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Employee Turnover Intentions in the Hospitality Industry

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Walden University

College of Management and Technology

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Bettye Holston-Okae

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2017

Abstract

Employee Turnover Intentions in the Hospitality Industry

by

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EMBA, Texas Woman's University, 2011

MS, Jackson State University, 2001

BS, Mississippi Valley State University, 1999

Doctoral Study Submitted in Partial Fulfillment

of the Requirements for the Degree of

Doctor of Business Administration

Walden University

May 2017

Abstract

Employee turnover is detrimental to organizational performance and profitability, leading to loss of diverse financial and intellectual resources and assets. Grounded in the motivation-hygiene theory, the purpose of this correlational study was to examine the relationship between employee turnover intention and job satisfaction, employee compensation, employee engagement, employee motivation, and work environment. The population consisted of low- to mid-level hospitality employees residing in Western Georgia, Central Mississippi, and North Central Texas, over the age of 18, and employed in the hospitality industry. A convenience sample of 156 participants completed the Compensation Scale, Job Satisfaction Scale, Utrecht Work Employee Engagement Scale, Work Extrinsic and Intrinsic Motivation Scale, Work Environment Scale, and Turnover Intention Scale via an online survey. Multiple linear regression analyses and Pearson-product correlation coefficients were used to predict employee turnover. The 5 predictors accounted for approximately 36% of the variance in turnover intention and the result was statistically significant, ($R^2 = .36$, $F(5, 105) = 11.57$, $p < .001$). The correlation between motivation and turnover intention was not significant. The findings may contribute to positive social change by increasing the potential to provide hospitality leaders with a foundation for future research on job satisfaction, employee compensation, employee engagement, employee motivation, work environment, and turnover intentions. These improvement may lead to the formulation of strategies and policies of business practices to reduce turnover intentions.

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Dedication

I would like to dedicate this work to our Father and God Almighty, who I relied upon to give me the continue knowledge and strength to complete this journey and to my loving grandparents, Mr. Sammie L. Holston (deceased) and Sarah Cobbins Holston, and Mr. J. C. Stewart, Sr. (deceased) and Hattie Pearl Steward (deceased), who all believed that higher education was important for their children and grandchildren. I would like to thank my uncle Eddie Holston who had a bigger dream for me than I had for myself. To my mother, Sarah Holston-Meeks, and my siblings Sarah Meeks-Crossley and Terry Holston, thank you for always pushing me to achieve my education goals and encouraging me to be the best person I could be. To my husband Robert Kwasi Okae, and my children, Adjowa, Kaden Michael, and Ashleigh Grace, thanks for understanding when I was not able to play with you or attend a special event. You are my inspiration and I am so grateful to have your love and support.

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Section 1: Foundation of the Study

Employee turnover jeopardizes organizational performance and profitability because of its associated loss of important corporate resources and company assets (Guilding, Lamminaki, & Mcmanus, 2014). Performance and profitability are fundamental well-studied factors involved with organizational performance (Delmar, McKelvie, & Wennberg, 2013). Organizational leaders must understand those factors that have a significant potential to predict turnover and affect the performance of an organization (Hancock, Allen, Bosco, McDaniel, & Pierce, 2013). Hospitality leaders are in need of strategies and policies to maintain an adequate workforce and improve employee engagement, motivation, job satisfaction, and work environment within industry (Marshall, Mottier, & Lewis, 2016).

In a study by statisticians at the Bureau of Labor Statistics in 2014, employee turnover cost organizations more than \$25 billion a year. Other findings resulted from a narrow focus, omitting an address of the immediate and long-term consequences of employee attrition (Chang, Wang, & Huang, 2013). Determining the principal reasons hospitality employees leave their positions in such great numbers is difficult at best. Researchers proffer substantive reasons for hospitality employee turnover (Chang et al., 2013). Although researchers, such as Cheng, Yang, Wan, and Chu (2013) examined different aspects of workplace factors involving leaders and coworkers as hospitality professionals, there is a continuing need for additional study of the various types of relationships among variables that include turnover among hospitality workers in the employment environment. Hospitality leaders may use these findings about employee

turnover to implement strategies to reduce the high turnover rate within the industry.

Background of the Problem

High employee turnover rates often lead to business failure, an unmotivated workforce, and lack of attractiveness to skilled workers in the hospitality industry (Surji, 2013). If organizations have a high turnover relative to their competitors, employees of that industry have a shorter average tenure than those of other organizations in the same sector (Swarbalatha & Prasanna, 2014). High turnover may harm an industry's productivity when skilled workers leave and the employee population contains a high percentage of novice workers (Utoro & Gustomo, 2014). Costs associated with recruiting, selecting, and training new employees often exceeds 100% of the annual salary for the vacated positions (Bryant & Allen, 2013). Although retention strategies reduce turnover and retention costs, few organizations have retention plans in place (Bourke, Waite, & Wright, 2014; Cascio, 2014). Without comprehensive strategies in place, misunderstandings may persist among people susceptible to change in organizations (Frey, Bayón, & Totzek, 2013). Chang et al. (2013) suggested that future studies should focus on employee recruitment, retention, and employee turnover in the hospitality-service industry. In this study, I examined the relationships between compensation, employee engagement, employee motivation, job satisfaction, work environment, and employee turnover in the hospitality industry.

Problem Statement

Employee turnover is detrimental to organizational performance and profitability, leading to loss of diverse financial and intellectual resources and assets (Hofhuis, Van der

Zee, & Otten, 2014; Lambert, Cluse-Tolar, Pasupuleti, Prior, & Allen, 2013; Ryu & Lee, 2013). In 2013, more than 25 million U.S. employees voluntarily terminated their employment, with costs to replace an employee averaging from 25% to as much as 500% of the terminated employee's annual salary (Bryant & Allen, 2013). The general business problem addressed in this study was that employee turnover is detrimental to the competitiveness and profitability of organizations in the hospitality industry. The specific business problem addressed is that hospitality leaders do not know the relationships between employee compensation, employee engagement, employee motivation, job satisfaction, work environment, and employee turnover.

Purpose Statement

The purpose of this quantitative, correlational study was to examine the relationships between employee compensation, employee engagement, employee motivation, job satisfaction, work environment, and employee turnover. The predictor variables were employee compensation, employee engagement, employee motivation, job satisfaction, and work environment. The dependent variable was employee turnover. The study population consisted of low- to mid-level hospitality employees working in Atlanta, Georgia; Dallas, Texas; and Jackson, Mississippi. The findings may be valuable to leaders of the organizations concerned with high employee turnover rates by implementing strategies and policies to retain skilled workers while increasing organization profitability. The findings from this study may allow organizational leaders to promote a positive social change by the identification and implementation of initiatives and programs, and strategies that could reduce turnover intention, thereby leading to

reduced unemployment, lower business operating costs, and improvements within the hospitality industry that could affect customers (Mohanty & Mohanty, 2014). The potential social benefits of the application of findings reported in this study include improved work-life experiences of employees that may reduce stresses and increase the earning potentials of employees who benefit from improvement to business practices (Kumar & Chakraborty, 2013).

Nature of the Study

Quantitative research is an analytical and cogent statistical method to examine relationships between variables (Hoare & Hoe, 2013; Turner, Balmer, & Coverdale, 2013). A quantitative research method was appropriate for the study because this method involves testing hypotheses to determine relationships among compensation, employee engagement, employee motivation, job satisfaction, work environment, and employee turnover in the hospitality industry. Qualitative studies involve open-ended data from interviews or observation of human participants and analyzing those results thematically or providing a narrative of the phenomenon in question (Fassinger & Morrow, 2013). The qualitative research method was inappropriate for this study because the intent was to examine the relationships among the variables and analyze statistical data. A mixed method includes addressing different research questions in one study and strengthening the study by mitigating the inherent weaknesses of single methods (Hoare & Hoe, 2013; Turner et al., 2013). Researchers use quantitative and qualitative methods in tandem to form mixed methods studies (Fassinger & Morrow, 2013). A mixed method would be unnecessary and inappropriate for arriving at an answer to the stated research question in

this study. I examined the relationships among the variables and analyzed the statistical data.

Research Question

The implementation of employee turnover strategies and policies by hospitality leaders is essential to industry survival. The central research question was: What is the relationship between employee compensation, employee engagement, employee motivation, job satisfaction, work environment, and employee turnover in the hospitality industry?

Hypotheses

H₀₁: No statistically significant relationships exist between employee compensation, employee engagement, employee motivation, job satisfaction, work environment, and employee turnover in the hospitality industry.

H_{a1}: A statistically significant relationships exists between employee compensation, employee engagement, employee motivation, job satisfaction, work environment, and employee turnover in the hospitality industry.

Theoretical Framework

Motivation-hygiene theory, published first in 1966, was the theoretical framework for this study. I extended this theory by measuring and assessing the additive influence of additional constructs (employee compensation, employee engagement, employee motivation, job satisfaction, and work environment) in relation to employee turnover intentions in the hospitality industry. Herzberg (1966) used the motivation-hygiene theory to explain how the factors of job satisfaction and the factors of job dissatisfaction

influence employee turnover intentions. Herzberg et al. identified the following key constructs for job satisfaction: (a) achievement or quality performance, (b) recognition, (c) responsibility, (d) work-itself, and (e) advancement and growth. Herzberg et al. also identified the following key constructs for job dissatisfaction: (a) company policy, (b) supervision, (c) interpersonal relationships, (d) working conditions, and (e) salary. Herzberg's (1959, 1974) motivation-hygiene theory implied that if factors related to job satisfaction go up, turnover intention should go down. According to this model, if the factors of job dissatisfaction go up, turnover intention should go up as well (Lumadi, 2014). Herzberg's motivation-hygiene theory includes information about the factors that foster increased motivation and satisfaction to reduce employee turnover intentions (Derby-Davis, 2014; Ghazi, Shahzada, & Khan, 2013). Leaders could use this theory to understand the effects of employee turnover in organizational success (Mosadeghrad & Ferdosi, 2013). The use of this theory was relevant in the examination of factors affecting employee retention and turnover behavior in the hospitality industry.

Operational Definitions

The following terms were unique and specific to the topic of exploring the effects of employee turnover on the hospitality industry. Definitions of the critical terms assist readers in understanding the context of this research.

Employee engagement. Employee engagement is as an increase in the emotional and intellectual commitment an employee expresses toward their job, manager, or organization, that frequently results in the employee exerting additional effort (Kumar & Pansari, 2014).

Employee motivation. Employee motivation is the desire of a person to achieve an objective. Employees often achieve goals when they are motivated; when they are not motivated, goals are typically not met (Herzberg, 1987; Herzberg et al., 1959).

Employee turnover. Employee turnover is a reduction in the number of employees who plan to leave their jobs (Katsikea, Theodosiou, & Morgan, 2015).

Hospitality Industry. Hospitality Industry is a broad category of fields in the service industry that includes lodging, event planning, theme parks, transportation, cruise lines, and other in the tourism industry (Chon, Barrows, & Bosselman, 2013).

Hygiene. Hygiene is a job factor extrinsic to the employee such as policy and procedures, working conditions, and salary (Herzberg, 1976). Herzberg (1976) identified these factors as a means of dissatisfaction.

Job satisfaction. Job satisfaction is a combination of attitude and emotions, influenced by internal and external factors that individuals feel about the job they are performing (Guan et al., 2013).

Motivation hygiene theory (Herzberg's two-factor theory). The theory envelopes employees' motivators and what motivates employees to become satisfied or dissatisfied with their jobs (Herzberg, 1987; Herzberg et al., 1959).

Motivator. Motivators are job rewards such as achievement, responsibility, and growth that are intrinsic to the employee (Mishra & Mishra, 2014; Misra, Jain, & Sood, 2013).

Turnover intention. Lambert et al. (2013) defined turnover intention as an employee's thoughts or plan to exit an organization.

Work environment. Working conditions refer to a working environment and all existing circumstances affecting labor in the work place including job hours, physical aspects, legal rights and responsibility, organizational climate, and workload (Ali, Ali, & Adan, 2013).

Assumptions, Limitations, and Delimitations

Assumptions

Assumptions are factors thought to be true for the investigation but that have not been verified or controlled, such as (a) commonly accepted information, (b) uncontrolled concepts thought to be constant, and (c) factors beyond the investigator's control because of technical or time considerations (Kirkwood & Price, 2013). I assumed the participants were honest and truthful in their responses. An assumption was that my choice of questionnaires for data collection provided the best method to acquire information on the perceived reasons individuals may choose, or have chosen, to leave their chosen career paths in the hospitality industry. A third assumption was that the participants were able and willing to answer the questions truthfully.

Limitations

Kirkwood and Price (2013) stated that every research study has a set of limitations with potential weaknesses or problems that are uncontrollable and could contribute to threats to the internal validity of a study. In this quantitative correlational study, the primary limitation was the sample size of participants. The research population consisted of hospitality employees in Dallas, Texas, Jackson, Mississippi, and Atlanta, Georgia. The population for this study included low- to mid-level employees who worked

in the hospitality industry. I did not evaluate any other initiative that may influence employees remaining with an organization.

Delimitations

Delimitations are those characteristics that limit the scope and define the boundaries of a study (Knafl, Leeman, Havill, Crandell, & Sandelowski, 2015). The first delimitation was the geographical location of the population in Texas, Mississippi, and Georgia, to provide researcher convenience. The second delimitation was that hospitality employees who were in senior-level leadership positions did not participate in the research study. The third delimitation was selecting participants through internet-based, convenience sampling, whereby participants opted into the study, which may have introduced bias or limit generalizability to other populations.

Significance of the Study

The significance of this study was to extend or contribute to the existing knowledge of employee turnover in the hospitality industry. The negative effects of turnover rates represent significant impacts to employees, the hospitality industry, and society. The findings from this study may allow leaders in the hospitality industry to use the findings from data to create strategic plans to diminish employee-turnover rates while increasing profitability. The key contributing factors are awareness and understanding the importance of employee turnover. When leaders in the hospitality industry understand these issues, they may improve and establish a long-term skilled workforce.

Contribution to Business Practice

The results of this study about employee compensation, engagement, motivation, job satisfaction, work environment, and turnover may help industry leaders develop sustainable human-resource policies and strategies. Organizational leaders and human resource practitioners can develop retention policies and strategies commensurate with increases in human-capital assets. By conducting this study, I helped to fill a gap in the literature and contributed to business practice by providing organizational leaders with turnover strategies and policies they can implement in their business processes to retain skilled hospitality employees. Understanding these strategies and policies that hospitality leaders are implementing in their business practices results in insights about successful and ineffective methods to retain employees, while potentially reducing the costs associated with employee turnover, safeguarding the organization's operational efficiency, and sustaining competitiveness in the market. Hospitality leaders may also use the findings from this study to evaluate the effectiveness of current turnover strategies and policies the organization practices to retain skilled worker.

Qualified professionals are essential to any organization in producing better business results (Frey, Bayón, & Totzek, 2013). It is critical for organizational leaders to understand the issues surrounding turnover factors that influence retention so they can decrease turnover in their organization. Identifying and understanding effective turnover strategies and policies hospitality leaders are implementing in their business practice can assist in retaining skilled workers, sustain profitability, retain corporate knowledge, and increase employee morale (Misra et al., 2013). In this study, I explored the issues facing

the hospitality sector to help organizational leaders reduce high employee turnover. Researchers, such as Robinson, Kralj, Solnet, Goh, and Callan (2014) noted causes of employee retention and economic stabilization of the sector, recommending further studies to address the immediate and the long-term consequences.

When organizational leaders engage their employees, service quality increases, which influences customer satisfaction, employee retention, and productivity while improving financial performance (Frey et al., 2013). By contrast, with worker alienation or disengagement, organizations experience declines in all these areas. A critical element in achieving an engaged workforce is to recognize which factors influence employee engagement. When organizational leaders understand how to engage their employees, those leaders may be more likely to implement initiatives and resources to combat problems in the industry (Dempsey & Reilly, 2016; Inyang, 2013). Benefits of this study include offering information to help leaders in the hospitality industry understand how to retain skilled employees and reduce the high employee-turnover rates in the industry.

Implications for Social Change

In examining and determining relationships and the extent of relationships among variables, industry leaders can implement policies, strategies, and programs that benefit society as well as benefit the organization (Williams & Glisson, 2013). Organizational leaders who implement work-life balance initiatives tend to attract and retain employees (Lu & Gursoy, 2013). Work-life balance initiatives include flexible work hours, employee-assistance programs, childcare programs, and career-advancement programs (Lu & Gursoy, 2013). Families benefit from work-life balance initiatives because

employees can reduce household expenses by using flexible work hours, employee-assistance programs, on-site childcare programs, and career-advancement programs.

A Review of the Professional and Academic Literature

The literature review is an evaluation of a body of research that addresses the research question (Rowe, 2014). A literature review also serves in providing a new understand for researchers and scholars on how a study corresponds to existing research, while adding significant contributions to the existing literature (Shepard, 2013). My intent was to review the literature encompassing factors that may relate to employee turnover rates in the hospitality industry. The review of the academic and professional literature includes a discussion of theories, the factors that affect the turnover rate, and perceived strategies and policies that leaders can implement to help reduce the high turnover rate in the hospitality industry.

Literature reviews are helpful in (a) adding support to the topic, (b) identifying the literature that contributed to the research, (c) building understanding of the conceptual framework and literature, (d) establishing a bibliography of sources, and (e) analyzing results (Rowe, 2014). The literature search involved identifying studies potentially relevant to the research question using predetermined keywords, as recommended by Shepard (2013). The objective was to determine if the factors of compensation, employee engagement, employee motivation, job satisfaction, and work environment affect the turnover rate of hospitality employees. The literature review begins with a discussion of the theoretical framework. I presented a review of related literature, including the following themes: (a) the background of the hospitality industry, (b) conceptualizing

employee turnover, (c) the harmful effects of employee turnover in the hospitality industry, (d) factors contributing to high employee turnover, and (e) strategies that could be employed in the hospitality industry to combat turnover. The review ends with a summary, a discussion of the gap, and conclusions of the findings from the reviewed studies. The literature review included over 385 current references from journals, books, Google Scholar, and dissertations retrieved from ABI/INFORM Global, Business Source Completed, and ProQuest through the Walden University Library and The University of North Texas' library systems. The search for material yield 238 relevant sources, of which 92% were peer-reviewed; 87% of the studies have a publication date of 2013 to 2016, to ensure focus on recent literature. The theoretical framework, theories that address employee turnover, and the consequences of employee turnover on an organization, are relevant to the research. The purpose of this quantitative, correlational study was to examine if significant relationships exist among variables. The predictor variables were compensation, employee engagement, employee motivation, job satisfaction, and work environment. The dependent variable was employee turnover. The hypotheses are:

H₀₁: No statistically significant relationships exist between employee compensation, employee engagement, employee motivation, job satisfaction, work environment, and employee turnover in the hospitality industry.

H_{a1}: A statistically significant relationships exists between employee compensation, employee engagement, employee motivation, job satisfaction, work environment, and employee turnover in the hospitality industry.

Herzberg's Motivation-Hygiene Theory

The theory applied to support this study was the Herzberg (1966) motivation-hygiene theory. Motivation-hygiene theory accounts for the relationships among employees' job satisfaction and job dissatisfaction in the environment where the employee performs the work. Herzberg et al. (1959) collected data from interviews with 200 engineers and accounts to understand motivating factors that caused employees to be satisfied or dissatisfied with their employment. Herzberg identified the following motivational constructs affecting employees' motivation and job satisfactions: (a) achievement, (b) recognition, (c) employees' perceptions, (d) responsibility, (e) advancement, and (f) possibility of growth.

Hygiene factors surround the performance of the job, including supervision, interpersonal relations, physical working conditions, compensation, benefits and bonuses, company policies, and job security (Herzberg et al., 1959). In contrast, motivation factors are those that can affect employees' job attitudes to be more positive, because employees' self-actualization needs are satisfied. Examples of motivation factors include achievement, recognition, positive feedback, more responsibilities, advancement, and promotion, as well as the work itself (Herzberg et al., 1959).

According to Herzberg (1966), when the satisfaction need of an employee is high, dissatisfaction diminishes, preventing poor performance; however, only satisfaction of motivation factors can lead to improved productivity. According to the Herzberg theory, attitudes can affect performance. Favorable attitudes lead to better performance compared to unfavorable attitudes toward the company; negative attitudes toward the company can

also lead to psychological withdrawal from the job (Herzberg et al., 1959). Job satisfaction is a predictor of loyalty. Unique to this theory is deviation from the conventional notion of job satisfaction, which is that satisfaction and dissatisfaction are extremes of a single continuum (Herzberg, 1966).

Herzberg et al. (1959) argued merely satisfying the hygiene factor was insufficient to improve productivity, although the theory supports the concept that these factors should be met to improve employee satisfaction levels and motivation in an organization. Employees should find meaning in their jobs and feel they are valued and appreciated. I used the theory to understand turnover decisions in organizations. The motivation-hygiene model is fundamentally different from other models addressing turnover. Where previous researchers had placed dissatisfaction and satisfaction along the same continuum, Herzberg placed the constructs on separate axes. Herzberg proposed that the opposite of satisfaction is a lack of satisfaction; therefore, merely removing the factors causing dissatisfaction may not improve satisfaction and instead may merely decrease dissatisfaction.

Herzberg's (1966) viewpoint provides a lens through which to view the potential solutions to turnover. Mitigation of factors that contribute to employee turnover and prevention of factors that lead to turnover are separate concepts, just as dissatisfaction and satisfaction factors are separate concepts. Christeen (2015) used the two-factor theory to understand how to recruit and retain professional personnel at a multinational marketing company. The results aligned with the two-factor theory (Herzberg et al., 1959), indicating that hygiene factors influence turnover. The findings of the research

conducted by Herzberg (1966) suggested that the work itself could affect employees' job-satisfaction levels. Lee and Chen (2013) considered turnover among tourism employees using the two-factor theory as the frame of reference and found that satisfying the hygiene needs of these employees could lower turnover rates. The hospitality industry suffers from a high level of turnover, and the findings could be beneficial. When researching high employee turnover rates in the hospitality industry, relevant theories represent opportunities to provide a foundational understanding of why employee turnover happens.

The Price and Mueller 1981 and 1986 Turnover Models

Price (1977), a sociologist, established a model identifying five determinants of turnover: pay, integration (relationship with a supervisor or coworkers), instrumental communication (clearly defined work roles), formal communication (organization communication practices and policies), and centralization (distribution of power in the organization). Price further introduced a moderator of job satisfaction and turnover, dubbed *opportunity*, defined it as the availability of alternative employment in the environment. As with many models, following the testing of the Price model, some shortcomings emerged. Therefore, in 1981 Price and Mueller revised and expanded the earlier model. According to the Price and Mueller (1981) model, repetitive work reduces satisfaction. However, workers are more likely to be satisfied with their work when they are participating in job-related decisions, receiving work-related information, forming close friendships with others at work, earning good and fair compensation, and enjoying opportunities for promotion (Price & Mueller, 1981). Price and Mueller proposed that the

availability of alternative job opportunities moderated the relationship between job satisfaction and turnover. Price and Mueller (1981) also suggested that professionalism generalized training; minimal kinship responsibilities weakened an individual's intention to remain with the organization.

Price and Mueller (1981) addressed the problem of small statistically significant correlations in their studies through explanations of variances and suggested that future studies focus on additional variables and measurement considerations. These criticisms led to revision of the model in 1986, to include the concept of *role overload* as antecedents to satisfaction. According to Price and Mueller (1986), workgroups and size of the organization were additions, as precursors of organizational commitment and employees' intention to leave. In 1986, Price and Mueller also introduced the commitment to the organization as a mediator between job satisfaction and intention to leave. Price and Mueller presented their updated 1986 model that included many of the earlier retention factors as well as several additional ones.

One important addition to the model was *distributive justice*. Price and Mueller (1981) drew from the developing literature on equity theory, which suggested that employees would be more likely to stay if they feel that the outcomes they receive reflect the effort and other inputs they invest. By using a rigorous methodology, which still stands as an important model for research standards, Price and Mueller contributed to voluntary employee turnover by developing a comprehensive set of determinants of turnover and introducing salient variables that have now become part of the withdrawal process. Price and Mueller (1981) grouped the factors into two groups known as the

motivators and dissatisfies. Herzberg (1976) also explained in the two-factor model in term of motivators and dissatisfiers. Price and Mueller's models emphasized the importance of pay (compensation), training, and promotional opportunities (career management) to retention, which are quite relevant to this study.

These same factors could influence employee retention. Price and Mueller's (1986) model provided the causal determinants of turnover by treating turnover as an outcome emerging from a decision process that an employee undertakes. Price and Mueller placed the causal determinants in this model into three major groups: environmental, individual, and structural factors. Examples of the factors, categorized under environmental determinants, include opportunity and kinship responsibilities. Individual factors consist of compensation and general training opportunities. Structural factors involve advancement opportunities and routinization (Price & Mueller, 1986).

Furthermore, turnover might influence job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and turnover intention. Compared to other frameworks, Price and Mueller's (1981) model provided a comprehensive list of turnover determinants; however, the theory is limited in several ways. Price and Mueller received criticism for not providing an adequate explanation of the turnover process; instead, the model simply lists all the possible reasons that cause employees to leave an organization. Moreover, the researchers designed the model after studying people with middle-class jobs, such as nurses and teachers. Despite these limitations, Price and Mueller's (1986) model incorporated data from several disciplines. Although Price and Mueller conducted research largely in the healthcare industry, the researchers also frequently conducted

reviews of turnover across many disciplines, including definitions, measures, models, empirical generalizations, and the extent of turnover. Price and Mueller's turnover model incorporated factors that may be generalizable across industries, including the hospitality industry.

Modified Greenhaus, Collins, Singh, and Parasuraman's Model of Voluntary Turnover.

The Greenhaus, Collins, Singh, and Parasuraman (1997) model of voluntary turnover allows researchers to study turnover in professional accounting firms. Greenhaus et al., indicated that professional accountants work long hours, particularly during certain busy periods. They pointed out that professional accountants must progress through several positions before reaching the partnership level, occupying positions of increasing responsibility along the way. In the same way, banking professionals must also progress through many ranks and professional positions. The modified model of voluntary turnover includes four sets of potential influences on the turnover process: (a) work experiences (work overload, career-development opportunities, advancement aspirations, and advancement expectations), (b) family responsibilities, (c) work-home conflict, and (d) stress (Greenhaus et al., 1997). Work overload (an individual's perception of too many activities and too little time) was a predictor of intention to leave and actual departure in previous research (Greenhaus et al., 1997). The lack of career-development opportunity may cause an employee to decide to leave (Greenhaus et al., 1997). Greenhaus et al. (1997) found that a strong desire for promotions sustained an interest to remain in the organization, potentially reflecting increased levels of

commitment. Finally, optimistic advancement expectations decrease the likelihood of leaving an organization or profession (Greenhaus et al., 1997). Greenhaus et al. (1997) model emphasized career-development opportunities and work-home conflict. These are important variables in this research. To retain employees, organizational leaders must consider their work-life balance and continuous advancement or progression policies.

Relevance of Theories to the Literature Review

Theories discussed as significant to this study include motivation-hygiene and turnover theories. These theories are relevant because they explain employee turnover and retention strategies and policies. Table 1 outlines the relevance of each of the theories to the present study.

Table 1

Theories Relevance to the Study

| Theory | Relevance to the study |
|--|--|
| Motivation theory | |
| Herzberg's (1966) Motivation Theory, Two-Factor Theory (aka), The Motivation-Hygiene | This theory explains compensation. These practices represent motivators/satisfiers and dissatisfies/hygiene factors in the theory. |
| Turnover theory | |
| Price and Mueller's (1981, 1986) turnover models | This theory explains variables like compensation, employee motivation, employee engagement and job satisfaction. Items are related to these variables include pay, general training, promotional opportunity and kinship responsibility. |
| Modified Greenhaus et al. (1997) model of voluntary turnover | This theory can explain work-environment and employee turnover, which are important variables in the study. |

Note: Adapted from "Effects of Human Resources Management Practices on Retention of Employee in the Banking Industry in Accra, Ghana," by R. D. Mensah, 2014, doctoral dissertation, available from ProQuest Digital Dissertations and Theses database, UMI No. 3159996.

Background of the Hospitality Industry

The hospitality industry represents one of the most dynamic and thriving industries in the United States, as well as in countries all over the world. Some countries, such as the United States, have retained a large tourism industry that supports activities that have shaped the country's economy. Before discussing why turnover represents a significant issue in the hospitality industry, it is important to understand the nature of the industry, as well as the potentially significant role of human-resources policies and strategies in reducing the turnover rate in the industry. Teng (2013) described the hospitality industry as an organization with a purpose to satisfy a full range of needs such as food, beverages, and accommodations. The hospitality industry involves frequent guest–host interactions and hospitality organizations that cater to the needs of a diverse group of people (Teng, 2013).

People have been travelling and using the hospitality and tourism industry for thousands of years. Initially, guests' mode of transportation involved navigation; however, as transportation evolved, tourists began to drive, and transportation eventually evolved to flight. Commercially, the hospitality industry has existed for almost 4,000 years. The hospitality industry remains a billion-dollar industry that depends on the disposable income and availability of its customers (Knani, 2014). The hospitality industry consists of various service fields that include lodging, restaurants, event planning, theme parks, transportation, cruise lines, and others. Numerous groups of employees run these establishments with various responsibilities, such as directors of operations, management or leadership roles, human resources, facility maintenance, and

marketing positions (Ruizalba, Bermúdez-González, Rodríguez- Molina, & Blanca, 2014). The hospitality and tourism industry provides many jobs around the globe and extensively contributes too many countries' gross domestic product (GDP) (Vasquez, 2014). Therefore, additional research may help leaders in such industries improve employees' performance, enabling them to compete more effectively in the hospitality industry (Dobre, 2013; Dragoni, Park, Soltis, & Forte-Trammell, 2014; Verbos, Miller, & Goswami, 2014). Because the hospitality industry is comprised of production and service dimensions, the creation and delivery of services from the hotel to the customer are dependent on the employees (Faldetta, Fasone, & Provenzano, 2013). Thus, the success of this industry primarily depends on the recruitment, management, and retention of employees. This makes the high employee turnover rates of the hotel industry problematic.

Moreover, the seasonal nature of the hospitality industry remains a significant reason behind the high turnover rates (Faldetta et al., 2013). Even though hotel managers commonly hire and fire employees based on seasonal fluctuations, managers remain ignorant of the labor-versus-demand concept; therefore, hotel managers remain unprepared to synchronize labor to demand (Faldetta et al., 2013). Particular challenges from personalization/customization, service management, branding, and social media use might influence turnover rate. A significant need for industry leaders is to learn better management techniques that would aid in retaining the most valuable, well-trained employees, effectively helping the industry compete in the hospitality market with ease (Brown, Thomas, & Bosselman, 2015). In particular, high turnover could be detrimental

and disruptive to the hospitality industry (Faldetta et al., 2013).

Organizations spend a significant amount of money to replace an already-trained manager (Mapelu & Jumah, 2013). Training a new employee or manager also means losing the productivity of the trainer (Bryant & Allen, 2013). Replacing experienced employees, from managers to hourly employees, could become costly to the hospitality industry, because preparing new workers takes a significant amount of labor, which equals lost money (Milman & Dickson, 2014). Bryant and Allen (2013) indicated that organizational leaders spend 30% to 50% of the yearly salary for entry-level employees, up to 150% of the salaries annually for middle-level employees, and as high as 400% of the annual salary to replace those in upper management positions. It remains imperative for managers to encourage employees to stay. If a hospitality organization retains steady, long-term employees, its productivity would likely increase from increased employee loyalty (Mensah, 2013).

Reduction of the employee turnover rate could universally help the hospitality industry and the economy in the globalized world. Globalization has created business mobilization opportunities for individuals that are beneficial for the hospitality industry (Grobelna, 2015). The travel and tourism economy contributes trillions of dollars to the international GDP; at a global level, experts anticipate profits and revenues from the tourism and hospitality industry will continue to grow (Vasquez, 2014). The hospitality industry employs a significant number of workers worldwide (Grobelna, 2015). The hospitality industry has already surpassed other industries, such as agricultural science,

mining, and even retail, in its contribution to international GDP and the number of people working for the industry (Vasquez, 2014).

Conceptualizing Employee Turnover

High employee turnover may imply that employees are dissatisfied, unengaged, distracted, or unproductive (Shipp, Furst-Holloway, Harris, & Rosen, 2014). Therefore, high employee turnover could result in damage to an organization's reputation and its customer's satisfaction levels (Faldetta et al., 2013). Employee turnover consists of employees voluntarily or involuntarily leaving their current company (Kaur & Mohindru, 2013). The issue of employee turnover represents a significant challenge for all types of business organizations, industries, and sectors (Bilau, Ajagbe, Sholanke, & Sani, 2015; Robinson et al., 2014; Sawa & Swift, 2013; Zopiatis, Constanti, & Theocharous, 2014). Leaders are beginning to examine and manage employee turnover (Liu, Cai, Li, Shi, & Yongqing, 2013). This importance of turnover to leaders developed because, even though it remained a significant concern, research started to show how employee turnover began to affect organizations in negative ways (McClellan, Burris, & Detert, 2013).

Research on turnover in the hospitality industry and the factors behind this crisis is essential (AlBattat & Som, 2013a; Faldetta et al., 2013). The implications for positive and social change could include a better understanding of employee turnover and increased organizational awareness of the common variables that could influence high employee-turnover rates. Understanding the factors that influence high employee turnover could help corporate leaders implement initiatives to reverse this growing trend. These new initiatives could include family-support strategies to improve professional and

community attachments, and other strategies to make employees feel more embedded and satisfied in the workplace (Wayne, Casper, Matthews, & Allen, 2013).

Employees who express feelings of empowerment at their workplace because of high levels of support from their employers might also attain a higher sense of fulfillment and meaning (Wayne et al., 2013). As a result, employees could feel less stressed when at home (Wayne et al., 2013). Employees who experience feelings of empowerment from work retained higher levels of life satisfaction, and were more likely to get married, become a parent, and attain an overall higher level of happiness than employees who did not experience feelings of empowerment (Faldetta et al., 2013).

Guiding et al. (2014) designed a study to determine the staff turnover costs, in a search for greater accountability within the hospitality industry. Costs related to employee performance and lost investments in employees, among the other tangible and intangible expenses stemmed from employee turnover. Guiding et al.'s (2014) results revealed that indirect costs of turnover include low morale, lost skill sets, disgruntled customers, and lost networks. However, the recent economic recession has driven many companies to experiment with new tactics to ensure they remain competitive and their employees remain productive. Thus, employee engagements as well as leadership-employee exchanges have become critical organizational issues. Therefore, managers and consulting firms have begun to determine the best ways to ensure employee commitment through leadership-driven approaches oriented toward reducing tangible and intangible costs of turnover (Harris, Li, & Kirkman, 2014).

AbuKhalifeh and Som (2013) focused on the antecedents affecting employee engagement and organizational performance. Karatepe (2014) similarly studied and reported employee engagement as a component of organizational performance outcomes. Barrick, Thurgood, Smith, and Courtright (2014) also focused on employee engagement from the perspective of the collective in an organization. Employee engagement studies occurred to determine the factors that could shape employee engagement and work outcomes by studying the perceptions of leaders, human resource professionals, and employees. Similar outcomes were that employee support represented a momentous contribution to engagement and work outcomes of employees (AbuKhalifeh & Som, 2013; Barrick et al., 2014; Karatepe, 2014).

High employee turnover is costly and disruptive (Bryant & Allen, 2013). Thus, human resource managers should employ various strategies to reduce turnover rates to lower labor costs. Costs associated with a high number of employees who voluntarily resign from their jobs could often exceed 100% of the annual salary from the vacant position (Lee, Lee, & Bernstein, 2013; Ramoo, Abdullah, & Piaw, 2013). A larger issue is how often human resource managers lack the tools and strategies that might aid in preventing and managing high employee-turnover rates (Cao, Chen, & Song, 2013). In reviewing the literature and their own professional experiences, Bryant and Allen (2013) offered a range of possible effective strategies to aid in managing turnover rates. These strategies include compensation, benefits-based solutions, and solutions that go beyond providing material needs for employees. The findings from Bryant and Allen are relevant to the study because the results demonstrated that one method is not sufficient to reduce

turnover or improve retention. Additionally, several strategies and tools remain necessary to be implemented into business practices because multiple factors may affect turnover rates.

Turnover intention. Turnover intention has varying factors and conditions that often prevent employees from translating intention into turnover behavior (Misra et al., 2013). Turnover intention is the behavioral attitude of a person desiring to withdraw from an organization (Awang, Amir, & Osma, 2013), and is an effective predictor of actual turnover. Moreover, employer awareness of turnover intention is critical for employee retention, because voluntary turnover mitigation may be effective during the withdrawal process and prior to the formal resignation submission of an employee (Bryant & Allen, 2013). However, high employee turnover remains a problem in the hospitality industry with some researchers calling for additional information on the factors influencing turnover intention (Awang et al., 2013), for industry leaders to act on research results (Bryant & Allen, 2013) by developing turnover-intention strategies (Tse, Huang, & Lam, 2013).

The effects of employee turnover. Employee turnover may influence organizational financial performance through five major cost categories: pre-departure, recruitment, selection, orientation, and lost productivity (Narayanan, 2016). High employee turnover could result in negative outcomes for an organization's performance and the economy (Duffield, Roche, Homer, Buchan, & Dimitrelis, 2014; Griffin, Hogan, & Lambert, 2014). An organization may lose millions of dollars when an employee leaves the company, especially with the loss of a skilled employee and one in a leadership position (Amankwaa & Anku-Tsedo, 2015). Employee turnover could lead to

unemployment and retard economic activity (Mehrnoosh & Jouzaryan, 2016). A sustainable and productive economy aligns with the relationship between employee retention and economic stabilization, which a nation needs to attain a stable workforce (Zhang, 2016). Business organizations could lose some of their greatest assets when well trained personnel leave their companies (Narayanan, 2016). Organizations with high levels of turnover rates for full-time employees also experience poor customer-satisfaction ratings (Hossain & Bray, 2014; Hurley, 2015).

Hurley (2015) examined the importance for organizations to prioritize employees' well-being in the workplace to curtail employee-turnover rates. Hurley also examined the causal relationship between employee turnover and customer-satisfaction rates by studying 275 fast-food and convenience stores. Through correlational analysis, Hurley found that full-time and part-time employees differed when it came to the correlation between customer satisfaction and employee turnover. Organizations with high levels of turnover rates for full-time employees also received poor ratings for customer satisfaction. Employee turnover could directly affect customer satisfaction (Hurley, 2015).

Strategies to Reduce Employee Turnover

Bryant and Allen (2013) and Hurley (2015) explored ideas to reduce turnover rates. Bryant and Allen described high employee-turnover rates as costly and disruptive. Thus, HRMs need to employ various strategies to reduce turnover rates. Bryant and Allen offered a range of possibly effective strategies to manage turnover. Strategies included compensation and benefits-based solutions, as well as solutions that provide aid beyond

the material needs of employees. The findings from Bryant and Allen identified several strategies that are available for organizations to employ, which could enable companies to more effectively lower turnover rates by providing varying solutions to such a dynamic problem. Deery and Jago (2015) examined various strategies that the hospitality industry could employ to resolve the turnover crisis. The researchers considered talent management, work-life balance, and other retention strategies. Deery and Jago conducted a literature synthesis and analysis using a framework that demonstrated the possible correlations with the antecedents of organizational and industry attributes, such as personal employee dimensions, work-life conflicts, organizational strategies, job-satisfaction outcomes, organizational commitments, and employee retention. A finding reported by Deery and Jago was that ensuring work-life balance was one of the most effective methods to improve retention rates. Moreover, any change in work-life balance could directly influence factors such as job satisfaction, organizational commitment, stress, and alcohol use (Deery & Jago, 2015).

Gellatly, Cowden, and Cummings (2014) examined the relationship between staff nurses' levels of commitment and turnover intentions, observing how organizational commitment could affect perceived work-unit relations. Gellatly et al. examined employee turnover using affective, normative, and continuance commitment data from 336 registered nurses. Zhang (2016) gathered data on how the RNs perceived their work-unit relations and their intentions to leave to their jobs. The findings of the research conducted by Gellatly, Cowden, and Cummings demonstrated that staff nurses who retained high levels of affective commitment and normative commitment expressed

positive quality work-unit relations and, in comparison to other nurses with lower affective and normative commitment, were less likely to leave their organizations (Gellatly et al., 2014).

However, high levels of continuance commitment could lead to perceptions of poor work-unit relations that could lead to turnover. Gellatly et al. (2014) cautioned against using strategies that mainly increase employees' level of continuance commitment, such as higher salaries and better benefits. Increased managerial support could represent one of the most basic strategies to lower turnover rates, yet could also represent the most important strategy to lessen risks of employee turnover due to work-family conflict (Karatepe & Kilic, 2015). If executed properly, employee retention strategies could help stabilize the economy and generate family unification by creating healthy, motivated, and productive employees. Employee retention can improve if workers are involved in decision-making (Keeling, McGoldrick, & Sadhu, 2013). Retaining employees could become easier if top managers display commitment to employees' development; in relation to this finding, effective leadership, training, and high level organizational support help improve employee retention (Tse et al., 2013). Employees who lack sufficient training are more likely to decide to leave their organizations (Mapelu & Jumah, 2013).

Factors contributing to high employee turnover. One of the biggest manager concerns in the hospitality industry involves how to mitigate the turnover crisis (AlBattat, Som, & Helalat, 2014). However, researcher have conducted studies to examine the reasons why turnover has remained high in this industry and what organizational leaders

of the industry may do to change these high turnover rates (AlBattat & Som, 2013a; Sharon, Goziker, & Shahrabani, 2014). Most turnover literature researcher have posited that organizational factors such as *commitment, engagement, satisfaction, and compensation* could affect turnover (Kara, Uysal, Sirgy, & Lee, 2013), and perhaps the same factors could explain the high turnover of the hospitality industry. The issue remains vague and worthy of further research, especially because the crisis of high turnover rates is ongoing. The high turnover rates of this industry are among the greatest challenges that HRMs face (Nayak, Pai, Prabhu, & Granil, 2015; Pearlman & Schaffer, 2013).

Compensation. Compensation and extrinsic rewards could affect employee turnover in the hospitality industry (AlBattat et al., 2014). Unacceptable working conditions, poor training, and unsatisfactory salaries could also lead to high employee turnover (AlBattat et al., 2014). The effects of job security, earnings, and organizational loyalty on turnover correlate with one another (Lee & Chao, 2013; Mohsin, Lengler, & Aguzzoli, 2015). Mohsin et al. (2015) used a new approach to understand staff turnover in the hospitality industry. In particular, Mohsin et al. examined the quadratic and linear relationships between the intention to leave one's job and their antecedents. Mohsin et al. gathered data from a sample of 884 hospitality staff members in India. The effects of organization enthusiasm and stimulating job experiences on employee turnover were quadratic. Management was largely responsible for keeping staff from leaving. However, it is extremely important to understanding the factors that lead to employee turnover

because reasons may not be straightforward. Organizations must ensure that staff remains satisfied, productive, and willing to stay (Mohsin et al., 2015).

Pohler and Schmidt (2015) also examined the relationship between financial incentives and employee turnover. Pohler and Schmidt evaluated the effects of managerial pay-for-performance on the turnover of employees in non-management positions, using the agency and equity theory. Pohler and Schmidt proposed an alternative approach, which claimed that managerial pay-for-performance policies might negatively affect the relationship between employees and management, leading to a high employee-turnover rate. Pohler and Schmidt claimed that the reversal of this trend depended on HR practices that trained managers to treat employees well. Pay-for-performance could lead to high employee turnover from the strain applied to the relationship between the manager and the managed. The findings from research conducted by Pohler and Schmidt supported previous literature assertions that pay could affect employee outcomes such as job satisfaction. Aside from pay, institutional factors such as opportunities for advancement and promotions, the existence of work-group cohesion, effective and supportive leadership, and satisfactory compensation could influence turnover (Qiu, Haobin Ye, Hung, & York, 2015). Moreover, perceptions of selection and compensation practices could significantly affect turnover intentions among frontline employees (Santhanam, Kamalanabhan, & Dyaram, 2015). Santhanam et al. (2015) evaluated the effects of frontline employees' perceptions of human resource practices on their intentions to leave. Human resource practices ranged from recruitment

to selection, training, promotion opportunities, performance appraisal, feedback processes, and pay.

Santhanam et al. (2015) presented a turnover-intention model to evaluate whether the variable of organizational identification mediated the possible relationship between perceptions of HR practices and turnover intention using hierarchical linear regression analysis. The findings from Santhanam, Kamalanabhan, and Dyaram indicated that among HR practices, perceptions about selection and compensation practices could significantly affect turnover intentions among frontline employees. In addition, Santhanam et al. found that organizational identification could moderate the effects of perceived selection practices on employees' turnover intentions.

Employees' demographic characteristics, such as age and gender, may exacerbate these institutional factors. For example, some Generation Y employees leave the hospitality industry because they perceive that the workplace has some characteristics that satisfied members of older generations, but not them. Brown, Thomas, and Bosselman (2015) evaluated the turnover intention and actual turnover rate of Generation Y hospitality employees to discern why this generation's employees entertain thoughts of leaving their jobs or actually leave their jobs. In the process, the researchers linked several positive and negative career-related traits to the hospitality industry. Brown et al. found that Generation Y employees leave because they desire an exciting and challenging career. The factors that made Generation Y leave included work-life imbalance, insufficient remuneration, long working hours, and better opportunities elsewhere. Companies that offer solutions to these grievances could inspire them to return to the

industry, especially because the hospitality industry still represents a challenging and dynamic industry.

Some risks of turnover are inherent to the hospitality industry (Brown et al., 2015). Kuria et al. (2012) examined turnover in the hospitality industry in the context of three- and five-star hotels in Kenya. Kuria et al. identified factors affecting the turnover intentions of employees in this industry, including a number of previously identified variables such as management style, working environment, and compensation benefits. However, Kuria et al. also found that many factors that are out of the organization's control affect turnover. The performance of the organization (i.e., the star rating of the hotel or the organization's financial state) affected turnover intentions (Kuria et al., 2012).

Employees who perceive their organization to be in poor financial condition may anticipate future layoffs and may preemptively leave (Kuria et al., 2012). However, the organizational leaders cannot control or address this factor to reduce turnover. Similarly, the local or regional economy contributes to employees' decisions; poor economies may inspire employees to seek work elsewhere, and rich economies may provide opportunities for job growth and expansion, which may also result in employees leaving. However, although a hotel may contribute to its surrounding economy, hotel managers cannot singlehandedly change economy for the better or worse (Kuria et al., 2012).

A number of personal factors were at play in hospitality-employee turnover, many of which the organization cannot control, such as an employee's *unrealistic expectations* (Kuria et al., 2012, p. 314). Employees may expect that working in this industry would be

more glamorous or fun; when faced with disappointment, the employee may seek employment in a different industry. Personal factors such as a desire to learn new skills or a change in family situation affects hospitality employees' turnover. However, organizational leaders may be able to address aspects of employee compensation, which Kuria et al. (2012) cited as another major factor contributing to turnover. Employees reported that they often had no choice or control over their schedule, and only 26% of respondents (*all in management*) reported that their compensation was adequate for the work they do. If hospitality organizations address these factors of compensation and flexibility, they may be able to mitigate other factors they cannot control.

Engagement and embeddedness. Low employee engagement and loyalty could lead to higher turnover rates (Ineson, Benke, & László, 2013; Karatepe, Karadas, Azar, & Naderiadib, 2013). When individuals view positive levels of organizational collaboration, they become more motivated to show higher levels of effort. When they feel empowered, they become more likely to stay (Raub & Robert, 2013). Biswas and Bhatnagar (2013) gathered data from 246 Indian managers in six Indian organizations and found employee engagement acts as a mediating variable between perceived organizational supports and person-organizational fit as antecedents, demonstrating employees' levels of commitment and satisfaction.

Higher levels of perceived support could generate higher levels of employee engagement and better person–organization fit (Biswas & Bhatnagar, 2013). Because of this increased level of engagement, employees may become more satisfied and committed. When employees' personal values conformed to organizational norms, they

were more likely to receive more responsibilities. As a result, employees would feel more empowered and engaged, which could lead to better performance and higher overall job satisfaction (Biswas & Bhatnagar, 2013).

A relationship exists between job embeddedness and worker intention in the Australian hospitality industry (Robinson et al., 2014). Robinson et al. (2014) gathered data from 327 frontline employees from varying hotels and found that several dimensions of job embeddedness could explain turnover and retention. In particular, dimensions of organizational sacrifice and community positively shaped organizational commitment. Organizational sacrifice could negatively affect turnover intention; however, it could also serve as a reason why employees would decide to stay. Findings from the Robinson et al. study suggested that if the cost of leaving was high, employees in the hospitality industry might find it less appealing to leave. Managers increased the perception of a high cost of leaving, because this would improve the job embeddedness of employees (Robinson et al., 2014). Positive internal work events and constituent attachment could also shape turnover (Tews, Stafford, & Michel, 2014).

Karatepe and Shahriari (2014) evaluated the moderating effects of job embeddedness on the possible relationship between the factors of distributive, procedural, and interactional justice and turnover intention. To do so, the researchers gathered data from full-time frontline hotel employees serving in hotels across Iran. The findings from Karatepe and Shahriari research indicated that distributive, procedural, and interactional justice reduces turnover intentions. Moreover, the relationship between justice dimensions and turnover intention was stronger among employees who had high levels of

job embeddedness. If employees perceived employers treat them without bias, they feel dignified and respected, increasing their sense of self-identity and self-worth. As a result, they are less likely to leave their jobs. Findings from this study-supported factor other than job embeddedness such as that forms of organizational justice determine turnover intentions and actual turnover rates of employees (Karatepe & Shahriari, 2014).

Tews et al. (2014) explained voluntary employee turnover through the lens of critical life events, as well as from the view of constituent attachment. Tews et al. evaluated how critical events such as external personal events, external professional events, and internal work events could shape employee turnover. Tews et al. collected data from 290 servers employed in a U.S. restaurant chain and showed that personal and professional events could shape turnover. In particular, positive and negative personal events could influence employees' decisions to leave. In contrast, only positive external events related to turnover. Positive internal work events and constituent attachments could influence employees' decisions to stay. The attachment of employees to their jobs could curb the effects of critical events affecting turnover rates. Tews et al. suggested that hospitality firms needed to understand the factors behind employee turnover because service employees are indisputably necessary for operations to run successfully.

Job satisfaction. Job satisfaction could also influence employees' decisions to stay or leave their job. Job satisfaction may also shape turnover rates (AlBattat & Som, 2013b; Zopiatis et al., 2014). Supervisory behavior could affect job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and an employee's decision to quit a job (Mathieu, Fabi,

Lacoursière, & Raymond, 2016). Herzberg et al. (1959) provided a set of motivational factors that could influence employees' job satisfaction.

Herzberg et al. (1959) assessed motivational levels of employees by asking them to describe what workplace conditions made them feel good about their jobs and what factors made them feel the opposite. The findings from research conducted by Herzberg et al. indicated that the motivation of employees increased in conditions where they felt that they could achieve and have more responsibility. When employees felt empowered, job satisfaction and higher motivation followed. Herzberg et al. claimed that organizations should ensure these motivational factors reach employees, helping them achieve self-actualization and be satisfied with their jobs.

Furthermore, hygiene factors were also influential on the satisfaction of employees. Hygiene factors did not directly affect the job or workplace, but did depend on the requirements of a specific job's skills (Herzberg et al., 1959). Organizational leaders should meet employees' hygiene factors to avoid dissatisfaction. However, meeting these factors does not immediately lead to satisfaction or motivation. Some hygiene factors resided in company policies, administrative regulations, technical supervision, and the quality of relationships with supervisors, peers, and subordinates (Venkataramani, Labianca, & Grosser, 2013). According to Venkataramani et al. (2013), positive and negative workplace relationships and social sources of satisfaction are worthy of additional research relating to employees' organizational attachment and turnover intention.

Satisfaction and dissatisfaction do not reside on a single continuum. Herzberg et al. (1959) provided a two-continuum model, where motivation factors related to dissatisfaction, as well as hygiene factors and satisfaction were unrelated. High satisfaction was not the main outcome of avoiding factors that could cause dissatisfaction. Job characteristics that could lead to job satisfaction, but not to dissatisfaction when not met, are *satisfiers* or *motivators*. In contrast, factors that could cause dissatisfaction by their existence, but not satisfaction in their absence are *dissatisfiers* or *hygiene factors*. Very few job characteristics could be both satisfiers and dissatisfiers.

Satisfiers relate to the nature of the job itself, rewards, or benefits derived from performing the job (Michel, Kavanagh, & Tracey, 2013). Dissatisfiers represent factors related to the environment (Marshall et al., 2016). Motivators remain integral to the growth and personal actualization of individuals (Giauque, Anderfuhren-Biget, & Varone, 2013). If these motivators exist, employees feel satisfied. Hygiene factors represent extrinsic factors that could lead to dissatisfaction with their presence, but not with their absence. The same holds true in hotels and other sectors of the hospitality industry (Marshall et al., 2016).

Although salespeople receive extensive support from financial and HR groups to become effective at selling the company's products or services, salespeople remain at high risk for leaving their companies (Katsikea et al., 2015). Katsikea et al. (2015) developed a comprehensive conceptual model that provided 17 hypotheses about relationships among structural, supervisory, and psychological factors behind turnover

intentions of export sales managers. The findings from research conducted by Katsikea, Theodosiou, and Morgan indicated that formalization and centralization could positively affect the role ambiguity and role conflict that most salespeople seem to experience. However, role stressors could negatively affect the satisfaction levels of salespeople, and as a result, make them want to leave their jobs. The findings from Katsikea et al.'s (2015) study indicated that job satisfaction directly related to job turnover intentions. Various factors found in the workplace shaped job satisfaction, and satisfaction directly affected employees' turnover intention (Katsikea et al., 2015). The same factors, such as the lack of training, poor working conditions, and ineffective leadership occur in the hospitality industry (Amin & Akbar, 2013; Zopiatis et al., 2014).

Zopiatis et al. (2014) examined the levels of job involvement, organizational commitment, and job satisfaction that caused employee turnover in the hospitality industry in Cyprus. Through structural equation modeling, Zopiatis et al. found positive causal relationships between job involvement, affective and normative commitment, and intrinsic job satisfaction. The researchers also identified positive relationships between affective and normative organizational commitment levels and job satisfaction, extrinsic and intrinsic. Levels of job involvement, organizational commitment, and job satisfaction could all influence the decision to stay or leave one's job. In particular, a negative relationship existed between affective organizational commitment, extrinsic job satisfaction, and turnover intention. These relationships could guide managers on how to use and allocate their resources and support employees. Mismanagement of people and

resources could lead to high turnover rates and, possibly, the demise of establishments in the hospitality sector (Zopiatis et al., 2014).

Psychological well-being and turnover intentions of hotel employees relate significantly (Amin & Akbar, 2013). Arnoux-Nicolas, Sovet, Lhotellier, Di Fabio, and Bernaud (2016) revealed that psychological resources mediate the relationship between work conditions and turnover across a variety of job contexts. Burnout can negatively affect satisfaction levels (Lu & Gursoy, 2013; Tsui, Lin, & Yu, 2013). Training and development could affect employees' job satisfaction, and, ultimately, their intent to stay (Thomas, Thomas, Brown, & Kim, 2014).

Work environment. Perceived organizational climate and support could shape decisions to leave or stay. Relational organizational contracts could affect turnover intention, whereas transactional contracts could not (Guchait, Cho, & Meurs, 2015). Emotional support from coworkers negatively related to turnover (Subramanian & Shin, 2013; Tews, Michel, & Ellingson, 2013). Guchait et al. (2015) examined the effects of perceived organizational support on transactional and relational contracts, evaluating whether these two contracts could affect employee turnover intentions in India. Guchait et al. treated perceived supervisor support as a predictor of perceived organizational support. The findings from Guchait, Cho, and Meurs research indicated that perceived supervisor support could lead to better perceptions of organizational support by employees.

Findings from the Guchait et al. (2015) study indicated that perceived organizational contracts could improve relational organizational support, but not

transactional contracts. More importantly, according to Guchait et al., only relational organizational contracts could affect turnover intentions, whereas transactional contracts could not. Even in countries other than Western organizational contexts, a direct effect of the quality of employee-employer relationships on turnover intentions exists (Shore, 2013). Perceived organizational support could improve these relationships, and in turn, improve the retention rates of employees in the hospitality industry (Guchait et al., 2015).

Tews et al. (2013) evaluated the effects of coworker support on employee turnover among workers in the hospitality industry. Tews et al. gathered data from a sample of 188 services employed in a restaurant chain in the United States. Tews et al. specifically evaluated how two types of coworker support, including emotional and instrumental, could affect turnover. The findings from research conducted by Tews, Michel, and Allen revealed that only emotional support from coworkers related negatively to turnover. Emotionally supportive coworkers led to higher employee retention. Instrumental coworker support did not show the same results. Instead, instrumental coworker support only led to higher turnover, which was contrary to the Tews et al. hypothesis. Finding from Tews, Michel, and Allen indicated the need to avoid traditional hierarchical relationships between employers and employees. Instead, work collaboration should be encouraged (Tews et al., 2013).

Friendships in the workplace could improve the level of engagement of employees and reduce turnover, under the types of conditions that Tews et al. (2013) exposed. Perceived organizational support can also shape turnover intention (Guchait et al., 2015; Karatepe, 2013). Psychosocial support such as work-life balance initiatives and

stress management training can lead to the most significant effects on employees' satisfaction levels and organizational commitment (Karatepe & Karadas, 2014; Kim, Im, & Hwang, 2015; Madera, Dawson, & Neal, 2014).

Kim et al. (2015) evaluated how mentoring could reduce the turnover rates in the hospitality industry. The researchers developed and tested a research model to assess how certain mentoring functions could alleviate role stress, improve job attitudes, and reduce turnover intentions among hospitality industry workers. Kim et al. gathered data in South Korea from employees who received mentoring while working for luxury hotels. Specifically, mentoring employees involved providing assistance on career development, offering psychosocial support, and setting up role models. Through structural equation modeling, Kim et al. found that among the three types of mentoring functions, psychosocial support led to the most significant effects on employees' satisfaction levels and organizational commitment. Psychosocial support was also the most significant function for reducing role conflict, role ambiguity, and turnover intention. Therefore, effective mentoring programs should include a psychosocial-support function. Although the Kim et al. (2015) study was set in South Korea, the findings remain relevant for the current study.

Madera et al. (2014) suggested that in the hospitality industry, which employs many immigrant employees, language barriers constitute a problem that might lead to employee turnover. With a majority of immigrant employees having limited English-speaking abilities, managers must often address miscommunication and other communication issues. Madera et al. specifically examined whether these communication

barriers could affect turnover intentions by evaluating the effects of these barriers on managers' satisfaction with employees and employees' subsequent feelings of role ambiguity and role conflict.

The results from a survey of 130 hotel and lodging managers indicated that managers who were able to engage in quality communications with employees who only spoke limited English could reduce feelings of role ambiguity and role conflicts, lowering turnover intentions (Madera et al., 2014). The findings from Madera, Dawson, and Neal indicated that managers who faced these communication barriers remained unlikely to entertain thoughts of leaving. However, managing these barriers might increase pressures from the job, create misunderstandings, and lead to conflicts. Thus, communication issues may lead to turnover in the hospitality industry.

Occupational stress factors, especially unfair treatment, could lead to turnover (Hwang, Lee, Park, Chang, & Kim, 2014). Hwang et al. (2014) suggested that if employees perceive they receive unbiased treatment, they feel dignified and respected, thereby increasing their sense of self-identity and self-worth. As a result, they become less likely to leave their jobs (Karatepe & Shahriari, 2014). The seasonality of the hospitality industry could also affect turnover. Work environment, which could represent a source of workplace stress, may lead to negative outcomes, including turnover (Arnoux-Nicolas et al., 2016). Arnoux-Nicolaset al. (2014) claimed that meaningful work mediates the relationship between poor working conditions and turnover intention in a variety of job contexts.

The effects of organizational enthusiasm and stimulating jobs on employee turnover are quadratic (Mohsin et al., 2015; Mohsin, Lengler, & Kumar, 2013). A fun workplace could lead to employees feeling more attached to the workplace and make them want to stay (Gin Choi, Kwon, & Kim, 2013). Organizational culture could affect the well-being of employees in the hospitality industry (Blomme, Sok, & Tromp, 2013). In turn, organizational culture can enhance organizational commitment that could reduce turnover (Khalili, 2014).

Leadership behaviors may affect turnover intention indirectly through enhancing or decreasing job satisfaction and organizational commitment (Karatepe & Kilic, 2015; Mathieu et al., 2016). A previous example pertained to fun activities in an organization. Tews, Michel, and Allen (2014) studied fun activities, socialization with coworkers, managers' support for fun activities, and hospitality employees' intentions to leave; fun improved retention rates if the atmosphere was one in which high-quality work relationships could thrive. Similarly, Mathieu et al. (2016) examined how other supervisory behaviors, factors of job satisfaction, and organizational commitment could shape turnover intention. The findings were consistent with those of Venkataramani, et al. (2013) who studied positive and negative workplace relationships, noting the role of social satisfaction in employees' organizational attachments.

According to Mathieu et al. (2016), supervisory leadership could affect the well-being of employees, their satisfaction levels, and their commitment to their jobs and the organization. Mathieu et al. proposed a structural turnover-intention model that encompassed the variables of supervisory behavior, job satisfaction, and organizational

commitment. Using a sample data of 763 employees working across different types of companies, Mathieu et al. demonstrated that supervisors who exhibited person-oriented leadership could influence employees' feelings of satisfaction, commitment, and ultimately their decisions to leave or stay with the company (Mathieu et al., 2016).

Manager support also could alleviate the effects of work–family conflict on emotional exhaustion and turnover intentions of frontline employees working for travel agencies in northern Cyprus (Karatepe & Kilic, 2015). Manager support could reduce the effects that work–family conflict and strain may have on employees. In turn, because of less strain, employees were less likely to feel emotionally exhausted and less likely to entertain ideas of leaving their jobs. Karatepe and Kilic (2015) recommended that increased managerial support could be one of the most basic and most important strategies to lessen the risks of employee turnover. Their findings supported a fresh perspective, pinpointing work–family conflict as the main reason people leave their jobs.

Management styles could also affect employees' decisions to stay or leave the organization (Kara et al., 2013). Mid-level managers' satisfaction with senior managers' supervision could affect line employees' turnover intentions (Chen, Friedman, & Simons, 2014). Transformational leadership could also affect turnover intentions by motivating, inspiring, and showing empathy to their employees (Tse et al., 2013).

Employee motivation. Maintaining business relations in the organization could lead to higher levels of employee motivation, and thus, lower levels of turnover (Ncube & Samuel, 2014). In the hospitality industry in particular, motivation remains the key behind employee retention, due to frequent contact among the employees and clients or

visitors (Marshall et al., 2016). Therefore, the higher the level of motivation of employees, the happier they are, the more productive they may be in interactions with clients, and the better service clients may receive, with overall improvements in organizational performance (Dobre, 2013).

Employees perceive they are not merely selling products; instead, they could make an impression on the clients and cause clients to return or not return to the organization and they may feel a sense of empowerment in their jobs (Sahin, Cubuk, & Uslu, 2014). Sahin et al. (2014) theoretically linked organizational support, transformational leadership, personnel empowerment, work engagement, and performance that enhanced psychological capital. Employee empowerment that can stem from leader effectiveness can result in positive behaviors and individual satisfaction (Hassan, Mahsud, Yukl, & Prussia, 2013). Particularly important for the hospitality industry, a dynamic and interactive environment, the higher the satisfaction of the employee who is always in direct contact with the clients, the higher employee retention and customer satisfaction (Robinson et al., 2014).

High-performance work practices. High-performance work practices might work well to combat employee turnover in the hospitality industry (Karatepe, 2013; Karatepe & Vatankhah, 2014). These practices include investing in service capacity by improving the selection, training, and appraisal policies of the organization. Ultimately, these practices relate negatively to employee turnover because of the enhancement to employment development. Employees who believe their development is a priority are

more likely to do their best to satisfy customers and perform their best in their tasks (Karatepe, 2013; Karatepe & Vatankhah, 2014).

A performance-management system should include profitability, productivity, marketing effectiveness, and customer satisfaction, but also include employee morale (Karatepe, 2013). An employee's performance has a cause-and-effect relationship with organizational performance; therefore, effective and efficient employee performance will positively influence employee retention and organizational success. If employees perceive performance appraisal ratings unfair and unjust, this could lead to adverse effects on job satisfaction and turnover intention (Karatepe, 2013; Karatepe & Vatankhah, 2014). Performance appraisal ratings have mainly applied to determining pay raises and promotions. When employees perceive the appraisal methods are inaccurate or imbalanced, and the appraisals affect employees' earnings and advancement opportunities, employees may entertain thoughts of leaving or may actually leave (Karatepe, 2013; Karatepe & Vatankhah, 2014).

A just and equitable performance-appraisal system must also align with training strategies and appropriate compensation. Having career management and skills-based training in place led to stronger employment relations and lower turnover rates (Karatepe, 2013; Karatepe & Vatankhah, 2014). In addition, offering the opposite approach leads to the idea that hotel employees lack proper treatment: organizations must strive to offer ample monetary and educational incentives to reduce turnover intention in the hospitality sector. Researchers demonstrated that due to low compensation and long work hours, high-quality HR workers are unlikely to stay in the hospitality sector for long. These

factors also include uncertainties over an individual's promotion potential (Karatepe, 2013; Karatepe & Vatankhah, 2014).

If hospitality employees perceive their efforts as sufficiently rewarded and recognized, they are more likely to stay in the organization and serve the needs of the customers. Studies by Karatepe (2013), and Karatepe and Vatankhah (2014) showed that better salaries and benefits offered at other organizations constituted one of the biggest reasons employees decided to leave the hospitality sector. If an organization offers adequate promotional opportunities and competitive pay, employee turnover is likely to diminish. Employees are less inclined to leave an organization that sufficiently provides for their financial and recognition needs, especially if they would be moving to another organization with the same job and similar task roles (Karatepe, 2013; Karatepe & Vatankhah, 2014).

Combating Employee Turnover in the Hospitality Industry

Scholars, such as Milman and Dickson (2014), Mapelu and Jumah (2013), and Marshall et al. (2016), continue to advocate for research in diverse types of hospitality settings, about how organizations could turnover of employees in the hospitality industry and build positive working environment leading to employee commitment. Like other industries, employees of the hospitality industry need to feel understood and valued to feel satisfied and not entertain thoughts of leaving. However, unique factors shaping the hospitality industry make reducing turnover in this industry challenging, such as employees quickly finding similar jobs in other organizations and employees being prone to boredom (Kim, 2014).

Identification of employees' needs. Mapelu and Jumah (2013) studied how managers could reduce turnover in the hospitality industry by addressing more of employee needs, including training. Mapelu and Jumah used surveys with 350 hotel employees. The findings from Mapelu and Jumah addressed employee needs, such as employee development negatively affected employee turnover in a significant way. The findings by Mapelu and Jumah encompassed the idea that strategic approaches with a commitment strategy to develop psychological connections between leadership actions and employees' improve employee retention. An organizational culture that matches employees' needs and goals can improve employees' perceptions of their quality of work life, leading to employee commitment, resulting in better organizational performance from improved effectiveness (Khalili, 2014).

Effective leadership. Effective leadership integrates employee-retention strategies to inspire and motivate employees to stay (Tse et al., 2013). Effective leaders are those who could earn the respect of their followers (Wang, Tsai, & Tsai, 2014). In a workplace setting, this means a leader or manager may be more effective if they gather the support and respect of employees and have achieved the respect and admiration of the community where the organization operates (Yucel, McMillan, & Richard, 2014). Leaders remain effective in influencing the retention of their employees if they can inspire employees to be motivated (Tse et al., 2013). Antonakis and House (2014) also described an effective leader as flexible, who can wear a different hat for each occasion or circumstance, taking on a new approach or decision to improve the organization.

An effective leader is one who can achieve financial growth by fostering team cooperation and effective performance of their employees (Wang, Tsai, & Tsai, 2014). Effective leaders improve retention rates of employees by building lasting relations with them (Tse et al., 2013). Employees who believe their supervisors work closely with them tend to perform better (Xu, Zhong, & Wang, 2013). By combining tactic and managerial edifice, leaders can make employees want to stay and commit to the organization's goals and objectives (Kim & Lee, 2013).

Advancement opportunities. High employee turnover could result in personal and national economic insecurity (Maddah, 2013). Although motivating employees remains an important facet of employee retention, getting employees to stay takes more than just motivating them (Maddah, 2013). It also necessitates that organizational leaders provide employees with the chance to grow. A hospitality organization that remains committed to leadership that promotes self-oppportunity and creative self-efficacy could improve retention rates or lower turnover rates (Wang et al., 2014). Training, the acquisition of new knowledge and skills, and advancement opportunities within the hospitality industry could lead to the types of commitment associated with lower employee turnover (Mapelu & Jumah, 2013).

In the hospitality industry, in particular, employees tend to view the industry as a fun one in which to work. Tews, Michel, and Stafford (2013) studied the impact of workplace fun on employee turnover and performance, based on the idea expressed by Vasquez (2014) that if undermining the role of leaders continues in the hospitality. The undermining of leaders in the industry hospitality will affect an organization's ability to

increase employee retention, leading to economic destabilization. Employees stay with the hospitality industry as long as they perceive they have enough support from management, if employees feel a sense of contentment or a sense of pride about the tasks they carry out for the organization, and if social relationships appear to be fulfilling, rewarding, and stable (Venkataramani et al., 2013).

Challenges Affecting Retention Strategies

Although the retention strategies of other industries could apply in the hospitality industry, the industry has some unique challenges, making turnover a persistent problem (Mapelu & Jumah, 2013). The hospitality industry faces diverse challenges (Knani, 2014). First, the industry needs to attract efficient and suitable labors that are able to work effectively with diverse populations of consumers (Gobelna, 2015). However, when the industry has a continuously high level of employee turnover, this translates into a significant loss of investment in human capital and training (Bryant & Allen, 2013), and in the firm's quality of services, profitability, and success (Hancock et al., 2013). One reason for this is that employees may be able to get the same jobs with other hospitality organizations (Mapelu & Jumah, 2013). However, as Mapelu and Jumah (2013) pointed out, a number of other factors lead to this decision. Employee turnover in the hospitality industry is endemic worldwide partly because working in the hospitality industry may involve low wages, poor working conditions, and a lack of job security or advancement opportunities (Nivethitha, Dyaram, & Kamalanabhan, 2014).

The lacks of training and skill developments are key reasons the hospitality industry experiences such high turnover rates (Barbosa-McCoy, 2016). Formal and

informal training is vital in reducing employee turnover (Mapelu & Jumah, 2013). Moreover, one of the main reasons employee turnover in the industry remains high is that firms belonging to this industry do not ensure highly trained and qualified staff because of high costs, seasonality, and the possibility of employees leaving prematurely (Jehanzeb, Hamid, & Rasheed, 2015). Even though the hospitality industry remains highly people-intensive, employees may not receive enough career-growth opportunities to make them want to stay (Mapelu & Jumah, 2013).

Hotels generally lack highly trained employees even though training and professional developments are essential for hotel employees to gain the skills to help their organizations achieve a competitive advantage (Jehanzeb et al., 2015). To reverse the trend of high employee turnover, hospitality and tourism organizations should focus on inclusion of all staff in training activities and programs (Mapelu & Jumah, 2013). Organizations must also increase the budget allotted to training and development (Jehanzeb et al., 2015).

The concept of a psychological contract is important for understanding employee turnover in the hospitality industry. This concept refers to the reciprocal and mutual obligations between organizations and employees. Each of the parties might have different perceptions of these obligations (Tsui et al., 2013). HR practices such as recruitment, training, performance appraisal, salary, and benefits affect an employee's employment relationship with the organization (Tsui et al., 2013). How these HR practices affect employees' psychological contract might be critical in how organizations work on more consistent communication and management of this psychological contract.

As employees and employers interact with each other, psychological contracts develop (Hemdi, Hafiz, Mahat, & Othman, 2014; Wu & Chen, 2015).

HR practices might influence psychological contracts between employees and employers in two ways (Hemdi et al., 2014; Wu & Chen, 2015). First, HR practices from recruitment, payment, and firing could affect employees' skills, attitudes, and behaviors, ultimately shaping how employees perform in the organization, and even their decisions to stay or leave. Second, HR practices could be integral to the development of structural and operational efficiencies, which could then affect employees' performance and decisions to stay with the organization. If employees perceive their employers have fulfilled the contract, they are more likely to commit to the organization. In contrast, psychological contract breaches could leave employees feeling unmotivated, leading to higher turnover intentions (Hemdi et al., 2014; Wu & Chen, 2015).

Research Gap

A gap persists in research evaluating the effects of HRM practices on employees' behavior, including turnover intention. The findings from research conducted by Hemdi, Hafiz, Mahat, and Othman considered HRM practices leading to the success of hospitality organizations only, but not at the relationship of these practices to employee-turnover intentions. Few studies exist of HR development in the hospitality and tourism industry. The lack of research leaves unclear how employees react to specific HR practices in intentions to leave or stay in the organization.

However, employee turnover is inevitable in the hospitality industry. A need exists to focus on employees' perspectives on HRM and policies because these are major

antecedents of employee-turnover intention (Nivethitha et al., 2014). Organizational leaders that seek to mitigate the negative perceptions of employees may prevent employees from feeling they need to leave. Moreover, HR practices could affect the psychological contract of an employee, which could then affect turnover intention (Nivethitha et al., 2014).

Hospitality organizations must change HRM practices to enable employees to feel valued and satisfied (Nivethitha et al., 2014). This change would reduce high employee-turnover intentions and actual turnover rates in the industry. All HR practices are bound to effect employees' decisions to stay or leave. Effective recruitment and selection practices will acquire quality candidates who can deliver quality work. However, if employees do not feel these recruitment practices are just, and feel they are not included in systematic training and career-development opportunities, they are unlikely to stay (Manuti, Pastore, Scardigno, Giancaspro, & Morciano, 2015). If organizational leaders strive to develop employees' knowledge, skills, and abilities, employees could be motivated to stay longer (Manuti et al., 2015).

Performance appraisal is an HR practice that remains integral to employee retention. Managers should conduct performance appraisals regularly; the results of the appraisals-monetary and nonmonetary-are beneficial (Tsui et al., 2013). Employees who see their coworker being rewarded with pay incentives will improve their performance as well. Managers should seek to understand the factors behind employee turnover in the hospitality industry from the perspectives of the employees themselves.

Conclusion

The findings from research conducted by Vasquez (2014) indicated that employee turnover remains an endemic issue in the hospitality industry across the world. Because the hospitality industry is a customer-driven business, the industry depends largely on its HRs to attain and maintain its competitive advantage. Because employees interact with guests of the hospitality industry, the importance of retaining happy and motivated employees remains integral to the success of firms belonging to this industry.

Moreover, because the hospitality industry remains highly labor-intensive, effective use of HRs is one of the main factors that provide an organization with a competitive edge. The review of the research studies synthesized in this section represented a comprehensive approach to understanding the independent variables that may relate to employee turnover. However, despite the number of studies on employee turnover in the hospitality industry and the factors that contributed to this crisis, organizational leaders do not have policies and strategies in place to handle this problem. A problem persists to better understand precisely how employees' motivation, engagement, compensation, and work environment affects employee turnover. Such knowledge would help leaders in the hospitality industry plan strategies and policies that would foster job satisfaction and improve retention rates. This study may help leaders in the hospitality industry equip themselves with strategies and policies that allow them to retain skilled employees and reduce high employee-turnover rates within the industry.

Transition

Section 1 included information that represents the foundation for this study. The information pertained to the background of problem and details about the general and specific problems, identified based on the review of the literature that I addressed in this research. The section included the purpose statement, the nature of the study, the research question, the theoretical framework, and the causes, effects, and possible solutions to the research problem.

Section 2 includes the purpose of the study, the role of the researcher, the participants, methods and designs, and population, sampling, and ethical research. This section also includes descriptions of data storage, analytic techniques, data organization, determining reliability and validity of the instruments, and procedures for this study. Section 3 includes the presentation of findings, application to professional practice, implications for social change, and recommendations for further research and action.

Section 2: The Project

This section includes detailed descriptions of the specific research method, design, and procedures used in this study to examine the relationships among compensation, employee engagement, job satisfaction, employee motivation, work environment, and employee turnover in the hospitality industry. Section 2 includes the purpose statement and discussion of the role of the researcher, a description of the participants, and the appropriateness of the research method and design selected for the research. This section also contains the description of the sampled population, sampling method, data collection process, and data analysis method used in this inquiry into relationships among constructs in the study. In addition, the section includes an explanation of the instruments used in this study and the associated validity.

Purpose Statement

The purpose of this quantitative, correlational study was to examine if significant relationships exist between a linear combination of predictor variables and the dependent variable. The predictor variables were compensation, employee engagement, employee motivation, job satisfaction, and work environment. The dependent variable was employee turnover intentions. The general population of this study included low- to mid-level hospitality employees working in Atlanta, Georgia; Dallas, Texas; and Jackson, Mississippi. The population was appropriate for this study because participants worked in several sectors of the hospitality industry. The data from this study contributed to new knowledge and insights for leaders in the industry on implementing turnover strategies and policies to retain skilled worker while increasing organization profitability.

Results from this research may promote positive social change by identifying and implementing work-life-balance initiative in organizational practices, which would reduce employee turnover intentions. Organizational leaders who implemented these works–life-balance initiatives in their organization were able to attract and retain their employees (Lu & Gursoy, 2013). Work-life-balance initiatives include flexible work hours, employee-assistance programs, childcare programs, and career-advancement programs (Deery & Jago, 2015). Families benefit from work-life-balance initiatives because an employee is able to reduce household expenses by using flexible work hours, employee-assistance programs, on-site childcare programs, and career-advancement programs.

Role of the Researcher

Researchers face many legal and ethical challenges when conducting studies (Mealer & Jones, 2014). In every study, researchers must comply with applicable codes of conduct, legal requirements, and social responsibilities, in personal practices and as they pertain to human participants (Yardley, Watts, Pearson, & Richardson, 2014). The primary role of a researcher is to recruit participants, act as an impartial data collector, and report the result without judging the findings (Cleary, Horsfall, & Hayter, 2014). My role in this study was to collect and analyze data, and I presented the findings while avoiding bias, respecting ethical standards, and protecting the rights of participants. The participants did not have any direct affiliation with my profession. I sent prospective participants a Survey Monkey Audience[®] link and used public sources to recruit participants. The research topic related to my personal business because employee

turnover is one of the problems I face as a small business owner. To ensure adequate ethical protection of participants, I completed the National Institutes of Health training on human-participant protection (see Appendix H) and have the necessary qualifications to protect participants' rights during research. I obtained permission from the Institutional Review Board of Walden University to conduct the study. I ensured that the activity of practice references interventions designed solely to enhance the well-being of participants. I complied with the guidelines established in the Belmont Report protocol, including respect of people, informed consent, and respecting privacy and confidentiality (The Belmont Report, 1979). I did not have any influence over study participants because I had no access to their names or any personally identifying information.

Participants

I recruited a sample of participants who represented the population of low- to mid-level hospitality employees who work within the four sectors of the hospitality industry located in Atlanta, Georgia; Dallas, Texas; and Jackson, Mississippi. The four sectors include food and beverage, lodging, recreation, travel and tourism. Cleary et al. (2014) noted that participant recruitment should yield a well-informed sample of individuals. The participants met the eligibility criteria for participating in this study which was participants who were over 18 years of age and employed in the hospitality industry in a low- to mid-level position working in Atlanta, Georgia; Dallas, Texas; and Jackson, Mississippi, at the time of this study. To access participants, I used Survey Monkey Audience[®] to gain access to employees working in the hospitality industry. Heen, Lieberman, and Miethe (2014) noted that the use of Survey Monkey[®], as a web-

based survey tool, has been a relatively new and evolving means for collecting data used in wide-ranging research efforts. Survey Monkey Audience[®] is a web-based tool used in quantitative research. To establish a professional working relationship with the participants in this study, I provided my contact information on the survey site they could use if they had any questions or concerns about the survey. I closed the survey after I obtained the desired numbers of usable responses, as described in the sections below.

Research Method and Design

Research Method

Three methods exist for conducting scholarly research: (a) qualitative, (b) quantitative, and (c) mixed methods (Dilshad & Latif, 2013). Researchers use quantitative methods to understand statistical relationships through numerical data (Hoare & Hoe, 2013). Quantitative researchers use frequency, intensity, or numbers to derive broad concepts in specific conclusions and to explain variances among groups (Cokley & Awad, 2013). I employed a quantitative research method to address the research question and the hypothesis. Quantitative researchers can reject or accept a hypothesis and use sample sizes sufficient to support the generalizability of the study results to a specific population (Cokley & Awad, 2013; Hitchcock & Newman, 2013). The quantitative research method was the most appropriate method for this study, because the focus of a quantitative study is to use measurable data to examine the relationship among variables (Antwi & Hamza, 2015). The research involved examination of the relationships among compensation, employee engagement, employee motivation, job satisfaction, work

environment, and employee turnover in the hospitality industry, aligned with the concepts of analyzing numerical data in the quantitative research method.

Qualitative researchers explore unstructured phenomena by discovering themes extracted from interviews or observations (Garcia & Gluesing, 2013; Noble & Smith, 2015). Although qualitative case studies deepen the examination for a specific phenomenon, such approaches generate insufficient data required for accepting or rejecting a stated quantitative research hypothesis (Masson, Delarue, Bouillot, Sieffermann, & Blumenthal, 2016). The process of conducting this study included collecting numerical data and examining relationship among variables. Therefore, a qualitative method was not appropriate for this study because the focus of a qualitative study is to understand participants' beliefs, experiences, and perspectives (Zachariadis, Scott, & Barrett, 2013).

A mixed method study is a combination of quantitative and qualitative methods, such that the results from one method can support the findings from the other method (Venkatesh, Brown, & Bala, 2013). The mixed method research strategy involves data collection, analysis, integrated findings, and interpretation using quantitative and qualitative approaches (Archibald, 2015; Butz & Stupnisky, 2016; Zachariadis et al., 2013). Collecting and analyzing qualitative and quantitative data is quite time consuming (Venkatesh et al., 2013). Therefore, a mixed method study was inappropriate for this study because the intent was to examine the relationship among the variables and not to explore the phenomenon at the same time.

Research Design

Three types of research designs exist in a quantitative research study:

(a) nonexperimental, including descriptive, correlational, and regression; (b) quasi-experimental; and (c) experimental (Zellmer-Bruhn, Caligiuri, & Thomas, 2016). I employed a nonexperimental correlational design. Correlational research encompasses the collection of information from a sample drawn from a specified population (Kilic, 2016). A correlation design was appropriate for the need to examine the relationships among an employee's (a) compensation, (b) employee engagement, (c) employee motivation, (d) job satisfaction, and (e) work environment. I did not use causal-comparative research methods, because in causal-comparative correlational research, researchers examine the hypotheses and compare the differences among variables with measurements from more than one group (Cohen, Cohen, West, & Aiken, 2013), which were not activities necessary, planned for, or completed in this study.

A quasi-experimental design is an experimental design without random assignment of participants to the different groups in the study (Cokley & Awad, 2013). The quasi-experimental design was inappropriate for this study because my intention was not to observe the outcome of any treatment or manipulation. Rather, my intention was to examine how, and to what extent, the predictor or independent variables relate to the criterion or dependent variable. An experimental research design is an experiment design that allows for treatment or manipulation to observe an outcome (Bellé, 2015). In an experimental research study, the researcher demonstrates the causal relationships among variables (Wang, Noe, & Wang, 2014). The experimental research design was

inappropriate for this study because my intention was not to evaluate the causal relationships among variables or introduce a treatment to manipulate the outcome or measure effects in different groups.

Population and Sampling

Population

The population for this study consisted of low- to mid-level hospitality employees who worked within the four sectors of the hospitality industry located in Atlanta, Georgia; Dallas, Texas; and Jackson, Mississippi. The four sectors included food and beverage, lodging, recreation, travel and tourism. Convenience sampling is a nonprobability sampling technique by which researchers select participants because of their convenient accessibility and proximity to the researcher or because of the accessibility to the data collection tool in relation to potential participants (Uprichard, 2013). A convenience sample was appropriate for this study because convenience sampling is an assumption of multiple linear regressions, which is the data analysis in this study. An advantage of using convenience sampling is the ease of recruitment of willing and available participants (Bornstein, Jager, & Putnick, 2013). Convenience sampling strategies may be less expensive than other sampling strategies (Green & Salkind, 2013). The disadvantage of using convenience sampling is that the associated sampling bias may result in research findings only generalizable to the population of origin (Bornstein et al., 2013).

Sample Size

Selecting the appropriate sample size is one of the most important parts of the research design (Beck, 2013). To determine the appropriate minimum sample size needed for this research, I performed a statistical power analysis. An *a priori* power analysis determined sample size because the technique allowed me to choose power and calculate an appropriate sample size before conducting the study. I used G*Power 3.1.9.2 software, a statistical program that allowed me to determine the sample size based on the types of statistical analysis, effect size, alpha level, and number of predictor variables. G*Power is a stand-alone power-analysis program for statistical tests commonly used in medical, social, and behavioral research (Charan & Biswas, 2013).

Use of composite survey scores, leading to the five-predictor variables, indicated that a sample size of 90 to 139 respondents was adequate for this study with a power of .95. The *alpha* level was .05 for other research studies that addressed turnover intention in different organizations (Buttigieg & West, 2013). An alpha level of .05 means there is a 5% probability of a Type I error or rejecting the null hypothesis when the null hypothesis is true (Farrokhyar, Reddy, Poolman, & Bhandari, 2013). The power level of .95 aligns with the probability of Type II errors, or the failure to reject the null hypothesis when the null hypothesis is false (Farrokhyar et al., 2013). Therefore, to ensure that I attained the actual sample size needed to conduct my research, I selected 139 participants.

Ethical Research

Compliance with ethical standards is important in academic research to ensure the protection of participants' interests (Johnson, 2014). Each participant in the research study worked in the hospitality industry located in Atlanta, Georgia; Dallas, Texas; or Jackson, Mississippi. To comply with ethical standards, researchers must introduce the purpose of the study, invite the participants to participate, and discuss the research procedures and participants' rights (Wilson, Kiebertz, Holloway, & Kim, 2014). The consent form contained explanations that participation in this research was voluntary and that participants had rights to withdraw at any time, before, during, or after data collection. The informed consent form (see Appendix Q) was an initial page of the survey participants accessed through the survey link in Survey Monkey[®]. Answer options to the consent form were *I consent* or *I do not consent*. If the participant chose *I consent*, they advanced to the survey questions. If the member selected *I do not consent*, they advanced to the thank-you, page through Survey Monkey[®]'s page-logic tool and were not able to answer the survey questions.

I included Walden's IRB approval number in the consent form. After completing the survey, participants could still withdraw from this study; through contacting me via the e-mail I provided on the survey pages, requesting to withdraw their responses from the study. Study participants received no incentives or benefits from participating in this research study. No conflicts of interest were present in this research because I did not ask for any information that would put my organization or the participants' organizations at risk. All collected data were secure and confidential to ensure ethical protection. No other

individual saw the raw data for this research. I completed the National Institutes of Health Certificate of Completion and received certified training in *Protecting Human Research Participants* (see Appendix H). No one had access to the identities of participants because consent and data collection occurred through anonymous completion of the online survey. I ensured confidentiality and privacy of information from this research by maintaining all electronic forms of the data files in Survey Monkey Audience[®] software and my own personal computer. There were no hard copies of data. After 5 years, I will erase electronic files. Participants who completed the survey would request a copy of the study results by checking the “yes” box at the end of the survey which prompted the individual to provide their email address as the means to sending the study results. There was no requirement to disclose names or other identifying information in the request to receive a copy of the results.

Instrumentation

The selected instruments for the measurement of the variables in this study were the following: (a) JSS developed by Spector (1985) to measure job satisfaction, (b) the CS developed by Mensah (2014) to measure compensation, (c) the UWES developed by Schaufeli et al. (2002) to measure employee engagement, (d) the WEIMS developed by Tremblay et al. (2009) to measure employee motivation, (e) the WES developed by Rossberg et al. (2004) to measure work environment, and (f) the TIS developed by Khan and Du (2014) to measure employee turnover intentions. Ude (2015) noted that the validity of a given data collection instrument stays the same for different populations and samples. Although there were subscales present as part of the surveys for this study, I

used the composite scores of the scales, and not the individual subscales. All surveys were in a Likert-scale format, and all composite scores resulted from summated items in each scale, after reversing scoring, as necessary and appropriate. An address of the psychometric properties for each validated survey follows in the subsections below.

Job Satisfaction Scale. Spector (1985) used the JSS to measure employee satisfaction based on a nine-facet scale (a) pay, (b) promotion, (c) supervision, (d) fringe benefits, (e) contingent rewards (performance-based rewards), (f) operation producers (required rules and procedures), (g) coworkers, (h) nature of work, and (i) communication in their organization. I used the composite score, representing the sum of the nine-facet scale. Spector adopted the ordinal scale that used a 6-point Likert-type scale (1 = strongly disagree to 5 = strongly agree) to measure job satisfaction. The reliability of the instrument was .85 using Cronbach's *alpha*: supervision .77, contingent rewards .73 operating conditions .55, coworkers .68, nature of work .62, and communication .56. Cronbach's *alpha* reflects the internal consistency of the instrument. Based on a sample size of 2,870, the internal consistency reliability (coefficient alpha) of the JSS is .91 (Spector, 1985, 1997).

Mensah (2014) conducted research using the JSS with 230 individuals to determine their perceptions of job satisfaction in the banking industry resulting in a mean score of 3.24 and 3.41. Wozencroft and Hardin (2014) employed the JSS to assess the level of job satisfaction of students' staff that worked in university recreational services to determine the influence of job satisfaction on future services. Wozencroft and Hardin reported that participants included 211 students from the larger population, but only 113

students successfully completed the questionnaires. Some facet scales did not apply because of the nature of the study. The findings from research conducted by Wozencroft and Hardin indicated that job satisfaction of employees was high. Job satisfaction related to turnover intention, commitment, and retention (Wozencroft & Hardin, 2014). The reliability of the JSS instrument is .85 using Cronbach coefficient *alpha* as follows: supervision .77, contingent rewards .73 operating conditions .55, coworkers .68, nature of work .62, and communication .56.

Compensation Scale. Mensah (2014) used the CS scale to gauge employees' thoughts on intrinsic and extrinsic rewards, including monetary pay and other benefits. Mensah (2014) adopted an ordinal scale that used 5-point Likert-type responses that ranged from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree) to measure compensation. Mensah assessed compensation by using the CS instrument with mean scores ranging from a low score of 2.80 to a high score of 3.31, with the higher score indicating respondents were neutral (i.e., neither agreed nor disagreed) to the statements on compensation by their organizations. Respondents were unaware of the recompense of employees at other banks. Thus, respondents could not tell whether they received better compensation than their counterparts at other institutions did. The mean of 2.80 implied that employees neither agreed nor disagreed with the statement *I earn more than others who occupy similar positions in other banks*. In addition, the mean 3.10 implied respondents were neutral about the salary and benefits received based on their current responsibilities (Mensah, 2014).

Compensation levels do not single-handedly guarantee an employee will stay with an organization (Downes & Choi, 2014; Gupta & Shaw, 2014; Samnani & Singh, 2014). Mensah (2014) obtained responses from 230 bank employees in the banking industry. Because findings indicated that a mean of 2.80 implied employees neither agreed nor disagreed with the statement and a mean of 3.10 indicated respondents were neutral about the salary and benefits they received being commensurate with their responsibilities, compensation did not have a direct impact on employee retention in the banking industry (Mensah, 2014). However, compensation and extrinsic rewards could affect employee turnover in the hospitality industry (AlBattat et al., 2014). Unacceptable working conditions, inadequate training, and unsatisfactory salaries could also lead to high employee turnover (AlBattat et al., 2014). The effects of job security, earnings, and organizational loyalty demonstrated a linear correlation with one another on turnover (Lee & Chao, 2013; Mohsin et al., 2015).

Misra et al. (2013) employed the CS to assess how compensation affected employees working in the retail industry in India. Participants included 118 employees who worked in retail-store operations as store managers and customer associates in Delhi and the National Capital Region. The findings from Misra, Jain and Sood indicated that compensation affects the job satisfaction of employees working in the retail industry in India. Misra et al. (2013) revealed that men and women received the same pay, which explained why the result was similar. Compensation was related to turnover intention, commitment, and retention (Misra et al., 2013).

The reliability of the instrument is .85 using Cronbach's alpha. According to Ude (2015), the Cronbach's *alpha* is a reliability coefficient that specifies if there is a positive correlation between the set of items. For the 5-point compensation subscale, the *alpha* was .81; an indication the instrument is a valid measure of compensation factors that reflect respondents' views about their experiences with employee-related compensation.

Utrecht Work Employee Engagement Scale. Schaufeli et al. (2002) used the UWES scale to gauge employees' engagement, adopting an ordinal scale that used 7-point Likert-type responses ranging from 0 (never) to 7 (always). The sample included 619 employees. The UWES uses three scales, which were additive, to determine the level of work engagement: (a) vigor (*VI*), (b) dedication (*DE*), and, (c) absorption (*AB*). I used the composite score, representing the sum of the three subscales. The UWES measures work engagement individually and at the group level. The questions were in Spanish and English to obtain a higher response rate for the 12 Spanish private and public companies studied. Subsequently, a bilingual psychologist verified the semantic and syntactic equivalence of the two versions (Schaufeli et al., 2002).

Mean scores were $VI = 3.30$, $DE = 4.41$, and $AB = 3.37$, indicating that employees were more enthusiastic about their jobs (Schaufeli et al., 2002). However, mean scores also indicated that individuals were less likely to feel like going to work when getting up in the morning. Managers are able to make improved knowledgeable decisions when using work-engagement data (Schaufeli et al., 2002).

Biswas and Bhatnagar (2013) examined how employee engagement acts as a mediating variable between perceived organizational supports and person-organizational

fit as antecedents, demonstrating employees' levels of commitment and satisfaction by gathering data from 246 Indian managers in six Indian organizations. Biswas and Bhatnagar suggested that higher levels of perceived support could generate higher levels of employee engagement and better person–organization fit. Employees who experienced increased levels of engagement may become more satisfied and committed. Findings indicated that when individuals viewed positive levels of organizational collaboration, motivation increased along with higher levels of effort. When employees' personal values conformed to organizational norms, they were likely to receive more responsibilities. As a result, employees felt empowered and engaged (Biswas & Bhatnagar, 2013).

Work Extrinsic and Intrinsic Motivation Scale. Tremblay et al. (2009) used the WEIMS to measure employees' levels of motivation based on six aspects of motivation: (a) intrinsic, (b) integrated, (c) identified, (d) interjected, (e) external regulations, and (f) motivation in the workplace. I used the composite score, representing the sum of the individual aspects of motivation. Tremblay et al. adopted an ordinal scale that used a 5-point Likert-type rating scale: 1 (does not correspond at all) to 5 (corresponds exactly) to measure motivation. Tremblay et al. reported on the use of a multidimensional approach to score motivation, and the use of a single score in calculating the Work–Self-Determination Index (W–SDI). WEIMS is appropriate to generate a W–SDI index by multiplying the mean of each subscale by weights corresponding to the underlying levels of self-determination (Ude, 2015). With the presumption of the loaded Eigenvalues for each subscale and a range of possible scores of ± 24 when using a 5-point Likert-type scale (Tremblay et al., 2009), the formula used to determine the W–SDI total score is

$[(+3 \times IM) + (+2 \times INTEG) + (+1 \times IDEN) + (-1 \times INTRO) + (-2 \times EXT) + (-3 \times AMO)]$. I used the composite score, representing the sum the subscales. Tremblay et al. indicated the usefulness of the W–SDI in the selection of participants with either a self-determined or unself-determined motivational profile.

The research conduct by Tremblay et al. (2009) and Ude (2015) indicated that the self-determination index displays high levels of reliability and validity, with a Cronbach’s alpha coefficient of .84 (Tremblay et al., 2009). Given the internal consistencies of .84 for the W–SDI, a multiple linear regression analysis is appropriate for ascertaining the positive and negative organizational results about employee turnover. Ude reported that when using the instrument, participants showed their levels of concurrence with each of the 18 items structured on a Likert-type scale. Ude surveyed 77 telecom employees using the WEIMS scale and established a relationship between different levels of employee motivation in the workplace.

Work Environment Scale. Rossberg et al. (2004) used the WES to gauge employees’ perceptions of their work environment in an organization. Rossberg et al. adopted an interval scale using a 5-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (not at all) to 5 (to very large extent) to measure work environment. Tews et al. (2013) evaluated the effects of coworker support on employee turnover among workers in the hospitality industry with the WES. Tews et al. gathered data from a sample of 188 services employed in a restaurant chain in the United States. Tews et al. specifically evaluated how two types of coworkers’ support-emotional and instrumental-could affect turnover. The findings from Tews, Stafford, and Michel indicated that only emotional support from

coworkers related negatively to turnover. Emotionally supportive coworkers led to higher employee retention. Instrumental coworker support did not show the same results. Instead, instrumental coworker support only led to higher turnover, which was contrary to the Tews et al. hypothesis. The research conducted by Tews et al (2013) indicated the need to avoid traditional hierarchical relationships between employers and employees. Instead, work collaboration should be encouraged.

Turnover Intention Scale. Khan and Du (2014) used the TIS to gauge employees' reasons for turnover intentions. Khan and Du adopted an interval scale with a 5-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree) to measure turnover intentions. Khan and Du demonstrated that the TIS is a valid and reliable instrument with a Cronbach's *alpha* coefficient of .75, which confirmed the instrument's reliability and validity in measuring turnover intention. Khan and Du used a sample size of 137 call center agents to determine if a relationship existed between turnover intentions, workload, job conditions, compensation, and benefits.

Hayes (2015) conducted an evaluation of the construct validity of the three-item turnover intention, describing the items as intent to leave, a job-alternatives factor, and thoughts of quitting. Hayes studied 187 full-time nongovernmental employees from Texas. The findings were that approximately 3% of the variations in turnover intention were attributable to the linear combination of the predictor variables of (a) age, (b) education, (c) gender, (d) income, and (e) length of tenure. In the final model, age and income were statistically significant, with income ($\beta = -.169, p = .032$) accounting for a higher contribution to the model than age ($\beta = -.162, p = .045$). A negative beta value

indicated a significant variation in turnover intention. Statistically significant inverse relationships existed between the predictor variables of age and income and the criterion variable of turnover intention.

Arnoux-Nicolas et al. (2016) studied 336 employees in different work settings, with a focus on turnover intentions. Arnoux-Nicolas et al. reported that working conditions can predict turnover across all demographic groups, including genders, socioeconomic status, educational levels, and ages; results were similar across job types, contract status, full-time and part-time employees, and job tenure. However, results of previous research indicated an employee's age, among other demographic factors, is a determinant of turnover intention (Emiroğlu, Akova, & Tanrıverdi, 2015).

Demographic survey. The demographic questions included six open-ended questions that pertained to employees' current personal information such as ages, genders, educational backgrounds, workplaces, locations, positions, and years of service. I presented a summary of answers to the demographic questions and applied descriptive analysis to determine the frequency and percentage distributions of the demographic variables. Researchers use descriptive statistics to measure the central tendency of a specific variable using minimum, median, maximum, and standard deviations (Green & Salkind, 2013).

The six instruments selected had a registered Cronbach's coefficient *alpha* of .72 to .934, which indicated a moderate to high level of reliability. Therefore, the instruments selected to measure the variables in this research study were appropriate to use. The data collection process included the use of an online surveys tool named Survey Monkey[®],

which according to Lanier, Tanner, Totaro, and Gradnigo (2013) is an expanding tool for business research. Survey Monkey[®] allowed me to capture participants' responses to surveys and obtain their consent prior to starting the survey. These six surveys instruments were appropriate to use in the study to determine if there was a statistically significant relationships among compensation, employee engagement, motivation, job satisfaction, work environment, and employees' turnover intentions in the hospitality industry. Original authors and descriptive statistics such as minimum, maximum computed summative score that comprised all items for each instrument, mean and standard deviation were generated.

The following survey original instruments had no reverse-coded items: (a) CS, (b) UWES, and (c) JSS. For example, the scores for CS were additive, leading to possible additive answers of between 5 and 25 for the five questions on the compensation portion of the survey. A higher score indicates more positive attitudes about respondents' experiences with compensation (Mensah, 2014). The UWES scale was additive with a minimum and maximum total-scale measurement or individual scores ranging between 0 and 102. A higher total score and higher subscale scores indicate relatively positive work engagement, whereas lower scores indicate lower levels of work engagement (Schaufeli et al., 2002). The JSS scale was additive with a total summative score range between 11 and 55. Higher ratings indicate greater job satisfaction (Spector, 1985).

The WEIMS has three subscales that reflect a lack of motivation (external regulation, motivation, and interjected regulation); therefore, reverse scoring applied to their contributions and summation of subscales led to a total motivation score. I used the

scoring method by Tremblay et al. (2009) to calculate the six subscales and total data scores. The WES has several scale items in which reverse coding followed by summation resulted in an additive scale that reflected an individual's perceptions of their work environment. The individual scores for each of the subscales range from 10 to 50. After reverse coding, a higher summative score indicated positive perceptions of the work environment whereas a lower score reflected relatively less positive perceptions of the work environment. The TIS has three items in the instrument. The summative scores on the three-item scale range from a low score of 3 to a high score of 15, with higher scores indicating higher intentions to leave one's job and lower scores indicating lower intentions to leave (Khan & Du, 2014).

Instrument validity and reliability were important in ensuring accuracy and the success of a research study (Becker, Rai, Ringle, & Volckner, 2013). In testing and evaluating the six survey instruments, previous studies showed that the instruments selected for this study were reliable and valid as the processes of validation and testing we completed. Ude (2015) also noted that the validity of a given data collection instrument stays the same for different populations and samples and that a validity test might not be necessary. A Cronbach's coefficient *alpha* with a score of .80 or higher indicates a high level of reliability and consistency (Cho & Kim, 2015). Because the six scales selected have registered Cronbach's coefficient *alpha* of .72 to .934, they have a moderate to high level of reliability.

A pilot study was unnecessary, as the six survey instruments were previously validated surveys. To check the validity and clarity of the six instruments for this

research study, I requested that my dissertation committee reevaluate the instruments. The pretest enabled me to check for validity of the six instruments used in data collection. The validated surveys instruments met Cronbach coefficient therefore no changes were necessary to the instruments. However, I was prepared for the possibility a committee member might request a pretest of a small portion of the population of low- to mid-level hospitality employees working in Atlanta, Georgia; Dallas, Texas; and Jackson, Mississippi. The pretest could have improved the data collection instruments by eliminating any ambiguities and inadequate terms (Morin, 2013). However, no pretests, adjustments, or revisions were necessary because previous researchers established acceptable reliability and validity of the surveys. Appendices A, B, C, D, E, and F contain the e-mail correspondence requesting and receiving permission to use and publish predesigned instruments for this study.

Data Collection Technique

To collect the data from the sample for this quantitative nonexperimental correlational research, I used Survey Monkey[®], an online survey tool. Lanier et al. (2013) described Survey Monkey as a quickly expanding mode for the collection of data in business research. An online survey is the primary preference of consumers, companies, and researchers to obtain different views, perceptions, and opinions on particular services or products (Callegaro, 2013). Participants in online surveys opt into the survey based on researcher-determined criteria (Bosnjak et al., 2013).

The advantage of using an online survey is that participants can access the Web anywhere and at any time with multiple devices, giving respondents an opportunity to

respond quickly, regardless of time and place (Callegaro, 2013). An online survey does not require a personal appearance from the interviewer or interviewee, unlike the interview approach (Heen et al., 2014). Online surveys are inexpensive, reach a greater number of potential participants, accessible, and participants can respond at their convenience (Szolnoki & Hoffmann, 2013).

The disadvantage of using online surveys is that questionnaires are longer; participants can withdraw without hesitation, or survey responses are incomplete (Middleton, Bragin, Morley, & Parker, 2014). Participants could withdraw anytime or decline to answer the questions. However, the online format appeared brief and concise to avoid higher withdrawal rates in this study. An online survey requires complete responses (including the choice to not answer a question) before participants can move to the next question (Smith, King, Butow, & Olver, 2013). Some prospective participants may not have high computer aptitude, which could affect their capabilities to participate in an online research process (Forrestal, D'Angelo, & Vogel, 2015). Research designs, especially those involving online qualitative data collection, must align with participants' capabilities (Moore, McKee, & McLoughlin, 2015).

Pilot testing was unnecessary. Using validated surveys, based on psychometric scales with acceptable reliability and validity values, supported the validity of this study and using validated surveys is an acceptable approach, according to experts such as Ertürk (2014). Ude (2015) noted the acceptable reliability value ranges from .70 to .90, all previously validated surveys in this study met that requirement. According to Ude, the

validity of a given data collection instrument does not change with different populations and samples.

Data Screening

The process of data cleaning and screening ensure researchers detect errors and remove these errors to improve quality (Cai & Zhu, 2015). As part of the data cleaning process, one must examine the data to address missing data and deleted incomplete surveys before conducting multiple linear regression analysis. Prior to analysis, I screened data for missing values, outliers, and tested for underlying statistical assumptions that influenced multiple regression analysis. Tests for assumptions included checking for departures from normality, homoscedasticity, and linearity that could affect the derived correlations between variables. Descriptive statistics included the mean, standard deviation, skewness, and kurtosis of the data derived from survey scores from the questionnaire items, as well as summative scores for the six constructs, examined to ensure the accuracy of the data file.

Missing data. Examination of data for missing values occurred by visual inspection and frequency analysis. Some cases had less than 5% missing values. Although no firm guidelines exist for determining what quantity of missing data is too much for a given sample size, the amount of missing data is less important than pattern of missing data. According to Mertler and Vannatta (2017), when missing data is less than five percent, there is no need of screening variables for further missing data; consequently, a list wise default should be used in the analysis. According to Mertler and Vannatta (2017), when missing data is less than 5%, there is no need of screening

variables for further missing data; consequently, a listwise default should be used in the analysis. I visually inspected the patterns of missing data and found that they were systematic on some respondents. Therefore, I eliminated the following 22 observations from my original sample of 178 participants: 7, 53, 54, 58, 59, 63, 82, 89, 90, 99, 115, 120, 122, 123, 125, 129, 133, 140, 141, 143, 148, and 153. The remaining sample size was 156 participants who offered complete data used for the identification of multivariate outliers, linearity, and homoscedasticity.

Test of Assumptions of Normality, Linearity, and Homoscedasticity

Multiple linear regression analysis requires validation of several assumptions: (a) linearity, (b) normality, (c) presence of outliers, (d) multicollinearity, and (e) homoscedasticity (Green & Salkind, 2013; Williams et al., 2013). Testing of assumptions provides support for the statistical analysis of relationships among the variables in the study (Zellmer-Bruhn et al., 2016). Redundancy or collinearity of the independent or predictor variables can lead to difficulty in making inferences regarding the predictor variables, which occurs when a strong relationship exists between predictor variables (Vatcheva, Lee, McCormick, & Rahbar, 2016). If collinearity exists, inflation of the standard error may result in the determination of statistical insignificance when the finding should be statistically significant; therefore, I used collinearity diagnostics to identify collinearity among the variables.

The data analysis consisted of testing and addressing the assumptions aligned with the use of the multiple linear regression approach, and the execution of the techniques described by Ude (2015). The multiple regression statistical technique is

sensitive to the quality of data (Williams, Grajales, & Kurkiewicz, 2013). Thus, researchers must manage the assumptions about the collected data (Foss & Hallerg, 2013; Merriam, 2014).

Outliers

Outliers result when there abnormal or inconsistent values emerge in the data (Satman, 2013). Outliers could indicate errors in importing or recording the collected data (Morell, Otto, & Fried, 2013). Outlier violations can potentially distort data results by affecting the regression coefficients, resulting in incremental changes in the residual variance estimates and can, in turn, potentially cause a researcher to reject the null hypothesis (Morell et al., 2013). Multiple linear regression analysis is extremely sensitive to outliers (Besseris, 2013). Satman (2013) detected, screened, and cleaned data for outliers as these were essential steps in the production of quality multiple linear regressions. Outlier detection is the process of spotting the inconsistent data objects in the remaining set of data (Satman, 2013), and outlier detection is critical in discovering the unexpected behaviors of certain objects (Morell, Otto, & Fried, 2013). Checks for the presence of outliers occurred by inspection of the scatterplot of the data and Mahalanobis distance produced by the multiple regression models (Pallant, 2009). Bootstrapping and data transformation were two ways to address violations of assumptions, while also checking for data entry or other errors.

In this study, I tested for multivariate outliers by calculating Mahalanobis distance statistics (*MAH_1*) recommended by Tabachnick and Fidell (2007). I explored procedures on the newly generated Mahalanobis variable to determine which cases

exceeded the chi-square criteria. Using the chi-square table, I found the critical value of *Chi-square* at $p < .001$ with $df = 108$ to be 149.45. Therefore, there was no indication of an outlier.

Assumption of Normality

Normality indicates the sample means distribution across predictors that a variable is normal (Schützenmeister et al., 2012). A cause that could possibly violate this assumption is that the estimates of confidence intervals and p values may become inaccurate when using a small sample size (Ude, 2015). Tests for normality included visual inspections of data plots, skewness, kurtosis, P-P plots and Kolmogorov-Smirnov tests for normality, following the established techniques recommended by Williams et al. (2013) for multiple regression tests.

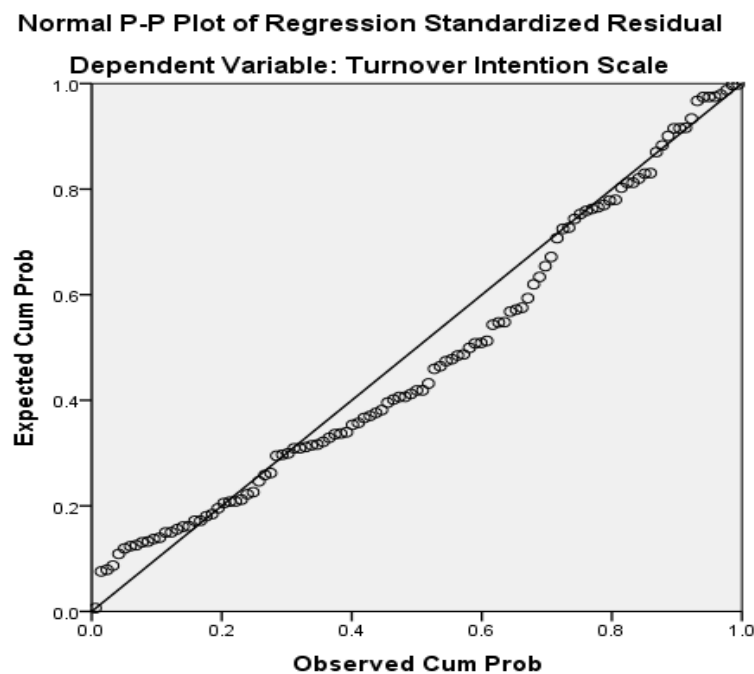


Figure 1. Normal probability plot (P-P) of the regression standardized residuals.

Assumption of Homoscedasticity

Consideration of this assumption is that the variances or residuals for scores of the dependent variable are somewhat equal (Schützenmeister, Jensen, & Piepho, 2012). A growing dispersion of the residuals with larger or lower values of the predicted values is usually a sign of problem in the assumption. Probable causes of violating homoscedasticity include: (a) outliers, (b) use of enhanced data collection techniques, and (c) omitting a variable from the dataset (Ude, 2015). Violating this assumption could result in bias in standard errors and improper inferences (Schützenmeister et al., 2012).

In addition, because the use of bivariate scatterplot is fairly subjective in examining linearity, scatterplots of standardized predicted values by standard residuals method applied to summative scores (See Figure 2). Results resemble a rectangular shape with scores concentrated in the center. The normal *P-P* plot of regression standard residual also showed data clustered in the center; therefore, the assumptions of linearity, normality and homoscedasticity are met.

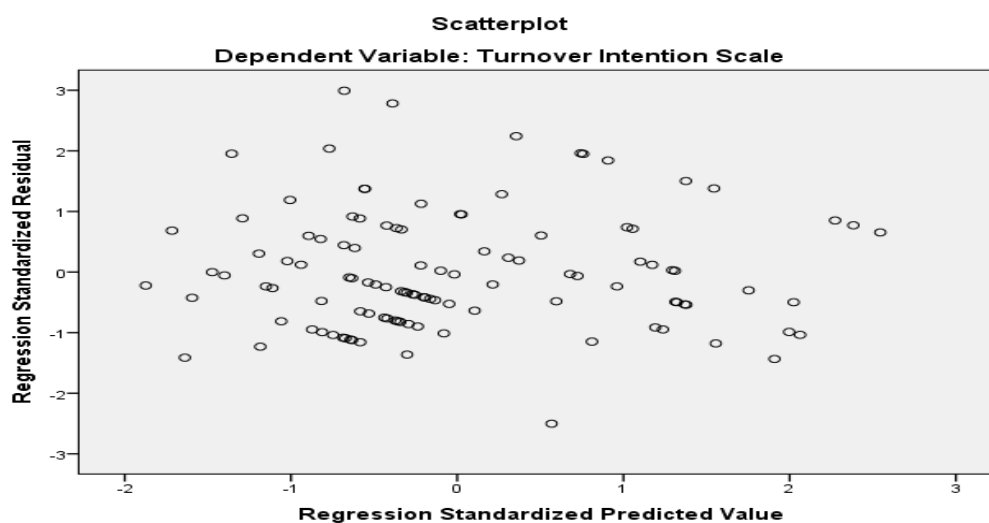


Figure 2. Scatterplot of the standardized residuals.

Assumption of Multicollinearity

Data analysis involving multiple variables depends on the correlation structures among predictive variables (Yoo et al., 2014). Multicollinearity occurs when a correlation emerges between two or more independent variables in a multiple regression (Williams et al., 2013). The negative aspects of violating this assumption could result in unreliable estimation of results, coefficients with incorrect signs, high standard errors, and implausible magnitudes (Enaami, Mohamed, & Ghana, 2013). Wen, Ysai, Bin-Chia, and Chen used and assessed multicollinearity by examining the values of the variance inflation factor. Ibrahim, Ghana, and Embat used the scatter plot to meet the assumptions of multicollinearity.

In this study, I used bivariate correlation analyses to assess multicollinearity and assessed the other assumptions collectively by running the Normal Probability Plots (P-P) plots and the scatterplots of the standardized residuals. I also examined other descriptive statistics including skewness values to see if they were closer to zero. All values range between + 1 and -1 signifying normal distribution. The normal *Q-Q plots* for all variables fall closer to the straight line (See Figure 1). Tolerance statistics for multicollinearity were addressed in the linear regression analysis. The findings from regression analysis showed that tolerance for an independent variable (turnover intentions) exceeded 1 for all constructs and therefore interpretation of model summary, ANOVA table, and table of coefficients were warranted.

Data Analysis

The central research question was: What is the relationship between employee compensation, employee engagement, job satisfaction, employee motivation, work environment, and employee turnover in the hospitality industry?

Hypotheses

H_{01} : No statistically significant relationships exist between employee compensation, employee engagement, employee motivation, job satisfaction, work environment, and employee turnover in the hospitality industry.

H_{a1} : A statistically significant relationships exists between employee compensation, employee engagement, employee motivation, job satisfaction, work environment, and employee turnover in the hospitality industry.

Multiple Linear Regression

Multiple linear regression analysis was the selected data analysis technique used for this study. Multiple linear regression analysis is the most appropriate analysis to examine the correlations between multiple predictor variables and the dependent variable (Chen, Li, Wu, & Liang, 2014). The advantage of using multiple regression analysis instead of bivariate correlational analysis is that the former enhances analytic capabilities (Ude, 2015). The capabilities associated with multiple regression analysis include: (a) demonstrating how variables can predict an outcome, (b) identifying predictor variables to foresee the outcome, and (c) examining individual subscales and the relative contribution of each variable scale (Ludlow & Klein, 2014; Ude, 2015).

Other types of statistical analysis would not meet the needs of this study. Specifically, bivariate linear regression was unsuitable; bivariate linear regressions involve the prediction of one variable's effect on another and not multiple variables (Green & Salkind, 2013). The Pearson product-moment correlation reflects the strength and direction and the significance of the relationship that exists between two variables (Télez, García, & Corral-Verdugo, 2015). This was accomplished by use of correlation matrix among variables. This statistic was examined to establish correlation among each individual variable. The overall significance of the relationship of all independent variables with the dependent variable, turnover intention, was examined using ANOVA statistics.

Descriptive and inferential statistics involving multiple linear regression analysis lead to a decision about whether to reject the null hypothesis, based on the reported statistical significance of the results (Antwi & Hamza, 2015). According to Ude (2015), the statistical software allows the researcher to generate a series of descriptive statistics including the mean, mode, range, standard deviation, kurtosis, and sample skew, and test the normality. The descriptive analysis in this study provided a way to aggregate the participants' responses. The inferential analysis indicated ways of identifying and generalizing the relationships among the participants' responses. The inferential analysis about the relationships between variables in a sample leads to generalizations or predictions about how those variables relate to a larger population (Cokley & Awad, 2013).

Multiple Linear Regression Techniques

SPSS is a useful software program used to analyze confiscated data. SPSS is software used in analyzing, presenting, and interpreting data as it pertains to research question and hypotheses (Nasef, 2013). SPSS software is an appropriate tool to import, aggregate, sort, and analyze data to determine statistical relationships in research.

Williams et al. (2013) explained multiple regression, related assumptions, and expression of the simple linear-regression-equation relationship as a predictor variable to the dependent variable: $\hat{Y} = b_0 + b_1X_1$. However, with the use of the five predictor variables in this study, multiple linear regression equations linking the five-predictor variable to the dependent variable was $\hat{Y} = b_0 + b_1X_1 + b_2X_2 + b_3X_3 + b_4X_4 + b_5X_5$. In the equation, \hat{Y} represents the expected value of the dependent variable, X_1 through X_5 are the distinct independent or predictor variables, b_0 represents the value of Y when the predictor variables equal zero, and b_1 through b_5 are the estimated regression coefficients (Ude, 2015).

In summary of the data analysis steps, descriptive and inferential data analysis involved using the data to generate frequency counts, percentages, means, medians, standard deviations, and variances observed in the data for each of the variables. The use of SPSS software helped me to generate a series of descriptive and inferential statistics including the mean, mode, range, standard deviation, kurtosis, sample skew, and test of normality for general quantitative research reporting. Descriptive analysis provided a way to appreciate the individual and group responses from participants in the sample. Inferential analysis was the way to identify the relationships among the variables. The

inferential analysis exposed information about the relationships between variables in the sample leading to generalizations or predictions about how those variables related to a larger population. I used SPSS software version 22.0 for Windows to analyze the data, enabling me to discuss a variety of data, test hypotheses, examine variances, and explain exceptional values.

Study Validity

The instruments in this correlational quantitative research were tested in previous studies and were deemed reliable, and formed the basis for reliability and validity of this research study. Threats to validity emanate from internal and external sources (Noble & Smith, 2015). Validity is the extent to which a research instrument measures what it should measure and performs as designers intended. I used the CS, UWES, JSS, WEIMS, WES, and TIS psychometric scales because of their proven internal consistency reliability, which were .70 and .91, yielding acceptable value properties.

The three characteristics of validity are content, construct, and criterion-related validity (Barry, Chaney, Piazza-Gardner, & Chavarria, 2014). Content validity occurs when a researcher assesses the degree to which the scale item represents or covers all information related to the concept of interest (Leedy & Ormrod, 2016). In construct validity, a researcher assesses whether the scale accurately measures the theoretical construct (Smith, 2012). Criterion-related validity occurs when a researcher compares the scores of two different scales (Barry et al., 2014). Päril (2013) stressed the importance of validity with consistent data collection, documentation, analysis, and interpretation.

I relied on the rigor and quality of the design, analysis, and interpretation of the data to achieve the validity of the study. Therefore, I used the psychometric scales with facets that covered and aligned with my research-study constructs. Threats to external validity, internal validity, and statistical conclusion validity were also concerns. I addressed in this study. External validity describes how readers can apply the results of the study to other groups or situations (Venkatesh et al., 2013). The focus of external validity is how well the study applies outside the study environment (Noble & Smith, 2015). The broad range of information selected represented an extensive demographic along with the homogenous treatment of work and strategies that provided a basis to address external-validity concerns. I had no personal relationship with the participants in this research, which also protected internal validity. The six surveys were internally and externally valid, based on previous studies.

Three factors of importance in ensuring reliability are (a) reliability of the instrument, (b) data assumptions, and (c) sample size (Smith, 2012). Additional tests for reliability of instruments for this nonexperimental or correlational study were unnecessary. Normally, reliability analysis is useful in determining the extent to which items in a survey instrument relate to each other, leading to an overall index of the repeatability or internal consistency of the scale as a whole and identification of problem items subject to exclusion from the scale (Avila et al., 2015). Cronbach's *alpha* is one model of internal consistency, based on average inter item correlation (Cho & Kim, 2015). However, because the validated instruments applied to a different population, retest of reliability helped me ascertain that the adopted instrument met the *alpha* values

of the initial studies. To ensure an acceptable internal consistency, the goal is to obtain an *alpha* score of at least .60 for each factor (Price & Mueller, 1986). Although the Cronbach's *alpha* of .70 or greater is generally considered adequate for measures of personalities and attitudes, an inter item correlation of .30 is considered adequate (Cho & Kim, 2015).

Determining the optimal sample size for a study assures an adequate power to detect statistical significance (Charan & Biswas, 2013). While large sample size may waste resources, small sample size may waste efforts; however, as a rule, the larger the sample size, the better (Kelly, 2015). Most studies use a sample size larger than 200 ($N > 200$), some as high as 500–600. Depending on the sample size of the data collected and the study design, it may be important to use requisite analytical methods that are robust to violations of sample-size criteria (Charan & Biswas, 2013). Statistical-power considerations are important to establish the significance of relationships or predictions (Charan & Biswas, 2013). The power ($1 - \beta$) of a statistical test is the complement of β , which notes the Type II or beta error probability of falsely retaining an incorrect null hypothesis (Mudge, Baker, Edge, & Houlahan, 2012).

Statistical power depends on three classes of parameters: (a) the significance level (i.e., the Type I error probability) α of the test, (b) the size(s) of the sample(s) used for the test, and (c) an effect size parameter defining research hypotheses and thereby indexing the degree of deviation from null hypothesis in the underlying population (Mudge et al., 2012). Five different types of power analysis have been used to determine statistical power reasonably: *A priori* power analyses, *post hoc* power analyses, compromise power

analyses, sensitivity analyses, and criterion analyses (Cho & Kim, 2015). I used *a priori* power analysis to provide an efficient method of controlling statistical power before the research and *post hoc* power analysis after data collection to assess whether a published statistical test had a fair chance of rejecting an incorrect null hypothesis. Importantly, *post hoc* analyses, like *a priori* analyses, require an H_1 effect-size specification *for the underlying population* to define the minimum degree of violation of the null hypothesis (Charan & Biswas, 2013).

Cho and Kim (2015) noted that small (0.2), medium (0.5), and large (≥ 0.8) values are helpful in determining effect-size specifications; the minimum suggested statistical power is 80%. A priori power analysis for this study indicated that a medium effect size of $f = .15$, $\alpha = .05$ suggested a minimum sample size of between 90 and 139 participants to achieve a power of .95. A reasonable justification for the use of multiple regression is the expectation for a statistical linear relationship between the independent and dependent variables (Mukaka, 2012). For example, multiple regression leads to predictions of one variable from a group of other variables and to justify the use of multiple regression analysis, the anticipated relationship should be linear (Mukaka, 2012). If a researcher anticipates a curvilinear relationship between the criterion variable and one or more of the predictor variables, they may use a number of data transformations to regain a linear relationship (Mudge et al., 2012). Due to the fact that data assumptions may pose threat to statistical conclusion validity, homoscedasticity, normality, and multicollinearity diagnostics (Enami, Mohamed, & Ghana, 2013), I checked for homoscedasticity, normality, and homoscedasticity in the data screening process to ensure data meets the

assumptions underlying multiple regression. This research used Cronbach's Alpha as a measure of consistency. Cronbach's Alpha is a reliability coefficient that indicates how well there is positive correlation between items in set to one another (Cho & Kim, 2015). The coefficient alpha is measure of internal consistency and validity based on formula $\alpha = \frac{rk/I}{1 + (K-I)r}$, where k is the number of variables in the analysis and r is the mean of inter-items correlation (Mensah, 2014). Table 2 shown below indicates a rating system that applies to most situations. All the instruments used in this study demonstrated acceptable to excellent Cronbach Alpha ratings.

Table 2

Coefficient Alpha Rating Scale

| Coefficient | Cronbach's alpha | Rating |
|-------------|------------------|--------------|
| $\alpha >$ | .90 | Excellent |
| $\alpha >$ | .80 | Good |
| $\alpha >$ | .70 | Acceptable |
| $\alpha >$ | .60 | Questionable |
| $\alpha >$ | .50 | Poor |
| $\alpha >$ | .50 | Unacceptable |

Note. Adapted from Effects of Human Resources Management Practices on Retention of Employee in the Banking Industry in Accra, Ghana, by R. D. Mensah, 2014, doctoral dissertation, available from ProQuest Digital Dissertations and Theses database, UMI No. 3159996.

Transition and Summary

Section 2 included a discussion of the research methodology, design, sample, and populations, as well as survey instruments, data collection processes, and data

analysis. I discussed the threats and mitigations for internal, external, and statistical conclusion validity specific to this quantitative correctional research study.

Section 3 includes the results of the statistical analysis, along with an interpretation of the findings with the application to professional practice, the implications for positive social change. I also addressed the possible of biases in this research. Section 3 includes a recommendation for ideas for action, future research, and personal reflections about the research. Lastly, I discuss the limitation associated with my research and end with a concise summary of the conclusions.

Section 3: Application to Professional Practice and Implications for Change

The purpose of this quantitative correlational study was to examine the relationship between employee turnover intentions of hospitality industry employees, job satisfaction, employee engagement, employee motivation, and work environment. The null hypothesis was: No statistically significant relationships existed between employee compensation, employee engagement, employee motivation, job satisfaction, work environment, and employee turnover intentions. The alternative hypothesis was: A statistically significant relationships existed between employee compensation, employee engagement, employee motivation, job satisfaction, work environment, and employee turnover intentions.

Presentation of the Findings

In this subsection, I will confer testing of the assumptions, present descriptive and inferential statistical results, discuss findings in relation to the peer-reviewed literature and theoretical framework, and conclude with a concise summary.

Descriptive Statistics

I received 187 participants who initially started the survey however, 31 individuals failed to answer all of the questions for the survey or exited the survey site before completing the survey. A prior sample size calculation was for 139 participants; as a result, the post-screening total was 156 eligible participants who met the established study criteria. Data were downloaded into Excel files for reverse coding where necessary and appropriate. I used SPSS for statistical tests, including the calculations of means, median, standard deviation, variance, and tests for normality, among other descriptive

and inferential statistics performed. Multiple regression and tests for correlations occurred to test the hypotheses in this study. Table 10 includes a summary of the descriptive statistics pertaining to the variables in the study. The subsections that follow contain detailed reports of the descriptive and inferential statistics, including the findings and tests performed on the data.

I used descriptive statistics to determine the general distributions of the variables using frequency and percentage levels, as suggested by Green and Salkind (2011). Utilizing descriptive statistics led to the identification of the points of central tendency such as mean, minimum, maximum, and standard deviation. The sample size for research was 156 mid to low-level hospitality employees working within lodging, food and beverage, recreation, and travel and tourism sectors in Atlanta, Dallas, and Jackson areas. The sample included the hospitality employees who completed the survey who worked in the specified locations.

The frequency column denotes the number of hospitality employee who worked in specified locations. The rows identified as missing displays the total count of survey responses minus response identified by locations, representing 1.3% of the survey responses that had missing data or were incomplete. The valid percent column computes using the 156 hospitality employees. The cumulative percent column is cumulative sum of the f column or 156 hospitality employees, the total of which is 100%.

Table 3

Frequency Distributions of Hospitality Employee's by Locations (N=156)

| | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|----------------------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| Atlanta, Georgia | 38 | 24.4 | 24.7 | 24.7 |
| Dallas, Texas | 47 | 30.1 | 30.5 | 55.2 |
| Jackson, Mississippi | 69 | 44.2 | 44.8 | 100.0 |
| Total | 154 | 98.7 | 100.0 | |
| Missing | 2 | 1.3 | | |
| Total | 156 | 100.0 | | |

The purpose of the frequency distribution in Table 4 is to illustrate the distribution of female and male hospitality employees who participated in this study by electronically signing the informed consent form and answering the survey questions. Of the 156 participants, 96 were females and 60 were male. Table 4 includes the genders of the participants. The frequency column denotes the number of hospitality employees identified as female or male. The percentage column reflects the findings that the majority of the participants were female (61.5% of the sample) with a smaller percentage of male participants (38.5% of the sample). The cumulative percent column is the cumulative sum based on 156 hospitality employees who participated in the study, the total of which is 100%.

Table 4

Frequency Distributions of Hospitality Employee's Gender (N=156)

| | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|--------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| Female | 96 | 61.5 | 61.5 | 61.5 |
| Male | | | | |
| Total | 60 | 38.5 | 38.5 | 100.0 |
| | 156 | 100.0 | 100.0 | |

Table 5 includes the data collected on the participants' ages. The frequency column denotes the number of hospitality employees within a specified age bracket. The valid percent column represents the 156 hospitality employees. The cumulative percent column is the cumulative sum of the frequency column based on the 156 hospitality employees, the total of which is 100%. The sample size ($N=156$) indicates the hospitality employees who completed the survey within different age categories.

Table 5

Frequency Distributions of Hospitality Employee's by Age (N=156)

| | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|-------------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| 18 to 24 | 45 | 28.8 | 28.8 | 28.8 |
| 25 to 34 | 28 | 17.9 | 17.9 | 46.8 |
| 35 to 44 | 64 | 41.0 | 41.0 | 87.8 |
| 45 to 54 | 13 | 8.3 | 8.3 | 96.2 |
| 55 to 64 | 4 | 2.6 | 2.6 | 98.7 |
| 65 to 74 | 1 | .6 | .6 | 99.4 |
| 75 or older | 1 | .6 | .6 | 100.0 |
| Total | 156 | 100.0 | 100.0 | |

Table 6 includes the educational levels of participants in this study, with the frequency column including the number of hospitality employee with the specified educational attainment. The percentage calculations occurred using the 156 hospitality employees. The cumulative percent column is cumulative sum of the 156 hospitality employees, the total of which is 100%. The most frequently reported educational level (42.3% of the hospitality employees who completed the survey) indicated they completed some college courses without obtaining a degree.

Table 6

Frequency Distributions of Hospitality Employee's Educational Attainment (N=156)

| | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|------------------------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| Some college no degree | 66 | 42.3 | 42.3 | 42.3 |
| Associate degree | | | | |
| Bachelor degree | 24 | 15.4 | 15.4 | 57.7 |
| Graduate degree | 36 | 23.1 | 23.1 | 80.8 |
| Total | 30 | 19.2 | 19.2 | 100.0 |
| | 156 | 100.0 | 100.0 | |

Table 7 includes the number of hospitality employee with different job roles. The percentage column includes the computation of the total of surveys responses for each reported job role, using the 156 hospitality employees. Reported job roles varied from front desk and guest services to transportation, food service, and housekeeping, among others.

Table 7

Frequency Distributions of Hospitality Employee's Current Job Roles (N=156)

| | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|--------------------------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| Front desk/Guest Service | 26 | 16.7 | 16.7 | 16.7 |
| Transportation | 33 | 21.2 | 21.2 | 37.8 |
| Food Service | 29 | 18.6 | 18.6 | 56.4 |
| Housekeeper | 19 | 12.2 | 12.2 | 68.6 |
| Other (Specify) | 49 | 31.4 | 31.4 | 100.0 |
| Total | 156 | 100.0 | 100.0 | |

Table 8 includes the number of hospitality employees who reported a specified work shift. The work shifts varied from daytime to evening and night shifts. The most commonly reported shift was the daytime or first shift (reported by 57.7% of the hospitality employees in the sample).

Table 8

Frequency Distributions of Hospitality Employee's Work Shift (N=156)

| | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|----------------------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| First/day shift | 90 | 57.7 | 57.7 | 57.7 |
| Second/evening shift | 43 | 27.6 | 27.6 | 85.3 |
| Third/night shift | 23 | 14.7 | 14.7 | 100.0 |
| Total | 156 | 100.0 | 100.0 | |

Table 9 includes the frequency distribution of the years of service reported by members of the sample. The frequency column denotes the number of hospitality employees with a number of specified years of service falling into the designated 5 year

range frames. The majority of the sample (79% of the sample) worked for up to 5 years in their positions.

Table 8

Frequency Distributions of Hospitality Employee's Years of Services (N=156)

| | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|------------------------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| Other (please specify) | 1 | .6 | .6 | .6 |
| 0-05 years | 79 | 50.6 | 50.6 | 51.3 |
| 5-10 years | 29 | 18.6 | 18.6 | 69.9 |
| 10-15 years | 26 | 16.7 | 16.7 | 86.5 |
| 15-20 years | 14 | 9.0 | 9.0 | 95.5 |
| 20-25 years | 5 | 3.2 | 3.2 | 98.7 |
| 25-30 years | 2 | 1.3 | 1.3 | 100.0 |
| Total | 156 | 100.0 | 100.0 | |

Table 9

Descriptive Statistics (N=156)

| Variable | N | Min. | Max | Mean | SD | Skewness |
|--------------|-----|------|-----|--------|--------|----------|
| Compensation | 152 | 5 | 25 | 14.20 | 4.669 | -.131 |
| Engagement | 140 | 17 | 107 | 66.51 | 20.636 | -.379 |
| Satisfaction | 139 | 72 | 204 | 129.01 | 16.187 | .227 |
| Motivation | 137 | 27 | 85 | 57.55 | 9.403 | -.319 |
| Environment | 152 | 9 | 45 | 24.26 | 7.033 | .050 |
| Turnover | 154 | 5 | 15 | 10.28 | 2.394 | .464 |

Inferential Results

I conducted correlation and multiple regression analyses to examine the relationships between job satisfaction, employee engagement, employee motivation,

work environment, and employee turnover intention in the hospitality industry. The purpose of the examination was to determine if there was a statistically significant relationship between the variables to accept or reject the research hypothesis.

The results of the Pearson correlation matrix (Table 11) revealed statistically significant correlations between turnover intention and all predictor variables (compensation, engagement, satisfaction, motivation, and environment). Turnover intention appeared to decrease with increasing values of the predictor variables of compensation, engagement, motivation, and work environment while it increased with increasing values of satisfaction.

Table 11 displays the results of the correlation analysis of the relationship between employee engagement, employee compensation, work environment, job satisfaction, and employee motivation and turnover intention. The results show significant associations between the dependent variable, turnover intention with employee engagement, employee compensation, work environment, job satisfaction, and employee motivation. In particular, the Pearson correlation coefficient of linear correlation between turnover intention and employee engagement was ($r(139) = -.54, p < .01$), indicating a significant moderate negative relationship. Therefore the researcher failed to reject the null hypothesis of no relationship between turnover intention and engagement.

Table 10

Pearson Correlation Matrix (N=156)

| | Compensation | Engagement | Satisfaction | Motivation | Environment |
|--------------|--------------|------------|--------------|------------|-------------|
| Engagement | .581** | | | | |
| Satisfaction | .154 | -.132 | | | |
| Motivation | .406** | .519** | .039 | | |
| Environment | .229** | .272** | .220** | .056 | |
| Turnover | -.340** | -.536** | .253** | -.215* | -.260** |
| Intention | .000 | .000 | .003 | .012 | .001 |

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

* . Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

The Pearson correlation coefficient of linear correlation between turnover intention and compensation was ($r(151) = -.34, p < .01$), indicating a significant small negative relationship. Therefore, the researcher failed to reject the null hypothesis of no relationship between turnover intention and compensation.

The Pearson correlation coefficient of linear correlation between turnover intention and satisfaction was ($r(139) = .25, p < .01$), indicating a significant small positive relationship. Therefore, the researcher failed to reject the null hypothesis of no relationship between turnover intention and satisfaction.

The Pearson correlation coefficient of linear correlation between turnover intention and motivation was ($r(137) = -.21, p < .01$), indicating a significant small negative relationship. Therefore, the researcher failed to reject the null hypothesis of no relationship between turnover intention and motivation.

The Pearson correlation coefficient of linear correlation between turnover intention and environment was ($r(152) = -.26, p < .01$), indicating a significant small negative relationship. Therefore, the researcher failed to reject the null hypothesis of no relationship between turnover intention and work environment.

Additional statistically significant positive correlations also appeared among several of the predictor variables. For example, compensation also correlated positively with engagement, motivation, and environment. Engagement had a similar statistically significant positive correlation with compensation, motivation, and environment. Motivation appeared to be significantly and positively correlated with employee compensation and employee engagement. Work environment positively correlated with all other predictor variables, except for motivation. However, job satisfaction appeared to correlate positively with only the work environment to a statistically significant extent.

Table 11

Model Summary

| Model | R | R Square | Adjusted R Square | Std. Error of the Estimate |
|-------|-------------------|----------|-------------------|----------------------------|
| 1 | .596 ^a | .355 | .324 | 1.961 |

a. Predictors: (Constant), Work Environment, Employee Motivation, Job Satisfaction, Employee Compensation, Employee Engagement

Table 12

ANOVA (N=156)

| Model | Sum of Squares | df | Mean Square | F | Sig. |
|--------------|----------------|-----|-------------|--------|-------------------|
| 1 Regression | 222.295 | 5 | 44.459 | 11.566 | .000 ^b |
| Residual | 403.615 | 105 | 3.844 | | |
| Total | 625.910 | 110 | | | |

a. Dependent Variable: Turnover Intention Scale

b. Predictors: (Constant), Work Environment, Employee Motivation, Job Satisfaction, Employee Compensation, Employee Engagement

Table 13 includes the regression model summary and ANOVA. Linear multiple regression analysis was performed to test the null hypothesis that work environment, employee motivation, job satisfaction, employee compensation, and employee engagement combined have no relationship with turnover intention. The finding indicated that work environment, employee motivation, job satisfaction, employee compensation, and employee engagement combined accounted for about 36% of variance in turnover intention and the result was statistically significant ($R^2 = .36$, $F(5, 105) = 11.57$, $p < .001$).

Based on the finding that R^2 is greater than zero, a justifiable conclusion is that the model contributes to explanations of the variability around the mean. The model in this study appears to account for significantly more variance in turnover intention scores derived from the study sample than would be the expectation by chance. A review of the beta weights (table 13) specifies four variables, compensation $\beta = -.23$, $t(105) = -2.34$, $p < .05$; engagement $\beta = -.39$, $t(105) = -3.59$, $p < .00$, satisfaction $\beta = -.17$, $t(105) = -2.05$, $p < .05$, and environment $\beta = -.16$, $t(105) = -1.90$, $p < .05$, significantly

contributed to the model. Motivation did not significantly contribute to the model $\beta = -.13, t(105) = -1.36, p > .05$

Table 13

Correlation Coefficient between Study Predictor Variables (N=156)

| Model | Unstandardized Coefficients | | Standardized Coefficients | t | Sig. | Collinearity Statistics | |
|---|-----------------------------|------------|---------------------------|--------|------|-------------------------|-------|
| | B | Std. Error | Beta | | | Tolerance | VIF |
| | (Constant) | 10.793 | 1.885 | | | | 5.725 |
| Compensation Scale | -.120 | .051 | -.235 | -2.341 | .021 | .608 | 1.644 |
| Utrecht Work Engagement Scale | -.046 | .013 | -.398 | 3.592 | .001 | .501 | 1.997 |
| Spector Job Satisfaction Scale | .026 | .013 | .172 | 2.053 | .043 | .874 | 1.145 |
| Work Extrinsic and Intrinsic Motivation Scale | .035 | .025 | .134 | 1.363 | .176 | .632 | 1.583 |
| Work Environment Scale | -.055 | .029 | -.164 | 1.905 | .059 | .833 | 1.200 |

a. Dependent Variable: Turnover Intention Scale

Analysis Summary. The null hypothesis was there is no statistically significant relationship between employee compensation, employee engagement, employee motivation, job satisfaction, work environment, and employee turnover intention in the hospitality industry. The alternative hypothesis was there are statistically significant relationships between employee compensation, employee engagement, employee motivation, job satisfaction, work environment, and employee turnover in the hospitality industry. The results of the correlations and multiple regression tests performed on the data collected from the 156 employees in the hospitality industry indicated the presence of statistically significant relationships between employee turnover intention and all but one predictor variable, motivation, in the study. Therefore, it is

acceptable to reject the null hypothesis and conclude that overall, there are statistically significant relationships between variables in this study.

This research included testing the hypothesis through correlation and multiple regression statistics. The results of correlation analysis showed that all five predictors had a statistically significant relationship with turnover intentions in the hospitality industry. The results of linear multiple regression showed that the model comprising the five predictors, work environment, employee motivation, job satisfaction, employee compensation, and employee engagement combined, accounted for approximately 36% of variance in turnover intention and the result was statistically significant ($R^2 = .36$, $F(5, 105) = 11.57$, $p < .001$). Therefore I fail to reject the null hypotheses of no statistically significant relationship between employee compensation, employee motivation, employee engagement, job satisfaction, and work environment to turnover intentions in the hospitality industry. Examination of beta weights however showed that while the beta weights for four variables, employee compensation, employee engagement, job satisfaction, and work environment were significantly related to turnover intention, motivation was not significantly related to turnover intention.

Theoretical conversation of findings. The following subsections contain discussions of the findings in this study and comparisons of the findings to previously-published research results from the literature review. The discussions of the results of this study include the interpretations of the findings in the context of the theoretical framework using the motivation theory by Herzberg that was a guide for this study. The theoretical framework for this study was Herzberg's (1966) two-factor motivation-

hygiene theory, emphasizing job satisfaction as an important consideration of organization leaders to reduce employee turnover intention. Reducing employee turnover enables industry leaders in their efforts to maintain long-term growth and profitability (Bryant & Allen, 2014). Herzberg's theory, as well as the model presented in this study, help explain the findings involving employee compensation, employee engagement, employee motivation, job satisfaction, and work environment in relation to employee turnover intentions. The application of the motivation-hygiene theory to my research yielded a higher level of understanding of the patterns of the interrelationships between the study variables.

Job satisfaction. The 139 participants who answered all 36 questions pertaining to job satisfaction within the hospitality industry ($M=129.01$, $SD=16.19$) indicated collective ambivalence about their job satisfaction, reflected by a mean group score that was not much higher than the survey scale midpoint. However, job satisfaction did correlate inversely with employee turnover intention to a statistically significant degree, consistent with the expectations advanced by Herzberg (1966). Herzberg's motivation-hygiene theory also involved motivational constructs affecting employee job satisfaction, such as work environment, among other conditions. In this study, job satisfaction correlated with work environment. Accordingly, increased views about hospitality employee's work environments correspond to increased job satisfaction, consistent with the Herzberg motivation-hygiene theory. However, there were not statistically significant correlations between job satisfaction and the other predictor variables in the study that were similar to Herzberg's constructs.

Finding of a positive relationship between job satisfaction and employee turnover intention is inconsistent with prior reports of job satisfaction influencing employees' decisions to stay or leave their jobs, thereby shaping turnover rates (AlBattat & Som, 2013b; Zopiatis et al., 2014). The identification of a statistically significant positive relationship between job satisfaction and employee turnover intention is inconsistent with previous research involving employee retention and turnover (Mishra & Mishra, 2014). Previously published research by Katsikea et al. (2015), Amin and Akbar (2013), and Zopiatis et al. (2014) revealed similar inverse relationships between measures of job satisfaction and turnover intention across various industries, including the hospitality industry.

The results of this study do not represent the idea expressed by Mosadeghrad and Ferdosi (2013) that leaders can focus on job satisfaction as a predictor of employee turnover that could affect organizational success. According to Marshall et al. (2016), hospitality leaders are in need of strategies and policies to maintain an adequate workforce. According to Marshall et al. (2016), organizational leaders need to pay attention to ways to enhance job satisfaction that could lead to a corresponding reduction in the employee turnover intention.

Although this study involved the identification of a relationship between job satisfaction and employee turnover intention in the hospitality industry, the multiple factors involved with job satisfaction, such as supervisory behaviors reported by Mathieu et al. (2016) and training reported by Thomas et al. (2014), were beyond the scope of the direct measures of satisfaction in this study. This research also encompassed the study of

job satisfaction and did not involve direct measures of dissatisfiers, noted by Herzberg (1959) as potentially influential hygiene factors to avoid dissatisfaction. Potential dissatisfiers, such as administrative regulations, technical supervision, and the quality of relationships with supervisors, peers, and subordinates that Venkataramani et al. (2013) discussed, were a part of the constructs in this study through various survey scale items.

Satisfiers and dissatisfiers are not on a continuum; while satisfiers relate to rewards and benefits derived from the job (Michel et al., 2013); dissatisfiers represent factors of the environment (Marshall et al., 2016). In this study, job satisfaction correlated directly to the work environment of the hospitality employees in the sample, indicating that the presence of hygiene factors in the work environment could enhance job satisfaction or decrease dissatisfaction.

Employee Compensation. The 152 participants represented a group with a compensation scale mean that was lower than the midpoint or neutral point of 15, indicating that the participants ($M = 14.20$, $SD = 4.6$) collectively expressed less satisfactory views of their compensation than neutral or positive views. The finding of a less than positive view of compensation of the employees in this study is consistent with the reported results of Kuria et al. (2012) who revealed that only 26% of study respondents from the hospitality industry felt their compensation was adequate for the work they performed. Interpreting the findings in light of previous literature assertions that pay could affect employee outcomes such as job satisfaction, satisfactory compensation could influence employee turnover, reduce turnover intention, or lead to employee retention (AlBattat et al., 2014; Lee & Chao, 2013; Mohsin et al., 2015; Pohler

& Schmidt, 2015; Qiu et al., 2015; Santhanam et al., 2015).

There was a statically significant inverse correlation between compensation and employee turnover intention among the hospitality employees in this study. In addition, compensation correlated positively with all other predictor variables in this study. The Herzberg (1959) theory encompasses the idea that rewards or benefits could represent motivational factors that lead to job satisfaction. Although there were results of a positive correlation between compensation and job satisfaction in this study, the results were not statistically significant at the .05 or .01 levels.

According to Kuria et al. (2012), employees who perceive their organization to be in poor financial condition may anticipate future layoffs and may preemptively leave. However, measuring the financial health or perceptions of financial conditions of the companies employing the workers in this study were beyond the scope of this study. Determining the potential influence of participants' perceptions about the local or regional economy that, according to Kuria et al., could contribute to turnover decisions was also not a part of the measures in this study.

Employee engagement. The 140 hospitality industry employees in this study rated aspects of their engagement at work that indicated that the participants ($M = 66.51$, $SD = 20.64$) collectively expressed higher views of employee engagement than neutral or negative views. The inverse correlation between engagement and turnover intention is consistent with the reports of prior scholars who showed a lack of employee engagement could lead to higher turnover rates (Ineson et al., 2013; Karatepe et al., 2013). The negative correlation between employee engagement and turnover intention and the

positive correlation between employee engagement and employee motivation were statistically significant, representing the two strongest correlations coefficient in this study. The findings of significant correlations between employee engagement and motivation support the claims of Biswas and Bhatnagar (2013), who revealed that, with increased levels of engagement, employees may become more motivated and committed. Biswas and Bhatnagar also claimed that employee engagement could lead to better performance and higher overall job satisfaction; however, the results of this study did not reveal a statistically significant relationship between engagement and satisfaction. Although there was no statistically significant correlation between employee engagement and satisfaction, the statistically significant relationship between engagement and motivation is consistent with the idea advanced by Kumar and Pansari (2014) and Frey et al. (2013) that employee engagement frequently motivates employees to exert additional efforts and reduces the likelihood that employees may voluntarily leave their companies.

Employee motivation. The mean results of the data from the 137 participants ($M = 57.55$, $SD = 9.40$) indicated that the participants collectively had more positive views of motivation than negative or neutral perceptions about the motivation they experienced at work within the hospitality industry. In this study of hospitality employees, measures of motivation positively correlated to employee engagement and negatively correlated to employee turnover intention. The inverse correlation between engagement and employee turnover intention is consistent with the previously-published findings linking motivation and reduced turnover (Dobre, 2013; Marshall et al., 2016; Ncube & Samuel, 2014).

Sahin et al. (2014) also linked work engagement to motivation, supported by the findings in this study that there is a statistically significant correlation between employee motivation and engagement. Employee motivation has a relationship with the level of employees' participation (Herzberg et al., 1959), consistent with the finding of a relatively strong positive correlation coefficient between employee engagement and motivation. Consistent with the Herzberg (1987) theory, motivators may lead to satisfaction, which can reduce thoughts of voluntarily leaving the workplace; however, the positive correlation coefficient indicating the relationship between the measures of motivation and job satisfaction in this study was much weaker than the more statistically significant correlation coefficient representing the inverse relationship between motivation and employee turnover intention.

Motivators remain integral to the growth and personal actualization of individuals (Giauque et al., 2013) and most leaders seek to motivate their employees toward positive workplace behaviors (Hassan et al., 2013). The negative correlation between motivation and turnover intention in this study is also consistent with the published findings of Mishra and Mishra (2014), who claimed that maintaining high employees' motivations can be a formal part of the strategic approach leaders may use to enhance employee retention and reduce employee turnover. Similarly, Mosadeghrad and Ferdosi (2013) reported that leaders can appreciate and plan to strategically address employee motivation to reduce the problem of employee turnover and to enhance the likelihood of retaining motivated employees who can contribute to organizational successes.

Work environment. The 152 participants in the study sample from the hospitality industry answered questions about their work environments with a mean ($M = 24.26$, $SD = 7.03$) that was lower than the midpoint of the survey scale, reflecting a less than positive view of the group of participants about their work environments. According to Tews et al. (2014), internal work events and elements of the work environment shape turnover, which is consistent with the finding of a statistically significant inverse relationship between work environment and employee turnover intention in this study. According to previously published scholars, factors in the work environment could lead to employee turnover (Hwang et al., 2014; Karatepe & Shahriari, 2014); unfavorable perceptions of work environments led to negative workplace outcomes, including turnover, while meaningful working environments deterred turnover intentions in a variety of job contexts (Arnoux-Nicolas et al., 2016).

The statistically significant positive correlation between work environment and job satisfaction in this study supports the conclusions previously reported by Robinson et al. (2014) that a dynamic and interactive environment may lead to higher job satisfaction of the hospitality employee and employee retention, among other organizational benefits. The results of this study included a statistically significant positive correlation between work environment and job satisfaction are consistent with the reports of prior scholars who showed that a psychosocially supportive work environment can enhance employees' satisfaction levels and organizational commitment (Karatepe & Karadas, 2014; Kim et al., 2015; Madera et al., 2014).

The results of this study included a statistically significant positive correlation between employee engagement and work environment, consistent with the idea that perceived relational organizational contracts and a supportive work environment could affect turnover intention (Guchait et al., 2015; Subramanian & Shin, 2013; Tews et al., 2013). Studies conducted outside of Western organizational contexts indicated higher quality work environments led to lower employee turnover intentions (Kim, 2015; Shore, 2013) and improved perceptions of the work environment improved the retention rates of employees in the hospitality industry (Guchait et al., 2015). Gin Choi et al. (2013) also reported that perceptions of personally satisfying work places lead to employees feeling more attached to the workplace (Gin Choi et al., 2013), substantiated further by the finding of a statistically significant positive correlation between job satisfaction and work environment in this study.

Employee Turnover Intention. The 154 participants answered three questions pertaining to turnover intention ($M = 10.28$, $SD = 2.34$) with the mean of the group higher than the midpoint of 9, indicating that the participants collectively had a slightly higher turnover intention than neutral views. As a result of the documented and relatively high turnover rate in the hospitality industry, supported by the findings in this study, Chang et al. (2013) suggested a leader scholarly focus remain on employee recruitment, retention, and turnover in the hospitality-service industry. The results of this study included statistically significant inverse relationships between four predictor variables and turnover intention of the group of employees in the hospitality industry who participated in this study. One predictor, employee satisfaction, exhibited a positive relationship. The

negative correlation coefficient in order from strongest to weakest is engagement, compensation, environment, job satisfaction, and motivation. In the effort to extend the motivation–hygiene theory advanced by Herzberg (1966), the correlation and regression results in this study reflected the additive influence of the constructs (employee compensation, employee engagement, employee motivation, job satisfaction, and work environment) in relation to employee turnover intentions in the hospitality industry.

Applications to Professional Practice

Employee engagement is a recognizable concept among business professionals. Employee engagement results in an increase in the emotional and intellectual commitments of employees to their jobs, managers, or organizations that frequently result in the exertion of additional efforts (Kumar & Pansari, 2014). The results of this study included the finding of a relatively negative correlation between employee engagement and turnover intention. The applications of this finding to professional practices include the opportunity to determine employee engagement in the workplace with the aim to enhance engagement, which may lead to the reduction of voluntary employee turnover in the hospitality setting.

Similarly, compensation correlated negatively with turnover intention in this study of hospitality employees. Ratings of compensation by the participants in this study were collectively more negative than neutral or positive, in comparison to the scale midpoint representing ambivalence. Applications of this finding to professional practices could involve the determination of optimal compensation scales that could enhance the

hospitality employees' perceptions of favorable compensation conditions and reduce employee turnover in the industry.

Work environment in this study was one of the two-predictor variables that hospitality employee participants rated more negatively than others. As a group, participants in this study had a relatively unfavorable view of their work environments. Work environment correlated inversely with turnover intention, but work environment was also the only predictor variable with a statistically significant positive correlation with job satisfaction in this study. Consideration of these findings by professionals in the hospitality industry could lead to meaningful applications in the hospitality workplace oriented toward enhancing an optimal work environment, which may increase job satisfaction and reduce turnover intention.

Participants in this study reported a neutral view of job satisfaction, neither positively nor negatively rated. Exploring turnover strategies and policies that influence the reducing of employee turnover with the hospitality industry, I used Herzberg's (1966) two-factor theory focused largely on job satisfaction. The results of this study corroborate and extend previous scholarly efforts involving job satisfaction that hospitality leaders can use to justify strategies and policies oriented toward enhancing job satisfaction and reducing employee turnover. The research findings of this study are relevant to helping hospitality leaders understand the importance of job satisfaction and implementing strategies and policies as intentional business practices.

Survey ratings by the group of participants in this study showed that the hospitality employees had more favorable than negative or neutral views about the

motivation they experienced in their workplaces. Although participants rated motivation more favorably as a group than compensation or engagement, motivation positively correlated with compensation and engagement, indicating compensation and engagement may be motivating to hospitality employees. Given the statistically significant negative correlation between motivation and employee turnover intention, hospitality leaders can assess, analyze, and appreciate additional specific motivational factors contributing to the magnitude of the relationships in their work settings. Hospitality leaders can apply these research-driven findings to form initiatives that may help improve employee motivation, which may ultimately reduce turnover within their industry. Leaders of the hospitality industry who take research-driven steps to reduce and prevent employee turnover through motivational means may help their companies achieve greater long-term growth and profitability.

When hospitality leaders address the concerns of their employees in effective ways they can maximize employee commitment toward the core functions of the organization, thus allowing hospitality leaders to meet the business goals and objectives. Particularly important for the hospitality industry, a dynamic and interactive environment, preventing the loss of trained and competent employees may also enhance customer satisfaction (Hurley, 2015; Robinson et al., 2014). When organizational leaders engage and retain valuable employees, service quality increases, which influence customer satisfaction, employee retention, and productivity while improving financial performance (Frey et al., 2013). As a result of professional practices to enhance

satisfaction of both employees and customers, service quality is likely to increase and nurturing business relationships could lead to more predictable growth and sustainability.

Implications for Social Change

The findings from this study apply to individuals, communities, organizations, and society. Retaining skilled and satisfied employees is essential to the growth, sustainability, and economic well-being of all businesses, including the hospitality industry. Hospitality employee retention reduces the costs associated with recruiting, hiring, and training new workers. Therefore, understanding the factors that lead to employees leaving their jobs is necessary for organization survival. The results of this study indicate that job satisfaction, employee compensation, employee engagement, and work environment are significant factors related to hospitality employee turnover intention. The extension of the study of factors involved with turnover serves as the basis for the development of solutions to the problem.

Additional implications to organizations and consumers stem from the idea that hospitality leaders must understand the loss of valuable workers impact service quality, which could cause financial distress to organizations. Without skilled workers, the organization may struggle to provide quality services to their individual customers, which erodes their customer base. Implementing strategies to reduce employee turnover in the hospitality industry, based on research that helps leaders understand the factors involved with turnover, can lead to healthier and more profitable and sustainable organizations that serve a need for members of society.

The implications for positive social change in communities are that a reduced turnover rate within the hospitality industry could decrease unemployment and lead to healthier, more satisfied employees serving their communities. With increased job satisfaction and reduced turnover, the opportunity for more sustainable organizations increase; this can contribute stability to the community. Organizational leaders who implement initiatives that improve workplace conditions leading to employee satisfaction tend to attract and retain employees who offer high quality goods and services to the community members in the society they serve (Lu & Gursoy, 2013). Employee retention may also contribute to the stability of families in the community through employment and tax revenues reinvested into the organization's community.

Recommendations for Action

The findings from this study encompass the idea that workplace compensation, engagement, environment, and job satisfaction are important factors to employees that may affect customers and the community in which they work. Employee turnover among hospitality employees affects an organization in several ways and threatens the service quality to the customers. Parakandi and Behery (2016) indicated that organizational leaders are increasingly becoming aware of the need to have strategies and policies that lead to a sustainable workforce. Based on the results of this study, I recommend that organizational leaders implement conscious efforts to enhance employees' positive perceptions about job satisfaction, employee compensation, employee engagement, and work environment, as they are significant predictors of turnover intention in the hospitality industry.

The concept of job satisfaction is not new and requires that leaders understand what leads to job satisfaction. A reconciliation of what employees believe are satisfying job experiences with what leaders require of and extend to their employees may lead to a better understanding of the concepts of job satisfaction in their hospitality roles.

Addressing compensation may be simpler than enhancing other predictors such as employee compensation, employee engagement, employee motivators, job satisfaction, and work environment; however, employee engagement appeared to be the strongest predictor of employee turnover intention in the model advanced in this study. Therefore, recommendations for leaders include designing hospitality workplace settings that have the potential for optimal employee engagement. Similarly, attention to the work environment with the purpose of developing an enriching and supportive workplace environment will likely help reduce turnover intention of hospitality employees.

The results of this study represent a foundation upon which hospitality leaders can build turnover reduction strategies and policies to retain skilled workers. A comprehensive recommendation for action could potentially involve the implementation of work-life balance initiatives addressing compensation, engagement, motivation, and environment, geared toward improving job satisfaction and retention. Hospitality leaders who apply their understanding of research-driven business practices may be able to reduce turnover and the costly and disruptive results of turnover to organizations and society. To facilitate the visibility of these research findings to help shape the actions of hospitality leaders and advance the research-driven applications to professional practices, I will disseminate the finding from this study as follows. The dissemination of the details

and findings of this study will occur through formal presentations at hospitality organization conferences and seminars. I will prepare to share the findings in online meeting sessions hosted by professional associations of hospitality industry leaders. The dissemination efforts will also include submissions for publication to academic and professional journals.

Recommendations for Further Research

Suggestions for future research include the examination and extension of the constructs under study, the application of other relevant theories, the inclusion of participants from additional locations, organizations, and industries, use of different sampling methods, and focus on organizational level research results. For example, further research could revolve around the predictor variables in this study, to help fill a gap in the understanding of the meaning of each specific construct within specific workplace settings. Although there is a temptation to form a work-life balance model leading to recommendations for initiatives, how the predictor variables fit into a work-life balance model is a topic appropriate for future research that extends these findings in the work-life balance research direction.

Compensation and environment in this study were two variables rated less positively than the other variables rated by participants in this study. It would be worthwhile to determine the extent to which these perceptions of compensation and the environment may vary among geographic locations, business types, size, and other variables that could relate to compensation and the working environment. Similarly, employee engagement and motivation appeared to be relatively favorably rated by the

hospitality employees in this study. A more thorough understanding and comparison of hospitality employees' perceptions about engagement and motivation would contribute to the likelihood of developing useful strategies for reducing turnover intention in various types and locations of hospitality work settings.

From a theoretical perspective, the Herzberg (1966) motivation-hygiene theory was the theoretical framework for this study. The results did not fully conform to the Herzberg theory; it was clear from the results of the study that job satisfaction and motivation were not related. According to the findings, the relationship between motivation and job satisfaction was not statistically significant. Although, according to the Herzberg theory, environment might be a hygiene rather than motivational factor, in this study, environment related positively and significantly to job satisfaction. Future researchers could consider using the social exchange theory or person-environmental theory. The social exchange theory accounts for the person who attempt to maximize their rewards and minimize their cost, whereas with the person-environment theory, people are more influenced by many determinants both in the person and in the situation. In particular environments, satisfaction are more or less guarantee when rewards or cost has no influenced on an individual personal situation. The limitations of this study included the minimum sample size and geographic boundaries using low- to mid-level employees working in the hospitality industry in the following locations: (a) Atlanta, Georgia; (b) Dallas, Texas; and (c) Jackson, Mississippi. Because of the diversity of the hospitality industry, findings in different geographic locations or sizes and sectors of hospitality establishments may differ from the general findings from the Southern

hospitality employees represented in this study. A related recommendation for future research would be including senior level employees and managers in a similar study. This research could lead to additional findings about the experiences and views of senior-level hospitality employees and managers who may experience similar or dissimilar perceptions of the factors influencing turnover with other employees in the industry.

Because of the specificity that may be inherent to certain hospitality sectors or organizations, a qualitative study encompassing turnover intention and the five predictor variables in this study could yield useful information that leaders can use to formulate and implement turnover intention reduction strategies. A case study may lead to an appreciation of the depth to which each construct is involved with turnover intention and provide context for understanding how the factors identified as significant in this study work together in unique hospitality organizations. The results of a qualitative study may result in a more comprehensive appreciation of why compensation, environment, engagement, motivation, and job satisfaction were predictive factors of turnover intention. Using a qualitative design or a mixed methods approach that accommodates narrative, verbal, textual responses to relevant questions could capture hospitality employees' experiences in meaningful ways, adding to data derived from Likert-type scales. Qualitative research findings may lead to more detailed explanations about employee turnover in the hospitality industry, which could lead to additional site-specific solutions to the problem that may be transferable to different settings.

Reflections

The DBA Doctoral Study process was a challenge balancing work, home, and school. Every process needed to be rigorous to ensure meeting and exceeding the requirements of the University. While conducting this research, I took extra precautions in the data collection methods to ensure the survey instruments were anonymous, which is why I utilized Survey Monkey Audience® to handle the collection of the data. I did not offer any financial incentives, which could have resulted in biased data. The research methodology for this study relied on the results of the G*power calculation tool which suggested that sample size should be approximately 90-139 participants. In addition to using Cronbach's alpha scores, the six survey instruments already had their validity and reliability confirmed in previous research studies. The use of preestablished surveys instrument diminished the possibility of biases and leading questions. At no time did I manipulate, influence, or affect the participants, data, or the collection of the survey answers. As a manager in the banking industry that experienced high employee turnover, I started this study with some assumptions that all variables identified in this study were statistically related; however, the process of the research revealed that although correlations or relationships may exist, not all relationship may be similarly statistically significant.

After conducted this study, I gained a better understanding of the complexity of planning, analyzing, collecting, and interpreting the data from survey participants. I found that although I was tempted to claim that work-life balance initiatives are contributing factors in reducing employee turnover intentions within the hospitality

industry, I cannot make conclusions or generalizations about the concept, but can suggest the focus for future research.

This process has taught me patience. I learned to defy the odds at times and that surrendering to my fears of scholarly writing is not acceptable. The experience of conducting this quantitative correlational research not only provided positive things in my life but also has strengthened and enhanced my skills, behavior, and knowledge.

Conclusion

The high employee turnover within the hospitality industry grew into a recognizable global problem posing significant challenges for organizational leaders. Direct and indirect costs associated with turnover among hospitality employees combine to make turnover costly to organizations (AlBattat & Som, 2013). The purpose of this quantitative correlational study was to examine the relationships between turnover intentions and five identified variables, employee compensation, employee engagement, employee motivation, job satisfaction, and work environment.

The study utilized a Likert-type scale to determine if there were statistically significant relationships between the predictor variables and criterion variable in the study. The results of 156 surveys for hospitality employees were the statistical basis for this study. Descriptive and inferential statistics, including multiple linear regression, led to the test of the null hypothesis and answered the following research question: what is the extent of the relationships between employee compensation, employee engagement, employee motivation, job satisfaction, work environment, and turnover intentions? The findings revealed that employee compensation, employee engagement, job satisfaction,

and work environment have statistically significant inverse relationships with turnover intention. The findings from this study may encourage industry leaders to take appropriate actions to reduce employee turnover and future researchers could investigate the problem by adding additional variables that may predict employee turnover intentions within the hospitality industry.

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Appendix: A Request and Permission to use Compensation Scale

Date: Fri, Jul 10, 2015 at 5:33 AM

From: Rebecca Dei

Dear Bettye

Thank you for your email and sorry for the delay in replying. I accept the terms and conditions of your request and hereby give you the permission to use any of my instruments. I wish you all the best in your doctoral programme and will be looking forward to receiving a copy of your thesis on approval.

Best regards

Becky

Wed, Jul 1, 2015 at 2:30 PM, Bettye Holston-Okae wrote:

Greeting Dr. Rebecca Dei Mensah,

RE: Research Instruments

I am doctoral student at Walden University pursuing a Doctor of Business Administration degree. I am writing my doctoral study project tentatively entitled "Employee Turnover Intentions in the Hospitality Industry". I am requesting your permission to use and reproduce in my study some or the entire (or a variation of the instrument from the following study: "Effects of Human Resources Management Practices on Retention of Employees in The Banking Industry in Accra, Ghana". I am requesting to use and reproduce this instrument under the following conditions: I will use this surveys instrument only for my research and I will not sell or use it any compensated or curriculum development activities. I will send a copy of my doctoral study that uses this instrument promptly to your attention upon final approval.

If these are acceptable terms and conditions, please indicate so by emailing a written approval by replying to this email and given your written consent of the use.

Bettye Holston-Okae, B.S., M.S., EMBA
Doctoral Student
Walden University
School of Management and Technology

Appendix B: Request and Permission to use UWES Scale

Date: June 22, 2015

Dear Bettye,

You have permission to use the UWES under the conditions that you specified in your email.

With kind regards,

Wilmar Schaufeli

Sat, Jun 20, 2015 at 5:38 AM, Bettye Holston-Okae wrote:

Greeting Dr. Schaufeli,

I am doctoral student at Walden University pursuing a Doctor of Business Administration degree. I am writing my doctoral study project ... I am requesting your permission to use and reproduce in my study some or the entire (or a variation of the instrument from the following study: "Effects of Human Resources Management Practices on Retention of Employees in The Banking Industry in Accra, Ghana". I am requesting to use and reproduce this instrument under the following conditions: I will use this surveys instrument only for my research and I will not sell or use it any compensated or curriculum development activities. I will send a copy of my doctoral study that uses this instrument promptly to your attention upon final approval.

If these are acceptable terms and conditions, please indicate so by emailing a written approval by replying to this email and given your written consent of the use.

Sincerely,

Bettye Holston-Okae, B.S., M.S., EMBA
Doctoral Student
Walden University
School of Management and Technology

Appendix C: Request and Permission to use Job Satisfaction Scale

Wed, Jul 1, 2015 at 2:30 PM, Bettye Holston-Okae wrote:

Date: April 7, 2016

From: Dr. Paul Spector

Dear Bettye:

You have my permission for noncommercial research/teaching use of the JSS. 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. 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,

Thu, April 4 2016 at 2:02 PM, Bettye Holston-Okae wrote:

RE: Research Instruments

I am doctoral student at Walden University pursuing a Doctor of Business Administration degree. I am writing my doctoral study project ... I am requesting your permission to use and reproduce your job satisfaction survey for my research. I am requesting to use and reproduce this instrument under the following conditions: I will use this surveys instrument only for my research and I will not sell or use it any compensated or curriculum development activities. I will send a copy of my doctoral study that uses this instrument promptly to your attention upon final approval.

If these are acceptable terms and conditions, please indicate so by emailing a written approval by replying to this email and given your written consent of the use.

Bettye Holston-Okae, B.S., M.S., EMBA
Doctoral Student
Walden University

Appendix D: Request and Permission to use WEIMS Scale

Date: Monday, June 22, 2015

From: Luc G. Pelletier, Ph.D.

Dear Bettye,

You have my permission to use the WEIMS in the context of your thesis and I accept your conditions.

Best of luck with your research,

Luc G. Pelletier, Ph.D.

Mon, Jun 22, 2015 at 5:32 AM, Bettye Holston-Okae wrote:

Greeting Dr. Luc Pelletier,

I am doctoral student at Walden University pursuing a Doctor of Business Administration degree. I am writing my doctoral study project ... I am requesting your permission to use and reproduce in my study some or the entire (or a variation of the scale from the following study: "Work Extrinsic and Intrinsic Motivation Scale: It's Value for Organizational Psychology Research". I am requesting to use and reproduce this instrument under the following conditions: I will use this surveys instrument only for my research and I will not sell or use it any compensated or curriculum development activities. I will send a copy of my doctoral study that uses this instrument promptly to your attention upon final approval.

If these are acceptable terms and conditions, please indicate so by emailing a written approval by replying to this email and given your written consent of the use.

Sincerely,

Bettye Holston-Okae, B.S., M.S., EMBA
Doctoral Student
Walden University
School of Management and Technology

Appendix E: Request and Permission to use WES Scale

Date: June 22, 2015

From: Jan Ivar

Dear Bettye

Feel free to use the WES-10. Your project seems quite interesting, so if you could send me a copy of your doctoral study I would be very happy. Good Luck with your project

Best

Jan Ivar

Wed, Jul 1, 2015 at 3:30 PM, Bettye Holston-Okae wrote:

Greeting Dr. Rossberg & Dr. Friis,

I am doctoral student at Walden University pursuing a Doctor of Business Administration degree. I am writing my doctoral study project ... I am requesting your permission to use and reproduce in my study some or the entire (or a variation of the instrument from the following study: "Work environment and job satisfaction-A psychometric evaluation of the Working Environment Scale-10". I am requesting to use and reproduce this instrument under the following conditions: I will use this surveys instrument only for my research and I will not sell or use it any compensated or curriculum development activities. I will send a copy of my doctoral study that uses this instrument promptly to your attention upon final approval.

If these are acceptable terms and conditions, please indicate so by emailing a written approval by replying to this email and given your written consent of the use of your research instrument.

Sincerely,

Bettye Holston-Okae, B.S., M.S., EMBA
Doctoral Student
Walden University
School of Management and Technology

Appendix F: Request and Permission to use Turnover Intention Scale

Date: Jul 4, 2015

From: Muhammad Aamir Shafique Khan

Hi, firstly, my apologies for the late reply. It's nice to hear from you. I was away and lost my cell phone and could not log in from any other machine. You can use my work by giving proper references. Wish you best of lucks with your studies.

Regards

Sat, Jul 4, 2015 at 6:50 AM, Bettye Holston-Okae wrote:

Greeting Dr. Khan,

I am doctoral student at Walden University pursuing a Doctor of Business Administration degree. I am writing my doctoral study project ... I am requesting your permission to use and reproduce in my study some or the entire (or a variation of the instrument from the following study: An Empirical Study of Turnover Intentions in Call Center Industry of Pakistan. Could you also provide me with a copy of actual instruments you used in your study? I am requesting to use and reproduce this compensation instrument under the following conditions: I will use this survey instrument only for my research and I will not sell or use it any compensated or curriculum development activities. I will send a copy of my doctoral study that uses this instrument promptly to your attention upon final approval.

If these are acceptable terms and conditions, please indicate so by emailing a written approval by replying to this email and given your written consent of the use.

Sincerely,

Bettye Holston-Okae, B.S., M.S., EMBA
Doctoral Student
Walden University
School of Management and Technology

Appendix G: Invitation to Participate

Walden University
College of Management and Technology
100 Washington Avenue South
Minneapolis, MN 55401

Invitation to Participate in a Research

Based on your knowledge and experience of working in the Hospitality Industry, you are invite you to participate in study examining the relationship between employee compensation, engagement, motivation, work environment, and employee turnover.

I am conducting research on “Employee Turnover Intentions in the Hospitality Industry,” to fulfill the requirements of earning a Doctor of Business Administration degree at Walden University. I invite you to take part in this research study because your shared experiences toward aspects of turnover intentions could potentially assist hospitality leaders in formulating appropriate policies and strategies that could help decrease employee turnover while improving performance and productivity in the hospitality industry.

I humbly request that you spare a few minutes of your time to complete the surveys at the Survey Monkey link. The questions seek your honest opinion regarding your organization’s policies and strategies in relation to employee turnover. The information you provided will remain confidential. All data will be stored in a password protected electronic format to insure your confidentiality. The results of this study will be used solely for scholarly purposes only, and may be shared with Walden University representatives.

Your participation in this study is voluntary and not required. There are minimal risks associated with participating in this survey and you will not receive any monetary compensation for participation. You may choose not to participate. Additionally, if you decide to participate in this study, you have the opportunity to discontinue participation at any time.

Study research result will be presented as aggregate, summary data only. Should you have desire to have a copy of the research study result, please provide your email address at the end of the survey, or email me at bettye.holston-okae@waldenu.edu.

Sincerely,
Bettye Holston-Okae
DBA Candidate at Walden University

Appendix H: The National Institutes of Health (NIH) Certification



Appendix I. Demographics Survey

Please choose the answer that best represents you.

1. Which location to do current work at?

(1) Atlanta, Georgia, (2) Dallas, Texas, and (3) Jackson, Mississippi

2. What is your gender?

(1) Female

(2) Male

3. What is your age in years?

(1) 19–24 (2) 25–30 (3) 31–35 (4) 36–40 (5) 41–50 (6) 51–55 (7) 56 and older

4. What is the highest level of education you have achieved?

(1) Associate degree (2) Bachelor degree (3) Master's degree

5. Which best describes your current job role?

(1) Front desk/Guest Service (2) Transportation (3) Food Service (4) Housekeeper (5) Other (specify)

6. How many years of service do you have at your current organization?

(1) 0–5 years (2) 5–10 years (3) 10–15 years (4) 15–20 years (5) 20–25 years (6) 25–30 years (7) over 30

7. What is your current work shift?

(1) First/day shift (2) Second/evening shift (3) Third/night shift

Appendix J: Compensation Scale

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
|---------------------------|--------------|-------------|-----------|------------------------|
| Strongly disagree (SD) | Disagree (D) | Neutral (N) | Agree (A) | Strongly agree (SA) |

Place the corresponding number that matches the extent to which you feel that you perceive each of the following statements:

1. I earn more than others who occupy similar positions in my organization.
2. The non-monetary benefits, such as vacation time and medical insurance that I receive here are better than those I could get at other organizations.
3. People who are hard working and results-oriented are rewarded in this organization.
4. The salary and benefits I receive in this organization is commensurate with my responsibilities.
5. Compensation is satisfactorily reviewed from time to time in this organization.

Note. Adapted from Effects of Human Resources Management Practices on Retention of Employee in the Banking Industry in Accra, Ghana by D. Mensah, 2014, Doctoral dissertation, available from ProQuest Dissertations and Theses database (UMI No. 3159996). Copyright 2014 by ProQuest reprinted with permission (see Appendix A).

Appendix K: Utrecht Work Engagement Scale

| 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
|-------|---------------------------|-----------------------|--------------------------------|-------|------|--------|
| Never | Almost a few times a year | Rarely once per month | Sometimes; a few times a month | Often | Very | Always |

Place the corresponding number that matches the extent to which you feel that you perceive each of the following statements:

1. At my workplace, I feel energetic.
2. I find the work that I do in this organization is full of meaning and purpose.
3. Time flies when I'm working in this organization.
4. At my job in this organization, I feel strong and vigorous
5. I am enthusiastic about my job with this organization.
6. When I am working in this organization, I forget everything else around me.
7. My job in this organization inspires me.
8. When I get up in the morning, I feel like going to work.
9. I feel happy when I am working intensely in this organization.
10. I am proud of the work that I do in this organization.
11. I am immersed in my work.
12. I can continue working for long periods of time in this organization.
13. In this organization, my job is challenging.
14. I get carried away when I'm working in this organization.
15. At my job, I am very resilient, mentally.
16. At my work I always persevere, even when things do not go well.
17. It is difficult to detach myself from my job in this organization.

Note. Adapted from "The measurement of engagement and burnout: A two sample confirmatory factor analytic approach," by W. B. Schaufeli, M. Salanova, V. González-Romá, & A. B. Bakker, *Journal of Happiness Studies*, 3, 71–92. doi:10.1023/A:1015630930326. Copyright 2002 by *Journal of Happiness Studies*; reprinted with permission (see Appendix B).

Appendix L: Job Satisfaction Scale

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
|-----------------------|------------------------|----------------------|----------------|---------------------|--------------------|
| Disagree very much | Disagree moderately | Disagree slightly | Agree slightly | Agree moderately | Agree very much |

Place the corresponding number that matches the extent to which you feel that you perceive each of the following statement:

1. I feel I am being paid a fair amount for the work I do.
2. There is really too little chance for promotion on my job.
3. My supervisor is quite competent in doing his/her job.
4. I am not satisfied with the benefits I receive.
5. When I do a good job, I receive the recognition for it that I should receive.
6. Many of our rules and procedures make doing a good job difficult.
7. I like the people I work with.
8. I sometimes feel my job is meaningless.
9. Communications seems good within this organization.
10. Raises are too few and far between.
11. Those who do well on the job stand a fair chance of being promoted.
12. My supervisor is unfair to me.
13. The benefits we receive are as good as most other organization offer.
14. I do not feel that the work I do is appreciated.
15. My efforts to do a good job are seldom blocked by red tape.
16. I have to work harder at my job because of the incompetence of people I work with.
17. I like doing the things I do at work.
18. The goals of this organization are not clear to me.
19. I feel unappreciated by the organization when I think about what they pay me.
20. People get ahead as fast here as they do in other places.
21. My supervisor shows too little interest in the feelings of subordinates.
22. The benefit package we have is equitable.
23. There are few rewards for those who work here.
24. I have too much to do at work.
25. I enjoy my coworkers.
26. I often feel that I do not know what is going on with the organization.
27. I feel a sense of pride in doing my job.
28. I feel satisfied with my chances for salary increases.
29. The benefit package we have is equitable.
30. I like my supervisor.
31. I have too much paperwork.
32. I don't feel my efforts are rewarded the way they should be.
33. I am satisfied with my chances for promotion.
34. There is too much bickering and fighting at work.
35. My job is enjoyable.
36. Work assignments are not fully.

Note. Adapted from "Measurement of Human service Staff Satisfaction: development of the Job satisfaction Survey," by P. E. Spector, *American Journal of Community Psychology*, 13, 693–713. doi:10.1007/BF00929796. Copyright 1994 by American Journal of Community Psychology American; reprinted with permission (see Appendix C).

Appendix M: Work Extrinsic and Intrinsic Motivation Scale

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
|----------------------------|---------------------|-------------|------------------------|---------------------|
| Does not correspond at all | Does not correspond | Neutral (N) | Corresponds moderately | Corresponds exactly |

Place the corresponding number that matches the extent to which you feel that you perceive each of the following statements:

1. Because this is the type of work I chose to do to attain a certain lifestyle for the income it provides me.
2. I ask myself this question; I don't seem to be able to manage the important tasks related to this work.
3. Because I derive much pleasure from learning new things.
4. Because it has become a fundamental part of who I am.
5. Because I want to succeed at this job; if not, I would be very ashamed of myself. Because I chose this type of work to attain my career goals.
6. For the satisfaction I experience from taking on interesting challenges.
7. Because it allows me to earn money.
8. Because it is part of the way, in which I have chosen to live my life.
9. Because I want to be very good at this work, otherwise I would be very disappointed.
10. I don't know why we are provided with unrealistic working conditions.
11. Because I want to be a "winner" in life.
12. Because it is the type of work I have chosen to attain certain important objectives.
13. For the satisfaction, I experience when I am successful at doing difficult tasks.
14. Because this type of work provides me with security.
15. I don't know, too much is expected of us.
16. Because this job is a part of my life.

Note. Adapted from "Work Extrinsic and Intrinsic Motivation Scale: It's Value for Organizational Psychology Research." By M. A. Tremblay, C. M. Blanchard, S. Taylor, L. G. Pelletier, & M. Villeneuve, *Canadian Journal of Behavioral Sciences*, 41, 226. Copyright 2009 by *Canadian Journal of Behavioral Sciences*; reprinted with permission (see Appendix D).

Appendix N: Work Environment Scale

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
|------------|-------------------|----------------|-------------------|------------------------|
| Not at all | To a small extent | To some extent | To a large extent | To a very large extent |

Place the corresponding number that matches the extent to which you feel that you perceive each of the following statements:

1. Does what you do on the job give you a chance to apply all of your abilities?
2. Does what you do on the job help you to have more confidence in yourself?
3. To what extent do you feel nervous or tense on the job?
4. How often do you worry about going to work?
5. To what extent do you feel that you get the support you need when you are faced with difficult job problems?
6. To what extent do you find that you can use your knowledge and experiences in your job?
7. What do you think about the number of tasks imposed on you?
8. To what extent is it difficult to reconcile your loyalty to your team with loyalty to your profession?
9. How often does it happen that you have a feeling that you should have been on several places at the same time?
10. To what extent do you find that employee fairness is complicated by conflicts among management?

Note. Adapted from “Work Environment and Job Satisfaction-A Psychometric Evaluation of the Working Environment Scale-10,” by J. Rossberg, O. Eiring, & S. Friis, S., *Social Psychiatry & Psychiatric Epidemiology*, 39, 576-580, doi:10.1007/s00127-004-0791-z. Copyright 2004 by Social Psychiatry & Psychiatric Epidemiology reprinted with permission (see Appendix E).

Appendix O: Turnover Intention Scale

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
|-------------------------|--------------|-------------|-----------|----------------------|
| Extremely disagree (ED) | Disagree (D) | Neutral (N) | Agree (A) | Extremely Agree (EA) |

Place the corresponding number that matches the extent to which you feel that you perceive each of the following statement:

1. I often think of leaving the organization.
2. It is very possible that I will look for a new job next year.
3. If I could choose again, I would choose to work for the current organization.

Note. Adapted from “An Empirical Study of Turnover Intentions in Call Centre Industry of Pakistan” by M. A. S. Khan & J. G. Du, 2014. *Journal of Human Resource and Sustainability Studies*, 2, pp. 206-214. Copyright 2014 by *Journal of Human Resource and Sustainability Studies*. Reprinted with permission (see Appendix F).