitive advantages become challenging (Stambaugh, Zhang, & DeGroot, 2013). Armstrong and Taylor (2014) explained the significance of human capital theory proposed by Barney in 1991. The theory indicated that employers can sustain competitive advantages by having human capital advantages (Armstrong & Taylor, 2014). In a challenging business environment, business leaders must replenish their employees' skills to meet the competition competitively (Bapna, Langer, Mehra, Gopal, & Gupta, 2013). Bapna et al. (2013) found that training has a direct correlation with increased performance by 2.4%. Investing in training programs can enhance employees' skills (Bapna et al., 2013). Garcia et al. (2013) stated that employee training is an effective tool to enhance business' competitiveness globally, and makes the business apart from its competition. Therefore, training and developing employees' capabilities and skills in a continual basis increase employees engagement and focus on organization's goals and objectives, leading to business success as suggested by Salazar et al. (2012) and McSweeney-Feld and Rubin (2013).

On the other hand, in the fast pace environment, managers require employee improvement in skills to catch up with the technological changes (Bapna et al., 2013). Replenishing skills through effective training are one way to enhance employee performances and the overall business performances. Gavino et al. (2012) discovered that training and development have a direct relationship with customer-oriented behaviors. However, Chang, Wang, and Huang (2013) found that training and development have no significant relationships with employee turnover intention.

To facilitate training inside the organization, business leaders can use the internal facilitator, self-study, or online (McSweeney-Feld & Rubin, 2013). Training programs that include development and leadership programs may help prepare employees to more challenging assignments and responsibilities (McSweeney-Feld & Rubin, 2013). Through training programs, business leaders can face any internal and external environmental changes that may occur overtime (McSweeney-Feld & Rubin, 2013).

Effect of training to employees. As described by Fulmer and Ployhart (2014) and Mulvaney, McKinney, and Grodsky (2012), managers considered human capital as an important asset in the organizations. The success and failure of the organization rely on human capital and human resources (Jehanzeb, Rasheed, & Rasheed, 2013; Walker et al., 2013). Consequently, employees' skills need training to support employees' personal and professional interests, and for the employees' development purposes (Boxall, 2013).

On the other hand, Cheung and Chan (2012) noted that employee training has a direct relationship with employee motivation and organizational competence. Tabassi, Ramli, and Bakar (2012) added that training positively influences teamwork activities

that increase efficiency and development of the assigned work. Training fosters work enhancement for the group activities (Tabassi et al., 2012). Further, Jehanzeb et al. (2013) found that training has a direct relationship with organizational commitment and turnover intention. In conclusion, managers must train their employees to increase their competence and commitment to minimize employee turnover intention.

Cherian and Jacob (2013) also suggested using effective training to increase employees' self-efficacy. Having an effective training, employees can manage the complex task competently and help succeed in their chosen career (Cherian & Jacob, 2013; Vance, Chow, Paik, & Shin, 2013). In addition, employees can develop their target career, job security, competence, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment (Jehanzeb et al., 2013). Moreover, training programs can help employees achieve career growth (Yang et al., 2012). In IT sector, Bapna et al. (2013) discovered that employees' training provides high returns of investments. Having an effective training and development, employees can participate at the workplace effectively (Cavanagh, McNeil, & Bartram, 2013).

In accounting firm, Nouri and Parker (2013) asserted that lower level employees perceive career growth opportunity when organizational leaders provide effective training programs. With effective training, employees become committed, which reduces the intention to leave the current job (Nouri & Parker, 2013). Employees need training for moral development to manage moral dilemmas in a healthcare workplace environment (Rowe, 2013). In addition, the employee training affects the affective commitment of the

employees positively but negatively affects the employees' exhaustion (Chambel & Castanheira, 2012).

Effect of training to business. Employees' skills enhancement is the challenging problem of management to manage the fast pace of the business environment and to obtain and retain a competitive edge in the business industry (Percival, Cozzarin, & Formaneck, 2013). To keep pace with the consistent changing business technology, Percival et al. (2013) suggested that business leaders must invest in human capital and different training programs because training increases employees' productivity. Training is also a determining factor that helps an organization competes in the marketplace globally and a source of employee motivation (Cheung & Chan, 2012).

Having long-term business competitive edges globally, the business leaders must know what skills can set them apart from the competition (Salazar et al., 2012). Leppel, Brucker, and Cochran (2012) revealed that the characteristics and accessibility of training provide gratification for the older employees. Exemplary customer services with effective procedures to handle customers' complaints are critical to the success of the organization (Shooshtari, Clouse, & Stan, 2012). Therefore, organizational managers must provide employee training to ensure meeting the higher degree of customer services inside the organization as suggested by Shooshtari et al. (2012). However, Chang et al. (2013) found training and development has no significant relationship with employee turnover intention. Figure 2 includes the factors of job dissatisfaction.

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┌──────────────────┐        ┌──────────────────────┐
│  Company Policy  │        │                      │
└──────────────────┘        │                      │
┌──────────────────┐        │                      │
│   Supervision    │        │                      │
└──────────────────┘        │                      │
┌────────────────────────┐  │       Turnover       │
│ Job Dissatisfaction │──▶│ Interpersonal Relationship │
└────────────────────────┘  │                      │
┌──────────────────────┐    │                      │
│ Working Conditions   │    │                      │
└──────────────────────┘    └──────────────────────┘
┌──────────────────┐
│     Salary       │
└──────────────────┘
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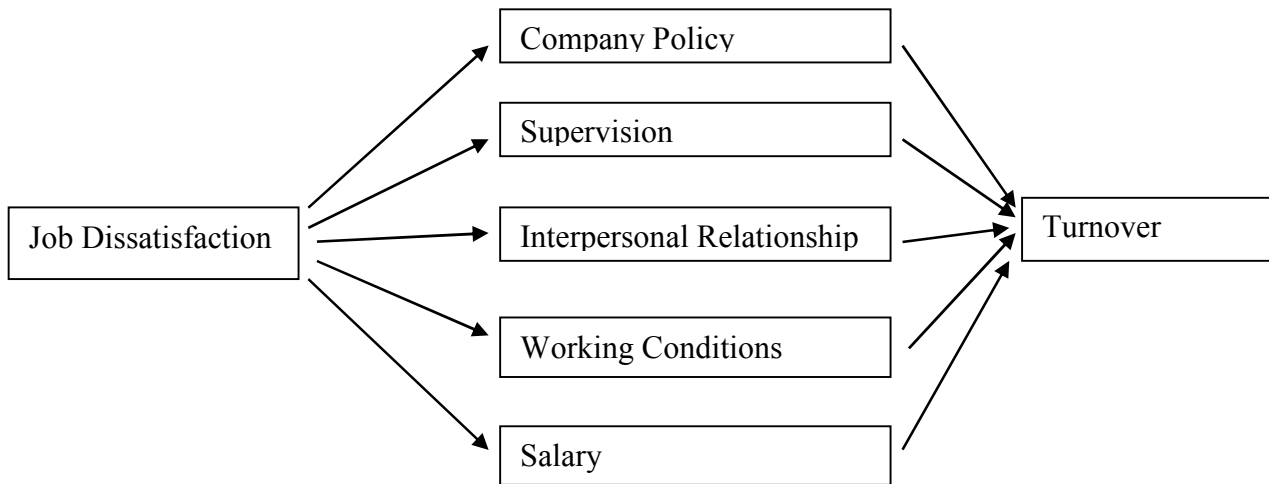
Theoretical Model: Herzberg's Motivation-Hygiene Theory

Figure 2. Depiction of Herzberg's motivation-hygiene theory (two-factor theory) as a theoretical framework. Adapted from "Motivation-Hygiene Profiles: Pinpointing What Ails the Organization," by F. Herzberg, 1974, *Organizational Dynamics*, *3*(2), pp.18-29. Copyright 1974 by the American Psychological Association and Adapted from "The motivation to work (2nd ed.)," by F. Herzberg, B. Mausner, & B. B. Snyderman, 1959, *New York, NY: John Wiley*. Copyright 1959 by the John Wiley (Appendix F).

Job Dissatisfaction

Employee job dissatisfaction is one of the phenomena's that Herzberg (1974) and Herzberg's et al. (1959) mentioned in motivation-hygiene theory. According to Herzberg, employees can still experience the job dissatisfaction regardless of meeting or not meeting the hygiene factors satisfaction. Hofaidhllaoui and Chhinzer (2014) added that employees can experience job dissatisfaction at work; however, if employees cannot bear the extent of job dissatisfaction, employees may leave the organization. Previous research findings also revealed job dissatisfaction is a predictor to turnover intention (Jang, &

George, 2012). Dike (2012) agreed stating business leaders believe that job dissatisfaction is a cause of turnover.

Other study findings revealed that job dissatisfaction leads to decreased productivity, commitment, and disloyalty (Brewer et al., 2012; Islam & Ali, 2013; Teck-Hong & Waheed, 2011). Stringer, Didham, and Theivananthampillai (2011) discovered that job satisfaction has a direct relationship with intrinsic motivation; therefore, giving employees a fair salary enhances employees' job satisfaction as decreases job dissatisfaction. On the other hand, job dissatisfaction is a determining factor for employees' emotional exhaustion to work burnout that causes employees not to commit with the organization and intention to leave follows (Jung & Kim, 2012).The determinants of job dissatisfactions are poor working environment and low salaries that make employees quit from the current job (AlBattat & Som, 2013). Therefore, managers must minimize or prevent employee job dissatisfaction by addressing the hygiene factors to decrease employee turnover rates as suggested by Chen et al. (2013) and Rahman and Iqbal (2013). Factors that influence job dissatisfaction are (a) company policy, (b) supervision, (c) interpersonal relationship, (d) working conditions, and (e) salary (Herzberg, 1974; Herzberg et al., 1959).

Job Dissatisfaction Factors

Company policy. A company policy consists of general guidelines that HR management follows to manage any issues within the organization based on the philosophies and values of the organization (Armstrong & Taylor, 2014). The overall HR policy demonstrates the HR managers' responsibilities toward their employees in terms

of equity, consideration, organizational learning, performance, quality of working life, and working conditions (Armstrong & Taylor, 2014). Company policy is one of the dimensions of job satisfaction (Ünal, 2013). As suggested by Armstrong and Taylor (2014), managers must communicate the company policy with the employees to have a productive and rewarding relationship. With effective policies or practices, managers can encourage employees to participate, gain employees' trust, loyalty, and commitment to the organization (Tuzun & Kalemci, 2012). In addition, management with proper assessments and analyzes of the HR policies may increase employee job satisfaction, resulting in the high level of employee commitment and may reduce employee turnover (Kehoe & Wright, 2013). Other job dissatisfaction factor is supervision.

Supervision. The role of supervisors is important, because they communicate organizational culture and often empower employees to enhance self-worth and self-esteem (Dike, 2012; Gkorezis & Petridou, 2012). Employees who perceived organizational culture as friendly, collaborative, and supportive feel satisfied with their jobs, and often increase employee morale and decrease employee turnover intention (Dike, 2012). However, if employees are not happy with supervisors' behavior, the negative organizational culture can lead to decreased morale and high turnover intention (Dike, 2012). Hofaidhllaoui and Chhinzer (2014) added that even though employees feel satisfied with supervisors' performance, outside external factors such as high external opportunities or low perceived organizational support can influence employee decision to leave. Furthermore, employees become irresponsible and powerless towards their job when their superiors are not supportive (Gkorezis & Petridou, 2012). Job satisfaction

supervision is a significant factor to turnover intention; thus, employers must provide training to improve supervisors' skills and must focus on securing and rewarding the effective supervisors. Rewarding must be based on their performances, feedback, and level of competence to retain knowledge workers as suggested by Hofaidhllaoui and Chhinzer (2014).

Based on social exchange theory, previous research suggested that supervisory support can impact employee attitude and behavior positively (Eisenberger et al., 1990). The level of organizational support affects the level of employee commitment (Eisenberger et al., 1990). Employees' commitment influences an employee retention resulting to a low rate of employee turnover (Paillé, Boiral, & Chen, 2013). An employee becomes highly committed when managers support employee participation and needs to accomplish the job requirement (Paillé et al., 2013).

Allowing employees to participate with full support from the organizational leaders produces a positive and effective motivation (Paillé et al., 2013). Employee's engagement depends on the perceived support of the organizational leaders and fairness in treating employees (Biswas et al., 2013). Previous study results suggested that employee organizational commitment relies on employees' feeling about their supervisors (Kang et al., 2015). When supervision is higher, the emotional attachment of employees toward the organization is also higher (Newman & Sheikh, 2012).

In hospitality industry, as achieving the goals and objectives of the organization depend on the front line employees, the latter expects supervisors to support them achieving their goals professionally (Kang et al., 2015). Kang et al. (2015) also found that

perceived supervisory support directly influences affective employee support and career satisfaction, and an important role in turnover intention. Increased positive exchange relationship with employees reduces turnover intention, and increases career satisfaction and organizational commitment by employees added by Kang et al.

Additionally, managers who display high supervisory support can show high regard to employees' value, well-being, and feelings (Kang et al., 2015). When employees perceive less support from the supervisors, employees' organizational commitment can decrease, and turnover intention can increase at the same time (Kang et al., 2015). Supportive managers can delegate duties based on employees' skills, teach employees how to improve performance, and respect employees. As implication to management, employees leave the supervisors and not the organization (Kang et al., 2015).

On the contrary, abusive supervision occurs when a supervisor displays a hostile behavior, verbally and nonverbally (Priesemuth, Schminke, Ambrose, & Folger, 2014). Abused supervision can come in the form of unfair treatment, silent treatment, private intrusion, and spreading rumors (Priesemuth et al., 2014). Abusive power is detrimental to a boss-employee relationship, which often includes bitterness in the relationship, mistrust, and fear (Chan & Mcallister, 2014). Empirical studies show that abused supervision can foster psychological distress, emotional exhaustion, and anxiety. Distrust, anxiety, and fear are components of paranoid arousal (Chan & Mcallister, 2014).

In addition to psychological problems, negative behavior can reduce trust, state of self-esteem, organizational commitment, and job satisfaction. Moreover, other research

findings found that abused supervision has a significant relationship with employee

performance, turnover, organizational citizenship behavior, resistant behavior, and

counter productive work behavior (Chan & Mcallister, 2014). Priesemuth et al. (2014)

supported that having an abusive supervision climate affects individual and group as a

whole that influences employees' performance, health status, and even social

interactions. The negative effects of abusive supervision can cost $24 billion for many

business leaders annually (Henle & Gross, 2014).

Moreover, many researchers successfully studied antecedents and consequences

of abusive supervision. Some antecedents are supervisor-level factors such as (a) abusive

supervision experiences from previous managers, (b) perception of injustice, (c) work

stress, (d) emotional intelligence, and (e) perceived deep-level dissimilarity with

subordinates (Rong & Jiang, 2014). To address the issue of abusive supervision, Chan

and McAllister (2014) suggested that supervisor and subordinates must have training to

know what behaviors need to accept or not and what behavior requires reporting to a

higher authority. Another suggested approach is to have management performance

system that allows reporting of abused behavior or establish hotlines to report any

observed behavior (Chan & McAllister, 2014). The next factor of job dissatisfaction is

interpersonal relationships.

Interpersonal relationships. The interpersonal relationships are personal

relationships between two or more people that develop within the organization (Gkorezis

& Petridou, 2012). The relationships occur when both parties expect something in returns

(Armstrong & Taylor, 2014). Interpersonal relationships include employee-employer relationships, employee-supervisors relationships, and employee-peer relationships.

Employee-employer relationships. Baron and Kreps (2013) described employment as a relational contract between employee and employer where social relationship and economic factors exist for the benefits of both parties. Armstrong and Taylor (2014) stated that employment relationship has interconnections between employee and employer through informal contract. As described by Armstrong and Taylor, informal contract is a psychological contract, where both parties have perceived assumptions and expectations from each other. The basis of an employer-employee relationship is the employees render their skills, effort, and knowledge in favor of salary or wages provided by the employer (Armstrong & Taylor, 2014).

The employment relationship includes value, because the development and application of HR process, policies, and procedures depend on this employment relationship (Armstrong & Taylor, 2014). Expressing what both parties need or not to have a productive and rewarding relationship is also part of employment relationship (Armstrong & Taylor, 2014). To achieve a productive and rewarding relationship, Armstrong and Taylor (2014) suggested that managers must communicate the company policies, where managers must implement the rewards system with justice and consistency.

On the other hand, understanding the factors that influence employees' behavior makes the employment relationship effective and successful (Baron & Kreps, 2013). Expectation and value are also some factors that affect employees' behavior (Armstrong

& Taylor, 2014). Armstrong and Taylor (2014) described expectations as how people learn to expect their behavior and others behavior and values as people beliefs of what is important, which are classifications of personal characteristics.

In economic situation, however, the employee-employer relationship becomes a significant factor to implement the mission and vision of many business leaders and to fulfill the needs of the employees. Employee and employer in an economic view share the same risks, financially and non-financially (Baron & Kreps, 2013). Both parties contribute their assets to satisfy their demands, and one party affects another party (Baron & Kreps, 2013). Therefore, employee and employers must emphasize the critical purposes of the business relationships. Without one party, common goals are not achievable.

Employee-supervisor relationship. The employee-supervisor relationship is a core relationship that develops inside the organization (Gkorezis & Petridou, 2012). A manager's role is vital to the success of the employees (Gkorezis & Petridou, 2012). A positive relationship with the supervisors can influence a positive attitude towards the employees, increasing employee competence to execute the job. Supporting the employee-supervisor relationship can affect customer relationship as well (Gkorezis & Petridou, 2012). Often, employees prefer supervisors who are considerate, competitive, honest, and fair (Ünal, 2013). Without perceived support from their superiors, employees become powerless and irresponsible in performing the assigned tasks (Gkorezis & Petridou, 2012). Additionally, previous different research reviews revealed that leader-member exchange relationship is critical because it directly affects job performance,

organizational commitment, and job satisfaction (Gkorezis & Petridou, 2012). Thus, understanding the roles of the employee and supervisor to make the relationship works as expected may lead to successfully meeting their common goals and objectives.

Employee-peers relationship. The relationship with peers is also important to employees, because this relationship influences employee motivation, employee well-being, and mental health (Gkorezis & Petridou, 2012). With healthy relationship and interactions among peers, employees enhance their personal power, competence, and self-control. Positive relationship with peers can also increase employee autonomousness and job initiation.

In addition, employee-coworkers relationship is critical in relationship with turnover intention and actual turnover (Tews, Michel, & Ellingson, 2013). With high quality interpersonal relationship, employees and co-workers can minimize the turnover intention resulting in increased employee retention (Tews et al., 2013). Developing extensive and high quality relationship with management and subordinates inside the organization can increase attachment and job embeddedness as well (Tews et al., 2013). Furthermore, relationship with coworkers can help reduce job overload, stress, and burnout because coworkers can support instrumentally and emotionally, resulting to reduced turnover intention and increased employee stay. Using 188 samples of entry-level employees from restaurants national chain, study findings revealed that coworker support has significant influence to turnover (Tews et al., 2013). Conclusively, managers must emphasize the importance of the employee-peers relationship to increase their job engagement and participation. Other factor of dissatisfaction is working conditions.

Working conditions. Under the Occupational Safety and Health Act 1970, employers' responsibility is to maintain a safe and healthy workplace for employees (McSweeney-Feld & Rubin, 2013). The Occupational Safety and Health Administration (OSHA) clearly and strongly supported the act of 1970 (McSweeney-Feld & Rubin, 2013). The importance of having a good working environment is vital to the success of the employees (AlBattat & Som, 2013; Leip & Stinchcomb, 2013). A safe, healthy, and friendly environment is what the employees perceive or need from the organization (Matz et al., 2013). In addition, when working condition is good managers can motivate employees to work with dedication, commitment, and job satisfaction (AlBattat & Som, 2013; Leip & Stinchcomb, 2013; Matz et al., 2013). When employees feel safe, employee turnover decreases (Stinchcomb & Leip, 2013; Yang, Liu, Huang, & Zhu, 2013).

On the contrary, when employees who feel stressed within the work environment because of job overload (lack of staff), unfair treatment, and lack of organizational support create employee low satisfaction and commitment, resulting to increased employee turnover (Jung & Kim, 2012; Stinchcomb & Leip, 2013; Yang et al., 2013). Ryan et al. (2011) supported that feeling stressed and feeling burnout increase the intention to leave among the fast food workers working in international fast food chain in Malaysia. AlBattat and Som (2013) noted that the poor environment is a source of employees' dissatisfaction increasing the number of turnover intention. Moreover, work environment and job satisfactions are the influential factors to voluntary turnover than age, gender, and race (Leip & Stinchcomb, 2013). The quality of employment affects the

employees' satisfaction at the workplace, which influences employee retention (Lee & Way, 2010). Other working environment factor is employee fairness.

Human resource management practices such as employee fairness affects public service motivation and business performance (Giauque, Anderfuhren-Biget, & Varone, 2013). Treating employees with justice can reduce employee turnover (Stinchcomb & Leip, 2013). Injustice practices toward employees may contribute to turnover intention to actual turnover (AlBattat & Som, 2013). The organization managers who focus on the employees' welfare or employees' welfare with objective fulfillment increase the level safety climate and reduce safety accidents (Colley, Lincoln, & Neal, 2013). In contrast, managers who focus on a formal process and procedures or formal process and procedures with objective fulfillment, decrease level safety climate and increase safety accidents (Colly et al., 2013).

Effects of positive working conditions. Michel, Kavanagh, and Tracey (2013) reported that work conditions affect the employee motivation, performance, and intention to leave directly. Positive work climate produces a high level of employee motivation and performance, which affects the customer service relationship (Michel et al., 2013). Also, a positive working environment attracts employees to stay with the organization, which influences employee turnover (Vasquez, 2014). A work climate with employee respect, recognition, and appreciation reduces employee turnover rates (Stinchcomb & Leip, 2013).

As suggested by Cherian and Jacob (2013), a workplace must be free from any physical distractions that promote work stressors and low-team spirit. Cavanagh et al.

(2013) added that a safe and healthy workplace can foster positive participation (Cavanagh et al., 2013). With a safe and healthy work environment, employees feel satisfied with the jobs resulting to a negative employee turnover (Matz et al., 2013). Therefore, fostering positive work environment can minimize employee turnover (Stinchcomb & Leip, 2013).

On the other hand, effective and efficient operational management strategy produces positive responses from customers such as loyalty and satisfaction (Lee, Lee, & Kang, 2012). Lee et al. (2012) found that high-performance work systems affect employees' attitude towards the job that impact service quality. Kuo (2013) noted that the trust is a significant value that promotes knowledge-sharing experiences between employer and employees inside the organization. Thus, positive relationship with trust inside the workplace is critical. However, organizations with strong group orientations do not affect the organizational operation regardless of high-turnover rate (Mohr, Young, & Burgess, Jr., 2012).

Effects of negative working conditions. Some of the determinant factors of the turnover intentions are emotional exhaustion (Choi, Cheong, & Feinberg, 2012), burnout (Jung & Kim, 2012), and job stress (Jung & Yoon, 2014). Emotional exhaustion occurs when an individual feels exhausted with psychological and emotional demands (Cho et al., 2013). Emotional exhaustion also occurs when employees feel overwhelmed at work with numerous demands from managers to customers (Cho et al., 2013). Cho et al. (2013) found that employee emotional exhaustion reduces the degree level of employees' job

satisfaction. Pressure at work contributes to employees' unhappiness feelings (Van der Meer & Wielers, 2013).

In addition, perceived support whether supervisors or organizational support, found no effect on employees' emotional exhaustion (Campbell, Perry, Maertz, Allen, & Griffeth, 2013). Jung and Kim (2012) also noted that having no supportive work environment, employees are more likely to feel exhausted emotionally, promoting employee burnout. Employees with burnout often result in having less commitment with the organization resulting in higher turnover intention (Jung & Kim, 2012). Emotional exhaustion however does not affect the employee commitment directly (Campbell et al., 2013).

Moreover, other research results revealed that emotional exhaustion is a mediator between customer verbal aggression and intention to leave (Li & Zhou, 2013). Emotional exhaustion is a part of employee burnout (Choi et al., 2012). Cho et al. (2013) agreed and suggested that managers must conduct an employee survey regularly to determine their performance development and psychological welfare to minimize exhaustion. In addition, focusing on employees' emotions besides performance can assist organization minimizes the turnover rates, and cost expenses (Cho et al., 2013).

On the other hand, Campbell et al. (2013) noted that support through fair treatment with respect and dignity helps employees avoid the emotional exhaustion. Thus, Karatepe (2013) suggested that the organization must support the employees to balance responsibilities between work and family. As a result, employees reduce the

experiences of exhaustion at work and organizational managers help retain skilled

workers (Karatepe, 2013).

Furthermore, Campbell et al. (2013) defined burnout as a component of

exhaustion where individual feels overwhelmed with job demands. The cost of employee

burnout reveals higher than $300 billion annually for U.S. corporate businesses

(Campbell et al., 2013). The determinants of employees' burnout were family and work

roles, social support, justice in policies, and other personal matters (McCarty & Skogan,

2013). Burnout also affects the health of the employees, physical, and psychological

(Campbell et al., 2013). Besides employees' health, burnout impacts employee

performance, motivation, and may accelerate the rate of employee turnover (McCarty &

Skogan, 2013). The commitment of the employees toward the organization is also at risk,

which promotes higher turnover (Campbell et al., 2013). Employees feel work burnout

when they do not feel the supportive environment, causing employees not to commit to

the organization, which in turn lead to leaving their jobs intentionally (Jung & Kim,

2012).

In contrast, work overloads can cause employee's emotional exhaustion affecting

the job embeddedness and employee's performance negatively, which also affects

customer service quality (Karatepe, 2013). Van Dam et al. (2013) found that the

antecedents of perceived work pressure include emotional and physical demands. Jung

and Kim (2012) also agreed that work overload contributes to employee emotional

exhaustion that leads to employee burnout, which reduces employees' commitment

resulting in high turnover intention. Using regression analysis of data from 309 customer-

contact hotel employees in the United States, the study findings revealed that burnout is a mediating factor of employees' performance that affects the business profitability and growth (Lee & Ok, 2014).

Additionally, accidents occur in the work environment because of lack in following rules and regulations and safety measure precautions (Dahl & Olsen, 2013). Work injuries and illnesses occur, which promotes job stress, job dissatisfaction, and intention to leave for employees (McCaughey, DelliFraine, McGhan, & Bruning, 2013). Employee turnover also increases when employees get hurt physically because of the job responsibilities and lack of organizational commitment (Brewer et al., 2012). A poor working condition affects the employees' job satisfaction (Kumar et al., 2013). As suggested by Kumar et al. (2013) an overall improvement in working environment contributes to positive results. Added by McCaughey et al. (2013) business managers must increase their positive engagement in developing safety and healthy work environment to enhance the safety climate perception and to promote positive results for employees. These precautionary measures can minimize incidents from happening, leading to increase employee retention rates as decreases employee turnover rates.

Furthermore, AlBattat and Som (2013) also discovered that bad working environment encourages employees to leave the current job intentionally before the actual turnover will occur. Matz et al. (2013) noted that the work environment affects employee job satisfaction and commitment, leading to employee turnover intention. Matz et al. suggested providing a better workplace because satisfaction and commitment depend on it. An effective approach with care for workplace learning can produce

important benefits for employees and organization (Teare, 2011). Therefore, safety

compliance requires leadership involvement, directly or indirectly where employees'

competence, role clarity, and follow-up contractors influenced leadership effectiveness

(Dahl & Olsen, 2013). Managers' daily participations at workplace also influence the

level of safety compliance (Dahl & Olsen, 2013).

Employee performance and employee turnover have strong relationships when

safety variable is a mediator (Hancock, Allen, Bosco, McDaniel, & Pierce, 2013). Poor

well-being at the workplace is a determining factor for job stress resulting to job

dissatisfaction but not commitment (Sang, Teo, Cooper, & Bohle, 2013). Employees with

job dissatisfaction can perceive that organizational leaders do not care about their well-

being that demotivates them in becoming less committed to the organization (Sang et al.,

2013). AlBattat and Som (2013) noted that employees working with stress at the

workplace are a significant contribution of turnover intention to actual turnover. Sang et

al. (2013) recommended that business leaders must implement strategic approaches that

reduce the job stress to increase the employee commitment, job satisfaction, and health

status effectively.

Salary. Mello (2006) described compensation as an effective tool to entice

applicants, maintain employees, and optimize employee's performance in meeting

organization's goals and objectives. Larkin, Pierce, and Gino (2012) also characterized

compensation as a strategic key to allure and motivate employees where the influence to

co-workers and business performance is apparent. Employee compensation is important

because it can affect job satisfaction, motivation, performance, retention, and turnover

intent (Misra et al., 2013). With proper implementation of compensation structure, competitive edges can achieve effectively (Misra et al., 2013). Nyberg (2010) added that a periodic assessment and modification of compensation packages entice employees to improve the organization's bottom line of making a profit.

On the contrary, although high performers promote company innovation, study findings indicated that employee compensation has an indirect relationship with organizational innovation (Yanadori & Cui 2013). Misra et al. (2013) mentioned, however that compensation has a direct impact to employee turnover intention, job satisfaction, and intention to stay. Having a fair compensation and strategic compensation structure helps achieve organizational goals and objectives (Misra et al., 2013). Brewer et al. (2012) added that regardless of job responsibilities, turnover rate decreases when employees receive high compensation and overtime pay. High performing employees with high compensation will likely to stay with the organization compared to employees who have less salary and benefits (Carnahan, Agarwal, & Campbell, 2012).

Furthermore, employee's base pay is one of the components of the compensation system (Mello, 2006). The classification of pay is an extrinsic reward, which derived from the employees' work outcomes (Wakefield, Curry, Mueller, & Price, 2012). Extrinsic rewards, incentives, and penalties influence the employee's behavior (Pereira & Anderson, 2012). Herzberg (1974) and Herzberg et al. (1959) treated salary as a hygiene factor that affects employee job dissatisfaction. Kwon (2014) also supported that the pay is a tool used to motivate employees.

Positive effects of base pay. The pay performance appraisal is a tool used to evaluate the performance of the employees (Mulvaney et al., 2012). Mulvaney et al. argued that base pay may increase depending on the employees' performance. Individual appraisal affects motivation and business performance positively (Giauque et al., 2013). O'Halloran (2012) noted that pay related performance is an approach used for employees' incentive rewards improvement to increase employee performance. Larkin et al. (2012) added that performance based-pay separates the good performers from the bad performers. However, pay related performance (PRP) indirectly influences the turnover (O'Halloran, 2012).

On the other hand, in a pay system, managers can increase employees' effort and motivation that affects' business profitability (Larkin et al., 2012). Employee pay requires annual evaluation (Kumar et al., 2013). With periodic assessment and modification of compensation packages, employers can entice employees to improve the organization's bottom line of making a profit (Nyberg, 2010). Extrinsic rewards, incentives, and penalties influence employee behavior (Pereira & Anderson, 2012). Increased employee salary and wages help improve employee morale, productivity, and performance, resulting to a positive business financial performance (Kwon, 2014; Zedelius et al., 2012). Having effective employee salary and wages can also affect the immediate job and future performance of the employee (Zedelius et al., 2012).

Additionally, high-employee pay prevents future employee turnover (Choi et al., 2012). High-employee salary increases employee job performance, job satisfaction, and reduces employee turnover (Linz & Semykina, 2012; Nitesh, NandaKumar, & Asok

Kumar , 2013). Drawn from study findings, Nitesh et al. (2013) said that pay has a direct contributions to perceived organizational support, employees' commitment with the organization, and employee retention. Porter and Steer (1973) noted that pay is always a significant factor to turnover, which is contradicted to Mobley et al. (1979).

Moreover, using a case study in retail stores featuring front employees with open-ended questions and secondary resources, Stringer et al. (2011) noted that establishing justice in employees' pay, the employee job satisfaction increases (Stringer et al., 2011). Larkin et al. (2012) also emphasized that once employees have low-job satisfaction because of inequity regarding pay, performance decreases and absenteeism increases, affecting the turnover rates. The study findings from Morgan, Dill, and Kalleberg (2013) indicated a positive correlation of intrinsic (meaningful tasks) and extrinsic (wages and benefits) motivation factors to job satisfaction, but only the latter have a positive impact to turnover intention. Thus, managers must maintain the justice in pay to increase employee satisfaction and job performance to reduce turnover intention.

Negative effects of base pay. Employee's salary and wages are factors that influence job dissatisfaction (Islam & Ali, 2013; Linz & Semykina, 2012; Teck-Hong & Waheed, 2011). Tews et al. (2013) concluded that salary is less important than job embeddedness, particularly in the hospitality industry where young workers prefer to stay when positive relationship with co-workers and managers are high. Additionally, salary and compensation affect the employee performance (Chen et al., 2013). Other research results indicated, however that pay factor does not affect employee turnover (Smith, Wareham, & Lambert, 2013; Zhoutao, Jinxi, & Yixiao, 2013).

In contrast, using different model theories, the connotation of the fast food restaurants for being a low-wage sector and low-skilled labor market where workers are primarily students with no experience or less experience influences employee turnover (Kwon, 2014). Dissatisfaction in salary leads to turnover intention, which is a source of employee turnover (Choi et al., 2012; Hwang, Lee, Park, Chang, & Kim, 2014; Nitesh et al., 2013). AlBattat and Som (2013) agreed stating the low salary is the antecedent of turnover intention before the actual turnover. The level of pay affects the employees' emotional exhaustion that leads to employee burnout and reduced commitment with the organization, which influences high-employee turnover intention (Jung & Kim, 2012).

On the contrary, Chang et al. (2013) noted that employees favor a good relationship between coworkers and leaders compared to pay level. By contrast, Bhatnagar (2014) noted that aside from pay, recognition, appreciation, and training encourage skilled employees to stay. Thus, managers must not only assess pay factor, but also other factors to reduce employee job dissatisfaction.

Employee Turnover Intention

Turnover intention is a process of leaving the current job or willingness of the employees to leave their current jobs (Chang et al., 2013; Mobley, 1977). The behavioral intentions can lead to actual behavior (Hofaidhllaoui & Chhinzer, 2014). A turnover intention is one of the best predictors of actual employee turnover (Christian & Ellis, 2014; Feng-Hua, You-Shiun, & Kun-Chih, 2014). Mobley (1977) said turnover intention is the last stage before the actual turnover takes place, which is the reason why turnover

intention is the focus for the study. Actual turnover include self-assessment and outcome evaluation associated with leaving the current job (Stanley et al., 2013).

In addition, thinking of quitting can occur when an employee feels dissatisfied with the job (Mobley, 1977). Before the intention to leave happens, the employee starts to evaluate the factors that affect their decision process (Mobley, 1997). Some of the factors are the costs of quitting, availability of the job market, and the benefits associated with leaving the current job (Mobley, 1977). If employees think that costs overweigh the benefits, absenteeism and other negative behaviors toward the company may occur. If employees found the alternatives favorable for the current jobs, then intention to quit occurs, leading to actual quitting (Mobley, 1977).

In the food service industry, more than 100 managers plan to leave their jobs (Ghiselli, La Lopa, & Bai, 2001). Out of hundred food service managers, 50 service managers left because of salary and benefits (Ghiselli et al., 2001). In their study findings, Ghiselli et al. (2001) found that intent to leave for a short period has a positive relationship with intrinsic job satisfaction. Herzberg (1974) and Herzberg et al. (1959) mentioned that intrinsic job satisfaction derives from the work itself, as opposed to extrinsic job satisfaction, where employees did not have control. In addition, intrinsic job satisfaction has a long-term result in terms of employee performance as compared to extrinsic job satisfaction (Herzberg, 1974; Herzberg et al., 1959). Added by Ghiselli et al. (2001), when the intrinsic job satisfaction is high among employees, the employees are more likely to stay with the organization.

By contrast, Van Dam et al. (2013) found that age, social support, and developmental opportunities are antecedents of turnover intention. Ghiselli et al. (2001) supported the research findings of Van Dam et al. that age is a predictor of intention to leave. Consequently, age is a contributing factor why fast food turnover increases dramatically.

Wyld also found that job embeddedness influences employee retention within the organization. Job embeddedness occur when employees feel satisfaction with their salary, benefits, and relationships with others (Wyld, 2014). Job embeddedness is a recognizable force that encourages employees to stay within the organization according to Tews, Michel, Xu, & Drost, (2015). Other variable that affects turnover intention is job stress (Jung & Yoon, 2014). The sources of job stresses include (a) dissatisfaction in pay, (b) lack of support from the management, (c) organizational culture, and (d) unfair treatment (Hwang et al., 2014). Among job stresses, however, unfair treatment leads to strong turnover intention (Hwang et al., 2014). Furthermore based on the U.S government IT employees, Kim (2012) found that (a) promotion and advancement opportunities, (b) training and development, (c) supervisory communications, (d) pay and reward satisfaction, and (e) family-friendly policies are determining factors of turnover intentions.

As suggested, focusing on employee job satisfaction and commitment may reduce employee turnover intentions (Ryan et al., 2011). When employee job satisfaction is high, the employee commitment is also high, which influence employee turnover intention

(Ryan et al., 2011; Wyld, 2014). According to Mignonac and Richebé (2013), minimizing the turnover intention helps reduce the employee voluntary turnover.

In contrary, in behavioral psychology and management literature, researchers used turnover intention as a dependent variable for job satisfaction (Hofaidhllaoui & Chhinzer, 2014). In examining the relationship between job satisfaction, and turnover intention for knowledge workers (engineers) in France, Hofaidhllaoui and Chhinzer used a quantitative correlational study. From study participants of 1,980, only 548 (27.7%) participants responded, where 481 participants completed the survey. To measure the job satisfaction and the turnover intention variables, Hofaidhllaoui and Chhinzer applied the previously-validated Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ) developed by Weiss et al. in 1967 and the scale of Rusbult et al. in 1988 with a 5-point Likert-type scale (1 = strongly disagree and 5 = strongly agree).

The collected data included analysis using regression analysis. Hofaidhllaoui and Chhinzer (2014) found that job satisfaction (supervisor relationship and employee work) had significantly no relationship with turnover intentions ($r = -0.30$, $p < 0.01$, $r = -0.30$, $p < 0.01$). However, the variance in turnover intention was 28.4% associated with job satisfaction with work and job satisfaction with supervisor (Hofaidhllaoui & Chhinzer, 2014). The implications of the study are that satisfaction with work and satisfaction with one's supervisor are two different aspects of job satisfaction. Although satisfaction has no relationship with turnover intention, when employees feel dissatisfied with job, employee turnover intention occurs regardless of the perception within the organization (Hofaidhllaoui & Chhinzer, 2014).

However, Hofaidhllaoui and Chhinzer (2014) suggested that improving satisfaction with supervisor is critical in retaining knowledge workers; thus, management must secure and reward the effective supervisors and managers. Employers must also train employees to remain competent in their assigned tasks and be satisfied with their job to avoid leaving the job to reduce the turnover according to Hofaidhllaoui & Chhinzer, 2014).

Employee Turnover

Employee turnover has been a major topic for many personnel researchers, behavioral scientists, and management practitioners (Mobley et al., 1979). Even in private business sectors such as hospitality, tourism, and the fast food industry, employee turnover becomes a main concern for many business leaders because of the costs involved, both direct and indirect costs (Pearlman & Schaffer, 2013). Examples of direct costs are recruitment, hiring, and training costs, where indirect costs include overtime and customer dissatisfaction (Pearlman & Schaffer, 2013; Ryan et al., 2011).

Employee turnover also affects the health care industry, where costs are high that affect the workplace safety and quality of service (Li & Jones, 2013). In the restaurant industry to include fast food restaurants, employee turnover is high, approximately more than 100% as compared to other industries (Batt et al., 2014; Perez & Mirabella, 2013; Ryan et al., 2011, Wyld, 2014). Tews et al. (2014) found that an entry-level position has the highest turnover rate in the hospitality industry. In the United States, researchers found non-managerial positions have higher turnover rates in the fast food industry,

because of poor salary, working conditions, and job boredom for repeat job process (Ryan et al., 2011).

On the other hand, having high employee turnover rates, business leaders are forced to deliver better customer service and better financial performance for their stakeholders (Wyld, 2014). Hancock et al. (2013) also noted that employee turnover may affect business performance including (a) financial status, (b) customer services, (c) recruitment, (d) selection costs, and (e) work environment (safety and quality). Turnover is expensive and distracting for organizational managers, because recruitment, selection, and training for new employees can occur (Tews et al., 2014). As suggested, leaders must know what factors associated with turnover to reduce these negative effects (Memon et al., 2014).

In contrast, Ahmed and Kolachi (2013) emphasized that employee turnover is healthy and necessary for the business, welcoming the arrival of new employees who contribute and share new ideas to lead to business innovations. Conversely, Ahmed and Kolachi noted that the turnover is not good for the organization, because of the negative effects on the business, financially and non-financially. In addition, having high-turnover rates endanger investments of stakeholders resulting in a negative business financial performance (Bauer, 2012).

Causes of employee turnover. Employee turnover can occur in two different ways, *voluntary* and *involuntary* (Mobley et al., 1979; Phillips, 2012). Voluntary turnover occurs when an employee leaves the organization intentionally, whereas the involuntary turnover happens when an organization forces an employee to resign because of poor

performance (Mobley et al., 1979; Phillips, 2012). Memon, Salleh, Baharom, and Harun (2014) noted that this voluntary turnover reduces employee's morale and productivity.

Sources of voluntary turnover are (a) lack of employee recognition, (b) feeling of isolation, as well as (c) poor leadership style of a manager (Bauer, 2012). Boyar, Valk, Maertz, and Sinha (2012) added that the managerial support and work-related stress are primary reasons why employees are voluntarily leaving the organization. Aside from human management practices, employees constantly look for alternative jobs (Direnzo & Greenhaus, 2011). Other causes of voluntary employees include (a) parenting obligations, (b) other job opportunities, and (c) educational pursuits (Hom, Mitchell, Lee, & Griffeth, 2012). Vanderpool and Way (2013) argued that work-balance is the determining factor for intention to leave, leading to voluntary turnover. Grissom (2012) noted that incompetent managers can affect the employees' performance, resulting in employee voluntary withdrawal.

Furthermore, breach of contract is one of the major causes of voluntary turnover, because of the loss of trust and faith of the employees toward the relationship with managers (Clinton & Guest, 2013). When a reciprocal exchange relationship is missing and not in balance, breach of contract occurs (Clinton & Guest, 2013). The breach of the psychological contract can also happen when the situations are beyond the control of the employer and employee referred to as the external locus of control (Hermida & Luchman, 2013). Breach of contract can cause the loss of the employee-employer relationship, loss of commitment, and trust issues (Benard & Chepngetich, 2013).

Other cause of voluntary withdrawal is lack of coworker support. Employees decided to leave their current jobs because of coworker instrumental support (Tews et al., 2014). Coworker instrumental support occur when employees cannot do the jobs independently, which demonstrates (a) the employees' incompetence, (b) an inferiority complex, and (c) the lack of self-efficacy (Tews et al., 2014). Using data from 188 servers in restaurant chain, Tews et al. (2013) examined the effects of coworker supports on employee turnover, emotionally and instrumentally. Study findings showed that the instrumental support from coworkers directly impacts the turnover rate (Tews et al., 2013). Instrumental support however provides a positive result if used to focus on teamwork goals (Tews et al., 2014).

Kim (2012) suggested that in combating voluntary employee turnover, managers must focus on the following factors (a) training and development, (b) pay and reward satisfaction, (c) promotion and advancement opportunities, (d) supervisory communications, and (e) family-friendly policies. Training is critical to help employees to be competent in their job roles, which contributes to positive performance results (Haines III & St-Onge, 2012). Vanderpool and Way also recommended that work-family balance must be a priority by managers. Moreover, Ghiselli et al. (2001) suggested that managers must increase employee job satisfaction to minimize the turnover. Determining and addressing the determinants of the employee turnover help business leaders' succeed in their business operations according to Subramanian and Shin (2013).

Impacts of employee turnover. The negative impact of employee turnover is costly to the organization (Pearlman & Schaffer, 2013; Perez & Mirabella, 2013). Bauer

(2012) asserted that having increased voluntary turnover puts the stakeholders' investment and benefits at risks. As a result, stakeholders and shareholders are unable to meet their business financial goals. With training costs related to employee turnover alone, the business owners spend $126 billion yearly (Bauer, 2012).

Tews et al. (2013) also agreed that the turnover is expensive and can disrupt business operation because of the repetitive process in hiring and training employees. The costs of the operation affect the financial stability of the organization (Pearlman & Schaffer, 2013; Perez & Mirabella, 2013; Selden, Schimmoeller, & Thompson, 2013). Expensive turnover challenges HR management of staff focusing on retaining the high performer (Pearlman & Schaffer, 2013; Perez & Mirabella, 2013; Soltis, Agneessens, Sasovova, & Labianca, 2013).

Aside from the costs involved, employee turnover can also affect employees' morale and productivity (Huffman, Payne, & Casper, 2013). López and Sune, (2013) noted when employee turnover occurs, employee performance productivity decreases. Employee turnover can disrupt the core business operations especially when the high performers leave, where business success depends on them (Tzabbar & Kehoe, 2014). Kwon and Rupp (2013) agreed stating that high performers leave the organization regardless of pay and benefits received from the organization. By contrary, according to Hancock et al. (2013) employee turnover does not affect the organizational performance directly. To reduce employee turnover costs financially and nonfinancially, managers must focus on factors that increase employee motivation and job satisfaction.

Employee Commitment

Organizational commitment includes emphasis on the employees' sense of unity and shared values with the organization, focusing on the calculative aspect of employee-employer relationship (Eisenberger et al., 1990). Employee commitment is a determinant factor of turnover intention to actual turnover (Campbell et al., 2013; Stanley et al., 2013). Islam, Ahmad, and Ahmed (2013) added that employee commitment is a vital role between the organizational learning culture and turnover intention. As recommended strategies, organizational managers must foster a supportive environment and learning culture to reduce employees attempting leaving the job according to Islam et al. (2013).

Additionally, Lee and Chen (2013) discovered that the employees' biographical characteristics as age and years of services influence job attitude and commitment. Lee and Chen added that employee motivation was a vital role in employees' success. When motivation increases, an employee commitment also increases. To motivate employees to commit, Lee and Chen suggested increasing employee salary, providing job security, and supporting the employees. These suggestions are critical to increase employee positive job attitude, commitment, and to maintain skilled workers (Lee & Chen, 2013).

Other researchers concluded that employee motivation has a significant relationship with the employee's commitment resulting in positive performance (Battistelli, Galletta, Portoghese, & Vandenberghe, 2013). Motivational factors can influence the attitude and commitment of the employee, resulting in better job performance (Battistelli et al., 2013). Employees with satisfied monetary rewards have a higher commitment to the organization (Nitesh et al., 2013). When employees feel

satisfied, their job commitment increases and employee turnover decreases (Brewer et al., 2012).

Smith and Kumar (2013) added that corporate social responsibility (CSR) has a positive impact on employees' organizational commitment. CSR makes the relationship strong between employee and employer that foster employee loyalty (Smith & Kumar, 2013). Further results of the study indicated that when employees perceived strong CSR, employees' affective commitment and continuance commitment increase, resulting in increased employee loyalty (Smith & Kumar, 2013). In conclusion, employers focusing on CSR can enhance employees' organizational commitment and loyalty suggested by Smith & Kumar (2013).

Study findings indicated that career commitment directly affects the self-efficacy of the employees as well (Bang et al., 2013). High levels of self-efficacy have a high level of career commitment (Bang et al., 2013). Employee commitment develops when an individual feels motivated and satisfied with the job (Bang et al., 2013). Job equality affects the employee commitment and job performance positively (Misra et al., 2013; Suliman & Al Kathairi, 2013).

Employee compensation and recognition based on job performance increase social involvement and commitment (Misra et al., 2013; Suliman & Al Kathairi, 2013). Human resource practices affect the commitment and loyalty of the employees positively (Kehoe & Wright, 2013). Based on the examination of Chong and Monroe (2013), an employee with a lack of commitment has the intention to look for an alternative opportunity outside of their organization. By contrary, according to Jehanzeb et al.

(2013), employee commitment has no relationship with employee turnover, but training directly affects the commitment.

Moreover, the three components of organizational commitments are (a) affective, (b) continuance, and (c) normative commitment (Jung & Kim, 2012). Affective commitment is an employees' emotional attachment to the organization (Stanley et al., 2013). Continuance commitment refers to employees' attachment based on instrumental considerations. Normative means employees' commitment out of moral obligation to the organization (Stanley et al., 2013). All components of organizational commitments are relative to each other (Jung & Kim, 2012).

Xerri and Brunetto (2013) found that employees with affective commitment promotes innovation in the workplace, which fosters an effective business environment. However, affective commitment does not affect the turnover intention or actual turnover (Stanley et al., 2013). Using multi regression analysis, Garland, Hogan, Kelley, Kim, and Lambert's (2013) study findings also indicated the insignificant relationships between affective commitment, absenteeism, and intention to leave.

Furthermore, utilizing the affective events theory, Craig, Allen, Reid, Riemenschneider, and Armstrong (2012) found that the affective organizational commitment (AOC) is a mediating factor between mentoring and employee turnover. Employees who had positive involvement and mentoring increase the AOC, minimizing the employee turnover (Craig et al., 2012). Some organizational managers fail to motivate the employee to commit to the organization, because employees have a low level of involvement in the decision-making (Appelbaum et al., 2013; Hill, Seo, Kang, &

Taylor, 2012). Allen, Ericksen, and Collins (2013) noted that as employee involvement increases, employee commitment increases. Having high-employee commitment reduced the chance of voluntary withdrawal, where at the same time increasing organizational performance, profitability, and growth (Allen et al., 2013).

On the other hand, using hierarchical regression analysis, a role of the tradition influences the AOC and other variables such as pay, autonomy, and supervision factors (Newman & Sheikh, 2012). Employees understand the commitment with the organization through cultural orientation (Niu, 2010). When supervision and autonomy level are low, employee commitment is high, because of employee tradition (Newman & Sheikh, 2012). When autonomy and satisfaction with supervision accelerate, the emotional level of employees' attachment with the organization is high (Newman & Sheikh, 2012). In addition, continuance commitment of the employees provides no direct correlation with employee absenteeism and turnover intention, after controlling the demographic variables as gender, age, and tenure (Garland et al., 2013). As suggestions, Garland et al. (2013) emphasized the importance of affective commitment, because of the significant relationship with business and employee performances.

Employee Engagement

Employee engagement is vital to organizational success, because disengaged employees affect the productivity, profitability, and sustainability of the organization (Simon, 2013). Motivating employees to engage in sharing knowledge, as a team in work environment is an issue that management faces (Hung, Durcikova, Lai, & Lin, 2011).

Employee recognition and appreciation have also a direct relationship with work engagement (Nyman et al., 2012).

Moreover, Choo et al. (2013) found that organizational practices, such as communication, employee development, rewards, and recognition can affect the employee engagement directly. Study findings indicated that organizational practices influence employee engagement by 43.2% (Choo et al., 2013). Therefore, using organizational practices effectively increase employee's engagement and work participation (Choo et al., 2013; Webster & Beehr, 2012).

Employee Retention

Employee retention and motivation challenge businesses owners, leaders, and personnel in the hospitality industry (Arendt et al., 2012; Choudhury & McIntosh, 2012; Namkung, Jang, & Choi, 2011; Pearlman & Schaffer, 2013; Steele et al., 2012). Even retention in new employees is a problem for many businesses (Allen & Shanock, 2013). Vasquez (2014) asserted that retaining employees helps improve business performance. Knowing what factors or causes of employee turnover can assist employers to maintain employees in the hospitality industry (Vasquez, 2014).

By using a phenomenological study, Vasquez (2014) indicated that management support helps achieve employee retention. Allen and Shanock (2013) agreed that when employees perceived the support of the organization, employees become committed and content within the organization. Stumpf, Tymon Jr., Favorito, and Smith (2013) added that intrinsic rewards (meaningfulness and voice) can influence the employees' decision to stay.

Other findings indicated that satisfied employees will stay with the organization, particularly employees who receive positive feedback from the customers concerning their performance (Frey, Bayón, & Totzek, 2013). Consequently, satisfied employees influence customer retention (Gounaris & Boukis, 2013). Ortlieb and Sieben (2012) suggested evaluating the retention strategy based on the employees' skills and performances.

Transition

Section 1 includes the foundation of the study, background of the problem, problem statement, and purpose statement. The foundation study focuses on the background of the fast food industry. Background of the study involves the problems faced by fast food leaders and employees caused by increasing turnover in the fast food industry within the United States. The problem statement includes the hook, anchor, general problem, and specific business problem, where the specific problem is the reason why the research study takes place.

The purpose statement includes the purpose of the study, descriptions of research method and design, population, setting, and the contributions of the study towards business practices and social change. Other sections include the nature of the study, research questions, hypotheses, conceptual framework, operational definitions, assumptions, limitations, delimitations, significance of the study, and literature review.

The nature of the study includes descriptions of chosen methods and designs, and the reasons for choosing the preferred method and design. The research question is the central question provided in the quantitative correlational study that needs to address with

reliable and valid processes, instruments, and research study. Hypotheses include statements that pertain to the study variables to accept or reject the existence of the variable relationship, and if the relationship does exist what is the extent of the relationship.

The Herzberg's motivational-hygiene theory is the theoretical framework for this quantitative study. Definitions refer to terms used in this study. Assumptions involve facts assumed true, but not verified. Limitations are the weaknesses of the study, while delimitations are the strengths of the study. Significance of the study comprises of the importance of the study to the business, how the results of the study contribute to the business effective practices and to social changes. The literature review includes the topics regarding the theoretical framework and study variables supported by different views, perspectives, and opinions of the researchers from different fields.

Section 2 includes the purpose of the study, a role of the researcher, the participants, methods and designs, population, sampling, and ethical research. This section also describes the data collection process, study instruments, data collection technique, data organization approach, data analysis, and validity of instruments, processes, and study.

The purpose of the study includes method, design, population, setting, and social impact. The role of the researcher is to ensure participants' benefits overweigh participants' risks. Participants are employees currently working at fast food restaurants in East Coast in the United States. Quantitative correlational method is used to address the hypotheses using Pearson's correlation coefficient and multiregressions analysis.

Section 2: The Project

This section comprises the purpose statement, role of the researcher, descriptions of participants, research method and design, population and a) sampling, b) ethical research, c) instrumentations, d) data collection technique, e) analysis and study validity. The intent of the purpose statement is to describe the chosen method, design, variables, population, setting, and the implication for positive social change. The role of the researcher emphasizes the importance of consent form and Belmont Protocol to protect the participants from any harm. The research method and design includes descriptions of method and design and the reasons why the chosen method and design outweigh the others.

The targeted population consisted of fast food workers in U.S. fast food restaurants. The population was recruited using a purposive nonprobabilistic sampling method, in which the participants were specifically and nonrandomly selected. Per the standard guidelines ethical research, I was responsible for ensuring the participants' consent and communicating participants' rights to decline the invitation to participate and withdraw anytime. As the researcher, I was required to protect the anonymity of the participants and secure participants' data for safety within 5 years.

The instrumentation described in this chapter includes the job satisfaction survey (JSS), intention to leave the job, and demographic scale. An Internet survey played a vital role in collecting participants' data. Pearson correlation coefficient and multiregression serve as the statistical tools to accept or reject the hypotheses and to determine the variance of employee turnover associated by job satisfaction and job dissatisfaction

factors. Using pre-established psychometric scales and consistent recording, analyzing, and interpreting data support the validity of the data.

Purpose Statement

The purpose of the quantitative correlational study was to examine the relationship between the employee job satisfaction, employee job dissatisfaction, and employee turnover intentions in the U.S. fast food industry. The employee job satisfaction and dissatisfaction variables were taken from Herzberg et al. (1959). The job satisfaction independent variables tracked were (a) achievement, (b) recognition, (c) responsibility, (d) work-itself, and (e) advancement and growth. The job dissatisfaction independent variables tracked were (a) company policy, (b) supervision, (c) interpersonal relationships, (d) working conditions, and (e) salary. The dependent variable was employee turnover intentions in the fast food industry.

The targeted population consisted of fast food workers throughout the East Coast region of the United States. The population suited the needs for the study, because fast food workers in lower-level management or non-managerial positions experienced high turnover in the fast food industry. The implication for positive social change included helping managers in the fast food industry reduce turnover intentions of their employees by focusing on factors important to employees for which managers had control.

Role of the Researcher

My role as the researcher was to implement the informed consent process. Informed consent is a process that protects participants from any harm, allowing them to participate voluntarily (Judkins-Cohn et al., 2014). Informed consent in this study

included the disclosure, capacity, comprehension, and permission request. Understanding the process included meeting the expectations of the Walden Institutional Review Board (IRB), as well as informing participations of the requirements needed for meeting and completing the consent form (Judkins-Cohn et al., 2014; see Appendix H). A researcher must be an advocate in the best interest of the participants (Judkins-Cohn et al., 2014). Therefore, before starting the research participation, I explained to managers and participants the nature of the study, purpose of the study, rights of the participants and my responsibility to protect their identity and confidentiality. Ensuring participants understand the informed consent process and the importance for maintaining the ethical procedures of conducting the research may avoid any ethical and legal issues as suggested by Judkins-Cohn et al. (2014).

Using the Belmont Report Protocol included description of the fundamental ethical principles and guidelines in conducting research involving human participation (U.S. Department of Health & Human Services [USDHHS], n.d.). Proper application of research using human subjects must avoid ethical problems (USDHHS, n.d). The fundamental ethical principles included respect of persons, beneficence, and justice (USDHHS, n.d.).

Respect for persons included the acknowledgment of participants' autonomy, as well as providing protection for those participants incapacitated or immature (USDHHS, n.d.). My responsibility was to respect participants' views, choices, or ideas based on participants' judgments. As a sign of respect, I disclosed the nature of the research, process, and instrument, as well as explain that a participant may withdraw at any time as

suggested by Judkins-Cohn et al. (2014). The other fundamental ethical principle is beneficence.

Beneficence in research involves optimizing the potential benefits and diminishing the potential risks of the participants (USDHHS, n.d.). Preventing harm, providing benefits, and balancing benefits against risks and costs are characteristics of beneficence (Ferris & Sass-Kortsak, 2011; Judkins-Cohn et al., 2014). Appropriate distribution of benefits, risks, and costs fairly is a trait of justice (Ferris & Sass-Kortsak, 2011; Judkins-Cohn et al., 2014). The principles are critical for informed consent process and institutional review process to protect the rights of the participants and maintain their safety during the survey participation (Judkins-Cohn et al., 2014). To meet the principle of benevolence and nonmaleficence to optimize the benefits of the participants as minimizing the danger of the participants as suggested by Judkins-Cohn et al. (2014), I clearly specified and explained to managers and participants oral and written with flyers and consent form that their participations were anonymous. Participants have rights to decline the invitation to participate or withdraw anytime. Participations were anonymous to protect their identity and confidentiality. In addition, data collected are stored with encrypted password and lock for five years. Data will receive deletion after 5 years. Another fundamental ethical principle is justice.

Justice included demonstration by ensuring that participants in the study participated equally regardless of demographic background, capability, or ability (USDHHS, n.d.). My target participants were invited equally regardless of gender, religion, and educational attainment. Data came from employees who currently work in

fast food restaurants in East Coast in the United States to avoid bias suggested by Gibson and Fedorenko (2013). Gibson and Fedorenko also recommended that a researcher must have a rigorous data collection process and reporting standards by using valid methods to see different views of the researchers theoretically. Data collection started upon receiving my Walden IRB approval number. After receiving the approval, I approached the fast food restaurant managers asking permission for employees to participate. Receiving the managers' approval allowed me to approach the participants. Before signing the consent form, the study process was giving to them explaining the nature of the study, purposes of the study, rights of the participants, and my role. The benefits overweigh the risks to avoid any ethical issues during research participations. The survey questionnaire used was a psychometric scale with pre-established internal consistent reliability.

The targeted participants had no direct affiliation with my profession. I used communication with fast food managers and the participants through social media and used personal meetings to establish a neutral relationship. The research topic relates to my business profession because employee turnover is one of the problems I face as a business owner.

Participants

The selection of the most knowledgeable participants regarding the problem statement was critical to this quantitative study, because the validity of the study results depended on participants' honest and accurate participation (Saunders, 2011). I selected participants who represented the target population to avoid biases that might have otherwise adversely affected the study findings, as suggested by Englander (2012) and

Saunders (2011). The eligibility criteria for study participants were to have (a) a full-time or part-time job at a lower-level management or non-managerial position, (b) a minimum age of 18, (c) be of either gender, and (d) be workers in fast food restaurants located in the east coast of the United States.

To access participants, I conducted personal meetings with fast food managers for franchises such as McDonalds, Burger King, KFC, Wendy's, Taco Bell, and Subway that were located on the East Coast of the United States and provided them with a copy of the letter of cooperation (Appendix J). Meeting with these fast food managers allowed me to discuss the purpose, nature of the study, rights of the participants, and measures to protect the confidentiality and privacy of the participants. I also gave the fast food managers copies of the participant invitation and participant reminder (Appendix K & L) to notify employees about the importance of participating. Once these fast food managers approved my request to conduct the research inside the facility at their convenience, I then personally approached their employees to solicit their participation.

Prior to participation, further explanations about the purpose and nature of the research study, rights of the participants, and measures to protect their identity and confidentiality including answering participants' questions, if arise, helped emphasize the importance of employees' participations. Participants answered survey questions through Survey Monkey web link. A Survey Monkey is a web-based tool used in quantitative research for collecting data online (Saunders, 2011; Survey Monkey, n.d).

Research Method and Design

Research Method

In the study, a quantitative method was appropriate, because the research process involved examination of the variables to determine if a correlation exists regarding the predictors and criterion variables using statistical analysis (Singleton & Straits, 2010). In addition to examination of variables, a quantitative method includes a multi-regression analysis to determine how predictor variables as a whole predicted the dependent variable (Green & Salkind, 2011). Predictor and criterion variables apply instead of independent or dependent variables, because the design is non-experimental to collect data from the targeted participants (Green & Salkind, 2011).

Predictor variables are variables used to predict another variable (Petter et al., 2013). The job satisfaction predictor variables included (a) achievement, (b) recognition, (c) responsibility, (d) work-itself, and (e) advancement and growth (Herzberg, 1974; Herzberg et al., 1959). The job dissatisfaction independent variables included (a) company policy, (b) supervision, (c) interpersonal relationships, (d) working conditions, and (e) salary (Herzberg, 1974; Herzberg et al., 1959). A criterion variable is the effect or outcome variable (Petter et al., 2013). The dependent variable was employee turnover intentions in the fast food industry.

The qualitative method did not meet the needs of the research study, because the purpose related to exploring the experience of an individual regarding the phenomenon whether personal or professional (Bernard, 2013; Marshall & Rossman, 2006). In a qualitative method, a theory emerges from the experience of the participants. The

information collected creates a theme or category for further explanation of the phenomenon, which was not the purpose of this research study (Bernard, 2013; Marshall & Rossman, 2006). Instead, I found to understand the relationships of the predictor and criterion variables.

In a qualitative method, the main purpose is also to explore the topic, because of limited knowledge about the phenomenon (Cronholm & Hjalmarsson, 2011). Individuals tend to understand the world they live in or work. A research must include themes or categories to understand the related aspects of the phenomenon (Marshall & Rossman, 2006). A rigorous process is the goal of this method to understand the phenomena with depth and breadth (Arendt et al., 2012).

Furthermore, a researcher focuses on the descriptions of the phenomena with words, rather than numbers or graphics (Arendt et al., 2012). A researcher uses a semistructured interview with open-ended questions to expand the topic of interest (Arendt et al., 2012). Observations, recordings, video tapings, and taking notes are common strategies to uncover the qualitative longitudinal process, and the researcher does the analysis using thematic and coding approaches to gain deeper insights regarding the phenomena (Arendt et al., 2012).

On the other hand, a mixed methods approach is a combination of quantitative and qualitative methods, where one method can support the other method in terms of narration or statistical approaches (Venkatesh et al., 2013). Mixed method is a research strategy that involves data collection, analysis, integrated findings, and interpretation

using quantitative and qualitative approach (Östlund, Kidd, Wengström, & Rowa-Dewar, 2011).

The mixed method approach did not meet the needs of the research study, because the intent of the quantitative study was to examine the relationship of the variables and not to explore the phenomenon at the same time (Cronholm & Hjalmarsson, 2011; Venkatesh et al., 2013). In a mixed methods approach, the use of different approaches and designs are important to create comprehensive results to address the research questions and hypotheses (Rozin, Hormes, Faith, & Wansink, 2012; Zachariadis, Scott, & Barrett, 2013). In mixed methods, a researcher requires a phenomenon exploration and data collection measurement in a long period by using inferential statistics (Vergne, 2012). A quantitative method cannot apply alone without the qualitative method (Cronholm & Hjalmarsson, 2011; Venkatesh et al., 2013).

Research Design

The research design of this quantitative study was a non-experimental correlational design with regression analysis. A correlation research is a form of quantitative descriptive design (Stanley, 2011). In a correlational design, researchers examine the relationship between two or more variables (Green & Salkind, 2011). Only a correlational design can determine the level of effect of the variables. Using multi-regression analysis for a study helped examine the correlation between two variables, and the linear combination of predictor variables as a whole predicts the criterion variable (Green & Salkind, 2011).

A qualitative phenomenological design did not suit the needs for the study because the nature of the study was to get an in-depth understanding how and why individuals experienced the phenomenon (Venkatesh et al., 2013). The phenomenological design includes a semistructured questionnaire with open-ended questions, which may include a personal appearance of the interviewer and interviewee or face-to-face, and personal connection (Keough & Tanabe, 2011). In a phenomenological design, a researcher requires one-on-one or focus groups interviews with participants to expand the topic interest with depth (Downes-Le Guin, Baker, Mechling, & Ruyle, 2012).

Population and Sampling

The population for this study included workers in fast food restaurants located in the East Coast of the United States. Workers included male and female, must have a minimum age of 18, full-time or part-time employees regardless of educational background. Workers must work under low-level management or non-managerial positions.

The sampling method proposed in the study was nonprobabilistic sampling. Non-probabilistic sampling includes non-random selection related to the behavior or characteristics in the population (Coolican, 2014). The weakness of a non-probabilistic sampling method is a researcher cannot employ explicit selection unlike the probabilistic sampling method (Hall, Higson, Jo Pierce, Price, & Skousen, 2013).

The category sampling method for the study was a purposive nonprobabilistic sampling, because the participants of targeted population were specific and fit for the purpose of the study, and did not depend on random selection (Coolican, 2014). Maxwell

(2012) added that in purposive sampling selected participants, settings, and activities

provide information for the purpose of the study. The simple random sampling did not

meet the needs for the study, because the selection of participants was random. The

strength of the random sampling is participants can participate freely without specific

demographic characteristic requirements, where participants have equal chances of being

selected that helps avoid bias (Anthes, 2011; Coolican, 2014; D'Onofrio, Lahey,

Turkheimer, & Lichtenstein, 2013; Olagbemi, 2011; Olsen, Orr, Bell, & Stuart , 2013).

A stratified probabilistic sampling did not apply because a selection depended on

demographical characteristics (Coolican, 2014). The weakness of stratified random

sampling is when the response rates of each group are not equal bias occurs,

demonstrating a lack of representation (Bernard, 2013). The strength of the stratified

random sampling strategy is that a researcher can divide the group of participants equally

based on their demographic characteristics to meet accurate representations.

On the contrary, in a convenience nonprobabilistic sampling, a researcher can

select a sample based on their availability (Coolican, 2014). The strength of the

convenience sampling is the researchers can invite available participants to answer the

research questions (Bernard, 2013). Convenience sampling does not involve biased

awareness (Hall et al., 2013). The weakness of this strategy is that participants may not

represent the population (Bernard, 2013). Therefore, this type of sampling was not

applied.

To calculate the sample size, I used the formula provided by Tabachnick and

Fidell (2007) with 10 predictor variables. Sample size is important to reduce the mean

standard error (Bernard, 2013). To compute the necessary sample size, I followed the standard formula given by Tabachnick and Fidell, 50 + 8 (m). The symbol m means desired number of predictor(s) (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). To get the sample size, 50 + 8(10) = 130.

Providing the right numbers of participants can generate better information results to support the research study argument (Chen, Luo, Liu, & Mehrotra, 2011). Using a large sample size, strong and effective data is important to support the hypotheses (Olsen, 2013). Exceeding the targeted sample size ensures enough participants for the study (Olsen et al., 2013).

Ethical Research

Informed consent is a process that protects participants from any research ethical problems that may arise during an interview process (Judkins-Cohn et al., 2014). The employees accessed the survey link through flyers, participant invitation, and participant reminder to participate (Appendices K and L). Prior to data collection, I submitted the short-form ethics approval application to the Walden University IRB member to secure my IRB approval number. According to Keough and Tanabe (2011), a researcher must secure approval from the IRB before conducting the study (Appendix H).

With IRB committee approval, copies of consent form were sent to managers and participants to understand the process of data collection (Walden University, n.d.). The consent form included the invitation to participate, purpose of the study, research procedures, and rights of participants to withdraw or decline the survey invitation (Walden University, n.d.). Risks and benefits of a participant, payment if any, privacy

and confidentiality of participant were also included. Before the participants participated online, they needed to read and sign the consent form (Walden University, n.d.). Signing the consent form or clicking the survey link provided in the participant invitation and participant reminder to participate were required to understand their rights, benefits, and risks (Walden University, n.d.). Copies of the letter of consent and confidentiality agreement are located in the table of contents and Appendices H and I.

Study participants had the option to withdraw at any time by declining the survey invitation, not answering the survey questionnaire, or not submitting the survey questionnaire (Judkins-Cohn et al., 2014). The online survey invitation stayed open until receiving the required number of participants. Study participants did not receive any incentives, benefits, or penalties for participating or declining the invitation.

For security purposes, the information data collected remained confidential and safely secured for 5 years using Microsoft Office with an encrypted password. Any submissions and summary results remain confidential suggested by Judkins-Cohn et al., 2014). No one personally or by electronic devices retrieved any information from the participants (Judkins-Cohn et al., 2014). Participants were required not to give their names and workplace to protect their identities. Thus, participants remained anonymous throughout the process to avoid any legal matters that might affect the research study result. My contact number remained available to the targeted participants for any questions that arose during the research process. Participants or fast food managers requested a copy of the study results by checking the question yes at the end of the survey or by sending a request to imelda.bebe@waldenu.edu.

Data Collection Instruments

Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS)

Spector (1985) developed the job satisfaction survey (JSS). The JSS has nine

facet scales such as (a) pay, (b) promotion, (c) supervision, (d) fringe benefits, (e)

contingent rewards (performance based rewards), (f) operating procedures (required rules

and procedures), (g) coworkers, (h) nature of work, and (i) communication (Spector,

1985). Each facet scale has four questions, with 36 total items. The JSS includes an

ordinal scale, where each question has a 6-point Likert-type scale ranging from *strongly*

disagree to *strongly agree*. Some of the questions require reverse scoring because some

used negative statements and others used positive statements. The JSS proves important

in organizations, private, and public sector to assess employees' attitudes toward their job

and aspects of their job (Spector, 1985, 1997). Based on a sample size of 2,870, the

internal consistency reliability (coefficient alpha) of JSS is .91 (Spector, 1985, 1997)

Avdija and Roy (2012) also used the JSS in the state of Atlanta between October

2009 and January of 2010. The purpose includes the assessment level of employees' job

satisfaction in different prisons (two medium security prisons and one maximum-security

prison). Avdija and Roy also used job satisfaction as a dependent construct. Participants

include 480 people (157 females and 322 males) to participate. More males participated

than women in the study. The JSS internal consistency reliability is $\alpha = .878$ (Avdija &

Roy, 2012).

Furthermore, Avdija and Roy (2012) used multivariate regression analysis, where

age variable has a direct significant correlation with job satisfaction, $\beta = .140$, $p < .001$.

Older employees are more satisfied with their jobs than younger employees. Based on the

R^2 result, only 2% of the variance in job satisfaction is associated by employee's age. The

working conditions construct also correlated with job satisfaction with R^2 change = .147,

F (3, 471) = 27.839, p < .001). Overall, the total variation in the job satisfaction among

the prison employees is 30% (Avdija & Roy, 2012).

On the contrary, Wozencroft and Hardin (2014) emphasized that researchers

tested the original JSS in different 19 samples, where reliability and validity norms met.

Primarily, researchers applied the JSS for human services, but since then many

researchers used the JSS to all organizations. The JSS includes relevance to employees

and volunteers in the recreation management setting in Phoenix, Arizona. Wozencroft

and Hardin employed the JSS to assess the level of job satisfaction of students' staff who

worked in university recreational services to determine the influence of job satisfaction

for future services. The participants include students totaling 211, but only 113 students

successfully completed the questionnaires. Some facet scales did not apply, because of

the nature of the study. With the result of the findings, the job satisfaction of the

employees is high. Researchers found job satisfaction related to turnover intention,

commitment, and retention. The reliability of the instrument is .85 using Cronbach

coefficient alpha: supervision .77, contingent rewards .73 operating conditions .55,

coworkers .68, nature of work .62, and communication .56. Appendix A includes JSS.

Turnover Intention Survey

Hom, Griffeth, and Sellaro (1984) developed the Intention to leave the job (ILJ)

with a 2-item scale. The ILJ includes a nominal scale with a 5-point Likert-type scale

ranging from certainly not (1) to certainly (5). ILJ has an alpha value of 0.93 with a

Cronbach's Alpha factor of 0.728. The reliability value of this instrument is above 0.70,

indicating acceptance in the research community (Hom et al., 1984).

Galletta, Portoghese, Penna, Battistelli, and Saiani (2011) also employed the

turnover intention scale in public hospitals in Italy to examine the variables that influence

person-environment fit. Supervisor and organizational supports play important roles

between the relationship of nurses' perceptions care adequacy, job satisfaction, and

turnover intention (Galletta et al., 2011). Approximately 1,240 nurses from different

public hospitals participated using a self-administered questionnaire survey with internal

reliability of .85 (Galletta et al., 2011), which is good according to Matkar (2012).

Researchers tested the discriminate validity of the constructs using an exploratory factor

analysis (EFA). The results indicated five factors with Eigenvalues > 1, describing ~ 58%

of the variance of the indicators (Galletta et al., 2011).

On the contrary, researcher used the turnover intention survey on 2,042 women

engineers for self-efficacy and outcome expectations that influence job satisfaction and

turnover intention (Singh, 2013). The reliability found .91, which is excellent according

to Matkar (2012), and CFI = .99 (Singh et al., 2013). CFI is an assessment for model fit

ranging from .0 to 1.0, where values closer to 1 means good fit and values greater

than .90 is required to avoid model misspecification (Singh et al., 2013). Appendix B

includes ILJ survey.

Using Microsoft Office 2007, the generated results download into a spreadsheet

or database for review, analysis, and interpretation purposes. The purpose of the results of

the raw data collected is to address the research questions. The Microsoft Office 2007 includes an encrypted password and backup, critical for security purposes in case of unexpected events.

I used Pearson's correlation coefficient to determine whether relationships between two variables exist or not, using p value, which is less than .001 or .005. Negative correlation coefficient demonstrates the inversed relationship of the two variables, meaning that if employee satisfaction score is high, therefore employee turnover intention score is low or reversed. The magnitude of the relationship is categorized as low (.10), medium (.30), and high (.50) regardless of sign.

Multiple regression analysis was also applied to determine how well combined predictor variables predicted dependent variables using R. Multiple correlation ranges from 0 to 1. Zero result means no linear relationship exists between predictor scores and criterion score (Green & Salkind, 2011). With a linear relationship, a value of 1 is necessary. The values of R between 0 and 1 represent less-than perfect linear relationship between two variables (Green & Salkind, 2011). The symbol of R squared represents how well the criterion variance is predicted associated with combined linear predictors. R squared must be multiplied by 100 to get the percentage, meaning that if R is .5 multiplied by 2 is equal to 25. Then multiplied by 100 is equal to 25% of criterion variance (Green & Salkind, 2011).

Multiple regression analysis also evaluated the significant relationship of the combined predictor variables and criterion variable using p value, which is less .05 or .01 (Green & Salkind, 2011). On an individual level of factor variable, I was also required to

determine the significant relationship of the two variables using *p* value, which is less

than .001 or .005. Beta symbol (β) under standardized coefficient represents the

correlation coefficient and the magnitude of the relationship regardless of the sign.

Negative correlation coefficient means two variables have inversed relationship and a

positive correlation represents two variables have the same relationship results. In short, a

high score of job dissatisfaction is equal to a low score of job dissatisfaction. Therefore,

the score of the intention to leave factor is high. A positive correlation coefficient

represents a high score of job dissatisfaction, which equivalent to a low score of

dissatisfaction factor. Therefore, a low score is equivalent to low score in turnover

intentions. The magnitude of the relationship can categorize as low, medium, and high,

which is .10, .30, and .50 respectively.

Demographic Survey

The demographic questions include seven open-ended questions that pertain to

employee's current personal information such as age category, gender, educational

background, workplace, job classification, position, and years of service. I analyzed the

demographic questions with descriptive statistical design to determine the frequency and

percentage distributions of the demographic variables. Descriptive statistics were also

used to measure the central tendency of specific variable using minimum, median,

maximum, and standard deviation (Green & Salkind, 2011; Olagbemi, 2011). In this

research survey, Appendix C includes the demographic questions.

A researcher measures the variables or constructs through the sound psychometric

scale. Using acceptable reliability and validity value, I used the psychometric scales for

the study. The internal reliability of the psychometric scale can manifest by using

Cronbach's alpha coefficient (α) (Barry et al., 2014; Doğan & Torlak, 2014; Matkar,

2012; Ünal, 2013). The Cronbach's alpha coefficient can range from 0 to 1 (Matkar,

2012). Matkar (2012) noted that >0.90 is excellent, 0.80 – 0.89 is good, 0.70 – 0.79 is

acceptable, 0.60 – 0.69 is questionable, 0.50 – 0.59 is poor, where <0.50 is unacceptable,

which according to Spector (1985, 1997) and Hom et al. (1984), JSS and ILJ have proven

internal consistency reliability of more than .90, which is excellent and more than .70,

which is acceptable according to Matkar (2012). The psychometric scale's score proved

reliable because participants came from the subset of the population. Data collection

process was implemented based on the Belmont protocols required by USDHHS (n.d),

and suggestions of Barry et al. (2014) and Tavakol and Dennick (2011).

Validity is the accuracy and trustworthiness of the psychometric scale scores

(Barry et al., 2014). To meet the quantitative validity, a rigorous process exists along with

a quality design, accurate analysis, and interpretation of the data (Venkatesh et al., 2013).

The validity factors of the research relates with the accuracy and consistency of the

collected data, estimation, and unbiased opinions from the participants (Xie, AbouRizk,

& Zou, 2012). To achieve the validity of my survey questionnaire score, I decided to use

the psychometric scale that has proven internal consistency value. The facet scales

covered the required research constructs that I needed to address to answer the research

hypotheses. Participants required signing the consent form to understand the process of

the data collection. After signing the consent form, participants visited the Survey

Monkey link to answer the questions based on their experience. Data collected were

analyzed using Pearson's correlation coefficient and multiregressions analysis. Study findings were interpreted based on the honest responses of the participants, following the suggestions of Barry et al. (2014) that focus on the following factors (a) test content, (b) response processes, (c) internal structure, (d) relations to other variables, and (e) consequences of testing to maintain a valid study.

Any adjustments or revisions on the instruments used needed approval by Walden IRB to meet the validity and reliability of the instruments, process, and study. Appendices A-C includes the instruments. Appendices D-E includes permissions to use existing instruments. Appendix M includes raw data.

Data Collection Technique

To collect data from the targeted population, I used the online survey. An online survey is a main preference of consumers, companies, and researchers to obtain different views, perspectives, and opinions for particular services or products (Callegaro, 2013). Participants for the online survey are pre-recruited (Bosnjak et al., 2013).

The purpose of using an online survey was to collect data from the targeted lower-level employees. The objective of the data collection was to measure the level of job satisfaction and job dissatisfaction towards the aspects of job, and to measure the degree level of turnover intentions among fast food employees. The purpose was to make inferences regarding the employees who worked in a fast food industry to reject or accept the null hypotheses.

One advantage of using an online survey was participants could access the web survey anywhere and anytime with multiple devices, which gives respondents an

opportunity to respond in a quick manner regardless of time and place (Callegaro, 2013).

A participant could receive an instant message for missed questions or incorrect

responses (Albaum, Wiley, Roster, & Smith, 2011). A research survey online did not

include a personal appearance of the interviewer or interviewee, unlike in an interview

approach (Downes-Le Guin et al., 2012). A web-based survey was inexpensive, reaching

a higher number of potential participants, accessible, and participants responded at their

convenience (Keough & Tanabe, 2011). Using an online survey saved money in printing

and postal services (Middleton, Bragin, Morley, & Parker, 2014). However, visiting

participants to remind them incurred substantial costs. An online survey was anonymous.

Therefore, participants' name or company was not required to protect their identity and

confidentiality (Dodou & de Winter, 2014).

The disadvantage of the online survey was questionnaire was longer; participants

withdrew without hesitation or survey was incomplete (Middleton et al., 2014). Thus, the

format must appear brief and concise to avoid higher withdrawal rate in the next research

project (Middleton et al., 2014). An online survey is mandatory, which requires complete

answers before the participant moves to the next question (Smith, King, Butow, & Olver,

2013). However, participants could withdraw anytime or decline to answer the questions

if needed as their rights stated. Some target participants did not have computer aptitude

that affected their capability to participate. Thus research design must align with

participants' capabilities (Gill, Leslie, Grech, & Latour, 2013).

Pilot testing did not apply to the study. Using pre-established psychometric scales

with acceptable reliability and validity values supported the validity of my study

(Eisenberger et al., 1986; Ertürk, 2014; Holt, 2001; Hom et al., 1984; Kihm et al., 2014). Matkar (2012) noted the acceptable reliability value ranges from .70-.90 where both of JSS and ILJ met the requirements.

Data Analysis

The overarching research question for the study was, "What is the relationship between the employee job satisfaction factors, job dissatisfaction factors, and employee turnover intentions?" The null hypothesis for this study was, "There is no statistical significant relationship between the employee job satisfaction factors, employee job dissatisfaction factors, and employee turnover intentions?" The alternative hypothesis was, "There is a statistically significant relationship between the employee job satisfaction factors, employee job dissatisfaction factors, and employee turnover intentions."

To analyze the data collected, I used the Pearson-product correlation coefficients to determine the relationship between the two variables whether relationship exists or not, using p value, which is less than .001 or .005. Determining the effect size of the correlation coefficient r, sign must be considered. Positive correlation coefficient means both relationships of the variables have the same effect. Example, when job satisfaction is high, then turnover intention is high as well. Negative correlation coefficient means both variables have inversed relationships. In short, when satisfaction is high, turnover intention is low. Magnitude of relationship can be low, medium, and high as suggested by Green and Salkind (2011). Zero means no relationship between two variables.

Multiregression analysis was used to evaluate whether the predictor variable predicted the criterion variable and to what extent. The *p* value evaluated whether the two variables significantly correlated or not. R square (*r2*) determines the criterion variance associated with a predictor variable (Green & Salkind, 2011). Negative correlation coefficient means two variables have inversed relationship. Example, high score of dissatisfaction means greater dissatisfaction, which was equivalent to low score. Low score means high score in intention to leave. Positive correlation coefficient means two variables have the same effect. Example, high score in job dissatisfaction, which is equivalent to low score, is equal to low score in intention to leave. This is a case to case scenario. Zero means no relationship. Level of relationship depends on .10, .30, and .50. according to Green and Salkind (2011).

Demographic survey was analyzed using descriptive statistics analysis. Utilizing descriptive statistics determines the points of central tendency such as minimum, mean, maximum, and standard deviation (Green & Salkind, 2011). The importance of determining the frequency and the percentage level of each variable was to understand the general distributions (Green & Salkind, 2011).

The purpose of this study was to determine the relationship between two variables and that extent of the existing relationship. Other objective was to evaluate the relationship between predictor variables and criterion variable to find the criterion variance associated by combined predictor variables using multiregression analysis. Independent-sample *t* did not apply, because the purpose of the study was to evaluate the differences between the means of two independent groups, the grouping variable, and the

test variable. Grouping variables includes demographic variables (gender) while test variable includes quantitative dimension. The *t* test is used to evaluate the mean differences of these two groups (Green & Salkind, 2011). Another statistical test that did not meet the needs of the study was the partial correlation, because a researcher used a mediating variable (Green & Salkind, 2011).

In the quantitative study, 10-testing hypotheses occurred. The null hypotheses ($H_{1o}, H_{2o}, H_{3o}, H_{4o}, H_{5o}, H_{6o}, H_{7o}, H_{8o}, H_{9o},$ and H_{10o}) for the study included employee job satisfaction factors, employee job dissatisfaction factors, and employee turnover intentions in the fast food industry. The purpose of the data analysis was to determine the statistically significant relationships of the variables to accept or reject the hypotheses. The statistical test for hypotheses proved significant, statistically rejecting the existing null hypotheses ($H_{1o}, H_{2o}, H_{3o}, H_{4o}, H_{5o}, H_{6o}, H_{7o}, H_{8o}, H_{9o},$ and H_{10o}). I presumed that the existing null hypothesis was true (fail to reject). However, the research findings rejected the null hypotheses.

To support the rejection or acceptance of the null hypotheses, the confidence level of *p* value must reach the significant level of less than .05 or .005, .01 or .001 (Green & Salkind, 2011). The employee job satisfaction factors and job dissatisfaction factors are the predictor variables, where employee turnover intentions serve as the criterion variable. If *r* is positive, this polarity indicated each variable had the same effect with each other. If *r* is negative, one variable has a contrast effect on the other. Zero correlation means no relationship between the variables exist (Green & Salkind, 2011). Based on the Pearson-product correlation coefficients results, all null hypotheses were

rejected because the *p* value was less than .001. Effect size means the strength level of the variable relationship (Green & Salkind, 2011). The effect sizes have inversed results. Therefore, having high job satisfactions means low intention to leave. Level of relationships varied based on the participants responses.

IBM SPSS Version 22.0 for Windows is a computer software tool that has ability to analyze the data statistically and graphically. IBM SPSS software was used to analyze the data collected because it provides Pearson's correlation coefficient analysis, multiregression analysis, and descriptive statistics to describe the general distributions by frequency and percentage (Green & Salkind, 2011). The purpose of the IBM SPSS Version 22.0 for Windows is to analyze the relationships between employee job satisfaction factors, employee job dissatisfaction factors, and employee turnover intentions with multiregression analysis.

Study Validity

Validity means the accuracy and trustworthiness of the psychometric scale scores (Barry et al., 2014). I used the JSS and ILJ psychometric scales because of its proven internal consistency reliability, which are .70 and .91 that have acceptable and excellent value properties. Three characteristics of validity are content, construct, and criterion-related validity (Barry et al., 2014). Content validity is a researcher assessing the degree to which the scales items represents or covers all related information to the concept of interest. In construct validity, a researcher assesses whether the scale accurately measures the theoretical construct. Criterion-related validity is a researcher comparing the scores of two different scales (Barry et al., 2014). Pärl (2013) stressed the importance of validity

with consistent data collection, documentation, analysis, and interpretation. I relied on the

rigor and quality of the design, analysis, and interpretation of the data to achieve the

validity of the study. Therefore, I used the psychometric scales with facets scale that

covered and aligned to my research study constructs. Data collection started with IRB

approval. Upon receipt of approval, I asked the permissions of the managers to allow the

participants to participate. Before signing the consent form, nature of the study, purpose

of the study, rights, and my responsibility were explained thoroughly to maximize the

benefits as well minimize risks to protect the participants from any harm, as well as to

avoid any ethical and legal issues.

The external validity threats can occur when participants are not the true

representatives of the targeted population. External threats were avoided because the

participants were subset of the target population. The nature of the study design was a

web-based survey where personal connection was not present. To prevent any threats to

external validity, I discussed my concerns with managers and participants before the

collection of data process started to ensure they understood the process of the data

collection, rights to participate, and knew the importance of their participation. The

setting of the participants was critical. To avoid any threats to external validity, targeted

population was only located in East Coast in the United States. I only visited and met

managers and participants who met the criteria within the targeted setting.

If the instrument is not the right tool to measure the constructs, then the

instrument cannot support the hypotheses, known as instrument validity (Callahan, 2014).

Therefore, in the study I decided to use the JSS to ensure meeting the internal validity of

the instrument. Internal validity threats occur when the items of the scale do not cover all the necessary information pertaining to the concept of interest (Barry et al., 2014). The items of the JSS included all the predictor variables for employee job satisfaction and predictor variables for employee job dissatisfaction; therefore, the threat was reduced significantly (Barry et al., 2014). When the scores of the scale do not measure the construct accurately, which is construct validity, a researcher encounters the validity threat (Barry et al., 2014). Therefore, rechecking the scores was necessary ensuring proper and accurate distribution of scores to the right constructs (Xie, AbouRizk, & Zou, 2012).

When the contents of the scale do not represent the information to support the null hypothesis (Type I error), a content validity threat occurs (Barry et al., 2014). A content validity was met because the contents of the scale were aligned to study constructs. A type I error occurs when a researcher rejects a null hypothesis when it is true (Menon, Massaro, Pencina, Lewis, & Wang, 2013). A type I error did not occur, because the null hypotheses were rejected based on responses of the participants. To address the issue that can harm the statistical conclusion validity, Barry et al. (2014) suggested focusing on test result, response process, internal structure, relations to other variables, and consequences of testing. In addition, consistency in data collection, documentation, analysis, and interpretation makes the study, process, and instrument valid (Pärl, 2013). Statistical conclusion was valid, because the test results were based on the Pearson's correlation and multiregression analyses supported by rigorous response process, valid instruments, and valid study process.

A researcher can generalize the research findings to the larger population when the samples are the subset of the target population to avoid biases that can influence the validity of the study (Gibson & Fedorenko, 2013). Englander (2012) supported the notion that participants must have relationships with the larger population and must have a representation. Different settings have different participants' demographic characteristics; therefore, research findings can generalize to different setting. My study findings could only generalize in the fast food restaurants located in East Coast in the United States because they were the subset of the target population that represented the population.

Transition and Summary

The purpose of the quantitative correlational research study was to examine the relationship between employee job satisfaction, employee job dissatisfaction, and employee turnover intentions in the fast food industry. Factors that affect the employee turnover intentions help fast food managers, HR personnel, and business owners to understand how to combat increasing employee turnover. The study findings provided information regarding the factors that affect employee turnover intentions the most.

Understanding the factors could assist fast food employers to avoid job dissatisfaction, and thereby increase the job satisfaction resulting in decreased employee turnover in the fast food industry. The study results also could help managers improve business practices to meet business sustainability, profitability, and growth. Meeting the employee needs and job satisfaction could help maintain the skilled workers, and sustained the business operations (Kwon & Rupp, 2013).

The preferred instrument to collect data was an online survey. An online survey is one of the popular tools used by many researchers because of the following beneficial factors (a) convenience, (b) flexibility, (c) mass distribution, (d) demographic advantages, and (e) inexpensive. The Survey monkey website served as my survey link. The target sample size was 130. The targeted population included employees in a fast food industry throughout the East Coast of the United States with a minimum age 18, male and female, and full-time or part-time lower-level management or non-managerial position. The selection of participants was a purposive nonprobabilistic sampling because fast food lower-level employees suited the purpose of the study. The objective of my study was to protect the privacy and confidentiality of the participants to ensure their safety and security by maintaining their anonymity throughout the research study. Raw data collected would store using the hard drive and external drive with Microsoft encrypted password to remain safe and secured for 5 years. After 5 years, all data collected will receive deletion.

A pilot study did not apply here, because the study required pre-established psychometrical scales. I analyzed the data collected using Pearson's correlation coefficient and multi-regression analysis to examine the relationship between the two variables and to determine how predictor variables predicted the criterion variable. Determining the correlation of predictor and criterion variables may assist the fast food restaurants' business owners, HR personnel, and managers to provide effective strategies to combat the increasing employee turnover rates. Increasing employees' job satisfaction and decreasing job dissatisfaction can prevent or minimize the employee turnover from

happening. Meeting the employee needs can also help maintain the skilled workers to sustain the business operations profitability and growth (Kwon & Rupp, 2013).

Section 3: Application to Professional Practice and Implications for Change

Introduction

The purpose of this correlational quantitative study was to examine the relationships between the job satisfaction factors, job dissatisfaction factors, and employee turnover intentions in the fast food industry. The objective was to determine whether job satisfaction factors and job dissatisfaction factors had statistically significant relationships with employee turnover intentions to accept or reject the hypotheses. An additional objective was to evaluate how well the linear combination of job satisfaction factors and job dissatisfaction factors predicted the employee turnover intentions using the multiple regressions analysis.

The research study findings revealed that job satisfaction factors and job dissatisfaction factors had statistically significant relationships with employee turnover intentions ($p < .001$). Both job satisfaction factors and job dissatisfaction factors showed different magnitude of relationships with employee turnover intentions. In terms of job satisfaction factors, employee responsibility (-.52) had the highest statistical significant relationship with employee turnover intentions, followed by work itself (-.51), recognition (-.49), advancement and growth (-.37), and achievement or quality performance (-.26). In terms of job dissatisfaction factors, company policy (-.52) had the highest magnitude of relationship with employee turnover intentions, followed by salary (-.42), interpersonal relationships (-.39), supervision (-.37), and working condition (-.34).

On the other hand, the criterion variance of employee turnover intentions associated with job satisfaction factors (35%) was higher than job dissatisfaction factors (31%).

Presentation of the Findings

The findings from the data analysis clearly addressed the research question of what is the relationship between the job satisfaction factors, job dissatisfaction factors, and employee turnover intentions. The purpose of the examination was to determine if there was a statistically significant relationship between two variables to accept or reject the research hypotheses. The other objective was to evaluate how well the linear combination of job satisfaction factors (predictors), job dissatisfaction factors (predictors) predicted employee turnover intentions (criterion). The job satisfaction factors were achievement or quality performance, recognition, work itself, responsibility, and advancement and growth. The job dissatisfaction factors were company policy, supervision, interpersonal relationship, working condition, and salary.

The data came from 144 participants working in the lower-level management or nonmanagerial positions at fast food restaurants in the east coast in the United States. Participants completed an Internet survey hosted by Survey Monkey and containing the JSS survey, ILJ scale, and the demographic question. The JSS survey had 36 items, which were divided into nine subscales. These nine subscales were (a) pay, (b) promotion, (c) supervision, (d) fringe benefits, (e) contingent rewards, (f) operating procedures, (g) co-workers, (nature of work), and (h) communication. Each subscale was comprised of four items, which consisted of both negative and positive statements. To sum up the total scores for each subscale, the negative statements had reversed scoring.

The JSS scale had a 6-item Likert-type scale ranging from 1 to 6, which 1 represented a

strongest disagreement and 6 supported a strongest agreement. The negative statements

such as 2, 4, 6, 8, 10, 12, 14, 16, 18, 19, 21, 23, 24, 26, 29, 31, 32, 34, and 36 were

reverse-scored based on the suggestions of Spector (1985, 1997).

The validity of a psychometric scale depends on its internal consistency reliability

(Barry et al., 2014). The internal consistency reliability of the JSS using coefficient alpha

(α) was important in establishing the validity and reliability of the research study

findings. Table 2 shows the result of the internal consistent reliability of the JSS survey

based on the sample size of 144.

Table 2

JSS Instrument Reliability Statistics – Cronbach's Alpha

Subscales	Cronbach's Alpha (α)	n
Pay	0.771	4
Promotion	0.734	4
Supervision	0.784	4
Fringe Benefits	0.585	4
Contingent Rewards	0.715	4
Operating Conditions	0.354	4
Coworkers	0.686	4
Nature of Work	0.787	4
Communication	0.716	4
Total JSS scale	0.933	36

Note. $\alpha > .90$.

As shown in Table 2, the consistent reliability of JSS survey instrument was .93.

Matkar (2012) discribed psychometric scale reliability higher than .90 is indicative of

excellent consistent reliability for a reliable instrument. The coefficient alpha of .93

therefore suggested that scale scores are reliable for participants. The other psychometric

scale used in the study was the 2-item ILJ scale. The ILJ is an ordinal scale with a 5-point

Likert-type scale ranging from certainly not (1) to certainly (5). The Cronbach's alpha

value was .60. Table 3 showed the consistent reliability result of the ILJ scale based on

the 144 participants.

Table 3

ILJ Instrument Reliability Statistics – Cronbach's Alpha

Scale	Cronbach's Alpha (α)	*n*
Intention to Leave the Job	0.6	2

Note. α <0.60 – 0.69.

  I exported the raw data from Survey Monkey to Microsoft Excel to recheck each

response to meet the accuracy reporting. The corrected raw data was then exported into

IBM SPSS version 21 to determine the frequency and percentage distributions and the

correlations of the variables using descriptive statistics, Pearson-product correlations

coefficient, and multiple regression analysis.

Descriptive Statistics for Demographic Variables

  I used descriptive statistics to determine the general distributions of the variables

using frequency and percentage levels, as suggested by Green and Salkind (2011).

Utilizing descriptive statistics also determine the points of central tendency such as mean,

minimum, maximum, and standard deviation. The sample size came from 144

participants who currently work at the fast food restaurants within east coast in the United

States. The required sample size reflects the formula used by Tabachnick and Fidell

(2007). Table 4 shows the frequency distribution of the fast food worker participants'

genders.

Table 4

Frequency Distribution of Fast Food Participants' Gender

		f	%	Valid %	Cumulative %
	Female	95	66.0	66.0	66.0
Valid	Male	49	34.0	34.0	100.0
	Total	144	100.0	100.0	
Missing	System	0	0.0		
Total		144	100.0		

Note. N = 144. The *f* column denotes the number of participants identified as female or male. The row identified as missing displays the total count of survey responses minus responses identified as male or female, *f* =0. The percentage column computes using the total of survey responses, *f* = 144, the sum of which is 100%. The valid percent column computes using the 144 male or female participants. The cumulative percent column is the cumulative sum of the *f* column or 144 participants, the total of which is 100%. The sample size *N* = 144, indicates participants who completed the survey.

The purpose of the frequency distribution was to illustrate the distribution of

female and male participants participated and completed the survey. Out of the 144

participants, 95 participants were female and 49 participants were male. Figure 3

shows the percentage of participants' gender distribution.
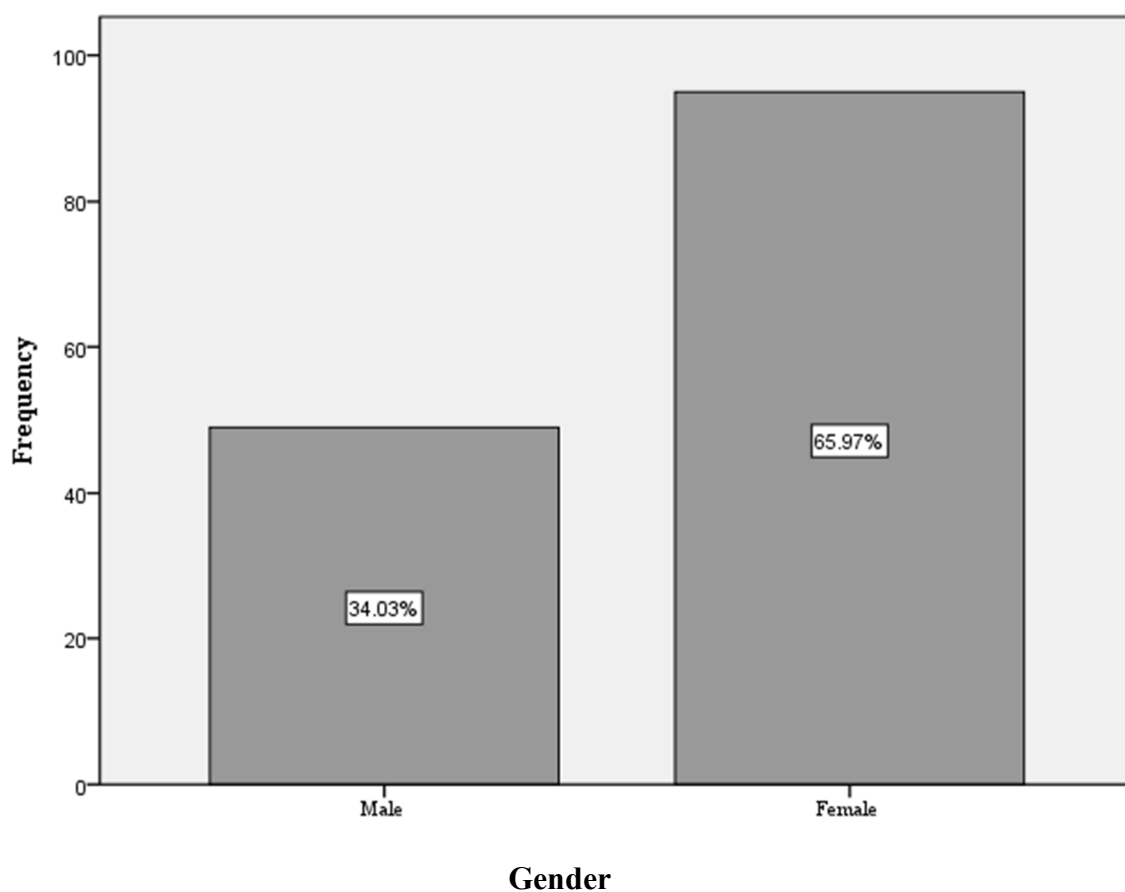
Gender

Figure 3. Fast food participants' gender distribution (*N* = 144). The purpose was to illustrate the percentage distribution of female and male participants completed the survey. Women represented 66% of the participants and men represented 34% of the participants.

As shown in Figure 3, fast food participant are female and male. One hundred forty-four successfully participated and completed the survey. Out of 144 participants 65.97% were female and 34.03% were male. Female percentage was higher than male percentage. Table 5 shows the frequency distribution of fast food participants' age.

Table 5

Frequency Distribution of Fast Food Participants' Age

		f	%	Valid %	Cumulative %
Valid	18-28 years	107	74.3	74.3	74.3
	29-39 years	19	13.2	13.2	87.5
	40-50 years	11	7.6	7.6	95.1
	51-61 years	7	4.9	4.9	100.0
	Total	144	100.0	100.0	

Note. $N = 144$. The f column denotes the number of participants with specified age brackets. The percentage column computes using the total of survey responses, $f = 144$, the sum of which is 100%. The valid percent column computes using the 144 participants. The cumulative percent column is the cumulative sum of the f column or 144 participants, the total of which is 100%. The sample size $N = 144$, indicates participants who completed the survey with different age category.

In Table 5, age brackets were broken down into 4 categories. Under 18-28, 107 participants participated and completed the survey questionnaire. Nine-teen participants were under 29-39 years old. Under 40-50 years old, only 11 participants participated. Under 51-61 years old, seven participants accepted the invitation. Overall, the number of participants participated and completed the survey was 144, which exceeded the sample size requirement. Figure 4 shows the percentage age brackets of fast food participants.
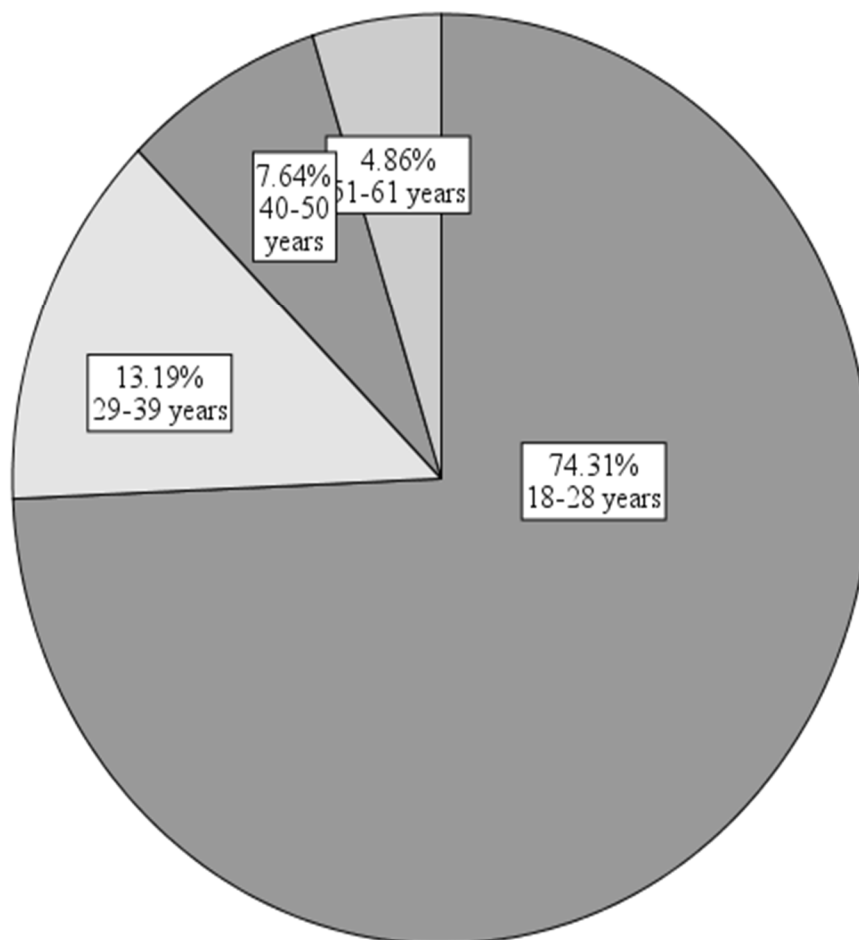
Age

Figure 4. Fast food participants' age distribution (*N* = 144). The age categories of the participants participated and completed the survey invitation. Age was divided into 4 categories: 18-28 years old (74%), 29-39 years old (13%), 40-50 years old (8%), and 51-61 years old (5%).

Figure 4 represented the percentage age distribution of the participants based on the 144 sample size. The highest percentage of participation was age 18-28 years old followed by 29-39 years old, 40-50 years old, and 51-61 years old, which was the lowest percentage of participation. In conclusion, majority workers at fast food restaurants in east coast in the United States were ages 18-28 years old and 51-61 years old were the least workers. Table 6 represents the frequency distribution of fast food participants' education attainment.

Table 6

Frequency Distribution of Fast Food Participants' Educational Attainment

		f	%	Valid %	Cumulative %
Valid	Other (please specify)	5	3.5	3.5	3.5
	High school	50	34.7	34.7	38.2
	Vocational	21	14.6	14.6	52.8
	Undergraduate(1-3)	38	26.4	26.4	79.2
	Bachelor degree	29	20.1	20.1	99.3
	Master	1	.7	.7	100.0
	Total	144	100.0	100.0	

Note. N = 144. The *f* column denotes the number of participants with different educational attainment in life. The % column computes using the total of survey responses, *f* =144, the sum of which is 100%. The valid percent column computes using the 144 participants with different educational background. The cumulative percent column is the cumulative sum of the *f* column or 144 participants, the total of which is 100%. Five participants did not specify the achieved education.

In Table 6 shows different educational background of the participants. Educational level backgrounds of participants are high school, vocational, undergraduate, bachelor, master, and others. Fifty fast food workers were high school graduate. Twenty-one workers went to vocational school. Thirty-eight workers did not finish bachelor degree. Twenty-nine workers had bachelor degree, and one worker had master degree. Unfortunately, five participants did not specify the educational attainment. Overall, the highest participants with high school diploma (50), followed by bachelor degree (29), undergraduate (38), vocational (21), and master (1). Only one participant worked at fast food restaurant with master background. Figure 5 illustrates the percentage distribution of participants' educational attainment.

Educational Attainment
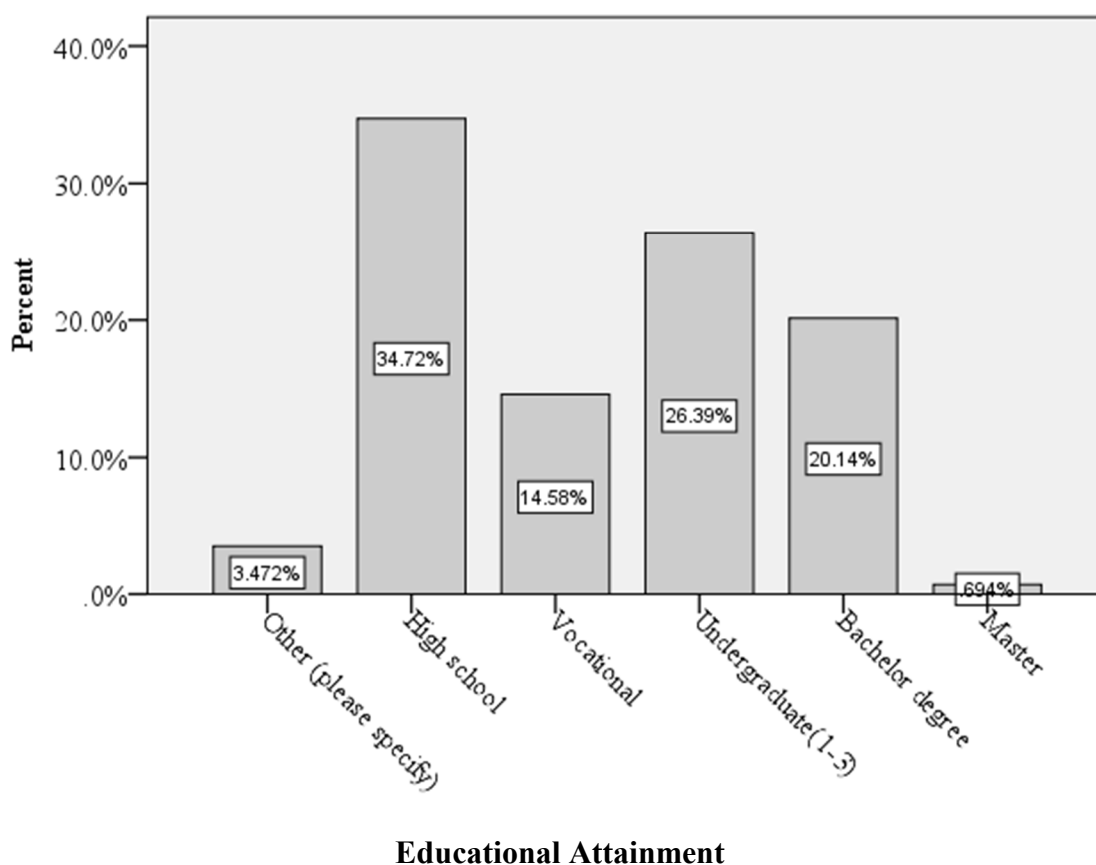
Figure 5. Fast food participants' educational attainment distribution (*N* = 144). Bar chart for participants' educational background representing different educational attainment received by workers at Fast food restaurants in the east coast in the United States.

Figure 5 represented the percentage of participants who received high school diploma (35%), vocational course (15%), undergraduate degree (26%), bachelor degree (20%), and master degree (1%). Four participants did not specify the educational attainment (3%). In summary, majority participants had high school background, followed by undergraduate degree, bachelor degree, vocational, and master background, which was the least number of participants. Table 7 shows the frequency distribution of fast food participants' job positions.

Table 7

Frequency Distribution of Fast Food Participants' Job Positions

		f	%	Valid %	Cumulative %
Valid	Other (please specify)	4	2.8	2.8	2.8
	Cashier(Drive/Front line)	69	47.9	48.3	51.0
	Runner(Counter and Drive thru)	15	10.4	10.5	61.5
	Fry person	5	3.5	3.5	65.0
	Meats person	7	4.9	4.9	69.9
	Initiator	2	1.4	1.4	71.3
	Assembler	7	4.9	4.9	76.2
	Manager	14	9.7	9.8	86.0
	Assist Manager	6	4.2	4.2	90.2
	Cook	6	4.2	4.2	94.4
	Driver	5	3.5	3.5	97.9
	Server	3	2.1	2.1	100.0
	Total	143	99.3	100.0	
Missing	System	1	.7		
Total		144	100.0		

Note. $N = 144$. The *f* column denotes the number of participants with different job position in the fast food restaurants. The row identified as missing displays the total count of survey response *f* =1. The % column computes using the total of survey responses, *f* =144, the sum of which is 100%. The valid percent column computes using the 144 participants with low-level management position and non-managerial position. The cumulative percent column is the cumulative sum of the *f* column or 144 participants, the total of which is 100%.

In Table 7 shows the 144 participants participated in the research study. Only one participant did not answer the job position question and 4 participants did not specify job position. Participants worked from different job positions under low-level management or nonmanagerial positions. Numbers of participant from different job assignment were as follows: cashier (69 participants), runner (15 participants), fry person (5participants), meats person (7 participants), initiator (2 participants), assembler (7 participants),

managers (14 participants), assistant managers (6 participants), cook (6 participants),

driver (5 participants), and server (3 participants). Conclusively, the highest participants

came from cashier, runner, and manager positions. The least participants were from

initiator, server, fry person, and driver. Figure 6 represents the percentage of fast food

participants' job position.
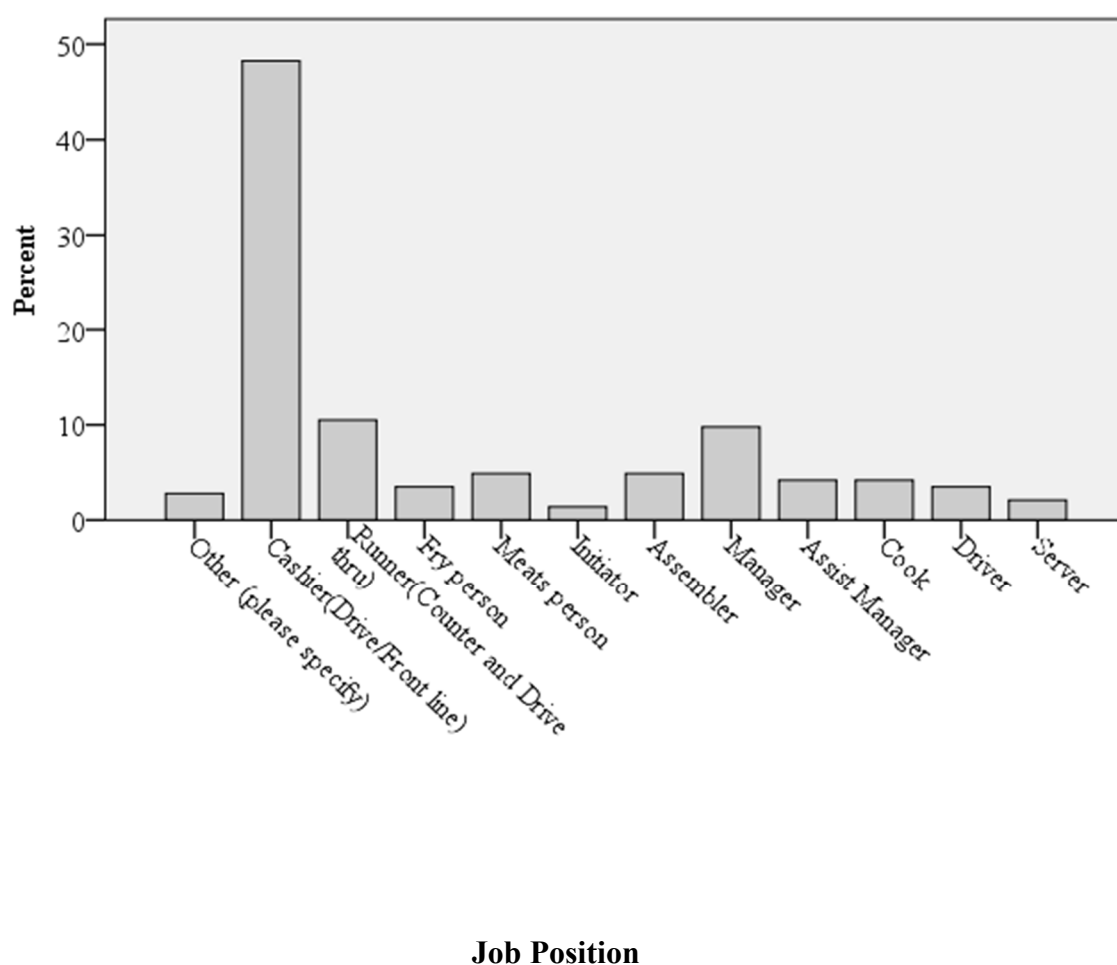
Job Position

Figure 6. Fast food participants' job position distribution (*N* = 144). The graph is an
illustration of percentage participants' specific positions in the fast food restaurants. The
graph represents the percentage of participants' job category.

As shown in Figure 6, 144 participants responded to the invitation, which represented different jobs of the participants. Participants' job percentages were cashier (48%), runner (10%), fry person (3%), meats person (5%), initiator (1%), assembler (5%), managers (10%), assistant managers (4%), cook (4%), driver (3%), and server (2%). Four participants did not specify job position, which equivalent to 3%. In Conclusion, the highest percentages of participants were from cashier (48%), runner (10%), and managers (10%). The least percentages of participants were from initiator (1%), server (2%), driver (3%), and fry person (3%). Table 8 shows the frequency distribution fast food participants' job classification.

Table 8

Frequency Distribution of Fast Food Participants' Job Classification

	F	%	Valid %	Cumulative %
Valid				
Part-time	90	62.5	62.5	62.5
Full-time	54	37.5	37.5	100.0
Total	144	100.0	100.0	

Note. N = 144. The illustration of participants' job classification in the fast food restaurants in east coast in the United States. Participants are classified as part-time and full-time employees. The column *f* is a representation of the number of participants who work as a part-time employee or full-time employee. The % column denotes the percentage of participants who work as a part-time or full-time employee. The valid percentage column is the percentage total of each employee job classification, which is equal to 100%. The cumulative % shows the total 100% of both job classifications.

As shown in Table 8, the total number of participants participated and completed the survey was N=144. Participants' job classification is part-time or part-time. Ninety participants classified as part-time employee. Fifty-four classifies as full-time employee.

In conclusion, part-time workers had higher number of participation than full-time

workers. Figure 7 represents the percentage distribution of fast food job classification.
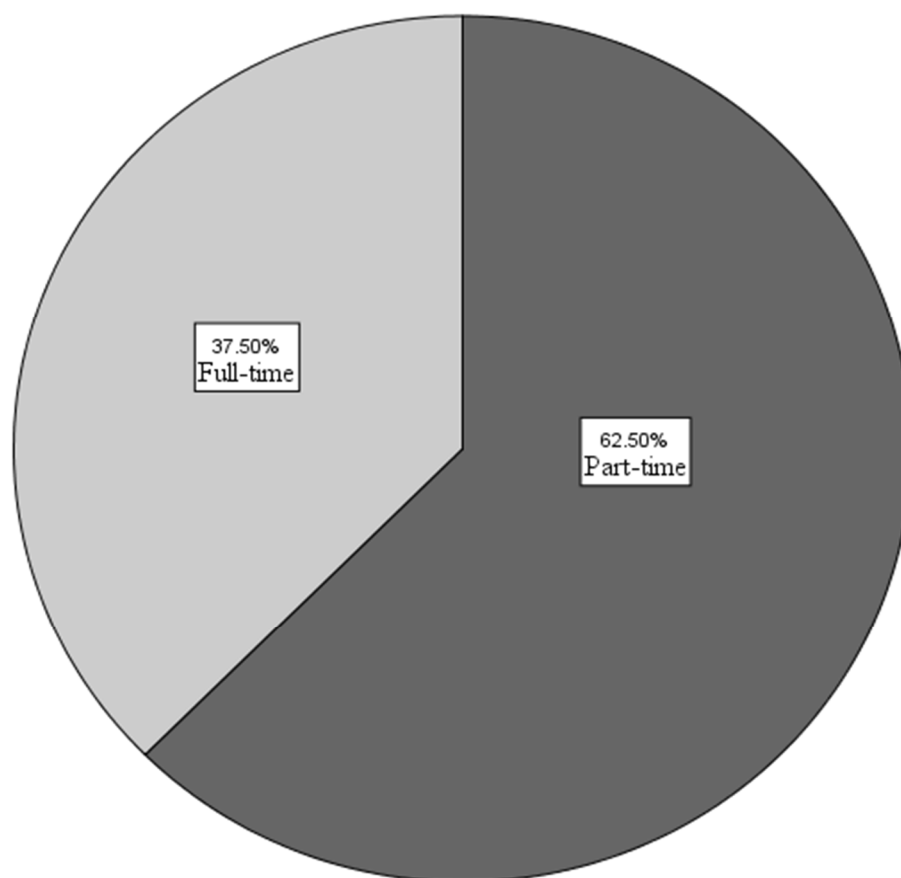
Job Classification

Figure 7. Fast food participants' job classification distribution ($N = 144$). This is the illustration of fast food employee job classification, part-time and full-time in the east coast in the United States. The purpose is to illustrate the number of employees who work as part-time and full-time.

As shown in Figure 7, participants in Fast food restaurants in east coast in the

United States classified as part-time and full-time employees. Part-time employees had

62.50% participation and full-time employees had 37.5% participation. In conclusion,

part-time employees had higher percentage of participation than full-time employees.

Table 9 illustrates the frequency distribution of fast food participants' years of service.

Table 9

Frequency Distribution of Fast Food Participants' Years of Service

		F	%	Valid %	Cumulative %
Valid	5 years	130	90.3	90.9	90.9
	10 years	10	6.9	7.0	97.9
	15 years	2	1.4	1.4	99.3
	20 years	1	.7	.7	100.0
	Total	143	99.3	100.0	
Missing	System	1	.7		
Total		144	100.0		

Note. N = 144. The table represents the frequency distributions of fast food participants in terms of services. The purpose is to illustrate the numbers of participants, percentage of participants, valid percentage, and cumulative percentage of the participants who worked under 5 years, 10 years, 15 years, and 20 years.

In Table 9, years of service categorized as 5 years, 10 years, 15 years, and 20

years. In 5 years, one hundred thirty participants (90.3%) worked under lower-level

management or non-managerial position. In 10 years, 10 participants (6.9%) worked in

the same level of management. In 15 years, 2 participants (1.4%) and in 20 years,

1 participant (.7%) worked in the same level. One participant missed the question.

Conclusively, majority of the participants had 5 years of working services at Fast food

restaurants in the east coast in the United States. The least number of participants found

in 15 and 20 years services. Figure 8 shows the percentage distribution of fast food

participants' years of service.
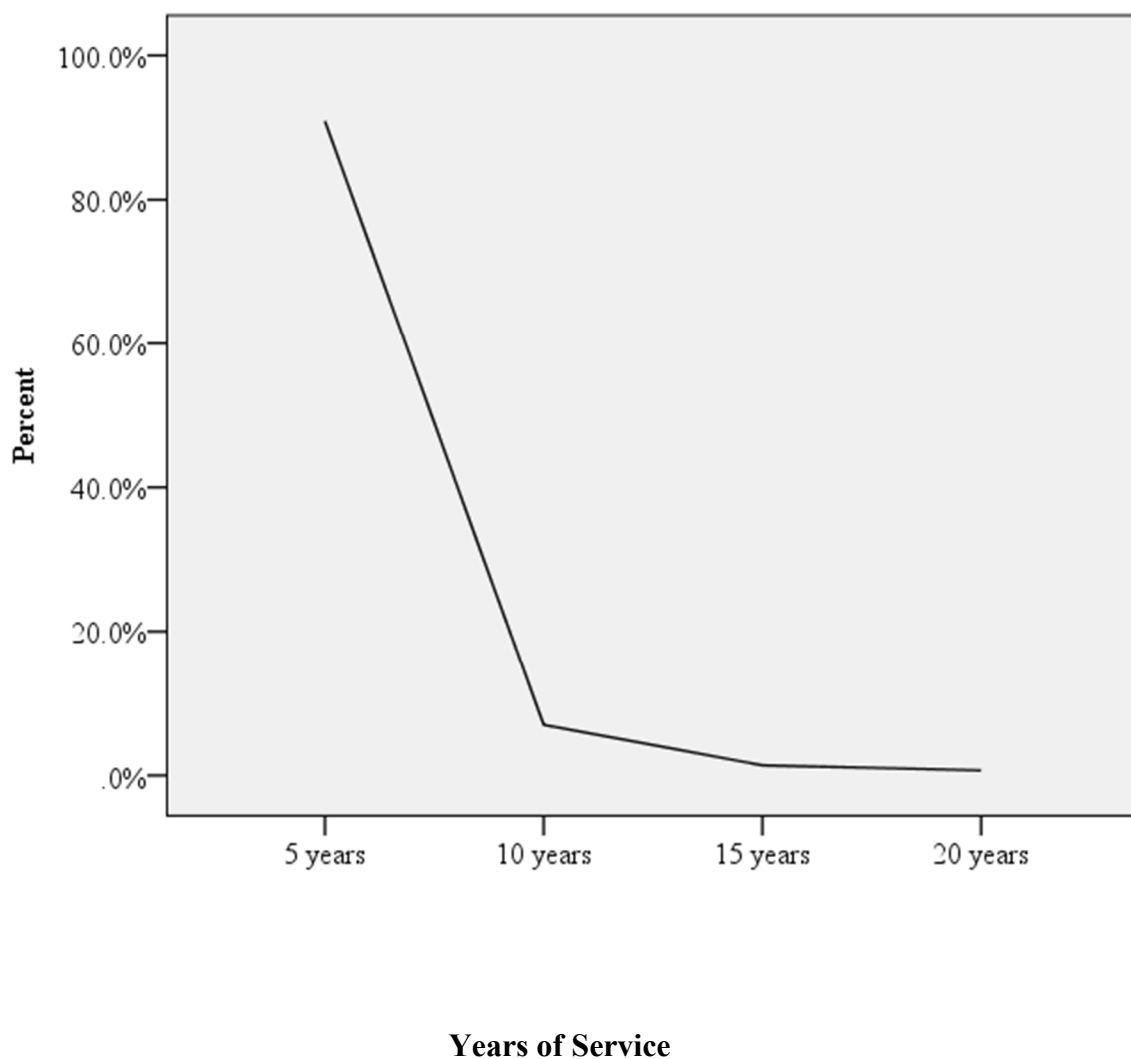
Years of Service

Figure 8. Fast food participants' years of service distribution (*N* = 144). This is the illustration of percentage participants' year of services at Fast food restaurants in east coast in the United States. The purpose is to illustrate the percentage of participants worked within 5 years, 10 years, 15 years, and 20 years. One participant did not specify the years of experience working at Fast food restaurants.

In Figure 8, participants' work experiences categorizes within 5 years, 10 years, 15 years, and 20 years. Participants worked under lower-level management or nonmanagerial positions at the Fast food restaurants. Ninety percent of participants

worked within 5 years. Seven percent of participants worked for 10 years. One percent of

participants worked within 15 years and other 1 percent worked for 20 years already. The

remaining 1% of participant did not specify the years of service. In conclusion, majority

of participants worked at fast food restaurants within five years. Only 1% of participant

worked within 20 years. Table 10 shows the descriptive statistics for specific

demographic variables.

Table 10

Descriptive Statistics for Age and Years of Working Variables

Variables	Minimum	Mean	Maximum	*SD*
Age	1	1.43	4	0.83
Years of Working	1	1.12	4	0.42

Note. $N = 144$. The descriptive statistics for participants age and years of working with the fast food restaurants in the east coast in the United States. The purpose is to illustrate the minimum, mean, maximum, and standard deviation of participants' age and years of working under lower-level management or nonmanagerial position.

In Table 10 described the participants' age and years of working with fast food

restaurants in the east coast in the United States. The minimum age of the participants

completed the survey was 1(18-19 years old) and the maximum age was 4(5-61 years

old). The mean age was 1.43(29-39 years old) with standard deviation of 0.83. The

minimum number of years of working was 1(5 years) and the maximum years was 4(20

years). The mean years of working was 1.12(more than 5 years) with 0.42 standard

deviation.

Pearson Product-Moment Correlation Coefficient

Findings in the study derived from 144 participants participated and completed the survey invitation. Participants comprised of individuals who currently work at fast food restaurants in the East Coast in the United States with the designated positions in the low-level management or non-managerial positions. Participants responded to the JSS survey that comprised 36 items, which was equivalent to 9 facets or variables. Each subscale contained 4-items. The other instrument used in this study was intention to leave scale, which comprised 2-items. An analysis of data proved instrumental in determining whether variables have significant relationships.

The research question addressed in the study was is there a significant relationship between job satisfaction factors, job dissatisfaction factors, and employee turnover intentions? The central research question had 10-sub research questions to address to accept or reject the hypotheses. The null hypotheses suggested that no statistically significant relationship between job satisfaction factors, job dissatisfaction factors, and employee turnover intentions. The alternative hypotheses suggested that there is a significant relationship between job satisfaction factors, job dissatisfaction factors, and employee turnover intentions.

The purpose of the data analysis was to determine whether there was a statistically significant relationship between the predictor variables and criterion variable to accept or reject the provided hypotheses using the confidence level of p value, which must reach the significant level of less than .05 or .005, .01 or .001 (Green & Salkind, 2011). Effect size means the strength level of the variable relationship (Green & Salkind,

2011). The strength level of the variable relationship can be small (.10), medium (.30),

and large (.50) regardless of sign. Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient can

range from -1 to +1. If r is positive, this polarity means each variable has the same effect

with each other. If r is negative, one variable has a contrast effect on the other. Zero

correlation means no relationship existed between two variables (Green & Salkind,

2011). Table 11 shows the correlation coefficient results between job satisfaction factors

and employee turnover intentions.

Table 11

Pearson Product-Moment Correlation Coefficients Between Job
Satisfaction Factors and Employee Turnover Intentions

Job Satisfaction Factors (Predictor Variables)	Employee Turnover Intentions (Criterion Variable)	Correlations r
Achievement/quality performance	Employee turnover intentions	-0.26
Recognition	Employee turnover intentions	-0.49
Work itself	Employee turnover intentions	-0.51
Responsibility	Employee turnover intentions	-0.52
Advancement and Growth	Employee turnover intentions	-0.37

Note. *N*=144. All correlations were significant at the $p < .001$ level.

Research Question 1

Research Question 1 was, "Is there a statistically significant relationship between

employee job satisfaction achievement and employee turnover intentions?" The null

hypothesis stated that there is no statistically significant relationship between employee

job satisfaction achievement and employee turnover intentions. A Pearson product-correlation applied to determine whether there was a statistically significant relationship between employee job satisfaction achievement or quality performance and employee turnover intentions.

As shown in Table 11, the resulting correlation coefficient was $r = -.26$ ($p < .001$). In conclusion, there was a statistically significant relationship between employee job satisfaction achievement or quality performance and employee turnover intentions because the p value was less than .001, which rejected the null hypothesis and the assumptions. The magnitude of the relationship was low. The result showed an inverse relationship. Therefore, the lower scores on employee job satisfaction achievement, the higher scores on employee turnover intentions.

Statistically, achievement or quality performance found significantly related to employee turnover intentions. The research study findings supported Herzberg's motivation-hygiene theory (1959). Herzberg argued that when job satisfaction factors increased, employee turnover decreased. Herzberg added that employee achievement was a source of employee job satisfaction. Employee achievement or quality performance derived from training and development (Islam & Ali, 2013; Teck-Hong & Waheed, 2011). Therefore, business leaders must have visions on improving employees' training and development program to increase employees' competence in the market.

Managers must empower the employees by giving them training periodically. Training allows employees to increase self-efficacy and communication with the customers, resulting to increased quality performance (Mathe & Scott-Halsell, 2012).

Kanten (2014) suggested improving job characteristics, such as skill variety, task identity, task significance, feedback, and autonomy.

Derby-Davis (2014) also supported the research study results using nursing industry, emphasizing that job satisfaction factors were significant factors to increase job satisfaction to reduce employee turnover intentions. Islam and Ali (2013) found achievement as work factor that promoted employee job satisfaction in private teaching sector, which was better factor than other job satisfaction factors.

Research Question 2

Research Question 2 was, "Is there a statistically significant relationship between employee job satisfaction recognition and employee turnover intentions?" The null hypothesis stated that there is no statistically significant relationship between employee job satisfaction recognition and employee turnover intentions. A Pearson product-correlation applied to determine whether there was a statistically significant relationship between employee job satisfaction recognition and employee turnover intentions.

As shown in Table 11, the resulting correlation coefficient was $r = -.49$ ($p < .001$). In conclusion, there was a statistically significant relationship between employee job satisfaction recognition and employee turnover intentions because the p value is less than .001, which rejected the null hypothesis and the assumptions. The magnitude of the relationship was high. The result showed an inverse relationship. Therefore, as scores on employee job satisfaction recognition increase, the scores on `employee turnover intentions decrease.

The research findings revealed that employee job satisfaction (recognition) had a statistically significant relationship with employee turnover intentions. Herzberg's motivation-hygiene theory (1959) supported the study results, arguing that when job satisfaction factors increased, employee turnover intentions decreased as well. In addition, Herzberg mentioned that employee recognition could assess by using feedback. Derby-Davis (2014) also supported the study findings, emphasizing that increasing job satisfaction factors could decrease employee turnover intentions. Moreover, using data from teachers in private teaching sectors, Islam and Ali (2013) noted that employee recognition indeed increased employee job satisfaction. Teck-Hong and Waheed (2011) supported the notion using convenience sampling.

Maslow (1943) added that employee recognition developed employee self-esteem. Stinchcomb and Leip (2013) and Tews et al. (2014) supported the results as well, stating that when work climate had employee recognition, employee turnover decreased. Bauer (2012) added that recognizing employees could prevent the voluntary withdrawal. Moreover, not only did reduce the employee turnover, high employee recognition could increase employee positive performance, work engagement, motivation, self-esteem, commitment, and contribution that produced high quality services to the customer (Cho et al., 2013; Eisenberger et al., 1990; Gavino et al., 2012; Gkorezis & Petridou, 2012; Haines III & St-Onge, 2012; Hogan et al., 2013; Nyman et al., 2012). High employee recognition could also encourage employees to stay with the company in which employee embeddedness and career satisfaction increased (Bhatnagar, 2014; Gkorezis & Petridou, 2012; Wan et al., 2012).

Research Question 3

Research Question 3 was, "Is there a statistically significant relationship between employee job satisfaction work itself and employee turnover intentions?" The null hypothesis stated that there is no statistically significant relationship between employee job satisfaction work itself and employee turnover intentions. A Pearson product-correlation coefficient was used to determine whether there was a statistically significant relationship between employee job satisfaction work itself and employee turnover intentions.

As shown in Table 11, the resulting correlation coefficient was $r = -.51$ ($p < .001$). In conclusion, there was a statistically significant relationship between employee job satisfaction work itself and employee turnover intentions because p value is less than .001, which rejected the null hypothesis and the assumptions. The magnitude of the relationship was high. The result showed an inverse relationship. Therefore, as scores on employee job satisfaction work itself increase, the scores on employee turnover intentions decrease.

The study findings revealed the statistically significant relationship between employee job satisfaction work itself and employee turnover intentions. Study findings supported the Herzberg's motivation-hygiene theory (1959). Herzberg argued that when job satisfaction factors increased, employee job satisfaction increased as well. Islam and Ali (2013) added that work itself influenced the job satisfaction. Hofaidhllaoui and Chhinzer (2014) did not support the research findings, believing that satisfaction with work itself did not influence the employee turnover intentions. In contrary, Ryan et al.

(2011) supported the finding results, emphasizing that high satisfaction with work itself could provide a better employee-customer relationship and increase business relationship.

Research Question 4

Research Question 4 was, "Is there a statistically significant relationship between employee job satisfaction responsibility and employee turnover intentions?" The null hypothesis stated that there is no statistically significant relationship between employee job satisfaction responsibility and employee turnover intentions. A Pearson product-correlation coefficient applied to determine whether there was a statistically significant relationship between employee job satisfaction responsibility and employee turnover intentions.

As shown in Table 11, the resulting correlation coefficient was $r = -.52$ ($p < .001$). In conclusion, there was a statistically significant relationship between employee job satisfaction responsibility and employee turnover intentions because p value is less than .001, which rejected the null hypothesis and the assumptions. The magnitude of the relationship was high. Therefore, as scores on job satisfaction responsibility increase, the scores on employee turnover intentions decrease.

The study results showed that employee job satisfaction had a statistically significant relationship with employee turnover intentions. The study results supported the claim of Herzberg in motivation-hygiene theory (1959). According to Herzberg, when job satisfaction factors went up, employee turnover intentions went down. Added by Herzberg that employees must have authority to communicate and authority to use the resources to accomplish the job assigned without any delays, and be accountable to

increase employee performance that influences customer service quality. Gkorezis and Petridou (2012) and Fernandez and Moldogaziev (2013) supported the notion, stating that giving authority could empower employees to be innovative in many ways that affects employee performance and business performance as well.

Research Question 5

Research Question 5 was, "Is there a statistically significant relationship between employee job satisfaction advancement and growth and employee turnover intentions?" The null hypothesis stated that there is no statistically significant relationship between employee job satisfaction advancement and growth and employee turnover intentions. A Pearson product-correlation coefficient applied to determine whether there was a statistically significant relationship between employee job satisfaction advancement and growth and employee turnover intentions.

As shown in Table 11, the resulting correlation coefficient was $r = -.37$ ($p < .001$). In conclusion, there was a statistically significant relationship between employee job satisfaction advancement, growth, and employee turnover intentions because p value is less than .001, which rejected the null hypothesis and the assumptions. The magnitude of the relationship was high. Therefore, as scores on employee job satisfaction advancement and growth increase, the scores on employee turnover intentions decrease.

The research study findings showed the statistically significant relationship between job satisfaction advancement, growth, and employee turnover intentions. The results of the study findings confirmed the claim of Herzberg in motivation-hygiene theory (1959), proving that when job satisfaction factors increased, and the employee

turnover intentions decreased. Van Dam et al. (2013) supported the research study

findings as well, emphasizing that career advancement and growth were indeed sources

of employee turnover intentions. Kraimer et al. (2011) and Carter and Tourangeau (2012)

agreed that with high career growth and advancement, voluntary withdrawal decreased,

and job alternative options decreased. McGilton et al. (2013) added that study results

might increase employee retention rate. Table 12 shows the correlation coefficient results

between job dissatisfaction factors and employee turnover intentions.

Table 12

*Pearson Product-Moment Correlation Coefficients Between Job Dissatisfaction Factors
and Employee Turnover Intentions*

Job Dissatisfaction Factors (Predictor Variables)	Employee Turnover Intentions (Criterion Variable)	Correlations r
Company policy	Employee turnover intentions	-0.52
Supervision	Employee turnover intentions	-0.37
Interpersonal relationship	Employee turnover intentions	-0.39
Working conditions	Employee turnover intentions	-0.34
Salary	Employee turnover intentions	-0.42

Note. $N = 144$. All correlations were significant at the $p < .001$ level.

Research Question 6

Research Question 6 was, "Is there a statistically significant relationship between

employee job dissatisfaction company policy and employee turnover intentions?" The

null hypothesis stated that there is no statistically significant relationship between

employee job dissatisfaction company policy and employee turnover intentions. A

Pearson product-correlation coefficient applied to determine whether there was a statistically significant relationship between employee job dissatisfaction company policy and employee turnover intentions.

As shown in Table 12, the resulting correlation coefficient was $r = -.52$ ($p < .001$). In conclusion, there was a statistically significant relationship between employee job dissatisfaction company policy and employee turnover intentions because p value is less than .001, which rejected the null hypothesis and the assumptions. The magnitude of the relationship was high. The result had an inverse relationship. The greater dissatisfaction represents the lower scores. Therefore, as scores on employee job dissatisfaction company policy decrease, the scores on employee turnover intentions increase.

The findings of the study showed the statistically significant relationship between job employee dissatisfaction company policy and employee turnover intentions. Using Herzberg's motivation-hygiene theory with participants in nursing industry, Derby-Davis (2014) supported the study findings, arguing that satisfying the job dissatisfaction factors could decrease employee turnover intentions. Kehoe and Wright (2013) agreed that stating with proper implementation of company policy, employee commitment and job satisfaction increase resulting in lower employee turnover. Tuzun and Kalemci (2012) added not only commitment and employee participation would increase, employers could gain employee trust and loyalty. Moreover, Ghazi et al. (2013) noted that fulfilling the job dissatisfaction factors increased job performance. Ghazi et al. suggested prioritizing the job dissatisfaction factors because employee motivation and satisfaction depended on it.

Research Question 7

Research Question 7 was, "Is there a statistically significant relationship between employee job dissatisfaction supervision and employee turnover intentions?" The null hypothesis stated that there is no statistically significant relationship between employee job dissatisfaction supervision and employee turnover intentions. A Pearson product-correlation coefficient applied to determine whether there was a statistically significant relationship between employee job dissatisfaction supervision and employee turnover intentions.

As shown in Table 12, the resulting correlation coefficient was $r = -.37$ ($p < .001$). In conclusion, there was a statistically significant relationship between employee job dissatisfaction supervision and employee turnover intentions because p value is less than .001, which rejected the null hypothesis and the assumptions. The magnitude of the relationship was high. The result had an inverse relationship. The greater dissatisfaction represents the lower scores. Therefore, as scores on job dissatisfaction supervision decrease, the scores on employee turnover intentions increase.

The research findings claimed there was an existing statistically significant relationship between employee job dissatisfaction supervision and employee turnover intentions. Dike (2012) supported the study findings, arguing that employee supervision was critical. With high employee supervision inside the organization, employee morale and job satisfaction increased resulting to negative employee turnover intentions (Dike, 2012). Hofaidhllaoui and Chhinzer (2014) and Kang et al. (2015) also agreed with the study findings, believing that job satisfaction supervision played an important role in

employee turnover intentions. However, Kang et al. emphasized that lack of employee supervision, employee commitment decreased resulting to increased employee turnover intentions. Newman and Sheikh (2012) added that with high employee supervision, employee attachment with the organization was high.

Research Question 8

Research Question 8 was, "Is there a statistically significant relationship between employee job dissatisfaction interpersonal relationship and employee turnover intentions?" The null hypothesis stated that there is no statistically significant relationship between employee job dissatisfaction interpersonal relationship and employee turnover intentions. A Pearson product-correlation coefficient applied to determine whether there was a statistically significant relationship between employee job dissatisfaction interpersonal relationship and employee turnover intentions.

As shown in Table 12, the resulting correlation coefficient was $r = -.39$ ($p < .001$). In conclusion, there was a statistically significant relationship between employee job dissatisfaction interpersonal relationship and employee turnover intentions because p value was less than .001, which rejected the null hypothesis and the assumptions. The magnitude of the relationship was high. The result had an inverse relationship. The greater dissatisfaction represents the lower scores. Therefore, as scores on employee job dissatisfaction interpersonal relationship decrease, the scores on employee turnover intentions increase.

The research findings revealed that employee job dissatisfaction interpersonal relationship had statistically significant influence to the employee turnover intentions.

Derby-Davis (2014) agreed with the results, proving that job dissatisfaction factors influenced the employee turnover intentions. Tews et al. (2013) added that interpersonal relationship influenced the actual turnover directly, retention rate, and job embeddedness. Ghazi et al. (2013) noted that satisfying the interpersonal relationship could influence motivation and satisfaction. Thus, employee performance increased.

Research Question 9

Research Question 9 was, "Is there a statistically significant relationship between employee job dissatisfaction working conditions and employee turnover intentions?" The null hypothesis stated that there is no statistically significant relationship between employee job dissatisfaction working condition and employee turnover intentions. A Pearson product-correlation coefficient was formulated to determine whether there was a statistically significant relationship between employee job dissatisfaction working conditions and employee turnover intentions.

As shown in Table 12, the resulting correlation coefficient was $r = -.34$ ($p < .001$) In conclusion, a statistically significant relationship exists between employee job dissatisfaction working conditions and employee turnover intentions because p value was less than .001, which rejected the null hypothesis and the assumptions. The magnitude of the relationship was high. The result had an inverse relationship. The greater dissatisfaction represents the lower scores. Therefore, as scores on employee job dissatisfaction working conditions decrease, the scores on employee turnover intentions increase.

The research study results revealed the statistically significant relationship between job dissatisfaction working conditions and employee turnover intentions. Stinchcomb and Leip (2013) and Yang et al. (2013) agreed with the results, stating that working conditions influence the employee turnover. With increased employee working conditions, employee commitment and employee satisfaction increased resulting to low employee turnover (Jung & Kim, 2012; Stinchcomb & Leip, 2013; Yang et al., 2013). Morevoer, AlBattat and Som (2013) argued that poor working conditions was a factor to job dissatisfaction leading to employee turnover intentions. Employee working conditions was an influential factor to employee voluntary turnover compared to age, gender, and race (Leip & Stinchcomb, 2013).

Research Questions 10

Research Question 10 was, "Is there a statistically significant relationship between employee job dissatisfaction salary and employee turnover intentions?" The null hypothesis stated that there is no statistically significant relationship between employee job dissatisfaction salary and employee turnover intentions. A Pearson product-correlation coefficient applied to determine whether there was a statistically significant relationship between employee job dissatisfaction salary and employee turnover intentions.

As shown in Table 12, the resulting correlation coefficient was $r = -.42$ ($p < .001$). In conclusion, a statistically significant relationship exists between employee job dissatisfaction salary and employee turnover intentions because p value was less than .001, which rejected the null hypothesis and the assumptions. The magnitude of the

relationship was high. The results had inverse relationship. The greater dissatisfaction represents the lower scores. Therefore, as scores on job dissatisfaction salary decrease, the scores on employee turnover intentions increase.

The study findings results showed that job dissatisfaction salary had statistically significant relationship with employee turnover intentions. Misra et al. (2013) supported the research findings, stating that employee salary influenced the employee turnover intentions directly. Hwang et al. (2014) and Choi et al. (2012), and Nitesh et al. (2013) supported the notion that employee salary dissatisfaction could lead to turnover intentions. Nevertheless, employee salary impacted the retention rate and job satisfaction directly. Brewer et al. (2012) and Carnahan et al. (2012) argued that high salary could increase retention rate reducing the turnover rate. Choi et al. (2012) added that future turnover could prevent from occurring with high employee salary.

Multiple Regression

A multiple regression is a statistical test used to determine the criterion variance associated with the linear combination of predictor variables using R square ($R^{2)}$ (Green & Salkind, 2011). Multiple correlation R can range in value from 0 to 1. The value of zero means no linear relationship existed between predictor scores and criterion scores (Green & Salkind, 2011). The value of 1 means the linear combination of predictor variables predicts the criterion variable perfectly. Values between 0 to 1 means the relationship is less than perfect linear between predicted variables and criterion variable (Green & Salkind, 2011).

Two multiple regressions were in order to test if the combined factors of the job satisfaction dimension and the combined factors of the job dissatisfaction dimension would significantly predict turnover intentions. Table 13 includes the result of R^2, the variance of employee turnover intentions associated by the linear combination of job satisfaction factors and the significant p value. The R^2 results depend on the sample size of 144 participants.

Table 13

Multiple Regressions With Linear Combination of Job Satisfaction Factors and Employee Turnover Intentions

	R^2	SE of estimate	F	P
Model 1	0.35	1.83	5, 138=14.72	.000

Note. $R^2 = .35, p < .01.$

As Table 13 shows, the five job satisfaction factors used as predictors and regressed on intention to leave, resulted in an $R^2 = .35$. This process indicates that approximately 35% of the variance in the intention to leave scores by the combined influence of the factors. Further, the ANOVA shows that this value was statistically significant ($p = .000$). Examining in the standardized coefficients is important to assess the relative strengths of the individual contribution of the predictors to the equation. Table 14 shows the multiregression results with individual factor of job satisfaction.

Table 14

Multiple Regressions With Individual Factor of Job Satisfaction and Employee Turnover Intentions

Predictor Variables	*B*	β	*t*	Sig (*p*)
(Constant)	11.268		14.023	
Achievement	.018	.034	.399	.691
Recognition	-.079	-.164	-1.312	.192
Work itself	-.137	-.257	-2.753	.007
Responsibility	-.144	-.275	-2.831	.005*
Career and advancement	-.002	-.003	-.031	.976

Note. * *p* < .05, ** *p* < .01.

Table 14 also shows the results that only one factor was statistically significant on an individual level, responsibility (β = -.275, *p* = .005). The other factors (achievement, recognition, work itself, and career advancement and growth) failed to achieve significance. Thus, five factors of the job satisfaction dimension do significantly predict intention to leave, and on an individual basis, a significant negative correlation exists between the responsibility factor and intention to leave. Specifically, higher scores, which indicate greater job satisfaction, predict less intention to leave. Table 15 includes the result of R^2, the variance of employee turnover intentions associated by the linear combination of job dissatisfaction factors and the significant *p* value. The R^2 results correlates with the sample size of 144 participants.

Table 15

Multiple Regressions With Linear Combination of Job Dissatisfaction Factors and Employee Turnover Intentions

	R^2	*SE* of estimate	F	*P*
Model 1	0.31	1.88	5, 138=15.50	.000

Note. R^2 = .31, p < .01.

Table 15 shows the results of the second multiple regressions wherein the five job dissatisfaction factors regressed on the intention to leave scores. The resulting R^2 = .31, indicates that approximately 31% of the variance in the intention to leave scores is by the combination of the dissatisfaction scores. Table 16 shows the multiregression results in individual basis.

Table 16

Multiple Regressions With Individual Factor of Job Dissatisfaction and Employee Turnover Intentions

Predictor Variables	*B*	β	*T*	Sig (*p*)
(Constant)	11.187		11.028	
Company policy	-.206	-.393	-3.939	.000**
Supervision	-.032	-.057	-.612	.542
Interpersonal relationship	.033	.064	.575	.566
Working conditions	-.058	-.088	-1.044	.298
Salary	-.085	-.189	-1.887	.061

Note. * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$.

On an individual basis, a review of the standardized coefficients in table 16 reveals that one of the factors had significant contributor, which was company policy (β = -.393, p = .000). The remaining four factors (supervision, interpersonal relationship, working conditions, and salary) were not statistically significant. The five combined factors in the dimension of job dissatisfaction do significantly predict intention to leave. In addition, a negative association exists between intentions to leave and the individual factor of company policy so that lower score on this factor is with higher intention to leave score.

Applications to Professional Practice

The examination involved determining the potential relationship between job satisfaction factors, job dissatisfaction factors, and employee turnover intentions to accept or reject the research study hypotheses. The research findings results rejected the hypotheses, showing that job satisfaction factors and job dissatisfaction factors had statistically significant relationships with the employee turnover intentions. The study results also revealed different criterion variances of employee turnover intentions associated with job satisfaction factors and job dissatisfaction factors. In this case, job satisfaction factors had higher criterion variance than the job dissatisfaction factors.

The findings of the research study are relevant to improving business practices, because the results provided better information about the job satisfaction factors and job dissatisfaction factors that influence employee turnover intentions. Managers can assess and analyze each factor based on the magnitude of the relationship. Through analysis, managers can provide better recommendations to improve the situations. With proper and effective implementation, managers may reduce or prevent employee turnover from occurring, leading to business financial sustainability and long-term growth.

In addition, addressing the concerns of the employees in effective ways can assist managers concentrating on the core functions of the business to meet the business goals and objectives. Employees on the other hand will be able to focus on the job assignments resulting to increased work participation, engagement, and commitment. Customers' satisfaction will increase and business-relationship will develop leading to repeat orders

and business referrals. In community aspect, community will enjoy having peace, healthy, and friendly environment.

Implications for Social Change

The implications of the research study findings to social change are leaders may focus on the well-being of the employees by providing better promotional opportunity, career advancement and growth, compensation packages, company policy, organizational support, and healthy and safe working environment. Focusing on employees' well-being enhances employee competence, morale, motivation, performance, engagement, and commitment leading to increased retention rate and decreased employee turnover. Organizational business financial performance can be sustainable and long-term business growth can achieve successfully. Rates of poverty and crime will decrease. Therefore, communities will be able to enjoy safe, healthy, and friendly environment.

Recommendations for Action

The research study findings are very critical because it plays important roles to employees, managers, leaders, customers, vendors, and community. Leaders need to pay attention to the results because the increasing employee turnover is costly and disruptive. By addressing the job satisfaction factors and job dissatisfaction factors that influence the employee turnover intentions directly can help reduce or prevent the employee turnover.

In addition, improving their business visions can impact the employees' situation and business image as whole. Focusing on nonfinancial aspects of the business, such as improving the well-being of employees will lead to positive results. Maslow (1943)

stated that employees have five basic needs (a) physiological needs, (b) safety, (c) social, (d) self-esteem, and (d) growth needs or self-actualization. Without satisfying the human basic needs, employee performance and employee effectiveness decreases (Adiele & Abraham, 2013).

Managers need to pay attention to the results as well so they can focus more on the core functions of the business. Table 11 includes the significant relationships between the job satisfaction factors and employee turnover intentions. In job satisfaction factors, employee responsibility (-.52) had a higher statistically significant relationship with employee turnover intentions, followed by work itself (-.51), recognition (-.49), career advancement and growth (-.37), and achievement or quality performance (-.26), which had a lower statistically significant relationship with employee turnover intentions. Correlation coefficient results (magnitude) can categorize as low (.10), medium (.30), and high (.50) regardless of sign.

Employee responsibility had a statistically significant relationship with employee turnover intentions ($r = -.52$, $p < .001$). Therefore, manager must focus on increasing employee responsibility. Employee responsibility is critical to employee and business performance. Thus, managers must empower the employees to do the jobs with competence. Empowering employees such as giving the authority to communicate with customers, handle the resources, and be accountable allows them to be innovative in many ways such as improving the quality customer services and business process (Fernandez & Moldogaziev, 2013; Herzberg, 1974; Herzberg et al., 1959).

Work itself had a statistically significant relationship with employee turnover intentions ($r = -.51$, $p < .001$). Therefore, managers must focus on empowering employees to increase employee communication inside and outside the organization. In work itself factor, Herzberg et al. (1959) emphasized the important roles of employee communication that impacted business relationship with customers and employee relationship. Effective communication with customers can lead to increased customer quality performance and customer-employee business relationship, leading to increased business transactions and reducing employee turnover (Ryan et al., 2011).

Employee recognition had a statistically significant relationship with employee turnover intentions ($r-.49$, $p < .001$). Therefore, managers must recognize employees based on the performance or non-performance with feedback (Byron & Khazanchi, 2012; Herzberg et al., 1959; Webster & Beehr, 2012). Positive feedback allows employees to be creative and empower them psychologically (Byron & Khazanchi; Yao & Cui, 2010). Managers can also recognize employees through financial incentives or promotional opportunities (Gkorezis & Petridou, 2012; Wan et al., 2012). Financial incentives can increase employees' performance that impact company performance (Gkorezis & Petridou, 2012). Promotional opportunity can lead to increased employee commitment and job embeddedness with the organization. Recognizing and appreciating employees' effort can increase employees' commitment, contribution to the organization, employee performance that impacts customer services (Eisenberger et al., 1990; Gavino et al., 2012; Haines III & St-Onge, 2012; Hogan et al., 2013).

Advancement and growth had a statistically significant relationship with employee turnover intentions ($r = -.37$, $p < .001$). Therefore, managers must pay attention on improving this factor. According to Lester (2013) and Matache and Ruscu (2012), advancement and growth increases employee job satisfaction. Nouri and Parker (2013) added that having employee advancement and growth, employee commitment increases as employee turnover intentions decreases. Advancement and growth depends on learning where employee training is critical (Herzberg, 1974; Herzberg et al., 1959; Maslow, 1943). Therefore, managers must train and develop employees to increase their competence as to increase their opportunity to achieve their advancement and growth.

Achievement or quality performance had a statistically significant relationship with employee turnover intentions ($r = -.26$, $p < .001$). Employee achievement is a leading factor to employee job satisfaction (Herzberg et al., 1959). Therefore, managers must focus on increasing employee achievement. Employee achievement can achieve by providing employee training and development (Islam & Ali, 2013; Teck-Hong & Waheed, 2011). Managers must train their employee periodically to increase their competence. Training allows employees to increase self-efficacy and communication with the customers, resulting in an increase of quality performance (Mathe & Scott-Halsell, 2012). Kanten (2014) suggested improving job characteristics, such as skill variety, task identity, task significance, feedback, and autonomy.

Table 12 includes the significant relationships between the job dissatisfaction factors and employee turnover intentions. Among the job dissatisfactory factors, company policy (-.52) had a higher statistically significant relationship with the employee

turnover intentions, followed by salary (-.42), interpersonal relationship (-.39), supervision (-.37), and working conditions (-.34). Correlation coefficient results (magnitude) can categorize as low (.10), medium (.30), and high (.50) regardless of sign.

Company policy had a statistically significant relationship with employee turnover intentions (r = -.52, p < .001). Therefore, managers must communicate the company policy with employees clear and easy to understand. Kehoe and Wright (2013) said that with proper assessment and implementation of company policy, employee job satisfaction and commitment increases as employee turnover decreases. Tuzun and Kalemsi (2012) added that with effective company policy, employee participation, loyalty, and trust increases as well.

Salary had a statistically significant relationship with employee turnover intentions (r = -.42, p < .001). Thus, manager must reassess the employee salary periodically. Nyberg (2010) argued that periodic reassessment can improve the employee performance resulting to improve business performance as well. Maslow (1943) mentioned the importance of physiological needs. Without paying attention to employee salary, employees will not be able to meet the physiological needs. Misra et al. (2013) emphasized that employee salary can impact job satisfaction, motivation, retention, performance, and employee turnover intentions.

Interpersonal relationship had a statistically significant relationship with employee turnover intentions (r = -.39, p < .001). Interpersonal relationships such as relationships with employers, co-workers, and peers are critical to employees. Thus, managers need to focus on developing the relationships. Having effective interpersonal

increases job embeddedness, attachment, retention rate, and reduces employee turnover intentions (Tews et al., 2013). Gkorezis and Petridou (2012) added that interpersonal relationship can increase employee motivation and support the employees' well-being and mental health. With positive interpersonal relationships, employee competence increases as customer service relationship increases as well (Gkorezis & Petridou, 2012).

Employee supervision had a statistically significant relationship with employee turnover intentions ($r = -.37, p < .001$). Therefore, the role of the manager or supervisor is critical because they communicate the culture of organization (Dike, 2012). With collaborative, friendly, and supportive culture, employee morale and participation increase as employee turnover intentions decrease (Dike, 2012). Supervisor's role is important because employee's behavior and attitude can impact positively (Eisenberger et al., 1990). With full support from superiors, employees become powerful and responsible and show that managers value employees as individuals, and they care about their feelings and well-being (Gkorezis & Petridou, 2012; Kang et al., 2015).

Working conditions had a statistically significant relationship with employee turnover intentions positively ($r = -.34, p < .001$). Working conditions is vital for employees' success. Therefore, managers must consider reassessing their working conditions to increase employees' performance. Maintaining safe, friendly, and healthy environment can also invite employees to stay and increase job satisfaction that affects employee turnover (Matz et al., 2013; Vasquez, 2014). In addition (Michel et al., 2013) supported that healthy environment increases employee performance and motivation resulting to high quality customer service.

In addition, Table 13 and 15 include the statistically significant relationships between variables and variances of employee turnover intentions associated by combined job satisfaction factors and combined job dissatisfaction factors. In conclusion, the combined linear job satisfaction factors predicted the employee turnover intention because the p value was less than .001, which revealed a statistically significant relationship between variables. The combined linear job dissatisfaction factors predicted the employee turnover intention as well, because the p value was less than .001, which revealed a statistically significant relationship between variables.

Overall, the combined linear job satisfaction factors (35%) had greater predictions on employee turnover intentions than combined linear job dissatisfaction factors (31%). Thus, fast food managers must focus on enhancing the job satisfaction factors to increase the rate of employee retentions, reducing the rate of employee turnover. Other suggestion is to leverage the job dissatisfaction factors to decrease employees' dissatisfaction, reducing the employee turnover intentions.

In individual level of job satisfaction factors and employee turnover intentions using multiregression analysis, Table 14 shows that only employee responsibility had a statistically significant relationship with employee turnover intentions using p value with less than .005. The Beta (β) weight under standardized coefficient (β -.275) shows that employee responsibility had an inversed relationship with employee turnover intentions. The magnitude of the relationship varies from .10, .30, and .50; low, medium, and high respectively. A lower score in employee dissatisfaction factor is equal to higher score in

dissatisfaction factor. Therefore, employees have less chance to leave the current job. The magnitude of the relationship is low. Therefore, the employee turnover intention is low.

In individual level of job dissatisfaction factors and employee turnover intentions using multiregression analysis, Table 16 shows that only company policy had a statistically significant relationship with employee turnover intentions using p value, which was less than .001. The Beta (β) weight under standardized coefficient (β -.393) shows that company policy had a reversed relationship with employee turnover intention. The magnitude of the relationship varies from .10, .30, and .50; low, medium, and high respectively. Higher score of dissatisfaction factor is equal to lower score of the employee dissatisfaction. Therefore, employees have greater chance to leave the current job.

The findings results can be disseminated using networking, blogging, meetings, and trainings. Networking can start with affiliation at organizations, universities, institutions, and corporations. Membership allows members share their research study so other members can benefit from it. Sharing may help improve the situation of the individuals, organizations, employees, and customers. Creating a personal website can also use for disseminating the research findings. Oftentimes, blogging can lead to exchanging ideas, expanding the research topics, and increasing knowledge about the phenomenon. On the other hand, training and meeting inside the office job are helpful to disseminate the research findings. Sharing the research findings via PowerPoint can enhance the knowledge of employees and management team to understand why and how employee turnover can prevent from occurring.

Recommendations for Further Research

The correlational quantitative method was used in this study to determine the relationships between two variables to answer the given hypotheses. An Internet survey was employed to address the hypotheses based on the opinions or experiences of the employees. The survey questionnaires were psychometric scales using preformatted survey questions, which limited the participants to express their opinions. Therefore, recommending using the case study may help further explain the phenomenon and get better understanding why and how individuals experienced the phenomenon.

The design used in the study was an internet survey. Although online survey could access based on the convenience of the participants, busy job schedules, no computer access, and low computer aptitude became issues for participants to access the online survey. However, hard copies of survey questionnaire helped employees' participate successfully.

The survey questionnaire was a Likert-type scale where participants could choose the answer based on their understanding, which limited participants to expand or express their opinions about the phenomenon. Therefore, using personal interview with semistructured design may help improve the situation. Using the design, the participants could explain their experiences in a more meaningful way than just answering the questions by using ordinal scale. A better explanation of the phenomenon can provide a better understanding. Having a broad understanding about the phenomenon can lead to better solutions to the problems.

The targeted sample size was 130 participants based on the recommended computation by Tabachnick and Fidell (2007). Although participants were able to participate, completing the survey was challenging in terms of target time completion. Most of participants had busy schedules, alternate job assignments, changed their decisions not to participate, and management approval was delayed that required more than one week visit. Therefore, suggesting increasing the targeted sample size may help resolve the issues. The target population of the study included employees working at fast food restaurants on the East Coast in the United States, under lower-level management or nonmanagerial positions. Therefore, the study findings results could only generalize on this specific region, participants, and job positions.

Reflections

The DBA Doctoral Study process was very challenging. Every process needed to be rigorous to ensure meeting and exceeding the requirements of the Walden University, such as DBA rubric requirements, APA, IRB review process, and faculty members to protect the participants and myself as a researcher from any legal issues. Meeting and exceeding the requirements implied a higher scholarly recognition by writing, communicating, and networking with others.

Collection of data was a challenging process. Some participants and community supporters understood and appreciated the importance and benefits of the research study. That is why invitation to participate became smooth. Other participants and community supporters considered the research study participation was a waste of time, a conflict of interest, a conflict with their schedule, and often they did not care at all. I had to increase

my targeted areas and spend more time achieving saturation to ensure I exceeded the required sample size.

The JSS and ILJ surveys covered most of the variables of the study. The JSS and ILJ survey results provided better understanding about the relationships of job satisfaction factors, job dissatisfaction factors, and employee turnover intentions. Different views and perspectives of the participants of the study helped understand the employees' concerns to minimize the increasing employee turnover. On the other hand, because the JSS survey was a Likert-type scale where participants depended on multiple choices, participants became limited to express their opinions and perspectives about the phenomenon.

Conducting the research study as a whole was a challenging yet rewarding at the end. It was rewarding because I had a chance to meet people with diverse background. This journey increased my confidence personally and professionally. Friendship and trust were developed that might lead to another opportunity to invite them for future research. Opportunity to hear their concerns and shared my concerns were the best things I had ever experienced in this challenging journey. Although research study was not as easy as I had thought, learning that many out there needed to share their concerns to give proper attentions had encouraged me to do it again in the near future.

Summary and Study Conclusions

The purpose of the quantitative correlational study was to examine the relationships of the job satisfaction factors, job dissatisfaction factors, and employee turnover intentions to answer the given hypotheses. With the help of SPSS analysis using

Pearson's correlation coefficient and Multi regression, both job satisfaction predictors and job dissatisfaction factors had statistically significant relationships with the criterion variable because the p value is less than .001, which rejected the null hypotheses and the assumptions. The magnitude of the relationships between variables varies.

In conclusion, research study findings in Table 11 show that in job satisfaction factors, employee responsibility (-.52) had a higher statistically significant relationship with employee turnover intentions, followed by work itself (-.51), recognition (-.49), career advancement and growth (-.37), and achievement or quality performance (-.26), which had a lower statistically significant relationship with employee turnover intentions. As the results show in Table 12, in job dissatisfactory factors, company policy (-.52) had a higher statistically significant relationship with the employee turnover intentions, followed by salary (-.42), interpersonal relationship (-.39), supervision (-.37), and working conditions (-.34), which had a lower statistically significant relationship with employee turnover intentions. Correlation coefficient results (magnitude) can categorize as low (.10), medium (.30), and high (.50) regardless of sign.

The other purpose of the study was to evaluate how well the linear combination of job satisfaction factors and job dissatisfaction factors predict the criterion variance. In Table 13, the results show the R^2 results for the combined job satisfaction factors and the p value. The p value was less than .001, which shows the significant relationship between the linear combination of job satisfaction factors and employee turnover intentions. The criterion variance of employee turnover intentions associate with job satisfaction factors was 35%. For an individual factor level based on the results in Table 14, only

responsibility had a significant negative relationship with employee turnover intentions, which influences the employee turnover by .27, which scores low. Therefore, the lower scores on job satisfaction responsibility, the higher the scores on employee turnover intentions. The rest of the factors indicate no significant relationships with employee turnover.

Table 15 illustrates the R^2 results for the combined job dissatisfaction factors and the p value. The p value was less than .001, which shows the significant relationship between the linear combination of job dissatisfaction factors and employee turnover intentions. The criterion variance of employee turnover intentions associated with job dissatisfaction factors was 31%, which significantly relates to employee turnover intentions. On individual factor level based on the results in Table 16, company policy had a negative relationship with employee turnover intentions, which impacts .39 of employee turnover intentions. The greater dissatisfaction represents lower scores. Therefore, the lower scores on dissatisfaction factor, the higher scores on employee turnover intentions. The remaining factors did not show any significant relationships with employee turnover intentions. In conclusion, the linear combination of job satisfaction factors predicted the criterion variance of employee turnover intentions by 35%, which was higher than job dissatisfaction factors at 31%.

As suggested, managers must focus on the results of the statistical significant relationships between job satisfaction factors, job dissatisfaction factors, and employee turnover intentions. Reassess, analyze, and evaluate them effectively, so they will be able to implement effective strategies and approaches to resolve the issues. Resolving the

issues in ways that are more effective can prevent the employee turnover from occurring, leading to business stability and long-term growth. In addition, employee job satisfaction, engagement, commitment, motivation, and morale increases, leading to increased retention rates and decreased employee turnover rates.

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Appendix A: Job Satisfaction Survey

		Disagree very much	Disagree moderately	Disagree slightly	Agree slightly	Agree moderately	Agree very much
	JOB SATISFACTION SURVEY Paul E. Spector Department of Psychology University of South Florida Copyright Paul E. Spector 1994, All rights reserved.						
	PLEASE CIRCLE THE ONE NUMBER FOR EACH QUESTION THAT COMES CLOSEST TO REFLECTING YOUR OPINION ABOUT IT.						
1	I feel I am being paid a fair amount for the work I do.	1	2	3	4	5	6
2	There is really too little chance for promotion on my job.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3	My supervisor is quite competent in doing his/her job.	1	2	3	4	5	6
4	I am not satisfied with the benefits I receive.	1	2	3	4	5	6

5	When I do a good job, I receive the recognition for it that I should receive.	1 2 3 4 5 6
6	Many of our rules and procedures make doing a good job difficult.	1 2 3 4 5 6
7	I like the people I work with.	1 2 3 4 5 6
8	I sometimes feel my job is meaningless.	1 2 3 4 5 6
9	Communications seem good within this organization.	1 2 3 4 5 6
10	Raises are too few and far between.	1 2 3 4 5 6
11	Those who do well on the job stand a fair chance of being promoted.	1 2 3 4 5 6
12	My supervisor is unfair to me.	1 2 3 4 5 6
13	The benefits we receive are as good as most other organizations offer.	1 2 3 4 5 6
14	I do not feel that the work I do is appreciated.	1 2 3 4 5 6
15	My efforts to do a good job are seldom blocked by red tape.	1 2 3 4 5 6
16	I find I have to work harder at my job because of the incompetence of people I	1 2 3 4 5 6

	work with.						
17	I like doing the things I do at work.	1	2	3	4	5	6
18	The goals of this organization are not clear to me.	1	2	3	4	5	6

	PLEASE CIRCLE THE ONE NUMBER FOR EACH QUESTION THAT COMES CLOSEST TO REFLECTING YOUR OPINION ABOUT IT. Copyright Paul E. Spector 1994, All rights reserved.	Disagree very much	Disagree moderately	Disagree slightly	Agree slightly	Agree moderately	Agree very much
19	I feel unappreciated by the organization when I think about what they pay me.	1	2	3	4	5	6
20	People get ahead as fast here as they do in other places.	1	2	3	4	5	6
21	My supervisor shows too little interest in the feelings of subordinates.	1	2	3	4	5	6
22	The benefit package we have is equitable.	1	2	3	4	5	6

23	There are few rewards for those who work here.	1 2 3 4 5 6
24	I have too much to do at work.	1 2 3 4 5 6
25	I enjoy my coworkers.	1 2 3 4 5 6
26	I often feel that I do not know what is going on with the organization.	1 2 3 4 5 6
27	I feel a sense of pride in doing my job.	1 2 3 4 5 6
28	I feel satisfied with my chances for salary increases.	1 2 3 4 5 6
29	The benefit package we have is equitable.	1 2 3 4 5 6
30	I like my supervisor.	1 2 3 4 5 6
31	I have too much paperwork.	1 2 3 4 5 6
32	I don't feel my efforts are rewarded the way they should be.	1 2 3 4 5 6
33	I am satisfied with my chances for promotion.	1 2 3 4 5 6
34	There is too much bickering and fighting at work.	1 2 3 4 5 6
35	My job is enjoyable.	1 2 3 4 5 6
36	Work assignments are not fully	1 2 3 4 5 6

	explained.	

Appendix B: Turnover Intention to Leave the Job Scale

(Hom, Griffeth, & Sellaro, 1984)

1……………...	2…………………	3………….......	4…………….	5 ……………
Certainly	Probably	Not sure	Probably	Certainly
Not	Not			

	Certainly				Certainly
	not				
1. What are the chances that you will remain in the	1	2	3	4	5
profession but leave the organization at or before					
the end of the year?					
2. What are the chances that you will leave your job	1	2	3	4	5

Appendix C: Demographic Questions

The following statements are for demographical classification only. Please check one response per statement.

Gender (Please Check One): __ Male __ Female

Age (Please Check One): __ 18-28 years __29-39 years __40-50 years __51-61 years __62-72 years

Educational Attainment (Please Check One): __ High school__Vocational__Undergraduate(1-3)__Bachelor degree__Others

Current Position (Please Check One): __ Cashier(Drive thru/Front line)__Runner (Counter and drive thru)__Fry person__Meats person__Initiator__Assembler__Others

Job classification (Please Check One): __ Part-time__ Full time

Years of working with current (Please Check One): __ 5 years__ 10 years__15 years__ 20 years

Would like to view results of survey___yes___no. If yes, send to

_____.

Appendix D: Permission to use Job Satisfaction Survey

From: Spector, Paul <pspector@usf.edu>
Date: Fri, Feb 27, 2015 at 7:23 AM
Subject: RE: Permission to use Jo Satisfaction Survey
To: Imelda Bebe <imelda.bebe@waldenu.edu>

Dear Imelda:

You have my permission to use the JSS in your research under the conditions you describe. You can find copies of the scale in the original English and several other languages, as well as details about the scale's development and norms in the Scales section of my website http://shell.cas.usf.edu/~spector. I allow free use for noncommercial research and teaching purposes in return for sharing of results. This includes student theses and dissertations, as well as other student research projects. Copies of the scale can be reproduced in a thesis or dissertation as long as the copyright notice is included, "Copyright Paul E. Spector 1994, All rights reserved." Results can be shared by providing an e-copy of a published or unpublished research report (e.g., a dissertation). You also have permission to translate the JSS into another language under the same conditions in addition to sharing a copy of the translation with me. Be sure to include the copyright statement, as well as credit the person who did the translation with the year.

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

Best,

Paul Spector, Distinguished Professor
Department of Psychology
PCD 4118
University of South Florida
Tampa, FL 33620
813-974-0357
pspector@usf.edu
http://shell.cas.usf.edu/~spector

From: Imelda Bebe [mailto:imelda.bebe@waldenu.edu]
Sent: Friday, February 27, 2015 12:43 AM
To: Spector, Paul
Subject: Permission to use Jo Satisfaction Survey

Dear Dr. Spector:

I am a doctoral student from Walden University writing my dissertation titled "Employee Turnover Intention in the Fast Food Industry in the United States" under the direction of my dissertation committee chaired by Dr. Charles Needham.

I would like to request your permission to use an existing survey instrument (Job Satisfaction Survey) in my research study. I would like to use and print your survey instrument under the following conditions:

·   I will use this survey instrument only for my research study

·   I will not sell or use it with any compensated or curriculum development activities.

·   I will include a copyright statement on all copies of the instrument.

·   I will send my research study and one copy of reports, articles, and the like that make use of these survey data promptly to your attention.

If these are acceptable terms and conditions, please indicate by signing one copy of this letter. Kindly return it to me either through postal mail or e-mail: Imelda A. Bebe, 163 Russell Dr. Tiverton, RI 02878 or imelda.bebe@waldenu.edu.

Sincerely,

Imelda A. Bebe

Walden University-Doctoral student

Signature

Appendix E: Permission to use the Turnover Intention Survey

Peter Hom <peter.hom@asu.edu>   Tue, Nov 18, 2014 at 12:20 AM
To: Imelda Bebe <imelda.bebe@waldenu.edu>Sure, you have my permission.
Best, peter hom
From: Imelda Bebe [mailto:imelda.bebe@waldenu.edu]
Sent: Monday, November 17, 2014 10:19 PM
To: Peter Hom
Subject: Permission to use the survey Turnover Intention

November 17, 2014
Dr. Peter Hom
Professor
Department of Management
W.P Carey School of Business
Arizona State University
Tempe, Arizona 85287-4006

Dear Dr. Hom:
I am a doctoral student from Walden University writing my dissertation titled "Employee Turnover Intention in the Fast Food Industry in the United States" under the direction of my dissertation committee chaired by Dr. Charles Needham.

I would like to request your permission to use an existing survey instrument (Turnover Intention) in my research study. I would like to use and print your survey instrument under the following conditions:

☐   I will use this survey instrument only for my research study
☐   I will not sell or use it with any compensated or curriculum development activities.
☐   I will include a copyright statement on all copies of the instrument.
☐   I will send my research study and one copy of reports, articles, and the like that make use of these survey data promptly to your attention.

If these are acceptable terms and conditions, please indicate by signing one copy of this letter. Kindly return it to me either through postal mail or e-mail: Imelda A. Bebe, 163 Russell Dr. Tiverton, RI 02878 or imelda.bebe@waldenu.edu.

Sincerely,

Imelda A. Bebe
Walden University-Doctoral student

Signature

_____
Expected date of completion _/_/2015
Excerpted from Simon, M. K. (2011). *Dissertation and scholarly research: Recipes for success* (2011 Ed.). Seattle, WA, Dissertation Success, LLC.

Appendix F: Copyright Clearance to Reuse Herzberg's Motivation-Hygiene Theory

Title: Motivation-hygiene profiles: Pinpointing what ails the organization

Author: Frederick Herzberg

Publication: Organizational Dynamics

Publisher: Elsevier

Date: Autumn 1974

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Permission Request Submitted

Your request is now under review.

You will be notified of the decision via email.

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Appendix G: Certification of Completion

The National Institutes of Health (NIH) Office of Extramural Research certifies that **Imelda Bebe** successfully completed the NIH Web-based training course "Protecting Human Research Participants".

Date of completion: 03/10/2012

Certification Number: 885747

Appendix H: Consent Form

You are invited to take part in a research study of Employee turnover intentions in the fast food industry. The researcher is inviting employees who work in the fast food industry in the east coast of United States under low-level management or non-managerial position with minimum age 18, part-time or full-time, and either gender to be in the study. This form is part of a process called "informed consent" to allow you to understand this study before deciding whether to take part.

This study is being conducted by a researcher named Imelda A. Bebe, who is a doctoral student at Walden University.

Background Information:

The purpose of this study is to ask your opinions regarding the factors that contribute to employee job satisfaction, job dissatisfaction, and turnover intentions in the fast food industry.

Procedures:
If you agree to be in this study, you will be asked to:
- Participate in a 15 minutes survey
- Data will be collected once
- Survey must be answered completely
- Questions are multiple choices

Here are some sample questions:
_____ I feel I am being paid a fair amount for the work I do.
_____There is really too little chance for promotion on my job.
_____My supervisor is quite competent in doing his/her job.

Voluntary Nature of the Study:
This study is voluntary. Everyone will respect your decision of whether or not you choose to be in the study. No one at Walden University will treat you differently if you decide not to be in the study. If you decide to join the study now, you can still change your mind later. You may stop at any time.

Risks and Benefits of Being in the Study:
Being in this type of study involves some risk of the minor discomforts that can be encountered in daily life, such as fatigue or stress. Being in this study would not pose risk to your safety or wellbeing.

This study helps participants share their opinions regarding the factors that contribute to their satisfaction and dissatisfaction towards their job, or aspects of job to improve the employees' conditions.

Payment:
No rewards are provided for participants.

Privacy:
Any information you provide will be kept confidential or anonymous. The researcher will not use your personal information for any purposes outside of this research project. Also, the researcher will not include your name or anything else that could identify you in the study reports. Data will be kept secure by using encrypted password through MS Office and will be stored in a locked cabinet. Data will be kept for a period of at least 5 years, as required by the university.

Contacts and Questions:
You may ask any questions you have now. Or if you have questions later, you may contact the researcher via imelda.bebe@waldenu.edu or 401-855-1772. If you want to talk privately about your rights as a participant, you can call Dr. Leilani Endicott. She is the Walden University representative who can discuss this with you. Her phone number is 612-312-1210. Walden University's approval number for this study is 07-16-15-0327769 and it expires on July 15, 2016.

Please print or save this consent form for your records.

Statement of Consent:

I have read the above information and I feel I understand the study well enough to make a decision about my involvement. By clicking the link below, "I consent," I understand that I am agreeing to the terms described above.

Appendix I: Confidentiality Agreement

Name of Signer:

  During the course of my activity in collecting data for this research: "Employee Turnover Intention in the Fast Food Industry in the United States" I will have access to information, which is confidential and should not be disclosed. I acknowledge that the information must remain confidential, and that improper disclosure of confidential information can be damaging to the participant.

By signing this Confidentiality Agreement I acknowledge and agree that:

1. I will not disclose or discuss any confidential information with others, including friends or family.
2. I will not in any way divulge, copy, release, sell, loan, alter or destroy any confidential information except as properly authorized.
3. I will not discuss confidential information where others can overhear the conversation. I understand that it is not acceptable to discuss confidential information even if the participant's name is not used.
4. I will not make any unauthorized transmissions, inquiries, modification or purging of confidential information.
5. I agree that my obligations under this agreement will continue after termination of the job that I will perform.
6. I understand that violation of this agreement will have legal implications.
7. I will only access or use systems or devices I'm officially authorized to access and I will not demonstrate the operation or function of systems or devices to unauthorized individuals.

Signing this document, I acknowledge that I have read the agreement and I agree to comply with all the terms and conditions stated above.

Signature: **Date:**

Appendix J: Letter of Cooperation from a Research Partner

Community Research Partner Name
Contact Information

Date

Dear Imelda,

Based on my review of your research proposal, I give permission for you to conduct the study entitled Employee Turnover Intentions in the Fast Food Industry within the <u>Insert Name of Community Partner</u>. As part of this study, I authorize you to access participants, use the facility to conduct research if necessary, and use personnel time for the purpose of research. Individuals' participation will be voluntary and at their own discretion.

We understand that our organization's responsibilities include: room for research study inside the facility, support and supervision from in charge personnel, and connection to WIFI. We reserve the right to withdraw from the study at any time if our circumstances change.

The student will be responsible for complying with our site's research policies and requirements, including <u>Describe requirements</u>.

I confirm that I am authorized to approve research in this setting and that this plan complies with the organization's policies.

I understand that the data collected will remain entirely confidential and may not be provided to anyone outside of the student's supervising faculty/staff without permission from the Walden University IRB.

Sincerely,

Authorization Official
Contact Information

Walden University policy on electronic signatures: An electronic signature is just as valid as a written signature as long as both parties have agreed to conduct the transaction electronically. Electronic signatures are regulated by the Uniform Electronic Transactions Act. Electronic signatures are only valid when the signer is either (a) the sender of the email, or (b) copied on the email containing the signed document. Legally an "electronic signature" can be the person's typed name, their email address, or any other identifying

marker. Walden University staffs verify any electronic signatures that do not originate from a password-protected source (i.e., an email address officially on file with Walden)

Appendix K: Participant Invitation to Participate

Dear Participants,

My name is Imelda A. Bebe. I am a candidate student for Doctor in Business Administration (DBA) at Walden University. I would like to invite you to participate in this doctoral study research. The title of the research study is "Employee Turnover Intentions in the Fast Food Industry in the United States." The purpose of the study is to examine the relationship between employee job satisfaction factors, job dissatisfaction factors, and employee turnover intentions in the fast food industry. Your participation is vital to the success of this study, because your shared experiences and insights toward aspects of job or job as a whole may help improve the employees' situation.

The completion and submission of your survey will serve as your consent to include the research study analysis with your submitted responses. Your participation in this study is voluntary and anonymous. Participants can withdraw anytime, or decline the invitation if necessary. Please note that data collected will be safe and secured with Microsoft Office encrypted password and locked cabinet for a minimum of five years before data deletion or destroy will take place. Participants are not required to give names or company names to protect their identity and confidentiality.

Study research result will be presented as aggregate, summary data only. Should you have desire to have a copy of the research study result, please check yes and provide your email address at the end of the survey, or email me at imelda.bebe@waldenu.edu. Please respond to the survey by _____. To participate in the survey, please click on this link: https://surveymonkey.com/

Appendix L: Participants' Reminder

Dear Participants,

Pleased be inform that this is only a cordial invitation or a friendly reminder about your study research participation. You still have time to complete the survey if you have not done it yet. Your participation to share your experiences and insights toward aspects of job or job as a whole can help improve the employees' situation.

Please accept my apology for this reminder if you have already responded and submitted the survey. Please accept my sincere thanks and gratitude for your insights, time, effort, and support. Thanks again for your continued support in this study, researching for the employees' job satisfaction and job dissatisfaction toward aspects of job or job as a whole.

To participate in this study, please click on this link: https://surveymomkey.com. Please respond to the survey by_____ at your convenience. For further information about the research study, please do not hesitate to contact me at ▮▮▮▮▮▮▮▮, or email me at imelda.bebe@waldenu.edu. You may also contact Dr. Charles Needham at Charles.needham@waldenu.edu. The university's Research Participant Advocate is also available at 1-800-925-3368 ext. 1210# from within the USA, or email address irb@waldenu.edu).

Thank you for your participation.

Sincerely,

Imelda A. Bebe
Doctor of Business Administration Candidate