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Relationships Between Job Satisfaction, Supervisor Support, and Profitability Among Quick Service Industry Employees

Joseph Carl Vann
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Walden University

College of Management and Technology

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Joseph Vann

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Walden University
2017

Abstract

Relationships Between Job Satisfaction, Supervisor Support, and Profitability Among
Quick Service Industry Employees

by

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MBA, Morehead State University, 2012

MSSL, Mountain State University, 2009

BS, Mountain State University, 2007

Doctoral Study Submitted in Partial Fulfillment
of the Requirements for the Degree of
Doctor of Business Administration

Walden University

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Abstract

Low profit margins threaten the sustainability of quick service restaurants (QSRs). In the United States, low levels of employee job satisfaction and low employee perceptions of supervisor support decrease organizational profitability by as much as \$151 million annually, depending on the size and type of organization. Guided by the 2-factor theory of motivation, the purpose of this correlational study was to examine the relationship between employee job satisfaction, employee perceptions of supervisor support, and organizational profitability. A convenience sample of employees from 86 QSR franchise locations in Houston, Texas completed the Job Satisfaction and Perceived Supervisor Support surveys. Multiple linear regression analysis and Bonferroni corrected significance calculation predicted organizational profitability ($F(2, 71) = 9.20, p < .001, R^2 = .206$) and employee job satisfaction ($\beta = .577, p = .025$). The effect size indicated that the regression model accounted for approximately 21% of the variance in organizational profitability. Employee perceptions of supervisor support ($\beta = -.140, p = .580$) did not relate to any significant variation in organizational profitability. The findings may be of value to QSR business professionals developing initiatives to improve organizational profitability. Improving employees' perceptions of supervisor support to generate high levels of employee job satisfaction could affect behavioral social change to enhance the health and wellbeing of employees and the wealth and sustainability of QSR franchise locations.

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Section 1: Foundation of the Study

Restaurants in the food service industry have disproportionately high employee turnover in relation to the private sector (U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2016). Low levels of employee job satisfaction and employee perceptions of low supervisory support lead to decreased organizational profitability (McClellan, Burris, & Detert, 2013). Organizational profitability is associated with high-performing and satisfied teams, and is an effect of satisfied and productive employees (Nichols, Swanberg, & Bright, 2016). To increase the level of business success and profitability, supervisors must understand employees' perceptions of their leaders and monitor levels of employee satisfaction, motivation, and engagement (Pan, 2015). In this correlational study, I examined the relationship between employee job satisfaction, employee perceptions of supervisor support, and organizational profitability of quick service restaurants (QSRs).

Background of the Problem

The high failure rate of QSRs has implications for employees, business leaders, and the wellbeing of society (Hua, Xiao, & Yost, 2013; McClellan et al., 2013; Parsa, Rest, Smith, Parsa, & Bujisic, 2015). The ability of managers or leaders to maintain a motivated and satisfied workforce (Herzberg, 1976) and engage employees (Strom, Sears, & Kelly, 2014) through beneficial relationships (Matta, Scott, Koopman, & Conlon, 2015) are fundamental factors for fiscal success, while ensuring sustainability (Glavas, 2012). The practices and behaviors of supervisors are factors within the organizational culture that promote employee job satisfaction while increasing levels of organizational performance and commitment (Tak & Wong, 2015).

It is necessary to identify ways to improve profits in a competitive economic climate. McClean et al. (2013) indicated that negative supervisor behavior leads to declining organizational profitability because of low levels of employee satisfaction and high levels of employee turnover. Patricia and Leonina-Emilia (2013) found that a significant gap exists between how supervisors perceive effective strategies for improving employee performance and satisfaction, and how the supervisors' efforts and support are perceived by employees. Examining the relationships between employee job satisfaction, employee perceptions of supervisor support, and organizational profitability could lead to enhancing leaders' understanding of supervisor improvement strategies and increased organizational profitability.

Problem Statement

A decrease in the employee job satisfaction index of .9 increases employee voluntary turnover intentions by 39% (Tüzün, Çetin, & Basim, 2014), and a decrease in the employees' perceptions of supervisor support index of 1.2 increases employee voluntary turnover intentions by 37% (Jehanzeb, Hamid, & Rasheed, 2015). Among the top 1,000 *Fortune* companies, a 5% decrease in employee turnover represented a potential increase in organizational profits of \$151 million for fiscal 2009 (Hancock, Allen, Bosco, McDaniel, & Pierce, 2013). The general business problem was that managers lack understanding of the relationship between employee job satisfaction, employee perceptions of supervisor support, and organizational profitability. The specific business problem was that some supervisors in QSRs do not understand the relationship

between employee job satisfaction, employee perceptions of supervisor support, and organizational profitability.

Purpose Statement

The purpose of this quantitative correlational study was to examine the relationship between employee job satisfaction, employee perceptions of supervisor support, and organizational profitability. The independent variables were employee job satisfaction and employee perceptions of supervisor support. The dependent variable was organizational profitability. The targeted population comprised current employees of QSR franchise locations in Houston, Texas. The results of this study may provide supervisors expanded knowledge of employee perceptions of supervisor support and job satisfaction which they can use to increase organizational profitability. In addition, positive social change may include increased levels of organizational profitability, which could provide opportunities for employers to actively support social programs and the development of local community programs.

Nature of the Study

I chose a quantitative research method for this study. Researchers use the quantitative method for (a) examining relationships between independent and dependent variables, (b) predicting variable reactions, and (c) producing generalizable results (Tarhan & Yilmaz, 2014). The qualitative method is appropriate for exploring lived experiences and interpreting individual perceptions (Zachariadis, Scott, & Barrett, 2013). The mixed method involves combining elements of qualitative and quantitative methods to understand a research problem and provide insight, observations, and generalizable

results (Zhang & Watanabe-Galloway, 2014). The qualitative method was not appropriate for this study because the purpose of this study was to examine variable relationships based on objective data. The mixed method was not appropriate because interpreting subjective observations was not necessary for answering the research question.

I chose a quantitative correlational design for this study. Quantitative research designs available to researchers are (a) causal-comparative, (b) experimental, and (c) correlational (Leech & Onwuegbuzie, 2009). The use of a causal-comparative design requires independent variable manipulation to determine differential effects on the dependent variable (Zakharov, Tsheko, & Carnoy, 2016). I selected the correlational design over the causal-comparative design because there was no expectation that one variable caused the other variable. The use of an experimental design requires randomization of the available sample population (González, Hernández-Quiroz, & García-González, 2014), which was not necessary for this study. The experimental design did not fit the purpose of this study because I did not use control groups or manipulate variables.

Research Question

Does a linear combination of employee job satisfaction and employee perceptions of supervisor support significantly predict organizational profitability?

Hypotheses

- Null Hypothesis (H_0): The linear combination of employee job satisfaction and employee perceptions of supervisor support will not significantly predict organizational profitability of QSRs.

- Alternative Hypothesis (H_1): The linear combination of employee job satisfaction and employee perceptions of supervisor support will significantly predict organizational profitability of QSRs.

Theoretical Framework

I used the two-factor theory of motivation and hygiene to examine the relationships between employee job satisfaction, employee perceptions of supervisor support, and organizational profitability. Herzberg, Mausner, and Snyderman developed the two-factor theory of motivation and hygiene in 1959 (Herzberg, Mausner, & Snyderman, 1959), and Herzberg (1968, 1976) subsequently extended this work. This theory offers an explanation of employees' motivation to work based on the premise that positive and negative employee attitudes are associated with employee job satisfaction and employee job performance. Key constructs underlying the theory are (a) employee job satisfaction and employee job dissatisfaction are on different continuums, (b) intrinsic job factors (motivators) and extrinsic job factors (hygiene) affect employee attitudes, (c) relationships between workers and their supervisors influence employee output, and (d) employee job satisfaction influences organizational performance.

I used Herzberg et al.'s theory as a guide to examine how the extant constructs of motivation (advancement, the work itself, recognition, and achievement) and hygiene (salary, perceptions of supervision, administration, interpersonal relationships, and wellbeing) are predictive of enhanced organizational profitability. Islam and Ali (2013) found that employee perceptions of supervision influence employee job satisfaction and performance. Smith and Shields (2013) showed that motivator and hygiene factors are

predictors of employee job satisfaction and performance. Based on the premise of the two-factor theory, in this study I expected that the independent variables would influence or explain the dependent variable of organizational profitability.

Operational Definitions

Engagement: The degree of involvement an employee takes in an organization in the performance of his or her job duties (Menguc, Auh, Fisher, & Haddad, 2013).

Job dissatisfaction: The displeasurable emotional feeling or state that results from the negative or less than satisfactory evaluation of one's job or performance where frustration arises because of an inability to attain a predetermined minimum expectation (Locke, 1969).

Job satisfaction: The pleasurable feeling or emotional state that results from the positive evaluation of one's job or performance through achievement and facilitation of one's personal job values (Locke, 1969).

Organizational profitability: The calculation of earnings before interest, taxes, depreciation, and amortization (EBITDA). Financial organizations around the world view EBITDA as a key metric for determining how a company is performing (Muhammad, 2013).

Supervisor support: An inclusive term that combines the instrumental task-oriented behaviors of directing and evaluating performance activities, and relationship-oriented actions of valuing contributions, caring about employees' wellbeing and interests, and extending to employees' beliefs regarding the organization (Eisenberger, Stinglhamber, Vandenberghe, Sucharski, & Rhoades, 2002).

Recognition: A positive act, whether verbal or physical, given by managers, supervisors, management team members, clients, colleagues, or peers whereby the recipient perceives or believes his or her actions are appreciated (Herzberg et al., 1959).

Assumptions, Limitations, and Delimitations

Assumptions

Assumptions are facts researchers accept as true but cannot verify due to limited statistical support (Jansson, 2013). Helminiak (2014) stated that an *a priori* assumption is that research study participants are conscious and self-aware enough that their answers are honest and relevant based on self-reflection, experience, decisions, understanding, and judgment. I assumed that study participants understood the questions on the Job Satisfaction and Perceived Supervisor Support surveys, and that their answers were relevant to their current job and were based on personal experience and judgment.

Limitations

Limitations are potential weaknesses in a study beyond a researcher's control (Cunha & Miller, 2014). The first study limitation was that data was gathered from a sample population of current employees of QSR franchise restaurants within Houston, Texas, and may not have reflected the views of franchise QSR industry employees from different organizations or geographic locations. A second limitation was the lack of randomization with the sample population to ensure that all groups were equally represented. A final limitation was that the convenience sample may not have included a wide range of participants' knowledge and experiences and the results may not be generalizable to the larger franchise QSR industry population.

Delimitations

Delimitations are the boundaries of study (Domingos et al., 2014). A delimitation of this study was the variables of employee job satisfaction, employee perception of supervisor support, and organizational profitability. I limited the sample population to current franchise QSR employees, and limited the geographical boundaries to the Houston, Texas metropolitan area. A delimitation that bound the results of this study was the level of honesty of the study participants. Beyond the scope of this study were unidentified variables that included, but were not limited to, participants' demographic information, participants' intentions to leave organizations, and actual employee turnover metrics. Data from past employees of a QSR franchise in Houston, Texas, and data from employees from other industries, organizations, or other geographic locations was beyond the scope of study.

Significance of the Study

This study may be beneficial to business professionals because understanding the relationships between employee job satisfaction, employee perceptions of supervisor support, and organizational profitability can improve employee relations and organizational performance (Guchait, Cho, & Meurs, 2015). The results of this study may provide value to business leaders beyond those represented in the study. Finding ways to create a satisfied and engaged workforce can generate organizational sustainability and restore an estimated \$300 billion in lost profits to the U.S. economy on an annual basis (Glavas, 2012).

Contribution to Business Practice

The results of this study may provide value to business professionals because examining the relationship between employee job satisfaction, employee perceptions of supervisor support, and organizational profitability may contribute to improved business practices. Eisenberger et al. (2002) determined that employees, in the absence of supervisor support, believe the organization does not value their contributions. Leary et al. (2013) concluded that when employees believe supervisors and the corresponding organization do not value their contributions, employee burnout increases because of declining levels of employee engagement and job satisfaction. Zopiatis, Constanti, and Theocharous (2014) established that low levels of employee job satisfaction caused by extrinsic job factors are predictive of employee turnover. Nichols, Swanberg, and Bright (2016) found that the absence of perceived supervisor support and affective commitment leads to organizational ineffectiveness and declines in profitability.

By examining the relationship between employee job satisfaction, employee perceptions of supervisor support, and organizational profitability, in this study I have gathered data that clarifies the effect that employees' attitudes have on business profitability. Guchait et al. (2015) predicted that reducing employee turnover rates by increasing employee job satisfaction and perceptions of supervisor support could return organizational profits of \$3,000 - \$10,000 per hourly employee and return in excess of \$1 billion annually to the QSR and hospitality industry. The findings of this study might contribute to improvements in business practices and be used by organizations to help alter employee perceptions of supervisory behaviors in ways that enhance employee job

satisfaction. Supervisors may see the relationships between employee job satisfaction, employee perceptions of supervisor support, and organizational profitability as a reason to consider changing business practices regarding supervisory behaviors. Additional improvement of business practices may come through better employee selection processes, rewards systems, and employee development programs.

Implications for Social Change

The significance and value of this study is its potential to influence social change by identifying employee perceptions of supervisor support that enhance employee job satisfaction and organizational profitability. Helping business professionals to understand the factors that lead to high levels of employee job satisfaction could generate positive social change through a more engaged and productive workforce. Herzberg (1976) suggested that beyond influencing a company's profitability, unaddressed organizational issues can impact society by adversely affecting employees' mental health. Alfes, Truss, Soane, Rees, and Gatenby (2013) found that unaddressed organizational issues affect employee wellbeing. Social change, within QSRs, could occur through enhanced supervisor capabilities, communication, employee performance, employee engagement, and employee wellbeing. Social change could occur through higher levels of employee retention and increased organizational profitability. Regeneration of employee job satisfaction might strengthen organizational values and culture, which would, in turn, extend beyond the organization and generate a partnership between business leaders and their communities. A partnership between organizational stakeholders and local communities should provide social and financial benefits.

A Review of the Professional and Academic Literature

The purpose of this quantitative correlational study was to examine the relationship between employee job satisfaction, employee perceptions of supervisor support, and organizational profitability. The hypothesis was that the linear combination of employee job satisfaction and employee perceptions of supervisor support would significantly predict organizational profitability of QSRs. The literature I reviewed regarding the theoretical framework include work by leading scholars and practitioners in the field of motivation and hygiene theory, employee job satisfaction, perceived supervisor support, and organizational profitability. I reviewed the seminal work of Herzberg et al. (1959) and journal articles on motivation and hygiene theory from *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, *Journal of Management*, *Journal of Business Research*, *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, *Global Business and Management Research*, and *Journal of Business Studies Quarterly*. I reviewed the seminal work of Spector (1985) and journal articles on employee job satisfaction and Spector's Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS) from *American Journal of Community Psychology*, *Human Resource Management Journal*, *International Journal of Human Resource Management*, and *Journal of Business Ethics*. My review of the literature related to perceived supervisor support and the development of the Survey of Perceived Supervisor Support included the seminal works of Eisenberger et al. (2002), and research measuring perceived supervisor support across three industries and populations. I reviewed additional articles on perceived supervisor support and the Survey of Perceived

Supervisor Support from *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*, and *Educational and Psychological Measurement*.

Because employee perceptions and attitudes comprised the independent study variables and organizational profit data comprised the dependent study variable, my focus in the literature review was on seven constructs related to employee attitudes, supervisor support, and organizational profitability. The themes that I discuss in the following sections of this literature review *include* employee job satisfaction, employee perception of supervisor support, and organizational profitability. In my discussion of employee job satisfaction I also discuss employee job dissatisfaction, employee engagement, and employee motivation. When reviewing the literature on employee perceptions of supervisor support, I discuss recognition and employee turnover. Throughout the literature review, I present a critical analysis and synthesis of different viewpoints and compared and contrasted the findings of previous research.

I searched for literature applicable to the study using keyword and Boolean parameters to identify factors related to the study variables of employee job satisfaction, employee perceptions of supervisor support, and organizational profitability. The databases searched included ProQuest, EBSCOhost, Business Source Complete, and PsycInfo with search terms including *job satisfaction*, *job dissatisfaction*, *employee engagement*, *motivation*, *performance*, *turnover*, *retention*, *commitment*, *organizational success*, *profitability*, *recognition*, *supervisor*, *manager*, and *leader*. The review of literature on the study variables included 106 articles, government sources, dissertations, and seminal works, 98 of which have publication dates between 2013 and 2017. In the

review, I included five seminal sources and an additional 10 contemporary sources related to the theoretical framework. Of the 269 total references I reviewed for the study, 234 articles have a peer-reviewed status and publication date between 2013 and 2017, which ensures that a minimum of 85% are peer reviewed and have been published within 5 years of the anticipated completion of the study.

Herzberg's Motivation-Hygiene Theory

Herzberg et al. (1959) examined job attitudes (job satisfaction) following World War II using a qualitative method. In their study they interviewed 200 accountants and engineers from manufacturing companies to understand the widening gap between workers and their work. The work of Herzberg et al. led to the development of the two-factor theory of motivation and hygiene. Herzberg et al. proposed that intrinsic factors related to work itself increased satisfaction, while extrinsic factors (outside of the actual work) affected levels of job dissatisfaction. Herzberg (1968) sought to expand the work of Herzberg et al. and show that job satisfaction did not occur on a single continuum, and that intrinsic factors related to motivation and engagement increased both employee satisfaction and organizational performance.

Adams (1965), using a meta-approach, countered the two-factor theory with a predictive equity theory of exchange relationships. According to Adams, employee job satisfaction increases when perceived organizational and coworker inputs and outcomes exceed the expected inputs and outcomes of the employee. Sauer and Valet (2013), in a longitudinal study involving 22,219 observations, confirmed the premise of equity theory by showing that employee job satisfaction levels increased when workers received

increased compensation proportional to their perceived self-value. The qualitative work of Herzberg et al. (1959) and Herzberg (1968) provided evidence that a relationship exists between employee job satisfaction and organizational performance. Conversely, Adams and Sauer and Valet discounted Herzberg et al. and Herzberg claims, showing that an extrinsic factor stimulated job satisfaction. Adams, applying the predictive equity theory and the work by Sauer and Valet following the assumptions of Herzberg et al. and Herzberg that recognition increased job satisfaction, and demonstrated that an increase in job satisfaction follows a motivational act.

Sauer and Valet (2013) used equity theory as the framework to confirm that positive exchange relationships between the employee and the organization can increase employee job satisfaction as predicted by Adams (1965). Porter and Lawler (1968) suggested employee job satisfaction is a function of eliminating any discrepancy between an actual reward and the perception of an equitable reward. Porter and Lawler used discrepancy theory as the framework to predict that employee job satisfaction is the result of individuals comparing the rewards of their current job to those of their ideal job. Their findings indicated that minimizing reward discrepancies generates higher levels of employee job satisfaction. In addition, Porter and Lawler demonstrated that rewards extend beyond compensation to (a) perceptions of working conditions, (b) management, (c) how employees experience the organization, and (d) how employees value aspects of the organization. The theories of equity and discrepancy indicate that financial and psychological rewards affect job satisfaction and drive performance (Adams, 1965; Porter & Lawler, 1968).

Locke (1969) combined aspects of equity theory (Adams, 1965) with discrepancy theory (Porter & Lawler, 1968) to advance the value system argument of Herzberg et al. (1959). Locke's range of affect theory holds that job attitudes lead to feelings of employee job satisfaction where employee job satisfaction is the outcome of interactions between individuals and their environment. Locke theorized that employee job satisfaction or employee job dissatisfaction is generated when interactions are greater than or worse than the level of value that one places on the outcome of the interaction. Locke outlined that values require an awareness of a desired condition or state, and the degree of alignment between values and needs regulates actions and determines emotional responses. According to Locke, employee job satisfaction and employee job dissatisfaction are perceived relationships between the employees and their work, where complex emotional reactions result from the ability to perceive what one wants or needs from the job versus what the job offers. Locke further suggested that employee job satisfaction and employee job dissatisfaction are functions of dual value judgments where the degree of value discrepancy (content) and the relative value importance (intensity) determines emotional reactions.

The duality of value judgment and relative emotional satisfaction response (Locke, 1969) is similar to the content of the two-factor theory (Herzberg et al., 1959) in that extrinsic work factors decrease levels of employee job dissatisfaction, while motivators increase levels of employee job satisfaction. There is scholarly disagreement between theorists regarding how constructs combine to generate employee job satisfaction and contribute to organizational performance. However, Hofmans, De Gieter,

and Pepermans (2013) proposed that it is possible for theories to be different but correct because individual differences and contexts lead to situational results. In the range of affect theory, supervision is a factor employees value, and it contributes to employee job satisfaction and employee job dissatisfaction as part of environmental interactions (Locke, 1969). The elements of equity theory (Adams, 1965) and discrepancy theory (Porter & Lawler, 1968) allow supervision to play a role and generate increased levels of employee job satisfaction. The two-factor theory positioned supervision and corresponding relationships as supporting hygiene factors, indicating that supervisors do not generate satisfaction, but through the elimination of dissatisfaction allow motivators to engage employees, generate employee job satisfaction, and improve organizational performance (Herzberg et al., 1959).

Spector (1985), seeking to show that employee job satisfaction extends beyond job attitudes and to find a way to measure it, expanded the work of Herzberg et al. (1959) and Locke (1969) to demonstrate that a cluster of evaluative feelings represented employee job satisfaction. Spector studied 19 samples of human service staff across multiple organizations representing the public, private, and nonprofit sectors using a quantitative method and produced a job satisfaction scale (JSS). Locke (1969) advanced the argument of Herzberg et al. through a predictive treatise, and combined aspects of equity (Adams, 1965) with discrepancy (Porter & Lawler, 1968). Porter and Lawler (1968) followed the assumptions of Herzberg et al., concluding that interactions between individuals and their environment can trigger increasing and decreasing levels of employee job satisfaction. They found that an additional unexpected factor of behavioral

choice influenced employee job satisfaction, but did not explain motivation. Spector confirmed Herzberg et al.'s findings that employee job satisfaction is reflective of job attitudes, is a combination of individual facets, and is measurable.

Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchison, and Sowa (1986), using exchange ideology, examined employee job satisfaction and organizational commitment (voluntary turnover) using a quantitative examination of 97 teachers. Eisenberger et al. (2002) sought to expand the work of Eisenberger et al. (1986) and Hutchison (1997) to demonstrate that perceptions of strong supervisor support influenced job satisfaction and enhanced organizational performance because of decreased turnover. Using the implications for further research suggested by Eisenberger et al. (2002), Buonocore and Russo (2013) examined employee job satisfaction in a quantitative examination of 197 nurses in public hospitals and private clinics to understand relationships between supervision, employee job satisfaction, and organizational commitment in a larger organization. Eisenberger et al.'s (1986) correlational research provided the foundation suggesting a relationship exists between employee job satisfaction and decreased voluntary employee turnover because of increased organizational commitment. Conversely, Hutchison and Eisenberger et al. (2002), in their quantitative study, discounted Eisenberger et al.'s (1986) findings of a single source of decreased voluntary employee turnover and demonstrated that a separate and distinct relationship exists between perceived supervisor support, recognition, and voluntary employee turnover. Buonocore and Russo, following the assumptions of Eisenberger et al. (2002) and applying Spector's (1985) JSS, demonstrated that organizational commitment increases and voluntary employee turnover

decreases as employee job satisfaction and employee perceptions of supervisor support increases.

Eisenberger et al. (2002), through perceived supervisor support, and Spector (1985), through evaluative constructs of employee job satisfaction, pointed to separate but related means of increasing organizational performance, as did Herzberg et al. (1959) and Herzberg (1968). Scholars disagree regarding how constructs combine to generate employee job satisfaction and contribute to organizational performance. However, Hofmans et al. (2013) proposed that the application of contrasting theories can produce accurate results because individual differences and contexts lead to situational results. Locke (1969), through the range of affect theory, concluded that supervision is a factor employees value and that contributes to employee job satisfaction and employee job dissatisfaction as part of environmental interactions. Adams (1965) through equity theory and Porter and Lawler (1968) through discrepancy theory, indicated that supervisory actions support the generation of increased levels of employee job satisfaction. Herzberg et al. and Herzberg, through the two-factor theory, positioned supervision and corresponding relationships as supporting hygiene factors, indicating that supervisors do not uniquely generate employee job satisfaction or reduce voluntary employee turnover, but using recognition decreases dissatisfaction and motivation and engagement generates employee job satisfaction and improves organizational performance.

Dasgupta, Suar, and Singh (2013), through a quantitative examination of 400 manufacturing employees, confirmed Eisenberger et al. (2002) and found that an absence of assertive and supportive supervisors lowers levels of organizational commitment.

Employee job satisfaction and unsupportive supervisors decrease organizational profitability (Pan, 2015) because of high employee turnover intentions (Lan, Okechuku, Zhang, & Cao, 2013), and affects factors outside of the organization including employee wellbeing, interpersonal relationships, and personal quality of life (Scott, 2013).

Researchers have previously focused on connecting (a) employee job satisfaction to organizational performance and profitability by decreasing employee job dissatisfaction and voluntary employee turnover (AlBattat & Som, 2013), (b) job stress to the intention of leaving the organization (Boyas, Wind, & Ruiz, 2013), (c) employee job satisfaction to customer service and satisfaction (Zohreh, 2013), and (d) motivational leadership styles to employee engagement and performance (Strom et al., 2014). The separate, but combined factors of employee job satisfaction and perceived supervisor support, and the implication that employees' attitudes of these two factors allow industry and society to reap dividends (Herzberg, 1968), validate the business problem combining the independent variables of employee job satisfaction and employee perceptions of supervisor support to increase organizational profitability.

Employee Job Satisfaction

Several studies on employee job satisfaction have examined how its levels relate to organizational profitability. Herzberg (1968, 1976) theorized that employee job satisfaction is driven by motivation and engagement, and is an antecedent of organizational returns. Spector (1985) developed the JSS as a scale to measure relationships between (a) employee job satisfaction, (b) supervision, (c) organizational characteristics, and (d) the underlying aspects of employee job satisfaction. Buonocore

and Russo (2013) followed the assumptions of Herzberg (1968) and Spector that relationships exist between employee job satisfaction and organizational performance. Buonocore and Russo concluded that relationships exist between employee job satisfaction, employee job dissatisfaction, supervision, employee motivation, employee engagement, and organizational performance. Lan et al. (2013) supported Buonocore and Russo finding that a relationship exists between employee job satisfaction and organizational performance. The collective findings of Buonocore and Russo and Lan et al. (2013) support Herzberg and Spector that a positive relationship exists between employee job satisfaction and factors that affect organizational profitability.

Employees derive feelings of employee job satisfaction from multiple sources. Herzberg et al. (1959) outlined that two of the most frequent causes of positive levels of employee job satisfaction are (a) feelings that result from the achievement of one's job and (b) feelings that result from receiving recognition from one's employer. Locke (1969), similar to Herzberg et al., stated that employee job satisfaction is a positive emotional state resulting from job experiences or resulting from the positive appraisal of one's job. Locke described employee job satisfaction as the result of a job experience, which contrasted with Herzberg et al.'s conclusion that positive employee attitudes related to job achievement causes an increase in employee job satisfaction. Locke suggested that both intrinsic and extrinsic factors along with job experiences enhance and promote employee job satisfaction.

Researchers disagree on the affect that intrinsic and extrinsic job factors have on employee job satisfaction. Purohit and Bandyopadhyay (2014) applied Herzberg et al.'s

(1959) two-factor theory of motivation and reached conclusions contrary to Herzberg et al. that the extrinsic factors of job security and interesting work play a fundamental role in increasing levels of employee job satisfaction and employee motivation. Purohit and Bandyopadhyay extended Locke's (1969) explanation that job experiences increased employee job satisfaction and concluded that hygiene factors are antecedents of employee job satisfaction that significantly contribute to motivation. Purohit and Bandyopadhyay suggested, through their contrasting conclusions, that hygiene factors are antecedents of employee job satisfaction and that Herzberg (1976) was correct regarding reaching different outcomes when using a quantitative method to examine the two-factor theory.

Employee job satisfaction influences organizational factors that include organization commitment, job attendance, and organizational performance. Herzberg et al. (1959) concluded that job attitudes manifest through employee job satisfaction and increased levels of job performance. Papinczak (2012) found that employee job satisfaction is an antecedent of affective organizational commitment, which (a) decreases the intention to leave the job, (b) strengthens levels of job attendance, and (c) heightens levels of job performance. The findings in Lan, Okechuku, Zhang, and Cao's (2013) study contradict Herzberg et al. and Papinczak concluding that employee job satisfaction is the result of an inner calling where employee attitudes and feelings about job achievement and promotion lead to increases in levels of employee job satisfaction and organizational commitment. Lan et al. (2013) supported Papinczak and found that those who identify having an affinity for their profession have a higher level of employee job

satisfaction and thereby have higher levels of organizational commitment. Papinczak and Lan et al. suggested that Herzberg et al.'s assertion that motivation factors increase levels of employee job satisfaction are correct with their findings that identified personal achievement and career advancement as antecedents of employee job satisfaction.

Employee job satisfaction is the result of both cultural and core values. In a qualitative exploration of nurses, Ravari, Bazargan-Hejazi, Ebadi, Mirzaei, and Oshvandi (2013) found that employee job satisfaction enhances the level of organizational commitment and that commitment to the organization increases the level of employee job satisfaction. The reciprocal relationships identified by Ravari et al. (2013) aligned with the findings of Lan et al. (2013) that heightened levels of employee job satisfaction and organizational commitment are the result of an alignment between a profession, personal core values, and a sense of altruism. While both Ravari et al. and Lan et al. confirmed Herzberg et al.'s (1959) hygiene theory, Ravari et al. concluded that employee job satisfaction and organizational commitment are cultural and not necessarily intrinsic to the job as did Herzberg et al. and Lan et al. Ravari et al. suggested that demographics or societal norms affect levels of employee job satisfaction.

Employee job satisfaction affects the organization, the employee's wellbeing, and the employee's family life. Buonocore and Russo (2013) extended the research of Papinczak (2012) on employee job satisfaction and organizational commitment and through the application of role conflict theory found that affective commitment moderates the relationship between employee job satisfaction, work, and family roles. Buonocore and Russo concluded that organizational commitment mediates the

relationship between the organization and the employee to create affective commitment, which extends beyond the organization. Buonocore and Russo suggested that balancing the strain between work and family life is easier when employees experience higher levels of employee job satisfaction and organizational commitment. Papinczak and Buonocore and Russo suggested that inverse relationships exist between employee job satisfaction and stress, both inside and outside of organizations.

High levels of employee job satisfaction improve organizational performance and employee family life. Job stress related to negative job activities adversely affect personal life, relationships, and employee wellbeing (Scott, 2013). Scott (2013) extended the work of Buonocore and Russo (2013) on the relationships between employee job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and family life. Decreased levels of employee job satisfaction caused by job stress and job strain extend beyond the organization (Scott, 2013). The generalizable research of Buonocore and Russo and Scott support the themes identified by Papinczak (2012) that higher levels of job performance and organizational commitment are the results of increased levels of employee job satisfaction. While Scott supported Papinczak and confirmed Buonocore and Russo, Scott concluded that a relationship exists between employee job satisfaction and hygiene factors, contrary to the themes of Herzberg et al. (1959). Papinczak, Buonocore and Russo, and Scott suggested that employers' failing to promote employee job satisfaction has negative organizational and non-organizational outcomes.

Employee Job dissatisfaction. Extrinsic job factors cause employee job dissatisfaction and lead to poor organizational performance. Employee job dissatisfaction

is a perceived unpleasurable emotional state that results from an inability to realize value from doing a job, that when resolved, leads to positive personal and organizational outcomes (Locke, 1969). Koch, Gonzalez, and Leidner (2012) identified themes showing that job dissatisfaction is from low levels of collaborative relationships, improper employee integration, and restrictive working conditions. Purohit and Bandyopadhyay (2014), using the work of Herzberg et al. (1959), reached conclusions similar to Koch et al. (2012) that employee job dissatisfaction is from extrinsic job factors related to supervision, benefits, working conditions, working hours, and policy. Koch et al. inferred that employee job dissatisfaction leads to diminished levels of organizational performance, while connections between organizational performance and employee job dissatisfaction were outside of the study scope of Purohit and Bandyopadhyay. The studies of Koch et al. and Purohit and Bandyopadhyay support Herzberg et al. that employee job dissatisfaction is not the exact opposite of job satisfaction, suggesting that management should address employee job dissatisfaction and employee job satisfaction separately to mitigate poor organizational performance.

Researchers disagree on the causes of employee job dissatisfaction. Jodlbauer, Selenko, Batinic, and Stiglbauer (2012) found that employee job dissatisfaction was the result of a lack of promotional opportunities, acknowledgments, or rewards. AlBattat and Som (2013) supported Herzberg et al. (1959) that separate organizational factors influence employee job dissatisfaction and employee job satisfaction. In an examination of causal factors of employee job dissatisfaction, AlBattat and Som noted that job stress, demographic factors, and the work itself increased the levels of employee job

dissatisfaction. Ravari et al. (2013) identified that employee job dissatisfaction was the outcome of an inability to align one's personal values with the resulting perceptions of the job, expectations of the job, and attitudes about the job. Contrary to AlBattat and Som that job stress contributes to employee job dissatisfaction, Anleu and Mack (2013) presented that employee job dissatisfaction increases with tenure and when the job interferes with work-life balance. Lan et al. (2013) supported Jodlbauer et al. (2012), finding that poor promotional opportunity increases levels of employee job dissatisfaction, and affects the employees' ability to connect with a job as a career. AlBattat and Som, Ravari et al., Jodlbauer et al. and Lan et al. suggested that both intrinsic and extrinsic job factors cause employee job dissatisfaction contrary to Herzberg et al.

Employers can moderate levels of employee job dissatisfaction. Increasing factors of employee motivation moderates employee job dissatisfaction in the presence of promotional opportunities that increase acknowledgments or rewards (Jodlbauer, Selenko, Batinic, & Stiglbauer, 2012). Jodlbauer et al. (2012) presented that a combination of both intrinsic and extrinsic job factors moderate levels of employee job dissatisfaction contrary to Herzberg et al. (1959) that only extrinsic job factors affect levels of employee job dissatisfaction. Chiang, Birtch, and Cai (2013), contrary to Jodlbauer et al., theorized that targeted training and human resource management (HRM) systems allow employees to have job autonomy and discretion that moderate levels of employee job dissatisfaction by increasing the intrinsic job factor of job responsibility. Jodlbauer et al. noted that supervisory actions of promotion and recognition moderate

levels of employee job dissatisfaction similar to Chiang et al. (2013) suggesting that an absence of supervisor control lowers levels of employee job dissatisfaction. Through their research, Jodlbauer et al. and Chiang et al. indicate that supervisory actions moderate levels of employee job dissatisfaction.

The causes of employee job dissatisfaction vary, but failure to moderate levels of employee job dissatisfaction leads to employee turnover. AlBattat and Som (2014) found that when employers are unable to meet the employees' expectation of acceptable working conditions and pay the result is employee job dissatisfaction and voluntary employee turnover. Zopiatis, Constanti, and Theocharous (2014) supported AlBattat and Som that voluntary employee turnover is the result of employee job dissatisfaction, but contrary to AlBattat and Som, Zopiatis et al. (2014) found that employee job dissatisfaction is because of a lack of alignment between personal and organizational goals. Contrary to Herzberg et al. (1959) that a correlation exists between motivators and employee job satisfaction, Zopiatis et al. (2014) concluded that motivators lowered levels of employee job dissatisfaction and lessened voluntary employee turnover. Although AlBattat and Som and Zopiatis et al. supported Herzberg et al. that failing to mitigate levels of employee job dissatisfaction leads to employee turnover, AlBattat and Som and Zopiatis et al. suggested that employee job dissatisfaction and employee job satisfaction may not exist on separate continuums as predicted by Herzberg et al.

Employee engagement. Employee job satisfaction is inseparable from employee engagement and organizational profitability. Herzberg (1968) extended the work of Herzberg et al. (1959) on employee job satisfaction reiterating that employee job

satisfaction is not a stand-alone construct but includes employee engagement as an antecedent. Shuck, Ghosh, Zigarmi, and Nimon (2013) disagreed with Herzberg et al. and Herzberg and indicated that employee engagement was not an antecedent of employee job satisfaction but instead was an extension of employee job satisfaction. Shuck et al. (2013) stated that employee engagement involves positive feelings such as inner desire and willingness to (a) perform work-related tasks, (b) serve customers, and (c) improve the workplace. Blanchett (2014) confirmed the connection between employee engagement and organizational value suggested by Shuck et al. finding that only 30% of the U.S. workforce is actively engaged in the performance of their jobs. Yeh's (2013) findings contrasted with Herzberg et al.'s conclusion that only intrinsic factors increase employee job satisfaction. Blanchett confirmed Yeh and noted that employee job satisfaction alone is not sufficient to increase organizational performance or employee productivity levels. Blanchett and Yeh suggested that a relationship exists between satisfied employees, engaged employees, and organizational performance.

Organizational outcomes have different antecedents. Robertson, Birch, and Cooper (2012) conducted a large-scale quantitative study examining employee job (attitudes) satisfaction and employee engagement finding that a positive correlation exists between employee engagement and employee job satisfaction. Robertson et al. (2012) examined 9,930 employees across 12 UK organizations and found that beyond driving positive levels of employee job satisfaction, employee engagement contributed to organizational profitability, increased performance levels, and levels of employee wellbeing. Robertson et al. along with Glavas (2012) suggested that increasing levels of

employee engagement lead to improved levels of employee job satisfaction and improved financial performance as leader-led activities. Glavas presented that supervisors and management align with employee values to embed employee engagement and create a core culture that enhances trust, relationships, and productivity. The study of supervision was outside the scope of study of Robertson et al.; however, both Robertson et al. and Glavas demonstrated that organizational relationships lead to positive organizational outcomes, suggesting that multiple intervening variables exist.

Different studies have produced conflicting conclusions on the relationship between employee engagement and employee job satisfaction. Herzberg et al. (1959) found employee engagement was a subconstruct of the intrinsic job factor of recognition and indicated that employee engagement contributes to positive levels of employee job satisfaction. Menguc, Auh, Fisher, and Haddad (2013) concluded that measuring employee engagement is essential to organizational success and associated with employee job satisfaction through the intrinsic factor of job autonomy and the extrinsic factors of supervisor feedback and support. Menguc et al. (2013) suggested that measuring the antecedents of employee engagement contributes to increases in employee engagement potentially providing increased levels of employee job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and organizational profitability. While Menguc et al.'s findings supported Herzberg et al.'s that increasing employee job satisfaction correlates with intrinsic factors, Robertson et al. (2012) and Glavas (2012) disagreed with Herzberg et al. and concluded that a relationship exists between employee job satisfaction and

extrinsic job factors. Study differences align with Herzberg's (1976) speculation that environmental differences will lead to nontraditional results.

Supervisory behavior influences employee job satisfaction and employee engagement as an extrinsic job factor. In a qualitative exploration of the affect of human resource practices on employee engagement and business success, Albrecht, Bakker, Gruman, Macey, and Saks (2015) supported the findings of Glavas (2012) and identified themes suggesting that extrinsic job factors support employee job satisfaction and employee engagement. Albrecht et al. (2015) suggested that the extrinsic job factor of supervisor feedback facilitates the processes to improve organizational dedication, organizational performance, and organizational profitability. Cahill, McNamara, Pitt-Catsouphes, and Valcour (2015) found that perceived supervisor support influences employee job satisfaction, employee engagement, organizational commitment, productivity, and performance. Cahill et al. (2015) supported Albrecht et al. and Glavas regarding the extrinsic job factor of supervision but discounted the assertion of Glavas that the single requirement of supervisors is to create a culture that fosters supportive relationships. Cahill et al. and Albrecht et al. agreed that supervisors must be active participants in relationship building activities to increase employee job satisfaction and employee engagement.

Employee job satisfaction and employee engagement both support and strengthen organizational outcomes. Employee job satisfaction, according to Shantz, Alfes, Truss, and Soane (2013), mediates organizational citizenship, and when employee engagement combines with employee job satisfaction, syntheses occur that allow task performance

and other behaviors related to organizational citizenship to strengthen variable relationships associated with employee job satisfaction and employee engagement. The comprehensive work of Shantz et al. (2013) suggested that the most important factors, beyond attitudes, that determine employee contributions to the organization, are job design, employee job satisfaction, and employee engagement. Shantz et al. noted that job design had a higher relative importance to employee engagement than did employee job satisfaction, and that engaged employees received higher performance ratings from their supervisors. Albrecht et al. supported the conclusions of Shantz et al. regarding organizational support and organizational profitability, but the findings of Albrecht et al. that supervisors had a contributing role as an extrinsic job factor that supports employee engagement was outside the scope of the investigation of Shantz et al. The ability to drive organizational profitability through mechanisms other than supervisor behaviors indicates alternate methods of providing employee support.

Not all managers and supervisors have the capability to increase their employees' productivity. Several types of organizational support efforts encourage employee engagement and produce higher levels of employee productivity and performance: supervisor action, resources, recognition, rewards, and communication (Shuck et al., 2013). Blanchett (2014) supported Shuck et al. and noted that only 10% of managers are capable or talented enough to engage employees and that hiring a capable manager doubled the rate of engaged employees while achieving an average of 147% higher earnings per share (EPS) than their competition. Yeh (2013) found that when supervisors worked to provide feedback and ensure that a correct fit existed between the employee

and the job, that engagement in the form of wellbeing and employee job satisfaction increased. Koch et al. (2012) identified several activities that indirectly influence employee engagement levels: supervisor actions, optimizing internal social networks and optimizing external social networks. Yeh and Koch et al. suggested that supervisors need training to both identify and support employee job satisfaction and employee engagement opportunities.

Supervisors select as well as develop satisfied and engaged employees. In a meta-study of employee engagement and disengagement, Pater and Lewis (2012) found that increasing levels of employee job satisfaction and employee engagement is a management led activity. Pater and Lewis cited statistical evidence showing that management-led activities can foster worker receptivity to change and yield higher levels of creativity. Handa and Gulati (2014) offered an alternate perspective of achieving employee engagement suggesting that management selects engaged employees instead of using management influence to alter undesirable employee behaviors. Biggs, Brough, and Barbour (2014) supported Pater and Lewis, while discounting Handa and Gulati, noting that heightened levels of employee job satisfaction are because of management-led activities that increases employee engagement and employee productivity. Biggs et al. (2014), Pater and Lewis, and Handa and Gulati reached contrasting conclusions and suggested that employee job satisfaction and employee engagement are both intrinsic personality traits as well as behaviors for supervisors to develop within employees.

Different theoretical foundations lead to similar results. Despite Biggs et al. (2014) applying the theory of self-determination and Pater and Lewis (2012) applying

Lewin's theory of change, both researchers agree that increasing employee engagement and employee job satisfaction is the responsibility of management. Biggs et al. supported Pater and Lewis that engagement antecedents are communication, interactive discussions, receiving feedback, support, and training. Biggs et al. contrasted with Pater and Lewis finding that engagement and heightened levels of employee job satisfaction result from extrinsic factors where the findings of Pater and Lewis used extrinsic job factors to promote activities associated with intrinsic job factors. Pater and Lewis supported Herzberg et al.'s (1959) assertion that employee job satisfaction and employee dissatisfaction are on separate continuums, while Biggs et al. contrasts with Herzberg et al. finding that extrinsic job factors are responsible for influencing employee job satisfaction and employee engagement.

Supportive relationships within the workplace are an important part of building an engaged workforce. Pater and Lewis (2012) suggested that business leaders must continually send consistent expressed and nonverbal messages to communicate the value of employee participation and feedback. According to Pater and Lewis, positive employee engagement is contagious and once a team reaches a critical mass that employee engagement rapidly spreads through the organization to produce higher organizational performance returns. Mishra, Boynton, and Mishra (2014) supported Pater and Lewis finding that firm sustainability is a function of effective internal communication channels that enhance levels of employee engagement. According to Mishra et al. (2014), face-to-face communication between employees and management

fosters trust that strengthens both supervisor/employee relationships and the level of employee engagement.

The presence of a supportive organizational culture increases the level of employee engagement. In an extension of the work of Mishra et al. (2014), Biggs et al. (2014) presented that factors related to work culture and reciprocal supportive relationships are statistically significant indicators of employee engagement. Biggs et al. emphasized the importance of reciprocal supportive relationships throughout the organization if an engaged workforce is an organizational expectation. Biggs et al. suggested that lower levels of employee engagement are the result of inadequate supervisor support and inadequate peer support. Biggs et al. supported Pater and Lewis (2012) on building supportive workplace relationships to promote employee engagement. Although Biggs et al. supported Paper and Lewis, they did not establish an association between employee engagement and organizational performance returns. The collective findings of Pater and Lewis, Mishra et al., and Biggs et al. indicate that employee engagement affects multiple dependent variables.

The influence of supervisor support on employee engagement varies with population age. DeTienne, Agle, Phillips, and Ingerson (2012) identified that a relationship existed between employee engagement and supervisor support, concluding that younger employees have heightened sensitivities and need extra supervisor support. Menguc et al. (2013) supported DeTienne et al. (2012) and suggested that levels of employee engagement are predictable and that levels of employee engagement increase among all age groups when managers allow employees to exercise personal judgment,

control, and discretion. Menguc et al. identified that job autonomy is an important factor for all demographics that when combined with supervisor support becomes a statistically significant predictor of employee engagement. Both studies used relatively young populations: Menguc et al. studied a sample population with a median age of 27.5 and DeTienne et al. studied a sample population with a median age of 31. The low average sample population median age studied by both Menguc et al. and DeTienne et al. indicate that the generalizability of these results beyond this range of ages is limited, contrary to DeTienne et al.'s statement that younger employees need extra supervisor support.

Activities related to positive supervisor support increase levels of employee engagement. Antecedents of employee engagement are supervisor characteristics related to an ability to inspire and challenge employees (Anitha, 2014). The 2014 quantitative examination by Anitha, of a cross-section of small businesses in India, found that levels of employee engagement and employee performance increased when supervisors were supportive and communicated to employees that their contributions were essential for business and organizational success. Breevaart et al. (2014), in their examination of leadership styles and employee engagement, contradicted Anitha (2014) that a relationship existed between increased levels of employee engagement and informative communication. Breevaart et al. noted that supervisors should allow employees to use personal discretion in the workplace and that human resource personnel should implement developmental activities to promote the development of transformational leadership characteristics. Breevaart et al. suggested that when supervisors provide positive psychological climates in conjunction with contingent rewards that a sequential

chain reaction occurs that creates higher levels of employee engagement due to increased levels of autonomy and supervisor support. Although the findings of Anitha were contrary to Breevaart et al. regarding the relationship between supervisor support and employee engagement, Anitha found that a relationship exists between perceived supervisor support and employees' ability and desire to perform at higher levels, suggesting that employee engagement is an innate employee characteristic.

Scholars have found direct and indirect relationships between employee engagement and organizational performance. According to Robertson et al. (2012), employee engagement is an antecedent of increased discretionary effort that increases organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) because of the relationship between employee engagement and organizational effectiveness. Rasheed, Khan, and Ramzan (2013) contrary to Robertson et al., presented that perceived supervisor support is an antecedent of employee engagement and concluded that work output is a direct consequence of motivated and engaged employees. Breevaart et al. (2014) found that supervisor support activities, such as effective performance management processes are antecedents of employee engagement that enhance organizational success. Matta, Scott, Koopman, and Conlon (2015) concluded that employee engagement is a proximal antecedent of OCB caused by the alignment of opinions between leaders and subordinates. Matta et al. (2015) supported the conclusions of Breevaart et al. and Robertson et al. that mediating variables increase the relationship strength between employee engagement and organizational performance. While Matta et al., Robertson et al., and Rasheed et al. (2013) reached different conclusions regarding the relationship between employee

engagement and OCB; they all stated that developmental activities driven by social support are essential to increasing levels of employee engagement. The presence of social support activities with employee engagement, OCB, and organizational performance indicates that positive increases in employee engagement are from activities related to supervisor support.

Relationships exist between employee job satisfaction, employee engagement, and organizational profitability. Robertson et al. (2012) found that employee engagement promotes a dedicated and energetic workforce. Rana, Ardichvili, and Tkachenko (2014) proposed that employee engagement is part of a complex relationship between supervision, the work environment, job characteristics, and organizational outcomes as employees pursue self-efficacy. Robertson et al. identified strong positive correlations between employee job satisfaction, employee engagement, employee wellbeing, organizational commitment, and organizational profitability. Rana et al. (2014) agreed with Robertson et al. that management's responsibility is to design jobs for autonomy, train and develop employees, and create challenging situations where employees are personally responsible for their actions if the organization's intent is to capture the psychological aspects of employee engagement. Although Rana et al. confirmed Robertson et al. that management can increase levels of employee engagement by creating a challenging work environment, Rana et al. focused on activities extrinsic to the organization while Robertson et al. focused on activities intrinsic to the organization. Rana et al. and Robertson et al. suggested that the pursuit of self-actualization is reciprocal between the employee and the organization.

Employee motivation. Intrinsic and extrinsic job factors influence employee motivation as an antecedent of employee job satisfaction. Herzberg (1968, 1976) explored this connection, building on earlier research by Herzberg et al. (1959). Herzberg (1968) extended the work of Herzberg et al. emphasizing that, as a job attitude, employee job satisfaction drives employee motivation. Herzberg (1976) continued the discussion of Herzberg (1968) on employee job satisfaction and employee motivation describing employee motivation as an internal generator that needs no outside stimulation and creates a desire for action. According to Herzberg (1976), increasing levels of employee job satisfaction requires instilling employee motivation through the process of increasing intrinsic job factors related to achievement, recognition, and responsibility. Herzberg (1976) outlined that increasing levels of employee job satisfaction requires instilling employee motivation by decreasing levels of employee job dissatisfaction through the extrinsic factors related to supervision, working conditions, salary, and organizational policy. Herzberg suggested that employee job satisfaction and employee job dissatisfaction influences employee motivation.

Employee motivation has a positive relationship with organizational performance. Kjeldsen and Anderson (2013) analyzed data from the 10,630 participants in a cross-national study of 14 countries and concluded that positive employee job satisfaction is an antecedent of increased employee motivation, and motivated employees increase both firm and societal value. Employee motivation has a causal link with (a) employee job satisfaction, (b) employee performance, (c) work behavior, and (c) is an antecedent of organizational profitability (Lăzăroiu, 2015). In an exploration of motivational theory,

Lăzăroiu (2015) supported Herzberg (1976) that employee motivation serves as an antecedent of employee job satisfaction. Lăzăroiu, and Kjeldsen and Anderson collectively indicated that relationships exist between employee job satisfaction and employee motivation. Lăzăroiu noted that employee efforts enhance organizational performance outcomes while Kjeldsen and Anderson measured performance outcomes as a function of personal usefulness in the context of both public and private sectors. The work of Lăzăroiu, and Kjeldsen and Anderson support that employers can positively influence organizational performance and profitability by increasing employee job satisfaction and employee motivation as suggested by Herzberg.

Employer efforts affect employee motivation. Herzberg (1968) stated that many employers and supervisors approach motivation incorrectly by using punishment and seduction when they should use job enrichment. Job enrichment, according to Herzberg, (a) is a continuous supervisory function that lessens company control, (b) emphasizes accountability, (c) gives employees complete units of work, (d) grants authority, (e) introduces difficult tasks, and (f) enables employees to become specialists. According to Jodlbauer et al. (2012), a perfect correlation exists between job enrichment and employee motivation. Patricia and Leonina-Emilia (2013) and Word and Carpenter (2013) confirmed the findings of Herzberg et al. (1959) that intrinsic job factors drive employee motivation and supervisory efforts. According to Word and Carpenter, when management is supportive of employees within the workplace, the level of employee job satisfaction increases and voluntary employee turnover declines.

A relationship exists between employee motivation and the ability of supervisors to provide support. Low levels of employee motivation cause an increase in voluntary employee turnover when management lacks the capacity to motivate their teams (Patricia & Leonina-Emilia, 2013). Intrinsic employee motivation is a function of supportive management behaviors (Word & Carpenter, 2013). Word and Carpenter (2013) presented that factors intrinsic to the work itself promote employee motivation contrary to Patricia and Leonina-Emilia (2013) who found that factors related to personal development and growth increase the levels of employee motivation. Supportive supervisory behaviors increase levels of employee motivation.

Demographics and culture affect factors that motivate employees. The hygiene factors of working conditions, supervision, and coworker relationships produced employee job satisfaction and motivation among teachers in Pakistan (Islam & Ali, 2013), a finding confirmed by Khan, Shahid, Nawab, and Wali (2013). Khan et al. (2013) also reported that job security and extrinsic forms of recognition generated employee job satisfaction and employee motivation among employees in the Pakistan banking sector. Khan et al. and Islam and Ali (2013) independently studied employee job satisfaction and employee motivation by applying Herzberg et al.'s (1959) two-factor theory of motivation and reached conclusions contrary to Herzberg et al. that hygiene factors only affect levels of employee job dissatisfaction. Khan et al. found that intrinsic factors related to moral value and personal service increased employee job satisfaction and employee motivation in addition to hygiene factors. Islam and Ali supported Khan et al. and attributed motivational differences to the socio-cultural perspectives within Pakistan.

Promoting employee job satisfaction and employee motivation within emerging markets and developing countries may necessitate the use of different strategies than those required in mature markets.

Researchers disagree on the antecedents of employee job satisfaction and employee motivation. According to Sajjad, Ghazanfar, and Ramzan (2013), the antecedents of employee motivation are teamwork, employee relationships, employee responsibility, employee behavior, and employee attitude. Černe, Nerstad, Dysvik, and Škerlavaj (2014) supported Sajjad et al. (2013) that employee motivation is an antecedent of employee job satisfaction but stated that employee motivation is the result of employee creativity. Hofmans et al. (2013) found that the antecedents of employee motivation are a combination of psychological rewards, financial rewards, and recognition. While Černe et al. (2014) supported Herzberg et al. (1959) and Sajjad et al. that employee motivation is an antecedent of employee job satisfaction, Černe et al. found that employee job satisfaction is the result of employee motivation. Černe et al. contradicted Herzberg et al. that employee job satisfaction precedes employee motivation. The findings of Hofmans et al., Sajjad et al., and Černe et al. support Herzberg et al. that supervisors can alter levels of employee job satisfaction and employee motivation suggesting that supervisors should focus on both the organizational culture and the individual employee.

Transferring employee motivation to the work environment is part of an exchange process between supervisors and employees. Jodlbauer et al. (2012) found that transferring knowledge acquired through training to the work environment requires positive levels of employee motivation. Cerasoli, Nicklin, and Ford (2014) concluded that

supervisory actions that include providing competency feedback could improve levels of job performance because of enhanced levels of intrinsic employee motivation. Cerasoli et al. (2014) confirmed Jodlbauer et al. that employee motivation is a function of economic stimulation, but Cerasoli et al. noted that a relationship existed between economic stimulation and the motivation to produce higher quantities where Jodlbauer et al. concluded that financial incentives motivated the transfer of knowledge to the job context. Černe et al. (2014) supported Cerasoli et al. finding that employee motivation is the outcome of an exchange process that occurs between supervisors and employees. Černe et al., contrary to Jodlbauer et al., identified that employee development is the result of supervisory activities and found instead that when supervisors create a motivational culture, it permits self-development activities. Cerasoli et al., Jodlbauer et al., and Černe et al. contradictory to Herzberg (1976) suggested that hygiene factors can promote employee motivation.

Researchers disagree on the relationships between supervision, employee motivation, and organizational performance. Employee motivation is an antecedent of affective organizational commitment (Gillet, Gagné, Sauvagère, & Fouquereau, 2013), of employee engagement, and an element of organizational sustainability (Strom et al., 2014). Elegido (2013) presented that the capitalistic nature of the private sector is incompatible with employee motivation and organizational performance but that supervisory actions influence organizational culture and can overcome the incompatibilities of employee motivation and profit. Bonenberger, Aikins, Akweongo, and Wyss (2014) indicated that supportive supervision positively influences employee

motivation, employee job satisfaction, and organizational performance. Elegido, contrary to Bonenberger et al. (2014), presented that while a connection exists between employee motivation, employee loyalty, and organizational profitability that supervisors must choose employees that have an innate ability to align with organizational values. The work of Elegido supports Herzberg et al. (1959) that motivation is an intrinsic factor of the work itself independent of financial rewards. The ability to overcome incompatibilities of employee motivation and organizational profit indicates that supervisors are an important part of increasing the level of employee motivation.

Failing to promote employee job satisfaction and employee motivation affects voluntary employee turnover. Herzberg (1968) described employee motivation as a growth-oriented factor that serves as an internal generator for employees. The absence of employee job satisfaction and employee motivation leads to deteriorating employee attitudes and results in voluntary employee turnover (Sajjad, Ghazanfar, & Ramzan, 2013). Hofmans et al. (2013) supported Sajjad et al. (2013) that the inability of organizational management to create an atmosphere and culture that generates motivational antecedents leads to voluntary employee turnover. Hofmans et al. and Sajjad et al. supported Herzberg et al. (1959) that the absence of motivation leads to deteriorating employee attitudes, which results in voluntary employee turnover. Hofmans et al. and Sajjad et al. suggested that employers determining how to promote positive levels of employee job satisfaction and employee motivation lower levels of voluntary employee turnover.

Employee perceptions of supervisor support

Examining the literature of employee perceptions of supervisor support is necessary to understand employee experiences with supervisors, to predict employee job satisfaction, and to increase organizational profitability. Herzberg et al. (1959) outlined that supervision is a critical extrinsic factor of work and that positive observable supervisory behaviors, perceptions, and interactions lead to exceptional feelings of employee job satisfaction that promotes relationships, motivation, and organizational performance. Eisenberger et al. (2002) supported the assumptions of Herzberg et al. that supervision is extrinsic to the work itself. As supervisors are agents of the organization, measuring perceived supervisor support allows employers to take corrective action to ensure that employees view supervisors favorably and create stronger organizational connections (Eisenberger et al., 2002). Spector (1985) indicated that supervision has a strong relationship with employee job satisfaction and that measuring supervision is through demonstrable actions related to rewards and employee's perceptions of competence, fairness, and support. Smith and Shields (2013) supported Spector that perceived supervisor support is a measurement of both observable traits and perceived supportive behaviors under the collective umbrella of supervisor experiences. Smith and Shields advance Spector and Eisenberger et al.'s suggestion that perceptions and direct observations are collective experiences that potentially promote employee job satisfaction and organizational performance.

Positive employee perceptions of supervisor support increase levels of employee job satisfaction. Smith and Shields (2013) confirmed Herzberg et al.'s (1959) theory of

motivation that perceived experiences between employees and supervisors are statistically significant predictors of employee job satisfaction. Smith and Shields presented that despite supervision being an extrinsic factor, perceived supervisor support plays a role in increasing levels of employee job satisfaction. Vlachos, Panagopoulos, and Rapp (2013) extended Smith and Shields finding that significant positive correlations exist between levels of perceived supervisor support and employee job satisfaction. Vlachos et al. (2013) indicated that employee job satisfaction is both a direct and indirect result of supervisors demonstrating charismatic leader characteristics, which strengthen levels of employee job satisfaction through the promotion of corporate social responsibility (CSR) among employee groups. Smith and Shields and Vlachos et al. confirmed Herzberg et al. that supervisory interactions have a moderating effect on other areas related to employee job satisfaction; however, contrary to Herzberg et al. that perceptions of supervision can only increase or decrease levels of employee job dissatisfaction, Smith and Shields and Vlachos et al. suggested that perceived supervisor support is separate and apart from a factor of hygiene.

Employee job satisfaction is a factor of both employee perceptions of supervision and the work environment. Singh (2013), examining perceived leader competencies, concluded that a positive relationship exists between employee job satisfaction and leaders who are self-confident, adaptable, and maintain control. Metcalf and Benn (2013), contrary to Singh, found that employee job satisfaction positively correlated with organizational climate instead of perceived leader competencies. According to Metcalf and Benn, employee job satisfaction and organizational sustainability is a function of

supervisors and leaders extending their power of influence and supporting the development of dyadic relationships to engage teams. While Metcalf and Benn did not confirm Singh on the cause of employee job satisfaction, they suggested that organizational success is because of the ability of supervisors to create supportive organizational climates.

Supportive supervisory actions lead to improvements in organizational performance. Gupta, Kumar, and Singh (2014) examined supervisor support characteristics and concluded that when an organization creates an atmosphere of supervisor support that organizational performance improves because of improved levels of employee job satisfaction and meaningful work. Basuil, Manegold, NS Casper (2016) found that when supervisors exhibited supportive styles that subordinates perceived a shared reality and that organizational performance increased because of an emotional attachment to the organization. While Basuil et al. (2016) found that supportive supervisors created a shared reality with employees that strengthened affective commitment, Bhatnagar (2014) extended Gupta et al. (2014) finding that a high level of perceived supervisor support creates social capital and relationship networks that decrease voluntary employee turnover and improves organizational performance. Bhatnagar indicated that organizational performance improvement is because supervisor support is a factor in both intrinsic and extrinsic supervisory actions using stakeholder theory while Basuil et al. applied social identity theory to show that supervisor support strengthens interpersonal relationships as an extrinsic job factor. The contradictory conclusions of Basuil et al. and Bhatnagar indicate that supervisor support increases

levels of organizational commitment through the creation of both extrinsic relationships and intrinsic psychological contracts.

The quality and style of supervisory communication influences employee job satisfaction, employee perceptions of supervisor support, and organizational performance. Employee satisfaction with supervisor communication helps to form relationships that strengthen the effect of human resource management and unit-level performance (Hartog, Boon, Verburg, & Croon, 2013), creates emotional bonds between the employee and the organization, and lowers incidents of intentional absenteeism (Dasgupta et al., 2013). Hartog et al. (2013) presented that the quality of supervisor communication strengthens essential employee and employer relationships. Dasgupta et al. (2013) examined perceptions of supervisory communication style and the value of supervisor support and indicated that positive benefits of supervisor support are the result of assertive supervisor characteristics, actions, and communication methods. When supervisors display assertive styles employees perceive positive levels of supervisor support, which reduce employee absenteeism and improve employee job satisfaction, commitment, performance, and productivity (Dasgupta et al., 2013). Dasgupta et al., contrary to Hartog et al., found that a combination of assertive supervisor communication styles and actions improved organizational performance rather than the single factor of communication quality. Hartog et al. and Dasgupta et al. indicated that a relationship existed between supervisor communication and organizational performance suggesting that organizational leadership can improve organizational performance by strengthening supervisor communication protocols.

Researchers disagree on the effect that communication has on employee perception of supervisor support, employee job satisfaction, and organizational success. McClean et al. (2013) studied American restaurant employees and determined that high levels of two-way communication throughout the organization lead to financial organizational success. Supervisory communication serves as a resource to foster employee creativity and innovation that increases levels of employee job satisfaction, enhances levels of perceived supervisor support, and allows organizations to meet strategic goals (Škerlavaj, Černe, & Dysvik, 2014). Contrary to McClean et al., Škerlavaj, Černe, and Dysvik (2014) identified that communication quality was an important element within perceived supervisor support that led to increased organizational innovation in a study of a Slovenian manufacturing firm. Mathieu, Neumann, Hare, and Babiak (2014), in a study of Canadian professionals, identified that positive levels of employee job satisfaction extend beyond supervisor communication. Mathieu et al. (2014), contrary to Škerlavaj et al. and McClean et al, suggested that overt supervisor support is a motivator that influences employee job satisfaction and organizational performance more than perceived supervisor support. The contradictory findings of McClean et al., Škerlavaj et al., and Mathieu et al. align with Herzberg (1976) that cultural differences potentially alter motivator and hygiene relationships with employee job satisfaction and organizational performance.

Negative employee perceptions of supervisor support lead to lower levels of organizational performance. A significant association exists between the perception of abusive supervision, a reduction in organizational commitment, counterproductive work

behaviors, and organizational performance (Shoss, Eisenberger, Restubog, & Zagecnyk, 2013). Shoss et al. (2013) supported Nichols et al. (2016) that perceptions of supervisor support determine levels of organizational commitment. Nichols et al. indicated that positive supervisor communication formed positive relationships and increased organizational commitment where Shoss et al. presented that abusive supervisor communication changed the employee's view of the organization, altered the employee's organizational relationship, and lowered levels of organizational commitment. Leary et al. (2013) supported Shoss et al., in a study of dysfunctional supervisor characteristics and behaviors, and concluded that abusive supervisor behaviors and characteristics jeopardize organizational success because of decreased employee job satisfaction and because employees disengage from their work roles. Shoss et al. and Leary et al. reached a similar conclusion that declines in organizational performance are the result of negative employee perceptions of supervisor support suggesting that organizations should assess employee perceptions of supervisors to ensure organizational success.

A leadership strategy that includes supportive supervisors promotes organizational success. An effective leadership strategy should include supportive supervision that focuses on the psychological wellbeing of employees (Robertson, Birch, & Cooper, 2012). Robertson et al. (2012) found that supportive supervisors who provide meaningful and motivating work improve organizational financial performance from lower voluntary employee turnover, higher employee energy, productivity, and engagement. Škerlavaj et al. (2014) supported Robertson et al. that supportive supervision and leadership strategies lead to financial success, but Robertson et al.,

contrary to Škerlavaj et al, concluded that financial success is from extrinsic control mechanisms and supervisor communication rather than to intrinsic workforce engagement. Škerlavaj et al. and Robertson et al. both suggested that organizational financial success is attributable to supportive leadership styles.

Supportive supervision is a leadership style that motivates employees. A leadership style is a consistent pattern of perceived supervisory behavior (Thahier, Ridjal, & Risani, 2014). Buble, Juras, and Matic (2014) indicated that leadership styles are inherent supervisory traits. Buble et al. (2014) found that supportive supervision is an overt leadership style that enhances organizational goal achievement by increasing employee motivation contrary to Herzberg et al. (1959) that supervision can only decrease levels of employee job dissatisfaction. Thahier, Ridjal, and Risani (2014) supported Buble et al. that leadership styles enhance employee job satisfaction, employee motivation, and organizational performance levels. Contrary to Buble et al. that overt leadership styles enhance motivation factors, Thahier et al. (2014) found that leadership styles are from perceived supervisor activities that enhance motivational factors. Buble et al. and Thahier et al. suggested that both observed and perceived supervisor support activities are motivational factors.

Recognition. Recognition is both a tangible and an intangible factor that drives behavior and increases levels of employee job satisfaction as an element of perceived supervisor support. Herzberg et al. (1959) concluded that recognition functions as an intrinsic motivational construct of employee job satisfaction that confirms job achievement, although it requires extrinsic facilitation through relationships and

interactions with supervision, colleagues, and peers. Spector (1985) confirmed Herzberg et al. that recognition correlates with supervision and measured recognition as a perceived job characteristic through direct supervisory feedback, acts of perceived supervisory support, and rewards. Eisenberger et al. (2002) indicated that recognition is part of measuring perceived supervision through the constructs of mistakes and performance as perceived support in these areas permits goal achievement that increases rewards expectancy, employee job satisfaction, and organizational commitment. Buble et al. (2014) found that recognition is a supervisor-driven activity that energizes the workforce, produces feelings of employee job satisfaction, and improves organizational performance. These collective findings align with Herzberg et al. that the positive sense of achievement, coupled with the positive sense of recognition, are two of the essential elements required to increase levels of employee job satisfaction and organizational performance.

Physical and psychological rewards are antecedents of employee job satisfaction and voluntary employee turnover. Zopiatis et al. (2014) identified themes confirming Herzberg et al. (1959) that recognition is an antecedent of employee job satisfaction that serves as psychic income, compensates for undesirable job characteristics, and mitigates voluntary employee turnover. Hofmans et al. (2013) indicated that recognition in the form of psychological rewards is an antecedent of employee job satisfaction, and in the absence of recognition voluntary employee turnover may increase. Zopiatis et al. confirmed Hofmans et al. that when the motivation factor of recognition combines with an extrinsic hygiene factor in the form of a reward that a significant predictive

relationship forms between recognition and employee job satisfaction that causes voluntary employee turnover to decline. Hofmans et al. and Zopiatis et al. support Herzberg et al. that psychological and perceived recognition, as an act of supervision, may predict positive increases in employee job satisfaction that benefits the organization. Zopiatis et al. and Hofmans et al., through their contradictory findings that recognition, when combined with financial rewards, is significantly predictive of employee job satisfaction and declines in voluntary employee turnover, suggested that motivation and hygiene factors create a synthesis that produces beneficial organizational results.

Researchers disagree on the effect of recognition and supervisor support at the individual level. An important finding of Hofmans et al. (2013) was that the psychology of hygiene factors is motivational in some people and increases levels of employee job satisfaction while lowering levels of voluntary turnover. Mintz-Binder (2014) supported Hofmans et al. (2013) that psychological recognition and supportive supervision lead to increased employee job satisfaction, lessens job role issues, and lowers levels of voluntary employee turnover intentions. Mintz-Binder (2014), contrary to Hofmans et al. (2013), that hygiene enhances employee job satisfaction noted that when the motivational factor of recognition combines with supervisor support, it becomes an antecedent of the employee job satisfaction that reduces levels of voluntary employee turnover across all types of individuals. Hofmans et al. and Mintz-Binder suggested that recognition alone has lower levels of significance and that employers must understand the values and culture that drive individual performance.

Job sector and cultural differences affect the perception and value of recognition.

Priya and Eshwar (2014) in an examination of the public and private sector Indian banking companies found that extrinsic economic and financial rewards increased employee job satisfaction and employee motivation. Skaalvik and Skaalvik (2014) examined Norwegian teachers and found that perceived autonomy is an intrinsic reward and form of recognition that increased the levels of employee job satisfaction and employee engagement. Purohit and Bandyopadhyay (2014) examined employee job satisfaction among public sector Indian medical officers and found that recognition is less motivational than job security and the work itself. Skaalvik and Skaalvik, contrary to Priya and Eshwar that financial rewards provide a positive increase in employee job satisfaction and positive organizational outcomes, concluded that extrinsic rewards produced no organizational benefit. The contradictory findings of Priya and Eshwar, Purohit and Bandyopadhyay, and Skaalvik and Skaalvik confirm Herzberg (1976) that cultural and job differences potentially alter the motivator and hygiene relationships with employee job satisfaction and that a quantitative method assumes a single continuum where employee job satisfaction is the opposite of employee job dissatisfaction.

Recognition increases organizational performance and reduces voluntary employee turnover as an extension of employee job satisfaction and supportive supervision. Recognition and rewards are acts driven by supervision and are antecedents of employee job satisfaction that decrease voluntary employee turnover intentions (Scanlan & Still, 2013). Scanlan and Still (2013) found that a confluence of remuneration, recognition, supportive supervision, and cognitive demands increased

levels of employee job satisfaction and lowered employee voluntary turnover intentions. Contrary to Scanlan and Still that a relationship exists between recognition and employee voluntary turnover intentions, Bhatnagar (2014) concluded that pay satisfaction in the absence of recognition mediated voluntary employee turnover intentions. Bhatnagar indicated that recognition and rewards increased firm performance levels and that the efficient use of public recognition, rewards, and supportive supervision are more effective in times of economic slowdown. Scanlan and Still, and Bhatnagar advance the suggestions of Eisenberger et al. (2002) that high levels of perceived supervisor support combined with recognition and rewards increases levels of organizational performance.

Recognition can produce both employee and organizational benefits when it is a leader led activity. Tillott, Walsh, and Moxham (2013) concluded that when recognition is a management led activity its use increases perceived personal value and enhances levels of employee engagement. Islam and Ali (2013) noted that recognition and supervisor support are predictive of driving employee motivation and engagement. Asegid, Belachew, and Yimam (2014) identified that when supervisors practice recognition that its presence is a significant predictor of employee job satisfaction. Contrary to the positive outcomes identified by Tillott et al. (2013), Anleu and Mack (2013) suggested that the use of recognition within the judiciary is insignificant and does not load onto any employee job satisfaction predictor as an intrinsic, extrinsic, workplace-organizational, or work-life balance factor. Strom, Sears, and Kelly (2014), contrary to Anleu and Mack, supported Asegid et al. (2014) suggesting that creating sustainable organizations requires supervisor support and the positive use of recognition

and rewards to create a motivated and productive workforce. Anleu and Mack through their contradictory findings suggested that the use of recognition among autonomous positions such as the judiciary is a hygiene factor that neither increases nor decreases levels of employee job satisfaction.

In some work environments, horizontal recognition (recognition provided by peers) compensates for missing supervisor provided recognition. Kok and Muula (2013) indicated that primary job dissatisfiers are a lack of recognition and a lack of supervision. In the absence of formal supervisor supported recognition employees derive job satisfaction from work-related social networks, clients, and colleagues (Chenoweth, Merlyn, Jeon, Tait, & Duffield, 2014). Liang (2014) found that in institutional work contexts, non-recognition or misrecognition made meaningful work obsolete and led to counter-productive performance results. Chenoweth et al. (2014) supported the assumptions of Liang that horizontal or personnel based recognition is of significance and indicated that horizontal recognition mitigates negative work behaviors because of comparable skill sets. Liang supported the assumptions of Kok and Muula that the absence of recognition led to poor performance and asserted that overt recognition was an intrinsic job satisfier and that recognition provided by peers is an extrinsic job satisfier. Although Chenoweth et al., Kok and Muula, and Liang reached similar conclusions, Chenoweth et al. identified themes confirming that intrinsic factors related to the job itself were stronger motivators than intraorganizational recognition from colleagues. The collective researcher findings indicate that power from the collective rather than a

hierarchical power accounts for positive organizational performance outcomes independent of the recognition source.

Employee turnover. Understanding the relationship that exists between employee turnover, employee turnover intentions, perceived supervisor support (McClellan et al., 2013; Tüzün et al., 2014), and employee job satisfaction (Jehanzeb et al., 2015) is important to organizational success. Data from the U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics (2016) indicated that voluntary employee turnover within the hospitality industry is higher than other industries and averages 50%. Koch et al. (2012) outlined that a relationship exists between supervisor support and employee turnover and that supportive tactics and establishing effective employee social networks lower employees' intentions to leave the organization. McClellan et al. (2013) suggested that voluntary employee turnover could decrease and allow the QSR industry to recapture millions of dollars of lost profits on an annual basis if supervisors understand employee expectations and are willing and able to make behavioral change. Tüzün et al. (2014) confirmed Koch et al. and highlighted that a factor of voluntary employee turnover intentions is low levels of perceived supervisor support that leads to high levels of employee stress and anxiety. These researchers through their collective findings suggested that organizational success is a function of understanding the relationships that exist between voluntary employee turnover and perceived supervisor support.

Supervisor support influences voluntary employee turnover as both a motivator and hygiene factor. Low levels of supervisor support are predictive of voluntary employee turnover and ranks second as a cause of employee job dissatisfaction and fifth

as a cause of low levels of employee job satisfaction (Atchison & Lefferts, 1972).

Holtom, Tidd, Mitchell, and Lee (2013) presented that supervisors failing to support and form relationships with employees in the early stages of employment leads to (a) low levels of job embeddedness, (b) job dissatisfaction, and (c) voluntary employee turnover. Holtom et al. (2013), contrary to Atchison and Lefferts (1972) that supervisor support is a direct antecedent of employee turnover, found that supervision moderates the relationship between employee job satisfaction and voluntary employee turnover. Contrary to Atchison and Lefferts that supervisor support is both a motivator and hygiene factor, Holtom et al. supported Herzberg et al. (1959) that supervisor support is a hygiene factor. Atchison and Lefferts indicated that supervisor support affects employee turnover as both a motivator and hygiene factor and suggested that the ability of supervisors to allocate resources is an intervening variable.

Employee job satisfaction and employee job dissatisfaction affect voluntary employee turnover. Herzberg (1968) indicated that low levels of employee job satisfaction or high levels of employee job dissatisfaction cause voluntary employee turnover. Tatsuse and Sekine (2013) indicated that relationships exist between employee job dissatisfaction, stress-related mental health problems, and job stress. Davis (2013) identified themes indicating that poor compensation and low employee morale lead to employee dissatisfaction and voluntary employee turnover. Contrary to Tatsuse and Sekine, and Davis, AlBattat and Som (2014) concluded that when employees are unable to meet the expectations of employees through expected working conditions and salary that relationships break down between employees and supervisors and that employees

voluntarily leave the organization. Despite the contradictory conclusions of AlBattat and Som, Tatsuse and Sekine, and Davis, all of the researchers support Herzberg et al. (1959) and Herzberg suggesting that management's responsibility is to reduce the level of employee job dissatisfaction by understanding the factors that trigger employees' intentions to leave.

Supervisor support moderates psychological factors that increase employee turnover among international employees. Nguyen, Felfe, and Fookan (2014) identified that the lack of remuneration, job autonomy, and supervisor support caused voluntary employee turnover in international job assignments. Nguyen et al. (2014) suggested that when supervisors do not adequately support international employees that the employee is more likely to leave the organization due to a lack of normative commitment. Bhatnagar (2014) identified that the absence of an employee and employer psychological connection led to voluntary employee turnover among international workers. Bhatnagar's examination of relationships between supervisor support, recognition, and voluntary employee turnover supported Nguyen et al., indicating that supportive supervision serves an important role in the prevention of voluntary employee turnover. Nguyen et al. presented that a high level of supervisor support decreases voluntary employee turnover because the employee experiences an increased level of obligation to the organization and affective emotion contrary to Bhatnagar that voluntary employee turnover decreases because of a reciprocity dynamic between the employee and the supervisor. Nguyen et al. and Bhatnagar suggested that supervisor support positively alters employee behavior.

The relationship between supervisor support and employee job satisfaction mitigates voluntary employee turnover. Koch et al. (2012) concluded that employees experience lower levels of employee job satisfaction and increased intentions to quit when they believe that their supervisors are not emotionally supportive. Gillet, Gagné, Sauvagère, and Fouquereau (2013) reinforced Koch et al. presenting that supervisor support promotes employee job satisfaction and personal responsibility as a method to lower voluntary employee turnover. Mintz-Binder (2014) concluded that the intention to quit was a supervisor led activity through the development of engaged and satisfied employees. The collective findings of Koch et al., Gillet et al. (2013), and Mintz-Binder align with Herzberg (1968) suggesting that the intention to leave an organization decline as supervisors move employees' attitudes along the continuum from employee job dissatisfaction to employee job satisfaction.

The quality of supervisor support influences employee job satisfaction and voluntary employee turnover. DeTienne et al. (2012) found that abusive supervision and dead-end jobs increase (a) levels of moral stress, (b) levels of employee job dissatisfaction, and (c) levels of voluntary intentions to quit. Nichols et al. (2016) determined that increasing the development of supportive exchange relationships between employees and supervisors increased employee job satisfaction and decreased voluntary employee turnover. Nichols et al. found that perceived supervisor support generates the ability for employees to handle the stress of interpersonal demands, while DeTienne et al. determined that abusive supervision generates moral stress as an environmental variable. Despite the contradictory effect that supervisors have on types of

employee stress, Nichols et al. and DeTienne et al. supported Herzberg et al. (1959) that extrinsic job factors related to supervision affect the attitudes and behaviors of employees.

Supportive supervision mitigates job stress related to voluntary employee turnover. Boyas, Wind, and Ruiz (2013) found that a decreased level of supervisory support was significantly associated with increased levels of employee emotional exhaustion that led to employee job stress and voluntary employee turnover. Li and Zhou (2013) noted that perceived organizational and supervisor support mitigated the work stress associated with employee turnover intentions and mental exhaustion. Customer interactions increase job stress and contribute to higher levels of employee job dissatisfaction (Chiang et al., 2013). Boyas et al. (2013) concluded that supervisor support facilitates relationships as a form of social capital extrinsic of the organization contrary to Li and Zhou that perceived supervisor and organizational support decreases emotional exhaustion as an intrinsic factor of motivation. Chiang et al. confirmed Li and Zhou that supportive supervision mitigates job stress, lowers levels of employee job dissatisfaction, and negates voluntary employee turnover. The research conclusions of Boyas et al., Li and Zhou, and Chiang et al. indicated that supervisor support mitigates voluntary employee turnover by helping employees to develop coping mechanisms to offset job stress.

Job factors, both inside and outside of the organization, affect employee turnover. Papinczak (2012) concluded that supportive supervision enhances employee job satisfaction by instilling a sense of personal wellbeing that lowers employees' intention to

leave the organization. The strength of supportive supervisory relationships prevent voluntary employee turnover by increasing levels of perceived job autonomy (Dysvik & Kuvaas, 2013). According to Dysvik and Kuvaas (2013), perceived supervisor support moderates voluntary employee turnover as a function of increased social interactions within the work environment; while Papinczak found that employee wellbeing increases the level of organizational commitment. Reduced employee motivation because of inadequate supervisor support is the primary cause of voluntary employee turnover (Patricia & Leonina-Emilia, 2013). Patricia and Leonina-Emilia confirmed Dysvik and Kuvaas, and Papinczak that relationships exist between supervisor support and voluntary employee turnover. Contrary to Papinczak, Dysvik and Kuvaas, and Patricia and Leonina-Emilia indicated that self-fulfillment and job autonomy as intrinsic job factors enhance employee job satisfaction and performance outcomes more than extrinsic job factors. Dysvik and Kuvaas, and Patricia and Leonina-Emilia suggested that lowering levels of voluntary employee turnover is a function of understanding what is important to the employee at a personal level.

Voluntary employee turnover affects organizational performance and profitability. Ahmad, Bosua, and Scheepers (2014) identified voluntary employee turnover as a primary business concern because of the affect of knowledge loss. Daghfous, Belkhodja, and Angell (2013) noted that preventing management turnover and the disruption of knowledge transfer is an important part of sustaining organizational performance and profitability. According to Hancock et al. (2013), involuntary employee turnover is as negatively related to organizational performance as is voluntary employee turnover.

Evans, Luo, and Nagarajan (2014) confirming Daghfous et al. (2013) and Hancock et al. that involuntary turnover affects organization performance found that a negative correlation existed between unnecessary management change and organizational performance because of the ability of tenured managers to boost organizational performance during poor economic cycles. Contrary to Herzberg (1968) that employee motivation has the greatest potential influence on organizational profitability, the findings of Ahmad et al. (2014), Daghfous et al., Evans et al. (2014), and Hancock et al. suggested that organizational profitability is a function of retaining employee knowledge.

Researchers disagree on the predictability of voluntary employee turnover. Russell (2013) found that flaws exist in predictive models of voluntary employee turnover related to supervisor support, employee job satisfaction, and other variables. Employee job satisfaction, performance, and voluntary employee turnover is predictable by maximizing conscientiousness (Giacopelli, Simpson, Dalal, Randolph, & Holland, 2013). Russell did not support Giacopelli et al. (2013) that voluntary employee turnover is predictable, although Russell confirmed Giacopelli et al. that a relationship exists between employee job satisfaction and voluntary employee turnover. The findings of Russell and Giacopelli et al. supported Herzberg et al. that mitigating voluntary employee turnover is a function of supervisors changing employee attitudes.

Researchers disagree on the cause of involuntary employee turnover. Hur (2013) presented that involuntary employee turnover is because of poor employee performance, and any negative organizational effects are unimportant. McClean et al. (2013) suggested that unsupportive supervision is detrimental to the organization and causes employees to

form self-destructive behaviors that lead to involuntary turnover. Hur identified that voluntary employee turnover is from employee job dissatisfaction contrary to McClean et al. that presented a relationship exists between employee job dissatisfaction, voluntary employee turnover, and involuntary employee turnover. Hur contradicted McClean et al. regarding the cause of involuntary employee turnover; however, their findings aligned with Herzberg et al. (1959) suggesting that supervisors can lower voluntary employee turnover by working to increase levels of employee job satisfaction.

Organizational Profitability

Several researchers have examined how companies define organizational profitability. Bannister and Machuga (2013) indicated that the definition of net income varies across industries and that an examination of organizational profitability is necessary to understand how companies define earnings and measure financial success. Aremu (2013) outlined that the creation of organizational profitability is when a firm generates positive cash flows, from revenues received, that exceed cash outflow. Brockman and Russell (2012) extended Aremu (2013) on organizational profitability and presented that earnings before interest, taxes, depreciation, and amortization (EBITDA) is an objective measure of organizational profitability because EBITDA is free of accounting, financing, and tax related decisions. According to Muhammad (2013), at a fundamental level EBITDA provides a company's earnings potential. Revilla and Fernández (2013) examined organizational profitability and found that EBITDA is neutral to the financial organizational structure and is an accurate measurement of

organizational profitability. Researchers indicate that EBITDA is a measurement of organizational profitability.

An objective measurement of organizational profitability is EBITDA. Brockman and Russell (2012) found that calculating EBITDA is recognizing net income as a function of revenue and then adding the non-operating expenses of depreciation, amortization, interest, and taxes. According to Kaplan and Rauh (2013) the definition of revenue is pre-tax market income that results from a sale to a customer, a capital gain, or other income derived from labor. Hartzell, Sun, and Titman (2014), similar to Brockman and Russell, stated that calculating organizational profitability, (EBITDA), begins by recognizing gross earnings, (income net of expenses), and adding in the charges of interest, taxes, depreciation, and amortization. Kaplan and Rauh, and Hartzell et al. (2014) extended Brockman and Russell and demonstrated the value of EBITDA is that its calculation removes non-operational expenses based on the management's preference of financial arrangements. The findings of Kaplan and Rauh, Hartzell et al., and Brockman and Russell indicate that calculating EBITDA removes nonoperational, subjective, and discretionary decisions.

Calculating organizational profitability serves several purposes. Brockman and Russell (2012) found that EBITDA provides a view of an organization's core profitability, and EBITDA is useful for determining company valuations, assessing the ability of a company to service debt, and to estimate cash flow. Affirming Brockman and Russell, Lyons (2015) stated that EBITDA is an accurate valuation metric that describes organizational profitability. Alcalde, Fávero, and Takamatsu (2013) clarified that

organizational profitability is income net of expenses, and EBITDA is a benchmark useful for making inter-company comparisons, affirming Brockman and Russell. Subramaniam (2014) described EBITDA as gross organizational profitability prior to capital investment costs, nonrecurring costs, or non-cash transaction costs. Subramaniam extended Brockman and Russell that EBITDA and organizational profitability are measures of business value, contrary to Alcalde et al.'s (2012) view that EBITDA as a measure of organizational profitability is for evaluating competing companies from the same business sector. Subramaniam, and Brockman and Russell suggested that EBITDA and organizational profitability are future oriented and serve as measures of organizational viability.

The use of EBITDA standardizes the measurement of organizational profitability across comparable companies. Bork and Sidak (2013) presented that EBITDA calculations provide a view of operational profitability free of capital expenditures. Muhammad (2013) suggested that using EBITDA and removing the capital expenditures of depreciation and interest from financial reports permits intercompany comparisons based on operating activities and controllable costs as an indicator of economic profit. Bork and Sidak disagreed with Muhammad, with respect to EBITDA as an indicator of economic profit, stating that EBITDA do not measure market power or economic profits. Bork and Sidak and Muhammad reached contradictory conclusions with respect to EBITDA as an indicator of economic profit with Bork and Sidak concluding that adjustments to interest, taxes, and depreciation in EBITDA calculations exaggerates a firm's profitability, while Muhammad concluded that when a company fails to account

for depreciation and amortization expenses, by using EBITDA calculations, it distorts the view of organizational profitability. Despite the potential of disguising risk, Bork and Sidak, and Muhammad agree that using EBITDA to measure organizational profitability provides a method of making intra-organizational comparisons between defined companies.

Calculating EBITDA is a financially neutral way to determine an organization's competitive structure and value. Revilla and Fernández (2013) indicated that EBITDA is an organization's return on assets and that EBITDA is financially neutral to the organization's structure. According to Revilla and Fernández, EBITDA represents an organization's competitive advantage and shows that a company can generate profits in a state of disequilibrium. Androsova, Kruglova, and Kozub (2014) presented that evaluating an organization's financial status by calculating EBITDA determines the organization's profitability, financial performance, and value. Androsova et al. (2014) supported Revilla and Fernández that EBITDA is a measure of an organization's current profitability and financial performance. Contrary to Revilla and Fernández that EBITDA is representative of an organization's competitive advantage, Androsova et al. presented that EBITDA represents the interests of the organization's stakeholders. The findings of Revilla and Fernández and Androsova et al. indicated that EBITDA is reflective of an organization's ability to generate immediate income.

Some researchers have concerns about the validity of EBITDA as an accurate reflection of financial stability. Folster, Camargo, and Vicente (2015) indicated that organizations that use EBITDA as an expression of profitability (a) provide timely

financial forecasts, (b) show higher returns on equity, and (c) show higher liquidity ratios. Carvalho, Ribeiro, Cirani, & Cintra (2016) stated that EBITDA is a traditional expression of an organization's profit margin. Carvalho et al. (2016) argued that although EBITDA is reflective of financial performance, its use does not take into consideration an organization's ability to generate a return on revenue or its cost management capacity. Folster et al. (2015) found that the use of EBITDA produces overly optimistic financial reports and that its use can lead to costly and erroneous financial decisions supporting Carvalho et al. that informed financial decisions include the use of EBITDA, return on assets, and return on equity calculations. Contrary to Folster et al. that investors should view EBITDA cautiously as organizations that use EBITDA have less accurate financial disclosure and lower net margins, Carvalho et al. found that companies with high levels of EBITDA were more innovative, resilient, and are able to sustain higher levels of financial performance.

Transition

The material I presented in Section 1 included (a) an overview of the background of the study problem, (b) a review of the business problem, and (c) the purpose of the study. The material I presented in Section 1 included the nature of the study with the research question and hypothesis, the theoretical framework, study definitions, assumptions, limitations, and delimitations. Last, Section 1 contained a critical analysis and synthesis of the literature sources and a critical review of the literature related to the study's variables: employee job satisfaction, employee perceptions of supervisor support, and organizational profitability.

In Section 2, I (a) address the nature and structure of the research study, (b) clarify the role of the researcher, (c) clarify the participants, and (d) outline the research method and design. I provide (a) justification of the population and sampling method, (b) a description of the survey instrument and techniques, and (c) the analysis methods. Finally, I examine the reliability and validity of the procedures of the study. In Section 3, the data I present contains (a) an overview of the study, (b) study findings, (c) application to professional practice, (d) implications for social change, (e) recommendations for action and future research, (f) reflections, (g) a summary, (h) and study conclusions.

Section 2: The Project

Survival analysis data indicates the median lifespan of a restaurant is approximately 4.5 years, with 50% closing within the first 5 years (Luo & Stark, 2015). Restaurant failures often result from management inaction that results in employee job dissatisfaction, which, in turn, leads to increased voluntary employee turnover (Guchait et al., 2015; McClean et al., 2013). The absence of supervisor support results in the employee belief that the organization does not value their contributions, which lowers levels of employee job satisfaction and organizational commitment (Eisenberger et al., 2002).

Purpose Statement

The purpose of this quantitative correlational study was to examine the relationship between employee job satisfaction, employee perceptions of supervisor support, and organizational profitability. The independent variables were employee job satisfaction and employee perceptions of supervisor support. The dependent variable was organizational profitability. The targeted population comprised current employees of QSR franchise locations in Houston, Texas. The results of this study may provide supervisors expanded knowledge of employee perceptions of supervisor support and job satisfaction which they can use to increase organizational profitability. In addition, positive social change may include increased levels of organizational profitability, which could provide opportunities for employers to actively support social programs and the development of local community programs.

Role of the Researcher

The role of the researcher in the data collection process in a quantitative study is to enhance study robustness and applicability by ensuring an adequate sample size, as well as comparability, consistency, and reliability of the data (Kyvik, 2013). The role of the researcher during the data collection process also includes mitigating selection and social desirability bias such that the researcher is not encouraging one outcome over another (Daigneault, 2014). My role was to (a) ensure an adequate sample size, (b) ensure data consistency and reliability, and (c) mitigate bias.

I had (a) knowledge of the QSR industry, (b) knowledge of employee job satisfaction, (c) knowledge of employee perceptions of supervisor support, (d) knowledge of organizational profitability, and (e) a work-related relationship with the industry and employees of the QSR franchisor. From November 1991 until March in 2008 I resided in the geographic area of the study (Houston, Texas), was an employee of the QSR franchisor as well as a supervisor, and was a peer of some of the potential members of the study's population. I have never undertaken a formal academic study as research, but given my professional experience of 39 years within the QSR industry, I possess a significant understanding of the QSR industry. I was familiar with metrics used to measure items such as employee job satisfaction, employee perceptions of supervisor support, and organizational profitability. While conducting the study, I resided in Houston, Texas; however, I was neither an employee of the franchisee, nor an employee of the franchisor. According to Daigneault (2014), researchers have an obligation to maintain objectivity and to collect data from a diverse population. Despite having a

working relationship with employees of the franchisor and having access to potential participants in the study, I had the ability to be an objective researcher.

Collecting data anonymously through an online survey can mitigate bias (Allen, & Mueller, 2013). While I possessed a relationship with the industry, the topic, and had access to the participant population, as a researcher, I mitigated bias by not having direct or indirect contact with any member of the study's population, and by collecting data through an online survey wherein participants remained anonymous. The collection of data was anonymous because no one, including myself, knew who participated in the survey. Establishing a working relationship with human resource personnel can facilitate participant access and information distribution (Bhatnagar, 2014), so my only contact with the QSR organization from which I selected participants was with the chief people officer (CPO). Contact with the CPO was necessary to facilitate information distribution to participants about how to access the online survey. Survey completion was anonymous.

I adhered to the ethical principles identified in the *Belmont Report*. Administrators of the *Belmont Report* presented protocol to respect individual's right to make their own decisions, show beneficence toward participants, and provide justice through equal treatment (U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, 1979). Participants understood (a) their right to voluntarily participate or not participate in the study, (b) that this study was meant to do no harm to any individual, and (c) that eligible participants had equal opportunity to participate in the study.

Participants

To be eligible, participants in the study were (a) at least 18 years of age or older, (b) current employees of QSR franchise locations in Houston, Texas, (c) not part of a vulnerable population, and (d) able to provide informed consent. According to Hunter (2015), potential research participants should receive information that highlights important study details and be able to willingly participate. Harriss and Atkinson (2014) indicated that the criteria for eligible research study participants are that participants (a) cannot be substantially burdened by study procedures, (b) should receive a potential benefit from the research, and (c) are from an appropriate sample population. Eligible research study participants are those that have the knowledge and experience to participate and have the ability to understand the context of providing informed consent (Wallace & Sheldon, 2015). The participants identified for the sample of the population had sufficient knowledge of employee job satisfaction and employee perceptions of supervisor support to respond to the survey questions.

My strategy for obtaining access to study participants was to work with the CPO of the franchise organization who was the head of the human resources department. Working with organizational leadership helps to (a) gain participant access, (b) increase respondents' candidness, and (c) increase levels of participant engagement (Hauck, Winsett, & Kuric, 2013). Using the executive leadership of an organization to contact managers may increase the participation rate within research studies (Yeh, 2013). Working with human resource department personnel facilitates the access to the participant population and increases questionnaire response rates to secure an adequate

sample size (Bhatnagar, 2014). The CPO, through the data use agreement (see Appendix A) granted me access to the participant population for employees 18 years of age and older to complete anonymous surveys regarding employee job satisfaction and employee perceptions of supervisor support. The CPO agreed to communicate organizational permission for voluntary participation to potential study participants. The management of participating QSR locations distributed introductory letters that contain a succinct description of the study and questionnaire access information to eligible participants.

My strategy to establish a working relationship with study participants was to (a) create a collaborative and respectful working relationship with the CPO of the franchise organization, (b) avoid personal relationships by working with policy makers, and (c) build trust through a validated informed consent process. Hauck, Winsett, and Kuric (2013) noted that respectful working relationships between research facilitators increase participation rates. A method to establish a working relationship with participants is by fostering trust through the use of an informed consent protocol validated by an ethics committee, and by avoiding developing personal participant relationships (Dogui, Boiral, & Gendron, 2013). Collaborative relationships between those conducting research and policy makers expedite the research process (Bordons, Aparicio, González-Albo, & Díaz-Faes, 2015). I developed a working relationship with the CPO to eliminate the need to have direct contact with participants of the study. Via the CPO, managers of the 86 QSR franchise locations in Houston, Texas, received letters of introduction and informed consent for internal distribution to organizational employees.

Research Method and Design

Research Method

For the study I selected a quantitative method. The quantitative method (a) is rigorous, (b) can provide generalizable data, and (c) is used for reaching conclusions based on statistical significance (Yilmaz, 2013). Smartt and Ferreira (2014) indicated that a quantitative method is used to determine if a hypothesis should be accepted or rejected. A quantitative method is appropriate when (a) examining variable relationships, (b) producing data in a numeric form to test a theory, and (c) testing variable relationships (Tarhan & Yilmaz, 2014). For the study, I gathered and analyzed ordinal data from a sample population to test a hypothesis regarding variable relationships. The quantitative method was appropriate for the study to examine the relationship between the independent variables of employee job satisfaction and employee perceptions of supervisor support, and the dependent variable of organizational profitability.

Alternative methods for studying employee job satisfaction, employee perception of supervisor support, and organizational profitability included qualitative and mixed methods. The qualitative method is for non-linear research requiring the researcher to interpret qualitative data based on non-binary responses in situations where the researcher seeks to understand the specific meaning behind behaviors and actions (Lopez, Callao, & Ruisanchez, 2015). The qualitative method involves researcher-based interviews and observations to describe phenomena and identify complex structures and interactions (Zachariadis et al., 2013). Researchers may use the qualitative method for describing and quantifying phenomena (Elo et al., 2014). A mixed method is useful when a single data

source is not sufficient to understand a topic, and when generalizing exploratory findings requires a quantitative element (Fassinger & Morrow, 2013). According to Venkatesh, Brown, and Bala (2013), a mixed method is useful for triangulating data to provide greater insight and understanding of phenomena of interest than is possible through the use of only a qualitative or quantitative method. A mixed method is a combination of quantitative and qualitative components to fill a gap that otherwise exist between methods (Zhang and Watanabe-Galloway, 2014). A qualitative method was not appropriate for this study because observations and descriptions are not directly measurable, and determining statistically significant variable relationships was not possible. A mixed method was not appropriate for the study because it necessarily included a qualitative component.

Research Design

For the study, I chose a correlational research design utilizing the Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient (Pearson's r) and Likert-scale data. Likert-scale data is necessary for understanding associations between character or personality traits when using data analysis procedures encompassing a correlational design with Pearson's r (Murray, 2013). According to Prion and Haerling (2014), the use of a correlational design with Pearson's r allows for measuring (a) variable strength, (b) variable relationships, and (c) linear relationships within normally distributed data. A correlational design with Pearson's r measures the linear relationship between variables (Puth, Neuhäuser, & Ruxton, 2014). The appropriate design for examining the relationship between the independent variables of employee job satisfaction and employee

perceptions of supervisor support, and the dependent variable of organizational profitability was a correlational research design using Pearson's r . The alternative design choices were the causal-comparative and experimental quantitative designs.

The causal-comparative design was not appropriate for this study. Kelly and Ilozor (2013) have shown that a causal-comparative design is useful for identifying statistical relationships between two or more groups. A causal-comparative design compares existing variable relationships between groups (Skarmeas, Leonidou, & Saridakis, 2014). The causal-comparative design infers a cause and effect nature of variables where the manipulation of independent variables creates differential effects on the dependent variables within real-life contexts (Zakharov et al., 2016). For the purpose of this study, seeking a cause-effect relationship was not relevant as comparisons were within a single group.

The experimental design was likewise not appropriate for this study. The experimental design is useful for explaining differences in the effect sizes between groups when random participant assignment to control groups is possible (Henretty, Currier, Berman, & Levitt, 2014). Researchers that use an experimental design (a) randomize participants, (b) provide a control group, and (c) control for factor interactions (Callao, 2014). Yaripour, Shariatinia, Sahebdehfar, and Irandoukht (2015) showed that an experimental design is used for manipulating test variables or predicting outcomes based on intervention activities. For the purpose of this study, an experimental design was not appropriate because the manipulation of test variables was not a requirement to measure

potential results. The best suited research design was thus correlational and nonexperimental.

Population and Sampling

The study sample comprised the employees of 86 franchise QSRs within Houston, Texas. Eligible employees of each of the 86 franchise QSRs received an invitation to participate in the study. The population consisted of 1,832 potential participants that were 18 years of age or older. Gillet, Colombat, Michinov, Pronost, and Fouquereau (2013) concluded that supervisor support is predictive of employee job satisfaction and positive levels of employee job performance. Tüzün et al. (2014) noted that statistically significant relationships exist between perceived supervisor support, employee turnover intentions, and organizational profitability. Jehanzeb et al. (2015) found that measurable relationships exist between employee job satisfaction and employee turnover intentions among fast food franchise employees. The participants selected from the population should had knowledge of employee job satisfaction and employee perceptions of supervisor support to adequately answer the research question.

The sampling method for this study was nonprobabilistic using a convenience sampling technique. Nonprobabilistic sampling includes the use of a convenience sampling technique (Acharya, Prakash, Saxena, & Nigam, 2013). According to Acharya, Prakash, Saxena, and Nigam (2013), nonprobabilistic sampling is appropriate when unknown populations exist and when acquiring complete *a priori* population knowledge is not possible. Non-probabilistic sampling is for extending and deepening the knowledge of a sample population (Uprichard, 2013). Nonprobabilistic sampling is (a) opportunistic,

(b) inexpensive, (c) preferable for large-scale studies, and (d) useful when situations preclude the use of probability methods (Catania, Dolcini, Orellana, & Narayanan, 2015). A constraint within this study was that with a convenience sample there was a possibility of the data not representing the entire population. However, the use of nonprobabilistic sampling using a convenience sampling technique was justified to extend the knowledge of the sample population regarding relationships between employee job satisfaction and employee perceptions of supervisor support.

Nonprobabilistic sampling has both strengths and weaknesses. The strengths of nonprobabilistic sampling are (a) it provides cost effectiveness that exceed that of other methods, (b) it is a quick alternative for collecting surveys, and (c) it is ideal for use in web surveys (Erens et al., 2014). Nonprobabilistic sampling is acceptable for research that involves a specific and targeted sample (Stern, Bilgen, & Dillman, 2014). Catania, Dolcini, Orellana, and Narayanan (2015) outlined the strengths of nonprobabilistic sampling include the ability to collect valid data for examining variable relationships without a claim of generalizability, while achieving accuracy at parity with probabilistic sampling.

Weaknesses of nonprobabilistic sampling according to Stern et al. (2014) include selection bias and exclusion of some unknown portion of the population. Incomplete population representation is a weakness of nonprobabilistic sampling (Buseh, Kelber, Millon-Underwood, Stevens, & Townsend, 2014). Weaknesses of nonprobabilistic sampling are: (a) limited control over sample representativeness, (b) an inability to verify the accuracy of variable relationships, and (c) limited generalizability between groups

(Catania et al., 2015). Despite limitations of generalizability and sample representation, the use of nonprobabilistic sampling in the study allowed for: (a) efficient data collection, (b) analyzing variable relationships, and (c) achieving accurate results.

The specific sub-category of nonprobabilistic sampling for this study was convenience sampling. Convenience sampling is an opportunistic nonrandom technique where study participants believed to represent the population submit research study data to reach a predetermined number (Wilson, 2014). Convenience sampling is the most common sampling method and strengths include (a) the potential for accessing a population without requiring demographic or population data, (b) cost effectiveness, and (c) its use facilitates research when limitations exist because of population and investigator location (Acharya et al., 2013). A strength of convenience sampling is that its use allows for deepening the level of knowledge of a given sample population (Uprichard, 2013). Catania et al. (2015) indicated that the use of convenience sampling enables researchers to accurately examine variable relationships without concerns for generalizability.

The use of convenience sampling posed potential weaknesses. The use of convenience sampling limits generalizability beyond the sample population and limits the ability to measure and control for bias and variability (Acharya et al., 2013). Hays, Liu, and Kapteyn (2015) suggested that convenience sampling potentially results in low response rates. Weaknesses of convenience sampling are limits to generalizability between groups and that a larger sample is required for achieving the same power (Quan et al., 2014). Eisenberger et al. (2002), Buonocore and Russo (2013), and Leary et al.

(2013) studied employee job satisfaction, employee perception of supervisor support, and organizational profitability and indicated convenience sampling was preferred, achieved high participant response rates, and achieved acceptable confidence levels.

G*Power is a stand-alone statistical software package appropriate for use in social, behavioral, and biomedical sciences to conduct *a priori* sample size analysis for correlation and regression studies where a predetermined effect size and alpha level exist (Faul, Erdfelder, Lang, & Buchner, 2009). According to Cohen (1992), a researcher needs to know the appropriate sample size, from within a population, to obtain the desired power level and to test hypotheses. Determining an appropriate sample size is required for (a) analyzing specific problems, (b) alignment with specific research designs, and (c) achieving specific power levels (Desu, 2012). An appropriate sample size is necessary for achieving a desired level of accuracy and controlling bias (Hoffman, 2013). Button et al. (2013) presented that choosing an appropriate sample size controls Type I and Type II errors and allows for achieving a desired effect size, power level, and confidence level. I used G*Power version 3.1.9.2 to conduct a power analysis and determine the minimum appropriate sample size for this study. An *a priori* analysis using an effect size of $f = .15$ and $\alpha = .05$ indicated a minimum sample size of 68 participants to achieve a power of .80. The large available population of this study allowed for collecting surveys in excess of the minimum sample size to increase the strength and power of variable relationships. Collecting 146 surveys will increase the power to .99; therefore, the sample size for this study was between 68 and 146 participants as presented in Figure 1.

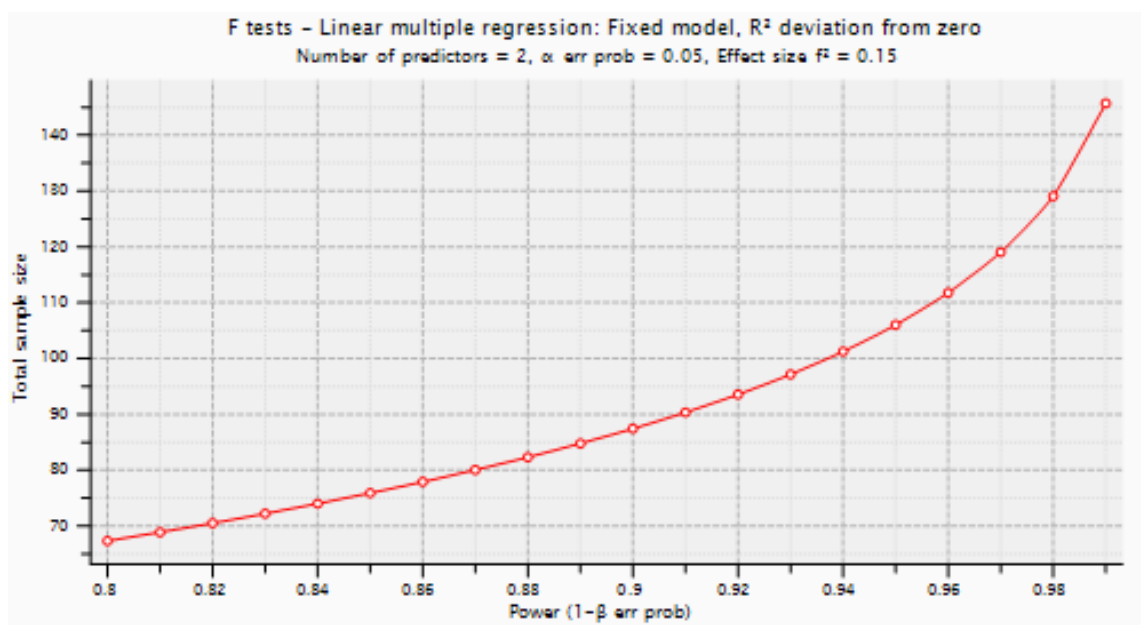


Figure 1. Power as a function of sample size.

The use of an appropriate effect size, alpha level, and power level was necessary for producing valid research results. The use of an effect size of .15, an alpha level of .05, and a power level of .80 achieves a balance between available resources, Type I errors, and Type II errors (Cohen, 1992). Large populations that respond to questions on a single occasion require smaller effect sizes (Westfall, Kenny, & Judd, 2014). Westfall et al. (2014) presented that an effect size of .15 and an alpha level of .05 achieves a power level of .80 with a sample size of 25 participants, while minimizing the chances of Type I and Type II errors. An effect size of .2 and an alpha level of .05 achieves a nominal statistical power of .80, while committing Type I or Type II errors are no greater than +/- 3% (Egbewale, Lewis, & Sim, 2014). Researchers conducting comparable studies to identify relationships between employee job satisfaction, employee perceptions of supervisor support, and organizational profitability found statistical significance when

utilizing an effect size of .15, an alpha level of .05, and a power level of .80 (Dasgupta et al., 2013; Guchait, et al., 2015; Sajjad et al., 2013). An effect size of .15, an alpha level of .05, and a power level of .80 were appropriate for use in this study.

Ethical Research

I developed an informed consent letter for the study. The elements required in an informed consent document are (a) the ability for study participants to provide informed consent, (b) whether study participation is voluntary or non-voluntary, (c) reason for the study, (d) probable risks and benefits, (e) time requirements, and (f) study procedures (Gupta, 2013). I outlined the study's risks, benefits, procedures, voluntary participation, and statement of informed consent in the informed consent letter. Researchers that adhere to ethical research practices allow potential study participants to confirm their decision to participate by signing an informed consent document prior to beginning any study activity (Gupta, 2013). I ensured the informed consent of each potential participant at the beginning of the online survey process, before each potential participant had access to the survey questions. As participants accessed the SurveyMonkey website they reviewed the statement of informed consent and acknowledged that they consented by accessing and providing answers to the survey.

Study participants should understand they may withdraw from a research study at any time (Harriss & Atkinson, 2015). Study participants received an informed consent letter to establish an understanding of how to withdraw from the study. Study participants could withdraw from the study by: (a) negatively responding to the informed consent statement on the online survey website, (b) ceasing to answer questions, or (c) closing the

survey website. Researchers can ethically destroy unused data when destruction is not an attempt to mislead and when destruction does not violate policies or procedures (Goza, 2013). I destroyed any collected data from participants that withdrew from the study.

Compensating research study participants may coerce or unduly influence participants (Labrique, Kirk, Westergaard, & Merritt, 2013). The purpose of the study was to gather direct participant knowledge of employee job satisfaction and employee perception of supervisor support. No study participant received compensation or any other incentives.

I developed procedures and processes to ethically protect the study participants that included (a) the use of an informed consent letter, (b) not surveying vulnerable populations, and (c) not compensating participants. I received training and certification from the National Institutes of Health (NIH) concerning protecting the dignity and rights of human study participants. Researchers can assure the ethical protection of participants through an informed consent process containing full research disclosure, maintaining confidentiality, and protecting the freedom of study participants (Labrique et al., 2013). Hammersley and Traianou (2014) presented that the informed consent process assures the ethical protection of participants by ensuring autonomy. When researchers use an online survey process it assures the ethical protection of participants by maintaining anonymity (Lowry, D'Arcy, Hammer, & Moody, 2016). I used an informed consent process that fully disclosed information about the study and placed participants of the study in a position of autonomy. I ensured the ethical protection of participants by maintaining anonymity through an online survey process.

An ethical imperative of social research is to protect the identity of research study participants and the confidentiality of research data by using data encryption, delinking participant identifiers from research data, and securing data storage devices (World Medical Association, 2013). I stored raw data, and research results, on an encrypted password protected computer flash drive in a fireproof safe for 5 years following the conclusion of the study to protect participant confidentiality. I conducted this study after receiving approval from Walden University's IRB (approval number 2016-09-01-174013-0500). I protected participant anonymity by utilizing an online survey process with the cookie-collection function disabled to prevent the recording of personal identifying participant markers, and to delink participant identifiers from research data.

Instrumentation

To measure the independent variable of employee job satisfaction I used the Spector (1985) *Job Satisfaction Survey* (JSS) (see Appendix B). The JSS is 36 questions covering nine constructs related to employee job satisfaction (Spector, 1985). The request to Dr. Paul Spector to use the JSS is included (see Appendix C). The consent from Dr. Paul Spector to use the JSS is included (see Appendix D). Measurement of the independent variable of employee perception of supervisor support used an adaptation of the Eisenberger et al. (1986) Survey of Perceived Organizational Support (SPOS) survey (see Appendix E). The adapted SPOS survey to Survey of Perceived Supervisor Support has eight questions covering five constructs of employee perceptions of supervisor support (Eisenberger et al., 2002). The consent from Dr. Robert Eisenberger to use the Survey of Perceived Organizational Support is included (see Appendix F). The request to

use the Survey of Perceived Organizational Support in its adapted state of Survey of Perceived Supervisor Support and the consent from Dr. Robert Eisenberger is included (see Appendix G). The consent to use QSR franchise organizational profitability data is included (see Appendix A). I used data for the calendar year 2015 provided by the QSR franchisee in conjunction with a Microsoft Excel© spreadsheet (see Appendix H) for measuring the dependent variable of organizational profitability, earnings before interest, taxes, depreciation, and amortization (EBITDA). Raw data is available by request from the researcher.

The JSS measures employee job satisfaction by examining nine dimensions or constructs of total satisfaction (Spector, 1985). The nine constructs of total satisfaction are (a) pay, (b) promotion, (c) supervision, (d) benefits, (e) contingent rewards, (f) operating procedures, (g) coworkers, (h) the nature of work, and (i) communication (Spector, 1985). The pay construct measures employee job satisfaction with (a) fair compensation, (b) raise frequency, (c) chances for a salary increase, and (d) organizational appreciation (Spector, 1985; Spector, 1997). The promotion construct measures employee job satisfaction with (a) chances for a promotion, (b) fairness of promotion, (c) speed of promotion, (d) promotion availability (Spector, 1985; Spector, 1997). The supervision construct measures employee job satisfaction with (a) supervisor competence, (b) fairness, (c) likeability, and (d) supervisor interest (Spector, 1985; Spector, 1997). The benefits construct measures employee satisfaction with (a) actual benefits received, (b) benefits being comparable to other companies, (c) equitable benefits, and (d) benefits availability (Spector, 1985).

The five remaining constructs of the JSS include (a) the contingent reward construct, which measures employee job satisfaction with recognition for doing a good job, (b) being appreciated, (c) availability of rewards, and (d) efforts being rewarded (Spector, 1985). The operating conditions construct measures employee job satisfaction with (a) rules and procedures, (b) organizational red tape, (c) quantity of work, and (d) administrative duties (Spector, 1985). The coworkers construct measures employee job satisfaction with (a) peers, (b) competence of others, (c) the level of enjoyment received from coworkers, and (d) level of internal conflict (Spector, 1985). The nature of work construct measures employee job satisfaction with (a) meaningfulness of the job, (b) tasks performed as part of the job, (c) ability to be proud of the job, and (d) enjoyability of the job (Spector, 1985). The communications construct measures employee job satisfaction with (a) the level of organizational communication, (b) organizational goals, (c) thoroughness of communication, and (d) communication clarity (Spector, 1985).

The JSS survey uses a 6-point Likert-type scale to collect ordinal data for each of the nine constructs of total employee job satisfaction, where one represents disagree very much, and six represents agree very much (Spector, 1985). The JSS was appropriate for use within this study because of its applicability and development for measuring levels of employee job satisfaction among human service personnel (Spector, 1985). Spector (1985) published data indicating the JSS is valid and reliable for examining a wide range of income settings. The collective works of Alpern et al. (2013), Buonocore and Russo (2013), and Bateh and Heyliger (2014) indicated that the use of the JSS has implications

for business leaders and that correlations may exist between employee job satisfaction, employee perception of supervisor support, and organizational performance.

The Survey of Perceived Supervisor Support measures total employee perception of supervisor support by examining five constructs (Eisenberger et al., 2002). The five constructs of employee perception of supervisor support are (a) employee wellbeing, (b) mistakes, (c) worsened performance, (d) requested special favors, and (e) consideration of employee's goals and opinions (Eisenberger et al., 2002). The wellbeing construct measures the employee perception of supervisor support on (a) dimensions of personal wellbeing, (b) the level of supervisor concern, and (c) supervisor opportunism (Eisenberger et al., 1986). The mistakes construct measures the employee perception of supervisor support on the dimension of the supervisor forgiving a mistake (Eisenberger et al., 1986). The worsened performance construct measures the employee perception of supervisor support on the availability of supervisory help when a problem exists (Eisenberger et al., 1986). The accommodation of special favors construct measures the employee perception of supervisor support when the employee needs help with special favors (Eisenberger et al., 1986). The goals and opinions construct measures the employee perception of supervisor support on dimensions of supervisor consideration of (a) employee's goals, (b) values, and (c) personal opinions (Eisenberger et al., 1986).

The Survey of Perceived Supervisor Support instrument uses a 7-point Likert-type scale to collect ordinal data for each of the dimensions of perceived supervisor support where zero represents strongly disagree, and six represents strongly agree (Eisenberger et al., 1986). The Survey of Perceived Supervisor Support was appropriate for use within

this study because of its ability to examine the levels of employee perception of supervisor support between a variety of employee types and its validity across a wide range of industries (Eisenberger et al., 1986; Eisenberger et al., 2002; Hutchison, 1997). The Survey of Perceived Supervisor Support is valid and reliable for examining levels of employee perception of supervisor support among retail service personnel, and its use established correlations between lower levels of voluntary employee turnover and higher levels of organizational profitability (Edmondson & Boyer, 2013; Eisenberger et al., 2002; Rhoades, Eisenberger, & Armeli, 2001). The Survey of Perceived Supervisor Support produces strong correlations between employee job satisfaction, employee perception of supervisor support, and organizational performance (Edmondson & Boyer, 2013; Eisenberger et al., 2002; Rhoades et al., 2001).

Organizational profitability, EBITDA, is a component of financial data provided by the QSR franchise organization. The single dependent variable of organization profitability is ratio data that measures organizational financial performance as a function of earnings before interest, taxes depreciation and amortization (Brockman & Russell, 2012). Organizational profitability, EBITDA, indicates (a) an organization's earning potential (Muhammad, 2013), (b) is an accepted metric of organizational viability (Subramaniam, 2014), and (c) is a measure of organizational profitability (Revilla & Fernández, 2013). Organizational profitability is a potential outcome of employee job satisfaction and employee perceptions of supervisor support (Herzberg, 1968; Herzberg, 1976; Guchait, Paşamehmetoğlu, & Dawson, 2014; McClean et al., 2013). Organizational profitability was applicable for use within this study.

Combining the JSS and Survey of Perceived Supervisor Support into a single cohesive survey instrument allowed for self-administration in an online survey format via SurveyMonkey. The use of SurveyMonkey to collect online survey data allows for (a) collecting data across all age groups (Fink, 2009), (b) tabulating data and producing a statistical breakdown of results (Gill, Leslie, Grech, & Latour, 2013), and (c) is a low-cost method of collecting the views and perceptions of a study sample (Phillips, 2015). The conclusions of Fink (2009), Gill et al. (2013), and Phillips (2015) indicate that SurveyMonkey is appropriate for self-administration of the combined JSS and Survey of Perceived Supervisor Support instruments.

Scoring of the JSS, in this study, used an absolute mean and summed approach where mean scores on individual questions between 3 and 4 represent ambivalence, mean scores less than 3 represent dissatisfaction, and scores of 4 or more represent satisfaction (Buonocore & Russo, 2013; Spector, 1985; Spector, 2011). Scoring for negatively worded questions 2, 4, 6, 8, 10, 12, 14, 16, 18, 19, 21, 23, 24, 26, 29, 31, 32, 34, and 36 will use reverse data coding with 6 scored as 1, 5 scored as 2, 4 scored as 3, 3, scored as 4, 2 scored as 5, and 1 scored as 6 (Buonocore & Russo, 2013; Spector, 1985; Spector, 2011). Summed scores between the 4 item subscales with a range of 4 to 12 represents dissatisfaction, 16 to 24 represents satisfaction, and 12 to 16 represents ambivalence. Summed scores for the total satisfaction scale have a range of 36 to 216, where 36 to 108 represents dissatisfaction, 145 to 216 represents satisfaction, and between 109 and 144 represents ambivalence (Buonocore & Russo, 2013; Spector, 1985; Spector, 2011).

The JSS was useful across a wide spectrum of research studies. Spector (1985) designed and tested the JSS to determine levels of employee job satisfaction of public and nonprofit sector human service staff using a population of 3,148 respondents across 19 samples. The JSS was effective for determining work-family conflict on employee job satisfaction in a population of 197 Italian nurses (Buonocore & Russo, 2013). Bateh and Heyliger (2014) effectively used the JSS to understand supervisor styles and the impact on employee job satisfaction, with a population of 567 Florida university faculty members. The JSS is an accepted instrument for measuring levels of employee job satisfaction across a variety of industries, domestically and internationally, including education (Bateh & Heyliger, 2014), medical (Buonocore & Russo, 2013), retail, manufacturing, public and private sectors, and law enforcement (Spector, 1985; Spector, 2011). I collected JSS data online and stored the data electronically. I provided the data, upon request, to Walden University, the QSR franchise group that granted study access, and to researchers interested in pursuing further research or data verification.

Scoring of the Survey of Perceived Supervisor Support was with an absolute summed approach for the total 8-item scale and with a mean score approach for the individual questions and the five subscale constructs to represent low perceived supervisor support (PSS), medium PSS, or high PSS (Eisenberger et al., 1986; Eisenberger et al., 2002; Hutchison, 1997). Scoring for negatively worded questions 6 and 7 used reverse data coding with 7 scored as 1, 6 scored as 2, 5 scored as 3, 4 scored as 4, 3 scored as 5, 2 scored as 6, and 1 scored as 7 (Eisenberger et al., 1986; Eisenberger et al., 2002; Hutchison, 1997). Individual questions and the mean summed scores of

subscale constructs with a range of 1 to 2.9 represents low PSS, a range of 3.0 to 5.0 represents medium PSS, and a range of 5.1 to 7 represents high PSS (Eisenberger et al., 1986; Eisenberger et al., 2002; Hutchison, 1997). The summed PSS scores have a range of 5 to 35, and a range of 5 to 14.9 represents low PSS, a range of 15 to 25 represents medium PSS, and a range of 25.1 to 35 represents high PSS (Eisenberger et al., 1986; Eisenberger et al., 2002; Hutchison, 1997).

The Survey of Perceived Supervisor Support is an accepted instrument for determining employee perceptions of supervisor support. In a random sample of 205 western university faculty and staff members, Hutchison (1997) used the Survey of Perceived Supervisor Support to differentiate employee perceptions of supervisor support from perceived organizational support. Rhoades, Eisenberger, and Armeli (2001) used the Survey of Perceived Supervisor Support in the eastern United States to examine levels of employee perceptions of supervisor support and the financial impact to organizations caused by voluntary employee turnover in a cross section of industrial, educational, and public-sector employees. To examine levels of employee perceptions of supervisor support and the relationship between organizational performance indicators, Eisenberger et al. (2002) used the Survey of Perceived Supervisor Support in a population of 300 retail service employees. The Survey of Perceived Supervisor Support is an accepted instrument for measuring levels of employee perception of supervisor support across a variety of educational (Hutchison, 1997), retail, industrial, public, and private sector settings (Eisenberger et al., 2002; Edmondson & Boyer, 2013; Rhoades et al., 2001). I collected Survey of Perceived Supervisor Support data online and stored the

data electronically. I provided the data, upon request, to Walden University, the QSR franchise group that granted study access, and to researchers interested in pursuing further research or data verification.

Organizational profitability data, EBITDA, was provided by the QSR franchise organization. Scoring organizational profitability is not necessary as EBITDA is (a) a calculated measurement of organizational profitability (Muhammad, 2013), (b) neutral to the organizational financial structure (Revilla & Fernández, 2013), and (c) reflective of the organization's current profitability and financial performance (Androsova et al., 2014). In a longitudinal study comprised of 2,764 companies to examine the dynamics of organizational profits, Revilla and Fernández (2013) used EBITDA to define profitability and outlined that EBITDA is a neutral indicator of business performance and competitive position. In a meta-study examining EBITDA multiples to determine business valuation from a financial institution and business perspective, Brockman and Russell (2012) presented that EBITDA is a recognized measure of an organization's profitability. Folster et al. (2015) examined EBITDA in a study of 271 Brazilian publically traded companies and explained that EBITDA is a key financial metric of profitability and earnings potential. Financial institutions and for-profit business organizations accept EBITDA as a standardized measure of organizational profitability, financial strength, and earnings potential (Brockman & Russell, 2012; Folster, Camargo, & Vicente, 2015; Revilla & Fernández, 2013). I collected organizational profitability data from the QSR franchisee and store the data electronically. I provided the data, upon request, to Walden University,

the QSR franchise group that granted study access, and to researchers interested in pursuing further research or data verification.

The JSS is a valid survey instrument for determining levels of employee job satisfaction. Spector (1985) outlined the validity of the JSS against the job descriptive index (JDI) using convergent validity, ranged from .61 to .80 for equivalent subscales. Spector outlined the validity of the JSS against the JDI using discriminant validity for the equivalent subscales ranged from .11 to .59. The published internal consistency reliability for the total JSS scale, according to Spector, computed with a coefficient alpha, is .91. A test-retest performed by Spector on the JSS indicated reliability with a coefficient alpha of .71 for the total scale.

The Survey of Perceived Supervisor Support is a valid survey instrument for determining levels of employee perceptions of supervisor support. Hutchison (1997) described the use of discriminant and convergent validity to validate the Survey of Perceived Supervisor Support against the Eisenberger et al. (1986) SPOS, Mowday, Steers, and Porter (1979) Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ), the Meyer and Allen (1984) Affective Commitment Scale (ACS), and the Jones and James (1979) Organizational Dependability Questionnaire (ODQ). Hutchison outlined a convergent validity correlation between the Survey of Perceived Supervisor Support and the tested population was .97, and discriminant validity between the Survey of Perceived Supervisor Support and the four survey instruments ranged from .56 to .62, indicating the Survey of Perceived Supervisor Support was distinct. The published internal consistency

reliability of the Survey of Perceived Supervisor Support, computed with a coefficient alpha, is .88 according to Eisenberger et al. (2002).

Organizational profitability, EBITDA, was financial data provided by the QSR franchise organization. The data provided are archival data specific to individual QSR locations, and an assumption is the data are valid and reliable. The duty of a researcher is to (a) interpret data in an ethical manner (Labrique et al., 2013), (b), to analyze and evaluate data (Kyvik, 2013), and (c) ensure data validity and reliability (Lidz & Garverich, 2013). I did not make adjustments or revisions to the content of the organizational profitability instrument.

The strategy for addressing validity within the study was to use construct validity to measure the performance of the data collection instruments for collecting data that relates to the independent variables of employee job satisfaction and employee perceptions of supervisor support. The use of construct validity ensures that instruments measure the true constructs to produce criterion validity (Walton, Cowderoy, Lascelles, & Innes, 2013). According to Neumann and Pardini (2014), the use of construct validity determines the ability to make inferences between the study variables and the theoretical framework. Huijg, Gebhardt, Crone, Dusseldorp, and Presseau (2014) presented that the use of construct validity determines whether or not items measure the intended domains. The use of construct validity to measure the performance of JSS and the Survey of Perceived Supervisor Support ensured that the measured constructs had the correct observed relationships.

The strategy for addressing reliability within the study was to use internal consistency by calculating Cronbach's alpha for each subscale and each total scale. Cronbach's alpha is useful for testing internal consistency in scales used in previous research studies and is used to determine if constructs are good measurements (Clow & James, 2014). According to Dunn, Baguley, and Brunnsden (2014), calculating Cronbach's alpha to measure internal consistency is the most common and widespread method of addressing reliability in research studies that involve attitudes and perceptions. Bonett and Wright (2014) presented that calculating Cronbach's alpha and making comparisons with previously used survey instruments is a valid means of determining internal consistency. Calculating Cronbach's alpha to determine internal consistency of the JSS and the Survey of Perceived Supervisor Support ensured that the measured constructs measured what they propose to measure. To ensure that the survey instruments were both valid and reliable, I did not make adjustments or revisions to the JSS instrument or to the Survey of Perceived Supervisor Support instrument.

Data Collection Technique

For the study, I sought to collect data using a self-administered online survey process via SurveyMonkey to obtain ordinal data from a sample population to test a hypothesis regarding the independent variables of employee job satisfaction and employee perceptions of supervisor support, and the dependent variable of organizational profitability. The use of self-administered online surveys is (a) ideal for measuring attitudes in large populations (Fulgoni, 2014), (b) a common mode of assessing opinions in business (Phillips, 2015), and (c) widely used as a tool for conducting quantitative

research (Muzi, Junyi, & Gaojun, 2015). The use of SurveyMonkey (a) allows researchers to reach a broad potential sample population (Fink, 2009), (a) is useful for socially related research studies (Gill et al., 2013), and (c) is an effective online survey medium that minimizes cost (Phillips, 2015). The use of a self-administered online survey, via SurveyMonkey, was appropriate to obtain ordinal data from a sample population to test a hypothesis regarding the relationship between the identified variables of the study.

I worked with the CPO, as the head of human resources of the QSR franchise organization, to facilitate the data collection process for the study. The CPO granted permission and provided communication to all location above-store and store-level supervisors authorizing voluntary employee research participation of the study. Upon the receipt of the CPO's authorization, the individual restaurant management distributed coded informed consent forms as a means of introduction and instruction along with the SurveyMonkey URL to a convenience sample of employees within the workplace of 86 QSR franchise locations in Houston, Texas. The process of working with the CPO, as the head of the human resources department, to authorize participation in self-administered online surveys, is effective for collecting information related to employee job satisfaction, employee perceptions of supervisor support, and organizational profitability (Caillier, 2014; Howell, 2013; Salyers, Rollins, Kelly, Lysaker, & Williams, 2013). Participants of the study had the opportunity to access the survey from their personal computer device or Smartphone device in a private setting.

SurveyMonkey offers a free basic account for collecting 100 responses to ten or fewer survey questions. I upgraded my SurveyMonkey account to a professional grade account that provided greater levels of services, which included unlimited questions, unlimited responses, data integration into SPSS for analysis, and question randomization. I maintained the survey site until the close of the 30-day survey response period. Upon the close of the 30-day survey response period, a SurveyMonkey download process allowed for importing completed survey data into SPSS for analysis. I collected data for the employee job satisfaction variable, and the nine representative subcategories, and assigned totals by summing the value of the 6-point Likert intervals. I collected data for the employee perceptions of supervisor support variable and the five representative subcategories, and assigned a total by summing the value of the 7-point Likert intervals. The process of reverse data coding the Likert scale values of negatively worded questions, within the JSS survey instrument and the Survey of Perceived Supervisor Support, was necessary to ensure the accurate scoring and interpretation of survey results (Green & Salkind, 2014) and to determine an accurate total survey score (Bhatnagar, 2014; Eisenberger et al., 1986; Spector, 1985). An SPSSTM recode procedure allows for reverse data coding negatively worded survey questions (Green & Salkind, 2014; Peachey & Baller, 2015; Ting, Yong, Yin, & Mi, 2016), so I used SPSSTM to reverse data code negatively worded survey questions.

The use of online surveys within the study offered advantages over other data collection techniques. The use of self-administered online surveys, when compared to other data collection techniques, (a) elicits greater levels of participant honesty and

allows for measuring participant satisfaction levels with programs and resources (Gill et al., 2013), (b) offers greater levels of convenience (Christensen, Ekholm, Glümer, & Juel, 2014), and (c) provides a lower per-survey cost (Phillips, 2015). The use of online surveys allows for (a) reaching a large population over a short timeframe to collect valid and reliable data (Revilla & Saris, 2013), (b) collect reliable data comparable to other methods (Cardamone, Eboli, & Mazzulla, 2014), and (c) for downloading information into statistical software such as SPSSTM (Phillips, 2015). The use of self-administered online surveys was advantageous, although, disadvantages existed.

The disadvantages of using self-administered online surveys within the study could affect response rates and generalizability. The increased use of online surveys has (a) desensitized the population to questionnaires and surveys (Revilla & Saris, 2013), which (b) results in a lower response rate than other data collection techniques (Christensen et al., 2014), and (c) presents a greater risk of item nonresponse rates (Cardamone et al., 2014). The nonstandard environment of online surveys (a) may increase response bias (Hunter, Corcoran, Leeder, & Phelps, 2013), (b) lowers generalizability (Christensen et al., 2014), and (c) results in higher levels of data contamination and lacks the ability to provide consistent population representation (Muzi et al., 2015). The ability to gather honest feedback regarding employee job satisfaction and employee perceptions of supervisor support in a cost-effective and reliable manner, while recognizing that a lower level of generalizability exists, indicated that using a self-administered online survey was appropriate for the study.

I did not conduct a pilot study as part of the study. Pilot studies are necessary when (a) validated structured questionnaires do not exist (Aristidis, 2015), (b) larger future research warrants preliminary evaluation (Maust-Martin, 2015), and (c) necessary to create planning processes for future research projects (Williams, Cafarella, Paquet, & Frith, 2015). The chosen survey questionnaire instruments have been validated and found to be reliable in previous research studies examining the relationships between the independent variables of employee job satisfaction and employee perceptions of supervisor support, and the dependent variable of organizational profitability (Eisenberger et al., 1986; Revilla & Fernández, 2013; Spector, 1985). A pilot study was not justified for the research study.

Data Analysis

The research question for this study was, *does a linear combination of employee job satisfaction and employee perceptions of supervisor support significantly predict organizational profitability?*

Hypotheses

- Null Hypothesis (H_0): The linear combination of employee job satisfaction and employee perceptions of supervisor support will not significantly predict organizational profitability of QSRs.
- Alternative Hypothesis (H_1): The linear combination of employee job satisfaction and employee perceptions of supervisor support will significantly predict organizational profitability of QSRs.

To answer the central research question of this study using a correlational design,

I conducted multiple linear regression analysis to determine if the linear combination of employee job satisfaction and employee perceptions of supervisor support significantly predicted organizational profitability of QSRs. I treated ordinal data from Likert-type survey questions as interval and continuous data to analyze the predictor variables of employee job satisfaction and employee perceptions of supervisor support with correlational analysis. Classifying ordinal variables as interval and continuous data is sufficient to minimize bias and allow for substantive data interpretation when Likert-type questions use five or more categories (Norman, 2010; Rasmussen, 1989) and sample sizes are greater than 30 (Johnson & Creech, 1983). The use of correlational analysis is suitable (a) when using Pearson's r to determine variable associations (Murray, 2013), (b) to determine relationships between two or more variables (Uyanık & Güler, 2013), and (c) for analyzing the relationship of more than one predictor variable and a continuous dependent variable (Green & Salkind, 2014). The use of partial correlations allow for testing linear relationships while controlling for the effects of other variables within the hypotheses (Green & Salkind, 2014; Hancock et al., 2013) and for determining significance levels for one or more variable (Cohen, 1992).

Correlation analysis was appropriate for use within the study and determining variable relationships because the statistical analysis technique aligns with the work of Buonocore and Russo (2013) and Bateh and Heyliger (2014) to examine relationships between employee job satisfaction, employee perceptions of supervisor support, and organizational profitability. Buonocore and Russo (2013) examined variable correlations with the use of the JSS to determine the significance of work-family conflict on employee

job satisfaction. In a quantitative correlational study, Bateh and Heyliger (2014) examined variable relationships between leader traits and job satisfaction from the data produced with the JSS among 567 faculty members. To understand the relationships between employee job satisfaction and the personal characteristics of supervisors, Saiti and Papadopoulos (2015) used the JSS with correlation analysis, and applied intercorrelations among the nine subscales of employee job satisfaction and total employee job satisfaction. The use of correlation analysis to examine and to test for relationships between organizational support and absenteeism aligns with the methods used by Eisenberger et al. (1986). Eisenberger et al. (2002) examined variable correlations using both the Survey of Perceived Supervisor Support (SPOS) and Survey of Perceived Supervisor Support to test for relationships between organizational support, perceived supervisor support, and voluntary employee turnover. In a cross section of organizations, Rhoades et al. (2001) used correlational analysis to determine the strengths of relationships between perceived supervisor support, organizational support, rewards, and affective commitment. The nonrandom and nonexperimental nature of the study aligned with established practices of researchers who sought to examine the relationships between similar variables.

The alternate method of statistical analysis of analysis of variance (ANOVA) was not appropriate for this study. The use of ANOVA enables researchers to examine whether or not to accept or reject hypotheses when the hypotheses involve differences between two or more groups (Wesel, Boeije, & Hoijtink, 2013). According to Green and Salkind (2014), ANOVA is for determining whether a difference exists between the

means of populations or groups. Bejami, Gharavian, and Charkari (2014) presented that ANOVA is for establishing if a difference exists between the means of constructs within the independent variables or if differences exist between the means of the population and the dependent variable. ANOVA was not appropriate for the study because the desire was to determine relationships within groups and not differences between groups.

The alternate statistical analysis technique of logistic regression was not appropriate for this study. Logistic regression is useful for testing models to predict categorical outcomes of multiple dependent variables (Wang et al., 2013). Logistic regression is a statistical method for estimating approximate values on a nonlinear curve (Narbaev & De Marco, 2014). Logistic regression is for determining conditional probability such as goodness of fit (Liu, Li, & Liang, 2014). Logistic regression was not appropriate for use within the study to examine relationships between employee job satisfaction, employee perceptions of supervisor support, and organizational profitability as the desire was to measure the relationship strength of surveyed data on a single dependent variable.

I cleaned and screened data within the study to (a) maintain quality and research accuracy, (b) ensure individual and calculated questionnaire values were within survey instrument limits, (c) checked for extreme values, and (d) ensured data consistency. Cleaning data is a critical component of quantitative research that checks for extreme values, ensures research accuracy, prevents threats to validity, and ensures generalizability (Osborne, 2010). Data cleaning ensures the quality of future decisions and includes looking for missing data, checking for errors, verifying calculated values,

and checking for unusual patterns (Bhattacharjee, Chatterjee, Shaw, & Chakraborty, 2014). Data cleaning and screening include identifying data inconsistencies and distribution anomalies by analyzing frequency distribution graphs and tables (Xu et al., 2015). I cleaned and screened data to ensure research quality by checking for extreme values, looking for missing data, and checking for unusual data patterns.

I addressed issues of missing data by using mean score replacement, identified through data cleaning and screening, to ensure that missing data did not compromise data quality. Missing data undermine the ability to reach causal conclusions, and statistical methods are unable to provide adequate compensation (Singhal & Rana, 2014). Missing data complicate data interpretation and execution (Van Ginkel, Kroonenberg, & Kiers, 2014). Missing data complicate the process of analytical modeling (Žliobaitė, Hollmén, & Junninen, 2014). According to Spector (2011), mean score replacement is a process to consider constructs separately to account for missing data. The JSS and Survey of Perceived Supervisor Support surveys each contain multiple constructs with individual facets per construct that allow for using the mean score replacement process to account for missing survey data (Eisenberger et al., 1986; Spector, 2011). Where one of the several facets within a construct is missing, a sum of the score for the remaining facets divided by the number of items scored within that construct substitutes for the facet of the missing item (Spector, 2011). Calculating a mean for single item constructs within the Survey of Perceived Supervisor Support is not possible and missing data for the constructs of mistakes, worsened performance, and requested special favors will invalidate the questionnaire (Eisenberger et al., 1986). Within the study, I used mean

score replacement and invalidated questionnaires that were missing two or more facets of a construct to address issues of missing data.

The assumptions pertaining to the statistical analyses within the study were homoscedasticity, multicollinearity, linearity, and normal distribution. Violations of the assumption of homoscedasticity results in a standard error bias (Korany, Maher, Galal, & Ragab, 2013). Violating the assumption of multicollinearity may not provide valid results about specific predictor variables because it creates numerical instability (Yu, Jiang, & Land, 2015). Violating the assumptions of linearity and normal distribution within correlation analysis leads to misleading and biased forecasts and confidence intervals (Green & Salkind, 2014; Uyanık & Güler, 2013). I utilized analytical techniques to test and assess, within the study, to ensure no assumption violations pertain to statistical analyses.

I tested for and assessed assumption violations within the study by calculating the variance inflation factor (VIF), examining skewness and kurtosis coefficient ranges, and examining the normal probability plot (P-P) of the regression standardized residuals and the scatterplots of the standardized residuals. The assumptions of data analyzed with multiple linear regression are homoscedasticity, linearity, normality, and independence of residuals (Green & Salkind, 2014). Calculating the VIF of predictor variables and using a cutoff value of 10 can potentially eliminate redundant features (Yu et al., 2015). The recommended methods for assessing linearity include the use of scatter diagrams, checking for Z-scores within a range of zero plus or minus three, and by examining the data for extreme values (Uyanık & Güler, 2013). Verifying skewness and kurtosis

coefficient values are within established ranges determines normality (Uyanık & Güler, 2013). The regression model is adequate when the normal probability plots of the residuals form a reasonably straight line and no obvious pattern exists among the plots of the regression standardized residuals (Makadia & Nanavati, 2013). In the absence of assumption violations, the F test is optimal for testing homoscedasticity and normality (Parra-frutos, 2013). The F test presupposes optimal circumstances (Parra-frutos, 2013), so an F test was not appropriate for this study. Within the study, I (a) calculated the VIF for predictor variables to test for multicollinearity and (b) tested for homoscedasticity, linearity, normality, and independence of residuals using a scatterplot of the standardized residuals, a normal probability (P-P) Plot of the regression standardized residuals, and verified skewness and kurtosis coefficients to ensure ranges were within the range ± 1 .

A violation of homoscedasticity exists when data points cluster tightly on a residual scatter plot (Green & Salkind, 2014). A violation of linearity exists when noticeable patterns are present, and normality violations occur when there are significant deviations from a normal distribution curve (Green & Salkind, 2014). Applying logarithmic transformations in conjunction with bootstrapping is acceptable to achieve more robust test results and correct for violations of homogeneity of variance (Wilcox, Carlson, Azen, & Clark, 2013). A violation of multicollinearity, indicated by a VIF of 10 or greater, requires interpreting the data within the specific model or the use of stepwise multivariate logistic regression (Liu et al., 2016). Violations of linearity, indicated by Z -scores outside of a range of zero plus or minus three, or noted outliers in scatter diagrams, necessitate the exclusion of those data points from the analysis (Uyanık & Güler, 2013).

Correcting for an assumption of normality violation is not a requirement for correlation analysis because of the central limit theorem (Williams, Grajales, & Kurkiewicz, 2013). Correlation analysis is robust and results in trustworthy coefficient inferences in large sample populations of greater than 30 (Norman, 2010; Williams et al., 2013), even when data is missing or when distributions are abnormal (Žliobaitė et al., 2014). I did not find violations of homoscedasticity, multicollinearity, linearity, or normality that required correction.

I interpreted inferential results within the study by using Pearson's product-moment correlation coefficients. The Pearson's product-moment correlation coefficient r ranges in value between -1 and +1 where a positive value shows both variables moving in the same direction, and a negative value indicates the variables move in the opposite direction (Puth et al., 2014). The magnitude of r is indicative of the measure of scatter around the trend line and not of the gradient, where the higher the absolute value, the stronger the relationship between the two variables (Puth et al., 2014). A zero value for r indicates that as the independent variable increases the dependent variable neither increases nor decreases (Green & Salkind, 2014). Pearson's product-moment correlation coefficient results, using an alpha level of .05, are interpreted as 0 - .20 is negligible, .21 - .35 is weak, .36 - .67 is moderate, .68 - .90 is strong, and .91 - 1.00 is very strong (Prion & Haerling, 2014). I interpreted correlation analysis results using Pearson's product-moment correlation coefficients and interpreted effect sizes as negligible, weak, moderate, strong, or very strong.

I interpreted correlation results, within the study, and sought statistical significance by using an appropriate alpha and confidence level to indicate variable relationships were not from a Type I error and to detect non-existing effects. I combined partial correlations with the Bonferroni approach within the study to control Type I errors. The Bonferroni approach is the most conservative means of validating correlation confidence intervals (Fitzmaurice et al., 2014). The use of the Bonferroni approach controls for false positive results and Type I errors (Glickman, Rao, & Schultz, 2014; Green & Salkind, 2014). Interpreting correlations with the Bonferroni approach across the 6 correlations of the linear equation, requires a p -value of less than .017 ($.05/3 = .017$) to indicate statistical significance.

Statistical significance within correlational analysis was through the use of an appropriate alpha level and confidence interval to indicate variable relationships were not from a Type I error or from a non-existing effect. An alpha level of .05 with a 95% level of confidence is statistically significant and is the accepted standard for published data (Norman, 2010). Achieving a 95% level of confidence demonstrates that with a 95% certainty the range of values calculated from the population of interest includes the true means of the total population (Williams et al., 2013). Green and Salkind (2014) presented that with an alpha level of 5% and a confidence interval of 95% only a 5% chance exists of rejecting the null hypothesis when it is true. Confidence intervals and power analysis will ensure avoidance of a Type II error, and that a failure to detect an existing effect is not present (Cohen, 1992; Green & Salkind, 2014; Williams et al., 2013). I avoided Type I and Type II errors by using a Bonferroni calculated p -value of less than .017 and ensured

statistical significance interpretations of correlational analysis results were accurate by using an alpha level of .05, and confidence interval of 95%.

The correlational design of this study required a program capable of handling comprehensive computations. I used SPSSTM statistical software version 21 for analyzing questionnaire response data. The SPSSTM software package is a tool to conduct statistical analysis capable of producing a variety of statistical tests, outputs, graphs, and charts (Green & Salkind, 2014). Moura, Orgambídez-Ramos, and Gonçalves (2014), in a quantitative correlational study utilizing a questionnaire design, used SPSSTM for correlation analysis. Gaki, Kontodimopoulos, and Niakas (2013) found SPSSTM suitable for their study on antecedents of employee job satisfaction and motivation conducted correlation analysis on ordinal and categorical employee demographic and job satisfaction data. Casimir, Ng, Wang, and Ooi (2014), in a study of leader-member exchange, organizational commitment, and performance, found SPSSTM beneficial for performing complex correlations and partial correlations. Testing for bivariate correlations allowed for examining relationship strengths between employee job satisfaction, employee perceptions of supervisor support, and organizational profitability in QSR locations in Houston, Texas.

Study Validity

Validity in quantitative research ensures that the research conclusions are representative of the study's purpose. Validity consists of the ability to assess constructs accurately, accurately report results, and the capacity to make inferences about variable relationships (Venkatesh et al., 2013). A tension exists between reliability and validity

which makes it necessary to measure concepts and dimensions several different ways to maximize utility (Zachariadis, Scott, & Barrett, 2013). Reliability in quantitative research is the instrument's degree of consistency to collect and analyze accurate data without regard for the user (Clow & James, 2014). Validity refers to the ability of others to generalize and transfer study findings to other populations through an ability to draw conclusions based on variable relationships, data used, and analysis methods (Tarhan & Yilmaz, 2014). For these reasons, I minimized threats to validity.

My goal was to minimize threats to external validity while maximizing utility through research design and analysis. According to Venkatesh et al. (2013) and Zachariadis, Scott, and Barrett (2013), external validity is the ability to transfer results to other populations. Acharya et al. (2013) identified factors that limit generalizability and that can change variable relationships are time, environmental factors, and non-random convenience sampling. Threats to external validity presented by Zachariadis et al. (2013) that exist in this study are population bias and interaction effects between the setting and the independent variables. Population bias because of convenience sampling is a threat to external validity (Tarhan & Yilmaz, 2014). Study constraints that limited the generalization of study findings to only the study sample and not to the entire study population were (a) factors of time, (b) the environment, (b) the use of convenience sampling, and (d) the inability to overcome population bias.

I addressed threats to external validity by sampling participants within a QSR population of 86 locations across a large metropolitan market and by using tested and reliable survey instruments. Increasing the diversity of the sample population and their

environment enhances external validity when participant settings influence participant inclusion (Fortin & Smith, 2013). Curcuruto, Mearns, and Mariani (2016) suggested that the use of a large and diverse employee sample population across a large geographic area reduces environmental validity factors. According to Hawkins, Gallacher, and Gammell (2013), an adequate sample size and statistically significant results strengthen external validity. Increasing the population sample size beyond the minimum level strengthens the ability to generalize findings to other similar populations (Tarhan & Yilmaz, 2014). Alpha levels $> .60$ minimize the threat of external validity and strengthen the predictability within study populations (Cho & Kim, 2015). The high survey instrument reliability of the JSS with an alpha level of .71 (Spector, 1985), the Survey of Perceived Supervisor Support with an alpha level of .88 (Eisenberger et al., 2002), and a large and diverse potential sample population indicated minimal threats to external validity.

Internal validity, according to Zachariadis et al. (2013), is the researcher's ability to draw conclusions from study results that accurately reflect the study. Threats to internal validity are biases that include (a) previous events that skew perceptions, (b) selection bias, and (c) personal characteristics that impact results (Henderson, Kimmelman, Fergusson, Grimshaw, & Hackam, 2013). Internal validity creates a reasonable assumption that changes in the independent variable lead to changes in the dependent variable (Barry, Chaney, Piazza-Gardner, & Chavarria, 2014). The use of a convenience sample did not allow control over those who participated and those who did not. Data collection was from within a selected sample; however, within that sample no ability to manage nonresponse bias existed. A way to determine if those who participated

are significantly different from those who do not was unavailable. A means to determine if those who participated were statistically representative of the population of the selected sample did not exist.

The use of statistical tests and valid survey instruments controls threats to internal validity. Lee (2013) outlined the unlikely elimination of selection bias in non-random study designs, but that propensity score matching (PSM) and covariate analysis could reduce selection bias related to participant characteristics and behaviors. Randolph, Falbe, Manuel, and Balloun (2014) presented that PSM require comparison to a control group, which is unavailable for this study; therefore, selection bias is not underestimated, and issues of generalizability remain a major consideration. The elimination of all negative participant histories is unlikely; however, according to Barry et al. (2014), a single survey event and the use of participants from similar work environments increases the likelihood that participants have concurrent histories. Threats to internal validity can occur throughout the research process, but Barry et al. outlined that the use of reliable instruments and layered sequential analysis techniques have the effect of minimizing threats and strengthening study results. To address threats to internal validity within the study I used (a) a single survey event, (b) participants from a similar work environment, and (c) reliable instruments with layered sequential analysis techniques.

Statistical conclusion validity is a factor that affects Type I and Type II errors. Threats to statistical conclusion validity are the failure to control Type I and Type II error rates by (a) using reliable survey instruments, (b) monitoring the assumptions of statistical tests, and (c) using an adequate sample size (Karpinski, Kirschner, Ozer,

Mellott, & Ochwo, 2013). Statistical conclusion validity is an indicator of research quality where the ability to determine variable relationships is affected by (a) invalid and unreliable instruments, (b) violating data assumptions, and (c) not compensating for a small sample size (Venkatesh et al., 2013). Researchers control threats to statistical conclusion validity and minimize logic and representation errors when the research study uses (a) a large sample size, (b) proven instruments, and (c) appropriate statistical tests (Rutkowski & Delandshere, 2016). I used reliable survey instruments, an adequate sample size, and avoided violating data assumptions to minimize threats to statistical conclusion validity.

Computing Cronbach's alpha coefficient through an internal consistency check of the JSS and Survey of Perceived Supervisor Support instruments against my population sample and comparing to the established standard of $> .70$ as suggested by Dunn et al. (2014) ensured reliability. According to Bonett and Wright (2014), calculating Cronbach's alpha and comparing the results to previously used survey instruments is a valid means of determining instrument reliability. Calculating Cronbach's alpha to measure instrument reliability is a popular method of addressing instrument reliability (Dunn et al., 2014). Using Cronbach's alpha to test for instrument reliability is acceptable for determining the validity of construct measurement (Clow & James, 2014). Spector (1985) indicated that the reliability of the JSS instrument calculated with coefficient alpha is .91 for the total scale. Eisenberger et al. (2002) indicated that the instrument reliability of the Survey of Perceived Supervisor Support, computed with a coefficient alpha, is .88. Calculating Cronbach's alpha for the JSS and Survey of Perceived

Supervisor Support within my sample population and comparing the instrument reliability against the published instrument reliabilities ensured that the measured constructs measure what they proposed to measure.

Violating the data assumptions of homoscedasticity, linearity, and normal distribution threatens statistical conclusion validity within the study. A standard error bias is the result of violating the data assumption of homoscedasticity (Korany et al., 2013). The collective work of Green and Salkind (2014) and Uyanik and Güler (2013) presented that violating the assumptions of linearity and normal distribution within correlation analysis leads to misleading and biased forecasts and confidence intervals. I tested for assumption violations by examining the normal probability plot (P-P) of the regression standardized residuals, scatterplots of the standardized residuals, and by examining skewness and kurtosis coefficient ranges. According to Green and Salkind and Uyanik and Güler, verifying that homoscedasticity, linearity, and normality exists involves (a) the examination of scatter diagrams, (b) imposing the normal probability plot of the difference between the actual and predicted regression values on a straight line, and (c) verifying skewness and kurtosis coefficient values are within established ranges. Parrafrutos (2013) indicated that the use of normal probability plots of regression residuals and scatterplots are sufficient to determine homoscedasticity, linearity, and normality when conducting correlational analyses. Bootstrapping is a valid data analysis method within regression and correlation analysis to counteract and deal with issues involving parameter dependency (Chang, Sickles, & Song, 2015). Data assumption violations did not occur because I used statistical tests relevant to correlational analyses. In addition, I utilized the

bootstrapping feature with SPSS to ensure that the standard multiple linear regression analysis produced robust test results.

An adequate sample size strengthens statistical conclusion validity. An inadequate sample size increases the probability of committing a Type I error (Hawkins et al., 2013). Cohen (1992) and Williams, Grajales, and Kurkiewicz (2013) found that sampling a small percentage of the population increases the chance of committing Type II errors. I conducted a power analysis with G*Power to ensure an adequate sample size as suggested by Cohen (1992) and Faul et al. (2009). Lowering the alpha from .05 to .01 and increasing the sample size lowers the chance of committing a Type I error (Hawkins et al., 2013). Egbewale et al. (2014) and Williams et al. (2013) indicated that increases in sample size raise accuracy levels as sampling a greater proportion of the population lowers chances of Type II errors. Cohen (1992) and Williams et al. presented that increasing the power level to .99, beyond the nominal power level of .80 as suggested by Egbewale et al., increases research accuracy. The minimum sample size of 68 ensured a nominal power level of .80 and increasing the sample size to 146 increased the power level to .99. A sample population of between 68 and 146 minimized the chances of committing Type I and Type II errors while increasing the level of research accuracy and strengthened the research quality.

Transition and Summary

The material I presented in Section 1 included (a) an overview of the background of the study problem, (b) a review of the business problem, and (c) the purpose of the study. In addition, in Section 1 I presented the nature of the study with the research

question and hypothesis, the theoretical framework, study definitions, assumptions, limitations, and delimitations. Last, Section 1 included a critical analysis and synthesis of the literature sources and a critical review of the literature related to employee job satisfaction, employee perception of supervisor support, and organizational profitability.

The material and data I presented in Section 2 included (a) an overview of the project, (b) the purpose statement, (c) the role of the researcher, (d) the participants, and (e) included an outline of the research method and design. In addition, the material I presented in Section 2 detailed (a) the population and sampling method, (b) ethical research, (c) the survey instruments, (d) data collection techniques, (e) analysis methods, (f) reliability and validity, and (g) transition and summary. Data I include in Section 3 contains (a) a study overview, (b) study findings, (c) application to professional practice, (d) implications for social change, (e) recommendations for action and future research, (f) reflections, (g) a summary, (h) and study conclusions.

Section 3: Application to Professional Practice and Implications for Change

The QSR and hospitality industry loses over \$1 billion of potential profit annually because of high employee turnover (Guchait et al., 2015). Low levels of supervisor support lead to high voluntary employee turnover and dissatisfied teams (Nichols et al., 2016). High employee job satisfaction and low employee turnover are associated with management involvement and support (Jessen, 2015; McClean et al., 2013). In this study, I examined employee attitudes to underscore the effect that supportive supervision has on employee job satisfaction and organizational profitability. In Section 3, I present an overview of the quantitative correlational study I conducted to examine the relationship between employee job satisfaction, employee perceptions of supervisor support, and organizational profitability. In addition, I detail how the findings apply to professional practice, the implications for social change, and recommendations for further research.

Introduction

The purpose of this quantitative correlational study was to examine the relationship between employee job satisfaction, employee perceptions of supervisor support, and organizational profitability. The independent variables for this study were employee job satisfaction and employee perceptions of supervisor support. The dependent variable was organizational profitability. I collected survey data for the independent variables from a convenience sample of current QSR employees from 86 franchise QSRs. I compared the survey results of employee job satisfaction and employee perceptions of supervisor support to the EBITDA of the specifically surveyed locations to understand if variable relationships existed.

A correlational design was appropriate for the study because my goal was to understand variable relationships. The regression model as a whole was able to significantly predict EBITDA, $F(2, 71) = 9.20, p < .001, R^2 = .206$. I rejected the null hypothesis and accepted the alternative hypothesis. The sample multiple correlation coefficient was .454, indicating that the regression model accounted for approximately 21% of the variance in EBITDA. Employee job satisfaction ($\beta = .577$) was statistically significant with organizational profitability, as measured by EBITDA. Employee perceptions of supervisor support ($\beta = -.140$) did not provide any significant variation in organizational profitability, as measured by EBITDA. Of the nine constructs of employee job satisfaction, supervision, benefits, operating procedures, and coworker were not statistically significant. Of the five constructs of employee perceptions of supervisor support, goals and opinions, worsened performance, wellbeing, and mistakes were not statistically significant.

Presentation of the Findings

In this subsection, I discuss testing of the assumptions, present descriptive statistics and inferential results, provide a theoretical conversation about the findings, and conclude with a concise summary. I selected a correlational design to examine the relationship between employee job satisfaction, employee perceptions of supervisor support, and organizational profitability. The independent variables were employee job satisfaction and employee perceptions of supervisor support. The dependent variable was organizational profitability. I used bivariate and partial correlations to assess the strength and direction of relationships between the independent and dependent variables, the nine

constructs of employee job satisfaction, and the five constructs of employee perceptions of supervisor support. I utilized bootstrapping, using 2,000 samples, to address the possible influence of assumption violations. Thus, I present bootstrap confidence intervals of 95% where appropriate.

The following research question and hypotheses served to guide the statistical analysis I used to examine the relationship between employee job satisfaction and employee perceptions of supervisor support in 86 QSR locations against organizational profitability. The research question was: Does a linear combination of employee job satisfaction and employee perceptions of supervisor support significantly predict organizational profitability?

- Null Hypothesis (H_0): The linear combination of employee job satisfaction and employee perceptions of supervisor support will not significantly predict organizational profitability of QSRs.
- Alternative Hypothesis (H_1): The linear combination of employee job satisfaction and employee perceptions of supervisor support will significantly predict organizational profitability of QSRs.

Using multiple linear regression enabled me to determine if the linear combination of employee job satisfaction and employee perceptions of supervisor support significantly predicted organizational profitability. I used the bivariate and partial correlations as an assessment of each predictor variable for its significant contribution to the regression model. In addition, I used bivariate and partial correlations as an assessment of the strength and direction of the relationships of the nine constructs of

employee job satisfaction (pay, promotion, supervision, benefits, contingent rewards, operating procedures, coworkers, nature of work, and communication), the five constructs of employee perceptions of supervisor support (employee wellbeing, mistakes, worsened performance, requested special favors, and consideration of employee's goals and opinions), and the dependent variable of organizational profitability, defined as EBITDA. I used the Bonferroni approach and a corrected significance level of $p < .017$ to assess the parameter estimates of the bivariate correlations to minimize the chance of committing a Type I error, as suggested by Green and Salkind (2014). I provide the descriptive statistics of the study variables before the analysis results.

Tests of Assumptions

I evaluated the assumptions of multicollinearity, normality, linearity, homoscedasticity, and independence of residuals. Bootstrapping, using 2,000 samples, enabled me to combat the influence of assumption violations. Violating the assumptions of statistical analysis may lead to misleading and biased study results (Uyanık & Güler, 2013). According to Green and Salkind (2014), an understanding of how assumptions violations affect final study results is necessary to produce trustworthy and meaningful analysis.

Multicollinearity. Multicollinearity occurs when the predictor variables have underlying latent interrelationships, or the predictor variables are collinear (Yu et al., 2015). Toledo and Lopes (2016) recommended using the VIF test for assessing multicollinearity between predictor variables. No violation of the assumption of multicollinearity exists when the VIF is less than 10 (Liu et al., 2016; Yu et al., 2015).

When I conducted the VIF test, the VIF value between the independent variables was 5.66, and I assumed that the predictor variables were independent of each other.

Normality, linearity, homoscedasticity, and independence of residuals.

Statisticians assume that regression variables are normally distributed, linear, homoscedastic, and that the regression residual values are unrelated (Green & Salkind, 2014). Skewed or non-normally distributed variables can distort relationships and lead to Type I error and biased statistics (Blanca, Arnau, López-Montiel, Bono, & Bendayan, 2013). Uyanık and Güler (2013) recommended calculating skewness and kurtosis coefficients to determine normality and ensure ranges are within the range of +/-1. I used skewness and kurtosis calculations to evaluate normality among the three variables (see Table 1) and examined regression assumptions by visually inspecting the normal probability plot (P-P) of the regression standardized residuals (Figure 2) and the scatter plot of the standardized residuals (Figure 3). I concluded that the skewness and kurtosis coefficients ranges (see Table 1) were within the expected values of +/-1.

Table 1

Coefficient Values for Skewness and Kurtosis

| | Skewness | SE Skewness | Kurtosis | SE Kurtosis | N |
|--------|----------|-------------|----------|-------------|----|
| EJS | -.314 | .279 | -.666 | .552 | 74 |
| EPSS | -.618 | .279 | -.623 | .552 | 74 |
| EBITDA | .099 | .279 | -.125 | .552 | 74 |

Note. EJS = employee job satisfaction; EPSS = employee perceptions of supervisor support; EBIDTA = earnings before interest, depreciation, taxes, amortization.

The visual examination of the normal probability plot (Figure 2) and the scatterplot of the standardized residuals (Figure 3) supported my conclusion that no violation of normality, linearity, homoscedasticity, or independence of residuals existed. The regression model is adequate when the normal probability plots of the residuals form a reasonably straight line and no obvious pattern exists among the plots of the regression standardized residuals (Makadia & Nanavati, 2013). I neither observed a major deviation from the straight line in the normal probability plot (Figure 2), nor observed a systematic pattern in the scatterplot of the standardized residual values (Figure 3), which indicates that no serious assumption violations exist. Despite the fact that no serious violations of the regression assumptions existed, I computed 2,000 bootstrap samples to combat any potential influence of assumption violations and reported the 95% confidence intervals based upon the bootstrap samples where appropriate.

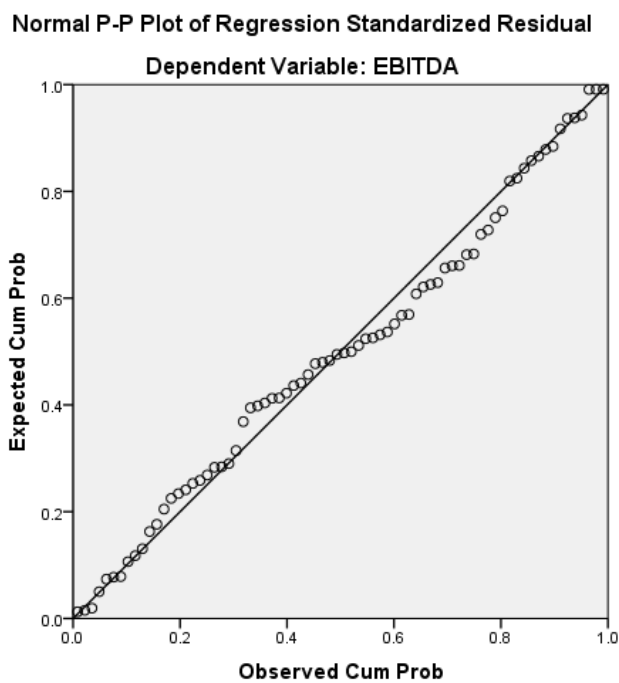


Figure 2. Normal probability plot (P-P) of the regression standardized residual.

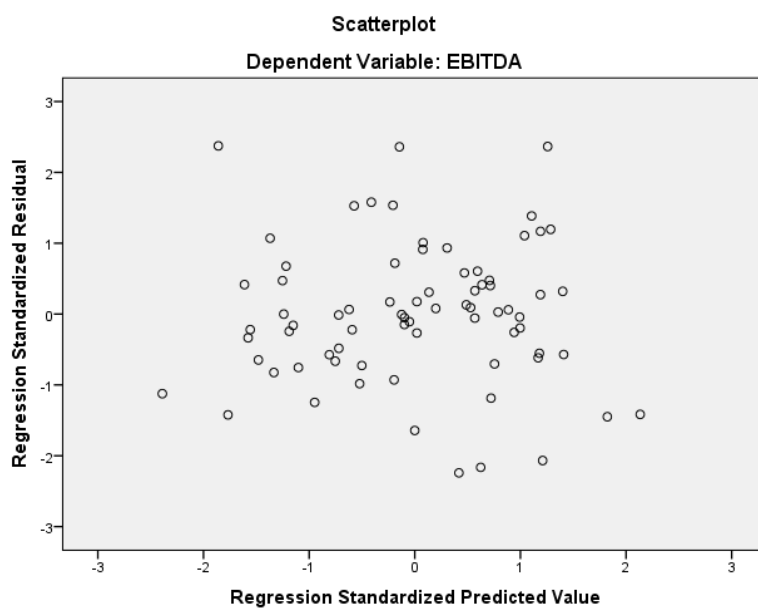


Figure 3. Scatterplot of the standardized residuals.

Descriptive Statistics

Of the 86 available franchise QSRs, I received 134 surveys from 74 participating locations. I cleaned and screened the data to check for outliers and to remove 18 records because of missing data, and used mean score replacement to replace missing scores within eight constructs of the JSS to ensure data quality. The level of employee job satisfaction ranged from a low of 60 (dissatisfied) to 196 (satisfied) with a mean level of 133.99 (ambivalent). The level of employee perceptions of supervisor support ranged from 6 (low perceived supervisor support) to 35 (high perceived supervisor support) with a mean of 24.12 (medium perceived supervisor support). The standard deviations of 30.7 and 7.38 for employee job satisfaction and employee perceptions of supervisor support, respectively, indicated that a large amount of variation existed among the group. The average EBITDA among the surveyed population was \$139,103.08 with a standard deviation of \$60,858.61. Bootstrapping, using 2,000 samples, combatted the possible influence of assumption violations. Table 2 contains the mean (*M*), standard deviation (*SD*), and descriptive statistics of the study variables.

Table 2

Descriptive Statistics for Quantitative Study Variables

| | <i>M</i> | <i>SD</i> | Min | Max | Bootstrapped 95% CI (<i>M</i>) |
|--------|------------|-----------|-----------|------------|-------------------------------------|
| EJS | 133.99 | 30.70 | 60.00 | 196.00 | [175.29, 2214.01] |
| EPSS | 24.12 | 7.38 | 6.00 | 35.00 | [-5,503.52, 2.850.12] |
| EBIDTA | 139,103.08 | 60,858.61 | 11,345.00 | 303,917.00 | [-52,383.01, 81,555.97] |

Note. $N = 74$. EJS = employee job satisfaction; EPSS = employee perceptions of supervisor support; EBIDTA = earnings before interest, depreciation, taxes, amortization. Dissatisfied = 36 – 108 for total EJS; Ambivalence = 109 – 144 for total EJS; Satisfied = 145 – 216 for total EJS. Low EPSS = 5 – 14.9; Medium EPSS = 15 - 25; High EPSS = 25.1 - 35.

In the surveyed population, 58.1% of participants were dissatisfied or ambivalent. Upon examining the level of satisfaction attributed to the constructs of employee job satisfaction, I found that 52.7% of participants were satisfied with promotion opportunity, 67.7% of participants were satisfied with supervision, 70.3% of participants were satisfied with coworker relationships, and 60.8% of participants were satisfied with the nature of work. Within the surveyed population, 43.2% of participants were dissatisfied with pay, 37.8% of participants were dissatisfied with benefits, 47.3% of participants were dissatisfied with contingent rewards, and 37.8% of participants were dissatisfied with communication.

In the surveyed population, the overall levels of employee perceptions of supervisor support (EPSS) were that 50% of participants had high levels of perceived supervisor support, 27% of participants had medium levels of perceived supervisor

support, and 23% of participants had low levels of perceived supervisor support. Upon examining the level of perceived support attributed to the constructs of employee perceptions of supervisor support, I found that within the surveyed population, a majority of employees had high levels of perceived supervisor support in four out of the five variable constructs. A majority of the surveyed population were satisfied with the four EPSS constructs of goals and opinions (63.5%), requested special favors (60.8%), worsened performance (56.8%), and wellbeing (55.4%). Approximately 57% of participants were unsure if supervisors would forgive an honest mistake.

Inferential Results

Researchers calculate correlation coefficients to determine the strength and relationships between variables (Puth et al., 2014). Calculating partial correlations allows for partialling out or controlling for the effects of other variables to understand the relationship strength between specific variables or constructs (Green & Salkind, 2014). I conducted correlation analysis, $\alpha = .05$ (one-tailed), to examine how well the independent variables of employee job satisfaction and employee perceptions of supervisor support related to the dependent variable of organizational profitability. In addition, I calculated partial correlations between the independent variable constructs to understand the relationship between the variable constructs and the dependent variable while controlling for the effects of other variables and constructs. The null hypothesis was that the linear combination of employee job satisfaction and employee perceptions of supervisor support would not significantly predict the organizational profitability of QSRs. The alternate hypothesis was that the linear combination of employee job satisfaction and employee

perceptions of supervisor support would significantly predict the organizational profitability of QSRs. I conducted preliminary analyses to assess whether the data met the assumptions of normality, linearity, and homoscedasticity; no serious violations were noted (see *Tests of Assumptions*). The regression model as a whole was able to significantly predict EBITDA, $F(2, 71) = 9.20, p < .001, R^2 = .206$. The sample multiple correlation coefficient measured by R had a moderate effect size of .454, indicating that the regression model accounted for approximately 21% of the variance in EBITDA.

Employee job satisfaction and employee perceptions of supervisor support both made a significant contribution to the regression model suggesting that a positive predictive relationship exists between the independent and dependent variables. The positive slope for employee job satisfaction (.577) as a predictor for EBITDA indicated a .577 increase occurs in EBITDA for each one-point increase in employee job satisfaction. The negative slope for employee perceptions of supervisor support (-.140) as a predictor for EBITDA indicated a .140 decrease occurs in EBITDA for each one-point increase in employee perceptions of supervisor support. EBITDA tends to increase as employee job satisfaction increases and EBITDA tends to decrease as employee perceptions of supervisor support increases, indicating the effects of a confounding or mediating variable. Upon examining the partial coefficients (see Table 3), I estimated that .263 of the variance in EBITDA is uniquely predictable from employee job satisfaction and that -.066 of the variance in EBITDA is uniquely predictable from employee perceptions of supervisor support. I examined the squared partial correlation coefficients and concluded that employee job satisfaction accounts for approximately 7% of the variance in EBITDA

when controlling for employee perceptions of supervisor support and that employee perceptions of supervisor support account for .5% of the variance in EBITDA when controlling for employee job satisfaction.

Table 3

Bivariate and Partial Correlations of the Independent Variables with EBITDA

| Predictors | Bivariate correlations between | Partial correlations between EJS, |
|------------|--------------------------------|-----------------------------------|
| | EJS, EPSS, and EBITDA | EPSS, and EBITDA |
| EJS | .450* | .263* |
| EPSS | .383* | -.066* |

Note. *Test level for bivariate and partial correlations were significant at $p \leq .001$ (one-tailed). EJS = employee job satisfaction; EPSS = Employee perceptions of supervisor support; EBITDA = earnings before interest, depreciation, taxes, amortization.

I calculated Cronbach's Alpha to assess the reliability of the constructs that make up the independent variables used for analysis. Within the JSS, the independent variable of employee job satisfaction consisted of 36 questions comprising nine constructs. The pay construct comprised questions 1, 10, 19, and 28 where question 19 was reverse scored ($\alpha = .91$). The promotion construct comprised questions 2, 11, 20, and 33 where question 2 was reverse scored ($\alpha = .83$). The supervision construct comprised questions 3, 12, 21, and 30 where questions 12 and 21 were reverse scored ($\alpha = .91$). The benefits construct comprised questions 4, 13, 22, and 29 where questions 4 and 29 were reverse scored ($\alpha = .82$). The contingent rewards construct comprised questions 5, 14, 23, and 32 where questions 14, 23, and 32 were reverse scored ($\alpha = .87$). The operating rewards

construct comprised questions 6, 15, 24, and 31 where questions 6, 24, and 31 were reverse scored ($\alpha = .52$). The coworkers construct comprised questions 7, 16, 25, and 34 where questions 16 and 34 were reverse scored ($\alpha = .83$). The nature of work construct comprised questions 8, 17, 27, and 35 where question 8 was reverse scored ($\alpha = .90$). The communication construct comprised questions 9, 18, 26, and 36 where questions 18, 26, and 36 were reverse scored ($\alpha = .89$).

Within the Survey of Perceived Supervisor Support, the independent variable of employee perceptions of supervisor support comprised five constructs. I calculated Cronbach's Alpha to assess the reliability of the constructs comprised of multiple items. The consideration of employee's goals and opinions construct comprised questions 1 and 8 ($\alpha = .88$). The employee wellbeing construct comprised questions 3, 6, and 7 where questions 6 and 7 were reverse scored ($\alpha = .89$). The constructs of worsened performance comprised question 2, mistakes comprised question 4, and requested special favors comprised question 5. The Survey of Perceived Supervisor Support is a proven and reliable instrument, and I used the reported single question construct reliabilities of Hutchison (1997) because of no ability to conduct confirmatory factor analysis through a test-retest. Hutchison confirmed that the single question internal consistency reliabilities of questions 2, 4, and 5 are between .74 and .97 with an average of $\alpha = .92$. The CPO of the QSR franchise organization provided organizational profitability data, EBITDA, to use for the dependent variable. EBITDA is a calculated measurement of organizational profitability that is reflective of the organization's current profitability and financial

performance (Androsova et al., 2014; Muhammad, 2013). Determining the reliability or scoring organizational profitability was not necessary.

Employee job satisfaction. Employee job satisfaction was a significant predictive contributor to increasing organizational profitability, as measured by EBITDA. Using the Bonferroni approach to control for Type I error across the 6 correlations required a p -value of less than .017 ($.05/3 = .017$) for statistical significance. The positive slope for employee job satisfaction (.450) indicated a statistically significant result with a moderate effect size and that 20% of the variation in EBITDA is because of the relationship between employee job satisfaction and EBITDA. The variance in EBITDA, as determined by calculating the squared partial correlation, indicated that employee job satisfaction accounts for .263 or approximately 7% of the variance in EBITDA when controlling for employee perceptions of supervisor support. Upon examining the partial correlation coefficients of the nine constructs of employee job satisfaction, I concluded that pay ($r = .41, p < .001$), promotion ($r = .45, p < .001$), contingent rewards ($r = .45, p < .001$), nature of work ($r = .42, p < .001$), and communication ($r = .39, p = .001$) were statistically significant with moderate effect sizes and associated with EBITDA. In addition, I determined that a significant correlation existed between each variable, the constructs of each variable, and communication.

Employee perceptions of supervisor support. Employee perceptions of supervisor support did not provide any significant predictive contribution to increasing organizational profitability. Using the Bonferroni approach to control for Type I error across the six correlations required a p -value of less than .017 ($.05/3 = .017$) for statistical

significance. The positive slope for employee perceptions of supervisor support (.383) represented a moderate effect size and that approximately 15% of the variation in EBITDA is because of the relationship between employee perceptions of supervisor support and EBITDA. Although a relationship existed between employee perceptions of supervisor support and EBITDA, employee perceptions of supervisor support did not provide any significant variation in EBITDA. The variance in EBITDA, as determined by calculating the squared partial correlation, indicated that employee perceptions of supervisor support accounts for -.066 or approximately .5% of the variance in EBITDA when controlling for employee job satisfaction. Upon examining the partial correlation coefficients of the five constructs of employee perceptions of supervisor support, I concluded that requested special favors ($r = .38, p = .001$) was statistically significant with a moderate effect size and associated with EBITDA. Table 4 depicts the regression analysis summary.

Table 4

Regression Analysis Summary for Predictor Variables

| Variable | <i>B</i> | <i>SE B</i> | β | <i>t</i> | <i>p</i> | <i>B</i> 95% Bootstrap CI |
|----------|-----------|-------------|---------|----------|----------|---------------------------|
| EJS | 1,143.01 | 498.11 | .577 | 2.29 | .025 | [175.29, 2,214.01] |
| EPSS | -1,153.43 | 2,073.03 | -.140 | -.556 | .580 | [-5,503.52, 2,850.12] |

Note. $N = 74$. EJS = employee job satisfaction; EPSS = Employee perceptions of supervisor support.

Analysis summary. The purpose of this study was to examine the relationship between employee job satisfaction, employee perceptions of supervisor support, and

organizational profitability. I used standard multiple linear regression to determine if the linear combination of employee job satisfaction and employee perceptions of supervisor support significantly predicted organizational profitability. I used bivariate and partial correlations as the assessment of each predictor variable for its significant contribution to the regression model. In addition, I used bivariate and partial correlations to examine the strength and direction of relationships between the independent variable constructs and the dependent variable. I assessed the assumptions of standard multiple linear regression and noted no violations. The regression model as a whole was able to significantly predict EBITDA, $F(2, 71) = 9.42, p < .001, R^2 = .206$. The R^2 (.206) value indicated that the linear combination of the predictor variables (employee job satisfaction and employee perceptions of supervisor support) accounts for approximately 21% of variations in EBITDA. In the final regression model, employee job satisfaction was statistically significant with EBITDA ($\beta = .577, p = .025$). Employee perceptions of supervisor support ($\beta = -.140, p = .580$) was a negative regressor and did not provide any significant variation in EBITDA. The conclusion from this analysis was that only the independent variable of employee job satisfaction was a significant predictor of EBITDA.

The study results indicated that employee job satisfaction was a significant predictor of organizational profitability and that employee perceptions of supervisor support was not a significant predictor of organizational profitability. The research results show that a positive correlation existed between both employee job satisfaction and employee perceptions of supervisor support and between each predictor variable and EBITDA. Although employee perceptions of supervisor support was not a significant

predictor of organizational profitability, the statistically significant correlation between employee job satisfaction and employee perceptions of supervisor support ($p = .001$) suggests that employee perceptions of supervisor support mediate the relationship between employee job satisfaction and organizational profitability. These results were consistent with other studies (Bhatnagar, 2014; Blanchett, 2014; Nichols et al., 2016). Bhatnagar (2014) found that psychological contracts, rewards, and recognition mediated the effect that perceived supervisor support had on employee performance and organizational outcomes. Blanchett (2014) outlined that when employees perceived supervisors as supportive that employee job satisfaction increased, employee productivity increased, and that the organization had a higher potential for growth and prosperity. Nichols et al. (2016) concluded that lower organizational profitability was the result of increased voluntary employee turnover and decreased organizational effectiveness caused by poor employee job satisfaction related to negative supervisor-supervisee relationships. Supervisors should work collaboratively with their employees to positively influence organizational performance through an engaged and committed workforce (Nichols et al., 2016). Although I did not seek to determine the factors that influenced employee job satisfaction, other researchers confirmed that outside factors could mediate the predictive nature of perceived supervisor support.

In this study, the employee job satisfaction constructs of pay, promotion, contingent rewards, nature of work, and communication were statistically significant with moderate effect sizes and associated with EBITDA. The employee perceptions of supervisor support construct of requested special favors was statistically significant with

a moderate effect size and associated with EBITDA. Mishra et al., 2014 identified that communication was a theme connected with organizational sustainability. Purohit and Bandyopadhyay (2014) concluded that pay, promotion, rewards, and the work itself significantly contributed to organizational outcomes. Škerlavaj et al., (2014) found that when supervisors were willing to help with an unusual employee request that perceptions of support strengthened the relational commitment between the supervisor and the employee to create higher levels of innovation and organizational performance. Research results show that strengthening perceptions of supervisor support, employee job satisfaction, and the key underlying constructs of pay, promotion, contingent rewards, nature of work, communication, and requested special favors positively influence organizational profitability.

Theoretical conversation on findings. I hypothesized that satisfied employees who perceived that their supervisors were supportive produced higher outputs and that their organizations were more profitable than organizations where employees were less satisfied and had low perceptions of supervisor support. The theoretical framework of motivation-hygiene theory includes the premise that employees that are more satisfied and that receive the support of supervisors within their organization perform better and provide beneficial organizational outcomes (Herzberg et al., 1959; Herzberg, 1968; Herzberg, 1976). Supervisors are responsible for improving employee job satisfaction and organizational performance (Metcalf & Benn, 2013). Organizational relationships are associated with organizational performance (Smith & Shields, 2013). The results of my research extend the findings of Metcalf and Benn, and Smith and Shields, and contribute

to the literature by demonstrating that developing supportive supervisor relationships in conjunction with satisfied employees produces tangible organizational value in the form of increased organizational profitability, as measured by EBITDA.

In the current study, a statistically significant predictive relationship existed between employee job satisfaction and organizational profitability, as measured by EBITDA. Herzberg (1968) speculated that if employers worked to increase employee job satisfaction both industry and society could reap large social and financial dividends. Herzberg (1976) outlined that increased organizational profitability was the outcome of improving employee job satisfaction. My findings were consistent with Herzberg (1968) and Herzberg (1976) that a predictive relationship exists between employee job satisfaction, economic gains, and organizational profitability.

By determining that employee job satisfaction was a significant predictor of organizational profitability, I provided tangible evidence that employee feelings and attitudes drive organizational economic value. In the hospitality industry, positive supervisor and employee relationships influence employee engagement to create higher levels of employee job satisfaction and potentially increase financial performance and organizational profitability (Lee & Ok, 2016). My conclusions extend Lee and Ok and show that as employee job satisfaction levels increase there is a corresponding positive increase in organizational profitability. Improving employee job satisfaction influences the organizational climate and is necessary to improve organizational performance and gain a competitive advantage (Albrecht et al., 2015). Carvalho et al. (2016) detailed that EBITDA is a measure of business value and that continued growth in EBITDA is

representative of organizational resilience and sustainability. Consistent with Carvalho et al., EBITDA was the measure of organizational profitability within my study and representative of organizational sustainability. The significant relationship between employee job satisfaction and EBITDA, within my study, extends Albrecht et al. and shows that improving employee job satisfaction creates a competitive advantage through improved financial performance. Increased organizational financial performance is a function of improving employee job satisfaction.

In the current study employee perceptions of supervisor support did not provide any significant variation in EBITDA although a significant relationship existed between employee job satisfaction and employee perceptions of supervisor support and between employee perceptions of supervisor support and EBITDA. Employee job satisfaction is a determinant of perceived supervisor support and both employee job satisfaction and organizational effectiveness increases with employee perceptions of supervisor support (Cahill et al., 2015). Similar to Cahill et al. (2015) the study participants' responses confirmed that employee job satisfaction and employee perceptions of supervisor support are significantly associated. Perceived supervisor support creates a reciprocal supervisor-supervisee relationship that improves employee job satisfaction, which in turn increases organizational effectiveness and performance by improving employee retention (Nichols et al., 2016). The results of my study confirm Nichols et al. (2016) that a relationship exists between employee perceptions of supervisor support and employee job satisfaction. The results of my study extend Nichols et al. by connecting organizational performance to EBITDA, which increases business value, although confirming Nichols et

al. connection to employee retention was beyond the scope of the study.

An association exists between employee job satisfaction, employee perceptions of supervisor support, and voluntary employee turnover, and an association exists between voluntary employee turnover and organizational profitability. Low levels of job satisfaction and low levels of employee morale cause high levels of voluntary employee turnover is associated with (Davis, 2013). When employees perceive strong supervisor support the employees are more likely to perform at higher levels and are less likely to leave the organization (Basuil et al., 2016). Voluntary employee turnover reduces organizational profitability by \$3,000 - \$10,000 per hourly employee (Guchait et al., 2015). My findings suggest that the significant relationship between perceived supervisor support and employee job satisfaction are indirectly responsible for increases in EBITDA because of higher performance levels and directly associated with EBITDA because of lower voluntary employee turnover. Organizations should target perceived supervisor and social support to increase employee job satisfaction, to increase organizational performance, and to lower voluntary employee turnover (Macdonald & Levy, 2016). As an extension of Macdonald and Levy (2016), my research indicates that finding ways to increase employee perceptions of supervisor support allows organizations to capture both employee satisfaction and financial gains.

I concluded that a statistically significant relationship existed between EBITDA and the employee job satisfaction constructs of pay, promotion, contingent rewards, nature of work, and communication and the requested special favors construct of employee perceptions of supervisor support. Within the restaurant industry ineffective

supervisor communication is responsible for voluntary employee turnover and decreased organizational profitability (McClellan et al., 2013). Recognition and rewards are associated with perceived supervisor support and increase firm innovation and decrease voluntary employee turnover, and effective use of recognition and rewards is important in economic downturns (Bhatnagar, 2014). Pay, promotion, rewards, and the work itself significantly contributes to organizational outcomes (Purohit & Bandyopadhyay, 2014). Confirming McClellan et al. (2013), Bhatnagar (2014), and Purohit and Bandyopadhyay (2014). My study indicated that the constructs of employee job satisfaction and employee perceptions of supervisor support that had the highest levels of significance with EBITDA (listed in order of relationship strength) were promotion, contingent rewards, pay, nature of work, communication, and requested special favors. Extending McClellan et al. my study connected communication to organizational profitability in the absence of voluntary employee turnover. Extending Purohit and Bandyopadhyay, my study confirmed that pay, promotion, rewards, and the work itself are associated specifically with the organizational outcome of increased profitability.

In Herzberg et al.'s (1959) motivation and hygiene theory the intrinsic job (motivation) factors are associated with increasing job satisfaction (recognition, advancement, and the work itself) and extrinsic job (hygiene) factors decrease employee job dissatisfaction (supervision, pay, benefits, and relationships). The motivators of recognition, the work itself, and advancement are constructs that drive employee job satisfaction (Chyung & Vachon, 2013). Hygiene factors of supervision, salary, benefits, coworker relationships, and operating procedures are constructs that affect employee job

dissatisfaction (Bogicevic, Yang, Bilgihan, & Bujisic, 2013). Pan (2015) concluded that pay was the top issue that supervisors need to address in the hospitality industry if the desire was to increase employee job satisfaction. Similar to Herzberg et al. and Chyung and Vachon (2013), I concluded that a relation existed between employee job satisfaction, recognition, promotion, and the work itself. The results of my study extended Pan regarding pay in the hospitality industry and disconfirmed Bogicevic, Yang, Bilgihan, and Bujisic (2013) that supervision, pay, benefits, and relationships only affect levels of employee job dissatisfaction.

Herzberg et al. (1959) stated that culture might be a component of employee job satisfaction and lead to contradictory results. The disconfirming and contradictory findings within my study indicating that a relationship exists between employee job satisfaction and hygiene factors are not isolated incidents. I located other studies in the review of literature that did not confirm variable associations between employee job satisfaction, employee perceptions of supervisor support, and organizational profitability. Employee job satisfaction is not a function of intrinsic factors related to the work but instead is a part of culture and societal norms (Lan et al., 2013; Ravari et al., 2013). Lan et al. (2013), in a study of Chinese accounting practitioners, concluded that employee job satisfaction was a function of work orientation and a desire to perform the job. Ravari et al. (2013), in a study of Iranian nurses, concluded that employee job satisfaction was due to a sense of altruism and was a core value of the nursing profession. Khan et al. (2013) found that employee job satisfaction was an intrinsic factor driven by moral values. The results of my study indicated both intrinsic and extrinsic job factors increase employee

job satisfaction. The results of my study disconfirmed Herzberg et al. that only motivator factors are associated with employee job satisfaction while the results confirmed Lan et al. and Ravari et al. that culture and relationships contribute to motivational outcomes.

The results produced from the data gathered from the 134 QSR employees who participated in this study indicated that the combination of employee job satisfaction and employee perceptions of supervisor support were predictive of organizational profitability and that a relationship existed between employee job satisfaction and employee perceptions of supervisor support. Driving organizational performance is a function of using management to select satisfied and engaged employees rather than using supervisory influence to alter undesirable behaviors (Handa & Gulati, 2014). Parsa et al. (2015), in an investigation of restaurant failure, concluded that restaurant size, chain affiliation, and demographics determined organizational profitability. The results of my study confirm Handa and Gulati (2014) that satisfaction, supervision, and performance are associated yet disconfirm that Handa and Gulati's conclusion that supervision selects satisfied employees rather than influences satisfaction. The results of my study disconfirm Parsa et al.'s that extrinsic marketplace demographics are solely responsible for organizational profitability.

My research shows that feelings and attitudes regarding employee job satisfaction and employee perceptions of supervisor support are capable of driving multiple processes. Positive feelings about working conditions and supervisor support increase employees' loyalty toward the organization (Nguyen et al., 2014). Employee engagement increases when employees are satisfied, and increased employee satisfaction stimulates

employee wellbeing and productivity (Shuck & Reio, 2014). Similar to Nguyen et al. (2014) and Shuck and Reio (2014) my study indicates that feelings and attitudes drive employee job satisfaction and perceptions of supervisor support. Employee job satisfaction is a proxy for employee health and wellbeing and is associated with employee loyalty and firm productivity and performance (Goetzel et al., 2016). The results of my research extends Goetzel et al.'s conclusion that employee job satisfaction is a proxy for employee health and wellbeing that leads to increased employee loyalty and suggests that increases in organizational profitability are related to increased employee retention and productivity.

Applications to Professional Practice

My findings that employee job satisfaction is a significant predictor of organizational profitability and that a relationship exists between employee job satisfaction, employee perceptions of supervisor support, and organizational profitability have implications for business practice. Organizations that fail to invest in ways to improve employee job satisfaction have financial performance that is 3.8% annually lower than similar firms (Goetzel et al., 2016). Business leaders need to understand the relationships outlined in this study because failing to improve factors that enhance employee job satisfaction is costly and disruptive. The implications are that surveying employee's feelings and attitudes toward job satisfaction and perceived supervisor support and developing programs to enhance the core driving factors (pay, promotion, contingent rewards, nature of work, communication, and requested special favors) may

increase organizational profitability (at least in the QSR franchise organization that was the setting for the current study).

Restaurants in the QSR industry have disproportionately high employee turnover compared to the private sector (U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2016). Voluntary employee turnover is a costly organizational expense with costs of \$3,000 - \$10,000 per hourly employee in the QSR and hospitality industry (Guchait et al., 2015). A primary cause of voluntary employee turnover in the QSR and hospitality industry is that employees perceive that they have no voice in the decision-making process of the organization and they leave the organization (McClellan et al., 2013). Ineffective communication leads a lack of perceived supervisor support and contributes to decreased employee job satisfaction and organizational effectiveness (Dasgupta et al., 2013). This study indicated that a statistically significant relationship exists between employee job satisfaction, employee perceptions of supervisor support, and EBITDA. In addition, the results of this study indicate that communication is an important construct due to its statistically significant relationship ($p \leq .001$) with each variable and its relationship with each of the additional constructs.

The findings of my study might contribute to improved human resource management (HRM) strategies. The issue facing QSR franchisees is that supervisors do not understand the relationships between perceptions of supervision, motivation, engagement, and job satisfaction (Pan, 2015), affective commitment, organizational effectiveness, and organizational profitability (Nichols et al., 2016). Organizations that have successful HRM strategies to improve supervisor and organizational behavior have

high levels of employee retention, employee engagement, job satisfaction, and financial performance (Goetzel et al., 2016). The results of my study showing that a relationship exists between employee job satisfaction and employee perceptions of supervisor support in the QSR industry suggests that if QSR business professionals actively pursue an HRM strategy to positively change supervisor and organizational behavior as part of a business practice that organizational profitability could increase.

An additional application to business practice in the QSR industry is to enhance employee productivity by increasing levels of employee engagement and commitment through increased perceived supervisor support. Organizations that improve employees' perceived supervisor and social support within the workplace increases employee job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and employee engagement (Macdonald & Levy, 2016). Successful hospitality organizations work to improve attitudes and organizational behavior in the work-context by emphasizing supportive employee and management relationships to improve employee engagement, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment (Lee & Ok, 2016). The results of my study indicated that a majority of study participants perceived high levels of supervisor support in the areas of goals and opinions (63.5%), understanding worsened performance (56.8%), wellbeing (55.4%), and requested special favors (60.8%), strengthening the relationship between employee job satisfaction and employee perceptions of supervisor support ($p < .001$) The application to business practice is that when organizations improve the relationship between employee perceptions of supervisor support and employee job satisfaction that employees' organizational commitment and engagement will improve.

Improving employee job satisfaction and employee perceptions of supervisor support could enhance employee work-life balance, increase employee wellbeing, and lower stress both inside and outside of the organization in a way to minimize mental health related issues and costs. A relationship exists between job dissatisfaction, job stress related illnesses, poor mental health, and overall wellbeing (Tatsuse & Sekine, 2013). Supervisors perceived as unsupportive, controlling, and that failed to provide feedback negatively affected levels of employee job satisfaction and employee wellbeing (Mathieu et al., 2014). Employee job satisfaction is a proxy for employee health and wellbeing, and when organizations offer health wellness programs, the overall firm value increases (Goetzel et al., 2016). The findings of my study indicated that a strong correlation existed between employee perceptions of supervisor support and employee job satisfaction ($p < .001$) and that high levels of employee job satisfaction was predictive of high levels of organizational profitability ($p < .001$). The application is that QSR business professionals could maximize organizational profitability by promoting employee wellness programs to lower job stress, promoting employee mental health employee wellbeing.

Implications for Social Change

The implications for positive social change include the potential to provide information to business professionals to influence employee perceptions of supervisor support in ways that enhance employee job satisfaction and the underlying relationships with organizational profitability. Social issues related to perceptions of supervisor support and employee job satisfaction include the adverse impact that unaddressed

organizational issues and employee job dissatisfaction have on employee mental health and wellbeing (Alfes et al., 2013; Herzberg, 1976; Tatsuse & Sekine, 2013). Satisfying employees' need for meaningfulness and safety allows employers to capitalize on the enthusiasm and energy that they bring to their organizational role (Albrecht et al., 2015). Helping business professionals to understand the factors that generate poor perceptions of supervisor support and job dissatisfaction may generate positive social change through a more engaged and productive workforce.

High employee turnover in the hospitality industry is the result of poor working conditions, pay levels, and HR development programs (AlBattat & Som, 2014). Employee turnover is the result of poor employee engagement practices and results in an unacceptable psychological workplace climate and poor employee wellbeing (Shuck & Reio, 2014). Business professionals within QSR locations that are willing and able to change and who allow employees to participate in the decision-making processes experience lower levels of employee turnover within their organizations (McClellan et al., 2013). Social change in the QSR industry will be to change the behavior of business professionals through HRM programs to improve employee retention, provide an improved organizational climate, and improve the health and wellbeing of those within the industry and communities served by the QSR industry.

Social change could occur through an organizational focus on employee relations. Firms that actively pursue positive organization-employee relationships have increased business success (Homburg, Stierl, & Bornemann, 2013). Maximizing organizational profitability is a function of satisfying the needs of employees to enhance workplace

behaviors and job performance (Lăzăroiu, 2015). Organizations that create partnerships with their local communities have a more engaged and satisfied workforce and have higher performing and more sustainable organizations (Metcalf & Benn, 2013). A partnership between organizational stakeholders and local communities may provide social and financial benefits. As business professionals embrace the results of this study social change within the QSRs may occur because of enhanced supervisor capabilities and communication that maximizes both employee performance and organizational profitability.

Recommendations for Action

Business professionals in the QSR industry should develop and implement programs to increase supervisory understanding of factors that enhance employee job satisfaction, employee perceptions of supervisor support, and organizational profitability. Employee job satisfaction increases when supervisors have the discretion to make improvements to operating procedures and policies that allows for participative management (McClellan et al., 2013) and through the consistent application of rules and procedures (DeHart-Davis, Davis, & Mohr, 2015). In my study, 47.3% of survey participants were ambivalent, and 18.9% were dissatisfied with rules and operating procedures. I recommend that QSR business professionals train supervisors to make unit-level business decisions based on goals and strategy rather than mandating inflexible tactics that may not positively influence the relationships between employee job satisfaction, employee perceptions of supervisor support, and organizational profitability.

Further recommendations for action include the implementation of job enrichment routines to increase promotion and advancement opportunities and lower voluntary employee turnover. Job enrichment and vertical job loading enhance employee motivation where the workforce feels a sense of achievement and self-actualization (Herzberg, 1968). Business professionals in the fast-food industry have lower voluntary employee turnover when they emphasize training, recognition, and job security (Mohsin & Lengler, 2015). Job enrichment improves employee motivation and job satisfaction which augment organizational performance and increases profitability by contributing to employees' higher-order needs for security and advancement (Nagaraju, & Mrema, 2016). Based on my findings, 31.1% of study participants were dissatisfied, and 16.2% were ambivalent with promotion opportunities. I recommend that QSR business professionals implement HRM programs that allow for routine career discussions with their employees to provide for job advancement and promotion opportunities.

A final recommendation for action is to reinforce positive job performance through formal recognition programs. The results of my study indicated that 47.3% of study participants were dissatisfied, and 29.7% were ambivalent with recognition and rewards. Recognition and rewards programs support the formation of psychological contracts between employees and organizations to increase organizational profitability by lowering voluntary employee turnover and increasing perceived supervisor support and employee job satisfaction (Bhatnagar, 2014). A positive correlation exists between public recognition and support and employee job satisfaction and improves the level of perceived control over one's work among both workers and supervisors (Jessen, 2015). I

recommend that QSR business professionals implement spontaneous as well as routine recognition and rewards programs contingent upon meeting quality and performance goals. By meeting the psychological needs of employees, organizational leadership may simultaneously meet the needs of the overall organization.

QSR business professionals should routinely monitor and review levels of employee job satisfaction and employee perceptions of supervisor support to understand opportunities to meet employees' higher-order needs, to potentially lower voluntary employee turnover, and to increase profitability. The findings can be disseminated using meetings, training, and inter and intraorganizational networking sources. Networking sources include social media, professional organizations, and human resource affiliations. Offering to share study findings at professional conferences through presentations can lead to the dissemination of knowledge, the exchange of ideas, and can enhance the knowledge of business leaders to understand both why employee job satisfaction and employee perceptions of supervisor support is important and provide suggestions on how to implement change.

Recommendations for Further Research

An underlying assumption of this study was that the surveyed population's answers were honest, based on experience, and self-reflective. Evidence of a violation of this assumption does not exist but due to a lower than expected survey response a recommendation for future research is to provide multiple venues for potential populations to participate that include both via email and paper format. The limitations of the study were (a) the sample population was from a specific organization and geographic

location, (b) the use of a convenience sample and (c) the use of a nonprobabilistic technique. Nonprobabilistic research techniques may introduce selection bias (Buseh et al., 2014) and limit generalizability (Catania et al., 2015). Research with limited generalizability may enhance the needs of a specific community but will not necessarily validate the model or serve the greater needs of society (Seponski, Bermudez, & Lewis, 2013). Further research in the area of employee job satisfaction, employee perceptions of supervisor support, and organizational profitability should include a randomized probabilistic technique to further mitigate bias and produce generalizable results useable across the larger QSR franchise industry. The ability to improve employee job satisfaction, employee perceptions of supervisor support, and organizational profitability across the larger QSR franchise industry would potentially create organizational sustainability, more jobs, and improve the health and wellbeing of those that work within the industry.

Study delimitations included the potential for (a) unknown variables, (b) the impact of demographics, and (c) the inability to use metrics related to intentions to leave the organization or to utilize actual employee turnover metrics. The results of this study indicated that confounding or mediating variables produced positive relationships between employee job satisfaction and employee perceptions of supervisor support but the independent variable of employee perceptions of supervisor support was a negative regressor. The research of Bhatnagar (2014), Casimir et al. (2014), Dysvik and Kuvaas, (2013), Eisenberger et al. (2002), Karami and Ismail (2013) and Rhoades et al. (2001) concluded that outside factors mediated perceptions of supervisor support. I recommend

more quantitative studies to examine the effects of demographics, and qualities of perceived supervisor support that include valuing goals and employee opinions, understanding worsened performance, desiring to improve employee wellbeing, and forgiving employee mistakes. By examining the relationships between specific factors of perceived supervisor support, it may allow business professionals a better understanding of how to design training and developmental programs to produce greater levels of employee job satisfaction through perceived supervisor support and increase organizational profitability.

In the review of literature, I found a lack of studies that directly connected employee perceptions of supervisor support to organizational profitability. Eisenberger et al. (2002) outlined that examining the perceptions of supervisor support may yield results that lead to maximizing supervisor-employee relationships and improve organizational performance. I recommend future researchers longitudinally examine and differentiate between the effect of perceptions of supervisor support within the QSR location and the affect caused by the above store level supervisor to maximize both employee job satisfaction and organizational profitability.

The review of the literature revealed a lack of mixed method studies on employee job satisfaction, employee perceptions of supervisor support, and organizational profitability. The use of mixed method research has the advantage of providing a holistic approach to exploring phenomena that is not achievable with a single research method (Venkatesh et al., 2013). A further research recommendation is to explore the employees' feelings within QSR industry population using a phenomenological approach and then

sequentially follow with a quantitative method to produce generalizable results. Using a sequential mixed method may allow QSR business professionals to understand specific aspects of employees' attitudes regarding supervisor support in addition to determining causal relationships.

Reflections

As someone with a deep interest in driving organizational results, I began this study with the preconceived idea that a relationship existed between employee job satisfaction, perceptions of supervisor support, and organizational profitability because of the link between the independent variables, employee performance, and employee turnover, as shown by previous studies. Previous researchers concluded that employee job satisfaction and perceptions of supervisor support are associated with both voluntary employee turnover and employee turnover intentions (Bhatnagar, 2014; Davis, 2013; Derby-Davis, 2014; Eisenberger et al., 2002; Herzberg et al., 1959; McClean et al., 2013; Papinczak, 2012; Rhoades et al., 2001). My desire was to demonstrate that a relationship existed between employee job satisfaction, employee perceptions of supervisor support, and organizational profitability. In addition, my expectation was to move beyond difficult to calculate issues of employee productivity, performance, and turnover and demonstrate a direct relationship with organizational profit and value.

The preconceived idea that a relationship existed between the study variables was not a factor in the study results because I used preexisting survey instruments that were both valid and reliable. My role as a researcher was to collect and analyze data and then to present the findings without bias, while protecting participant rights, and adhering to

ethical guidelines. The lack of contact between the participant population and me ensured that I did not influence the surveyed population by providing feedback about potential variable relationships or consequences of the study results.

The process of completing this study was challenging, informative, motivational, and frustrating. I was motivated and challenged to address a specific business problem within an industry comprised of low profit margins, high employee turnover and low-skill labor. This process taught me to critically think about problems and substantiate both my hypotheses and results through the work of scholars. I was able to overcome frustrations by utilizing peer resources and committee members to overcome obstacles and complete this scholastic journey. Although the completion of this research study was difficult, I have been able to form connections with peers and organizations with similar interests and intend to pursue additional studies via alternate methods to increase the generalizability of results.

Summary and Study Conclusions

The purpose of the quantitative correlational study was to determine if a linear combination of employee job satisfaction and employee perceptions of supervisor support significantly predict organizational profitability. Using multiple linear regression analysis, I concluded that employee job satisfaction was a significant predictor of organizational profitability ($p < .001$) and that employee perceptions of supervisor support did not significantly contribute to the regression model, which rejected the null hypothesis and the assumptions. The results of bivariate correlation analysis using Pearson's r indicated that a significant relationship existed between employee job

satisfaction and employee perception of supervisor support ($r = .91, p < .001$), between employee job satisfaction and organizational profitability ($r = .45, p < .001$), and between employee perceptions of supervisor support and organizational profitability ($r = .38, p = .001$).

Based on the significant relationships between the variables and the significant contribution that the predictor variable of employee job satisfaction had with organizational profitability ($\beta = .577, p = .025$), I conclude that business professionals implement HRM strategies to examine the feelings and attitudes of their workforce and improve the understanding that supervisors in QSRs have regarding the importance of a satisfied workforce. By altering the behaviors of supervisors and increasing employee job satisfaction, QSR business professionals have the opportunity to (a) strengthen the level of commitment that employees have for the organization, (b) improve engagement, (c) improve motivation, (d) increase organizational profits, (d) enhance overall business value, and (e) enhance sustainability. Maximizing employee job satisfaction and building a committed workforce has the potential to improve the quality of health and wellbeing for all stakeholders within the QSR industry.

The implication for positive social change is to help business professionals understand the factors that cause poor employee perceptions of supervisor support and job dissatisfaction and generate positive social change through a more engaged and productive workforce. An additional implication for social change is to enhance employee retention through an improved organizational climate and improve the quality of life for those within the QSR industry. By changing supervisory behaviors and

developing a greater understanding within supervisors of the relationships between the feelings and attitudes of their workforce and the profitability of their organizations, business leaders may improve the viability and sustainability of their organizations in addition to the wellbeing of society.

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Appendix A: Organizational Permission to Use Organizational Profitability Data

DATA USE AGREEMENT

This Data Use Agreement (“Agreement”), effective as of September 1, 2015 (“Effective Date”), is entered into by and between Joseph Carl Vann (“Data Recipient”) and [REDACTED] (“Data Provider”). The purpose of this Agreement is to provide Data Recipient with access to a Limited Data Set (“LDS”) for use in research **in accord with laws and regulations of the governing bodies associated with the Data Provider, Data Recipient, and Data Recipient’s educational program.** In the case of a discrepancy among laws, the agreement shall follow whichever law is more strict.

1. **Definitions.** Due to the study’s affiliation with Laureate, a USA-based company, unless otherwise specified in this Agreement, all capitalized terms used in this Agreement not otherwise defined have the meaning established for purposes of the USA “HIPAA Regulations” and/or “FERPA Regulations” codified in the United States Code of Federal Regulations, as amended from time to time.
2. **Preparation of the LDS.** Data Provider shall prepare and furnish to Data Recipient a LDS in accord with any applicable laws and regulations of the governing bodies associated with the Data Provider, Data Recipient, and Data Recipient’s educational program.
3. **Data Fields in the LDS.** **No direct identifiers such as names may be included in the Limited Data Set (LDS).** In preparing the LDS, Data Provider shall include the **data fields specified as follows**, which are the minimum necessary to accomplish the research: Organizational profitability is defined as earnings before interest, taxes, depreciation, and amortization (EBITDA) for the 86 franchise restaurants in the study population for the fiscal year ending 2015. Additionally, Data Provider will grant permission of employees of age 18 years and older to voluntarily participate and complete an online survey to determine levels employee job satisfaction and employee perceptions of supervisor support.
4. **Responsibilities of Data Recipient.** Data Recipient agrees to:
 - a. Use or disclose the LDS only as permitted by this Agreement or as required by law;
 - b. Use appropriate safeguards to prevent use or disclosure of the LDS other than as permitted by this Agreement or required by law;
 - c. Report to Data Provider any use or disclosure of the LDS of which it becomes aware that is not permitted by this Agreement or required by law;
 - d. Require any of its subcontractors or agents that receive or have access to the LDS to agree to the same restrictions and conditions on the use and/or disclosure of the LDS that apply to Data Recipient under this Agreement; and

- e. Not use the information in the LDS to identify or contact the individuals who are data subjects.

5. Permitted Uses and Disclosures of the LDS. Data Recipient may use and/or disclose the LDS for its Research activities only.

6. Term and Termination.

- a. Term. The term of this Agreement shall commence as of the Effective Date and shall continue for so long as Data Recipient uses the LDS for research activities, unless sooner terminated as set forth in this Agreement. The agreement will terminate at the conclusion of research activities and the LDS will be physically destroyed after 5 years.
- b. Termination by Data Recipient. Data Recipient may terminate this agreement at any time by notifying the Data Provider and returning or destroying the LDS.
- c. Termination by Data Provider. Data Provider may terminate this agreement at any time by providing thirty (30) days prior written notice to Data Recipient.
- d. For Breach. Data Provider shall provide written notice to Data Recipient within ten (10) days of any determination that Data Recipient has breached a material term of this Agreement. Data Provider shall afford Data Recipient an opportunity to cure said alleged material breach upon mutually agreeable terms. Failure to agree on mutually agreeable terms for cure within thirty (30) days shall entitle the Data Provider to seek all remedies available under law or equity.
- e. Effect of Termination. Sections 1, 4, 5, 6(e) and 7 of this Agreement shall survive any termination of this Agreement under subsections c or d.

7. Miscellaneous.

- a. Change in Law. The parties agree to negotiate in good faith to amend this Agreement to comport with changes in federal law that materially alter either or both parties' obligations under this Agreement. Provided however, that if the parties are unable to agree to mutually acceptable amendment(s) by the compliance date of the change in applicable law or regulations, either Party may terminate this Agreement as provided in section 6.
- b. Construction of Terms. The terms of this Agreement shall be construed to give effect to applicable federal interpretative guidance regarding the HIPAA Regulations.

- c. No Third Party Beneficiaries. Nothing in this Agreement shall confer upon any person other than the parties and their respective successors or assigns, any rights, remedies, obligations, or liabilities whatsoever.
- d. Counterparts. This Agreement may be executed in one or more counterparts, each of which shall be deemed an original, but all of which together shall constitute one and the same instrument.
- e. Headings. The headings and other captions in this Agreement are for convenience and reference only and shall not be used in interpreting, construing or enforcing any of the provisions of this Agreement.
- f. Jurisdiction and Venue. Texas law applies and any action must be brought in US federal court located in [REDACTED]

IN WITNESS WHEREOF, each of the undersigned has caused this Agreement to be duly executed in its name and on its behalf.

DATA PROVIDER

Signed: [REDACTED]

Print Name: [REDACTED]

Print Title: [REDACTED]

DATA RECIPIENT

Signed: Joyl Caldwell

Print Name: Joseph Carl UMN

Print Title: Researcher

Appendix B: Job Satisfaction Survey

| Job Satisfaction Survey | | | | | | | |
|--|---|--------------------|---------------------|-------------------|----------------|------------------|-----------------|
| 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 |
| 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 work with. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 17 | I like doing the things I do at work. | 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 |
|----|--|--------------------|---------------------|-------------------|----------------|------------------|-----------------|
| 18 | The goals of this organization are not clear to me. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 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 | There are benefits we do not have which we should have. | 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 explained. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |

Appendix C: Request to Use Job Satisfaction Survey Instrument

From: Joseph Vann
Sent: Saturday, September 27, 2014 12:44 PM
To: Spector, Paul
Subject: Job Satisfaction Survey

Dr. Spector,

I am a doctoral student at Walden University and I am conducting research on employee job satisfaction, perceived supervisor support, and organizational profitability. I would like to seek your permission to use the Job Satisfaction Survey for my research study. I located information related to the use of your survey instrument and according to your terms, the use must be for noncommercial educational research, no fee is charged, and that the results are shared with you. I agree to abide by the use terms and would appreciate your approval so that I can use your survey instrument for my study.

Thank you for your consideration,

Joseph Carl Vann

Appendix D: Permission to use Job Satisfaction Survey Instrument

Dear Joseph:

You have my permission to use the JSS in your research. You can find copies of the scale in the original English and several other languages, as well as details about the scale's development and norms in the 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
<http://shell.cas.usf.edu/~spector>

Appendix E: Survey of Perceived Supervisor Support

| <p style="text-align: center;">Survey of Perceived Supervisor Support</p> <p style="text-align: center;">Please circle a number between 1 and 7 to indicate the extent of your agreement with each items where</p> <p style="text-align: center;">1 = strongly disagree, 7 = strongly agree.</p> <p style="text-align: center;">Copyright Robert Eisenberger, Robin Huntington, Steven Hutchison, and Debora Sowa 1986, All rights reserved.</p> | | Strongly Disagree | | | | | | Strongly Agree |
|--|---|-------------------|---|---|---|---|---|----------------|
| 1. | The supervisors strongly consider my goals and values. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 2. | Help is available from supervisors when I have a problem. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 3. | The supervisors really care about my wellbeing. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 4. | The supervisors would forgive an honest mistake on my part. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 5. | The supervisors are willing to help me when I need a special favor. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 6. | If given the opportunity, the supervisors would take advantage of me. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 7. | The supervisors show very little concern for me. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 8. | The supervisors care about my opinions. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |

Appendix F: Request and Permission to Use Survey of Perceived Organizational Support

(POS scale)

From: Joseph Vann
Sent: Monday, July 21, 2014 8:23 AM
To: reisenberger2@
Subject: Use of survey

Dr. Eisenberger,

I am a doctoral student studying the relationships between employee job satisfaction, perceived supervisor support, and organizational profitability in the quick service restaurant industry. I believe that your 36 question Survey of Perceived Organizational Support would add value to my study as a survey instrument, and would like to request your permission for its use. The approach that I am currently taking is to use supervisor support as a collective term for the immediate person in charge and it would be inclusive of manager, supervisor, and leader, as in the current context there are a variety of roles that are fulfilled by a single person. I would value your thoughts or suggestions as well as what steps to take to use your survey instrument.

Thank you,

Joseph Carl Vann

Joseph,

I am happy to give permission for you to use the POS scale.

Cordially,

Bob

Robert Eisenberger
Professor of Psychology
College of Liberal Arts & Soc. Sciences
Professor of Management
C. T. Bauer College of Business
University of Houston

Appendix G: Request and Permission to Adjust Survey of Perceived Organizational
Support (POS scale)

Dr. Eisenberger,

I apologize for the continued interruption, however, the IRB at my University has asked me to obtain permission to make small modifications to the POS survey. The only modification that I foresee is to potentially substitute leadership or supervisor in the place of organization.

Thank you again for your time,
Joseph Vann

I give permission to use the POS survey in altered form.

Cordially,

Bob

Robert Eisenberger

Professor of Psychology

College of Liberal Arts & Soc. Sciences

Professor of Management

C. T. Bauer College of Business

University of Houston

Appendix H: Dependent Variable Spreadsheet

| Restaurant Number | Organizational Profitability | Restaurant Number | Organizational Profitability | Restaurant Number | Organizational Profitability |
|--------------------------|-------------------------------------|--------------------------|-------------------------------------|--------------------------|-------------------------------------|
| 1 | \$ 159,707.00 | 26 | \$ 92,871.00 | 51 | \$ 118,470.00 |
| 2 | \$ 195,400.00 | 27 | \$ 81,751.00 | 52 | \$ 110,568.00 |
| 3 | \$ 148,932.00 | 28 | \$ 82,607.00 | 53 | \$ 77,105.00 |
| 4 | \$ 58,803.00 | 29 | \$ 133,592.00 | 54 | \$ 56,926.00 |
| 5 | \$ 207,293.00 | 30 | \$ 217,864.00 | 55 | \$ 155,797.00 |
| 6 | \$ 137,416.00 | 31 | \$ 117,441.00 | 56 | \$ 141,976.00 |
| 7 | \$ 141,250.00 | 32 | \$ 93,745.00 | 57 | \$ 228,666.00 |
| 8 | \$ 109,735.00 | 33 | \$ 37,303.00 | 58 | \$ 240,370.00 |
| 9 | \$ 146,645.00 | 34 | \$ 67,146.00 | 59 | \$ 236,178.00 |
| 10 | \$ 264,927.00 | 35 | \$ 184,782.00 | 60 | \$ 149,269.00 |
| 11 | \$ 120,149.00 | 36 | \$ 98,507.00 | 61 | \$ 135,329.00 |
| 12 | \$ 180,988.00 | 37 | \$ 131,771.00 | 62 | \$ 179,435.00 |
| 13 | \$ 11,345.00 | 38 | \$ 12,047.00 | 63 | \$ 303,917.00 |
| 14 | \$ 188,800.00 | 39 | \$ 92,672.00 | 64 | \$ 62,630.00 |
| 15 | \$ 121,262.00 | 40 | \$ 196,730.00 | 65 | \$ 142,682.00 |
| 16 | \$ 85,231.00 | 41 | \$ 130,483.00 | 66 | \$ 214,582.00 |
| 17 | \$ 198,880.00 | 42 | \$ 158,736.00 | 67 | \$ 173,376.00 |
| 18 | \$ 128,216.00 | 43 | \$ 166,894.00 | 68 | \$ 184,045.00 |
| 19 | \$ 125,469.00 | 44 | \$ 159,763.00 | 69 | \$ 70,650.00 |
| 20 | \$ 218,319.00 | 45 | \$ 172,921.00 | 70 | \$ 150,881.00 |
| 21 | \$ 191,411.00 | 46 | \$ 151,666.00 | 71 | \$ 84,014.00 |
| 22 | \$ 48,747.00 | 47 | \$ 162,439.00 | 72 | \$ 44,419.00 |
| 23 | \$ 85,339.00 | 48 | \$ 124,955.00 | 73 | \$ 187,011.00 |
| 24 | \$ 104,836.00 | 49 | \$ 245,851.00 | 74 | \$ 27,384.00 |
| 25 | \$ 164,182.00 | 50 | \$ 160,129.00 | | |